# FRENCH GRAMMAR, 

or

PLAIN INSTRUCTIONS

FOR THE

## LEARNING OF FRENCH.

IN A SERIES OF LETTERS.
A NEIV EDITION.

## BY WILIIAM COBBETY.

PriNTED BY B. BENSLEY, ANDOVER, AND

PUBLISHED BY THE AUTHOR, 183, FLEET STREET, LONDON;

Digitized by the Internet Archive in 2007 with funding from Microsoft Corporation

# PC 2109 Cb 1829 

## CONTENTS.


#### Abstract

The references in this Table of Contents are made to paragraphs and not to pages; and, it will be observed, that each Letter is referred to under the number of the paragraph, with which such letter begins.


Letter Paragraph
I. Of the utility of learning French ..... 1
II. Of the way of going to work and of proceeding in the learning of French ..... 9
III. Of language and of grammar generally, and of the dif- ferent branches, or divisions, of grammar ..... 20
IV. Etymology generally. The different parts of speech, the different sorts of words ..... 29
V. Etymology of Articles . ..... 44
VI. Etymology of Nouns ..... 51
Nouns considered as Proper and Com- mon ..... 53
The Genders of Nouns ..... 54
The Numbers of Nouns ..... 66
The Articles as affecting Nouns ..... 77 to 86
VII. Etymology of Pronouns ..... 87
Personal Pronouns ..... 89
Possessive Pronouns ..... 94
Relative Pronouns ..... 96
Demonstrative Pronouns ..... 98
Indeterminate Pronouns ..... 99
VIII. Etymology of Adjectives ..... 101
Their Genders ..... 103
Their Numbers ..... 107
Their Degrees of Comparison ..... 109
IX. Etymology of Verbs ..... 112
The Persons ..... 114
The Times ..... 115
The Modes ..... 116
The Participle ..... 117
Conjugation of the verb TVer ..... 118
Verb Avoir conjugated and explained ..... 125
Verb Etre conjugated and explained ..... ib.
Reflected verbs explained ..... 128
Compound times with Ere and not Avoir ..... 132
Impersonal Verbs ..... 136
Leiter Paragraph
X. Etymology of Adverbs ..... 142
XI. Etymology of Prepositions ..... 152
XII. Etymology of Conjunctions ..... 162
XIII. On Parsing ..... 168
Collection of sentences to parse, marked from A to Z. ..... 173
XIV. The Tasks ..... 174
Mode of learning the Genders of the Nouns ..... 180
Conjugation of the Regular Verbs ..... 185
Card (or Table) exhibiting a conjugation of the Re- gular Verbs ..... 245
Card (or Table) exhibiting a conjugation of the Irre- gular Verbs ..... ib.
XV. Syntax generally considered ..... 246
XVI. Of the Points and Marks used in writing ..... 250
XVII. Syntax of Articles ..... 255
XVIII. Syntax of Nouns ..... 282
XIX. Syntax of Pronouns ..... 288
Personal Pronouns ..... 290
Possessive Pronouns ..... 306
Relative Pronouns ..... 310
Demonstrative Pronouns ..... 317
Indeterminate Pronouns ..... 322
XX. Syntax of Negatives, and of Interrogatives ..... 336
XXI. Syntax of Impersonal Verbs ..... 350
of IL Y A ..... 352
of IL EST, or C'EST ..... 356
of Il faut ..... 362
of Il fait ..... 369
of Valoir mieux ..... 370
XXII. Syntax of Adjectives ..... 371
XXIII. Syntax of Verbs ..... 379
The Number and Person ..... 382
The Times ..... 387
The Modes ..... 409
The Participles ..... 436
XXIV. Syntax of Vouloir, Pouvoir, and Devoir ..... 444
of Vouloir ..... 446
of Pouvoir ..... 447
of Devoir ..... 448
XXV. Syntax of Adverbs ..... 449
XXVI. Syntax of Prepositions ..... 453
XXVII. Syntax of Conjunctions ..... 455
XXVIII. Translation of the twenty Exercises ..... 456

## FRENCH GRAMMAR.

TO
Mr. RICHARD COBBETT.
LETTER I.

OF THE UTILITY OF LEARNING FRENCH.
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 alsoFrench ; were

I to tell you only this, you would, I hope, see a motive 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 insists 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 negociations. Few, indeed, comparatively speaking, are the persons 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 necessary to be able to speak and to write French. A young man, whether in trade of wholesale or of retail, and especially in the count-ing-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 atle to speak French is to be, during such travelling, a sort of Deaf and Dumb person. Humiliation 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 translated into English, the far greater part are not ; and, in every brunch 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 interpretress between this foreigner and the rest of the company ; 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 reasonable 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 natural 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 $a_{s}$ meritorious application of those powers. Besides these considerations, there is this : that by learning French welf you will really become 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 blenders (relating to words from the French) which are contained in his Dictionary, and of which I will here give you a specimen, He has this passage: "Rabbet: 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 further, 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 that 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,

WILLIAM COBBETT.
Kensington, 17 th June 1824.

## LETTER 11.

## ON THE WAY OF GOING TO WORK AND OF PROCEEDING IN THE LEARNING OF 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 every 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 1793 ; 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 learned 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 any thing that he is instructed to do ; they never explain to him that which be 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 to 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 the Maitre d’Anglois) 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 have 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 teaze you with Excrptions 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 aequiring of that which is useful. I shall, in the giving of my instructions, 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 surprizing 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 day 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 Prosody, 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 allthat 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 inLetter 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 cutset, 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 Exercisés. 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 Graminar : 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 any thing approaching towards perfection. There are persons enough able to utter, or to put upon paper,sentences of broken French ;

> of the way of proceeding, \&c.
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 meriting this 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 di-
vided 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 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, itwenty-four letters in their Alphabet. They are written and printed in the same form that ours are.

| A. a. | I. i. | R. r. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| B. b. | J. j. | S.s. |
| C. c. | L. l. | T. t. |
| D. d. | M. m. | U. u. |
| E. e. | N. n. | V.v. |
| F.f. | O.o. | X.x. |
| G. g. | P.p. | Y.y. |
| H. h. | Q.q. | Z. z. |

Of these the $a, e, i, o$ and $u$ are Vowels, and also the $y$, which the French call the $y$ Grec, 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, $s$; 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 remembrancer 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, * $\dagger \ddagger \S \| \Pi$, 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 $l$ ', in c'est lui, and in thousands of instances. The cedilla, or cedille, I have mentioned before. It is the tail to the $c$, thus, ( $\varepsilon$ ). The dialysis (..) called Tréma, in French ; it serves to part two vowels, which, joined together would form a Diphthong. Then there are the acute accent ('), the grave ( $\grave{e})$ and the circumflex accents ( $\hat{e}$ ). These last are things of great importance ; for des and dès are different words; so are $a$ and $\grave{c}, l a$ and $l \bar{u}$, $o u$ and $o u ̀, d u$ and $d u$. 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 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. PROSOIVY 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 $t h$; and when you are told that the word Francois is to be pronounced Frawnsey, or nearly so, of what use is it to write you down the sounds of the $o$, the $i$, and the $s$ ? When you are told, that the word parleroient is to be pronounced, parlerey, or 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 into 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 any thing 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 ourseives 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 pronunciation. 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 bave 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 of 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.
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 ORTHO-: GRAPHY, 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.

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 :

ENGLISH.
Articles, Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, Interjections.

FRENCH.
Articles, Noms, Pronoms, Adjectifs, Verbes, Adverbes, Prépositions, Conjonctions, Interjections.
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: Joln yon, 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 $a n$; 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 $u n$, 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 say, the horses whicir you bought are good. There are many Pronouns, and many important rules relating to them ; but, 1 am , in this place, endeavouring merely to give you some idea of what this Part of Speech is.
35. ADJECTIVES. The word Adjective in its literal sense, means something added. In grammar it means a word added to a noun in order to express something belonging to it, which it is necessary for us to know. For instance : send me a blue coat. If I had no adjective
sentences: as Richard and Williami 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 hissing, 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; $i n$ 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 against Articles; $s$ against Nouns, because they are also called Substantives ; adj. against Adjectives; pro. against Pronouns; v. a. against Verbs Active ; v.n. against Verbs Neuter ; adv. 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 ofien 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 $l e$ 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.

## LETTER V.

## 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 $a n$; 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, $u n$ and $l e$, 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 priuciple stated in paragraph 44.
46. The indefinite article $u n$ 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. $U n$ 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 assembiage of letters, in their language ; but it is not the same in ours. Besides this, the $u n$ 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 licres, books, which are masculine, we say, $n i$ l' un $n i$ $l^{\prime}$ 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 $l e$, 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, $d u$, des, au, aux. In the four last forms the word is a compound; it is an article united with the prepositions $d e$, of, and $\grave{a}$, to. Thus $d u$ means de le, of the, in the singular, des means de les, of the, in the plural ; $a u$ means $a ̀$ le, to the, in the singular, and aux means $a$ 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 parapraph 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 nemes 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 crities, 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 fowl 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 callirrational animals hes : 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 xery frequently say; he (the lark) sings well ; he (the horse) is an useful animal. Some few birds and beasts anke insects, we, when we speak thus figuratively,
call shes. But, neither being stirictly 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 as 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 and 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, eíther $s . m$. 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 Restaut, 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 $l e$, or $u n$, " 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 Restaut does not tell others how they are to know it, which was the very thing that was wanted. Monsieur Restaúr's rule for linowing the gender of Nouns is excellent for those who know the gender of Nouns, and quite useless to every body else. But, Monsieur Restaut was writing a Grammar of the French Language for the use of French people, who had, from their infancy, heard the le put before some words, and the la before others. It is a very different matter when the learner is of another nation.
$5 \%$. 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 iermination, 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 sounded. 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 de Lévizac 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 distinc" tive 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 eur, 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?

5S. After this Monsieur de Lévizac 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 Levizac is compelled to leare all the nouns in final $e$ mute to take their chance! Monsieur Chambaud 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 Palairet, 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, per" haps, prove more perplexing, to beginners, than instruc" tive." 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.
59. 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 $\cdot$ 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 wearisome 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 indispensable 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 languagé. 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 alnost 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.
65. But, as I ubserved just now, you are not yet to 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 beea 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. ${ }^{\text {e }}$ 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 $c h, s h, s$, 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. Singulars 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, tongs 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 $n t$ drop the $t$ and take the $s$; as un engagement, one engagement ; quatre engagemens, 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 $a u$, eau, eu, oeu, 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. | matoa, | a he cat. |
| clou, | nail. | hibou, | owl, |
| filou, | pickpocket. | loup garou, | a ferocious man. |
| licou, | halter. |  |  |

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

Rule 5. Nouns ending in al and ail change these letters into aux to form their plural ; as, un mab, an evil, plusieurs maux, many evils; uu 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; cal, 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 bals, three balls; and so on. The following nouns, ending in ail, follow the general rule, and form their plurals by adding an $s$ to the singulars.

| attirail, | splendid train. | il, | helm. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| mail, | a priest's dress. |  |  |
| detail, |  | portail, serail, | seraglio. |
| épouvantail | scare crow. |  |  |

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, ceil, eye ; yeux, eyes.
69. It would be useless to give lists of these here, because such lists could only tend to laad 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 eye is in French, the Dictionary says ail; 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 ail is yeux. 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 uriting 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 conjugations, 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 denotes 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 \%1. 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 ablow 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 brulle. We say, speaking of mankind, Man ; they say, l' Homme. This, howerer, 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 $l e$, and the second the feminine article $l a$. 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 $l^{\prime}$ is put before singular nouns of both genders ; as l'oreiller, the pillow, which is masculine ; and l'áme, the soul, which is feminine. These four nouns take the Article as follows:

| le panier, | the basket. <br> la table, | les paniers, <br> the table. | the baskets. <br> les tables, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| lhe tables, <br> l'oreiller, | the pillow. <br> l'âme, | les oreillers, <br> the soul. | the pillows. |
| les âmes, | the souls. |  |  |

The $h$ mute is, in this respect, like the vowels. L'heure (hour), which is feminine, and l'honneur (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 $l e$ or the $l a$ 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 unites itself with the little words $d e$ (of) and $\grave{d}$ (to). In paragraph 49 I have called it, when thus used, a compound.

De and A are prepositions, as you have seen in paragraph 38. which you will now look at again. De sometimes means from, and $\grave{a}$ 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, $d u$ panier; thus, this one word $d u$ answers to our two words, of the. But, if we are using a noun of the feminine gender, we must not say $d u$, 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 $d e l^{\prime}$; 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, <br> de la table, <br> de loreiller, <br> de l'âme | of the basket. <br> of the table. <br> of the pillow. <br> of the soul. | des paniers, <br> des tables, <br> des oreillers, <br> des âmes, | of the baskets. <br> of the tables. <br> of the pillows, <br> of the souls. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

What was said in the last paragraph, about the $\bar{h}$ mute, applies here also ; and we, therefore, say, de l' heure, de $l$ ' honneur , $d u$ hibou, and de la hache.

So. In like manner the French Article unites itself with the preposition $\grave{a}$ (to). In speaking of a basket instead of saying $a ̀$ le panier, we must say $a u$ 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 sav $a u$, but $a$ a la. Then, as in the case of $d u$ 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 :

| panie | to | aux paniers, | to the baskets. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| à la table, | to the table | $x$ tabl |  |
| 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'honneur, 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 écrirez; 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 Universe, we, in English, sometimes make use of the Article with the noun, and sometimes not. We say, God, Christ, heaven, hell. The French say, Dieu; but, they say, le Christ, le ciel, l'enfer. They, as well as we, say la mer, the sea, l'air, the air, la terre, the earth, le soleil, the sun, la lune, the moon. This is, however, a matter of such limited extent ; there are so few nouns of this description, that you will very soon learn to avoid errors in applying the article to them. But, when nouns are the names of whole species or sorts, the manner of applying the article in French is very different from that of applying it in English. We sometimes, in English, in speaking of animals, make use of the singular number to express a whole kind, and then we use the article; as, the dog is faithful; and, the French do the same ; as, le chien est fidele. Just take a look, for a moment, at paragraph 54, where this matter was before spoken of. In speaking of mankind, we do not use the article. We say; for instance, man is the master of other animals. The French say l'homme. They adhere to the use of the article in every such case. We, generally, in speaking of kinds, which consist of individuals, animate or inanimate, make use of the plural number, and, in such cases, use no article; as baskets are useful, owls catch mice. But, the French always put the article; as, les paniers sont utiles, les hibous attrappent les souris. We sometimes, indeed, make use of the article in cases that appear to be like these; but, it is when we do not mean the whole of a kind. We say, for instance, the apples are dear, the owls are numerous, this year. But, here we do not mean to speak of the whole of the kinds ; but
of the apples and of the owls that come somewhat within our observation or knowledge. The French make no distinctions of this sort : they always put the article. We, when we have to speak of things, the kinds of which admit not of individuality, such as sugar, water, wine, beer and the like, do not use the article; as sugar is sweet. But, 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 Racines; meaning men of the stamp of those celebrated writers ; and, in the same sort of way, we say $a$ Swift, or a Racine. 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 quelque 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,
Give me some beer,

Give me some apples, $\quad$| Donnez-moi $d u$ vin, |
| :--- |
| Donnez-moi de la bière. |
| 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 $d e$ (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 grood apples, Donnez-moi de bonnes pommes.

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 biere 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 bieree, 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.

S6. 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 $\mathcal{A} \%$ ticle, 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.

## LETTER VII.

ETYMOLOGY OF PRONOUNS.
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-andby ; 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 vorbs 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.

> SINGULAR. PLURAL.


| we, | nous. |
| :--- | :--- |
| you, | vous. |
| they, | ils. |
| they, | elles. |
| they. |  |

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, $h e$ is; of a stick, $i t$ is : but, they have $i l$ 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 bad 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.

> SINGULAR NUMBER. Nominative. Possessive. $\quad$ Objective.


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 $l e$ and lui for our him; you see $l a$ 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 $m e$ 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 $l e$ and $l a$ in this table, answering to our him and her; and this may puzzle you, because you have seen so much of the $l e$ and $l a$ as Articles. But I observed to you before, in paragraph 43 , 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 récompense. That is, send hither the messenger that I may reward him. Again : Prenez $l \underline{a}$ jument et mettez $l a$ dans $l a$ 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.

PLURAL NUMBER.
Nominative. Possessive. Objective.

| 1st Person, |  | s. | of ris, de nous. | us, you, them them |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 d Pers |  | you, vous. | of you, de vous. |  |
| 3d Pers | Masculine, | they, ils, eux. | of |  |
| - | Feminine, Neuter | they, elles. | of them, ${ }^{\prime}$ ' elles. |  |

Here seems to be a pretty confusion; for here is our they sometimes answered by $i l s$, 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, $t u$, 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 $t u$. The same may be observed as to thy and thine, of which you will see more presently.
94. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS. These do not indeed take the place of nouns; but, as they come immediately from the Personal Pronouns, it is better to place them here than any where else. They are unaffected by case, because they have nouns always with them expressed or understood. They are as follows :

## SINGULAR PERSON. PLURAL PERSON.



Here you see a great many changes of the French pro-
noun; and you see, that our one word $m y$, 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 Erglish, my father, $m y$ 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. PLURAL POSSESSION.
Masculine. Feminine. 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 siennes, |
| hers, le sien, la sienne, | les siens, les siennes, |  |
| ours, le nôtre, la nôtre, | les nôtres, les nôtres, |  |
| yours, le vôtre, la vôtre, | les vôtres, les vôtres, |  |
| theirs, 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, $d u$ mien, $d e l a$ mienne, $d e s$ miens, des miennes, au mien, $\grave{a}$ 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, generally 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:


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, atifirst 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. lequel, lesquels,

FEMININE. quelle, quelles. laquelle, lesquelles.

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

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, $c e$, 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.

| Masculine. | Feminine. |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ce or cet, this, or that. cette, <br> celui, he, or that celle, <br> celui-ci, this. or that. she, or that. <br> celui-la, that. celle-ci, | this. |  |  |
| thelle-là, | that. |  |  |

PLURAL.
Masculine.
Feminine.

| ces, |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ceux, <br> ceux-ci, <br> eeux-là, | these, or those. <br> those. <br> these. <br> those. | ces, <br> celles, <br> celles-ci, <br> celles-là,, | these, or those.' <br> those. <br> these. <br> those. |

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 $d e$ and $d$ before them occasionally; but, not the article. Observe, I beg you, the little words, $c i$ and $7 d$ (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 $l e, e n, y$, 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.

## LETTER VIII.

## ETYMOLOGY OF ADJECTIVES.

## 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 mereaccident) 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 blancs, 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 blanc, 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 French man 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 teaze 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 Dictionary for the French word to answer to our word pretty, we find joli. This tells us that, as homme is man, we may say joli homme. But, it must not be joli before femme, woman; and we want to know what it must be. The large Dictionary will, indeed, tell us; but, we cannot always have this in our hands : therefore, we seek for rules; and, in this case, we shall find them convenient and easy.
105. The feminine form is given to the Adjective by making some addition, or change, in the ending of it ; as, petit (little), petite; or, as, bas (low), basse. Our rules, therefore, must be founded on the ending of the primitive adjective; and, they are as follows.

First Rule. All Adjectives that end with an $e$ mute are of both genders. They do nct change their form on account of gender; as un homme sage, une femme sage : a wise man, a wise woman.

Second Rule. Now, generally speaking, the others only $a d d$ an $e$ mute to form their feminines; as impertinent, impertinente. And, observe, this is invariably the case with all adjectives ending with vowels; except beni, blessed, and favori, favourite. These make in their feminime, benite and favourite.

Third Rule. Adjectives ending in $f$, change the $f$ into ve ; as, positif, positive.

Fourth Rule. Adjectives ending in $c$, change the $c$ into che'; as, blanc, blanche. There are four exceptions to this rule, public, Grec, Turc, caduc, which change the $c$ into que; as, public, publique.

Fifth Rule. Adjectives ending in $n$, with an o or $i e$ before the $n$, add ne; as, bon, bonne; but, if there be not an $o$ or $i e$ before the $n$, the adjectives ending in $n$ follow the second rule; that is to say, they add an $e$ mute; as, fin, fine.

Sixtu Rule. Adjectives ending in $l$, with $e, o, u$, or $e i$; before it , add le; as cruel, cruelle. But, if the final $l$ be not preceded by one of these vowels, or by $e i$, the adjectives ending in $l$ follow the general rule, and simply take an $e$ mute in addition ; as, futil, futile. One exception there is, however, in gentil, which makes gentille.

Seventh Rule. Adjectives ending in $t$, with e or $a$ 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.

Eighti Rule. Adjectives ending in eur or eux, change them into euse; as, moqueur (sneering), moqueuse; religieux (religious), religieuse. But, of the adjectives ending in cur, the following are exceptions to this rule, and follow the second rule; that is to say, ald an $e$.

|  | Masc. | Fenr. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| anterior, | antérieur, | antérieure. |
| posterior, | postérieur, | postérieure. |
| citerior, | citerieur, | citérieure. |
| ulterior, | ultérieur, | ultérieure. |
| interior, | intérieur, | intérieure. extérierre. |
| exterior, major, | extérieur, majeur, | extérieure. majeure. |
| minor, | mineur, | mineure. |
| superior, | superieur, | supérieure. |
| 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.

| $\xrightarrow{\text { Masc. }}$ |  | Ftm. molle. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| soft, foolish, |  | molle. folle. |
| fine, | beau, | belle. |
| new, | nouvean, | nouvelle. |
| false, | faux, | fausse |
| long, | long, | longue. |
| sweet, | doux, | douce. rousse. |
| reddish, fresh, | roux, frais, | rousse. fraiche. |
| fresh, benignant, | frais, | benigne |
| benignant, malignant, | malin, | malign |
| jealous, | jaloux, | jalouse. |
| green, | verd, | verte. |

It is to be observed, that beau was formerly written bel; and we now say, bel homme, bel esprit ; and bel et bon (handsome and good), is a common phrase. Noureau was formerly written nouvel; and, there may be a case or two in which it is still used in this form. But th ese are trifling, and, indeed, almost insignificant exceptions. And to make exceptions, unless they be of importance, 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 Number, 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 adjeetive 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 be speaking of a pretty"garden, the degrees would be formed thus :

| pretty, | prettier, <br> joli, | prettiest. <br> plus joli, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

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

| pretty, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| jolie, |\(\left|\begin{array}{l}prettier, <br>


plus jolie,,\end{array} \quad\right|\)| prettiest, |
| :--- |
| la plus jolie. |

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

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 36, 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 ${ }^{\text {s in }}$ 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 foir. The verb to kill, for instance, becomes, kill;st, 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

## ETYMOLOGY OF VERBS.

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 alittle. 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 con ${ }^{4}$ fined 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 Frenth 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 Person. 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 kills, 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.

| je tue, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu tues, |
| il tue, |$\quad$| I kill, |
| :--- |
| thou killest, |
| he kills, |,$\quad$| nous tuons, |
| :--- |
| vous tuez, |
| ils tuent, |$\quad$| we kill,you kill, <br> they kill. |
| :--- |

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.

| je tuois, <br> ta tuois, | I killed, <br> thou killedst, | nous tuions, <br> vous tuiez, <br> il tuoit, | we killed, <br> you kilied, <br> he killed, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

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 tuai, <br> tu tuas, | I killed, <br> thou killedst, | nous tuâmes, <br> il tua. | we killed. <br> vous tuâtes, <br> ins killed, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | you killed, |
| :--- |
| iney 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 tuerai, <br> tu tueras, | I will kill, <br> thou wilt kill, <br> il tuera, | nous tuerons <br> he will kill, | we will kill. <br> yous tuerez, <br> ils tueront, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | you will kill, |
| :--- |
| 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 adeclaratory 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 subjoined, in the way of condition or consequence. There is some subjoined, or subiunctive, 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 it 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 :

| je tue, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu tues, |
| il tue, |$\quad$| I may kill, |
| :--- |
| thou mayest kill, |
| he may kill, |$\quad$| nous tuions, |
| :--- |
| vous tuiez, |
| ils tuent, |$\quad$| we may kill,you may kil, <br> they may kill. |
| :--- |

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 Erench verb.

| je tuerois, | I should kill <br> tu tuerois, | nous tuerions <br> thou shouldest kill, | we should kill, <br> vous tueriez, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| il tueroit, | you should kill, |  |  |
| he should kill, |  |  |  |$\quad$| ils tueroient, |
| :--- |$\quad$| they should kill. |
| :--- |

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:

| je tuasse, <br> tu tuasses, | I might kill, <br> thou mightest kill |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| il tuât, |  |$\quad$| nous tuassions, |
| :--- |
| he might kill, |$\quad$| we might kill, |
| :--- |
| vous tuassiez, |
| ils tuassent, |$\quad$| you might kill, |
| :--- |
| they might kill. |

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 the 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.

| tue, | tuons, <br> quill | let us kill, <br> tuez, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| let him kill, | quils tuent, | kill, <br> let them kill. |

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 quill and qu'ils are writen with the elision, according to the rule which you found in paragraph 24. It must not be que $i l$, because $i l$ 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 fre.
quently 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 ! 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, tueroient. Voltaire wrote tuais, 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, $\mathbf{I}$ adhere to it.-Observe, that $t^{\prime}$ 'ere 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, II To Kill.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je tue, <br> tu tues, | I kill, <br> thou killest, <br> il tue, | nous tuons, <br> vous tuez, <br> ils tuent, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we kill, |
| :--- |
| you kill,, |
| they kill. |

Past Inperfect Time.

| je tuois, tu tuois il tuoit, | I killed, thou killest, he killed, | nous tuions, vous tuiez, ils tuoient, | we killed, you killed, they killed |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

Past Perfect Time.

| je tuai, <br> tu tuas, <br> il tua, | I killed, <br> thou killedst, <br> he killed, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |$\quad$| nous tuâmes, |
| :--- |
| vous tuâtes, |
| ils tuérent, |$\quad$| we killed, |
| :--- |
| you killed, |
| they killed. |

Future Time.

| je tuerai, <br> tu tueras, | I shall kill, <br> in tue shalt kill, <br> he shall kill, | nous tuerons, <br> vous tuerez, <br> ils tueront, | we shall kill, <br> you shall kill, <br> they shall kill. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je tue, <br> tu tues, | I may kill, <br> thou mayest kill, <br> il tue, | nous tuions, <br> ve may kill, | we may kill, <br> vous tuiez, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ils tuen may kill,, |  |  |  |$\quad$| they may kill. |
| :--- |

## Past Imperfect Time.



## Past Perfect Time.

je tuasse, tu tuasses, il tuât,

I might kill, thou mightest kill, he might kill,
nous tuassions,
vous tuassiez,
ils tuassent,
we might kill, you might kill, they might kill.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

| tue, <br> qu'il tue | tuons, <br> tuez, <br> let him kill, | let us Kill, <br> qu'ils tuent, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | kill, |
| :--- |
| let him kill. |

## Participles.


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 $i t$, the verb is the same in English, so it is in French, whether it be $i l$ or elle. I have therefore thought it unnecessary to put the she or the $i t$, 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 netter. 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 goany 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 grondois, je grondai, je gronderai, je gronde, je gronderois, je grondasse. 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 parlois, je parlai, je parlerai, je parle, je parlerois, 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 thousaind 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 $e r$, make ten conjugations in the whole. There is one class which end in $i r$, 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 participle thus, we call irregular. For instance, to write is irregular ; because I cannot say writed; 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 principles and rules of Etymology, you will find, in Letter XIV., all these irregular verbs brought together under one head, or into one Task, and also an account of the ten Conjugations, and a method pointed out for learning the whole. I avoid introducing this detail here, because it would too much interrupt your progress, and carry your mind too far away from what it has already been engaged in. My business here has been to show you the principles 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 several 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 particulars relating to which I must go here; because, there is no other verb that can be used in all its capacities 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 helping, 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 : neither 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 moutcn, |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| j'avois tué un mouton. | $\begin{array}{l}\text { I have killed a sheep, } \\ \text { I had killed a sheep. }\end{array}$ |

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 huve 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 person's possessions. That is to say, his or her to have. Odd as this sounds to us, we ourselves say, a man's havings, though the word is rather out of use. Instead of saying his havings are 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 tuant, but, tuer un homme est un grand crime. One of our weights is called Avoirdupois. 'This is all French, avoir (to have) $d u$ (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 considering avoir as an auxiliary; but this digression appeared necessary, in order to show you the principle 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 Tuer 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"aie, ought to be que j'aie. 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.

Avoir, II To Have.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| j'ai, |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu as, | I have, <br> il a, | nous avons, <br> thou hast, | we have, <br> vous avez, |
| ils ont, |  |  |  |

Past Imperfect Time.

| j'avois, <br> tu avois, <br> il avoit, | I had, <br> thou hadst, <br> he had, | nous avions, <br> vous aviez, <br> ils avoient, | we had, <br> you had, <br> they had. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

## Past Perfect Time.

| j'eus, <br> tu eus, <br> il eut, | I had, <br> thou hadst, <br> he had, | nous eûmes, <br> vous eates, <br> ils eurent, | we had, <br> you had, <br> they had. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Future Time.

| j'aurai, <br> tu auras, <br> il aura, | I shall have, <br> thou shalt have, <br> he shall have, | nous aurons, <br> vous aurez, <br> ils auront, | we shall have, <br> you shall have, <br> thes shall have |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| SUBJUNCTIVE MODE |  |  |  |

## Present Time.

| j'aie, <br> tu aies, | I may have, <br> thou mayest have, <br> il ait, | nous ayons, <br> vous ayyez, <br> ils aient, | we may have, <br> you may have, <br> they may have. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Past Imperfect Time.
j'aurois, tu aurois, il auroit,

I should have, thou shouldest have, he should have,

## - Past Perfert Tinue.

| j'eusse, <br> tu eusses, il êut, | I might have, thou mightest have, he might have. | nous eussions, vous eussiez, ils eussent, | we might have, you might have they might have. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | IMPERATIVE MODE. |  |  |
| aie, qu'il ait, | have, <br> let him have, | ayons, ayez, qu'ils aient, | let us have, have, let them have. |

Participles.


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 Etre. Some write, in a part of that verb, soient, and others, soyent. I mention it, lest it should be a stumbling-block to you; but, it is, otherwise, a matter of no consequence. The verb avorr 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 ETre, 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 avorr; but, you will, by-and-by, find, that some verbs take Etre to help in the forming of their compound times. 'The French say, je suis tombé, I am fallen; and not $\mathfrak{j}$ 'ai tombé, I have fallen. You will soon see something about refiected 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.

Etre, II To Be. :

## INDICATIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je suis, <br> tu es, <br> il est, | I am, <br> thou art, | nous sommes, <br> he is, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we are, |
| :--- |
| ils ens etes, |$\quad$| you are, |
| :--- |
| they are. |

## Past Imperfect Time.

| j’étois, <br> tué tois, | I was, <br> thou wast, <br> he was, | nous étions, <br> vous étiez, <br> ils étoient, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we were, |
| :--- |
| you were, |
| they were. |

Past Perfect Time.

| je fus, <br> tu fus, <br> il fut, | I was, <br> thou wast, | nous fûmes, <br> he wass fûtes, | we were, <br> you were, <br> ils furrent, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Future Time.

| je serai, <br> tu seras, <br> il sera, | I shall be, <br> thou shalt be, <br> he shall be, | nous serons, <br> vous serez, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ils seront, | we shall be, <br> you shall be, <br> they shall be. |  |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je sois, <br> tu sois, | I may be, <br> il soit, | nous soyons, <br> he may best be, | we may be, <br> vous soyez, <br> ils soient, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | you may be, |
| :--- |
| they may be. |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je serois, <br> tu serois, | 1 should be, <br> il seroit, | nous serions, <br> the shouldest be, <br> vous seriez, <br> ils seroint, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we should be, |
| :--- |
| you should be, |
| they should be. |

## Past Perfect Time.

je fusse, tu fusses, il füt,

> I might be, thou mightest be, he might be,
nous fussions, vous fussiez, ils fussent,
we might be, you might be, they might be.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

| sois, <br> quil soit, | be, <br> let him be, |
| :--- | :--- |

soyons,
soyez,
qu'ils soient.
let us be, be, let them be.

## Participles.

 etant, || being, cté, || been.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:
> j'ai tué un mouton,
> j'avois tué un mouton, j'eus tué un mouton, j'aurai tué un mouton, j'aie tué un mouton, j'aurois tué un mouton, j'eusse tué un mouton,

I have killed a sheep, I had killed a sheep, I had killed a sheep, I shall have killed a sheep, I may have killed a sheep, I should have killed a sheep, I might have killed a sheep.

You see, it is always tue ; 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 French would stand thus:
> le faucon tue le moineau, le faucon mue, le faucon volète,

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 hinself: le faucon se tue. 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.
Present Time.
je me perche tu te perches, il se perche,
$\left|\begin{array}{l}\text { I perch, } \\ \text { thou perchest, } \\ \text { he perches, }\end{array}\right|$
nous nous perchons,
vous vous perches,
ils se perchent,
we perch, you perch,
they perch.

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, here 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, | nous nous tuons, <br> tu te tues, <br> il se tue, |
| :--- | :--- |
| 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 selves; 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 st 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, <br> tu te tues, <br> thou thee kill, |
| :--- | :--- |
| il se tue, | he himself kills, |
| nous nous tuons, | we us kill, <br> vous vous tuez, <br> ils se tuent, |
| you you kill, <br> they themselves kill. |  |

This sounds strange to us English, but not stranger than our mode of expression does to the French. I kill myselj; is just as strange to them. You will ask; perhaps, how it is, that nous nous is translated by we us. It is because nous sometimes means we, and sometimes us, And, if you think, that it will be difficult to know when it means
the one and when the other, pray observe, that we are situated in the same manner with regard to our you. You will know when it has the one meaning and when the other by its connexion with the other words of the sentence.
131. Let me add here, that when there is a Noun used with these reflected verbs, all the difference is, that the first pronoun is left out ; as,

| le faucon se perche, | the hawk perches, <br> les faucons se perchent. |
| :--- | :--- |
| the hawks perch. |  |

132. Very well, then : all this is, I think, plain enough. But, there is another material thing belonging to the reflected verb; namely, the compound times. I spoke of these times in paragraph 127, and showed you, that they were nothing more than the several parts of the verb Avoir (to have) used with the passive participle of another verb. Read that paragraph again. But, now mind, when it is a reflected verb that you are using, or any verb in the reflected form; when either of these is the case it is not the verb avoir, but the verb étre (to be) that you are to use as the auxiliary, strange as this rule may at first sound to your ears. In paragraph 127 I have given you a table, in the way of specimen, of the conjugation of the verb tuer with Avoir. Tuer is, in that paragraph, an active verb. I will now take it as a reflected verb also, and show you how it is conjugated with être as well as with avoir.
[^0]I have killed a sheep,
I have killed myself.
I had killed a sheep, I had killed myself.
I had killed a sheep,
I had killed myself.
I shall have killed a sheep, I shall have killed myself.
I may have killed a sheep,
I may have killed myself.
j' aurois tué un mouton, je me serois tué, j' eusse tué un mouton, je me fusse tué,

I should have killed a sheep, I should have killẹd myself. I might have killed a sheep, I might have killed myself.

Thius, you see, all through, it is the verb être, instead of the verb avoir, with which the verb tuer 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 Imperative Mode there is a further change ; thus:
tue un mouton,
tue-toi,
qu'il tae un mouton,
qu'il se tue,
tuons un mouton,
tuons-nous,
tuez un mouton,
tuez-vous,
qu'ils tuent un mouton,
qu'ils se tuent,
killa sheep,
kill thyself.
let him kill a sheep,
let him kill himself.
let us kill a sheep, let us kill curselves. kill a sheep,
kill yourself, or selves.
let them kill a sheep,
let them kill themselves.

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 tue, I me am killed, |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| je m' étois tué, | I me was killed, |
| je me serois tué, | I me should be killed, |
| tue-toi, | kill thou thee, |
| qu' il se tue, | that he himself kill, |
| tuons-nous, | kill we us, |
| tuez-vous, | kill you you. |

This appears monstrous; but, consider it well, and you will find, that the $m e$ 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, ami killed, was killed, shall be killed, and so on. Then, as tue, in the imperative, means, kill thou, tue-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 suis tue is, in good English, I have killed myself. Word for word, this would be, in French, $j$ ' ai tué moiméme ; but this would be bad French : or rather, it would be no French at all, any more than I me am killed, is English.
133. I have before observed, that the Reffected Verbs are denoted, in the Dictionary, by $S e$ 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 neuter verbs in general. Let us take our hawk again in the way of illustration. Tuer is an active verb as we will here use it. Se Percher (to perch) is a refected verb, But Jucher (to roost) is a neuter verb. Now, then, speaking of a hawk, we say,
il $a$ tué un moinear, il s'est perché sur l' arbre, il $a$ juché sur l' arbre,
he has killed a sparrow, he has perched on the tree, he has roosted on the tree,

The distinction here, though very nice, is very clear, and must, if you attend to it, explain the whole matter of
reflected verbs. To perch 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, <br> nous nous entre-tuions, | we kill one another, <br> we killed one another, |
| :--- | :--- |
| ils s' entre- tuent, |  |
| ils s' entre-tuoient. | they kill one another, |
| they killed one another. |  |

Then in the compound times, where we make use of $t o$ have, they make use of to be; as :
> nous nous sommes entre-tués, nous nous étions entre-tués, ils se sont entre-tués, ils s' étoient entre-tues.

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 l'un l'autre. This also means, they kill one another; and, it would seem to be tautology ; for, it says, ils se tuent, which is they kill themselves; and then comes l'un l'autre, which means, one another; so that they kill themselves and one another cilso, which would seem to be a little more than is possible. However, this sort of phrase is in common use, and that is enough for us. Though it may be bad philosophy, it is perfectly good French; and that is what we have to look after.
136. There remains now, with regard to the Etymology of Verbs, nothing to be done but to notice a particular manner of using certain verbs only in the third person. singular. When used in this manner, they are called, by some grammarians, impersonal verbs ; because they are here used only in the third person singular. Avoir, Etre, and some other verbs, are used in this way, and, for want of one more appropriate, we may as well use the appel-
lation, impersonal; for an appellation of some sort they must have.

