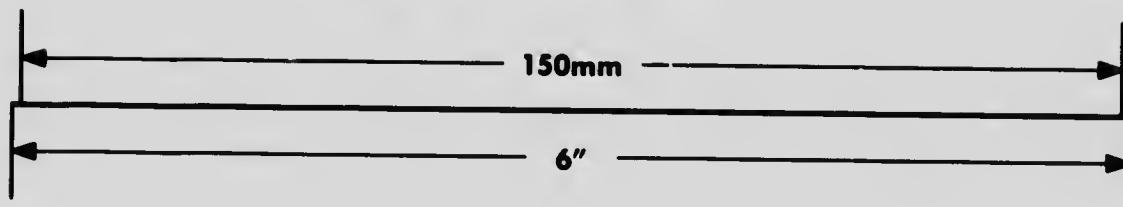
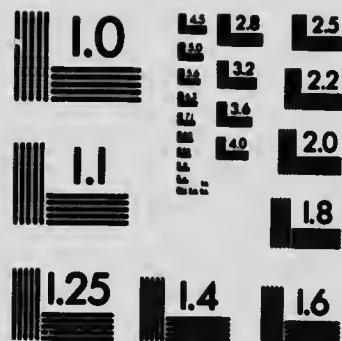
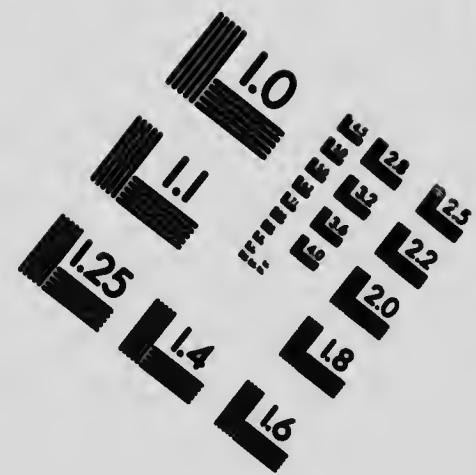
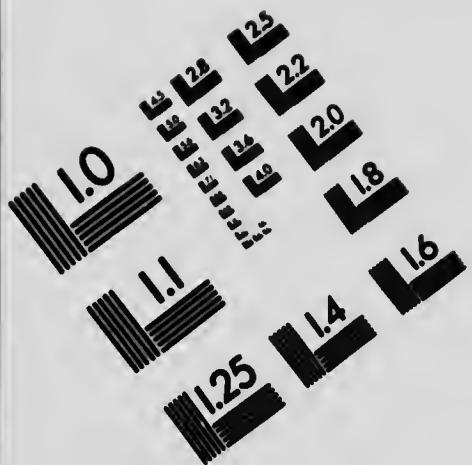


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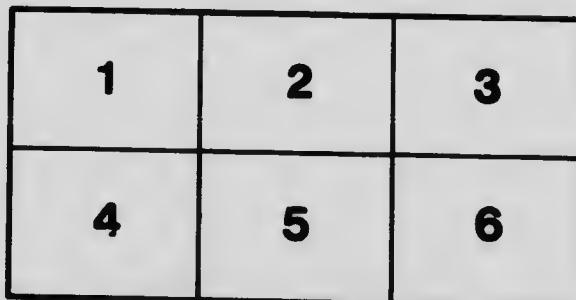
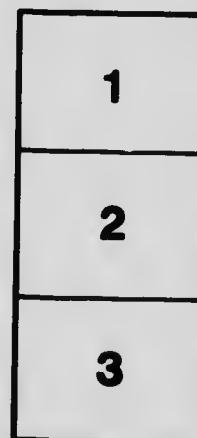
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THE
FRENCH-CANADIAN SCHOLAR'S COMPANION
AN
ENGLISH GRAMMAR

BASED ON

FRENCH GRAMMAR

COMPRISING THE SUBSTANCE OF THE BEST
ENGLISH GRAMMARS

COMPILED BY

J. E. CHAMBERLAND

Teacher of English, in the College of Saint Ann
de la Pocatière.

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INTRODUCTION.

If we consider the number and variety of English grammars as yet published, and the ability with which some of them are written, there is almost nothing to be expected from a new compilation, except perhaps, a careful choice of the most useful rules, and a special attention to the manner in which they are presented to young understandings. In this respect, there is, we think, something to be done to be useful to young pupils.

Another reason which decided us to prepare this new grammar, was the absence of an English-text book completely based on the French language. We teach Frenchmen; let us show the resemblance existing between the two languages, and so, we will take away a great many difficulties. Moreover, by obliging our scholars to study and recite in English, we will make them insensibly take the habit of speaking this language; we will rid them of this timidity, this fear of speaking which is so prejudicial to a great number of our own people.

In a book which professes itself to be a compilation, and which by its nature chiefly consists in materials

selected from the writings of others, it seems scarcely necessary to apologize for the free use the compiler made of the works of his predecessors. Moreover, very often by modifying the text to give a rule sometimes clearer, sometimes more precise, we thought it no longer necessary to mention the names of their authors after the rules given. Let us acknowledge however, that for the general plan, we followed the excellent grammar of Leclair, and selected materials from the well known writings of Brown, Fleming, Kerl, Mauron, Lennie, Cobbet, etc., etc.

Before closing this introduction, let us say, that the author of this book, had no interest in it, but simply wished to be useful to his young French-Canadian friends, and to help those who are employed in their education. May this book procure the greater glory of God, and the welfare of our dear French-Canadian youth.

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THE PRINCIPLES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

English grammar is the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly.

It may be divided into four parts: namely, orthography, etymology, syntax and prosody.

This grammar will only treat of the first three parts.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

Orthography treats of letters, syllables, and the spelling of words.

There are twenty-six letters in English.

Letters and their pronunciation.

A, a,	sounds é.	in French.	N, n,	sounds onn.	In French.
B, b,	"	bi.	O, o,	"	o.
C, c,	"	ci.	P, p,	"	pi.
D, d,	"	di.	Q, q,	"	kiou.
E, e,	"	i.	R, r,	"	arr.
F, f,	"	eff.	S, s,	"	ess.
G, g,	"	dji.	T, t,	"	ti.
H, h,	"	etch.	U, u,	"	iou.
I, i,	"	ai.	V, v,	"	vi.
J, j,	"	djé.	W, w,	"	deublion
K, k,	"	ké.	X, x,	"	ox.
L, l,	"	ell.	Y, y,	"	oual.
M, m,	"	emm.	Z, z,	"	zedd.

Letters are either Vowels or Consonants.

A Vowel is a letter which may be sounded by itself.

A Consonant is a letter that cannot be sounded distinctly unless when it is joined with a vowel.

The Vowels are *a, e, i, o, u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*.

The Consonants are *b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z*.

W and **Y** are consonants when they begin a word or a syllable; in every other position they are vowels.

A Diphthong is the union of two vowels in a double sound; as, *oi* in *boil*.

A proper diphthong is a diphthong in which the two vowels are sounded; as, *oi* in *boil*.

An improper diphthong is one in which only one of the vowels is sounded; as, *oa* in *loaf*.

A syllable is one or more letters pronounced in one sound; as, *gram* in grammar.

A Monosyllable is a word of one syllable; as, *house*.

A Dissyllable is a word of two syllables; as, *household*.

A Trisyllable is a word of three syllables; as, *householder*.

A Polysyllable is a word of many syllables.

Spelling is the art of expressing words by their proper letters.

ETYMOLOGY.

Etymology treats of the different sorts of words, their various modifications, and their derivation.

There are eight parts of speech : Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection.

CHAPTER I.

OF THE NOUN.

A substantive or noun is a word used to name or to distinguish a person or a thing.

Ex. : Peter, house, barn.

Pierre, maison, grange.

Nouns may be divided into two general classes : The common noun and the proper noun.

A common noun is a noun which represents persons or things of the same species.

Ex. : Man, book, river, garden.

Homme, livre, rivière, jardin.

A proper noun is a noun used to distinguish individuals, or to represent things which are alone in their species.

Ex. : James, London, the Canadians.

Jacques, Londres, les Canadiens.

N. B.— Among the common nouns, we may distinguish the *Verbal* or *participial noun* which is derived from a verb and has the form of a participle.

Ex. : The triumphing of the wicked is short.

Le triomphe des méchants est court.

An abstract noun is the name of some particular

quality considered in itself, or apart from its substance.

Ex.: Wisdom, prudence, kindness, frailty.
La sagesse, la prudence, la bonté, la fragilité.

A collective noun is a noun, which though being singular, is used to represent a collection of several persons or things.

Ex.: Army, mob, fleet.
Armée, foule, flotte.

Two things are to be considered in nouns ; genders and numbers.

GENDERS.

There are three genders in English nouns :

1st. The masculine.

2nd. The feminine.

3rd. The neuter.

Nouns representing persons or animals of the male kind are *masculine*, as :

Ex.: Man, dog, horse.
Homme, chien, cheval,

Nouns representing persons or animals of the female kind are *feminine*, as :

Ex.: Woman, bitch, mare.
Femme, chienne, jument.

Nouns representing things, and animals whose sex is not given or expressed are *neuter*, as :

Ex.: Book, table, bird.
Livre, table, oiseau.

DISTINCTION OF GENDERS.

9

DISTINCTION OF GENDERS.

The distinction of genders for animated beings may be made in three different ways :

1° By using in the feminine, words which are different from those of the masculine.

Ex. : Boy.	Girl.
Man.	Woman.
Son.	Daughter.
Uncle.	Aunt.
Dog.	Bitch.

2° By using different terminations.

Ex. : Count.	Countess.
Abbot.	Abbess.
Hero.	Heroine.

3° By placing an attribute of distinction generally before the noun and sometimes after it.

This last rule is absolutely necessary with nouns belonging to the common gender.

For persons.

Ex. : Servant (common gender).	
Man-servant.	Maid-servant.
Serviteur.	Servante.
Male-cousin.	Female-cousin.
Cousin.	Cousine.

For animals.

Ex. : Goat (common gender).	
A he-goat,	a she-goat.
A dog-fox,	a bitch-fox.

For birds.

Ex.: Sparrow (common gender).

A cock-sparrow, a hen-sparrow,

Un moineau mâle, un moineau femelle.

A pea-cock, a pea-hen.

N. B.—Nouns which signify both males and females, are said to belong to the common gender, because they are common to both sexes.

NUMBERS.

Nouns have two numbers in English, the *singular* and the *plural*.

The plural is formed by adding *s* to the singular.

Ex.: Father, fathers.

Book, books.

N. B.—1° Words ending in *ch, sh, ss, x, z, zz*, form their plural by adding *es*.

Ex.: Church, churches.

Fish, fishes.

Glass, glasses.

Fox, foxes.

Nouns ending in *ch* sounding *k* form their plural regularly.

Ex.: Stomach, estomac, stomachs.

Patriarch, patriarche, patriarchs.

Epoch, époque, epochs.

2° Nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant form their plural by adding *es*.

Ex.: Hero, heroes.

Cargo, cargoes.

Nouns ending in *o* preceded by a vowel take only *s*.

Ex. : Folio,	folios.
Trio,	trios.

Proper nouns in *o* and all common nouns in *o* coming from foreign languages take *s*.

Ex. : Cato,	Catos.
Cicero,	Ciceros.
Solo,	Solos.

3° Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change *y* into *i* and add *es*.

Ex. : County,	counties.
Lady,	ladies.
Body,	bodies.
City,	cities.

Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a vowel form their plural with *s*.

Ex. : Play,	plays.
Day,	days.
Boy,	boys.

4° The following nouns in *f* or *fe* are rendered plural by the change of *f* or *fe* into *ves*.

Ex. : A calf,	un veau,	calves.
An elf,	un lutin,	elves.
A half,	une moitié,	halves.
A knife,	un couteau,	knives.
A leaf,	une feuille,	leaves.
A life,	une vie,	lives.
A loaf,	un pain,	loaves.
Self,	personne,	selves.
A sheaf,	une gerbe,	sheaves.

A shelf,	<i>une tablette,</i>	shelves.
A thief,	<i>un voleur,</i>	thieves.
A wife,	<i>une épouse,</i>	wives.
A wolf,	<i>un loup,</i>	wolves.

N. B.—Nouns in *ff* (except staff meaning *bâton*, which has staves for its plural) and all nouns in *f* or *fe* not mentioned in the preceding list, form their plural with *s*.

Ex. : Staff,	<i>état-major,</i>	staffs.
Roof,	<i>toit,</i>	roofs.
Strife,	<i>querelle,</i>	strifes.
Gulf,	<i>golfe,</i>	gulfs.
Chief,	<i>chef,</i>	chiefs.
Wharf,	<i>Quai,</i>	<i>Wharfs</i> or <i>Wharves.</i>

5° Several nouns have an irregular plural.

Ex. : Ox,	<i>bœuf,</i>	oxen.
Child,	<i>enfant,</i>	children.
Brother,	<i>frère,</i>	brethren.
Man,	<i>homme,</i>	men.
Woman,	<i>femme,</i>	women (<i>wimen</i>).
Foot,	<i>pied,</i>	feet.
Goose,	<i>oie,</i>	geese.
Tooth,	<i>dent,</i>	teeth.
Louse,	<i>pou,</i>	lice.
Mouse,	<i>souris,</i>	mice.

6° Some other nouns have two plurals, and each of them has a different meaning.

Ex. : { Brother, plural: brothers (*frères de sang*),
{ brethren (*frères de société*).

{ Die, un dé, plural: dies (coins),
{ dice, des dés pour jouer.

7^o Some substantives have no plural.

Ex. : Silver,	argent.
Iron,	fer.
Gold,	or.
Pride,	orgueil.
Wisdom,	sagesse.
Business,	affaires.
Darkness,	ténèbres.
Rubbish,	décombres.
Hair,	chevelure.
Knowledge,	connaissances.
Wealth,	richesses, etc., etc.

8^o Here is a list of nouns having no singular.

Alms,	aumône.
Drawers,	calegons.
Eaves,	bords d'un toit.
Means,	moyen.
News,	nouvelle.
Oats,	avoine.
Scissors,	ciseaux.
Snuffers,	mouchettes.
Tongs,	pincettes.
Victuals (vitols),	vivres.
Trousers,	pantalon.
Measles,	rougeole.
Tidings,	nouvelle.

N. B.—Alms, news, riches are generally considered as singular.

Ex. : Ill news runs apoco.

Une mauvaise nouvelle va vite.

9^o Nouns which have been adopted without change from foreign languages generally retain their original plurals.

Ex. : Antithesis,	antitheses.
Basis,	bases.
Crisis,	crises.
Criterion,	criteria.
Addendum,	addenda.
Arcanum,	arcana.
Cherub,	cherubim.
Banditio,	banditti.
Genus,	genera.

10^o The following nouns have the same form for the two numbers.

Grouse,	<i>coq de bruyère.</i>
People,	<i>gens.</i>
Sheep,	<i>moutons.</i>
Salmon,	<i>saumon.</i>
Teal,	<i>sarcelle.</i>
Trout,	<i>truite.</i>
Dozen,	<i>douzaine.</i>
Pair,	<i>paire.</i>

However we sometimes see the last word *pair* used in the plural.

Ex. : fifty pairs.

11^o Proper names of persons form their plural regularly; i. e., they always add's to the singular.

Ex. : Cato,	Catos.
Mary,	Marys.
Wolf,	Wolfs.

Proper names of nations being veritable adjectives, should be invariable as the adjective itself; nevertheless they all take the plural by *s*, except those ending in *ch*, *sh*, *es*, which do not vary.

Ex. : The Germans.

The Americans.

The Canadians.

The French.

The English.

The Chinese.

N. B.—Proper names of nations ending in a hissing sound do not vary.

Ex. : The Swiss.

Les Suisses.

POSSESSIVE FORM.

The complement of a noun (if we may use a French term) is expressed in French by the preposition *de*; we have the same construction in English.

Ex. : The house of my brother.

Sometimes, the preposition *of* denotes possession, then, we may use the possessive form by '*s*.

Ex. : My brother's house.

La maison de mon frère.

As we see by the last example, the possessor is placed first with an apostrophe and the letter *s* coming after it.

Ex. : The scholar's duty.

Le devoir de l'écolier.

N. B.—1^o When the plural ends in *s*, the other *s* is omitted, but the apostrophe is retained.

Ex.: On eagles' wings.

Sur les ailes des aigles.

My friends' houses.

Les maisons de mes amis.

2^o If the singular ends in *s*, *ge*, or *ss*, we use only the apostrophe.

Ex.: For goodness' sake.

Par cause de bonté.

Socrates' wife.

La femme de Socrate.

A partridge' wing.

Une aile de perdrix.

3^o The 's is rarely used after nouns representing things. We use it generally for persons only.

Thus we must say :

The gate of the garden.

La porte du jardin.

and not : the garden's gate.

CHAPTER II.

ADJECTIVES.

An adjective is a word added to a noun to express a quality, or to limit the signification of this noun.

Hence, two classes of adjectives: the **qualificative** and the **determinative** adjectives.

Obs.—1^o Qualificative adjectives are those which

express quality. They are not varied on account of number, gender or case.

- Ex. : A good boy, a good girl, good boys.
 A good boy's book.
Le livre d'un bon garçon.

Obs.—2^o The qualitative adjective generally precedes the noun.

- Ex. : A good brother.
 A red apple.

Exception.—Adjectives are sometimes placed after their nouns :

1^o When these adjectives have a complement :

- Ex. : The horse is an animal useful to man.
Le cheval est un animal utile à l'homme.

2^o When several adjectives qualify the same noun :

- Ex. : A boy good, virtuous and amiable.
Un garçon bon, vertueux et aimable.

Obs.—3^o The only variation which the adjective admits is that of the degrees of comparison.

There are commonly reckoned three degrees of comparison; namely : The positive, the comparative, the superlative.

The positive is the adjective in its simple form.

- Ex. : Good, wise, great.
Bon, sage, grand.

The comparative increases or lessens the positive in signification.

- Ex. : Great, greater or less great.
 Wise, wiser or less wise.

The (relative) superlative increases or lessens the positive to the highest or lowest degree (with comparison).

- Ex. : The wisest }
 The tallest } in the school.
 The least wise in the school.
 Le moins sage de l'école.

The (absolute) superlative expresses quality in a very high degree, without any comparison.

- Ex. : This man is very good, very tall.
 Cet homme est très bon, très grand.

FORMATION OF THE DEGREES OF COMPARISON.

The comparative and the superlative may be formed in two different ways :

1° If the adjective has only one syllable, the comparative and relative superlative are formed by adding *er* and *est* to the positive.

- Ex. : Strong, stronger, the strongest.

N. B.—Some other adjectives will also follow the same rule.

1° Adjectives of two syllables ending in mute *e*.

- Ex. : Wise, wiser, the wisest.
 Sage, plus sage, le plus sage.
 Brave, braver, the bravest.
 Grave, graver, the gravest.

2° Adjectives of one or two syllables ending in *y* ; but, these adjectives have a special formation.

When the final *y* is preceded by a consonant, it must be changed into *i* before *er* or *est*.

Ex.: Happy, *heureux*; happier, the happiest.

If the final *y* is preceded by a vowel, there is no change.

Ex.: Gay, *gai*; gayer, the gayest.

N. B.—When an adjective of one syllable ends by a single consonant preceded by a single vowel the consonant must be doubled before *er* and *est*.

Ex.: Big, bigger, the biggest.

II° The adverbs *more* and *most* placed before adjectives have the same effect as *er* and *est*.

Ex.: Wise, *sage*; more wise, the most wise.

But, the comparison by *more* and *most* is more correctly used with disyllables and polysyllables.

Ex.: Frugal, *frugal*; more frugal, the most frugal.

Some adjectives have an irregular comparison.

Ex.: Good, *bon*; better, the best.

Bad, *mauvais*; worse, the worst.

Much } more, the most.
Many }

Beaucoup, *plus de*, *le plus de*.

Little, less, the least.

Peu de, *moins*, *le moins*.

N. B.—Little meaning *petit* has no comparative; we then use the adjective *small*, comp. *smaller*, sup. *the smallest*.

Ex.: He is the smallest in the school.

Il est le plus petit de l'école.

Litt.le meaning *peu de* is used with a singular noun ; with a plural noun, we must use *few*.

Ex. : He has little ambition.

Il a peu d'ambition.

He has few friends.

Il a peu d'amis.

The French conjunction *que* after a comparative is always translated by *than*.

Ex. : Peter is less learned than John.

Pierre est moins instruit que Jean.

He is more learned than his brother.

Il est plus savant que son frère.

After the superlative (relative) we use *of*; if the following noun denotes a place, *in* is better than *of*.

Ex. : He is the most learned of his schoolfellows.

He is the most learned in the school.

The absolute superlative represented in French by the words *très*, *bien*, *fort*, *extrêmement*, is translated into English by the words *very* before adjectives and *much* or *very much* before participles.

Ex. : Good, *bon* ; very good, *très bon*.

Admired ; very much admired.

In some cases *most* is used instead of *very* with polysyllables.

Ex. : He was a most loving son.

C'était un fils très aimant.

Comparison of equality.

The French comparative of equality is expressed in English by *as* or *so*.

As is used with an affirmation.

Ex. : He is as tall as you.

Il est aussi grand que vous.

So is used with a negation.

Ex. : He is not so tall as you.

Il n'est pas si grand que vous.

N. B.—In negative-interrogative sentences we use *as*.

Ex. : Are you not as tall as I ?

N'êtes-vous pas aussi grand que moi ?

In such sentences, *que* is always translated by *as*.

Ex. : As good as, not so good as.

With a perfect or past participle, we use *as much* or *so much* instead of *as* or *so*.

Ex. : He is as much admired as you.

He is not so much esteemed as you.

ADJECTIVES TAKEN AS NOUNS.

When an adjective, with the definite article before it, is used alone, it is taken as a noun.

Ex. : The virtuous are always happy.

Les vertueux sont toujours heureux.

N. B.—The adjective used as a noun must represent a whole collection of individuals.

Ex. : Providence rewards *the good* and punishes *the bad*.

La Providence récompense les bons et punit les méchants.

The blind are unhappy.

Les aveugles sont malheureux.

If the adjective represents only one person or a certain number of persons, it must always be followed by a noun.

Ex. : A blind man, *un aveugle.*

Two blind boys, *deux petits aveugles.*

One hundred blind men, *cent aveugles.*

N. B.—The following adjectives are now considered as nouns and take the plural form : *The mortals, the immortals, the ancients, the moderns, the infidels, the heretics.*

NOUNS TAKEN AS ADJECTIVES.

Nouns are sometimes used as adjectives to qualify another noun; then, like adjectives, they are not varied, and are always placed before the noun which they qualify.

Ex. : A silver-watch.

Silver-watches.

A five-dollar bill.

A school-master.

N. B.—English grammarians give to adjectives some other denominations always usefully known.

Common adjectives are those which merely express quality.

Ex.: Good, great, tall, wise.

Proper adjectives are those which are derived from proper nouns. They are written with a capital.

Ex.: French, English, Canadian, Irish.

Participial or verbal adjectives are those which are formed from a verb; they have the form of a participle, and express quality.

Ex.: A loving child.

A lying rogue.

Numeral adjectives are those which express number. They are either cardinal or ordinal.

Cardinal adjectives are those which merely express number.

Ex.: One, two, three, etc.

Ordinal adjectives express order, rank.

Ex.: First, second, third, fourth, etc., etc.

DETERMINATIVE ADJECTIVES.

The French language calls determinative, those adjectives which are used to limit the signification of nouns. V. g. Here is a book; the sense of this word is quite indefinite; but, if I say: Here is my book, the signification is limited by *my* to a special book, which belongs to me.

We may consider in English as well as in French, six kinds of determinative adjectives, namely: the

article, the numeral adjectives, the demonstrative, the possessive, the relative, and the indefinite adjectives.

Among these, the last four are sometimes used as pronouns, they are called, for that reason, pronominal adjectives.

OF THE ARTICLE.

The article is a short word used before nouns to limit their signification.

Ex. : The glory of Napoleon.

There is only one article in English, it is *the*, which is derived from the demonstrative adjective *that*.

The is never varied.

Ex. : The boy, the girl, the fathers, the sisters.

N. B.—The must not be used ;

1° Before all those nouns which are taken in their widest sense, as are abstract nouns.

Ex. : Wisdom, sagesse ; prudence, prudence.

If the sense is limited, the article is used.

Ex. : The wisdom of Peter.

2° Before nouns denoting a substance, as iron, gold, silver.

Ex. : Gold is precious, l'or est précieux.

However, I will say : The gold of California, because the sense is limited.

3° Before plural nouns having no complement.

Ex. : Friends are useful.

But, I will say : The friends of Peter.

4° Before names of countries.

Ex. : England, France, Spain:

5° Titles, and some words such as *cape*, *lake*, *mount* followed by proper nouns will not take the article.

Ex. : Queen Victoria, King Edward.

Cape Cod, Lake Superior.

6° Proper names of persons preceded by the adjectives *brave*, *poor*, *old*, *little* and *young* do not take the article.

Ex. : Poor Thomas, old Jack, brave Peter.

Obs.—In an enumeration, the article must not be repeated, unless we wish to draw attention to each object spoken of.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

Numeral adjectives are those which express number and order.

They are either cardinal or ordinal.

Cardinal adjectives are those which express number.

Nought	0	Ten	10
One	1	Eleven	11
Two	2	Twelve	12
Three	3	Thirteen	13
Four	4	Fourteen	14
Five	5	Fifteen	15
Six	6	Sixteen	16
Seven	7	Seventeen	17
Eight	8	Eighteen	18
Nine	9	Nineteen	19

twenty	20	eighty	80
thirty	30	ninety	90
forty	40	ninety-one	91
fifty	50	hundred	100
fifty-one	51	thousand	1,000
sixty	60	million	1,000,000
sixty-one	61	We say : <i>a</i> or <i>one</i> hundred.	
sixty-two	62	<i>a</i> or <i>one</i> thousand.	
seventy	70	<i>a</i> or <i>one</i> million.	
seventy-one	71		

One is used instead of *a* before hundred, thousand, and million, when we intend to give more precision to a number, v. g., to count years.

Ex. : One thousand, nine hundred and one.

N. B. — Hundred, thousand, and million used as adjectives are never varied, and always take *a* or *one*; are they used as nouns, they may be plural.

Ex. : Stars are to be seen by thousands.

Les étoiles se voient par milliers.

After hundred, thousand, and million, *and* is used before the tens; if there are no tens, before the units.

Ex. : One thousand, one hundred and fifty-four,
1154.

One thousand and five, 1005.

Ordinal adjectives, are those which express order.

First	premier	Sixth	<i>sixième.</i>
Second	second	Seventh	<i>septième.</i>
Third	<i>troisième</i>	Eighth	<i>huitième.</i>
Fourth	<i>quatrième</i>	Ninth	<i>neuvième.</i>
Fifth	<i>cinquième</i>	Tenth	<i>dixième.</i>

Eleventh	onzième	fifthieth	50ème.
Twelfth	douzième	fifty-first	51ème.
Thirteenth	treizième	sixtieth	60ème.
Fourteenth	14ème	sixty-seventh	67ème.
Fifteenth	15ème	seventieth	70ème.
Sixteenth	16ème	seventy-fifth	75ème.
Seventeenth	17ème	eightieth	80ème.
Eighteenth	18ème	eighty-first	81ème.
Nineteenth	19ème	ninetieth	90ème.
Twentieth	20ème	ninety-first	91ème.
Twenty-first	21ème	ninety-second	92ème.
thirtieth	30ème	ninety-third	93ème.
thirty-first	31ème	ninety-fourth	94ème..
thirty-second	32ème	hundredth	100ème.
fortieth	40ème	thousandth	1000ème.
forty-first	41ème	millionth	millionnième.

*N. B.—Ordinal numbers must be preceded by the definite article *the*.*

Ex. : The first, the second, the third.

Le premier, le second, le troisième.

Except, when there is another determinative adjective.

Ex. : I resolved to pass a second year with him.

Je résolus de passer une seconde année avec lui.

Obs.—First used as an adverb does not take the article.

Ex. : He stands first on the list.

Il est le premier sur la liste.

Ordinal numbers are used to express :

1° The day of the month.

Ex.: The tenth of December.
The sixth of June.

In such examples, *day* is understood.

2° The order of succession of sovereigns.

Ex.: Henry the Fifth.
Victoria the First.

3° The different parts of a book.

Ex.: Chapter the seventh.
Canto the second.

Proportional numbers.

Single or simple,	<i>simple.</i>
Double,	<i>double.</i>
Treble or triple,	<i>triple.</i>
Fourfold,	<i>quadruple, etc.</i>

Numbers of repetition.

Once,	<i>une fois.</i>
Twice,	<i>deux fois.</i>
Thrice or three times,	<i>trois fois.</i>
Four times,	<i>quatre fois.</i>
Six times,	<i>six fois.</i>

And so on, by adding the word *times* to cardinal adjectives.

Partitive numbers.

The half,	<i>la moitié.</i>
The third,	<i>le tiers.</i>
The quarter, the fourth part,	<i>le quart.</i>
The fifth part,	<i>le cinquième.</i>
The sixth part,	<i>le sixième.</i>

Considered as substantives they may take the plural form.

Ex. : Two halves,	<i>deux demies.</i>
Two thirds,	<i>deux tiers.</i>
Four fifths,	<i>quatre cinquièmes.</i>

DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES AND PRONOUNS.

The demonstrative adjectives are those which precisely point out the subjects to which they relate. They are :

This, <i>ce, cet, cette....ci.</i>	These, <i>ces....ci.</i>
That, <i>ce, cet, cette....là.</i>	Those, <i>ces....là.</i>

Sometimes *yon*, *yond* or *yonder*, *ce, cette, cet, ces... là-bas*, for very distant objects.

N. B. — This refers to the nearest person or thing, *that*, to the more distant.

Ex. : This garden,	<i>ce jardin-ci.</i>
That house,	<i>cette maison-là.</i>

This indicates the latter or last mentioned; *that* indicates the former or first mentioned.

Ex.: Wealth and poverty are both temptations;
that or the former tends to excite pride,
this or the latter, discontent.

La richesse et la pauvreté sont deux tenta-
tions; celle-là tend à exciter l'orgueil,
celle-ci le mécontentement.

Demonstrative adjectives are not varied on account of gender.

Ex.: This boy, this girl.

They are varied in number.

Ex.: These boys, those girls.

Pronouns. The demonstrative adjectives become pronouns, when they are used alone.

This (singular)	celui-ci, celle-ci, ceci.
That "	celui-là, celle-là, cela.
These (plural)	ceux-ci, celles-ci.
Those "	ceux-là, celles-là.

This and *that* must not represent persons; use the *latter* instead of *this*, and the *former* instead of *that*.

Ex.: My father and brother are both travelling;
the latter for his health, the former for
his pleasure.

Mon père et mon frère voyagent tous deux;
celui-ci pour sa santé, celui-là pour son
plaisir.

With *of*, *that* and *those* are preferred to *this* and *these*, which are not used.

Ex.: This house is that of my father.

Cette maison est celle de mon père.

These books are those of my brother.

Ces livres sont ceux de mon frère.

In these cases when *of* denotes possession, the possessive form by 's is elegantly and very often employed.

Ex.: This house is my father's.

Obs. — The French demonstrative pronouns, *celui*, *celle*, *ceux*, *celles*, are sometimes followed by the relative *qui* or *que*; in such cases they must be changed into *he* or *she*, *they* or *those*, if they are subjects, and *him* or *her*, *them* or *those*, if they are objects.

Ex.: Happy he who is virtuous.

Heureux celui qui est vertueux.

Happy she who loves God.

Heureuse celle qui aime Dieu.

I saw her whom you met yesterday.

J'ai vu celle que vous avez rencontrée hier.

In such instances, the pronoun may be replaced by the corresponding noun.

Ex.: I saw the woman whom you met.

J'ai vu celle que vous avez rencontrée.

For things, *celle*, *ceux*, *celles*, are translated by *the one* or *the ones*.

Ex.: I prefer my book to the one which you have.

Je préfère mon livre à celui que vous avez.

POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES AND PRONOUNS.

Possessive adjectives are those which relate to property or possession.

They are for the singular :

1^o My ; mon, ma, mes.

Thy ; ton, ta, tes.

His ; son, sa, ses (masc.).

Her ; son, sa, ses (fem.).

Its ; sm, sa, ses (neuter).

For the plural :

Our ; notre, nos.

Your ; votre, vos.

Their ; leur, leurs.

N. B. — His is used with a masculine possessor.

Her " " " " feminine "

Its " " " " neuter "

Speaking of,

A man, I will say, his head.

A woman, " " her head.

A bird, " " its head.

Pronouns. Possessive pronouns are those which are used instead of a noun and at the same time denote possession.

They are for the singular :

Mine ; *Le mien, la mienne, les miens, les miennes, à moi.*

Thine ; *Le tien, la tienne, les tiens, les tiennes, à toi.*

Hin ; Lie rien, la sienne, les siens, les siennes,
à lui (musc.).

Herr; *Le sien, la sienne, les siens, les siennes*, à elle (fem.).

Its, neuter, is rarely used.

One's must not be used as a possessive pronoun.

For the plural:

Ours ; le nôtre, la nôtre, les nôtres, à nous.

Yours ; le vôtre, la vôtre, les vôtres, à vous.

Theirs; le leur, la leur. les leurs, à eux.

Obs.—These pronouns are never varied, and never take the article.

In poetry, *mine* and *thine* are often used instead of *my* and *thy* before a vowel.

Ex. : Mine eye, mine equal.
Mon œil, mon égal.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

Relative pronouns are those which relate to some word going before and called, for this reason, antecedent. They are :

Who, which and that.

Who, (masc. or fem.), is only subject.

Which, (for things and animals), may be subject or object.

That, (m. f. n.), subject or object of a verb.

What is a kind of compound relative including both

the antecedent and the relative, it is equivalent to *that which* or *the thing which*.

Ex. : This is what I want.
Voici ce que je veux.

That is : this is the thing which I want.

N. B. — Who, (masc., fem.), has three forms.

Who, qui, (masc. fem.), subject.

Whoso, dont, de qui, possessive (masc., fem.).

Whom, qui (masc., fem.), (with a preposition), que (with a verb) is object of a verb, or of a preposition.

Ex. : The boy who speaks.
 The boy whom I see.
 The boy to whom I speak.
 The boy whose hat you have.

Whose denotes possession, it must always be followed by the name of the thing possessed, and preceded by the possessor.

Ex. : The man whose house you built.
L'homme dont vous avez bâti la maison.

Whose is sometimes used as the possessive case of which.

Ex. : The tree whose leaves fall.

Which and that have always the same form. The regular possessive of which is of which ; it is always

preceded by the name of the possessor and that of the thing possessed with the definite article.

Ex.: The tree the leaves of which fall.

L'arbre dont les feuilles tombent.

That has no possessive case.

Which and *what* are both used to translate the French pronouns *ce qui* and *ce que*.

1^o Beginning a sentence, *ce qui*, *ce que*, are translated by *what*.

Ex.: What is good is lovely.

Ce qui est bon est aimable.

2^o *Ce qui*, *ce que*, representing what has been said before, are translated by *which*.

Ex.: He does not behave well, which makes me sad.

Il ne se conduit pas bien, ce qui m'attriste.

3^o *Ce qui*, *ce que*, being objects to a preceding verb or preposition, are translated by *what*.

Ex.: I know what you think of it.

Je sais ce que vous pensez de cela.

I heard what you said.

J'ai entendu ce que vous avez dit.

He is satisfied with what I have done.

Il est content de ce que j'ai fait.

I speak of what you told me.

Je parle de ce que vous m'avez dit.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

Who, which and what, become interrogative pronouns, when they are used in asking questions.

Who ? qui ? (masc. or fem.).

Whose ? à qui ? de qui ? denotes possession and is always followed by the name of the thing possessed.

Whom ? qui ? object of a verb or a preposition.

Ex. : Who speaks so ?

Qui parle ainsi ?

Whose book is this ?

A qui est ce livre ?

To whom do you speak ?

A qui parlez-vous ?

What ? (masc. f. n.), quel ? quelle ? que ? qu'est-ce que ? quoi ?

Ex. : What do you see ?

Que voyez-vous ?

Which ? (m. f. n.), quel ? quelle ? lequel ? laquelle ?

Ex. : Which book will you have ?

Which of these men is your brother ?

N. B.—Who ? is used when one wishes to know the name of a person; consequently we answer to *who* by a noun representing a person.

Ex. : Who made this table ?—Peter.

Qui a fait cette table ?—Pierre.

What ? is used when we want to know the nature, the quality of a person or a thing.

Ex. : What is he ? (Peter)—A joiner.

Qu'est-ce qu'il est ? —Un menuisier.

Which? is used when two or several persons or things are to be distinguished.

Ex.: Which of these books will you have ?

Lequel de ces livres voulez-vous ?

Which of those men is your brother ?

Lequel de ces hommes est votre frère ?

Obs.—What! (exclamatory) must always be followed by *a* or *an* before a singular noun.

Ex.: What a fine garden !

Quel beau jardin !

With abstract nouns and plural substantives, *what* is used alone.

Ex.: What courage ! what fine gardens !

Quel courage ! quels beaux jardins !

INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES AND PRONOUNS.

Indefinite adjectives are those which modify their nouns in an indefinite or general manner. They are :

A or *An*; *un* or *une*.

Some and *any* (sing. and plur.); *du*, *de la*, *des*..., *quelque*.

All; *tout*, *toute*; *tous*, *toutes*.

Whole; *tout*, *entier*.

Each; *chaque*.

Every; *chaque*, *tous les*.

Little; *peu de* (sing.). Ex.: Little goodness.

Few; *peu de* (plur.). Ex.: Few friends.

Much; *beaucoup de* (sing.). Ex.: Much glory.

Many; *beaucoup de* (plur.). Ex.: Many books.

Several ; *plusieurs*.

Both ; *tous les deux, l'un et l'autre*.

No (sing. and plur.) ; *aucun, pas de*.

Ex. : No books ; no glory.

Not any (sing. and plur.) ; *aucun, pas de*.

Other (sing. and plur.) ; *autre, autres*.

Another ; *un autre*. *Ex. : Are you of another mind ?*

Else ; *autre*.

Such (sing. and plur.) ; *tel, tels ; telle, telles*.

N. B.—A or An is also called in English the "indefinite article."

An is used before a vowel or *h* silent, as : *an hour, an age, an elf, an acorn*.

A is used 1^o before a consonant.

Ex. : A boy, a girl.

2^o Before *h* sounded.

Ex. : A house, a hammer.

3^o Before *u* long, *w, y*, and *one*.

Ex. : A universal music.

A week.

A year.

Such a one.

A modifies its noun in a general manner.

Ex. : This is a fine house.

Voici une belle maison.

One is employed to give more precision ; it means only one.

Ex. : There is but one man in this house.

Il n'y a qu'un homme dans cette maison.

Any is used in interrogative sentences.

Ex. : Have you any pens ?

Avez-vous des plumes ?

In negative sentences.

Ex. : I have not any pens.

Je n'ai pas de plumes.

In dubitative or doubtful sentences.

Ex. : If I had any pens.

Si j'avais des plumes.

Some is used when the sentence is affirmative or both negative and interrogative.

Ex. : I have some good pens.

Have you not some pens ?

All must always precede the article and the demonstrative or possessive adjectives.

Ex. : All the books which you have.

Tous les livres que vous avez.

All my books.

Tous mes livres.

All follows the pronoun to which it relates.

Ex. : I know them all.

They all spoke.

Ils parlèrent tous.

Whole, tout, tout entier, has a collective meaning ; it precedes the substantive.

Ex. : Whole cities were destroyed.

Des villes entières furent détruites.

The whole country.

Tout le pays (en entier).

Both comes before the noun, but follows the pronoun.

Ex. : I took both his hands.

Je lui pris les deux mains.

I saw them both.

Je les vis tous deux.

Pronouns. When indefinite adjectives are used alone, they become pronouns. Here are the principal:

One ; *on*.

Each ; *chacun*.

Each other ; *l'un l'autre*.

One another ; *les uns les autres*.

Everyone, every body, anybody ; *chacun, tout le monde*.

Everything ; *toute chose, tout*.

Somebody, some one ; *quelqu'un*.

Anything ; *quelque chose*.

No one, none ; *aucun*.

Nobody ; *personne*.

Nothing, naught ; *rien*.

Some ; *les uns, les autres, quelques-uns*.

Else ; (used after somebody, nobody ; something, nothing ; anybody, anything ; who, what, interrogative) ; *autre, autre chose*.

Others ; *d'autres*.

N. B. — The indefinite pronoun *one* must not be confounded with the numeral adjective *one*.

One, taken as a pronoun, has no plural. The numeral adjective *one*, taken as a noun, has for plural *ones*.

Ex. : The young ones of an animal.

Les petits d'un animal.

One or ones is used to represent a noun understood or preceedently expressed.

CHAPTER III.

OF THE PRONOUN.

The pronoun is a word used instead of a noun, or representing a noun.

Pronouns are either **adjective** or **personal**.

Adjective pronouns are those which are used sometimes as adjectives, sometimes as pronouns. They were seen before.

Personal pronouns are those which represent the grammatical persons.

There are eight personal pronouns, namely, I, thou, he, she, it, we, you, they.

Personal pronouns admit of person, number, gender and case.

The persons are three in each number.

Singular: I, *je*, is the first person.

Thou, *tu*, is the second person.

He, *il*, is the third person (masc.).

She, *elle*, " " " (fem.).

It, *il, elle*, " " " (neuter).

Plural: We, *nous*, is the first person.

You, *vous*, is the second person.

They, *ils, elles*, is the third person.

Those pronouns have two numbers; gender has respect only to the third person singular.

He, she, it (masc. fem. neuter).

Personal pronouns have three cases :

- 1° The nominative, *le sujet.*
- 2° The possessive, *le cas possessif.*
- 3° The objective, *le régime ou complément.*

The objective case of a pronoun generally has a form different from that of the nominative or the possessive.

Declension.

