ESPERANTO
[THE UNIVERSAL LANGUAGE]

THE STUDENT'S
COMPLETE TEXT BOOK

Containing Full Grammar, Exercises, Conversations, Commercial Letters, and Two Vocabularies

COMPILED BY
J. C. O'CONNOR, B.A.

EDITION OF 1907, REVISED

NEW YORK  CHICAGO  TORONTO
FLEMING H. REVELL COMPANY
LONDON AND EDINBURGH
CONTENTS

Editor's Preface... ... ... ... ... 5

The Making of an International Language.
By Dr. Zamenhof ... ... ... ... 7

Advice to the Student ... ... ... ... 21

Synopsis of the Grammar of Esperanto ... 28

PART I.—The Grammar ... ... ... ... 24
List of Correlative Words ... ... ... 43
How to Build Up New Words ... ... ... 44

PART II.—Exercises on the Grammar ... 49
Exercises on Correlative Words ... ... ... 81

PART III.—Conversations ... ... ... ... 88

PART IV.—Letters, Commercial, etc. ... ... ... 108

A Few Idiomatic Phrases ... ... ... ... 111

PART V.—Vocabularies:
(1). English-Esperanto ... ... ... ... 114
(2). Esperanto-English ... ... ... ... 141

APPENDIX.—Names of Countries, Foods, etc. 167
Preface to the Revised Edition

This revised edition of my Grammar of the Auxiliary International Language, "Esperanto,"—the first published for English readers—has had the great advantage of the personal supervision and official approval of the founder, Dr. Zamenhof.

That it has been prepared to supply a want is not a mere façon de parler. Prior to the appearance of the first edition hundreds of inquirers, from most widely separated sections at home and abroad had written urgently requesting a grammar suitable for English students. These inquirers, for the most part, came to know of the existence of "Esperanto" through the medium of pamphlets, leaflets, letters in the public Press, etc., which could give, of necessity, only the merest idea and outline of the language.

In compiling a book to meet this demand my chief desire and aim has been to prepare a Grammar, which, while being complete in all its parts and containing everything that is necessary for a sound knowledge of the language, should be brief, clear, full, but not redundant.

To the following gentlemen I return my best thanks for their exceeding great kindness and cordial co-operation:—Monsieur L. de Beaufrout, President of the Committee of Direction (for Es-
PEREANTO) in France, who has written the "Con-
versations," 1 etc., in Section II.; The Honour-
able R. H. Geoghegan, to whom, in great mea-
sure, I am indebted for the chapter on the Parti-
ciple; Mr. Joseph Rhodes, F.J.S., President of
the Esperanto Society, Keighley, Yorks (the first
society established for the study of the language
in England), who, despite his many literary
duties, has given me valuable assistance in re-
vising this new edition; to Monsieur P. Ahlberg,
President of the Esperanto Society, Stockholm,
to whom I am indebted for the greater number of
the Commercial letters in Section III.; and to
Mr. Charles Hayes, Wandsworth, who also has
given me valuable assistance in preparing this
Grammar for publication.

J. C. O'CONNOR, M.A.

17, St. Stephen's Square, Bayswater, W.

1 These dialogues originally appeared in L'Esperantisto
from the pen of Monsieur de Beaufron. This is a monthly
journal, printed in French and Esperanto, and published in
Paris. To all desirous of perfecting themselves in the language
it will prove a most valuable aid. It can be had by applying
to the Secretary, Esperanto Society, 10, Place de la Bourse,
Paris.
THE MAKING OF AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE.

[BY DR. ZAMENHOF.]

From the "Fundamenta Krestomatio," which every Esperantist should read.

If the reader should take up this little work with an incredulous smile, supposing that he is about to peruse the impracticable schemes of some good citizen of Utopia, I would in the first place beg of him to lay aside all prejudice, and treat seriously and critically the question brought before him.

I need not here point out the considerable importance to humanity of an international language—a language unconditionally accepted by everyone, and the common property of the whole world. How much time and labour we spend in learning foreign tongues, and yet when travelling in foreign countries we are, as a rule, unable to converse with other human beings in their own language. How much time, labour, and money are wasted in translating the literary productions of one nation into the language of another, and yet, if we rely on translations alone, we can become acquainted with but a tithe of foreign literature.

Were there but an international language all translations would be made into it alone, as into a tongue intelligible to all, and works of an international character would be written in it in the first instance.

The Chinese wall dividing literatures would disappear, and the works of other nations would be as readily intelligible to us as those of our own authors. Books being the same for everyone, education, ideals, convictions, aims, would be the same too, and all nations would be united in a common brotherhood. Being compelled, as we now are, to devote our time to
the study of several different languages, we cannot study any of them sufficiently well, and there are but few persons who can even boast a complete mastery of their mother-tongue. On the other hand, languages cannot progress towards perfection, and we are often obliged, even in speaking our own language, to borrow words and expressions from foreigners, or to express our thoughts inexactely.

How different would the case be had we but two languages to learn; we should know them infinitely better, and the languages themselves would grow richer, and reach a higher degree of perfection than is found in any of those now existing. And yet though language is the prime motor of civilisation, and to it alone we owe the fact that we have raised ourselves above the level of other animals, difference of speech is a cause of antipathy, nay even of hatred, between people, as being the first thing to strike us on meeting. Not being understood we keep aloof, and the first notion that occurs to our minds is, not to find out whether the others are of our own political opinions, or whence their ancestors came from thousands of years ago, but to dislike the strange sound of their language. Moreover, anyone who has lived for a length of time in a commercial city, whose inhabitants were of different unfriendly nations, will easily understand what a boon would be conferred on mankind by the adoption of an international idiom, which, without interfering with domestic affairs or the private life of nations, would play the part of an official and commercial dialect, at any rate, in countries inhabited by people of different nationalities.

I will not expatiate on the immense importance which, it may well be imagined, an international language would acquire in science, commerce, etc. Whoever has but once bestowed a thought on the subject will surely acknowledge that no sacrifice
would be too great if by it we could obtain a universal tongue. It is, therefore, imperative that the slightest effort in that direction should be attended to. The best years of my life have been devoted to this momentous cause.

I shall not here enter upon an analysis of the various attempts already made to give the public a universal language, but will content myself with remarking that these efforts have amounted either to a short system of mutually-intelligible signs, or to a natural simplification of the grammar of existing modern languages, with a change of their words into others arbitrarily formed. The attempts of the first category were quickly seen to be too complicated for practical use, and so faded into oblivion; those of the second were, perhaps, entitled to the name of "languages," but certainly not "international" languages. The inventors called their tongues "universal," I know not why, possibly because no one in the whole world, except themselves, could understand a single word written or spoken in any of them. If a language, in order to become universal, has but to be named so, then, forsooth, the wish of any single individual can frame out of any existing dialect a universal tongue. As these authors naively imagined that their essays would be enthusiastically welcomed and taken up by the whole world, and as this unanimous welcome is precisely what the cold and indifferent world declines to give, when there is no chance of realising any immediate benefit, it is not much to be marvelled at if these brilliant attempts came to nothing. The greater part of the world was not in the slightest degree interested in the prospect of a new language, and the persons who really cared about the matter thought it scarcely worth while to learn a tongue which none but the inventor could understand. When the whole world, said they, has learnt
this language, or at least several million people, we will do the same.

