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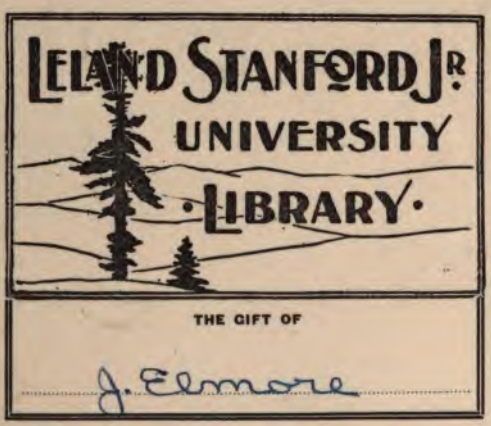

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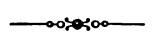
COMPLETE

ATIN GRAMMAR

BY

ALBERT HARKNESS, PH.D., LL.D.

PROFESSOR EMERITUS IN BROWN UNIVERSITY



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W. P. 6

PREFACE

THE volume now offered to the public is the result of lifelong labors in the field of grammatical study. A profound conviction of the value of the classical languages in a course of liberal education and an earnest desire to aid the student in mastering the intricacies of the Latin tongue with as much ease and rapidity as is consistent with true scholarship have led to the preparation of the present work. The instruments of education must of course be readjusted from time to time to the ever-changing methods in school and college. Accordingly the prime object of this volume is to adapt the work of instruction to present methods and present needs. In view of the heavy demands now made on the time of classical teachers and students a special effort has been made to develop the practical side of grammar, to make it as helpful as possible to the teacher in the difficult task of explaining the force of involved constructions in Latin authors, and as helpful as possible to the learner in his early efforts to understand and appreciate thought in the strange garb of a complicated Latin sentence. Simplicity and clearness, ever of paramount importance in the work of the class-room, have received special attention.

Designed at once as a text-book for the class-room and a book of reference in study, this volume aims not only to present a systematic arrangement of the leading facts and laws of the Latin language for the benefit of the beginner, but also to make adequate provision for the needs of the advanced student. By brevity and conciseness in the choice of phraseology, and compactness in the arrangement of forms and topics, I have endeavored to compress within the limits of a convenient manual an amount of carefully selected grammatical facts which would otherwise fill a much larger volume.

Syntax has received special attention. An attempt has been

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made to exhibit as clearly as possible that remarkable system of laws which the genius of the Latin language has created for itself. Accordingly the leading principles of construction have been put in the form of definite rules or laws, and fully illustrated by carefully selected examples from Latin authors, a mode of treatment perfectly consistent with scientific accuracy, and sanctioned by the general experience of teachers as in the highest degree helpful to the pupil. Moreover, to secure convenience of reference and to give completeness and vividness to the general outline, these laws of the language after having been separately discussed are presented in a body at the close of the syntax.

A special effort has been made to simplify and explain the difficult and intricate subject of the subjunctive. The ordinary constructions of that mood in simple sentences and in independent clauses are first stated and illustrated with great fulness to give the pupil a clear idea of its distinctive nature and use, and thus to prepare him to understand the process by which the mood passes from these simple independent uses to the more difficult dependent constructions. Too often the pupil sees no connection between an independent and a dependent subjunctive; what he has learned in regard to the former is no help to an acquaintance with the latter, but with the method here adopted it is hoped that after having mastered the ordinary independent uses of the mood he will be able to recognize even in the most involved constructions in subordinate clauses only new illustrations of principles with which he is already familiar. To him the subjunctive in a subordinate clause will be no longer a dreaded stranger, but an acquaintance and friend.

The subject of Hidden Quantity has received due attention in this volume as in the author's earlier Latin Grammar. Indeed, that work is believed to be entitled to the honor of having been the first Latin Grammar that ever attempted to mark systematically the hidden quantity of vowels, and to point out the means for determining it.

Another consideration which has had weight in determining the character of this grammar is the importance of bringing the treatment which the practical needs of the school and college

seem to demand into harmony with the learned results recently gathered by specialists in the field of historical grammar and linguistic study. On this point I deem myself fortunate in having secured the cordial coöperation of three of the eminent Latinists who are engaged in the preparation of the "Historische Grammatik der Lateinischen Sprache" now in process of publication at Leipzig, Professor F. Stolz of the University of Innsbruck, Professor G. Landgraf of Munich, and Professor H. Blase of Giessen, authors whose works are known and read by classical scholars throughout the world, and whose names are identified with the best scholarship of the age.

In accordance with a previous arrangement the manuscript on Phonology, Morphology, and Etymology, when nearly ready for the press, was submitted to Professor Stolz with the distinct understanding that if any part of the work was not found to be in full accord with the latest and best views within the range of his own special studies he should point it out, and suggest the best method of bringing the practical and the scientific views into harmony. By a similar arrangement the manuscript on Agreement and on the Use of Cases was submitted to Professor Landgraf, and that on Moods and Tenses to Professor Blase. After a careful examination of the several subjects submitted to their consideration they made written reports with such suggestions as their special studies warranted, and subsequently in a series of personal interviews I had the rare opportunity of obtaining their views and their advice on the various doubtful questions connected with our subject. I desire, therefore, to express my grateful appreciation of their kindness in thus freely offering me the priceless results of life-long labors in their several spheres.

I am happy to acknowledge my indebtedness to my colleagues in the University, Professors A. G. Harkness and W. C. Poland, who have read the proof, and given me the benefit of their accurate scholarship and large professional experience; to Professor E. P. Morris of Yale University for important statistics in regard to Interrogative Sentences, Quod Clauses, and the Use of the Subjunctive in Plautus and Terence; to Dr. H. W. Hayley for aid in the revision of the Prosody; to Dr. G. A. Williams of the

University Grammar School for the preparation of the indices, and to Dr. H. F. Linscott of the University of North Carolina for valuable suggestions on Phonology and Etymology.

My thanks are also due to many other friends who have kindly favored me with their advice, especially to Dr. C. B. Goff of the University Grammar School, Dr. W. T. Peck of the Providence High School, Dr. Moses Merrill of the Boston Latin School, and Dr. John Tetlow of the Girls' High and Latin Schools, Boston.

For the benefit of those who prefer to begin with a more elementary manual in the study of Latin a school edition of this Grammar is published simultaneously with it. This is intended to meet the wants of those who do not contemplate a collegiate course of study; for all others the complete work will be found far more helpful.

In conclusion I desire once more to make my grateful acknowledgments to the classical teachers of the country who by their fidelity and skill in the use of my books have won for them such marked success. To their hands this work is now respectfully and gratefully committed.

ALBERT HARKNESS.

BROWN UNIVERSITY, June 8, 1898.

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ABBREVIATIONS USED IN CITING LATIN AUTHORS

Caes.	= Caesar, de bello Gallico	C. R. P.	= Cicero, de Re Publica
Caes. C.	= " de bello Civile	C. Rosc. A.	= " pro Roscio Amerino
C. Ac.	= Cicero, Academica	C. Rosc. C.	= " pro Roscio Comoedo
C. Agr.	= " de lege Agraria	C. Sen.	= " de Senectute
C. Am.	= " de Amicitia	C. 1 Ver.	= " in Verrem Actio I.
C. Att.	= " ad Atticum	C. Ver.	= " in Verrem Actio II.
C. C.	= " in Catilinam	H.	= Horatius, Carmina
C. Div.	= " de Divinatione	H. E.	= " Epistulae
C. Div. C.	= " Divinatio in Caecilium	H. Ep.	= " Epodi
		O.	= Ovidius, Metamorphoses
C. Fam.	= " ad Familiares	O. H.	= " Heroides
C. Man.	= " pro lege Manilia	Pl.	= Plautus
C. N. D.	= " de Deorum Natura	S.	= Sallustius, Iugurtha
C. Opt. G.	= " de optimo genere Oratorum	S. C.	= " Catilina
		T.	= Terentius
C. Or.	= " de Oratore	Tac.	= Tacitus
C. Q. Fr.	= " ad Quintum fratrem	Verg.	= Vergilius, Aeneis
C. Rab.	= " pro Rabirio	Verg. E.	= " Eclogae
C. Rab. P.	= " pro Rabirio Postumo	Verg. G.	= " Georgica

LATIN GRAMMAR

INTRODUCTION

1. THE Latin language derives its name from the Latīnī, the Latins, the ancient inhabitants of Latium in Italy. It belongs to the Indo-European family, which embraces eight groups of tongues, known as the Aryan, the Armenian, the Greek, the Albanian, the Italian, the Keltic, the Germanic, and the Balto-Slavic. All these languages have one common system of inflection, and in various respects strikingly resemble each other. They are the descendants of one common speech spoken by a single race of men untold centuries before the dawn of history.

2. The Latin, the Oscan, and the Umbrian are the three leading members of the Italian group of this family, and the resemblance between them is so great that they appear to be only different dialects of one common language. At the dawn of history the Latin was confined to the small district of Latium, while the Oscan was spoken in the southern part of Italy, and the Umbrian in the northeastern part; but at the beginning of the Christian era, the Latin had not only supplanted the Oscan and the Umbrian in Italy, but it had already become the established language of a large part of Southern Europe. The Oscan and Umbrian dialects have been preserved to us only in very scanty remains, but the Latin is enshrined in a rich and valuable literature extending over a period of several centuries.

3. From the Latin has been directly derived the entire group of the Romance languages, of which the Italian, French, Spanish, and Portuguese are important members. The English belongs to

the Germanic branch of the Indo-European family, but it is indebted to the Latin for one third of its vocabulary. Hence the importance of a thorough knowledge of the Latin, if we would understand and appreciate our own vernacular.

LATIN GRAMMAR

4. Latin grammar treats of the principles of the Latin language. It comprises five parts:

I. Phonology, which treats of the letters and sounds of the language.

II. Morphology, which treats of the form and inflection of words.

III. Etymology, which treats of the derivation of words.

IV. Syntax, which treats of the structure of sentences.

V. Prosody, which treats of quantity and versification.

PART I. — PHONOLOGY

ALPHABET

5. The Latin alphabet[1] is the same as the English with the omission of **j** and **w**, but **k** is seldom used, and **y** and **z** occur only in words of Greek origin.

1. It originally consisted of only twenty-one letters, as **c** supplied the place of **c** and **g**; **i** of **i** and **j**; **u** of **u** and **v** and sometimes of **y**.

2. Subsequently **G**, formed from **C** by simply changing the lower part of the letter, was added to the Latin alphabet, and at about the same time **z** disappeared from it. Thus the alphabet continued to consist of twenty-one letters until the time of Augustus, when **y** was introduced into it from the Greek and **z** was restored from the same source.

3. Even in the classical period **C** was retained in abbreviations of proper names beginning with **G**. Thus **C.** stands for **Gāius**, and **Cn.** for **Gnaeus**. This is a survival from the original use of **C** for **G**.

[1] The Romans derived their alphabet from the Greek colony at Cūmae. Throughout the classical period they used in general only capital letters.

4. **U** and **V**, originally designated by the same character, are now used in many of the best editions, the former as a vowel, the latter as a consonant, as in English.

6. Letters are divided according to the position of the vocal organs at the time of utterance into two general classes, vowels and consonants,[1] and these classes are again divided into various subdivisions, as seen in the following:

7. CLASSIFICATION OF LETTERS

Vowels

1. Open vowel[2]		**a**		
2. Medial vowels[3]	**e**		**o**	
3. Close vowels	**i**	**y**		**u**

Consonants

	Gutturals	Palatals	Linguals	Dentals	Labials
4. Semivowels, sonant[4]		**i** = **y**			**v** = w
5. Nasals, sonant	**n**[5]			**n**	**m**
6. Liquids, sonant			**l, r**		
7. Spirants, surd[4]	**h**			**s**	**f**
8. Mutes, sonant	**g**			**d**	**b**
9. Mutes, surd	**c, q, k**			**t**	**p**

NOTE. —**x** = **cs**, or **gs**, is a double consonant.

---

[1] If the vocal organs are sufficiently open to allow an uninterrupted flow of vocal sound, a vowel is produced, otherwise a consonant; but the least open vowels are scarcely distinguishable from the most open consonants. Thus **i**, sounded fully according to the ancient pronunciation as **ē**, is a vowel; but combined with a vowel in the same syllable, it becomes a consonant with the sound of **y**; see **12**, 2.

[2] The vocal organs are fully open in pronouncing the open **ā**, as in *father*, less so in pronouncing the close vowels and the semivowels, and very nearly closed in pronouncing the mutes.

[3] **E** is a *medial* vowel between the open **a** and the close **i**, **o** a *medial* vowel between the open **a** and the close **u**; **i** is a *palatal* vowel, **u** a *labial*. The vowel scale, here presented in the form of a triangle, may be represented as a line, with **a** in the middle, with **i** at the palatal extreme, and with **u** at the labial extreme:

i e a o u

[4] Sonant or voiced; surd or not voiced, but simply breathed.

[5] With the sound of **n** in *concord, linger*. It occurs before gutturals; **congressus**, *meeting*.

8. Observe that the consonants are divided,

1. According to the organs chiefly employed in their production into

Gutturals, — throat letters.
Palatals, — palate letters.
Linguals, — tongue letters.
Dentals, — teeth letters.
Labials, — lip letters.

2. According to the manner in which they are uttered, into

Sonants, or voiced letters.
Surds, voiceless or breathed letters.[1]

9. Diphthongs are formed by the union of two vowels in one syllable. The most common diphthongs are **ae, oe, au, and eu. Ei** and **ui** are rare.

ROMAN PRONUNCIATION OF LATIN[2]

10. The vowels are pronounced substantially as follows[3]:

Long		Short	
ā like a in ah:	**ā'-rā**[4]	a like initial a in aha[5]:	**at**
ē " e " they:	**dē**[6]	**e** " e " net:	**et**
ī " i " pique:	**ī'-vī**	**i** " i " pick:	**id**
ō " o " hole:	**ōs**	**o** " o " forty:	**ob**
ū " u " rule:	**ū'-sū**	**u** " u " full:	**ut**

1. A short vowel in a long syllable is pronounced short: **sunt, u as in sum, su'-mus**; see **14** and **15**.

---

[1] The distinction between a sonant and a surd will be appreciated by observing the difference between the sonant **b** and its corresponding surd **p** in such words as *bad, pad*. **B** is vocalized, **p** is not.

[2] This method is now generally adopted in the schools and colleges of our country. By the English method, which formerly prevailed, the letters are pronounced in general as in English.

[3] But the vowel sounds must be kept as pure as possible, free from the glide or vanish heard in English.

[4] Latin vowels marked with the macron ¯ are long in quantity, i.e. in the duration of the sound; those not marked are short in quantity; see **15**, 4. Observe that the accent is also marked. For the laws of accentuation, see **16** and **17**.

[5] The short vowels occupy only half as much time in utterance as the long vowels, but they can be only imperfectly represented by English equivalents. They have, however, nearly the same sound as the corresponding long vowels, *but, with the exception of* **a**, they are somewhat more open.

[6] *Or* **ē** *like* **a** *in made;* **ī** *like* **e** in *me*, and **ū** like **oo** in *moon*.

2. **y**, found only in Greek words, is intermediate in sound between the Latin **i** and **u**, similar to the French **u** and the German **ü**: **Nȳ'-sa.**

3. **u** in **qu**,[1] and generally in **gu** and **su** before a vowel, has the sound of **w**: **quī** (kwe); **lin'-gua** (lin-gwa); **suā'-sit** (swa-sit).

11. Diphthongs. — In diphthongs, each vowel retains its own sound:

ae	nearly like	ai	in aisle:	**aes, mān'-sae**[2]
oe	" "	oi	" coin:	**foe'-dus**
au	" "	ou	" out:	**aut, au'-rum**
eu	" "	eu	" feud:	**neu, neu'-ter**[2]
ei	" "	ei	" veil:	**ei, hei**
ui	" "	we		**cui** (kwe)

12. Consonants. — Most of the consonants are pronounced nearly as in English, but the following require special notice:

c	like	c	in come:	**co'-ma, cē'-na**
ch	"	ch	" chemist:	**cho'-rus**
g	"	g	" get:	**ge'-nus, glō'-ria**
i	"	y	" yet:	**iam** (yam), **iūs** (yoos)
r	"	r	" rumor:	**rū'-mor**[3]
s	"	s	" son:	**so'-nō, sa'-cer**
t	"	t	" time:	**ti'-mor, tō'-tus**
v	"	w	" we:	**vel, vir**
qu	"	qu	" quit:	**quī, quō**

1. Before a word beginning with a vowel, or with **h**, a final vowel, or a final **m** with a preceding vowel, seems to have been partially suppressed in the ordinary speech of the Romans, as well as in poetry. It was rapidly and indistinctly uttered, and thus it readily blended with the following vowel.

2. Observe that **i** is sometimes a vowel and sometimes a consonant, that as a vowel it has, when long, the sound of **i** in *machine* or of **e** in *me*, and that as a consonant it has the sound of **y** in *yet*, *yes*. It is generally a vowel between consonants and a consonant between vowels, and at the beginning of words it is generally a vowel before consonants and a consonant before vowels: **sī'-mus** (se-mus), **mā'ior** (mah-yor); **I'-re** (e-rā), **iam** (yam).

3. In the aspirated forms of the mutes, **ch**, **ph**, and **th**, **h** is in general

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[1] This is sometimes called the parasitic **u**, as having been developed in many instances by the preceding consonant.

[2] In pronouncing **ae**, endeavor to unite the sounds of the Latin **a** and **e**, and in pronouncing **eu**, *unite the sounds* of **e** and **u**; but some scholars pronounce **ae** *like* **ea** *in pear.*

[3] *R should be trilled.*

3. A secondary or subordinate accent is placed on the second or third syllable before the primary accent — on the second, if that is the first syllable of the word, or is long in quantity, otherwise on the third: **mo′-nu-ē′-runt, mo′-nu-e-rā′-mus, in-stau′-rā-vē′-runt.**

4. A few long words admit two secondary accents: **ho′-nō-ri′-fi-cen-tis′-si-mus.**

5. Certain words which have lost a final **e** retain the accent of the full form: **il-līc′** for il-lī′-ce, **il-lāc′** for il-lā′-ce, **is-tīc′** for is-tī′-ce, etc.; **bo-nān′** for bo-nā′-ne, **tan-tōn′** for tan-tō′-ne, **au-dīn′** for au-dīs′-ne, **ē-dūc′** for ē-dū′-ce.

6. Genitives in **ī** for **iī** and vocatives in **ī** accent the penult: **in-ge′-nī** for in-ge′-ni-ī; **Mer-cu′-rī.**

18. Compounds are accented like simple words, but **faciō**, when compounded with other words than prepositions, retains its own accent: **ca-le-fa′-cit.**

19. Original Accent. — Originally all Latin words were accented on the first syllable. This fact must be borne in mind in explaining phonetic changes. The syllable immediately following the original accent, i.e. the second syllable of the word, is called a Post-Tonic syllable.

INHERITED VOWELS AND DIPHTHONGS

20. The Latin inherited from the parent speech the vowels, **a, e, i, o, u**; **ā, ē, ī, ō, ū**; and the diphthongs, **ai, ei, oi, au, eu, ou**; **āi, ēi, ōi, āu, ēu, ōu.** In some words these vowels have been preserved unchanged as in the following examples:

a: agō, amō, albus	**ā**: māter, fāgus, clāvis
e: est, decem, ferō	**ē**: lēx, mēnsis, plēnus
i: fidēs, quis, minuō	**ī**: vīs, vīvus, sīmus
o: octō, domus	**ō**: dōnum, nōtus
u: super, ruber	**ū**: mūs, sūs

1. The Latin also inherited an indistinct Indo-European vowel represented by an inverted **e**; see **29.**

2. The diphthong **au** retains its original form in classical Latin, as in **autem, augeō**; but all the other diphthongs were more or less changed before the classical period, though most of those which begin with a short *vowel occur in rare instances* in early Latin.

VOWEL GRADATION, OR ABLAUT

21. The Latin also inherited certain vowel variations, which appear in the different forms of certain roots, stems, and suffixes.

1. Thus the common root of **fod-iō**, *I dig*, and **fōd-ī**, *I have dug*, is **fod** in **fod-iō** and **fōd** in **fōd-ī**; that of **fac-iō**, *I make*, and **fēc-ī**, *I have made*, is **fac** and **fēc**; that of **gen-us**, *offspring*, and **gī-gn-ō**, *I beget*, is **gen** and **gn**[1]; that of **dō-num**, *gift*, **da-mus**, *we give*, and **de-d-ī**, *I have given*, is **dō**, **da**, and **d**.[1] This variation in vowels is called Vowel Gradation or Ablaut.

2. These inherited vowel variations in some languages form a somewhat regular gradation, but in Latin they have mostly disappeared as kindred forms have been assimilated to each other.

PHONETIC CHANGES

22. Latin words in the course of their history have undergone important changes in accordance with phonetic laws.

23. The phonetic changes in vowels may be either Qualitative, affecting the quality of the sound, or Quantitative, affecting its length or quantity.

I. Qualitative Changes in Vowels

24. An Indo-European **a** may become in Latin in post-tonic[2] syllables: (1) **e**, (2) **i**, (3) **i** or **u**, and (4) **u**. Thus:

1. **A** becomes **e** in post-tonic closed[2] syllables, except before labials and **l**: **factus**, but **cōnfectus**; **captus**, but **acceptus**.

2. **A** becomes **i** in post-tonic open[2] syllables, except before labials, and in all post-tonic syllables before **ng**: **agō**, but **adigō**; **statuō**, but **cōnstituō**; **tangō**, but **at-tingō**.

3. **A** becomes **i** or **u** in post-tonic open syllables before labials and before **l**: **capiō**, but **man-cipium** and **man-cupium**; **saliō**, but **in-siliō** and **in-suliō**.

4. **A** becomes **u** in post-tonic syllables before **l** + another consonant: **saliō**, but **in-sultus**; **calcō**, but **in-culcō**.

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[1] Observe that the vowel sometimes disappears: **gen**, **gn**; **da**, **d**.

[2] Remember that the term post-tonic is applied to the syllable following the initial accent, i.e. to the second syllable of the word (**19**), and that a syllable is said *to be open when it ends in a vowel*, and closed when it ends in a consonant; *see 13, 4.*

25. An Indo-European **e** may become: (1) **i** and (2) **o**. Thus:

1. **E** becomes **i**, (1) in post-tonic syllables, except before **r**: **legō**, but **col-ligō**; **emō**, but **ad-imō**; (2) in final syllables before **s** and **t**: **salūtes**, **salūtis**; **Cereres**, **Cereris**; *leget,[1] **legit**; *reget, **regit**; and (3) before **n** + a guttural: *tenguō, **tinguō**.

2. **E** may become **o** after an initial **v**: *velt, **volt**[2]; *vemō, **vomō**.

3. Initial **sve** becomes **so**: *svenos, **sonus**; *svedālis, **sodālis**.

26. An Indo-European **i** may become: (1) **e** and (2) **i** or **u**. Thus:

1. **I final** may become **e**, but it sometimes disappears as in neuter stems in **āli** and **āri** (**103**, 1): *mari, **mare**; *levi, **leve**.

2. **I** before **r** for **s** becomes **e**: *sisō, **serō**; *cinisis, **cineris**.

3. **I** becomes **i** or **u** in post-tonic syllables before labials: **pontifex** or **pontufex**.

4. **Final er** is sometimes developed from ri-stems, as follows: ***acri-s**, *acr̥-s, *acer-s, **acer**.[3]

27. An Indo-European **o**[4] may become: (1) **u**, (2) **e**, (3) **e** or **i**, and (4) **i** or **u**. Thus:

1. **O** becomes **u** (1) in post-tonic closed syllables: *genos, **genus**; *donom, **donum**; and (2) in accented syllables before **l** + a consonant and before **n** + a consonant: *molta, **multa**; *honc, **hunc**; *oncos, **uncus**.

2. **O** becomes **e** when final: *isto, **iste**; *sequiso, **sequere**.

3. **O** becomes **e** or **i** in post-tonic open syllables, except before labials: *sociotās, **societās**; *novotās, **novitās**.

4. **O** generally becomes **i**, rarely **u**, in post-tonic open syllables before labials: **aurifex**, rarely **aurufex**; **māximus**, **māxumus**.

5. **Final er** is sometimes developed from ro-stems in the same way as from ri-stems (**26**, 4): *agro-s, *agr̥-s, *ager-s, **ager**.

28. An Indo-European **u** becomes **i** or **u** in post-tonic syllables before labials: old form **dissupō**, later **dissipō**; **lacruma**, later **lacrima**.

29. An indistinct Indo-European vowel, represented by an inverted **e** = ə, generally becomes **a** in Latin: *dətos, **datus**; *sətos, **satus**.

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[1] The assumed form from which the Latin word, as it appears in literature, is supposed to have been derived, is designated by an asterisk.

[2] **Volt** subsequently became **vult**.

[3] **I** in acri-s disappears, leaving r̥ sonant, then r̥ sonant becomes **er**, and final **s** disappears.

[4] *After* **v**, **u**, or **qu**, **o** is preserved longer than elsewhere: **servos**, **afterward** ***servus***; *so* ***mortuos***, **equos**, etc.

30. The Indo-European liquids and nasals, l̥, r̥, and m̥, n̥, are vocalized in Latin; l̥ becomes **ol**, later **ul**, and r̥ becomes **or**: *m̥lta, *molta, **multa**; *mr̥tis, **mortis**; m̥ becomes **em**, and n̥, **en**: *dekm̥, **decem**; *tn̥tos, **tentus**.

31. Assimilation of Vowels. — A vowel is sometimes assimilated to the vowel of the following syllable: *cōnsulium, **cōnsilium**; *exsulium, **exsilium**; *mehĭ, **mihĭ**; *tebĭ, **tibĭ**; *nehil, **nihil**; *bonē, **bene**; *memordit, **mo-mordit**, *pe-pōscit, **po-pōscit**; *ce-currit, **cu-currit**.

II. Qualitative Changes in Diphthongs

32. The diphthong **ai** is retained in early inscriptions, but it afterward becomes **ae** and **ī**. Thus:

1. **Ai** generally becomes **ae**: *laivos, **laevus**, **scaevus**, **aevum**.
2. **Ai** becomes **ī** both in post-tonic and in final syllables: **quaerō**, but **in-quīrō**; *mensais, **mēnsīs**.

33. The diphthong **ei** becomes **ī** in pronunciation, although sometimes written **ei** in early Latin: **dīcō**; **dīvus**, **fīdō**, sometimes written **deivus**, **feidō**.

34. The diphthong **oi** becomes **oe**, **ū**, and **ī**. Thus:

1. **Oi** becomes **oe** in a few words: **poena**, **foedus**.
2. **Oi** becomes **ū** in most words: *oinos, *oenos, **ūnus**; *moenia, **mūnia**.
3. **Oi** becomes **ī** in final syllables: *equoi, **equī**; *equois, **equīs**.

35. The diphthong **au** generally remains unchanged, but it sometimes becomes **ū** in post-tonic syllables: **claudō**, but **in-clūdo**; **fraudō**, but **dē-fraudō**, or **dē-frūdo**.

36. The diphthongs, **eu** and **ou**, coalesce and become **ū**: *deucō, *doucō, **dūcō**; *ious, **iūs**.

III. Quantitative Changes in Vowels

37. Vowels are lengthened before **ns**, **nf**, and **gn**: **cōnsul**, **īnfēlīx**, **īgnis**.

38. Vowels are often lengthened in compensation for the loss of consonants. Thus:

1. For the loss of **s** or **x** in accented syllables before **d**, **l**, **m**, or **n**: *nisdos, **nīdus**, English *nest*; *isdem, **īdem**; *acsla, **āla**; *prismos, **prīmus**; *posnō, ***pōnō**; *texmō, **tēmō**.

2. For the loss of **h**: *mahior, **māior**; *ahio, **āiō**.

3. A vowel lengthened before **ns** in final syllables remains long after the loss of **n**: *servōns, **servōs**; *rēgēns, **rēgēs**.

39. Long vowels are shortened

1. Generally before other vowels: *audīunt, **audiunt**; *audīam, **audiam**; **fidēī**, **fideī**; **rēī**, **reī**; but **diēī**, **illīus**.

2. In final syllables before **l**, **m**, **r**, **t**, and **nt**: *animāli, **animal**; *amēm, **amem**; *audiār, **audiar**; **amāt**,[1] **amat**; *amānt, **amant**.

3. Final **ā** is shortened in classical Latin in the plural of neuter nouns and adjectives and in the Nominative and Vocative singular of nouns in **a** of the First Declension: **templā** in Plautus, later **templa**; **graviā**, **gravia**; **musā**, **musa**.

4. Final **ē**, **ī**, and **ō** are sometimes shortened: *malē, **male**; *nisī, **nisi**; *ibī, **ibĭ**; *egō, **ego**.

5. The shortening of final syllables is supposed to have begun in dissyllables with iambic measurement, i.e. with short penults. In these the final syllable was shortened by being assimilated in quantity to the first, as **amāt**, **amat**; **bonā**, **bona**; **egō**, **ego**.

6. Long vowels in syllables originally accented (**19**) are sometimes shortened, and the following consonant is doubled in compensation: **Iūpiter**, **Iuppiter**; **līttera**, **littera**; *mītō, **mittō**.

40. Vowels may disappear from a word by syncope or vowel absorption: *re-pepulī, **reppulī**; *re-cecidī, **reccidī**; *clavidō, **claudō**; *prīmiceps, **prīnceps**; *ūnudecim, **ūndecim**.

1. Final vowels sometimes disappear: *animāli, **animal**; **dīce**, **dīc**; *sīne, **sīn**.

41. Occasionally a short vowel, generally **u**, sometimes **e** or **i**, is apparently developed before a liquid or nasal: *stablom, **stabulum**; *stablis, **stabilis**; but see **30**.

CONTRACTION OF VOWELS

42. Two vowels of the same quality are contracted into the corresponding long vowel: *treies, *trees, **trēs**; *īgnees, **īgnēs**; **nihil**, *niil, **nīl**; *coopia, **cōpia**.

43. Two vowels of different quality are contracted into a long vowel, generally of the quality of the first: *co-agō, **cōgō**; *de-agō, **dēgō**; *pro-emō, **prōmō**.

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[1] Final **āt**, **ōt**, and **īt** are preserved long in Plautus and other early poets: **versāt**, **habēt**, **velīt**.

1. The changes illustrated in the following verbal forms may have been produced either by contraction, or by the dropping of the syllable **ve** or **vi** before **r** or **s**: **amāveram, amāram**; **amāvisse, amāsse**; **nēvissem, nēssem**; **nōvisse, nōsse.**

2. Many combinations of vowels remain uncontracted, as **aē, ea, eō, ia, iē, ua,** and **uē**: **aēneus, eam, moneō, animālia, diēs, ingenua, ingenuē.**

CONSONANTS

44. The Latin inherited the following consonants:

1. The Mutes **k, g, t, d, p, b,** and the Aspirates **gh, dh, bh.**
2. The Nasals **m, n,** and the Liquids **l, r.**
3. The Semivowels **i** and **u,** and the Spirant **s.**

45. The Latin inherited three series of **k**- and **g**-mutes, distinguished as Palatals, Velars, and Labialized Velars. These are represented in Latin as follows:

1. The Palatals **k** and **g** become **c** and **g,** and **gh** generally becomes **h,** but after **n** it becomes **g**: **centum, decem,** in which **k** becomes **c**; **ager, genus,** in which **g** remains **g**; **humus, hortus,** in which **gh** becomes **h**; **angō, fingō,** in which **gh** becomes **g.**

NOTE.—In a few words initial **gh** before **u** becomes **f**: **fundō.**

2. The Velars are developed like palatals, velar **k** and **g** becoming **c** and **g,** and velar **gh** generally becoming **h,** but becoming **g** before **r**: **capere, cavēre**; **grūs, tegō**; **hostis, hortor**; **gradior.**

3. The Labialized Velar **k** becomes **qu,** which becomes **c** before consonants: **quis, que, quod,** in which the labialized velar **k** becomes **qu,** which becomes **c** in *coc-sī, **coxī.**

4. The Labialized Velar **g** becomes **gu,** which remains unchanged after nasals, but is reduced to **g** before other consonants, and to **v** when initial or between vowels: **unguō, stinguō,** in which the labialized velar **g** becomes **gu**; **glāns, āgnus**; **veniō,** English *come;* **vīvus.**

5. The Labialized Velar **gh** becomes **f,** when initial, **gu** after **n,** and **v** between vowels: **formus, friō**; **an-guis, nin-guit**; **niv-is.**

46. The Dentals **t** and **d** generally remain unchanged: **pater, septem**; **decem, deus.**

1. The aspirate **dh** becomes **f** when initial: **faciō, forēs,** English *door,* and generally **d** when medial, but **b** before **r**: **medius**; **ruber.**

47. The Labials **p** and **b** generally remain unchanged: **potis, pāx, opus**; **lambō, lūbricus**; but **p** became **b** in a few words, as in **ab** for ***ap, ob** for ***op, sub** for ***sup, bibō** for ***pibō.**

1. The aspirate **bh** becomes (1) **f** when initial: **frāter**, English *brother;* **ferō**, English *bear*, and (2) **b** when medial: **al-bus, amb-itus.**

48. The Nasals **m**[1] and **n** and the Liquids **l**[2] and **r** remain unchanged: **medius, homō**; **genus, dōnum**; **linquō, ruber.**

49. **V** generally remains unchanged: **ovis, aevum**; but it is sometimes lost between vowels: *nevolō, **nōlō.**

50. **S** often remains unchanged: **est, sumus, suus**; but it generally becomes **r** between vowels:[3] **flōs, flōris**; **genus, generis.**

CHANGES IN CONSONANTS

51. A Guttural — **c, g, q** (qu), or **h** (for gh) — before **s** unites with it and forms **x**: *duc-s, **dux**; *reg-s, **rēx**; *coqu-sī, **coxī**; *trah-sī, **trāxī.**

1. For the loss of the guttural between a liquid and **s** or **t**, see **58, 1.**

52. Note also the following changes in consonants:

1. **Dt** and **tt** become **st** before **r**; in other situations they generally become **ss**, reduced to **s** after long syllables: *rōd-trum, **rōstrum**; *fod-tus, **fos-sus**; *plaud-tus, **plau-sus**; *vert-tus, **ver-sus.**

2. **D** sometimes represents an original **t**: **aput, apud**; **haut, haud.**

3. **Dv** initial sometimes becomes **b**: **dvellum, bellum.**

4. **Sr**, when initial, becomes **fr**; otherwise **br**: *srīgus, **frīgus,** *cold.* *fūnes-ris, from fūnes in fūner-is, **fūnebris.**

5. A euphonic **p** is generally developed between **m** and **s** and between **m** and **t**: *cōm-sī, **cōm-p-sī**; *cōm-tum, **cōm-p-tum.**

ASSIMILATION

53. A consonant is often assimilated to a following consonant. Thus:

1. **D** and **t** are often assimilated before **s**; **ds** and **ts** becoming **ss**, which is simplified to **s** when final, and after diphthongs and long vowels: *concut-sit, **concus-sit**; *lapid-s, **lapis**; *art-s, **ars**; *amant-s, **amāns**; *claud-sit, **clau-sit**; *suād-sit, **suā-sit.**

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[1] **M**, when final, was a very weak nasal, and before words beginning with a vowel it almost disappeared in pronunciation.