Personal pronouns are thus declined :

	Singular	plural.
1st person : nom.	I, je.	We, nous.
poss.	Mine, à moi.	Ours, à nous.
obj.	Me, moi.	Us, nous.
2nd person : nom.	Thou, tu.	You, vous.
poss.	Thine, à toi.	Yours, à vous.
obj.	Thee, te, toi.	You, vous.
3rd person : nom.	He, il.	They, ils.
(masc.) poss.	His, à lui.	Theirs, à eux.
obj.	Him, le, lui.	Them, les, eux.
(fem.) nom.	She, elle.	They, elles.
poss.	Hers, à elles.	Theirs, à elles.
obj.	Her, la, elle.	Them, les, elles.
(neuter) nom.	It, il, elle.	They, ils, elles.
poss.	Its. (not used)	Theirs, à eux.
obj.	It, le, la, lui, elle.	Them, les, eux, [elles.]

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The personal pronouns of the third person, and the possessive adjective pronouns of the first and second person, compounded with the word *self*, are called compound personal pronouns.

They are either reciprocal, when they refer back to the nominative, as : "We dress ourselves"; or they are employed to denote emphasis or distinction.

Ex. : I saw the person myself.

J'ai vu la personne moi-même.

She herself will do it.

Elle le fera elle-même.

The compound personals are :

Myself,	moi-même.
Ourselves,	nous-mêmes.
Thyself,	toi-même.
Yourselves,	vous-mêmes.
Himself,	lui-même.
Herself,	elle-même.
Itself,	lui, elle-même.
Ourselves,	nous-mêmes.
Yourselves,	vous-mêmes.
Themselves,	eux-mêmes.
One's self,	soi-même.

The last compound oneself or one's self is used in indefinite sentences.

Ex. : One dresses one's self with one's dresses.

On s'habille avec ses habits.

CHAPTER IV.

OF THE VERB.

A verb is a word which signifies to be, to act, or to be acted upon.

Ex. : I am,	<i>je suis.</i>
I speak,	<i>je parle.</i>
I am loved,	<i>je suis aimé.</i>

Properly speaking there is only one verb in English as well as in French : it is the substantive verb to be, considered as neuter in English, because it expresses existence and not action.

Every verb may be resolved into the verb *to be* and the imperfect participle used as an attribute.

Ex. : I speak,	I am speaking.
I sleep,	I am sleeping.

It is the reason why every English verb, except *to be*, may be called *attributive*, because it contains in itself the verb (*to be*) and the attribute.

Ex. : The sun shines.	
The sun is shining.	
<i>Le soleil brille.</i>	
This man sleeps.	
This man is sleeping.	
<i>Cet homme dort.</i>	

To verbs belong numbers, persons, tenses, and moods.

Numbers and persons. English verbs have two numbers, the singular and the plural.

Ex. : I run, he runs, (sing.).
We run, they run, (plur.).

In each number there are three persons.

Singular	1st person : I love,	j'aime.
	2nd person : Thou lovest,	tu aimes.
	3rd person : He loves,	il aime.
Plural	1st person : We love,	nous aimons.
	2nd person : You love,	vous aimez.
	3rd person : They love,	ils aiment.

N. B. — The first person denotes the speaker.
The second person denotes the hearer.
The third person denotes the person or thing spoken of.

Tenses. Tenses in English verbs form the distinction of time.

There are three principal tenses :

The present expresses what is going on or existing, as : I love you.

The past represents the action or event as past or finished.

Ex. : He broke the bottle and the water was spilt.

Il brisa la bouteille et l'eau fut répandue.

The future represents the action as yet to come.

Ex. : He will come and you will see him.

Il viendra et vous le verrez.

N. B. — The past tense may be subdivided into three secondary tenses.

1^o **The preterit or imperfect tense (*passé défini*)** expresses an action which took place in a time fully past.

Ex. : I saw him yesterday.
Je le vis hier.

2^o **The perfect tense (*passé indéfini*)** expresses what has taken place in a time not yet fully past.

Ex. : I have seen him this week.
Je l'ai vu cette semaine.

3^o **The pluperfect tense (*plus-que-parfait*)** expresses what had taken place at a past time mentioned.

Ex. : I had slept when you arrived.
J'avais dormi quand vous arrivâtes.

The future has two tenses.

1^o **The first future** expresses what is to come.

Ex. : I will see him.
Je le verrai.

2^o **The second future** expresses what will have taken place before another action which is to come.

Ex. : I shall have finished when you come.
J'aurai fini quand vous viendrez.

MOODS.

A mood is a particular form of the verb showing the manner in which an action is represented.

There are six moods in English, namely : the indicative, the imperative, the potential, the subjunctive, the infinitive, and the participle.

1^o The indicative mood simply declares or indicates a thing : he loves, he is admired ; or asks a question : do you speak ?

2^o The imperative mood is used for commanding, exhorting, entreating or permitting.

Ex. : Speak, let us call, go in peace.

Parlez, appelons, allez en paix.

3^o The potential mood implies possibility, power, will or obligation ; as : it may rain, he may go, I can ride, he would walk, we should go.

4^o The subjunctive mood represents a thing under a condition, motive, wish, supposition.

Ex. : If he be good, I will reward him.

S'il est bon, je le récompenserai.

5^o The infinitive mood expresses an action in a general and unlimited manner, without any distinction of number and person ; for this last reason this mood is called impersonal as well as the participle.

6^o The participle expresses an action in a general manner ; moreover, it has the properties of an adjective, because it may qualify a noun.

Ex. : Admired and applauded, he became vain.

Admiré et applaudi, il devint orgueilleux.

Every English verb has two elements, the radical and the termination.

The radical or root does not vary. On the contrary, the termination always varies according to numbers, persons, moods and tenses.

Conjugation. The conjugation of a verb is a

regular arrangement of its moods, tenses, persons and numbers.

There is only one conjugation in English for regular verbs.

The same model is used for active-transitive, active-intransitive, neuter and reflected verbs.

This conjugation is based on two forms, the infinitive and the perfect participle.

The infinitive is the verb itself with the preposition to.

Ex.: To speak, to call, to love.

The perfect participle is nothing else than the infinitive to which *d* or *ed* has been added.

Ex.: To call, called.
To arrive, arrived.

Active-transitive verbs are those which express an action and have some person or thing for their object (*régime*).

Ex.: I call my brother.
J'appelle mon frère.

Active-intransitive verbs express an action, but have no object.

Ex.: I walk, I speak.

Neuter verbs do not express an action but a state.

Ex.: I am, je suis, (*j'existe*).
I sleep, je dors.

Passive verbs are those which express an action received or suffered by their subject.

Ex. : I am loved.
I am called.

Reflected verbs express an action reverting upon the agent, or in other words, an action made by the subject on himself.

Ex. : I dress myself.
Je m'habille.

Impersonal or unipersonal verbs are those which are conjugated only in the third person of all their tenses.

Ex. : It rains, it rained, it will rain.
Il pleut, il a plu, il pleuvra.

Regular verbs are those which form their preterit and perfect participle by assuming *d* or *ed*.

Ex. : Love, *aimer*, I loved, loved..
Call, *appeler*, I called, called.

Irregular verbs are those which do not form their preterit and perfect participle by assuming *d* or *ed*.

Ex. : To steal, *Dtrober*, I stole, stolen.

Redundant verbs are those which form their preterit and perfect participle in two or more ways so as to be regular and irregular.

Ex. : To dwell, *habiter*, I dwelt, dwelt.
" " " I dwelled, dwelled.

THE NEUTER AUXI-

INDICATIVE MOOD.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present tense.

I am.
Thou art.
He is.
We are.
You are.
They are.

First future.

I shall be.
Thou wilt be.
He will be.
We shall be.
You will be.
They will be.

Present.

I may be.
Thou mayst be.
He may be.
We may be.
You may be.
They may be.

Imperfect.

I was.
Thou wast.
He was.
We were.
You were.
They were.

Second future.

I shall have been.
Thou wilt have been.
He will have been.
We shall have been.
You will have been.
They will have been.

Imperfect.

I might be.
Thou mightst be.
He might be.
We might be.
You might be.
They might be.

Perfect.

I have been.
Thou hast been.
He has been.
We have been.
You have been.
They have been.

Perfect.

I may have been.
Thou mayst have been.
He may have been.
We may have been.
You may have been.
They may have been.

Pluperfect.

I had been.
Thou hadst been.
He had been.
We had been.
You had been.
They had been.

Pluperfect.

I might have been.
Thou mightst have been.
He might have been.
We might have been.
You might have been.
They might have been.

DIARY " TO BE "

51

IMPERATIVE MOOD.	SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.	INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLE.
<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Present or Imperfect.</i>
2nd person Be. 3rd " Let him be.	If I be. If thou be. If he be. If we be. If you be. If they be.	To be.	Being.
<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>		
1st person Let us be. 2nd " Be. 3rd " Let them be.	If I were. If thou were. If he were. If we were. If you were. If they were.		
	<i>Perfect.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>
	If I have been. If thou have been. If he have been. If we have been. If you have been. If they have been.	To have been.	Been.
	<i>Pluperfect.</i>		
	If I had been. If thou had been. If he had been. If we had been. If you had been. If they had been.		Pluperfect or preperfect. Having been.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

I have.
Thou hast.
He has.
We have.
You have.
They have.

First future.

I will have.
Thou shalt have.
He shall have.
We will have.
You shall have.
They shall have.

Imperfect.

I had.
Thou hadst.
He had.
We had.
You had.
They had.

Second future.

I will have had.
Thou shalt have had.
He shall have had.
We will have had.
You shall have had.
They shall have had.

Perfect.

I have had.
Thou hast had.
He has had.
We have had.
You have had.
They have had.

Pluperfect.

I had had.
Thou hadst had.
He had had.
We had had.
You had had.
They had had.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present.

I may have.
Thou mayst have.
He may have.
We may have.
You may have.
They may have.

Imperfect.

I might have.
Thou mightst have.
He might have.
We might have.
You might have.
They might have.

Perfect.

I may have had.
Thou mayst have had.
He may have had.
We may have had.
You may have had.
They may have had.

Pluperfect.

I might have had.
Thou mightst have had.
He might have had.
We might have had.
You might have had.
They might have had.

VERB "TO HAVE"

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IMPERATIVE MOOD.	SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.	INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLE.
<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Present or imperfect.</i>
2nd person Have. 3rd " Let him have.	If I have. If thou have. If he have. If we have. If you have. If they have.	To have.	Having.
<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>		
1st person Let us have. 2nd " Have. 3rd " Let them have.	If I had. If thou had. If he had. If we had. If you had. If they had.		
	<i>Perfect.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>
	If I have had. If thou have had. If he have had. If we have had. If you have had. If they have had.	To have had.	Had.
	<i>Pluperfect.</i>		
	If I had had. If thou had had. If he had had. If we had had. If you had had. If they had had.		<i>Pluperfect or properfect.</i>
			Having had.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

I love.
Thou lovest.
He loves.
We love.
You love.
They love.

Imperfect.

I loved.
Thou lovedst.
He loved.
We loved.
You loved.
They loved.

Perfect.

I have loved.
Thou hast loved.
He has loved.
We have loved.
You have loved.
They have loved.

Pluperfect.

I had loved.
Thou hadst loved.
He had loved.
We had loved.
You had loved.
They had loved.

First future.

I will love.
Thou shalt love.
He shall love.
We will love.
You shall love.
They shall love.

Second future.

I will have loved.
Thou shalt have loved.
He shall have loved.
We will have loved.
You shall have loved.
They shall have loved.

Present.

I may love.
Thou mayst love.
He may love.
We may love.
You may love.
They may love.

Imperfect.

I might love.
Thou mightst love.
He might love.
We might love.
You might love.
They might love.

Perfect.

I may have loved.
Thou mayst have loved.
He may have loved.
We may have loved.
You may have loved.
They may have loved.

Pluperfect.

I might have loved.
Thou mightst have loved.
He might have loved.
We might have loved.
You might have loved.
They might have loved.

"TO LOVE"

55

IMPERATIVE MOOD.	SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.	INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLE.
<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Present or imperfect.</i>
2nd person Love. 3rd " Let him love.	If I love. If thou love. If he love. If we love. If you love. If they love.	To love.	Loving.
<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Imperfect.</i>		
1st person Let us love. 2nd " Love. 3rd " Let them love.	If I loved. If thou loved. If he loved. If we loved. If you loved. If they loved.		
	<i>Perfect.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>
	If I have loved. If thou have loved. If he have loved. If we have loved. If you have loved. If they have loved.	To have loved.	Loved.
	<i>Pluperfect.</i>		
	If I had loved. If thou had loved. If he had loved. If we had loved. If you had loved. If they had loved.		<i>Pluperfect or preperfect.</i> Having loved.

OBSERVATIONS ON REGULAR VERBS.

Some regular verbs are subject to some modifications already spoken of in nouns and adjectives.

1° In all the verbs of one syllable, and in those of two syllables having the stress-accent on the last, the final consonant must be doubled before *ed* and *ing* whenever this consonant is preceded by a single vowel.

- Ex. : To *rig*, *équiper*, I *rigged*, *rigging*.
 To *omit*, *omettre*, I *omitted*, *omitting*.
 To *dig*, *creuser*, *digging*.

N. B. — *To worship*, and the verbs which end in *el* follow the same rule.

- Ex. : To *travel*, *voyager*, *travelling*.
 To *expel*, *chasser*, *expelled*.
 To *worship*, *adorer*, *worshipped*.

2° When the infinitive ends in *mute e*, this *e* must be taken off before *ed* and *ing*.

- Ex. : To *grave*, *graver*, I *graved*, *graving*.
 To *exhale*, *exhaler*, I *exhaled*, *exhaling*.
 To *continuo*, *continuer*, I *continued*, *continuing*.

N. B. — *E* must be retained before *ing*, when-ever it is preceded by a vowel, except *i* and *u*.

- Ex. : To *shoe*, *chausser*, *shoeing*.
 To *dye*, *teindre*, *dyeing*.

And, sometimes, to maintain the pronunciation of the infinitive, or to distinguish two verbs.

Ex.: To singe, flamber, singeing.

Singeing is used to keep the soft sound of *g*, and to distinguish singeing from singing.

3° Verbs ending in *ee* add only *d* to the radical verb for the preterit and the perfect participle.

Ex.: To agree, convenir, s'accorder, I agreed, agreed.

4° Verbs ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change *y* into *i* before *est*, *es*, and *ed*.

Ex.: To cry, pleurer, thou criest, he cries, cried.

If the final *y* is preceded by a vowel, the general rule ought to be followed.

Ex.: To dismay, consterner, he dismayed, dismayed.

5° Verbs ending in *ch*, *sh*, *ss*, *x*, *z*, *o*, *oo*, take *e* before *st* or *s*.

Ex.: To catch, attraper, thou catchest, he catches.

To go, he goes.

6° When the infinitive ends in *e* preceded by *i*, these vowels (*ie*) must be changed into *y* before *ing* of the imperfect participle.

Ex.: To die, mourir, dying.
To lie, reposer, lying.

FORMATION OF TENSES.

All the tenses of English verbs are formed from the infinitive.

1° The preterit is formed by adding *ed* or *d* to the radical verb.

Ex. : To call, I called.
To love, I loved.

N. B. — The second person singular ends in *st*: thou callest, this is the only modification for this tense.

2° The present of the indicative mood is formed by placing the personal pronouns *I, thou, he, she, or it, we, you, they*, before the radical verb.

Ex. : I call, we love, they admire.

N. B. — This tense has two modifications :

1° The second person singular takes *st* or *est*.

Ex. : Thou callest, tu appelles.

2° The third person singular takes *s* or *es*.

Ex. : He loves, he dresses, he fetches.

This person ended formerly in *th* or *eth*: he calleth, he hath; this form is no longer used, except in poetry, in the Bible and as a law-term.

3° The future tense is formed by prefixing the auxiliaries *shall* and *will* to the radical verb.

Ex. : I shall speak, I will love.

4^o The present of the potential mood is formed by placing the auxiliaries *may*, *can*, *must* before the radical verb.

Ex. : I may call.

5^o The imperfect tense of the same mood prefixes the auxiliaries *might*, *could*, *should* to the radical verb.

Ex. : I might love.

I could speak.

I would go.

6^o The perfect tense of the potential mood is formed by prefixing *I may have*, *I can have*, *I must have*, etc... to the perfect participle.

Ex. : I may have called.

I must have loved.

7^o The pluperfect tense of the same mood is formed with *I might have*, *I could have*, *I should have*, etc., prefixed to the perfect participle.

Ex. : I might have called.

I should have spoken.

I would have loved.

8^o The perfect, the pluperfect and the second future of the indicative mood are formed from the perfect participle to which we prefix *I have*, *I had*, and *I will* or *shall have*.

Ex. : I have loved.

I had loved.

I shall have loved.

9^o The imperative is nothing else than the simple

form of the verb for the second person. The other persons prefix the auxiliary to *let*.

First person. Let me call, (rare).

2nd " Call.

3rd " Let him call.

1st " Let us call.

2nd " Call.

3rd " Let them call.

10^o The tenses of the subjunctive mood are alike to those of the indicative mood, except that they have no modifications. The verb *to be* is to be excepted from this rule, because it has a particular form for the present and the imperfect.

Ex. : If I be, If thou be.

 If I were, If thou wert or were.

11^o The imperfect participle is formed by adding *ing* to the infinitive.

Ex. : To call, calling.

 To speak, speaking.

12^o The perfect participle commonly ends in *ed* or *en*, but has particular forms for irregular verbs.

Ex. : To love, loved.

 To forsake, forsaken.

 To grow, grown.

13^o The preperfect participle is formed by prefixing *having* or *having been* to the perfect participle.

Ex. : Having loved.

 Having been loved.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

Auxiliaries, or **helping verbs** are those by the help of which English verbs are conjugated. They are :

Do, be, have, shall, will, may, can with their modifications, and *let* and *must* which have no modifications.

These auxiliaries, except *to have* and *to be*, are followed by the infinitive without the preposition *to*.

- Ex. : I will go, I can speak.
 I may go, I do work.
 I must go.

To be must be followed by the perfect participle for the passive form, and by the imperfect participle for the progressive or compound form.

- Ex. : Passive form : I am loved.
 Progressive : I am playing.

To have is followed by the perfect participle to form :

1º The perfect, the pluperfect, and the second future of the indicative mood.

- Ex. : I have called.
 I had called.
 I shall have called.

2º The perfect and pluperfect of the potential mood.

- Ex. : I may have loved
 I might have loved.

3º The perfect and pluperfect of the subjunctive mood.

Ex. : If I have called.
If I had loved.

4º The perfect tense of the infinitive mood and the preperfect participle.

Ex. : To have called.
Having called.

I shall, I will.

The English language has no simple form for the future.

This tense is formed by prefixing *shall* and *will* to the infinitive.

These auxiliaries, having a different meaning, form two different *futures*.

1º The first one called *future of simple prediction* (only foretelling), takes *shall* for its first person and *will* for the two others. It simply foretells.

Ex. : I shall speak, we shall speak.
Thou wilt speak, you will speak.
He will speak, they will speak.

2º The second, which is called *future of obligation or necessity*, takes *will* for its first person and *shall* for the two others. It promises, commands, threatens.

Ex. : I will go, we will go.
Thou shalt go, you shall go.
He shall go, they shall go.

N. B. — This use of *shall* and *will* must be understood of affirmative sentences only; for, when the sentence is interrogative, the reverse commonly takes place.

Ex. : Shall you have money ?

Aurez-vous de l'argent ?

Will you have money ?

Voulez-vous avoir de l'argent ?

Shall you come ?

Viendrez-vous ?

Will you come ?

Voulez-vous venir ?

Will must never be used with the first person in interrogations.

To let.

This auxiliary verb is used to form the third person singular, the first and the third person plural of the imperative. Between the auxiliary and the infinitive we use a personal pronoun in the objective case.

Ex. : Let him speak.

Let us speak.

Let them speak.

I may.

I may and the imperfect *I might* are used to form the potential mood, which, as noted before, implies power, possibility, obligation.

Present : I may go.

Imperfect : I might (should or would) go.

Perfect : I may have gone.

Pluperfect : I might (should or would) have gone.

N. B. — The imperfect and the pluperfect of the potential mood translate our French conditional.

Ex. : I should speak.

I would speak.

Je parlerais.

I should have spoken.

I would have spoken.

J'aurais parlé.

To be.

The auxiliary *to be*, joined to the imperfect participle of another verb, forms a particular conjugation called *compound* or *progressive*.

This particular form is used when :

1^o The action is actually going on (for the present).

Ex. : I am walking.

Je marche (dans le moment).

2^o When the action takes place in the same time

as another action : this is the real French imperfect tense (*imparfait de l'indicatif*).

Ex. : I was reading when you came.

Je lisais lorsque vous vîntes.

3^o For the other tenses, the compound form denotes a continuance of the action.

Ex. : We have been listening for hours.

Nous avons écouté pendant des heures.

This form must not be used, especially for the present, with verbs expressing an action which has no duration, and is in some manner instantaneous.

Ex. : I call you.

Je vous appelle.

Model.

Present..

I am speaking.

Thou art speaking.

He is speaking.

We are speaking.

You are speaking.

They are speaking.

Pret. or imperfect.

I was speaking.

Thou wast speaking.

He was speaking.

We were speaking.

You were speaking.

They were speaking.

And so forth, by adding to all the tenses of the verb to be the imperfect participle of the verb which is to be conjugated.

N. B.— 1^o *I am going, I was going*, followed by the infinitive, express an immediate future, that is, an action which is to take place right away.

Ex. : I am going to study my lesson.

Je vais étudier ma leçon.

I was going to blame him.

J'allais le blâmer.

2^o To be, followed by the perfect participle, is used to form all the tenses of the passive conjugation.

Ex. : I am loved.

I was loved, etc., etc.

3^o Followed by an infinitive, to be may express obligation, necessity or futurity.

Ex. : We are to entertain our people with the word of life.

Nous devons nourrir notre peuple de la parole de vie.

We are to go there.

Nous irons là.

4^o To be, followed by the preposition about, answers the French expression : *être sur le point de, être en train de.*

Ex. : I am about to fight.

Je suis en train de me battre.

What are you about ?

Que faites-vous là ?

I am about to write.

Je suis en train d'écrire.

To do.

The present *I do* and the preterit *I did*, joined to the infinitive, are used to form :

1^o The present and the imperfect tense of the em-

phatic conjugation which expresses an action with emphasis, or answers a contradiction.

Ex. : I do speak.

Je parle.

You do not work.—I do work.

Vous ne travaillez pas. — Je travaille (certainement).

2^o The present and the imperfect tense of interrogative, negative, and negative-interrogative verbs.

Ex. : Do you come ?

Venez-vous ?

I do not come.

Je ne viens pas.

Do you not come ?

Ne venez-vous pas ?

3^o We use *do* and *did* in answers, when we do not repeat the principal verb.

Ex. : Do you know me ?

Me connaissez-vous ?

Yes, I do.

Oui, je vous connais.

4^o This auxiliary is also used to represent a preceding verb.

Ex. : He plays as well as you do.

Il joue aussi bien que vous.

He sang better than you could have done.

Il chanta mieux que vous n'auriez pu faire.

He spoke better than you did.

Il parla mieux que vous.

N. B. — *To do* is sometimes used as an independent verb. *To do an exercise, faire un devoir.* It also has the meaning of *to feel* (*se porter*).

Ex. : How do you do ?

Comment vous portez-vous ?

That is: how do you feel.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

An irregular verb is a verb that does not form the preterit and perfect participle by assuming *d* or *ed*; or, in other words, an irregular verb is a verb which, in its formation, does not follow the regular conjugation.

Redundant verbs are those which form their preterit and perfect participle in two or more ways, so as to be both regular and irregular.

Ex. : To bereave ; I bereft, bereaved ; bereft, bereavd.

N. B. — In the following list, redundant verbs are marked with an asterisk.

List of the irregular verbs.

To abide, demeurer ;	I abode,	abode.
To arise, se lever ;	I arose,	arisen.
To awake, éveiller, s'éveiller ;	I awoke,*	awoke *.

To bake, cuire au four ;	I baked,	baken *.
To be, être ;	I was,	been.
To bear, porter ;	I bore,	borne.
To bear, produire ;	I bore or bare,	born.
To beat, battre ;	I beat,	beaten, beat.
To become, devenir ;	I became,	become.
To begin, commencer ;	I began,	begun.
To behold, contempler ;	I beheld,	beheld.
To bend, plier, courber ;	I bent,*	bent *.
To bereave, priver ;	I bereft,*	bereft *.
To beseech, supplier ;	I besought,	besought.
To bespeak, commander ;	I bespoke,	bespoken.
To bid, commander ;	I bade or bid,	bidden or bid.
To bind, lier, relier ;	I bound,	bound.
To bite, mordre ;	I bit,	bitten or bit.
To bleed, saigner ;	I bled,	bled.
To blow, souffler ;	I blew,	blown.
To break, casser ;	I broke,	broken.
To breed, produire ;	I bred,	bred.
To bring, apporter ;	I brought,	brought.
To build, bâtiir ;	I built,*	built *.
To burn, brûler ;	I burnt *,	burnt *.
To burst, crever ;	I burst *,	burst *.
To buy, acheter ;	I bought,	bought.
To belay, tendre une embâche :	I belaid *,	belaid *.
To cast, jeter ;	I cast,	cast.
To catch, attraper ;	I caught,	caught.
To chide, gronder ;	I chid,	chidden, chid.
To choose, choisir ;	I chose,	chosen.
To cleave, fendre ;	I clove, cleft,	cloven, cleft.
To cleave, s'attacher ;	I clave,	cleaved.
To climb, grimper ;	I clomb *,	climbed.
To cling, s'attacher ;	I clung,	clung.
To clothe, habiller ;	I clad *,	clad *.
To come, venir ;	I came,	come.

To cost, coûter ;	I cost,	cost.
To creep, ramper ;	I crept,	crept.
To crow, chanter ;	I crew *;	crown*.
To cut, couper ;	I cut,	cut.
To dare, oser ;	I durst,	durst.
To dare, défiер, braver ;	I dared,	dared.
To deal, troquer ;	I dealt,	dealt.
To dig, bêcher ;	I dug *;	dug *.
To do, faire ;	I did,	done.
To draw, dessiner ;	I drew,	drawn.
To drink, boire ;	I drank,	drunk.
To drive, conduire ;	I drove,	driven.
To dwell, habiter ;	I dwelt *;	dwelt *.
To eat, manger ;	I ate, eat,	eaten, eat.
To fall, tomber ;	I fell,	fallen.
To feed, nourrir ;	I fed,	fed.
To feel, sentir ;	I felt,	felt.
To fight, se battre ;	I fought,	fought.
To find, trouver ;	I found,	found.
To flee, s'enfuir ;	I fled,	fled.
To fling, jeter ;	I flung,	flung.
To fly, voler ;	I flew,	flown.
To forget, oublier ;	I forgot,	forgotten.
To forgive, pardonner ;	I forgave,	forgiven.
To forsake, abandonner ;	I forsook,	forsaken.
To freeze, geler ;	I froze,	frozen.
To freight, charger, fréter ;	I fraught *;	fraught *.
To get, obtenir ;	I got,	got, gotten.
To gild, dorer ;	I gilt *;	gilt *.
To gird, ceindre ;	I girt *;	girt *.
To give, donner ;	I gave,	given.
To go, aller ;	I went,	gone.
To grave, graver ;	I graved,	graven *.
To grind, moudre ;	I ground,	ground.
To grow, croître ;	I grew,	grown.
To hang, pendre ;	I hung, *	hung *.

To hew, couper, tailler ;	I hewed,	hewn*.
To have, avoir ;	I had,	had.
To hear, entendre ;	I heard,	heard.
To heave, soulever ;	I hove *,	hove, hoven.
To hide, cacher ;	I hid,	hidden, hid.
To hit, frapper ;	I hit,	hit.
To hold, tenir ;	I held,	held.
To hurt, faire mal à ;	I hurt,	hurt.
To keep, garder :	I kept,	kept.
To kneel, s'agenouiller ;	I knelt *,	knelt *.
To knit, tricoler ;	I knit *,	knit*.
To know, savoir ;	I knew,	known.
To lade, charger ;	I laded,	laden*.
To lay, poser ;	I laid,	laid.
To lead, conduire ;	I led,	led.
To leap, sauter ;	I leapt *,	leapt*.
To leave, laisser ;	I left,	left.
To lend, prêter ;	I lent,	lent.
To let, laisser, louer ;	I let,	let
To lie, reposer ;	I lay,	lain.
To light, allumer ;	I lit *,	lit*.
To lose, perdre ;	I lost,	lost.
To make, faire ;	I made,	made.
To mean, vouloir dire ;	I meant,	meant.
To meet, rencontrer ;	I met,	met.
To mow, faucher ;	I mowed,	mown*.
To pay, payer ;	I paid,	paid.
To pen, enfermer, par- quer ;	I pent *,	pent*.
To put, mettre ;	I put,	put.
To quit, quitter ;	I quit *,	quit*.
To read, lire ;	I read,	read.
To reave, déter ;	I reft *,	reft*.
To rend, déchirer ;	I rent,	rent
To rid, débarrasser ;	I rid *,	rid*.
To ride, aller à cheval ;	I rode,	ridden.

To ring, sonner ;	I rang,	rung.
To rise, se lever ;	I rose,	risen.
To rive, fendre ;	I rived,	riven *.
To run, courir ;	I ran,	run.
To saw, scier ;	I sawed,	sawn *.
To say, dire ;	I said,	said.
To see, voir ;	I saw,	seen.
To seek, chercher ;	I sought,	sought.
To seethe, bouillir ;	I sod *,	sodden *.
To sell, vendre ;	I sold,	sold.
To send, envoyer ;	I sent,	sent.
To set, poser ;	I set,	set.
To shake, secouer ;	I shook,	shaken.
To shave, raser ;	I shaved,	shaven *.
To shear, tondre ;	I shore,	shorn.
To shed, repandre ;	I shed,	shed.
To shine, briller ;	I shone,	shone.
To shoe, chausser ;	I shod,	shod.
To shoot, tirer ;	I shot,	shot.
To show, montrer ;	I showed,	shown *.
To shred, hacher ;	I shred,	shred.
To shrink, se rétrécir ;	I shrank, shrunk,	shrunk, shrunken.
To shrive, se confesser ;	I shrove,	shriven.
To shut, fermer ;	I shut,	shut.
To sing, chanter ;	I sang,	sung.
To sink, s'enfoncer ;	I sank,	sunk.
To sit, s'asseoir ;	I sat, sate,	sat.
To slay, tuer ;	I slew,	slain.
To sleep, dormir ;	I slept,	slept.
To slide, glisser ;	I slid,	slid, slidden.
To sling, lancer avec une fronde ;	I slung,	slung.
To slink, se dérober ;	I slunk,	slunk.
To slit, fendre ;	I slit *,	slit *.
To smite, frapper ;	I smote,	smitten.
To sow, semer ;	I sowed,	sown *.
To sow (sö), couder ;	I sewed,	sown *.

To speak, <i>parler</i> ;	I spoke,	spoken.
To speed, <i>se hâler</i> ;	I sped,	sped.
To spend, <i>dépenser</i> ;	I spent,	spent,
To spill, <i>répandre</i> ;	I spilt *,	spilt *.
To spin, <i>fler</i> ;	I spun, spun,	spun.
To split, <i>scinder</i> ;	I split,	split.
To spit, <i>cracher</i> ;	I spit, spat,	spit, spitten.
To spread, <i>étendre</i> ;	I spread,	spread.
To spring, <i>s'élançer</i> ;	I sprang, sprung,	sprung.
To stand, <i>se tenir debout</i> ;	I stood,	stood.
To stay, <i>attendre</i> ;	I staid *,	staid *.
To steal, <i>d'trober</i> ;	I stole,	stolen.
To stick, <i>s'attacher à</i> ;	I stuck,	stuck.
To sting, <i>piquer</i> ;	I stung,	stung.
To stink, <i>puer</i> ;	I stunk,	stunk.
To strow, <i>joncher</i> ;	I strewed,	strewed.
To strow, <i>répandre</i> ;	I strewed,	strown.
To string, <i>enfiler</i> ;	I strung *,	strung *.
To strive, <i>s'efforcer</i> ;	I strove *,	striven *,
To stride, <i>enjamber</i> ;	I strode,	stridden.
To strike, <i>frapper</i> ;	I struck,	struck, stricken.
To swear, <i>juror</i> ;	I swore,	sworn.
To sweat, <i>suer</i> ;	I sweat *,	sweated.
To sweep, <i>balayer</i> ;	I swept,	swept.
To swell, <i>enfler</i> ;	I swelled,	swollen *.
To swim, <i>nager</i> ;	I swam,	swum.
To swing, <i>se balancer</i> ;	I swung,	swung..
To take, <i>prendre</i> ;	I took,	taken.
To teach, <i>enseigner</i> ;	I taught,	taught.
To tear, <i>d'schirer</i> ;	I tore,	torn.
To tell, <i>dire</i> ;	I told,	told.
To think, <i>penser</i> ;	I thought,	thought.
To thrive, <i>prosperer</i> ;	I thrrove *,	thriven *.
To throw, <i>jeter</i> ;	I threw,	thrown.
To thrust, <i>pousser</i> ;	I thrust,	thrust.
To tread, <i>fouler aux pieds</i> ; I trud,		trodden or trod.

To wax, <i>cirer</i> ;	I waxed,	waxen *.
To wear, <i>porter</i> ;	I wore,	worn.
To weave, <i>tisser</i> ;	I wove,	woven.
To weep, <i>pleurer</i> ;	I wept,	wept.
To win, <i>gagner au jeu</i> ;	I won,	won.
To wind, <i>tourner</i> ;	I wound,	wound.
To work, <i>travailler</i> ;	I wrought *,	wrought *.
To wring, <i>tordre</i> ;	I wrung,	wrong.
To writhe, <i>se tordre</i> ;	I writhed,	written.
To write, <i>écrire</i> ;	I wrote,	written.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

Defective verbs are those which have no participles and are used in but few of the moods and tenses.

There are eleven defective verbs in English, six of which are considered as principal.

They have at most two tenses; some of them have only one.

They are sometimes used as independent verbs, but generally as auxiliaries.

1^o Shall, should.

Thou shouldst, he should, you should they should, may sometimes translate the French verb *devoir*, they are then equivalent to *I ought*.

Ex. : A man should love his neighbour.

Un homme doit aimer son prochain.

You should have spoken.

Vous auriez dû parler.

2^o Will, would.

I will, I would, etc., etc..., may have the sense of *vouloir*.

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DEFECTIVE VERBS.

Ex. : Hear me, for I will speak.

Ecoutez-moi, car je veux parler.

He would not go when he could.

Il n'a pas voulu y aller quand il le pouvait.

3^o May, might.

I may, I might translate the French verb *pouvoir* with the meaning of *I have the power, the liberty, it is possible.*

Ex. : I may go there.

Je puis aller là.

4^o Can, could.

I can, I could mean *pouvoir* with the sense of *I am able, I have the capacity, the strength, the science* (then equivalent to *I know*).

Ex. : I can go there.

Je puis aller là.

I can slide.

Je puis glisser.

I can swim.

Je sais nager.

N. B. — 1^o To translate from the French the tenses which the verbs *I can* and *I may* have not, we use the verb *to be able*.

Ex. : I have been able to go there.

J'ai pu aller là.

I shall be able to do it.

Je serai capable, je pourrai faire cela.

2^o With a negation. *I can, I could* are generally used instead of *I may, I might*. The negation *not,*

must be joined to the present *I can*, so as to form only one word.

Ex. : I cannot come to-day.

Je ne puis venir aujourd'hui.

I could not do it.

Je n'ai pas pu le faire.

5^o. Must.

I must has only one form. It translates the French verb *devoir*, and expresses absolute necessity.

Ex. : We must die.

Nous devons mourir.

You must work.

Vous devez travailler.

6^o. Ought.

I ought, like *I must*, has only one form, it translates *devoir*, and expresses a moral obligation, a duty.

Ex. : You ought to love your parents.

Vous devez aimer vos parents.

You ought to serve God.

Vous devez servir Dieu.

N. B. — 1^o Defective verbs followed by an infinitive do not admit the use of *to* before this infinitive. *I ought*, alone, is excepted.

Ex. : I should go there.

J'irais là.

I may come.

Je puis venir.

I ought to work.

Je dois travailler.

2º To translate the French verb, *falloir*, we use the defective verb *I must* or *I ought* for the present and *to be obliged* for the other tenses.

- Ex.: I must work. *Il faut que je travaille.*
 Thou must work. *Il faut que tu travailles.*
 He must work. *Il faut qu'il travaille.*
 We must work. *Il faut que nous travaillions.*
 You must work. *Il faut que vous, etc.*
 They must work. *Il faut qu'ils, etc.*

- I was obliged to work. *Il fallait que je, etc.*
 I have been obliged to work. *Il a fallu que je, etc.*
 I had been obliged to work. *Il avait fallu que, etc.*
 I shall be obliged to work. *Il faudra que je, etc.*
 I should be obliged to work. *Il faudrait que je, etc.*

3º These defective verbs, having no participles, have no compound tenses, we may translate them by using the past tense of the infinitive instead of the present we have in French

- Ex.: You ought to have worked.
Vous auriez dû travailler.
 He might have sung.
Il aurait pu chanter.

The other defective verbs are: 1º *Methinks* which has only two forms: *methinks, il me semble, me thought, il me semblait.*

2º *Quoth*, two forms: *quoth I, dis-je; quoth he, dit-il.*

3º *Beware* has only the imperative form.

- Ex.: Beware of flatterers.
Gardez vous des flatteurs.

4^o *Wis*, *preterit wist*, *savoir*, *supposer*, is now nearly obsolete; it is sometimes to be found in the Bible.

5^o *Wit*, *sacoir*, *preterit wot*, is no longer used, except in the phrase *to wit* which means: *namely*, *that is to say*.

INTERROGATIVE CONJUGATION.

Every English verb may be conjugated interrogatively, by the transposition of the nominative, which is placed after the verb or after the first auxiliary.

N. B. — In the interrogative conjugation, *shall* and *should* are used instead of *will* and *would* in the second person.

Indicative mood.

Present.

Do I love ? *Est-ce que j'aime* ?
Dost thou love ?
Does he love ?
Do we love ?
Do you love ?
Do they love ?

Did I love ? *Aimai-je* ?
Didst thou love ?
Did he love ?
Did we love ?
Did you love ?
Did they love ?

Perfect.

Have I loved ?
Hast thou loved ?
Has he loved ?
Have we loved ?
Have you loved ?
Have they loved ?

Had I loved ?
Hadst thou loved ?
Had he loved ?
Had we loved ?
Had you loved ?
Had they loved ?

Pluperfect.

1st future.

Shall I love ?
 Shalt thou love ?
 Will he love ?
 Shall we love ?
 Shall you love ?
 Will they love ?

2nd future.

Shall I have loved ?
 Shalt thou have loved ?
 Will he have loved ?
 Shall we have loved ?
 Shall you have loved ?
 Will they have loved ?

Potential mood.*Present.*

May, can or must I love ?
 Mayst, canst, must thou
 love ?
 May, can, must he love ? etc.

Imperfect.

Might, could or should he
 love ?
 Mightst, couldst, shouldst
 thou love ? etc., etc.

Perfect.

May, can or must
 I love ? etc., etc.

Imperfect.

Might, could, should
 I have loved ? etc., etc.

N. B. — 1^o When the subject is a noun, the verb
 is construed in the same way as with a pronoun, but
 we must not translate the pronoun *il* or *elle* used in
 French.

Ex. : Does John come ?

Jean vient-il ?

Did your sister see me ?

Votre sœur m'a-t-elle vu ?

2^o In the interrogative conjugation of defective
 and auxiliary verbs, the subject is placed after the
 verb, without any auxiliary.

Ex. : Are you rich ?

Etes-vous riche ?

Can you come with us ?

Pouvez-vous venir avec nous ?

Must we work now ?

Devons-nous travailler maintenant ?

3^o When the subject is one of the interrogative pronouns *who* ? or *what* ?, the auxiliary verbs *do* and *did* are not used. The same rule must be followed when *which*, *whose*, *how much*, *how many* are joined to the subject.

Ex. : Who comes there ?

Qui vient là ?

What goes on there ?

Que se passe-t-il là ?

Whose house burns ?

Quelle est la maison qui brûle ?

NEGATIVE CONJUGATION.

The same auxiliaries *do* and *did* are used to conjugate negative verbs.

The negation *not* simply precedes the verb in the tenses of the infinitive and participle.

In the other tenses of the conjugation, *not* is always placed after the first auxiliary.

In the imperative mood, the negation comes after the pronoun.

Indicative mood.

Present.

I do not love.

Je n'aime pas.

Imperfect.

I did not love.

Je n'aimai pas.

Thou dost not love.

Tu n'aimes pas.

Etc., etc.

Perfect.

I have not loved.

Thou hast not loved.

He has not loved, etc.

1st future.

I shall not love.

Thou wilt not love.

He will not love, etc.

Thon didst not love.

Tu n'aimas pas.

Etc., etc.

Pluperfect.

I had not loved.

Thon hadst not loved.

He had not loved, etc.

2nd future.

I shall not have loved.

Thou wilt not have loved.

He will not have loved, etc.

Potential mood.

Present.

*I can or must not
love, etc., etc.*

Perfect.

*I can or must not have
loved, etc., etc.*

Imperfect.

*I could, should, would not
love, etc., etc.*

Pluperfect.

*I could, should, would not
have loved, etc., etc.*

Imperative mood.

Singular.

1st. Let me not love.

2nd. Do not love.

3rd. Let him not love.

Plural.

1st. Let us not love.

2nd. Do not love.

3rd. Let them not love.

Subjunctive mood.

Present.

If I do not love.

Etc., etc.

Imperfect.

If I did not love.

Etc., etc.

Perfect.

If I have not loved.

Etc., etc.

Pluperfect.

If I had not loved.

Etc., etc.

Infinitive.*Present.*

Not to love.

Perfect.

Not to have loved.

Participle.*Imperfect.*

Not loving.

Perfect.

Not loved.

Preperfect.