I have always been interested in the question of a universal language, but as I did not feel myself better qualified for the work than the authors of so many other fruitless attempts, I did not risk running into print, and merely occupied myself with imaginary schemes and a minute study of the problem. At length, however, some happy ideas, the fruits of my reflections, incited me to further work, and induced me to essay the systematic conquest of the many obstacles which beset the path of the inventor of a new rational universal language. As it appears to me that I have almost succeeded in my undertaking, I am now venturing to lay before a critical public the results of my long and assiduous labours.

The principal difficulties to be overcome were:

1. To render the study of the language so easy as to make its acquisition merciful to the learner.

2. To enable the learner to make direct use of his knowledge with persons of any nationality, whether the language be universally accepted or not; in other words, the language is to be directly a means of international communication.

3. To find some means of overcoming the natural indifference of mankind, and disposing them, in the quickest manner possible, and en masse, to learn and use the proposed language as a living one, and not only in last extremities, and with the key at hand.

Amongst the numberless projects submitted at various times to the public, often under the high-sounding but unaccountable name of "universal languages," no one has solved at once more than one of the above-mentioned problems, and even that but partially.

Before proceeding to enlighten the reader as to the
means employed for the solution of the problems, I would ask of him to reconsider the exact significance of each separately, so that he may not be inclined to quibble at my methods of solution merely because they may appear to him perhaps too simple. I do this because I am well aware that the majority of mankind feel disposed to bestow their consideration on any subject the more carefully, in proportion, as it is enigmatical and incomprehensible. Such persons, at the sight of so short a grammar, with rules so simple and so readily intelligible, will be ready to regard it with a contemptuous glance, never considering the fact—of which a little further reflection would convince them—that this simplification and bringing of each detail out of its original complicated form into the simplest and easiest conceivable was, in fact, the most insuperable obstacle to be overcome.

**The First Difficulty.**

The first of the problems was solved in the following manner:

(1). I simplified the grammar to the utmost, and while, on the one hand, I carried out my object in the spirit of the existing modern languages, in order to make the study as free from difficulties as possible, on the other hand, I did not deprive it of clearness, exactness, and flexibility. My whole grammar can be learned perfectly in one hour. The immense alleviation given to the study of a language by such a grammar must be self-evident to everyone.

(2). I established rules for the formation of new words, and at the same time reduced to a very small compass the list of words absolutely necessary to be learned, without, however, depriving the language of the means of becoming a rich one. On the contrary, thanks to the possibility of forming from one root
word any number of compounds, expressive of every conceivable shade of idea, I made it the richest of the rich amongst modern tongues. This I accomplished by the introduction of numerous prefixes and suffixes, by whose aid the student is enabled to create new words for himself, without the necessity of having previously to learn them. For example:

(1). The prefix *mal* denotes the direct opposite of any idea. If, for instance, we know the word for "good," *bon'a*, we can immediately form that for "bad," *mal*-*bon'a*, and hence the necessity of a special word for "bad" is obviated. In like manner, *al'a*, "high," "tall," *mal'al'a*, "low," "short"; *estim'i*, "to respect," *mal'estim'i*, "to despise," etc. Consequently, if one has learned this single word *mal* he is relieved of learning a long string of words such as "hard," (premising that he knows "soft," ) "cold," "old," "dirty," "distant," "darkness," "shame," "to hate," etc., etc.

(2). The suffix *in* marks the feminine gender, and thus if we know the word "brother," *frat'o*, we can form "sister," *frat'in'o*; so also, "father," *patr'o*; "mother," *patr'in'o*. By this device words like "grandmother," "bride," "girl," "hen," "cow," etc., are done away with.

(3). The suffix *il* indicates an instrument for a given purpose, e.g., *tranē'il'o*, "to cut," *tranē'il'o*, "a knife"; so words like "comb," "axe," "bell," etc., are rendered unnecessary.

In the same manner are employed many other affixes—some fifty in all—which the reader will find in the vocabulary. Moreover, as I have laid it down as a general rule that every word already regarded as international—the so-called "foreign" words, for example—undergoes no change in my language, except such as may be necessary to bring it into

By the help of these rules, and others, which will be found in the grammar, the language is rendered so exceedingly simple that the whole labour in learning consists in committing to memory some 3,000 words—which number includes all the grammatical inflexions, prefixes, etc. With the assistance of the rules given in the grammar, anyone of ordinary intellectual capacity may form for himself all the words, expressions, and idioms in ordinary use. Even these 3,000 words, as will be shown directly, are so chosen that the learning them offers no difficulty to a well-educated person.

Thus the acquirement of this rich, mellifluous, universally-comprehensible language is not a matter of years of a laborious study, but the mere light amusement of a few days.

**Problem No. 2.**

The solution of the second problem was effected thus:—

(1) I introduced a complete dismemberment of ideas into independent words, so that the whole language consists, not of words in different states of grammatical inflexion, but of unchangeable words. If the reader will turn to one of the pages of this book written in my language, he will perceive that each word always retains its original unalterable form—namely, that under which it appears in the vocabulary. The various grammatical inflexions, the reciprocal relations of the members of a sentence, are expressed by the junction of immutable syllables.
But the structure of such a synthetic language being altogether strange to the chief European nations, and consequently difficult for them to become accustomed to, I have adapted this principle of dismemberment to the spirit of the European languages, in such a manner that anyone learning my tongue from grammar alone, without having previously read this introduction—which is quite unnecessary for the learner—will never perceive that the structure of the language differs in any respect from that of his mother-tongue. So, for example, the derivation of *frat'īn'o*, which is in reality a compound of *frat* "child of the same parents as one's self," *in* "female," *o* "an entity," "that which exists," i.e., "that which exists as a female child of the same parents as one's self"—"a sister,"—is explained by the grammar thus: the root for "brother" is *frat*, the termination of substantives in the nominative case is *o*, hence *frato* is the equivalent of "brother"; the feminine gender is formed by the suffix *in*, hence *frat'in'o* = "sister." (The little strokes between certain letters are added in accordance with a rule of the grammar, which requires their insertion between each component part of every complete word). Thus the learner experiences no difficulty, and never even imagines that what he calls terminations, suffixes, etc., are complete and independent words, which always keep their own proper significations, whether placed at the beginning or end of a word, in the middle, or alone. The result of this construction of the language is that everything written in it can be immediately and perfectly understood by the help of the vocabulary—or even almost without it—by anyone who has not only not learnt the language before, but even has never heard of its very existence.