[2] **L** appears in place of an earlier **d** in about a dozen Latin words: **lingua**, old form **dingua**; **lacrima, olēre.**

[3] **R** sometimes takes the place of final **s**, following the analogy of **r** for **s** between vowels; thus **honōs** becomes **honor** from **honōr-is.** **S** may be retained between vowels when it stands for **ss**: **hau-sī** for *haus-sī.

2. **D** is generally assimilated before **c**, **qu**, **g**, **l**, **n**, **p**, and **s**: *hod-ce, *hoc-ce, **hōc**; **quid-quam**, **quic-quam**; *ad-ger, **ag-ger**; *sed-la, **sel-la**; *merced-nārius, **mercen-nārius**; *quid-pe, **quip-pe**; *claud-sit, *claus-sit, **clau-sit**.

3. **T** is assimilated before **c** and **s**: *sit-cus, **sic-cus**; *concut-sit, **concus-sit**.

4. **N** is assimilated before **l** and **m**: *ūn-lus, **ūllus**; *gen-ma, **gem-ma**.

5. **R** is assimilated before **l**: *ager-lus, **agel-lus**.

6. **P** is assimilated before **f** and **m**: *op-ficīna, **of-ficīna**; *sup-mus, **sum-mus**.

7. **S** is assimilated before **f**: *dis-ficilis, **dif-ficilis**.

8. For assimilation in Compounds of Prepositions, see **374**.

54. A consonant is sometimes assimilated to a preceding consonant.

1. **D** and **n** are generally assimilated to a preceding **l**: *cal-dis, **cal-lis**; *col-nis, **col-lis**; *fal-nō, **fal-lō**.

2. **S** is assimilated to a preceding **l** or **r**: *facil-simus, **facil-limus**; *vel-se, **vel-le**; *fer-se, **fer-re**; *acer-simus, **acer-rimus**.

55. Partial Assimilation. — A consonant is often partially assimilated to the following consonant. Thus:

1. Before the surd **s** or **t**, a sonant **b** or **g** is generally changed to its corresponding surd, **p**[1] or **c**: *scrīb-sī, **scrīp-sī**; *scrīb-tus, **scrīp-tus**; *reg-sī, **rēxī** (**51**); *reg-tus, **rēc-tus**.

2. **Qu**[2] and **h** are also changed to **c** before **s** and **t**: *coqu-sit, *coc-sit, **coxit**; *coqu-tus, **coc-tus**; *trah-sit, *trāc-sit, **trāxit**; *trah-tus, **trāc-tus**.

3. Before a labial, **p** or **b**, **n** is generally changed to the labial **m**: **inperō**, **imperō**; **inperātor**, **imperātor**; *inbellis, **imbellis**.

4. Before **n**, a labial, **p** or **b**, is changed to the labial **m** in a few words: *sop-nos, **som-nus**; *Sab-niom, **Sam-nium**.

5. **M** is changed to the dental **n** regularly before dental mutes, and often before guttural mutes: *eum-dem, **eun-dem**; *eōrum-dem, **eōrun-dem**; *quem-dam, **quen-dam**; *tam-tus, **tan-tus**; *hum-ce, **hunc**; *prīm-ceps, **prīn-ceps**; **num-quam** or **nun-quam**; **quam-quam** or **quan-quam**.

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[1] But **b** is generally retained before **s** in **abs** and in nouns in **bs**: **urbs**; and before **s** and **t** in **ob** and **sub** in compounds and derivatives: **ob-servāns**, **ob-tūsus**, **sub-scrībō**, **sub-ter**. In these cases, however, **b** takes the sound of **p**, so that assimilation takes place in pronunciation, though not in writing. It is probable also that in some other consonants assimilation was observed even when omitted in writing.

[2] **Qu** is not a syllable; **u** in this combination is simply a parasitic sound developed by **q**, which is never found without it.

56. Dissimilation. — The meeting of consonants too closely related and the recurrence of the same consonant in successive syllables are sometimes avoided by changing one of the consonants. Thus:

1. *Caeluleus, from caelum, becomes **caeruleus**.

2. Certain suffixes of derivation have two forms, one with **l** generally used after **r**, and one with **r** generally used after **l**[1]: **ālis, āris**; **blum, bulum, brum**; **clum, culum, crum**; **rēg-ālis, popul-āris**; **vocā-bulum, dēlū-brum**; *ōrā-clum, **ōrā-culum**; *vehi-clum, **vehi-culum**; **sepul-crum**.

LOSS OF CONSONANTS

57. Of two consonants standing at the beginning of a word, the first often disappears; of three thus situated, the first two often disappear: *gnātus, **nātus**; *gnōtus, **nōtus**; *scoruscus, **coruscus**; **stlīs, līs**; *stlocus, **locus**.

58. Groups of consonants often lose one or more of their members.

1. A guttural mute — **c, g,** or **qu** — standing between a liquid and **s** or **t**, generally disappears: *mulcsit, **mulsit**; *fulgsit, **fulsit**; *spargsit, **sparsit**; *torqusit, **torsit**; *fulctus, **fultus**.

2. A guttural mute occasionally disappears in other situations, especially before **m** or **v**: *lūcmen, **lūmen**; *exagmen, **exāmen**; *iugmentum, **iūmentum**; *bregvis, **brevis**.

3. **Cs** and **x** sometimes disappear: *lūcsna, **lūna**; *sexdecim, **sēdecim**; *sexnī, **sēnī**; *axla, **āla**, *wing*.

4. **D** generally disappears before **sc, sp, st**: **adscendere, ascendere**; **adspicere, aspicere**; **adstāre, astāre**.

5. **N, r,** and **s** often disappear: *in-gnōtus, **īgnōtus**; *equōns, **equōs**; *porscere, **pōscere**; *isdem, **īdem**; *iūsdex, **iūdex**; *prismus, **prīmus**; **audīsne, audīn**.

6. **I** consonant generally disappears between vowels, and sometimes in other situations: *bi-iugae, *bi-iigae, *bi-igae, **bīgae**; **abiicere, abicere**.[2]

NOTE. — Separate words are sometimes united after the loss of **v**: **sī vīs, sīs, sī vultis, sūltis**.

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[1] The suffix **āris** was formed from **ālis** by dissimilation; from **clum** was formed **crum** by dissimilation, and **culum** by developing the vocal liquid l̥; **blum** and **brum** are both inherited, but **bulum** was developed from **blum**. In **rēg-ālis, ālis** is used because **r** precedes, but in **popul-āris, āris** is used because **l** precedes. When neither **l** nor **r** precedes, the original suffix **ālis** is used.

[2] This is the approved form in verbs compounded of **iacere** and monosyllabic prepositions; but **abicere** is pronounced as if written **abiicere**. The syllable **ab** thus remains long by position.

7. **H** often disappears between vowels, or before **i** consonant; **prehendō, prēndō, nihil, nīl**; *ahiō, **āiō**; *mahior, **māior.**

8. For the assimilation and loss of **d** and **t** before **s**, see **53**, 1.

59. Loss of Final Consonants. — Final consonants often disappear.

1. Final **d** disappeared at a very early date after long vowels and after **r**: **sententiād, sententiā**, ablative; **praedād, praedā**; *datōd, **datō**, imperative; *habētōd, **habētō**; *cord, **cor.**

2. Final **t** disappears after **c** and **s**: *lact (lact-is), **lāc**, *ost, **os.**

3. Final **n** disappears in the Nominative singular from stems in **ōn, on**: *leōn, **leō**; *homon, **homō**; *egon, **ego.**

4. Final **os** disappears in the Nominative singular from stems in **ro**, and final **s** sometimes disappears in early inscriptions from other stems in **o**: *pueros, **puer**; *viros, **vir**; **Rōscios, Rōscio**, later **Rōscius**; **Cornēlios, Cornēlio.**

PART II. — MORPHOLOGY

60. Morphology treats of the Form and Inflection of words.

61. The Parts of Speech are — Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

62. Nouns, or Substantives, are Names, as of persons, places, or things: **Cicerō**, *Cicero;* **Rōma**, *Rome;* **domus**, *house.*

1. A Proper Noun is a proper name, as of a person or place: **Cicerō, Rōma.**

2. A Common Noun, or Appellative, is a name common to all the members of a class of objects; **vir**, *man;* **equus**, *horse.* Common nouns include

Collective Nouns, designating a collection of objects: **populus**, *people;* **exercitus**, *army.*

Abstract Nouns, designating properties or qualities: **virtūs**, *virtue;* **iūstitia**, *justice.*

Material Nouns, designating materials as such: **aurum**, *gold;* **lignum**, *wood;* **aqua**, *water.*

63. Adjectives qualify nouns: **bonus**, *good;* **māgnus**, *great;* **bonus vir**, *a good man.*

64. Nouns and Adjectives have Gender, Number, and Case.

GENDER

65. There are three genders — Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.

66. Natural and Grammatical Gender. — In Latin gender is either Natural, as dependent upon sex, or Grammatical, as dependent upon an artificial distinction according to grammatical rules.

Natural Gender

67. The names of Persons have Natural Gender. They are accordingly

1. Masculine, if they denote males: **Caesar**, *Caesar;* **vir**, *man;* **rēx**, *king.*

2. Feminine, if they denote females: **Tullia**, *Tullia;* **mulier**, *woman;* **rēgīna**, *queen.*

3. Both Masculine and Feminine, if they are applicable to both sexes: **cīvis**, *citizen*, male or female; **homō**, *a human being*, man or woman; but when used without distinct reference to sex, such nouns are generally masculine.

NOTE. — A few names of the lower animals are sometimes used in the same way: **bōs**, *ox*, or *cow;* **canis**, *dog*, male or female; **ānser**, *gander*, or *goose.* But some names of the lower animals, though applicable to both sexes, have only grammatical gender determined by their endings (71): **corvus**, *raven*, masculine; **aquila**, *eagle*, feminine.

Rules for Grammatical Gender

68. Masculine. — The names of Rivers, Winds, and Months are masculine: **Rhēnus**, *the Rhine;* **Notus**, *the South Wind;* **Mārtius**, *March;* but

1. The endings of some of these nouns give them a gender at variance with this rule. Thus names of rivers in **a** are feminine: **Albula**, *the river Albula;* **Allia**, *the Allia.*

69. Feminine. — The names of Countries, Towns, Islands, and Trees are feminine: **Graecia**, *Greece;* **Rōma**, *Rome;* **Dēlos**, *the Island of Delos;* **pirus**, *pear tree;* but

1. The endings of some of these nouns give them a gender at variance *with this rule. Thus* plurals in **ī** and a few other nouns are masculine

and nouns in **um** are neuter: **Delphī, Pontus**; **oleaster**, *wild olive tree*; **pīnaster**, *fir tree*, masculine; **Latium, Saguntum**, neuter.

70. Neuter. — Indeclinable nouns, Infinitives and clauses used as nouns are neuter: **alpha**, the Greek letter *alpha*, *α*; **fās**, *the right*; **tuum amāre**, *your loving*.

71. Gender by Endings. — In most nouns and adjectives the grammatical gender is determined by the ending of the Nominative singular. Thus nouns and adjectives of the Second Declension (**82**) in **us** are masculine: **amīcus**, *friend*; **bonus**, *good*; nouns and adjectives in **a** are feminine: **mēnsa**, *table*; **bona**, *good*; and nouns and adjectives in **um** are neuter: **templum**, *temple*; **bonum**, *good*.

PERSON AND NUMBER

72. The Latin, like the English, has three Persons, the First Person denoting the speaker; the Second, the person spoken to; the Third, the person spoken of; and two Numbers, the Singular denoting one, and the Plural, more than one.

CASES

73. The Latin, unlike the English, has six cases:

Names	English Equivalents
Nominative	Nominative, Case of the Subject
Vocative	Nominative, as the Case of Address
Genitive	Possessive, or Objective with *of*
Dative	Objective with *to* or *for*
Accusative	Objective after a Verb or a Preposition
Ablative	Objective with *from*, *with*, *by*, *in*

1. **Oblique Cases.** — The Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative are called the Oblique Cases.

2. **Locative.** — The Latin has also a few remnants of another case, called the Locative, denoting the Place in Which.

DECLENSION

74. Stem and Suffixes. — The process by which the several cases of a word are formed is called Declension. It consists in the addition of certain suffixes to one common base called the stem.

1. **Meaning.** — Accordingly, each case form contains two distinct elements — the Stem,[1] which gives the general meaning of the word, and the Case Suffix, which shows the relation of that meaning to some other word. Thus, in **rēg-is**, *of a king*, the general idea, *king*, is denoted by the stem **rēg**; the relation *of*, by the suffix **is**.

2. **Characteristic.** — The last letter of the stem is called the Stem Characteristic, or Stem Ending.

3. **Case Endings.** — The case suffixes appear distinct and unchanged only in nouns and adjectives with consonant stems, while in all other words they are seen only in combination with the characteristic, i.e. with the final vowel of the stem. The ending produced by the union of the case suffix with the characteristic vowel is called a Case Ending.

Cases Identical in Form

75. 1. The Nominative and Vocative are alike in form, except in the singular of nouns and adjectives in **us** of the Second Declension and in a few Greek nouns. In all other words the Vocative is simply the Nominative used in address, as the Nominative is used in English.

2. The Nominative, Vocative, and Accusative in neuters are alike and in the plural end in **a**.

3. The Dative and Ablative plural are alike.

76. Five Declensions. — In Latin there are five declensions, distinguished from each other by the endings of the Genitive singular, or by the stem characteristic, best seen in the Genitive plural, as follows:

Declension	Gen. Sing. Ending	Characteristic		Gen. Plur.
I. or **A**-Dec.	**ae**	**ā**	seen in	**mēns-ā-rum**
II. " **O**-Dec.	**ī**	**o**	"	**serv-ō-rum**[2]
III. " **I**-Dec.	**is**	**i**	"	**cīv-i-um**
" " Cons. Dec.	**is**	cons.	"	**mīli-t-um**[3]
IV. " **U**-Dec.	**ūs**	**u**	"	**frūct-u-um**
V. " **E**-Dec.	**ĕī**	**ē**	"	**di-ē-rum**

1. The five declensions were inherited from the parent speech.

77. The First, Second, and Third Declensions contain both nouns and adjectives; the Fourth and Fifth only nouns.

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[1] In many words the stem itself is derived from a more primitive form called a Root. For the distinction between roots and stems, see **320**. 1.

[2] The **ō** in **serv-ō-rum** was originally short; hence the characteristic is **o**.

[3] In this word the characteristic is **t**.

FIRST DECLENSION

A-Nouns and A-Adjectives — Stems in ā

78. Latin nouns and adjectives of the First Declension end in **a** and are feminine. They are declined precisely alike, as follows:

A-Nouns

Mēnsa, *table, a table,* or *the table.*

Cases		Meaning	Case Endings[1]
		Singular	
N. V.[2]	mēnsa	*a table, O table*	a
Gen.	mēnsae	*of a table*	ae
Dat.	mēnsae	*to* or *for a table*	ae
Acc.	mēnsam	*a table*	am
Abl.	mēnsā	*with, from,* or *by a table*[3]	ā
		Plural	
N. V.	mēnsae	*tables, O tables*	ae
Gen.	mēnsārum	*of tables*	ārum
Dat.	mēnsīs	*to* or *for tables*	īs
Acc.	mēnsās	*tables*	ās
Abl.	mēnsīs	*with, from,* or *by tables*	īs

A-Nouns and A-Adjectives

Bona, *good.* rēgīna, *queen.*

Cases	Adjective	Noun	Meaning
		Singular	
N. V.	bona	rēgīna	*a good queen, O good queen*
Gen.	bonae	rēgīnae	*of a good queen*
Dat.	bonae	rēgīnae	*to* or *for a good queen*
Acc.	bonam	rēgīnam	*a good queen*
Abl.	bonā	rēgīnā[3]	*with, from,* or *by a good queen*

[1] These case endings will serve as a practical guide to the learner in distinguishing the different cases. The two elements which originally composed them have undergone various changes, and in certain cases, the one or the other has nearly or quite disappeared.

[2] N. V. = Nom. and Voc. As the Vocative is only a special use of the Nominative, it is combined with that case in the paradigm.

[3] The Ablative, used sometimes with a preposition and sometimes without, is variously rendered, but the Ablative of personal appellatives takes a preposition, as **ā** or **ab**, *from, by;* **cum**, *with,* etc.; **ā bonā rēgīnā**, *from* or *by the good queen.*

		PLURAL	
N. V.	bonae	rēgīnae	*good queens, O good queens*
Gen.	bonārum	rēgīnārum	*of good queens*
Dat.	bonīs	rēgīnīs	*to* or *for good queens*
Acc.	bonās	rēgīnās	*good queens*
Abl.	bonīs	rēgīnīs	*with, from,* or *by good queens*

1. **Stems.** — In nouns and adjectives of the First Declension, the stem ends in **ā**, shortened in the Nominative and Vocative singular. Thus the stem **mēnsā** becomes **mēnsa** in the Nominative, **bonā** becomes **bona**, and **rēgīnā, rēgīna**.

2. In the paradigms, observe that the several cases are distinguished from each other by their case endings.

3. **Examples for Practice.** — Like **mēnsa** and **bona** decline: **āla**, *wing;* **causa**, *cause;* **puella**, *girl;* **beāta**, *happy;* **longa**, *long;* **pulchra**, *beautiful.*

4. **Locative.** — Names of towns and a few other words have a Locative singular in **ae**, denoting the Place In Which any thing is or is done: **Rōmae**, *at Rome;* **mīlitiae**, *in war.* In the plural the Locative meaning is expressed by the ending **īs**: **Athēnīs**, *at Athens.*

5. **Exceptions in Gender.** — A few nouns in **a** are masculine by signification: **agricola**, *husbandman;* see **67**, 1. **Hadria**, *Adriatic Sea*, is masculine; sometimes also **damma**, *deer*, and **talpa**, *mole.*

6. **Article.** — The Latin has no article: **corōna**, *crown, a crown, the crown.*

7. **Original Case Endings.** — The following are the original case endings with the forms which they assumed in the classical period:

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	Original form	**Classical form**	**Original form**	**Classical form**
N. V.	ā	**a**	āi	**ae**
Gen.	ās, āī	**ae**	āsom	**ārum**
Dat.	āi	**ae**	āis	**īs**
Acc.	ām	**am**	āns or ās	**ās**
Abl.	ād	**ā**	āis	**īs**

79. Of these original endings four are found in Latin writers:

1. **ā** in the Nominative and Vocative singular in Plautus and Terence.

2. **ās** in the Genitive singular of **familia**, in composition with **pater, māter, fīlius** and **fīlia**: **paterfamiliās**, *father of a family.*

3. **āī** in the Genitive singular in the poets: **aulāī**, afterwards **aulae**, *of a hall.*

4. **ād** in the Ablative singular in early Latin: **sententiād**, later **sententiā**, *by the opinion.*

80. Two other case endings, common in some other declensions, but rare in this, are

1. **um**[1] in the Genitive plural, chiefly in the poets: **agricolum** = **agricolārum**, *of farmers;* **Dardanidum**, *of the descendants of Dardanus.*

2. **ābus**[2] in the Dative and Ablative plural, especially in **dea**, *goddess*, and **fīlia**, *daughter*, to distinguish them from the same cases of **deus**, *god*, and **fīlius**, *son:* **deābus**, *for the goddesses.*

81. Greek Nouns. — Nouns of this declension in **ē**, **ās**, and **ēs** are of Greek origin, but in the plural they have assumed the Latin declension, as seen in **mēnsa**. In the singular they are declined as follows:

	Epitomē, *epitome.*	Aenēās, *Aeneas.*	Pyrītēs, *pyrites.*
		SINGULAR	
Nom.	epitomē	Aēnēās	pyrītēs
Voc.	epitomē	Aenēā	pyrītē, pyrīta
Gen.	epitomēs	Aenēae	pyrītae
Dat.	epitomae	Aenēae	pyrītae
Acc.	epitomēn	Aenēam, Aenēān	pyrītēn
Abl.	epitomē	Aenēā	pyrītē, pyrītā

1. In nouns in **ē** and **ēs**, the stem ending **ā** is changed to **ē** in certain cases. The stem of **epitomē** is **epitomā**, of **Aenēās**, **Aenēā**, and of **pyrītēs**, **pyrītā**.

2. Many Greek nouns assume the Latin ending **a** and are declined like **mēnsa**. Many in **ē** have also a form in **a**: **epitomē**, **epitoma**.

SECOND DECLENSION

O-NOUNS AND O-ADJECTIVES — STEMS IN O

82. Latin nouns and adjectives of the Second Declension end in **us**, in **r**, from which **us** has been dropped, or in **um**. Those in **us** and **r** are masculine, those in **um** neuter.

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[1] This is the regular suffix in nouns of the Third and Fourth Declensions.

[2] **bus** in **ā**-bus is the regular suffix for these cases in the Third, Fourth, and Fifth Declensions.

83. Nouns and adjectives in **us** and **um** are declined as follows:

	Amīcus, *friend.*	Bonus, *good.*	Templum, *temple.*	Bonum, *good.*
		SINGULAR		
Nom.	**amīcus**	**bonus**	**templum**	**bonum**
Voc.	**amīce**	**bone**		
Gen.	**amīcī**	**bonī**	**templī**	**bonī**
Dat.	**amīcō**	**bonō**	**templō**	**bonō**
Acc.	**amīcum**	**bonum**	**templum**	**bonum**
Abl.	**amīcō**	**bonō**	**templō**	**bonō**
		PLURAL		
N. V.	**amīcī**	**bonī**	**templa**	**bona**
Gen.	**amīcōrum**	**bonōrum**	**templōrum**	**bonōrum**
Dat.	**amīcīs**	**bonīs**	**templīs**	**bonīs**
Acc.	**amīcōs**	**bonōs**	**templa**	**bona**
Abl.	**amīcīs**	**bonīs**	**templīs**	**bonīs**

1. **Stem.** — In nouns and adjectives of the Second Declension, the stem ends in **o** with an ablaut form **e**, seen in the Vocative singular masculine. **O** becomes **u** in **us** and **um**. The stem of **amīcus** is **amīco**, of **bonus** and **bonum**, **bono**, and of **templum**, **templo**. The Nominative masculine adds **s** and the neuter **m**: **amīcu-s**, **templu-m**.

2. In the paradigms, observe that **bonus** is declined precisely like **amīcus**, and **bonum** like **templum**.

3. Like **amīcus** decline **dominus**, *master;* like **templum**, **bellum**, *war;* like **bonus**, **beātus**, *happy;* like **bonum**, **beātum**, *happy*.

4. **Locative.** — Names of towns and a few other words have a Locative singular in **ī**: **Ephesī**, *at Ephesus;* **Corinthī**, *at Corinth;* **domī**, *at home;* **bellī**, *in war*. In the plural the Locative meaning is expressed by the ending **īs**: **Argīs**, *at Argos*.

5. Genuine Latin Proper Names in **ius** and the word **fīlius** form the Vocative singular in **ī** and accent the penult: **Mercu'-rī**, *Mercury;* **fīlī**, *son*. Proper names in **ēius** have **ēī** or **ei**: **Pompēī** or **Pompei**.

6. Nouns in **ius** and **ium** have in the Genitive singular **iī** or **ī**, without a change of accent: **fī-liī**, **fī'-lī**, *of a son;* **Clau-diī**, **Clau'dī**, *of Claudius;* **inge-niī**, **inge'-nī**, *of genius*. The latter form was in general use under the Republic, but the former became common in the age of Augustus; both are used in editions of classical authors. In proper names many editors retain the Genitive in **ī**: **Pūblī Vergi'-lī**, *of Publius Vergilius*.

7. ***Deus**, god,* lacks the Vocative singular in classical Latin, but is otherwise regular in that number. It is declined in the plural as follows:

N. V.	(deī)	diī	dī
Gen.	deōrum, sometimes deum		
Acc.	deōs		
Dat. Abl.	(deīs)	diīs	dīs

NOTE. — The inclosed forms, though regular, are rarely used. **Diī** is pronounced like **dī**, and **diīs** like **dīs**.

8. The three neuter nouns in **us**,[1] **pelagus**, *sea*, **vīrus**, *poison*, and **vulgus**, *the common people*, are declined in the singular as follows:

N. V. Acc.	pelagus	vīrus	vulgus
Gen.	pelagī	vīrī	vulgī
Dat. Abl.	pelagō	vīrō	vulgō

9. **Original Case Endings.** — The following are the original case endings with the forms which they assumed in the classical period:

	SINGULAR			
	Masculine		*Neuter*	
	Original form	**Classical form**	**Original form**	**Classical form**
Nom.	os	**us**[2]	om	**um**
Voc.	e	**e**[2]		
Gen.	ei	**ī**	ei	**ī**
Dat.	ōi	**ō**	ōi	**ō**
Acc.	om	**um**	om	**um**
Abl.	ōd	**ō**	ōd	**ō**
	PLURAL			
N. V.	oi[3]	**ī**	ā	**a**
Gen.	om	**ōrum**[4]	om	**ōrum**[4]
Dat.	ōis	**īs**	ōis	**īs**
Acc.	ōns	**ōs**	ā	**a**
Abl.	ōis	**īs**	ōis	**īs**

10. The original endings **os** and **om** were retained after **u** and **v** until the Augustan age: **ingenuos**, **ingenuom**, *free-born;* **servos**, **servom**, *slave;*

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[1] These may have been originally **s**-stems which by the loss of **s** became **o**-stems. **Pelagus** is a Greek noun, and in general is used only in the singular, though **pelagē** occurs as an Acc. plur. **Vīrus** and **vulgus** are used only in the singular. **Vulgus** has a masculine Accusative, **vulgum**, in addition to the neuter form **vulgus**.

[2] The endings **us** and **e** are seen only in nouns and adjectives in **us**. In the masculine of nouns and adjectives in **r**, the Nominative has lost the ending **us**, and the Vocative is like the Nominative.

[3] The final **i** is probably borrowed from the Pronominal Declension.

[4] A later formation after the analogy of the Genitive ending **ārum**.

equos, **equom**, *horse;* but during the reign of Augustus **us** and **um** became the common endings for all words of this class, though in some editions, especially of the earlier writers, **os** and **om** are still retained.

84. Old and Rare Case Endings: — The following occur[1]:

1. **ōd** in the Ablative singular: **Gnaivōd**, later **Gnaeō**; **meritōd**, later **meritō**, *from merit.*

2. **ā** in the plural of neuters: **templā**, later **templa**.

3. **um** in the Genitive plural of certain nouns denoting money, weight, and measure: **talentum** = **talentōrum**, *of talents;* **sēstertium** = **sēstertiōrum**, *of sesterces;* also in a few other words: **līberum**, *of children;* **Argīvum**, *of the Argives.*

85. Nouns and adjectives in **r** of the Second Declension have lost the case ending **us** in the Nominative singular, and are declined as follows:

	Puer, *boy.*	Līber, *free.*	Ager, *field.*	Ruber, *red.*
		SINGULAR		
N. V.	puer	līber	ager	ruber
Gen.	puerī	līberī	agrī	rubrī
Dat.	puerō	līberō	agrō	rubrō
Acc.	puerum	līberum	agrum	rubrum
Abl.	puerō	līberō	agrō	rubrō
		PLURAL		
N. V.	puerī	līberī	agrī	rubrī
Gen.	puerōrum	līberōrum	agrōrum	rubrōrum
Dat.	puerīs	līberīs	agrīs	rubrīs
Acc.	puerōs	līberōs	agrōs	rubrōs
Abl.	puerīs	līberīs	agrīs	rubrīs

1. In the paradigms, observe that **puer** and **ager** differ in declension from **amīcus**, in dropping the ending **us** in the Nominative, and in forming no separate Vocative: Nom. **puer** from **puer-us**.

2. **Līber** is declined like **puer**, and **ruber** like **ager**.

3. The stem of **puer** is **puero**, of **līber**, **lībero**, of **ager**, **agro**, and of **ruber**, **rubro**.

4. **Ager** was formed from **agros** thus: *agr-o-s, *agr̥-s, *ager-s, **ager**.[2]

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[1] A few other endings occur in inscriptions.

[2] First **o** disappears, leaving r̥ sonant, then r̥ becomes **er**, ***ager-s**, and finally **s** disappears, leaving **ager**.

5. Like **puer** decline **gener**, *son-in-law;* like **ager**, **magister**, *master;* like **līber**, **miser**, *unhappy;* like **ruber**, **niger**, *black.*

86. Most nouns and adjectives in **r** of this declension are declined like **ager** and **ruber**, but the following nouns are declined like **puer**:

1. **Vir**, *man*, and its compounds: **vir**, **virī**, etc.; **triumvir**, **triumvirī**, etc., *member of a triumvirate.*

2. Compounds in **fer** and **ger**: **armiger**, **armigerī**, *armor bearer;* **signifer**, **signiferī**, *standard bearer.*

3. **Adulter**, *adulterer;* **Celtibēr**,[1] *Celtiberian;* **gener**, *son-in-law;* **Hibēr**,[1] *Spaniard;* **Līber**, *Bacchus;* **līberī**, *children;* **Mulciber**,[1] *Vulcan;* **presbyter**, *elder;* **socer**, *father-in-law;* **vesper**, *evening.*

4. For Adjectives, thus declined, see **92.**

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER

87. A few nouns in **us** are Feminine:

1. Most names of Countries, Towns, Islands, and Trees: **Aegyptus**, *Egypt;* **Corinthus**, *Corinth;* **Cyprus**, *Cyprus;* **pirus**, *pear tree.*

2. A few words in **us** of Greek origin: **methodus**, *method;* **synodus**, *synod;* **diphthongus**, *diphthong.*

3. Five other words in **us**: **alvus**, *belly;* **carbasus**, *linen;* **colus**, *distaff;* **humus**, *ground;* **vannus**, *fan.*

88. Three nouns in **us** are Neuter: **pelagus**, *sea;* **vīrus**, *poison;* **vulgus**, *the common people.*

89. Greek Nouns. — Nouns of the second declension in **os**, **ōs**, generally masculine, and in **on**, neuter, are of Greek origin. They are declined in the singular as follows:

	Dēlos, f.,[2] *Delos.*	Androgeōs, *Androgeos.*	Īlion, *Ilium.*
		SINGULAR	
Nom.	Dēlos	Androgeōs	Īlion
Voc.	Dēle		
Gen.	Dēlī	Androgeō, Androgeī	Īlīī
Dat.	Dēlō	Androgeō	Īliō
Acc.	Dēlon	Androgeōn, Androgeō	Īlion
Abl.	Dēlō	Androgeō	Īliō

[1] **Celtibēr** and **Hibēr** have **ē** long in the Genitive as in the Nominative, and **Mulciber** sometimes drops **e**.

[2] Observe that **Delos**, *the Island Delos*, is feminine by signification.

1. The plural of nouns in **os** and **on** is generally regular, but certain Greek endings occur, as **oe** in the Nominative plural, and **ōn** in the Genitive plural: **Arctoe**, *the constellation of the Bears;* **Theraeōn**, *of the Theraeans.*

2. In the paradigms, the stems are **Dēlo**, **Androgeō**, and **Īlio**.

3. Most Greek nouns generally assume the Latin forms in **us** and **um** and are declined like **amīcus** and **templum**. Many in **os** and **on** have also a form in **us** and **um**, or at least assume the regular Latin forms in some of their cases.