Not having loved.

N. B. — 1^o With defective and auxiliary verbs, with the verbs *to dare* (*oser*), *to need* (*avoir besoin*), we do not use the auxiliaries *do* and *did*.

Ex. : I am not learned.

Je ne suis pas instruit.

I must not go there.

Je ne dois pas aller là.

You need not come.

Vous n'avez pas besoin de venir.

We dare not laugh.

Nous n'osons pas rire.

2^o *Do* and *did* are not used with the negations *no*, *nothing*, *nobody*, *never*.

Ex. : I possess no books.

Je ne possède pas de livres.

I fear nothing.

Je ne crains rien.

We never speak.

Nous ne parlons jamais.

We admire nobody.

Nous n'admirons personne.

NEGATIVE-INTERROGATIVE CONJUGATION.

Negative-interrogative verbs are those which express a question with a negation. They are formed by placing the negation after the nominative when it is a pronoun, or before it when it is a noun.

Ex.: Do I not speak?

Est-ce que je ne parle pas?

Has not your friend come?

Votre ami n'est-il pas venu?

Will not Peter go there?

Pierre n'ira-t-il pas là?

N. B. — The negation is sometimes placed before the pronoun.

Ex.: Don't you speak?

Ne parlez-vous pas?

Indicative mood.

Present.

Do I not love?

Etc., etc.

Perfect.

Have I not loved?

Etc., etc.

Imperfect.

Did I not love?

Etc., etc.

Pluperfect.

Had I not loved?

Etc., etc.

1st future.

Shall I not love ?

Etc., etc.

2nd future.

Shall I not have loved ?

Etc., etc.

Potential mood.*Present.*May, can or must I not
love ? etc., etc.*Imperfect.*Might, could, should, would
I not love ? etc., etc.*Perfect.*May, can, or must I not
have loved ? etc., etc.*Pluperfect.*Might, could, should, would
I not have loved ? etc., etc.**PASSIVE VERBS.**

Passive verbs are those which represent their subjects as being acted upon ; or, in other words, passive verbs express an action received and suffered by their subjects.

A passive verb is formed by adding to all the tenses of the verb *to be* the perfect participle of the verb which is to be conjugated passively.

Indicative mood.*Present.*

I am loved.

Etc.

Imperfect.

I was loved.

Etc.

Perfect.

I have been loved.

Etc.

Pluperfect.

I had been loved.

Etc.

1st future.

I shall be loved.

Etc.

2nd future.

I shall have been loved.

Etc.

Potential mood.**Present.**

I may, etc., be loved.
Etc.

Imperfect.

I might, etc., be loved.
Etc.

Perfect.

I may, etc., have been
loved. Etc.

Pluperfect.

I might, etc., have been
loved. Etc.

Imperative.

2nd. Be loved.

1st. Let us be loved.

3rd. Let him be loved.

2nd. Be loved.

3rd. Let them be loved.

Subjunctive mood.**Present.**

If I be loved.

Imperfect.

If I were loved.

Perfect.

If I have been loved.

Pluperfect.

If I had been loved.

Infinitive.

To be loved.

To have been loved.

Participle.

Being loved.

Having been loved.

N. B. — The indirect object of a passive verb is accompanied by the prepositions *de*, *par*, *avec* in French; the English language has *by* and *with*.

By is generally used before the name of the agent, the cause of the action.

Ex. : Our place was besieged by enemies.

Notre place fut assiégée par les ennemis.

Our church was destroyed by fire.

Notre église fut détruite par le feu.

With is used with the name of the instrument.

Ex. : He was killed with a sword.

Il fut tué avec une épée.

The city was surrounded with a wall.

La ville fut entourée d'un mur.

ACTIVE-INTRANITIVE VERBS.

An active-intransitive verb is that which expresses an action, but has no person or thing for its object.

Ex. I come, I speak.

Je viens, je parle.

These verbs are conjugated like active-transitive verbs, they take the auxiliary *to have* in their compound tenses.

Ex. : I have come.

Je suis venu.

He arrived yesterday.

Il est arrivé hier.

N. B. — 1^o The verb *to be* seems to be assumed by some intransitive verbs : I am come, he is arrived, they are gone. In such cases *to be* expresses a state, while *to have* expresses an action.

Ex. : We arrived yesterday at ten o'clock.

Nous sommes arrivés hier à dix heures.

They are arrived.

Ils sont arrivés. (They are no longer absent).

2^o Active-intransitive verbs, connected with pre-

positions, have the force of active-transitive verbs and, for that reason, may be used in the passive form.

To speak to.	To be spoken to.
To speak of.	To be spoken of.
To laugh at.	To be laughed at.

Ex. : We were spoken to.

On nous parla.

They are spoken of.

On parle d'eux.

You were laughed at.

On a ri de vous.

3º Active-intransitive verbs may sometimes have a direct object, when this object is a noun having the same root as the verb.

Ex. : I slept a sleep.

Je dormis un somme.

He fought the good fight.

Il livra le bon combat.

He breathed his last breath.

Il rendit le dernier soupir.

REFLECTED VERBS.

This denomination is given, in French, to a certain class of verbs which express an action reverting upon the agent; or, in other words, an action which is made by the subject on itself.

Ex. : I dress myself.

Je m'habille.

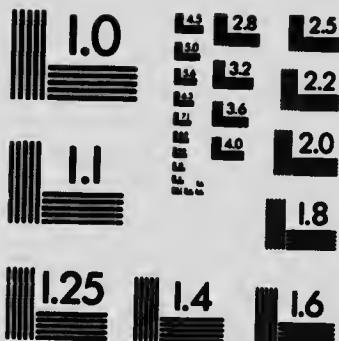
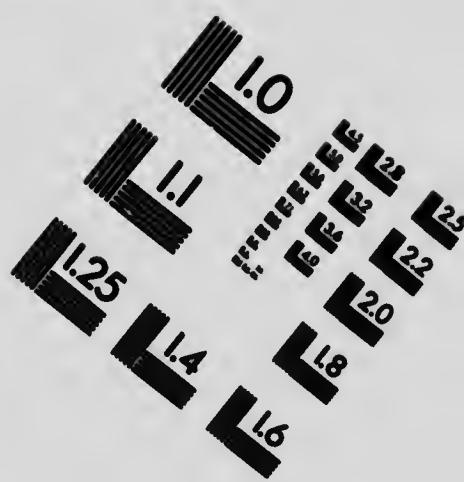
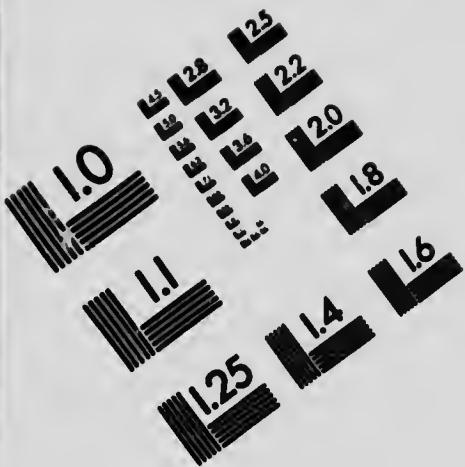
They flatter themselves.

Ils se flattent.



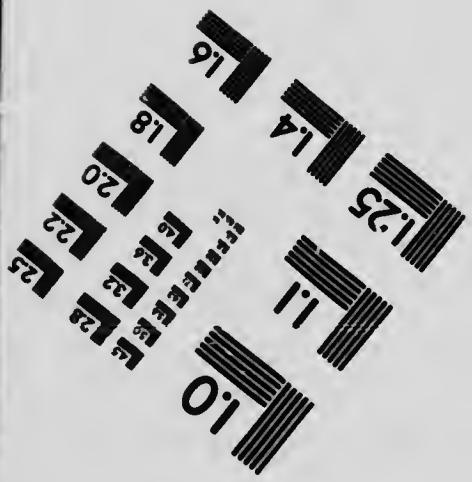


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Those verbs are conjugated in English by adding to all the tenses and persons of the regular conjugation the compound personal pronouns *myself, thyself, himself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves*.

Ex. : I dress myself.

Thou dressest thyself.

He dresses himself.

We dress ourselves.

You dress yourselves.

They dress themselves,

and so on, by following the general rule given.

N. B.—The construction of those verbs is very different in the two languages.

1^o In English, the compound personal pronoun is always placed after the verb ; in French, the pronoun is simple and always placed before.

Ex. : I flatter myself.

Je me flatte.

2^o The English use the auxiliary *to have* in the compound tenses of these verbs ; the French use *to be*.

Ex. : I have flattered myself.

Je me suis flatté.

I shall have dressed myself.

Je me serai habillé.

3^o To become reflected, a verb must be active-transitive, because this verb expresses an action which has an object ; as, when I say : *I dress myself*, the object is *myself*, but we know that an active-

intransitive verb has no object, therefore it cannot be used as reflected.

Ex. : I creep.
Je m'insinue.

4° The French language has several reflected verbs which cannot be translated into English because their subjects are things which cannot make an action. Such verbs, in English, are equivalent to active-intransitive or passive verbs.

Ex. : Tea sells well.
Le thé se vend bien
 Those books are much read.
Ces livres se lisent beaucoup.
 The letter does not read well.
La lettre ne se lit pas bien.

Verbs which are not reflected in English, though reflected in French :

To abstain,	<i>s'abstenir.</i>
To agree,	<i>s'accorder.</i>
To bathe,	<i>se baigner.</i>
To beware of,	<i>se garder.</i>
To blow,	<i>s'épanouir.</i>
To boast,	<i>se vanter.</i>
To catch cold,	<i>s'enrhumer.</i>
To care for,	<i>s'occuper de.</i>
To complain,	<i>se plaigndre.</i>
To creep,	<i>s'insinuer.</i>
To delight in,	<i>se plaire à.</i>
To dislocate,	<i>se démettre, (se disloquer).</i>
To distrust,	<i>se défier.</i>
To endeavour,	<i>s'efforcer.</i>
To escape,	<i>s'échapper.</i>

To expect,	s'attendre.
To exclaim,	s'écrier.
To evaporate,	s'évaporer.
To fade away,	se faner.
To faint away,	s'évanouir.
To fall asleep,	s'endormir.
To flee,	s'enfuir.
To flock in crowds,	s'attrouper.
To flow out,	s'écouler. .
To fly away,	s'envoler.
To fly into a passion,	s'emporter (<i>de colère</i>).
To get up,	se lever.
To get intoxicated,	s'enivrer.
To get ready,	se préparer.
To grow better,	s'amender.
To " hold,	s'enhardir.
To " drowsy,	s'assoupir.
To " familiar,	se familiariser.
To " impatient,	s'impatienter.
To " milder,	se radoucir.
To " proud,	s'enorgueillir.
To " rich,	s'enrichir.
To " tired,	se lasser.
To keep ready,	se tenir prêt.
To kneel down,	s'agenouiller.
To laugh at,	se moquer de.
To lean upon,	s'appuyer sur.
To make haste,	se hâter.
To make one's escape,	s'échapper.
To meddle with,	se mêler de.
To mistake,	se tromper.
To mistrust,	se méfier.
To oppose,	s'opposer.
To perceive,	s'apercevoir.
To read,	se lire.

To rebel,	se révolter.
To rejoice,	se réjouir.
To remember,	se souvenir.
To retire,	se retirer.
To retract,	se retracter.
To resign,	se démettre.
To seize,	s'emparer.
To sell,	se vendre.
To sit down,	s'asseoir.
To stick to,	s'attacher à.
To stoop,	se pencher.
To stop,	s'arrêter.
To subscribe,	s'abonner.
To surrender,	se rendre.
To take offense,	s'offenser.
To take refuge,	se réfugier.
To take rest,	se reposer.
To wake,	s'éveiller.
To wonder,	s'étonner.

RECIPROCAL VERBS.

Reciprocal verbs are those which express the interchange of an action between two or several ; consequently, they are never used but in the plural number.

The English language has two compound pronouns to conjugate these verbs, they are : *each other* and *one another*.

Each other is used when it is question of two persons or two things ; *one another*, when it is question of more than two.

Reciprocal verbs are conjugated by adding to all

the persons of the regular conjugation the pronouns *each other* or *one another*.

Ex.: We love each other.

Nous nous aimons, (tous deux).

They esteem one another.

Ils s'estiment les uns les autres.

David and Jonathan loved each other tenderly.

Peter, John, and James love one another.

N. B.—When *each other* and *one another* are indirect objects, the preposition is placed before the first pronoun and not after it.

Ex.: Words are derived from one another in various ways.

Les mots dérivent les uns des autres de différentes manières.

UNIPERSONAL VERBS.

Unipersonal verbs are those which are conjugated only in the third person of all their tenses. Their subject is the personal pronoun *it*, used absolutely, that is, representing no noun or pronoun previously expressed.

It rains, *Il pleut.*

It rained, *Il plu.*

It has rained, *Il a plu.*

It had rained, *Il avait plu.*

It will rain, *Il pleuvra.*

Does it rain? *Pleut-il?*

Will it not rain? *Ne pleuvra-t-il pas?*

It does not rain, *Il ne pleut pas.*

It would not rain, *Il ne pleuvrait pas.*

N. B — Several verbs which are impersonal in French are not so in English: thus *falloir* is translated by *devoir* in the following manner:

Il faut que je marche, I must walk.

Il faut que vous marchiez, You must walk.

Il faut qu'ils partent, They ought to start.

Il fallait que je, . . . etc. I was obliged to . . . etc.

Il faudra que je, . . . etc. I shall be obliged to . . . etc.

To happen, *arriver*, *il arrive*, etc., is not impersonal in English.

Ex. : I happened to see him.

Il arriva que je le vis.

To allow, *permettre*, is subject to the same observation.

Ex. : You are allowed to speak.

Il vous est permis de parler.

There is.

The French unipersonal verb *il y a*, followed by a noun, is translated into English by the adverb *there* and the verb *to be*, which agrees with the following noun.

Ex. : There is a man.

Il y a un homme.

There were men.

Il y avait des hommes.

There is or there are, *Il y a.*

There was or there were, *Il y avait.*

There has been or there have been, *Il y a eu.*

There will be, *Il y aura.*

There will have been,	<i>Il y aura eu.</i>
There would be,	<i>Il y aurait.</i>
There would have been.	<i>Il y aurait eu.</i>
There may be,	<i>Il peut y avoir.</i>
There might be,	<i>Il pouvait y avoir.</i>

N. B. — 1^o This construction with the adverb *there*, may sometimes be used to translate some French active-intransitive verbs used as impersonal.

Ex. : There came a man out of the woods.
Il sortit un homme du bois.

2^o In an interrogation, *there* follows the verb *to be* in simple tenses :

Is there, *y a-t-il ?* Are there, *y a-t-il ?*

In the compound tenses, *there* follows the auxiliary verb.

Has there been ? *Y a-t-il eu ?*
 Shall there be ? *Y aura-t-il ?*

3^o When the verb *to become* has for its subject the interrogative pronoun *what*, it must be construed as an impersonal verb, and the subject of the French verb becomes the indirect object in English.

Ex. : What will become of him ?
Que deviendra-t-il ?

4^o *Il y a*, expressing time fully past, is translated by *it is*.

Ex. : It is twenty years since he went off.
Il y a vingt ans qu'il est parti.

5^o *It is* is always used to translate *il y a* expressing distance.

Ex. : It is three miles from Beauport to Quebec.
Il y a trois milles de Beauport à Québec.

CHAPTER V.

OF THE PARTICIPLE.

The participle is a certain form of the verb which derives its name from its participating, not only of the properties of a verb, but also of those of an adjective.

Ex. : Children are desirous of knowing every thing.

Les enfants sont désireux de tout savoir.
 Admired and applauded, he became vain.
Admiré et applaudi, il devint orgueilleux.
 The boy, having studied his lesson, was allowed to play.

L'enfant, ayant étudié sa leçon, eut la permission de jouer.

There are three participles: The present or imperfect, the perfect, and the compound perfect or pre-perfect: as, loving, loved, having loved.

The present participle ends in ing.

Ex. : Working children.

The perfect participle ends in ed in regular verbs, and has a particular termination in irregular verbs.

Ex. : Loved, admired, esteemed.
Broken, wrought, shrunken.

The compound perfect or preperfect participle is formed by prefixing *having* or *having been* to the perfect participle ; it expresses the previous completion of an action, that is, an action taking place before another, *past* or *to come*.

Ex. : Charles, having written the letter, despatched it.

Charles, ayant écrit la lettre, l'envoya.

Peter, having studied his lesson, will play.

Pierre, ayant étudié sa leçon, jouera.

*E*N. B.—^{1o} Every French verb in the infinitive mood, coming after a preposition, is translated into English by the imperfect participle.

Ex. : I was far from thinking you would come.
J'étais loin de penser que vous viendriez.

The preposition *to*, which must be excepted from the preceding rule, on account of its being the sign of the infinitive mood, is sometimes followed by the imperfect participle, when the verb does not present the idea of an intention, an aim.

Ex. : He had a great aversion to shedding blood.
Il avait une grande répugnance à répandre le sang.

^{2o} The imperfect participle sometimes performs the office of a substantive, and is used as such ; then, it is preceded by the definite article or by any other determinative adjective.

Ex. : The triumphing of the wicked is short.

Le triomphe des méchants est court.

That burning of the Capitol was an outrage.

Cet incendie du Capitole fut une infamie.

The imperfect participle used as a noun has no direct object; the preposition *of* must be inserted between the participle and the direct object to govern the latter.

Ex : Studying philosophy is most useful.

The studying of philosophy is most useful.

L'étude de la philosophie est très utile.

CHAPTER VI.

OF THE PREPOSITION.

A preposition is a word which connects two or more words, expressing the relation existing between them.

Ex. : My book is before me on the table.

Mon livre est devant moi sur la table.

Prepositions may express different relations.

1^o Tendency, end or aim, motion, separation.

Against, *contre*.

Off, *loin de*.

At, *à, de*.

On, *pour, à*.

For, *pour*.

To, *à, pour, chez*.

From, *de*.

Towards, *vers*.

Near, *près de*.

2° Place.

About, <i>autour de.</i>	By, à côté de, près de.
Above, <i>au-dessus de.</i>	Down, en bas de.
Across, à travers.	In, dans (sans mouvement).
Along, le long de.	Into, dans (avec mouvement).
Amid, Amidst, au milieu de.	Off, à la hauteur de.
Among, amongst, parmi.	Over, au-dessus, par-dessus.
Around, round, autour de.	Through, à travers.
At, chez.	Throughout, d'un bout à l'autre.
Athwart, en travers de.	Up, en haut de.
Before, devant; behind, derrière.	Underneath, sous, dessous.
Below, beneath, au-dessous de.	Under, sous, dessous.
Beside, à côté de.	Upon, sur.
Between, entre deux.	Within, au dedans de.
Beyond, au delà de.	Without, hors de.

3° Property, origin, cause.

By, par.	Of, de.
Concerning, touchant.	Regarding, sur, touchant.
Considering, vu, attendu.	Respecting, sur, touchant.
For, par, de.	Through, à cause de.
From, par, à cause de.	

4° Time.

About, vers, sur.	From, de, dès, depuis.
After, après.	In, en, à, sous.
At, à.	On, à.
Before, avant.	Past, au delà.
By, vers, à, en.	Since, depuis.
Ere, avant.	Till, jusqu'à.
During, dans, pendant.	To, à.
For, pour, pendant.	Until, jusqu'à.

5^o Manner, means.

<i>After, selon, d'après.</i>	<i>From, d'après.</i>
<i>But, excepté.</i>	<i>In, à, en, de, par.</i>
<i>By, par.</i>	<i>Notwithstanding, malgré.</i>
<i>Except, excepté.</i>	<i>With, avec, à, de.</i>
<i>Excepting, hormis.</i>	<i>Without, sans.</i>

N. B.—Of, de, expresses :

1^o Possession.

*Ex. : The book of Peter.
Le livre de Pierre.*

2^o Affinity :

*Ex. : The son of James.
Le fils de Jacques.*

3^o Quality :

*Ex. : A man of virtue.
Un homme de vertu.*

4^o Substance :

*Ex. : A house of stone.
Une maison de pierre.*

From, de, expresses :

1^o Remoteness and separation.

*Ex. : I come from New-York.
Je viens de New-York.
The letter comes from my father.
La lettre vient de mon père.*

2^o Origin, cause.

*Ex. : The English are descended from the
Saxons.*

*Les Anglais descendent des Saxons
He did it from hatred.
Il l'a fait par haine.*

In, en, dans, denotes rest, or motion in the same place.

Ex. : I am, I walk in my room.

Je suis, je marche dans ma chambre.

In is also used with the name of a country, or of a capital.

Ex. : He is in England.

Il est en Angleterre.

He is in London.

Il est à Londres.

At is used before towns and villages.

Ex. : At Montreal, at Quebec.

A Montréal, à Québec.

Nevertheless, we often use *in* instead of *at* especially in conversation.

Ex. : He is in Quebec, in Montreal.

Il est à Québec, à Montréal.

Into expresses entrance, or a passing from the outside of a thing to its interior.

Ex. : You are out of the garden, come into it.

Vous êtes hors du jardin, entrez-y.

Come into the house.

Venez dans la maison.

It also indicates the passing of a thing from one form or state to another.

Ex. : Ice is convertible into water, and water into vapour.

La glace peut se convertir en eau, et l'eau en vapeur.

To translate French into English.

Traduire du français en anglais.

To and at.

T_e denotes : 1^o Motion towards a place.

Ex. : I am going to Niagara.
Je vais à Niagara.

2^o The person in consideration of whom an action is made.

Ex. : I gave an apple to my sister.
Je donnai une pomme à ma sœur.

3^o The reason of an action.

Ex. : I come to see you.
Je viens vous voir.

A_t expresses an idea of direction, and is also used before the name of the person against whom an action is directed.

Ex. : They are firing at a mark.
Ils tirent à la cible.
 They laughed at me.
Ils se moquèrent de moi.
 They throw the stone at me.
Ils me jettent la pierre.

By and with.

B_y denotes the agent, the principal cause.

Ex. : The city was destroyed by fire.
La ville fut détruite par le feu.
 This table was made by the joiner.
Cette table fut faite par le menuisier.

W_{it}h denotes the instrument with which an action is made.

- Ex. : We supplied the poor with bread.
Nous donnâmes du pain aux pauvres.
 They surrounded the city with a wall.
Ils entourèrent la ville d'un mur.

On and over.

On denotes the state of a person, or a thing, lying on something.

- Ex. : The patient is on his bed.
Le malade est sur son lit.
 The book is on the desk.
Le livre est sur le pupitre.

Over denotes a superposition without any contact.

- Ex. : The fly flew over the table.
La mouche vola au-dessus de la table.
 The eagle hovered over us.
L'aigle planait sur nous.

N. B.—Some prepositions are sometimes used alone after a verb, they are then taken as adverbs and modify the signification of the verb.

- To go up, *monter*; to go down, *descendre*;
 to go in, *entrer*.

The following prepositions are often used as adverbs.

About.	In.	Over.
Across.	Near.	Past.
Along.	Off.	Round.
By.	On.	Through.
Down.	Out.	Up.

Some words may be prepositions, adverbs or conjunctions. Such are : *After, before, since, etc.*

Ex. : The book is before me.

Le livre est devant moi.

I shall come before you have finished.

Je viendrais avant que vous ayez fini.

It would have been better to come before.

Il aurait été mieux de venir avant.

COMPOUND PREPOSITIONS.

This denomination may be given to an assemblage of words used instead of a preposition

According to, *selon, d'après*. In respect of, *sous le rapport de*.

As for, as to, *quant à*.

Because of, *à cause de*.

But for, *sans*.

By dint of, *à force de*.

By means of, *au moyen de*.

By virtue of, *en vertu de*.

Close to, *tout près de*.

Down to, *jusqu'à*

Even with, *au niveau de*.

Far from, *loin de*.

For fear of, *de crainte de*.

For the sake of, *pour l'amour de*.

Up to, *jusqu'à*.

With respect to, *relative-
ment à*.

For want of, *faute de*.

N. B.—A preposition generally comes before its object; but sometimes, especially in conversation, it is separated from it and placed at the end of the sentence.

Ex. : Whom do you speak to ?

A qui parlez vous ?

The man whom I speak of ?

L'homme dont je parle.

Where do you come from ?

D'où venez-vous ?

CHAPTER VII.

OF THE ADVERB.

An adverb is a word which is used to modify a verb, an adjective or another adverb.

Ex. : This child walks slowly.

Cet enfant marche doucement.

This man is extremely good.

Cet homme est extrêmement bon.

He acted most wisely.

Il a agi très sagement.

There are commonly reckoned eight modifications expressed by adverbs.

1^o Manner.

5^o Interrogation.

2^o Time.

6^o Affirmation.

3^o Place.

7^o Negation.

4^o Degree, or quantity.

8^o Doubt.

Manner.

Adverbs of manner are formed from adjectives, by adding the termination *ly*, which is the short form of *like*. Those adverbs are the most numerous, they answer the French adverbs in *ment*.

Ex. : Brave, *brave*; bravely, *bravement*.

Wise; *sage*; wisely, *sagement*.

N. B. — 1^o Adjectives ending in *ly* do not change when used as adverbs.

Ex.: *Hourly, à toute heure.*

Daily, journellement.

2^o Adjectives in *ble* change *e* into *y*, to become adverbs.

Ex.: *Noble, nobly; noblement.*

3^o Adjectives in *y* preceded by a consonant change *y* into *i* before *ly*.

Ex.: *Merry, gai; merrily, gaîment.*

4^o Adjectives in their ordinary form are sometimes used as adverbs.

Ex.: *The flowers of the garden smell sweet.*

Les fleurs du jardin sentent bon.

Adverbs of time.

<i>Ago, il y a, passé.</i>	<i>Now and then, de temps en temps.</i>
<i>After, après, ensuite.</i>	
<i>Again, encore, de nouveau.</i>	<i>Often, souvent.</i>
<i>Always, toujours.</i>	<i>Once, une fois.</i>
<i>Already, déjà.</i>	<i>Seldom, rarement.</i>
<i>Before, avant, auparavant.</i>	<i>Since, depuis.</i>
<i>By and by, tantôt.</i>	<i>Sometimes, quelquefois.</i>
<i>Early, de bonne heure.</i>	<i>Soon, bientôt.</i>
<i>Ever, jamais (sans négation).</i>	<i>Still, encore, toujours.</i>
<i>First, at first, d'abord.</i>	<i>Then, alors.</i>
<i>Late, tard.</i>	<i>To-day, aujourd'hui.</i>
<i>Long, longtemps.</i>	<i>To-morrow, demain.</i>
<i>Never, jamais.</i>	<i>To-night, ce soir.</i>
<i>Now, maintenant.</i>	<i>Yesterday, hier.</i>
<i>Now...now, tantôt!...tantôt. Ye', encore.</i>	

Place.

Above, <i>en haut, ci-dessus.</i>	Inside, <i>dédans.</i>
Around, <i>autour.</i>	Inwards, <i>intérieurement.</i>
Away, <i>au loin.</i>	Near, <i>près.</i>
Backward, <i>en arrière.</i>	There, <i>là.</i>
Before, <i>devant.</i>	Thither, <i>là (with motion).</i>
Behind, <i>derrière.</i>	Thence, <i>de là.</i>
Below, <i>dessous.</i>	Upwards, <i>en haut.</i>
Beneath, <i>dessous.</i>	Up and down, <i>gù et là.</i>
Downwards, <i>en bas.</i>	Where, <i>où.</i>
Far, <i>loin.</i>	Whither, <i>où (with motion).</i>
Forth, <i>en avant.</i>	Whence, <i>d'où.</i>
Forward, <i>en avant.</i>	Within, <i>en dedans.</i>
Here, <i>ici.</i>	Without, <i>en dehors.</i>
Hither, <i>ici (with motion).</i>	Yonder, <i>là-bas.</i>
Hence, <i>d'ici.</i>	

Degree or quantity.

About, <i>environ.</i>	Little, <i>peu.</i>
Almost, <i>presque.</i>	Much, <i>beaucoup, (quantity).</i>
But, <i>seulement que.</i>	Many, <i>beaucoup, (number).</i>
Enough, <i>assez.</i>	Only, <i>seulement.</i>
Far, <i>beaucoup.</i>	Pretty, <i>assez.</i>
Hardly, <i>à peine</i>	Quite, <i>tout à fait.</i>
How far, <i>combien, (distance).</i>	Rather, <i>assez.</i>
How long, <i>combien, (time).</i>	Scarcely, <i>à peine.</i>
How much, <i>combien, (quantity).</i>	Somewhat, <i>un peu.</i>
How many, <i>combien, (number).</i>	Thoroughly, <i>entièrement.</i>
	Too, <i>trop.</i>
	Very, <i>bien, très.</i>

Interrogation.

How, <i>comment ?</i>	Why, <i>pourquoi ?</i>
How much, <i>combien ? (quantity).</i>	Where, <i>où ?</i>
How many, <i>combien ? (number).</i>	Whither, <i>où ?</i>

Affirmation.

<i>Ay, Aye, oui.</i>	<i>Just so, précisément.</i>
<i>By all means, certainement.</i>	<i>Nay, bien plus.</i>
<i>Certainly, assurément.</i>	<i>Of course, naturellement.</i>
<i>Faith, ma foi.</i>	<i>Truly, vraiment.</i>
<i>Forsooth, assurément.</i>	<i>Undoubtedly, sans doute.</i>
<i>Indeed, vraiment.</i>	<i>Yes, oui.</i>

Negation.

<i>By no means, aucunement.</i>	<i>Not, ne pas.</i>
<i>Nay, non.</i>	<i>No ways, nullement.</i>
<i>No, non.</i>	<i>Not at all, pas du tout.</i>

Doubt.

<i>May be, peut-être.</i>	<i>Possibly, peut-être.</i>
<i>Perhaps, peut-être.</i>	<i>Probably, probablement.</i>

OBSERVATIONS ON ADVERBS.

1º The English language has four adverbs to translate the French word *encore*.

Encore, expressing the continuation of an action, must be translated by *still*.

Ex. : He is still in his family.

Il est encore dans sa famille.

Encore, meaning the repetition of an action, is translated by *again*.

Ex. : I went there last year, I shall go again this year.

Je suis allé là l'année dernière, j'irai encore cette année.

Encore is translated by *yet*, when it expresses an

action which is to come ; in such cases, *yet* is generally preceded by *not*.

Ex. : We have not yet finished.

Nous n'avons pas encore fini.

Lastly, *encore*, meaning *davantage*, is translated by *more*.

Ex. : I want some more.

Il m'en faut encore.

2^o Instead of *here*, *there*, *where*, we may use *hither*, *hence*; *thither*, *thence*; *whither*, *whence*; with verbs of motion.

Ex. : Whence do you come ?

D'où venez-vous ?

Whither do you go ?

Où allez-vous ?

I go thither.

Je vais là.

3^o *Where* is used to form the compound adverbs of place.

Anywhere, *n'importe où*.

Elsewhere, *ailleurs*.

Everywhere, *partout*.

Nowhere, *nulle part*.

Somewhere, *quelque part*.

Wherever, *partout où*.

4^o The French adverb *assez* may be translated into English in three different ways.

Enough, meaning sufficiently.

Ex. : He is rich enough.

Il est assez riche.

Pretty, meaning to a certain degree.

Ex. : I feel pretty well.

Je me porte assez bien.

Rather.

Ex. : A rather considerable town.

Une ville assez considérable.

That is, a town which is rather considerable than not.

Enough generally comes after the word which it modifies.

Ex. : You have eaten enough.

Vous avez assez mangé.

5° Like adjectives, some adverbs may have a comparative in *er*, and a superlative in *est*.

Ex. : Soon, *tôt* ; sooner, the soonest.

Often, *souvent* ; oftener, the oftenest.

6° Adverbs in *ly* are compared by *more* and *the most*.

Ex. : Wisely, *sagement* ; more wisely, the most wisely.

7° Some adverbs have an irregular comparison.

Badly, ill, *mal* ; worse, the worst.

Far, *loin* ; farther, the farthest.

Forth, *en avant* ; further, the furthest.

Little, *peu* ; less, the least.

Much, *beaucoup* ; more, the most.

Well, *bien* ; better, the best.

CONSTRUCTION OF THE ADVERB.

The adverb should be placed near the word it modifies.

1^o Before the adjective.

Ex.: Your fruits are really good.
Vos fruits sont réellement bons.

2^o After the verb, in simple tenses.

Ex.: You speak prudently.
Vous parlez prudemment.

3^o Between the auxiliary and the participle, in compound tenses.

Ex.: He will surely come here.
Il viendra sûrement ici.

4^o Adverbs of time are generally placed before the verb in simple tenses.

Ex.: We often come to see them.
Nous venons souvent les voir.

5^o When an active-transitive verb has a direct object; this object must never be separated from the verb by an adverb.

Ex.: He tenderly loves his son.
He loves his son tenderly.
Il aime tendrement son fils.

CHAPTER VIII.

OF THE CONJUNCTION.

A conjunction is a part of speech that is used to connect words and sentences.

Ex.: Peter plays and John works.

Pierre joue et Jean travaille.

Two and two are four.

Deux et deux font quatre.

Conjunctions are either **copulative** or **disjunctive**.

A **copulative conjunction** serves to connect, or to continue a sentence by expressing a supposition, an addition or a cause.

Ex.: I will go, if he accompany me.

J'irai s'il m'accompagne.

Peter, Paul and Andrew work.

Pierre, Paul et André travaillent.

You are happy because you are good.

Vous êtes heureux parce que vous êtes bons.

A **disjunctive conjunction** serves, not only to connect or to continue, but also to express an opposition of meaning.

Ex.: Peter or Paul works.

Pierre ou Paul travaille.

Though he was frequently corrected, yet he did not reform.

Quoiqu'il ait été fréquemment repris, il ne s'est pas corrigé.

Conjunctions may be divided into two other classes: conjunctions of coordination and conjunctions of subordination.

Conjunctions of coordination are those which merely serve to connect independent propositions.

Ex. : Peter plays and Paul works.

Pierre joue et Paul travaille.

Neither my brother, nor my sister is there.

Ni mon frère, ni ma sœur ne sont là.

Also, aussi.

For, car.

And, et.

Neither.....nor, ni.....ni.

Both.....and, et.....et.

Now, or.

But, mais.

Still, pourtant.

Either.....or, ou.....ou.

Then, donc.

Else, autrement.

Too, aussi. Yet, toutefois.

Conjunctions of subordination are those which are used to connect dependent propositions.

Ex. : I shall come when you have finished.

Je viendrai quand vous aurez fini.

After, après que.

Though, quoique.

As, comme.

That, afin que.

Before, avant que.

Than, que.

Ere, avant que.

Till, jusqu'à ce que.

If, si.

Unless, à moins que.

Lest, de peur que.

Whether, si.

Provided, pourvu que.

Whether.....or, soit.....que.

Since, puisque.

When, quand, lorsque.

So, pourvu que.

While, whilst, pendant que.

CONJUNCTIVE PARTICLES.

They are expressions or words used instead of conjunctions.

Coordination.

<i>As well as, ainsi que.</i>	<i>Nevertheless, néanmoins.</i>
<i>Because, parce que.</i>	<i>Not only, non seulement.</i>
<i>Besides, d'ailleurs.</i>	<i>Or else, ou bien.</i>
<i>However, cependant.</i>	<i>Therefore, c'est pourquoi.</i>
<i>Moreover, de plus.</i>	<i>Wherefore, pourquoi.</i>

Subordination.

<i>According as, suivant que.</i>	<i>In as much as, attendu que.</i>
<i>Although, quoique.</i>	<i>In case, en cas que.</i>
<i>As.....as, aussi.....que.</i>	<i>Just as, au moment même où.</i>
<i>As if, as though, comme si.</i>	<i>Now that, maintenant que.</i>
<i>As long as, tant que.</i>	<i>On condition that, à condi-</i>
<i>As much as, autant que.</i>	<i>tion que.</i>
<i>As often as, aussi souvent que.</i>	<i>So.....as, si.....que.</i>
<i>As soon as, aussitôt que.</i>	<i>So much.....that, tant.....que.-</i>
<i>For as much as, attendu que.</i>	<i>So that, de sorte que.</i>
<i>For fear, de crainte que.</i>	<i>Unless, à moins que.</i>
<i>In order that, afin que.</i>	<i>Until, jusqu'à ce que.</i>
<i>In so much that, d'autant que.</i>	<i>Whene'er, chaque fois que.</i>
	<i>Whereas, vu que.</i>

CORRESPONSIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

This denomination is given to conjunctions which are always used in pairs, so that one corresponds to the other. Care should be taken to give them the right place in the sentence.

THOUGH....YET. Ex. : Though he was corrected, yet
he did not reform.

Quoiqu'il fut repris, il ne se corrigea pas.

WHETHER....OR. Ex. : Whether there be few or many.
Qu'il y en ait peu ou plusieurs.

EITHER....OR. Ex. : He was either ashamed or
afraid.

Ou il avait honte, ou il avait peur

NEITHER....NOR. Ex. : He came neither eating nor
drinking.

Il vint ne mangeant ni ne buvant.

BOTH....AND. Ex. : I am debtor both to my father
and to my uncle.

Je suis débiteur de mon père et de mon oncle.

SUCH....AS. Ex. : Such a meeting, as earth saw
never.

Une assemblée telle que la terre n'en vit jamais.

SUCH....THAT, with a noun, and a finite verb follow-
ing *that*, to express a consequence.

Ex. : My weakness is such that I
cannot go.

Ma faiblesse est telle que je ne puis y aller.

As....AS, with an adjective or an adverb, to express
equality.

Ex. : He is as wise as his brother.

Il est aussi sage que son frère.

As much....as, with a participle, to express equality.

Ex. : He was as much admired as his brother.

Il était aussi admiré que son frère.

As....so, to express similitude or proportion.

Ex. : As two is to four, so six is to twelve.

Comme deux est à quatre, ainsi six est à douze

So....as, with an adjective or an adverb, to limit a degree, by comparison.

Ex. : How can you despise a thing so noble as self-devotion ?

Comment pouvez-vous mépriser une chose aussi noble que le dévouement ?

So....as, with adjectives and adverbs, to deny equality.

Ex. : He was not so good as his sister.

Il n'était pas aussi bon que sa sœur.

He did not speak so prudently as his brother.

*Il ne parla pas aussi prudem-
ment que son frère.*

So much....as, with a participle, to deny equality.

Ex. : He is not so much esteemed as his father.

Il n'est pas si estimé que son père.

So....as, followed by the infinitive mood, to express a consequence.

Ex. : The difficulty was so great as to discourage him.

La difficulté était assez grande pour le décourager.

So....that, followed by a finite verb, to express a consequence.

Ex. : He is so weak that he cannot work.

Il est si faible qu'il ne peut pas travailler.

So much....that, with a participle, in the same case.

Ex. : He was so much injured that he could not walk.

Il était si blessé qu'il ne pouvait marcher.

N. B.—The French conjunction *que*, placed between two verbs, must be translated by *that*, which is generally omitted after the verbs *to tell*, *to hear*, *to know* and their equivalents.

Ex. : I told you you would be sick.

Je vous disais que vous seriez malade.

I knew it was better to stay.

Je savais que c'était mieux de rester.

CHAPTER IX.

OF THE INTERJECTION.

An interjection is a word that is used to express some strong or sudden emotion of the mind, as joy, surprise, etc., etc.

Ah ! Ah !
 Alas ! Hélas !
 Bravo ! Bravo !
 Bless me ! Bon Dieu !
 Come ! Allons !
 Dear me ! Mon Dieu !
 Eh ! Eh !
 Fie ! Ety ! Ety !
 Farewell ! Adieu !
 Hail ! Salut !
 Hark ! Ecoutez !
 Hush ! Chut !

Hold ! Hold !
 How ! What ! Comment ! Quoi !
 Hurrah ! Hourra !
 Indeed ! En vérité !
 Lo ! Voyez !
 Lord ! Seigneur !
 Oh ! O ! Oh ! O !
 Bahaw ! Bah !
 Pugh ! Pouah !
 Right ! Bon !
 Well ! Eh bien !
 Why ! Comment !

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

Syntax is that part of grammar which treats of the agreement and construction of words and propositions in a sentence.

Hence, two syntaxes :

- 1° Syntax of words.
- 2° Syntax of propositions.

A proposition is the utterance of a thought.

In the utterance of any definite thought, there are three terms : *the subject, the verb and the attribute.*

The subject is the person or thing spoken of.

Ex. : Peter is tall.

Pierre est grand.

The verb is the word used to connect the attribute to the subject.

Ex. : God is good.

Dieu est bon.

The verb is used to connect *good* to *God*.

The attribute is that which is said of the subject. In the preceding examples, *good* and *tall* are attributes.

N. B. — The verb is always *to be*; but sometimes it

is comprised in the attributive verb, as mentioned before.

Ex. : Peter speaks.

Peter is speaking.

Agreement. Those three terms have, with one another, a concord in gender, number and person ; this concord is called *agreement*.

Complements. The subject, the verb and the attribute are sometimes followed by other words which complete their signification ; those words are called *complements*.

AGREEMENT.

CHAPTER I.

AGREEMENT OF THE VERB WITH ITS SUBJECT.

This boy is good.

Every English verb must agree, in number and person, with its subject.

Ex. : This boy is good.

Ce garçon est bon.

They work well.

When the subject is a pronoun, it must be expressed, but never doubled as in French.

Ex. : They work well.

Ils travaillent bien.

We will not do that.

Nous, nous ne ferons pas cela.

James and John study.

When a verb has several subjects connected by conjunctions expressed or understood, it agrees with them in the plural number.

Ex. : James, John and Henry study.

Jacques, Jean et Henri étudient.

N. B.—Sometimes, the subjects connected represent the same person or the same thing, the verb must then be singular.

Ex. : This philosopher and statesman was always happy.

Ce philosophe et homme d'état fut toujours heureux.

2^o When one of the subjects, connected by *and*, is preceded by a negation, the verb agrees with the other subject.

Ex. : Virtue and not wealth renders man happy.
C'est la vertu et non pas la richesse qui rend l'homme heureux.