Let me illustrate this by an example:—I am amongst Englishmen, and have not the slightest
knowledge of the English language; I am absolutely in need of making myself understood, and write in the international tongue, maybe, as follows:—

Mi ne sci'as kie mi las'is la baston'o'n; tu vi fin ne vid'is?

I hold out to one of the strangers an International English vocabulary, and point to the title, where the following sentence appears in large letters:—"Everything written in the international language can be translated by the help of this vocabulary. If several words together express but a single idea, they are written as one word, but separated by commas; e.g., frat'm'o, though a single idea, is yet composed of three words, which must be looked for separately in the vocabulary." If my companion has never heard of the international language he will probably favour me at first with a vacant stare, will then take the piece offered to him, and, searching for the words in the vocabulary, as directed, will make out understandings of this kind:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mi</th>
<th>mi = I</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ne</td>
<td>ne = not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sci'as</td>
<td>sci = know</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kie</td>
<td>kie = where</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mi</td>
<td>mi =</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>las'is</td>
<td>las = sign of the past tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>las'is</td>
<td>las = sign of the past tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>las</td>
<td>las = sign of the past tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kie</td>
<td>kie = the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>las'is</td>
<td>las'is = sign of the future tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>las'is</td>
<td>las'is = sign of the future tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baston'o'n</td>
<td>Baston'o'n = sign of the action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baston'o'n</td>
<td>Baston'o'n = sign of the action</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
\textbf{\textit{\textbf{ε}u}} \begin{align*}
\text{εu} &= \text{whether, if} \\
\text{employed in questions} & \quad \text{whether}
\end{align*}
\begin{align*}
\text{vi} &= \text{you, thou} \\
\text{γi} &= \text{it, this} \\
\text{gin} &= \text{sign of the objective case} \\
\text{ne} &= \text{not} \\
\text{vid} &= \text{see} \\
\text{vid} &= \text{sign of the past tense}
\end{align*}
\begin{align*}
\text{is} &= \text{have seen}
\end{align*}

And thus the Englishman will easily understand what it is I desire. If he wishes to reply, I show him an English-International vocabulary, on which are printed these words:—“To express anything by means of this vocabulary, in the international language, look for the words required in the vocabulary itself; and for the terminations necessary to distinguish the grammatical forms look in the grammatical appendix, under the respective headings of the parts of speech which you desire to express.” Since the explanation of the whole grammatical structure of the language is comprised in a few lines—as a glance at the grammar will show—the finding of the required terminations occupies no longer time than the turning up a word in the dictionary.

I would now direct the attention of my readers to another matter, at first sight a trifling one, but, in truth, of immense importance. Everyone knows the impossibility of communicating intelligibly with a foreigner by the aid of even the best of dictionaries, if one have no previous acquaintance with the language. In order to find any given word in a dictionary, we must know its derivation, for when words are arranged in sentences, nearly every one of them undergoes some grammatical change. After this alteration, a word often bears not the least
resemblance to its primary form, so that without knowing something of the language beforehand, we are able to find hardly any of the words occurring in a given phrase, and even those we do find will give no connected sense. Suppose, for example, I had written the simple sentence adduced above in German: "Ich weiss nicht wo ich den Stock gelassen habe; haben Sie ihn nicht gesehen?" Anyone who did not speak or understand German, after searching for each word separately in a dictionary, would produce the following farrago of nonsense: "I; white; not; where; I;—; stick; dispassionate; property; to have; she, they, you;—; not;—?" I need scarcely point out that a lexicon of a modern language is usually a volume of a certain bulk, and the search for any number of words one by one is in itself a most laborious undertaking, not to speak of the different significations attaching to the same word, amongst which there is but a bare possibility of the student selecting the right one. The international vocabulary, owing to the highly synthetic structure of the language, is a mere leaflet, which one might carry in one's note book, or the waistcoat-pocket.

Granted that we had a language with a grammar simplified to the utmost, and whose every word had a definite fixed meaning, the person addressed would require not only to have beforehand some knowledge of the grammar, to be able, even with the vocabulary at hand, to understand anything addressed to him, but would also need some previous acquaintance with the vocabulary itself, in order to be able to distinguish between the primitive word and its grammatically-altered derivatives. The utility, again, of such a language would wholly depend upon the number of its adepts, for when sitting, for instance, in a railway-carriage, and wishing to ask a fellow-traveller "How long do we stop at —?" it is scarcely to be expected
that he will undertake to learn the grammar of the language before replying! By using, on the other hand, the international language, we are set in possibility of communicating directly with a person of any nationality, even though he may never have heard of the existence of the language before.

Anything whatever, written in the international tongue, can be translated, without difficulty, by means of the vocabulary alone, no previous study being requisite. The reader may easily convince himself of the truth of this assertion by experimenting for himself with the specimens of the language appended to this pamphlet. A person of good education will seldom need to refer to the vocabulary; a linguist scarcely at all.

Let us suppose that you have to write to a Spaniard, who neither knows your language nor you his. You think that probably he has never heard of the international tongue. No matter, write boldly to him in that language, and be sure he will understand you perfectly. The complete vocabulary required for everyday use, being but a single sheet of paper, can be bought for a few pence, in any language you please, easily enclosed in the smallest envelope, and forwarded with your letter. The person to whom it is addressed will without doubt understand what you have written, the vocabulary being not only a clue to, but a complete explanation of your letter. The wonderful power of combination possessed by the words of the international language renders this lilliputian lexicon amply sufficient for the expression of every want of daily life; but words seldom met with, technical terms, and foreign words familiar to all nations, as “tobacco,” “theatre,” “fabric,” etc., are not included in it. If such words, therefore, are needed, and it is impossible to express them by some equivalent terms, the larger vocabulary must be consulted.
(2). It has now been shown how, by means of the peculiar structure of the international tongue, anyone may enter into an intelligible correspondence with another person of a different nationality. The sole drawback, until the language becomes more widely known, is the necessity under which the writer is placed of waiting until the person addressed shall have analysed his thoughts. In order to remove this obstacle as far as practicable, at least for persons of education, recourse was had to the following expedient. Such words as are common to the languages of all civilised peoples, together with the so-called "foreign" words and technical terms, were left unaltered. If a word has a different sound in different languages, that sound has been chosen which is common to at least two or three of the most important European tongues, or which, if found in one language only, has become familiar to other nations. When the required word has a different sound in every language, some word was sought for, having only a relative likeness in meaning to the other, or one which, though seldom used, is yet well known to the leading nations, e.g., the word for "near" is different in every European language, but if one consider for a moment the word "proximus" (nearest), it will be noticed that some modified form of the word is in use in all important tongues. If, then, I call "near" proksim, the meaning will be apparent to every educated man. In other emergencies words were drawn from the Latin, as being a quasi-international language. Deviations from these rules were only made in exceptional cases, as for the avoidance of homonyms, simplicity of orthography, etc. In this manner, being in communication with a European of fair education, who has never learnt the international tongue, one may make sure of being immediately understood, without the person
addressed having to refer continually to the vocabulary.