13\%. Avoir is the principal one of these impersonals, and, in this its capacity, it is always used with il $y$; which, thus used, mean, in English, it there. Let us, then, see how this impersonal is used. Il y a un faucon sur l'arbre. You know, that $a$ means has. So that, word for word, this phrase is, it there has a hawk on the tree; though we say, there is a hawk on the tree. If you ask, what business the il (it) has there, the French might ask you what business the it has in our, it rains, it snows, it freezes. And, if you think it a sort of nonsense to say, il $y$ a un faucon sur l'arbre, I assure you that the French would think you downright mad if you were to say, $y$ est un faucon sur l'arbre. The verb avoir, when used in this way, ought, indeed, to be called $y$ avoir ; for that little word really makes a part of $i t$, and with it the verb is conjugated, precisely as in paragraph 125, only it is confined to the third person singular ; as:
il y a un faucon,
il y avoit un faucon,
il y eut un faucon,
il y aura un faucon,
il $y$ ait un faucon,
il y auroit un faucon,
il y eût un faucon,
$y$ ayant un faucon.
there is a hawk, there was a hawk, there was a hawk, there shall be a hawk, there may be a hawk, there should be a hawk, there might be a hawk, there being a hawk.

It goes through the compound times also: as il $y$ a eu un faucon ; there has been a hawk; and so on.
138. $\hat{E}_{\text {TRE }}$ is called impersonal, when it is used thus: il est rare de voir un faucon dans la ville: it is rare to see a hawk in the town. This is according to our own
manner; and, therefore, we need not bestow any more time upon it here. Sometimes the pronoun ce is used, in such cases, instead of $i l$; as, cest rare; but, we need say no more of that at present; because, when we come to the Syntax of Impersonals, which we shall in Letter XXI., we shall have a great deal to say about il est, c'est.
139. But, there is the impersonal Falloir (to be necessary), which is a verb of very great importance. It, in most cases, performs the office of our word must; but, it does more than that in some cases. The uses of this word constitute one of the great characteristics of the French idiom, viewed in comparison with our idiom. The infinitive Falloir (to be necessary) is out of use. It is never used. The active participle is also out of use ; but it has its passive participle in use. With these exceptions it is a verb that goes through all the Modes and Times in the third person singular, as :

| il faut, | it is necessary, <br> il falloit, <br> it all <br> il fallut, |
| :--- | :--- |
| il faudra, | it was necessary, |
| il faille, | it will be necessary, |
| il faudroit, | it may be necessary, <br> it should be necessary, <br> il allut, <br> il a fallu. |
| it might be necessary, |  |
| it has been necessary. |  |

This is the word for word translation. We might use requisite, needful, or any other word or words expressive of what ought to take place. Our should 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 Tuer.
il faut que je tue aujourd'hui, il falloit que je tuasser hier, il faudra que je tae demain.

I must kill to-day, I must kill yesterday, 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, inceed, 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 tue aujourd 'hui, it is necessary that I may kill to-day.
> il falloit que je tuasse hier, it was necessary that I might kill yesterday.
> il faudra que je tue 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 gele, il tonne, just as we say, it freezes, it thunclers. As to rain, indeed, they generally say, il tombe de la pluie, it falls of the rain, or, in good English, rain is fall-
ing. But these are matters that properly belong to the Syntax. Il fait, 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,

| il fait beau, <br> il fesoit beau, <br> il fit beau, <br> il fera beau. | it makes fine, <br> it made fine, |
| :--- | :--- |
| it made fine, |  |
| it will make fine. |  |

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 Conjugations 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 familiarity with avoir and étre 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 $l y$, 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 :

First. The general rule is, to add ment to the adjective to make it an adverb; as, brave, bravement; but, if the adjective end in e (with an accent, mind),
or in $i$ or $u$, it is to the masculine of the adjective that the ment is added. Adjectives ending in $e$ 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.
Masc.

- Aisé, joli, goulu,
* vite, dur,

ADVERBS.

| aisément |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| joliment |  |
| ulument, | ly, |
| tement, | quickly, |

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, doace; heureux, heureuse; for, here it must be, not francment, 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 $\dot{e}$ or an $\hat{u}$ before the ment.

## ADJECTIVES.

Exprès,
confus,
précis,
commun,
importun,
obscur,
profond,
gentil,
epérdu,
ingénu,
dû,
assidu

Exprès, confus, precis, commun, importun, obscur, profond, gentil, epérdu, ingénu, dû̀, assidu

ADVERBS.
expressément, confusément, précisément, communément, importunément, obscurément, profondément, gentîment, éperdûment, ingénûment dûment, assidûment,
expressly, confusedly, precisely, commonly, importunately, obscurely, deeply, genteely, desperately, ingenuously, duly, ássiduously.

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

| ADJECTIVES. | ADVERBS, |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Aveugle, <br> commode, <br> conforme, <br> enorme, | aveuglément, <br> commodément, <br> conformément, <br> énormément, | blindly, <br> commodiously, <br> conformably, <br> 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 emment ; as, independent, (independent), indépendamment (independently), prudent (prudent), prudemment (prudently). To this rule' there are two exceptions. Lent (slow) makes lentement, and present (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 here 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 cir-
cumstance. 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 oftenest. 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-bylittle, is a compound. In French it is much about the same. For lately, they have dernièrement, and for little-by-little they have petit-dे-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- $\grave{o}$-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 of suddenly. Sometimes ours is a compound, when the French is not: as, now-a-days, which they express by aujourd'hui. Thús, 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- $\grave{c}$-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 meanwhile 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 $c e$ 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 $A d-$ verbs; and this is the case in both languages: As, parler 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 38, 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 connexions, 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 $a$ and $d e$. 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'envoie dix $d e$ mes moutons $\grave{a}$ 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 $a$ and $d e$ 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 $d^{\prime}$ 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 fulness 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-òwis, 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 dessous (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 vou will find, that the Prepositions govern, in certain cases, the nouns and pronouns.
157. The main thing of all, however, to be observed on, 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 $\grave{d}$. But, when this $\grave{a}$ 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 $\grave{a}$ 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, J 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 healih is English.
158. It is the same with regard to the use of many other Prepositions. For exainple, we say, I play on the flute; but the French say, je joue de la fiute; 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 $d^{\prime}$ 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 inanner 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 $a d l a$ foire ; il est dans $s a$ 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.


List of Prepositions which must have the Preposition de immediately after them, or that Preposition, united with the Article, when it becomes du or des.
à cause,
à couvert, au-deçà, au-delà, au-dessus, au-dessous, au-devant, au-derrière, à côté, à fleur, à retour, aux depens, à force, aux environs, au grand regret,
à l'égard,
à l'insçu,
à l'exception,
à moins, à la réserve, à l'abri, à l'entour, à l'exclusion, à l'opposite, au lieu, à la faveur, à la mode, au moyen, au milieu, au niveau, auprès, au prix, au péril, au risque, à raison, rez de terre, au travers, en dépit, pour l'amour, vis-à-vis,
because of. sheltered from.
on the side of.
on the other side.
above.
below.
before.
behind.
by, beside.
near the edge of.
against, in return.
at the expense.
by strength of.
near about.
to the great regret of
as to.
unknown to.
excepted.
for less, or under.
reserving only, excepting.
secure from.
round about.
excluding.
opposite to.
instead of.
by favour of.
after the manner of.
by means.
in the middle of.
even with.
by, near.
at the expense of.
at the peril of.
at the risk,
at the rate.
level with the ground.
through.
in spite.
for the sake.
over against.

Besides the above, there are three or four that require $a ̀$ before the succeeding Noun or Pronoun. These are
jusque (as far as) which is written jusqu' because the à follows: as jusqu' à la rivière, as far as the river. Par rapport $a ̀$ sa maison: with respect to his house. Quànt à son argent : as for his money.
161. 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 know 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 arethe 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. Dés is from the time, and Des is of the, or some. Then again, $A$ is has, and $\grave{A}$ is to. The la is the, and the là 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 mere 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 ore 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.

## ETYMOLOGY OF CONJUNCTIONS.

## My dear Riciard,

162. 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 disjoin 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. Poser 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:s 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 den gree 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 astomy dator
166. I shall now insert the principal part of the Conjunctions in alphabetical order, with the English against each.
à cause que,
à cause de,
à condition que,
à dire vrai,
afin que,
afin ce,
ainsi,
ainsi que,
à peine,
après que,
après cela,
because.
because of.
on condition that.
to speak the truth.
to the end that.
in order to.
thus, therefore, accordingly.
like, likewise.
hardly, scarcely.
after.
after that.
après tout, à propos, à quel propos, à moins que, or de, à la rérité, attendu que, au cas que, aussi, aussi bien que, au lieu de, autant que, au reste, aussitôt que, avant que, avant de, avant que de, bien entendu que, bien loin de, bien que,

## car,

c'est-à-dire,
c'est pour quoi, c'est à dire que, c'est pour, cela que, cela étant, cela étant ainsi, ce n'est pas que, cependant, comme, comme si,
comme par exemple,
d'accord,
d'ailleurs,
d'autant que,
d'autant plus que,
de l'autre côté,
de manière que,
de même que,
de même,
de plus,
depuis,
rlepuis que,
dès que,
de sorte que,
d'ou vient-il que,
donc,
en attendant,
en attendant que,
en cas que,
encore que,
en effet,
after all, upon the wnole.
by the by.
wherefore, or to what end.
unless.
indeed, in truth.
whereas, seeing that.
in case that.
also.
as well as.
instead of.
as much as.
as for the rest.
as soon as.
before.
it being understood that.
far from, so far from.
though.
for.
that is to say.
therefore.
that is to say that.
it is for.
that that.
that being the case.
it being thus.
not but.
however, in the meanwhile.
as, whereas.
as if, as though.
as for example.
done, agreed.
besides, otherwise:
for as much as, whereas, because.
so much the more as.
on the other hand.
in such manner that.
as, just as,
in like manner.
moreover, besides.
since.
since that.
from the time that.
so that,
whence comes it that.
then, therefore.
in the mean time.
till, until that.
in case that.
although, besides that.
in effect, indeed.
enfin,
en tant que,
en tout cas,
ensuite,
en un mot,
et,
et puis,
il est vrai que,
j'en conviens,
joint que,
mais,
mais aussi,
mais encore,
mais même,
même,
mal à propos,
néanmoins,
ni,
ni plus ni moins, nonobstant que,
non plus,
non plus que,
non que, non pas que,
non seulement,
ou, or ou bien,
outre cela,
outre que,
parce que,
par conséquent,
par quelle raison,
pendant que,
pîsez le cas que,
pour cet effet,
pour conclusion,
pour lors,
pour quoi,
pourvu que,
puis,
quand,
quand même,
quand bien même,
quoique,
quoiqu'il en soit.
sans, sans que,
sans doute,
sans mentir,
savoir,
si,
si bien que,
si ce n'est que,
sinon,
si-tôt que,
finally, at last.
as, in as much as.
however, let it be as it will.
then, afterwards.
in a word.
and.
and besides.
it is true that.
I grant it.
add to that that.
but.
but also.
put besides.
but even.
even.
out of place.
nevertheless,
nor, neither.
neither more nor less.
notwithstanding that.
neither.
no more than.
not but.
not only.
or else.
besides that.
besides that.
because.
consequently.
for what reason.
whilst.
put the case that.
for this purpose.
to conclude.
then.
why, wherefore.
provided that.
then.
though, although.
although.
however it may be.
be the consequence what it will.
without.
without doubt.
truly, with truth.
to wit.
if, whether.
insomuch that.
except that.
if not, or else.
as soon as.

| supposez que, |
| :--- | :--- |
| sur tout, |
| sur quoi, |$\quad$| suppose that. |
| :--- |
| above all, especially. |
| whereupon. |
| sur ces entrefaites, |$\quad$| in the meanwhile, |
| :--- |
| while these things were |
| adoing. |, | as much as, as many as. |
| :--- |
| tant que, |
| tant s'en faut que, |
| tellement que, |
| toutefois, |
| so far from it, |
| in such a manner that. |
| vu que, |$\quad$| yet, for all that. |
| :--- |
| every time that. |

supose que, sur tout, sur ces entrefaites,
tant que,
tant s'en faut que, tellement que, toutefois, toutes les fois que, vu que,
suppose that.
above all, especially. whereupon.
Sin the meanwhile,
\{while these things were adoing.
as much as, as many as.
so far from it.
in such a manner that. yet, for all that. every time that. sceing that.
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 m:ny 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 pars, 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 werds 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 yeu 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.
A. Le Serin est, après le Rossignol l' oiseau qui chante le micux, et qui a la voix la plus forte. Il apprend aisément, quand il est jeune, à parler, et à siffler des airs de flageolet; ce qu'il fait plus facilement que le Pingon, et il le fait mieux.

The Canary is, after the Nightingale, the bird which sings the best, and which has the strongest voice. It learns easily, when it is young, to talk, and to whistle tunes of the flageolet ; which it does more readily than the Chafinch, and it does it better.

| Le, | Art | The, | Article. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Serin, | noun. | Canary, | noun. |
| est, | verb. |  | verb. |
| après, | preposition | after, | preposition. |
| le, | article. | the, | article. |
| 'Rossignol, | noun. | Nigltingale, | noun. |
|  | article. | the, | rticle. |
| oiseau | noun. | bird, | noun |
| qui, | relative pronoun. | Which, | relative pronoun. |
| chante, | verb. | sings, | yerb. |
| le, | article. | the, | article. |
| mieux, | adverb | best, | ver |
| et, | conjunction. |  | njunction |
| qui, | relative pronoun. | which, | lative pronoun. |
| a, | verb. | has, | b |
| la, | article. | the, | article |
| voix, |  |  | adjective. |
| la plus, forte, | adverb. adjective. | voice, | noun. |
|  | pronoun. | It, | pronoun. |
| apprend, | verb. | learns, | verb. |
| aisément, | adverb. | easily, | adverb. |
| quand, | adverb. | when, | dverb. |
| il, | pronoun. |  | pronoun |
| est, | verb. |  |  |
| jeune, | adjective. | young, | adjective. |
| à, | preposition |  | preposition. |
| parler, | verb. | talk, | erb. |
| et, | conjunction. | and, | conjunction. |
| à, | preposition. |  | preposition. |
| siffler, des, | verb. <br> article united | whistle, tunes, | verb. <br> noun. |
|  | article united with preposition. $\}$ | tunes, | noun. |
|  | noun. | of, | preposition. |
| de, | preposition. |  | article. |
| flageolet, | noun. | flageolet, | noun. |
| ce qu', | pronoun. | which, | relative pronoun. |


| il; | pronoun. | it, | pronoun. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| fait, | verb. | does, | verb. |
| plus, | adverb. | more, | adverb. |
| facilement, | adverb. | readily, | adverb. |
| que, | eonjunction. | than, | conjunction. |
| le, | article. | the, | article. |
| Pinçon, | noun. | Chaffinch, | noun. |
| et, | conjunction. | and, | conjunction. |
| il, | pronoun. | it, | pronoun. |
| le, | pronoun. | does, | verb. : |
| fait, | verb. |  | pronoun. |
| mieux. | adverb. | berter, | adverb. |

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 le fuit mieux; that is, he does it better; but we say, it does it better. The Canary-Bird is a he 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 slur 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, Luciniola, qu'on a formé le nom de Rossignol. Cette étymologie est beaucoup meilleure que toutes celles données sur le nom de cet oiseau.
C. Le moineau est un oiseau trés commun : il pèse 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, blanchâtre. Il est plas petit que le moineau; le sommet de sa tête est noir,

It is from the Latin name, Luciniola, 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 nore 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,
ses mâchoires sont blanches de même que le derrière de sa tête.
E. Le chant de l'alouette est très divertissant; il est varié ; les bémols et les béquarres s'y ${ }^{\circ}$ distinguent très-bien.
F. Le pinçon est un oiseau un peu plus petit qu' un moineau; sa queue est assez longue; le mâle a la poitrine roussâtre; le bec plombé, la tête blanchâtre; la partie postérieure du dos d'un cendré-vert, et l'antéricure grise; le tour des yeux, la gorge, la poitrine et les côtés tannés; le cou ceint de la même couleur, rougeâtre; les ailes noires, avec une triple tache blanche.
G. Les champs ouverts ont, comme les jardins, leurs fruits particuliers à chaque saison de l'année.
H. Les abeilles, ou mouches à miè, 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 riche et des plus surprenantes productions de la nature, n'offre pas moint que les abeilles, de l'utile, de l'agréable, et même du merveilleux.
the same as the back of its bead

The singing of the lark is very diverting ; it is varied; the Bs flat and the Bs 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 bas a reddish breast; the beak leadcolnured, the head whitish; the hinder part of the back of a green-ash colour, and the forepart grey; round the cyes, the throat, the breast and sides tancoloured; 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 particularr 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.
J. Le Paon, oiseau fort connu à cause de la brauté de sa queue, magnifiquement parée de diffé. rentes coulears et qui semble représenter de grands yeux.
K. Les pigeons communs sont, ou fuyards ou domestiques; les derniers ne quittent presque pas la maison, mais les autres vont chercher leur vie au loin; les uns ni les autres ne perchent point sur les arbres, et ils different par-là du pigeon ramier, qui habite les bois.
L. Pour reussir à élever des poules, il faut savoir les choisir.
M. La 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, font beaucoup de profit, d'autant qu'elles vivent très'long-temps; elles sont assez vigilantes pour servir de sûre garde la nuit, au moindre bruit elles s'éveillent, et jettent de grânds cris qui avertissent.
O. Des canards domestiques, canes et canetons. Ces trois mots désignent le père, la mère et le petit; le mâle cst plus gros

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 race that come from India (turkeys) are very profitable, because they multiply mueh, easily and often.

The feathers of geese, their flesh, their grease, 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 suffieiently vigilant, to serve as a sure guard in the night; at the smallest, noise they wake and give loud cries which warn.

Tame drakes, ducks, and ducklings. These three words designate the father, the mother and the young one; the male is
que la femelle, et se disdingue encore à son cou qui est ' $q$ ' un vert doré et changeant ; "il a quelques plumes de la quene retroussées vers son extrémité supérieure.
P. Le cochon est un animal, sale, gourmand, et qui fait du dégât partout où ịl passe; cépendant, c'est un de ceux qui font le plus de profit, parce qu' une truie porte deux fois l'année et donne, chaque fois,depuis dix jusqu' à quinze cochons. Le cochon réussit dans tous le pays, et il est d'un très-grand usage.
Q. Les farines de toutes les graines, extraites par une suffisante quantité d' eau, et abandonnées à elles-mêmes au degrê de chaleur propre à la fermentation spiritueuse, subissent naturellement la fermentation, et sont métamorphosées en veritable liqueur.
R. Comme aliment ordinare, comme assaisonnement, comme remède, le lait est d'un excellent produit.
S. Le jardinage rénnit toutes les opérations de l'agriculture, mais sous ou rapport plus circonscrit et plus agréable; car il exige des connaissances particulières et très-étendues.
T. L' exercise de la chasse ne peut être, comme tout autre, que
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 yields the most profit, because a sow farrows twice a year, and has, each time, from ten to fifteen pigs. The 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 spirituous fermentation, naturally undergoes the fermentation and is metamorphosed into real spirituous liquors.

As ordinary food, as an ingredient, as a remedy, milk is 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 cannot but be, like every other, favour-
favorable à la santé ; c'est l'exercice le plus sain pour le corps, et le repos Ie plus agréable pour l'esprit.
U. La pêche est un agréable passe-temps qu'on peut prendre à la campagne ; elle est divertissante, utile et d'une pratique facile pour pen 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'liver, sont trésamusantes.
r W. Le cheval est celui de tous les animaux qui, avec une grande taille, a le plus d'elégance et de proportion dans les parties du corps. C'est le plus necessaire, le plus noble de tous les animaux domestiques.

* X. L' ane est d'un tempérament mélancolique, patient et laborieux, mais fort-obstiné ; il porte des fardeux considérables pour sa grosseur: il tire à la charrette, et à la charrue dans les terres legères: 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 fécondité, leur toison, leur chair, leur lait, leur graisse, leurs peaux, leur fumier même.
able 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 pastime 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 amusing.

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 necessary, the most noble, of all domestic animals.

The ass is of a gloomy temper, 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, which yield the greatest profit, from their fecundity, their fleece, their flesh, their milk, their fat, their skins, even their dung. A flock

Un troupeau est l'âme d'une $\mid$ is the soul of a farm. 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 charrue, peu sujet aux maladies, et aisé à en guérir ; il vit assez long-temps; il ne lui faut presque point de harnois, quoiqu'il n'y ait pas d'animal qui soit plus propre à labourer.

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 easily cured of them; he lives to a pretty good age; there wants scarcely any harness for him, though there is no animal more fit for the plough.

## LETTER XIV.

RELATING TO THE GENDERS OF NOUNS, AND TO THE CONJUGATIONS AND THE IRREGULARITIES OF VERBS.

## My dear Richard,

174. I now come to those cumbrous masses of words, which, if they had been introdueed before, would have wholly broken asunder that chain of instruction, which I wished to keep entire. In paragraphs 64 and 65, I put off, as you will recollect, what I had further to say on the Gemders of Nouns; and, you will also recollect, that, in paragraphs 121 and 122, I put off what I had further to say on the ten Conjugations of Regular Verbs, and on the Irregclar Verbs. If you now read again paragraph 192 , it will not be necessary for me to say, in this place, any thing further respecting my reasons for having thus postponed the details upon these three subjects. These details I shall now give, under the three heads just named ; and I call these so many tasks, because this word implies a rather laborious affair. Indeed that which you will find pointed out by this Letter is mere labour for the hand, the eye, and the memory. The genders of Nouns belonged ta the Etymology of Nouns; the Conjugations and Irregularities of Verbs belonged to the Etymology of Verbs ; and, the principles relating to them were sufficiently dwelt on in the proper places: but, the details, the - lists, the mere memory-part, could not be gone into there, without making, in your study of principles, chasms too wide. Having gone through the Etymology 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. Gur 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 lastmentioned 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, in 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 $l e$ or the $l a$ 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 verv 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.
B.
C.
un aune ; an alder tree. de bon babeurre. une aune: an ell. la barbine. de bon argent. le bac.
D.
E.
le daim.
le damas.
la danse.
de bonne eau. une ébauche. un éblouissement.
la capote. la caque. le couteau.

## F.

de bon froment.
la framboise.
le framboisier.
G.

- H.
de bonnes hardes. une image.
la hache.
le haricot.
Y.
une yeuse.
un œil.
un œuf. une oye.
R.
le renard.
la récompense.
la récolte.
une urne.
un usage.
une usance.
と.
la pomme.
la poire. le puits.
S.
J.
la junnesse.
le jeûne.
le jeu.
N.
le nain.
Ia nageoire.
la naissance.
Q.
le quaiche. le quartaud. In quartre.
T.
le tabac.
la table.
la tache.
le genre.
la gazette.
le golfe.
,
before vacances, which denotes the gender as clearly as the adjective bonnes would do it.

182. You will observe, that I have merely given a specimen under each letter of the alphabet. I have not taken the nouns which stand first under each letter. But you will begin at the first noun under $A$, and will write down every one, in the order in which you find it placed in the Dictionary. Observe, however, that where the same noun has several distinct significations, and is, therefore, repeated several times in the Dictionary; as in the case of the noun mot, you need write the word down but once; unless, indeed, as is sometimes the case, the same noun, that is to say, a noun consisting of the same letters, and those letters placed in the same order, be masculine in one sense and feminine in another. This is the case with regard to the two nouns which stand first under the letter $A$ in the foregoing specimens; and also in the case of the two first nouns under the letter L. When this is the case it will be useful to write down the English of the words, as I have done in the two cases just pointed out.
183. Now, this is the Task ; and, some labour it certainly does require ; but, it does not require any great deal of labour. The whole of the nouns may 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 spoken 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 diffe-: rent conjugations. You have seen that Tuer (to kill): becomes tue, tuons, tuez, tuent. But, Agir (to act) becomes, in some cases, agis, agissons, agissez, 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 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 aire of the sixth, in indre of the seventh, in oitre of the eighth, in uire 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. Yuu 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 agiz, 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 paragriph 118. The verbs which I shall take for this purpose are the following:

| 1. Tuer, | to kill. |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2. AGIR, | to act. |
| 3. MENTIR, | to lie. |
| 4. Ventr, | to come. |
| 5. Devoir, | to owe. |
| 6. Faire, | to make, or do. |
| 7. Joindre, | to join. |
| 8. Croitre, | to grow. |
| 9. Coire, | to cook. |
| 10. Vendre, | 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 eonjugation end in $e r$, those of the second in ir, of the third in tir, the fourth in enir, the fifth evoir, the sixth aire; the seventh oindre, the eighth oitre, the ninth uire; and the tenth endre 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. l. When there is a $g$ immeriately before the $e r$, 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 nagois ; but, this would introduce the hard sound of gois: we, therefore, say, je nageois. And, in the active participle, we say, nageant; and not nagant.2. When a question is asked, and the verb is immediately followed by the pronoun $j e$, the $e$ is changed into an $e ́:$ as tué-je? Kill I?-3. Verbs which end in uyer, oyer, 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, $j{ }^{\prime}$ appelle, and not ${ }^{\prime}$ 'appele; 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 traçois, il traçáa.-These irregularities amount to very little; and all the verbs in er are to be considered as regulur, 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 $t$ put between the verb and the $i l$ or elle, with a double hyphen; thus : tue-t-il? does he kill ? tua-t-il? did he kill? This is merely for the sake of the sound, which, without the $t$, would be very disagreeable

## INFINITIVE MODE

Tuer, || To Kill, INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| je tue | I kill <br> tu tues <br> il tue | thou killest <br> he kills |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | nous tuons |
| :--- |
| vous tuez |
| ils tuent |$\quad$| we kill |
| :--- |
| you kill |
| they kill |

Pust Imperfect Time.

| je tuois | I killed <br> tu tuois | nous tuions <br> thou killedst | we killed <br> vous tuiez <br> ils tuoit |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he killed | you killed <br> they killed |  |  |

## Past Perfect Time.

| je tuai | I killed <br> tu tuas | nous tuâmes <br> il tuou killedst |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he killed | ve killed <br> vous tuâtes <br> ils tuerent | you killed <br> they killed |

Future Time.

| je tuerai | I shall kill <br> tu tueras | nous tuerons <br> thou shalt kill <br> il tuera | we shall kill <br> vous tuerez <br> ils tueront |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | you shall kill |
| :--- |
| they shall kill |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| ie tue <br> tu tues <br> il tue | I may kill <br> thou mayest kill <br> he may kill | nous tuions <br> vous tuiez <br> vils tuent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | we may kill <br> yon may kill <br> they may kill |  |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je tuerois |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu tuerois | I should kill <br> thou shouldest kill <br> il tueroit | nous tuerions <br> vous tueriez <br> ils tuerould kill | we should kill <br> you should kill |
| ils tueroient | they should kill |  |  |

Past Perfect Time.

| je tuasse <br> tu tuasses | I might kill <br> thou mightest kill <br> il tuât | nous tuassions <br> ve might kill <br> vous tuassiez |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we might kill |
| :--- |
| you might kill |
| they might kill |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

| qu'il tue | kill | tuons tuez qu' | let us kill kill |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| qu'il tue | let him kill | qu' ils tuent | let them kill |

Participles.
tuant
tué $\left|\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{l}\text { killing } \\ \text { killed }\end{array}\right.\right.$

H
199. 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 the fourth, as you have seen in paragraph 189. But, these two end in tir and enir. Of the second conjugation, the verb on the opposite page is one. There are about 200 verbs of this second conjugation.-II 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 étre 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 mays and mights and shoulds or woulds 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 tuant, 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 Tuer; but, this participle is sometimes tué, at others, tués, at others, tuée, and at others, tuées. 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.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Agir \| To Act.
INDICATIVE MODE.
Present Time.

| j agis tu agis <br> il agit | 1 act thou actest he acts | nous agissons vous agissez ils agissent | we act you act they act |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Past Imperfect Time. |  |  |  |
| j' agissois tu agissois il agissoit | I acted thou actedst he acted | nous agissions vous agissiez ils agissoient | we acted you acted they acted |

Past Perfect Time.

| j' agis | I acted <br> tu agis | nous agîmes <br> thou actedst | we acted <br> vous agites |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| il agit | he acted | you acted |  |
| ils agirent | they acted |  |  |

Future Time.

| j' agirai | I shall act <br> tu agira | nous agirons <br> thou shalt act | we shall act <br> vous agirez <br> il agira |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he shall act | you shall act |  |  |
| ils agiront | they shall act |  |  |

SUBJUNCTIV́E MODE.
Present Time.

| j' agisse <br> tu agisses | I may act <br> thou mayest act | nous agissions <br> vous agissiez <br> ils agisse | we may act <br> you may act |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he may act |  | they may act |  |

## Past Imperfect Time.

j' agirois
tu agirois il agiroit

I should act thou shouldest act he should act
nous agirions vous agiriez ils agiroient
we should act you should act they should act

## Past Perfect Time.

| j' agisse | I might act | nous agissions |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu agisses | thou mightest act might act |  |
| vous agissiez | you might att |  |
| il agit | he might act | ils agissent | | they might act |
| :--- |

## IMPERATIVE MODE.


$\left|\begin{array}{l}\text { agissons } \\ \text { agissez } \\ \text { qu' ils agissent }\end{array}\right|$
let us act
act let them act

Participles.

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:

| Consentir, | to consent. | Resentir, | to resent. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Démentir, | to give the lie. | Ressortir, | to go out again. |
| Desservir, | to clear the table. | Sentir, | to feel. |
| Mentir, | to lie. | Servir, | to serve. |
| Partir, | to set out. | Se Repentir, | to repent. |
| Pressentir, | to foresee. to set out again. | Sortir, | to go out. |

You will see, that several of these verbs are derived from others of them; as répartir 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 Frencl. Scntir, for instance, means, sometimes, to smell; and répartir 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, hall, 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 ${ }_{2}$ instead of capitals, in order to save room.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

## Mentir II To Lie.

INDICATIVE MODE.
Present Time.

| j e mens | l lie <br> tu mens | thou liest <br> il ment | nous mentons <br> vous mentez |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he lies | ye lie |  |  |
| ils mentent | you lie |  |  |
| they lie |  |  |  |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je mentois | I lied <br> tu mentois | nous mentions <br> thoa liedst |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| il mentoit | he lied | we lied |
| vous mentiez | you lied <br> ils mentoient | they lied |


| je mextis tu mentis il mentit | I lied thou liedst he lied | nous mentîmes vous mentites ils mentirent | we lied you lied they lied |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Future Time. |  |  |  |
| je mentirai tu mentiras il mentira | I shall lie thou shalt lie he shall lie | nous mentirons vous mentirez ils mentiront | we shall lie you shall lie they shall lie |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| 3e mente <br> tu mentes <br> il mente | I may lie <br> thou mayest lie <br> he may lie | nous mentions <br> vous mentiez <br> ils mentent. | we may lie <br> you may lie <br> they may lie |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Past Imperjeci Time. |  |  |  |

## Past Perfeci Tims.

| je mentisse | I might lie <br> tu mentisses | nous mentissions <br> thou mightest lie <br> il mentit | we might lie <br> vocs mentissiez <br> ils mentissent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| you might lie <br> they might lie |  |  |  |

## imperative mode.

| mens <br> qu'il mente | lie <br> let him lie | mentons <br> mentez <br> qu'ils mentent | let us lie <br> lie <br> let them lie |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Pariciples.
mentant menti
lying
lied.
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 :

| S' Apercevoir, | to perceive. <br> to conceive. | Percevoir, <br> Recevoir, | to levy, or collect. <br> to receive. <br> Devoiroir, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | to owe. |
| :--- | :--- |$\quad$| Redevoir, |
| :--- |$\quad$| to owe again. |
| :--- |

There is the verb decevoir; but it is no longer in use. Devoir, 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.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Devoir ॥ To Owe.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

## Prespnt Time.

| je dois <br> tu dois <br> il doit | I owe <br> thou owest <br> he owes | nous devons <br> vous devez <br> ils doivent | we owe <br> you owe <br> they owe |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je devois | I owed <br> thou devois | nous devions <br> thou owedst |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| il devoit | he owed | we owed <br> ils devoiez |
| you owed |  |  |
| they owed |  |  |

Past Perfect Time.

| je dus <br> tu dus <br> il dut | I owed <br> thou owedst <br> he owed | nous dîmes <br> vous dûtes <br> ils durent | we owed <br> you owed <br> they owed |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Future Tivie.

| je devrai | I shall owe <br> tu devras | nous devrons <br> thou shalt owe <br> he shall owe | we shall owe <br> vous devrez <br> ils devront |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | you shall owe |
| :--- |
| they shall owe |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| je doive | I may owe <br> tu doives | nous devions <br> thou mayest owe | we may owe <br> vous deviez |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| il doive | he may owe may owe |  |  |
| lis doivent | they may owe |  |  |

Past Imperfect Time.
je devrois tu devrois il derroit

| $\begin{array}{l}\text { I should owe } \\ \text { thou shouldest owe } \\ \text { he should owe }\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{l}\text { nous devrions } \\ \text { vous devriez } \\ \text { ils devroient }\end{array}$ |
| :--- | :--- | \(\begin{aligned} \& we should owe <br>

\& you should owe <br>
\& they should owe\end{aligned}\)

- Past Perfect Time.
tu dusses il dùt

| I might owe <br> thou mightest owe <br> he might owe | nous dussions <br> vous dussiez <br> ils dussent |
| :--- | :--- | | we might owe |
| :--- |
| you might owe |
| they might owe |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Participles.

196. SIXTH CONJUGATION. These are the verbs ending in aire ; and, there are seven of them as follows :

| Contrefaire, | to counterfeit. <br> to undo. <br> Défaire, | Redéfaire, <br> to do, or to make, <br> to do again. | to undo again. <br> Satisfaire, <br> Surfaire, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | to satisfy. |
| :--- |
| to overdo. |

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 Jomsson, 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 fy manifestly fait, or faite? 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 fay; meaning, it does not do, it does not go on well. Many of our words, ending in $f y$, come, in part, from this French word faire; and many others which end in ait or eit. Our word surfeit is, indeed, French, if the $e$ were exchanged for an $a$. Sur is over, and feit (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.

INFINITIVE MODE.
Faire II To Do. INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| je fais <br> tu fais <br> il fait | I do <br> thou doest | he does |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |$\quad$| nous faisons |
| :--- |
| vous faites |
| ils font |$\quad$| we do |
| :--- |
| you do |
| they do |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je fesois | I did <br> tu fesois | nous fesions <br> thou didst | ve did <br> vous fesiez <br> ils fesoit |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he did | you did |  |  |
| they did |  |  |  |

## Past Perfect Time.

| je fis | I did <br> tu fis | thou didst <br> il fimes | vous fites <br> ve did |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | you did |
| :--- |
| yous firent |$\quad$| they did |
| :--- |

Future Time.

| je ferai <br> tu feras | I shall do <br> il fera | nous ferons <br> thou shalt do <br> vous ferez |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ils feront |  |  |$\quad$| we shall do |
| :--- |
| you shall do |
| they shall do |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je fasse | I may do <br> tu fasses | nous fassions <br> thou mayest do <br> il fasse | we may do <br> re may do fassiez |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | ils fassent |
| :--- |

Past Imperfect Time.
je ferois tu ferois il feroit

| I should do <br> thou shouldest do <br> he should do | nous ferions <br> vous feriez <br> ils feroient | we should do <br> you should do <br> they should do |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

Past Perfect Time.

| je fisse <br> tu fisses | I might do <br> il fit | nous fissions <br> vous fissiez |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he might do |  |  |$\quad$| we might do |
| :--- |
| you might do |
| yissent |

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

| fais | do <br> qu'il fasse |
| :--- | :--- |
| let him do |  |


| fesons <br> faites <br> qu'ils fassent | let us do <br> do <br> let them do |
| :--- | :--- |

Participles.
$\underset{\text { fait }}{\text { fesant }}$
doing
done.
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:


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 craignois, je cragnis, je craindrai, and so forth. And, if you take feindre, you say, je feins, je feignois, je feignis, je feindrai. 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.

INFiNITIVE MODE.
Joindre if To Join.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je joins <br> tu joins <br> il joint | I join <br> thou joinest <br> he joins | nous joignons <br> vons joignez <br> ils joignent | we join' <br> you join <br> they join |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Past Imperfect Time. |  |  |  |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| je joigne <br> tu joignes | I may join <br> thou mayest join <br> il joigne | nous joignions <br> vous joigniez <br> he may join |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we may join |
| :--- |
| ils joignent may join |$\quad$| they may join |
| :--- |

Past Inverfect time.