3^o If the subjects connected are really different, but generally considered as forming only one thing in their use, the verb may be singular.

Ex. : Bread and butter is wholesome.

Le pain et le beurre sont un aliment sain.

You, he and I are grateful.

When the subjects (pronouns) are of different persons, they are not summed up as in French.

Ex. : You, he and I are grateful.

Vous, lui et moi, nous sommes reconnaissants.

According to the rule given, the word *nous*, which is used to sum up the subjects, is not translated.

N. B. — In English, as well as in French, when the nominatives are of *different persons*, the verb agrees with the first person in preference to the second, and with the second in preference to the third.

Neither Peter nor Paul studies.

When a verb has two or more singular nominatives connected by *either . . . or*, *neither . . . nor*, or any other disjunctive conjunction, it agrees with the last one.

Ex. : Neither Peter nor Paul studies.

Ni Pierre ni Paul n'étudient.

Neither you nor I am right.

Ni vous ni moi nous n'avons raison.

N. B. — 1^o When one of the subjects connected by *either . . . or*, *neither . . . nor*, is plural, the verb must be plural. It is then preferable to place the plural subject immediately before the verb.

Ex. : He or his brothers are there.

Lui ou ses frères sont là.

2^o Nouns which have only the plural form want a plural verb.

Ex. : Great pains were taken.

On se donna beaucoup de peine.

However, *news* meaning *nouvelle* wants a singular verb.

Ex. : This news is good.

Cette nouvelle est bonne.

INFINITIVE AND IMPERFECT PARTICIPLE.

To rise early is good for the health.

In English, the imperfect participle as well as the infinitive may be used as subject or attribute to a proposition.

Ex. : *To rise early is good for the health.*

Rising early is good for the health.

Se laver de bonne heure est bon pour la santé.

Your best is to rise early.

Your best is rising early.

N. B. — 1° Careful attention must be paid to the difference existing between the infinitive and the imperfect participle.

The infinitive merely expresses action.

The imperfect participle expresses the continuance of the action.

2° When two or more infinitives are used as subjects, the preposition *to* must not be repeated, except for the sake of emphasis.

Ex. : *To read, write and sing are useful.*

Lire, écrire et chanter sont utiles.

To read and to write were necessary for a man to become a mayor.

Lire et écrire étaient nécessaires à un homme, pour devenir maire.

The studying of philosophy is useful.

When the imperfect participle is used as a noun, it does not retain the direct object it has in French ; the

preposition *of* must be inserted between the participle and the object.

Ex. : The studying of philosophy is useful.

L'étude de la philosophie est utile.

Etudier la philosophie est utile.

Of, in this example, is used to govern the object, *philosophy*, which is no longer the object of *studying*.

N. B. — The foregoing rule is for a participle which is taken in all respects as a noun ; if we use it as a real verb, it retains its object.

Ex. : Studying philosophy is useful.

Etudier la philosophie est utile.

Avoid reading bad books.

Evitez de lire des livres mauvais.

COLLECTIVE SUBJECT OR NOMINATIVE.

The meeting were divided.

When the subject is a collective noun conveying the idea of plurality, the verb must be plural ; but, when it conveys the idea of unity, the verb agrees with it in the singular number.

Ex. : The meeting were divided.

L'assemblée était divisée.

The meeting do not agree.

L'assemblée ne s'accorde pas.

The meeting was unanimous.

L'assemblée fut unanime.

The meeting agrees.

L'assemblée s'accorde.

N. B.—Whether the collective nominative conveys the idea of unity or plurality depends on the nature of the attribute. When the attribute expresses a thing that refers to individuals separately, so that they cannot be considered as forming a *whole*, the verb must be plural, as in the example aforesaid, "*The meeting were divided*"; the word *divided*, which is the attribute, means that they differed in their opinions, and so, did not form a whole.

On the contrary, in the second example, "*The meeting was unanimous*," the word, "*unanimous* (the attribute), signifies that the members, having only one idea, formed a *whole*: consequently the verb must be singular.

Some collective nouns, such as *mankind*, *clergy*, *people*, *board*, *commission*, *committee*, *council*, *court*, generally require a plural verb.

Ex.: *The court are disposed to give them what they want.*

La cour est disposée à leur donner ce qu'ils désirent.

When the collective subject requires a plural verb, it likewise requires a plural pronoun.

Ex.: *The council disagreed in their opinions.*

Le conseil ne fut pas d'accord dans ses opinions.

The council agreed in its opinions.

Le conseil fut d'accord dans ses opinions.

Observations on the translation of the French indefinite pronoun " ON ".

Among the French indefinite pronouns, there is one which deserves a special attention. This pronoun is " On ", which is translated into English in several ways.

One must suffer on earth.

" On " used in a general sense, or in its widest sense, ought to be translated by *we*, *one*, *people*, *a man*, *men*, and sometimes *a woman*, *women*. In these cases, *on* generally represents all men, even the speaker.

Ex. : One must suffer on earth.

A man must suffer on earth.

We must suffer on earth.

On doit souffrir sur la terre.

One cannot be everywhere.

On ne peut pas être partout.

A woman is not unhappy because she is poor.

On n'est pas malheureuse, parce qu'on est pauvre.

They saw terrible things in 1812.

" On " is translated by *they* when its meaning is limited; that is, when it represents a certain number of persons, such as the people of a country, of a city, the persons of a house.

Ex. : They saw terrible things in 1812.

On vit des choses terribles en 1812.

They are going to plant trees in this garden.

On va planter des arbres dans ce jardin.

Somebody came here to see you.

"*On*" is sometimes used to represent only one person; it is then translated by *somebody* or *some one*; *anybody*, *any one*.

Ex. : Somebody came here to see you.

On est venu ici pour vous voir.

Did anybody send for me?

M'a-t-on envoyé chercher?

N. B. — As a general rule, the pronoun "*On*" may be translated by the passive form, whenever it is possible to do so.

Ex. : Terrible things were seen in 1812.

Trees will be planted in this garden.

I am asked to go there.

On me demande d'aller là.

I am taught grammar.

On m'enseigne la grammaire.

I was advised to do it.

On me conseilla de le faire.

We were told he was there.

On nous dit qu'il était là.

Observations on the translation of the French demonstrative pronoun "CE."

I know your sister, she is a good person.

The French pronoun *ce*, representing a noun previously expressed or understood, must be translated by *he*, *she*, *it*, or *they*, according to the noun which *ce* represents.

THE FRENCH DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUN " CE " 127

Ex. : Here is my brother, he is a rich man.

Voici mon frère, c'est un homme riche.

Here is my sister, she is a good person.

Voici ma sœur, c'est une bonne personne.

Look at my house, it is a good building.

Voyez ma maison, c'est une bonne bâtie.

You know my servants, they are good men.

Vous connaissez mes serviteurs, ce sont de bons hommes.

It is I. It is they.

The French *c'est*, followed by a personal pronoun, is translated into English by the nearer personal pronoun of the third person; the verb *to be* agrees with this pronoun.

Ex. : It is I ; *c'est moi.*

It is he ; *c'est lui.*

It is we ; *c'est nous.*

It was they ; *c'était eux.*

The French expressions, *c'est moi qui*, etc., *c'est lui que*, etc., etc., are translated by *it is*, *it was*, etc.

Ex. : It is I that spoke.

C'est moi qui ai parlé.

It was you that I wanted to see.

C'était vous que je voulais voir.

It is Peter that spoke.

C'est Pierre qui a parlé.

Champlain was a great man.

When *que*, in the expression *c'est . . . que*, is not a relative pronoun, it is not translated.

Ex. : Champlain was a great man.

C'était un grand homme que Champlain.

Drunkenness is a dangerous passion.

C'est une dangereuse passion que l'ivrognerie.

Sin is death.

In some cases, *ce* or *c'est* is an expletive, that is, a word which is not necessary to the meaning of the sentence; then, we do not translate it.

Ex. : Sin is death.

Le péché, c'est la mort.

Do you speak ?

Est-ce que is not translated into English, but the verb takes the interrogative form.

Ex. : Do you speak ?

Est-ce que vous parlez ?

It is good luck to have succeeded.

C'est....que de followed by an infinitive, is translated by, *it is....to*, *it was....to*, without translating *que*, which is an expletive.

Ex. : It is good luck to have succeeded in this hard undertaking.

C'est une bonne chance que d'avoir réussi dans cette difficile entreprise.

Among the Gentiles, it was folly to worship Jesus.

Parmi les Gentils, c'était une folie que d'adorer Jésus.

Ce n'est pas que is translated by *not that*, or, *it is not because*.

AGREEMENT OF THE ATTRIBUTE WITH THE SUBJECT. 129

Ex. : Not that he fears me, but he likes peace.
It is not because he fears me, but he likes
peace.

Ce n'est pas qu'il me craigne, mais il aime la paix.

It is our turn to play.

The French *c'est à moi*, *c'est à vous*, *c'est à eux*, etc.,
etc., are translated by *it is my*, *it is your*, *it is their*
etc., part, duty, business, turn, according to the mean-
ing of the sentence.

Ex. : It is our turn to play.

C'est à nous de jouer.

It is our duty to apologize.

C'est à nous de faire des excuses.

It is with life as with a journey.

Il en est de.... comme de, is translated by *it is with*
....as with.

Ex. : It is with life as with a journey.

Il en est de la vie comme d'un voyage ;
or, more simply :

Life is a journey.

AGREEMENT OF THE ATTRIBUTE WITH THE SUBJECT.

The attribute may be a noun, an adjective or a
participle.

1^o When the attribute is a noun, it must be preceded
by *a* or *an* in the singular.

Ex. : My brother is a joiner.
Mon frère est menuisier.

He was formerly a sailor; he is now a farmer.

Il était jadis marin, il est maintenant fermier.

He is a Frenchman.

Il est français.

She is an Irishwoman.

Elle est irlandaise.

In the plural number, the attribute wants no determinative adjective.

Ex. : They were formerly joiners, they are now farmers.

Ils étaient menuisiers, ils sont maintenant fermiers.

The blind are unhappy.

When the attribute is an adjective, it is never varied, even when taken as a noun.

Ex. : The blind are unhappy.

Les aveugles sont malheureux.

The poor are sometimes wicked.

Les pauvres sont quelquefois mauvais.

Look at these children, they are blind boys.

When the attribute is an adjective taken as a noun, it must never be used alone when it represents only one person or a certain number of persons.

Ex. : Look at these children, they are blind boys.

Voyez ces enfants, ce sont des aveugles.

Look at this child, he is a blind boy.

Regardez cet enfant, c'est un aveugle.

They are Frenchmen, Irishmen.
Ils sont français, irlandais.

N. B. — An adjective is sometimes used as a noun, in the singular, to express an abstraction.

Ex.: The beautiful, the sublime.
Le beau, le sublime.

APPOSITION.

A noun or a personal pronoun, used to explain a preceding noun or pronoun, is put, by apposition, in the same case.

Ex.: I saw your friends, them whom we met at the play-ground.

J'ai vu vos amis, ceux que nous avons rencontrés à la cour de récréation.

Alexander, a great king and conqueror, gave laws to all nations.

Alexandre, grand roi et grand conquérant, donna des lois à toutes les nations.

Apposition is then the use of some additional words, to explain a noun or a pronoun coming before.

N. B. — 1^o Before the noun used by apposition, we employ the indefinite adjective *a* or *an*, to express quality, and the definite article *the*, to determinate.

Ex.: My master, a good and just man, gave me good advices.

Mon maître, homme bon et juste, me donna de bons conseils.

Paul, the son of James, is a bad fellow.

Paul, fils de Jacques, est un mauvais sujet.

2^o Before some names of titles, preceded by proper nouns, we do not use the article.

Ex. : Louis the Fourteenth, King of France.

Louis XIV, roi de France.

Victoria, Queen of England.

Victoria, reine d'Angleterre.

Napoleon, Emperor of the French.

Napoléon, empereur des Français.

3^o Careful attention should be paid to the first rule given, which says that the word used in apposition must always be in the same case as the term explained.

Ex. : I received a letter from my brother, him whom you met last week.

J'ai reçu une lettre de mon frère, celui que vous rencontraîtes la semaine dernière.

In this example, *brother* is in the objective case on account of the preposition *from*; the explanatory term must be likewise in the objective case. It is the reason why we say *him* and not *he*.

COMPLEMENTS.

CHAPTER II.

COMPLEMENT OF THE NOUN.

This denomination is given to the words which are used to complete the signification of a noun.

Ex. : The book of my sister.

My sister is object to the preposition *of*, and completes the meaning of *book*, by expressing a special relation, the relation of property.

My sister's book.

The relation of property may be expressed either by *of* or by the possessive form.

Ex. : *My sister's book.*

The book of my sister.

Le livre de ma sœur.

The 's is used only with persons or things personified; with neuter nouns and adjectives taken as nouns, *of* is to be used.

Ex. : *The gate of the garden.*

La porte du jardin.

The wars of the Greeks.

Les guerres des Grecs.

N. B. — The 's is used, by exception, with some names of things.

Ex. : *To-day's work.*

L'ouvrage d'aujourd'hui.

To-morrow's lessons.

Les leçons de demain.

Yesterday's recreation.

La récréation d'hier.

The thirty years' war.

La guerre de trente ans.

Morris's store.

With singular nouns ending in *s*, we add the 's of possession.

Ex. : The house is opposite to Morris's store.

La maison est située vis-à-vis du magasin de Morris.

James's hat.

Le chapeau de Jacques.

With singular nouns of more than two syllables ending in *s*, the apostrophe alone is used:

Ex. : Socrates' wife.

La femme de Socrate.

Plural nouns, ending in *s*, follow the same rule, that is, take only an apostrophe.

Ex. : My friends' houses.

Les maisons de mes amis.

With nouns which do not take *s* in the plural, we use the '*s*'.

Ex. : Men's clothes.

Des hardes d'hommes.

My brother Philip's house.

When several words form the name of the possessor, the last word alone takes the '*s*'.

My brother Philip's house.

La maison de mon frère Philippe.

The kings of France's palaces.

Les palais des rois de France.

Peter, Paul and Annie's uncle.

When the same object belongs to several possessors, the last one takes the '*s*'.

Ex. : Peter, Paul and Annie's uncle.

L'oncle de Pierre, de Paul et d'Anne.

I got this watch at Duquet's, an old established jeweller.

The name of the possessor is sometimes followed by terms used in apposition, or by explanatory terms ; the name of the possessor alone takes the 's.

Ex. : I got this watch at Duquet's, an old established jeweller.

J'ai acheté cette montre chez Duquet, un vieux bijoutier.

I like to read Milton's, Byron's, and Shakespeare's good passages.

When the object is different for different possessors, the 's must be repeated after each noun.

Ex. : I like to read Milton's, Byron's and Shakespeare's good passages.

J'aime à lire les bons passages de Milton, de Byron et de Shakespeare.

The sister of Peter's friend.

As said before, the relation of property may be expressed either by *of* or by the 's. Of these forms, we should adopt that which will render the sentence the clearest and the most agreeable ; by the use of both, we may avoid an unpleasant repetition of either.

Ex. : The sister of Peter's friend.

La sœur de l'ami de Pierre.

Peter's friend's sister, though correct, would not be so elegant.

St. Paul's in London.

In some instances, the governing noun is understood.

Ex. : St. Paul's in London.

St-Paul de Londres.

That is : St. Paul's church in London.

He studies at Thom's.

Il étudie à l'école de Thom.

The words so understood are generally *church*, *college*, *house*, *palace*, *school*, etc.

Ex. : I am at my sister's.

Je suis chez ma sœur.

I am going to my brother's.

Je vais chez mon frère.

N. B. — This construction is used, as may be seen by the preceding examples, to translate the French *chez* followed by a noun.

Celui de, *cel·le de*, etc., followed by a noun are translated in the same way.

Ex. : This book is my aunt's.

Ce livre est celui de ma tante.

A house of my father's.

The English sometimes use a double possessive case, when the possessor has several of the objects mentioned.

Ex. : A house of my father's.

Une des maisons de mon père.

That is : A house among my father's houses.

A friend of mine.

Un de mes amis.

That is : A friend among my friends.

He is physician to the king.

To is sometimes used instead of *of or 's*; in such cases, the article is not used before the first noun.

Ex. : He is physician to the king.

He is the physician of the king.

Il est le médecin du roi.

N. B. — Nouns derived from verbs or corresponding to them, take the same prepositions as those verbs.

Ex. : To comply with ;	compliance with.
<i>Condescendre à ;</i>	<i>condescendance à.</i>
To confide in ;	confidence in ;
<i>S' fier à ;</i>	<i>confiance en.</i>

Ex. : He had great confidence in that man.
Il avait une grande confiance en cet homme.

It is time to read.

A noun is sometimes followed by *de* and a verb in the infinitive mood. In such instances *de* may be translated by *to* with the infinitive or by *of* and *for* with the imperfect participle.

Ex. : It is the time of speaking.
<i>C'est le temps de parler.</i>
It is time to speak.
<i>Il est temps de parler.</i>
It is not time to speak.
<i>Il n'est pas temps de parler.</i>
It is not the time for speaking.
<i>Ce n'est pas le temps de parler.</i>

CHAPTER III.

COMPLEMENT OF THE ADJECTIVE.

In English, as well as in French, prepositions are used to connect adjectives with their complements; but the preposition used with the English adjective does not always correspond to the preposition used with the French adjective.

Ex. : Good for,	<i>bon à.</i>
Sensible of,	<i>sensible à.</i>
Famous for,	<i>célèbre par.</i>

Here is a list of the most employed English adjectives with their prepositions.

"OF"

Afraid of ; <i>effrayé de.</i>	Desirous of ; <i>désireux de.</i>
Harmful of ; <i>harmieux de.</i>	Destitute of ; <i>dépourvu de.</i>
Ambitious of ; <i>ambitieux de.</i>	Dissident of ; <i>désiant de.</i>
Aware of ; <i>instruit de.</i>	Empty of ; <i>vide de.</i>
Bare of ; <i>dépourvu de.</i>	Emulous of ; <i>rival de.</i>
Capable of ; <i>capable de.</i>	Envious of ; <i>envieux de.</i>
Careful of ; <i>avignoux de.</i>	Enamoured of ; <i>épris de.</i>
Careless of ; <i>insouciant de.</i>	Fearful of ; <i>effrayé de.</i>
Certain of ; <i>certain de.</i>	Fearless of ; <i>sans crainte de.</i>
Clear of ; <i>exempt de.</i>	Fond of ; <i>sou de.</i>
Composed of ; <i>composé de.</i>	Forgetful of ; <i>oublier de.</i>
Confident of ; <i>assuré de.</i>	Full of ; <i>plein de.</i>
Conscious of ; <i>conscient de.</i>	Glad of ; <i>content de.</i>
Covetous of ; <i>avarice de.</i>	Guilty of ; <i>coupable de.</i>
Curious of ; <i>curieux de.</i>	Heedful of ; <i>attentif à.</i>
Deaf of ; <i>assourdi de.</i>	Heedless of ; <i>inattentif à.</i>

Ignorant of ; ignorant de.	Proud of ; fier de.
Ill of ; malade de.	Secure of ; sûr de.
Impatient of ; impatient de.	Sensible of ; sensible à.
Incapable of ; incapable de.	Sick of ; malade de.
Independent of ; indépendant de.	Sure of ; sûr de.
Innocent of ; innocent de.	Susceptible of ; susceptible de.
Insensible of ; insensible à.	Suspected of ; suspect de.
Jealous of ; jaloux de.	Tired of ; fatigué de.
Liberal of ; prodigue de.	Vain of ; fier de.
Mindful of ; attentif à.	Void of ; vide de.
Negligent of ; qui néglige.	Worthy of ; digne de.
Observant of ; qui observe.	Zealous of ; zélé pour.

" TO "

Able to ; capable de (verb).	Equal to ; égal à.
Addicted to ; admis de.	Equivalent to ; équivalent à.
Adjacent to ; voisin de.	Faithful to ; fidèle à.
Advantageous to ; avantageux à.	Fatal to ; fatal à.
Affable to ; affable envers.	Favorable to ; favorable à.
Agreeable to ; agréable à.	Foreign to ; étranger à.
Alien (to or from) ; étranger à.	Fit to (verb) ; propre à.
Analogous to ; analogue à.	Free to (verb) ; libre de.
Ambitions to ; ambitieux de (verb).	Happy to (verb) ; heureux de.
Anxious to ; désireux de (verb).	Indifferent to ; indifférent à.
Apt to ; propre à.	Injurious to ; nuisible à.
Attentive to ; attentif à.	Insensible to ; insensible à.
Averse to ; contraire à.	Just to ; juste envers.
Bound to ; obligé à.	Kind to ; bon pour.
Close to ; près de.	Liable to ; sujet à.
Common to ; commun à.	New to ; nouveau pour.
Conducive to ; qui contribue à.	Obedient to ; obéissant, soumis à.
Conformable to ; conforme à.	Obvious to ; évident à.
Contrary to ; contraire à.	Opposite to ; vis-à-vis de.
Courteous to ; poli envers.	Owing to ; grâces à.
Dear to ; cher à.	Prejudicial to ; nuisible à.
Devoted to ; dévoué à.	Previous to ; préalable à.

Ready to ; prêt à (verb).

Slow to ; lent à.

Subject to ; sujet à.

True to ; fidèle à.

Unfaithful to ; infidèle à.

Unfit to ; peu propre à (verb).

Used to ; accoutumé à.

" FROM "

Absent from ; absent de.

Alien from ; étranger à.

Clear from ; exempt de.

Distant from ; éloigné de.

Distinct from ; différent de.

Diverse from ; différent de.

Exempt from ; exempt de.

Free from ; libre de.

Remote from ; éloigné de.

Safe from ; à l'abri de.

" FOR "

Affectionate for ; affectueux pour. Eminent for ; remarquable par.

Anxious for ; anxieux de.

Famous for ; fameux pour.

Apt for ; propre à.

Fit for ; propre à.

Bad for ; mauvais pour.

Good for ; bon à, pour.

Bound for ; destiné à.

Grateful for ; reconnaissant de.

Celebrated for ; célèbre par.

Noted for ; remarquable par.

Competent for ; compétent.

Ready for ; prêt à.

Conspicuous for ; remarquable par.

Ripe for ; mûr pour.

par.

Sorry for ; fâché de.

Cut out for ; propre à.

" ON "

Attendant on ; qui accompagne. Full on ; qui s'étend sur.

Bent on ; résolu à.

Imperative on ; impérieux.

Consequent on ; qui est la suite de. Incumbent on ; qui incombe à.

Copious on ; (abondant en

Intent on ; applique à.

parolcs).

Resolved on ; résolu à.

" IN "

Concerned in ; intéressé à.

Rich in ; riche en or de.

Deficient in ; qui manque de.

Ripe in ; mûr, (judgment).

Equal in ; égal en.

Skilled in ; versé dans.

Expert in ; habile à.

Slow in ; lent à.

Learned in ; versé dans.

Steady in ; ferme dans.

Poor in ; pauvre de.

Zealous in ; zélé dans.

Read in ; qui connaît.

" ABOUT "

Alarmed about ; <i>alarmé de.</i>	<i>Earnest about ; ému de.</i>
Angry about ; <i>mécontent de.</i>	<i>Easy about ; tranquille pour.</i>
Anxious about ; <i>inquiet de.</i>	<i>Solicitous about ; inquiet de.</i>
Busy about ; <i>occupé de.</i>	<i>Uneasy about ; inquiet de.</i>

" WITH "

Angry with ; <i>sâché (contre une personne).</i>	<i>Smitten with ; épris de.</i>
Angry at ; <i>sâché (contre une chose).</i>	<i>Transported with ; transporté de.</i>
Attended with ; <i>accompagné de.</i>	<i>Congruous with ; conforme à.</i>
Beset with ; <i>oboslé de.</i>	<i>Consonant with ; d'accord avec.</i>
Coeval with ; <i>contemporain de.</i>	<i>Content with ; content de.</i>
Displeased with ; <i>mécontent de.</i>	<i>Familiar with ; libre avec.</i>
Discontented with ; "	<i>Flush with ; prodigue de.</i>
Dissatisfied with ; "	<i>Frantic with ; fou de.</i>
Redolent with ; <i>parfumé de.</i>	<i>Replete with ; plein de.</i>
Apt at ; <i>adroit à.</i>	<i>Taken with ; charme de.</i>
Clever at ; <i>habile à.</i>	<i>Usual with ; ordinaire à.</i>
Happy at ; <i>heureux à.</i>	
Impatient at ; <i>irritable à.</i>	

" AT "

Apt at ; <i>adroit à.</i>	<i>Quick at ; vif à.</i>
Clever at ; <i>habile à.</i>	<i>Ready at ; vif à.</i>
Happy at ; <i>heureux à.</i>	<i>Sick at ; malade à.</i>
Impatient at ; <i>irritable à.</i>	

N. B.— Some English participles are sometimes followed by *at*, sometimes by *with*, and their difference is not always apparent; in the following list, we give those which seem to be the most practical.

Affected at a story ; <i>touché d'une histoire.</i>
Affected with a sickness ; <i>affligé d'une maladie.</i>
Afflicted at some news ; <i>affligé d'une nouvelle.</i>
Afflicted with a sickness ; <i>affligé d'une maladie.</i>
Alarmed at ; <i>qui s'alarme de.</i>
Amazed at ; <i>ébahi de.</i>
Astonished at ; <i>étonné de.</i>

- Concerned at ; *affligé de.*
 Delighted at ; *charmé de.*
 Disgusted at or with ; *dégoûté de.*
 Displeased at ; *mécontent de.*
 Engaged at ; *irrite de.*
 Enraged with ; *exaspétré contre.*
 Frightened at ; *effrayé de.*
 " with ; *effrayé par.*
 Grieved at ; *chagriné de.*
 Irritated at ; *irrité de.*
 Offended with (a person) ; *fâché contre.*
 " at (a thing) ; *fâché de.*
 Pleased with ; *content de.*
 Pleased at ; *content de* (an idea).
 Shocked at ; *afflige de.*
 Touched by or with ; *ému de.*
 Touched with remorse ; *touché par le remords.*

We are desirous to go there.

The infinitive coming after an adjective may be translated into English by the imperfect participle preceded by the preposition proper to the adjective ; or, in most cases, by the infinitive preceded by *to*.

Ex. : Children are fond of playing.

Les enfants aiment à jouer.

We were desirous to go there.

Nous étions désireux d'aller là.

COMPLEMENT OF THE COMPARATIVE.

Properly speaking, the comparative degree has no complement in English; but, as in French, it is always followed by a conjunction.

Peter is braver than Paul.

After a comparative of superiority or inferiority, the English use *than*, a conjunction which translates the French conjunction *que*.

Ex. : Peter is braver than Paul.

Pierre est plus brave que Paul.

James is less tall than Henry.

Jacques est moins grand que Henri.

N. B.— After *else*, *other*, *otherwise* and *rather*, the English use *than*.

Ex. : This animal is nothing else than a horse.

Cet animal n'est rien autre chose qu'un cheval.

Peter is as brave as Paul.

The French comparison of equality is translated by *as..... as*, in affirmative sentences.

Ex. : Peter is as brave as Paul.

Pierre est aussi brave que Paul.

With a negation, we use *so* instead of the first *as*.

Ex. : Peter is not so tall as John.

Pierre n'est pas aussi grand que Jean.

When the sentence is interrogative and negative at the same time, the comparative of equality is formed as in affirmative sentences.

Ex. : Is not Peter as brave as Paul ?

Pierre n'est-il pas aussi brave que Paul ?

With participles, we use *as much or so much* instead of *as or so*.

Ex. : He is as much admired as his father.

Il est aussi admiré que son père.

He is not so much esteemed as his brother.
Il n'est pas aussi estimé que son frère.

I am more tired than you think.

When the comparative is followed by a verb and its subject, the words *ne* and *le*, used in French, are not translated.

Ex.: I am more tired than you think.
Je suis plus fatigué que vous ne le pensez.

He speaks better than I.

The pronoun coming after *than* must be in the nominative case, when it is subject to a verb expressed or understood.

Ex.: He speaks better than I.
Il parle mieux que moi.
 They succeed better than we.
Ils réussissent mieux que nous.

The same thing ought to be said about the pronoun coming after *as*.

Ex.: He is as tall as I
Il est aussi grand que moi.
 They are not so tall as we.
Ils ne sont pas aussi grands que nous.

He had more than twenty companions.

De, used instead of *que*, after a French comparative, is translated by *than*.

Ex.: He had more than twenty companions.
Il avait plus de vingt compagnons.
 There were more than thirty persons.
Il y avait plus de trente personnes.

The better a man is, the happier he is.

The French adverbs *plus* or *moins* repeated, are translated into English by the comparative preceded by *the*.

Ex. : The better a man is, the happier he is.

Plus un homme est bon, plus il est heureux.

The richer we are, the more generous we ought to be.

Plus on est riche, plus on doit être généreux.

With nouns and verbs, we use *the more* and *the less*.

Ex. : The more a man works, the more he succeeds.

Plus on travaille, plus on réussit.

The less a man works, the less he succeeds.

Moins on travaille, moins on réussit.

The less wit a man has, the less he knows that he wants it.

Moins un homme a d'esprit, moins il s'aperçoit qu'il en manque.

As will be seen by the foregoing examples, the adjective, and the noun object to the verb *to have*, are placed before the subject and not after the verb.

He is so much the more ignorant, as he does not work.

So much the more, or simply, *the more*; *so much the less*, or, *the less*, are used to translate the French *d'autant plus*, *d'autant moins*. In these sentences, *que*, must be translated by *as*, *that* or *because*.

Ex. : He is so much the more ignorant, as he does not work.

Il est d'autant plus ignorant, qu'il ne travaille pas.

I was so much the less touched by this story, that I knew it before.

J'ai été d'autant moins touché de cette histoire, que je la savais déjà.

N. B.— *More and more, less and less*, or a comparative repeated, are used to translate *de plus en plus, de moins en moins*.

Ex. : He became happier and happier with years.

Il devint de plus en plus heureux en vieillissant.

The things became less and less difficult.

Les choses devinrent de moins en moins difficiles.

God is so good that He gave us His son.

The French adverbs *si* and *tant*, expressing a consequence and not a comparison, are translated by *so, so much, such*.

So, with adjectives and adverbs.

Ex. : God is so good that He gave us His son.

Dieu est si bon qu'Il nous a donné son Fils.

He acts so prudently, that he is admired everywhere.

Il agit si prudemment qu'on l'admire partout.

So much, with participles and nouns.

Ex. : You are so much esteemed, that....

Vous êtes si estimé que....

You have so much courage, that....

Vous avez tant de courage que....

Such is used with nouns.

Ex. : You are of such worth, that....

Vous avez tant d'importance que....

N. B.—In such sentences, *que* is translated by
that or as.

That, with a finite verb.

Ex. : He is so weak that he cannot walk.

Il est si faible qu'il ne peut pas marcher.

As, with an indefinite verb.

Ex. : He is so weak as not to be able to walk.

*Il est faible au point de ne pas pouvoir
marcher.*

SUPERLATIVES.

De coming after a superlative must be translated
by in and of

In, with the name of a place.

Ex. : The finest tree in my garden.

Le plus bel arbre de mon jardin.

Of, in all other cases.

Ex. : He is the tallest of his companions.

Il est le plus grand de ses compagnons.

N. B.—The foregoing distinction is not quite
general; very often, especially in conversation, the
English will use of instead of in.

Ex. : This is the finest tree of my garden.

The prettier of the two sisters.

When it is question of two persons or two things, that is, when two objects are compared, the English use the comparative with *the*, instead of the superlative we have in French.

Ex. : The prettier of the two sisters.

La plus jolie des deux sœurs.

The better of my two horses.

Le meilleur de mes deux chevaux.

The lower town, the upper town.

La basse-ville, la haute-ville.

N. B.— Exceptions to this rule are to be seen in the best English writers.

CHAPTER IV.

COMPLEMENTS OF VERBS.

English verbs may have three kinds of complements or objects: *direct*, *indirect* and *circumstantial*.

The direct object is that which is directly governed by the active-transitive verb.

Ex. : I call Peter.

J'appelle Pierre.

The indirect object is that which is indirectly governed by the verb, but directly depends on the preposition which connects it to the verb.

Ex. : I speak to John.

Je parle à Jean.

The circumstantial object, which really exists in English as well as in French, though not spoken of by English grammarians, expresses the circumstances accompanying an action.

Circumstantial complements may be of four kinds.

1^o *Place.* Ex. : I am going to Paris.

Je vais à Paris.

2^o *Time.* Ex. : He arrived in the morning.

Il arriva le matin.

3^o *Manner.* Ex. : He is dressed after the French fashion.

Il est vêtu à la mode française.

4^o *Cause.* Ex. : The city was destroyed by fire.

La ville fut détruite par le feu.

DIRECT OBJECT.

The direct object is generally placed after the verb.

Ex. : I esteem my friends, I love them.

J'estime mes amis, je les aime.

In the following instances, the direct object is placed before the verb :

1^o For the sake of emphasis, that is, to draw attention.

Ex. : Equal toil the good commander endures with the soldier.

Le bon capitaine subit la même fatigue que le soldat.

2^o When the direct object is a relative or an interrogative pronoun.

Ex. : The book which you want.

Le livre dont vous avez besoin.

Whom do you call?

Qui appelez-vous?

Avoid Gaming.

With a few verbs having the sense of the French verbs *éviter, cesser, empêcher*, etc., the infinitive is translated by the imperfect participle.

Ex. : Avoid gaming.

Evitez de jouer.

To avoid, éviter de.	To keep, conserver.
To escape, échapper à.	To leave, céder de.
To give up, renoncer à.	To repent, se repentir de.
To help, s'empêcher de.	To stop, cesser de.

I purpose to go or going there.

With the following verbs, we may use the infinitive or the imperfect participle:

To attempt, essayer de.	To intend, avoir intention de.
To bear, supporter de.	To postpone, différer de.
To cease, cesser de.	To propose, avoir intention de.
To delay, retarder de.	To purpose, se proposer de.
To disdain, dédaigner de	To refuse, refuser de.
To forbear, s'empêcher de.	To regret, regretter de.
To hate, ne pas aimer de.	To remember, se souvenir de.

Ex. : I purpose to go or going there.

J'ai l'intention d'aller là.

N. B.— In these cases, the imperfect participle expresses simultaneity or continuance of an action.

Ex. : I like reading whilst walking.

J'aime à lire en marchant.

I disdain going there often.

Je n'aime pas à aller là souvent.

The infinitive merely expresses an action.

Ex. : Do you like to go there ?

Aimez-vous à aller là ?

I bid you depart.

The active verbs to bid, to dare, to feel, to hear, to let, to make, to need, to see, to have, preceded by will and would with the meaning of the French verb vouloir, are followed by the infinitive without to.

Ex. : I bid you depart and you dare stay.

Je vous ordonne de partir et vous oserez rester.

He will have me go there.

Il veut que j'aille là.

N. B. — After the passive form of these verbs, to must be used.

Ex. : You were heard to speak.

On vous entendit parler.

They were seen to play.

On les vit jouer.

I hear the child speaking.

With the verbs to feel, to hear, to see and its synonyms, the infinitive may be translated by the imperfect or perfect participle.

1^o The imperfect participle is used when the infinitive expresses an action which takes place in the same time as another action.

- Ex. : I hear the child speaking.
J'entends parler l'enfant.
 We saw him laughing.
Nous le vimes rire.

2^o The perfect participle translates the French infinitive, when this infinitive expresses an action suffered by the following noun.

- Ex : I saw the child flogged.
J'ai vu fouetter l'enfant.
 I heard the letter read.
J'ai entendu lire la lettre.

They elected him president.

A few verbs, such as *to make*, *to name*, *to elect*, *to teach*, may have two direct objects.

- Ex. : They elected him president.
Il fut élu président.
 They made him secretary.
Ils le firent secrétaire.
 We teach the boys their grammar.
Nous enseignons aux enfants leur grammaire.

N. B.— As may be seen by the preceding examples, one of the objects represents the person ; the other represents the profession, the office, the thing taught.

We believed we heard somebody speaking.

After the verbs which express a feeling or an operation of the mind, such as, *to think*, *to believe*, *to wish*, *to tell*, we use the conjunction *that* with a finite verb, instead of the infinitive we have in French.

Ex. : We believed we heard somebody speaking.
Nous cûmes entendre parler quelqu'un.
 I think that I see something.
Je crois voir quelque chose.
 That is almost always understood.

We know how to skate.

The infinitive coming after the verbs *to know*,
to learn, *to show*, *to teach*, must be preceded by
 the adverb *how* when the subject is the same for
 the two verbs.

Ex. : We know how to skate.

Nous savons patiner.

N. B. — In such instances, the verb *I know*, may be
 changed into *I can*.

Ex. : We can skate.

Nous savons, nous pouvons patiner.

We enjoy a good health.

Some verbs, which are active-intransitive or re-
 flected in French, are active-transitive in English.

Ex. : We enjoy a good health.

Nous jouissons d'une bonne santé.

Such are the following among several.

To address, *adresser à.* To oppose, *s'opposer à.*

To answer, *répondre à.* To resist, *résister à.*

To command, *commander à.* To suit, *convenir à.*

To hurt, *faire mal à.* To use, *se servir de.*

To obey, *obéir à.* To want, *avoir besoin de.*

Ex. : I want twenty-five cents for my holiday.

*J'ai besoin de vingt-cinq cents pour
 mon congé.*

I use this paper for my exercise.

Je me sers de ce papier pour mes devoirs.

He breathed his last breath.

Active-intransitive verbs may sometimes have a direct object, but this object must have the same root as the verb.

Ex. : He breathed his last breath.

Il exhala son dernier soupir.

Our gallant boys fought good fights in Africa.

Nos braves soldats ont livré de bons combats en Afrique.

They slept a good sleep.

Ils dormirent un bon somme.

Thee makes a person nervous.

The direct object of an active-transitive verb is not always expressed in French ; in English, we ought to use a pronoun or a noun to represent the object understood in French.

Ex. : Tea makes a person nervous.

Le thé rend nerveux.

Opium makes one sleep.

L'opium fait dormir.

Take off your hat.

Active-transitive verbs are often accompanied by a preposition which changes their meaning. This preposition ought to be placed after the verb, when the object is a noun ; after the object, when it is a pronoun.

Ex. : Take off your hat.

Otez votre chapeau.

Take it off.

Otez-le.

INDIRECT OBJECT.

The indirect object is generally expressed by *to* or *from*.

To indicates a tendency toward an aim.

Ex. : I give a book to my sister.

Je donne un livre à ma sœur.

From indicates the point at which an action is regarded as setting out; or, the source out of which a thing proceeds.

Ex. : We received a letter from our mother.

Nous receumes une lettre de notre mère.

We give it to him.

When the two objects of a verb are pronouns, the direct object must be placed next to the verb and the indirect object, which comes after, is accompanied by *to*.

Ex. : We give it to him.

Nous le lui donnons.

N. B.—*To* is often omitted in conversation.

Ex. : Give it me.

Donnez-le moi.

They sent him fruits.

If the direct object is a noun and the indirect object

a pronoun, the latter is placed first, and the preposition *to* is generally omitted.

Ex. : We sent him fruits.

Nous lui envoyâmes des fruits.

These books belong to him.

After some verbs, such as, *to say, to belong, to talk, to speak, to reply, to repeat*, the preposition *to* ought to be expressed before the indirect object.

Ex. : These books belong to him.

Ces livres lui appartiennent.

He spoke to the people.

Il parla au peuple.

The kindness of Queen Victoria is still speaking to our hearts.

La bonté de la reine Victoria est encore présente à nos coeurs.

This dog always barks at the passers-by.

The indirect object may be preceded by other prepositions, such as *at, of, with, etc.*

"AT"

This preposition generally expresses a relation of direction to an object or end.

Ex. : This dog always barks at the passers-by.

Ce chien aboie toujours après les passants.

To aim at, viser.

To call at, passer chez.

To arrive at, arriver à.

To come at, arriver à.

To bark at, aboyer après.

To dart at, lancer à.

To bay at, aboyer après.

To exult at, être fier de.

To fire at, <i>tirer sur</i> .	To peck at, <i>bequeter</i> .
To fret at, <i>se chagriner de</i> .	To peep at, <i>regarder à la dérobte</i> .
To frown at, <i>regarder en fron-</i> <i>çant les sourcils</i>	To pine at, <i>souffrir de</i> .
To gape at, <i>rester bouche béeante</i> .	To rage at, <i>rager contre</i> .
To gaze at, <i>regarder fixement</i> .	To rejoice at, <i>se réjouir de</i> .
To get at, <i>arriver à</i> .	To shoot at, <i>tirer sur</i> .
To glance at, <i>jeter un coup</i> <i>d'œil sur</i> .	To shudder at, <i>frissonner à</i> .
To grin at, <i>faire la grimace à</i> .	To smile at, <i>sourire de</i> .
To hint at, <i>éfleurer</i> .	To snap at, <i>mordre</i> .
To joke at, <i>plaisanter sur</i> .	To snarl at, <i>montrer les dents à</i> .
To knock at, <i>frapper à</i> .	To sneer at, <i>se moquer de</i> .
To laugh at, <i>rire de</i> .	To swear at, <i>faire des impréca-</i> <i>tions contre</i> .
To look at, <i>regarder</i> .	To wonder at, <i>s'étonner</i> .
To marvel at, <i>s'émerveiller de</i> .	

"OF"

Of may express a relation of privation, source,
motive, cause, &c.

To abate of, <i>perdre de</i> .	To discharge of, <i>décharger de</i> .
To accuse of, <i>accuser de</i> .	To ease of, <i>débarrasser de</i> .
To admonish of, <i>avertir de</i> .	To get out of, <i>sortir de</i> .
To ask of, <i>demander à</i> .	To heal of, <i>guérir de</i> .
To assure of, <i>assurer de</i> .	To help out of, <i>aider à sortir de</i> .
To bereave of, <i>priver de</i> .	To inform of, <i>informer de</i> .
To boast of, <i>vanter de</i> .	To hew out of, <i>tailler dans</i> .
To convict of, <i>convaincre de</i> .	To lay hold of, <i>se saisir de</i> .
To convince of, <i>convaincre de</i> .	To make out of, <i>faire de</i> .
To cure of, <i>guérir de</i> .	To persuade of, <i>persuader de</i> .
To cut out of, <i>tailler dans</i> .	To remind of, <i>rappeler</i> .
To deprive of, <i>priver de</i> .	To request of, <i>demander à</i> .
To disburden of, <i>décharger de</i> .	To require of, <i>exiger de</i> .