In order that the reader may prove for himself the truth of all that has been set forth above, two specimens of the international language are subjoined.*

**PATRO NI'A.**

Patro ni'a, kiu estas en la cielo, sankta estu Vi'a nom'o, venu regsec'o Vi'a, estu vol'o Vi'a, kiel en la cielo, tiel ankauf sur la tero. Pan'on ni'a'n ciutag'san don'u al ni hodiaut, kaj pardon'u al ni suld'o'jn ni'aj'n, kiel ni ankauf pardon'as al ni'aj suld'ant'o'j; ne konduku ni'n en tent'o'jn; sed liberig'uj ni'n de la malvera, car Vi'a estas la regad'o, la fort'o, kaj la gloro eterne. Amen!

**EL LA BIBLI'O.**

Je la komenc'o Di'o kreis la ter'o'n kaj la cielo'n. Kaj la ter'o estis sen'form'a kaj dezert'a, kaj mal'umo estis super la profund'aj'o, kaj la animo de Di'o si'n portis super la akvo. Kaj Di'o diris: estu lum'o; kaj farig'is lum'o. Kaj Di'o vidis la lum'o'n ke gi estas bon'a, kaj nomis Di'o la lum'o'n tag'o, kaj la mal'umo'n Li nomis noko'to. Kaj estis vespero, kaj estis mateno—unu tag'o. Kaj Di'o diris: estu firmaj'o inter la akvo, kaj gi apartig'ua akv'on de akvo. Kaj Di'o kreis la firmaj'o'n kaj apartig'is la akv'o'n kiu estas sub la firmaj'o', de la akv'o kiu estas super la firmaj'; kaj farig'is tiel. Kaj Di'o nomis la firmaj'on cielo. Kaj estis vespero, kaj estis mateno—la du'as tag'o. Kaj Di'o diris: kolektu sin la akvo de sub la cielo unu lok'o'n, kaj montru si'n sekaj'o; kaj farig'is tiel. Kaj Di'o nomis la sekaj'o'n tero, kaj la kolektoyn de la akv'o Li nomis maro'j.

* In correspondence with persons who have learnt the language, as well as in works written for them exclusively, the commas, separating parts of words, are omitted.
ADVICE TO THE STUDENT.

1. The lessons, etc., in this text-book are arranged to meet what must be the great aims of an International language, viz.:
   (1). To read it with facility.
   (2). To speak it with facility.
   (3). To write it with facility.

2. And, in order to fulfil these ends, the Lessons have been divided into three sections, namely:—Exercises, Conversations, and Specimens of Correspondence. All these can be taken in their order, but there is nothing to prevent a student from working at the Conversations before the Exercises (Section I.) have been finished. The Correspondence (Section III.), however, should not be attempted until the Exercises and Conversations are thoroughly mastered.

3. In order to facilitate the study of the language, I would advise the student to give his careful attention to the following suggestions:

4. Do not begin the Exercises until the sound value of every letter in the Alphabet is thoroughly mastered.

5. Even when this point is attained, let no day pass without reading aloud the words of, at least, one Exercise; this for three reasons—firstly, as an exercise in pronunciation; secondly, to accustom the ear to the sound of the words; thirdly, for a better remembering of the words, one sense here materially helping the other.

6. Keep well before the mind, for this end, the fact that the language is phonetic, one letter having always and everywhere one sound, and, finally, remember there are no silent letters.

7. In mentioning the letters it is well to give them the names by which they are universally known; this is done by adding an O to each consonant. Thus the
name of $B$ is bo, $D$ is do, $M$ is mo, $R$ is ro, $S$ is sho, $Z$ is zo, etc., etc. This gives the Alphabet its own proper characteristic, which is totally distinct from the alphabets of all other languages.

8. Learn the Grammatical Terminations which precede the Grammar proper. "Hasten slowly," do not be in too great a hurry, proceed step by step. Too great haste only retards progress.

9. Recapitulate occasionally. When you finish the first 10 Lessons repeat them; do the same when you finish Lesson 20, and finally have a repetition of the whole. When you do this thoroughly you have a "working capital" of close on 700 or 800 words.

10. Moreover, if you act in this way, the remaining Sections (II. and III.) will present no difficulty.

11. Having finished the Exercises, I would suggest that the student subscribe to one of the journals (of which there are now at least ten published) printed for the propagation of the language. Some of these are printed entirely in Esperanto, others in French and Esperanto. An English-Esperanto monthly is in preparation.

12. If you wish to correspond in the language, you should obtain the Annual Universal address book issued by Dr. Zamenhof, an application form for which can be had by applying to the Esperanto Club. By giving one hour each day to the language, at the end of a few weeks you will find no difficulty in this. And remember, by means of "Esperanto," your correspondence need not be limited to one or two countries. Practically, by the means of this language, your field is boundless for this purpose.

13. Every Esperantist should obtain and carefully study Dr. Zamenhof's "Fundamenta Krestomatio," which is the guide to style, and contains the larger part of Dr. Zamenhof's own writings.
SYNOPSIS OF THE GRAMMAR OF ESPERANTO.

GRAMMATICAL TERMINATIONS.

I final denotes always the infinitive. Ami, to love.

AS " " " " present tense. Mi amas, love.

IS " " " " past tense. Vi amis, you loved.

OS " " " " future tense. Li amos, they will love.

US " " " " conditional. Li amus, he should or would love.

U " " " " imperative. Amu, love; li amu, let him love.

ANTA* " " " " present participle (active). Amanta, loving.

INTA " " " " past participle (active). Aminta, having loved.

ONTA " " " " future participle (active). Amona, about to love.

ATA " " " " present participle (passive). Amata, being loved.

ITA " " " " past participle (passive). Amita, having been loved.

OTA " " " " future participle (passive). Amota, about to be loved.

O " " " " noun. Patro, father.

A " " " " adjective. Patra, paternal.

E " " " " adverb. Patre, paternally.

J " " " " plur. Bonaj patroj, good fathers.

N " " " " objective (accusative) case. and the direction towards which one goes. Mi troris la libron, I found the book. Si iras Londonon, she goes to London.

* The final "A" of participles is changed to "E" when used adverbially, as amante, by (or in) loving.
PART I.—THE ESPERANTO GRAMMAR.

The Alphabet.

1. There are twenty-eight letters in the alphabet, viz.:

   Aa, Dd, Ĝg, Jj, Mm, Rr, Uu,
   Bb, Ee, Hh, Jl, Nn, Ŝš, Ųū,
   Cc, Ff, Hh, Kk, Oo, Ŝš, Vv,
   Ĉĉ, Gg, Ii, Ll, Pp, Tt, Zz.