4. For Greek nouns in **eus**, see **Orpheus, 110.**

5. **Panthūs** has Voc. **Panthū**. For **pelagus**, see **83, 8.**

ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS

90. Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions, as we have already seen, are declined like nouns of the same endings, but unlike nouns, each of these adjectives has three different forms, one for each of the three genders. Thus **bonus** is the form of the adjective when used with masculine nouns, **bona** with feminine, and **bonum** with neuter: **bonus amīcus**, *a good friend;* **bona rēgīna**, *a good queen;* **bonum templum**, *a good temple.*

91. Comparative View of the three Forms representing the three Genders in Adjectives of this class.

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
	Bonus, *good.*	bona, *good.*	bonum, *good.*
	SINGULAR		
Nom.	bonus	bona	bonum
Voc.	bone		
Gen.	bonī	bonae	bonī
Dat.	bonō	bonae	bonō
Acc.	bonum	bonam	bonum
Abl.	bonō	bonā	bonō
	PLURAL		
N. V.	bonī	bonae	bona
Gen.	bonōrum	bonārum	bonōrum
Dat.	bonīs	bonīs	bonīs
Acc.	bonōs	bonās	bona
Abl.	bonīs	bonīs	bonīs

	Masculine	**Feminine**	**Neuter**
	Līber,	lībera,	līberum,
	free.	*free.*	*free.*
	SINGULAR		
N. V.	līber	lībera	līberum
Gen.	līberī	līberae	līberī
Dat.	līberō	līberae	līberō
Acc.	līberum	līberam	līberum
Abl.	līberō	līberā	līberō
	PLURAL		
N. V.	līberī	līberae	lībera
Gen.	līberōrum	līberārum	līberōrum
Dat.	līberīs	līberīs	līberīs
Acc.	līberōs	līberās	lībera
Abl.	līberīs	līberīs	līberīs

	Masculine	**Feminine**	**Neuter**
	Ruber,	rubra,	rubrum,
	red.	*red.*	*red.*
	SINGULAR		
N. V.	ruber	rubra	rubrum
Gen.	rubrī	rubrae	rubrī
Dat.	rubrō	rubrae	rubrō
Acc.	rubrum	rubram	rubrum
Abl.	rubrō	rubrā	rubrō
	PLURAL		
N. V.	rubrī	rubrae	rubra
Gen.	rubrōrum	rubrārum	rubrōrum
Dat.	rubrīs	rubrīs	rubrīs
Acc.	rubrōs	rubrās	rubra
Abl.	rubrīs	rubrīs	rubrīs

1. In the paradigms observe that in the masculine **bonus** is declined like **amīcus**, **līber** like **puer**, and **ruber** like **ager**, and that in the feminine and neuter all the examples are declined alike: **bona**, **lībera**, **rubra** like **mēnsa**; **bonum**, **līberum** and **rubrum** like **templum**, and that all these forms contain the full stem, while in the masculine **līber** and **ruber** lose the stem vowel **o** in the Nominative and Vocative singular.

2. Adjectives in **ius**, unlike nouns with this ending, always have **ie** and **ii** in the Vocative and Genitive singular: **ēgregius**, *excellent;* **ēgregie**, **ēgregii**.

92. Most adjectives in **r** of the Second Declension are declined like **ruber**, but the following are declined like **līber**:

1. **Satur**, *sated;* satur, satura, saturum.
2. Compounds in **fer** and **ger**: **morti-fer**, *deadly;* **āli-ger**, *winged.*
3. **Asper**, *rough;* **dexter**, *right;* **lacer**, *torn;* **miser**, *wretched;* **prōsper**, *prosperous;* **tener**, *tender;* but **asper** and **dexter** are sometimes declined like **ruber**: asper, aspra, asprum; dexter, dextra, dextrum.

93. Irregularities. — The following nine adjectives have in the singular **īus** in the Genitive and **ī** in the Dative:

ūnus	ūna	ūnum	*one, alone*	alius	alia	aliud	*another*
sōlus	sōla	sōlum	*alone*	alter	altera	alterum	*the other*
tōtus	tōta	tōtum	*whole*	uter	utra	utrum	*which*
ūllus	ūlla	ūllum	*any*	neuter	neutra	neutrum	*neither*
nūllus	nūlla	nūllum	*not any*				

1. The endings **īus**, **ī**, and **ud**, as in **ali-ud**, are regular endings in the Pronominal Declension, from which they are borrowed; see **ist-īus**, **ist-ī**, ist-**ud** (**179**).

2. **Alius**, regular in the plural, has one or two special irregularities in the singular, as follows:

Nom.	**alius**	**alia**	**aliud**[1]
Gen.	**alīus**	**alīus**	**alīus**
Dat.	**aliī**	**aliī**	**aliī**
Acc.	**alium**	**aliam**	**aliud**
Abl.	**aliō**	**aliā**	**aliō**

3. **Alīus**, for **aliius** by contraction, is rare; its place is sometimes supplied by **alterĭus**, the Genitive of **alter**, and sometimes by **aliēnus**, *belonging to another.*

4. In the rest of these adjectives, the irregularity is confined to the Genitive and Dative endings, **īus** and **ī**, but **ī** in **īus** is often shortened by the poets; regularly in **alterĭus** in dactylic verse.

5. The regular forms occasionally occur in the Genitive and Dative singular of some of these adjectives.

6. Like **uter** are declined its compounds: **uterque**, **utervīs**, **uterlibet**, **utercunque**, but **i** is short in **utriusque**.

7. In **alter uter**, both parts are declined: **alterĭus utrīus**, but in **alteruter**, only the latter part is declined: **alterutrīus**.

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[1] Alis for **alius** and **alid** for **aliud**, from the stem **ali** seen in **aliquis**, *some one*, are rare.

THIRD DECLENSION

NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES — STEMS IN A CONSONANT AND STEMS IN I

94. The Third Declension, like the First and Second, contains both nouns and adjectives.

Nouns of the Third Declension

95. Nouns of the Third Declension may be conveniently divided into four classes:

I. Nouns with Consonant Stems.
II. Nouns with **I**-Stems.
III. Nouns with Consonant and **I**-Stems combined.
IV. Special Paradigms.[1]

I. — CONSONANT STEMS

96. Stems ending in a Labial: B or P.

Prīnceps, m., *leader, chief.*

		SINGULAR	Case Suffixes
N. V.	**prīnceps**	*a leader, O leader*	**s**
Gen.	**prīncipis**	*of a leader*	**is**
Dat.	**prīncipī**	*to, for a leader*	**ī**
Acc.	**prīncipem**	*a leader*	**em**
Abl.	**prīncipe**	*with, from, by a leader*	**e**
		PLURAL	
N. V.	**prīncipēs**	*leaders, O leaders*	**ēs**
Gen.	**prīncipum**	*of leaders*	**um**
Dat.	**prīncipibus**	*to, for leaders*	**ibus**
Acc.	**prīncipēs**	*leaders*	**ēs**
Abl.	**prīncipibus**	*with, from, by leaders*	**ibus**

1. **Stem and Case Suffixes.** — In this paradigm observe that the stem is **prīncip,** which becomes **prīncep** in the Nominative singular, and that the case suffixes appear distinct and separate from the stem.

2. **Variable Vowel.** — In the final syllable of dissyllabic consonant stems, short **e** or **i** generally takes the form of **e** in the Nominative and Vocative singular and that of **i** in all the other cases. Thus **prīnceps, prīncipis,**

[1] For Gender, see **111-124.**

mīles, mīlitis (97), and **carmen, carminis** (100) all have **e** in the Nominative and Vocative singular and **i** in all the other cases. See also **opus, operis** (101).

3. In monosyllables in **bs** the stem ends in **b, bi**; see **urbs, 105.**

4. For the Locative in this declension, see **108.**

97. Stems ending in a Dental: D or T.

	Lapis, m., *stone.*	Aetās, f., *age.*	Mīles, m., *soldier.*
	SINGULAR		
N. V.	lapis	aetās	mīles
Gen.	lapidis	aetātis	mīlitis
Dat.	lapidī	aetātī	mīlitī
Acc.	lapidem	aetātem	mīlitem
Abl.	lapide	aetāte	mīlite
	PLURAL		
N. V.	lapidēs	aetātēs	mīlitēs
Gen.	lapidum	aetātum	mīlitum
Dat.	lapidibus	aetātibus	mīlitibus
Acc.	lapidēs	aetātēs	mīlitēs
Abl.	lapidibus	aetātibus	mīlitibus

	Nepōs, m., *grandson.*	Virtūs, f., *virtue.*	Caput, n., *head.*
	SINGULAR		
N. V.	nepōs	virtūs	caput
Gen.	nepōtis	virtūtis	capitis
Dat.	nepōtī	virtūtī	capitī
Acc.	nepōtem	virtūtem	caput
Abl.	nepōte	virtūte	capite
	PLURAL		
N. V.	nepōtēs	virtūtēs	capita
Gen.	nepōtum	virtūtum	capitum
Dat.	nepōtibus	virtūtibus	capitibus
Acc.	nepōtēs	virtūtēs	capita
Abl.	nepōtibus	virtūtibus	capitibus

1. **Stems and Case Suffixes.** — In these paradigms observe that the stems are **lapid, aetāt, mīlit, nepōt, virtūt,** and **capit,** and that the case suffixes are the same as those given for labial nouns, except in the neuter **caput,** which has in the Nominative, Vocative, and Accusative no case suffix in the singular and **a** in the plural.

2. **Mīles** has the variable vowel **e**, **i**, and **caput**, **u**, **i**.

3. Like **nepōs** are declined, **cōs**, *whetstone;* **dōs**, *dowry;* **sacerdōs**, *priest.* For **flōs**, **flōris**, see **101**.

4. Like **virtūs** are declined **iuventūs**, *youth;* **salūs**, *safety;* **senectūs**, *old age;* **servitūs**, *servitude.* For **iūs**, **iūris**, see **101**.

5. The Nominative of masculine and feminine nouns is formed by adding **s** to the stem. The dental, **d** or **t**, disappears before **s**: see **53**, 1.

6. Neuters in **a**, stem in **at**, are of Greek origin; see **110**, 5.

98. Stems ending in a Guttural: C or G.

	Dux, m. and f., *leader.*	Rādīx, f., *root.*	Rēx, m., *king.*	
		SINGULAR		Case Suffixes
N. V.	**dux**	**rādīx**	**rēx**	**s**
Gen.	**ducis**	**rādīcis**	**rēgis**	**is**
Dat.	**ducī**	**rādīcī**	**rēgī**	**ī**
Acc.	**ducem**	**rādīcem**	**rēgem**	**em**
Abl.	**duce**	**rādīce**	**rēge**	**e**
		PLURAL		
N. V.	**ducēs**	**rādīcēs**	**rēgēs**	**ēs**
Gen.	**ducum**	**rādīcum**	**rēgum**	**um**
Dat.	**ducibus**	**rādīcibus**	**rēgibus**	**ibus**
Acc.	**ducēs**	**rādīcēs**	**rēgēs**	**ēs**
Abl.	**ducibus**	**rādīcibus**	**rēgibus**	**ibus**

1. **Stems and Case Suffixes.** — In these paradigms observe that the stems are **duc**, **rādīc**, and **rēg**, that the case suffixes are the same as those given in 96, and that **s** in the Nominative singular unites with **c** or **g** of the stem and forms **x**, as **duc-s**, **dux**; **rēg-s**, **rēx**.

99. Stems ending in a Liquid: L or R.

	Cōnsul, m., *consul.*	Passer, m., *sparrow.*	Pater, m., *father.*
	SINGULAR		
N. V.	cōnsul	passer	pater
Gen.	cōnsulis	passeris	patris
Dat.	cōnsulī	passerī	patrī
Acc.	cōnsulem	passerem	patrem
Abl.	cōnsule	passere	patre

		PLURAL	
N. V.	cōnsulēs	passerēs	patrēs
Gen.	cōnsulum	passerum	patrum
Dat.	cōnsulibus	passeribus	patribus
Acc.	cōnsulēs	passerēs	patrēs
Abl.	cōnsulibus	passeribus	patribus

1. **Stems and Case Suffixes.** — In these paradigms observe that the stems are **cōnsul, passer,** and **pater, patr,**[1] and that they do not take **s** in the Nominative singular.

2. **Passer, Pater.** — Most nouns in **er** are declined like **passer,** but those in **ter,** with a very few exceptions, are declined like **pater.**

3. Four stems in **or** have the variable vowel, **o, u: ebur, ebor-is,** *ivory;* **femur,** *thigh;* **iecur,** *liver;* **rōbur,** *strength.*

100. Stems ending in a Nasal: M or N.

	Hiems, f., *winter.*	Leō, m., *lion.*	Virgō, f., *maiden.*	Carmen, n., *song.*
		SINGULAR		
N. V.	hiems	leō	virgō	carmen
Gen.	hiemis	leōnis	virginis	carminis
Dat.	hiemī	leōnī	virginī	carminī
Acc.	hiemem	leōnem	virginem	carmen
Abl.	hieme	leōne	virgine	carmine
		PLURAL		
N. V.	hiemēs	leōnēs	virginēs	carmina
Gen.	hiemum	leōnum	virginum	carminum
Dat.	hiemibus	leōnibus	virginibus	carminibus
Acc.	hiemēs	leōnēs	virginēs	carmina
Abl.	hiemibus	leōnibus	virginibus	carminibus

1. **Stems and Case Suffixes.** — In these paradigms observe that the stems are **hiem, leōn, virgon, virgin,**[2] and **carmen,**[2] that **hiem,** the only stem in **m,** takes **s** in the Nominative and Vocative singular, while stems in **n** take no suffix in those cases, that **leōn** and **virgon** drop **n,** and that **virgō** has the variable vowel **o, i,** and **carmen, e, i.**

2. **Leō and Virgō.** — Most nouns in **ō** are declined like **leō,** but those in **dō** and **gō,** with a few others, are declined like **virgō.**

3. For the Locative in this declension, see **108.**

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[1] The suffix **ter** in **pa-ter** has a weak form **tr**: hence the stem **pa-ter** has a weak form **pa-tr**; see ablaut forms, **21, 325,** and **326.**

[2] The stem **virgin** was originally **virgen**; **carmen** becomes **carmin.**

101. Stems ending in S.

	Flōs, m., *flower.*	Iūs, n., *right.*	Opus, n., *work.*	Corpus,[1] n., *body.*
		SINGULAR		
N. V.	**flōs**	**iūs**	**opus**	**corpus**
Gen.	**flōris**	**iūris**	**operis**	**corporis**
Dat.	**flōrī**	**iūrī**	**operī**	**corporī**
Acc.	**flōrem**	**iūs**	**opus**	**corpus**
Abl.	**flōre**	**iūre**	**opere**	**corpore**
		PLURAL		
N. V.	**flōrēs**	**iūra**	**opera**	**corpora**
Gen.	**flōrum**	**iūrum**	**operum**	**corporum**
Dat.	**flōribus**	**iūribus**	**operibus**	**corporibus**
Acc.	**flōrēs**	**iūra**	**opera**	**corpora**
Abl.	**flōribus**	**iūribus**	**operibus**	**corporibus**

1. **Stems and Case Suffixes.** — In these paradigms observe that the stems are **flōs-**, **iūs-**, **opos-**, **opes-**, **corpos-**, that the Nominative and Vocative singular take no suffix, that **s** of the stem becomes **r** between two vowels: **flōs**, **flōris**, and that **opus** has the variable vowel **e**, **u**, and **corpus**, **o**, **u**.

2. Like **flōs** are declined **glōs**, *sister-in-law;* **mōs**, *custom;* **rōs**, *dew.* For **nepōs**, see **97**.

3. Like **iūs** is declined **crūs**, *leg.* Note also **mūs**, **mūris**, *mouse;* **tellūs**, **tellūris**, *earth.*

4. Like **opus** are declined **foedus**, **fūnus**, **genus**, **glomus**, **latus**, **mūnus**, **onus**, **pondus**, **rūdus**, **scelus**, **sīdus**, **ulcus**, **vellus**, **vīscus**, **vulnus**. Note also **Venus**, **Veneris**, feminine.

5. Like **corpus** are declined **decus**, **dēdecus**, **facinus**, **faenus**, **frīgus**, **lītus**, **nemus**, **pectus**, **pecus**, **tempus**, **tergus**.

6. A few stems in **ōs** finally became **r**-stems, as the **r** of the oblique cases gradually usurped the place of the original **s** in the Nominative singular: **honōs**, **honōris**; **honor**, **honōris**.

7. A few nouns in **ēs**, as **clādēs**, **fidēs**, **nūbēs**, **sēdēs**, etc., lose the original **s** of the stem in the oblique cases and assume some of the characteristics of **i**-stems; see **105**.

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[1] **Opus** and **corpus** are both inflected from stems formed by means of an Indo-European suffix with the ablaut forms **os**, **es**; the form **os**, weakened to **us**, when final, is the basis of the inflection of **corpus**: the form **os**, weakened to **us**, is also seen in the Nom., Voc., and Acc. sing. of **opus**, but the form **es** appears in all the other cases.

II. — I-Stems

102. Stems ending in I. — Nouns in **is** and **ēs**, not increasing in the Genitive.

	Tussis, f., *cough.*	Nāvis, f., *ship.*	Īgnis, m., *fire.*	Auris, f., *ear.*	
		Singular			Case Endings
N. V.	tussis	nāvis	īgnis	auris	is
Gen.	tussis	nāvis	īgnis	auris	is
Dat.	tussī	nāvī	īgnī	aurī	ī
Acc.	tussim	nāvim, nāvem	īgnem	aurem	im, em
Abl.	tussī	nāvī, nāve	īgnī, īgne	aure	ī, e
		Plural			
N. V.	tussēs	nāvēs	īgnēs	aurēs	ēs
Gen.	tussium	nāvium	īgnium	aurium	ium
Dat.	tussibus	nāvibus	īgnibus	auribus	ibus
Acc.	tussēs / tussīs	nāvēs / nāvīs	īgnēs / īgnīs	aurēs / aurīs	ēs / īs
Abl.	tussibus	nāvibus	īgnibus	auribus	ibus.

1. **Stems and Case Endings.** — In these paradigms observe that the stems are **tussi**, **nāvi**, **īgni**, and **auri**, that the case endings contain the characteristic **i**, and that **tussis**, **nāvis**, **īgnis**, and **auris**, differ in declension only in the Accusative and Ablative singular, **tussis** showing the final **i** of the stem in both of these cases, **nāvis** sometimes in both, **īgnis** sometimes in the Ablative but not in the Accusative, **auris** in neither.

2. Like **tussis** — Acc. **im**, Abl. **ī** — are declined **būris**, *plow-tail;* **sitis**, *thirst*, and in the singular, names of rivers and towns in **is**, with the Genitive in **is**: **Albis**, *the Elbe;* **Tiberis**, *the Tiber;* **Hispalis**, *Seville;* **Neāpolis**, *Naples.*

3. Like **nāvis** — Acc. **im**, **em**, Abl. **ī**, **e** — are declined the feminines **clāvis**, *key;* **febris**, *fever;* **messis**, *harvest;* **pelvis**, *basin;* **puppis**, *stern;* **restis**, *rope;* **secūris**, *axe;* **sēmentis**, *sowing;* **turris**, *tower;* **strigilis**, *strigil.*

Note. — **Araris**, or **Arar**, for **Araris**, *the Saone*, and **Liger**, for **Ligeris**, *the Loire*, have Acc. **im**, **em**, Abl. **ī**, **e**.

4. Like **īgnis** — Acc. **em**, Abl. **ī**, **e** — are declined: **amnis**, *river;* **avis**, *bird;* **bīlis**, *bile;* **cīvis**, *citizen;* **classis**, *fleet;* **collis**, *hill;* **finis**, *end;* **orbis**, *circle;* **postis**, *post;* **unguis**, *nail;* and a few others.

5. Like **auris** — Acc. **em**, Abl. **e** — are declined all nouns in **is**, Gen. **is**, not provided for under 2, 3, and 4, except **canis**, *dog*, and **iuvenis**, *a youth*,

consonant stems which have assumed **i** in the Nominative singular. **Apis**, *bee;* **mēnsis**, *month;* and **volucris**, *bird*, often have **um** for **ium** in the Genitive.

6. Adjectives which have **ī** in the Ablative generally retain **ī** when used substantively, as in the names of months, etc.: **Septembrī**, *in September;* **Octōbrī**, *in October;* **ā familiārī**, *from a friend.* But adjectives used as proper names take **e**: **Iuvenālis**, **Iuvenāle**, *Juvenal.*

103. Stems ending in I. —Neuters in **e**, **al**, and **ar**.

	Cubīle, *couch.*	Animal, *animal.*	Calcar, *spur.*	
		SINGULAR		Case Endings
N. V.	cubīl**e**	animal	calcar	e —
Gen.	cubīl**is**	animāl**is**	calcār**is**	is
Dat.	cubīl**ī**	animāl**ī**	calcār**ī**	ī
Acc.	cubīl**e**	animal	calcar	e —
Abl.	cubīl**ī**	animāl**ī**	calcār**ī**	ī
		PLURAL		
N. V.	cubīl**ia**	animāl**ia**	calcār**ia**	ia
Gen.	cubīl**ium**	animāl**ium**	calcār**ium**	ium
Dat.	cubīl**ibus**	animāl**ibus**	calcār**ibus**	ibus
Acc.	cubīl**ia**	animāl**ia**	calcār**ia**	ia
Abl.	cubīl**ibus**	animāl**ibus**	calcār**ibus**	ibus

1. **Paradigms.** — Observe that the stem ending **i** is changed to **e** in the Nominative, Vocative, and Accusative singular of **cubīle**, and dropped in the same cases of **animal**, for *animāle, and **calcar**, for *calcāre; see **26**, 1, and **40**, 1; and that the case endings include the stem ending **i**.

2. A few nouns have **e** in the Ablative singular, as names of towns in **e**: **Praeneste**; generally **rēte**, *net*, and in poetry sometimes **mare**.

3. Neuters in **ar**, **aris**, with **a** short in the Genitive, are consonant stems: **nectar**, **nectaris**, *nectar.*

III. — CONSONANT AND I-STEMS COMBINED

104. This class of Latin nouns was produced by a fusion of consonant and **i**-stems. It consists of **i**-stems which have lost the final **i** in the singular and of consonant stems which have assumed **i** in the plural.

	For Consonant Stems		For I-Stems	
		SINGULAR		
	Original form	Classical form	Original form	Classical form
N. V.	s	**s**	i-s	**is**
Gen.	es	**is**	—	**is**[2]
Dat.	ai	**ī**	ei	**ī**
Acc.	em	**em**	i-m	**im**[3]
Abl.	i	**e**	i-d	**ī**
		PLURAL		
N. V.	—	**ēs**[1]	ei-es	**ēs**
Gen.	om	**um**	i-om	**ium**
Dat.	—	**ibus**[1]	i-bhos	**ibus**
Acc.	ens	**ēs**	i-ns	**īs**[3]
Abl.	—	**ibus**[1]	i-bhos	**ibus**

NOTE. — In this table observe that consonant stems borrow the endings **ēs** and **ibus** of the Nominative, Dative, and Ablative plural from **i**-stems, and that **i**-stems borrow the ending **is** of the Genitive singular from consonant stems.

5. Neuter nouns have the same case suffixes and endings as masculines and feminines, except in the Nominative and Accusative, where, if consonant stems, they take no suffix in the singular, and the suffix **a**, from an original **ā**, in the plural, and if **i**-stems, they have the ending **e**, from an original **i**, in the singular, and **ia**, from an original **iā**, in the plural.

6. **Early and Rare Endings.** — The following occur:

es and **us** in the Gen. sing.: **salūtes** = **salūtis** ; **hominus** = **hominis**.
e in the Dat. sing.: **aere** = **aerī** ; **Mārte** = **Mārtī**.
īd in the Abl. sing.: **marīd** = **marī**.
e͡is and **īs** in the Nom. plur.: **cīve͡is** and **cīvīs** = **cīvēs**.
e͡is in the Acc. plur.: **cīve͡is** = **cīvēs** or **cīvīs**.

LOCATIVE CASE

108. Many names of towns have a Locative singular in **ī** or **e**, denoting the Place in Which any thing is or is done: **Carthāginī**, or **Carthāgine**, *at Carthage;* **Tiburī**, or **Tibure**, *at Tibur.* In the plural the Locative meaning is expressed by the ending **ibus**: **Gādibus**, *at Gades.*

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[1] Borrowed from **i**-stems.
[2] Borrowed from consonant stems.
[3] But **i**-stems often borrow from consonant stems the endings **em** and **ēs** for **im** and **īs**.

GREEK NOUNS

109. Many Greek nouns of the Third Declension are entirely regular, but some retain certain peculiarities of the Greek, especially the following Greek forms:

1. A Vocative singular like the stem: **Pari-s, Pari; Orpheu-s, Orpheu.**
2. A Genitive singular in **os**: **Pallas, Palladis, Pallados.**
3. An Accusative singular in **a**: **Pallada.**
4. A Nominative plural in **es**: **Arcades.**
5. An Accusative plural in **as**: **Arcadas.**

110. The following examples illustrate these peculiarities:

	Lampas, f., *torch.*	Phryx, m. and f., *Phrygian.*	Hērōs, m., *hero.*
		SINGULAR	
N. V.	lampa**s**	Phry**x**	hērō**s**
Gen.	lampadi**s**, lampado**s**	Phrygi**s**	hērōi**s**
Dat.	lampadī	Phrygī	hērōī
Acc.	lampade**m**, lampada	Phrygе**m**, Phryga,	hērōe**m**, hērō**a**
Abl.	lampade	Phryge	hērōe
		PLURAL	
N. V.	lampadē**s**, lampade**s**	Phrygē**s**, Phryge**s**	hērōē**s**, hērōe**s**
Gen.	lampadu**m**	Phrygu**m**	hērōu**m**
Dat.	lampadi**bus**	Phrygi**bus**	hērōi**bus**
Acc.	lampadē**s**, lampada**s**	Phrygē**s**, Phryga**s**	hērōē**s**, hērō**as**
Abl.	lampadi**bus**	Phrygi**bus**	hērōi**bus**

	Cotys, m.	Paris, m.	Orpheûs, m.
		SINGULAR [1]	
Nom.	Coty**s**	Pari**s**	Orpheû**s**
Voc.	Coty	Pari	Orpheû
Gen.	Coty**is**	Paridi**s**	Orpheī, Orpheo**s**
Dat.	Cotyī	Paridī	Orpheō, Orpheî
Acc.	Coty**m**	Paride**m**, Pari**m**, Pari**n**	Orpheu**m**, Orphe**a**
Abl.	Cotye	Paride, Parī	Orpheō

1. In these paradigms the stems are **lampad, Phryg, hērō, Coty, Parid, Pari,** and **Orpheu.**

[1] As proper names, these words have only the singular in general use.

2. Observe that these paradigms fluctuate in certain cases between the Latin and the Greek forms: **Lampadis, lampados**; **hērōēs, hērōas**; and between different declensions: between Decl. II., **Orphei, Orpheō, Orpheum**, and Decl. III., **Orpheu, Orpheos, Orphei, Orphea.**

3. Greek feminines in **ō** may be declined either with **ūs** in the Genitive and with **ō** in the other cases, as **Dīdō, Dīdūs, Dīdō**, etc., or regularly from the stem in **ōn**, as **Dīdō, Dīdōnis, Dīdōnī, Dīdōnem, Dīdōne.**

4. Nouns in **clēs** are declined as follows: **Periclēs**: Voc. **Periclēs, Periclē**; Gen. **Periclis, Periclī**; Dat. **Periclī**, or **Periclī**; Acc. **Periclem, Periclēn**, or **Periclea**; Abl. **Pericle.**

5. Greek neuters in **a**, Gen. in **atis** or **atos**, often have **īs** for **ibus** in the Dative and Ablative plural, and sometimes **ōrum** for **um** in the Genitive plural: **poēma**, *poem*; **poēmatīs** or **poēmatibus**; **poēmatōrum** or **poēmatum.**

6. **Vocative Singular.** — Greek nouns in **is, ys**, and **eus** generally have the Vocative singular like the stem, as in the paradigms; but those in **ās**, Gen. in **antis**, have the Vocative in **ā**: **Atlās, Atlā.**

7. In the Genitive plural, the ending **ōn** occurs in a few titles of books: **Metamorphōsēs** (title of a poem), **Metamorphōseōn.**

8. In the Dative and Ablative plural the ending **si, sin**, occurs in poetry: **Troadēs, Troasin.**

9. A few neuters used only in the Nominative, Vocative, and Accusative have **os** in the singular and **ē** in the plural: **melos, melē**, *song.*

GENDER AS DETERMINED BY THE ENDINGS OF NOUNS

I. Masculines

111. Nouns of the Third Declension ending in **ō, or, ōs, er**, and **es**, are masculine:

Sermō, *discourse*; **dolor**, *pain*; **mōs**, *custom*; **agger**, *mound*; **gurges**, *whirlpool.*

112. Nouns in **ō** are masculine, except those in **dō** and **gō**, and abstract and collective nouns in **iō**, most of which are feminine; see **116.**

1. **Carō**, *flesh*, and the Greek **Argō** and **ēchō** are feminine.

113. Nouns in **or** and **ōs** are masculine, except

1. The Feminines: **arbor, arbōs**, *tree*; **cōs**, *whetstone*; **dōs**, *dowry.*

2. The Neuters: **ador**, *spelt*; **aequor**, *sea*; **cor**, *heart*; **marmor**, *marble*; **ōs**, *mouth.*

114. Nouns in **er** and **es** are masculine, except

1. The Feminines: **linter**, *boat;* **merges**, *sheaf;* **seges**, *crop;* **teges**, *mat.*

2. The Neuters: **cadāver**, *corpse;* **iter**, *way;* **tūber**, *tumor;* **ūber**, *udder;* a few names of trees and plants in **er**: **acer**, *maple tree;* **papāver**, *poppy.*

NOTE. — **Aes**, *copper*, and **vēr**, *spring*, are neuter.

II. Feminines

115. Nouns of the Third Declension ending in **dō, gō, iō; ās, ēs, is, ūs, ys, x,** and in **s** preceded by a consonant are feminine:

Grandō, *hail;* **orīgō**, *origin;* **ratiō**, *reason;* **cōntiō**, *an assembly;* **aetās**, *age;* **nūbēs**, *cloud;* **nāvis**, *ship;* **virtūs**, *virtue;* **chlamys**, *cloak;* **pāx**, *peace;* **urbs**, *city.*

116. Nouns in **dō** and **gō**, and abstract and collective nouns in **iō**, are feminine, except **cardō**, *hinge;* **ōrdō**, *rank;* **harpagō**, *grappling hook;* **ligō**, *mattock;* **margō**, *border*, which are masculine.

NOTES. — 1. Twenty-five or thirty nouns in **iō**, chiefly denoting material objects, are masculine, as **pugiō**, *poniard;* **ūniō**, *pearl;* **pāpiliō**, *butterfly.*

2. Nouns in **dō, gō**, and **iō** are exceedingly numerous, nearly three hundred in all.

117. Nouns in **ās** and **ēs** are feminine, except

1. The Masculines: **ās**, *the as*, a coin; **acīnacēs**, *scimiter;* **celēs**, *a racer;* **lebēs**, *chaldron;* **māgnēs**, *magnet;* **pariēs**, *wall;* **pēs**, *foot;* **quadrupēs**, *quadruped;* **veprēs**, *thorn bush;* and Greek nouns in **ās**, Gen. in **antis**: **adamās**, *adamant.*

2. The Neuter: **vās**, *vessel.*

NOTE. — Most nouns in **as**, Gen. in **adis**, are feminine, but **dromas**, *dromedary*, and **vas**, *surety*, are masculine.

118. Nouns in **is** are feminine, except the following masculines:

1. Nouns in **nis** and **guis**: **ignis**, *fire;* **sanguis**, *blood.*

2. Nouns in **is**, Gen. in **eris**: **cucumis**, *cucumber;* **pulvis**, *dust;* **vōmis**, *plowshare.*

3. The following:

axis, *axle*	fascis, *bundle*	piscis, *fish*
būris, *plow tail*	fūstis, *cudgel*	postis, *post*
caulis, *stalk*	lapis, *stone*	sentis, *brier*
collis, *hill*	mēnsis, *month*	torris, *brand*
ēnsis, *sword*	orbis, *circle*	vectis, *lever*

4. Sometimes a few other nouns in **is**.

NOTE. — Nouns in **is** are very numerous, nearly one hundred and fifty in all.

119. Nouns in **ūs** and **ys** are feminine, except

1. The Masculines: **mūs**, *mouse*, Greek nouns in **pūs**: **tripūs**, *tripod*, and names of mountains in **ys**: **Othrys**.

2. The Neuters: **crūs**, *leg*; **iūs**, *right*; **pūs**, *pus*; **rūs**, *the country*; **tūs**, *incense*.

NOTE. — **Fraus**, *fraud*, and **laus**, *praise*, are feminine.

120. Nouns in **x** are feminine, except the following masculines:

1. Greek Masculines: **corax**, *raven*; **thōrāx**, *cuirass*.

2. Nouns in **ex**, except the feminines: **forfex**, *shears*; **imbrex**, *hollow tile*; **nex**, *death*; **supellex**, *furniture*.

3. **Calix**, *cup*; **fornix**, *arch*; **phoenīx**, *phoenix*; **trādux**, *vinelayer*, and a few nouns in **yx**.

121. Nouns in **s** preceded by a consonant are feminine, except the following masculines:

1. **Dēns**, *tooth*; **fōns**, *fountain*; **mōns**, *mountain*; **pōns**, *bridge*; generally, **adeps**, *fat*; and **rudēns**, *cable*.

2. Some nouns in **ns**, originally adjectives or participles with a masculine noun understood: **oriēns** (sōl), *east*; **cōnfluēns** (amnis), *confluence*; **tridēns** (rāster), *trident*; **quadrāns** (ās), *quarter*.

3. Sometimes **forceps**, *forceps*; **serpēns**, *serpent*; **stirps**, *stock*.

III. Neuters

122. Nouns of the Third Declension ending in **a**, **e**, **ī**, **y**, **c**, **l**, **n**, **t**, **ar**, **ur**, and **us** are neuter:

Poēma, *poem*; **mare**, *sea*; **sināpī**, *mustard*; **misy**, *kind of mushroom*; **lāc**, *milk*; **animal**, *animal*; **carmen**, *song*; **caput**, *head*; **nectar**, *nectar*; **ebur**, *ivory*; **corpus**, *body*.