$\left.$| je joindrois |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu joindrois |
| il joindroit |$\quad$| I should join |
| :--- |
| thou shouldest join |
| he should join | \right\rvert\, | nous joindrions |
| :--- |
| vous joindriez |
| ils joindroient |$\quad$| we should join |
| :--- |
| you should join |
| they should join |

Past Perfect Time.

| je joignisse <br> tu joignisses <br> il joignitt | I might join <br> thou mightest join <br> he might join | nous joignissions <br> vous joignissiez <br> ils joignissent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we might join |
| :--- |
| you might join |
| they might join |

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

|  | joignons |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| joins <br> qu'il joigne | join <br> let him joignez <br> qu'ils | let us joignent <br> join |
| let them join |  |  |

Participles.
$\underset{\text { joint }}{\text { joignant }} \| \left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & \text { joining } \\ & \text { joined. }\end{aligned}\right.$
198. EIGHTH CONJUGATION. The verbs of this conjugation end in oitre. They are nine in number, as follows :


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 ( ${ }^{\wedge}$ ) 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, maistre, estre, instead of maître and être ; and the ${ }^{\wedge}$ is put to signify the omission of the $s$. It is the £ame with croitre, which used to be written croistre.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Croitre II To Grow.
INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| je crois | I grow <br> tu crois <br> il croit | nous croissons <br> thou growest |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he grows | we grow <br> vous croissez <br> ils croissent | you grow <br> they grow |

Past Imperfect Time.
je croissois tu croissois il croissoit

I growed
thou didst grow
he growed
nous croissions vous croissiez ils croissoient
we growed you growed they growed

## Past Perfect Time.

| je crus <br> tu crus <br> il crut | I growed <br> thou growedst | nous crûmes <br> vou crûtes <br> ils crûrent | we growed <br> you growed <br> they growed |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he growed |  |  |  |

Future Time.

| je crôitrai | I shall grow <br> tu croîtras | thou shalt grow <br> il croîtra |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he shall grow | nous croitrons <br> vous crôtrez <br> ils croitront | we shall grow <br> you shall grow <br> they shall grow, |

## SUB.JUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

$\left.$| je croisse <br> tu croisses <br> il croisse | I may grow <br> thou mayest grow <br> he may grow | nous croissions <br> vous croissiez <br> ils croissent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we may grow <br> you may grow <br> thev may grow |
| :--- |
| Past Imperfect Time. |
| je croîtrois <br> tu croitrois <br> il croitrois | | I shall grow |
| :--- |
| thou shouldest grow |
| he should grow |$\quad \right\rvert\,$| nous croitrions |
| :--- |
| vous croitriez |
| ils croitroient |$\quad$| we should grow |
| :--- |
| you should grow |
| they should grow |

Past Perfect Time.
je crusse ${ }^{\text {tu }}$ crusses il crût

I might grow thou mightest grow he might grow

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

## Participles.

## let us grow grow let them grow

we might grow you might grow they might grow

## grow

let him grow
croissons
croissez
qu'ils croissen
you should grow they should grow
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 irregubarity, which will be noticed when I have given you the list.

| Conduire, | to conduct. | Luize, | to shine, to give light. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Construire, | to construct. | Nuire, | to hurt. |
| Cuire, | to cook. | Produire, | to produce. |
| Déquire, | to deduct | Reconduire, | to reconduct. |
| Détruire, | to destroy. | Recuire, | to cook again. |
| Enduire, | to plaster over. | Réduire, | to reduce. |
| Induire, | to induce. | Reluire, | to glitter, to shine. |
| Introduire, | to introduce. | Séduire, | to seduce. |
| Instruire, | to instruct. | Traduire, | to translate. |

Luire, Reluire and Nuire, are irregular in their passive participle, where they drop the $t$; and, instead of luit, reluit, and muit, they make lui, relui, and nui. 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 walling" 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.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Cuire II To Cook.
INDICATIVE MODE.
Present Time.

| je cuis |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu cuis |
| il cuit |$\quad$| I cook |
| :--- |
| thou cookest |
| he cooks |,$\quad$| nous cuisons |
| :--- |
| vous cuisez |
| ils cuisent |$\quad$| we cook |
| :--- |
| you cook |
| they cook |

Past Inverfect Time.

| je cuisois | I cooked <br> tu cuisois | nous cuisions <br> thou cookedst <br> il cuisoit | we cooked <br> vous cuisiez <br> ils cuisoient |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | you cooked |
| :--- |
| they cooked |

Past Perfect Time.

| je cuisis | I cooked <br> tu cuisis <br> il cuisit | nous cuisimes <br> thou cookedst <br> he cooked |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

Future Time.

| je cuirai <br> tu cuiras | I shall cook <br> thou shalt cook | nous cuirons <br> vous cuirez <br> il cuira | we shall cook <br> he shall cook |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | ils cuiront |
| :--- |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| je cuise | 1 may cook | cuisions | we may cook |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| es | thou mayesi cook | ou |  |
| il cuise | he may cook | ils cuisent | they may cook |

Past Imperfect.

| je cuirois <br> to cuirois | I should cook <br> thou shouldest coo $^{\circ}$ | noas cairions <br> vous cuiriez <br> il cuiroit |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | he should cook should cook |
| :--- |$\quad$| you should cook |
| :--- |
| ils cuiroient |$\quad$| they should cook |
| :--- |

Past Perfect TZ̈ine.
je cuisisse
tu cuisisses
il cuisît

| I mirht cook |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| thou mightest coo? | $\begin{array}{l}\text { nous caisissions } \\ \text { he might cook cuisissiez }\end{array}$ |
| vous cuisissent |  |

we might cook you might cook they might cook

IMPERA'TIVE MODE.

|  | cuisons <br> cuis <br> qu' il cuise | cook <br> let him cook |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | let us cook |
| :--- |
| qu'ils cuisent |$\quad$| cook |
| :--- |
| let them cook |

Pa:ticiples.
cuisant || cooking cuit || cooked.
200. TENTH CONJUGATION. These are verbs, which end in endre and ondre. There are twenty-three of them, as follows :

| Attendre, | to wait for. | Perdre, | to lose. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Condescendre, | to condescend. | Pondre, | to lay egg |
| Confondre, | to confound | Prétendre, | to pretend |
| Correspondre, | to correspond. | Refondre, | to recast. |
| Descendre, | to descend. | Rendre, | to render |
| Entendre, | to hear. | Répandre, | to spread. |
| Etendre, | to extend. | Répondre, | o answer |
| Fendre, | to split. | Tendre, | bend. |
| Fondre, | to melt. | Tondre, | to shear. |
| Mordre, | to bite. | Tordre, | to twist. |
| Morfondre, | to give cold to. | Vendre, | to sell. |
| Pendre, | to hang. |  |  |

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 tondre instead of vendre, I should say, je tonds, je tondois, and so on ; and, in the participles, I should say, tondant 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 conjuga-tion.-But, there are three verbs, which are deemed to be of this conjugation, and which end in rdre: perdre, mordre, tordre. They are conjugated in the same manner as vendre. They are, therefore, inserted in the above list.

## INFINITIVE MODE.

Vendre II To Sell.
INDICATIVE MODE.
Present Time.

| je vends | I sell <br> tu vends | nous vendons <br> thou sellest <br> vous vendez | we sell <br> you sell <br> ils vend |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he sells |  |  |  |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je vendois <br> tu vendois <br> il vendoit | I sold <br> thou soldest <br> he sold | nous vendions <br> vous vendiez <br> ils vendoient |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we sold |
| :--- |
| you sold |
| they sold |

Past Perfect Time.

| je vendis | I sold <br> tu vendis <br> il vendit | nous vendîmes <br> thou soldest |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he sold |  |  |

Future Time.

| ie vendrai | I shall sell <br> tu vendras <br> il vendra | nous vendrons <br> thou shalt sell <br> he shall sell | ve shall sell <br> vous vendrez <br> ils vendront |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | you shall sell |
| :--- |
| they shall sell |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je vende | I may sell <br> tu vendes <br> il vende | thou mayest sell <br> he may sell |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | nous vendions |
| :--- |
| vous vendiez |
| ils vendent |$\quad$| we may sell |
| :--- |
| you may sell |
| they may sell |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je vendrois. | I should sell <br> tu vendrois <br> il vendroit | nous vendrions <br> thou shouldest sell <br> vous vendriez <br> vould sell |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we should sell |
| :--- |
| ils vendroient | | you should sell |
| :--- |
| they should sell |

Past Perfect Time
je vendisse
tu rendisses
il vendit

| I might sell <br> thou mightest sell <br> he might sell | $\|$nous vendissions <br> vous vendissiez <br> ils vendissent |
| :--- | :--- |$|$

we might sell you might sell they might sell

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

|  |  | vendons <br> vends <br> qu'il vende |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | sell |
| :--- |
| let him sell |$\quad$| let us sell |
| :--- |
| qu'ils vendent |$\quad$| sell |
| :--- |
| let them sell |

Participles.
$\begin{aligned} & \text { vendant } \\ & \text { vendu }\end{aligned} \| \begin{aligned} & \text { selling } \\ & \text { sold, }\end{aligned}$
201. IRREGULAR VERBS.-This is the Third Task; and it is no trifling one.-Having done with the ten conjugations of Regular Verbs I have next to treat of the Irregulars, of which I have spoken before, especially in para.graph 122. In paragraph 191, I observed, that there were some Irregulars of every one of the conjugations; that is to say, that there were some verbs ending in $e r$, some in $i r$, and in all the rest, that were irregular ; or, in other words, that did not undergo the same variation as the regular ones. Let us take a proof in Tuer (to kill) and Aller (to go.)

## INFINITIVE MODE.

$$
\begin{array}{l|l}
\text { Tuer, } & \begin{array}{l}
\text { to kill. } \\
\text { Aller, }
\end{array} \\
\text { to go }
\end{array}
$$

INDICATIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je tue, | I kill. | nous tuons, | we kill. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| je vais, | I go. | nous allons, | we go. |
| tu tues, | thou killest. | vous tuez, | you kill. |
| tu vas, | thou goest. | vous a!lez, | you go. |
| til tue, | he kills. | ils tuent, | they kill. |
| il va, | he goes. | ils vont, | they go. |

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 leiter of the woed 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 ve!b, Aller is called an Irregular verb. As $\mathbf{l}$ 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, tmirty-nine Irregulars in the list; but, many of them have others derived from them ; écrire, to write ; souscrire, to subscribe (oi underworite) ; and so on. Then, there are some, even in the alphabetical list of Irregulars, which are defeciive; 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 defective parts will be pointed out in the conjugations; but,the sooner you are aware of the circumstance the better. I shall now give the list of Irregulars, with those verbs that are derived from them. This list you will first read all through without looking at the conjugations. Then you are to go over the list again, and, you are to stop at each verb and turn to its conjugation, and go through that. Then go to the next verb ; and, so on, until you have, in this way, gone through the whole list. The conjugations will be easily referred to, because, besides the Alphabetical order, they will be numbered as paragraphs, and I shall refer to thern as such. I do not put avoir and être in this list; because, though they are irregulars, all things relating to them are fully explained elsewhere.

ACQUERIR ; To Acquire.-The following are conjugated in the same manner: conquérir, enquérir, requérir, and quérir. These are all defective verbs; that is, they are used in only part of their forms. Practice will soon teach you this.-See conjugation, Paragraph 202.

ALLER: To Go.-This is the only irregular verb of the first conjugation.-'There is indeed, Putr ;
but it is irregular in only the three persons singular of the present of the indicative, and, besides, it is a word almost wholly out of use.-See Paragraph 203.

S'ASSEOIR: To Sit down.-It has other meanings ; but this you will learn from the Dictionary; and, besides, care will be taken to introduce words like this into the exercises; so that, by the time that you have gone through the Grammar and the Exercises, you will be well acquainted with these distinctions.-Surseoir is conjugated in the same way, and also seoir ; but it is detective ; and neither is much in use.-See Paragraph 204.

BATTRE: ${ }^{*}$ To Beat.-The verbs abattre to beat, or put down; combattre, se débattrt, s'ébattre, rabattre, and rebattre, are all conjugated like battre. They all, indeed, belong to that word.See Paragraph 205.

BOIRE : To Drink.-See Paragraph 206.
BOUILLIR: To Boil.-This verb is, in French, always neuter. 'The French do not use it as we do. They use it only in the third person; as, il bout, it boils. They do not say, I boil the cabbage; but, je fais bouillir le chou; that is, I make the cabbage boil. The verb rebouillir, means, to boil again, and it is, of course, conjugated like bouillir. See Paragraph 207.

## CONCLURE: To Conclude.-Exclure is conju-

 gated in the same way, except that, in the passiveParticiple, we write exclus for the masculine, and excluse, or exclue, for the feminine.-See Paragraph 208.

CONVAINCRE: To Convince.-Vaincre, to vanquish, is conjugated in the same way; but, it is little used.-See Paragraph 209.

COUDRE : To Sew.-It is hardly necessary to say, that découdre, to unsew, and recoudre, to sew again, are conjugated in the same way as coudre. See Paragraph 210.

COURIR: To Run.-Accourir, concourir, encourir, discourir, parcourir, recourir, secourir, are conjugated like courir. They all come from it, and - belong to it.-See Paragraph 211.

CROIRE: To Believé--There is the verb accroire; but it is used only in the infinitive. It must have faire with it; and then it answers to our make believe.-See Paragraph 212.

CUEILLIR: To Gather.-Recueillir, to gather together, is conjugated like cueillir. Accueillir, to welcome, is, when used, conjugated in the same way; but it is hardly ever used.-See Paragraph 213.

DIRE: To Say.- This verb also means to tell. There are eight other verbs, which are conjugated like Dire; namely, contredire, se dédiré, médire, maudire, interdire, prédire, redire, confire. But, observe, all of them, except redire, make, in the
second person plural of the present time and indicative mode, disez instead of dites. Observe also, that maudire takes the double $s$, where there are other letters coming after the $s$ : as; je maudis, I curse; je maudissois, I cursed.-See Paragraph 214.

DORMIR: To Sleep.-The same manner of conjugating is applied to endormir, sendormir, redormir, and se rendormir.-See Paragraph 215.

ECRIRE: To Write. - Eight others are conjugated like écrive; namely, décrire, inscrire, prescrive, proscrire, récrire, souscrire, transcrire, circonscrire. They are all, in fact, the same word, with a preposition put before each; and they mean, to write of, to write in, to write against, to write again, to write under, to write in another place, to write round about. Besides these, there is the verb frire, to fry, conjugated like écrire; but frire is seldom used except in the infinitive, like bouillir. The French say, to make to boil and to make to fry; as je fais frire; and not je fris. They may say the latter ; but, they do not.-See Paragraph 216.

FUIR : To Flee.-There is s'enfuir, which means fleeing from it, from this place, from that place, from something. This verb is seldom, or never used in the past perfect times.-See Paragraph $21 \%$.

HAIR: To Hate.-This verb, like the last, is never used in the past perfect times.-See Paragraph 218.

LIRE: To Read. - Elire and relire, réélire, are conjugated in the same manner. There are two other verbs, circoncire and suffire, to circumcise and to suffice, which are also conjugated like lire, except that, in its passive participle, the first makes circoncis, and the last suff; and, also except that, in the past perfect times, they make, je circoncis, je suffis; je circoncisse, je suffisse; and so on; and not circoncus, circoncusse; and so forth. -See Paragraph 219.

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, omettre, s'entremettre, permettre, promettre, remettre, compromettre, soumettre, trans-mettre.-See Paragraph 220.

MOUDRE: To Grind.-Enoudre and remoudre are conjugated like moudre.-See Paragraph 221.

MOURIR : To Die.-See Paragraph 222.
MOUVOIR : To Move.-Not much used. Emouvoir, démouvoir, promouvoir, apparoir, choir, échoir, déchoir, are used merely in the infinitive. They are technical terms, and very rarely used. Mouvoir itself is nearly as little used. The verb that is generally made use of where we make use of move, is the regular remuer. -See Paragraph 223.

NAITRE: To be born.-Renaître, and Paître, are conjugated like naître ; but they have no participle, and no past perfect times. But, répaître has repu for its passive participle, and has, in the past

VIVRE : To Live.-Revivre and survivre are conjugated like vivre.-See Paragraph 238.

VOIR: To see.-There are conjugated in the same manner as voir these four : entrewoir, revoir, pourvoir and prévoir ; but, observe, the two latter have their future and their past imperfect of the Subjunctive in oirai, oirois, and so forth; and not in èrrai, èrrois, like voir. Besides this, pourvoir has its past perfects in us and usse, and not in is and isse.-See Paragraph 239.

VOULOIR : To bewilling.-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 defectives, just to notice, but not to dwell long upon. Braire, férir, bruire, faillir, clorre, éclorre, gésir, isser, tistre. These are all verbs; but too defective to merit any attempt at conjugating them. They are become a sort of adjectives. 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 waite winsse instead of vinse, in the past parfect of the subjunctive. Again, in coudre, some write cous, and others couds. But, these are, in fact, of no more consequence than is our writing of public with or without a $k$.
202 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Acquérir ॥ To Acquire.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| j' acquiexs tu acquiers il acquiert | I acquire thou acquirest he acquires. | $\\| \begin{aligned} & \text { nous acquérons } \\ & \text { vous acquérez } \\ & \text { ils acquiérent } \end{aligned}$ | we acquire you acquire they acquire |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Past Imperfect Time. |  |  |  |
| j? acquérois tu acquérois il acquéroit | I acquired thou acquiredst he acquired | $\left\|\begin{array}{l} \text { nous acquérions } \\ \text { yous acquériez } \\ \text { ils acquéroient } \end{array}\right\|$ | we acquired you acquired they acquired |
| Past Perfect Time. |  |  |  |
| $j^{\prime}$ acquis tu acquis il acquit | I acquired thou acquiredst he acquired | $\\| \begin{aligned} & \text { nous acquîmes } \\ & \text { vous acquittes } \\ & \text { ils acquirent } \end{aligned}$ | we acquired you acquired they acquired |

Future Time.

| j' acquerrai |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu acquerra3 | | I shall acquire |
| :--- |
| thou shalt acquire |
| il acquerra |$\quad,$| nous acquerrons |
| :--- |
| vous acquerrez |
| ils acquerront |$\quad$| we shall acquire |
| :--- |
| you shall acquire |
| yey shall acquire |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| j' acquière | I may acquire | nous acquèrions <br> tu acquieres <br> vous acquèriez | we may acquire <br> thou mayest acquire may acquire |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| il acquiere | you may acquire <br> ve mey may acquire | ils acquierent |  |

Pàst Imperfect Time.

| is | xire | cquerrions | should acquire |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 'ru acquerrois | thou shouldest acquire | vous acquerrie | you should acquire |
| acquerroit | he should acquire | ils acquerroien | they should acqui |

Past Perfect Time.
j' acquisse
tu acquisses
il acquitt

I might acquire thou mightest acquire
he might acquire

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

Participles.

203 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MOOD.
Aller \| To Go.
INDICATIVE MOOD.

## Present Time.

| je vais <br> tu vas <br> il va | I go <br> thou goest <br> he goes | nous allons <br> vous allez <br> ils vont | we go <br> you go <br> they go |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Past Imperfect Time. |  |  |  |

Past Perfect Time.

| j'allai |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu allas |
| il alla |$\quad$| I went |
| :--- |
| thou wentest |
| he went |$\quad$| nous allâmes |
| :--- |
| vous allàtes |
| ils allerent |$\quad$| we went |
| :--- |
| you went |
| they went |

j'irai tu iras il ira

I shall go thou shalt go he shall go
nous irons vous irez ils iront
we shall go you shall go they shall go

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.,
Present Time.

| j’aille <br> tu ailles <br> il aille | I may go <br> thou mayest go | nous allions <br> vous alliez <br> ve may go |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we may go |
| :--- |
| ils aillent |$\quad$| you may go |
| :--- |
| they may go |

Past Imperfect Tïme.

| j'irois <br> tu irois <br> il iroit | I should go <br> thou shouldest go | nous irions <br> vous iriez <br> ils iroient |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he should go |  |  |$\quad$| we- should go |
| :--- |
| you should go |
| they should go |

Past Perfect Time.
i'allasse
tu allasses
il allât

Future Time.

204 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.
S'Asseoir || To Sit down

INDICATIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je m' assieds tu t' assieds il s' assied | I sit thou sittest he sits | $\left\|\begin{array}{l} \text { nous nous asseyons } \\ \text { vous vous asseyez } \\ \text { ils s' asseyent } \end{array}\right\|$ | we sit you sit they sit |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Past Imperfect Time. |  |  |  |
| je $\mathrm{m}^{\prime}$ asseyois tu t' asseyois il $s^{\prime}$ asseyoit | I sat thou satest he sat | nous nous asseyions vous vous asseyiez ils s' asseyoient | we sat you sat they sat |
| Past Perfect Time. |  |  |  |
| je $\mathrm{m}^{\prime}$ assis tu t' assis il s' assit | I sat thou satest he sat | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & \text { nous nous assìmes } \\ & \text { vous vous assîtes } \\ & \text { ils s' assirent } \end{aligned}\right.$ | we sat you sat they sat |

Future Time.
je m' asseyerai tu t' asseyeras ils $s^{\prime}$ asseyera

I shall sit thou shalt sit he shall sit.

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je m' asseye | I may sit <br> tu t' asseyes | thou mayest sit <br> til's' asseye | nous nous asseyions <br> vous vous asseyiez <br> ils 'asseyent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | I may sit |
| :--- |
| you may sit |
| they may sit |

Past Imperfect Time.
je m' asseyerois tu t' asseyerois il s' asseyeroit

I should sit thou shouldest sit vous vous asseyeriez he should sit ils s'asseyeroient
we should sit you should si they should si

## Past Perfect Tima

je m' assisse tu t' assisses il s' assît

I might sit thou mightest sit he might sit
nous nous assissions vous vous assissiez ils s' assissent
we might sit you might sit they might sit

## IMPERATIVE MODE.


let us sit sit let them sit

## Participles.



205 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.
Battre || To Beat.
INDICATIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je bats <br> tu bats <br> il bat | I beat <br> thou beatest | nous battons <br> vous battez <br> ils battent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we beat |
| :--- |
| you beat |
| they beat |

Past Imperfect Time.


Future Time.

| je battrai | I shall beat <br> tu battras | nous battrons <br> thou shalt beat | we shall beat <br> vous battrez <br> il battra |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he shall beat | you shall beat |  |  |
| ils battront | they shall beat |  |  |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

je batte
tu battes
il batte
je battrois
tu battrois il battroit
I may beat
thou mayest beat
he may beat
nous battions
vous battiez
ils battent
we may keat you may beat they may beat

## Past Imperfect Time.

I should beat
thoushouldestbeat $\left.\begin{aligned} & \text { nous battrions } \\ & \text { vous battriez } \\ & \text { ils battroientit }\end{aligned} \right\rvert\,$
we should beat you should beat they should beat

Past Perfect Time.
je battisse tu battisses il battit

I might beat
thou mightest beat he might beat nous battissions vous battissiez ils battissent
we might beat you might beat they might beat

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

| bats <br> qu'il batte | beat <br> let him beat <br> Participles. <br> qu'ils bater |
| :--- | :--- |
| battozs |  |
| battant |  |
| battu |  |$\|$| beating |
| :--- |
| beat. |

206 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.
Boire $\|$ To Drink.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je bois | I drink <br> tu bois | nous buvons <br> thou drinkest <br> vous buvez | we drink <br> you drink |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| il boit | he drinks | ils boivent | they drink |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je buvois | I drank <br> tu buvois | nous buvions <br> thou drankest <br> he drank |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | ve drank |
| :--- |
| vous buviez |
| ils buvoient |$\quad$| you drank |
| :--- |
| they drank |

Past Perfect Time.

| je bus <br> tu bus | I drank <br> thou drankest <br> he drank | nous bûmes <br> vous bûtes <br> ils burent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we drank |
| :--- |
| you drank |
| they drank |

Future Time.

| je boirai <br> tu boiras | I shall drink <br> thou shalt drink, | nous boirons <br> vous boirez <br> ils boiroient | we shall drink <br> you shall drink <br> they shall drink |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he shall drink |  |  |  |,$\quad$| heira |
| :--- | :--- |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Presient Time.

| je boive | I may drink <br> tu boives | nous buvions <br> thou mayest drink <br> he may drink | we may drink <br> ils boivent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | you may drink |
| :--- |
| they may drink |

## Past Imperfect Time.

| je boirois <br> tu boirois | I should drink <br> thou shouldest drink | nous boirions <br> vous boiriez <br> ils boiroit |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we should drink |
| :--- |
| you should drink |$\quad$| yould drink |
| :--- |
| they should drink |

Past Perfect Time.

| je busse <br> tu busses <br> il bût | I might drink <br> thou mightest | drink |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he might drink |  |  |$\quad$| nous bussions |
| :--- |
| vous bussiez |
| ils bussent |$\quad$| we might drink |
| :--- |
| you might drink |
| they might drink |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

| bois <br> qu'il boive | drink <br> let him drink | $\\|$buvons <br> buvez <br> qu'ils boive |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Participles. |  |  |

207 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.
Bouillir || To Boil.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

je bous
tu bous
il bout

| I boil <br> thou boilest <br> he boils | nous bouillons <br> vous bouillez <br> ils bouillent | we boil <br> you boil <br> they boil |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je bouillois <br> tu bouillois | I boiled <br> thou boiledst | nous bouillions <br> vous bouilliez <br> il bouilloit |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we boiled |
| :--- |
| he boiled |$\quad$| you boiled |
| :--- |
| they boiled |

Past Perfect Time.

| je bouillis <br> tu bouillis <br> il bouillit | I boiled <br> thou boiledst <br> he boiled | nous bouillimes <br> vous bouillites <br> ils bouillirent | we boiled <br> you boiled <br> they boiled |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Future Time.

| je bouillirai <br> tu bouilliras | I shall boil <br> thou shalt boil | nous bouillirons <br> vous boullirez <br> ils bouillira |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we shall boil |
| :--- |
| he shall boil |$\quad$| you shall boill |
| :--- |
| they shall boil |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| je bouille <br> tu bouilles <br> il bouille | I may boil <br> thou mayest boil <br> he may boil | Past Imperfect Time. <br> vous bouillions bouilliez <br> ils bouillent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we may boil <br> you may boil <br> they may boil |
| :--- |
| je bouillirois <br> tu bouillirois <br> il bouilliroit | | I should boilthou shouldestboil <br> he should boil |
| :--- | | nous bouillirions |
| :--- |
| vous boulliriez |
| ils bouilliroient |$\quad$| we should boil |
| :--- |
| you should boil <br> they should boil |

Past Perfect Time.
je bouillisse
tu bouillissea
il bouillît

I might boil thou mightest boil he might boil
nous bouillissions vous bouillissiez ils bouillissent
we might boil you might boil they might boil

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

| bous <br> qu' il bouille | boil <br> let him boil | bouillons <br> bouillez <br> qu' ils bouillent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | let us boil |
| :--- |
| boil |
| let them boil |

## Participles.

$\underset{\text { bouillant }}{\text { bouilli }} \quad \| \quad$| boiling |
| :--- |
| boiled. |

Conclure || To Conclude.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| je conclus <br> tu conclus <br> il conclut | I conclude <br> thou concludest <br> he concludes | nous concluons <br> vous concluez <br> ils concluent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we conclude |
| :--- |
| you conclude |
| they conclude |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je concluois <br> tu concluois <br> il concluoit | I concluded <br> thou concludedst <br> he concluded | nous concluions <br> vous concluiez <br> ils concluoient | we concluded <br> you concluded <br> they concluded |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Past Perfect Time.

| je conclus <br> tu conclus <br> il conclut | -I concluded <br> thou concludedst <br> he concluded | nous conclûmes <br> vous conclûtes <br> ils conclurent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we concluded |
| :--- |
| you concluded |
| they concluded |

Future Time.
je conclurai tu concluras il conclura

I shall conclude thou shalt conclude he shall conclude
nous conclurons v́ous conclurez ils concluront
we shall conclude you shall conclude they shall conclude

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| je conclue <br> tu conclues <br> il conclue | I may conclude <br> thoumayestconclude <br> he may conclude | nous concluions <br> vous concluiez <br> ils concluent | we may conclude <br> you may conclude <br> they may conclude |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je conclurois <br> tu conclurois <br> il concluroit | I should conclude <br> thou shouldest conclude <br> he should conclude | nous conclurions <br> vous concluriez <br> ils concluroient | we should conclude <br> you shiould conclude <br> they should conclude |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

## Past Perfect Time.

| je conclusse <br> tu conclusses | I might conclude <br> thou mightest conclude <br> il conclût | nous conclussions <br> vous conclussiez | we might conclude <br> vou might conclude <br> ils conclussent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| they might conclude |  |  |  |

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

| conclus <br> $q u^{\prime}$ il conclue | conclude <br> let him conclude | concluons <br> concluez <br> qu' ils concluent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | let us conclude |
| :--- |
| conclude |
| let them conclude |

## Participles.

concluding concluded.
convainges tu convaincs il convainc

INFINITIVE MODE.
Convaincre || To Convince.

> INDICATIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je convainos |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu convaincs |
| il convainc |$\quad$| I convince |
| :--- |
| thou convincest |
| he convinces |$\quad$| nous cunvainquons |
| :--- |
| vous convainquez |
| ils convainquent |$\quad$| we convince |
| :--- |
| you convince |
| they convince |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je convainquois <br> tu convainquois <br> il convainquoit | I convinced <br> thou convincedst <br> he convinced | nous convainquions <br> vous convainquiez <br> ils convainquoient | we convinced <br> you convinced <br> they convinced |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |


| je convainquis <br> tu convainquis <br> ih convainquit | I convinced <br> thou convincedst <br> he convinced | nous convainquìmes <br> vous convainquites <br> ils convainquirent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we convinced |
| :--- |
| you convinced |
| they convinced |

Future Time.
je convaincrai tu convaincras il convaincra

I shall convince thou shalt convince he shall convince
nous convaincrons vous convaincrez ils convaincront
we shall convince you shall convinc they shall convin

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

## Present Tinte.

| je convainque |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu convainques |
| il convainque |$\quad$| I may convince |
| :--- |
| thou mayest convince |
| he may convince |$\quad$| nous convainquions |
| :--- |
| vous convainquiez |
| ils convainquent |$\quad$| we may convince |
| :--- |
| you may convinc |
| they may convin |

Past Imperfect Time.
je convaincrois tu conrainerois il convaincroit
$\left.\left|\begin{array}{l}\text { I should convince } \\ \text { thou shouldest convince } \\ \text { he should convince }\end{array}\right| \right\rvert\, \begin{aligned} & \text { nous convaincrious } \\ & \text { vous convaincriez } \\ & \text { ils convaincroient }\end{aligned}$ he should convince ||ils convaincroient
we should convi you should convi they should conv

## Past Perfect Time.

je convainquisse tu convainquisses il convainquit

I might convince thou mightest convince | thou mightest convince |
| :--- | :--- |
| he might convince |\(| \begin{aligned} \& vous convainquissiez <br>

\& ils convainquissent\end{aligned}\)
nousconvainquissions vous conyainquissiez
we might convin you might convi they might convi

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

convaincs
qu' il convainque

Coudre \| To Sew.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je couds <br> to conds <br> il coud | I sew <br> thou sewest <br> he sews | nous cousons <br> vous cousez <br> ils cousent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Past Imperfect Time. | we sew <br> you sew <br> they sew |  |
| je cousois <br> tu cousois <br> il cousoit | I sewed <br> thou sewedst <br> he sewed | nous cousions <br> vous cousiez <br> ils cousoient | | we sewed |
| :--- |
| you sewed |
| they sewed |

Past Perfect Time.
je cousis tu cousis il cousit
je coudrai
tu coudras
-il coudra
1
I sewed
thou sewedst
nous cousîmes vous cousîtes ils cousirent
we sewed you sewed they sewed

Future Time.

| I shall sew |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| thou shalt sew |
| he shall sew |, $\left\lvert\,$| nous coudrons |
| :--- |
| vous coudrez |
| ils coudront |$\quad$| we shall sew |
| :--- |
| you shall sew |
| they shall sew |\right.

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.
je couse
tu couses
il couse
je coudrois tu coudrois il coudroit
je cousisse tu cousisses il cousit

> | $\begin{array}{l}\text { I may sew } \\ \text { thou mayest sew } \\ \text { he may sew }\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{l}\text { nous cousions } \\ \text { vous cousiez } \\ \text { ils cousent }\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{l}\text { we may sew } \\ \text { you may sew } \\ \text { they may sew }\end{array}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

Past Imperfect Time.

| I should sew | nous coudrions <br> thou shouldst sew <br> vous coudriez <br> he should sew | we should sew <br> you should sew <br> iis coudroient |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| they should sew |  |  |

Past Perfect Time.
I might sew thou mightest sew he might sew
nous cousissions vous cousissiez ils cousissent
we might sew you might sew they might sew

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

| couds cousons let us sew <br> cousez <br> qu'il couse <br> sew <br> let him sew sew <br> leousent let thera sew |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

Participles.

| cousant |
| :--- |
| cousu |$\|$| sewing |
| :--- |
| sewed. |

211 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Courir \| To Run<br>INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| je cours <br> tu cours | I run <br> nous courons <br> vous courez | we run <br> you run |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| il court | thou runnest | he runs |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je courois tu courois il couroit | I ran thou ranest he ran | nous courions vous couriez ils couroient | we ran you ran they ran |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Past Perfect Time. |  |  |  |
| je courus tu courus il courut | I ran <br> thou ranest <br> he ran | nous courumes vous courûtes ils coururent | we ran you ran they ran |

Future Time.

| je courrai | I shall run <br> tu courras | nous courrons <br> thou shalt run |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| il courra | he shall run | we shall run <br> vous courrez <br> ils courront | | you shall run |
| :--- |
| they shall run |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.
je coure tu coures il coure
je courrois tu courrois il courroit

| I may run <br> thou mayest run <br> he may run | nous courions <br> vous couriez <br> ils courent. | we may run <br> you may rum <br> they may rum |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

Past Imperfect Zime.
I should run || nous courrions ${ }^{\text { }}$ thou shouldst run he should run vous courriez ils courroient
we should run you should run they should run

Past Perfect Time.
je courusse tu courusses il courût

> | $\begin{array}{l}\text { I might run } \\ \text { thoumightestrun } \\ \text { he might run }\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{l}\text { nous courussions } \\ \text { vous courussiez } \\ \text { ils courussent }\end{array}$ |
| :--- | :--- |

we might run you might run they might run

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

| cours <br> qu'il coure | courons <br> courez <br> qua | let us run <br> run |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| let him run |  |  |$\quad$| run |
| :--- |
| let them run |

Participles.

```
courant
couru
running
ran
```


## 212 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Croire || To Believe.
INDICATIVE MODE.
Present Time.
$\left.\begin{array}{l|l||l}\begin{array}{l}\text { je crois } \\ \text { tu crois } \\ \text { il croit }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { I believe } \\ \text { thou believest } \\ \text { he believes }\end{array} & \| \begin{array}{l}\text { nous croyons } \\ \text { vous croyez } \\ \text { ils croyent }\end{array}\end{array} \begin{array}{l}\text { we believe } \\ \text { you believe } \\ \text { they believe }\end{array}\right\}$

Past Perfect Time.

| je crus |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu crus |
| il crut |$\quad$| I believed |
| :--- |
| thou believedst |
| he believed |$\quad$| nous crûmes |
| :--- |
| vous crâtes |
| ils crurent |$\quad$| we believed |
| :--- |
| you believed |
| they believed |

Future Time.

| je croirai | I shall believe <br> tu croiras <br> il croira | nous croirons <br> thou shalt believe <br> he shall believe | we shall believe <br> vous croirez <br> ils croiront |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | you shall believe |
| :--- |
| they shall believe |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je croye | I may believe <br> tu croyes <br> il croye | thou mayest believe <br> he may believe, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | nous croyions |
| :--- |
| vous croyiez |
| ils croyent. |$\quad$| we may believe |
| :--- |
| you may believe |
| they may believe |

> Pust Imperfect Time.

| je croirois |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu croirois |
| il croiroit |\(\left|\begin{array}{l}I should believe <br>

thoushouldest believe <br>

he should believe\end{array}\right|\)| nous croirions |
| :--- |
| vous croiriez |
| ils croiroient |$\quad$| we should believe |
| :--- |
| you should believe |
| they should believe |

Past Perfect Time.

| je crusse |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu crusses |
| il crutt |$\quad$| I might believe |
| :--- |
| thou mightest believe |
| he might believe |$\quad$| nous crussions |
| :--- |
| vous crussiez |
| ils crussent |$\quad$| we might believe |
| :--- |
| you might believe |
| they might believe |

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

| crois | croyons <br> qu' il croye | believe us believe <br> croyez <br> qu'il croyent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | let believe |
| :--- |
| believe |
| let them believe |

## Participles.

| croyant | $\\|$ |
| :---: | :--- |
| cru |  |

## 213 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Cueillir || To Gather.
INDICATIVE MODE.
Present Tine.

| je cuellle tu cueilles il cueille | I gather thou gatherest he gathers | nous cueillons vous cueillez i 1 s cueillent | we gather you gather they gather |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Past Imperfect Time. |  |  |  |
| je cueillois tu cueillois <br> - il cueilloit | $\begin{array}{\|l\|l} \text { I gathered } \\ \text { thou gatheredst } \\ \text { he gathered } \end{array} \quad \begin{aligned} & \text { nous cueillions } \\ & \text { vous cueilliez } \\ & \text { ils cueilloient } \end{aligned}$ |  | we gathered you gathered they gathered |
| Past Perfect Time. |  |  |  |
| je cueillis tu cueillis il cueillit | I gathered thou gatheredst he gathered | $\\| \begin{aligned} & \text { nous cueillimes } \\ & \text { vous cueillites } \\ & \text {-ils cueillirent }\end{aligned}$ | we gathered you gathered they gathered |
| Future Time. |  |  |  |
| je cueillerai tu cueilleras il cueillera | I shall gather thou shalt gather he shall gather | nous cueillerons vous cueillerez ils cueilleront | we shall gather you shall gather they shall gather |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| je cueille |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu cueilles |
| il cueille |$\quad$| I may gather |
| :--- |
| thou mayest gather |
| he may gather |$\quad$| nous cueillions |
| :--- |
| vous cueilliez |
| ils cueillent |$\quad$| we may gather |
| :--- |
| you may gather |
| they may gather |

## Past Imperfect Time.

je cueillerois tu cueillerois il cueilleroit

I should gather || nous cueillerions|we should gather thou shouldest gather vous cueilleriez you should gather he should gather || ils cueilleroient they should gather

## Past Perfert Time.

je cueillisse tu cueillisses il cuellît

I might gather thou mightest gather ils cueillissent
we might gather you might gather theymight gather

## IMPERATIVE MODE.



Participles.
$\underset{\text { cueilli }}{\underset{\text { cueill }}{ }} \| \underset{\text { gathered. }}{\text { gathering }}$

214 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.
Dire, II To Say.
INDICATIVE MODE.

|  | Present Time. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| je dis tu dis il dit | I say | nous disons | we say |
|  | thou sayest | yous dites ils disent | you say |
|  | Past Imperfect Time. |  |  |
| je disois tu disois il disoit | I said | nous disions | we said |
|  | thou saidst | vous disiez | you said |
|  | Past Perfect T'ime. |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| je dis tu dis il dit | I said <br> thou saidst <br> he said$\quad$nous dîmes <br> vous dîtes <br> ils dirent |  | we said |
|  |  |  | you said |

Future Time.

| je dirai <br> tu diras | I shall say <br> il dira | nous dirons <br> he shallt say |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hous direz | we shall say <br> you shall say |  |
| ils diront | they shall say |  |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.