To rid of, débarrasser de.

To suspect of, soupçonner de.

To rob of, dépouiller de.

To warn of, avertir de.

To strip of, dépouiller de.

"IN"

This particle expresses a relation of possession, participation; it may also indicate a manner of being.

Ex.: We delight in working.

Nous nous plaisons à travailler.

To believe in, croire à.

To improve in, se perfectionner dans.

To confide in, se fier à.

To indulge in, se livrer à.

To delight in, aimer à.

To join in, se réunir pour.

To dress in, se vêtir de.

To mingle in, se mêler à.

To end in, finir par.

To partake in, avoir part à.

To excel in, exceller à.

To persevere in, persévétrer à.

To fail in, manquer de.

To rejoice in, se réjouir de.

To glory in, se glorifier de.

To share in, prendre part à.

"ON"

On is used before the object on which, or on account of which an action is made.

Ex.: We feed on bread and butter.

Nous nous nourrissons de pain et de beurre.

To be bent on, s'obstiner à.

To erect on, ériger sur.

To bestow on, donner à.

To feed on, se nourrir de.

To bottom on, baser sur.

To felicitate upon, féliciter de.

To breakfast on, déjeuner de.

To fall back on, se replier sur.

To congratulate on, féliciter de.

To fall on, tomber sur.

To confer on, accorder à.

To force upon, forcer de prendre.

To depend on, dépendre de, ou

To found upon, fonder sur.

compter sur.

To ground upon, fonder sur.

To hang on, accrocher à.	To prey on, faire sa proie de.
To inculcate on, inculquer à.	To quarter on, loger chez.
To inscribe upon, inscrire sur.	To trespass on, abuser de.

" FOR "

For expresses a relation of cause or motive.

Ex.: He was punished for losing his time.

Il fut puni pour avoir perdu son temps.

To answer for, répondre de.	To intend for, destiner à.
To ask for, demander.	To praise for, louer de.
To be cut out for, être de taille à.	To punish for, punir de.
To blame for, blâmer de.	To qualify for, rendre propre à.
To book for, inscrire pour.	To reward for, récompenser de.
To censure for, blâmer de.	To reprimand for, réprimander pour.
To chastise for, châtier de.	
To check for, reprendre pour.	To take up for, réprimander pour.
To design for, destiner à.	
To educate for, former pour.	To thank for, remercier de.
To fit for, préparer à.	To thirst for, avoir soif de.
To fit out for, équiper pour.	

" FROM "

This preposition expresses a relation of remoteness, separation, privation.

To alienate from, enlever à.	To deduct from, déduire de.
To abstain from, s'abstenir de.	To deliver from, délivrer de.
To banish from, bannir de.	To derive from, retirer de.
To bear away from, remporter sur.	To deter from, détourner de.
To borrow from, emprunter de.	To discharge from, décharger de.
To conceal from, cacher à.	To discern from, discerner de.
To cut from, couper sur.	To dismiss from, renvoyer de.
To date from, dater de.	To dissuade from, dissuader de.

To distinguish from, <i>distinguer de.</i>	To prevent from, <i>empêcher de.</i> To preclude from, <i>fermer l'entrée de.</i>
To disturb from, <i>distraire de.</i>	To reap from, <i>moissonner de.</i>
To divert from, <i>détourner de.</i>	To release from, <i>dégager de.</i>
To drive from, <i>chasser de.</i>	To remove from, <i>éloigner de.</i>
To eject from, <i>rejeter de.</i>	To require from, <i>exiger de.</i>
To extract from, <i>extraire de.</i>	To save from, <i>sauver de.</i>
To extort from, <i>extorquer à.</i>	To secure from, <i>assurer contre.</i>
To free from, <i>libérer de.</i>	To shield from, <i>protéger contre.</i>
To hide from, <i>cacher à.</i>	To steal from, <i>voler à.</i>
To judge from, <i>juger d'après.</i>	To set free from, <i>dégager de.</i>
To obtain from, <i>obtenir de.</i>	To take from, <i>ôter à.</i>
To preserve from, <i>préserver de.</i>	To tear from, <i>arracher à.</i>

" WITH "

This preposition denotes the instrument used to make an action, or the means of reaching an end.

To acquaint with, <i>faire con-</i>	To burden with, <i>charger de.</i>
<i>nnaître.</i>	To benumb with, <i>engourdir de.</i>
To arm with, <i>armer de.</i>	To compare with, <i>comparer avec.</i>
To adorn with, <i>orner de.</i>	To confront with, <i>confronter avec.</i>
To animate with, <i>animer de.</i>	To connect with, <i>rattacher à.</i>
To annoy with, <i>inquiéter de.</i>	To contaminate with, <i>souiller de.</i>
To assist with, <i>assister de.</i>	To cover with, <i>couvrir de.</i>
To associate with, <i>associer à.</i>	To cram with, <i>farcir de.</i>
To bedaub with, <i>barbouiller de.</i>	To crowd with, <i>encombrer de.</i>
To bedew with, <i>arroser de.</i>	To crown with, <i>couronner de.</i>
To bespangle with, <i>orner de.</i>	To charge with, <i>accuser de.</i>
To blend with, <i>mêler avec.</i>	To cheer with, <i>égayer par.</i>
To bore with, <i>importuner de.</i>	
To brace with, <i>fortifier par.</i>	
To brand with, <i>marquer avec.</i>	

To daub with, <i>barbouiller de.</i>	To honour with, <i>honorer de.</i>
To dazzle with, <i>éblouir de.</i>	To impregnate with, <i>impré-</i>
To deafen with, <i>assom dir de.</i>	<i>gner de.</i>
To deluge with, <i>inonder de.</i>	To incrust with, <i>incruster de.</i>
To dignify with, <i>décorer de.</i>	To infect with, <i>infester de.</i>
To dispense with, <i>dispenser de.</i>	To infest with, <i>infester de.</i>
To distract with, <i>distraire par.</i>	To intoxicate with, <i>enivrer de.</i>
To disturb with, <i>troubler par.</i>	To load with, <i>charger de.</i>
To divide with, <i>diviser avec.</i>	To oppress with, <i>accabler de.</i>
To embellish with, <i>embellir de.</i>	To pave with, <i>parer de.</i>
To enchant with, <i>charmer par.</i>	To petrify with, <i>pétrifier de.</i>
To enclose with, <i>enfermer avec.</i>	To provide with, <i>pourvoir de.</i>
To encumber with, <i>encom- brer de.</i>	To spatter with, <i>éclabousser de.</i>
To endue with, <i>douer de.</i>	To smite with, <i>frapper de.</i>
To fatigue with, <i>fatiguer de.</i>	To sprinkle with, <i>arroser de.</i>
To feed with, <i>nourrir de.</i>	To stain with, <i>tacher de.</i>
To fill with, <i>remplir de.</i>	To strengthen with, <i>fortifier par.</i>
To freight with, <i>charger de.</i>	To stud with, <i>garnir de.</i>
To frighten with, <i>effrayer par.</i>	To stun with, <i>étourdir de.</i>
To garnish with, <i>garnir de.</i>	To supply with, <i>fournir de.</i>
To gorge with, <i>gorger de.</i>	To tempt with, <i>tenter par.</i>
To hang with, <i>orner de.</i>	To wound with, <i>blesser par.</i>
To hurt with, <i>blesser par.</i>	

Ex. : We supplied them with bread and milk.

Nous leur fournîmes du pain et du lait.

"INTO"

Into denotes a change, a passing from one place to another, from one form to another.

To bring into (notice), <i>faire remarquer.</i>	To cast into, <i>jeter dans.</i>
To carry into, <i>porter dans.</i>	To cut into, <i>couper en.</i>

To force into, faire entrer de force. To transform into, transformer en.

To lead into, induire en. To turn into, changer en.

To throw into, jeter dans. To usher into, introduire dans.

To translate into, traduire en.

Ex. : Cold changes water into ice.

Le froid change l'eau en glace.

"OVER"

Over denotes authority, superiority, dignity or excellence.

Ex. : You shall reign over my people.

Vous régnerez sur mon peuple.

To crow over, narguer.

To pore over, pâlir sur.

To dominate over, dominer sur.

To preside over, présider.

To hang over, surplomber.

To rule over, gouverner.

To hover over, planer sur.

To sail over, voguer sur.

To insult over, insulter à.

To think over, réfléchir sur.

To mourn over, pleurer sur.

To triumph over, triompher de.

To murmur over, murmurer sur.

To tyrannize over, régner sur.

To muse over, méditer sur.

To watch over, veiller sur.

To ponder over, méditer sur.

To wave over, flotter sur.

To weep over, pleurer sur.

"TO"

To abandon to, abandonner à. To assimilate to, assimiler à.

To accustom to, accoutumer à. To attach to, attacher à.

To adapt to, adapter à.

To banish to, reléguer dans.

To address to, adresser à.

To bend to, faire plier à.

To apply to, appliquer à.

To breed to, fornir à.

To appoint to, nommer à.

To bring up to, destiner à.

To ask to, inviter à.

To bring over to, ramener à.

To bring safe to, débarquer en sûreté.	To induce to, porter à.
To clasp to, presser contre.	To inscribe to, inscrire à.
To commit to, confier à.	To introduce to, introduire à.
To compare to, comparer à.	To liken to, assimiler à.
To compel to, forcer à.	To oblige to, obliger à.
To confine to, borner à.	To pitch to, lancer à.
To consecrate to, consacrer à.	To praise to, éléver à.
To consign to, consigner à.	To press to, presser de.
To constrain to, restreindre à.	To put to flight, mettre en fuite.
To contribute to, contribuer à.	To put to sword, passer à l'épée.
To convert to, convertir à.	To put to death, mettre à mort.
To convey to, transporter à.	To put to silence..., réduire au silence.
To devote to, dévouer à.	To put to shame, couvrir de honte.
To dispatch to, expédier à.	To put to the test, mettre à l'épreuve.
To doom to, condamner à.	To put to a trial, mettre à l'essai.
To drag to, traîner à.	To put to the rack, mettre à la torture.
To entitle to, donner droit à.	To sail from... to, partir de... vers.
To excite to, exciter à.	To season to, accoutumer à.
To exile to, exiler à.	To send to, expoyer à.
To expose to, exposer à.	To subject to, soumettre à.
To extol to, éléver à.	To sentence to, condamner à.
To fasten to, lier à.	To tie to, lier à.
To fling to, lancer à.	To write to, écrire à.
To give up to, livrer à.	
To help to, aider à.	
To impart to, communiquer à.	
To impel to, porter à.	
To incite to, inciter à.	
"ABOUT"	
To consult about, consulter sur.	To contend about, se disputer sur.

To dispute about, *se disputer* To inquire about, *s'informer sur.* *de.*

Ex. : They dispute about trifles.

Ils se disputent pour des riens.

" AFTER "

To hunt after, *rechercher.* To seek after, *chercher.*

To long after, *soupirer après.* To thirst after, *avoir soif de.*

To pant after, *désirer.*

Ex. : They long after our return.

Ils soupirent après notre retour.

CIRCUMSTANTIAL COMPLEMENTS.

Place.

1^o The name of the place where we are, where we make an action, takes in English the preposition *at*.

Ex. : We are at school.

Nous sommes à l'école.

They work at home.

Ils travaillent à la maison.

2^o With names of countries and capitals, we generally use *in* which is preferable to *at*.

Ex. : We live in Canada.

Nous demeurons en Canada.

They live in Ottawa.

Ils demeurent à Ottawa.

3^o *At* is used with names of villages, cities.

Ex. : He lives at Boston.

Il demeure à Boston.

We are at St. Ann.

Nous sommes à Sainte-Anne.

4^o *In* may express motion in the same place.

Ex. : We walk in the room.

Nous marchons dans la chambre.

5^o *Into* expresses the change of one form into another.

Ex. : Water is convertible into ice and snow.

L'eau est changeable en glace et en neige.

6^o *Into* is also used to express the passing from one place to another.

Ex. : I was in the garden ; I went into the house.

J'étais dans le jardin ; j'allai dans la maison.

7^o *To* denotes motion towards a place.

Ex. : We are going to Quebec.

Nous allons à Québec.

8^o In some instances, *for* is used to express destination.

Ex. : Our soldiers sailed for South-Africa.

Nos soldats partirent pour l'Afrique du sud.

9^o *From* precedes the name of the place from which we come.

Ex. : We come from Montreal.

Nous venons de Montréal.

10^o The place through which we pass is preceded by the preposition *through*.

Ex. : We entered through this gate.

Nous entrames par cette porte.

We passed through the city.

Nous traversomes la ville.

11° *By* is used when we only pass near the place.

Ex. : I passed by the wharves.

Je passei près des quais.

Translation of the French preposition " CHEZ "

The translation of this preposition may be made in two different ways:

1° When *chez* is followed by a noun, it is translated by *at*, *to* or *from*, according to the verb, and the noun must be in the possessive case.

At, with a verb denoting rest.

Ex. : I am at my father's.

Je suis chez mon père.

To, with a verb of motion.

Ex. : I am going to my sister's.

Je vais chez ma sœur.

From, with a verb expressing separation or remoteness.

Ex. : I come from my brother's.

Je viens de chez mon frère.

2° When *chez* is followed by a pronoun, the person represented by this pronoun is to be considered.

When the subject of the verb and the pronoun coming after *chez* represent the same person, we translate *chez* and the pronoun by the word *home* with a verb of motion, and *at home*, without motion.

Ex. : I am going home.

Je vais chez moi.

My brother is going home.

Mon frère va chez lui.

I am at home.

Je suis chez moi.

You are at home.

Vous êtes chez vous.

When the pronoun coming after *chez* and the subject of the verb do not represent the same person, we translate *chez* by the word *house* preceded by *to*, *at*, or *from*, and a possessive adjective proper to the meaning of the sentence.

Ex. : I am going to your house.

Je vais chez vous.

My brother often comes to my house.

Mon frère vient souvent chez moi.

They will go to his house.

Ils iront chez lui.

Peter accompanied Paul to his house.

Pierre accompagna Paul chez lui.

Time.

I will start at ten o'clock.

1^o To express the very hour at which an action is made, was made or will be made, we use *at*.

Ex. : I will start at ten o'clock.

Je partirai à dix heures.

2^o *On* is used with the name of the day, or to express the date of an action.

Ex. : They will arrive on Sunday.

Ils arriveront dimanche.

They started on the fifteenth of June.

Ils partirent le quinze de juin.

3^e With the name of the year, we use *in*.

Ex. : In the year 1901.

En l'année 1901.

In is also used in the following cases : *In the morning, in the evening, in the forenoon, in the afternoon, in spring, in summer, etc.*

Ex. : In the autumn of 1900, on the 25th of November, at six o'clock in the morning.

Dans l'automne de 1900, le 25 de novembre, à six heures du matin.

I remained there for two years.

The preposition *for* must be used before a noun which marks the duration or lasting of an action. *For* is the equivalent of the French *pendant* or *durant*.

Ex. : I remained there for two years.

Je demeurai là pendant deux ans.

N. B. — *For* is often omitted in conversation.

Ex. : They worked two years.

Ils travaillèrent pendant deux ans.

We go to our father's twice a week.

A is sometimes used for *each* and *every* to express the periodical return of an action ; in such cases, the English language uses no preposition.

Ex. : We go to our father's twice a week.

Nous allons chez notre père deux fois par semaine.

God created the world in six days.

The name of the time in the limits of which an action is made, was made or will be made, is preceded by *in* or *within*.

Ex. : God created the world in six days.

Dieu créa le monde en six jours.

N. B.—*En, dans*, in French, have sometimes the meaning of *après*, they may be translated accordingly.

Ex. : He will arrive after three days.

Il arrivera dans trois jours.

Within seems to have the meaning of the French *d'ici à*.

Ex. : They will come within a month.

Ils viendront d'ici à un mois.

Observations on the translation of the French verb "IL Y A" expressing time.

The impersonal verb *il y a* may express a time fully past or not fully past.

She died two years ago.

When the fact spoken of is fully past, we do not translate *il y a*, and we use the preterit or imperfect tense and the adverb *ago*, which is placed after the name of the time.

Ex.: He arrived two months ago.

Il y a deux mois qu'il est arrivé.

She died two years ago.

Il y a deux ans qu'elle est morte.

N. B.—In such cases, *il y a* may also be translated by *it is . . . since*:

Ex.: It is two months since he went off.

Il y a deux mois qu'il est parti.

He has been travelling for two years.

When the time is not fully past, without translating *il y a*, we use the perfect tense with the adjective *this* or *these* instead of the present of the indicative mood used in French. *For* may be used or not.

Ex.: He has been travelling these two years.

Il y a deux ans qu'il voyage.

Very often, *this* and *these* are not used.

Ex.: He has been for three years a prisoner.

Il y a trois ans qu'il est prisonnier.

N. B.—1^o The pluperfect tense, in such cases, translates the French *imperfect*.

Ex.: We had been there for three days.

Il y avait trois jours que nous étions là.

2^o The second-future translates the first-future used in French.

Ex.: I will have spoken for two hours when you come.

Il y aura deux heures que je parlerai quand vous viendrez.

Manner.

Three prepositions may accompany the circumstantial object of manner; they are: *in*, *with*, and *after*.

Ex. : She spoke in a distinct voice.

Elle parla d'une voix distincte.

The child with the white dress.

L'enfant en habit blanc.

We are dressed after the French fashion.

*Nous sommes habillés à la mode fran-
çaise.*

N. B. — Very often the preposition is not expressed in French; in English, the object must be preceded by its preposition.

Ex. : He stood with arms folded.

Il se tenait les bras croisés.

By practicing a man becomes clever.

The French preposition *en*, followed by the imperfect participle, sometimes expresses manner; it may be translated in several ways.

1^o *By*, to express the aim.

Ex. : By practicing a man becomes clever.

En pratiquant un homme devient habile.

2^o *In*, when two actions are simultaneous.

Ex. : In pronouncing these words, he went away.

En prononçant ces mots, il s'en alla.

3^o *In* is often understood.

Ex. : Considering these men, he was struck by their majesty.

En considérant ces hommes, il fut frappé de leur majesté.

4^o Instead of *in*, *as* may be used with a finite verb.

Ex. : As he pronounced these words, he went away.

En prononçant ces mots, il s'en alla.

5^o *On* is used to express the precise moment of an action.

Ex. : On leaving my brother's house, I went to my aunt's.

*En quittant la maison de mon frère,
j'allai chez ma tante.*

We came by the stage-coach.

The name of the instrument used to make an action takes in English the prepositions *with* or *by*.

With is used with active-transitive verbs.

Ex. : I struck him with a shovel.

Je le frappai avec une pelle.

They killed my brother with a sword.

Ils tuèrent mon frère avec une épée.

By is more generally used with active-intransitive verbs.

Ex. : We came by the stage-coach.

Nous vîmes avec la diligence.

They started by the express-train.

Ils partirent avec le train rapide.

N. B. — According to Webster, it is difficult to give

perfect rules for the use of these prepositions which sometimes seem to be used arbitrarily. Practice will then do more than rules of grammar.

He was wounded in the leg.

To name the part of the body which receives or suffers an action, we employ *in*, *on* or *about*.

Ex. : He had a ring on his finger.

Il avait un anneau au doigt.

He was wounded in the leg.

Il fut blessé à la jambe.

I gave him my book for ten cents.

The name of the price paid for a thing is preceded in English by *for*, or *at*.

For is employed when the price was not previously fixed.

Ex. : I gave him my book for ten cents.

Je lui donnai mon livre pour dix centimes.

At is used when the price was previously fixed.

Ex. : We sell our best sugar at five cents a pound.

Nous vendons notre meilleur sucre cinq centimes la livre.

N. B. — In such instances we use *a* or *an* instead of *le*, *la*, which we have in French.

Ex. : Ten cents a pound.

Dix centimes la livre.

The wall is fifteen feet high by forty feet long.

If we consider this example, we will see that instead of the verb *to have*, used in French, the English use *to be*; *de*, before the adjective, is taken away, and *sur* is translated by *by* or *and*.

Ex. : *The wall is fifteen feet high by forty feet long.*

Le mur a quinze pieds de haut sur quarante de long.

The same construction is employed in the following cases :

Ex. : *My brother is ten years old.*

Mon frère a dix ans.

The mass was two hours long.

La messe dura deux heures.

The garrison was only forty men strong.

La garnison n'avait que quarante hommes.

Montreal is 160 miles distant from Quebec.

Montréal est à 160 milles de Québec.

Cause.

Several prepositions are used to express the relation of cause.

1^o *By* is used with a passive verb, when the indirect object of this verb is a noun or a pronoun which may become subject to the same verb conjugated in the active voice.

Ex. : *He is esteemed by his friends.*

Il est estimé de ses amis.

He was alarmed by his sister's cries.

Il fut alarmé par les cris de sa sœur.

2^o *With*, when the indirect object is the name of a thing.

Ex. : They were struck with horror.

Ils furent saisis d'horreur.

3^o *For* expresses the motive of an action.

Ex. : I went there for that reason.

J'allai là pour cette raison.

4^o *From, out of, through*, to give the mover of an action, that which decided the agent to act.

Ex. : He acted out of fear.

Il a agi par crainte.

He killed him from hatred.

Il l'a tué par haine.

I came here out of love for you.

Je suis venu ici par amour pour vous.

5^o *Of* denotes the cause of a sickness, of the death of a person.

Ex. : He died of grief.

Il mourut de douleur.

She is sick of palsy.

Elle est malade de paralysie.

6^o *From* is used to express the origin of a person or a thing.

Ex. : The English are descended from the Saxons.

Les Anglais descendent des Saxons.

Matter, substance.

The name of the substance from which a thing is made is preceded in English by *from*, *of*, or *with*.

Ex. : Paper is made from rags.

Le papier est fait de chiffons.

Houses are built with stones.

Les maisons sont bâties de pierre.

N. B. -- In such cases, when the verb is not expressed, the English have a special construction: they take the name of the substance as an adjective and place it before the noun.

Ex. : A hat of straw.

A straw hat.

Un chapeau de paille.

A FEW NOTES ON SOME FRENCH PRE-POSITIONS.

He is writing.

"*A*" placed between *to be* and a verb in the infinitive mood to express an occupation is not translated into English; the imperfect participle is used alone.

Ex. : He is writing.

Il est à écrire.

By the trace, we know the beast.

"*A*" used to express a distinctive sign, a particularity, is translated by *by*.

Ex. : By the trace, we know the beast.

A la piste, on connaît l'animal.

A FEW NOTES ON SOME FRENCH PREPOSITIONS. 177

By his countenance, we saw that he was sick.

A sa figure, nous rîmes qu'il était malade.

If we consider the thing, he did well.

"*A*" followed by an infinitive has sometimes the meaning of *si*; when so, it is translated by *if* or *in*.

Beginning the sentence, *à* is translated by *if*.

Ex.: If we consider the thing, he did well.

A considérer la chose, il a bien agi.

In the body of the sentence, we use *in* with the imperfect participle.

Ex.: There is danger in going there.

Il y a du danger à aller là.

He arrived trembling.

"*En*" followed by the imperfect participle is not translated into English, or is translated by *whilst*, *when*, *as*.

Ex.: He arrived trembling.

Il arriva en tremblant.

"*En*" followed by a noun to express manner is translated by *like* or *as*.

Ex.: She lives as a queen.

Elle vit en reine.

He behaves like a gentleman.

Il se conduit en gentilhomme.

Meaning transition from one place to another,

from one time to another, *en* ought to be translated by *to*.

Ex. : From place to place.

De place en place.

From day to day.

De jour en jour.

He did it in spite of me.

The English language has two words to translate the French preposition *malgré*; they are : *in spite of* and *notwithstanding*.

In spite of is used for persons.

Ex. : He went there in spite of his brother.

Il est allé là malgré son frère.

He did it in spite of me.

Il l'a fait malgré moi.

Notwithstanding, with the name of a thing.

Ex. : He succeeded notwithstanding the difficulty of the cause.

Il a réussi malgré la difficulté de la cause.

He is named to represent his brother.

Pour with an infinitive is generally translated by *to*.

Ex. : He is named to represent his brother.

Il est nommé pour représenter son frère.

When *pour* has the meaning of *parceque*, it is translated by *for* with the imperfect participle.

A FEW NOTES ON SOME FRENCH PREPOSITIONS. 179

Ex. : He was hanged for killing his neighbour.

Il fut pendu pour avoir tué son voisin.

Pour meaning *quique* is translated by *though* or
although.

Ex. : Though he is not well, he does not com-
plain.

Pour n'être pas bien, il ne se plaint pas.

Pour peu que, if....ever so little.

Ex. : If you work ever so little.

Pour peu que vous travailliez.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

PARTICULAR SYNTAX.

OF THE NOUN.

A fortune-teller.

In English, nouns, as well as adjectives, may qualify other nouns, and so, form a great number of compound words.

In compound nouns, the second word is almost always the principal term; the first one is a simple qualificative.

Thus, from the words *fortune* and *teller*, we may form *fortune teller*, *un diseur de bonne aventure*. Here *teller*, which is the principal word, is qualified by *fortune*.

N. B. — Instead of being a noun, the first term may also be an adjective, a verb, an adverb or a preposition.

Ex. : 1^o an adjective : A red-breast, *un rouge-gorge*.

2^o a verb : A pick-pocket, *un filou*.

3^o an adverb : A forethought, *une prescience*.

4^o a preposition : An afternoon, *une après-midi*.

Like nouns, adjectives may be compound.

Ex. : Pitch-dark, *noir comme la poix*.

Heart-rending, *déchirant, triste*.

Adjectives.

According to the rule given at the beginning of this grammar, the adjective is placed before the noun which it qualifies ; in the following cases it is placed after :

1^o When other words depend on the adjective, that is, when the adjective has a complement.

Ex. : A man conscious of right.

Un homme qui a conscience du bien.

2^o When the adjective expresses a quality which completes the signification of the verb.

Ex. : Virtue renders life happy.

La vertu rend la vie heureuse.

3^o When thus the adjective would give more strength to the sentence or would be more distinctive.

Ex. : Goodness infinite.

La bonté infinie.

He had a voice deep, sonorous and impressive.

Il avait une voix grave, sonore et impressionnante.

N. B.—In such instances the adjective may be considered as being attribute to a proposition, the subject and the verb of which are understood.

Ex. : He had a voice which was deep, sonorous etc.

4^o When an adverb precedes the adjective.

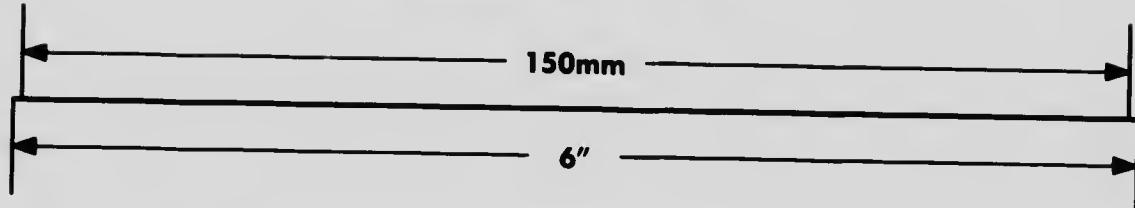
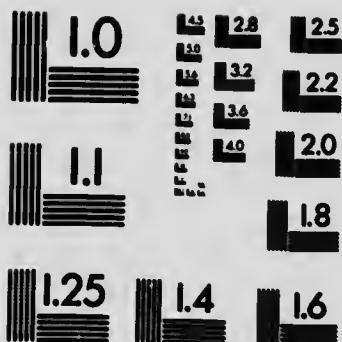
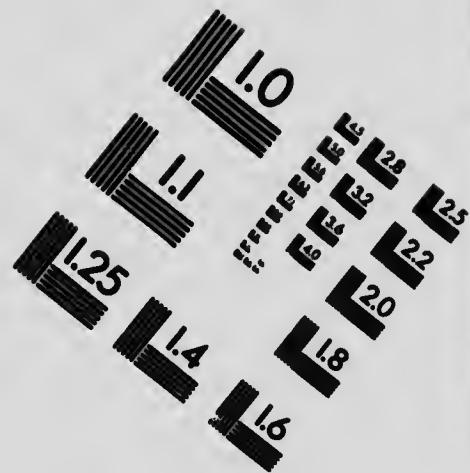
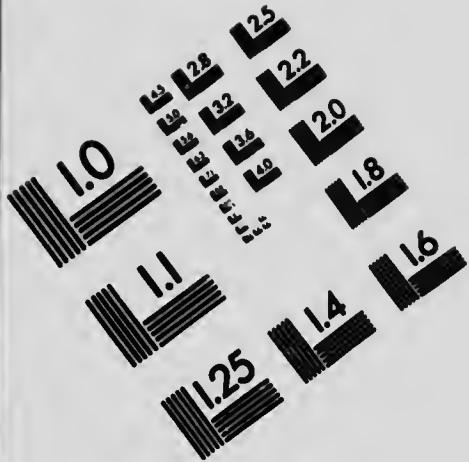
Ex. : A man extremely wise.

Un homme extrêmement sage.





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5^o In some French expressions, such as : *The Princess Royal, the Queen regnant, a notary public, etc., etc.*

THE ATTRIBUTE.

The attribute is connected to the noun by the verb *to be*.

Ex. : This man is good.

Cet homme est bon.

In English, the verb *to be* is called the *copula*. In most cases, this verb affirms or indicates the connection between the subject and the attribute.

When the attribute is a noun, it may express three things.

1^o Class : This man is a murderer.

Cet homme est un meurtrier.

2^o Identity : This man is the murderer of my brother.

Cet homme est le meurtrier de mon frère.

3^o Name : The child was named Peter.

L'enfant fut appelé Pierre.

Sometimes the verb *to be* is used to express mere existence without any other attribute ; then the verb *to be* comprehends both the verb and the attribute.

Ex. : God is. That is : God is being.

Dieu est, existe.

N.B.—The conjunction *as* may be employed, instead of the verb *to be*, to express the connection between the attribute and the word to which it refers.

PARTICULAR RULES ON THE DEFINITE ARTICLE "THE". 183

Ex. : We engaged her as a governess.

Nous l'engagedmes comme gouvernante.

The direct attribute is that which relates to the subject.

Ex. : My father is a blacksmith.

Mon père est forgeron.

The indirect attribute is the one which relates to the direct object.

Ex. : They elected him president.

Ils l'élirent président.

The indefinite attribute does not relate to any particular subject, it is used in indefinite sentences.

Ex. : To be good is to be happy.

Etre bon, c'est être heureux.

PARTICULAR RULES ON THE DEFINITE ARTICLE "THE".

The definite article *the* is a word used before nouns to limit their signification.

Therefore, this article should not be employed before nouns taken in a general sense, but only before those nouns whose meaning is limited by a restriction of time, place, person, cause or origin.

The definite article is not used before :

1^o Abstract nouns taken in their widest sense.

Ex. : Virtue is lovely.

La vertu est aimable.

2^o Names of arts, sciences used in a general manner.

Ex.: Dancing is dangerous.

La danse est dangereuse.

Philosophy is difficult.

La philosophie est difficile.

3^o Names of substances.

Ex.: Gold is precious.

L'or est précieux.

Water is necessary.

L'eau est nécessaire.

4^o Man and woman used in general.

Ex.: Man is a fallen god.

L'homme est un dieu tombé.

Woman is the consort of man.

La femme est la compagne de l'homme.

5^o Plural nouns having no determinative complement.

Ex.: Friends are precious when they are good.
Les amis sont précieux quand ils sont bons.

Good books are useful.

Les bons livres sont utiles.

6^o Plural nouns denoting a species and having no complement.

Ex.: Dogs are vigilant.

Les chiens sont vigilants.

Horses are useful.

Les chevaux sont utiles.

7^o Names of titles immediately followed by proper nouns.

PARTICULAR RULES ON THE DEFINITE ARTICLE "THE" 185

Ex.: King Edward, Queen Victoria.

Le roi Edward, la reine Victoria.

Cape Tourmente, Lake St. John.

Le cap Tourmente, le lac St-Jean.

8^o Imperfect participles used as nouns.

Ex.: Fasting fortifies the soul.

Le jeûne fortifie l'âme.

9^o Adjectives designating colours.

Ex.: Black absorbs heat, white repels it.

Le noir absorbe la chaleur, le blanc la repousse.

10^o Before collective nouns taken abstractively.

Ex.: Aristocracy is a form of government.

L'aristocratie est une forme de gouvernement.

11^o Names of seasons.

Ex.: Spring is pleasant.

Le printemps est agréable.

12^o The words earth, heaven, paradise, hell presenting the idea of a dwelling.

Ex.: Christ went to hell.

Le Christ alla aux enfers.

13^o Names of countries and islands when they are singular.

Ex.: America was discovered by Columbus in 1492.

L'Amérique fut découverte par Colomb en 1492.

Corsica belongs to France.

La Corse appartient à la France.

N. B. — We ought to except the Crimea, *la Crimée*; the Morea, *la Morte*; the Hague, *la Haye*, etc.

14^o The adjectives *poor*, *brave*, *old*, *little* and *young*, when they are followed by a proper noun.

Ex. : Old John, poor Peter, brave Thomas.

*Le vieux Jean, le pauvre Pierre, le
brave Thomas.*

15^o Some words which are much employed, such as, *church*, *school*, *land*, *market*, *sea*, *table*, *town*, *peace*, *war*, are not generally accompanied by the article, when they are objects to a preposition.

Ex. : We are going to church, to school, to market.

Nous allons à l'église, à l'école, au marché.

They are at peace, at war.

Ils sont en paix, en guerre.

My parents are at sea.

Mes parents sont en mer.

16^o The adjectives *next* and *last*, followed by a noun expressing time, do not take the article.

Ex. : Last week, next year, next month.

*La semaine dernière, l'année prochaine,
le mois prochain.*

The definite article "the" ought to be used before :

1^o Abstract nouns, when they are limited.

PARTICULAR RULES ON THE DEFINITE ARTICLE "THE" 187

- Ex.: The virtue of Peter.
La vertu de Pierre.
The glory of Napoleon.
La gloire de Napoléon.

2º Names of substances, when their meaning is limited by another word.

- Ex.: The gold of California.
L'or de Californie.
The bread which we have here.
Le pain que nous avons ici.

3º Singular nouns used in general to represent a species.

- Ex.: The cat, the dog, the hare.
Le chat, le chien, le lièvre.
The horse is the companion of man.
Le cheval est le compagnon de l'homme.

4º When the name of an action is used to represent the habit of this action.

- Ex.: The dance is dangerous.
La danse est dangereuse.
The fast fortifies the soul.
Le jeûne fortifie l'âme.

5º Before singular collective nouns.

- Ex.: The mob is unsteady.
La foule est inconstante.
The aristocracy of New-York.
L'aristocratie de New-York.

6º Nouns designing a mass, a whole, or the part of a whole.

Ex. : The earth revolves around the sun.

La terre tourne autour du soleil.

The eye is the life of the countenance.

L'œil est la vie de la figure.

7^e Nouns designing or representing the seasons and the cardinal points take the article.

Ex. : Consider how the seasons follow each other.

Considérez comme les saisons se succèdent.

The cardinal winds, the cardinal points.

Les vents cardinaux, les points cardinaux.

8^e Names of seasons in the singular do not take the article, except, when they are limited.

Ex. : The winter of 1900 was a hard one.

L'hiver de 1900 a été rigoureux.

Winter is the season of colds.

L'hiver est la saison des rhumes.

9^e When the cardinal points, used in the singular, are considered as countries or parts of a country, they take the article.

Ex. : Last year, we spent the summer in the north, this year we will live in the south.

L'année dernière, nous avons passé l'été dans le nord, cette année nous demeurons dans le sud.

10^e Nouns designing the body or the soul take the article.

PARTICULAR RULES ON THE DEFINITE ARTICLE "THE" 189

Ex. : The body perishes, the soul is immortal.

Le corps périt, l'âme est immortelle.

11^o Considered abstractively, those nouns do not take the article.

Ex. : Mind and matter are opposite.

L'esprit et la matière sont contraires.

12^o Nouns designating the faculties of the soul, the senses of the body may either take the article or not.

Ex. : Taste or the taste, *le goût.*

Touch or the touch, *le toucher.*

Sight or the sight, *la vue.*

13^o Proper names of countries, mountains, islands, take the article when they are plural; Flanders, *les Flandres*; Wales, *le pays de Galles*, are excepted.

Ex. : The Americas, *les Amériques.*

The Laurentides, *les Laurentides.*

14^o Adjectives taken as nouns are preceded by the article.

Ex. : The Canadians are brave,

Les Canadiens sont braves.

The blind are unhappy,

Les aveugles sont malheureux.

15^o Nouns representing seas and rivers take the article.

Ex. : The Saint Lawrence.

Le Saint-Laurent.

The Adriatic.

La mer Adriatique.

The Atlantic Ocean.

L'océan Atlantique.

16° Titles connected to a proper noun by the preposition *of*, take the article.

Ex. : The Duke of Clarence.

Le duc de Clarence.

The Cape of Good Hope.

Le cap de Bonne-Espérance.

17° The same thing must be said when an adjective precedes the name of the title.

Ex. : General Roberts.

Le général Roberts.

The prudent General Roberts.

Le prudent général Roberts.

18° The words *emperor*, *empress*, *princess*, *countess*, before proper nouns, may take the article.

Ex. : The Emperor Napoleon.

L'empereur Napoléon.

19° Plural collective nouns presenting the idea of a collection of persons, arts, sciences, virtues and vices may take the article.

Ex. : The patriarchs fed goats.

Les patriarches élevaient des chèvres.

The arts and sciences were then in their cradle.

Les arts et les sciences étaient alors au berceau.

The philosopher and poet.

When two or more nouns connected by *and* serve merely to describe one person, the article is not repeated.

Ex. : The philosopher and poet.

Le philosophe et poète.

If the nouns connected by *and* represent different persons, the article must be repeated.

Ex. : The philosopher and the poet were banished.

Le philosophe et le poète furent bannis.

To avoid a repetition, we sometimes, with one article, join inconsistent qualities to a plural noun.

Ex. : The old and new methods.

L'ancienne méthode et la nouvelle.

The Old and New Testaments.

L'Ancien Testament et le Nouveau.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

Hundred, thousand, million, etc., which are invariable as adjectives, become plural when taken as nouns.

Ex. : The tens, *les dizaines.*

The hundreds, *les centaines.*

The words *half*, *third*, *fourth*, *fifth*, etc., may be used as nouns and, consequently, take the plural.

Ex. : The two halves of a whole.

Les deux moitiés d'un entier.

The two thirds, the four fifths.

Les deux tiers, les quatre cinquièmes.

The last five chapters.

When a cardinal number is used with one of the

adjectives *first, last, next, this* adjective ought to be placed before the cardinal number.

Ex. : The first six books.

Les six premiers livres.

The last five chapters.

Les cinq derniers chapitres.

The next five weeks.

Les cinq prochaines semaines.

N. B.—To count time, the English language has the following terms :

O'clock, which means the hour of the clock.

Hour, which denotes duration.

Ex. : It is six o'clock.

Il est six heures.

That is : the clock marks six.

It takes six hours to do that.

Il faut six heures pour faire cela.

That is : It takes a time six hours long to do that.

ENGLISH EXPRESSIONS WITH THEIR EQUIVALENTS.

It is half past six ;

Il est six heures et demie.

" a quarter past five ;

" cinq heures et quart.

" twenty minutes past four ;

" quatre heures et vingt.

" twenty-five minutes to
four ;

*" quatre heures moins
vingt-cinq.*

" a quarter to eight ;

*" huit heures moins un
quart.*

DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES.

I will come to visit you this week.

As seen in the definition of demonstrative adjectives, *this* and *these* refer to the nearest person or thing ; *that*, *those*, to the most distant.

The distinction is the same when these adjectives are applied to time. So, *this* and *these* will represent a time begun and still lasting ; *that* and *those*, a time past or to come.

Ex. : I will come to visit you this week.

Je viendrai vous voir cette semaine.

My father lived fifty years ago ; at that time, there were great disturbances in the country.

Mon père vivait il y a 50 ans ; en ce temps-là il y avait de grandes troubles dans le pays.

You will come with me ; next week at that time you will be well.

Vous viendrez avec moi ; la semaine prochaine en ce temps-là vous serez bien.

N. B.—The personal pronoun *them* must never be used as an adjective instead of *those*, this error is common and vulgar.

Ex. : Where did you take *them* books ?

Where did you take *those* books ?

Où avez-vous pris ces livres ?

He that studies is sure to succeed.

To translate the French pronouns *celui*, *celle*, *ceux*, *celles*, used in general and followed by the relative pronouns *qui* or *que*, we cannot use *this*, *that*, *these*, which are not used to represent persons. They ought to be translated by *he*, *the*, *they*, *those*, when they are subjects.

Ex.: He that studies is sure to succeed.

Celui qui étudie est sûr de réussir.

She who loves her son punishes him, when necessary.

Celle qui aime son fils le punit, quand c'est nécessaire.

When, instead of being subjects, *celui*, *celle*, *ceux*, *celles* are objects, they are translated by *him*, *her*, *them*, *those*.

Ex.: Death is the comforter of him whom time cannot console.

La mort est la consolatrice de celui que le temps ne peut consoler.

We will reward those who work well.

Nous récompenserons ceux qui travaillent bien.

N. B. — 1^o If the sense is limited to a particular person, or to some persons, these pronouns are translated by *the one*, *that one*, *the ones*, *those ones*, *those*.

Ex.: I will give the book to the one who works best.

Je donnerai le livre à celui qui travaille le mieux.

I will punish those who do not work.

Je punirai ceux qui ne travaillent pas.