123. Nouns in **l**, **n**, and **ar** are neuter, except **mūgil**, *mullet*; **sāl**, *salt*; **sōl**, *sun*; **pecten**, *comb*; **salar**, *trout*, which are masculine.

124. Nouns in **ur** and **us** are neuter, except

1. The Masculines: **furfur**, *bran*; **turtur**, *turtle dove*; **vultur**, *vulture*; **lepus**, *hare*.

2. The Feminine: **pecus** (pecudis), *herd of cattle*.

ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION

125. Adjectives of the Third Declension may be divided into three classes:

I. Those which have in the Nominative singular three different forms — one for each gender: **I**-Stems.

II. Those which have two forms — the masculine and feminine being the same: Consonant and **I**-Stems.

III. Those which have but one form — the same for all genders: Consonant and **I**-Stems.

126. Adjectives of Three Endings in this declension have the stem in **i**, and are declined as follows:

Ācer, ācris, ācre, *sharp.*

SINGULAR

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
N. V.	**ācer**	**ācris**	**ācre**
Gen.	**ācris**	**ācris**	**ācris**
Dat.	**ācrī**	**ācrī**	**ācrī**
Acc.	**ācrem**	**ācrem**	**ācre**
Abl.	**ācrī**	**ācrī**	**ācrī**

PLURAL

N. V.	**ācrēs**	**ācrēs**	**ācria**
Gen.	**ācrium**	**ācrium**	**ācrium**
Dat.	**ācribus**	**ācribus**	**ācribus**
Acc.	**ācrēs, ācrīs**	**ācrēs, ācrīs**	**ācria**
Abl.	**ācribus**	**ācribus**	**ācribus**

1. Here observe that the stem of **ācer, ācris, ācre** is **ācri**, and that the Ablative singular ends in **ī**.

2. Adjectives in **er** of this class are regularly declined like **ācer**, but **celer, celeris, celere**, *swift*, retains the **e** before **r**, and when used as a substantive has **um** in the Genitive plural. **Volucer**, *winged*, sometimes has **um**.

3. In the poets and in early Latin, the form in **er**, as **ācer**, is sometimes feminine, and the form in **is**, as **ācris**, is sometimes masculine.

127. Adjectives of Two Endings are either from **i**-stems or from **s**-stems, and are declined as follows:

	Trīstis, trīste,[1] *sad.*		Trīstior,[1] trīstius, *sadder.*	
		SINGULAR		
	M. and F.	**Neut.**	**M. and F.**	**Neut.**
N. V.	**trīstis**	**trīste**	**trīstior**	**trīstius**
Gen.	**trīstis**	**trīstis**	**trīstiōris**	**trīstiōris**
Dat.	**trīstī**	**trīstī**	**trīstiōrī**	**trīstiōrī**
Acc.	**trīstem**	**trīste**	**trīstiōrem**	**trīstius**
Abl.	**trīstī**	**trīstī**	**trīstiōre (ī)**[2]	**trīstiōre (ī)**[2]
		PLURAL		
N. V.	**trīstēs**	**trīstia**	**trīstiōrēs**	**trīstiōra**
Gen.	**trīstium**	**trīstium**	**trīstiōrum**	**trīstiōrum**
Dat.	**trīstibus**	**trīstibus**	**trīstiōribus**	**trīstiōribus**
Acc.	**trīstēs, trīstīs**	**trīstia**	**trīstiōrēs (īs)**[2]	**trīstiōra**
Abl.	**trīstibus**	**trīstibus**	**trīstiōribus**	**trīstiōribus**

1. Observe that **trīstis** and **trīste** have **ī** in the Ablative singular; that otherwise **trīstis** is declined like **ignis**, and **trīste** like **cubīle (102, 103)**.

2. **Trīstior** is the comparative (**149**) of **trīstis.**

3. Like **trīstior**, comparatives, as consonant stems, generally have the Abl. sing. in **e**, sometimes in **ī**, the Nom. plur. neuter in **a**, and the Gen. plur. in **um**. But the comparative **plūs**, *more*, is declined as follows:

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	M. and F.	**Neut.**	**M. and F.**	**Neut.**
Nom.	—	**plūs**	**plūrēs**	**plūra**
Gen.	—	**plūris**	**plūrium**	**plūrium**
D. Abl.	—	—	**plūribus**	**plūribus**
Acc.	—	**plūs**	**plūrēs**	**plūra**

4. **Complūrēs** is declined like the plural of **plūrēs**, though it admits **complūria** for **complūra** in the neuter.

128. Adjectives of One Ending are declined partly from consonant stems and partly from **i**-stems. Most of them end in **s** or **x**; a few in **l** or **r**.

	Audāx, *audacious.*		Fēlīx, *happy.*	
		SINGULAR		
	M. and F.	**Neut.**	**M. and F.**	**Neut.**
N. V.	**audāx**	**audāx**	**fēlīx**	**fēlīx**
Gen.	**audācis**	**audācis**	**fēlīcis**	**fēlīcis**

[1] Final **i** becomes **e** in **trīste**, and the stem ending **s** becomes **r** between vowels, and finally this **r** usurps the place of **s** in the Nominative masculine. In the neuter Nominative and Accusative, **trīstios** is weakened to **trīstius.**

[2] The forms with the inclosed endings, **trīstiōrī** and **trīstiōrīs**, are very rare.

Dat.	audācī	audācī	fēlicī	fēlicī
Acc.	audācem	audāx	fēlicem	fēlix
Abl.	audācī (e)	audācī (e)	fēlicī (e)	fēlicī (e)
		PLURAL		
N. V.	audācēs	audācia	fēlicēs	fēlicia
Gen.	audācium	audācium	fēlicium	fēlicium
Dat.	audācibus	audācibus	fēlicibus	fēlicibus
Acc.	audācēs (īs)	audācia	fēlicēs (īs)	fēlicia
Abl.	audācibus	audācibus	fēlicibus	fēlicibus

	Amāns, *loving.*		Prūdēns, *prudent.*	
		SINGULAR		
	M. and F.	Neut.	M. and F.	Neut.
N. V.	amāns	amāns	prūdēns	prūdēns
Gen.	amantis	amantis	prūdentis	prūdentis
Dat.	amantī	amantī	prūdentī	prūdentī
Acc.	amantem	amāns	prūdentem	prūdēns
Abl.	amante (ī)	amante (ī)	prūdentī (e)	prūdentī (e)
		PLURAL		
N. V	amantēs	amantia	prūdentēs	prūdentia
Gen.	amantium	amantium	prūdentium	prūdentium
Dat.	amantibus	amantibus	prūdentibus	prūdentibus
Acc.	amantēs (īs)	amantia	prūdentēs (īs)	prūdentia
Abl.	amantibus	amantibus	prūdentibus	prūdentibus

	Vetus, *old.*		Memor, *mindful.*	
		SINGULAR		
	M. and F.	Neut.	M. and F.	Neut.
N. V.	vetus[1]	vetus	memor	memor
Gen.	veteris	veteris	memoris	memoris
Dat.	veterī	veterī	memorī	memorī
Acc.	veterem	vetus	memorem	memor
Abl.	vetere (ī)	vetere (ī)	memorī	memorī
		PLURAL		
N. V.	veterēs	vetera	memorēs	—
Gen.	veterum	veterum	memorum	—
Dat.	veteribus	veteribus	memoribus	—
Acc.	veterēs (īs)	vetera	memorēs (īs)	—
Abl.	veteribus	veteribus	memoribus	—

[1] The stem of vetus, veteris, is vetos, vetes, but the endings os and es are only ablaut forms of the same suffix.

1. The participle **amāns** differs in declension from the adjective **prūdēns** only in the Ablative singular, where the participle usually has the ending **e** and the adjective **ī**. Participles used as adjectives generally have **ī**.

2. A few adjectives have only **e** in general use in the Ablative singular, especially those in **es**, Gen. in **itis** or **idis**: **āles, dēses, dīves, sōspes, superstes,** and **caelebs, compos, impos, pauper, prīnceps, pūbes.**

129. Neuter Plural. — Many adjectives from the nature of their signification are rare in the neuter. Some of these, like **memor,** lack the neuter plural; all others have the ending **ia,** in the Nominative and Accusative, except **ūber, ūbera,** *fertile,* and **vetus, vetera.**

130. Genitive Plural. — Most adjectives of the Third Declension have **ium** in the Genitive plural, but the following have **um**:

1. Adjectives compounded with substantives which have **um**: **inops** (opum), **inopum,** *helpless;* **quadrupēs, quadrupedum,** *four-footed.*

2. Those which have only **e** in the Ablative singular (**128**, 2): **pauper, paupere, pauperum,** *poor;* **sōspes, sōspite, sōspitum,** *safe;* **compos, compote, compotum,** *master of.*

3. Those which have the Genitive in **eris, oris, uris**: **vetus, veterum,** *old;* **memor, memorum,** *mindful;* **cicur, cicurum,** *tame,* and a few others.

4. The poets and late writers often use **um** in words which have **ium** in classical prose.

FOURTH DECLENSION

U-Nouns

131. Nouns of the Fourth Declension end in **us** and **ū**. Those in **us** are masculine, those in ū are neuter. They are declined as follows:

Frūctus, *fruit.* Cornū, *horn.*

		Singular	Case Endings	
N. V.	frūct**us**	corn**ū**	**us**	**ū**
Gen.	frūct**ūs**	corn**ūs**	**ūs**	**ūs**
Dat.	frūct**uī**	corn**ū**	**uī**	**ū**
Acc.	frūct**um**	corn**ū**	**um**	**ū**
Abl.	frūct**ū**	corn**ū**	**ū**	**ū**
		Plural		
N. V.	frūct**ūs**	corn**ua**	**ūs**	**ua**
Gen.	frūct**uum**	corn**uum**	uum	uum
Dat.	frūct**ibus**	corn**ibus**	ibus (ubus)	ibus (ubus)
Acc.	frūct**ūs**	corn**ua**	**ūs**	**ua**
Abl.	frūct**ibus**	corn**ibus**	ibus (ubus)	ibus (ubus)

1. Here the stems are **frūctu** and **cornū**, and the case endings contain the characteristic **u**, weakened to **i** in **ibus**, but retained in **ubus**.

2. A few nouns retain **ubus** in the Dative and Ablative plural: **regularly tribus**, *tribe;* generally **acus**, *needle;* **arcus**, *bow;* **artus**, *joint;* **lacus**, *lake;* **partus**, *birth;* and sometimes **portus**, *harbor;* **specus**, *cave;* **verū**, *spit;* and a few other words.

3. In early Latin the endings **uis**, **uos**, and **ī** occur in the Genitive singular: **frūctuis**, *of fruit;* **senātuos** and **senātī**, *of the senate.* **Senātī** is found even in Cicero. The Genitive in **ī** is common in Plautus and Terence, as **adventī**, **frūctī**, **gemitī**, **quaestī**, etc.

4. A Dative in **ū**, the regular form in nouns in **ū**, also occurs in nouns in **us**, but chiefly in poetry: **frūctū** = **frūctuī**.

5. The following are the original case endings, with the forms which they assume in the classical period:

	SINGULAR			
	Masculine		*Neuter*	
	Original form	**Classical form**	**Original form**	**Classical form**
N. V.	u-s	**us**	u	**ū**[1]
Gen.	eu-s	**ūs**	eu-s	**ūs**
Dat.	u-ai	**uī**[2]	eu	**ū**[2]
Acc.	u-m	**um**	u	**ū**[1]
Abl.	ū-d[3]	**ū**	ū-d[3]	**ū**
	PLURAL			
N. V.	eu-es, ou-es	**ūs**	u-ā	**ua**
Gen.	u-om	**uum**	u-om	**uum**
Dat.	u-bhos	**ubus, ibus**	u-bhos	**ubus, ibus**
Acc.	u-ns	**ūs**	u-ā	**ua**
Abl.	u-bhos	**ubus, ibus**	u-bhos	**ubus, ibus**

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER

132. The following nouns in **us** are feminine: **acus**, *needle;* **colus**, *distaff;* **domus**, *house;* **Īdūs**, *Ides;* **manus**, *hand;* **porticus**, *portico;* **quīnquātrūs**, *feast of Minerva;* **tribus**, *tribe.*

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[1] The **ū** in the Nom. and Acc. of neuters is of uncertain origin, perhaps a plural or dual formation.

[2] The Dative in **ū**, used both as masculine and as neuter, is in origin a Locative formation.

[3] The ending **ū-d**, from which **ū** was derived, was not inherited, but was formed after the analogy of the Ablative ending **ō-d** from **o** stems, as in **Gnaiv-ō-d**.

1. The only neuter nouns in common use are **cornū, genū,** and **verū,** but neuter forms are sometimes found in certain cases of other words, as **artua** from **artus.**

133. Second and Fourth Declensions. — Some nouns are partly of the Fourth Declension and partly of the Second.

1. **Domus,** f., *house,* has a Locative, **domī,** *at home,* and is otherwise declined as follows:

	Singular	Plural
N. V.	domus	domūs
Gen.	domūs	domuum, domŏrum
Dat.	domuī, domŏ	domĭbus
Acc.	domŭm	domūs, domŏs
Abl.	domū, domŏ	domĭbus

2. Certain names of trees in **us,** as **cupressus, fīcus, laurus, pīnus,** though generally of the Second Declension, sometimes take those cases of the Fourth which end in **ūs, us,** and **ū**: N. V. **laurus**; Gen. **laurī, laurūs**; Dat. **laurŏ**; Acc. **laurum**; Abl. **laurŏ, laurū,** etc. So also **colus,** *distaff.* **Quercus,** *oak,* regularly of the Fourth Declension, has **querĕtum** in the Gen. plur.

FIFTH DECLENSION

E-Nouns

134. Nouns of the Fifth Declension end in **ēs** and are feminine. They are declined as follows:

Diēs, *day.* Rēs, *thing.*

	Singular		Case Endings
N. V.	diēs	rēs	ēs
Gen.	diēī	rĕī	ēī
Dat.	diēī	rĕī	ēī
Acc.	diem	rem	em
Abl.	diē	rē	ē
	Plural		
N. V.	diēs	rēs	ēs
Gen.	diērum	rērum	ērum
Dat.	diēbus	rēbus	ēbus
Acc.	diēs	rēs	ēs
Abl.	diēbus	rēbus	ēbus

1. The case endings here given contain the characteristic **ē**, which appears in all the cases. It is shortened generally in the ending **ēī**, when preceded by a consonant, and regularly in the ending **em**.

2. The Genitive and Dative singular sometimes end in **ē**, and sometimes, though rarely, in **ī** for **ēī**, chiefly in poetry: **aciē**,[1] **diē**, **fidē**, **diī**, **faciī**.[1]

NOTE. — These forms in **ē** are Locatives in origin, and they have retained their original Locative meaning in a few phrases found in early Latin, as **diē septimī**, *on the seventh day*; **diē crāstinī**, *on the morrow*. **Cottidiē**, **hodiē**, **prīdiē**, and the like are doubtless Locatives in origin.

3. In early Latin the Genitive sometimes ends in **ēs**: **diēs**, *of a day*.

4. **Diēs** and **rēs** are the only nouns in this declension complete in all their parts. In other nouns the plural forms, especially the Genitive, Dative, and Ablative, are rare in the best writers.

5. The following are the original case endings with the forms which they assume in the classical period:

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	Original form	**Classical form**	**Original form**	**Classical form**
N. V.	ē-s	**ēs**	ē-es	**ēs**
Gen.	ē-s, ē-ī	**ēs, ēī**	ē-som	**ērum**
Dat.	ē-ai	**ēī**	ē-bhos	**ēbus**
Acc.	ē-m	**em**	ē-ns	**ēs**
Abl.	ē-d[2]	**ē**	ē-bhos	**ēbus**

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER

135. **Diēs**, *day*, and **meridiēs**, *mid-day*, are masculine, though **diēs** is sometimes feminine in the singular, especially when it means a definite or fixed time.

136. GENERAL TABLE OF GENDER

1. Gender independent of endings; common to all declensions.[3]

Masculine	**Feminine**	**Neuter**
Names of Males, of Rivers, Winds, and Months	Names of Females, of Countries, Towns, Islands, and Trees	Indeclinable Nouns, Infinitives, and Clauses used as Nouns

[1] **Aciē**, Gen. and Dat. of **aciēs**, *a sharp edge*; **faciī**, of **faciēs**, *appearance*.
[2] The primitive ending was probably **ēd**, though only **ē** is found.
[3] For exceptions, see **68**, 1; **69**, 1.

2. Gender determined by Nominative ending.[1]

Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
First Declension		
ās, ēs	**a, ē**	**—**
Second Declension		
er, ir, us, os, ōs	**—**	**um, on**
Third Declension		
ō, or, ōs, er, es, except **dō, gō,** and **iō**	**dō, gō, iō; ās, ēs, is, ūs, ys, x, s** preceded by a consonant	**a, e, ī, y, c, l, n, t, ar, ur, us**
Fourth Declension		
us	**—**	**ū**
Fifth Declension		
—	**ēs**	**—**

INDECLINABLE NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

137. A very few nouns and adjectives are indeclinable, having but one form for all cases. The following are the most important:

1. The letters of the alphabet, **a, b, c, alpha, bēta,** etc.

2. **Fās,** *right;* **nefās,** *wrong;* **nihil,** *nothing;* **īnstar,** *likeness;* **māne,** *morning.*[2]

3. A very few adjectives: **frūgī,** *frugal, good;* **nēquam,** *worthless;* **mīlle,** *thousand;* **potis,** *able.*

DEFECTIVE NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

138. Many nouns, from the nature of their meaning, are used chiefly in the singular. To these belong

1. The names of Persons and many names of Places: **Cicerō, Caesar, Rōma,** *Rome;* **Graecia,** *Greece;* but Proper names admit the plural to designate Families or Classes: **Scīpiōnēs,** *the Scipios;* **Caesarēs,** *the Caesars.*

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[1] For exceptions, see under the several declensions.

[2] But these nouns are not only indeclinable, but also defective, as they are regularly used only in the Nominative and Accusative singular, though **māne** also occurs as a Locative Ablative.

2. Most Abstract nouns: **fidēs**, *faith;* **iūstitia**, *justice;* but many abstract nouns admit the plural to designate instances, or kinds of the quality: **avāritiae**, *instances of avarice;* **odia**, *hatreds.* In the poets the plural is often used in the sense of the singular.

3. The names of Materials: **aurum**, *gold;* **ferrum**, *iron;* but the plural may be used to designate pieces of the material, or articles made of it; **aera**, *vessels of copper.*

4. A few special nouns: **meridiēs**, *mid-day;* **specimen**, *example;* **supellex**, *furniture;* **vēr**, *spring;* **vespera**, *evening*, etc.

139. Many nouns, from the nature of their meaning, are used only in the plural. To these belong

1. Certain Personal Appellatives applicable to Classes: **māiōrēs**, *forefathers;* **posterī**, *descendants;* **geminī**, *twins;* **līberī**, *children.* An individual member of such a class may be denoted by **ūnus ex** with the plural: **ūnus ex līberīs**, *one of the children*, or *a child.*

2. Many names of Cities: **Athēnae**, *Athens;* **Thēbae**, *Thebes;* **Delphī**, *Delphi.*

3. Many names of Festivals: **Bacchānālia**, *the Bacchanalian Festival;* **Olympia**, *the Olympian Games.* Here the plural may refer to the various games and exercises which together constituted the festival.

4. Certain special nouns: **arma**, *arms;* **dīvitiae**, *riches;* **exsequiae**, *rites;* **exuviae**, *spoils;* **Īdūs**, *Ides;* **indūtiae**, *truce;* **īnsidiae**, *ambuscade;* **mānēs**, *shades of the dead;* **minae**, *threats;* **moenia**, *walls;* **mūnia**, *duties;* **nūptiae**, *nuptials;* **reliquiae**, *remains.*

140. Plural with Change of Meaning. — Some nouns have one signification in the singular and another in the plural. Thus:

aedēs, *temple*	aedēs, (1) *temples*, (2) *a house*[1]
auxilium, *help*	auxilia, *auxiliaries*
carcer, *prison, barrier*	carcerēs, *barriers of a race course*
castrum, *castle, hut*	castra, *camp*
comitium, *place of assembly*	comitia, *the assembly held in the comitium*
cōpia, *plenty, force*	cōpiae, (1) *stores*, (2) *troops*
facultās, *ability*	facultātēs, *wealth, means*
fīnis, *end*	fīnēs, *borders, territory*
fortūna, *fortune*	fortūnae, *possessions, wealth*
grātia, *gratitude, favor*	grātiae, *thanks*
hortus, *garden*	hortī, (1) *gardens*, (2) *park*

[1] **Aedēs** and some other words in this list, it will be observed, have in the plural two significations, one corresponding to that of the singular, and the other distinct from it.

impedīmentum, *hindrance*	impedīmenta, (1) *hindrances*, (2) *baggage*
littera, *letter of alphabet*	litterae, (1) *letters of the alphabet*, (2) *epistle, writing, letters, literature*
lūdus, *play, sport*	lūdī, (1) *plays*, (2) *public spectacle*
mōs, *custom*	mōrēs, *manners, character*
nātālis (diēs), *birthday*	nātālēs, *pedigree, parentage*
opera, *work, service*	operae, *workmen*
pars, *part*	partēs, (1) *parts*, (2) *a party*
rōstrum, *beak of ship*	rōstra, (1) *beaks*, (2) *the rostra or tribune*
sāl, *salt*	salēs, *witty sayings*

141. Many nouns, entire in the singular, lack certain forms of the plural. Thus:

1. Most nouns of the Fifth Declension, a few of the Fourth, and several monosyllabic neuters of the Third, are seldom, if ever, used in the Genitive, Dative, or Ablative plural: **aciēs**, *sharpness;* **effigiēs**, *likeness;* **speciēs**, *appearance*, etc.; **metus**, *fear;* **situs**, *situation*, etc.; **fār**, *corn;* **fel**, *gall;* **mel**, *honey*, etc.

2. Many nouns, especially monosyllables, otherwise entire, lack the Genitive plural: **nex**, *death;* **pāx**, *peace;* **pix**, *pitch;* **cor**, *heart;* **cōs**, *whetstone;* **sāl**, *salt;* **sōl**, *sun;* **lūx**, *light.*

142. Some nouns, entire in the plural, lack certain forms of the singular. The following are the most important:

N. V.	Gen.	Dat.	Acc.	Abl.	Meaning
—	opis	—	opem	ope	*help*
—	vicis[1]	—	vicem	vice	*change*
—	—	precī	precem	prece	*prayer*
—	dapis[1]	dapī	dapem	dape	*food*
—	frūgis	frūgī	frūgem	frūge	*fruit*

143. A few nouns are used only in certain cases of the singular:

N. V.	Gen.	Dat.	Acc.	Abl.	Meaning
fors	—	—	—	forte	*chance*
luēs	—	—	luem	lue	*pestilence*

1. A few verbal nouns in **ū**, and a few others, have only the Ablative singular in general use: **iussū**, *by order;* **mandātū**, *by command;* **rogātū**, *by request;* **sponte**, *by choice*, etc.

144. **Defective Adjectives.** — A few adjectives, from the nature of their meaning, are used chiefly in the plural, while others lack the Nomi-

[1] Defective also in the Genitive plural.

native singular, or at least the masculine form of the Nominative singular: **complūrēs**, *several;* **paucī**, *few;* **plērīque**, *most;* (cēterus), **cētera, cēterum**, *the other, the rest;* (lūdicer), **lūdicra, lūdicrum**, *sportive;* (sōns), **sontis**, *guilty;* (sēminex), **sēminecis**, *half dead.* The inclosed forms are not in good use.

HETEROCLITES

145. A few nouns, called Heteroclites (heteroclita)[1] are partly of one declension and partly of another.

1. Of the Second and Fourth Declensions are a few nouns in **us**: **domus**, *house;* **laurus**, *laurel tree*, etc.; see **133**, 1 and 2.

2. Of the Second and Third Declensions are **iūgerum**, *an acre*, generally of the Second Declension in the singular, and of the Third in the plural: **iūgerum, iūgerī**; plural, **iūgera, iūgerum**: **vās**, *a vessel*, of the Third Declension in the singular, and of the Second in the plural: **vās, vāsis**; plural, **vāsa, vāsōrum.**

NOTE. — Plural names of Festivals in **ālia**, as **Bacchānālia, Sāturnālia**, regularly of the Third Declension, sometimes have the Genitive plural in **ōrum**. **Ancīle**, *a shield*, and a few other words, have the same peculiarity.

3. Of the Third and Fifth Declensions are **requiēs**, *rest*, not used in the plural or in the Dative singular, but having in the other oblique cases the forms both of the Third and of the Fifth Declension; and **famēs**, *hunger*, regularly of the Third Declension, but with **famē** in the Ablative.

4. Many nouns of four syllables have one form in **ia** of the First Declension, and one in **iēs** of the Fifth Declension: **lūxuria, lūxuriēs**, *luxury;* **māteria, māteriēs**, *material.*

5. Many Verbal nouns have one form in **us** of the Fourth Declension, and one in **um** of the Second Declension: **cōnātus, cōnātum**, *attempt;* **ēventus, ēventum**, *event.*

6. Many nouns have only one approved form in the best prose, but admit another in poetry and in post-Augustan writers: **iuventūs** (ūtis), *youth;* poetic, **iuventa** (ae): **senectūs** (ūtis), *old age;* poetic, **senecta** (ae): **paupertās** (ātis), *poverty;* poetic, **pauperiēs** (ēi).

146. Many adjectives have two distinct forms, one in **us, a, um**, of the First and Second Declensions, and one in **is** and **e**, of the Third: **hilarus** and **hilaris**, *joyful;* **exanimus** and **exanimis**, *lifeless.*

[1] From ἕτερος, *another*, and κλίσις, *inflection*, i.e. of different declensions.

HETEROGENEOUS NOUNS

147. Heterogeneous (heterogenea[1]) Nouns are partly of one gender and partly of another. Thus:

1. Some Masculines take in the plural an additional form of the neuter gender: **iocus**, m., *jest;* plural, **iocī**, m., **ioca**, n.: **locus**, m., *place;* plural, **locī**, m., *topics*, **loca**, n., *places.*

2. Some Feminines take in the plural an additional form of the neuter gender: **carbasus**, f., *linen;* plural, **carbasī**, f., **carbasa**, n.: **margarīta**, f., *pearl;* plural, **margarītae**, f., **margarīta**, n.: **ostrea**, f., *oyster;* plural, **ostreae**, f., **ostrea**, n.

3. Some Neuters become masculine in the plural: **caelum**, n., *heaven;* plural, **caelī**, m.

4. Some Neuters generally become masculine, but sometimes remain neuter: **frēnum**, n., *bridle;* plural, **frēnī**, m.; **frēna**, n.: **rāstrum**, n., *rake;* plural, **rāstrī**, m.; **rāstra**, n.

5. Some Neuters become feminine in the plural: **epulum**, n., *feast;* plural, **epulae**, f.

NOTE. — Some heterogeneous nouns are also heteroclites, as **epulum, epulae**, just given.

148. Some nouns of the Second Declension have one form in **us**, masculine, and one in **um**, neuter: **clipeus, clipeum**, *shield;* **commentārius, commentārium**, *commentary.*

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

149. Adjectives have three forms, called the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative: **altus, altior, altissimus**, *high, higher, highest.* These forms denote different degrees of the quality expressed by the adjective.

150. The Latin, like the English, has two modes of comparison.

I. Terminational Comparison — by endings.

II. Adverbial Comparison — by the adverbs **magis**, *more*, and **māximē**, *most.*

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[1] From ἕτερος, *another*, and γένος, *gender*, i.e. of different genders.

I. Terminational Comparison

151. Adjectives and participles used as adjectives are regularly compared by adding to the stem of the positive, stripped of its final vowel, the following

ENDINGS OF COMPARISON

	COMPARATIVE		SUPERLATIVE		
	M. and F. **ior**	Neut. **ius**	Masc. **issimus**	Fem. **issima**	Neut. **issimum**[1]
altus, *high,*	altior, *higher,* or *too high*	altius,	altissimus, *highest,* or *very high*	altissima,	altissimum
dūrus, *hard,*	dūrior, *harder*	dūrius,	dūrissimus, *hardest*	dūrissima,	dūrissimum
levis, *light,*	levior, *lighter*	levius,	levissimus, *lightest*	levissima,	levissimum
amāns, *loving,*	amantior, *more loving*	amantius,	amantissimus, *most loving*	amantissima,	amantissimum

152. Irregular Superlatives. — Many adjectives with regular comparatives have irregular superlatives. Thus:

1. Adjectives in **er** add **rimus** to this ending:[2]

ācer,	ācrior,	ācerrimus,	*sharp,*	*sharper,*	*sharpest*
asper,	asperior,	asperrimus,	*rough,*	*rougher,*	*roughest*
celer,	celerior,	celerrimus,	*swift,*	*swifter,*	*swiftest*

2. But note the following:

dexter,	*right, on the right,*	dexterior,	dextimus
mātūrus,	*mature,*	mātūrior,	mātūrissimus, mātūrrimus

3. Six adjectives in **ilis** add **limus** to the stem, stripped of its final vowel:[3]

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[1] The Latin has three different superlative suffixes: (1) **mus**, seen in **summus**, *highest;* (2) **timus**, seen in **ci-timus**, *nearest;* **op-timus**, *best;* and (3) **is-simus**, the usual suffix, compounded of **is**, the weak form of the comparative suffix, **ios**, **ior**, and **simus**, of uncertain origin, but probably a new formation after the analogy of certain words in **simus**, as **pes-simus**, *worst;* **plū-rimus** for *plū-simus, *most;* **māximus** for *mag-simus, *greatest;* **vicē-simus**, *twentieth;* **trīcē-simus**, *thirtieth.*

[2] The suffix **rimus** is from **is**, the comparative suffix, and **mus**, **imus**, the superlative suffix: *ācr-is-imus, which becomes *ācer-s-imus, **ācer-rimus**; **r** is vocalized, **er**; **i** is dropped and **s** is assimilated to the preceding **r**; see **54**, 2.

[3] The suffix **limus**, like **rimus**, is from **is-imus**: *facil-is-imus, *facil-s-imus, **facil-limus**, **s** assimilated to a preceding **l**; see **54**, 2.

facilis,	facilior,	facillimus,	*easy*,	*easier*,	*easiest*
difficilis,	difficilior,	difficillimus,	*difficult*,	*more difficult*,	*most*, etc.
similis,	similior,	simillimus,	*like*,	*more like*,	*most like*
dissimilis,	dissimilior,	dissimillimus,	*unlike*,	*more unlike*,	*most*, etc.
gracilis,	gracilior,	gracillimus,	*slender*,	*more slender*,	*most*, etc.
humilis,	humilior,	humillimus,	*low*,	*lower*,	*lowest*

153. Compounds of **dicus** and **volus** form their comparatives and superlatives from the corresponding participial stems, **dīcent** and **volent**, and compounds of **ficus** sometimes follow their analogy:

maledicus,	maledīcēns,	*slanderous*,	maledīcentior,	maledīcentissimus
benevolus,	benevolēns,	*benevolent*,	benevolentior,	benevolentissimus
honōrificus,		*honorable*,	honōrificentior,	honōrificentissimus

NOTE. — **Maledīcēns** and **benevolēns** are found in early Latin.

154. Special irregularities of comparison sometimes arise from the use of different stems:

bonus,	melior,	optimus,	*good*,	*better*,	*best*
malus,	pēior,	pessimus,	*bad*,	*worse*,	*worst*
māgnus,	māior,	māximus,	*great*,	*greater*,	*greatest*
parvus,	minor,	minimus,	*small*,	*smaller*,	*smallest*

1. Here belongs **multus**, which lacks the comparative in the masculine and feminine singular:

multus,	—,	plūrimus,	*much*,	*more*,	*most*
multa,	—,	plūrima,			
multum,	plūs,	plūrimum,			

2. Note also:

frūgī,	frūgālior,	frūgālissimus,	*frugal*,	*more frugal*,	*most frugal*
nēquam,	nēquior,	nēquissimus,	*worthless*,	*more worthless*,	*most worthless*

DEFECTIVE COMPARISON

155. In a few adjectives the Positive is either entirely wanting, or used only in special constructions:

1. Positive wanting:

citerior,	citimus,	*on this side, near*,	*nearest*
dēterior,	dēterrimus,	*worse*,	*worst*
interior,	intimus,	*inner*,	*inmost*
ōcior,	ōcissimus,	*swifter*,	*swiftest*
prior,	prīmus,	*former*,	*first*
propior,	proximus,	*nearer*,	*nearest*
ulterior,	ultimus,	*farther*,	*farthest*

2. Positive used only in special constructions:

(exterus),[1]	**exterior,**	**extrēmus,** and **extimus,**	*outer,*	*outermost*
(īnferus),[2]	**īnferior,**	**īnfimus,** and **īmus,**	*lower,*	*lowest*
(posterus),[3]	**posterior,**	**postrēmus,** and **postumus,**[4]	*later,*	*last, last-born*
(superus),[2]	**superior,**	**suprēmus,** and **summus,**	*higher,*	*highest*

156. A few adjectives lack the Comparative:

dīversus,	—,	**dīversissimus,**	*diverse,*	*most diverse*
falsus,	—,	**falsissimus,**	*false,*	*most false*
inclutus,	—,	**inclutissimus,**	*renowned,*	*most renowned*
invītus,	—,	**invītissimus,**	*unwilling,*	*most unwilling*
meritus,	—,	**meritissimus,**	*deserving,*	*most deserving*
novus,	—,[5]	**novissimus,**	*new,*	*last*
sacer,	—,[6]	**sacerrimus,**	*sacred,*	*most sacred*
vetus,	—,[6]	**veterrimus,**	*old,*	*oldest*

157. Many adjectives lack the Superlative:

1. Many verbals in **ilis** and **bilis**:

agilis,	**agilior,**	—,	*agile,*	*more agile*
docilis,	**docilior,**	—,	*docile,*	*more docile*
laudābilis,	**laudābilior,**	—,	*laudable,*	*more laudable*
optābilis,	**optābilior,**	—,	*desirable,*	*more desirable*

2. A few special adjectives:

alacer,	**alacrior,**	—,	*active,*	*more active*
diūturnus,	**diūturnior,**	—,	*lasting,*	*more lasting*
longinquus,	**longinquior,**	—,	*distant,*	*more distant*
prōclīvis,	**prōclīvior,**	—,	*prone,*	*more prone*
prōnus,	**prōnior,**	—,	*inclined,*	*more inclined*
propinquus,	**propinquior,**	—,	*near,*	*nearer*
salūtāris,	**salūtārior,**	—,	*salutary,*	*more salutary*

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[1] **Nātiōnēs exterae,** *foreign peoples,* occurs in classical prose.