Past Perfect Time.

| je disse <br> tu disses <br> il dit | I might say <br> thou mightest say <br> he might say | nous dissions <br> vous dissiez <br> ils dissent | we might say <br> you might say <br> they might say |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

| dis |
| :--- | :--- |
| qu'il dise |,$\quad$| say |
| :--- |
| let him say |


| disons | let us say <br> dites <br> qu'ils disent |
| :--- | :--- |
| say |  |
| let them say |  |

Participles.
disant

dit $|$| saying |
| :--- |
| said. |

## 215 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Dormir || To Sleep.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

| Present Time. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| je dors tu dors <br> il dort | I sleep thou sleepest he sleeps | nous dormons vous dormez ils dorment | we sleep you sleep rhey sleep |
| Past Imperfect Time. |  |  |  |
| je dormois tu dormois il dormoit | 1 slept thon sleepedst he slept | nous dormions vous dormiez ils dormoient | we slept you slept they slept |
| Past Perfect Time. |  |  |  |
| je dormis ta dormis il dormit | I slept thou sleepedst he slept | nous dormîme vous dormîtes ils dormirent | we slept you slept they slept |

Future Time.

| je dormirai | I shall sleep <br> ta dormiras <br> il dormira | nous dormirons <br> the shalt sleep |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he shall sleep |  |  |$\quad$| we shall sleep |
| :--- |
| vous dormirez |
| ils dormiront |$\quad$| you shall sleep |
| :--- |
| they shall sleep |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE:

| Present Time. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| je dorme tu dormes il dorme | I may sleep thou mayest sleep he may sleep | nous dormions vous dormiez ils dorment | we may sleep you may sleep they may slee |
|  |  |  | they may sleep |

Past. Imperfect Time.

$\left.$| je dormirois |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu dormirois |
| il dormiroit |$\quad$| I should sleep |
| :--- |
| thou shouldest sleep |
| he should sleep | \right\rvert\, | nous dormirions |
| :--- |
| vous dormiriez |
| ils dormiroient |$\quad$| we should sleep |
| :--- |
| you should sleep |
| theyshould sleep |

Past Perfect Tine.

| je dormisse | - | dormissions |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tu dormisses | thou mightest sleep | ormissiez |  |
| ormit | he might sleep | ils dormissent | they might sl |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

| dors <br> qu'il dorme | sleep <br> let him sleep | dormons <br> dormez <br> qu' ils dorment |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | let us sleep |
| :--- |
| sleep |
| let them sleep |

## Participles.

sleeping slept

INDICATIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| j' écris | I write <br> tu écris <br> il écrit | thou writest | he writes |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

## Past Imperfect Time.

| j' écrivois | I wrote <br> tu écrivois <br> il écrivoit | nous écrivions <br> he wrotest |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we wrote |
| :--- |
| vous écriviez |
| ils écrivoient |$\quad$| you wrote |
| :--- |
| they wrote |

## Past Perfect Time.

| j' écrivis <br> tu écrivis <br> il écrivit | I wrote <br> thou wrotest <br> he wrote | nous écrivìmes <br> vous écrivites <br> ils écrivirent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we wrote |
| :--- |
| you wrote |
| they wrote |


$\left.$| j' ecrirai |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu ecriras |
| il écrira |$\quad$| I shall write |
| :--- |
| thou shalt write |
| he shall write |$\quad \right\rvert\,$| nous écrirons |
| :--- |
| vous écrirez |
| ils écriront |$\quad$| we shall write |
| :--- |
| you shall write |
| they shall write |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| j' écrive <br> tu écrives <br> il écrive | I may write <br> thou mayest write <br> he may write | nous écrivions <br> vous écriviez <br> ils écrivent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we may write |
| :--- |
| you may write |
| they may write |

Past Imperfect Time.

| j'écrirois <br> tu écrirois <br> il écriroit | I should write <br> thou shouldest write <br> he should write | nous écririons <br> vous écririez <br> ils écriroient |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we should write |
| :--- |
| you should write |
| they should write |

Past Perfect Time.

| j' écrivisse <br> tu écrivisses <br> il écrivit | I might write <br> thou mightest write <br> he might write | nous écrivissions <br> vous écrivissiez <br> ils écrivissent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we might write |
| :--- |
| you might write |
| they might write |

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

| écris <br> qu' il écrive | write <br> let him write | écrivons <br> qu' ils écrivent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |$\quad$| let us write |
| :--- |
| write |
| let them write |

Participles.
écrivant \|| writing écrit

217 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.
Fuir || To Flee.
INDICATIVE MODE.
Present Time.

| je fuis tu fuis <br> il fuit | I flee thou fieest he flees | nous fuyons vous fuyez ils fuient | we flee you flee they flee |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Past Imperfect Time. |  |  |  |
| je fuyois tu fuyois il fuyoit | I fled thou fledst he fled | nous fuyions vous fuyiez ils fuyoient | we fled you fled they fled |
| Past Perfect Tinze. |  |  |  |
| je fuis tu fuis il fuit | I fled thou fledst he fled | nous fuîmes vous fuîtes ils fuirent | we fled you fled they fled |

## Future Time.

| je fuirai | I shall flee <br> to fuiras | nous fuirons <br> thou shat flee | we shall flee <br> vous fuirez <br> ils fuiront |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| in fuira shall flee |  |  |  |
| they shall flee |  |  |  |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| je fuie tu fuies <br> il fuie | I may fiee thou mayest flee he may flee | nous fuyons vous fuyiez ils fuient | we may flee you may flee they may flee |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Past Imperfect Tine. |  |  |
| je fuirois tu fuirois il fuiroit | I should flee, | nous fairions | we should flee |
|  | thou shouldest flee | vous fuiriez | you should flee |
|  |  |  | they should flee |
| Past Perfect Time. |  |  |  |
| je fuisse | I might flee | nous fuissions | we might flee |
| tu fuisses | thoumightestflee | vous fuissiez | you might flee |
| il fuit | he might flee | ils fuissent' | they might flee |

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

|  | fuyons <br> fuyez <br> fuis <br> qu'il fuie | flee <br> let him flee |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | let us flee |
| :--- |
| flee |$\quad$| let them flee |
| :--- |

Participles.

> fuyant || fleeing fui

## 218 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Haïr || To Hate.
INDICATIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je hais <br> tu hais <br> il hait | I hate <br> theo hatest <br> he hates | nous haiissons <br> vous haissez <br> ils haissent | we hate <br> you hate <br> they hate |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Past Imperfect Time. |  |  |  |

Future Time.

| je hairai | I shall hate <br> tu heiras | nous hairons <br> thou shalt hate | we shall hate <br> vous hairez <br> il haira |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | you shall hate |
| :--- |
| the shall hate shall hate |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| je haisse <br> tu haisses <br> il haïsse | I may hate <br> thou mayest hate | nous haïssions <br> vous haissiez <br> ils haïssent | we may hate <br> you may hate <br> they may hate |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

## Past Imperfect Time.

je haïrois tu hairois il haïroit
$\left|\begin{array}{l}\text { I should hate } \\ \text { thou shouldest hate } \\ \text { he should hate }\end{array}\right|\left|\begin{array}{l}\text { nous hairions } \\ \text { vous hairiez } \\ \text { ils hairoient }\end{array}\right|$
we should hate you should hate they should hate

Past Perfect Time.
[Not used in this Time.]
ÍMPERATIVE MODE.

|  | haïssons <br> hais <br> qu' ils haisse | hate <br> let him hate |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | haissez us hate |
| :--- |
| qu' ils haïssent |$\quad$| hate |
| :--- |
| let them hate |

## Participles.

haïssant || hating
219 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Lire || To Read.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| je lis <br> tu lis <br> il lit | $\quad$I read <br> thou readest <br> he reads | nous lisons <br> vous lisez <br> ils lisent | we read <br> you read <br> they read |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Past Imperfect Time. |  |  |

je lisois tu lisois il lisoit

I read thou readest he read
nous lisions vos lisiez ils lisoient
we read you read they read

Past Perfect Time.

| je lus <br> tu lus <br> il lut | I read <br> thou readest | nous lûmes <br> vous lûtes <br> ils lurent | we read <br> you read <br> they read |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he read |  |  |  |$\quad$| ther |
| :--- |

Future Time.

| je lirai <br> tu liras | I shall read <br> thou shalt read | nous lirons <br> vous lirez <br> ils liront |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he shall read | we shall read <br> you shall fread <br> they shall read |  |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.
Presentit Time.

| je lise |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu lises | I may read <br> thou mayest read | nous lisions <br> vous lisiez <br> ils lisent | | we may read |
| :--- |
| you may read |
| they may read |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je lirois <br> tu lirois |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| il liroit |\(\quad\left\{\begin{array}{l}I should read <br>

thoushouldestread <br>
he should read\end{array} \left\lvert\, $$
\begin{array}{l}\text { nous lirions } \\
\text { vous liriez } \\
\text { ils liroient }\end{array}
$$ \quad $$
\begin{array}{l}\text { we should read } \\
\text { you should read } \\
\text { they should read }\end{array}
$$\right.\right.\)
je lusse tu lusses
H10t

| I might read <br> thoumightestread <br> he might read | nous lussions <br> vous lussiez <br> ils lussent | we might read <br> you might read <br> they might read |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

IMPERATIVE MODE.


Participles.

${ }_{\text {lu }}^{\text {lisant }} \|$| reading |
| :--- |
| read. |

220 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Mettre || To Put.

INDICATIVE MODE.
Present Time.

| je mets |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu mets |
| il met |$\quad$| I put |
| :--- |
| thou puttest |
| he puts |$\quad$| nous mettons |
| :--- |
| vous mettez |
| ils mettent |, | we put |
| :--- |
| you put |
| they put |

Past Imperfect Time.
je mettois tu mettois il mettoit
je mis tu mis il mit

| I put | nous mettions <br> thou puttedst <br> he put | we put <br> vous mettiez <br> ils mettoient |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| you put <br> they put |  |  |

Past Perfect Time.
je mettrai tu mettras il mettra

| I put | nous mîmes | put |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| thou puttedst | vous mîtes | you put |
| he put | ils mirent | they put |

Future Time.

| I shall put <br> thou shalt put <br> he shall put | nous mettrons <br> vous mettrez <br> 'ils mettront | we shall put <br> you shall put <br> they shall put |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

je mette tu mettes il mette
je mettrois tu mettrois il mettroit
je misse tu misses il mît

| I may put <br> thou mayest put <br> he may put | nous mettions <br> vous mettiez <br> ils mettent |
| :--- | :--- | | we may put |
| :--- |
| you may put |
| they may put |

## Past Imperfect Time.

| I should put <br> thou shouldest put <br> he should put | nous mettrions <br> vous mettriez <br> ils mettroient |
| :--- | :--- |

## Past Perfect Time.

| I might put <br> thoumightest put <br> he might put | nous missions <br> vous missiez <br> ils missent |
| :--- | :--- | | we might put |
| :--- |
| you might put |
| they might put |

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

 qu'il metteput
let him put

| mettons | let us put <br> mettez |
| :--- | :--- |
| qu'ils mettent | put |
| let them put |  |

## Participles.

```
mettant || putting
mis | put.
```

221 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.
Moudre || To Grind.
INDICATIVE MODE.

## Present Time.



## Future Time.

| jemmoudrai <br> tu moudras | I shall grind <br> thou shalt grind <br> il moudra | nous moudrons <br> vous moudrez <br> he shall grind | we shall grind <br> you shall grind |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ilhey moudront |  |  |  |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.
$\left.\begin{array}{l|l|l}\begin{array}{l}\text { je moule } \\ \text { tu moules } \\ \text { il moule }\end{array} & -\begin{array}{l}\text { I may grind } \\ \text { thou mayest grind } \\ \text { ke may grind }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { nous moulions } \\ \text { vous mouliez } \\ \text { ils moulent }\end{array}\end{array} \begin{array}{l}\text { we may grind } \\ \text { you may grin'd } \\ \text { they may grind }\end{array}\right]$

## Past Perfect Time

| je moulusse |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu moulusses |
| il morulut |$\quad$| I might grind |
| :--- |
| thou mightest grind |
| he might grind | \left\lvert\, | nous moulussions |
| :--- |
| vous moulussiez |
| ils moulussent |$\quad$| we might grind |
| :--- |
| you might grind |
| they might grind |\right.

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

| moudz <br> qu'il moule | grind <br> let him grind | moulons <br> meulez <br> qu' ils moulent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | let us grind |
| :--- |
| grind |
| let them guind |

Participles.

$\underset{\text { moulunt }}{\underset{m}{m} \|}$| grinding |
| :--- |
| ground. |

222 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.
Mourir $\|$ To Die.
INDICATIVE MODE.

| je meurs | I die <br> tu meurs | nous mourons <br> thou diest | we die <br> vous mourez |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| il meurt | you die <br> he dies | ils meurent | they die |


| je mourois | I died <br> tu mourois | nous mourions <br> thou diedst | we died <br> vous mouriez <br> you died <br> ils mouroient |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | they died |
| :--- |

## Past Perfect Time.

| je mourus | I died <br> tu mourus | nous mourumes <br> thou diedst <br> il mourut | we died <br> vous mourûtes <br> ils moururent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | you died |
| :--- |
| they died |

Future Time.

| je mourrai | I shall die <br> tu mourras | nous mourrons <br> thou shalt die | we shall die <br> vous mourrez |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| il mourra | you shall die <br> he shall die | ils mourront | they shall die |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

$\left.$| je meure |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu meures |
| il meure |$\quad$| I may die |
| :--- |
| thou mayest die |
| he may die | \right\rvert\, | nous mourions |
| :--- |
| vous mouriez |
| ils meurent |$\quad$| we may die |
| :--- |
| you may die |
| they may die |

Past Imperfect Time.
je mourrois tu mourrois il mourroit

I should die || nous mourrions thou shouldst die he should die
vous mourriez
ils mourroient
we should die you should die they should die

Past Perfect Time. .
I might die thoumightestdie vous mourussiez he might die ils mourussent
we might die you might die they might die

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

| meurs <br> qu'il meure | mourons <br> die <br> mourez <br> qu' ils meurent | let us die <br> die <br> let them die |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Participles.

## 223 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Mouvoir u To Move.
INDICATIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je meus |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu meus |
| il meut |$\quad$| li move |
| :--- |
| thou movest |
| he moves |$\quad$| nous mouvons |
| :--- |
| vous mouvez |
| ils meuvent |$\quad$| we move |
| :--- |
| you move |
| they move |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je mouvois |
| :--- |
| tu mouvois |
| il mouvoit | \(\quad\left\{\begin{array}{l}I moved <br>

thou movedst <br>
he moved\end{array} \quad \left\lvert\, $$
\begin{array}{l}\text { nous mouvions } \\
\text { vous mouviez } \\
\text { ils mouvoient }\end{array}
$$ \quad $$
\begin{array}{l}\text { we moved } \\
\text { you moved } \\
\text { they moved }\end{array}
$$\right.\right.\)

Past Perfect Time.

$\left.$| je mus |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu mus |
| il mut |$\quad$| I moved |
| :--- |
| thou movedst |
| he moved |$\quad$| nous mûmes |
| :--- |
| vous mates |
| ils murent |$\quad \right\rvert\,$| we moved |
| :--- |
| you moved |
| they moved |

Future Time.

| je mouvrai | I shall move <br> ta mouvras <br> il mouvra | thou shalt move <br> he shall move | nous mouvrons <br> vous mouvrez |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ils mourront |  |  |  | | we shall move |
| :--- |
| you shall move |
| they shall move |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je meuve <br> tri meuves <br> il meuve | I may move <br> thou mayest move <br> he may move | nous mouvions <br> vous mouviez <br> ils meuvent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we may move |
| :--- |
| you may move |
| they may move |

Past Imperfect Time.
je manvrois tu mourrois
il mouvroit
je musse
tu musses ii mut
nous mouvrions vous mouvriez ils mouvroient
we should move you should move they should'move

Past Perfect Time.
I might move ||nous mussions thou mightest move vous mussiez , the might move . |ils mussent

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

| meus <br> qu'il meuve | move <br> let him move | mouvons <br> mouvez <br> gu'ils mavent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | let us move |
| :--- |
| move |
| let them move |

Participles.

## 224 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Naitre \| To be Born.
INDICATIVE MODE.
Present Time.

| je nais |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu nais |
| il naitt |$\quad \left\lvert\,$| I am born |
| :--- |
| thou art born |
| he is born |$\quad$| nous naissons |
| :--- |
| vous naissez |
| ils naissent |$\quad$| we are born |
| :--- |
| you are born |
| they are born |\right.

Past Imperfect Time.


Past Perfect Time.

| je naquis <br> tu naquis <br> il naquit | I was born <br> thou wert born <br> he was born | nous naquîmes <br> vous naquittes <br> ils naquirent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we were born |
| :--- |
| you were born |
| they were born |

## Future Time.

$\left.$| je nastrai |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu naitras |
| il naitra |$\quad$| I shall be born |
| :--- |
| thou shalt be born |
| he shall be born | \right\rvert\, | nous naîtrons |
| :--- |
| vous naitrez |
| ils naitront |$\quad$| we shall be born |
| :--- |
| you shall be born |
| they shall be born |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| je naisse |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu naisses |
| il naisse |\(\quad\left|\begin{array}{l}I may be born <br>

thou mayest be born <br>

he may be born\end{array}\right|\)| nous naissions |
| :--- |
| vous naissiez |
| ils naissent |$\quad$| we may be born' |
| :--- |
| you may be born |
| they may be born |

Past Imperfect Time.

| ds | I should be born | nous naîtrions | should be born |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ta naitrois | thoushouldstbeborn | vous naîtriez | you should be born |
| il naitroit | he should be born | ils naîtroient | theyshould be born |

## Past Perfect Time.

je naquisse tu naquiscies il naguit

I might be born
thou mightestbeborn he might be born
|nous naquissions vous naquissiez ils naquissent
we might be born you might be born theymighthe born

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

| nais |
| :--- | :--- |
| qưil naisse |$\quad$| be born |
| :--- |
| let him be born |$\quad$| naissons |
| :--- |
| naissez |
| qu'ils naissent |$\quad$| let us be born |
| :--- |
| be born |
| let them be bo1n |

Participles.


## 225 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE:

Ouvrir , II To Open.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| jouvre <br> tu ouvres <br> il ouvre | I open thou openest he opens | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & \text { nous ouvrons } \\ & \text { vous ouvrez } \\ & \text { ils ouvrent } \end{aligned}\right.$ | we open you open they open |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Past Imperfect Time. |  |  |  |
| j'ouvrois <br> tu ourrois <br> il ourroit | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & \text { I opened } \\ & \text { thou openedst } \\ & \text { he opened } \end{aligned}\right.$ | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & \text { nous ouvrions } \\ & \text { vous ouvriez } \\ & \text { ils ouvroient } \end{aligned}\right.$ | \|we opened you opened they opened |
| Past Perfect Time. |  |  |  |
| j'ourris | I opened | nous ourrimes | We opened |
| ta ouvris il ouvrit | thou openedst he opened | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & \text { vous ourrites } \\ & \text { ils ouvrirent }\end{aligned}\right.$ | you opened they opened |
| Future Time. |  |  |  |
| j'ourrirai | I shall open | nous ouvrirons | We shall open |
| tu ouvriras | thou shalt open | (e) $\begin{aligned} & \text { vous ourrirez } \\ & \text { ils ourriront }\end{aligned}$ | you shall open |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| j'ouvre |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu ouvres |
| il ouvre |$\quad$| l may open |
| :--- |
| thou mayest open |
| he may open |$\quad$| nous ouvrions |
| :--- |
| vous ouvriez |
| ils ouvrent |$\quad$| we may open |
| :--- |
| you may open |
| they may open |

## Past Imperfect Time.

$\left.$| j' ouvrirois |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu ouvrirois |
| il ouvriroit |\(\quad\left|\begin{array}{l}I should open <br>

thous shouldest open <br>

he should open\end{array}\right|\)| nous ouvririons |
| :--- |
| vous ouvririez |
| ils ouvriroient | \right\rvert\, | we should open |
| :--- |
| you should open |
| they should open |

Past Perfect Time.
j'ouvrisse
tu ouvrisses
il ouvrit

$|$| 1 might open <br> thou mightest open <br> he might open | nous ouvrissions <br> vous ou vrissiez <br> ils ouvrissent | we might open <br> you might open <br> they might open |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

| ouvre <br> qu'il ouvre | ouvrons <br> ouvrez <br> open <br> let him open | let us open <br> open <br> let them open |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

Participles.


Future Time.

| je plairai | I shall please <br> tu plairas <br> il plaira | thou shalt please: <br> he shall please |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | nous plairons |
| :--- |
| vous plairez |
| ils plairont |$\quad$| we shall please |
| :--- |
| you shall please |
| they shall please |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je plaise |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu plaises |
| il plaise |$\quad$| I may please |
| :--- | :--- |
| thou mayest please |
| he may please |$\quad$| nous plaisions |
| :--- |
| vous plaisiez |
| ils plaisent |$\quad$| we may please |
| :--- |
| you may please |
| they may please |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je plairois |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu plairois |
| il plairoit |\(\quad\left|\begin{array}{l}I should please <br>

thou shouldst please <br>

he should please\end{array}\right|\)| nous plairions |
| :--- |
| vous plairiez |
| ils plairoient |$\quad$| we should please |
| :--- |
| you should please |
| they should please |

## Past Perfect Time.

| je plusse |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu plasses |
| il plutt |$\quad$| I might please |
| :--- |
| thou mightest please |
| he might please | \left\lvert\, | nous plussions |
| :--- |
| vous plussiez |
| ils plussent |$\quad$| we might please |
| :--- |
| you might please |
| they might please |\right.

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

| plais <br> qu'il plaise | please <br> let him please | plaisons <br> plaisez <br> qu'ils plaisent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |$|$| let us please |
| :--- |
| please |
| let them please |

## Participles.

## 227 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Pouvoir \| To be Able, or, To have Power.<br>INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| je puis, or peux <br> tu peux <br> il peut | I am able <br> thou art able <br> he is able | nous pouvons <br> vous pouvez <br> $i l s ~ p e u v e n t ~$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we are able |
| :--- |
| you are able |
| they are able |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je pouvois <br> tu pouvois <br> il pouvoit | I was able <br> thou wast able <br> he was able | Past Perfect Time. <br> nous pouvions <br> vous pouviez <br> ils pouvoient |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we were able |
| :--- |
| you were able |
| they were able |

Future Time.
je pourrai tu pourras
il pourra

I shall be able thou shalt be able he shall be able
$\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & \text { nous pourrons } \\ & \text { vous pourrez } \\ & \text { ils pourront }\end{aligned}\right.$
we shall be able you shall be able they shall be able

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| je puisse |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| to puisses |
| il puisse |\(\quad\left|\begin{array}{l}I may be able <br>

thou mayest be able <br>

he may be able\end{array}\right|\)| nous puissions |
| :--- |
| vous puissiez |
| ils puissent |$\quad$| we may be able |
| :--- |
| you may be able |
| they may be able |

Past Imperfect Time,
je pourrois tu pourrois il pourroit
je pusse tu pusses il pot

## 228 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Prendre. To Take.
INDICATIVE MODE.
Present Time.

| je prends <br> tu prends <br> il prend | I take <br> thou takest <br> he takes | nous prenons <br> vous prenez <br> ils prennent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | Peast Imperfect Time. |
| :--- |

## Future Time.

je prendrai ta prendras il prendra

I shall take thou shalt take the shall take
nous prendrons vous prendrez ils prendront
(we shall take you shall take they shall take

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODN.

Present Time
je prenne,
tu prennes
il prenne
je prendrois tu prendrois il prendroit
je prisse ta prisses il prit
$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { I may take } \\ \text { thou mayest take } \\ \text { he may take }\end{array}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { nous prenions } \\ \text { vous preniez } \\ \text { ils prennent }\end{array}\right.\right.$

We may take you may take they may take

Past Inperfect Time.

II should take |nous prendrions thou shouldest take he should take ils prendroient
we should take you should take they should take

Past Perfect Time.
\(\left|\begin{array}{l|l}I might take <br>
thou mightest take <br>

he might take\end{array}\right|\)| nous prissions |
| :--- |
| vous prissiez |
| ils prissent |$\quad$| we might take |
| :--- |
| you might take |
| they might take |

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

| prends <br> qu'il prenne | take <br> let him take | prenons <br> prenez <br> quils prennent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | let us take |
| :--- |
| take |
| let them take |

Participles.

```
prenant || taking
pris
taking
taken.
```


## 229 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Résoudre || Tor Resolve.

## INDICATIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je résous |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu résous |
| il résoud |$\quad$| I resolve |
| :--- |
| thou resolvest |
| he resolves |$\quad$| nous résolvons |
| :--- |
| vous résolvez |
| ils résolvent |$\quad$| we resolve |
| :--- |
| you resolve |
| they resolve |

Past Imperfect Time.

| ie résolvois | I resolved <br> tu résolvois <br> il résolvoit | nous résolvions <br> he ressolved |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | wo resolved |
| :--- |
| vous résolviez |
| ils résolvoient |$\quad$| you resolved |
| :--- |
| they resolved |

Past Perfect Time.
je résolus
tu résolus
il résolut
je résoudrai
tu résoudras
il résoudra

$\left\lvert\,$| I resolved |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| thou resolvedst |
| he resolved |$\quad$| nous résolûmes |
| :--- |
| vous résolâtes |
| iils résolurent |$\quad$| we resolved |
| :--- |
| you resolved |
| they resolved |\right.

Future Time.
$\mid$ I shall resolve |nous résoudrons |we shall resolve thou shalt resolve he shall resolve
vous résoudrez ils résoudront

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

je résolve
tu résolve il résolve
| I may resolve ||nous résolvions thou mayest resolve he may resolve vous résolviez ils résolvent
|we may resolve you may resolve they may resolve

## Past Imperfect Time.

je résoudrois ta résoudrois il résoudroit
je résolusse
tu résolusses
il résolât

I should resolve $\mid$ nous résoudrions thoushouldstresolve vous résoudriez he should resolve ils résoudroient
we should resolve youshould resolve theyshould resolve

Past Perfect Time.
I might resolve |nous résolussions thoumightestresolve vous résolussiez he might resolve |ils résolussent
|we might resolve you might resolve theymightresolve

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

| résous <br> qu'il résolve | resolve <br> let him resolve | résolvons <br> résolvez <br> qu'ils résolvent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | let us resolve |
| :--- |
| resolve |
| let them resolve |

Participles.

| résolvant |
| :--- |
| résolu |$\|$| resolving |
| :--- |
| resolved. |

## 230 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Revêtir \| To Invest.
INDICATIVE MODE.
Present Time.

| je revêts |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu revêts |
| il revêt |$\quad \left\lvert\,$| 1 invest |
| :--- |
| thou investest |
| he invests |$\quad$| nous revêtons |
| :--- |
| vous revêtez |
| ils revêtent |$\quad$| we invest |
| :--- |
| you invest |
| they invest |\right.

Past Imperfect Time.

| je revêtois |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu revêtois |
| il revetoit |$\quad$| I invested |
| :--- |
| thou investedst |
| he invested |$\quad$| nous revêtions |
| :--- |
| vous revêtiez |
| ils revêtoient |$\quad$| we invested |
| :--- |
| you invested |
| they invested |


| je revêtis |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu revetis |
| il revetit |$\quad$| I invested |
| :--- |
| thou investedst |
| he invested |$\quad$| nous revêtı̂mes |
| :--- |
| vous revêt̂tes |
| iis revêtirent |$\quad$| we invested |
| :--- |
| you invested |
| they invested |

## Future Time.

$\left.$| je revêtirai |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu revêtiras |
| il revêtira |$\quad$| I shall invest |
| :--- |
| thou shalt invest |
| he shall invest |$\quad \right\rvert\,$| nous revêtirons |
| :--- |
| vous revetirez |
| ils revetiront |$\quad$| we shall invest |
| :--- |
| you shall invest |
| they shall invest |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je revete |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu revêtes |
| il revête |$\quad \left\lvert\,$| I may invest |
| :--- |
| thou mayest invest |
| he may invest |$\quad$| nous revêtions |
| :--- |
| vous revêtiez |
| ils revêtent |$\quad$| we may invest |
| :--- |
| you may invest |
| they may invest |\right.

Past Imperfect Time.

| je revétirois <br> tu revetirois <br> il revêtiroit | $I$ should invest <br> thou shouldst invest <br> he should invest | nous revêtirions <br> vous revêtiriez <br> ils revêtiroient |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we should invest |
| :--- |
| you should invest |
| they should invest |

Past Perfect Time.

| je revêtisse <br> tu revetisses <br> il revêtit | I might invest <br> thou mightest invest <br> he might invest | nous revêtissions <br> vous revêtissiez <br> ils revêtissent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we might invest |
| :--- |
| you might invest |
| they might invest |

## IMPERATIVE MODE.

| revêts <br> qu'il revete | invest <br> let him invest | revêtons <br> revêtez <br> qu'ils revêtent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | let us invest |
| :--- |
| invest |
| let them invest |

## Participles.

231 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.
Rire \| To Laugh.
INDICATIVE MODE.
Present Time.

| je ris tu ris il rit | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & \text { I laugh } \\ & \text { thou laughest } \\ & \text { he laughs } \end{aligned}\right.$ | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & \text { nous rions } \\ & \text { vous riez } \\ & \text { ils rient } \end{aligned}\right.$ | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & \text { we laugh } \\ & \text { you laugh } \\ & \text { they laugh } \end{aligned}\right.$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Past Imperfect Time. |  |  |  |
| je riois tur riois il rioit | I laughed thou laughedst he laughed | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & \text { nous rions } \\ & \text { vous riez } \\ & \text { ils rioient } \end{aligned}\right.$ | \|we laughed you laughed they laughed |
| Past Perfect Time. |  |  |  |
| je ris tu ris il rit | I laughed | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & \text { nous rîmes } \\ & \text { vous rites } \\ & \text { ild } \end{aligned}\right.$ | we laughed you laughed |

Future Time.
je rirai
tu riras
il rira
I shall laugh thou shalt laugh |he shall laugh

$\|$| nous rirons |
| :--- |
| nous rirez |
| vils rirant |

we shall laugh you shalt laugh fthey shall laugh

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

je rie
tu ries
il rie
je rirois tu rirois il riroit
je risse tu risses il rit

$\left\lvert\,$| I may laugh |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| thou mayest laugh |
| he may laugh |$\quad$| nous rions |
| :--- |
| vous riez |
| ils rient |$\quad$| we may laugh |
| :--- |
| you may laugh |
| they may laugh |\right.

Past Imperfect Time.
\(\left|\begin{array}{l|l}I should laugh <br>
thou shouldst laugh <br>

he should laugh\end{array}\right|\)| nous ririons |
| :--- |
| yous ririez |
| ils riroient |$\quad$| we strould laugh |
| :--- |
| you should laugh |
| they should laugh |

Past Perfect Time.
\(\left|\begin{array}{l|l}I might laugh <br>
thou mightest laugh <br>

he might laugh\end{array}\right|\)| nous rissions |
| :--- |
| vous rissiez |
| ils rissent |, | we might laugh |
| :--- |
| you might laugh |
| they might laugh |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

| ris <br> qu'il rie\left\lvert\,laugh <br> let him laugh$\quad\right.$ | rions <br> riez <br> qu'ils rient |
| :--- | :--- | | let us laugh |
| :--- |
| laugh |
| let them laugh |

Participles.
$\underset{\text { riant }}{\text { riang }}$ l| laughing.
232 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

- Rompre if To Break.

INDICATIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je romps tu romps il rompt | I break thou breakest he breaks | $\\| \begin{aligned} & \text { nous rompons } \\ & \text { vous rompez } \\ & \text { ils rompent } \end{aligned}$ | we break you break they break |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Past Imperfect Time. |  |  |  |
| je rompois tu rompois il rompoit | I broke thou brokest he broke | $\\| \begin{aligned} & \text { nous rompions } \\ & \text { vous rompiez } \\ & \text { ils rompoient } \end{aligned}$ | Twe broke you broke they broke |
| Past Perfect Time. |  |  |  |
| je romprs tur rompis il rompit | I broke thou brokest he broke | nous rompîmes vous rompites ils rompireat. | we broke you broke they broke |

## Future Time.

| je romprai | I shall break <br> tu rompras <br> il <br> il rompra shalt break | nous romprons <br> vous romprez <br> ionall break |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we shall break |
| :--- |
| you shall break |
| they shall break |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

$\left.$| je rompe |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu rompes |
| il rompe |$\quad$| l may break <br> thou mayest break <br> he may break |
| :--- | \right\rvert\, | nous rompions |
| :--- |
| vous rompiez |
| ils rompent |$\quad$| we may break |
| :--- |
| you may break |
| iney may break |

Past Imperfect Time.

|  | I should break | nous romprions | \|we should Dreak ${ }^{\text {- }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |
| tu romprois il romproit | thou shouldest break <br> he should break | vous rompriez |  |

## Past Perfect Time.

je romplisse
tu rompisses
il rompit

I might 'break thou mightest break he might break
nous rompissions vous rompissiez ils rompissent
we might break you might break they might break

## IMPERATIVE MODE

| romps |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| qu'il rompe | | break |
| :--- |
| let him break | \left\lvert\, | rompons |
| :--- |
| rompez |
| qu' ils rompent |$\quad$| let us oreak |
| :--- |
| break |
| let them ireak |\right.

Participles.
233 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Savoir II To Know.

INDICATIVE MODE.

| Present Time. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| je sais | I know | nous savons | we know |
| tu sais | thou knowest | vous savez | you know |
| il sait | he knows | ils savent | they know |
| Past Imperfect Time. |  |  |  |
| je savois tu savois il savoit | I knew | nous savions | we knew |
|  | thou knewest | vous saviez | you knew |
|  |  |  |  |
|  | Past Perfect Time. |  |  |
| je sus tusus il sut | I knew thou knewest he knew | nous sames | we knew |
|  |  | vous sintes | you knew |
|  |  | ils surent | they knew |
| Future Time. |  |  |  |
| je saurai |  | nous saurons | we shall know |
| tu sauras | thou shalt know | yous saurez | you shall know |
| il saura | he shall know | ils sauront | they shall know |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je sache | I may know <br> tu saches | thou mayest know <br> il sache |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | ne may know |
| :--- |
| vous sachions |
| ils sachent |$\quad$| we may know |
| :--- |
| you may know |
| they may know |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je saurois | I should know <br> tu saurois <br> thou shouldest know <br> il sauroit | nous saurions <br> vous should know <br> vouriez |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ils sauroient |  |  |$\quad$| we should know |
| :--- |
| you should know |
| they should know |

Past Perfect Time.

| je susse <br> tu susses <br> il sut | I might know <br> thou mightest know <br> he might know | nous sussions <br> vous sussiez <br> ils sussent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |$\quad$| we might know |
| :--- |
| you might know |
| they might know |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

| sais | know <br> qu' il sache | sachons <br> sachez <br> qu'ils sachent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | let us know |
| :--- |
| know |
| let them know |

Participles.
sachant
su $\left|\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{l}\text { knowing } \\ \text { known. }\end{array}\right.\right.$

## 234 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Suirre II To Follow.
INDICATIVE MODE.
Present Tine.
$\left.\begin{array}{l|l||l}\begin{array}{l}\text { je suis } \\ \text { tu suis } \\ \text { il suit }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { I follow } \\ \text { thoul followest } \\ \text { he follows }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { nous suivons } \\ \text { tous suivez } \\ \text { ils suivent }\end{array} \\ \text { Past Imperfect Time. }\end{array} \begin{array}{l}\text { we follow } \\ \text { you follow } \\ \text { they follow }\end{array}\right]$

Past Perfect Time.

| je suivis | I followed <br> tu suivis | nous suivinmes <br> thou followedst <br> he followed |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | ve followed |
| :--- |
| vous suivites |
| ils suivirent |$\quad$| you followed |
| :--- |
| they followed |,

Future Time.

| je suivrai | I shall follow <br> tu suivras | nous suivrons <br> thou shalt follow <br> il suivra | we shall follow <br> vous shall follow |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | vourez |
| :--- |
| ils' suivront |$\quad$| you shall follow |
| :--- |
| they shall follow |

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| je suive | I may follow | nous suivions <br> tu suives | thou may follow <br> vous suiviez |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| il suive | he may follow follow | you may follow <br> ils suivent | they may follow |

Past Imperfect Tinue.

| je sulvrois |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu suivrois |
| il suivroit |$\quad$| I should follow |
| :--- |
| thoushouldest follow |
| he should follow |$\quad$| nous suivrions |
| :--- |
| vous suivriez |
| ils suivroient |$\quad$| we should follow |
| :--- |
| you should follow |
| they should follow |

## Past Perfect Time.

```
je suivisse
tu suivisses
il suivit
```

I might follow thou mightest follow he might follow
nous suivissions vous suivissiez ils suivissent
we might follow you might follow they might follow

IMPERATIVE MODE.

| suis | follow <br> qu' il suive |
| :--- | :--- |
| let him follow |  |


$|$| suivons |
| :--- |
| suivez |
| qu'ils suivent |

Participles.


233 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Traire \| To Milk.
INDICATIVE MODE.
Present Time.

| je trais | I milk <br> tu trais | nous trayons <br> thou milkest |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| il trait | he milks | vous trayez | | wo milk |
| :--- |
| ils traient |$\quad$| you milk |
| :--- |
| they milk |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je trayeis | I milked <br> tu trayois | nous trayions <br> il trayoit milkedst | we milked <br> vens trayiez <br> ils trayoient |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he mou milked | they milked |  |  |
| they |  |  |  |

Past Perfect Time.
[Nat used in this Time.]
Fisture Time.

| je trairai | I shall milk <br> tu trairas | thou shalt milk <br> he shall milk | nous trairons <br> vous trairez <br> ils traira |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | we shall milk |
| :--- |
| you shall milk |
| they shall milk |

## SURJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time

| je traie <br> tu traies <br> il traie | I may milk <br> thou mayest milk <br> he may milk | nous trayions <br> vous trayiez <br> ils traient | we may milk <br> you may milk <br> they may milk |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Paperfect Time |  |  |  |

## . Past Perfect Time.

[Not used in this Time.]