2º Followed by *qui* or *que*, and representing things, *celui*, *celle*, *ceux*, *celles* are translated by *the one*, *the ones*.

Ex. : This book is the one you lent me yesterday.

Ce livre est celui que vous m'avez prêté hier.

3º When these pronouns represent persons, we may replace them by the noun which they represent.

Ex. : I know the man whom you blame.

Je connais celui que vous blâmez.

I know the person whom you met.

Je connais celle que vous avez rencontrée.

4º The antecedent of the pronoun is often understood.

Ex. : Who works is sure to succeed.

Celui qui travaille est sûr de réussir.

Here are Peter and Paul ; the latter is my brother, the former my cousin.

The latter, the former, may represent persons or things.

The latter translates *celui-ci*, *celle-ci*, etc....

The former translates *celui-là*, *celle-là*, etc.

Ex. : Here are Peter and Paul ; the latter is my brother, the former, my cousin.

Voici Pierre et Paul ; celui-ci est mon frère, celui-là, mon cousin.

I have a satchel and a box; the latter contains my violin, the former, my cornet.

J'ai un sac et une boîte, celle-ci contient mon violon, celui-là, mon cornet.

N. B.—In such cases, we may, if we wish, repeat the noun and say :

Ex.: I have a satchel and a box; the box contains my violin, the satchel, my cornet.

This house is that of my mother.

Celui, celle, ceux, celles, followed by *de* and a noun, ought to be translated by *that* and *those*, and not, by *this, these*.

Ex.: This house is that of my mother.

Cette maison est celle de ma mère.

If the preposition expresses a relation of property, we may use the possessive form.

Ex.: This house is my mother's.

This is my aunt and that my uncle.

Voici, voilà, followed by a noun, are translated by *this, that ; here is and there is*.

This, that, are used when the persons are near us and draw our attention.

Ex.: This is my aunt and that my uncle.

Voici ma tante et voilà mon oncle.

When the objects are a little farther, so that they want to be noticed in order to be seen, *voici, voilà* are translated by *here is and there is* which agree with the following noun.

Ex. : Here is the church, there is the city-hall.
Voici l'église et voilà l'hôtel-de-ville.

Voilà is sometimes translated by *such*.

Ex. : To suffer and die, such is the condition of man.

Souffrir et mourir, voilà la condition de l'homme.

N. B. — 1° *Voici....que, voilà....que,* are not translated into English.

Ex. : He is coming.

Voici qu'il vient.

They speak to me.

Voilà qu'on me parle.

2° Preceded by *me, le, la, les, voici, voilà*, are translated by *here* and *there*, which are always placed at the beginning of the sentence.

Ex. : Here I am, there he is.

Me voici, le voilà.

Here he comes, there he goes.

Le voici qui vient, le voilà qui passe.

3° When the French verb is translated by a compound verb, the sentence will begin with the preposition of the compound verb, and *le voici, le voilà* will not be translated.

Ex. : Up he goes, down he goes.

Le voici qui monte, le voici qui descend.

POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES.

Very often the French language uses the article instead of a possessive adjective. This construction is not common in English; the relation existing between the possessor and the thing possessed must always be clearly expressed. Hence different rules for the translation of this French article.

A cannon-ball took off his leg.

The possessive adjective must always be used instead of the French article, before nouns representing parts of the body or faculties of the mind, if such nouns refer to the subject or to the indirect object.

Ex. : He lost his life in this battle.

Il perdit la vie dans cette bataille.

The carriage ran over my body.

La voiture me rentra sur le corps.

A cannon-ball took off his leg.

Un boulet lui emporta la jambe.

When the object possessed belongs to the direct object of the verb, we use *the*.

Ex. : She took her brother by the arm.

Elle prit son frère par le bras.

N. B. — In this last case, we may take away the preposition *by*, and use another construction.

Ex. : She took her brother's arm.

Elle prit son frère par le bras.

He took my arm.

Il me prit par le bras

Several persons lost their lives.

In French, the name of the thing possessed is sometimes singular, though referring to a plural subject and to a plural verb. In English, this object must be plural when it belongs to all the individuals spoken of, considered separately.

Ex. : Several persons lost their lives.

Plusieurs personnes perdirent la vie.

They went out with their hats on their heads.

Ils sortirent le chapeau sur la tête.

This house is ours.

The French personal pronouns *à moi*, *à toi*, *à lui*, *à nous*, etc., denoting possession, that is, coming after the verb *to be*, cannot be translated by *to me*, *to you*, *to him*; instead of them, we use the corresponding possessive pronouns.

Ex. : This house is ours.

Cette maison est à nous.

This watch is mine.

Cette montre est à moi.

In such instances we may employ the verb *to belong* with the personal pronouns.

Ex. : This house belongs to us.

Cette maison est à nous.

N. B.—1^o *Le mien, le tien, le sien*, are sometimes taken as nouns in French, they must be translated into English by *my own, your own, his own*.

Ex.: You say this man is generous, however he never gives anything of his own.

Vous dites que cet homme est généreux, cependant il ne donne jamais rien du sien.

2° Used in a general sense to represent persons, *les miens, les tiens, les siens*, are translated by the possessive adjectives followed by a noun proper to the meaning of the sentence.

Ex.: Nobody is a prophet among his own people.

Personne n'est prophète parmi les siens.

3° Care should be taken to give the pronoun the proper possessive adjective.

Ex.: One is not always master of one's own temper.

On n'est pas toujours maître de son caractère.

4° Likewise, careful attention must be paid to the use of the reflected pronoun.

Ex.: One dresses one's self with one's clothes.

On s'habille avec ses habits.

5° The French reflected pronoun *soi* is translated by one's self or itself.

One's self when the subject is the indefinite pronoun *one* representing persons.

Ex.: One must be thrifty to one's self.

On doit être économe pour soi.

Itself, when the subject represents things.

Ex.: The lodestone attracts iron to itself.

L'aimant attire le fer à soi.

Here is a book of mine.

When the thing possessed is plural, that is, when the possessor has several of the objects mentioned, instead of the possessive adjective and the noun, we often use *of* with a possessive pronoun. This construction is always preferable. Thus, instead of saying :

One of my books,
we say :

A book of mine.
Un de mes livres.

This construction is also used with nouns.

Ex. : *Here is a friend of my brother's.*

Voici un des amis de mon frère.

N. B. — 1^o The French pronoun *en* is sometimes used with things to denote possession ; it must be translated by possessive adjectives.

Ex. : I like this wine, but I fear its effects.

J'aime ce vin, mais j'en crains les effets.

2^o In an enumeration, the possessive adjective is not repeated when relating to the same possessor, except for the sake of emphasis.

Ex. : He lost his father, mother and sister in the same year.

Il perdit son père, sa mère et sa sœur dans la même année.

Cette autre époque sera étudiée

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

Notwithstanding any contrary rule, it is always preferable to place the relative pronoun immediately

after its antecedent ; the relation of these two words to each other must always be clearly expressed.

Ex. : He bought for his son a carriage that was black.

Il acheta pour son fils une voiture qui était noire.

Consequently it would not be good to say :

He bought a carriage, for his son, that was black.

Il acheta une voiture, pour son fils, qui était noire.

He spoke of the men and the things that he had seen.

In some cases it is impossible to use who or which ; such is the case when the relative pronoun has two antecedents, one masculine or feminine, and the other neuter. That is the relative used in such instances.

Ex. : He spoke of the men and the things that he had seen.

Il parla des hommes et des choses qu'il avait vus.

In the foregoing example, men being masculine would require whom, things being neuter would require which ; as we cannot use the two pronouns, we have that, which may represent the two antecedents at the same time.

That is also preferable in the following cases :

1º When after an adjective in the superlative degree,

the relative pronoun is used to introduce a modifying proposition.

Ex. : He was the first that went out.

Il fut le premier qui sortit.

2^o In some cases, after the adjective *same*, to explain its meaning.

Ex. : He is the same man that you saw yesterday.

C'est le même homme que vous avez vu hier.

3^o After *who* used as an antecedent.

Ex. : Who that loves his country will not go there ?

Quel est celui qui, aimant son pays, n'ira pas là ?

4^o After an antecedent introduced into the sentence by the impersonal forms *it is*, *it was*, etc.

Ex. : It is you that speak.

C'est vous qui parlez.

It was I that did it.

C'est moi qui l'ai fait.

5^o In general, in all the cases in which the propriety of *who* or *which* is doubtful.

Ex. : The child that cries.

L'enfant qui pleure.

The meeting, that was unanimous.

L'assemblée qui était unanime.

You will read the books you bought.

The relative pronoun, object to an active-transitive verb, is often understood, especially in conversation.

Ex.: You will read the books (which) you bought.

Vous lirez les livres que vous avez achetés.

How shall I punish whom you could not punish?

We saw precedently that the antecedent of the relative subject is sometimes understood, it is the same with the relative object.

Ex.: How shall I punish whom you could not punish?

Comment punirai-je celui que vous n'avez pas pu punir?

N. B. — *His, her, etc., etc.,* being equivalent to *of him, of her,* are sometimes used as the antecedent of a relative pronoun.

Ex.: Receive with gratitude his advices who loves you.

Recevez avec reconnaissance les avis de celui qui vous aime.

The man whose watch you have.

1^e Whose, dont, de qui,.... denotes possession ; it represents persons.

Ex.: The man whose watch you have.

L'homme dont vous avez la montre.

2^o In French, dont, de qui, may also be used as indirect objects to a verb ; they are translated by *of whom* for persons, *of which* for things.

Ex.: The man of whom I speak.

L'homme dont je parle.

The crime of which I accuse you.

Le crime dont je vous accuse.

N. B. — Instead of *of*, the verb wants sometimes another preposition.

Ex. : The man at whom I laugh.

L'homme dont je rie.

The house the walls of which fall.

Dont, denoting possession and representing things, must be translated by *of which*.

Ex. : The house the walls of which fall.

La maison dont les murs tombent.

N. B. — 1^o *Of which* must be preceded by the name of the thing possessed with the definite article *the*.

2^o *Whose* is sometimes used instead of *of which*.

Ex. : A religion whose origin is divine.

Une religion dont l'origine est divine.

The man that you speak of.

That, being masculine, feminine and neuter, may represent persons or things, but it cannot be the object of a preposition, except if this preposition is placed at the end of the sentence.

Ex. : The man that you speak of.

L'homme dont vous parlez.

The woman that you laugh at.

La femme dont vous riez.

The meeting who were divided.

With a collective antecedent, we use *who* when the collective denotes plurality.

Ex. : The meeting who were divided.

L'assemblée qui était divisée.

Which is used when the collective denotes unity.

Ex. : The meeting which was unanimous.

L'assemblée qui était unanime.

N. B. — With a collective, we may use *that* instead of *who* or *which*.

The man whose courage protects his virtue.

Whose and the noun coming after it are sometimes followed by an active-transitive verb accompanied by a direct object.

Ex. : The man whose courage protects his virtue.

L'homme dont le courage protège la vertu.

As may be seen by the foregoing example, the article preceding the direct object is translated into English by a possessive adjective. Such is always the case when the direct object represents a thing belonging to the antecedent of *whose*.

Ex. : We always admire those men whose virtue overcomes their temptations.

Nous admirons toujours les hommes dont la vertu surmonte les tentations.

When the direct object does not represent a thing belonging to the antecedent of *whose*, we use the definite article as in French.

Ex. : We admire those persons whose virtue was the admiration of all men.

Nous admirons ces personnes dont la vertu a fait l'admiration de tous les hommes.

N. B. — We studied, in the first part of this grammar, the rules concerning the translation of *ce*

qui, ce que by *which* and *what*; let us say that *what*, being equivalent to *that which*, may sometimes be replaced by the latter.

Ex.: Who steals my purse, steals that which is useful to me.

Celui qui me vole ma bourse, : vole ce qui m'est utile.

What fruits we had were taken away.

What may be used both as an adjective, and a relative at the same time. In such cases, it is considered once more as the equivalent of *that . . . which, those . . . which*.

Ex.: What fruits we had were taken away.

Tous les fruits que nous avions nous furent enlevés.

N. B.—1^o In like manner, *what* is sometimes used for persons with the meaning of *any . . . who*.

Ex.: What man but enters dies.

Tout homme qui entre meurt.

That is: Any man who enters dies.

2^o The word *as*, which is generally a conjunction or an adverb, is sometimes used as a relative pronoun.

Ex.: The Lord added to the Church daily such as should be saved.

In this example, *such* has the meaning of *tels* or *ceux*, and *as* means *qui*.

Le Seigneur ajoutait tous les jours à l'Eglise ceux qui devaient être sauvés.

3^o Qui... qui repeated in French is translated by some.

Ex. : They all had something, some their books,
some their pens and pencils.

*Ils avaient tous quelque chose, qui leurs livres,
qui leurs plumes et leurs crayons.*

4^o Tant par... que is translated by what with repeated.

Ex. : What with his drunkenness, what with his
idleness, his family was in poverty.

*Tant par son ivrognerie que par sa paresse,
sa famille était dans la pauvreté.*

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

The conjunctive adverb is much more employed in English than in French. The English language likes to connect sentences with those adverbs which are equivalent to a conjunction and an adverb.

Ex. : I will wait for you till ten, when I will start.

*Je vous attendrai jusqu'à dix heures, et alors
je partirai.*

Here, when is used instead of and then.

In like manner where is equivalent to and there.

Ex. : I will go to Quebec where I will visit you.

J'irai à Québec et là je vous visiterai.

N. B. — As it is question of words used to connect sentences, let us say that the relative pronoun followed by a verb, in French, is frequently translated into English by the imperfect participle.

Ex. : I give you the proofs showing the truth of what I say.

Je vous donne les preuves qui démontrent la vérité de ce que je dis.

Whoever works will succeed.

The compound relative pronouns *whoever* or *whosoever* are equivalent to the French pronouns *quiconque*, *qui que ce soit qui*, etc., etc. They have an unlimited signification; and, as some general term, such as *any person* or *anything*, is usually understood, they are followed by two verbs.

Ex. : Whoever works, will succeed.

Quiconque travaille réussira.

That is : Any person who works will succeed.

2^o After a verb or a preposition, we use *whomever* or *whomsoever*, except if this pronoun is the subject of a verb coming after.

Ex. : I will punish whomsoever you will punish.

Je punirai quiconque vous punirez.

I will complain to whomsoever I will meet.

Je me plaindrai à quiconque je rencontrerai.

3^o But, as said before, when the compound pronoun *quiconque* is the subject of a following verb, we use *whoever* or *whosoever*, notwithstanding its being the object of the preceding word.

Ex. : I reward whoever works.

Je récompense celui qui travaille.

I will give the reward to whoever will work.

Je récompenserai quiconque travaillera.

God loves a man who prays, works and is virtuous.

It is not necessary to repeat the relative pronoun before several verbs coming after one another.

Ex. : God loves a man who prays, works and is virtuous.

Dieu aime un homme qui prie, travaille et est vertueux.

We have a king whom we love, respect and esteem.

Nous avons un roi que nous aimons, respectons et estimons.

N. B. — 1^o The French pronouns *ce qui*, *ce que*, coming after *all*, must be translated by *that*.

Ex. : We ought to love all that is really good and excellent.

Nous devons aimer tout ce qui est réellement bon et excellent.

Nevertheless, examples of the contrary are sometimes to be seen.

Ex. : Tell them all what I suffer at dying without receiving their last embrace.

(Archibald Alison; Louis XVI).

Dites-leur tout ce que souffre en mourant sans recevoir leur dernier embrassement.

2^o *What*, interrogative, has the meaning of *quoi*? *que*? *quel*? *quelle*?

When it is equivalent to *quel*? *quelle*? it is an adjective expressing nature or quality.

Ex. : What man is this ?

What book do you want ?

Answering to *qui* ? or *quoi* ? it is used as a pronoun and is neuter.

Ex. : What do you want ?

What do you mean ?

3^o *Which* ? taken as an interrogative adjective or pronoun, expresses *choice*, *selection*, and is used for persons or things.

Ex. : Which of these men is your brother ?

Lequel de ces hommes es-tu votre frère ?

Which of these books will you have ?

Lequel de ces livres voulez-vous avoir ?

4^o *What*, followed by *if*, *of* or *though*, is sometimes used in English ; it then forms elliptical expressions which may be explained by supplying a word which is understood.

Ex. : What if I did speak to him ?

Quoi (cela ferait-il) si je lui parlais ?

What of all this ?

Que signifie tout cela ?

You do not give me your consent, what though ?

Vous ne me donnez pas votre consentement, qu'importe ?

5^o The French word *où*, being equivalent to a relative pronoun preceded by a preposition, must be translated accordingly.

Ex. : The state in which he is.

L'état où il est.

The end at which we aim.

Le but où nous tendons.

The affair on which my fame depends.

L'affaire d'où dépend ma réputation.

INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES.

The words *many*, *few*, *little* are sometimes preceded by *a*; in such cases they are taken as nouns.

Ex. : A great many difficulties.

A little glory, a few horses.

In the foregoing examples, *of* is always understood after the words *many*, *few*, *little*, which may be considered as collective nouns.

Many means a great number.

Few and *little* mean a little number.

N. B. — 1^o *Few* is used with nouns that may take the plural form.

Ex. : Few friends, few books.

Little with nouns that have no plural.

Ex. : Little glory, little virtue.

2^o *Many* is much used in composition, that is, to form compound nouns, adjectives and adverbs.

Many-feet (subs.), polype.

Many-times (adv.), souvent.

Many-coloured (adj.), multicolore.

Many-cornered, polygone.

Many-flowered, multiflore.

Many-headed,

qui a plusieurs têtes.

Manifold,

en grand nombre.

Ex. : O Lord, how manifold are thy works !
O Seigneur, que vos œuvres sont en grand nombre !

People are a many-headed beast.
Le peuple est un animal à plusieurs têtes.

What a fine garden you have.

The words *half*, *such*, *many* and *what* (exclamatory), must be followed by *a* or *an* with a singular noun coming after them.

Ex. : What a fine garden you have !

Quel beau jardin vous avez !

Half an hour.

Une demi-heure.

Such a man.

Un tel homme.

Many a time.

Plus d'une fois.

This particular construction of *what* with *a* or *an* is not used with abstract and plural nouns.

Ex. : What virtue ! What eloquence !

Quelle vertu ! Quelle éloquence !

What fine gardens you have !

Quels beaux jardins vous avez !

It is agreeable to live with so good a man.

When a noun is accompanied by an adjective, the indefinite article *a* or *an*, when used, must be placed before the adjective and the noun in order that its power may extend to the two words.

Ex. : A good man, a virtuous scholar.

However, with *too*, *as*, *how*, *so*, the indefinite article should be placed immediately before the noun.

Ex. : Too great a love is sometimes dangerous.

Un trop grand amour est quelquefois dangereux.

Consider how sad a year I had to pass.

Voyez quelle triste année j'ai passée.

So good a fruit would not grow here.

Un si bon fruit ne viendrait pas ici.

As good a man as we rarely meet with.

Un homme bon comme nous en voyons rarement.

He is a devil of a man.

The attribute and the substantive used by exclamation are sometimes followed by another noun connected to them by *of*; in such cases, *of* is followed by *a* or *an* in the singular.

Ex. : What a rascal of a boy !

Quel coquin d'enfant !

He is a devil of a man.

C'est un diable d'homme.

N. B. 1^o Sometimes the second noun is an abstract one expressing a quality of the first noun ; in such instances *of* is used alone.

Ex. : What a man of courage !

Quel homme de courage !

2^o The same construction is used with *a little*, *much*, *nothing*, *something*, *somewhat*, *anything*.

Ex. : He is a little of a miser.

Il est un peu avare.

He is much of a talker.
Il est bien bavard.

He is somewhat of a plague for us.
Il est une plaie pour nous.

3º When the second noun, instead of expressing an individual, expresses a species, *a* or *an* is no longer used.

Ex.: The zebra is a kind of horse.
Le zèbre est une espèce de cheval.

Some observations on the use of the indefinite article **A** or **AN**.

1º As said before, *a* is used before a consonant sound, *an* before a vowel sound.

Ex.: A man, a house, a boy, a unit.
 An elf, an eel.

2º *A* is sometimes used before adjectives of number; then, these adjectives are taken as nouns and have a collective meaning.

Ex.: You have a few friends.
Vous avez quelques amis.
 There were a thousand men on the spot.
Il y avait un millier d'hommes sur la place.

3º *A* or *an* has in some cases, the meaning of each, every.

Ex.: He goes there twice a week.
Il va là deux fois par semaine.

He speaks twice an hour.

Il parle deux fois par heure.

4° *A* is sometimes used before participles in *ing*, and before some nouns, with the meaning of *to*, *at* or *in*.

Ex.: We burst out a laughing.

Nous éclatâmes de rire.

We went a hunting, a fishing.

Nous allâmes à la chasse, à la pêche.

He lies a bed all day.

Il reste au lit tout le jour.

5° In some instances adjectives are connected and express qualities belonging to different things, though of the same name; in such cases, *a* must be repeated before each adjective.

Ex.: A red and a yellow bird.

Un oiseau rouge et un jaune.

If the qualities belong to the same noun, *a* must not be repeated before the second adjective.

Ex.: A red and a yellow bird.

Un oiseau rouge et jaune.

6° *A* must not be used before names of titles, when they are used merely as such.

Ex.: He was made marquis.

He was named general.

When the name of the title is used as an attribute, *a* ought to be employed.

Ex.: He is a marquis.

Il est marquis.

My brother is a general.

Mon frère est général.

7º *A* is not repeated in an enumeration, except if we wish to draw attention to each of the nouns mentioned in the enumeration.

Ex.: A pen, pen-holder and pencil.

Une plume, un porte-plume et un crayon.

8º *A* is repeated in an enumeration when the nouns require a different form of the indefinite article.

Ex.: The man bought a horse, an ass and a cow.
L'homme acheta un cheval, un âne et une vache.

9º After the verb *to have*, the indefinite article *a* or *an* is used before every noun accompanied by an adjective and designating a part of the body or a faculty of the mind.

Ex.: She has a small head.

Elle a la tête petite.

He has a good understanding.

Il a le jugement bon.

This rule is contrary to the French which in such cases prefers the definite article.

10º In a comparison, when both nouns refer to the same subject, *a* or *an* should not be inserted; when they refer to different subjects, *a* or *an* should not be omitted.

Ex.: Your professor is a better teacher than poet.

Votre professeur est meilleur maître que poète.

In this sentence we compare different qualities of the same man.

Ex. : Your professor is a better teacher than a poet.

Votre professeur est meilleur maître qu'un poète.

Here we mention different men.

A distaff in her other hand she had.

The French adjective *autre* may be translated in different ways :

1^o *Other*, when it means different from that which has been specified ; not the same ; not identical ; the second of two.

Ex. : Do you like this book ? — I prefer the other.

Aimez-vous ce livre ? — Je préfère l'autre.

A distaff in her other hand she had.

Elle avait une quenouille dans son autre main.

2^o *Else*, when signifying something besides (*en plus*).

Ex. : What else shall I give ?

Quelle autre chose donnerai-je ?

Do you expect anything else ?

Esperez-vous avoir autre chose ?

3^o *Different*, when the French adjective expresses a change in a person or in a thing. In such cases, *que* is translated by *from*.

Ex.: You are quite different from what you were.

Vous êtes tout autre que vous n'étiez.

Objects appear different from what they are.

On voit les objets tout autres qu'ils ne sont.

N. B. — 1^o Autre preceded by *nous*, *vous*, must not be translated.

Ex.: We, Frenchmen, eat a great deal of bread, you, Irishmen, eat a great deal of potatoes.

Nous autres, Français, nous mangeons beaucoup de pain, vous autres, Irlandais, vous mangez beaucoup de pommes de terre.

2^o Tout autre, meaning any other, is translated by every other or any other.

Ex.: Every other man would have done it.

Tout autre homme l'aurait fait.

Any other place than a throne....

Toute autre place qu'un trône.....

2^o Tout autre, meaning very different, is translated by quite another.

Ex.: Peter is quite another man since you spoke to him.

Pierre est tout autre depuis que vous lui avez parlé.

Translation of the French " DU, DE LA, DES."

Du, de la, des, meaning *un peu de*, are translated into English by *some* or *any*; in such cases they limit the sense of the word coming after them.

Some and *any* mean a certain quantity of a thing, but indeterminate.

Ex. : I have some good bread.

J'ai du bon pain.

A certain number of persons or things, but indeterminate.

Ex. : I have some friends here.

J'ai des amis ici.

Have you any books with you ?

Avez-vous des livres avec vous ?

Some is used :

1^o In affirmative sentences.

Ex. : I have some pens.

J'ai des plumes.

2^o In sentences which are both interrogative and negative.

Ex. : Have you not some pens ?

N'avez-vous pas de plumes ?

Any is used :

1^o In negative sentences.

Ex. : I did not see any man.

Je n'ai pas vu d'homme.

2^o In dubitative sentences.

Ex. : If I had any fruits.

Si j'avais des fruits.

3° In interrogative sentences.

Ex.: Have you any book? ?

Avez-vous des livres?

N. B.—Nevertheless the foregoing rule is not quite general; sometimes, *any* will be used in affirmative sentences, and *some* in negative, interrogative and dubitative sentences.

In such cases, *any* has a general sense, an unlimited meaning.

Ex.: Come at any time and you shall be welcome.

Venez en tout temps et vous serez le bienvenu.

His purse is open to any one.

Sa bourse est ouverte à n'importe qui.

In these instances *any* translates the French *quelconque*.

Some has a limited signification.

Ex.: Will you have some wine?

Voulez-vous du vin?

If somebody does not help this man, he will die.

Si quelqu'un n'aide pas cet homme, il mourra.

If somebody has an opinion to give, let him speak.

Si quelqu'un a une opinion à donner, qu'il parle.

A book-seller sells books.

Du, de la, des, are not translated into English when

they are used in a general sense to express a custom, a habit or an enumeration.

Ex. : A book-seller sells books.

Un libraire vend des livres.

We sell fruits, wine, cider and ale.

Nous vendons des fruits, du vin, du cidre et de la bière.

N. B. — Nothing, something are never followed by of in the following sentences and the like.

Nothing good, rien de bon.

Something useful, quelque chose d'utile.

All men, whoever they may be, are equal before the law.

1^e *Quel que*, in two words, followed by a verb, is translated by whoever or whatever.

Ex. : All men, whoever they may be, are equal before the law.

Tous les hommes quels qu'ils soient sont égaux devant la loi.

I do not fear them, whatever they may be.

Je ne les crains pas, quels qu'ils soient.

N. B. — In the first example, whoever denotes the individuals; that is, whoever they may be, Peter, John or Andrew, they are equal before the law.

In the second example we consider their qualities, and so, we use whatever. I do not fear them, whatever they may be (strong, wicked or powerful).

Whatever is also used for things.

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Ex. : Whatever may be your means, you must be humble.

Quels que soient vos moyens, vous devez être humbles.

2° *Quelque*, in one word, followed by a noun is translated by whatever.

Ex. : Whatever riches you may have, be humble.
Quelques richesses que vous ayez, soyez humbles.

If we have to choose an object among several, we use whichever instead of whatever.

Ex. : Whichever book you may take, you will be satisfied.

Quelque livre que vous preniez, vous serez satisfait.

3° *Quelque* used as an adverb, before an adjective, a participle or another adverb, is translated by however.

Ex. : However rich they may be.

Quelque riches qu'ils soient.

However esteemed you may be.

Quelqu'estimés que vous soyez.

However learnedly he may speak.

Quelque savamment qu'il parle.

N. B.—With whatever, whoever, whichever, however, we use the subjunctive, or the potential with the auxiliary *I may*.

I have the same book as you.

The French word *même* may be an adjective or an adverb.

1° Placed before a noun to express a comparison, *même* is translated by *same* and *que by as*.

Ex. : I have the same book as you.

J'ai le même livre que vous.

The relative pronoun *qui* or *que* coming after *même* is translated by *that*.

Ex. : He is the same man that came last week.

C'est le même homme qui est venu la semaine dernière.

You are the same man that we saw yesterday.

Vous êtes le même homme que nous avons vu hier.

2° *Même* placed after a noun or a pronoun may be equivalent to a reflected pronoun, it is then translated by the compound personal pronouns.

Ex. : His enemies themselves esteem him.

Ses ennemis mêmes l'estiment.

I spoke to the boy himself.

J'ai parlé à l'enfant même.

3° *Very* with the sense of *exactly* translates *même* in some instances.

Ex. : This is the very watch I wanted.

C'est la montre même que je voulais.

On the very moment of his arrival.

Au moment même de son arrivée.

That very thing which I told you.

Cette chose même que je vous ai dite.

4° *Même* placed before an adjective, or before a

TRANSLATION OF THE FRENCH WORD "MÊME". 225

noun after an enumeration, is taken as an adverb and ought to be translated by even.

Ex.: His gestures are fine, easy and even noble.

Ses gestes sont beaux, faciles et même nobles.

He obtained riches, honour, and even celebrity.

Il obtint des richesses, des honneurs, et même de la célébrité.

Même is also taken as an adverb and translated by even, when it modifies a verb expressed or understood.

Ex.: They killed women and even children.

Ils tuèrent les femmes et même les enfants.

They even admire the gesture of this orator.

Ils admirent même le geste de cet orateur.

Mettre à même, to enable, to put in a condition.

Ex.: I put him in a condition to do this.

Je le mis à même de faire cela.

Etre à même, to be in a situation.

Ex.: You are in a situation to do that man a service.

Vous êtes à même de rendre service à cet homme.

A même, out of.

Ex.: Drink out of the decanter.

Buvez à même la carafe.

They ate out of the pot.

Ils mangeaient à même le chaudron.

I lent you all the books I had.

1° *Tout* used in a collective sense is translated by *all*, which is followed by the article or by a determinative adjective. When *all* is taken in a general sense, the article is not used.

Ex. : *I lent you all the books I had.*

Je vous ai prêté tous les livres que j'avais.
To suffer and die, such is the condition of all men.

Souffrir et mourir, telle est la condition de tous les hommes.

2° *Tout*, meaning *tout entier* or representing the totality of an object, is translated into English by *whole*.

Ex. : *The whole town was destroyed.*

Toute la ville fut détruite.

Whole cities were destroyed.

Des villes entières furent détruites.

3° *Tout*, meaning *chaque*, is translated by *every*.

Ex. : *Every morning, every day.*

Tous les matins, tous les jours.

Every man is apt to fail.

Tout homme est sujet à faillir.

4° *Tout*, signifying *quelconque*, *n'importe lequel*, is translated by *any*.

Ex. : *Any water may serve for that.*

Toute eau peut servir à cela.

Anything you shall think fit.

Toute chose que vous trouverez convenable.

Anybody but you would make me laugh.
Tout autre que vous me ferait rire.

5° Used alone, *tout* is translated by *everything*,
anything.

Ex. : After his crime, he feared everything.
Après son crime, il craignait tout.

6° *Tout*, taken as an adverb, with the meaning of
tout à fait, is translated by *wholly*, *quite*, *entirely*, etc.

Ex. : I am wholly yours.
Je suis tout à vous.

He is entirely devoted to your service.
Il est tout dévoué à votre service.

7° While, followed by the imperfect participle,
sometimes renders the French *tout en* followed by
the same tense.

Ex. : While smoking, I read my newspaper.
Tout en fumant, je lisais mon journal.

8° We saw previously *ce qui*, *ce que* translated by
that after all. In some cases we may use *whatever*.

Ex. : Say whatever you please.
Dites tout ce que vous voudrez.

Common expressions.

Wise as he is.	<i>Tout sage qu'il est.</i>
Though he is your friend.	<i>Tout votre ami qu'il est.</i>
However good he may be.	<i>Tout bon qu'il est.</i>
In all things, entirely.	<i>En tout et partout.</i>
Wherever.	<i>Partout (connecting two propositions).</i>
After all, upon the whole.	<i>Après tout.</i>
Especially, above all.	<i>Surtout.</i>

There are no such customs in this country.

1° *Tel*, meaning in French *pareil* or *semblable*, is translated by such or like.

Ex. : *There are no such customs in this country.*
Il n'y a pas de telles coutumes dans ce pays.

I never saw the like.

Je n'ai jamais rien vu de tel.

2° *Tel*, followed by *que* and expressing a resemblance between two things which we compare, is translated by such as.

Ex. : *This stuff is such as you want.*

Cette étoffe est telle que vous la demandez.

That is : *This stuff is such as the one which you want.*

3° When *tel* followed by *que* expresses a consequence and not a comparison, *such as* is replaced by *such that*.

Ex. : *His memory is such that he never forgets.*

Sa mémoire est telle qu'il n'oublie jamais.

4° *Tel*, expressing a state or a manner of being, is translated by such as, or, more simply, by as.

Ex. : *Such as they are, I love them.*

As they are, I love them.

Je les aime tels qu'ils sont.

N. B. — In some cases, *tel*, expressing manner, has what for its equivalent in English.

Ex. : *You are not what you should be.*

Vous n'êtes pas tel que vous devriez être.

5° *Tel*, used in a general sense to represent persons, may be translated by *many a one*, *he who*, *she who*, when singular, and *those who*, *some*, when plural.

Ex. : He who has sown sometimes does not reap.
Tel sème qui quelquefois ne moissonne pas.

6° *Tel quel*, *telle quelle*, used in conversation with the meaning of *common*, *indifferent*, *rather bad*, may be translated into English by *so so*, or, sometimes, by *mean*.

Ex. : That house is so so.
Cette maison est telle quelle.
 He is a mean orator.
C'est un orateur tel quel.

7° *Tel*, repeated before two nouns to express resemblance or equality, is represented by *like* repeated.

Ex. : Like mother, like daughter.
Telle mère, telle fille.

N. B.—*Un tel*, *une telle*, preceded by *Mr* or *Madame*, are translated by *such a one*.

Ex. : Mr such a one, Mrs such a one.
Monsieur un tel, Madame une telle.

PRONOUNS.

Who speaks so? — He.

Personal pronouns changing their form as they change their case, care should be taken to see whether they are subjects or objects in the French sentence.

Ex. : Who speaks so ? — He.

Qui parle ainsi ? — Lui.

That is : he speaks so.

Ex. : Whom do you see ? — Her.

Qui voyez-vous ? — Elle.

That is : I see her.

They live only for themselves.

The reflected pronoun *soi*, applied to persons, is replaced in French by *lui*, *elle*, *eux*, *elles*, when used in a definite manner. In English we represent it by the compound personal pronouns *himself*, *herself*, *themselves*.

Ex. : They live only for themselves.

Ils ne vivent que pour eux.

He lives only for himself.

Il ne vit que pour lui.

Your companions I know.

When the direct object of an active-transitive verb is placed at the beginning of a sentence, the French language generally uses a personal pronoun after the verb to represent the object placed before. Such a pleonasm is rarely to be seen in English.

Ex. : Your companions I know.

Vos compagnons, je les connais.

Your friends I saw coming back.

Vos amis, je les ai vus revenir.

N. B. — 1^o Personal pronouns used as subjects are not repeated in English, except if the verbs differ in mood, tense and form.

TRANSLATION OF THE FRENCH PRONOUN "LE." 231

Ex.: I esteem and I will always esteem him.

Je l'estime et l'estimerai toujours.

I see and hear him.

Je le vois et l'entends.

2^o The pronoun *we* is sometimes used, by a sort of fiction, instead of the singular, to intimate that the speaker is not alone in his opinions. Monarchs, bishops sometimes join it to a singular noun.

Ex.: We Edward, King of England.

Nous Edouard, roi d'Angleterre.

With this pronoun they use the singular compound *ourse'sf.*

Translation of the French pronoun "LE".

I am not a captain, but I should like to be one.

When *le* represents a noun taken in a general sense, that is, not limited by a possessive or a demonstrative adjective, we translate it by *one*.

Ex.: I am not a captain, but I should like to be one.

Je ne suis pas capitaine, mais j'aimerais à l'être.

2^o *Le* is translated by *so* when it represents a noun taken in particular, that is, limited by a possessive or a demonstrative adjective or when it represents a plural noun, an adjective or a participle.

Ex.: You were my doctor and are so still.

Vous étiez mon médecin et vous l'êtes encore.

You are soldiers, I should like to be so.

Vous êtes soldats, j'aimerais à l'être.

They are brave, you ought to be so.

Ils sont braves, vous devez l'être.

3^e *Le*, accompanied by *aussi*, *ne plus*, *également*, *parcelllement*, is translated by *so* followed by an adverb.

Ex. : If you are his friend, we are so too.

Si vous êtes son ami, nous le sommes aussi.

You were rich, you are so no longer.

Vous étiez riche, vous ne l'êtes plus.

4^e *So* is also used to translate *le* representing a whole proposition.

Ex. : Shall you come to-morrow ? — I hope so.

Viendrez-vous demain ? — Je l'espère.

N. B.—In such instances, *so* is replaced by *it* with the verbs *to know*, *to see*, *to perceive* etc.

Ex. : You will come to-morrow, they know it.

Tous viendrez demain, ils le savent.

We have been laughed at, we perceive it.

Nous avons fait rire de nous, nous le constatons.

So is rather used with such verbs as *to guess*, *to hope*, *to suppose*, *to think*, *to say*, *to tell*, etc.

Ex. : Shall he go there ? — I hope so.

Ira-t-il là ? — Je l'espère.

Do they understand what I say ? — I think so.

Comprendent-ils ce que je dis ? — Je le pense.

TRANSLATION OF THE FRENCH PRONOUN " LE." 233

5^o When *le*, representing a noun, is the direct object of an active-transitive verb, it is translated by him or it.

Ex.: We have lost our book, we will find it.
Nous avons perdu notre livre, nous le retrouverons.

We love our brother, we admire him.
Nous aimons notre frère, nous l'admirons.

6^o *Le* is sometimes used in answers to represent what has been said before; in such cases it is not translated with the verbs *to be, to have, I shall, I will, I may, I can, I must.*

Ex.: Are you satisfied? — I am.

Etes-vous content? — Je le suis.

Can you accompany us? — We can.

Pouvez-vous nous accompagner? — Nous le pouvons.

7^o Lastly, this pronoun is not translated whenever it is used in the second part of a comparison in French.

Ex.: We are more tired than you think.

Nous sommes plus fatigués que vous ne le pensez.

He is as perfect as you may imagine.

Il est aussi parfait que vous pouvez l'imaginer.

The thing took place as I told you.

La chose s'est passée comme je vous le disais.

TRANSLATION OF THE FRENCH PRONOUN "EN".

The relative word *en*, which may be considered as a personal pronoun, has no equivalent in English. It must be translated by a personal pronoun preceded by a preposition.

Ex. : Do you speak of my father ? — Yes, we speak of him.

Parlez-vous de mon père ? — Oui, nous en parlons.

Whilst fools abuse pleasures, wise men use them in moderation.

Pendant que les fous abusent des plaisirs, les sages en usent avec modération.

My brother is your pupil, are you satisfied with him ?

Mon frère est votre élève, en êtes-vous content.

N. B.—1^o En, used to represent things, may sometimes express a relation of property ; in such cases, *en* is translated by a possessive adjective.

Ex. : I am fond of that drink, but I fear its effects.

J'aime beaucoup cette liqueur, mais j'en crains les effets.

2^o En (partitive), accompanied by an adjective of number, or an adverb of degree, must not be translated.

TRANSLATION OF THE FRENCH PRONOUN " EN." 235

Ex.: How many friends have you? — I have ten.
Combien d'amis avez-vous? — J'en ai dix.

I have several, I have many.

J'en ai plusieurs, j'en ai beaucoup.

3^e *En* (partitive or relative), is not expressed in those answers in which the English language does not repeat the principal verb; that is, when the answer is made with an auxiliary verb.

Ex.: Do you want money? — Yes, we do.

Avez-vous besoin d'argent? — Oui, nous en avons besoin.

Do you speak of us? — Yes, we do.

Parlez-vous de nous? — Oui, nous en parlons.

Did you speak of them? — Yes, we did.

Avez-vous parlé d'eux? — Oui, nous en avons parlé.

4^e In the second part of a comparison, *en* is sometimes used with *n'*; it is not translated.

Ex.: We received more money than we asked.

Nous receumes plus d'argent que nous n'en demandions.

5^e *En*, joined to the impersonal verb *il y a*, is translated by *some* in affirmative sentences, *any* in interrogative sentences, and *none* or *not any* with a negation.

Ex.: Are there any books in this box? — Yes there are some.

Y a-t-il des livres dans cette boite? — Oui, il y en a.

You wish to find books in this box, are there any?

Vous voulez trouver des livres dans cette boîte, y en a-t-il?

There are not any.

Il n'y en a pas.

6^o *En*, followed by a verb and a qualificative adjective, is translated by *one* for the singular and *ones* for the plural.

Ex. : Have you a fine watch? — Yes, I have a fine one.

Avez-vous une belle montre? — Oui, j'en ai une belle.

I like good books, and read but very good ones.

J'aime les bons livres, et je n'en lis que de très bons.

TRANSLATION OF THE FRENCH WORD "Y"

It is a fine post, he aimed at it.

Y, in French, is used for persons, things and animals; it is equivalent to a personal pronoun preceded by a preposition and must be translated accordingly.

Ex. : It is a fine post, he aimed at it.

C'est une belle charge, il y aspirait.

When man is dead, Church thinks of him.

Quand l'homme est mort, l'Eglise y pense.

He is not fit for it.

Il n'y est pas propre.

Come to see us, while we live here.

Y is translated sometimes by *here*, and generally by *there*, when it expresses a relation of place.

Ex. : Come to see us, while we live here.

Venez nous voir ici, pendant que nous y demeurons.

Your brother is at Quebec, do you not come there?

Votre frère est à Québec, n'y venez-vous pas?

You see danger in going there, I do not.

Whatever may be its signification, *y* is not translated in sentences in which the principal verb is not repeated; that is, whenever we use an auxiliary in the answer, or in the second part of the sentence.

Ex. : You see danger in going there, I do not.

Vous voyez du danger à aller là, je n'y en vois pas.

Did you work at our house?—Yes we did.

Avez-vous travaillé à notre maison?—

Oui, nous y avons travaillé.

PARTICULAR RULES ON ENGLISH VERBS.