2. With the exception of the following, these letters are pronounced exactly as in English:

   A is always pronounced as "a" in father.
   E  "  "  "e" in they.
   I  "  "  "ee" in seen.
   O  "  "  "o" in so.
   U  "  "  "u" in rule.
   Ĉ  "  "  "ts" in bits.
   Ĝ  "  "  "ch" in church.
   G  "  "  "g" in good.
   H  "  "  "g" in gem.
   Ĥ  "  "  "ch" in loch.
   J  "  "  "y" in yes.
   S  "  "  "s" in vision.
   Ŝ  "  "  "s" in basin, never like "s" in rose.
   A  "  "  "sh" in she.
   Æ  "  "  "ow" in how.
   O  "  "  "i" in nigh.
   E  "  "  "oy" in boy.
   Ĕ  "  "  "eh-oo" as in the words "they who."
   E  "  "  "ayi" in saying.
   U  "  "  "ul" in ruin.

Note.—Dr. Zamenhof permits the substitution of the letter "h" for the accent, in all cases of ch, gh, hh, jh, and sh.
3. The sound of the letters is always the same, whether initial, medial or final. "One letter one sound."

4. There are no silent letters in Esperanto; every letter must be sounded separately, even in the case of the double letters, Aj, As and Oj, the pronunciation of which is given. "H" is never silent.

5. Esperanto being a phonetic language, every word is read exactly as it is written, and written as read.
   * Dume = "doo-may," not "doom." Iel = "ee-ale," not "eel."
   * Traire = "trah-ee-ray," not "tra-ire." Fingringo = feen-green-go, not fing-ting-o (treat "ing" always after this model).

**The Accent.**

1. Every word in Esperanto is accented on the penultimate (the last syllable but one). Hence this syllable must be well marked, raising the voice on it, and not on the final syllable. Even in words of two syllables the accent must be strong, distinct and clear upon the first. This is called the "tonic" accent.

2. This, however, does not mean that the other syllables should be slurred or pronounced carelessly. Every syllable must get its full sound-value, but the neglect of the tonic accent would tend, in a great measure, to rob the language of an essential part of its beauty and euphony.

**Compound Words.**

These are formed by the junction of words, much the same as in English. In Esperanto the principal word is always placed last, this word taking the termination determining which part of speech it is.

The grammatical terminations "i," "a," "o," are regarded as independent words in such cases. In elementary work, or in corresponding with learners, the different parts of compound words are divided by perpendicular or sloping bars ', as Vaporsipo, Grizhar'a, Antauvid'i.

Foreign Words.

1. By "foreign words" we understand a large class of words which most languages receive from a common source.

2. In Esperanto these words retain their original form, undergoing no change except only so far as they are subject to its orthographical system and rules.

   Mikrofono, Microphone.       Teatro, Theatre.
   Mikrofona, Microphonic.      Teatra, Theatrical.
   Mikrofone, Microphonically.  Teatre, Theatrically.

3. As will be seen from these examples, the derived words—Mikrofona, mikrofone, teatra, teatre, always originate or spring from the root of the primary word, mikrofou, teatr'.

Elision.

1. Elision is not common in Esperanto; its use is rather to be avoided than followed.

2. The only letters that may be elided are the "a" of the article and the "o" of nouns (in the singular). When elision does take place, an apostrophe is used to denote the dropped letter. La domo de l'mastro, the house of the master; or, the master's house. Schiller estis glora poeto; Schiller was a glorious poet.

3. In no case is elision obligatory.
Interrogation.

*Cu* denotes an interrogation, as *Cu li legas?* Does he read? It is also used in indirect questions, when it means "whether."

Negation.

As in English, double negatives must not be used.

*Mi neni on trovis,* I found nothing.

*Si neni on vidis en la palaco,* she saw no one in the palace.

Direction.

In answers to questions beginning with "*Kien,*" "where" (meaning direction), the word or words must have the termination of the objective. As, *Kien li iras?* Where does he go? (Where is he going?) *Li iras gardonon—Londonon.* He goes (or is going) to a garden—to London.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

The Article.

1. There is no indefinite article in Esperanto. It is contained in the Noun (as in Latin) according as the sense does or does not require it, as:

*Rozo estas flor,* a rose is a flower.

*Patro kaj frato,* father and brother.

2. The definite article is *La,* the. (It is invariable).

*La patro,* the father. *La patrino,* the mother.

*La tablo,* the table. *La patroj,* the fathers.

*La birdoj estas sur la arbo,* the birds are on the tree.
3. The definite article is never used in Esperanto before proper names, as:
   
   Unuiĝitaj Ŝtatoj Amerikaj. The United States of America.

   Francujo estas pli varma ol Anglujo. France is warmer than England.

4. The definite article is used in Esperanto before nouns denoting the totality of persons or things represented, as:

   La homo estas mortema, man is mortal.

**The Noun.**

1. The noun, in Esperanto, invariably ends in "o," as:


2. The plural is formed by adding "j" (pron."y") to the singular, as:

   Patroj, fathers. Patrinoj, mothers. Arboj, trees.

3. The objective case (sometimes named the Accusative) is formed by adding "n" to the singular or plural, as:

   Mi havas floron, birdon kaj libron.
   I have a flower, a bird and a book.

   Mi havas florojn, birdojn kaj librojn.
   I have flowers, birds and books.

   This form of the objective is not used in English, but as Esperanto is a language to be used by all nations, and having to unite clearness with simplicity, it had to be so formed that however the words in a sentence may be arranged, the subject and object cannot be read one for another.†

---

* Alternative forms are Franclando, Anglolando.
† For a special Note on the use of the Accusative see p. 166.
4. Possession is denoted as follows:—

*La domo de la patro*, the father’s house.
*La libro de la patrino*, the mother’s book.
*La ĉapelo de Johano*, John’s hat.

5. The direction, or place towards which one goes, also takes the sign of the objective case, “*n,*” as:

*Mia iras Romon*, I go to Rome. *La hundo saltis sur la lito*, the dog jumped on (to) the bed. (He was not on the bed when he jumped, he was on the floor or elsewhere, and from there he jumped on to the bed).

But, *La hundo saltis sur la lito* means he was on the bed, and then jumped about on it.

6. The feminine is formed by inserting—*in*—before the termination *o* or *oj*, as: *patro, patrin-o*, father, mother.


*Mia vidis la edzon kaj la edzinon*, I saw the husband and the wife.

7. “*N*” is also used in words signifying date. *Li venis hundo*, he came (on) Monday.

8. In words expressing weight, measure, price and duration “*N*” is likewise added, as *Ŝi jamis du horojn*, she sang (for) 2 hours.

The Adjective.

1. All adjectives, and participles when used as adjectives, end in “*a,*” as:


*La bona patro, la bela patrino kaj la junulo* (sing).

The good father, the beautiful mother and the young son.
La bonaj patroj, la belaj patrinoj kaj la junaj filoj (plur.).
The good fathers, the beautiful mothers and the young sons.