## JMPERATIVE MODE.

|  | trais <br> quilk traie | milk <br> let bim milk |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |$\quad$| trayons |
| :--- |
| trayez |
| qu' ils traient |$\quad$| let us milk |
| :--- |
| milk |
| let them milk |

Participles:


INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Time.

| je tressaille | I burst ont <br> tu tressailles <br> in tressaille | thou burstest out <br> he bursts out |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |$|$| nous tressaillons |
| :--- |
| vous tressaillez |
| ils tressailent |$\quad$| we burst out |
| :--- |
| you burst out |
| they burst out |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je tressaillois <br> tu tressaillois | I bursted out <br> thou burstedst out <br> il tressalloit | nous tressaillions <br> yous tressailliez <br> his bursted out |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |$|$| we bursted out |
| :--- |
| you bursted out |
| ihe tressailloient |$\quad$| they bursted out |
| :--- |

Past Perfect Time.

| je tressaillis |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu tressaillis |
| in tressaillit |$\quad$| 1 bursted out |
| :--- |
| thou burstedst out |
| he bursted out |$\quad$| nous tressailîmes |
| :--- |
| vous tressailhtes |
| ils tressaillirent |$\quad$| we bursted out |
| :--- |
| you bursted out |
| they bursted out |

## Future Time.

| je treszillirai <br> tu tressaillira | 1 shall burst out <br> thou shalt burst out | nous tressaillirons <br> vous tressaillirez | we shall burst out |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| you shall burst ou |  |  |  | il tressaillira

thou shalt burst out the shall burst out
nous tressaillirons vous tressaillirez ils tressailliront
you shall burst ou they shall burst ou

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je tressaille | I may burst out <br> tu tressailles | nous tressaillions <br> thou mayest burst out <br> ii tressaille |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | vous tressailliez |
| :--- |
| vas burst out |

we may burst out you may burst out they may burst out

## Past Imperfect Time.

fe tressallirois tu tressaillirois a tressailliroit

I should burst out thou shouldest burst out the should burst out
noais tressaillirions vous tressailliriez ils tressailliroient

We should burst on you should burst ot they should burst 0

## Past Perfect Time.

| e tressafllisse |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu tressaillisses |
| i treesaillit |\(\left|\begin{array}{l}I might burst ount <br>

thou mightest burst out <br>

he might burst out\end{array}\right|\)| nous tressaillissions |
| :--- |
| vous tressaillissiez |
| ils tressaillissent |$\quad$| we might burst out |
| :--- |
| you might burst ou |
| they might burst o |

[Not used in the Imperative Mode.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Participles. } \\
\begin{array}{c}
\text { tressaillant } \\
\text { tressailli }
\end{array} \| \begin{array}{l}
\text { bursting out } \\
\text { bursted aut. }
\end{array}
\end{gathered}
$$

Voir I To Sec.
INDICATIVE MODE.
Present Time. ${ }^{*}$

| je vais til vois. il voit | I see thou seest he sees | nous voyons vous voyez ils voient | we see you see they soe |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Past Imperfect Time. |  |  |  |
| je voyois | I saw | nous voyions | we saw |
| tu vuyois | thou sawest | vous voyiez | you saw |
| il voyait | he saw | ils voyoient | they saw |

## Past Perfect Time.

| je vis <br> tu vis <br> il vit | I saw <br> thou sawest <br> he saw | nous vîmes <br> vous vites <br> ils virent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |, | we saw |
| :--- |
| you saw |
| they saw |,

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

## Present Time.

| je voie <br> tu voies <br> il voie | I may see <br> thou mayest see <br> he may see | noas voyions <br> vous voyiez <br> ils voient |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we may see |
| :--- |
| you may see |
| they may see |

Past Imperfect Time.

| je verrois <br> tu verrois | I should see <br> thou shouldest see <br> il verroit | nous verrions <br> rous verriez |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| he should see |  |  |$\quad$| we should see |
| :--- |
| you should see |
| ils verroient |$\quad$| they should see |
| :--- |

## Past Perfect Time.

| je visse | 1 might see | nous vissions | we might see |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tu vispe | thou mightest see | vissie | migh |
| il vit | he might see | ils vissent | hey might see |

## IMPERATIVE, MODE.

|  |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| vois | see <br> $q u '$ il vare |
| let him see |  |


| voyons |
| :--- | :--- |
| voyez |
| qu'ils voient |$\quad$| let us see |
| :--- |
| see |
| let them see. |

Participles.


## 240 Paragraph.] INFINITIVE MODE.

Vouloir II To be Willing.
INDICATIVE MODE.
Present Time.

| je veux <br> tu veux | I am willing <br> thou art willing <br> il veut | nous voulons <br> he is willing |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ils veulent |  |  |$\quad$| we are willing |
| :--- |
| you are willing |
| they are willing |

## Past Imperfect Time.

| je voulois <br> tu voulois <br> il vouloit | I was willing <br> thou wast willing <br> he was willing | nous voulions <br> vous vouliez <br> ills vouloient |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we were willing |
| :--- |
| you were willing |
| they were willing |

Past Perfect Time.

| je votilus |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ta voulus |
| il voulut |$\quad$| I was willing |
| :--- |
| thou wast willing |
| he was willing |\(\quad\left\{\begin{array}{l}nous voulames <br>

vous voulutes <br>
ils voulurent\end{array} \quad\left\{$$
\begin{array}{l}\text { we were willing } \\
\text { you were willing } \\
\text { they were willing }\end{array}
$$\right.\right.\)

Future Time.

| fe voudrat |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tu voudras |
| il voudra |\(\quad \begin{aligned} \& I shall be willing <br>

\& thou shalt be willing <br>
\& he shall be willing\end{aligned}\left|$$
\begin{array}{l}\text { nous voudrons } \\
\text { vous voudrez } \\
\text { ils voudront }\end{array}
$$\right| $$
\begin{aligned} & \text { we shall be willing } \\
& \text { you shall be willing } \\
& \text { they shall be willing }\end{aligned}
$$\)

## SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

## Present Time.

| je veuille <br> tu veuile <br> il veuille | I may be willing <br> thou mayest be willing <br> he may be willing | nous voulions <br> vous vouliez <br> ils veuillent |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | | we may be willing |
| :--- |
| you may be willing |
| they may be willing |

## Past Inperfect Time.

| is | I should be willing | nous voudrions |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| voudrois | thou shouldest be willing | vous voudriez |  |
| voudr | he should be willing | udroient | they should be willing |

## Past Perfect Tinue.

je vonlusse 1 I might be willing ta voulusses thou mightest be willing il voulât he might be willing
|nous voulussions $\mid$ we might be willing yous voulussiez you might be willing ils voulussent they might be willing

IMPERATIVE MODE.
[Not used in this Time.]
Participles.
voulant voulu
being willing
been willing.
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 worbs 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 of 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 infinitve, 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, chante, a, apprend, parler, siffer and fait. 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 étre.
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.
siffer: Regular verb ; first conjugation; infinitive mode.
fait: Regular verb; sixth conjugation; indicative mode; present time; third person singular. Part of the verb faire.
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 vinse, and others je vinsse: some write je cous, 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 authere to one practice.



## LETTER XV.

## SYNTAX GENERALLY CONSIDERED.

## My dear Riciard,

246. In paragraph 27, which you will now read again, I described to you what Syntax meaned. It is the ari 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 uords; 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 hitberto 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, il faut requires the verb that comes after it to be in the subjunctive mode; and écris is, as you will know by this time, the Indicative mode of écrire. The Subjunctive is écrive; 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.
249. Besides, however, the concord and government, there is the placing of the words. We, for iastance, 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.

## LETTER XVI.

## 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. 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.

Q52. This work of pointing is, in a great degree, a matter of taste. Some persons put into one sentence what others mould 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 Elision, is a comma, placed above the line (') The Hypuen connects words (-).
254. As to the marks for the purpose of reference, such as, ${ }^{*} \dagger \dagger$, 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 XVII.

## SYNTAX OF ARTICLES.

## My dear Richard,

255. You will now turn back to Letter V., and read it, once more, carefnlly 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 inderinite Article, the definite Article, and what I call the Compocnd Article; that is, the Article united 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, un 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, Monsieur 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 so, 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 boisseau.
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 piece.
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 par 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 Anglois. 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 :

$$
\begin{array}{l|l}
\text { He has a gardener. } & \text { Il a un jardinier. } \\
\text { I see an Englishman. } & \text { Je vois un Anglois. }
\end{array}
$$

You see, the article is, in the former cases, left out, in the French, with very good reason; for, the words gardener and Englishmen, 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 exclamation; as: what $a$ house! The French never do this: they say, quelle maison! When there is another $a$ in English and two nouns; as: what $a$ fool of $a$ lawyer, the French simply put the preposition before the last noun ; as: quel sot
$d$ 'avocat. When we use an adjective in sentences of this sort, we still use the article; but the French never. When our exclamation begins by what, followed by $a$, and goes on to use a verb before it has done, the difference in the two languages is great indeed; as:

What a good boy Richard is:
Le bon garçon que Richard!
What $a$ fine country Italy is !
Le beau pays que l'Italie !

These two sentences, put into English literally, would stand thus :

The good boy that Richard :
The fine country that Italy !

These seem, at first sight, to be two pieces of prime nonsense; but they contain perfectly good sense; and are much more obviously consonant with reason than the English sentences are. They are purely exclamatory : they, therefore, need neither article nor verb. They are full as expressive in French as they are in English ; and they are, beyond all comparison, more elegant.
263. It is hardly necessary for me to repeat to you, that the article must agree in gender with the noun to which it applies. Our article has no change to express gender; but this is a most importont matter in French, and must be scrupulously attended to. There are, as you have seen, some nouns which are masculine in one sense, and feminine in another, though spelled, in both cases, in the same way. If, for instance, I say, un ange, I mean an angel; but, if I say, une ange, I mean a fish of that name. If I say, un aune, I mean an alder tree; but, if I say, une aune, I
mean an ell. Nothing can more forcibly show the necessity of strict attention to the gender of the articles.
264. Being now about to dismiss this indefinite article, let me again remind you, that in French, these two words, $u n$ 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.
$U n$ homme avoit $u n$ 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 oljject 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 pound is livre, that shilling is schelin, and that five is cinq. Your rule has just told you, that the English $a$ is not, in this case, expressed in French. Your translotion 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 $I l$, 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.
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 bad 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.
25. A Jew's beard. One Barbary horse.
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.
31. A book and a fiower.
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 tranolation! 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; aud, 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 dificulty.
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 proper nouns. But, the names of countries, provinces, islands, and some other parts, or divisions, of the earth, take the article in French. Also the names of metals, virtues, vices, arts, sciences, grain, seed; and, many other things. These do not, as we well know, take the article in English; or, at least, they seldom do. Proper nouns of cities, towns and willages follow, with a few exceptions, the rule relative to the proper names of persons. Take a few examples:

France is in Europe, Normandy is in France, Rouen is in Normandy, The estates are in Jamaica, Patience is very useful, Intemperance destroys health, Wheat is dear, Iron is heavy,

La France ext dans CEurops La Normandic est dans la France: Rouen est dans la Normandie.
Les biens sont dans la Jamaïque.
$L a$ patience est bien utile.
$L$ 'intempérance détruit la santé.
$L e$ froment est cher.
Le fer est lourd.

There are some exceptions, as to the names of those countries which take their names from those of their capital Cities; as: Verice, Florence, and others. These, however, will come under your eye in the course of the Exercises; and therefore need not be more particularly mentioned here. The French use the article with the proper names of a few celebrated Italian poets and painters. But this is not worthy of particular notice.
268. But, you must observe well, that, when we speak of going to a country, of coming from it, or remaining in it; or when we speak of something belonging to a country; in these cases, the article is not used in French any more than in English. For we say, "il vient de France," and not " de la France." We say, "il va en France; il demeure en France," and not, en la France. We say, drap $d^{\prime}$ Angleterre ;" and not, de $l$ ' Angleterre. However, there are many exceptions to this rule : there are a great many countries and islands, and some towns and cities, the names of which always keep the articles, under all circumstances. Many of these will, however, come into the Exercises; and as to those which do not, they very seldom occur. They are 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 mascutine, 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 Bourbors. 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 Gon, 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, Cuptain White. But, in French you must use the article, and say, le Docteur and le Capitaine. We do not put $M r$. 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 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 sheej." 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 or 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 Bolleau, furnish us with examples.

> The proper study of mankind is man.
> Le plus sot animal, à mon avis, c'est ${ }^{\prime}$ ' homme.

2\%4. 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 the same of the country. There are certain prepositions 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 II.

2. America, Asia, Africa, and Europe.
3. Prussia is a part of Germany.
s. Venice, Valentia, Grenada.

4, He comes from Rochelle.
5. He lives at Havre de Grace.
6. He has set out for Cayenne.
7. I live in England.
9. You come from Portugal,
9. They live in Martinico.
10. She is going to Italy.
11. The Thames.
12. The Rhine.
13. The Severn, the Seine.
14. Drunkenness is detestable.
15. Murder deserves death.
16. Laziness brings poverty.
17. Loam at top, clay next, and then chalk.
18. Barley is cheap this year.
19. Horses eat grass and hay.
20. The horse is an useful animal.
21. Birds fly, hawks fly.
29. Hawks kill other birds.
23. He comes from China.
94. The wine of Burgundy.
25. The cloth of England.
26. The horses of Flanders.
27. The cows of Normandy.
28. Trees grow well in fine Summers.
29. Summer is past.
30. I see, that the trees grow well.
31. Captain White has set off.
sc2. Birds sing in Spring.
33. How do you do, Captain?
34. Pears are ripe in Autumn.
35. Dr. Johnson dreaded death.
36. Queen Elizabeth and Pope Sixtux.
37. Rooks eat corn.

3S. Boys kill rooks.
39. The Boys kill the rooks.
40. Philosophers disagree.
41. He is in the country.
42. She was in town.
43. God, heaven, and hell.
44. Gardens look gray in Spring.
45. Flowers fade in Summer.
46. They die in Autumn.
47. Love was the subject of the letter.
48. Apples are very good fruit.
49. The Apples are dear this season.
50. Foxes kill fowls.

5l. Bread, meat, flour, butter.
52. Earth, air, fire, water, all combine.
53. The air is cold to-day.
54. Winter is near.
55. Rain fell abundantly yesterday.
56. Oats are very dear.
57. Cheese is very scarce.
58. I like black better than blue.
59. He likes hunting.
60. Exercise is good for man.
61. Drinking to excess kills him.
62. Prudent men avoid quarrels.
63. Birds sing while sluggards snore.
64. Here, man! That way, woman!
65. Wood and water and fire.
66. Light and darkness, heat and cold.'
67. Articles are a part of speech.

C3. He has arms.
69. He has black hair.
70. The Dutch carry on commerce.
71. The Americans divide the Lakes with the English.
72. They are going to Canada.
73. Nova Scotia is a cold country.
74. Indian corn grows well in France.
75. Tobacco is a product of Virginia.
76. Cotton comes from Georgia :
77. From Florida and from the Brazils.
78. The Peruvians have gold in abundance.
79. The Mexicans have a great deal of silver.
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 85 . You see, then, that, the words $d u$, 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 $d u$ 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 $d u$ foin," 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 parcel; 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 Maitre D'Anglois, I had this illustration of the matter :

> J' ai plusieurs amis ici, J' ai quelques amis ici, d' ai des amis ici,
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 Frenci 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 $d u$, 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 smallness, 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 definitive article; as : give me some of the sugar which you have bought today. Bear in mind that the French have no words, that, in this work of limiting nouns, answer to our some, or any. The business of these words is performed by $d u$, de $l a$, and des.
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.
2.9. 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 85 . But, if the adjective come after the noun, the article is used, as: ils ont du pain; ils ont de bon pain; ils ont $d u$ 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 preqosition.

9SO. After certain words of quantity and number, as, beaucoz: (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 some word of number; as, quelque chose de bon; cinq poules de grasses; dix arpens de terre de labourés. However, bien, when used instead of beaucoup, must have the article before the next noun, though beauccup has it not.
281. Many other nicetics, 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 nicetieg withontfurther 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 articie. 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.
14. I hear a great 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.;
46. But their fruit is excellent.
47. What fine strawberries!
48. The spinage and the kidney beans.
49. The market is full of vegetables.
50. Wet weather is good for that ground.
51. The hay is all spoiled.
52. Hay will be dear next year.
53. Kidney beans are very abundant.
54. Lettuces are good in salads.
55. Oil, vinegar, pepper, salt, and mustard, are very useful things.
56. Olive-oil is much better than poppy-oil,
57. The first is made in France and Italy.
58. The last is made in Germany.
59. The sand-hill is very high:
60. Stones do the land no harm.
61. Horse-feed is cheap.
62. A great quantity of land.
63. 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 XVIH.

## SYNTAX OF NOUNS.

## My dear Richard,

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 Erench, 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.
284. There is a great proneness in our language to make compound words; as: gold-watch. The French have none of these words : they say, montre d or, watch of gold. The same may be said of our compound words which express the kind or occupation 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, maitre d, école, la porte de la cuisine.
285. These compound words of ours are sometimes translated into French by the help of $d$, and not of $d e$; as, drinking-glass, verre $\grave{a}$ boire. This seems reasonable; because it means, glass to drink with; but, they also say, cruche à l' eau, water-jug, and, poudre à canon, gunpowder. It is not easy to give a rule without numerous exceptions, for the using of $a$ and $d e$ 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 $a$ and not of $d e$; as: writing-paper, papier d écrire : dining-room, salle à manger. In other cases they make use of de.
286. In translating the following Exercise pay particular attention to the genders, and to the forming 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 paragraph 68, you must look at again. Bear in mind, that the articles and adjectives must agree in gender and number with the nouns to which they apply. Bear in mind, that there are many nouns whick 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.
4. Four sons, five daughters.
5. Six children, seven friends.
6. A horse, a cow, a pig.
7. Eight horse's, nine cows, ten pigs.
8. Eleven walnuts. One walnut.
9. One child, twelve children.
10. An engagement.
11. Thirteen engagements.
12. Fourteen cabbages.
13. A very fine cabbage.
14. A black hat.
15. A great deal of wealth.
16. Fifteen hats.
17. Sixteen owls.
18. Seventeen nails.
19. A very great evil.
20. Evils in great number.
21. The eye of the horse.
22. My eyes are weak.
23. The water is clear.
24. The waters of Bath.
25. Eighteen baskets.
26. Nineteen night-caps.
27. Twenty garden-doors.
28. Twenty-one river-fish
29. The wolf's head.
30. The cat's claws.
31. The king's palace.
32. Thirty gold candlesticks.
33. Forty pewter-plates.
34. Fifty silver-spoons.
35. Sixty leather-shoes.
36. Seventy wooden-huts.
37. Eighty fire-shovels.
38. Ninety lambs.
39. One lamb and a sheep.
40. A hundred oxen.
41. A thousand birds.
42. One bird and a fox.
43. God is all-powerful.
44. The Gods of the Greeks.
45. A solitary place.
46. Solitary places.
47. He has a post.
48. In the post-office.
49. A pound of bread.
50. A book for you.
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. $\mathrm{Sir}, \mathrm{I}$ have seen the gentleinen.
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.
so. Go to Mr. White's.
80. William, John, and Richard's property.
81. Whose pen is that ?
82. The situation of this country.
83. The governor's situation.
84. Sheep's wool is good to make cloth.
85. They talk of the lady's house.

8\%. 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 Indeterninate. 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 uncom-. monly attentive.
990. 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 reyard 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 vefore the verb in French; as : je rous voris. 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 : $j e, i u$, 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 bave 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.
395. The first person singular is $\mathrm{I}-\mathrm{JE}$. Our $I$ is always a capital letter; but the French $j e$ 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 $j e$ is never thus used : You must never say, vous etes plus riche que $j e$. The place of the French pronoun, $j e$, 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 $j e$ may come after the verb; but you will see enough of that by-and-by. In the possessive case our $I$ becomes of $m e$, and in the objective, $m e$. In the French, the $j e$ becomes, in some cases, moi in the nominative, de moi in the possessive, and $m e$, 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 $m e$, in other cases, answer to our me. This same $m o i$ is sometimes answered by our $I$. If there were only the $j e$ and the $m e$ 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 $j e$ is before the verb; as:

| je frappe souvent, <br> $j e ~ b o i s ~ d u ~ v i n, ~$ | I strike often. <br> 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 $j e$, but by $m o i$; as :

> It is I who act, He knows it better than I, He writes as well as I, She is wiser than 1 ,

> C' est moi qui agis.
> Il le sait mieux que moi. ll écrit aussi bien que moi. 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 d moi. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Give me some paper, | Donnez- moi du papier. |
| They speak of me, | Ils parlent de moi. |
| lt is for me, | $\mathbf{C}^{\prime}$ est pour moi. |

And not, il vient $\grave{d} m e$, 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.
You give me some paper.
They speak to me,
It is agreeable to me, James has stricken me,

Il me frappe.
Vous me donnez du papier. Ils me parlent.
ll $m^{\prime}$ est agréable. Jacques $n{ }^{\prime}$ 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 $m e$, both of which, as we have just seen, are, sometimes, answered by moi : to know when this is, I have, 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 $t u$; and thee, which is our other case of this pronoun, is sometimes answered by $t e$ 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 $t u$ and te. Toi is used, as is the case with moi, when there is a preposition or a verb before the 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.

| $t u$ frappes souvent, | thou strikest often. <br> $t u$ bois du vin, |
| :--- | :--- |
| thou drinkest wine. |  |

Here, as was observed in the parallel case in the first person, there is no verb and no preposition coming before the French pronoun, and no conjuaction before ours. Therefore the toi is not used. But, now, attend to the following examples.

It is thun, who actest, He knows it better than thou, He writes as well as thou, She is wiser than thou,

He comes to thee, They speak of thee, Yt is for thee,

He strikes thee, I give thee some paper, They speak to thee, It is agreeable to thee, James has stricken thee,

C' est toi qui agis.
It le sait mieux que toi.
11 écrit aussi bien que toi.
Elle est plus sage que tot.
11 vient à toi.
Ils parlent de toi. C' est pour toi.

Il te frappe.
Je te donne du papier.
Ils te parlent.
Il $t^{\prime}$ est agréable.
Jacques $t^{\prime}$ a frappé.

Thus, you see, as $I$ and $m e$ are in certain occasions answered by moi; so thou and thee are answered by toi.
293. The third person singular, is IIE-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 souveni, | He strikes often. <br> 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 abore 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 luiand sometimes le. The rule that Igave 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 instend of $i l$ and $l e$. 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 $k e$, Jou write as well as ice, She is wiser than he,

We come to him, They speak of him, 1t is for him,
3hicy strike him, Jannes has stricken him,

C'est lui qui agit
Elle le sait mienx que lui.
Vous écrivez anss bien que hai. Elle est plus sage pue lui.

Nous venons à lai. ils parlent de lui. C'est pour hic.

Ils te frappent. Jacques $l$ a frappe.

Now, mind; the three last examples all but one, in paragragh 295, and also in 297, are here omitted; because, in the third person you cannot use the $l e$ instead of the lui, if there be a preposition before the English pronoun, ex-
pressed or understood. Therefore you must translate those three examples as follows :

I give him some paper, They speak to him, It is agreeable to him,

Je lui donne du papier.
Ils lui parlent.
Il lui est agréable.

Compare these with the three last examples but one in paragraph 29\%, 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 $l a$, just in the same manner that he and him, in the masculine, are answered by $i l$ and $l e$.

| She strikes often, | Elle frappe sonvent. <br> Slle boit du vin. |
| :--- | :--- |
| She drinks wine, | Ihey strike her, |

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 :

> | > $\mathrm{C}^{\prime}$ est $\grave{a}$ elle que je parle, | It is to her that I speak. |
| :--- | :--- |
| > Et je luxi parlerai encore, | And I will speak to her still. > |

The only difference is this, that, if it had been a mascaline, I must have had à lui in the first line. Now, as to the neuter gender, there is none in the French. They know nuthing 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 $i t$ 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 à votre poche, elle n' est pas très bonne. The lui, the $a$ elle, and, in short, all the parts of the $i l$ or elle, when they answer to our $i t$, 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 othier 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,
It is we who act,
He knows it better than we,
She is wiser than we,
He cones to ous,
Give us soine paper,
dames strikes

Nous buvons du vin. ${ }^{\text {N }}$ C' est nous qui agissons. Il le sait mieux que nous. Elle est plus sage que nous. Il vient à nous. Donnez nous du papier. Jacques nous frappe.

This is very plain. Our we and our us always ex-
pressed 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, It is you who act, He knows it better than you, She is wiser than you,
> He comes to you, James strikes you, They talk to you, You cut bread,

Vous buvez du rin.
C' est vous qui agissez.
Il le sait mieux que vous.
Elle est plus sage que vous.
Il vient à vous.
Jacques vous frappe. Il vous parlent.
Vous coupez 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.

30\%. 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 as first take the masculine ils which answers to our they; as : ils boivent ; they drink. Our they beeomes, 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 euc. 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, They drink wine, It is they who act, She is wiser than they,

Ils frappent souvent.
Ils boivent du vin.
C'est eux qui agissent.
Elle est plus sage qu'eu.r.

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

James strikes them, She talks of them, 1 give them some paper,

Jacques les frappe. Elle parle d'enx.
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 mayibe 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. |
| It 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. <br> She talks of them, <br> 1 give them some paper, |
| :--- | :--- |
| Elle parle d' elles. |  |
| 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 different from our manner ; but which is, with a little attention, very soon learned. The je, nous, tu, vous, il, elle, ils, elles, take the lead in the sentence, when they are the actors, in the same way that our $I$, we, thou, you, he, she, and they do; as: je bois du vin, nous frappons à la porte; I drink wine, we knock at the door. But we, in English, very frequently put other words between the pronoun and verb; as: I very often drink wine, we every day knock at the door. This must not be in French. The nominative case of the pronoun must not be separated from the verb. You must not say, je très souvent bois du vin ; but must place the words thus :

| I very often drink wine, |
| :--- | :--- |
| We every day knock at the door, |\(\quad \begin{aligned} \& Je bois du vin très-souvent. <br>

\& Nous frappons a la porte tous les jours.\end{aligned}\)
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, ixme-
diately before the verb; as: je le pense, il le dit, nous le jurons; I think $i t$, he says $i t$, we swear $i t$; 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.

EO. Give her something to eat and drink.
23. 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.
88. We eat meat, and drink water.
28. They often come to us to get wine.
30. I gave him gold for yon.
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 so, or pain suffered in, our members, or bodies, make ase of the possessive pronoun; as: My head aches, my finger smarts. The French, in these cases, use the article, thas : j’ai mal à la tête; j’ai malau 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.
302. 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 ohserved 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.
\%. Put my oxen into their field.
7. His shoes are better thau hers.
8. Our coats are blue, but theirs are red.
9. Our field, their mealow, their sheep.
10. Your trees are well planted.
11. The table is bad: its legs are weak.
12. Its colour is ugly: its wood is rotten.
13. That coach is yours: this is mine.
14. Brother, I beg you to come to my house.
15. Adieu, Captain. I am glad to see you, neighbour.
16. These are your birds, and those are mine.
17. Thy father and mother and brothers are dead.
18. His brothers and sisters are all gone away.
19. Their servants are coming here.
20. Father, have you seen her cloak ?
21. Come to me, sister, I want to speak to you.
22. No, friend, I cannot aid you.
23. Take your sheep and put them to mine.
24. Take your hens from mine.
25. His house, her house, our house, their house', your house.
$2 \pi^{\circ}$. His hand, her arm, our fingers, their legs, my feet.
26. Her gown, her cap, her head, her neck, her teeth.
27. Put your hay to mine: take yours from mine.
28. He does not talk of your beauty, but of mine.
29. They do not talk of hers, but of ours.
30. 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: quels sont ces hommes-là? Who are those men? But, in all other cases, our who is answered by $q u i$; as: l'homme qui vient de sortir: the man who is just gone 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:
l'homme qui vient de partir, le cheval qui mange l'herbe, le cheval que vous montez,

> the man who is just gone away. the horse that eats the grass. 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 inani-
mate or irrational, the French use $q u i$ 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 $q u^{\prime} a$ vu mon domestique, means, the horse which my servant has seen.
312. Our whose is answered by de qui, or, dont; but, de' $q u i$ 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 lequel; as: the man to whom I have sent: l'homme à qui or 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 boeuf qui laboure la terre, | the ox which ploughs the land. <br> le bouf 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 $l e$ 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, lesquels; and so on. Observe, that the French word oü, which means where, is frequently used, and very frequently too, to supply the place of dans lequel
(in which), dans laguelle, and so on; as: l'etat où je suis: the state in which (where) I am.
315. Our $w$ hat 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-lia ?
316. You must take care, in using relative pronouns, te keep their antecedents constantly in your cye. In my Enghisu 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 rela" tives 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 tuat 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 erroneons
"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 per" son strikes the iron? What persons strike the iron? "What person was tn the street? What persons were in "the street? The Bishop seems to have had a misgiving " in his mind, when he gave this account of the nominative " functions of the relative; for he adds, ' the relative is " of the same number and person as the antecedent: and "the verb agrees witil it accordingly." Oh, oh! But " the relative is always the same, and is of any and of every " number and person. How, then, can the verb, when "it makes its changes in number and person, be said "to agree with the relative? Disagree, indeed, with " the relative the verb cannot any more than it can with a " preposition, for the relative bas, like the preposition, no " changes to denote cases; but, the danger is, that, in " certain instances, the relative may be taken for a nomi" native, without your looking after the antecedent, which "is the real nominative, and that, thus, not having the num"ber and person of the antecedent clearly in your mind, you " may give to the verb a wrong number or person." Now, then, let us see how this matter is in French. Monsieur Restaut, in his rules respecting the relutive pronoun; tells us, that the verbs and adjectives are to be sometimes in the plural, and sometimes in the singular, after $q u i$ (who), and that the adjective, or participle, is affected in the same way. He has these two examples:

Cicéron fut un de ceux qui furent sacrifiés à la vengeance des Triumvirs.

Hegèsisochus fut un de ceux qui travailla le plus efficacement à le ruine de sa patrie.

What! Here is the phrase, fut un de ceux qui (was one of those who) in both cases; and yet, in one case, the verb (furent) is in the plural; and, in the other case, the verb (travailla) is in the singular. How, then, can the qui be the nominative of these verbs ? It is clearly the nominative in neither instance. Well ; but, what are the antecedents? Is the pronoun ceux the antecedent in the first case? it must be so ; and, thus we should , have it in English :

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: "Ctésias 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 sin"gular, because its nominative qui is a relative pronoun " in the singular and has for antecedent the word un. "When we say,
" CTÉESIAS 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,
"CTÉSIAS est un des premiers qui AIENT exécuté cette entre-
prise,
" we mean, that several persons executed the enterprise at " the outset, and that Ctésias 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 PREMLERS 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 $q u i$ 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 $q u i$ as the nominative, why should it be marchert 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 ?
50. Which of the three looking-glasses do you like best?
31. The trouble from which he has escaped. [well.
32. My friend who died yesterday, and whom I loved so
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.

## 317. Forth 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 $c e$ (this) prefixed to it; and the celle is the elle (she or her) with the $c e$ (dropping the $e$ ) prefixed to it. 'The same may be said of ceux, which is eux (they or them) with the ce (dropping: the $e$ ) prefixed to it. So that, if we were to put these words into English literally, celur, would be, this he; celle would be, this she; ceux would be, this they masculine; and celles would be, this they feminine. The ceci and cela are this here and this there. Celui-cr is this he here; and celur-dạ is this he there. The same explanation holds good as to celle-ci, celle-lì, ceux-ci and ceux-là, celles-ci and celles-là. Ci and là are adverbs, meaning here and there.318. The original word is, as we have seen Ce (this,) which is cet before a vowel, cette for the feminine, and ces 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 $c e$ is greatly used with the verb to be, étre, instead of the personal pronoun $i l$; as: c'est une bonne chose, que de se 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 lave 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, ci, or là, after the noun; as: ces garçons-ci ; these boys: ces filles-là ; those girls.
320. Our those is frequently used indifferently with the personal pronoun they; but when this can be done in English, the French requires the demonstrative; as:
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { They who are wise, } \\ \text { Those who are wise, }\end{array}\right\}$ 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.

We must use the personal pronoun, thus:
$H e$ who is very tall,
$H e$ 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.
321. 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 $c e$, in this way, is of endless occurence. 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 $c e$ 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 $i t$ with the verb to be followed by a noun or a pronoun, thus, $i t$ is I who see the enemy; when we, in English, have a phrase of this sort, we must, in French, employ ce, and not $i l$. We cannot say, il est moi qui vois l'ennemi. 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 $c e$ for our $i t$; as: $c$ 'étoit moi, $c$ 'est vous, and so on, always with $c e$, and not with $i l$. How the verb is to be managed in these cases you will see, when you come to the impersonal verls. At present we have to do with the pronouns; and particularly with the use of $c e$ for our $i t$. 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?
33. Fifth Class; INDETERMINATE PRONOUNS. 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 five last, 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 en 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
34. Ali-тout, which, as you see, becomes tous, 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 neyer to be called a pronoun, seeing that I know of no case, where a noun is not understood when all is used.
35. 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 l'un ou l'autre (the one or the other) ; the next, ni l'un ni l'autre (neither the one nor the other), and the last is, l'un l'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 mnde 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.
36. Somebody, or some one-Queleu'un. every body, each, every one,-chacun. These apply to things as well as persons in French; though where body is used they do not so apply in English. Chacun 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.
37. 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.
38. Any body-quiconque is of both genders, and never used but in the singular number. Whoever is also translated by quiconque, and whatever by quelconque.

[^1]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 pommier porte beaucoup de fruit, The apple tree bears much fruit. Je le taille tous les ans, $\mid$ prune it every year. C'est mon domestique: je le maintiens. He is my servant: 1 support him.

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 99 , 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 il 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. $\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{N}}$. 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 en is, sometimes, a preposition; and that, then, it means in. However, that is wholly a different word, though containing the same letters. Ev, 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 understrood; 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-rous où il y a des choux ? Oui; il y en a dans mon jardin
2. Avez-vous parlé de la fille? Oni; j' en ai parlé.
3. Voulez-rous des noix? Oui ; j' en veux.
4. Tenez-vous des chiens? J' en tiens plusieurs.
5. Combien de moutons arez-rous? J' en ai trois çents.
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. Voici 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; I of her have spoken.
3. Wish you to have some walnuts? Yes; I of them wish to have.
4. Keep you dogs? I of them keep several.
5. How many sheep have you? I of them bave 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 sec 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 rient, | He comes, or is come, from that place. <br> Je m ' $\epsilon$ vais, <br> Allez-vous $-e n$. |
| :--- | :--- |
| I am going away. <br> Go hence $:$ or, go away. |  |

In all these cases the $e n$ is a pronom, 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 fromi this (place). Always look well into these literalmeanings; for, by doing that, you get 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, $\mathbf{y}$, 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 $e n$, or, very nearly the same, only the nouns or pronouns which it represents have $t 0, a t$, in or $b y$, before them, instead of of or from. Let us, as before, take a few instances.

1. Il apprendra le François, parce qu' il s' $y$ applique.
2. Avez-vous mis le miroir dans la salle? Il $y$ est.
3. Ont-ils songé à mon affaire ? Oui; ils $y$ ont songé.
4. Pensez-vous à ce paurre hommé? Oui ; j' $y$ pense.
5. Il m'ont fait des promesses; mais je ne m' $y$ fie pas.
6. Ile ont fait le travail; mais ilsn' $y$ gagneront rien.
7. Allez à la campagne. J' $y$ vais.

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; 1 to him think.
5. They to me 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 y. Here we
have to it, in it, to him, in them, by it, and thither, all expressed in French by this word y. And, observe, as en is besides its capacities as pronoun, a preposition, answering to our in : so y is, besides its capacities as pronoun, an adverb, answering to our there, or rather, thither.
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 :
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { they } \\ \text { people }\end{array}\right\}$ 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, excopt 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 $j e$. But, the great and iregular use of it is, where we use the impersonal, or the participle with the verb to be; as:

On croit qu' il viendra, On lui a dit de venir,

It is believed that he will come. He has been told to come.
told him to come. This is not in the character of our language. Indeed it is shocking norisense; 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 ov 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 $l$ 'on for the sake of better sound ; as : après cela $l$ ' on dîne': 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. $\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{E}}$, which sometimes becomes sor. 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. Bit, before you go any further, turn back to paragraph 129, where you will find my first mention of this pronoun se. Yon 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. I was, as you will see, obliged to treat of it fully there; because, without making the use of it clearly understood, I coald 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 oyer again with great attention. You will see the part that se acts in the conjugation of a verb. To this if we add a few in-
stances of the manner of using sor, we may come to our promised Exercise on Indeterminate Pronouns. Sor when used in a general sense answers to our themselves 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 sor. The French word, soidisant, is almost become English. It is, literally, self-saying, and, properly translated, it is, self-calling, or selfstyling. I am now going to insert the Exercise relating to all these indeterminate pronouns. 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 nove to the third.
7. Every body knows that, and many say it.
8. Some say that he is going to quit his honse.
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, hut, 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 mayhave.
34. Whatever fine houses and gardens they may have.
35. They do not like one another, I assure yon.
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 f 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 fa-mily-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 on, or with the nous or the vous.
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 tomorrow.
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.
79. 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 $\mathrm{N}_{\mathrm{s}}$ gatives and Interrogatives, and another on the Impersonals. 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 Frenchman 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 possede 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,
I did not kill,
I shall not kill,

Ne pas tuer. Je ne tue pas. Je ne tuois pas. Je ne tuerai pas.

I may not kill, I should not kill, I might not kill,
Not killing,
Not killed,

Je ne tue pas. Je ne tuerois pas. Je ne tuasse pas. Ne tuant pas. Ne pas tué.

In the compound times of the verb, the negative comes before and after the auxiliary; as:

Not to have killed, I have not killed, I had not killed,
I shall not have killed, I may not have killed, I should not have killed, I might not have killed, Not having killed, Not been killed,

Ne pas avoir tué. Je n' ai pas tué. Je $n$ ' avois pas tué. Je n' aurai pas tué. Je n' aie pas tué. Je n' aurois pas tué. Je n' eusse pas tué. N' ayant pas tué. N'étant pas tué.
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, we in English, 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 $d e$ 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 Non to answer our no, when we put no other words; as: will you go with me?. no. Vonlez-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 nen 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 micux que le blanc,
340. When there is a negative word, such as pas un personne, 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 consoler, | $\begin{array}{l}\text { She has nobody to console her. } \\ \text { Je n' ai jamais été dans ce pays-la, }\end{array}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| I have never been in that country. |  |
| Vous ne lui dites rien, |  |

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 mot and goutte. The first means word: the last (in this negative sense) not ajot. The word mot is (in this sense) understood to mean not a word. They are two very common expressions, and are used thus:

| Je ne disois mot,, <br> Je ne voyois goutte, | I said not a word. <br> 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 sen-
tence that answers to any of those in which this ne is found ; as:

Il craint que sa récolte ne soit gâtée, 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 $n i$; 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 $q u^{\prime}$ 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 glaring 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,

Je $n^{\prime}$ on veux plus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { I will see him no more; } \\
\text { I will not see him again. }
\end{array}\right. \\
& \left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { I do not want any more ; } \\
\text { I do not want of it in addition to what I have. }
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

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.