[2] **Omnia supera, īnfera,** *all things above and below;* and **ad superōs,** *to those above,* and **ad īnferōs,** *to those below,* occur in classical prose.

[3] **Posterus** occurs in a few expressions of time, **posterō diē,** *on the following day;* **in posterum diem,** *for the next day;* **in posterum,** *for the future.* Note also **posterī,** *descendants.*

[4] **Postumus** means *late born,* or *last born.*

[5] The comparative of **novus** is supplied by **recentior,** from **recēns,** and the superlative, in the sense of *newest,* by **recentissimus.**

[6] The comparative of **sacer** is supplied by **sānctior,** from **sānctus,** and that of **vetus** by **vetustior,** from **vetustus.**

158. Three adjectives supply the Superlative as follows:

adulēscēns,	adulēscentior,	**minimus nātū,**	*young,*	*younger,*	*youngest*
iuvenis,	iūnior,	**minimus nātū,**	*young,*	*younger,*	*youngest*
senex,	senior,	**māximus nātū,**	*old,*	*older,*	*oldest*

II. Adverbial Comparison — by the Adverbs **magis** and **māximē**

159. Most adjectives in **eus, ius,** and **uus,** except those in **quus,** are compared by prefixing to the positive the adverbs **magis,** *more,* and **māximē,** *most:*

idōneus,	**magis** idōneus,	**māximē** idōneus,[1]
suitable	*more suitable*	*most suitable*
necessārius,	**magis** necessārius,	**māximē** necessārius,
necessary	*more necessary*	*most necessary*
arduus,	**magis** arduus,	**māximē** arduus,
arduous	*more arduous*	*most arduous*

1. Other adverbs are sometimes used with the positive to denote different degrees of the quality: **admodum, valdē, oppidō,** *very;* **imprīmis,** or **in prīmīs, apprīmē,** *in the highest degree.* **Per** and **prae** in composition with adjectives have the force of *very;* **perdifficilis,** *very difficult;* **praeclārus,** *very illustrious.*

2. Strengthening particles are also sometimes used: with the comparative **etiam,** *even,* **multō, longē,** *much, far;* **etiam dīligentior,** *even more diligent;* **multō dīligentior,** *much more diligent:* with the superlative **multō, longē,** *much, by far,* **quam,** *as possible:* **multō** or **longē dīligentissimus,** *by far the most diligent;* **quam dīligentissimus,** *as diligent as possible.*

ADJECTIVES WITHOUT COMPARISON

160. Many adjectives, from the nature of their signification, are rarely, if ever, compared, especially such as denote Material, Color, Possession, or the relations of Time and Place:

aureus, *golden*	ferreus, *of iron*	albus, *white*
flāvus, *yellow*	māternus, *of a mother*	paternus, *of a father*
Rōmānus, *Roman*	aestīvus, *of summer*	sempiternus, *eternal*

[1] Observe that this adverbial comparison by means of **magis** and **māximē** corresponds exactly to the English adverbial comparison by means of *more* and *most.*

NUMERALS

161. Numerals comprise Numeral Adjectives and Numeral Adverbs.

162. Numeral Adjectives comprise three principal classes:

1. Cardinal Numbers: **ūnus**, *one;* **duo**, *two;* **trēs**, *three.*
2. Ordinal Numbers: **prīmus**, *first;* **secundus**, *second;* **tertius**, *third.*
3. Distributives: **singulī**, *one by one;* **bīnī**, *two by two, two each, two apiece.*

NOTE. — To these may be added

1. Multiplicatives, adjectives in **plex**, Gen. **plicis**, denoting so many fold: **simplex**, *single;* **duplex**, *double;* **triplex**, *threefold;* **quadruplex**, *fourfold.*

2. Proportionals, declined like **bonus**, and denoting so many times as great: **duplus**, *twice as great;* **triplus**, *three times as great.*

163. TABLE OF NUMERAL ADJECTIVES

	Cardinals	Ordinals	Distributives
1.	ūnus, ūna, ūnum	prīmus, *first*	singulī,[1] *one by one*
2.	duo, duae, duo	secundus,[2] *second*	bīnī, *two by two*
3.	trēs, tria	tertius, *third*	ternī *or* trīnī
4.	quattuor	quārtus, *fourth*	quaternī
5.	quīnque	quīntus, *fifth*	quīnī
6.	sex	sextus	sēnī
7.	septem	septimus	septēnī
8.	octō	octāvus	octōnī
9.	novem	nōnus	novēnī
10.	decem	decimus	dēnī
11.	ūndecim	ūndecimus	ūndēnī
12.	duodecim	duodecimus	duodēnī
13.	tredecim[3]	tertius decimus[4]	ternī dēnī
14.	quattuordecim	quārtus decimus	quaternī dēnī
15.	quīndecim	quīntus decimus	quīnī dēnī
16.	sēdecim[3]	sextus decimus	sēnī dēnī
17.	septendecim	septimus decimus	septēnī dēnī

[1] Distributives, **singulī**, **bīnī**, etc., are adjectives, used only in the plural. They are declined like the plural of **bonus**: **singulī**, **singulae**, **singula.**

[2] **Alter** is often used for **secundus.**

[3] Sometimes with the parts separated: **decem et trēs**, etc.

[4] **Decimus**, with or without **et**, may precede: **decimus et tertius** or **decimus tertius.**

18.	duodēvīgintī[1]	duodēvīcēsimus[2]	duodēvīcēnī[3]
19.	ūndēvīgintī[1]	ūndēvīcēsimus[2]	ūndēvīcēnī[3]
20.	vīgintī	vīcēsimus	vīcēnī
21.	vīgintī ūnus ūnus et vīgintī[4]	vīcēsimus prīmus ūnus et vīcēsimus[4]	vīcēnī singulī singulī et vīcēnī[5]
22.	vīgintī duo duo et vīgintī	vīcēsimus secundus alter et vīcēsimus	vīcēnī bīnī bīnī et vīcēnī
28.	duodētrīgintā	duodētrīcēsimus	duodētrīcēnī
29.	ūndētrīgintā	ūndētrīcēsimus	ūndētrīcēnī
30.	trīgintā	trīcēsimus	trīcēnī
40.	quadrāgintā	quadrāgēsimus	quadrāgēnī
50.	quīnquāgintā	quīnquāgēsimus	quīnquāgēnī
60.	sexāgintā	sexāgēsimus	sexāgēnī
70.	septuāgintā	septuāgēsimus	septuāgēnī
80.	octōgintā	octōgēsimus	octōgēnī
90.	nōnāgintā	nōnāgēsimus	nōnāgēnī
100.	centum	centēsimus	centēnī
101.	centum ūnus centum et ūnus[6]	centēsimus prīmus centēsimus et prīmus	centēnī singulī centēnī et singulī
200.	ducentī, ae, a	ducentēsimus	ducēnī
300.	trecentī	trecentēsimus	trecēnī
400.	quadringentī	quadringentēsimus	quadringēnī
500.	quīngentī	quīngentēsimus	quīngēnī
600.	sēscentī	sēscentēsimus	sēscēnī
700.	septingentī	septingentēsimus	septingēnī
800.	octingentī	octingentēsimus	octingēnī
900.	nōngentī	nōngentēsimus	nōngēnī
1,000.	mīlle	mīllēsimus	singula mīlia[7]
2,000.	duo mīlia[7]	bis mīllēsimus	bīna mīlia
100,000.	centum mīlia	centiēs mīllēsimus	centēna mīlia
1,000,000.	deciēs centēna mīlia[8]	deciēs centiēs mīllēsimus	deciēs centēna mīlia

[1] Literally *two from twenty*, *one from twenty*, by subtraction; but these numbers may be expressed by addition: **decem et octō**; **decem et novem** or **decem novem**: so 28, 29; 38, 39, etc., either by subtraction from **trīgintā**, etc., or by addition to **vīgintī**, etc.

[2] Sometimes expressed by addition: **octāvus decimus**; **nōnus decimus.**

[3] Sometimes **octōnī dēnī**; **novēnī dēnī.**

[4] If tens precede the units, **et** is omitted, otherwise it is generally used. So in English cardinals, twenty-one, one and twenty.

[5] Sometimes **vīcēnī et singulī** or **singulī vīcēnī.**

[6] In compounding numbers above 100, units generally follow tens, tens hundreds etc., as in English; but the connective **et** is either omitted, or used only between the two highest denominations: **mīlle centum vīgintī** or **mīlle et centum vīgintī**, 1120.

[7] Often written **mīllia.** For **duo mīlia, bīna mīlia** or **bis mīlle** is sometimes used.

[8] Literally, *ten times a hundred thousand;* the table might be carried up to any desired number by using the proper numeral adverb with **centēna mīlia**: **centiēs centēna mīlia**, 10,000,000; sometimes in such combinations **centēna mīlia** is understood, and the adverb only is expressed, and sometimes **centum mīlia** is used.

1. Poets use numeral adverbs (171) very freely in compounding numbers: **bis sex**, for **duodecim**; **bis septem**, for **quattuordecim**.

2. **Sēscentī** and **mīlle**, and in poetry **centum**, are sometimes used indefinitely for any large number, as *thousand* is used in English.

164. Distributives are used

1. To show the Number of objects taken at a time, often best rendered by adding to the cardinal *each* or *apiece:* **ternos dēnāriōs accēpērunt**, *they received each three denarii*, or *three apiece.* Hence

2. To express Multiplication: **deciēs centēna mīlia**, *ten times a hundred thousand, a million.*

3. Instead of Cardinals, with nouns plural in form, but singular in sense: **bīna castra**, *two camps.* Here for **singulī** and **ternī**, **ūnī** and **trīnī** are used: **ūnae litterae**, *one letter;* **trīnae litterae**, *three letters.*

4. Sometimes of objects spoken of in pairs: **bīnī scyphī**, *a pair of goblets;* and in the poets with the force of cardinals: **bīna hastīlia**, *two spears.*

165. In fractions the numerator is expressed by cardinals and the denominator by ordinals, with or without **pars**, as in English: **duae tertiae**, *two thirds* = $\frac{2}{3}$; **trēs quīntae**, *three fifths* = $\frac{3}{5}$; **trēs septimae**, *three sevenths* = $\frac{3}{7}$.

1. When the numerator is omitted, it is always one. Then **pars** is generally expressed: **tertia pars**, *one third part* = $\frac{1}{3}$; **quarta pars**, *one fourth part* = $\frac{1}{4}$.

2. When the denominator is omitted, it is always larger than the numerator by one. Here **partēs** is expressed: **duae partēs**, *two thirds* = $\frac{2}{3}$; **trēs partēs**, *three fourths* = $\frac{3}{4}$.

Declension of Numeral Adjectives

166. Ūnus, duo, and **trēs** are declined as follows:[1]

Ūnus, *one.*

	Singular			Plural		
	Masc.	**Fem.**	**Neut.**	**Masc.**	**Fem.**	**Neut.**
Nom.	**ūnus**	**ūna**	**ūnum**	**ūnī**	**ūnae**	**ūna**
Gen.	**ūnīus**	**ūnīus**	**ūnīus**	**ūnōrum**	**ūnārum**	**ūnōrum**
Dat.	**ūnī**	**ūnī**	**ūnī**	**ūnīs**	**ūnīs**	**ūnīs**
Acc.	**ūnum**	**ūnam**	**ūnum**	**ūnōs**	**ūnās**	**ūna**
Abl.	**ūnō**	**ūnā**	**ūnō**	**ūnīs**	**ūnīs**	**ūnīs**

[1] The Vocative of these numerals seems not to be in use, though the Roman grammarians make mention of **ūne**, **ūnī**, and **trēs** as vocatives.

	Duo, *two.*			Trēs, *three.*	
	Masc.	**Fem.**	**Neut.**	**M. and F.**	**Neut.**
Nom.	**duo**	**duae**	**duo**[1]	**trēs**	**tria**
Gen.	**duōrum**	**duārum**	**duōrum**[2]	**trium**	**trium**
Dat.	**duōbus**	**duābus**	**duōbus**	**tribus**	**tribus**
Acc.	**duōs, duo**	**duās**	**duo**	**trēs, trīs**	**tria**
Abl.	**duōbus**	**duābus**	**duōbus**	**tribus**	**tribus**

1. The plural of **ūnus** in the sense of *alone* may be used with any noun: **ūnī Ubiī**, *the Ubii alone;* but in the sense of *one*, it is used only with nouns plural in form, but singular in sense: **ūna castra**, *one camp;* **ūnae litterae**, *one letter.*

2. Like **duo** is declined **ambō**, *both.*

3. **Multī**, *many*, and **plūrimī**, *very many*, are indefinite numerals, and as such generally want the singular. But in the poets the singular occurs in the sense of *many a:* **multa hostia**, *many a victim.*

167. The Cardinals from **quattuor** to **centum** are indeclinable, but hundreds are declined like the plural of **bonus**: **ducentī, ae, a.**

168. **Mīlle** as an adjective is indeclinable; as a substantive it is used in the singular in the Nominative and Accusative, but in the plural it is declined like the plural of **cubīle (103)**: **mīlia, mīlium, mīlibus.**

1. With the substantive **mīlle, mīlia**, the name of the objects enumerated is generally in the Genitive: **mīlle hominum**, *a thousand men (of men);* but if a declined numeral intervenes it takes the case of that numeral: **tria mīlia trecentī mīlitēs**, *three thousand three hundred soldiers.*

169. Ordinals are declined like **bonus**, and distributives like the plural of **bonus**, but the latter often have **um** instead of **ōrum** in the Genitive: **bīnum** for **bīnōrum.**

170. NUMERAL SYMBOLS

Arabic	**Roman**	**Arabic**	**Roman**	**Arabic**	**Roman**
1	I	6	VI	11	XI
2	II	7	VII	12	XII
3	III	8	VIII	13	XIII
4	IV	9	IX	14	XIV
5	V	10	X	15	XV

[1] In the ending *o* in *duo* and **ambo**, we have a remnant of the **dual number** which has otherwise disappeared from Latin, though preserved in **Greek and** Sanskrit. Compare the Sanskrit *dva*, the Greek δύο, the Latin **duo, and the** English *two.*

[2] Instead of **duōrum** and **duārum, duum** is sometimes used.

16	XVI	60	LX	600	DC
17	XVII	70	LXX	700	DCC
18	XVIII	80	LXXX	800	DCCC
19	XIX	90	XC	900	DCCCC
20	XX	100	C	1,000	CIↃ or M
21	XXI	200	CC	2,000	MM or ĪĪ
30	XXX	300	CCC	10,000	CCIↃↃ or X̄
40	XL	400	CCCC	100,000	CCCIↃↃↃ or C̄
50	L	500	IↃ or D	1,000,000	CCCCIↃↃↃↃ or $\overline{|X|}$

1. **Latin Numeral Symbols** are combinations of: I = 1; V = 5; X = 10; L = 50; C = 100. IↃ or D = 500; CIↃ or M = 1,000.

2. C placed before CIↃ and Ↄ placed after it increase the value tenfold: CIↃ = 1,000; CCIↃↃ = 1,000 × 10 = 10,000; CCCIↃↃↃ = 10,000 × 10 = 100,000.

3. IↃ, probably half of CIↃ, = 500; IↃↃ, half of CCIↃↃ, = 5,000, and IↃↃↃ, half of CCCIↃↃↃ, = 50,000.

4. A line over a symbol increases the value a thousand fold, and a line over and on each side of it increases the value a hundred thousand fold: X̄ = 10,000; $\overline{|X|}$ = 100,000 × 10 = 1,000,000.

Numeral Adverbs

171. To numerals belong also Numeral Adverbs.

1.	semel, *once*	17.	septiēs deciēs	101.	centiēs semel
2.	bis, *twice*	18.	duodēvīciēs	102.	centiēs bis
3.	ter, *three times*		octiēs deciēs	200.	ducentiēs
4.	quater	19.	ūndēvīciēs	300.	trecentiēs
5.	quīnquiēs[1]		noniēs deciēs	400.	quadringentiēs
6.	sexiēs	20.	vīciēs	500.	quīngentiēs
7.	septiēs	21.	semel et vīciēs	600.	sēscentiēs
8.	octiēs	22.	bis et vīciēs	700.	septingentiēs
9.	noviēs	30.	trīciēs	800.	octingentiēs
10.	deciēs	40.	quadrāgiēs	900.	nōningentiēs
11.	ūndeciēs	50.	quīnquāgiēs		nōngentiēs
12.	duodeciēs	60.	sexāgiēs	1,000.	mīliēs
13.	ter deciēs	70.	septuāgiēs	2,000.	bis mīliēs
14.	quater deciēs	80.	octōgiēs	10,000.	deciēs mīliēs
15.	quīnquiēs deciēs[2]	90.	nonāgiēs	100,000.	centiēs mīliēs
16.	sexiēs deciēs[2]	100.	centiēs	1,000,000.	deciēs centiēs mīliēs

1. In compounds of units and tens above twenty, the unit, with **et, ac,** or **atque,** regularly precedes: **bis et vīciēs**; the tens, however, with or without the connective, may precede, as **vīciēs et bis,** or **vīciēs bis.**

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[1] In adverbs formed from cardinal numbers, **iēs** is the approved ending, though **iēns** often occurs. In adverbs from indefinite numeral adjectives, **iēns** is the approved ending: **totiēns,** from **tot,** *so often;* **quotiēns, from quot,** *how often.*

[2] Or **quīndeciēs** and **sēdeciēs.**

2. Numeral adverbs are often combined with Distributives: **bis bīna**, *twice two;* **virginēs ter novēnae**, *three choirs of nine maidens each.*

3. For the poetic use of these adverbs with Cardinals, as **bis sex** for **duodecim**, see **163**, 1.

4. Another class of adverbs, with the ending **um** or **ō**, is formed chiefly from Ordinals: **prīmum**, **prīmō**, *for the first time, in the first place;* **tertium**, *in the third place;* **postrēmum**, **postrēmō**, *in the last place;* but **prīmō** often means *at first, in the beginning*, in distinction from **prīmum**, *in the first place*, and **postrēmō** often means *at last, in the end*, in distinction from **postrēmum**, *in the last place, lastly.*

Pronouns

172. In construction, Pronouns[1] are used either as Substantives: **ego**, *I;* **tū**, *thou;* **is**, *he;* or as Adjectives: **meus**, *my;* **tuus**, *your;* **suus**, *his, her, their.*

173. Pronouns are divided into seven classes:

1. Personal and Reflexive Pronouns: **tū**, *thou;* **suī**, *of himself.*
2. Possessive Pronouns: **meus**, *my.*
3. Demonstrative Pronouns: **hīc**, *this;* **ille**, *that.*
4. Determinative Pronouns: **is**, *he, that.*
5. Relative Pronouns: **quī**, *who.*
6. Interrogative Pronouns: **quis**, *who?*
7. Indefinite Pronouns: **aliquis**, *some one.*

I. PERSONAL AND REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

174. Personal Pronouns,[2] so called because they designate the person of the noun which they represent, sometimes refer back to the subject of the sentence, and thus have a reflexive use: **puer sē amat**, *the boy loves himself;* **sē amant**, *they love themselves;* **tē amās**, *you love yourself.*

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[1] But in their signification and use, pronouns differ widely from ordinary substantives and adjectives, as they never name any object, action, or quality, but simply point out the relation of some object or action to the speaker, or to some other person or thing.

[2] Also called Substantive Pronouns, because they are always used substantively.

175. Personal and Reflexive Pronouns are thus declined:

	Ego, *I*	Tū, *thou*	Suī, *of himself, of herself*
		SINGULAR	
Nom.	ego, *I*[1]	tū, *thou*[2]	—
Gen.	meī, *of me*	tuī, *of you*	suī, *of himself*, etc.
Dat.	mihĭ, *for me*	tibĭ, *for you*	sibĭ, *for himself*
Acc.	mē, *me*	tē, *thee, you*	sē, *himself*
Abl.	mē, *with, by me*, etc.	tē, *with, by you*, etc.	sē, *with, by himself*, etc.[3]
		PLURAL	
Nom.	nōs, *we*	vōs, *you*	—
Gen.	nostrum, *of us* nostrī, *of us*	vestrum,[4] *of you* vestrī, *of you*	suī, *of themselves*
Dat.	nōbīs, *for us*	vōbīs, *for you*	sibĭ, *for themselves*
Acc.	nōs, *us*	vōs, *you*	sē, *themselves*
Abl.	nōbīs, *with, by us*	vōbīs, *with, by you*	sē, *with, by themselves*

1. **Mī** is often used for **mihĭ** in poetry, and sometimes in prose.

2. **Nostrum** and **vestrum** are generally used in a Partitive sense, as **quis nostrum**, *who of us?* but **nostrī** and **vestrī** are generally used in an Objective sense, as **memor vestrī**, *mindful of you.*

3. Observe that the case endings of pronouns differ considerably from those of nouns.

4. **Emphatic Forms.** — **Tūte** and **tūtemet** for the Nom. **tū**. All the other cases of personal pronouns, except the Genitive plural, have emphatic forms in **met**: **egomet**, *I myself;* **tēmet**, *you yourself.*

5. The Reduplicated Forms **mēmē**, **tētē**, and **sēsē** occur both in the Accusative and in the Ablative.

6. Ancient and Rare Forms are **mīs** for **meī**; **tīs** for **tuī**; **mēd, tēd, sēd** for **mē, tē, sē**, both Accusative and Ablative. Forms in **pte** as **mēpte** and **sēpte** are especially rare. In early Latin poetry, **nostrōrum** and

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[1] **Ego** has no connection in form with **meī, mihĭ**, etc., but it is identical, both in form and meaning, with the corresponding Greek pronoun.

[2] **Tū** and **vōs**, as Vocatives, though recognized by certain Roman grammarians, are of doubtful authority. All other pronouns, except the possessives, **meus** and **noster**, lack the Vocative.

[3] The Ablative generally takes a preposition, as **cum**, *with*, **ā, ab**, *by*.

[4] **Vestrum** and **vestrī** are also written **vostrum** and **vostrī**, though less correctly. **Meī, tuī, suī, nostrī**, and **vestrī** are in form strictly Possessives in the Genitive singular, but by use they have become Personal. **Nostrī** and **vestrī** have also become plural. Thus, **memor vestrī**, *mindful of you*, means literally *mindful of yours*, i.e. of your welfare, interest. **Nostrum** and **vestrum**, for **nostrōrum** and **vestrōrum**, are also Possessives; see **176**.

nostrārum sometimes occur for **nostrum**; and **vostrum, vostrōrum,** and **vostrārum,** for **vestrum.**

7. **Cum,** when used with the ablative of a personal pronoun, is appended to it: **mēcum,** *with me;* **tēcum,** *with you.*

II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

176. From Personal Pronouns are formed the Possessives:

meus, mea, meum, *my;*	noster, nostra, nostrum, *our;*
tuus, tua, tuum, *thy, your;*	vester, vestra, vestrum, *your;*
suus, sua, suum, *his, her, its;*	suus, sua, suum, *their.*

1. Possessives are adjectives of the First and Second Declensions; but **meus** has in the Vocative singular masculine generally **mī,** sometimes **meus,** and in the Genitive plural sometimes **meum** instead of **meōrum.**

2. Emphatic forms in **pte** occur in the Ablative singular: **suōpte, suāpte;** forms in **met** are rare: **suamet.**

3. The possessive **cūius, cūia, cūium,**[1] early form **quōius, quōia, quōium,** *whose? whose;* generally interrogative, is rare, but it occurs in the Nominative singular and in a few other isolated forms.

4. A few forms of the possessives, **cūiās,** *of whose country?* and **nostrās,** *of our country,* declined like **aetās, aetātis,** occasionally occur.

III. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

177. Demonstrative Pronouns, so called because they point out the objects to which they refer, are the following:

Hīc, *this, near me.*
Iste, *that, near you.*
Ille, *that, near him, that yonder.*

178. The Demonstrative Pronouns **hīc** and **iste** are declined as follows, and **ille** is declined precisely like **iste**:

	Hīc, *this.*			Iste, *that.*		
	SINGULAR					
	Masc.	**Fem.**	**Neut.**	**Masc.**	**Fem.**	**Neut.**
Nom.	hīc	haec	hōc	iste	ista	istud
Gen.	hūius	hūius	hūius	istīus	istīus	istīus

[1] **Cūius,** *whose?* is formed from the Gen. **cūius** of **quis,** *who?* but **cūius,** *whose,* not interrogative, is formed from **cūius** of **quī,** *who.*

Dat.	**huic**	**huic**	**huic**	**istī**	**istī**	**istī**
Acc.	**hunc**	**hanc**	**hōc**	**istum**	**istam**	**istud**
Abl.	**hōc**	**hāc**	**hōc**	**istō**	**istā**	**istō**[1]
			PLURAL			
Nom.	**hī**	**hae**	**haec**	**istī**	**istae**	**ista**
Gen.	**hōrum**	**hārum**	**hōrum**	**istōrum**	**istārum**	**istōrum**
Dat.	**hīs**	**hīs**	**hīs**	**istīs**	**istīs**	**istīs**
Acc.	**hōs**	**hās**	**haec**	**istōs**	**istās**	**ista**
Abl.	**hīs**	**hīs**	**hīs**	**istīs**	**istīs**	**istīs**

1. **Haec**, for **hae**, feminine plural, is freely used in Plautus and Terence, and sometimes in classical prose.

2. The stems of **hīc, haec, hōc** are **ho, hā**, strengthened in certain forms by the addition of another pronominal stem, **i**, and of the demonstrative particle **ce**, generally reduced to **c**.

3. The demonstrative enclitic **ce** may be appended to any form in **s**: **hūius-ce, hōs-ce, hās-ce, hīs-ce**.

4. If the interrogative **ne** is appended to a form originally ending in **ce**, the result is generally **cine**, sometimes **cne**: **hīci-ne, hīc-ne**.

5. The stems of **iste, ista, istud** are **isto, istā**, and those of **ille, illa, illud** are **illo, illā**.

6. In early Latin **ce**, generally shortened to **c**, is sometimes appended to certain cases of **ille** and **iste**. The following forms are the most important, though others occur.

			SINGULAR			
	Masc.	**Fem.**	**Neut.**	**Masc.**	**Fem.**	**Neut.**
Nom.	istīc	istaec	istūc	illīc	illaec	illūc
Dat.	istīc	istīc	istīc	illīc	illīc	illīc
Acc.	istunc	istanc	istūc	illunc	illanc	illūc
Abl.	istōc	istāc	istōc	illōc	illāc	illōc
			PLURAL			
Nom.	—	istaec	istaec	illīsce	illaec	illaec
Acc.	—	—	istaec	—	—	illaec
Abl.	istīsce	istīsce	istīsce	illīsce	illīsce	illīsce

7. Syncopated Forms, compounded of **ecce** or **em**, *lo*, *see*, and certain cases of demonstratives, especially the Accusative of **ille** and **is**, *he*, occa-

[1] Several ancient and rare forms of these pronouns occur. Thus:

Of **hīc**: **hec** for hīc; **hōius** for hūius; **hui, hoic**, for huic; **hei, heis**, for hī; **hōrunc, hārunc**, for hōrum, hārum.

Of **iste**: forms in **ī, ae**, for **īus** in the Genitive and forms in **ō, ae**, for **ī** in the Dative.

Of **ille**: forms in **ī, ae**, for **īus** in the Genitive and in **ō, ae**, for **ī** in the Dative. For **ille, illa**, a few forms of **ollus, olla**, are found.

sionally occur in comic poetry: **eccillum** for ecce illum, *lo, see him;* **ellum** for em illum, *behold him;* **ellam** for em illam, *behold her;* **eccum** for ecce eum, *behold him;* **eccōs** for ecce eōs, *behold them.*

8. Kindred to demonstrative pronouns are the following adjectives: **tālis, e,** *such;* **tantus, a, um,** *so great;* **tot,** *so many.* **Tot** is indeclinable, the rest regular.

9. For **tālis**, the Genitive of a demonstrative with **modī**, the Genitive of **modus**, *measure, kind*, is often used: **hūius modī** or **hūius-modī**, *of this kind, such.* In origin, **hūiusmodī** is simply a limiting Genitive, but it has become practically an indeclinable adjective.

179. Special Pronominal Endings. — The declension of pronouns, in distinction from nouns, shows the following

Special Pronominal Endings

ĭus, in the Genitive singular: **hūius, istĭus, illĭus.**[1]
ī, in the Dative singular: **istī, illī.**
d, in the neuter singular of the Nominative and Accusative: **id, istud, illud.**

IV. DETERMINATIVE PRONOUNS

180. Determinative Pronouns specify the objects to which they refer. They are:

Is, ea, id; *he, she, it, that one, that.*
Ipse, ipsa, ipsum; *he himself, she herself, itself, self.*
Īdem, eadem, idem; *the same, same.*

181. The Determinative Pronouns are declined as follows:

	Is, *he.*[2]			Ipse, *self.*[3]		
	SINGULAR					
	Masc.	**Fem.**	**Neut.**	**Masc.**	**Fem.**	**Neut.**
Nom.	is	ea	id	ipse	ipsa	ipsum
Gen.	ēius	ēius	ēius	ipsĭus	ipsĭus	ipsĭus
Dat.	eī	eī	eī	ipsī	ipsī	ipsī
Acc.	eum	eam	id	ipsum	ipsam	ipsum
Abl.	eō	eā	eō	ipsō	ipsā	ipsō

[1] In the ending **ĭus**, observe that **ĭ** is a consonant when it follows a vowel, as in **hūius**, but a vowel when it follows a consonant, as in **is-tĭ-us.**

[2] The stem of **is, ea, id** appears in three different forms, **i, eo, eā.**

[3] The stem of **ipse** for **ipsus** is **ipso, ipsā**, but forms of **ipse** occur in which the first element, the demonstrative stem **i**, is declined, while **pse** is treated as

				Plural		
Nom.	**iī**	**eae**	**ea**	**ipsī**	**ipsae**	**ipsa**
Gen.	**eōrum**	**eārum**	**eōrum**	**ipsōrum**	**ipsārum**	**ipsōrum**
Dat.	**iīs**	**iīs**	**iīs**	**ipsīs**	**ipsīs**	**ipsīs**
Acc.	**eōs**	**eās**	**ea**	**ipsōs**	**ipsās**	**ipsa**
Abl.	**iīs**	**iīs**	**iīs**	**ipsīs**	**ipsīs**	**ipsīs**

Īdem, formed by appending **dem** to the pronoun **is**, *the same, same*. Only the first part is declined. **Isdem** is shortened to **īdem** and **iddem** to **idem**, and **m** is changed to **n** before **d**; see **55**, 5.

	Singular			Plural		
	Masc.	**Fem.**	**Neut.**	**Masc.**	**Fem.**	**Neut.**
Nom.	**īdem**	**eadem**	**idem**	**īdem**	**eaedem**	**eadem**
Gen.	**ēiusdem**	**ēiusdem**	**ēiusdem**	**eōrundem**	**eārundem**	**eōrundem**
Dat.	**eīdem**	**eīdem**	**eīdem**	**īsdem**	**īsdem**	**īsdem**
Acc.	**eundem**	**eandem**	**idem**	**eōsdem**	**eāsdem**	**eadem**
Abl.	**eōdem**	**eādem**	**eōdem**	**īsdem**	**īsdem**	**īsdem**

1. **Case Forms.** — Certain less common case forms of **is** and **idem** are the following:

Of **is**: **ēī**, **eī**, and **eae** for the Dative **eī**; **eī** and **ī** for the Nominative **iī**; **eīs**, **īs**, and **ibus** for the Dative and Ablative **iīs**.[1]

Of **idem**: **eīdem** and **iīdem** for the Nominative plural **īdem**, and **eīsdem** and **iīsdem** for the Dative and Ablative **īsdem**.[2]

V. RELATIVE PRONOUNS

182. The Relative **quī**, *who*, so called because it relates to some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood, called its antecedent, is declined as follows:[3]

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an indeclinable particle: **eum-pse** = ipsum; **eam-pse** = ipsam, etc.; sometimes combined with **rē**: **rēāpse** = rē eāpse = rē ipsā, *in reality*. **Ipsus** for ipse is not uncommon.

[1] Other ancient and rare forms occur.

[2] In early Latin, **eisdem** and **īsdem** occur for īdem in both numbers, and **eidem** and **īdem** for idem.

[3] The relative **quī**, the interrogative **quis**, **quī**, and the indefinite **quis**, **quī**, are all formed from the same three stems, **qui**, **quo**, **quā**, seen in **qui-s**, **quo-d**, **quā**. **Quī** is for **quo-ī**.