Compound verbs.

Compound verbs are those which are formed from simple verbs to which are prefixed other words changing their meaning.

For example, we have in English the particle *mis*

used in composition to mark an ill sense or deprivation of the meaning.

Ex.: To advise.

Conseiller.

To guide.

Diriger.

To inform.

Informer.

To misadvise.

Mal conseiller.

To misguide.

Mal diriger.

To misinform.

Mal informer.

In some other instances, the prefix will be a preposition which is inseparable from the verb.

From the verb *to take*, we have: To overtake.

Atteindre.

To undertake.

Entreprendre.

To overcome.

Surmonter.

To undergo.

Subir.

To underbuy.

Acheter au rabais.

To forgive.

Pardonner.

Nevertheless, these verbs are not very numerous in English; in most cases, the preposition comes after the verb and has the force of an adverb which changes the meaning of the primitive verb. Thus, from the verb *to come* we have:

To come about,

changer, tourner.

To come along,

s'en venir.

To come back,

revenir.

To come near,

s'approcher.

To come on,

avancer.

To come out,

sortir.

Ex. : It is time for you to come back.

Il est temps pour vous de revenir.

Come along, do not stay there.

Venez vous-en, ne restez pas là.

In some other cases, the preposition gives the English verb the force of two verbs. So, the preposition *on*, taken as an adverb after a verb, will add to this verb the sense of *to continue*.

To speak *on*, *continuer de parler.*

To work *on*, *continuer de travailler.*

To read *on*, *continuer de lire.*

To write *on*, *continuer d'écrire.*

To go *on*, *continuer d'aller.*

To come *on*, *continuer de venir.*

Ex. : Shall I stop here? — No, come on.

Arrêterai-je ici? — Non, avancez.

In will add to the primary sense that of *to enter*.

To creep *in*, *entrer en se glissant.*

To rush *in*, *entrer en se précipitant.*

To steal *in*, *entrer à la dérobée.*

Out will add the sense of *going out*.

To force *out*, *forcer de sortir.*

To whip *out*, *fouetter pour faire sortir.*

Ex. : They whipped him out of the house.

Ils le firent sortir de la maison en le fouettant.

In a few instances, the preposition will completely change the meaning of the primitive verb.

Ex. : To fall *in*, *se présenter.*

To fall *off*, *abandonner.*

To fall *out*, *se quereller.*

To fall upon,	rencontrer.
To fall back,	reculer, faire défaut.
To fall over,	désertier.
To fall on,	commencer.

Ex. : All my people fall off from me.

Tous mes gens m'abandonnent.

He gave his word, but soon after he fell back.

Il donna sa parole, mais peu après il y manqua.

Take off your hat.

When a verb is construed with a preposition taken as an adverb, careful attention must be paid to the direct object.

When this object is a noun, it may be placed either before or after the preposition.

Ex. : Take off your hat

Take your hat off.

Otez votre chapeau.

When the object is a pronoun, it is always placed before the preposition.

Ex. : Take it off.

Otez-le.

Passive verbs.

In French, active-transitive verbs alone are used in the passive form; in English, active-transitive and active-intransitive verbs may be used passively.

I am spoken to.

Active-intransitive and neuter verbs, followed by a preposition and its object, sometimes admit of being

put into the passive form. In such instances, the preposition is retained with the verb as an adverb, and the object of the preposition is assumed for the nominative of the passive verb.

Ex.: They speak to me.

I am spoken to.

They speak of me.

I am spoken of.

They sleep in the bed.

The bed is slept in.

They laugh at him.

He is laughed at.

N. B.—1^o Even without a preposition, the English will say :

We are told that....

On nous dit que.....

2^o Some active-intransitive verbs are used with a passive meaning.

Ex.: These books do not sell.

These books are not sold.

Ces livres ne se vendent pas.

This copy does not read well.

Cette copie ne se lit pas bien.

England hears well abroad.

L'Angleterre est renommée à l'étranger.

We were given a fine book.

To change an active-transitive verb into a passive verb, the French language takes the object of the active-transitive verb to make it the subject of the passive verb.

Ex. : They gave us a fine book.

A fine book was given to us.

Un beau livre nous fut donné.

The same thing generally happens in English ; however, in some cases, the active-transitive verb keeps its direct object, and the indirect object becomes the subject of the passive verb.

Ex. : They sent me a fine watch.

I was sent a fine watch.

On m'envoya une belle montre.

They offered him a fine jewel.

He was offered a fine jewel.

On lui offrit un beau bijou.

He was forced out of the house.

The passive verb will sometimes retain the preposition of the active verb ; as said before, the preposition gives the verb a new meaning besides its primitive signification.

Ex. : They forced him out of the house.

He was forced out of the house.

On le fit sortir de force de la maison.

They ring us into the house.

We are rung into the house.

On nous fait entrer en sonnant.

They whip his English lessons into him.

His English lessons are whipped into him.

On lui fait entrer ses leçons anglaises dans la tête en le fouettant.

ON THE USE OF SOME FRENCH VERBS.***Devoir.***

Devoir may be used either as an independent verb or as an auxiliary.

When *devoir* is independent, that is, taken as an active-transitive verb having a direct object, it is translated by *to owe*.

Ex. : I owe twenty dollars to my uncle.

Je dois vingt piastres à mon oncle.

I owe you many thanks.

Je vous dois bien des remerciements.

Followed by an infinitive, *devoir* is translated by *I must* etc., which is defective. *Must* expresses an absolute necessity or an order given by a superior to an inferior.

Ex. : Every man must die.

Tout homme doit mourir.

You must study.

Vous devez étudier.

When *devoir* expresses a moral obligation, it is translated by *I ought*, etc., or *should* used in the second and third person, as said before.

Ex. : You ought to love your parents.

Vous devez aimer vos parents.

You should protect the feeble.

Vous devez protéger les faibles.

Dussé-je, dut-il, dussiez-vous, are translated by *were* followed by the subject and the infinitive preceded by *to*.

Ex.: *Wero I to apologize.*

Dussé je présenter des excuses.

Wero I to die.

Dussé je mourir.

Devoir may express an action which is to take place on account of an agreement or an intention ; in such instances, it may be represented in English by *to be* or *to have*.

Ex.: *I have to write this exercise before playing.*

J'obis écrire ce devoir avant de jouer.

My brother is to arrive this week.

Mon frère doit arriver cette semaine.

Falloir.

Falloir, followed by *que* and a verb, is translated by *I must*, etc. *I ought*, etc.

Ex.: *You must work.*

Il faut que vous travailliez.

We must go there.

We ought to go there.

Il faut que nous allions là.

When *falloir* has only a direct object, it is translated by the impersonal *it requires*, *it required*, etc.

Ex.: *It requires time and money to do that.*

Il faut du temps et de l'argent pour faire cela.

It required men to conquer that country.

Il fallait des hommes pour conquérir ce pays.

Il me faut, il nous faut, il vous faut, are represented by *I want, we want, you want.*

Ex.: I want a watch.

Il me faut une montre.

We want to go there.

Il nous faut aller là.

The exclamatory expression *faut-il que* is translated by *O that*, with *should* or *should have* followed by the infinitive or the past participle.

Ex.: O that I should die here!

Faut-il que je meure ici !

O that he should have forsaken us!

Faut-il qu'il nous ait abandonnés !

Ce qu'il faut, ce qu'il faudra, ce qu'il faudrait, followed by an infinitive, are translated by *to be, must, or should*; the infinitive is put into the passive form.

Ex.: What is to be done.

Ce qu'il faut faire.

What must be said.

Ce qu'il faut dire.

What should be given.

Ce qu'il faudrait donner.

What should have been done.

Ce qu'il aurait fallu faire.

Il s'en faut de, followed by an adjective of number and a noun, is translated by *to be wanting of*.

Ex.: Twenty dollars are wanting of the whole sum.

*Il s'en faut de vingt piastres que la
comme soit complète.*

So much is wanting.

Il s'en faut de tant.

*To be near, to be on the point of translate the French
peu s'en faut, peu s'en fallut, etc.*

Ex. : He was near dying.

Peu s'en fallut qu'il ne mourût.

He was on the point of dying.

S'en falloir de beaucoup is translated by *to be far from* in the following manner :

The sum is far from being complete.

Il s'en faut de beaucoup que la somme soit complète.

He is far from having as much science as his brother.

Il s'en faut de beaucoup qu'il ait autant de science que son frère.

It is far from being so here.

Il s'en faut de beaucoup qu'il en soit de même ici.

Arriver.

The English language has two words to translate this French verb, they are : *to happen* and *to arrive*.

To happen means *to take place*.

To arrive means *to come, to be no longer absent*.

Arriver relating to persons or things is used as impersonal in French ; this construction is rare in English. In such instances, the indirect object of the verb *arriver*, or the subject of the verb coming after, becomes the subject of the verb *to happen* in English.

Ex.: The first time you happen to do such things, you will be punished.

La première fois qu'il vous arrivera de faire de telles choses, vous serez punis.

We happened to meet them.

Il arriva que nous les rencontrâmes.

However, when it is question of things, the English sometimes use the impersonal form.

Ex.: It often happens that falsehood is mistaken for truth.

Il arrive souvent que l'on prend la fausseté pour la vérité.

To arrive is construed as an ordinary verb.

Ex.: The nightingale arrives with spring.

Le rossignol arrive avec le printemps.

They arrived last week.

Ils sont arrivés la semaine dernière.

Plaire.

This French verb is translated by *to please*, which is either active-transitive or intransitive.

When used as an active-transitive verb, it is equivalent to the French *contenter*, *plaire à*.

Ex.: The story pleases the boy.

L'histoire plaît à l'enfant.

I am pleased to go there.

Il me plaît d'aller là.

Please, taken as an active-intransitive verb, means to be willing.

Ex. : Give me that book, if you please.

Donnez-moi ce livre, s'il vous plaît.

Do as you please.

Faites comme il vous plaira.

Avoir.

Avoir, followed by the preposition *à* and an infinitive, is translated by *to have* with the infinitive.

Ex. : We have a long trip to make.

Nous avons à faire un long trajet.

We had to do a difficult exercise.

Nous avions à faire un exercice difficile.

Avoir bien de la peine, to have much ado.

Ex. : He had much ado to succeed.

Il eut bien de la peine à réussir.

I had much ado to forbear laughing.

J'eus bien de la peine à m'empêcher de rire.

Affor much ado.

Après beaucoup de peine.

Avoir beau may be translated in different ways, the best is to study its meaning and to render it accordingly.

Ex. : Whatever you may say, you will not be believed.

Vous avez beau dire, vous ne serez pas cru.

In vain I now exaggerate the sacrifice I made to him, he laughs at me.

J'ai beau lui exagérer le sacrifice que je lui ai fait, il se met à rire de moi.

You may easily do it.

Vous avez beau le faire.

Avoir pour agréable, to like.

Avoir en horreur, to detest.

En avoir après quelqu'un, to be angry with.

With most nouns expressing a sensation in French, such as *avoir faim*, *avoir froid*, etc. *avoir* is translated by *to be* or *to feel*, followed by an adjective.

Ex. : To be hungry, *avoir faim*.

To be cold, *avoir froid*.

To be warm, *avoir chaud*.

To be right, *avoir raison*.

To be afraid, *avoir peur*.

To be ashamed, *avoir honte*.

To be sleepy, *avoir sommeil*.

Aller et venir.

These verbs are used in French to form some expressions which are often difficult to translate.

To go in and out is equivalent to the French *aller et venir*.

Ex. : He goes in and out, drinks, games and takes his pleasure.

Il va et vient, boit, joue et s'amuse.

Aller is sometimes used in French with the meaning of *transmit*; it is translated, in such instances, by *to send* or *to bear*.

Ex. : This jug stands the fire.

Ce vase va au feu.

This stuff will bear washing.

Cette étoffe ira à la lessive.

Il en va, il en ira de.... comme de ought to be translated by *it is with.... as with....*

Ex.: It is with this affair as with the others.

Il en va de cette affaire comme des autres.

When the imperatives of the verbs *aller* and *venir* are followed by an infinitive, we use two imperatives in English, with the conjunction *and* to connect them.

Ex.: Go and give him his book.

Allez lui donner son livre.

Come and take them.

Venez les prendre.

Venir, expressing an action recently made, is translated in the following manner.

Je viens de parler, I have just spoken.

Je venais de parler, I had just spoken.

Je viendrai de parler, I will have just spoken.

Tarder.

Tarder, impersonal, is translated by the intransitive *to long*, which is not impersonal in English; the indirect object of the French verb becomes the subject of the verb *to long*.

Ex.: We long, " you long.

Il nous tarde, il vous tarde.

To long is equivalent to the French verb *désirer avec ardeur, soupirer après*; it may be followed by three different propositions.

To is used with a verb.

Ex.: We long to go there.

Il nous tarde d'aller là.

He longs to see you.

Il lui tarde de vous voir.

For and after, with a noun.

Ex. : They long after the vacation.

Il leur tarde d'arriver aux vacances.

We long for our dinner.

Il nous tarde de dîner.

N. B.—To be long in, not to be long in translate the French locutions tarder à, ne pas tarder à.

Ex. : He is long in coming.

Il tarde à venir.

He was not long in coming.

Il ne tarda pas à venir.

Dire.

Two words translate this French verb, they are :
To tell and to say.

To tell means :

1º To mention one by one, to recount, to number.

Ex. : Tell the joints of the body.

Enumérez les jointures du corps.

2º To recite in detail, to give an account, to narrate.

Ex. : Not a man appears to tell their fate.

Pas un homme ne paraît pour dire leur sort.

3º To make known, to publish.

Ex. : Why didst thou not tell me that she was thy wife ?

Pourquoi ne m'avez-vous pas dit qu'elle était votre femme ?

To say means to express our thought such as it comes to our mind, without much reflection.

Ex. : Do not let children say foolish things.

Ne permettez pas aux enfants de dire des folies.

N. B.—1^o *Tell* though equivalent, in some respects, to *say*, has not always the same application. We *say*: *To tell truth or falsehood, to tell a number, to tell a story, to tell the reasons*; but, we do not *say*: *To tell a speech, to tell a discourse, an oration, to tell an argument, a lesson.*

Tell is much used in commands.

Ex. : Tell me the whole story.

Racontez-moi toute l'histoire.

Tell refers to the substance of the communication, *say* rather refers to the words.

Ex. : Say your lesson.

Dites votre leçon.

Tell me what is in your lesson.

Dites-moi ce qu'il y a dans votre leçon.

2^o *To say* generally has only one object, *to tell* always has two, one direct, the other indirect.

Ex. : Tell me the story.

Racontez-moi l'histoire.

When *to say* has an indirect object, the latter is always preceded by *to*.

Faire.

This verb may be followed by a noun, an adjective or an infinitive.

1^o Followed by a noun, it is translated by *to make*, *to do*.

To make means *to shape*, *to work up*; it seems to express a manual operation.

Ex. : To make a table.

To do rather expresses a moral action; it means *to act*.

Ex. : To do good, to do evil.

Faire le bien, faire le mal.

Notwithstanding this distinction, several cases occur in which it is difficult to find out which of the two verbs is to be used; hence, practice will help more than rules of grammar.

To make an apology, *demander pardon.*

To make an observation, *faire une remarque.*

To make progress, *faire des progrès.*

To make a machine, *faire une machine.*

To make fire, soup, *faire du feu, de la soupe.*

To make a bed, *faire un lit.*

To make money, *faire de l'argent.*

To make a journey, *faire un voyage.*

To make a friend, *faire un ami.*

To make an account, *faire un compte.*

To make a law, *faire une loi.*

To make a demand, *faire une demande.*

To make a distinction, *faire une distinction.*

To make one's fortune, *faire sa fortune.*

To make war, *faire la guerre.*

To make peace, *faire la paix.*

To do good, *faire le bien.*

To do work, *faire de l'ouvrage.*

To do an exercise,	<i>faire un devoir.</i>
To do well,	<i>faire bien.</i>
To do a favour,	<i>faire une faveur.</i>
To do business,	<i>faire des affaires.</i>
To do a part,	<i>remplir un rôle.</i>
To do damage to,	<i>faire dommage à.</i>
To do good to,	<i>faire du bien à.</i>
To do harm to,	<i>faire du mal à.</i>
To do honour to,	<i>faire honneur à.</i>
To do wrong to,	<i>faire tort à.</i>
To do a wise thing.	<i>faire une chose sage.</i>

Followed by a noun, expressing the state of the atmosphere, *faire* is translated by *it is*.

- Ex. : *Il fait jour,* It is day-light.
Il fait clair de lune, It is moon-light.
Il fait du brouillard, It is foggy.

2o Followed by an adjective, *to make* sometimes translates the French verbs *faire*, *rendre*.

- Ex. : He makes all about him happy.
Il rend heureux tous ceux qui vivent avec lui.
 This contract made them rich.
Ce contrat les enrichit.

In the impersonal forms *il fait*, *il faisait*, *faire* is translated by *it is*.

- Ex. : It is warm, *il fait chaud.*
 It is cold, *il fait froid.*
 It is dark, *il fait noir.*
 It is good to be here.
Il fait bon d'être ici.

3^o With an infinitive, *faire* is translated by *to make* with the meaning of *to oblige*.

Ex.: I made him do it.

Je le lui fis faire.

I tried to make him speak.

J'essayai de le faire parler.

He made me laugh, I made him cry.

Il me fit rire, je le fis pleurer.

In the same case, it may be translated by *to order*, *to bid*, *to have* and sometimes *to get*.

Ex.: We ordered our men to go forward.

Nous fîmes avancer nos hommes.

I bade them stay there.

Je les fis rester là.

I had my watch mended.

Je fis réparer ma montre.

I got my book bound.

Je fis relié mon livre.

4^o In the French expressions *faire cuire*, *faire bouillir*, *faire rôtir*, *faire* is not translated.

To cook, *faire cuire.*

To boil, *faire bouillir.*

To roast, *faire rôtir.*

To serve, *faire servir* (*à table*).

To clear away, *faire desservir.*

5^o *To make*, followed by a reflected pronoun and a perfect participle, is equivalent to the French *se faire* with an infinitive.

Ex.: He made himself understood.

Il se fit comprendre.

Se faire may also be translated by *to get* with a perfect participle.

Ex.: He got expelled on account of his bad conduct.

Il se fit chasser à cause de sa mauvaise conduite.

We got punished.

Nous nous fimes punir.

N. B. — Faire savoir, to let know.

Ex.: Let me know when you come.

Faites-moi savoir quand vous viendrez.

Faire voir, to show.

I hope you will show me your fine clock.

J'espère que vous me ferez voir votre belle horloge.

Aimer.

To love means an affection of the heart excited by that which delights, a sincere affection for persons or things.

We love our mother, our friends, our country, our home, our race, our life.

To like means to be pleased with in a moderate degree; it expresses less than *to love*.

We like horses, pictures, hunting, fishing, walking. At table, we like veal, mutton.

To be fond of means to love foolishly, to be over-affectionate to.

Ex.: He is fond of hunting.

Il aime éperdument la chasse.

Children are fond of sweetmeats.

Les enfants aiment beaucoup les friandises.

This boy is fond of play.

Cet enfant aime beaucoup le jeu.

Porter.

Porter, meaning to convey, to transport in any manner from one place to another, is translated by *to carry*.

Ex. : When he dies, he shall carry nothing away.

Quand il mourra, il n'emportera rien.

Aeneas carried his father on his shoulders.

Enée porta son père sur ses épaules.

This verb is also used in a figurative sense.

Ex. : To carry an account to the ledger.

Porter un compte au grand-livre.

He carried war from Greece into Asia.

Il porta la guerre de la Grèce en Asie.

Such a bad habit will carry them very far.

Une si mauvaise habitude les portera loin.

Porter meaning to support, to endure, to tolerate is translated by *to bear*.

Ex. : Solomon had ten thousand men that bare burdens.

Salomon avait dix mille hommes qui portaient des fardeaux.

He could not bear his brother near him.

Il ne pouvait pas supporter son frère près de lui.

Man is born to bear.

L'homme naît pour endurer.

Signifying to bear upon the person, as an article of clothing, *porter* must be translated by to wear.

Ex. : To wear a coat.

Porter un habit.

N. B.—To wear sometimes has the meaning of to diminish, to waste.

Ex. : Time wears out all things.

Le temps détruit tout.

Water wears the stone.

L'eau use la pierre.

Lastly, to wear may be employed as an active-intransitive verb corresponding to the French verbs *durer* or *se passer, se consumer*.

Ex. : This coat wears well.

Cet habit dure bien.

Her beauty wears away in melancholy.

Sa beauté se consume dans le chagrin.

Chercher.

Three verbs translate the French verb *chercher*; they are : To seek, to search, to look for.

To seek means to look for a thing easy to be found.

Ex. : I seek a word in the dictionary.

Je cherche un mot dans le dictionnaire.

A boy seeks nests.

Un enfant cherche des nids.

To search means to examine with care, to take much trouble to find out a thing which is well hidden. Hence to search denotes more work or trouble than to seek.

Ex. : I am searching for my needle I lost in the hay.

Je cherche mon aiguille que j'ai perdue dans le foin.

A botanist searches for plants.

Un botaniste cherche des plantes.

To look for, which seems to have the meaning of the two preceding verbs, expresses to direct the eyes in order to discover a thing which is to be sought.

Ex. : What do you look for ?

Que cherchez-vous ?

I look for my purse.

Je cherche ma bourse.

Allez chercher, to go to fetch, to go and bring.

Ex. : Go and bring your book.

Allez chercher votre livre.

Go to fetch my pen which is on my desk.

Allez chercher ma plume sur mon pupitre.

Venir chercher, to come for.

Ex. : I come for my book.

Je viens chercher mon livre.

Envoyer chercher, to send for.

Ex. : Send for your brother.

Envoyez chercher votre frère.

Attendre.

To expect supposes some sufficient ground or reason in the mind for considering the event as likely to happen. It supposes a convention, an agreement.

Ex. : We expect our brother to-day.

Nous attendons notre frère aujourd'hui.

I expect a letter.

J'attends une lettre.

In other cases, *attendre* is generally translated by to wait or to wait for.

Ex. : Wait for us.

Attendez nous.

Wait until he comes.

Attendez jusqu'à ce qu'il arrive.

Louer.

To hire means to procure a thing for temporary use at a certain price.

Ex. : To hire a farm for a year.

Louer une ferme pour une année.

To hire a horse for a day.

Louer (se procurer) un cheval pour une journée.

To rent, the same as to hire.

Ex. : To rent a house.

Prendre une maison à louage.

To hire out means to grant the temporary use of a thing for a compensation.

Ex.: He has hired out his farm.

Il a donné sa ferme à louage.

To let, more commonly used than to hire out, has the same meaning.

Ex.: To let a room to lodgers.

Louer une chambre à des locataires.

To let an estate for a year.

Louer une propriété pour une année.

N. B.—To let is often followed by the preposition out.

Vouloir.

Will, being no longer employed as an independent verb, is translated into English by equivalents.

1^o Vouloir expressing an intention is translated by to purpose, to intend, to mean, to please, to choose, to be determined.

Ex.: I purpose, I intend to go there.

Je veux aller là.

Do as you please.

Faites comme vous voudrez.

2^o Vouloir, denoting a wish, a desire, has for equivalents to wish, to want, to like.

Ex.: I wish to be happy.

Je veux être heureux.

I should like to be your brother.

Je voudrais être votre frère.

I want you to do it.

Je veux que vous le fassiez.

3^o Denoting an order, a command, vouloir is translated by to require, to need, to want, to demand.

Ex. : I demand that the proof should be repeated.

Je veux que l'on répète la preuve.

Religion requires us to help our fellow-creatures.

La religion veut que nous aidions notre prochain.

What do you want ?

Que voulez-vous ?

To consent, to grant, to be willing are sometimes used to translate vouloir.

Ex. : I am willing.

Je veux bien.

We shall go there if you consent to it.

Nous irons là si vous le voulez.

5^o To try, to attempt may also be considered as the equivalents of vouloir.

Ex. : I tried to reach the summit.

Je voulus atteindre le sommet.

He attempted to strike me.

Il voulut me frapper.

6^o In some instances, will, followed by an infinitive, has the meaning of vouloir.

Ex. : I will have that. I will speak.

Je veux cela. Je veux parler.

He will have me go there.

Il veut me faire aller là.

Observations on the use of the verb " To Get".

The verb to get is so much employed in conversation that it seems necessary to mention it in this book.

1^o *To get*, as an active-transitive verb, is combined with all the adverbs implying motion.

To get in means to make one enter.

To get out " " " come out.

To get off " to extract.

To get into " to put into.

Ex. : *Vainly shall you try to get him in.*

C'est en vain que vous essaierez de le faire entrer.

I got him out of the house.

Je le fis sortir de la maison.

Likewise, *to get* is active-transitive when, used alone, it is followed by a noun or a pronoun.

Ex. : *To get a reward; to get a book.*

Obtenir un prix; obtenir un livre.

To get money, to get credit.

Gagner de l'argent; obtenir du crédit.

To get something done.

Faire faire quelque chose.

To get some one to do a thing.

Faire faire quelque chose à quelqu'un.

2^o As an active-intransitive verb, *to get* means to bring one's self into a state or condition.

To get ahead means to advance.

To get along " to proceed.

To get back " to return.

To get home " to arrive at home.

To get loose " to disengage one's self.

To get near " to approach.

To get rid of " to disengage one's self.

To get on " to proceed.

Followed by an adjective, to get is active-intransitive and has the meaning of to become.

To get bad,	means	to become bad.
To get fat,	"	" " fat.
To get ready,	"	" " ready.
To get lost,	"	" " lost.

Ex. Being tired, he got asleep.

Etant fatigué, il s'endormit.

N. B.—With the verb to have the perfect participle got is an expletive.

Ex. : What have you got in your pocket.

Qu'avez-vous dans votre poche ?

I have got two apples.

J'ai deux pommes.

PARTICIPLES.

The imperfect and the perfect participle may be used as adjectives; in such cases, they are subject to the same rules as adjectives.

1^o They may precede the substantive.

Ex. : A loving mother.

Une mère aimante.

2^o They are compared when necessary.

Ex. : More pressing wants.

Des besoins plus pressants.

A most loving child.

Un enfant très aimant.

Our king is highly esteemed.

Instead of *very*, we use with participles *much, very much, greatly, highly*.

Ex. : Our king is highly esteemed.

Notre roi est très estimé.

He was lying on the grass.

The perfect participles of French neuter verbs are translated by imperfect participles when the action is actually going on or taking place in the same time as another.

Ex. : He was lying on the grass.

Il était couché sur l'herbe.

They were sitting on the moss.

Ils étaient assis sur la mousse.

The books are now selling.

The compound form is sometimes used with a passive meaning.

Ex. : The books are now selling.

Les livres se vendent maintenant.

Our work is now reading.

Notre ouvrage se lit dans le moment.

Their house was then building.

Leur maison se bâtissait alors.

Thou looking on, I shall not fail.

The nominative used alone with a participle is equivalent to a dependent proposition commencing with *when, while, if, since, or because.*

Ex. : Thou looking on, I shall not fail.

Si vous veillez sur moi, je ne tomberai pas.

My brother having studied his lesson, his master allowed him to play.

Lorsque mon frère eut étudié sa leçon, son maître lui permit de jouer.

This particular construction is sometimes called by English grammarians : *independent or absolute case.*

ENGLISH PREPOSITIONS.

Some observations about their use and meaning.

About.

About, meaning *à peu près*, *environ*, may express the following relations :

- 1° Place ; Ex. : The villages about the town.
Les villages voisins de la ville.
- 2° Time ; Ex. : About break of day.
Vers le point du jour.
- 3° Degree ; Ex. : He had forty pounds about.
Il avait environ quarante livres.
- 4° Cause ; Ex. : The trouble was about this.
Le trouble existait pour ceci.
- 5° Manner ; Ex. : I took the rod about the middle.
Je pris le bâton par le milieu.
- 6° Intention ; Ex. : I came about this.
Je suis venu au sujet de cette affaire.

Look about you.
Pensez à vous.

About means sometimes *Autour*:

- Ex. : We took a walk about the park.
Nous fîmes un tour dans le parc.
- His children were about him.
Ses enfants étaient autour de lui.
- They drank about.
Ils burent à la ronde.

It sometimes answers the French locution *faire un détour*.

Ex. : They took a roundabout way.

Ils prirent un chemin détourné.

You walked ten miles about.

Vous faites un détour de dix milles.

It may express an immediate future, and translate the French verbs *commencer*, *régler*.

Ex. : I am about to write.

Je me mets à écrire.

He is about to speak.

Il est sur le point de parler.

Vainly did the gallant general try to bring war about.

C'est en vain que le brave général essaya de commencer la guerre.

He tried to bring matters about.

Il essaya de régler les choses.

Abroad.

This particle translates the French word *dehors*, and may express a foreign country.

Ex. : He is abroad.

Il est à l'étranger.

We lay all night abroad.

Nous couchâmes dehors.

At home and abroad.

Chez nous et à l'étranger.

To publish a thing abroad.

Divulguer une chose.

All the sails were spread abroad.

Toutes les voiles étaient déployées.

We come home from abroad.

Nous revenons de l'étranger.

At.

Primarily, this word expresses the relations of presence, nearness in place or time, or direction toward: *At the sixth hour*; *at the house*; *to aim at a mark*. It is less definite than *in* or *on*; *at the house* may signify *in* or *near* the house. From this original import come all the various uses of *at*, which denotes:

1^o The relation of an external situation, or of circumstances accompanying this situation.

Ex.: Your books are at hand.

Nous avons vos livres en main.

Our friends are at sea.

Nos amis sont en mer.

2^o The relation of place, or time.

Ex.: Roberts' victory at Paardeberg.

La victoire de Roberts à Paardeberg.

At the hour I went there.

A l'heure où j'allai là.

3^o The relation of some state or condition.

Ex.: At war, *en guerre.*

At peace, *en paix.*

At ease, *à l'aise.*

At play, *au jeu.*

At your service, *à votre service.*

4^o The relation of some employment or action.

Ex.: He is at this thing.

Il travaille à cette chose.

They are always at me.

Ils sont toujours après moi.

We are hard at it.

Nous y travaillons de bon cœur.

5^o With a superlative it expresses a relation of degree.

Ex.: At most, at best, at least, at last.

Au plus, au mieux, au moins, enfin.

6^o At may express the relations of cause, occasion, consequence or effect.

Ex.: At the sight, at this news, at this declaration.

A la vue, à cette nouvelle, à cette déclaration.

I did it at the command of my general.

Je le fis sur l'ordre de mon général.

At my father's entreaty.

Sur l'invitation de mon père.

7^o The relation of direction to an object or end.

Ex.: They looked at me.

Ils me regardèrent.

We fired at a mark.

Nous tirâmes à la cible.

They laughed at us.

Ils rirent de nous.

Between and Among.

Between is used in reference to two persons, things or classes.

- Ex. :** Between youth and old age.
Entre la jeunesse et la vieillesse.
 I stood between Peter and John.
Je me tenais entre Pierre et Jean.
 He was appointed umpire between the inhabitants of Quebec and those of Montreal.
Il fut nommé arbitre entre les habitants de Québec et ceux de Montréal.

Among refers to more than two.

- Ex. :** He will be reckoned among the great men of his time.

Il sera compté parmi les grands hommes de son temps.

Among the French, among my friends.
Parmi les Français, parmi mes amis.

By and With.

These two particles express a connection between the instrument or means of reaching an end, and the agent who uses this instrument.

With is generally used with the name of the instrument, *by*, with that of the agent.

- Ex. :** These men were killed *with* a sword *by* us.

Ces hommes furent tués par nous avec une épée.

With is used to form the following expressions :

To write *with* a pen ; To cut *with* a knife ; To surround with water, *with* walls, *entourer d'eau, de murs.* With a loud voice, *à voix haute.* To cure *with* fasting ; *guérir par*

le jeune. They go on with their crimes ; *ils continuent dans leurs crimes.* It is just so with me ; *il en est ainsi de moi.* He swore with a safe conscience ; *il jura en sûreté de conscience.* I trusted him with my secrets ; *je lui confiai mes secrets.* Things do not go well with me ; *mes affaires ne vont pas bien.*

By expresses the relations of cause, means, manner, time, place, quantity, etc.

Ex. : He died by the sword.

Il mourut par l'épée.

He was seized by force.

Il fut saisi de force.

By the favour of night.

A la faveur de la nuit.

He sat by the stream.

Il était assis près du torrent.

Stars are to be seen by thousands.

Les étoiles se voient par milliers.

This particle may translate the French words *en*, *près*, *sur*, *de*, *sous*.

Ex. : We shall talk of it by the way.

Nous en parlerons en chemin.

We passed by that port.

Nous passâmes près de ce port.

You must regulate yourself by his example.

Vous devez vous régler sur son exemple.

My father is a blacksmith by trade.

Mon père est forgeron de son métier.

I know him by that name.

Je le connais sous ce nom.

The English use *by* in the following cases : to buy, to sell by the pound, *à la livre*; by the ounce, *à l'once*; by the yard, *à la corde*; by measure, *à la mesure*; by weight, *au poids*; by degrees, *graduellement*; by little and little, *petit à petit*; step by step, *pas à pas*; day by day, *jour par jour*.

For.

1° *For* is equivalent to the French word *durant*, to express time, duration.

Ex. : For several years, for five years.

Pendant plusieurs années, pendant cinq ans.

2° It also expresses cause, motive, price.

Ex. : I cannot speak for weeping.

Je ne puis parler parceque je pleure.

He was hanged for killing his rival.

Il fut pendu pour avoir tué son rival.

I bought the watch for six pounds.

J'ai acheté la montre pour six livres.

3° Preceded by *as*, *for* means *quant à, à l'égard de*.

Ex. : As for the other matters.

Quant aux autres matières.

4° Followed by *all*, it has the meaning of *malgré*.

Ex. : For all his wealth, he is not happy.

Malgré toute sa richesse, il n'est pas heureux.

5° *For* may express direction, destination.

Ex. : Our troops sailed for South Africa.

Nos troupes partirent pour l'Afrique du Sud.

From.

This particle is used after all those words which express origin, remoteness, separation, privation, cause or motive. It may be used for time as well as for place.

Ex. : He goes from Beauport to Quebec.

Il va de Beauport à Québec.

From door to door.

De porte en porte.

From morning to night.

Du matin au soir.

He rose from the ranks of a simple soldier.

Il partit du rang de simple soldat.

Those supplies were won from the enemy.

Ces provisions ont été prises à l'ennemi.

He acted from gratitude.

Il a agi par reconnaissance.

He went there from fear.

Il est allé là par peur.

Common expressions: From the beginning; from the heart; from above; from beneath; from abroad.

In.

In may express either place or time.

Ex. : I am in my room; I walk in the garden.

Je suis dans ma chambre; je marche dans le jardin.

We arrived in the morning, in the evening.

Nous arrivâmes le matin, le soir.

This preposition may also express the following relations of :

1° State.

Ex.: We are in great trouble.

Nous sommes dans un grand trouble.

They live in great hopes.

Ils ont de grandes espérances.

To be in joy and sorrow.

Etre dans la joie et dans la peine.

A book in the press.

Un livre sous presse.

2° Proportion.

Ex.: Not one in ten will do it.

Il n'y en a pas un sur dix qui le fera.

3° Consideration.

Ex.: In the name of God.

Au nom de Dieu.

In respect to you.

En votre considération.

In obedience to you.

Pour vous obéir.

4° Manner.

Ex.: The man in the white waistcoat.

L'homme au gilet blanc.

In this manner.

De cette manière.

In a quiet tone.

D'un ton tranquille.

In vain.

En vain.

of.

Of may express the following relations :

1° Quality.

Ex. : A person of great virtue.

Une personne de grande vertu.

A doctor of law.

Un docteur en droit.

2° Quantity.

Ex. : The amount of twenty pounds.

La somme de vingt livres.

3° Cause.

Ex. : He died of grief.

Il mourut de chagrin.

4° Substance.

Ex. : A house of stone.

Une maison de pierre.

5° Wish.

Ex. : A man desirous of happiness.

Un homme qui désire le bonheur.

6° Privation, scarcity.

Ex. : Void of blood.

Qui a perdu son sang.

7° Abundance.

Ex. : A city full of warlike provisions.

Une ville pleine de provisions de guerre.

8° Manner.

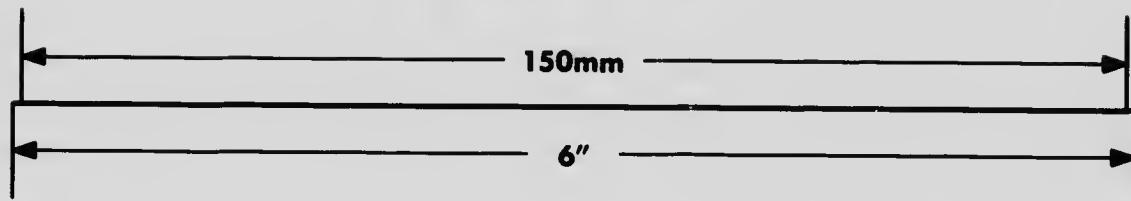
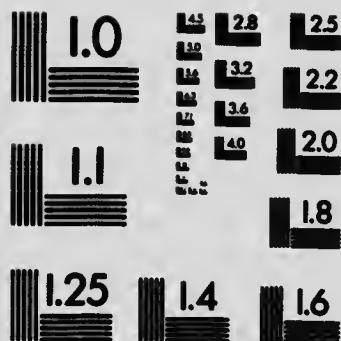
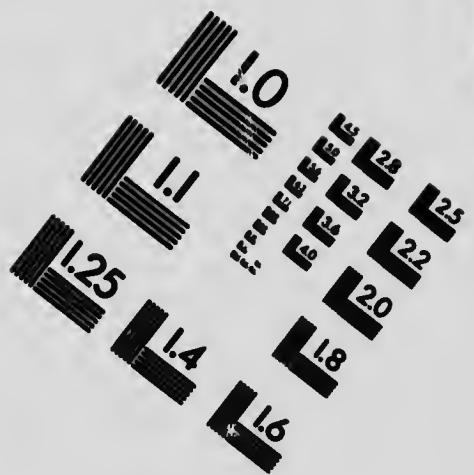
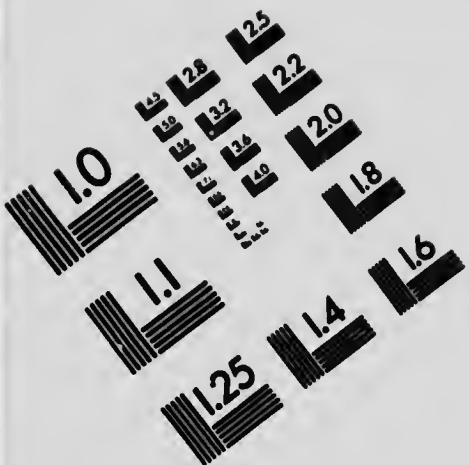
Ex. : He made it of his own hand.

Il l'a fait de lui-même.



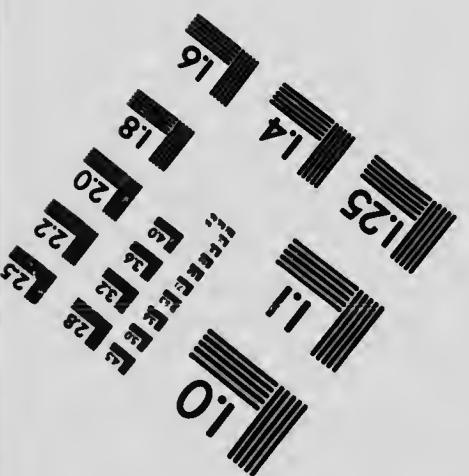


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N. B. — *Of*, having the primary sense of *from*, has a derivative sense denoting possession or property ; it is the reason why it is used instead of the 's.

Ex. : The glory of God.

La gloire de Dieu.

The house of my servant.

La maison de mon serviteur.

Lastly, this preposition sometimes has the meaning of *about, concerning, respecting*.

Ex. : I inquired of him.

Je m'informai de lui.

He spoke of friendship.

Il parla d'amitié.

I will write to you of this affair.

Je vous écrirai au sujet de cette affaire.

On.

This particle expresses :

1° Dependence, confidence in.

Ex. : They may depend on me.

Ils peuvent compter sur moi.

You may rely on him.

Vous pouvez vous fier à lui.

2° Proximity.

Ex. : Quebec is on the Saint Lawrence.

Québec est bâti sur le Saint-Laurent.

3° Contact.

Ex. : The patient lies on his bed.

Le malade repose sur son lit.

My book is on the table.

Mon livre est sur la table.

4° Accumulation.

Ex. : Loss on loss ; letters on letters.

Perte sur perte ; lettres sur lettres.

5° Time.

Ex. : They will come on Monday.

Ils viendront lundi.

On my arrival ; on my departure.

A mon arrivée ; à mon départ.

Common expressions.

On many occasions ; *en plusieurs occasions.*

On my way ; *sur mon chemin.*

Upon my word ; *sur ma parole.*

On a sudden ; *subitement.*

On foot ; *à pied.*

On the coming of..... ; *à l'arrivée de.....*

On every side ; *de tout côté.*

On purpose ; *à dessein.*

On the contrary ; *au contraire.*

To be on duty ; *être de service.*

On fire ; *en feu.*

On a great scale ; *sur une grande échelle.*

Over.

Over, equivalent to the French *au-dessus*, means what is above in place, position, authority, dignity or excellence.

Ex. : Thou shalt reign over my house.

Tu régneras sur ma maison.

Watch over your children.

Veillez sur vos enfants.

The evils which hang over our heads.

Les maux qui nous menagent.

This particle has the meaning of *par-dessus*, in some cases.

Ex. : He had a cloak over his coat.

Il avait un manteau sur son habit.

I am over head and ears in business.

J'ai des occupations par-dessus la tête.

It may signify :

1° Across, from side to side.

Ex. : He leaped over the brook.

Il sauta de l'autre côté du ruisseau.

He went over the river.

Il traversa la rivière.

2° On the other side.

Ex. : Come over here.

Venez ici.