Yous, $n e$ possedez que deux choses,
Is $n$, int $q u e$ pez de bien, Ils $n^{\prime}$, ont que peu de bien,

You possess but two things.
They have but little property.

Our but, besides this, is turned into French sometimes by $q u e$, 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. Ily $a$ is one of the mpersonal 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 mange ; 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.

| Ils $n$, osent vous le dire, |
| :--- | :--- |
| Il ne peut le faire, |$\quad$| They dare not tell it you. |
| :--- |
| He cannot do it. |

6. When we employ why in the asking of a question, and the French do not employ pourquoi, but que, to answer toour why: then the $n e$ is used without pas or point ; as:

- Que n' allez vous la voir 3\} | 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 negative ; 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 ne $\mathbf{x t}$ 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 driak 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.
39. Man is not to live on bread alone.
40. I doubt not but he will pay you what he owes you.
41. I cannot write if I have not a candle.
42. I shall not write to her unless she write to me first.
43. Take care that you be not deceived.,
44. There is more wine than is wanted.
45. He said more than was necessary.
46. I will hinder them from doing mischief in the country.
47. I do not deny that I said that he was a bad man.
48. She is older than people think.
49. She is less rich than was thought.
50. He is quite different from what I expected.
51. They are better off than you thought.
52. I am afraid that he will come too soon.
53. I am afraid that he will not come soon enough.
54. She apprehends that there will be a quarrel.
55. They are afraid that their mother is ill.
56. They are afraid that the army will come.
57. They are afraid that the army will not come.
58. Not to talk too much of the matter.
59. It is good not to go too fast.
60. Do you think that this is too long? Not at all.
61. Not to do according to your word is very bad.
62. Is not this a very cold summer?
63. Not colder than the last, though cold enough.
64. 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 ruer 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.

| $\begin{gathered} \text { Present time, },\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { tué-je } ? \\ \text { tues-tu } \\ \text { tue-t-il } \end{array}\right. \text { ? } \end{gathered}$ | do I kill ? doest thou kill? does he kill? |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Present time, },\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { tuons-nous ? } \\ \text { tuez-vous } ? \\ \text { tuent-ils? } \end{array}\right. \end{aligned}$ | do we kill ? do you kill? do they kill? |
| Past time, $\quad\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { tuois-je } \\ \text { tuois-tu }\end{array}\right.$ ? | did I kill ? didst thou kill? did he kill? |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Past time, } \quad\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { tuïons-nous ? } \\ \text { tuiez-vous? } \\ \text { tuoient-ils } \end{array}\right\} . \end{aligned}$ | did we kill ? did you kill? did they kill? |

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 proceed 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 é in tué. '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 abouta 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?

Is Richard come ?
Is Peter sick ?
Are my sisters arrived ?
Do your harses run ?
347. But, there is another manner of asking questions in French; and, indeed, it is the manner most in use. The question, let the persons or things be of what number or of what gender they may, begins with these words, EST-CE QUE. I put them in large letters; for you must become exceedingly well acquainted with them, they being everlastingly upon a French tongue:

| Est-ce que vous avez dîné? | Have you dined? |
| :---: | :---: |
| Est-ce qu' elle s' en va? | Is she going away ? |
| Est-ce qu' il se porte bien ? | Is he well? |
| Est-ce qu' il fait froid ? | Is it. cold? |
| Est-ce que nous avons de l' argent ? | Have we any money? |
| Est-ce que Richard est venu ? | Is Richard come? |
| Est-ce que Jean et Pierre sont mal | re John and Pete |

What, then, is this Est-ce que? Word for word it is: is this that; or, is it that. And the first of these questions is, in fact, this: " is it that you have dined?" The French make use of $c e$, and not of $i l$, as was observed in paragraph 321, (which I beg you to look at directly). They make use of $t h i s$, and not of it ; but, with this exception, there is nothing at all strange in the question, " is it "that you have dined." We frequently, in English, make use of expressions like this; "Is it that you disbelieve " me that you do not attend to me?" "Is it that I am beneath your notice; or, is it that you cannot see your danger in neglecting my advice?" We do not, in English, make use of this manner, except in serious discourse and writing ; but, the French make use of it in their familiar discourse. It rids them of all the stiffness and awkwardness that their questions would otherwise have. Tué-je?
and tue-t-il? for instance, become Est-ce que je tue? and Est-ce qu' il tue? And all is smooth and harmonious.
348. But, let me beg of you to pay great attention to this Est-ce; for, it is surprising how.great are the functions that it performs. Sometimes it has the que after it, and sometimes before it.

Est-ce qu' elle est riche?
N'est-ce pas qu'elle est riche ?
Qu' est-ce que c' est?

Is she rich?
Is she not rich ?
What is it.

Qu' est-ce que c' est que Jean dit? | What does John say?
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 $c^{\prime}$ est que cela? | What is that?
349. I will now give you an Exercise with a great va riety 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 languaye.

## 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. No : 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 readymoney.
59. Will John not be there sooner than will be necessary?
60. I do not think that he will.
61. Do you see nothing at all in it?
62. Has he not said a word to you about the matter?
63. Do you not fear that the money will come too late?
64. Did they see nobody going that way?
65. Have the labourers but little to eat and drink ?
65. Is not that the poorest man who has the least to eat and to wear?
67. They will never forgive him unless he ask pardon of them.
68. Is not mine a very pretty room?
69. Is not this Exercise a very long one?
70. It is very long, but, I hope, not more long than useful.

## 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 ya; il est, or c'est; il faut ; and ll faft. 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 des oisenux 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' aimoient pas. |
| there will be ten bushels of wheat. | il y aura dix boisseux 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 avoit, 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 Londoa
to Windsor. The French, in such cases, make use of ily $a$, and say, it $y$ a vingtsix 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 $i t$ ?
354. The same rule applies to our it is, when employed to designate a space of time; as: it is four months since $\mathbf{I}$ came hither: il y a quatre mois que je suisici. When we speak of something that happened sometime ago, the French answer our phrase by $i l y a$ 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 comlien; 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 get 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 ilya. 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.

[^2][^3]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.
356. Il est, or c'est. Look at paragraph 321. I had there, in speaking of the Demonstrative Pronoun, ce, to explain to you the reason of this $c$ 'est; but, I then referred you to this place for instructions as to the manner of using $c^{\prime}$ est. Literally il est means it is, and $c^{\prime}$ est (that is ce est) means this is, as I have before shown. In some cases, they may, as impersonal verbs, be made use of indifferently; but in other cases, they cannot. The sense will in a great measure, instruct us when one is to be used, and when the other; but this may be always relied on, that, when the impersonal can be translated into English by that, this, or what, the French must be c'est, and not il est ; as:


And not il est cela, and il est ce que.
$35 \%$. When the noun which the impersonal refers to is not a person, ond when there is no adjective coming next after the impersonal, or when the word thing is, under any circumstances, expressed in the sentence, $c^{\prime}$ 'est, and not il est, is 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.
258. This impersonal is sometimes used instead of ily $a$;
but, in this case, il est is used, and not $c^{\prime}$ est ; as: Il est des gens qui ne sont jamais contens: there are people who are never contented. We may say also, il y a des gens qui ne sont jamais contens. 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 $c^{\prime}$ 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 $c^{\prime}$ 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 pronown de and $i l$; 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 plaral 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, ce sont 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 qu'on a attrapé ?
362. 1l faut comes next. This impersonal, like most other good and useful things, is to be rendered available to us only by great labour and attention. I explained the source and the nature of it in paragraph 139. I am now about to explain to you the manner of using it. But, I must beg you to read that paragraph very attentively. If I did not suppose, 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, $i$ 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,
il faut que vous fassiez,
il faut qu' il fasse,
il faut qu' ils fassent,
il faut que nous fassions,

I must make. you must make. he must make. they must make. 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, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { one must do one's duty. } \\ \text { we must do our duty. } \\ \text { they must do their duty. }\end{array}\right.$
And, in many cases, the phrase may take this turn in English, one's duty must be done.
366. Where wé, 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: $\mathrm{j}^{\prime}$ 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' or,
vous aviez besoin d' une chaise, ils auront besoin d'une brouette,

I want some gold. you wanted a chair.
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 me faut de l' or, | I want some gold. <br> il vous falloit une chaise,, |
| :--- | :--- |
| you wanted a chair. |  |
| il lerue faudra une brouette, |  |$\quad$| thell 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 geurre, il faut de l' argent, | To make war there must be 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, they do not write as they should, they do what they ought, I have what I ought to have,
vous travaillez comme il faut. ils n'écrivent pas comme il faut. il font ce qu'il faut. 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 ilfaut, and so on; which means, respectable people, ${ }^{\text {a }}$ respectable woman; or literally, people as they ought to be, a woman as she ought to be.
it means, it makes. This is an expression so different in its nature from that by which we effect 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. <br> il fait chand, <br> il fait jour, <br> il fait sombre, | it is cold. <br> it is hot. <br> it is light. |
| :--- | :--- |
| 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 Impersowal 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 will be better, it is not so good as, it was not so good as, it will not be so good as,
il vaudra mieux.
il ne vaut pas tant que. il ne valait pas tant que. 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 Vaurien, 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. Where 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 ont-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 plat 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 $i t$.
21. I want friends to assist me in so great an enterprize.
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.
35. No: it was she that ordered it to be done.
36. I do not know that it was she who gave the order.
37. My uncle has been dead these forty years.
38. I have lived here for more than twenty years.
39. It is seventeen miles from this place to that.
40. How far is it from this to the top of the mountain?
41. How long will it be before you come back?
42. He has been fifteen years at his work.
43. How many oxen are in the park?
44. And how many of themare in the stable?
45. People must have children to be able to feel for parents.
46. Must I not have a good deal of patience ?
47. Must there not have been great misconduct somewhere?
48. Must she not have had a great deal of property?
49. Has there net beeu a very long debate to-night?
50. Has there ever been a longer one?
51. There is only that which is not useful.
52. I beg of you not to come; that is, if you cannot get a coach.
53. Are there any vineyards in this country?
54. No: there are not any that I know of. What! are there none?
55. It is the finest land that was ever seen; but the climate is bad.
56. How far do you think it is to his house, and do you think it will be late before we can get to it?
57. It is about four miles, and, I suppose, that we can get to it by nine o'clock.
58. Will it be dark before we can get to it? No: for it is light now till past nine.
59. It is very dirty since the last rain ; and it seems as if it would rain again before to-morrow night.
60. It has been a very fine day to-day.
61. Do you believe that? Is there any one that believes it?

Is there any one of them who does not despise the man who says it?
65. Must not a man be a wretch, then, who affects to be-
lieve 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. Lowti, Mr. Lindley Murray, and others, were in error in supposing, that plural nouns and pronouns ought never to be placed after our IT, used as an impersonal. I gave an instance in this phrase: "Ir is the dews and showers which make the grass grow." I contended that it was proper, because the verb is did not relate to dews and showers; but, to T , which it meant, if well looked into a state of things. Now it is the same in French; for, we say, "c' est les loups qui tuent les " moutons." I, in my Grammar, paragraph 60, contended, that though there was no visible noun, to which the it related; yet, that there would be found to be a noun understood, if the matter were well looked into. I took as an instance: "it will rain:" and, I said, that the full meaning was this: "a state of things called rain will be." In consulting the work of Monsieur Restaut, I find it agreeing with me as to this matter. He takes the instance of, "il pleut," and he says, that the full meaning is: " quelque chose qui est la pluie est." The utility of this explanation is great; for, it gives you the reason for using nouns and pronouns in the plural after it is, it was, it will be, and so forth; and, to do a thing well with a reason is a great deal better than to do it well without a reason. We say, in English: it is they who write. Bishop Low're says, that this is not correct. No? What will he put, then? The French, however, settle the question for us; for, they say, c' est eux qui écrivent: c' est les LeUPS qui tuent les mouton.

## LETTER XXII.

## SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.

## My dear Richard,

371. I went, in the Etymology, very fully into the subject of Adjectives. You will now read what I there said. You will find it between paragraphs 101 and 111, both inclusive; and you must read those ten over now with great care ; because, if you do not, you cannot well understand the matter now about to be addressed to yon. In those paragraphs I very fully described the nature and properties and offices of this part of speech; I described its changes for the purpose of expressing gender and number and comparison; I gave the rules for the making of these changes: and, I told you, that you would learn from the Syntax how to place adjectives in sentences, which, as I then told you, is a matter of some importance. However, there are other things to attend to now besides the proper placing of the adjectives.
372. You have seen, that adjectives change their form to express gender and number. That is all, however; for they have no change to express person, time, case, or mode. Therefore, this is not a part of speech so full of difficulties as the pronoun and the verb. There are two things to attend to in using the adjective : first, to see that it agrees in number and gender with the noun to which it relates ; and, next, to see that it be putin its proper place.

As to the agreement, enough was said in the Etymology; except with regard to one or two particular cases, which I am now about to notice. The adjective is put in the plural, though it relate to a singular noun, when that noun is a noun of multitude and followed by a plural noun in the possessive case; as :
la plupart des dames furent malheureuses,
and not
la plupart des dames fut malheureuse.
If plupart had not been followed by des dames (the noun in the possessive case) the adjective must have been in the singular:

> la plupart fut mulheureuse,
and not
la plupart furent malheureuses.
Another of the exceptions, alluded to above, is this: Adjectives are put in the plural when they relate to more than one singular noun. To be sure ; for, two, or more, singulars make a plural; as: Richard et '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 a liberty that writers take; but, I do not recommend you to take it. You may say:

> un goût et un discernement excellent;
but it is safer to say,

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 masculine; 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 a feminine, and if 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 blancs.
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 blancs, 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, forinstance. 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 $e$ added 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. Ob-
serve, then, that adjectives which express colours are put after the noun; as: vache brune.

Also those that express nationality ; as: du drap Anglois.
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 ablé; as: un étât misérable.
Also those ending in esque, ile, ule; 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 carosses; le premier boarg, 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 $d^{\prime}$ cller. Then there are other adjectives, which require the preposition $\grave{a}$ 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 $\grave{a}$, or the $d e$, 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 pas, A river three hundred paces broad. Une tour haute de soixante pieds, 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 largeur. Thus they make use of longeur 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 werds 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.
$\bar{j}$. A young and fine ox, and a pretty little dog.
5. He is a great deal older than she is.
6. You are not so tall as he by a great deal.
7. They have more than six thousand acres of land.
8. This is a very bad hat ; the worst I ever had in my life.
9. This is a better day than yesterday ; but this is celd and miserable enough.
10. This is the worst road that I ever saw.
11. That is the greatest rogue that exists.
12. Have you many bottles of wine in your cellar?
13. Give him a little wine and a few grapes.
14. I have not much oil, but have a great many olives.
15. Has he not many horses and a great deal of hay?
16. Give me a few nuts, and bring a little of that sugar.
17. He is equally zealous in a good and in a bad cause.
18. Sixty thousaind pounds for an estate and household goods.
19. One thousaid eight hundred and twenty-four.
20. London, fourth of June, one thousand eight hundred and twenty-four.
21. George the Fourth and Charles the Tenth reign at this time.
22. I like an open enemy better than a secret one.
23. You are unworthy of honour and distinction.
24. He was overjoyed at seeing her arrive.
25. They are perfectly free from blame on that account.
26. He is fit for any sort of business.
27. They are given to all sorts of mischief.
28. We are subject to a legal process for your neglect.
29. He is a man very much esteemed in that country.
30. She is a French woman, he is an Englishman, she is an American woman.
31. A French hat, an English coat, an American shoe.
32. A black hat, a blue coat, a white shoe.
33. White as snow, black as the chimney, heary as lead.
34. You are taller than he by two inches.
35. I do not think that he is so tall as she.
36. They are the most wicked of all mankind.
37. 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 komme 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, excent, bon, commun, mauvais, brave, certain, cruel, furieux, galan, gentil, grand, gros, honnête, pauvre, plaisant, sage, vilain. There are some words, which some persons call adjectives, which are indeclinable; 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 36, 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 sen-
tences, 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 $\mathrm{i}_{2}$ 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 Times: third, The Modes : 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, $j^{\prime}$ allons and $j^{\prime}$ avons. 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 bouc et le chien étoient dans l'écurie. The horse, the goat 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 qui est 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 nil'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 viendroient demain, si. ...
> The master or his people would conee to-morrow, if ....

This holds good in both languages; but, if the last noun be preceded by mais (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:


La foule fesoit un grand bruit.
Elle étoit dans la rue.
Le public n'aime pas cela.
Ill' a rejeté.

The French adhere to this even in the use of the word people. They say, as we do, le peiple; 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 làs d'être traité de la sorte. They will not be treated thus much longer, Il ne souffrira pas qu'on le traite long-tems ainsi. The people have their follies; but they are not wicked, Le peuple a ses follies; mais il n'est pas méchant.

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 these 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 $\mathbf{I}$ 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 ironsà la campagne la semaine prochaine, You and I shall go to the country next week.
> Lui, Monsieur Lechamp, et moi nous nous en allons, $\mathrm{He}, \mathrm{Mr}$. Lechamp, and I are going away.
> Elle, vous et votre oncle vous alliez vous 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. Vous 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. Oar 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 really is not a point beyond dispute. The French say, therefore:

Lui, elle et moi nous avons été très-malades, He, she and I we have been very ill.

And, to a certainty, this is a better mode of expression, because it is perfectly unequivocal.
386. You will sae, 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, à 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 $m^{\prime}$ ' vendu le garde-chasse, The dog that to me has sold the game-keeper.

This is, word for word ; but we say, the dog that the gamekeeper has sold me. Take an example with comme

Les choux, les asperges et les ognons sont gâtes, à ce que dit Richard.

The cabbages, the asparagus and the onions are spoiled, as Richard tells me.

Again, the verb is frequently putafter où (where, in which, in which place).

La campagne où demeure mon ami,
The country place where my friend lives.
L' 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 se, and especially with the verb trouver (to find), which they make use of instead of être, in innumerable instances; as:
I am very well,
How is he now?
We are very well here,

Je me trouve fort bien. Comment so trouve-t-il maintenant ? 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 tomorrow:
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.
10. The cucumbers and the melons grow well in that soil.
11. The gardener as well as his people like flowers.
12. It was very far from being good, as the gardener told me.
13. The piece of ground where the shrubs were planted.
14. The hedge where the thorns were growing.
15. The plantations that my grandfather made.
16. The house that the brother and sister live in.
17. The basket that the flowers have been put into.
18. The committee has been sitting this month.
19. They will not have finished for two months to come.
20. The people have been very quiet.
21. They have been exceedingly well used.
22. Nobody can deceive them.
23. The best way is always to tell them the truth.
24. He hates the people and always speaks evil of them.
25. I will give you a pound, said he, if you will tell me the truth.
26. Ah! said they; we have caught you, then.
27. No, answered $\mathbf{F}$, you have not caught me.
28. Well said he to them, say no more about it.
29. Go off as soon as you can, I beg of you.
30. She and I are the owners of that wood.
31. They wish to write to them.
32. Clover and Sainfoin grow well in that land.
33. They are excellent for all sorts of cattle.
34. Turnips or mangel wurzel is good for cows in winter.
35. Neither hay nor straw are sold in the town.
36. The greatest part of the world do the same.
37. A great part of his friends left him.
38. The curious plants that my friend has given me.
39. The painter that my sister has sent.
40. The painter who has sent my sister.
41. The printer that the people like so much.
42. The printer who likes the people so much.
43. I plant lettuces and celery.
44. Give me some of both, if you please.
45. THE TLMES. 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 manner 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.
46. Time is, and must be present, past, or future. To express the present, we, in English, have three forms as:
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\begin{array}{l}\text { I kill, } \\ \text { I do kill, } \\ \text { am killing, }\end{array}\end{array}\right\}$ je tue.
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.

| , | J'écris une lettre. [jours. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Indeed I do writeletters ever day, | En verité j' écris des lettrestous les |
| 1 write to my friends veryoften | J' écris fort souvent ì mes amis. |

It is, you see, always écris. 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 Tuer, in paragraph 118 . There you see, that; in what they call the past imperfect time, I killed, is, je tuois, 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 turons is the past imperfect, and nous tuâmes 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 Engiish 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 Verdun in France.

Le 18 Novembre, 1727, le moulin à poudre, construit dans cette ville, sauta en l' air, par la faute, dit on, d' un ourrier, qui fesoit sécher de la poudre dans une poële. Les effets en furent affreux. La terre $s^{\prime}$ enfonç $a$ en cet endroit de plus de quinze pieds:

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
l' hémisphere parut tont en feu, et la terre trembla a plus de deux lieues à la ronde. Cet accident abattit de fond en comble cinquante maisons des environs. Tout ce qui s'y trouva, homnes, femmes, enfans, domestiques, fut, écrasé sous les ruines. Il y eut soixante-dix autres maisons fort endommagées, dont aucune n'a pu être habitée avant de l’avoir réparée. Il $y$ en eut d'autres encore, en grand nombre, dont les portes fiurent arrachées de leurs gouds, quoique fermées à clefs et à verrou; et tous les vitrages de la ville-basse furené fracassés. Il y eut aussi des marques de la, violence de ce coup dans la villehante, et dans la citadelle, quoiqu'éloignée de plus de six cents toises du liea où le moulin étoit construit. Outre les maisons bcurgeoises il y eut trois églises paroissiales, et divers couvents endommagés considérablement, ainsi que l' hôpital general, et celui des soldats. Les Dames de le Congrégation fureat les plus maltraités, leurs dortoirs ayant eté renversés, pendant qu' elles étoient à Complies. La quantite de poudre qui prit feu consistoit en quatre milliers de poudre fine, et six milliers de poudre commune.
fifteen feet: the hemisphere 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, children, servants, 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 others in great number 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. There were also marks of the riolence of this shock in the upper-town and in the citadel, though at more than six hundred fathoms from the spot where the mill stood. Besides the houses of the town's people, there were three parish churches and divers convents considerably damaged, as well as the general hospital and that of the soldiers. The Nuns of the Congregation were the most roughly handled, their dormitories being slaken in while they were at Evening Prayers. The quantity of powder that took fire consisted of four thousand weight of fine, and six thousand weight of common.
391. The verbs, you will perceire, are put in Italic characters. We will, when we have laid down the rules, see how the use of the verbs agrees with those rules. Monsieur Restaut has the following passage upon this subject. I shall translate it entire; because it will be useful as the ground-work of my observations, and because it will enable us to see how the above practice squares with the rules of this able grammarian.
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 ras planting peas yesterday, when. . I wrote to him every wcek, I was in the habit of going thither, They continued there for six years, 1 used to eat a good deal of sugar,
je plantois des pois hier, quand . . . je lui ccrivois toutes les semaines. j' avois coutume d'y aller. ils y restoient pendant six ans. je mangois beancoup 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 | $\begin{array}{l}\text { les Juifs étoient une méchante race; } \\ \text { they were seditious and avaricious. }\end{array}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| ils éfoieut séditicux et avares. |  |

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.
396. Look again at the above quoted passage, and at the sentence before the last. There are two verbs ia that sentence, the first in the past perfect, the last in the past imperfect. "Les dames de la Congregatiou furent les " plus maltraitées, leurs dortoirs ayant été renversés pen" dant 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: clles 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.
397. Let us take another instance. "Sedan (a town of France) etoit autrefois une petite Souverainté, de la" quelle dependoient dix-sept villages. Elle appartenoit " anciennement aux archevêques de Rheims, un desquels "l'échangea avec le Roi popr Cormicy." Now, you see; étoit autrefois and appartenoit and dependoient 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 sée 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 consistoit, as mentioned in paragraph 394, and also for using prit in the same sentence. "La poudre, qui prit feu, consistoit en quartre milliers." Why not, said I, put consista 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' a imoit long-temps, et à la fin, il l' ' $p o u s a, ~$ $\begin{gathered}\text { He loved her for a long time, and, } \\ \text { at last, he marriel her. }\end{gathered}$

Here, you see again, there is continuation in the loving and in the Sunday; but none in the act of marrying nor in that of going to church. But,
$\left.\begin{aligned} & \text { Elle laccosta comme il alloit à and } \\ & \text { l'église, }\end{aligned} \right\rvert\, \begin{gathered}\text { She accosted him as he was going } \\ \text { to church. }\end{gathered}$
Here, you see, the case is different. His going to church is here spoken of as a thing that was going on at the time alluded to; a thing that was, in that time, in a state of continuation.
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 Restaut, that the compound of the present time may be frequently used instead of the past perfect time; and this is very common; as:


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 these 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 difficulty.

And thus it is always. If, however, shall is used so denote obligation and will to denote determination, 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 numerous distinctions under the name of times. In French and English, it is not only umecessary ; but, it produces great confusion and tends greatly to bewilder and disgust the learner, whether of English or of French. I will give you an instance of this, and will keep to our old verb Tuer.

| je tue, <br> je tuois, <br> je tuai, | present, <br> past inperfect, <br> past perfect, <br> future, |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |$\quad$| I kill. |
| :--- |
| je tuerai, |$\quad$| I killed. |
| :--- | :--- |
| I shall kill. |

It is in the grammar of Mousieur de Levizac that I find these pretty names given to times. The two forms for the past times are, as we have seen, necessary 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 four times; and, below the line, you have the changes in avorr 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 additional names only serve to puzzle, retard, and disgust the scholar.
403. In paragraphs from 125 to 128 I have fully ex_ plained the offices of avoir and Etre, 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?


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: j’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.

| I kill, I killed, I shall kill, | je tue. je tuois; or tuai. je tuerai. |
| :---: | :---: |
| I have killed, I had killed, I shall have killed, | $\begin{aligned} & \text { j' ai tué. } \\ & \text { j', avois, or j' eus, tué. } \\ & \text { j' aurai tué. } \end{aligned}$ |
| I have been killed, I had been killed, I shall have been hilled, | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{j} \text { ' ai été tué. } \\ & \text { j' arois, or } \mathrm{j} \text { ' eus, êté tué. } \\ & \mathrm{j} \text { ' aurai été tué. } \end{aligned}$ |

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, choir, dècéder, déscendre, devenir, entrer, monter, mourir, naître, partir, retourner, revenir, sortir, tomber, venir. Thus, you must sày, 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 dinai chez lui hier,
or
j' ai diné chez lui hier,
avez-vous bientôt fini?


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 recolte 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 vu 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 étre instead of the compound of avoir and être.

Il y a un mois que le vent est al l' Est, Elle est depuis plus d'un mois hors de chez elle, Il y a plus d'un an que je suis malade, Je suis depuis dix jours en route,

It is a month that the wind is in the East.
She is more than a month from home. It is more than a year that $I$ ams sick. I am ten days on my journey.

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 étéà l'Est; j' ai éte 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. It's 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.
19. 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.
20. 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, if this never were the case; but, as you will find, it is almost always the case. In English we say, I make, I must 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 fais, in one case and fasse in the other. If you were, in translating I make, to say, je fasse ; or, in translating, I must make, to say, il faut que je fais, French people would hardly understand you. They might guess at your meaning ; but that would be all. They would not laugh out-right 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.
21. 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 Infinitive, 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 Indfcative, the Subjunctive, and the Imperativf.
22. 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.
23. 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, I do not go to London,
je vais à Londres. je ne vais pas à Londres.

These verbs are in the indicative ; but, if there be a $d e-$ pendance, a condition, a something subjwined, the verb is in the subjunctive, as:-
il importe que $\mathrm{j}^{\prime}$ aille à Londres,
il importe que je n' aille pas à Londres,
it is of consequence for me to go to London.
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 subjoined, 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 ixregular 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 aille 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 subjunctive 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 translated 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 perfection in principle, the very effort does something for us. We have seen that the subjunctive is used where there is dependance on some other act or state of being. It is also used generally when passion, ${ }^{1}$ 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, deubt, fear, suspicion, permission and pro-
hibition 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 dictionary tells you when the verb requires the subjunctive after it, If you look for the verb permettre, for instance, you will find that it is noted as governing the subjunctive. This verb causes the one that follows it to be in the subjunctive; as: permettez que je vous le disse: 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 dise. Now, observe:
vous savez que je le dis, vous permettez que je le disse, vous jurez qu'elle le fuit, vous désirez qu'elle le fasse,

> you know that I say it. you per mit me to say it. you swear that she does it. you desire that she may do it .

Here, you see, are dis and dise, fait, and fasse, only because savez and jurez govern the indicative, and permettez and désirez the subjunctive. You see, too, that there is a twisting in our English. We do not say after permit and tesire what we say after know and swear. After desire we have a real subjunetive; may do.
415. However, the dictionary mast be resorted to here. When you are going to use a verb (until you know them all), look to see whether it govern 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 $q u i$; 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 meure ? Croyez-vous qu'elle le fasse? Pensez-vous qu'il vienne?

Do you fear that she will die? Do you believe that she will do it ? 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 dictiondry for the verb which is to govern in the sentence. After all, there must, as to the examples 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 perfect of the subjunctive; as:

Croyiez-vous qu'elle le fît,
and not
Croyiez-vous qu'elle le fasse.

Because croyiez is not in the present, nor in the future, of the indicative. There are certain pronouns and conjunctions, which with que after them, govern the Subjunctive mode. The pronouns are, quelque, quoique and quels-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 bv, ot so much of, or, when si has any such comparative meaning and when it is followed by que.

Quelque riches qu'elles soyent,
Quoique vous soyez riche,
Quels-que soyent les voyageurs,
Quelques arbres qu'on puisse avoir,
Quelque vieille qu'elle fut,
Quoiqu'il en soit,
Quelles-que fussent ses sours,
Quoiqu'on en dise, il en mourra,

However rich they may be.
Though you may be rich.
Whoever the travellers may be.
Whatever trees they may have.
However old she might be.
However it may be; or, be it as it may. Whatever his sisters might be. [of it. Whatever people may say, he will die

Si vous y allez et que vous y restiez,
Elle n'est pas si prudente qu' elle ne fasse jamais de faute,
Ils $n^{\prime}$ étoient pas si génereux qu'ils donassent tout leur bien,

If you go there and remain there.
She is not so prudent that she never commits a fault.
They were not so generous that they gave all their property.
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, aisé, affligeant, à propos,
bienséant, beau, chagrinant, cruel, expédient, dangereux, difficile, divertissant, doux, douloureux,
dur, disgracieux, ennuyeux, étonnant, facile, fâcheux, glorieux, gracieux, heureux, honteux, important, impossible, indifférent,

```
injuste,
    juste,
    malheureux,
    mal-aisé,
    mieux (with vaut before it),
    mortifiant,
    nécessaire,
possible,
plaisant,
sensible,
surprenant,
triste,
villain.
```

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:
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { il est possible que cela soit, } \\ \text { que cela soit c' est une chose possible, }\end{array}\right\}$ it is possible that that may be.

When I say, the Impersonal il est, I mean $i l$ with some part of the verb être. It may be il est, or il étoit, 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 certain 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 bienséance, nécessité. These take the il est also; and they take the article: d' une nécessité, de la bienséance. Then there are moyen, honneur, deshonneur, honte, gloire, with the article before them preceded by $i l$ $y a$; as; il n'y a pas moyen qu' elle fasse cela.
420. You have seen instanees enough already of il faut requiring the subjunctive mode. Importer is a verb, which means to signify, or, to be of consequence, 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.
il importe que vous soyez sobre, it is of consequence that you should be sober, il importe que nous ayons du it is of consequence that we shoutd have pain. bread.

This verb importer, when used with $i l$ before it, is of great use in French. No expression in the whole language is more common than n' mporte ; 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.
il importe qu'elle vienne,
il n' importoit pas qu'ils vinsent, importe-t-il qu' il aille? il n' importe pas que nous allions, $\left.\begin{array}{l}q u^{\prime} \text { importe cela? } \\ \text { ou } \\ \text { qu' est-ce que cela fait ? }\end{array}\right\}$

It is of consequence that she should come.
It was of no consequence whether: they came or not.
Is it of any consequence whether he go or not?
Is it of no consequence whether we go or not.
Of what consequence is that? or what matters that? or, what signifies that?

These twolast 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 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 de point de conséquence. |
| :--- | :--- |
| That does not signify, | Cela ne signifie.pas. |
| That is no matter, |  |
| What does that signify? | Qu'est point de matiére. |
| Qu'este 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 docs 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'importoit 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 subjinctive 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 are which answer to it.

| it is fitting for that to be done, | il convient que cela soit fait. <br> it suits for him to go, <br> il convient qu'il aille. <br> it becomes them to be charitable, |
| :--- | :--- |
| il convient qu'ils soient charitables. |  |

You see, here, that we, after our fitting, 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:
> it suits him to. go thither, $\mid$ il lui convient d'y aller. it becomes them to be charitable, $\mid$ il leur convient d' étre charitables.

When, however, one of these forms ought to be used, and when the other, can be taught only by practice; but you have the consolation to know, that constant practice, diligent use of the pen, will very soon teach it:

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:

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 craînte que
Dieu veuille que
encore que
en cas que
excepté que
hormis que hors que

```
loin que
    malgré que
    moyennant que
    non que
    non pas que
    nonobstant que
    pour que
    posê le cas que
    pourva que
    pour peu que
    plaise, or plut, à Dieu que
    quoique
    sans que
    soit que
    supposé que
    jusqu'à ce que
    si ce n' est que
    si tant est que
    tant s'en faut que.
```

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, aussitôt qu' il $v a$, à moins que nous soyons, dès que nous serons,

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 of 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 aitle, and in the other it is $v a$; and this is only because one of the verbs has $u u$ cas que before it, and the other aussitốt 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, | supposé qu' ils le fissent. <br> provided that they did it, <br> unless they did it, |
| :--- | :--- |
| pourvu qu'ils le fe fissent. |  |
| not that they did it, | à moins qu' ils le fissent. |
| non qu' ils le fissent. |  |
| When they did it, | lorsqu'ils le faisoient, or, firent. |
| even as they did it, | de même qu' ils le faisoient. |
| because they did it, | à cause qu' is le faisoient. |
| besides that they did it, | outre qu'ils le faissient. |
| the moment they did it, | au moment qu'ils le faisoient. |

Thus, you see, while it is always did in English, it is, in French, fissent above the line, and faisoient 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 $f a$, soient, 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 thirtyseven 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 que govern the indicative; and that these thirty-seven are all the conjunctions that govern the subjunctive.
423. The subjunctive is used after $q u i$, when $q u i$ comes after an adjective in the superlative degree, or after a negative; as:
le $q^{\text {lus }}$ jolị 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 ased. Let us take an example of the three.

| la plus jolie fille $q u$ ' il y ait dans cette |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| ville, | $\begin{array}{l}\text { the prettiest girl that there is in this } \\ \text { town. }\end{array}$ |
| Ia plus jolie fille est dans cette ville, | the prettiest girl is in this town. |
| la jolie fille qui est dans cette ville, | the pretty. girl that is in this town. |

It is, you perceive, the superlative and the qui together that require the subjunctive to follow. Not only qui, how-
cver, but any other relative pronoun proceeding from quit, if such relative come between 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.

there is no man who is more esteemed than he.
there is a man who is more esteemed than he.
I see no flowers which are finer than those.
I see flowers which are more gay, than these.

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, il me faut un domestique qui sott find me a house that is large and con- trouvezmoi une maison qui soit grande venient,
$I$ wish to have a meadow that you je veux un pré quie vous trouviez bon, think good, and that is to be sold, et qui soit id 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 domestigue qui fait son devoir à contre-cour. But let us take an ex ample or two more.

1 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 see n some flowers that you have
$j^{\prime}$ ai besoin d' (or je veux) un jardin qui soit bien situé.
il a un jardin qui est plein de mauvaises herbes.
parlez-moi, dit-elle, d'un mari qui soit jeune et joli, et riche en même temps.
je méprise $l^{\prime}$ homme qui $n$ ' est que riche.
je voudrais quelques fleurs de celles que vous avez dans votre panier.
j' ai vu des fleurs que vous avez dans votre panier.

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 :

| je désire qu' il vienne, |
| :--- | :--- |
| je desirerai qu' il vienne, |$\quad$| I desire that he may come. |
| :--- |
| I shall desire that he may come. |

But when the governing verb is in any time other than the present or the future of the indicative; then the subjunctive verb must be in the past perfect: as:
je désirois qu' il vînt, je désirai qu' il vînt, j' ai désiré qu' il vînt, j' avois desiré qu'il vînt,

1 desired that he might come. I desired that he might come. I have desired that he might come. I had desired that he might come.

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 conjugations, you find, you may be, put against vous soyez. But, though you may be is, in some cases, the translation of vous soyez, 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 la plus grande attention à ce que je dis":
il désire que vous soyez puni,
il convient que vous soyez puni, $\begin{aligned} & \text { he desires that you may be punished. } \\ & \text { it is proper that you should be punished. }\end{aligned}$
That is enough ! Here is soyez 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 soyez. 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 :

| de peur que cela ne soit, | for fear that that should be. |
| :--- | :--- |
| je souhaite que cela soit, | I wish that that may be. |
| je voudrais qu' il vînt, | I wish that he would come. |
| je souhaite qu' il vienne, | I wish that he may come. |

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 expressing the wish of the party speaking, the would expresses thempower 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 sache pas, instead of, je ne sais 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 Zroken French. It is as bad and as broken as I must went, would be in English. The modes embrace some very abtruse matter; but, if there were no difficulties to overcome, there would be no honour and no pleasure in the acquisition.
428. THE MMPERATIVE MODE. This rill give us but little trouble. It has been fully explained in the Eтymology. 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,
quil (or qu' elle) aille,
allons,
allez,
quils (or qu'elles) aillent,
go, or, go thou.
let him, or her, go.
let us go, or go we.
go, or go you. let them go.