Ancient and rare forms of **quī** are **quei** for Nom. sing. **quī**: **quis**, **quid**, for **quī**, **quae**, **quod**; **quōius** for **cūius**; **quoi** for **cui**; **quēs**, **quei**, for Nom. pl. **quī**; **queis**, **quīs**, for **quibus**; and **quī** for **quō**, **quā**, **quibus**.

	Singular			Plural		
	Masc.	**Fem.**	**Neut.**	**Masc.**	**Fem.**	**Neut.**
Nom.	quī	quae	quod	quī	quae	quae
Gen.	cūius	cūius	cūius	quōrum	quārum	quōrum
Dat.	cui	cui	cui	quibus	quibus	quibus
Acc.	quem[1]	quam	quod	quōs	quās	quae
Abl.	quō	quā	quō	quibus	quibus	quibus

1. **Quī**[2] = **quō**, **quā**, and **quibus**, *with whom, with which, wherewith*, is a Locative of the relative **quī**.

2. **Cum**, when used with the Ablative of the relative is generally appended to it: **quibus-cum**.

3. **Quīcumque** and **quisquis**, *whoever*, are called from their signification General Relatives.[3] **Quīcumque** is declined like **quī**, but its parts are sometimes separated by one or more words: **quā rē cumque** for **quācumque rē**. **Quisquis** is rare except in the forms **quisquis**, **quicquid**,[4] **quōquō**.

4. Relative Adjectives are: **quālis**, **quāle**, *such as;* **quantus**, **a**, **um**, *so great;* **quot**, *as many as;* **quotus**, **a**, **um**, *of which number;* and the double and compound forms, **quālisquālis**, **quāliscumque**, etc. **Quot** is indeclinable.

VI. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

183. The Interrogative Pronouns are used in asking questions. They are the following, with their compounds:

	Masc.	**Fem.**	**Neut.**	
1.	Quis,	—	quid	*who? what?* used as a substantive.
2.	Quī,	quae,	quod	*which? what? what kind of?* used as an adjective.
3.	Uter,	utra,	utrum	*which* (of two persons)? *what* or *which* (of two things)? used both as a substantive and as an adjective.

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[1] An Accusative **quom**, also written **cum**, formed directly from the stem **quo**, became the conjunction **quom**, **cum**, *when*, lit. *during which*, i.e. during which time. Indeed, several other conjunctions, as **quam**, **quamquam**, are in their origin Accusatives of pronouns.

[2] Compare this with the interrogative **quī**, *how? why?* (**184**, 4).

[3] Relative pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs may be made general in signification by taking **cumque**, like **quī-cumque**, or by being doubled, like **quis-quis**; **quālis-cumque**, **quālis-quālis**, *of whatever kind;* **ubī-cumque**, **ubi-ubī**, *wheresoever*.

[4] The form **quidquid** seems to be without good authority.

184. **Quis,**[1] **quid?** used in the singular, is declined as follows:

	SINGULAR			
	M. and F.	**Neut.**		
Nom.	quis	quid	*who*	*what*
Gen.	cūius	cūius	*of whom*	*of what*
Dat.	cui	cui	*for whom*	*for what*
Acc.	quem	quid	*whom*	*what*
Abl.	ā quō	quō	*by whom*	*with what*

1. **Quī,**[1] **quae, quod?** *which? what kind of?* used as an adjective, is declined like the relative **quī, quae, quod.**

2. **Uter, utra, utrum?** *which* or *what* of two persons or things? has already been given; see **93.**

3. **Quis** is sometimes used as an adjective, and **quī** sometimes as a substantive, especially in dependent clauses.

4. **Quī,** a Locative, used chiefly as an adverb, meaning *how? by what means?* occurs in special expressions, as **quī scīs?** *how do you know?* **quī fit?** *how does it happen?* and in the interrogative **quīn** = **quī-ne,** *why not?*

5. Strengthened forms of **quis** and **quī** are declined like the simple pronouns **quis** and **quī:**

Quis-nam, — quid-nam *who indeed? what indeed?* as a substantive.
Quī-nam, quae-nam, quod-nam *of what kind indeed?* as an adjective.

6. Note the Interrogative Adjectives: **quālis, e,** *of what kind?* **quantus, a, um,** *how great?* **quot,** *how many?* **quotus, a, um,** *of what number?*

VII. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

185. Indefinite Pronouns do not refer to any definite persons or things. The most important are **quis** and **quī,** with their compounds or derivatives.

186. **Quis,** *any one,* and **quī,** *any one, any,* are nearly the same in form and declension as the interrogatives **quis** and **quī;** but they are used chiefly after **sī, nisi, nē,** and **num,** and in relative clauses, and they have **quae** or **qua** in the feminine singular and neuter plural: **sī quae, sī qua.**

187. From **quis** and **quī** are formed various other indefinite pronouns and pronominal adjectives, to which **ūllus** may be

[1] The ancient and rare forms of the interrogative **quis** and **quī** are nearly the same as those of the relative **quī.**

added. These may be divided according to their meaning as follows:

1. *Some one, any one, some, any; something, anything:*

Substantive			Adjective		
ali-quis[1]	ali-quid		ali-quī	ali-qua	ali-quod
quis-piam	quid-piam[2]		quis-piam	quae-piam	quod-piam[2]
quis-quam	quic-quam[3]		ūllus	ūlla	ūllum

NOTE 1. — **Aliquis** and **quispiam** are occasionally used as adjectives, and **aliquī** occasionally as a substantive. **Aliquis** and **aliquī** have **aliqua** in the neuter plural.

NOTE 2. — **Ūllus** is the adjective corresponding to **quisquam**, of which it supplies the plural and sometimes the oblique cases of the singular.

2. *Any one you please, anything you please; any whatever:*

Substantive			Adjective		
quī-vīs	quae-vīs	quid-vīs	quī-vīs	quae-vīs	quod-vīs
quī-libet	quae-libet	quid-libet	quī-libet	quae-libet	quod-libet

3. *A certain one, a certain thing, certain:*

Substantive			Adjective		
quī-dam	quae-dam	quid-dam	quī-dam	quae-dam	quod-dam

NOTE. — In **quīdam**, as in **īdem**, **m** is changed to **n** before **d**: quendam, quan-dam; quōrun-dam, quārun-dam.

4. *Every one, every thing, every, each:*

Substantive		Adjective		
quis-que	quid-que	quis-que	quae-que	quod-que

188. The following words, with which we are already familiar, are called Pronominal Adjectives; see **93**:

alius,	alter;	uter,	neuter;	ūllus, nūllus.
another,	*the other;*	*which?*	*neither;*	*any, not any.*

1. **Nūllus**, *no one, not any, no*, supplies certain cases of **nēmō**, *no one*, and with **rēs**, also of **nihil**, *nothing:*

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[1] Aliquis is formed from **quis** by prefixing **ali**, seen in **ali-us**; **quis-piam** and **quis quam** from **quis** by annexing **piam** and **quam**.

[2] Also written **quippiam** and **quoppiam**.

[3] The form **quidquam** seems to be without good authority.

Nom.	Gen.	Dat.	Acc.	Abl.
nēmō	nūllīus	nēminī	nēminem	nūllō
nihil	nūllīus reī	nūllī reī	nihil	nūllā rē

189. The correspondence which exists between Demonstratives, Relatives, Interrogatives, and Indefinites is seen in the following

TABLE OF CORRELATIVES

Interrogative	Indefinite	Demonstrative	Relative
quis, quī, *who? what?*[1]	**quis, quī,**[2] *any one, any;* **aliquis,**[2] *some one, some;* **quīdam,** *certain one, certain;*	**hīc,** *this one, this;*[3] **iste,** *that one, that;* **ille,** *that one, that;* **is,** *he, that;*	**quī,**[2] *who.*
uter, *which of two?*	**uter** or **alteruter,** *either of two;*	**uterque,** *each, both;*[4]	**quī,** *who.*
quālis, *of what kind?*	**quālislibet,**[2] *of any kind;*	**tālis,** *such;*	**quālis,**[2] *as.*
quantus, *how great?*	**aliquantus,** *somewhat great;* **quantusvīs,** *as great as you please;*	**tantus,** *so great;*	**quantus,**[2] *as, as great.*
quot,[5] *how many?*	**aliquot,** *some;*	**tot,** *so many;*	**quot,**[5] *as, as many*

1. **Nesciō quis,** *I know not who,* has become in effect an indefinite pronoun = **quīdam,** *some one.* So also **nesciō quī,** *I know not which* or *what* = *some;* **nesciō quot** = **aliquot,** *some, a certain number.*

[1] Observe that the question **quis** or **quī,** *who* or *what?* may be answered *indefinitely* by **quis, quī, aliquis,** etc., or *definitely* by a demonstrative, either alone or with a relative, as by **hīc,** *this one,* or **hīc quī,** *this one who;* **is,** *i.e,* or **is quī,** *he who,* etc.

[2] In form observe that the indefinite is either the same as the interrogative or is a compound of it: **quis, ali-quis, quī, quī-dam,** and that the relative is usually the same as the interrogative.

[3] On **hīc, iste, ille,** and **is,** see **178, 181.**

[4] Or one of the demonstratives, **hīc, iste,** etc.

[5] **Aliquot, quot,** and **tot** are indeclinable.

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195. The Imperative Mood is used in Commands and Entreaties:

Valētūdinem tuam curā, *take care of your health.*

III. TENSES

196. There are six tenses, three for Incomplete Action and three for Completed Action:

1. Tenses for Incomplete Action:

Present:	**amō**. *I love. I am loving. I do love.*
Imperfect:	**amābam**. *I was loving. I loved.*
Future:	**amābō**. *I shall love.*

2. Tenses for Completed Action:

Perfect:	**amāvī**. *I have loved. I loved.*
Pluperfect:	**amāveram**. *I had loved.*
Future Perfect:	**amāverō**. *I shall have loved.*

NOTE 1. — The Indicative Mood has the six tenses; the Subjunctive has the Present, Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect; the Imperative, the Present and Future only.

197. The Latin Perfect, unlike the English, has a twofold use:

1. It sometimes corresponds to our Perfect with *have* — *they have loved.* It is then called the Present Perfect, or Perfect Definite.

2. It sometimes corresponds to our Imperfect, or Past tense — *they loved.* It is then called the Historical Perfect, or Perfect Indefinite.

198. Principal and Historical. — Tenses are also distinguished as

1. Principal or Primary Tenses:

Present:	**amō**, *I love.*
Present Perfect:	**amāvī**, *I have loved.*[1]
Future:	**amābō**, *I shall love.*
Future Perfect:	**amāverō**, *I shall have loved.*

2. Historical or Secondary Tenses:

Imperfect:	**amābam**, *I was loving.*
Historical Perfect:	**amāvī**, *I loved.*[1]
Pluperfect:	**amāveram**, *I had loved.*

Thus the Latin Perfect combines within [illegible] tenses — the Perfect proper, seen in [illegible]

VERBS

190. Verbs in Latin, as in English, express existence, condition, or action: **est**, *he is;* **dormit**, *he is sleeping;* **legit**, *he reads.*

1. Transitive Verbs admit a direct object of the action: **servum verberat**, *he beats the slave.*

2. Intransitive Verbs do not admit such an object: **puer currit**, *the boy runs.*

3. Some verbs may be used either with or without an object, i.e. either transitively or intransitively.

4. Verbs have Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

I. VOICES

191. The Active Voice represents the subject as acting or existing:

Pater fīlium amat, *the father loves his son;* **est**, *he is.*

192. The Passive Voice represents the subject as acted upon by some other person or thing:

Fīlius ā patre amātur, *the son is loved by his father.*

1. Intransitive Verbs generally have only the active voice, but are sometimes used impersonally in the passive; see **302**, 6.

2. Deponent Verbs[1] are passive in form, but not in sense: **loquor**, *I speak.* But see **222**.

II. MOODS

193. The Indicative Mood represents the action of the verb as a Fact. It may assert or assume a fact, or it may inquire after the fact:

Legit, *he is reading.* **Sī legit**, *if he is reading.* **Legitne**, *is he reading?*

194. The Subjunctive Mood in general represents the action of the verb simply as Possible, as Desired, or as Conceived:

Amēmus patriam, *let us love our country.* **Forsitan quaerātis**, *perhaps you may inquire.*[2]

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[1] So called from dēpōnō, *I lay aside*, as they dispense, in general, with the active form and the passive meaning.

[2] But the use and proper translation of the Subjunctive must be learned from the Syntax.

195. The Imperative Mood is used in Commands and Entreaties:

Valētūdinem tuam cūrā, *take care of your health.*

III. TENSES

196. There are six tenses, three for Incomplete Action and three for Completed Action:

1. Tenses for Incomplete Action:

Present:	**amō**. *I love. I am loving. I do love.*
Imperfect:	**amābam**. *I was loving. I loved.*
Future:	**amābō**. *I shall love.*

2. Tenses for Completed Action:

Perfect:	**amāvī**. *I have loved. I loved.*
Pluperfect:	**amāveram**. *I had loved.*
Future Perfect:	**amāverō**. *I shall have loved.*

NOTE 1. — The Indicative Mood has the six tenses; the Subjunctive has the Present, Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect; the Imperative, the Present and Future only.

197. The Latin Perfect, unlike the English, has a twofold use:

1. It sometimes corresponds to our Perfect with *have* — *they have loved.* It is then called the Present Perfect, or Perfect Definite.

2. It sometimes corresponds to our Imperfect, or Past tense — *they loved.* It is then called the Historical Perfect, or Perfect Indefinite.

198. **Principal and Historical.** — Tenses are also distinguished as

1. Principal or Primary Tenses:

Present:	**amō**, *I love.*
Present Perfect:	**amāvī**, *I have loved.*[1]
Future:	**amābō**, *I shall love.*
Future Perfect:	**amāverō**, *I shall have loved.*

2. Historical or Secondary Tenses:

Imperfect:	**amābam**. *I was loving.*
Historical Perfect:	**amāvī**. *I loved.*[1]
Pluperfect:	**amāveram**, *I had loved.*

[1] Thus the Latin Perfect combines within itself the force and use of two distinct tenses — the Perfect proper, seen in the Greek Perfect, and the Aorist, seen

205. **Sum**, *I am;* Stems, **es, fu.**[1]

PRINCIPAL PARTS

Pres. Ind.	Pres. Inf.	Perf. Ind.	Fut. Part.
sum[2]	esse[2]	fuī	futūrus

Indicative Mood

Present Tense

SINGULAR		PLURAL	
sum	*I am*	sumus[3]	*we are*
es	*thou art, you are*	estis	*you are*
est	*he is*	sunt	*they are*

Imperfect

eram	*I was*	erāmus	*we were*
erās	*thou wast, you were*	erātis	*you were*
erat	*he was*	erant	*they were*

Future

erō	*I shall be*	erimus	*we shall be*
eris	*thou wilt be*[4]	eritis	*you will be*
erit	*he will be*	erunt	*they will be*

Perfect

fuī	*I have been*[5]	fuimus	*we have been*
fuistī	*thou hast been*[4]	fuistis	*you have been*
fuit	*he has been*	fuērunt, fuēre	*they have been*

Pluperfect

fueram	*I had been*	fuerāmus	*we had been*
fuerās	*thou hadst been*[4]	fuerātis	*you had been*
fuerat	*he had been*	fuerant	*they had been*

Future Perfect

fuerō	*I shall have been*	fuerimus	*we shall have been*
fueris	*thou wilt have been*[4]	fueritis	*you will have been*
fuerit	*he will have been*	fuerint	*they will have been*

[1] The forms of irregular verbs are often derived from different roots. Thus in English, *am, was, been; go, went, gone.*

[2] Observe that the stem **es** has two forms, **es**, seen in **es-se, es-t, es-tis**, and in **er-am**, for **es-am** (**50**), and a weak form, **s**, seen in **s-um, s-umus, s-unt.**

[3] Observe that the endings which are added to the stems **es** and **fu** are distinguished by the type.

[4] Or, *you will be, you have been, you had been, you will have been.* The use of *thou* is confined chiefly to solemn discourse.

[5] Or, *I was;* see **198**, 2.

Subjunctive

Present

SINGULAR		PLURAL	
sim	*may I be, let me be*	**sīmus**	*let us be*
sīs	*mayst thou be*[1]	**sītis**	*be ye, may you be*
sit	*let him be, may he be*	**sint**	*let them be*

Imperfect

essem	*I should be*	**essēmus**	*we should be*
essēs	*thou wouldst be*	**essētis**	*you would be*
esset	*he would be*	**essent**	*they would be*

Perfect

fuerim	*I may have been*	**fuerīmus**	*we may have been*
fueris	*thou mayst have been*	**fueritis**	*you may have been*
fuerit	*he may have been*	**fuerint**	*they may have been*

Pluperfect

fuissem	*I should have been*	**fuissēmus**	*we should have been*
fuissēs	*thou wouldst have been*	**fuissētis**	*you would have been*
fuisset	*he would have been*	**fuissent**	*they would have been*

Imperative

Pres.	**es**	*be thou*	**este**	*be ye*
Fut.	**estō**	*thou shalt be*[2]	**estōte**	*ye shall be*
	estō	*he shall be*	**suntō**	*they shall be*

Infinitive			Participle	
Pres.	**esse**	*to be*		
Perf.	**fuisse**	*to have been*		
Fut.	**futūrum**[3] **esse**	*to be about to be.*	Fut. **futūrus**[3]	*about to be*

1. In the paradigm all the forms beginning with **e** or **s** are from the stem **es**; all others from the stem **fu.**[4]

2. **Rare Forms.** — **Forem, forēs, foret, forent, fore,** for essem, essēs, esset, essent, futūrum esse; **siem, siēs, siet, sient,** or **fuam, fuās, fuat, fuant,** for sim, sīs, sit, sint.

---

[1] Or *be thou,* or *may you be,* but remember that the proper translation of the Subjunctive can be best learned from the Syntax.

[2] Or like the Present, or with *let: be thou; let him be.*

[3] **Futūrus** is declined like **bonus,** and the Accusative **futūrum** in **futūrum esse** like the Accusative of **bonus: futūrum, am, um; futūrōs, ās, a.**

[4] **Es** and **fu** are roots as well as stems. As the basis of this paradigm they are properly stems, but as they are not derived from more primitive forms they are in themselves roots.

FIRST CONJUGATION: A-VERBS

206. Stems and Principal Parts of Amō.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, **amā**[1]

PRINCIPAL PARTS

Pres. Ind.	Pres. Inf.	Perf. Ind.	Neut. Part.
amō	amāre	amāvī	amātum[2]

207. Active Voice. — Amō, *I love.*

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

SINGULAR		PLURAL	
amō[1]	*I lŏve*[3]	amāmus	*we love*
amās	*thou lovest, you love*	amātis	*you love*
amat	*he loves*	amant	*they love*

IMPERFECT

amābam	*I was loving*	amābāmus	*we were loving*
amābās	*you were loving*[4]	amābātis	*you were loving*
amābat	*he was loving*	amābant	*they were loving*

FUTURE

amābō	*I shall love*	amābimus	*we shall love*
amābis	*you will love*	amābitis	*you will love*
amābit	*he will love*	amābunt	*they will love*

PERFECT

amāvī	*I have loved*[5]	amāvimus	*we have loved*
amāvistī	*you have loved*	amāvistis	*you have loved*
amāvit	*he has loved*	amāvērunt, amāvēre	*they have loved*

PLUPERFECT

amāveram	*I had loved*	amāverāmus	*we had loved*
amāverās	*you had loved*	amāverātis	*you had loved*
amāverat	*he had loved*	amāverant	*they had loved*

FUTURE PERFECT

amāverō	*I shall have loved*	amāverimus	*we shall have loved*
amāveris	*you will have loved*	amāveritis	*you will have loved*
amāverit	*he will have loved*	amāverint	*they will have loved*

[1] The final **ā** of the stem disappears in **amō**, **amem**, etc., and in **amor**, **amer**, etc.

[2] **Amātum**, Supine or neuter Perfect Participle.

[3] Or *I am loving, I do love.* So in the Imperfect, *I loved, I was loving, I did love.*

[4] Or *thou wast loving;* but see **205**, footnote 4.

[5] Or *I loved;* see **196**, 2.

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

SINGULAR		PLURAL	
amem	*may I love*	amēmus	*let us love*
amēs	*may you love*	amētis	*may you love*
amet	*let him love*	ament	*let them love*

IMPERFECT

amārem	*I should love*	amārēmus	*we should love*
amārēs	*you would love*	amārētis	*you would love*
amāret	*he would love*	amārent	*they would love*

PERFECT

amāverim	*I may have loved*	amāverimus	*we may have loved*
amāveris	*you may have loved*	amāveritis	*you may have loved*
amāverit	*he may have loved*	amāverint	*they may have loved*

PLUPERFECT

amāvissem	*I should have loved*	amāvissēmus	*we should have loved*
amāvissēs	*you would have loved*	amāvissētis	*you would have loved*
amāvisset	*he would have loved*	amāvissent	*they would have loved*

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	amā	*love thou*	amāte	*love ye*
Fut.	amātō	*thou shalt love*	amātōte	*ye shall love*
	amātō	*he shall love*	amantō	*they shall love*

INFINITIVE

Pres.	amāre	*to love*
Perf.	amāvisse	*to have loved*
Fut.	amātūrum[2] esse	*to be about to love*

PARTICIPLE

Pres.	amāns[1]	*loving*
Fut.	amātūrus[2]	*about to love*

GERUND

Gen.	amandī	*of loving*
Dat.	amandō	*for loving*
Acc.	amandum	*loving*
Abl.	amandō	*by loving*

SUPINE

Acc.	amātum	*to love*
Abl.	amātū	*to love, be loved*

[1] For declension, see **128**.

[2] **Amātūrus** is declined like **bonus**, and **amātūrum** like the Accusative of **bor us**.

FIRST CONJUGATION: A-VERBS

208. Passive Voice. — Amor, *I am loved.*

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, **amā**

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

I am loved

SINGULAR	PLURAL
amor	amāmur
amāris	amāminī
amātur	amantur

IMPERFECT

I was loved

amābar	amābāmur
amābāris, amābāre	amābāminī
amābātur	amābantur

FUTURE

I shall be loved

amābor	amābimur
amāberis, amābere	amābiminī
amābitur	amābuntur

PERFECT

I have been loved or *I was loved*

amātus sum [1]	amātī sumus
amātus es	amātī estis
amātus est	amātī sunt

PLUPERFECT

I had been loved

amātus eram [1]	amātī erāmus
amātus erās	amātī erātis
amātus erat	amātī erant

FUTURE PERFECT

I shall have been loved

amātus erō [1]	amātī erimus
amātus eris	amātī eritis
amātus erit	amātī erunt

[1] **Fuī**, **fuistī**, etc., are sometimes used for sum, es, etc.: **amātus fuī** for **amātus sum**. So **fueram**, **fuerās**, etc., for eram, etc.: also **fuerō**, etc., for erō, etc.

Subjunctive

Present

May I be loved, let him be loved

SINGULAR	PLURAL
amer	**amēmur**
amēris, **amēre**	**amēminī**
amētur	**amentur**

Imperfect

I should be loved, he would be loved

amārer	**amārēmur**
amārēris, **amārēre**	**amārēminī**
amārētur	**amārentur**

Perfect

I may have been loved, he may have been loved

amātus sim [1]	**amātī sīmus**
amātus sīs	**amātī sītis**
amātus sit	**amātī sint**

Pluperfect

I should have been loved, he would have been loved

amātus essem [1]	**amātī essēmus**
amātus essēs	**amātī essētis**
amātus esset	**amātī essent**

Imperative

Pres.	**amāre**	*be thou loved*	**amāminī**	*be ye loved*
Fut.	**amātor**	*thou shalt be loved*		
	amātor	*he shall be loved*	**amantor**	*they shall be loved*

Infinitive

Pres.	**amārī**	*to be loved*
Perf.	**amātum esse** [1]	*to have been loved*
Fut.	**amātum īrī**	*to be about to be loved*

Participle

Perf.	**amātus**	*having been loved*
Ger. [2]	**amandus**	*to be loved, deserving to be loved*

[1] **Fuerim, fueris**, etc., are sometimes used for sim, sīs, etc. So also **fuissem, fuissēs**, etc., for essem, essēs, etc.: **rarely fuisse** for esse.

[2] Ger. = Gerundive; see **200**, 4.

SECOND CONJUGATION: E-VERBS

209. Stems and Principal Parts of Moneō.

VERB STEM, **mon**; PRESENT STEM, **monē**

PRINCIPAL PARTS

moneō	monēre	monuī	monitum

210. Active Voice. — Moneō, *I advise.*

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

I advise

SINGULAR	PLURAL
moneō	monēmus
monēs	monētis
monet	monent

IMPERFECT

I was advising, or *I advised*

monēbam	monēbāmus
monēbās	monēbātis
monēbat	monēbant

FUTURE

I shall advise

monēbō	monēbimus
monēbis	monēbitis
monēbit	monēbunt

PERFECT

I have advised, or *I advised*

monuī	monuimus
monuistī	monuistis
monuit	monuērunt, monuēre

PLUPERFECT

I had advised

monueram	monuerāmus
monuerās	monuerātis
monuerat	monuerant

FUTURE PERFECT

I shall have advised

monuerō	monuerimus
monueris	monueritis
monuerit	monuerint

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

May I advise, let him advise

SINGULAR	PLURAL
moneam	moneāmus
moneās	moneātis
moneat	moneant

IMPERFECT

I should advise, he would advise

monērem	monērēmus
monērēs	monērētis
monēret	monērent

PERFECT

I may have advised, he may have advised

monuerim	monuerimus
monueris	monueritis
monuerit	monuerint

PLUPERFECT

I should have advised, he would have advised

monuissem	monuissēmus
monuissēs	monuissētis
monuisset	monuissent

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	monē	*advise thou*	monēte	*advise ye*
Fut.	monētō	*thou shalt advise*	monētōte	*ye shall advise*
	monētō	*he shall advise*	monentō	*they shall advise*

INFINITIVE

Pres.	monēre	*to advise*
Perf.	monuisse	*to have advised*
Fut.	monitūrum esse	*to be about to advise*

PARTICIPLE

Pres.	monēns	*advising*
Fut.	monitūrus	*about to advise*

GERUND

Gen.	monendī	*of advising*
Dat.	monendō	*for advising*
Acc.	monendum	*advising*
Abl.	monendō	*by advising*

SUPINE

Acc.	monitum	*to advise*
Abl.	monitū	*to advise, be advised*

SECOND CONJUGATION: E-VERBS

211. Passive Voice. — Moneor, *I am advised.*

VERB STEM, **mon**; PRESENT STEM, **monē**

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

I am advised

SINGULAR	PLURAL
moneor	**monēmur**
monēris	**monēminī**
monētur	**monentur**

IMPERFECT

I was advised

monēbar	**monēbāmur**
monēbāris, **monēbāre**	**monēbāminī**
monēbātur	**monēbantur**

FUTURE

I shall be advised

monēbor	**monēbimur**
monēberis, **monēbere**	**monēbiminī**
monēbitur	**monēbuntur**

PERFECT

I have been advised, I was advised

monitus sum [1]	**monitī sumus**
monitus es	**monitī estis**
monitus est	**monitī sunt**

PLUPERFECT

I had been advised

monitus eram [1]	**monitī erāmus**
monitus erās	**monitī erātis**
monitus erat	**monitī erant**

FUTURE PERFECT

I shall have been advised

monitus erō [1]	**monitī erimus**
monitus eris	**monitī eritis**
monitus erit	**monitī erunt**

[1] See **208**, footnotes.

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

May I be advised, let him be advised

SINGULAR	PLURAL
monear	**moneāmur**
moneāris, **moneāre**	**moneāminī**
moneātur	**moneantur**

IMPERFECT

I should be advised, he would be advised

monērer	**monērēmur**
monērēris, **monērēre**	**monērēminī**
monērētur	**monērentur**

PERFECT

I may have been advised, he may have been advised

monitus sim[1]	**monitī sīmus**
monitus sīs	**monitī sītis**
monitus sit	**monitī sint**

PLUPERFECT

I should have been advised, he would have been advised

monitus essem[1]	**monitī essēmus**
monitus essēs	**monitī essētis**
monitus esset	**monitī essent**

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	**monēre**	*be thou advised*	**monēminī**	*be ye advised*
Fut.	**monētor**	*thou shalt be advised*		
	monētor	*he shall be advised*	**monentor**	*they shall be advised*

INFINITIVE			PARTICIPLE		
Pres.	**monērī**	*to be advised*			
Perf.	**monitum esse**[1]	*to have been advised*	Perf.	**monitus**	*having been advised*
Ger.	**monitum īrī**	*to be about to be advised*	Ger.	**monendus**	*to be advised, deserving to be advised*

[1] See **208**, footnotes.

THIRD CONJUGATION: CONSONANT VERBS

212. Stems and Principal Parts of Regō.

VERB STEM, **reg**; PRESENT STEM, **rege**, **rego**[1]

PRINCIPAL PARTS

regō	regere	rēxī[2]	rēctum[2]

213. Active Voice. — Regō, *I rule.*

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

I rule

SINGULAR	PLURAL
regō	regimus
regis	regitis
regit	regunt

IMPERFECT

I was ruling, or *I ruled*

regēbam	regēbāmus
regēbās	regēbātis
regēbat	regēbant

FUTURE

I shall rule

regam	regēmus
regēs	regētis
reget	regent

PERFECT

I have ruled, or *I ruled*

rēxī	rēximus
rēxistī	rēxistis
rēxit	rēxērunt, rēxēre

PLUPERFECT

I had ruled

rēxeram	rēxerāmus
rēxerās	rēxerātis
rēxerat	rēxerant

FUTURE PERFECT

I shall have ruled

rēxerō	rēxerimus
rēxeris	rēxeritis
rēxerit	rēxerint

[1] The characteristic of this conjugation is the thematic vowel which connects the stem and the ending. It originally had the form of **e** or **o**, but in classical Latin it generally appears as **i** or **u**, as in *reget, **regit**; *regont, **regunt**.

[2] **Rēxī**, from *rec-sī, from *reg-sī; see **51**. **Rēc-tum**, from *reg-tum; see **55, 1**.

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

May I rule, let him rule

SINGULAR	PLURAL
regam	regāmus
regās	regātis
regat	regant

IMPERFECT

I should rule, he would rule

regerem	regerēmus
regerēs	regerētis
regeret	regerent

PERFECT

I may have ruled, he may have ruled

rēxerim	rēxerimus
rēxeris	rēxeritis
rēxerit	rēxerint

PLUPERFECT

I should have ruled, he would have ruled

rēxissem	rēxissēmus
rēxissēs	rēxissētis
rēxisset	rēxissent

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	rege	*rule thou*	regite	*rule ye*
Fut.	regitō	*thou shalt rule*	regitōte	*ye shall rule*
	regitō	*he shall rule*	reguntō	*they shall rule*

INFINITIVE

Pres.	regere	*to rule*
Perf.	rēxisse	*to have ruled*
Fut.	rēctūrum esse	*to be about to rule*

PARTICIPLE

Pres.	regēns	*ruling*
Fut.	rēctūrus	*about to rule*

GERUND

Gen.	regendī	*of ruling*
Dat.	regendō	*for ruling*
Acc.	regendum	*ruling*
Abl.	regendō	*by ruling*

SUPINE

Acc.	rēctum	*to rule*
Abl.	rēctū	*to rule, be ruled*

THIRD CONJUGATION: CONSONANT VERBS

214. Passive Voice. — Regor, *I am ruled.*

VERB STEM, **reg**; PRESENT STEM, **rege, rego**

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

I am ruled

SINGULAR	PLURAL
regor	regimur
regeris	regiminī
regitur	reguntur

IMPERFECT

I was ruled

regēbar	regēbāmur
regēbāris, regēbāre	regēbāminī
regēbātur	regēbantur

FUTURE

I shall be ruled

regar	regēmur
regēris, regēre	regēminī
regētur	regentur

PERFECT

I have been ruled, or *I was ruled*

rēctus sum [1]	rēctī sumus
rēctus es	rēctī estis
rēctus est	rēctī sunt

PLUPERFECT

I had been ruled

rēctus eram [1]	rēctī erāmus
rēctus erās	rēctī erātis
rēctus erat	rēctī erant

FUTURE PERFECT

I shall have been ruled

rēctus erō [1]	rēctī erimus
rēctus eris	rēctī eritis
rēctus erit	rēctī erunt

[1] See **208**, footnotes.

Subjunctive

Present

May I be ruled, let him be ruled

SINGULAR	PLURAL
regar	**regāmur**
regāris, regāre	**regāminī**
regātur	**regantur**

Imperfect

I should be ruled, he would be ruled

regerer	**regerēmur**
regerēris, regerēre	**regerēminī**
regerētur	**regerentur**

Perfect

I may have been ruled, he may have been ruled

rēctus sim[1]	**rēctī sīmus**
rēctus sīs	**rēctī sītis**
rēctus sit	**rēctī sint**

Pluperfect

I should have been ruled, he would have been ruled

rēctus essem[1]	**rēctī essēmus**
rēctus essēs	**rēctī essētis**
rēctus esset	**rēctī essent**

Imperative

Pres.	**regere**	*be thou ruled*	**regiminī**	*be ye ruled*
Fut.	**regitor**	*thou shalt be ruled*		
	regitor	*he shall be ruled*	**reguntor**	*they shall be ruled*

Infinitive			Participle		
Pres.	**regī**	*to be ruled*			
Perf.	**rēctum esse**[1]	*to have been ruled*	Perf.	**rēctus**	*having been ruled*[1]
Fut.	**rēctum īrī**	*to be about to be ruled*	Ger.	**regendus**	*to be ruled, deserving to be ruled*

[1] **Rēc-tus** from ***reg-tus**; see **55**, 1.