2. If an adjective qualifies or refers to a noun in
the objective case such adjective must also take the
sign of that case, "n," as:
Mi trovis junan birdon en la jardeno.
I found a young bird in the garden.
Mi aĉetis du charmaj librojn.
I bought two charming books.

3. The adjective may precede or follow the noun
it qualifies, as:
Mi havas novan ĉapelon, or mi havas ĉapelon novan, I
have a new hat.

4. As already stated, participial adjectives, that is
participles used as adjectives, follow the above rules.
Amanta amiko, a loving friend. Amantaj amikoj,
loving friends.

Adjectives must never be used as adverbs, nor
adverbs as adjectives.

Comparison of Adjectives.
1. Adjectives are compared as follows:—
The comparative of equality is, tiel—kiel, as—
as. (1).
The comparative of superiority is, pli—ol, more—
than. (2).
The comparative of inferiority is, malpli—ol, less—
than. (3).
Vi estas tiel forta kiel li. You are as strong as
he. (1).
Vi estas pli forta ol li. You are stronger than
he. (2).
Vi estas malpli forta ol li. You are less strong (weaker) than he. (3).

2. The superlative of superiority is la plej (—el) the most (—of, in, amongst). (4).
   The superlative of inferiority is la malplej (—el) the least (—of, in, amongst). (5).
   Li estas la plej kuraja homo en la mondo (el ni ĉiu). (4).
   He is the most courageous man in the world (amongst us all).
   Mi estas la plej riĉa el ĉiu. (4).
   I am the richest of all.
   Mi estas la malplej forta el ni. (5).
   I am the least strong (weakest) amongst us.

3. The superlative absolute is indicated by "tre," "very."

Mia patro estas tre riĉa kaj tre felika.
My father is very rich and very happy.

Numerals.

1. The cardinal numbers are: Unu (1), du (2), tri (3), kvar (4), kvin (5), ses (6), sept (7), ok (8), naŭ (9),
   dek (10), cent (100), mil (1000).

2. The tens and hundreds are formed by the aid of the numbers preceding: Dek (10) or cent (100), as
dudek (20), tridek (30), sesdek (60), naŭdek (90),
kvarcent (400), kvincent (500), naŭcent (900).

3. The intermediate numbers between 10 and 100 are formed as follows: Dek-du (12),
dek-sep (17),
dek-naŭ (19), tridek-sep (37), sepdek-kvin (75), naŭcent
tridek-du (932), sepcent okdek-unu (781), mil naŭcent tri
(1903).

   The use of the hyphen is not obligatory.

4. Ordinals are formed from the corresponding cardinals by adding the termination "a" of adjectives.
   Unua (first), kvara (fourth), dek-unua (eleventh),
kvardek-tria (fifty-third), ducent-dudek-tria (two hundred and twenty-third), mil naŭcent-tria (1903 A.D.).
5. If the cardinal number is composed of different numbers, "a" is added to the last only.
6. Ordinals being in reality adjectives, they follow the rules of adjectives as to case and number, as:
   Donu al ti la unuan, kaj prenu la kvaran.
   Give him the first and take the fourth.
7. Cardinals undergo no change.
8. Fractional numbers are formed by adding "on" to the cardinals, and then adding "o" or "a" according as they are nouns or adjectives. La centona parto de la mona, the hundredth part of the money. Kvar estas la duono de ok, four is the half of eight. Tri okonoj, three-eighths (3/8). Kvinoj seponoj, five-sevenths (5/7).
9. Multiples are formed by adding "obl" to the cardinals, and then adding "o" or "a" as in fractions, to mark the noun or adjective. Duobla, double. Triobla, triple. Sepobla, sevenfold.
10. Collectives are formed by adding "op" to the cardinals, and then adding "a" or "e" according as they are adjectives or adverbs. Duopo, by twos. Dekopo, by tens.
11. Once, twice, thrice, etc., are formed by adding the word "foje" to the cardinals, as Unufoje, once. Dufoje, twice. Trifoje, thrice, etc.

**Personal Pronouns.**

1. The personal pronouns are: Mi, I. Vi, thou,* you. Li, he. Shi, she. Gi, it. Ni, we. Ti, they.
   Oni, they, we, people, it. This is the French "on."
   Si, self, reflexive pronoun, of all genders and numbers. This pronoun is naturally of the third person.
2. They form the objective case in the same way as nouns: Min, me. Vin, you. Lin, him. SIn, her. GIn, it. Nin, us. Tit, them.

---

* "Thou" in familiar address is represented by "Gi," but this is rarely used in Esperanto.
Mi trovis lin en la jardeno kun mia patro.
I found him in the garden with my father.
Si vidis nin en la dormotambo.
She saw us in the bedroom.
Oni diras, "per mono oni povas aĉeti ĉion."
They say (it is said): "By means of money one can buy everything."

3. Gi (it) is used, as in English, to represent things, and also persons and animals, the name of which does not reveal the sex.
La infano ploras, ĉar gi estas malsuta.
The infant cries, because it is hungry.

4. Before impersonal (sometimes named unipersonal) verbs Gi is understood. Neblas, it snows. Pluvis, it rained. Tondros, it will thunder. Estas nece ne manĝi, it is necessary to eat.

Possessive Pronouns.

1. The possessive pronouns (which are essentially adjectives) are formed from the corresponding personal pronouns by adding "a" to them, as: Mia, my, mine. Via, your, yours. Lia, his. Sia, her, hers. Gia, its. Nia, our, ours. Iia, their, theirs. Mia patro kaj via frato estis en la domo.
My father and your brother were in the house.

2. In sentences like the following these possessives may, or may not, be preceded by the definite article "la," as:
Mia fratino estas pli bela ol (la) via.
My sister is more beautiful than yours.

3. They form the objective case in the same way as nouns and adjectives, that is, by the addition of "n."
Ili vidis vian fraton kaj mian fratinon.
They saw your brother and my sister.
4. Also, like nouns and adjectives, they form their plurals by adding "j" to the singular.

*Mia trovis miajn librojn en la skolo.
I found my books in the box.

Sia, Lia, etc.

1. The correct use of these possessives demands attention. They must not be used indiscriminately; each has its distinct and separate role. In such (English) sentences as: "John saw my father and his friend," there is a doubt whose "friend" is meant. Is it "John's" friend or the "father's" that is meant?

2. In Esperanto there can be no such ambiguity. (a). *Johano vidis mian patron kaj lian amikon.* (b). *Johano vidis mian patron kaj sian amikon.* Now, the rule is *Sia* can only refer to the subject of the sentence or proposition in which it occurs. Therefore in (a), Johano being the subject, *lian* cannot refer to him, but to the father; "John saw my father and his (the father's) friend." In (b), again taking the rule, *Sian* does refer to Johano; consequently it means "John saw my father and his (John's) friend." *Petro skribis al Johano, ke li alkonduku al li {lian} 
{sian} ĉevalon.* In this example *lian* refers to Peter's horse, because Peter is not the subject of proposition. *Sian,* on the contrary, does refer to the subject (li) of the proposition, therefore it is John's horse is meant. By the correct use of these pronouns all ambiguity is avoided.