I have, at the close of paragraph 116, fully explained the source and reason of these expressions. Now, as to the manner of employing the Imperative mode in sentences, it is generally the same in both languages. But, you must observe; that the third persons of the imperative mode must always have the que before them.
429. Exclamations are gencrally formed by the use of verbs in the imperative mode. But, there is one verb (voir) used in this way, which is of so much importance, that it merits a paragraph to itself. The expressions, voici and voilà, are composed of part of the verb voir and the adverbs $c i$ and $l a$. In both cases we have the second person singular of the imperative of voir, which (see paragraph 239) is vois, that is, see thou. You have in paragraph 317, seen the important part that $c i$ and $l d \grave{d}$ act along with the Demonstrative Pronouns. The first, you know, means here, and the other there; as: ce livreci, ce livre-là: this book here, this book there. So, you see, though the Cockneys have been so much ridiculed for their this here pie and that there pudding, they have the polite French danguage to keep them in countenance. But, the truth is, for our this and that the French have only $c e$; they are, therefore, compelled to resort to the use of $c i$ and là. Well, then, now comes voici and voild. The $\delta$ of vois is dropped as unnecessary; but the expresblons are, vois ei, and vois li ; that is literally, see here,
and see there: and endless is the number of ways in which the French use them, and particularly the latter; the manner of emploring which is one of the grestest beauties of the language. They are not employed to express any thing about secing. If we want to tell any one to look at or to ree any thing, we use regardez or royez; as:
regerde: 1' oiseau, rogez I' heare cqu' il est,
look at the bind.
see what $0^{\prime}$ clock it is.

Voici and voila are used to express parts of our verb to be used with our adverbs here and there; as:
hury is a basket of cberries for you, I whici am panier de cerises pour vows. shorr urv sea bssiets for them, | voils dix paniers pour ecx.

But, these words are made use of instead of that is, this is, and it is, and instead of other pronouns, used with étre.

| Le meici quie trarsize. | ber |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | there she is simgitg. |
| moici qui est besu, vaila powi ex besu, malà dowe qui est fai, | this is fue. <br> that is fine. |

In narratives, when the writer or speaker wishes to give life to his darrative, he uses voilà, and thus, in a manver, brings the persors and things before you; as:


In this last example there is, in the English, peither there wor is. The oaila is net expressed at all; nor can it be with propriety. We do, indeed, see, even in printed translations, attempts to translate the coild in sentences like this: we do hear translators say: "as we were
sitting down to table, behold a messenger 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 toila-t-il pas une belle journée |
| :--- | :--- |
| jel' ai donne au Monsieur que roid, |\(| \begin{aligned} \& is it not a fine day? <br>

\& I have given it to that gentleman.\end{aligned}\)
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 commençoit à pleuvoir, et j' étois là 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 :


The tbree 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 $d e$ before the infinitive; certain other verbs and adjectives, which require a before the infinitive; certain other verbs that take neither de nor á nor any other preposition before the infinitive; certain other verbs that take either de or a before the infinitive; and, last of all, certain nouns that take $d e$ before the infinitive. But, to give any thing, under the name of rule, to teach you when to use $a$ and when to use $d e$, 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 into detail here would be to go far in the making of a Dictionary.
432. But, there are these observations to make; that when our English verb is followed by the preposition of, from, at, upon, about, with, or after, before an active participle, the de is commonty used before the infinitive in French; and that, when our preposition is, $t t_{0}$ in or for, the French preposition commonly is $\AA$; as:

$$
\begin{array}{l|l}
\text { I employ myself in writing, } & \text { je m' occupe à écrive. } \\
\text { I keep myself from writing, } & \text { je m' abstiens } d \text { 'écrive. }
\end{array}
$$

That is to say, I employ myself in to write: I keep myself from to write. The sense of the words affords a good reason for the use of $\hat{l}$, and of $d e$, 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 diffi-
culty being great, our preseverance 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 $d e$ in a proper manner three times out of four.
433. Besides $d e$ 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:

$$
\text { de l' eau pour boire, } \quad 1 \text { water to drink. }
$$

But, pour is also used in cases where we use for followed by the active participle; as:

Il sera recompensé pour avoir bien. He shall be rewarded for having worktravaillé, $\mid$ ed well.

We might say for working. But neither of these ; neither pouv ayant, nor pour travaillant 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 116) a noun; as: to quarrel is disagreeable; it may be expressed in English by the active participle; as: quarelling is disagreeable. But, in French, you must adhere to the infinitive, and say, disputer est désagréable. It is much better to say; il 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, obw.
serve, if the word of sufficiency 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 formation. 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 alloit, je lui parlai.

2. Un homme qui voit n'est pas facile à tromper.
3. Voir c'est croire.,

And never, un voyant homme, voyant c' est croyant: 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 gender. There are a few lawterms, indeed, that appear 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, au 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 askiug, without speaking, by writing,
instead of swimming, save giving,
après avoir.
de crainte d'être. faute de demander. sans parler. par écrire. au lieu de nage? sauf à donner.

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 $b y$, or while, and, perhaps, some other of our prepositions and adverbs; as ;

```
en fesant cela vous m'obligerez beau- in doing that you will much oblige me. coup,
C'est en étudiant qu' on apprend une it is by studying that one learns a langue ètrangére,
tout en bruiant mon omelette, elle all the while that she was burning my me toisoit. omelet she kept eying me from head to foot.
```

I have introuduced 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 in- Ie tombant de la maison tua les habitants, habitans.

Now, mind, the like of this can never be said in French. The language of geese would be as intelligible to a Frenehman as this. You must say, | La chute de la maison tuse les habitans, |
| :---: | :---: |
| or |
| La maison, en tombant, tua les habitans | \left\lvert\, \(\begin{gathered}The fall of the house killed the in- <br>

habitants, <br>
The house in falling, killed the in- <br>
habitants.\end{gathered}\right.\)

Either of these English phrases will do ; but neither is so good as that from which the French language flecs 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. <br> the cheating of his master, <br> her complaining of her husband, <br> the cause of his going away yesterday |
| :--- | :--- |
| la fourberie faite a son maitre. | ses plaintes contre son mari. |
| la cause pourquoi il s'enalla hier. |  |

Boileau, in one of his poems, addressed to Louis XIV. exclaims:

$$
\text { "Grand Roi ! cesse de vaincre ou je cesse } d \text { " écrire." }
$$

Now though we say,
Great King, cease to conquer, or I cease to write, we may also say,
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 left the La fuite de l' armée a laissé la ville town exposed to the enemy.
The defeatiug of the enemy opened the La défaite de l' ennemi nous a ouvert way for us into his camp.
le chemin á son camp.
His perfect sobriety and his great in-Sa sobriete parfaite et sa grande industry have been the cause of his being so much respected.
dustrie ont été cause qu' on a eu
Her being young is much in her favour.
Their coming hither has ruined them.
I expect his coming with great impatience.
Our going to America was expected by nobody. tant de respect pour lui.

Your losing your sight was a sad thing for your wife and children.

His coming here has made his fortune. Her pleasing them made her get a rich husband.

Sa jeunesse fait beaucoup pour elle.
Ils ont été ruinés à cause qu' ils sont yenus ici.
$J$ ' attends son arrivée avec bien de l' impatience.
Notre départ pour l' Amèrique n' étoit
attendu de personne.
C' étoit malheureux pour votre femme et vos enfans que yous eussiez perdu la vue.
Il doit sa fortune à ce qu'il est venu ici.
Elle a trouvé un mari riche parce qu' elle a su leur plaire.

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 night, ayant été ála comédie hier au soir. seeing that it was going to rain, voyant qu'il alloit pleuvoir. having heard that they were coming, ayant appris qu' ils alloient venir. perceiving that it was not very late, s'appercevantqu'iln'étoit pas fort tard. knowing very well that she would not sachant trés-bien qu' elle ne viendroit come,
pas.
believing that he dared not go thither, walking in the street I met them,
yant qu'il n' osoit y aller.
en me promenant dans la rue je les rencontrai.
being ill I could not go to their house, étant malade je ne pouvois aller chez eux.

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 enuploy 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 sometime 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 here ; thus:
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { active, }\left\{\begin{array}{l|l}\text { a proscribing man, } \\ \text { a man who is proscribing, } \\ \text { proscribing is horrible, },\end{array}\right.\end{array} \begin{array}{l}\text { un homme qui proscrie. } \\ \text { un home qui est à proscrire. } \\ \text { proscrire est horrible. }\end{array}\right] \begin{aligned} & \text { passive, }\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { a proscribed man, } \\ \text { a man who has proscribed, },\end{array}\right. \\ & \text { un homme proscrit. } \\ & \text { un homme qui a proscrit. }\end{aligned}$
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 it in 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 makesits changes precisely according to the rules laid down in Letter VIII. 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. Well, but we know how to form plural numbers and feminine 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 changeable 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 proscrites. 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 sentesce, 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, Tuer.

| J'ai tué une brebis cet après-midi; mais $\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{l}\text { I have killed an" ewe this afternoon; } \\ \text { elle n'est pas si bonne que la brebis } \\ \text { que } j^{\prime} \text { ai tuée ce matin. }\end{array} \begin{array}{l}\text { but she is not so good as the ewe } \\ \text { which I killed this morning. }\end{array}\right.$ |
| :--- |

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, snd, in the other, of tuke. 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 ?
Oui : je l' ai tuée.
Avez vous tué les poules?
Oui : je les ai tuées.
A vez-vous tué le coq ?
Oui : je l' ai tué.
Avez-vous tué les coqs ?
Oui: je les ai tués.

Have you killed the hen? Yes: I have killed her. Have you killed the hens? Yes: I have killed them. Have you killed the cock? Yes : I have killed him. Have you killed the cocks? Yes: 1 have killed them.

Thus, you see, it is always killed in English, though it is tué, tuée, tuées, or tués 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 tuées 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 neuus 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 étre 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 proscrite for my illustration here, as far as it will suit. Proscrire 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 proscrive is proscrit. This, to make the plural masculine, changes to proscrits; to make the singular feminine, it changes to proscrite; 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, deux hommes proscrites, une femme proscrite, deux femmes proscrites,

## a proscribell man.

 two proscribed men. a proscribed woman. 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 ; for, we mean, un homme qui a été proscrit: 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 | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Il est parti, } \\ \text { Verb. }\end{array}\right.$ |
| :---: | :--- |
| Ils sont partis, he is gone away. <br> they are gone away. <br> Elle est partie, <br> she is gone away.  |  |
| Elles sont parties, | they are gone away. |
| Verb. | Il est proscrit, he is proscribed. <br> Ils sont proscrits, they are proscribed. <br> Elle est proscrite, she is proscribed. <br> Elles sont proscrites, they are proscribed. |

Reflected \begin{tabular}{l|l}

Il s' est coupe, \& | he has cut himself. |
| :--- |
| Ils se sont coupés, |
| Verb. | <br>

| Elle s' est coupée, |
| :--- |
| Elles se sont coupées; | \& | she have cut themselves. |
| :--- |
| they have cut themselves. |

\end{tabular}

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 coupéle 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 étre and a verb after the par-ticiple, do not change their form; as :

$$
\begin{array}{l|l}
\text { il lui est allé parler, } & \begin{array}{l}
\text { he is gone to speak to him. } \\
\text { ils leur sont allé parler, }
\end{array} \\
\text { they are gone to speak to them. }
\end{array}
$$

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 sont allés 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 leur.

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 propose de lire, |the book that he has proposed to read. les liores qu'il s'est propose de lire, | the books that he has proposed to read.

Here is no change in the form of the participle; and the reason is, that, in such cases as this, the participleis closely connected with the verb that follows. The proposing to read and the reading make but one affair, one act. .
443. Third. 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, Ils ont proscrit, Elle a proscrit, Elles ont proscrit, 11 a coupé, Ils ont coupé, Elle a coupé, Elles ont coupé,

Here, you see, there are no changes in the form of the participle as there are when it is used with étre. 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 poule and coq. Look at them again; and then we will take another example.

Il a proscrit aujourd'hai les femmes qu'il a proscrites l'année passée.

He has proscribed the women today whom he proscribed last year.

Here the person who proscribes 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 proscrire; 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, characterises the women. It is intended, not so much to assert any thing about them as to say who or what they are. This is the reason of the change being made in the participle, in the one case, and not in the other; and out of this reason has come this rule, that, when a passive participle, coming after avoir, has, going before it, a noun or pronoun in the objective case, and governed in that case by avoir and the participle; then the participle does change its form to express number and gender. Now, try the last example by this rule.

Il a proscrit les femmes aujourd'hui.

Here there is no noun, nor pronoun, in the objective case, going before a proscrit. The il is in the nominative case. The $i l$ is the subject, and les femmes are the object; but, in

> qu'il à proscrites l'année passée
we have $q u$ ' that is, $q u i$ (whom), which goes before the participle, and which is in the olbjective case, and governed in that case by avoir and the participle; and, therefore,
the participle changes its form. Thus, you see, it depends, in many cases, on the place, which the participle occupies in the sentence, whether it be to change its form or not. Monsieur Restaut says, that "when the participle ceases to have a passive signification, it is indeclinable, that is, it does not change its form; and, he says, that "it does cease to have the passive signification, when it forms, with avoir, the compound times of any verb, whether active or neuter." This is, indeed, frequently the case, but is far from being always, or even generally, the case; and I wonder how the observation found its way to the paper from so able a pen as that of Monsieur Restaut. Why, in, "qu'il a proscrites," the participle forms, with avoir, the compound time of an active verb; and yet the participle changes its form. But let us take an example from Monsieur Restaut himself.

> J'ai reçu les lettres que vous m'avez écrites au sujet de l' affaire que je vous avois proposée: et après les avoir lues avec attention, j'ai reconnu, comme vous, que si je l' avois entreprise, j'y aurois troivé des obstacles, que je n'avois pas prévus.

Here are eight participles, each of which, with avoir, forms a compound time of the verb; and yet, three of them (reçu, reconnu, trouvé) do not change their form. It is clear, then, that it is the place of the participle that is to be attended to here. The word lettres is a plural feminine, and, accordingly, it has écrites, in the above sentence :
les lettres, que vous m'avez écrites.
But why not make the participle of recevoir agree also with lettres? Why not write,

[^4]and not reçu? Because, in the instance first here mentioned the que (which) which represents lettres, and which is in the objective case, governed by avez écrites, goes before the participle; and because, in the last instance, les lettres, which is in the objective and governed by ai reçu, comes after the participle. The same may be said of lues, and, indeed, of all other participles thus used.

Jai envoyé dix oiseaux à la ville.
Les dix oiseaux que j ' ai envoyés.
Thus, then, it is the place of the participle that you have principally to look to, in order to regulate your conduct in the use of it.-Now, there are only two exceptions to this rule. The first is, that, in the impersonals with avoir the participle never changes its form; as:

> | $l a$ chaleur $q u u^{\prime}$ il a fait, | $\begin{array}{l}\text { the hot weather that has been. } \\ \text { the cold weather that has been. }\end{array}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $l e$ froid $q u u^{\prime}$ il a fait,, |  |,

Here you see, chaleur is feminine and froid masculine; and yet the participle does not change its form. The reason of this is; that the $i l$, in this $i l$ fait, does not represent any actor. There is no action; there is nothing done to the heat or the cold. If the fait had related to something done to a thing, it would have been otherwise; as:
> la table qu' il a frite, $l$ habit qu' il a fait,
the table that he has made. the coat that he has made.

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 $\mathrm{j}^{\prime}$ ai $v u$ tuer, la femme que $\mathrm{j}^{\prime}$ ai vu tuer, 1' homme que $\mathrm{j}^{\prime}$ ai fait chanter, la femme que $\mathrm{j}^{\prime}$ ai fait chanter, les femmes que $\mathrm{j}^{\prime}$ ai fait chanter,, l' habit que $\mathrm{j}^{\prime}$ ai fait faire, les habits que $\mathrm{j}^{\prime}$ ai fait faire, l' homme que $\mathrm{j}^{\prime}$ 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 $\mathrm{j}^{\prime}$ 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; thas: le taureau $q u$ ' 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 qu' a vendu Jacques, la vache $q u u^{\prime}$ 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 ạ vendu, la vache que Jacques a vendue, 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 Restaut 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 pa:ticiple, 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 X,VI.

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 puuish 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.
20. It is better for a country to be destroyed than for it to be governed by wicked men.
21. It was better for him to go on horse-back than to ride in a coach.
22. It is of great consequence that they should explicitly declare themselves.
23. I do not believe that the weather will be fine tomorrow.
24. If the fine weather begin and continue for some time.
25. He is the greatest rogue in the whole world.
26. Coming to England has saved his life.
27. Going to France, in the summer time, is very pleasant.
28. Mowing, or reaping, is hard work.
29. It does not become you to be very nice about it.
30. Whatever they may say about it, it is a bad affair.
31. I know nothing more provoking than that.
32. Few things are more dishonourable than lying.
33. Drinking to excess soon makes a man despised.
34. Eating, drinking and sleeping are necessary.
35. I am very sorry that your brother is not come.
36. Why should he not come next week ?
37. It seems that they set off very early in the morning.
38. Is it well known, that the town is taken?
39. It is well known, that the town is taken.
40. It is clear as day-light that the evil will come.
41. It is not quite clear that the evil will cone.
42. It' was evident, that he conld not defend himself.
43. It was not evident that he could not defend himself.
44. It seems to me that you are in the wrong.
45. It seems that he is in the wrong.
46. It is not just, nor is it decent, that he should do that.
47. Do you believe that you will come next Saturday?
48. Would to God that he were well.
49. Were you to lose your fortune you ought to go.
50. God grant that she may recover her health:
51. You say that she will recover : God send it !
52. I hope she will not die. God forbid!
53. God forbid that I should do any such thing.
54. What! should we pardon them for that ?
55. What do you want me to do?
56. I want you to rise early and to be industrious.
57. I want a good saw. Do you think that I shall find one?
58. I think that you will not find one in this village.
59. I do not doubt you will find one in the town.
60. They must be very industrious if they suppress him.
61. I do not doubt of that, I confess.
62. I doubt that he will do it.
63. I doubt that he will not do it.
64. I do not believe that she will come next week.
65. His talking to them has done the mischief.
66. Their babbling has made their master angry.
67. The singing of birds is very delightful.
68. What I like best in birds is their singing.
69. Though he sell his land, he will not be ruined.
70. He was killed during last war.
71. The tents have been taken by the enemy.
72. The tents which the enemy has taken.
73. What tents has he taken?
74. He has taken all the tents that we had.
75. I am surprised that you have done it.
76. They are writing in my room.
77. You have lost your money by not having asked for it.
78. It is very indecent to behave in this manner.
79. My father is seeking for a large and fine farm.
80. They are very angry that you have been able to do it.
81. They insist absolutely that she shall stay no longer.
82. We were all very much surprised.
83. There are four men planting trees.
84. I see the greyhounds running after the hare.
85. Bring us some good and hot coffee.
86. Let us have a large and fat leg of mutton.
87. I am far from saying, or from thinking, that she will die.
88. There he is coming to ask you how you do.
89. This is my whip : there is yours: and there is theirs.
90. Do you suppose that I will give you my house and furniture for nothing?
91. The corn was sold in the market.
92. The apples were sold to him.
93. The oxen were sold last week.
94. The cows have been sold this week.

## LETTER XXIV.

## SYNTAX OF VOULOUR, 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. <br> I will come here to-morrow, |
| :--- | :--- |
| je viendrai ici demain. |  |

Thus, you see, there is only the 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, You will not have that card,
yous n' aure pas cette carte. 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, 1 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 have that card, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { je ne veux pas que vous ayez cette carte, } \\ \text { or } \\ \text { je ne vous permettrai pas d'avoir cette carte. }\end{array}\right.$ 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 ór 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.

445: 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 perfecty 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 voulorr 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 pouvorr 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:


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 voulotr. 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:

I will kill, I would kill, you will kill, they will kill,
je venx tuer. je voulois tuer. vous voulez tuer. ils veulent tuer.

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 :

| you will kill, <br> he will kill, | vous tuerez. <br> il tuera. |
| :--- | :--- |

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 :

I will write in spite of him, | Je veux écrire malgré lui.
You see, they take our write (not our to write), and put écrire 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:

| I wish him to write to me, | je veux qu' il m'ecrive. <br> I desire him to write, |
| :--- | :--- |
| je veux qu'il écrive. |  |

We may also say, je souhaite qu'il m'écrive, je désire qu'il écrive: but custom and idiom 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:
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { I am willing for him to write, } \\ \text { or, } \\ \text { I consent to his writing, } \\ \text { or, } \\ \text { Llike for him to write, }\end{array}\right\}$ je veux bien qu'il écrive,,$~$

When we use the verb to have with will or would, the French use vouloir without noticing our to have; as:
we will have him go, you would have it so, they will always have it their own way,
I will have it so,
nous voulons qu'il aille. vous le vouliez ainsi.
ils le veulent toujours à leur maniére.
je le veux ainsi.

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:
what do you want?
I want some bread and some wine, if you please,
I want to see fine weather, she does not know what she wants,
que voulez-vous?
je veux du pain et du vin, s'il vous plaît.
je voudrois voir du beau tems. elle ne sait ce qu'elle veut.

Very numerous are the uses of the verb vouloir ; but what has been here said respecting it, will, I trust, be sufficient.
447. Pouvorr. This word, besides being a verb, is $a$ noun, meaning power. As a verb, its meaning has just been described in paragraph 445. 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 :
you may come next week, he may go away when he will, they can read and write very well, we could not come yesterday, they might be rich if they would, if he can come I shall be glad of it.
vous pouvez venir la semaine prochaine. il peut s'en aller quand il voudra. ils peuvent lire et écrire fort bien.
nous ne pûmes venir hier.
ils pourroient être richess'ils le vouloient. s'il peut venir j'en serai bien aise.

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 func-tions, 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, he was quite done for, that is possible,
cela ne se peut.
il n'en pouvoit plus.
cela est possible, or, cela se peut.

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?
may he ride your horse ? could he ride your horse ? could he not ride my horse?
peut-il venir?
peut-il monter votre cheval? pouvoit-il monter votre cheval?
ne pouvoit il pas monter mon cheval?

Mind, in some cases saroir 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:

1 know how to make books, or,
I an able to make books,
je sais faire des livres.
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. When an English
phrase, having either of these words in it, is to be put into French, look to pouvorr.
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 de voir a nswers to both; as:

You ought to be obedient to your master,
You should be obedieat to your master, $\}$ vous devriez obeir à votre maitre.
There is, however, this difference in these two English verbal signs; that ought alwaysimplies duty, while should does not always do this. And, which is the material point for us, ought must always have devoir to answer to it, while should may be rendered by a change in the form of the French verb; as:

$$
\begin{array}{l|l}
\text { if he should travel in Spain, } & \begin{array}{l}
\text { s'il voyareoit en Espagne. } \\
\text { if he ought to travel in Spain, }
\end{array} \\
\text { s'il devoit voyager en Espagne }
\end{array}
$$

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 nor ought do. The real English of it
XXIV.] of vouloir, pouvorr, and devorr.
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 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?
26. Would to God that they would get up early
27. God forbid that I should have a parcel of sluggards in my house!
28. Though it were to cost me my life.
29. Might he not have asked her what she meant?
30. He might have done it, but she might have refused to answer.
31. Ought you not to compel him to answer ?
32. Is there a road to be found equal to that ?
33. Are there not a great many questions here ?
34. Can you find more in a similar space, in any book?
35. Can they be angry with me ?
36. Will there be eggs for supper?
37. My eyes will be dim.
38. Shall I make a knot in the string?
39. His heart would ache, if he were to lose his cause.
40. There ought to be 400 leaves in the book.
41. You shall gather some flowers.
42. They will be in mourning next week.
43. His eye will be cured soon.
44. I wish they would come without delay.
45. He might go, if he would.
46. They may come whenever they please.
47. He was to have gone off for Paris last week.
48. You shall tell them what you think of it.
49. It may happen that they will go.
50. It may happen that they cannot write.
51. Can she come? May be so.
52. You ought not to take it.

## LETTER XXV.

## SYNTAX OF ADVERBS.

## My dear Richard,

449. In paragraph 37, I explained to you the nature of Adverbs; and, in paragraph 142 to 151 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:

| Ils travaillent bien,, <br> Le vin est tress-bon, | they work well. <br> the wine is very gond. |
| :--- | :--- |

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 compound; that is to say, consist of more than one word (as was before fully explaincd), they follow the verb invariably. There is, and there can be, no difficulty attending the use of this part of specch. 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: j' écris souvent; and not, as we say, je souvent 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.
14. 'The affair will be ended next week.
15. Where have they been this long while?
16. Give them some food from time to time.
17. Whence come all these people?
18. What do they all come hither for ?
19. What induces them to come this way ?
20. It is easier for them to go that way.
21. They set out thence every day at one o'clock.
22. When you go up-stairs, stay there.
23. He is to be found nowhere.
24. There is too much water in your wine.
25. Perhaps you will see him by-and-by.
26. They said it in jest, but it is too true.

27 . They are constantly writing and reading.
28. She was taken away by force.
29. That is extremely wicked on their part.
30. You speak at random.
31. How often have you been there ?
32. How far is it to the wheat-field?
33. I very well know what you meari.

## LETTER XXVI.

## SYNTAX'OF PREPOSITIONS.

## My dear Richard,

453. $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{t}}$ is almost mere matter of form to make separate divisions relating 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 sentences. 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 mostamply 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, four le cheval, ala
ville, contre la porte, sur le plancher. There are certair 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 Distionary 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 XX.

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 XXVII.

SYNTAX OF CONJUNCTIONS.

## My dear Richard,

455. The remarks made in paragraph 453 apply in this case also. Every thing relative to conjunctions has been taught in the Etymology of Conjunctions, and in the Syntax of the other parts of speech, especially that of Verbs. You must go back, however, to paragraph 39, and to the whole of Letter XII. consisting of paragraphs from 162 to 167 inclusive. Those parts contain a full account of this part of Speech. Conjunctions have a government of modes of verbs; but this matter is, you know, most amply explained in the Syntax of Verbs, particularly in paragraphs from 414 to 422. All that I shall, therefore, add, upon this subject is, a short Exercise, consisting of phrases, which must, in French, have a turn very different from that which they have in English.

## EXERCISE XX.

1. Whether you do it, or not, I shall come.
2. A great building either of brick or of stone.
3. Either from love or from fear, he praised them.
4. If they should die, what will become of us?
5. If they should consent to it, what will you say ?
6. When you write, let me know it.
7. When they come, they will remain a long while.
8. If you wish to go, and will come here in good time.
9. If they desire to have it, and will pay for it.
10. Even if he were to give his whole fortune.

## LETTER XXVIII.

## TRANSLATION OF THE EXERCISES.

## My dear Richard,

456. 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 fäir 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 translution, and compare your translation with it, phrase by phrase.

## EXERCISE 1.

1. Cent livres, cinq schelins.
2. Des plumes à 6 s. le cent.
3. Des canards à dix sous la pièce.
4. Avez-vous entendu parler de rien de semblable?
5. Si un tel vient.

6 Mille soldats se sont mis en marche.
7. Cent sont de retour.
8. Jen'ai pas rud'enfant si sage.
9. On voit rarement un homme si méchant.
10. Un jardin avec un mur d'un cîté.
11. Un bon počte, mais pas un Boileau.
12. Il est médecin, et son frère procareur.
13. Il est riche, chose qu'il aime.
14. Il est arrivé rarement une chose semblable.
15. Qteel jardin!

1f. 2tael bruit!
17. Quelle belle fleur !
18. La jolie fille qu' Emma!
19. Que son père est riche!
20. Que l'argent a de charmes !
21. Quel cri horrible!
22. Quel sot de garçon.
23. Un homme qui a plus dun défaut.
24. Une table qui a un pied de cassé.
25. La barbe d'ün juif. Un cheval de Barbarie.
26. Donnez-m'en une phrase pour excmple.
27. Une poule avec un poussin.
28. Une roiture attelee a' un cheral.
29. Un voile et uac voile.
30. Une caisse de lirres.
31. Un livre et noe feur.
32. Un jardinier et un laquais،
33. Cent d'entre ens.
34. Une heure et demie.
35. Une demi-heure.

## EXERCISE II.

1. L'Amérique, l'Asie, l'Afrique, 40 . Les philosophes ne s'accordent et l'Europe.
2. La Prusse fait partie de l'Allemagne.
3. Venise, Valence, Grenade.
4. Il vient de la Rochelle.
5. Il demeure au Havre de Grâce.
6. II est parti pour Cayenne.
7. Je demeure en Angleterre.

8 Vous venez du Portugal.
9. Ils résident à la Martinique.
10. Elle va en Italie.
11. La Tamisc.
12. Le Rhin.
13. La Séverne, la Seine.
14. L' ivrognerie est détestable.
15. Le meurtre mérite la mort.
16. La paresse conduit à la paurreté.
17. De la marne à la surface, ensuite
de la terre glaise, et puis de la craie.
18. L'orge est chère cette année.
19. Les chevaux mangent de l'herbe et du foin.
20. Le cheval est un animal utile.
21. Les oiseaux volent; les faucons volent.
22. Les faucons tuent les autres oiseaux.
23. Il vient de la 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 dans les etés favorables.
29. L'été est passé.
30. Je vois que les arbres viennent bien.
31. Le Capitaine White est parti.
32. Les oiseaux chantent dans le printemps.
33. Comment vous portez-vous, Mr. le Capitaine?
34. Les poires sont mûres en Automne.
35. Le Docteur Johnson craignoit la mort.
36. La reine Elizabeth et le Pape Sixte.
37. Les grolles mangent du blé.
38. Les garcons tuent les grolles.
39. Les gargons tuent les grolles.
pas.
41. Il est à la campagne.
42. Elle étoit en ville.
43. Dieu, le ciel, et l'enfer.
44. Les jardins ont un aspect riant au printemps.
45. Les fleurs se fanent en été.
46. Elles meurent en automne.
47. L'amour faisoit le sujet de la lettre.
48. Les pommes sont un bon fruit.
49. Les pommes ne sont pas chères cette année.
50. Les renards tuent les poules.
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 plut beaucoup hier.
56. L'avoine est très-chère.
57. Le fromage est très-rare.
58. Je prefère le noir au bleu.
59. Il aime la chasse.
60. L'exercise est bon pour l'homme.
61. Il se tue à force de boire.
62. Les hommes prudens évitent les querelles.
63. Les oiseaux chantent tandis que les paresseux ronflent.
64. L'homme, venez ici! la femme, allez par-là!
65. Du bois, de l'eau et du feu.
66. La lumière et l'obscurité, la chaleur et le froid.
67. Les articles forment une partie du discours.
68. Il a des bras.
69. Il a des cheveux noirs.
70. Les Hollandois font le commerce.
71. Les Américains partagent les lacs avec les Anglois.
72. Ils vont au Canada.
73. La nouvelle Ecosse est un pays froid.
74. Le mails vient bien en France.
75. Le tabac est une production de la Virginie.
76. Le cbton vient de la Géorgie,
77. De la Floride et du Bresil.
78. Les Péruviens ont de l'or en abondance.
79. Les Mexicains ont de l'argent en grande 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. La soie est trè-légère.
8. A-t-il des chevaux ?
9. Oui, il en a quelques-uns.
10. Il a des chiens.
11. Ont-ils des oiseaux ?
12. Les chiens aboient.
13. J' entends du bruit.
14. J'entends beaucoup de bruit.
15. Il y a du danger.
16. Il y en a six de blancs et deux de noirs.
17. Cinq de tués et un de blessê.
18. Ils ont de bonne viande.
19. Elle a de beaux yeux.
20. Les moutons mangent de l'herbe.
21. J' ai des moutons.
22. Les moutons que j'ai vendus.
23. Vous aviez du fromage.
24. Elle aura beaucoup de pain.
25. Une quantitê de terre.
26. Donnez-nous encore de l'argent.
27. Rien de bien rare.
28. Tant de livres.
29. Fort peu de sagesse.
30. Combien de fenêtres?
31. Combien de terre ?
32. Beaucoup de chagrin.
33. Beaucoup de plaisir.
34. Beaucoup de patience.
35. Beaucoup de peine.
36. Quel vin souhaitez-vouz?
37. Donnez-moi du rouge.
38. Ce sont de bien honnêtes gens.
39. Il y a maintenant beaucoup de choux.
40. Des ognons et du persil dans le jardin.
41. Le pommier est une guirlande lorsqu'il est en fleur.
42. Les cerisiers sont aussi trèsbeaux.
43. Ce poirier est bien chargé de fruit.
44. Les poires sont à bon marchê cette annêe-ci.
45. Les touffes de framboisiers n'ont rien de remarquable.
46. Mais leur fruit est excellent.
47. Quelles belles fraises !
48. Les épinards et les haricots.
49. Le marché abonde en légumes.
50. Un temps humide est bon pour ce terrain.
51. Tout le foin est gâté.
52. Le foin sera cher l'année pro chaine.
53. Les haricots sont très-abondans.
54. Les laitues sont bonnes en salade.
55. L'huile, le vinaigre, le poivre, le sel et la moutarde sont des choses fort utiles.
56. L'huile d' olive est bien meilleure que celle de parot.
57. La première se fait en France et en Italie.
58. La seconde se fait en Allemagne.
59. Le mont de sable est très-haut.
60. Les pierres ne font point de mal à la terre.
61. Le fourrage est à bon marché.
62. Une grande quantité de terre.
63. Les alonettes restent dans les champs.
64. Du poisson, de la viande, de la volaille, du grain, de la farine,
65. Nous avons du poisson.
66. Les abeilles $\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ aiment pas les guêpes.
67. Le miel est très-utile dans une famille.
68. La maison est grande.
69. Une main et un pied.
70. Deux maisons et trois champs.
71. Quatre fils, cinq filles.
72. Six enfans, sept amis.
73. Un cheral, une vache, un cochon.
74. Huit chevaux, neuf vaches, dix cochons.
75. Onze noix, une noix.
76. Un enfant, douze enfans.

## XXVIII.]

10. Un engagement.
11. Treize engagemens.
12. Quatorze choux.
13. Un fort beau chou.
14. Un chapeau noir.
15. Beaucoup de richesses.
16. Quinze chapeaux.
17. Seize hibous.
18. Dix-sept clous.
19. Un très-grand mal.
20. Ungrand nombre de maux.
21. L'œil du cheval
22. Mes yeux sont foibles.
23. L'eau est claire.
24. Les eaux de Bath.
25. Dix-huit paniers.
26. Dix-neuf bonnets de nuit.
27. Vingt portes de jardin.
28. Vingt et un poissons de rivière.
29. La tête du loup.
30. Les griffes du chat.
31. Le palais du roi.
32. Trente chandeliers d'or.
33. Quarante assiettes d'étaim.
34. Cinquante cuillères d' argent.
35. Soixante souliers de cuir.
36. Soixante-dix huttes de bois.
37. Quatre-vingt pelles-à-feu.
38. Quatre-vingt-dix agneaux.
39. Un agnean et un mouton.
40. Cent bœufs.
41. Mille oiseaux.
42. Un oiseau et un renard.
43. Dieu est tout-puissant.
44. Les dieux des Grecs.
45. Un lieu solitaire.
46. Des lieux solitaires.
47. Il a un emploi.
48. A la poste aux lettres.
49. Une livre de pain.
50. Un livre pour vous.
51. Le page du roi.
52. Une page d'un livre.
53. A sa maison.
54. De la rue.
55. Au champ.
56. Aux parcs.
57. Après le carosse.
58. Chapitre premier.
59. Livre deuxième.
60. Un traité de Grammaire.
61. Fntre\%, Monsieur.
62. Pricz ce monsieur l'entrer.
63. J'appercois quelques messieurs.
64. Monsieur, j' ai vu les messieurs.
65. Entrez, Messieurs.
66. Messieurs, j' ai parlé à ces messieurs.
67. Autant de beaux jardins.
68. Devant le trône.
69. Hormis le domestique.
70. Au milieu des buissons.
71. Dans les nids d'oiseaux.
72. Depuis Mardi dernier.
73. Vers Londres.
74. Les dames s'en vont.
75. Les Lords restent ici.
76. Allez, monsieur l'impudent.
77. De l'eau de rivière pour faire de la bière.
78. Madame, j'ai vu la dame.
79. Mesdames, je m' en vais.
80. Allez chez monsieur White.
81. Les propriétés de Guillaume, de Jean, et de Richard.
82. A qui est cette plume?
83. La position de ce pays.
84. La situation du gouverneur.
85. La laine des moutons est bonne à faire du drap.
86. Ils parlent de la maison de la dame.
87. Madame White est morte.
88. Joseph, Pierre, et quelques amis.
89. Une cuillère d' argent pleine de vin.
90. Un pot plein de bière.
91. Ce sentier a cent pieds de long.
92. La mort de sa mère.
93. Le mariage de son fils.
94. La bonne fortune de son frère.
95. Il a fait le commerce du cuivre.
96. Les voitures et les chevaux coûtent de l'argent.
97. Le chêne est un bel arbre.
98. Les planches de chêne durent long-temps.
99. Des ormes dans les haies.

## EXERCISE V.

1. Vons et moi, nous allons souper.
2. Vous, votre sceur, et moi, nous aurons de l'argent demain.
3. Nous sommes fort heureux dans ce pays, elle et moi.
4. Ils ine frappent aussi bien que lui.
5. Ils m'aiment aussi bien qu' elle.

6 Puissiez-vous devenir riche :
7. Si vous m'abandonniez pour toujours.
8. Oui, répartit-il. Non, dit-il.
9. Je le vois, tous les jours, lui et son pere.
10. Il leur donne toujours quelque chose à manger.
11. Ils dinent 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-moiun peude votre bois.
15. Il leur rapporte tout ce que je lui dis.
16. Elle n'avoit aucune affection pour eux.
17. Les champs leur appartiennent.
18. C'està lui qu' ils parlent toujours.
19. Ils les attendent ici aujourd'hui.
20. Donnez-lui quelque chose à manger et à boire.