FOURTH CONJUGATION: I-VERBS

215. Stems and Principal Parts of Audiō.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, **audī**

PRINCIPAL PARTS

audiō	audīre	audīvī	audītum

216. Active Voice. — Audiō, *I hear.*

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

I hear

SINGULAR	PLURAL
audiō	audīmus
audīs	audītis
audit	audiunt

IMPERFECT

I was hearing, or *I heard*

audiēbam	audiēbāmus
audiēbās	audiēbātis
audiēbat	audiēbant

FUTURE

I shall hear

audiam	audiēmus
audiēs	audiētis
audiet	audient

PERFECT

I have heard, or *I heard*

audīvī	audīvimus
audīvistī	audīvistis
audīvit	audīvērunt, audīvēre

PLUPERFECT

I had heard

audīveram	audīverāmus
audīverās	audīverātis
audīverat	audīverant

FUTURE PERFECT

I shall have heard

audīverō	audīverimus
audīveris	audīveritis
audīverit	audīverint

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

May I hear, let him hear

SINGULAR	PLURAL
audiam	audiāmus
audiās	audiātis
audiat	audiant

IMPERFECT

I should hear, he would hear

audīrem	audīrēmus
audīrēs	audīrētis
audīret	audīrent

PERFECT

I may have heard, he may have heard

audīverim	audīverimus
audīveris	audīveritis
audīverit	audīverint

PLUPERFECT

I should have heard, he would have heard

audīvissem	audīvissēmus
audīvissēs	audīvissētis
audīvisset	audīvissent

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	audī	*hear thou*	audīte	*hear ye*
Fut.	audītō	*thou shalt hear*	audītōte	*ye shall hear*
	audītō	*he shall hear*	audiuntō	*they shall hear*

INFINITIVE

Pres.	audīre	*to hear*
Perf.	audīvisse	*to have heard*
Fut.	auditūrum esse	*to be about to hear*

PARTICIPLE

Pres.	audiēns	*hearing*
Fut.	auditūrus	*about to hear*

GERUND

Gen.	audiendī	*of hearing*
Dat.	audiendō	*for hearing*
Acc.	audiendum	*hearing*
Abl.	audiendō	*by hearing*

SUPINE

Acc.	auditum	*to hear*
Abl.	auditū	*to hear, be heard*

FOURTH CONJUGATION: I-VERBS

217. Passive Voice. — Audior, *I am heard.*

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, **audī**

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

I am heard

SINGULAR	PLURAL
audior	audīmur
audīris	audīminī
audītur	audiuntur

IMPERFECT

I was heard

audiēbar	audiēbāmur
audiēbāris, audiēbāre	audiēbāminī
audiēbātur	audiēbantur

FUTURE

I shall be heard

audiar	audiēmur
audiēris, audiēre	audiēminī
audiētur	audientur

PERFECT

I have been heard or *I was heard*

audītus sum[1]	audītī sumus
audītus es	audītī estis
audītus est	audītī sunt

PLUPERFECT

I had been heard

audītus eram[1]	audītī erāmus
audītus erās	audītī erātis
audītus erat	audītī erant

FUTURE PERFECT

I shall have been heard

audītus erō[1]	audītī erimus
audītus eris	audītī eritis
audītus erit	audītī erunt

[1] See **208**, footnotes.

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

May I be heard, let him be heard

SINGULAR	PLURAL
audiar	audiāmur
audiāris, audiāre	audiāminī
audiātur	audiantur

IMPERFECT

I should be heard, he would be heard

audīrer	audīrēmur
audīrēris, audīrēre	audīrēminī
audīrētur	audīrentur

PERFECT

I may have been heard, he may have been heard

auditus sim	auditī sīmus
auditus sīs	auditī sītis
auditus sit	auditī sint

PLUPERFECT

I should have been heard, he would have been heard

auditus essem	auditī essēmus
auditus essēs	auditī essētis
auditus esset	auditī essent

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	audīre	*be thou heard*	audīminī	*be ye heard*
Fut.	audītor	*thou shalt be heard*		
	audītor	*he shall be heard*	audiuntor	*they shall be heard*

INFINITIVE

Pres.	audīrī	*to be heard*
Perf.	auditum esse	*to have been heard*
Fut.	auditum īrī	*to be about to be heard*

PARTICIPLE

Perf.	auditus	*having been heard*
Ger.	audiendus	*to be heard, deserving to be heard*

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS

218. Active Voice: Present System.[1]

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

am -ō	-ās	-at	-āmus	-ātis	-ant
mon -eō	-ēs	-et	-ēmus	-ētis	-ent
reg -ō	-is	-it	-imus	-itis	-unt
aud -iō	-īs	-it	-īmus	-ītis	-iunt

IMPERFECT

am -ā mon -ē reg -ē aud-i-ē }	-bam	-bās	-bat	-bāmus	-bātis	-bant

FUTURE

am -ā mon -ē }	-bō	-bis	-bit	-bimus	-bitis	-bunt
reg aud -i }	-am	-ēs	-et	-ēmus	-ētis	-ent

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

am	-em	-ēs	-et	-ēmus	-ētis	-ent
mon -ē reg aud -i }	-am	-ās	-at	-āmus	-ātis	-ant

IMPERFECT

am -ā mon -ē reg -e aud -ī }	-rem	-rēs	-ret	-rēmus	-rētis	-rent

IMPERATIVE

PRESENT			FUTURE			
SINGULAR		PLURAL	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
am -ā mon -ē reg -e aud -ī	am -ā mon-ē reg -i aud -ī } -te		am -ā mon-ē reg -i aud -ī } -tō -tō	am -ā mon-ē reg -i aud -ī } -tōte	am -an mon-en reg -un aud -iun } -tō	

PRESENT INFINITIVE	PRESENT PARTICIPLE	GERUND.
am -ā mon -ē reg -e aud -ī } -re	am -āns mon-ēns reg -ēns aud -iēns	am -an mon-en reg -en aud -ien } -dī

[1] For the Present System, see 233.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS

219. Passive Voice: Present System.

Indicative Mood

Present Tense

am mon -e reg aud -i	-or	am -ā mon-ē reg -e aud -ī	-ris	am -ā mon-ē reg -i aud -ī	-tur	-mur	-minī	am -an mon-en reg -un aud -iun	-tur

Imperfect

am -ā mon -ē reg -ē aud-i-ē	-bar	-bāris[1]	-bātur	-bāmur	-bāminī	-bantur

Future

am -ā mon -ē	-bor	-beris	-bitur	-bimur	-biminī	-buntur
reg aud -i	-ar	-ēris	-ētur	-ēmur	-ēminī	-entur

Subjunctive

Present

am	-er	-ēris	-ētur	-ēmur	-ēminī	-entur
mon -e reg aud -i	-ar	-āris	-ātur	-āmur	-āminī	-antur

Imperfect

am -ā mon -ē reg -e aud -ī	-rer	-rēris[1]	-rētur	-rēmur	-rēminī	-rentur

Imperative

Present

SINGULAR		PLURAL	
am -ā mon -ē reg -e aud -ī	-re	am -ā mon-ē reg -i aud -ī	-minī

Future

SINGULAR			PLURAL	
am -ā mon-ē reg -i aud -ī	-tor	-tor	am -an mon-en reg -un aud -iun	-tor

Present Infinitive

am -ā mon-ē aud -ī reg -ī	-rī

Gerundive

am -an mon-en aud -ien reg -en	-dus

---

[1] In the second person singular of the passive, except in the Present Indicative, the ending **re** is often used instead of **ris**: **amābā-ris** or **amābā-re**.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS

220. Active Voice: 1. Perfect System.[1]

INDICATIVE MOOD

PERFECT TENSE

amāv monu rēx audīv	-ī	-istī	-it	-imus	-istis	-ērunt, -ēre

PLUPERFECT

amāv monu rēx audīv	-eram	-erās	-erat	-erāmus	-erātis	-erant

FUTURE PERFECT

amāv monu rēx audīv	-erō	-eris	-erit	-erimus	-eritis	-erint

SUBJUNCTIVE

PERFECT

amāv monu rēx audīv	-erim	-eris	-erit	-erimus	-eritis	-erint

PLUPERFECT

amāv monu rēx audīv	-issem	-issēs	-isset	-issēmus	-issētis	-issent

PERFECT INFINITIVE

amāv monu rēx audīv	-isse

2. Participial System

FUTURE INFINITIVE		FUTURE PARTICIPLE	SUPINE
amā moni rēc audī	-tūrum esse	-tūrus	-tum -tū

[1] For the Perfect System, see **234**, and for the Participial System, **235**.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS

221. Passive Voice: Participial System.

INDICATIVE MOOD

PERFECT TENSE

amā mon-i rēc audī	-tus sum	-tus es	-tus est	-tī[1] sumus	-tī estis	-tī sunt

PLUPERFECT

amā mon-i rēc audī	-tus eram	-tus erās	-tus erat	-tī erāmus	-tī erātis	-tī erant

FUTURE PERFECT

amā mon-i rēc audī	-tus erō	-tus eris	-tus erit	-tī erimus	-tī eritis	-tī erunt

SUBJUNCTIVE

PERFECT

amā mon-i rēc audī	-tus sim	-tus sīs	-tus sit	-tī sīmus	-tī sītis	-tī sint

PLUPERFECT

amā mon-i rēc audī	-tus essem	-tus essēs	-tus esset	-tī essēmus	-tī essētis	-tī essent

INFINITIVE

	PERFECT	FUTURE
amā mon-i rēc audī	-tum esse	-tum īrī

PERFECT PARTICIPLE

amā
mon-i
rēc
audī } -tus[2]

---

[1] In the plural, **tus** becomes **tī**: **amā-tī sumus**, etc.

[2] From the comparative view presented in **218-221**, it will be seen that the four conjugations differ from each other only in the formation of the Principal Parts and in the endings of the Present System. See also **201**, footnote.

DEPONENT VERBS

222. Deponent Verbs have in general the forms of the passive voice, with the signification of the active. But

1. They have also in the active the Future Infinitive, the Participles, Gerund, and Supine.

2. The Gerundive has the passive signification; sometimes, also, the Perfect Participle: **hortandus**, *to be exhorted;* **expertus**, *tried.*

3. The Future Infinitive has the active form.

223. Deponent verbs are found in each of the four conjugations. Their principal parts are the Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, and Perfect Indicative:

I.	Hortor	hortārī	hortātus sum	*to exhort*
II.	Vereor	verērī	veritus sum	*to fear*
III.	Loquor	loquī	locūtus sum	*to speak*
IV.	Blandior	blandīrī	blandītus sum	*to flatter*

	I	II	III	IV
Pres.	hortor, *I exhort*	vereor, *I fear*	loquor, *I speak*	blandior, *I flatter*
	hortāris, etc.	verēris, etc.	loqueris, etc.	blandīris, etc.
Imp.	hortābar	verēbar	loquēbar	blandiēbar
Fut.	hortābor	verēbor	loquar	blandiar
Perf.	hortātus sum	veritus sum	locūtus sum	blandītus sum
Plup.	hortātus eram	veritus eram	locūtus eram	blandītus eram
F. P.	hortātus erō	veritus erō	locūtus erō	blandītus erō

Subjunctive Mood

Pres.	horter	verear	loquar	blandiar
Imp.	hortārer	verērer	loquerer	blandīrer
Perf.	hortātus sim	veritus sim	locūtus sim	blandītus sim
Plup.	hortātus essem	veritus essem	locūtus essem	blandītus essem

Imperative

Pres.	hortāre	verēre	loquere	blandīre
Fut.	hortātor	verētor	loquitor	blandītor

Infinitive

Pres.	hortārī	verērī	loquī	blandīrī
Perf.	hortātum esse	veritum esse	locūtum esse	blandītum esse
Fut.	hortātūrum esse	veritūrum esse	locūtūrum esse	blandītūrum esse

PARTICIPLE

Pres.	hortāns	verēns	loquēns	blandiēns
Fut.	hortātūrus	veritūrus	locūtūrus	blandītūrus
Perf.	hortātus	veritus	locūtus	blandītus
Ger.	hortandus	verendus	loquendus	blandiendus

GERUND

hortandī, etc.	verendī, etc.	loquendī, etc.	blandiendī, etc.

SUPINE

hortātum	veritum	locūtum	blandītum
hortātū	veritū	locūtū	blandītū

SEMI-DEPONENT VERBS

224. Semi-Deponent Verbs have active forms in the Present system and passive forms in the Perfect system:

audeō	audēre	ausus sum	*to dare*
gaudeō	gaudēre	gāvīsus sum	*to rejoice*
soleō	solēre	solitus sum	*to be wont*
fīdō	fīdere	fīsus sum	*to trust*

1. The Perfect Participles of a few Intransitive verbs have the active meaning, but they are generally used as adjectives:

adultus, *having grown up, adult,*	from	adolēscere,	*to grow up*
cautus, *taking care, cautious,*	"	cavēre,	*to take care*
cēnātus, *having dined,*	"	cēnāre,	*to dine*
placitus, *pleasing,*	"	placēre,	*to please*
prānsus, *having breakfasted,*	"	prandēre,	*to breakfast*

2. **Dēvertor**, *to turn aside*, and **revertor**, *to return*, have active forms in the Perfect system, borrowed from **dēvertō** and **revertō**.

I-VERBS OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION

225. A few verbs of the Third Conjugation form the Present Indicative in **iō**, like verbs of the Fourth Conjugation. They are inflected with the endings of the Fourth whenever those endings have two successive vowels. These verbs are:

1. **Capiō**, *to take;* **cupiō**, *to desire;* **faciō**, *to make;* **fodiō**, *to dig;* *flee;* **iaciō**, *to throw;* **pariō**, *to bear;* **quatiō**, *to shake;* **rapiō**, **piō**, *to be wise;* with their compounds.

2. The compounds of the obsolete verbs **laciō**, *to entice*, and **speciō**,[1] *to look;* **alliciō**, **ēliciō**, **illiciō**, **pelliciō**, etc.; **aspiciō**, **cōnspiciō**, etc.

3. The Deponent Verbs **gradior**, *to go;* **morior**, *to die;* **patior**, *to suffer;* see **222**.

226. Stems and Principal Parts of Capiō.

VERB STEM, **cap**; PRESENT STEM, **capi**[2]

PRINCIPAL PARTS			
capiō	capere	cēpī	captum

227. Active Voice. — Capiō, *I take.*

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

SINGULAR			PLURAL		
capiō	capis	capit	capimus	capitis	capiunt

IMPERFECT

capiē-bam	-bās	-bat	capiē-bāmus	-bātis	-bant

FUTURE

capi-am	-ēs	-et	capi-ēmus	-ētis	-ent

PERFECT

cēp-ī	-istī	-it	cēp-imus	-istis	-ērunt, *or* -ēre

PLUPERFECT

cēpe-ram	-rās	-rat	cēpe-rāmus	-rātis	-rant

FUTURE PERFECT

cēpe-rō	-rīs	-rit	cepe-rimus	-ritis	-rint

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

capi-am	-ās	-at	capi-āmus	-ātis	-ant

IMPERFECT

cape-rem	-rēs	-ret	cape-rēmus	-rētis	-rent

PERFECT

cēpe-rim	-rīs	-rit	cēpe-rimus	-ritis	-rint

PLUPERFECT

cēpis-sem	-sēs	-set	cepis-sēmus	-sētis	-sent

[1] **Speciō** occurs, but it is exceedingly rare.

[2] Remember that **i** becomes **e** when final, and also before **r** from **s**: ***capi**, **cape**; ***capise**, **capere**; see **26**, 1 and 2.

IMPERATIVE

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Pres.	cape	capite
Fut.	capitō	capitōte
	capitō	capiuntō

INFINITIVE		PARTICIPLE	
Pres.	capere	Pres.	capiēns
Perf.	cēpisse		
Fut.	captūrum esse	Fut.	captūrus

GERUND		SUPINE	
Gen.	capiendī		
Dat.	capiendō		
Acc.	capiendum	Acc.	captum
Abl.	capiendō	Abl.	captū

228. Passive Voice. — Capior, *I am taken.*

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT TENSE

SINGULAR			PLURAL		
capior	caperis	capitur	capimur	capiminī	capiuntur

IMPERFECT

capiē-bar	-bāris	-bātur	capiē-bāmur	-bāminī	-bantur

FUTURE

capi-ar	-ēris	-ētur	capi-ēmur	-ēminī	-entur

PERFECT

captus sum	es	est	captī sumus	estis	sunt

PLUPERFECT

captus eram	erās	erat	captī erāmus	erātis	erant

FUTURE PERFECT

captus erō	eris	erit	captī erimus	eritis	erunt

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

capi-ar	-āris	-ātur	capi-āmur	-āminī	-antur

IMPERFECT

cape-rer	-rēris	-rētur	cape-rēmur	-rēminī	-rentur

PERFECT

captus sim	sīs	sit	captī sīmus	sītis	sint

PLUPERFECT

captus essem	essēs	esset	captī essēmus	essētis	essent

IMPERATIVĒ

Pres.	capere	capiminī
Fut.	capitor	
	capitor	capiuntor

INFINITIVE		PARTICIPLE	
Pres.	capī		
Perf.	captum esse	Perf.	captus
Fut.	captum īrī	Fut.	capiendus

229. Deponent verbs in **ior** of the Third Conjugation, like other deponent verbs, have in the active voice the Future Infinitive, the Participles, Gerund, and Supine, but lack the Future Infinitive of the passive form. They are otherwise inflected precisely like the passive of **capior**:

patior	patī	passus sum	*to suffer*

VERBAL INFLECTIONS

230. The principal parts are regularly formed in the four conjugations with the following endings:

CONJ. I.		**ō**	**āre**	**āvī**	**ātum**	
		amō	amāre	amāvī	amātum	*to love*
II.	In a few verbs:	**eō**	**ēre**	**ēvī**	**ētum**	
		dēleō	dēlēre	dēlēvī	dēlētum	*to destroy*
	In most verbs:	**eō**	**ēre**	**uī**	**itum**	
		moneō	monēre	monuī	monitum	*to advise*
III.	In consonant stems:	**ō**	**ere**	**sī**	**tum**	
		carpō	carpere	carpsī	carptum	*to pluck*
	In u-stems:	**uō**	**uere**	**uī**	**ūtum**	
		acuō	acuere	acuī	acūtum	*to sharpen*
IV.		**iō**	**īre**	**īvī**	**ītum**	
		audiō	audīre	audīvī	audītum	*to hear*

NOTE. — For a full treatment of the formation of the principal parts of verbs, see Classification of Verbs, **257–289**.

231. Compounds of verbs with dissyllabic Supines or Perfect Participles[1] generally change the stem vowel in forming the principal parts.[2]

1. When the simple verb has the stem vowel **e**, which becomes **ē**, both in the Perfect and in the Participle, the compound generally changes **e** to **i**, but retains **ē**:

regō	regere	rēxī	rēctum	*to rule*
dī-rigō	dī-rigere	dī-rēxī	dī-rēctum	*to direct*

2. When the simple verb has the stem vowel **e**, which remains unchanged both in the Perfect and in the Participle, the compound generally retains **e** in the Participle, but changes it to **i** in the other parts:

teneō	tenēre	tenuī	tentum	*to hold*
dē-tineō	dē-tinēre	dē-tinuī	dē-tentum	*to detain*

3. When the simple verb has the stem vowel **a**, which becomes **ē** in the Perfect, the compound generally retains **ē** in the Perfect, but changes **a** to **e** in the Participle and to **i** in the other parts:

capiō	capere	cēpī	captum	*to take*
ac-cipiō	ac-cipere	ac-cēpī	ac-ceptum	*to accept*

4. When the simple verb has the stem vowel **a** throughout, the compounds generally change **a** to **e** in the Participle and to **i** in the other parts:

rapiō	rapere	rapuī	raptum	*to seize*
dī-ripiō	dī-ripere	dī-ripuī	dī-reptum	*to tear asunder*

NOTE. — For Reduplication in compounds, see **251**, 4; other peculiarities of compounds will be noticed under the separate conjugations.

232. All the forms of the regular verb arrange themselves in three distinct groups or systems.

233. The Present System, with the Present Infinitive as its basis, comprises:

1. The Present, Imperfect, and Future Indicative — Active and Passive.
2. The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive — Active and Passive.
3. The Imperative — Active and Passive.
4. The Present Infinitive — Active and Passive.
5. The Present Participle.
6. The Gerund and the Gerundive.

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[1] The term Participle here used of one of the principal parts of the verb designates the form in **tum** or **sum**, which is the basis of the Participial or Supine System; see **235**.

[2] This change took place at a very early date, in accordance with phonetic laws, under the influence of the initial accent of that period.

NOTE. — These parts are all formed from the Present stem, found in the Present Infinitive Active by dropping the ending **re**: amāre, present stem **amā**; monēre, **monē**; regere, **rege**, with ablaut form **rego**; audīre, **audī**.

234. The Perfect System, with the Perfect Indicative Active as its basis, comprises in the active voice:

1. The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative.
2. The Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive.
3. The Perfect Infinitive.

NOTE. — These parts are all formed from the Perfect stem, found in the Perfect Indicative Active, by dropping **ī**: amāvī, perfect stem **amāv**; monuī, **monu**.

235. The Participial System, with the neuter of the Perfect Participle or the Supine as its basis, comprises:

1. The Future Active and the Perfect Passive Participle, the former of which with **esse** forms the Future Active Infinitive, while the latter with the proper parts of the auxiliary **sum** forms in the passive those tenses which in the active belong to the Perfect system. These Participles are both formed from the verb stem, the Future by adding **tūrus**, which sometimes becomes **sūrus**, and the Perfect by adding **tus**, which sometimes becomes **sus**.
2. The Supine in **tum** and **tū**, the former of which with **īrī** forms the Future Infinitive Passive. The Supine is formed from the verb stem by adding the endings **tum**, **tū**, which sometimes become **sum**, **sū**.

PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATIONS

236. The Active Periphrastic Conjugation, formed by combining the Future Active Participle with the verb **sum**, is used of actions which are imminent, or about to take place:

Amātūrus sum, *I am about to love.*

INDICATIVE MOOD

Pres.	amātūrus sum	*I am about to love*
Imp.	amātūrus eram	*I was about to love*
Fut.	amātūrus erō	*I shall be about to love*
Perf.	amātūrus fuī	*I have been*, or *was*, *about to love*
Plup.	amātūrus fueram	*I had been about to love*
F. P.	amātūrus fuerō	*I shall have been about to love*

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres.	**amātūrus sim**	*May I be about to love*
Imp.	**amātūrus essem**	*I should be about to love*
Perf.	**amātūrus fuerim**	*I may have been about to love*
Plup.	**amātūrus fuissem**	*I should have been about to love*

INFINITIVE

Pres.	**amātūrum esse**	*to be about to love*
Perf.	**amātūrum fuisse**	*to have been about to love*

237. The Passive Periphrastic Conjugation, formed by combining the Gerundive with **sum**, is used of actions which are necessary, or which ought to take place:

Amandus sum, *I am to be loved, deserve to be,* or *ought to be loved.*

INDICATIVE MOOD

Pres.	**amandus sum**	*I am to be loved, I must be loved*
Imp.	**amandus eram**	*I was to be loved, deserved to be,* etc.
Fut.	**amandus erō**	*I shall deserve to be loved*
Perf.	**amandus fuī**	*I have deserved to be loved*
Plup.	**amandus fueram**	*I had deserved to be loved*
F. P.	**amandus fuerō**	*I shall have deserved to be loved*

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres.	**amandus sim**	*May I deserve to be loved*
Imp.	**amandus essem**	*I should deserve to be loved*
Perf.	**amandus fuerim**	*I may have deserved to be loved*
Plup.	**amandus fuissem**	*I should have deserved to be loved*

INFINITIVE

Pres.	**amandum esse**	*to deserve to be loved*
Perf.	**amandum fuisse**	*to have deserved to be loved*

PECULIARITIES IN CONJUGATION

238. Perfects in **āvī** and **ēvī** and the tenses derived from them sometimes drop **ve** or **vi** before **r** or **s**[1]:

amāvistī	**amāstī**	**dēlēvistī**	**dēlēstī**
amāvisse	**amāsse**	**dēlēvisse**	**dēlēsse**
amāverim	**amārim**	**dēlēverim**	**dēlērim**
amāverō	**amārō**	**dēlēverō**	**dēlērō**

[1] According to another theory they drop **v**, and then the following vowel, **e** or **i**, disappears by contraction with the preceding vowel, **ā** or **ō**.

1. Perfects in **ōvī** from **nōscō**, and from the compounds of **moveō**, together with the tenses derived from them, may also drop **ve**, or **vi**, before **r** or **s**[1]:

nōvistī	nōstī	nōverīs	nōrīs
commovissem	commōssem		

2. Perfects in **īvī** and the tenses derived from them sometimes drop **vi** before **s**, and they may drop **v** in any situation except before the ending **ēre**:

audīvistī	audīstī	audīvī	audiī
audīvisse	audīsse	audīvērunt	audiērunt

3. Certain short forms from Perfects in **sī** and **xī**, common in poetry, are probably an independent formation of an early date:

scrīpstī = scrīpsistī	dīxtī = dīxistī
scrīpstis = scrīpsistis	dīxem = dīxissem

239. The ending **ēre** for **ērunt** in the Perfect is common in Livy and the poets, but rare in Caesar and Cicero. In poetry **erunt** occurs.

240. **Re** for **ris** in the ending of the second person of the passive is rare in the Present Indicative, but common in the other tenses.

241. **Dīc, dūc, fac,** and **fer,** for dīce, dūce, face, and fere, are the Imperatives of **dīcō, dūcō, faciō,** and **ferō,** *to say, lead, make,* and *bear.*

1. **Dīce, dūce,** and **face** occur in poetry.
2. Compounds generally follow the usage of the simple verbs, but the compounds of **faciō** with prepositions retain the final **e**: **cōn-ficiō, cōn-fice.**
3. **Sciō,** *I know,* lacks the present imperative, and uses the future in its stead.

242. Future and Perfect Infinitives often omit the auxiliary, **esse**: **amātūrum,** for amātūrum esse; **amātum,** for amātum esse.

243. **Undus** and **undī,** for endus and endī, occur as the endings of the Gerundive and Gerund of the Third and Fourth Conjugations, especially after **i**: **faciundus,** from faciō, *to make;* **dīcundus,** from dīcō, *to say.*

244. **Ancient and Rare Forms.** — Various other forms, belonging in the main to the earlier Latin, occur in the poets, even of the classical period, and occasionally also in prose, to impart to the style an air of antiquity or solemnity. Thus, forms in —

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[1] See **238,** footnote.

1. **Ībam** for **iēbam**, in the Imperfect Indicative of the Fourth Conjugation: **scībam** for sciēbam. See Imperfect of **eō**, *to go*, **297**.

2. **Ībō**, **Ībor**, for **iam**, **iar**, in the Future of the Fourth Conjugation: **servībō** for serviam; **opperībor** for opperiar. See Future of **eō**, **297**.

3. **im** for am or em, in the Present Subjunctive: **edim**, **edīs**, etc., for edam, edās, etc.; **duim** (from duō, for dō) for dem. In **sim**, **velim**, **nōlim**, **mālim** (**295**), **im** is the common ending.

4. **āssō**, **ēssō**, and **sō**, in the Future Perfect, and **āssim**, **ēssim**, and **sim**, in the Perfect Subjunctive of the First, Second, and Third Conjugations: **faxō** (facso) = fēcerō; **faxim** = fēcerim; **ausim** = ausus sim (from audeo). Rare examples are: **levāssō** = levāverō; **prohibēssō** = prohibuerō; **capsō** = cēperō.

5. **minō** for **tor**, in the Future Imperative, Passive, and Deponent: **arbitrāminō** for arbitrātor.

6. **ier** for **ī**, in the Present Passive Infinitive: **amārier** for amārī: **vidērier** for vidērī.

FORMATION OF STEMS

245. The Verb Stem, which is the basis of the entire conjugation, consists of that part of the verb which is common to all the forms of both voices. The Special Stems are either identical with this stem or formed from it.

I. Present Stem

246. The Present Stem, found in the Present Infinitive Active by dropping **re**, is generally the same as the verb stem in the First and in the Fourth Conjugation, and sometimes in the Second. Thus, **amā**, **dēlē**, and **audī** are both Present stems and verb stems.

247. The Present stem, when not the same as the verb stem, is formed from it by one of the following methods:

1. By adding the Thematic Vowel, originally **e**, **o**, usually written **e/o**. In Latin this vowel generally takes the form **i**, **u**[1]:

regō, Stem, **reg**; Present Stem, **reg e/o**; **rege** becomes **regi** in **regi-s**, and **rego** becomes **regu** in **regu-nt**.

2. By adding **n** with the thematic vowel:

cernō,	Stem, **cer**;	Present Stem, **cer-n e/o**;		*to perceive*
temnō,	" **tem**;	" " **tem-n e/o**;		*to despise*

[1] For this phonetic change, see **25**, 1, **27**, 1.

3. By inserting **n** and adding the thematic vowel:

frangō, Stem, **frag**; Present Stem, **frang**$^{e}/_{o}$; *to break*

4. By adding **t** with the thematic vowel:

plectō, Stem, **plec**; Present Stem, **plec-t**$^{e}/_{o}$; *to braid*

5. By adding **sc** with the thematic vowel:

quiēscō, Stem, **quiē**; Present Stem, **quiē-sc**$^{e}/_{o}$; *to rest*

6. By prefixing to the stem its initial consonant with **i**, and adding the thematic vowel:

gīgn-ere; Stem, **gen**; Present Stem, **gī-gn-**$^{e}/_{o}$[1]; *to beget*

7. By adding **ā**, **ē**, **ī**, or **i** to the stem[2]:

dom-āre	Stem,	**dom**	Present Stem,	**dom-ā**	*to tame*
vid-ēre	"	**vid**	"	**vid-ē**	*to see*
aper-īre	"	**aper**	"	**aper-ī**	*to uncover*
cap-ere	"	**cap**	"	**cap-i**	*to take*

II. Perfect Stem

248. Vowel stems, except those in **u**, generally form the Perfect stem by adding **v**[3]:

amā-re	amā-vī	Stem,	**amā**	Perfect Stem, **amāv**	*to love*
dēlē-re	dēlē-vi	"	**dēlē**	" " **dēlēv**	*to destroy*
audī-re	audī-vī	"	**audī**	" " **audīv**	*to hear*

1. In verbs in **uō**, the Perfect stem is the same as the verb stem:

acu-ere	acu-ī	Stem,	**acu**	Perfect Stem, **acu**	*to sharpen*

249. Many stems in **l**, **m**, **n**, **r**, and a few others, together with most of the verbs of the second conjugation, form the Perfect stem by adding **u**[3]:

al-ere	al-uī	Stem,	**al**	Perfect Stem, **alu**	*to nourish*
frem-ere	frem-uī	"	**frem**	" " **fremu**	*to rage*
ten-ēre	ten-uī	"	**ten**	" " **tenu**	*to hold*
ser-ere	ser-uī	"	**ser**	" " **seru**	*to connect*
doc-ere	doc-uī	"	**doc**	" " **docu**	*to teach*

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[1] In the reduplicated forms **gīgne**, **gīgno**, the root **gen** takes the weak form **gn**.

[2] In the first person of the Present Indicative active, the suffixes are **āo**, **ēo**, **īo**, and **io**.

[3] Perfects in **vī** and **uī** were not inherited, but are new formations. Perfects in **vī** are of uncertain origin, but they may have been formed on the analogy of such Perfects as **fāvī**, **lāvī**, **fōvī**, **mōvī**, **vōvī**, **iūvī**, in which **v** belongs to the verb stem. The ending **uī** is probably only a modification of **vī**.

250. Most mute stems form the Perfect stem by adding **s**[1]:

carp-ere	carp-sī	Stem,	**carp**	Perfect Stem,		**carps**	*to pluck*
reg-ere	rēxi = *rēg-sī	"	**reg**	"	"	**rēx** = *rēgs	*to rule*

251. Reduplication. — A few consonant stems form the Perfect stem by reduplication, which consists in prefixing the initial consonant of the stem with the following vowel or with **e**:

tend-ere	te-tend-ī	Stem,	**tend**	Perfect Stem,		**te-tend**	*to stretch*
pōsc-ere	po-pōsc-ī	"	**pōsc**	"	"	**po-pōsc**	*to demand*
curr-ere	cu-curr-ī	"	**curr**	"	"	**cu-curr**	*to run*
can-ere	ce-cin-ī	"	**can**	"	"	**ce-cin**	*to sing*

1. The vowel of the reduplication was originally **e**. In Latin it is assimilated to the vowel of the stem when that vowel is **i**, **o**, or **u**, as in **didic-ī**, **po-pōsc-ī**, **cu-curr-ī**, but it is retained as **e** in all other situations.

2. After the reduplication, **a** of the stem is weakened to **i** in open syllables, as in **can-ere**, **ce-ci-nī**, but in closed syllables it is weakened to **e**, as in **fall-ere**, **fe-fel-lī**; see **24**, 1 and 2. **Ae** is weakened to **ī**, as in **caed-ere**, **ce-cī-dī**; see **32**, 2.

3. In verbs beginning with **sp** or **st**, the reduplication retains both consonants, but the stem drops **s**: **spond-ēre**, **spo-pond-ī**, *to promise;* **stā-re**, **ste-t-ī**, *to stand.*

4. Compounds generally drop the reduplication, but the compounds of **dare**,[2] *to give;* **dīscere**, *to learn;* **pōscere**, *to demand*, and **stāre**, *to stand*, retain it: **te-tendī**, **contendī**; but **de-dī**, **circum-de-dī**; **ste-tī**, **circum-ste-tī**.