Go over there.

Allez là.

We live over the way.

Nous demeurons de l'autre côté de la rue.

3° Upon the surface, through the whole extent of.

Ex. : The fog spread all over the town.

Le brouillard s'étendit sur toute la ville.

He wandered over the earth.

Il erra par toute la terre.

4° De reste or au-delà (number).

Ex. : Is there anything over ?

Y a-t-il quelque chose de reste ?

There is nothing over.
Il n'y a rien de reste.

There were over thirty men in the house.
Il y avait au-delà de trente hommes dans la maison.

Lastly, *over* is used, as an adjective, with the meaning of *past, done*.

Ex. : The recreation is over.

La récréation est finie.

The danger is over.

Le danger est passé.

It is all over with him.

C'en est fait de lui.

Out.

Out is opposed to *in*; it answers the French *hors, dehors*.

Ex. :	Out of the house ;	<i>hors de la maison.</i>
	Out of danger ;	<i>hors de danger.</i>
	Out of breath ;	<i>hors d'haleine.</i>
	Out of sight ;	<i>hors de vue.</i>
	The master is out ;	<i>le maître est dehors.</i>

This preposition may have the meaning of *over* used as an adjective.

Ex. : The fire is out ; *le feu est éteint.*

His anger is out ; *s'a colère est passée.*

In the compound *out of*, *out* may be considered as an adverb, and *of* as a preposition. *Out of* has the meaning of *to proceed from, to come from*.

Ex. : Plants grow out of the earth.

Les plantes sortent de terre.

He paid me out of his own money.

Il me paya de son propre argent.

He got out of that affair.

Il se débarrassa de cette affaire.

Out of love ; out of laziness.

Par amour ; par paresse.

TILL.

Till translates the French *jusque* expressing time.

Ex.: The concert lasted till eight o'clock.

Le concert dura jusqu'à huit heures.

Till then ; till now.

Jusqu'alors ; jusqu'à présent.

I shall wait till Monday.

J'attendrai jusqu'à lundi.

N. B.— When *from* is used in the first part of the sentence, *jusqu'à* is translated by *to*.

Ex.: From morning to evening.

Du matin jusqu'au soir.

In some instances, *jusque* is translated by *down to*.

Ex.: From the year 1883 down to the year 1901.

Depuis l'année 1883 jusqu'à l'année 1901.

Jusqu'à, expressing place, is translated by *as far as*.

Ex.: We will go as far as Montreal.

Nous irons jusqu'à Montréal.

Common expressions.

How far do you go ? — As far as Quebec.

Jusqu'où allez-vous ? — Jusqu'à Québec.

How long shall you wait?

Combien de temps attendrez-vous?

Till ten o'clock.

Jusqu'à dix heures.

We were obliged to go as far back as Saint Ann.

Nous fûmes obligés de retourner jusqu'à Sainte-Anne.

This tale dates as far back as the siege of Quebec.

Cette histoire remonte au siège de Québec.

We saw as many as sixty.

Nous vimes jusqu'à soixante.

They struck even the children.

Ils frappèrent jusqu'aux enfants.

Up, down, under, above and below.

Up may be considered as an adverb or a preposition, but it is more used as an adverb.

Up, adverb, means *aloft, on high, in a higher position*; it is the opposite of *down* and is used with verbs of motion.

Ex.: We got up the tree.

Nous montâmes dans l'arbre.

He went up to the summit of the hill.

Il monta au sommet de la colline.

After certain verbs, *up* denotes a state of completion, it means *completely*. *To eat up, to drink up, to burn up, to pay up, to make up, to sum up.*

Ex.: Drink up your water.

Buvez toute votre eau.

It is time to pay up.

Il est temps de solder votre dette.

Up expresses an idea of elevation, excitement, in-

surrection when used with verbs of rest, situation and condition.

- Ex. : The tide is up, the sun is up.
La mer est haute, le soleil est levé.
 Those that were up kept others low.
Ceux qui avaient le dessus, tenaient les autres en-bas.
 The people are up in arms.
Le peuple soulevé prend les armes.
 The funds are up.
Les fonds ont monté.

This particle may express equality, competency; it means to an equal height with, as far as.

- Ex. : He is up to the chin in water.
Il est dans l'eau jusqu'au menton.
 This carriage is up to date.
Cette voiture est à la mode actuelle.
 This man is up to everything.
Cet homme est au fait de tout.

Up is sometimes used elliptically for get up.

- Ex. : Up, and be doing.
Levez-vous et agissez.

Down is sometimes taken as a preposition, sometimes as an adverb.

Down is a preposition in the following examples :

- He fell down a precipice.
Il tomba dans un précipice.
 We went down the hill.
Nous descendimes la montagne.

To go or to come down stairs.
Descendre l'escalier.

They ran down the hill.

Ils descendirent la colline en courant.

Down, as an adverb, is used in composition with several verbs, and is then equivalent to the French *à bas, bas, en bas.*

Ex. : To lie down,	<i>se coucher.</i>
To go, to come down,	<i>descendre.</i>
To sit down;	<i>s'asseoir.</i>
To set down,	<i>mettre par écrit, poser à terre.</i>
The wind is down,	<i>le vent est tombé.</i>
The sun is down,	<i>le soleil est couché.</i>
Upside down,	<i>sens dessus dessous.</i>

N. B. — This particle is sometimes employed as an interjection.

Ex. : Down on your knees !

A genoux !

Down with the traitors !

A bas les traitres !

Down with him !

Ne l'épargnons pas !

Under means :

1^o Subjection to.

Ex. : The world is under God.

Le monde est soumis à Dieu.

2^o Liable to.

Ex. : Under pain of death.

Sous peine de mort.

Under an obligation.

Sous une obligation.

3° *Under* may translate the French *moins*.

Ex.: I cannot sell it under.

Je ne puis le vendre à moins.

4° It means also *not arrived at*.

Ex.: Children under ten years.

Les enfants au-dessous de dix ans.

5° *Under* may denote a state of protection.

Ex.: He is under my care.

Il est sous mes soins.

Under a guardian.

Sous tutelle.

6° It sometimes means *de, sous*.

Ex.: Give me a note under your hand.

Donnez-moi un billet de votre main.

A ship under sail.

Un vaisseau sous voiles.

Above means superior in state, place, number and time. It answers the French *au-dessus de*.

Above my strength : *au-dessus de mes forces.*

Above my parts : *au-dessus de mes talents.*

An archbishop is above a bishop.

Un archevêque est au-dessus d'un évêque.

I am above your attacks.

Je suis au-dessus de vos attaques.

They are above thirty.

Ils sont au-delà de trente.

They were there above three hours.

Ils furent là au-delà de trois heures.

Below is the opposite of *above*; it means inferior in state, place, number and time. It translates *au-dessous de*.

Ex. : He is below the usual size.

Il est au-dessous de la taille moyenne.

A bishop is below an archbishop.

Un évêque est inférieur à un archevêque.

He is below thirty.

Il est au-dessous de trente ans.

N. B.—*Above* and *below* should not be used with verbs of motion. Nevertheless, examples of the contrary are sometimes to be seen. *Come above, come below* are less proper than *come up, come down*.

ADVERBS.

OBSERVATIONS ON SOME ADVERBS.

Combien.

Combien is translated by *how* when it is used with an adjective, a participle or an adverb.

Ex. : If you knew how dangerous that thing is.

Si vous saviez combien cette chose est dangereuse.

You would be glad to know how nobly they behaved.

Vous seriez content de savoir combien noblement ils se sont conduits.

You cannot imagine how loved they are.
*Vous ne pouvez vous imaginer combien
 ils sont aimés.*

As may be seen by the preceding examples, *how* is always followed by the word it modifies.

N. B.—In a few cases *combien* is replaced in French by *que*, it is likewise translated by *how*.

Ex. : How prudent you are!
Que vous êtes prudent !

You do not know how much he loves you.
Combien, meaning à quel point and modifying a verb, is translated by *how much*.

Ex. : You do not know how much he loves you.
Vous ne savez pas combien il vous aime.

How many friends have you ?
Combien with a noun is translated by *how much* and *how many*.

1^o *How much with a singular noun.*

Ex. : How much money did you spend ?
Combien d'argent avez-vous dépensé ?

2^o *How many with a plural noun.*

Ex. : How many books have you got ?
Combien de livres avez-vous ?

How far is it from Quebec to Montreal ?
Combien, expressing distance, is translated by *how far*; expressing time, by *how long*.

Ex. : How far is it from Quebec to Montreal ?
Combien y a-t-il de Québec à Montréal

*How long did you live with your brother ?
Combien de temps avez-vous demeuré
avec votre frère ?*

N. B. — We could also say how much time.

Ex. : In how much time ?

En combien de temps ?

At how much do you value that ?

Expressing the price of a thing, combien is translated by how.much or what.

Ex. : At how much do you value that ?

A combien évaluez-vous cela ?

What do you ask for that book ?

Combien demandez-vous pour ce livre ?

How little, how few translate the French combien peu.

How little is used with a singular noun.

Ex. : How little glory.

How few, with a plural noun.

Ex. : How few books.

Peu.

Peu is translated by little or few.

Little is used with a singular noun.

Ex. : Little money, little glory.

Peu d'argent, peu de gloire.

He eats little.

Il mange peu.

Few, with a plural noun.

Ex. : Few men, few soldiers.

Peu d'hommes, peu de soldats.

Peu à peu, little by little, by degrees, gradually.

Ex. : Little by little the bird builds its nest.

Peu à peu l'oiseau bâtit son nid.

Un peu, a little.

Ex. : Wait a little.

Attendez un peu.

Le peu de is translated by *the little*, or *the few*.

Ex. : The little pleasure I take in it.

Le peu de plaisir que j'y prends.

The few visits I have received.

Le peu de visites que j'ai reçues.

Trop.

The English language has three words to translate *trop*; they are *too much*, *too many*, and *too*.

Too much is used with a singular noun, a verb or a participle expressing an action and not a quality.

Ex. : He has too much pride.

Il a trop d'orgueil.

You work too much.

Vous travaillez trop.

These men are too much esteemed by you.

Ces hommes sont trop estimés de vous.

Too many is used with a plural noun.

Ex. : He has too many friends.

Il a trop d'amis.

N. B. — De, coming after *trop*, is not translated.

Trop is employed with adjectives, adverbs, or participles taken as veritable adjectives.

Ex. : They are too good.

Ils sont trop bons.

He is too learned.

Il est trop savant.

You go too fast.

Vous allez trop vite.

Par trop is a French locution equivalent to *trop*, and is translated accordingly.

Ex. : Our friend is too much given to compliments.

Notre ami est par trop habitué à complimenter.

That man is too tedious.

Cet homme est par trop ennuyeux.

De trop, for persons, is translated by one too many.

Ex. : He thinks you one too many.

Il vous pense de trop.

For things, we use an equivalent, such as : *useless, superfluous.*

Ex. : This distinction is not useless.

Cette distinction n'est pas de trop.

Asez.

Asez, followed by *de* and a noun, is translated by enough which is placed after the noun.

Ex. : He has friends enough.

Il a assez d'amis.

Enough is also used with adjectives and verbs, and ought to be placed after them.

- Ex. : He is rich enough.
Il est assez riche.
 They work enough.
Ils travaillent assez.

N. B. — When the active-transitive verb has an object, the adverb *enough* must be placed after the object.

- Ex. : We esteem them enough.
Nous les estimons assez.
 I love my brother enough.
J'aime assez mon frère.

Assez may also be translated by *pretty, rather*; in such instances, it is the diminutive of *very*.

- Ex. : I am pretty well.
Je vais assez bien.
 This person is rather handsome.
Cette personne est assez jolie.

Assez.... pour, with an adjective or an adverb, is translated by *so.... as*.

- Ex. : Be so good as to lend me some money.
Soyez assez bon pour me prêter un peu d'argent.

Speak so loud as to be heard by all.
Parlez assez fort pour être entendu de tous.

Autant, tant.

In comparisons of equality, *autant* is translated by

as much or so much with singular nouns; *as many or so many* with plural nouns.

- Ex. : He has as much courage as his brother.
Il a autant de courage que son frère.
 He has not so much courage as his brother.
Il n'a pas autant de courage que son frère.

- They had as many books as you.
Ils avaient autant de livres que vous.
 They had not so many books as you.
Ils n'avaient pas autant de livres que vous.

Tant que, meaning *tellement que*, is translated by *so much* with a verb or a participle.

- Ex. : He cried so much that he got hoarse.
Il cria tant qu'il s'enrhuma.

Tant de.... que with a noun has for equivalents *so much* or *so many*.

- Ex. : He has so much virtue that he is admired everywhere.
Il a tant de vertu qu'il est admiré partout.

We have so many friends that we are unable to name them all.

Nous avons tant d'amis que nous sommes incapables de les nommer tous.

Tant, with a verb, is translated by *so much*.

- Ex. : The spring in which it rained so much.
Le printemps qu'il a tant plu.

Tant, with an adjective, a participle, or an adverb, is rendered by *so*.

Ex.: The day so expected.

Le jour tant attendu.

The mother so greatly loved.

La mère si grandement aimée.

Aussi.

Aussi, meaning *likewise*, may be translated by *too*, which is placed at the end of the sentence.

Ex.: We have need of your counsel and favour too.

Nous avons besoin de votre conseil et de votre faveur aussi.

We shall go to Montreal and you too.

Nous irons à Montréal et vous aussi.

Also nearly has the same meaning as *likewise*. However, the proper office of *also* to add and to augment; *likewise* is more properly used in a comparison.

Ex.: Love is not only liberal, but also prodigal.

L'amour n'est pas seulement liberal, mais il est prodigue aussi,

He is not only rich but also well born.

Il n'est pas seulement riche, mais il est aussi de bonne naissance.

Aussi, preceded by a noun or a pronoun, may also be translated by *so* which must be placed at the head of the proposition. In such instances we use in the second part of the sentence the auxiliary used or understood in the first, and the proposition takes the interrogative form.

Ex. : I shall go to Quebec, so shall you.

J'irai à Québec et vous aussi.

I went to New York, so did my brother.

Je suis allé à New-York, et mon frère aussi.

Plutôt, plus tôt.

Plutôt, in one word, expresses choice, preference, and is translated by *rather* or *more*.

Ex. : Men loved darkness rather or more than light.

Les hommes ont aimé les ténèbres plutôt que la lumière.

Rather forms the following expressions :

I'd rather die than go there.

J'aimerais mieux mourir que d'aller là.

They would (they'd) rather stay here.

Ils aimeraient mieux rester ici.

Plus tôt, in two words, meaning *de meilleure heure*, is translated by *earlier*.

Ex. : She gets up earlier than you.

Elle se lève plus tôt que vous.

Meaning *auparavant*, *plus tôt* is translated by *sooner*.

Ex. : I will come sooner next week.

Je viendrai plus tôt la semaine prochaine.

CONSTRUCTION OF ADVERBS.

The adverb should be placed as near as possible to the word it modifies. Generally speaking, it follows the verb in its simple tenses, and is placed between the auxiliary and the verb in compound tenses.

Ex. : We work slowly.

Nous travaillons lentement.

They have gloriously succeeded.

Ils ont glorieusement réussi.

He has been seriously hurt.

Il a été sérieusement blessé.

She loves her children tenderly.

When the verb has a direct object, the adverb may be placed before the verb or after the direct object ; but never between the verb and its object.

Ex. : She loves her children tenderly.

She tenderly loves her children.

Elle aime tendrement ses enfants.

N. B.—The adverb is preferably put before the verb when it is considered as the important word of the sentence.

Ex. : She devoutly prayed to God.

Elle pria Dieu dévotement.

In some instances, the adverb begins the sentence.

Ex. : Dearly does he love his son.

Il aime tendrement son fils.

Never shall we forget that day.

Jamais nous n'oublierons ce jour.

We often see them.

Adverbs of time, such as *always*, *ever*, *never*, *often*, *seldom*, *sometimes*, *still*, *soon*, must be placed after the subject of the verb in simple tenses, and after the auxiliary in compound tenses.

Ex.: We often see them.

Nous les voyons souvent.

We have rarely seen him.

Nous l'avons vu rarement.

They shall seldom go there.

Ils iront là rarement.

N. B.—To be in its simple tenses precedes the adverb of time.

Ex.: They are seldom at home.

Ils sont rarement chez eux.

Only he saw me yesterday.

Careful attention should be paid to the place we give to adverbs; some of them, if they are in the wrong place, may completely change the meaning of a sentence. For example, we have the adverb *only* which must be placed before the word it modifies.

Ex.: Only he saw me yesterday.

Lui seul m'a vu hier.

He only saw me yesterday.

Il n'a fait que me voir hier.

He saw only me yesterday.

Il n'a vu que moi hier.

He saw me only yesterday.

Il ne m'a vu qu'hier.

NEGATION.

The English language has two negations: they are *no* and *not*.

No is used with nouns as an indefinite adjective.

Ex.: I have no friends; they have no bread.

Je n'ai pas d'amis; ils n'ont pas de pain.

No is also used after *or*, corresponsive of *whether*, when the word understood is a noun.

Ex.: Whether he is a baker or no, I cannot tell.

Je ne puis dire s'il est boulanger ou non.

With some adverbs of comparison, such as *better*, *further*, *longer*, *less*, *more*, *sooner*, *worse*, we use *no* instead of *not*.

Ex.: He had no sooner finished than ...

Il n'eut pas plus tôt fini que.....

I will no longer stay here.

Je ne resterai plus ici.

Not is used with a verb.

Ex.: I do not speak. They are not arrived.

Je ne parle pas.. Ils ne sont pas arrivés.

It is also used after *or*, corresponsive of *whether*, when the word understood is a verb.

Ex.: Whether he sleeps or not, I do not know.

Je ne sais s'il dort ou non.

None and *not any* are indefinite pronouns.

Ex.: Have you any books? — I have none, not any.

Avez-vous des livres? — Je n'en ai pas.

In a negative answer *ne* is used alone; not, with an auxiliary.

Ex. : Do you understand ? — No.
Do you speak ? — I do not.

Il a has but one book.

Ne....que is translated by *but* or *only*.

Ex. : He has but one book ; he has only one book.

Il n'a qu'un livre.

With the name of a thing, *ne....que* is often translated by *nothing but*.

Ex. : He likes nothing but pleasure.
Il n'aime que le plaisir.

I do not know anybody.

Two negations must not be used in the same proposition, because they destroy each other to give an affirmation. *I do not know nobody* means : there is nobody whom *I do not know*. This example is sufficient to show the impossibility of two negations in the same proposition.

Ex. : I do not know anybody.

Je ne connais personne.

The negative particle *ne* is employed in French in subordinate propositions after the verbs *craindre*, *nier*, *douter*, etc ; after *à moins que*, *de peur que* ; after the comparisons of superiority or inferiority ; after *autre*, *autrement* ; in English this particle is not translated.

Ex. : I am more tired than you think.

Je suis plus fatigué que vous ne le pensez.

Work, for fear you fail,

Travaillez de crainte que vous ne manquiez.

He cannot work neither.

By exception, *neither* is sometimes used emphatically after another negative with the meaning of the French *non plus*.

Ex. : He cannot work neither.

Il ne peut pas travailler non plus.

I do not work, neither does he.

Je ne travaille pas, ni lui non plus.

I cannot sing, no more can he.

Je ne puis chanter, ni lui non plus.

No....plus.

When *plus* means *davantage*, *ne....plus* is translated by *no more or not any more*.

Ex. : I have no more, not any more.

Je n'en ai plus.

Ne....plus, meaning *pas plus longtemps*, is translated by *no longer*. In such cases the verb expresses an action which lasted a certain time.

Ex. : I will no longer study in this room.

I will not study any longer in this room.

Je n'étudierai plus dans cette chambre.

Ne....plus is sometimes rendered by *not....again*.

Ex. : He will not come back again.

Il ne reviendra plus.

Sometimes by *back*.

Ex.: Do not speak of your book, you will not get it back.

Ne parlez pas de votre livre, vous ne l'auriez plus.

Jamais.

Ever contains no idea of negation, it is essentially affirmative.

Ex.: He is the best man I ever saw.

C'est le meilleur homme que j'aie jamais vu.

A jamais is translated by *for ever*.

Ex.: I belong to God and to the Roman Church for ever.

J'appartiens à jamais à Dieu et à l'Eglise romaine.

Never is negative and means *jamais* or *ne...jamais*.

Ex.: Do you drink wine? — Never.

Buvez-vous du vin? — *Jamais.*

I was never happy.

Je ne fus jamais heureux.

Ne... jamais que, never but.

Ex.: Vice never leads but to death.

Le vice ne conduit jamais qu'à la mort.

N'est-ce pas?

The negative interrogation *n'est-ce pas* cannot be translated literally into English; we repeat, in the negative-interrogative form, the auxiliary or the defective verb used in the first part of the sentence.

Ex.: You will come with us, will you not?

Vous viendrez avec nous, n'est-ce pas?

You do come with us, do you not ?

Vous venez avec nous, n'est-ce pas ?

When there is a negation in the first member of the sentence, we do not use any negative particle in the second.

Ex. : You shall not come with us, shall you ?

Vous ne viendrez pas avec nous, n'est-ce pas ?

You do not understand, do you ?

Vous ne comprenez pas, n'est-ce pas ?

EXCLAMATION.

Do you love him ? — Love him ! not at all.

The infinitive without *to* and the perfect participle are used in exclamatory answers.

Ex. : Do you love him ? — Love him ! not at all.

L'aimez-vous ? — L'aimer ! pas du tout.

Have you seen him ? — Seen him ! no, upon my word.

L'avez-vous vu ? — Si je l'ai vu ! non, sur ma parole.

N. B.—When the exclamation expresses a mere reflection, the infinitive takes the preposition *to*.

Ex. : To love so much, and to be so much despised !

Aimer tant, et être tant méprisé !

In such instances there are always some words understood, such as: *How sad it is; what a sad thing !*

Ex. : What a sad thing it is to love so much, and to be so much despised.

INTERJECTIONS.

Properly speaking, Interjections have no government; when they are followed by an objective, it always depends on something understood.

In most cases, the pronouns of the first and the third persons are used in the objective case, those of the second person in the nominative case.

Ah me ! that is : Ah ! pity me !

Alas for them !

Woe him that is alone !

Oh ! thou rascal !

Fie on or upon the villain !

SYNTAX OF PROPOSITIONS.

Propositions are either coordinate or subordinate.

Coordinate propositions are those which, in the same sentence, have the same order, the same nature.

Subordinate propositions are those which depend on a proposition which is called **principal**.

COORDINATE PROPOSITIONS.

In English as well as in French, coordinate propositions may be connected in several ways :

1^o By the mere gradation of ideas.

Ex.: I came, I saw, I conquered.

Je suis venu, j'ai vu, j'ai vaincu.

2^o By using conjunctions of coordination, such as but, and, for, either . . . or, neither . . . nor.

Ex. : He worked well enough, but he could do better.

Il travaillait assez bien, mais il pouvait faire mieux.

3^o By the relative or conjunctive pronoun.

Ex. : The man whom you saw yesterday is my brother.

L'homme que vous avez vu hier est mon frère.

The preceding sentence contains two propositions; they are : *the man is my brother* and *you saw him yesterday*; the two propositions are connected by *whom* which is thence called *conjunctive*.

This man is both rich and generous.

Instead of *and*, we may equally use *both.... and* with two adjectives or two nouns.

Ex. : This man is both rich and generous.

Cet homme est riche et généreux.

He was both a mariner and a soldier.

Il était à la fois marin et soldat.

I did not go there, nor shall I go.

Et connecting two negative propositions may be translated by *and*, or by *nor* without any other negation.

Ex. : I did not go there, nor shall I go.

Je ne suis pas allé là, et je n'irai pas.

I did not go there and I shall not go.

N. B.— As may be seen by the first example, with *nor*, the verb of the second proposition is used in the interrogative form.

Ex. : He does not work, nor does he succeed.

Il ne travaille pas et il ne réussit pas.

Neither Peter nor John sleeps.

When *ni* is repeated several times, the first one is translated by *neither*, the others by *nor*. The same thing must be said about *ou* repeated, which is rendered by *either . . . or*.

Ex. : Neither Peter, nor John sleeps.

Ni Pierre, ni Jean ne dorment.

Neither he nor I am happy.

Ni lui, ni moi, nous ne sommes heureux.

Either your mother or your sister has done that.

Ou votre mère ou votre sœur a fait cela.

N. B.—Attention must be paid not to confound either and neither used as conjunctions, and either and neither used as indefinite pronouns.

Either means : *l'un ou l'autre (de deux).*

Neither means : *ni l'un ni l'autre (de deux).*

Any means : *n'importe lequel (de plusieurs).*

None means : *aucun (de plusieurs).*

Ex. : I will give the book to either of the two brothers.

Je donnerai le livre à l'un ou à l'autre des deux frères.

Any of the three.

N'importe lequel des trois.

None of them.

Aucun d'entre eux.

Some observations about the uses of moods, and tenses in coordinate propositions.

Two moods are used in coordinate propositions, they are the indicative and the imperative.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present tense.

The sun gives light..

This present which is called *indefinite* is used to express an action *constant, regular*, a thing which is at all times equally true or false.

Ex. : The sun gives light.

Le soleil donne la lumière.

He seems hardly to know that six and six make twelve.

Il semble à peine savoir que six et six font douze.

N. B. — This tense is sometimes employed instead of the future with an adverb or a noun expressing futurity.

Ex. : They come here to-night.

Ils viennent ici ce soir.

My sister arrives next week.

Ma sœur arrive la semaine prochaine.

They are now playing.

This present, which is called *compound, progressive, or definite*, expresses an action actually going on, and not extending beyond the present time.

Ex.: They are now playing.

Ils se sont à jouer.

I am writing (just now).

J'écris (en ce moment).

N. B.— As noted precedently, this form must not be used with those verbs which express a very short action : as, *I call you*; and with some other verbs, such as : *to esteem, to hate, to fear, to love, to see, to tend, to give.*

You do not work. — I do work.

The emphatical present expresses an action with force and answers a contradiction.

Ex.: You do not work. — I do work.

Vous ne travaillez pas. — Oui, je travaille.

A man will sometimes give alms through vanity.

The future may be used instead of the present to express a natural disposition to something.

Ex.: A man will sometimes give alms through vanity.

On fait quelquefois l'aumône par vanité.

A small leak will sink a great ship.

Une petite ouverture fait couler bas un grand vaisseau.

I will go there as soon as I have finished.

With the words *whoever, whatever, when, before, after, the next time, according as, while, as soon as, do as, it will be as*, the English language uses the present instead of the future we have in French.

Ex.: Do as you please.

Faites comme vous voudrez.

I will speak to him, the next time he comes.

Je lui parlerai la prochaine fois qu'il viendra.

It will be as you wish.

Ce sera comme vous le désirerez.

I will go there as soon as I have finished.

J'irai là aussitôt que j'aurai fini.

Catch whatever comes.

Attrapez tout ce qui viendra.

Imperfect tense.

The same distinction must be made for the three forms of the imperfect tense.

1^o The imperfect or past tense.

Ex.: The Roman army subdued Gaul.

L'armée romaine soumit la Gaule.

Frederick the Great defended Prussia.

Frédéric le Grand défendit la Prusse.

2^o The emphatical imperfect.

Ex.: You did not work yesterday.—I did work.

Vous n'avez pas travaillé hier. — Oui, j'ai travaillé.

He did not know I loved you.—Yes, he did know it.

Il ne savait pas que je vous aimais. — Oui, il le savait.

3^o The compound or progressive imperfect.

Ex. : She was reading when I arrived.

Elle lisait quand j'arrivai.

He was hunting when I saw him.

Il faisait la chasse quand je le vis.

N. B. — 1^o Instead of the imperfect, would is sometimes used with the infinitive, when it is question of a thing which frequently happens. Such is the case with the adverbs often, sometimes, etc.

Ex. : I would very often steal away from all company.

Je m'écartais souvent de toute société.

I would sometimes spend four or five hours alone in the fields. (Boyle).

Je passais quelquefois quatre ou cinq heures seul dans les champs.

2^o The distinction between the imperfect and the perfect must be rigourously observed.

Ex. : I saw him yesterday.

Je l'ai vu hier.

I have seen him to-day.

Je l'ai vu aujourd'hui.

3^o The second-future is sometimes used in French to weaken the affirmation of a thing which is real. This case is not to be met with, in English.

Ex. : I must have neglected some precaution.

J'aurai négligé quelque précaution.

Imperative mood.

As said before, this mood is used in commanding, exhorting, entreating, or permitting. The English

language sometimes adds the imperative *do* to give more strength, more energy to the imperative form.

Ex. : Do depart thou.

Je vous en prie, allez-vous en.

Do be quiet.

Allons, tenez-vous en silence.

SUBORDINATE PROPOSITIONS.

The English language has three moods for subordinate propositions; they are: *the indicative, the subjunctive and the potential.*

The indicative is the most employed of the three. The subjunctive tends to disappear from the language; it is no longer used in familiar conversation and is to be seen only in high and solemn style, and in poetry.

Except in a few cases given here, the French subjunctive is replaced in English by *the present, the imperfect and the future of the indicative mood; or, by the infinitive.*

Ex. : I wonder he does not see the danger.

Je m'efface qu'il ne voie pas le danger.

Do you think he will come?

Pensez-vous qu'il vienne?

What do you wish me to do?

Que voulez-vous que je fasse?

The subordinate conjunctions *if, though, lest, unless, except, provided, whether, that, till* sometimes precede and indicate the subjunctive; in such cases, the sen-

tense must express doubt or supposition and refer to a future time,

If he be at home, I will speak to him.

A condition on which a future action depends is better expressed by the present tense of the subjunctive mood, notwithstanding the use of the indicative in French.

Ex. : If he be at home, I will speak to him.

S'il est chez lui, je lui parlerai.

If he be sick, I will visit him.

S'il est malade, j'irai le voir.

When the condition expresses a thing really existing, we use the indicative.

Ex. : If he is sick, he does not complain.

S'il est malade, il ne se plaint pas.

If he is here, I do not see him.

S'il est ici, je ne le vois pas.

Though he seems simple, he has deceived us.

Bien qu'il paraisse naïf, il nous a trompés.

If he were reasonable, I would speak to him.

A mere supposition with indefinite time takes the imperfect of the subjunctive mood instead of the indicative employed in French.

Ex. : If he were reasonable, I would speak to him.

S'il était raisonnable, je lui parlerais.

If he were sick, I would visit him.

S'il était malade, j'irais le voir.

In the preceding example the time is completely indefinite; when the time is definite, we use the indicative imperfect.

Ex. : If he was sick, he did not complain.

S'il a été malade, il ne s'est pas plaint.

If he was at home, I did not see him.

S'il était chez lui, je ne l'ai pas vu.

N. B. — 1^o Instead of the imperfect tense of the subjunctive mood, we could use should with the infinitive.

2^o The conjunction if may be understood with should, were, and had; but, in such instances, the auxiliary is placed before the nominative.

Ex. : Were I your counsellor, I would advise you not to go there.

Si j'étais votre conseiller, je vous conseillerais de ne pas aller là.

Had I seen him before....

Si je l'avais vu auparavant....

It is good that you should go there.

With the impersonal expressions *il est bon*, *il est convenable*, *il est utile*, *il est nécessaire*, etc., the French subjunctive is replaced by should with the infinitive or by the infinitive alone.

Ex. : It is good that you should go there.

Il est bon que vous alliez là.

It is good for you to go there.

I require that the proof be repeated.

With the verbs to demand, to require, etc., we use the subjunctive or the potential with should.

- Ex. : I require that the proof be repeated.
J'exige que la preuve soit répétée.
 I demand that the boy should be expelled.
Je demande que l'enfant soit chassé.

Potential mood.

The potential mood with *I may*, *I might* is employed in the following cases :

- 1^o With that, in order that, meaning *afin que*.

Ex. : Write him a line, that he may know what is going on.

Ecrivez-lui un mot, afin qu'il sache ce qui se passe.

Study in order that you may succeed.

Etudiez afin de réussir.

- 2^o In prayers and petition.

Ex. : May we never experience the evils we dread.

Puissions-nous ne jamais éprouver les maux que nous redoutons.

May you live happy.

Puissiez-vous vivre heureux.

God grant he may recover.

Fasse Dieu qu'il guérisse.

I wish you may reach your end.

Je souhaite que vous atteignez votre but.

- 3^o To express something probable and conjectural.

Ex. : The thing may be more difficult than you think.

La chose est peut-être plus difficile que vous ne le pensez.

They may be dead now.

Ils sont peut-être morts maintenant.

We may see him to-morrow.

Il se peut que nous le voyions demain.

4° With whatever, however, wherever.

Ex. : Whatever riches you may have, be humble.
Quelques richesses que vous ayez, soyez humbles.

However learned you may be.

Quelque savant que vous soyez.

Wherever you may go, you will find God.

En quelque lieu que vous alliez, vous trouverez Dieu.

Translation of the French conjunction or adverb "que".

This word is translated into English by equivalents.

1° Que, meaning depuis que, is translated into English by since.

Ex. : It is but one day since he went away.

Il n'y a qu'un jour qu'il est parti.

2° Signifying lorsque, it is translated by when.

Ex. : We set out when it rained in torrents.

Nous partîmes qu'il pleuvait par torrents.

3° It is translated by that or in order that, when it means afin que.

Ex. : Come here, that I may speak to you.

Venez ici, que je vous parle.

4^o. Que, expressing time, is translated by when.

Ex.: The day when he set out.
Le jour qu'il partit.

5^o Que is translated by than after a comparative or superiority or inferiority, and by as after a comparative of equality.

Ex.: He is more learned than you.

Il est plus savant que vous.

They are not so rich as you.

Ils ne sont pas si riches que vous.

6^o Que, meaning de telle sorte, so that.

Ex.: They treated him so that nothing was wanting.

On le régala que rien n'y manquait.

Unless translates que meaning à moins que.

Ex.: I shall not be satisfied unless I know it.

Je ne serai pas content que je ne sache.

8^o Que equivalent to cependant, is translated by yet.

Ex.: He would see me die, yet he would not be affected.

Il me verrait mourir qu'il ne serait pas touché.

9^o De crainte que, for fear.

Ex.: Let us make haste, for fear somebody should come.

Dépêchons-nous que quelqu'un ne vienne.

10^o Sans que, without.

Ex. : I never go out without catching a cold.
Je ne sortirai jamais que je n'enrhume.

11^o *Que*, meaning 'combien', is translated by how much, how many.

Ex. : How much you like to talk !

Que vous aimez à parler !

How many fools there are in the world !

Qu'il y a de sots dans le monde !

12^o In several French expressions, *que* is not translated.

Ex. : I say yes, he believes not.

Je dis que oui, il croit que non.

Both dead and wounded.

Tant morts que blessés.

13^o *Que*, signifying *parce que*, has for equivalent because.

Ex. : If you do not go to school, it is because you are a lazy fellow.

Si vous n'allez pas à l'école, c'est que vous êtes paresseux.

14^o Meaning *pourquoi*, it is translated by why.

Ex. : Why did you not speak ?

Que ne parlez-vous ?

15^o With the meaning of *avant*, *que* is translated by before.

Ex. : I will not start before I have seen him.

Je ne partirai pas que je ne l'aurai vu.

16^o *Que* is not translated into English when it is used in French to avoid the repetition of some conjunctions, such as : *si*, *comme*, *quand*, *lorsque*.

Ex.: As he was busy and could not receive us,
we did not call on him.

*Comme il était occupé et qu'il ne pou-
vait pas nous recevoir, nous n'allâmes
pas chez lui.*

PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation is the art of dividing a written composition into sentences or parts of sentences by pauses which are required by the sense.

There are commonly reckoned four principal stops or signs.

The comma,	la virgula.
The semi-colon,	le point et virgule.
The colon,	les deux points.
The period,	le point final.

The comma.

The comma usually separates the parts of sentences which are closely connected in sense, but require a pause between them.

1º Two or more subjects relating to the same verb are separated by the comma.

Ex.: The husband, wife, and children were sick.

2º Two or more objects relating to the same verb.

Ex.: They sold their furniture, clothes, and stock.

3º Two or more adjectives qualifying the same noun.

Ex. : A man, gentle, sensible, well-educated, and religious.

4^o Two or more verbs having the same subject.

Ex. : Peter drinks, eats, and sleeps.

5^o Two or more adverbs modifying the same word.

Ex. : He always acts surely, slowly, and prudently.

6^o In a direct address, the comma is placed after the object of the address.

Ex. : My son, come to me.

7^o The independent case is separated by a comma from the remainder of the sentence.

Ex. : We failing, he will not go farther.

8^o The noun used by apposition is always placed between two commas.

The semi-colon.

The semi-colon is used to separate the parts of a sentence that require a pause greater than the comma or less than the colon.

1^o The semi-colon is frequently placed before *and*, *but*, *for*, *though*, *yet*, *nor*, *hence*, *therefore*, when they unite two propositions that are rather long, and make but one sentence.

Ex. : Though deep, yet clear ; though gentle, yet not dull.

Straws swim on the surface ; but pearls lie at the bottom.

2^o The semi-colon will separate propositions intro-

duced into the sentence by a conjunction and depending on the same verb.

Ex.: Philosophers assert that nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible treasures; that knowledge will always be progressive.

The colon.

The colon is used as an intermediate point between the semi-colon and the period.

It is used:

1^o After a sentence which is complete in itself, but followed by some remark illustrating the subject.

Ex.: You failed: you knew it.

2^o Before a quotation, an example.

Ex.: The Scripture says: "God is love."

3^o Before a clause summing up what has been said before.

Ex.: Heaven, hell, death, judgment: these are the things which help man in being faithful to God.

The period.

The period or full stop is used after an entire and independent sentence.

Ex.: Fear God, craignez Dieu.

Honour the king, honorez le roi.

The period is also used after abbreviations.

Ex.: John W. Russel, Esq. addressed the meeting.
Such abbreviations as Tom, Bob, Ben do not take the abbreviating period.

The words 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th admit of being used without the period.

Besides these points which mark the pauses in discourse, there are a few others which denote a different modulation of voice. They are :

The interrogation point : (?)

The exclamation point : (!)

The parenthesis : ()

The note of interrogation is used after an interrogative sentence; that is, when a question is asked.

Ex. : Where do you come from ?

The note of exclamation is used after expressions of sudden emotion, surprise, etc., etc.

Ex. : Bless the Lord; O my soul !

N. B. — In some cases the meaning of the sentence is indicated only by the punctuation.

Ex. : How great was his sacrifice ?

How great was this sacrifice !

The parenthesis is a clause containing some useful remark; but which may be omitted without injuring the grammatical construction of the sentence.

Ex. : To gain a posthumous reputation, is to save four or five letters (for what is a name besides ?) from oblivion.

On the use of capital letters.

Formerly, all nouns began with a capital; but as this practice was troublesome and gave the printing

a confused appearance, it was discontinued. However we must begin with a capital :

- 1^o The first word of every piece of writing.
- 2^o The first word coming after a period ; and, when the two sentences are *completely independent*, after a point of interrogation or exclamation.
- 3^o Nouns representing the Deity : God, Jehovah, the Almighty, the Lord, Providence, the Messiah, the Holy Ghost.
- 4^o Proper names of persons, places, streets, mountains, rivers, ships.

Ex. : Peter, Montreal, Sherbrooke Street, the Laurentides, the Saint Lawrence, the Bellerophon.

- 5^o Proper adjectives.

English, Canadian, French.

- 6^o The first word of a quotation.

Ex. : The Scripture says : "Know thyself."

- 7^o The first word of an example.

Ex. : Temptation proves our virtue.

- 8^o Every substantive and principal word in the titles of books.

Ex. : Rollin's Ancient History.

- 9^o The first word of every line in poetry.

- 10^o The pronoun *I*, and the interjection *O*.

Ex. : I speak. Hear us, O Lord !

- 11^o Names of the days and the months.

Ex. : On Monday, the eighth of April.

Abbreviations used in writing and speaking.

An't, or ain't instead of	am not, are not.
B. D.,	" " Bachelor of Divinity.
Bp.,	" " Bishop.
B. V.,	" " Blessed Virgin.
Can't,	" " cannot.
Couldn't,	" " could not.
D. D.,	" " Doctor of Divinity.
Don't,	" " do not.
D'ye,	" " do you.
E'en,	" " even.
E'er,	" " ever.
For't,	" " for it.
Gi'me,	" " give me.
Hadn't,	" " had not.
Hasn't,	" " has not.
Haven't,	" " have not.
He'd,	" " he had, he would.
He'll,	" " he will, he shall.
Here's,	" " here is.
He's,	" " he is.
I'd,	" " I had, I would.
I'll,	" " I will, I shall.
I'm,	" " I am.
Inst.,	" " Instant (the present month).
In't,	" " in it.
Isn't,	" " is not.
It's,	" " it is.
I've,	" " I have.
Let'em,	" " let them.
Let's,	" " let us.
Mayn't,	" " may not.

Mightn't,	instead of	might not.
Mrs.,	" "	mistress.
Mr.,	" "	mister.
Ne'er,	" "	never.
No,"	" "	number.
N't,	" "	not.
O'	" "	of.
O'er,	" "	over.
On't,	" "	on it.
Plaint,	" "	Plaintiff (demandeur).
P. S.,	" "	postscript.
Shan't,	" "	shall not.
She'd,	" "	she had, would.
She's,	" "	she is, has.
Th',	" "	the.
That's,	" "	that is.
There's,	" "	there is.
They'd,	" "	they had, would.
They'll,	" "	they will.
They're,	" "	they are,
They've,	" "	they have.
'twas,	" "	it was.
'tween,	" "	between.
Upon't,	" "	upon it.
Wasn't,	" "	was not.
We'd,	" "	we had, would.
We're,	" "	we are.
Wern't,	" "	were not.
We've,	" "	we have.
What's,	" "	what is.
Where's,	" "	where is.
Who's,	" "	who is, has.
Won't,	instead of	will not.
Wou'd,	" "	would.
Wou'dn't,	" "	would not.
You'd,	" "	you had, would.
You'll,	" "	you will.
You're,	" "	you are.
You've,	" "	you have.

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