The Verb (Active Voice).

1. There is no such thing as an irregular verb in Esperanto. Therefore when the pupil has learned the conjugation of one verb, he knows the conjugation of every verb in the language.
2. *I*, final, denotes the infinitive mood, as:

*Ami,* to love. *Doni,* to give. *Havi,* to have.
*As,* final, denotes the present tense of verbs.
*Mi amas,* I love. *Li amas,* he loves, etc.
*Is,* final, denotes the past tense of verbs.
*Vi amis,* you loved. *Ili amis,* they loved, etc.
*Ou,* final, denotes the future tense of verbs.
*Si amos,* she will love. *Gi amos,* it will love, etc.
*Us,* final, denotes the conditional mood of verbs.
*Mi amus,* I should or would love, etc.
*U,* final, denotes the imperative mood of verbs.
*Amu,* love. *Li, si, gi, finu,* let him, her, it finish.
*Ni, ili finu,* let us, let them finish.

3. This form in *U* is also used for the subjunctive mood, as *ke mi amu,* that I may love, etc.

4. The personal pronouns must always be expressed before the verb, except in the case of impersonal verbs.

**Participles.**

1. The active voice has three participles which help to form the perfect tenses of verbs.
2. *Anta,* final, denotes the present participle (active)
   It is the same as the English participle in—ing.
   *Amanta,* loving. *Leganta,* reading.
   *Inta,* final, denotes the past participle (active).
   It is the same as the English participle, in—ed, en, etc.
   *Aminta,* having loved. *Skribinta,* having written.

*Note that in Esperanto "have" is not an auxiliary, but always a principal, active verb, denoting possession and therefore governs the objective case.*

02
Onta, final, denotes the future participle.
This has no participial equivalent in English.

Mi estas amonta, I am about to love.

3. These participles can be used as nouns, adjectives, and adverbs, in which case they take the distinctive terminations of these parts of speech, and are subject to the same rules as to number and case.

Amanta amiko, a loving friend (participial adjective).

Legante ni lernas, by reading, we learn (participial adverb).

La legonto, the person (who is) about to read (participial noun).

4. When Esti, to be, is used to form the compound tenses, it is always translated as follows:

Mi estas amanta, I am loving.

Mi estas aminta, I have loved.

Mi estas amonta, I am about to love.

Mi estis amanta, I was loving.

Mi estis aminta, I had loved.

Mi estis amonta, I was about to love.

Mi estos amanta, I shall be loving.

Mi estos aminta, I shall have loved.

Mi estos amonta, I shall be about to love.

5. As will be seen from the above examples the present participle of the active verb, preceded by the different parts of Esti, is used to form the "progressive" tenses, as:

Mi estas amanta, I am loving.

Mi estis amanta, I was loving.

Mi estos skribanta, I shall be writing. But these forms are avoided as far as possible in Esperanto, the simpler forms being used—Mi amas, mi amis, mi amas.
The Passive Voice.

1. In addition to the three participles of the active verb, there are also three participles for the passive form of the verb.

2. *Amata,* final, denotes the present participle (passive).
   
   *Amata,* loved (now).  *Skribata,* written (now).

3. In the same way as participles of the active verb, these participles may be used as nouns, adjectives, and adverbs, and are subject to the same rules.

4. The passive voice is formed by the different part of *Esti* joined to one of the passive participles.

5. The following examples illustrate this:

   *Mi est*AS *amATA,*  I am loved.
   *Mi est*AS *amITA,*  I have been loved.
   *Mi est*AS *amOTA,*  I am about to be loved.

   *Mi est*IS *amATA,*  I was loved.
   *Mi est*IS *amITA,*  I had been loved.
   *Mi est*IS *amOTA,*  I was about to be loved.

   *Mi est*OS *amATA,*  I shall be loved.
   *Mi est*OS *amITA,*  I shall have been loved.
   *Mi est*OS *amOTA,*  I shall be about to be loved.

6. The preposition "by" which precedes the complement of the passive voice is translated by "de."

   *Li estas amata de tiuj.*

   He is (being) loved by all.
Si estis amata de sia patino.
She was loved by her mother.

7. These participles are sometimes used as adverbs, in the same way as the active participles. The “a” final is then changed to “e,” but they do not take the termination “j” of the plural.

Balate de la patro, la infano ekploris.
Being beaten by the father, the child began to weep.

Prepositions.

1. Prepositions in Esperanto govern the nominative case, and not the objective case, as in English.
   Li kuris al ni, he ran to us.
   La hundo estas en la zambro, the dog is in the room.

2. Every preposition has a fixed and definite meaning. Hence the pupil must guard against translating the English preposition by its apparent corresponding one in Esperanto. To do so would be the source of very grave errors.

3. Let the pupil, then, be careful to take always that preposition, the sense of which in Esperanto expresses clearly the idea he wishes to express.

4. If a preposition is to be employed in a sentence where the choice is not definite from the sense of the phrase, then in such case use the preposition “je,” the only one in the language whose signification is not defined. In addition to this, an alternative course is open, namely, omit the preposition and use the objective case, when no ambiguity or confusion is likely to arise from doing so.
   Li ĝojas je tio, or Li ĝojas tion, he rejoices at (over) that. Mi ploras je via naiveco, or Mi ploras vian naivecon, I weep at your simplicity.

5. The correct use of prepositions can best be learnt by reading works in Esperanto.
6. List of the most common prepositions:

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{Apud,} & \text{near, at the side of.} \\
\text{Dum,} & \text{during.} \\
\text{En,} & \text{in.} \\
\text{Preter,} & \text{beside, beyond.} \\
\text{Sen,} & \text{without.} \\
\text{Sub,} & \text{under, beneath.} \\
\text{De,} & \text{of, from.} \\
\text{Kontra,} & \text{against.} \\
\text{Ce,} & \text{at.} \\
\text{Inter,} & \text{between, among.} \\
\text{Gis,} & \text{up to, until.} \\
\text{Krom,} & \text{except, besides.} \\
\text{Malgra,} & \text{in spite of.} \\
\text{Post,} & \text{after, behind.} \\
\text{La,} & \text{according to.} \\
\text{Anstata,} & \text{instead of.} \\
\text{Antu,} & \text{before, in front of.} \\
\text{Cirka,} & \text{about, around.} \\
\text{Kun,} & \text{with, in company with.} \\
\text{El,} & \text{from, out of.} \\
\end{array}
\]

Prepositions always precede their complement.

The Adverb.

1. There are two kinds of adverbs: (1), those which are derived from adjectives, nouns, etc.; and (2) a class of simple words which are not derived, but which are, by nature, adverbs.