## EXERCISE VI.

1. Ma main, mes plumes, mon papier, mon encre et mes livres.
2 Vos plumes ne sont pas aussi bonnes que les miennes.
2. Enuportez les chaises de ma chambre, et mettez-les dans la sienne.
4 Prenez-en des leurs, et mettez-les dans la mienne.
3. Prenez-en des miennes, et por-tez-les dans les siennes.
4. Leurs bæufs sont plus beaux que les vôtres.
5. Mettez mes bœufs dans leur champ.
6. Ses souliers sont meilleurs que les siens.
7. Nos habits sont bleus, mais les leurs sont rouges.
8. Notre champ, leur prairie, leurs moutons.
9. Vos arbres sont bien plantés.
10. La table est mauvaise; ses pieds soit foibles.
11. Elle est d'une vilaine couleur: le bois en est pourri.
12. Voilà votre carosse: voici le mien.
13. Mon frère, je vous prie de venir chez moi.
14. Adieu, Mr. le Capitaine. Je suis bien aise de vous voir, mon voisin.
15. Je vous enverrai des fleurs, elles sont très-belles.
16. Ils ou elles nous ont envoyé du fruit aujourd'hui.
17. Ils nous volent et nous insultent.
18. Il écrit au secrétaire, et lui envoie des messages.
19. Ils sont plus riches que moi et que lui aussi.
20. Envoyez-leur un messager.
21. Arrêtez-le, liez-le, et envoyez-le en prison.
22. Nous mangeons de la viande et nous buvons de l'eau.
23. Ils s'adressent souvent a nous pour du vin.
24. Je lui ai donné de l' or pour vons. 31. Vous les vites aller chez elle.
25. Ces oiseaux sontà à vous, et ceuxlà sont à moi.
26. Ton père, ta mère et tes frères sont morts.
27. Ses frères et ses sœurs sont tous partis.
28. Leurs domestiques riennent ici.
29. Mon père, avez-vous son mantean?
30. Approchez-vous, ma sœur, $j$ 'ai besoin de vous parler.
31. Non, mon ami, je ne puis vous secourir.
32. Prenez vos moutons, et mettezles avec les miens.
33. Séparez vos pouies des miennes.
34. Sa maison; sa maison; notre maison; leur maison; votre maison.
35. Sa main, son bras, nos doigts, leurs jambes, mes pieds.
36. Sa robe, son bonnet, sa tête, son cou, ses dents.
37. Mettez votre foin avec le mien: séparez le vôtre du mien.
38. Il ne parle pas de votre beautê, mais de la mienne.
39. Il ne parle pas des siens, mais des nôtres.
40. Ce vaisseau leur appartient.

## EXERCISE VII.

1. Les personnes qui demeuroient dans cette rue.
2. Le menuisier qui fit ma table.
3. La vache qui naît dans ma prairie.
4. Les moutons qui sont sur les collines.
5. L'homme dont je prise l' amitié.
6. Le cheval qui conduit leur voiture.
7. Le blé que vous avez vendu au marché.
8. Le blé qui croît dans vos champs.
9. Aimez ceux dont vous recevez des bienfaits.
10. Le marchand auquel il doit tant d'argent.
11. La compagnie qu'il a regue 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 mienx.
17. Le temps qui me plaît le plus.
18. Leacre dont je me sers.
19. Les personnes dont vous me parlâtes hier.
20. L'homme qui me déplaît le plus.
21. Que nous voulez-vous?
22. Que disent-ils à vous et à votre famille?
23. C'est l'affaire dont ils parloient.
24. C'est de vous et de votre fils qu'ils parlent.
25. Ce sont les dames dont il parloit.
26. Le monsieur de qui j' ai requ tant de bontés.
27. De qui parlez-vous ?
28. Quel homme est-ce ? Quel garçon est-ce ?
29. Laquelle de ces deux chaises aimez-vous mieux?
30. Lequel de ces trois miroirs préférez-vous?
31. L'embarras dont il est sorti.
32. Mon ami qui est mort hier et que j' aimois tant.
33. De quoi parlez-vous ? Qu' estce que cela?
34. Qui est ce monsieur?
35. Avec quelle flotte est-il venu ?
36. Qui vous a dit cela ?
37. Un de ceux qui vinrent la nuit dernière.
38. Un des premiers quile firent.
39. Le faucon que mon frère a tué.
40. Qui pent dire ce qui peut arriver?

## EXERCISE VIII.

1. Il y a beaucoup de fruit dans ce pays-là.
2 Ce jardin est bien garni de fleurs.
2. Laquelle de ces fleurs aimezvous nieux ?
3. Aimez-vous micux celle-ci ou celle-la?
4. C'est moi qui vous ordonne de le faire.
5. C'est le maitre de la maison qui vient.
6. C' est un fort beau pays.
7. C' est grand dommage.
8. Cette plume est meilleure que celle-là.
9. Ces plumes sont aussi bonnes que celles-là.
10. Ce blé est à bon marché; mais il n' est pas bon.
11. Votre terre est aussi bonne que celle de votre voisin.
12. Ceux qui pensent qu'ils gagnent à friponner se trompent.
13. Celui qui se couche tard doit se lever tard.
14. Celle qui s'occupe trop de sa beauté.
15. Celui qui mène une vie réglee est plus hureux, que celui qui vit đ' une manière déréglée.
16. Celui qui n' a point vu ce pays-ci, ne sait pas combien il est beau.
17. J'aime beaucoup ce que vous avez envoyé.
18. Il nous dit ce qu'il sait sur leur compte.
19. Elle rapporte à sa mère tout ce qu'elle entend.
20. Ce qui me fait le plus de peine, c' est qu'il ne veut pas me voir.
21. Il n'y a que ceux qui ne le connoissent pas qui parlent mal de lui.
22. Ceux qui ont toujours vécu dans l'abondance ne savent pas ce que c' est que la faim.
23. Voici les bæufs que je préfère.
24. Ceux que vous avez sont de paurres animaux.
25. Ce chien-là paroît être de la même race que celui-ci.
26. Oui, mais celui-ci est meilleur que celui-là.
27. Cet oiseau chante mieux que celui que vous avez.
28. Ces perdrix sont plus grosses que les perdrix Angloises.
29. Ces bécasses volent plus rapidement que celles-là.
30. Lesquelles sont meilleures à manger ?
31. Celles qui volent vîte, ou celles qui volent lentement?

## 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 étoient assis, chacui à sa place.
5. Chacun d' eux donna 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. Flusieurs m'ont assuré qu'il vient.
10. Quelques-uns aiment cette manière de voyager.
11. Quelques-uns sont meilleurs que les autres.
12. Nous ne devons pas prendre le hien d'autrui.
13. D' autres ne font pas cela.
14. Il dépense l'argent d'nutrui.
15. Ils s' envoyèrent réciproquement du fruit et des fleurs.
16. Tout est vendu dans la maison et enlevé.
17. Les moutons sont tous morts. Quoi! tous?
18. Quiconque prendra ce chemin, y tombera.
19. Tout ce qu' on $y$ trouve, sans en rien excepter.
20. Il causera avec le premier venu qui voudra lui parler.
21. Quiconque néglige ses affaires se ruine.
22. Je soutiendrai cela contre qui que ce soit.
23. Donnez-nous tout, quoi que ce puisse être.
24. Il rêussit dans tout ce qu'il entreprend.
25. Quoiqu'il en dise, il ne l' échap-
26. Quel qu'en soit le prix, vous devez le donner.
27. Quel est l'homme qui a volé votre argent ?
28. Je l'ignore, mais qui que ce puisse être, il doit être puni.
29. L'homme est pris. On ne sait qui c'est ; mais qui que ce soit il sera puni.
30. Quelques prunes dans un petit panier de paille.
31. Il y avoit deux pommes, unc. petite 'quantité de cerises et quelques abricots.
32. Quelques-uns disent qu'elle sera très-riche ; d'antres qu'elle ne le sera pas.
33. Quelque riche qu'elle puisse être; quelques richesses qu'elle puisse avoir.
34. Quelque belles maisons et quelque beaux jardins qu' ils aient.
35. Ils ne s' aiment pas, je vous le jure.
36. L'un ou l' autre viendrá demain; mais ni l'un ni l'autre ne viendra aujourd'hui.
37. Il n' a rien fait pour moi, et il ne fera rien pour vous.
38. Rien de ce qu'ils entreprennent ne réussit.
39. Personne ne croit cela. Je ne l'ai dit à personne.
40. A-t-on jamais vu rien de pareil auparavant ?
41. Pas un de ces gens ne rint hier-soir.
42. Pas un des soldats n'échappa à l' ennemi.
43. Avez-vous des poires? Pas une, sur ma parole.
44. Personne $n$ ' est venu avec le fruit. et le vin.
45. Nous n' aimons point que les au-tres se mêlent de nos affaires de famille.
46. Nous mangeons quand nous a- pera pas.

## XXVIII.]

OF THE EXERCISES.
vons faim, et nous buvons quand nous avons soif.
47. Nous plantons des arbres pour nos petits fils, et en ce faisant, nous agissons avec autant de justice que de sagesse.
48. Ils vont semer du blé dans ce champ; mais ils n' ont pas bien préparé la terre.
49. On dit que vous allez vous marier.
50. Je voudrois que les gens s'entretinssent de leurs propres affaires, et non des miennes.
51. On dit qu'il y a une grande récolte de blé.
52. On lui a conseillé de quitter le pays.
53. Nous menons une vie agréable; nous nous levons de bonne heure; nous nous promenons; easuite nous déjeunons; puis nous faisons une seconde promenade, ou bien nous montons à cheval.
54. Vous pouvez traduire des phrases, telles que celles-ci ; et la dernière, d'une manière ou de l' autre ; c'est-à-dire, avec on, arec nous, ou avec vous.
55. Sevez-vous qu'il y a des soldats dans la ville? Oui, car j'en ai vu plusieurs.
56. Quel est ce bruit? Quelle en est la cause ?
57. Od sont les dames? Je n'en sais rien.
58. Qu'ont-ils fait de mon épée: Je n'en sais rien.
59. Y-a-t-il beaucoup de vaisseaux dans le port? Oui, il y en a plus de cent.
60. Si elle vient de la campagne anjourd'hui, elle y retournera demain.
61. On les loue beaucoup; mais pas plus qu’ils ne le méritent.
62. Ils sont bien paurres, mais plusieurs de leurs voisins ne le sont pas.
63. Cette maison est-elle à vous? Oui, elle est à moi.
64. Voilà mon verre ; versez-y du vin.
65. Il a acheté ce domaine, il y visoit depuis long-temps.
66. Elle est venue chez elle; elle en repartira demain.
67. Je pars pour aller voir mes plantations.
68. Ils ne se soucient de personne que d'eux-mêmes.
69. L'orgueil ne sied à personne. N 'enviez point le bien d'autrui.
70. Rien n'est assez bon pour lui.
71. Ils iront l' y joindre.
72. Nous en parlâmes alors.
73. Donnez-leur-en.
74. Envoyez-leur-en.
75. Il retourne dans son pays.
76. Ils s'en sont venus promptement.
77. Il le dit, et il s'y tient.
78. Il a beaucoup de dépit contre vous.

## EXERCISE X.

1. lls n'y ont pas été depuis quatre ou cinq ans.
2. Je ne vous donnerai pas maintenant d' aussi courtes phrases à traduire que celles que je vous ai données jusqu' à présent.
3. Il y a long-temps que vous n'avez été dane ce pays-la.
4. de n' ai pas vu l'homme qui vint ici bier soir.
5. Certainement, je ne rous donnerai pas plus de dix livres sterling.
6. Vons n' aurez été que six ans dans votre bureau.,
7. Vous n' arez 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 $n^{\prime}$ avois aucun des bestiaux dont il me parla.
12. Je n'en ai ru aucun depuis quelque temps.
13. Prêtez-moi de l' argent. Je ne saurois, car je n' en ai point.
14. Ont-ils été ici aujourd' hui? Non.
15. Non que je n? aime point les gens de ce pays-là.
16. Non que je ne puisse y aller, si cela me plait.
17. Voulez-vous venir avec moi? Non: je ne le veux point.
18. Elle ne sait ni lire ni écrire.
19. Il ne sait ni lire ni écrire.
20. Nous ne mettrons pas à la voile demain, ni pent-être après demain.
21. Ni le maître ni le valet ne seront ici.
22. Ni lui, ni sa femme, ni ses enfans ne jouissent d' une bonné Santé.
23. Ils n' ont que vingt acres de terre.
24. Nous ne leur parlons que trèsrarement.
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 n' entreriez pas ?
31. M' arez-vous apportê 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 $l^{\prime}$ apprête.
33. Il ne cesse de parler et de faire du bruit.
34. Ils n' osent faire ce dont ils menacent.
35. Ils ne peuvent venir demain, j' en suis très-sûr.
36. Vous ne voulez ni boire ni manger avec nons? Et pourquoi pas, mes amis?
37. Pourquoi ne pas vous asseoir et diner avec nous ?
38. Non : je vous suis très-obligé ; je ne peux $\mathrm{m}^{\prime}$ arrêter à présent.
39. Eh bien, donc, venez demain. Je ne puis vraiment pas; ou je ne saurais vraiment.
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 paie ce qu' il yous doit.
43. Je ne peux écrire si je n'ai pas de lumière.
44. Je ne lui écrirai pas qu' clle ne m'écrive la première.
45. Prenez garde qu' on ne vous trompe.
46. Il y a plus de vin qu' il n' en faut.
47. 11 en dit plus qu'il ne falloit.
48. Je les empêcherai de faire du mal dans la campagne.
49. Je ne nie pas que je n'aie dit qu'il étoit méchant.
50. Elle est plus vieille qu' on ne pense.
51. Elle est moins riche qu' on ne la croyoit.
52. Il est tout autre que je ne le croyois.
53. Ils sont plus à leur aise que vous ne pensiez.
54. Je crains qu'il ne vienne trop tôt.
55. Je crains qu' il ne vienne pas assez tôt.
56. Elle appréhende qu'il n'y ait une querelle.
57. Ils craignent que leur mère ne soit malade.
58. Ils ont peur que l'armêe n'arrive.
59. Ils craignent que l' armée ne vienne.
60. Ne pas trop parler de l'affaire.
61. Il convient de ne point aller trop vîte.
62. Croyez-vous que ceci soit trop long? Point du tout.
63. C' est fort mal à vous de ne pas tenir votre parole.
64. Cet-été-ci n' est-il pas bien froid?
65. Pas plus froid que le dernier, quoique assez froid.

## EXERCISE XI.

1. Parlez-vous de la maison à ces messieurs ?
2. L'armée est-clle partie ce matin ?
3. Le charpentier vieudra-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 frappa-t-il?
8. Emmenèrent-ils votre voiture et vos chevaux ?
9. Pensâtes-vous à cela ?
10. Est-ce là votre livre? Oui, c'est mon livre.
11. E-t-ce la 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 auroient-ils pensé ?
17. Lui en reste-t-il ?
18. Me le donnez-vous?
19. Le lui dit-elle?
20. Ne le lui dit-il point?
21. Vous en parleront-ils?
22. Je me lève le matin.
23. Je ne ne me lève point.
24. Me levé-je?
25. Ne me levé-je pas?
26. Ne se leve-t-il pas de bonne heure?
27. Ne me l' avez-vous pas dit ?
28. Lui a-t-elle dit cela?
29. Nous l'auront-ils payé ?
30. Vous en auroient-ils parlé ?
31. Cherchâtes-vous votre argent dans sa boîte?
32. Y en trouvâtes-vous?
33. Ne vous frapperont-ils pas ? et ne vous blesseront-ils pas?
34. Ne leur en parle-t-il pas?
35. Ne vous auroit-il pas fait grand tort?
36. Ne me le donnez-vous pas?
37. Ne vous appliquez-vous pas à la langue françoise ?
38. Ne le lui dit-elle pas?
39. Ne nous le donneront-ils pas?
40. Ne vous en parlera-t-il pas?
41. Ne me l'avez-vous pas dit?
42. Ne le lui avoit-efle pas dit?
43. Le blé vient-il bien dans cette terre?
44. Les arbres ne sont-ils pas trèsbeaux dans les bois de l'Amérique?
45. Nor: ils ne sont pas très-beaux dans toutes les parties du pays.
46. Les platanes y sont très-grands ; n'est-ce pas?
47. Ne vous en auroit-il pas parlé?
48. Thomas ne viendroit-il pas si vous l'envoyiez quérir ?
49. Est-ce que tous les faisans et tous les lièvres sont détruits?
50. Non : mais on en a pris un grand nombre.
5l. Je ne vous dis pas de ne point y aller.
51. Je ne vous dis pas de ne point en parler.
52. Ne pas trop parler de soi.
53. Je lui ai dit de ne pas payer plus de vingt livres sterling.
54. N'est-il pas colonel, ou capitaine ?
55. La flotte ira-t-elle à la Jamalque?
56. Ne croyez-vous pas qu'il fasse beau?
57. Vous avez de grandes propriétés, sans parler de votre argent comptant.
58. Jean n'y sera-t-il pas plus tôt qu'il ne faut?
59. Je ne le crois pas.
60. N'y voyez-vous rien du tout ?
61. Ne vous a-t-il pas dit un mot à ce sujet?
62. Ne craignez-vous pas que l'argent ne vienne trop tard ?
63. N' ont-ils vu personne aller de ce côté-lă.
64. Est-ce que les laboureurs n'ont que peu à boire et à manger ?
65. Celui-là n'est-il pas le plus pauvre, qui a moins à manger, et moins de vêtemens pour se couvrir ?
66. Ils ne lui pardonneront jamais, à moins qu'il ne leur demande pardon.
67. Ma chambre n'est-elle pas trèsjolie?
68. Cet exercice-ci n'est.il pas bien long ?
69. Il est bien long; mais pas plus long, j’espère, qu'il n'est utile.

## EXERCISE XII.

1. Il fait beau dans ce pays-là, toute l' année, pour ainsi dire.
2. Il fit bien mauvais temps, en Amérique, l'automne dernier.
3. Il pleut presque toujours dans ce pays-là.
4. On dit qu'il ne pleut jamais à Lima.
5. Il y a sept acres de terre et six fort belles maisons.
6. Il y a beaucoup de vase au fond du vivier.
7. Vous devez bien faire attention à la manière dont vous taillez les pêchers.
8. Il y a beaucoup d' espèces de pêches.
9. 11 y en a plusieurs dans ce jardin.
10. Il y a des boutons à bois et des boutons à fruit.
11. Il y eut dans la ville un cri terrible.
12. Si ce sont des arbres de fruit à noyau que vous avez à tailler.
13. I y en a là une grande quantité.
14. Comme je l'ai dếjà remarqué.
15. If faut l'examiner, et vous assurer s'il y a un bon beurgeon à bois.
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 beau temps pour la moisson.
19. Ne perdez pas de temps à causer ; faites ce que vous avez à faire.
20. Tout ce qu' il y a de respèctable dans le village en a bonne idée.
21. J'ai besoin d'amis qui m'aident dans une si grande entreprise.
22. Il faut un bon terrain pour récolter 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 avoit vingt; il falloit tous les vingt ; mais on ne nous en a laissé que sept.
25. C' est un acte que nous ne ${ }^{-}$devons jamais oublier.
26. Ce fut son domestique qui le eur dit.
27. Il y eut soixante maisons de renversées par le canon.
28. Il vaut mieux rester comme yous êtes, pendant quelques mois.
29. Il vaut beaucoup mieux être pauvre et bien portant, qu' être riche et malade.
30. J' irai en France; c'est-à-dire, si je me porte bien.
31. C' est une mauvaise chose que de voyager quand on ne se 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. Elle est bonne et sage.
35. Ce fut votre père qui vous donna ce diamant?
36. Etoit-ce eux qui causèrent tant de mal dans ce village ?
37. Ce furent eux qui couperent 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 fût 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 y a dix-sept milles.
43. Combien y a-t-il d' ici au sommet de la montagne ?
44. Combien serez-vous de temps à revenir?
45. Il a travaillé quinze ans à son ouvrage.
46. Combien y a-t-il de bœufs dans le parc?
47. Et combien y en a-t-il dans l'étable?
48. Il faut avoir des enfans pour pouvoir sentir pour un père et une mère.
49. Ne dois-je pas avoir beaucoup de patience?
50. Ne doit-il pas y avoir eu beaucoup d'inconduite quelque part?
51. N'a-t-elle pas dûavoir 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 plús long.
54. Il n' y a que cela qui ne soit pas utile.
55. Je vous prie de ne pas venir; je venx dire si vous ne trouvez pas de voiture.
56. Y a-t-il des vignes dans ce pays?
57. Non: 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 cit jamais vu; mais le climat est mauvais.
59. Quelledistance croyez-vous qu'il $y$ ait $d^{\prime}$ 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? Non, car il fait jour maintenant jusqu' après neuf heures.
62. Il fait bien crotté depuis la dernière pluie, et il paroît qu' il pleurra de nouveau avant de-main-soir.
63. Il a fait un très-beau temps aujourd' hui.
64. Croyez-vous cela ? y a-t-il quelqu' un qui le croie? y a-t-il quelqu' un d' eux qui ne méprise celui qui le dit?
65. Celui qui affecte de croire que cela est vrai, n'est-il donc pas un misérable?

## EXERCISE XIII.

1. La tour a quatre cent quarante pieds de hauteur.
2. Votre chambre a vingt pieds de long et dix de large.
3. Un champ carré et une grande barrière.
4. Un homme impertinent, fou et paresseux.
5. Un bœuf jeune et beau, et un joli petit chien.
6. In 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 chapeau ; le plus mauvais que $\mathrm{j}^{\mathbf{j}}$ ai eu de ma vie.
10. Il fait plus beau aujourd' hui qu' hier; encore fait-il un temps froid et assez triste.
11. C'est la plus mauvaise route que j'aie jamais vue.
12. C'est le plus grand coquin qui existe.
13. Avez-rous beaucoup de bouteilles de vin dans votre cave?
14. Donnez-lui un peu de vin et quelques grappes de raisin.
15. Je n'ai pas beaucoup d'huile, mais $j^{\prime}$ ai 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 zélé pour une bonne, que pour une mauvaise cause.
19. Soixante mille livres sterling pour une terre et les meubles.
20. Mil huit cent vingt-huit.
21. Londres, le 4 Juin, mil huit cent vingt-huit.
22. George IV et Charles $\mathbf{X}$ règnent actuellement.
23. J' aime mieux un ennemi déclaré qu'un ennemi caaché.
24. Vous êtes indigne de tout honneur et de toute distinction.
25. Il fut transporté de joie en la voyant arriver.
26. Ils ne méritent point de reproche à cet égard.
27. Il èst propre à toute espèce d'affaires.
28. Il n'y a pas de mal qu'ils ne fassent.
29. Votre négligence nous expose ì des poursuites judiciaires.

30 . C' est un homme très-estimé dans ce pays-là.
31. C' est une Françoise ; c' est une Angloise; c' est une Américaine.
32. Un chapean François, un habit Anglois, un soulier Américain.
33. Un chapeau noir, un habit bleu, des sotuliers blancs.
34. Blasc comme la neige, noir
comme la cheminée, lourd comme du plomb.
35. Vous êtes plus grand que lui de deux ponces.
36. Je ne crois pas qu' il soit aussi grand qu' elle.
37. Ce sont les plus méchans 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 macons finiront leur ouvrage demain.
4. Lai ou elle payera le dîner et le vin.
5. Ce furent eux qui dirent qu' elle deroit 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, Etienne, Marie et leur mère écriront demain.
8. Jean, Paul, Etienne et vous, vous écrirez demain.
9. Votre frère et elle ont beaucoup lu aujourd'bui.
10. Mon grand-père et moi, nous avons voyagé d'une extrémité du pays à $l^{\prime}$ autre.
11. Les concombres et les melons viennent bien dann cette terre.
12. Le jardinier, ainsi que ses gens, aime les feurs.
13. Il s' en falloit de beaucoup qu'il fût bon, d' après ce que m'a dit le jardinier.
14. La pièce de terre où etoient plantés les arbustes.
15. La haie où croissoient les épines.
16. Les plantations que mon grandpère fit.
17. La maison qu' habitent le frère et la sœur.
18. Le panier où l'on a mis les fleurs.
19. Il y a un mois que le comité tient séance.
20. Ils n'auront pas fini de deux mois.
21. Le peuple a été fort tranquille.
22. Ils ont été extrêmement bien
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 vérite.
27. Ah! dirent-ils, nous vous avons donc attrapé.
28. Non, répondis-je, vous ne m'avez point attrapé.
29. Eh bien! leur dit-il, n'en parlez plus.
30. Partez aussitôt que vous le pourrez, je vous en prie.
31. Nous sommes, elle et moi, les propriétaires de ce bois.
32. Ils désirent leur écrire.
33. Le treffle et le sainfoin viennent bien dans ce terrain.
34. Ils sont excellens 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 paille ni foin.
37. La plus grande partie du monde fait de même.
38. Une grande partie de ses amis le quittèrent.
39. Les plantes curieuses que ' m ' a données mon ami.
40. Le peintre que ma sœur a envoyє.
41. Le peintre qui a envoyé ma scur.
42. L' imprimeur que le peuple aime tant.
43. L' imprimeur qui aime tant le peuple.
44. Je plante de la laitue et du céleri.
45. Donnez-moi un peu de l' yn et de l'autre, s'il vous plait.

## EXERCISE XV.

1. Le guide qui conduisoit l'observateur duquel je tiens la description, lui rapporta que, quelque temps avant la guerre qui se termina par la paix de Ryswick, ayant mené les Allemands à cet endroit, ils le trouvèrent couvert de neige.
2. Le palais étoit un temple dédié aux dieux tutélaires. Il étoit de forme oblongue, et avoit huit colonnes de chaquie côté, en longueur, et quatre le long de chaque extrémité; ce qui faisoit en tout vingt-quatre colonnes, dont huit subsisterent jusqu' au moment ou on les abattit pour agrandir le château.
3. La fontaine qu'on nomme d'Audège, jette une si grande quantité d'eau, qu'elle forme un raisseau très-utile aux tabneurs qui demeurent dans les faubourgs.
4. Etudiez-vous bien, et ne négligezvous aucune partie de votre devoir?
5. Lorsqu' il aura fini de bâtir sa maison, il ira à la campagne.
6. Quand elle ira à la ville, elle y trouvera un grand nombre d'amis qui seront bien aises de la voir.
7. Tout ce qu'on peut faire pour lui, on le doit faire.
8. Il a été fort maltraité par ceux qui luidevoient beaucoup.
9. Elle étoit très-malade et souffroit excessivement. Ils firent tout ce qu' ils purent pour la soulager.
10. Il a été à l'église.
11. Elle tomba du haut de la maison.
12. Ils s'en allèrent l' année dernierre.
13. Nous n'avons pas été au spectacle.
14. Il alla se coucher hier-soir à dix heures.
15. Il s'étoit couché de meilleare heure.
16. Ils se lèvent de bon matin.
17. Nous nous levions, tona les jours, à quatre heures.
18. Vous devriez vous lever de meilleure heure que vous ne le faites.

## EXERCISE XVI.

1. Elle n' est point assez riche pour virre sans travailler.
2. Il fit cela pour provoquer ses frères et ses sceurs.
3. Ils seront trop sages pour empécher qu' on ne cultive la terre.
4. Que mérite-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 debâtir une maison sur un terrain si stérile.
7. Etudiez sans cesse, si vous êtes en boane santé.
8. Donuez aux pauvres platôt que de les dèpouiller.
9 Quelque peu de morens qu' elle ait, elle n' ea fait pas moins une jolie fignre.
9. C'est â vous à leur parler d'ne affaire qui vous concerne.
10. I1 contient que vous preniez des mesures efficaces pour le punir.
11. Il est excessivement adonné au vice honteux du jeu.
12. Je suis las de vivre ici et de ne rien faire.
13. Allez dire à mon homme d'affaires de venir le plus tôt qu'il pourra.
14. Allez vous informer de notre voi$\sin$ qui étoit si malade l'autre jour.
15. Ils se réjouissent beauconp de ce que rous avez triomphé de vos enpemis.
16. En allant à Londres, vous gagnerez beaucoup.
17. Ea veillant ì vos affaires, vous vous rendrez heureux, ainsi que vos parens.
18. Je difire de tout mon cour que vous le fassiez.
19. Je ne comois rien de plus heurenx que cela.
20. If rant mieux qu' un pays soit détruit, que d'être gouverné par des méchans.
21. Il raloit mieux qu'il allât à che-
22. Il importe beaucoup qu'ils se déclarent formellement.
23. Je ne crois pas qu' il fasse beau demain.
24. Si le beau temps commence et con. tinue pendant quelques jours.
25. C' est le plus grand coquin qui soit an monde.
26. Il s' est sauvé la vie en venant en Angleterre.
27. Il est très-agréable d'aller en France pendant l'été.
28. Faucher ou moissonner est un ouvrage pénible.
29. Il ne vous sied point d'être si délicat sur cet article.
30. Quoi qu' ils en disent, c'est une mauvaise affaire.
31. Je ne connois rien quiirrite plus que cela.
32. Peu de choses sont plus deshonorantes que le mensonge.
33. Boire à l' excès rend un homme méprisable.
35: Manger, boire et dormir sont des choses nécessaires.
34. Je suis fort fâché que votre frère ne soit pas venu.
35. Pourquoi ne viendroit-il pas la semaine prochaine?
36. Il paroít qu'ils sont partis de très-bonne heure.
37. Est-il bien certain que la ville soit prise?
38. Il est bien certain que la ville est prise.
39. Il est clair comme le jour que ce malheur arrivera.
40. Il n'est pas bien certain que ce malheur arrive.
41. Il étoit évident qu' il ne pouvoit se défendre lui-même.
42. Il n'étoit pas certain qu'il ne pût se défendre lui-même.
43. Il me semble que vous avez tort.
44. Il semble qu' il a tort.
45. 11 n'est ni juste ni convenable qu'il le fasse.
46. Croyez-vous venir Samedi prochain?
47. Plût-à-Dieu qu'il se portât bien!
48. Si vous perdiez votre fortune, il faudroit vous en aller.
49. Dieu venille qu'elle recouvre la santé.
50. Vous dites qu'elle se rétablira; Dien le reuille !
51. J' espère qu' clle ne mourra pas : Dieu l'en préserve !
52. A Dieu ne plaise que je fasse pareille chose !
53. Quoi! nous leur pardonnerions cette faute.
54. Que voulez-vous que je fasse ?
55. Je veux que vous vous leviez de bonne heure, et que vous soyez laborieux.
56. J'ai besoin d' une bonne scie, pensez-vous que j'en trouve une?
57. Je crois que vous n'en trouverez pas dans le village.
58. Je ne doute pas que vous n'en trouviez dans la ville,
59. Il faudra qu'ils se donnent bien des soins pour le supprimer.
60. Je n' en doute nullement, je l'avoue.
61. Je doute qu' il le fasse.
62. Je doute qu' il ne le fasse pas.
63. Je ne crois pas qu'elle vienne, la semaine prochaine.
64. Le mal vient de ce qu' il leur a' parlé.
65. Leur babillage a mis leur maître en colère.
66. Le ramage des oiseaux est ravissant.
67. Ce que $\mathrm{j}^{\prime}$ aime le plus dans les oiseaux, c' est leur ramage.
68. Quoiqu'il vende sa terre, il ne sera pas ruiné.
69. Il fut tué dans la dernière guerre.
70. Les tentes ont été prises par l' ennemi.
71. Les tentes que l' ennemi a prises.
72. Quelles tentes a-t-il prises?
73. Il a pris toutes les tentes que nous avions.
74. Je suis surpris que vous l' ayez fait.
75. Ils écrivent dans ma chambre.
76. Vous avez perdu votre argent pour ne l'avoir pas demandé.
77. Il est très-indécent de se conduire de la sorte.
78. Mon père cherche une grande et belle ferme.
79. Ils sont fort en colère que vous ayez pu le faire.
80. Ils insistent absolument à ce qu' ellene reste pas pluslongtemps.
81. Nous fîmes tous très-surpris. 84. Il y a quatre hommes qui plantent des arbres.
82. Je vois les lévriers qui courent après le lièvre.
83. Apportez-nous du café qui soit bon et chaud.
84. Ayons un gigot de mouton gros et gras.
85. Je suis loin de dire ou de penser qu' elle mourra.
86. Le voici qui vient pour s'informer de votre santé.
87. Voici mon fouet: voici le vôtre : voilà le leur.
88. Croyez-ros que je vous donne pour rien ma maison et mes meubles?
89. Le blé s'est vendu dans le marché.
90. Les pommes lui furent vendues.
91. Les bœufs furent vendus la semaine passée.
92. Les vaches ont été vendues cette semaine.

## EXERCISE XVII.

1. Maintenant, je vais vous donner le dix-septieme exercise.
2. Sera-t-il long ou court ?
3. Si je trouvois votre fils, je l'enverrois à la maison.
4. Il feroit promptement fortune, s'il pouroit exploiter les mines:
5. Feriez-vous bientôt fortune, si vous parveniez à les exploiter?
6. Je ne peux monter ce mauvais cheval sans m' exposer à me casser le cou.
和 Vous et lui, vous pourriez prencette liberté; mais elle ne sauroit le faire.
7. Elle ne doit pas le faire sous quelque rapport que ce soit.
8. Vous devriez lui donner cette ferme.
9. S'il pouvoit la leur donner il le feroit.
10. 11 s'en ira d'ici, et son frère aussi.
11. Nous vendrons notre blé et notre vin, et ils vendront les leurs.
12. Ils auront tout ce que je ne dois point garder.
13. Je veux bien que rous restiez ici.
14. Mais je ne peux vous donner à manger et à boire.
15. Cela peut-il être? Que me peutil vonloir?
16. Que nous veulent-ils?
17. Se peut-il qu'ils aient besoin de notre argent.
18. Se peut-il qu'il y ait d'aussi méchantes gens dans le monde?
19. Désiroient-ils voir la ville en feu?
20. Voulez-vous des haricots ou des pois?
21. Je n' ai besoin ni des uns ni des autres.
22. Que voulez-vous donc?
23. Aura-t-elle des fleurs?
24. Veut-elle de celles que $j^{\prime}$ ai semées.
25. Plut-à-Dien qu'ils se levassent de bonne heure!
26. A Dieu ne plaise que j'aie un tas de dormeurs dans ma maison!
27. Dût-il m' en coûter la vie.
28. N'aurait-il pas pu lui demander ce qu' elle vouloit dire?
29. Il auroit pu le faire; mais elle auroit pu lui refuser de répondre.
30. Ne devriez-vous pas le forcer de répondre?
31. Pourroit-on trouver une ronte comparable à celle-là ?
32. N'y a-t-il point ici un grand nombre de questions?
33. Pouvez-vous en trouver davantage dans un même espace, dans un livre quelconque?
34. Peuvent-ils être en colère contre moi?
35. Y aura-t-il des œufs pour souper?
36. Mes yeux s' obscurciront.
37. Ferai-je un nœud à la ficelle ?
38. Il seroit vivement aflligé s'il perdoit sa cause.
39. Ce livre devroit contenir 400 feuilles.
40. Vous devriez cuellir des fleurs.
41. Ils seront en denil la semaine prochaine.
42. Son cill sera bientôt guéri.
43. Je voudrois qu'ils vinssent de suite.
44. In pourroit s' en aller s'il vouloit.
45. Qu'ils viennent quand il leur plaira.
46. Il devoit partir pour Paris la semaine dernière.
47. Vous devries leur dire ce que vous en pensez.
48. Il peut se faire qu'ils s' en aillent
49. Il peut se faire qu'ils ne sachent pas écrire.
50. Peut-elle venir? Peut-être, ou il peut se faire qu'elle puisse.
51. Vous ne derriez pas le prendre.

## EXERCISE XVIII.

1. Is l' ignorent pour l'instant.
2. Ils ne montent plus à cheval maintenant.
3. C'est la mode maintenant d'aller à pied.
4. Je vais le faire tout de suite.
5. Elle vint hier et avant-hier.
6. Il y avoit jadis des arbres dans ce champ.
7. Ils me le dirent auparavant.
8. Il faut que vous veniez ici demain.
9. Je vous prie de m't́crire bientôt.
10. Je mange sourent des cerises et des pommes.
11. Ils finiront bientôt leur ouvrage.
12. Nous écrirons demain ou après demain.
13. Il ira bientôt voir son père.
14. L' affaire se terminera la semaine prochaine.
15. Oa ont-ils été pendant tout ce temps?
16. Donnez-leur àmanger de temps en temps.
17. D' ou vient tout ce monde ?
18. Pourquoi viennent-ils tous ici?
19. Qui les engage à passer par ici ?
20. Il leur est plus facile d' aller par là.
21. Ils partent dici, chaque jour, à une heure.
22. Quand vous monterez, vous resterez en haut.
23. On ne peut le trouver nulle part.
24. Il y a trop d'eau dans votre vin.
25. Peut-être le verrez-vous tantôt.
26. Ils l'ont dit en plaisantant ; mais ce $n$ ' est que trop vrai.
27. Ils écrivent et lisent sans cesse.
28. On la prit de force.
29. Cela est bien méchant de leur part.
30. Vous parlez à tort et à travers.
31. Combien de fois y avez-vous été?
32. Quelle distance y a-t-il d'ici au champ de froment?
33. Je sais bien ce que vous vonlez dire.

## EXERCISE XIX.

1. Avez-vous pensé a l'affaire dont je vous ai parlé?
2. Oni ; mais je ne sais qué faire à ce sujet.
3. A qui appartient ce livre? Il appartient à Jean, ou à sa sœur.
4. Il faut que la maison soit bâtie $d^{\prime}$ ici à la Noêl.

## ExERCISE Xx.

1. Que vous le fassiez ou ton, je viendrai.
2. Un grand bâtiment ou de brique ou de pierre.
3. Il les loua par amour, ou par crainte.
4. Que deviendrions -rous sils venoient à mourir?
5. Que diriez-vous s'ils y consentoient?
6. Quand vous écrirez, faites-lemoí savoir.
7. Quand ils viendront, ifs resteront long-temps.
8. Si rous désirez vous en aller, et étre de retour à temps.
9. S' ils de veulent, et qqa $^{+}$ilt le payent.
10. $\mathrm{S}^{\prime}$ il dontwit même toute sa fortupe.
ins:


# 14 DAY USE <br> RETURN TO DESK FROM WHICH BORROWED LOAN DEPT. 

This book is due on the last date stamped below, or on the date to which renewed.
Renewed books are subject to immediate recall.
$250 c t 558 G$

JAN $23^{\prime 6} 6-4$ PM
$\qquad$

RECD LD

$$
\text { YA } 04705
$$

I


[^0]:    j' ai tué un mouton,
    je me suis tué,
    $\mathrm{j}^{\prime}$ avois tué un mouton, je m' étois tué,
    j' eus tué un mouton, je me fus tué, j' aurai tué un mouton, je me serai tué, $j$ jaie tué un mouton, je me suis tué,

[^1]:    328. Nobody-personne. This is a word much in
[^2]:    How many cities are there in France? How much sand is there in the cart ? How far is it from this to St. Omers? How long is it since you began?

[^3]:    Combien de villes $y$ a-t-il en France? Combien de sable $y$ a-t-il dans la charrette? Combien y a-t-il d'ici à St. Omer?
    Combien y a-t-il que vous avez commencé?

[^4]:    j’ai regues les lettres,