2. Derived adverbs always end in “e,” as: Bone, well. Carme, charmingly. Rapide, malrapide, quickly, slowly.

3. These are compared in the same way as adjectives. Si kuras tiel rapide kiel Johano.
She runs as quickly as John.
40

Li kantas pi bone ol vi.
He sings better than you.
Vi kantas la plej ĉarme el ĉiuj.
You sing the most charmingly of all.

4. The other class of adverbs has no distinctive termination. Amongst the most important are the following:

| Almenaŭ, at least. | Iel, somehow, in |
| Ambaŭ, both.       | some way, or |
| Ankau, also.       | manner.       |
| Ĝenaŭ, {hardly.    | Neniel, nohow, in |
|              {scarcely. | no manner.   |
| Aŭ, or.           | Jam-ne, no—more. |
| Baldau, soon.      | Jen-Jen, sometimes— |
| Ĉiam, always.      | sometimes.    |
| Ĉie, everywhere.   | Ju pi ...} the more—the |
| Jam, already.      | des pi{ more.   |
| Kial, why.         | Jus, just (now).|
| Kiam, when.        | Ne, no, not.  |
| Kie, where.        | Tute ne, not at all.|
| Kion, {how much.   | Plu, more.    |
|              {how many. | Nek, neither.|
| Nun, now.          | Tuj, immediately.|
| Nur, only.         | Tuj kiam, as soon as.|
| Preskau, nearly.   | Tiam, then.   |
| Adiaŭ, adieu.      | Tiam kiam, then when.|
| Kiel aŭn, however. | For, forth, out.|
| Kie aŭn, wherever. | Tiel, thus, so.|
| Kiam aŭn, whenever.| Nenie, nowhere.|
| Troe, excessively. | Le, somewhere.|
| Treege, exceedingly.| Ĝuijare, yearly.|
| Ĉu-Ĉu, whether—   | Ĉiûmonate, monthly.|
|              whether. | Ĉiûtaĝe*, daily.|

Et, even.

*Ĉiûtaĝe, etc., are used in the adjectival form in such expressions as Ĉiûtaĝa gazeto, a daily (everyday-ly) paper. Our common expression logically means a paper published during the hours of sunlight, not one published every day.
Adverbs, as a rule, immediately precede or follow the word to which they refer or qualify.

Ne and words used in the comparison of adverbs, such as tre, pli, plej, malpli, etc., always precede the word to which they relate or modify.

Conjunctions.

1. Conjunctions in Esperanto exercise no influence whatsoever over any words in a sentence. They are simply used to join words and sentences together.*

2. They always precede verbs, though not necessarily immediately preceding.

3. The following is a list of the chief conjunctions:

- Alie, otherwise.
- Aid, or.
- Aid—aid, either—or.
- Car, for, because.
- Dum, while.
- Ĉi, until, up to.
- Ja, indeed, in fact.
- Ke, that.
- Sekve, consequently.
- Se, if.
- Sed, but.
- Tial, therefore.
- Nek—nek, neither—nor.
- Do, then, indeed, therefore.
- Apena, scarcely.
- Se tamen, if however, therefore.
- Nome, that is to say, to wit, namely.
- Eĉ se, even if.

K. t. p. or k. c. = Kaj tie plu, kaj cetera, and so on, and so forth, etc.
T. c. = Ĉio ĉiuj, that is, that is to say.

* "Antaŭ ol," "Anstataŭ" and "por" are generally followed by the infinitive mood.
"Por ke" is always followed by the imperative mood.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality</th>
<th>1. ia</th>
<th>10. kia</th>
<th>19. nenia</th>
<th>28. tia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>some kind of every kind of</td>
<td>every</td>
<td>what a</td>
<td>no kind of</td>
<td>such a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>any kind of</td>
<td>kind of</td>
<td>what of</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>kind of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motive</td>
<td>2. ial</td>
<td>11. kial</td>
<td>20. nenial</td>
<td>29. tial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for any reason for every reason</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>otherwise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>any cause</td>
<td>reason</td>
<td>reason</td>
<td>reason</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>3. iam</td>
<td>12. kiam</td>
<td>21. neniam</td>
<td>30. tiam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>some time</td>
<td>always</td>
<td>when</td>
<td>never</td>
<td>then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ever</td>
<td>for all time</td>
<td>at that time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place</td>
<td>4. ie</td>
<td>13. kie</td>
<td>22. nenie</td>
<td>31. tie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>somewhere</td>
<td>everywhere</td>
<td>where</td>
<td>nowhere</td>
<td>there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anywhere</td>
<td></td>
<td>in what place</td>
<td></td>
<td>in that place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manner</td>
<td>5. iel</td>
<td>14. kiel</td>
<td>23. neniel</td>
<td>41. tie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>somehow</td>
<td>every way</td>
<td>how</td>
<td>no manner</td>
<td>thus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>some way</td>
<td>all ways</td>
<td>in what manner</td>
<td>manner</td>
<td>like (that)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>some manner</td>
<td>every manner</td>
<td>no how</td>
<td>in that manner</td>
<td>so</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possession.</td>
<td>6.</td>
<td>15.</td>
<td>24.</td>
<td>33.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ies</td>
<td>ies</td>
<td>kies</td>
<td>nemies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>anyone's</td>
<td>each one's</td>
<td>whose</td>
<td>nobody's</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>somebody's</td>
<td>everyone's</td>
<td></td>
<td>no one's</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>anybody's</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thing.</td>
<td>7.</td>
<td>16.</td>
<td>25.</td>
<td>34.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>io</td>
<td>dio</td>
<td>kio</td>
<td>nenio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>something</td>
<td>everything</td>
<td>all things</td>
<td>nothing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>anything</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantity.</td>
<td>8.</td>
<td>17.</td>
<td>26.</td>
<td>35.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>tom</td>
<td>kpm</td>
<td>kpm</td>
<td>neniom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>somewhat</td>
<td>all of it</td>
<td>how much</td>
<td>none at all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>some quantity</td>
<td>the whole</td>
<td>how many</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(a little)</td>
<td></td>
<td>what quantity</td>
<td>no quantity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individuality.</td>
<td>9.</td>
<td>18.</td>
<td>27.</td>
<td>36.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>tis</td>
<td>tis</td>
<td>kiu</td>
<td>neniui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>some</td>
<td>each one</td>
<td>which</td>
<td>nobody</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>any / one</td>
<td>all</td>
<td>that (rel. pronoun)</td>
<td>no one</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As will be noticed from a careful reading of this list, the last four columns are formed by adding certain letters to those in first column. Speaking generally, these prefixed letters have a definite signification.

Thus, C prefixed, conveys a collective force.

K, prefixed, gives the word an interrogative or relative meaning.

T, prefixed, gives the word a demonstrative signification.

Nem, prefixed, denotes negation.

See page 87 for exercises on these words.