252. A few consonant stems form the Perfect stem by lengthening the stem vowel:

em-ere	ēm-ī	Stem,	**em**	Perfect Stem,		**ēm**	*to buy*
ag-ere	ēg-ī[3]	"	**ag**	"	"	**ēg**	*to drive*
leg-ere	lēg-ī	"	**leg**	"	"	**lēg**	*to read*
vid-ēre	vīd-ī	"	**vid**	"	"	**vīd**	*to see*

1. A few verbs retain the stem unchanged:

vert-ere	vert-ī	Stem,	**vert**	Perfect Stem,		**vert**	*to turn*
vīs-ere	vīs-ī	"	**vīs**	"	"	**vīs**	*to visit*

[1] The Perfect in **sī** is in its origin an inherited **s**-Aorist which has become one of the regular forms of the Latin Perfect. It corresponds to the **s**-Aorist of the Greek, Sanskrit, and other kindred tongues.

[2] The compounds of **dare** which are of the Third Conjugation change **e** into **i** in the reduplication: ad-de-re, **ad-di-dī**, for *ad-de-dī, *to add.*

[3] Observe that **a** in **ag-ere** and **i** in its compounds, as in **ab-ig-ere**, **ab-ēg-ī**, are not only lengthened, but also changed to **ē**.

PARTICIPIAL SYSTEM

253. The Participial System has no common stem, but it is represented in the Principal Parts of the verb by the neuter of the Perfect Participle, or by the Supine, each of which is formed by adding **tum** to the verb stem:

amā-re	**amā-tum**	*to love*
doc-ēre	**doc-tum**	*to teach*
can-ere	**can-tum**	*to sing*
audī-re	**audī-tum**	*to hear*

1. In stems in **d** and **t**, the union of **d-t** and of **t-t** in the Supine and Participle produces, according to phonetic law, **ss**, regularly reduced to **s** after long syllables:

laed-ere	*laed-tum	**lae-sum**	*to hurt*
vert-ere	*vert-tum	**ver-sum**	*to turn*

2. A few stems, chiefly those in **l** and **r**, following the analogy of stems in **d** and **t**, add **-sum** in forming the Supine or Participle:

fal-lere[1]	**fal-sum**	*to deceive*
curr-ere	**cur-sum**[2]	*to run*

VERBAL ENDINGS

254. The Endings which are appended to the verb stem in the formation of the various parts of the finite verb distinguish the different Voices, Moods, Tenses, Numbers, and Persons.

I. Personal Endings

255. The personal endings, some of which appear to have been formed from ancient pronominal stems, distinguish Voice, Number, and Person. They are in general as follows:

Person	Active	Passive	Meaning
Sing. First	**m, ō**	**r, or**	*I*
Second	**s**	**ris**	*thou, you*
Third	**t**	**tur**	*he, she, it*
Plur. First	**mus**	**mur**	*we*
Second	**tis**	**minī**[3]	*you*
Third	**nt**	**ntur**	*they*

[1] The second **l** for **n** belongs to the present stem, not to the verb stem.
[2] The second **r** for **s** disappears before **s**.
[3] **Minī** was not originally a personal ending, but the plural of a Passive Parti-

1. These are the regular personal endings in the Indicative and Subjunctive Moods, except the Perfect Indicative active, which has special endings, as seen in **fuī**:

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
First Person	**fu-ī**	**fu-ī-mus**[1]
Second "	**fu-is-tī**	**fu-is-tis**
Third "	**fu-i-t**	**fu-ēru-nt** or **fu-ēr-e**

2. The Imperative Mood has the following personal endings:

	ACTIVE		PASSIVE	
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Pres. Second Person	—	**te**	**re**	**minī**[2]
Fut. " "	**tō**	**tōte**	**tor**	—
Third "	**tō**	**ntō**	**tor**	**ntor**

II. Mood and Tense Signs

256. The Mood and Tense Signs include that part of the several verbal forms which stands between the verb stem and the personal endings: **s-ī-mus, s-ī-tis**; **amā-bā-mus, amā-bi-tis, audī-vi-mus, audī-verā-mus.**

1. The Subjunctive has a long vowel before the personal endings, as in **s-ī-mus, s-ī-tis, mone-ā-mus**, but this vowel is shortened before final **m, r,** and **t,** and in the Perfect generally before **mus** and **tis**: **audi-am, audi-at, amāver-imus, amāver-itis.**

2. The Indicative has no special mood sign, and the Imperative is distinguished by the personal endings.

3. The Future in the Third and Fourth Conjugations is in origin a Subjunctive, but it has assumed the force of the Future Indicative.

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ciple, not otherwise used in Latin, but seen in the Greek (*μενοι*). **Amāminī**, originally **amāminī estis**, means *you are loved*, as **amātī estis** means *you have been loved.*

[1] These peculiar endings have been produced by the union of two tenses originally distinct, the Perfect and the s-Aorist, both of which are preserved in the Greek and the Sanskrit. **Fui-t** and **fui-mus** are regular Perfect formations with the ordinary personal endings of the Latin verb, but **fu-ī** has the ending **ī** of uncertain origin, though it may have been derived from the Personal ending of the Middle Voice. **Fu-is-tī, fu-is-tis,** and **fu-ēr-unt** are s-Aorist formations, but **fu-is-tī** preserves in **tī** a modified form of the original personal ending of the Perfect.

[2] The ending **minī** is probably in origin an old Infinitive which has assumed the force of an Imperative, like the corresponding form in Homeric Greek. If so, it is to be distinguished from the same form used in other moods.

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS

First Conjugation

257. Principal Parts in **ō, āre, āvī, ātum**:

amō	amāre	amāvī	amātum	*to love*

So all regular verbs of this conjugation.

1. Deponent verbs of this conjugation form their principal parts as follows:

hortor	hortārī	hortātus sum	*to exhort*

2. The following verbs have both regular and irregular forms:

ap-plic-ō[1]	-āre	applicāvī	applicuī	applicātum	applicitum	*to join*
ē-nec-ō[2]	-āre	ēnecāvī	ēnecuī	ēnecātum	ēnectum	*to kill*
fric-ō	-āre	—	fricuī	fricātum	frictum	*to rub*
pōt-ō	-āre	pōtāvī	—	pōtātum	pōtum	*to drink*

258. Principal Parts in **ō, āre, uī, itum, tum**:

	domō	domāre	domuī	domitum	*to tame*
So	cubō, *to recline*		in-crepō, *to rebuke*	vetō, *to forbid*	
	secō	secāre	secuī	sectum	*to cut*

1. **Micō**,[3] *to glitter*, and **tonō**, *to thunder*, lack the Participial System.
2. **Sonō**,[3] **sonāre, sonuī**, *to sound*, has the Future Participle **sonātūrus**.

259. Principal Parts in **ō, āre, ī, tum**:

PERFECT WITH REDUPLICATION OR LENGTHENED STEM VOWEL

dō	dare	dedī	datum	*to give*
stō	stāre	stetī	statum	*to stand*
iuvō	iuvāre	iūvī	iūtum[4]	*to assist*
lavō	lavāre	lāvī	lavātum, lautum	*to wash*

1. In the inflection of **dō, dare**, the characteristic **a** is short[5] except in the forms **dās, dā, dāns**.

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[1] So **ex-plicō** and **im-plicō**, but denominatives in **plicō** are regular, as **duplicō**, *to double*.

[2] The simple **necō** is regular.

[3] But **dī-micō** is regular, and **re-sonō** has Perfect **re-sonāvī**.

[4] **Iuvō** has Fut. Part. **iuvātūrus**; in compounds **iūtūrus**.

[5] This short vowel is explained by the fact that **dō, dare**, is formed directly from the root **dō**, weak form **da**, without the suffix which gave rise to **ā** in other verbs of this conjugation; **dās, dā, dāns** follow the analogy of other verbs in **ō, āre**.

2. Dissyllabic compounds of **dō** are of the Third Conjugation: **ad-dō, addere, addidī, additum,** *to add.*

3. Compounds of **stō, stāre,** generally lack the participial system, and dissyllabic compounds have **stitī** in the Perfect. **Dīstō** and **exstō** have only the Present System.

Second Conjugation

260. Principal Parts in **eō, ēre, ēvī, ētum**:

	dēleō	dēlēre	dēlēvī	dēlētum	*to destroy*
So	com-pleō, *to fill*[1]		fleō, *to weep*		neō, *to spin*
Note	aboleō	abolēre	abolēvī	abolitum	*to destroy*
and	cieō	ciēre	cīvī	citum[2]	*to arouse*

261. Principal Parts in **eō, ēre, uī, itum**:

	moneō	monēre	monuī	monitum	*to advise*
	noceō	nocēre	nocuī	nocitum	*to hurt*
	habeō	habēre	habuī	habitum	*to have*
So	ad-hibeō, *to apply*		dē-beō,[3] *to owe*		prae-beō,[3] *to offer*
	co-erceō,[4] *to check*		ex-erceō,[4] *to train*		mereō, *to earn*
	placeō, *to please*		taceō, *to be silent*		terreō, *to terrify*
Note	caleō	calēre	caluī	calitūrus	*to be warm*
So	careō, *to be without*		doleō, *to grieve*		iaceō, *to lie*
	pareō, *to obey*		valeō, *to be strong*		—

1. Many verbs lack the Participial System:

	arceō	arcēre	arcuī	—	*to keep off*
	āreō	ārēre	āruī	—	*to be dry*
So	egeō, *to need*		ēmineō, *to stand forth*		flōreō, *to bloom*
	horreō, *to shudder*		lateō, *to be hid*		niteō, *to shine*
	oleō, *to smell*		palleō, *to be pale*		pateō, *to be open*
	sileō, *to be silent*		splendeō, *to shine*		studeō, *to desire*
	stupeō, *to be amazed*		timeō, *to fear*		torpeō, *to be dull*
	vigeō, *to thrive*		vireō, *to be green*		

2. Some verbs, derived chiefly from adjectives, have only the Present System in general use:

aveō, *to desire*	frīgeō, *to be cold*	hebeō, *to be dull*
immineō, *to threaten*	maereō, *to mourn*	polleō, *to be strong*

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[1] So other compounds of the obsolete **pleō**: ex-pleō, im-pleō, etc.

[2] Compounds are of the Fourth Conjugation.

[3] **Dē-beō** is from dē-habeō, **prae-beō** from praehabeō.

[4] Compounds of **arceō**; see 1 below.

262. Principal Parts in **eō, ēre, uī, tum, sum**:

	doceō	docēre	docuī	doctum	*to teach*
	misceō	miscēre	miscuī	mixtum	*to mix*
	torreō	torrēre	torruī	tostum	*to roast*
	cēnseō	cēnsēre	cēnsuī	cēnsum	*to assess*
Note	teneō	tenēre	tenuī	—	*to hold*

So **abs-tineō, con-tineō, per-tineō,** and **sus-tineō,** but note

	dētineō	dētinēre	dētinuī	dētentum	*to detain*

So dis-tineō, *to keep apart* ob-tineō, *to occupy* re-tineō, *to retain*

263. Principal Parts in **eō, ēre, sī, tum,** or **sum**:

	augeō	augēre	auxī[1]	auctum	*to increase*
	indulgeō	indulgēre	indulsī	indultum	*to indulge*
	torqueō	torquēre	torsī	tortum	*to twist*
	ārdeō	ārdēre	ārsī	ārsum	*to burn*
	haereō	haerēre	haesī[2]	haesum	*to stick*
	iubeō	iubēre	iussī	iussum	*to order*
	maneō	manēre	mānsī	mānsum	*to remain*
	mulceō	mulcēre	mulsī	mulsum	*to soothe*
	mulgeō	mulgēre	mulsī	mulsum	*to milk*
	rīdeō	rīdēre	rīsī	rīsum	*to laugh*
	suādeō	suādēre	suāsī	suāsum	*to advise*
	tergeō	tergēre	tersī	tersum	*to wipe off*
	algeō	algēre	alsī	—	*to be cold*
	fulgeō	fulgēre	fulsī	—	*to shine*
	urgeō	urgēre	ursī	—	*to press*
	lūceō	lūcēre	lūxī	—	*to shine*
	lūgeō	lūgēre	lūxī	—	*to mourn*

264. Principal Parts in **eō, ēre, ī, tum**:

PERFECT WITH LENGTHENED STEM VOWEL

	caveō	cavēre	cāvī	cautum	*to take heed*
	faveō	favēre	fāvī	fautum	*to favor*
	foveō	fovēre	fōvī	fōtum	*to cherish*

So moveō, *to move* voveō, *to vow*

Note	paveō	pavēre	pāvī	—	*to be terrified*

[1] Observe that **auxī** is from *aug-sī.

[2] The stem of **haereō** is **haes**. The Present adds **ē** and changes **s** to **r** between vowels. In **haesī**, **s** standing for **ss** is not changed.

265. Principal Parts in **eō, ēre, ī, sum**:

1. Perfect with Reduplication

mordeō	mordēre	mo-mordī	morsum	*to bite*
spondeō	spondēre	spo-pondī [1]	spōnsum	*to promise*
tondeō	tondēre	to-tondī	tōnsum	*to shear*
pendeō	pendēre	pe-pendī	—	*to hang*

2. Perfect with Lengthened Stem Vowel

sedeō	sedēre	sēdī	sessum [2]	*to sit*
videō	vidēre	vīdī	vīsum	*to see*

3. Perfect with Unchanged Stem

prandeō	prandēre	prandī	prānsum [3]	*to breakfast*
strīdeō	strīdēre	strīdī	—	*to creak*

266. Deponent Verbs

	liceor	licērī	licitus sum	*to bid*
	pol-liceor	pollicērī	pollicitus sum	*to promise*
So	mereor, *to deserve;*		misereor, *to pity;*	vereor, *to fear*
	reor	rērī	ratus sum	*to think*
	fateor	fatērī	fassus sum [4]	*to confess*
	medeor	medērī	—	*to heal*
	tueor	tuērī	—	*to protect*

267. Semi-Deponent Verbs, — Deponent in the Perfect

audeō	audēre	ausus sum	*to dare*
gaudeō	gaudēre	gāvīsus sum	*to rejoice*
soleō	solēre	solitus sum	*to be accustomed*

Third Conjugation

Stem in a Consonant

268. Principal Parts in **ō, ere, sī, tum**: [5]

	carpō	carpere	carpsī	carptum	*to pluck*
So	dē-carpō, *to pluck off*		ex-carpō, *to choose out*		sculpō, *to carve*

[1] For reduplication in compounds, see **251, 4**; **re-spondeō, re-spondēre, re-spondī, re-spōnsum,** *to reply*.

[2] So **circum-sedeō** and **super-sedeō**. Other compounds thus: **ob-sideō, ob-sidēre, ob-sēdī, ob sessum**, but some compounds lack the Participial System.

[3] See **224**, 1.

[4] But **cōn-fiteor, cōn-fitērī, cōn-fessus sum**; so **pro-fiteor**.

[5] For phonetic changes, see **51-56**.

nūbō	nūbere	nūpsī	nūptum	*to marry*
scrībō	scrībere	scrīpsī	scrīptum	*to write*
gerō	gerere	gessī	gestum [1]	*to carry*
ūrō	ūrere	ussī	ūstum [1]	*to burn*
dīcō	dīcere	dīxī [2]	dictum	*to say*
dūco	dūcere	dūxī	ductum	*to lead*
af-flīgō	affligere	afflīxī	afflictum	*to strike down*
cingō	cingere	cīnxī [2]	cīnctum	*to gird*
fingō	fingere	fīnxī	fictum	*to mould*
pingō	pingere	pīnxī	pictum	*to paint*
iungō	iungere	iūnxī	iūnctum	*to join*
dī-ligō	diligere	dīlēxī	dīlēctum [3]	*to love*
neg-legō	neglegere	neglēxī	neglēctum	*to neglect*
regō	regere	rēxī	rēctum	*to rule*
tegō	tegere	tēxī	tēctum	*to cover*
coquō	coquere	coxī	coctum	*to cook*
ex-stinguō	exstinguere	exstīnxī	exstīnctum [4]	*to extinguish*
trahō	trahere	trāxī	trāctum	*to draw*
vehō	vehere	vexī	vectum	*to carry*
vīvō	vīvere	vīxī	vīctum	*to live*
cōmō	cōmere	cōmpsī [5]	cōmptum [5]	*to arrange*

So dēmō, *to take away* prōmō, *to bring forth* sūmō, *to take*

Note con-temnō	contemnere	contempsī	contemptum	*to despise*

269. Principal Parts in **ō, ere, sī, sum:**

cēdō	cēdere	cessī	cessum	*to give place*
claudō	claudere	clausī	clausum	*to close*

So con-clūdō, *to enclose* ex-clūdo, *to exclude* ē-vādō,[6] *to go out*
plaudō, *to applaud* ex-plōdō, *to hoot off* dīvidō, *to divide*
laedō,[7] *to hurt* lūdō, *to play* rādō, *to shave*
rōdō, *to gnaw* trūdō, *to thrust*

flectō	flectere	flexī	flexum	*to bend*

So pectō, *to comb* plectō, *to braid*

mittō	mittere	mīsī	missum	*to send*
premō	premere	pressī	pressum	*to press*

[1] The stem of **gerō** is **ges**, and that of **ūrō** is **ūs**.

[2] Observe that in these and the following Perfects in **xī**, the tense ending is **sī**, and that **s** of this ending unites with the final mute of the stem and forms **x**: *dic-sī, **dīxī**; *cing-sī, **cīnxī**; see **51**.

[3] So **dē-ligō** and **ē-ligō**; **intel-legō** like **neg-legō**. For **legō**, see **270**, 2.

[4] So other compounds of **stinguō**, which is rare and defective.

[5] A euphonic **p** is here developed between **m** and **s**, and between **m** and **t** (**52, 5**).

[6] So other compounds of **vādō**, which is rare and defective.

[7] Compounds of **laedō** have **ī** for **ae**, as in **il-līdō**.

figō	figere	fixī	fixum	*to fasten*
mergō	mergere	mersī	mersum	*to sink*
spargō	spargere	sparsī	sparsum	*to scatter*

270. Principal Parts in **ō, ere, ī, tum**:

1. Perfect with Reduplication

	ab-dō	abdere	ab-di-dī	abditum[1]	*to put away*
So	ad-dō, *to add*	*to*	crē-dō, *to believe*		vēn-dō, *to sell*
	pangō	pangere	pe-pigī / pēgī	panctum / pāctum	*to make fast*
	im-pingō	impingere	impēgī	impāctum	*to hurl against*
	pungō	pungere	pu-pugī	pūnctum	*to prick*
	tangō	tangere	te-tigī[2]	tāctum	*to touch*
	tendō	tendere	te-tendī[2]	tentum	*to stretch*
	sistō	sistere	sti-tī	statum	*to place*
	cōn-sistō	cōnsistere	cōnstitī	—	*to take a stand*
	bibō	bibere	bi-bī[3]	—	*to drink*
	canō	canere	ce-cinī[4]	—	*to sing*
	discō	discere	di-dicī[5]	—	*to learn*
Note	tollō	tollere	sus-tulī[6]	sub-lātum	*to raise*

2. Perfect with Lengthened Stem Vowel

agō	agere	ēgī	āctum	*to drive*
per-agō	peragere	perēgī	perāctum[7]	*to finish*
ab-igō	abigere	abēgī	abāctum	*to drive away*
cōgō	cōgere	coēgī	coāctum	*to collect*
emō	emere	ēmī	ēm-p-tum[8]	*to buy*
ad-imō	adimere	adēmī	adēmptum	*to take away*
frangō	frangere	frēgī	frāctum	*to break*
per-fringō	perfringere	perfrēgī	perfrāctum	*to shatter*
icō	icere	īcī	ictum	*to strike*
legō	legere	lēgī	lēctum	*to read*
per-legō	perlegere	perlēgī	perlēctum	*to read through*
col-ligō	colligere	collēgī	collēctum	*to collect*

[1] So all dissyllabic compounds of **dō**; see **259**, 2.
[2] Compounds lose the reduplication; see **251**, 4.
[3] **Bibō** is in form reduplicated, both in the Present and in the Perfect.
[4] Most compounds of **canō** have **uī** in the Perfect; see **272**, 1.
[5] Reduplication **di**; stem, originally **dic**, became **dic**, as seen in **di-dic-ī**.
[6] The Perfect of **tollō** was originally **te-tulī** (**251**, 4).
[7] So **circum-agō**: most compounds like **ab-igō**. **Cōgō** is for **co-agō**.
[8] So **co-emō**. For **cōmō**, **dēmō**, **prōmō**, and **sūmō**, see **268**; other compounds like **ad-imō**.

For **dī-līgō** and **neg-legō**, see **268.**

re-linquō	relinquere	relīquī	relīctum [1]	*to leave*
rumpō	rumpere	rūpī	ruptum	*to burst*
vincō	vincere	vīcī	victum	*to conquer*

3. Perfect with Unchanged Stem

solvō	solvere	solvī	solūtum [2]	*to loose*
volvō	volvere	volvī	volūtum [2]	*to roll*

271. Principal Parts in **ō, ere, ī, sum:**

1. Perfect with Reduplication

cadō	cadere	ce-cidī	cāsum	*to fall*
in-cidō	incidere	incidī [3]	incāsum [4]	*to fall into*
caedō	caedere	ce-cīdī	caesum	*to cut*
in-cīdō	incīdere	incīdī [3]	incīsum	*to cut into*
pendō	pendere	pe-pendī	pēnsum	*to weigh*
tundō	tundere	tu-tudī	tūnsum, tūsum	*to beat*
con-tundō	contundere	contudī [3]	contūsum	*to crush*
fallō	fallere	fe-fellī	falsum	*to deceive*
pellō	pellere	pe-pulī	pulsum	*to drive*
re-pellō	repellere	reppulī	repulsum	*to drive back*
currō	currere	cu-currī [5]	cursum	*to run*
parcō	parcere	pe-percī	parsum	*to spare*
pōscō	pōscere	po-pōscī	—	*to demand*
dē-pōscō	dēpōscere	dē-po-pōscī [6]	—	*to demand*

2. Perfect with Lengthened Stem Vowel

edō	edere	ēdī	ēsum	*to eat*
fundō	fundere	fūdī	fūsum	*to pour*

3. Perfect with Unchanged Stem

ac-cendō	accendere	accendī	accēnsum [7]	*to kindle*
dē-fendō	dēfendere	dēfendī	dēfēnsum [7]	*to defend*
dē-scendō	dēscendere	dēscendī	dēscēnsum [7]	*to descend*
ex-cūdō	excūdere	excūdī	excūsum	*to forge*
findō	findere	fidī	fissum	*to split*

[1] The simple verb is **linquō, linquere, līquī, —**, *to leave.*
[2] Formed from **soluō** and **voluō**, like **statūtum** from statuō.
[3] Observe that these compounds lose the reduplication.
[4] Some compounds of **cadō** lack the Participial System.
[5] **Ex-currō** and **prae-currō** generally retain the reduplication.
[6] Observe that **dē-pōscō** retains the reduplication: see **251**, 4.
[7] So other compounds of the obsolete **candō, fendō,** and of

scindō	scindere	scidī	scissum	*to rend*
mandō	mandere	mandī	mānsum	*to chew*
pandō	pandere	pandī	passum	*to unfold*
pos-sīdō	possīdere	possēdī	possessum	*to seize*
pre-hendō [1]	prehendere	prehendī	prehēnsum	*to grasp*
vertō	vertere	vertī	versum	*to turn*
ē-verrō	ēverrere	ēverrī	ēversum	*to sweep out*
per-cellō	percellere	perculī [2]	perculsum	*to beat down*
vellō	vellere	vellī	vulsum	*to pluck*
vīsō	vīsere	vīsī	vīsum	*to visit*

Here belongs the semi-deponent verb

fīdō	fīdere	fīsus sum		*to trust*

272. Principal Parts in **ō, ere, uī, itum:**

gignō	gignere	genuī [3]	genitum	*to beget*
in-cumbō	incumbere	incubuī	incubitum [4]	*to lean upon*
molō	molere	moluī	molitum	*to grind*
vomō	vomere	vomuī	vomitum	*to vomit*
Note pōnō	pōnere	posuī	positum	*to place*

1. The following verbs lack the Participial System:

concinō	concinere	concinuī	—	*to sing together* [5]
fremō	fremere	fremuī	—	*to roar*
gemō	gemere	gemuī	—	*to groan*
tremō	tremere	tremuī	—	*to tremble*
strepō	strepere	strepuī	—	*to rattle*

273. Principal Parts in **ō, ere, uī, tum:**

alō	alere	aluī	altum [6]	*to nourish*
colō	colere	coluī	cultum	*to cultivate*
in-colō	incolere	incoluī	—	*to inhabit*
cōn-serō	cōnserere	cōnseruī	cōnsertum	*to connect*
cōnsulō	cōnsulere	cōnsuluī	cōnsultum	*to consult*
occulō	occulere	occuluī	occultum	*to hide*
texō	texere	texuī	textum	*to weave*

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[1] Often written **prēndō, prēndere**, etc.
[2] Originally the simple verb was doubtless reduplicated.
[3] The stem is **gen** in gen-uī, but **gn** in gī-gn-ō; the Present is reduplicated.
[4] So other compounds of **cumbō**.
[5] So most compounds of **canō**; see **270, 1.**
[6] Or **alitum.**

For **dī-ligō** and **neg-legō**, see **268.**

re-linquō	relinquere	relīquī	relīctum [1]	*to leave*
rumpō	rumpere	rūpī	ruptum	*to burst*
vincō	vincere	vīcī	victum	*to conquer*

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solvō	solvere	solvī	solūtum [2]	*to loose*
volvō	volvere	volvī	volūtum [2]	*to roll*

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caedō	caedere	ce-cīdī	caesum	*to cut*
in-cīdō	incīdere	incīdī [3]	incīsum	*to cut into*
pendō	pendere	pe-pendī	pēnsum	*to weigh*
tundō	tundere	tu-tudī	tūnsum, tūsum	*to beat*
con-tundō	contundere	contudī [3]	contūsum	*to crush*
fallō	fallere	fe-fellī	falsum	*to deceive*
pellō	pellere	pe-pulī	pulsum	*to drive*
re-pellō	repellere	reppulī	repulsum	*to drive back*
currō	currere	cu-currī [5]	cursum	*to run*
parcō	parcere	pe-percī	parsum	*to spare*
pōscō	pōscere	po-pōscī	—	*to demand*
dē-pōscō	dēpōscere	dē-po-pōscī [6]	—	*to demand*

2. Perfect with Lengthened Stem Vowel

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fundō	fundere	fūdī	fūsum	*to pour*

3. Perfect with Unchanged Stem

ac-cendō	accendere	accendī	accēnsum [7]	*to kindle*
dē-fendō	dēfendere	dēfendī	dēfēnsum [7]	*to defend*
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ex-cūdō	excūdere	excūdī	excūsum	*to forge*
findō	findere	fidī	fissum	*to split*

[1] The simple verb is **linquō, linquere, līquī, —,** *to leave.*
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[6] Observe that **dē-pōscō** retains the reduplication: see **251**, 4.
[7] So other compounds of the obsolete **candō, fendō,** and of **scandō.**

scindō	**scindere**	**scidī**	**scissum**	*to rend*
mandō	**mandere**	**mandī**	**mānsum**	*to chew*
pandō	**pandere**	**pandī**	**passum**	*to unfold*
pos-sīdō	**possīdere**	**possēdī**	**possessum**	*to seize*
pre-hendō [1]	**prehendere**	**prehendī**	**prehēnsum**	*to grasp*
vertō	**vertere**	**vertī**	**versum**	*to turn*
ē-verrō	**ēverrere**	**ēverrī**	**ēversum**	*to sweep out*
per-cellō	**percellere**	**perculī** [2]	**perculsum**	*to beat down*
vellō	**vellere**	**vellī**	**vulsum**	*to pluck*
vīsō	**vīsere**	**vīsī**	**vīsum**	*to visit*

Here belongs the semi-deponent verb

fīdō	**fīdere**	**fīsus sum**		*to trust*

272. Principal Parts in **ō, ere, uī, itum:**

gignō	**gignere**	**genuī** [3]	**genitum**	*to beget*
in-cumbō	**incumbere**	**incubuī**	**incubitum** [4]	*to lean upon*
molō	**molere**	**moluī**	**molitum**	*to grind*
vomō	**vomere**	**vomuī**	**vomitum**	*to vomit*
Note **pōnō**	**pōnere**	**posuī**	**positum**	*to place*

1. The following verbs lack the Participial System:

concinō	**concinere**	**concinuī**	—	*to sing together* [5]
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gemō	**gemere**	**gemuī**	—	*to groan*
tremō	**tremere**	**tremuī**	—	*to tremble*
strepō	**strepere**	**strepuī**	—	*to rattle*

273. Principal Parts in **ō, ere, uī, tum:**

alō	**alere**	**aluī**	**altum** [6]	*to nourish*
colō	**colere**	**coluī**	**cultum**	*to cultivate*
in-colō	**incolere**	**incoluī**	—	*to inhabit*
cōn-serō	**cōnserere**	**cōnseruī**	**cōnsertum**	*to connect*
cōnsulō	**cōnsulere**	**cōnsuluī**	**cōnsultum**	*to consult*
occulō	**occulere**	**occuluī**	**occultum**	*to hide*
texō	**texere**	**texuī**	**textum**	*to weave*

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[1] Often written **prēndō, prēndere**, etc.
[2] Originally the simple verb was doubtless reduplicated.
[3] The stem is **gen** in gen-uī, but **gn** in gī-gn-ō; the Present is reduplicated.
[4] So other compounds of **cumbō**.
[5] So most compounds of **canō**; see **270, 1.**
[6] Or **alitum.**

1. Note the following:

metō	metere	messuī[1]	messum	*to reap*
nectō	nectere	nexuī	nexum	*to bind*

2. Some verbs from consonant stems have only the Present System in general use.

angō	angere	*to trouble*	hīscō	hīscere	*to gape*
claudō	claudere	*to be lame*	lambō	lambere	*to lave*
fatīscō	fatīscere	*to gape*	temnō	temnere	*to despise*
furō	furere	*to rave*	vādō	vādere	*to go*
glīscō	glīscere	*to swell*	vergō	vergere	*to incline*

274. A few consonant stems form the Present in **iō** and the other Principal Parts like other consonant stems:

capiō	capere	cēpī	captum	*to take*
ac-cipiō	accipere	accēpī	acceptum	*to accept*
cupiō	cupere	cupīvī[2]	cupītum[2]	*to desire*
faciō	facere	fēcī	factum	*to make*

Passive irregular: **fiō, fierī, factus sum**; see **296**. So **cale-faciō, cale-fiō, satis-faciō, satis-fiō**.

cōn-ficiō	cōnficere	cōnfēcī	cōnfectum	*to accomplish*

Passive regular: **cōn-ficior, confici, confectus sum**. So all compounds of **faciō** with prepositions; other compounds like **cale-faciō**; but see **296, 4**.

fodiō	fodere	fōdī	fossum	*to dig*
fugiō	fugere	fūgī	fugitūrus	*to flee*
ef-fugiō	effugere	effūgī	—	*to flee away*
iaciō	iacere	iēcī	iactum	*to throw*
ab-iciō[3]	abicere[3]	abiēcī	abiectum	*to throw away*
pariō	parere	peperī	partum	*to bring forth*
quatiō	quatere	—	quassum	*to shake*
con-cutiō	concutere	concussī	concussum	*to shake*
rapiō	rapere	rapuī	raptum	*to seize*
sapiō	sapere	sapīvī[2]	—	*to savor of*

1. Here belong the compounds of the obsolete verbs **laciō**, *to entice*, and **speciō**, *to look*:

al-liciō	allicere	allexī	allectum	*to entice*

So **il-liciō** and **pel-liciō**, *to decoy*, but **ē-liciō** thus:

ē-liciō	ēlicere	ēlicuī	ēlicitum	*to draw out*
cōn-spiciō	cōnspicere	cōnspexī	cōnspectum	*to behold*

[1] The Perfect in **suī** seems to be a double formation: **suī** = sī + uī.
[2] Observe that these three forms are from ī-stems. [3] See **58, 6**.

Stem in a Vowel

275 Principal Parts in **uō, uere, uī, ūtum**:

exuō	exuere	exuī	exūtum	*to put off*
induō	induere	induī	indūtum	*to put on*
statuō	statuere	statuī	statūtum	*to place*
tribuō	tribuere	tribuī	tribūtum	*to impart*

1. So nearly all verbs in **uō**, but note the following:

ruō	ruere	ruī	rutum[1]	*to fall*
dī-ruō	dīruere	dīruī	dīrutum	*to destroy*
fluō	fluere	fluxī[2]	fluxum	*to flow*
struō	struere	strūxī[2]	strūctum	*to build*

2. The following verbs lack the Participial System:

acuō	acuere	acuī	—	*to sharpen*
arguō	arguere	arguī	—	*to accuse*
ab-nuō	abnuere	abnuī	—	*to refuse*
con-gruō	congruere	congruī	—	*to agree*

So luō, *to wash* metuō, *to fear* re-spuō, *to spurn*

276. A few verbs of the Third Conjugation form their Present system from consonant stems, but their Perfect and Participial systems from vowel stems after the analogy of other conjugations:

sternō	sternere	strāvī	strātum	*to spread out*
pro-sternō	prosternere	prostrāvī	prostrātum	*to overthrow*
dē-cernō	dēcernere	dēcrēvī	dēcrētum	*to decide*
sē-cernō	sēcernere	sēcrēvī	sēcrētum	*to separate*
spernō	spernere	sprēvī	sprētum	*to spurn*
arcessō	arcessere	arcessīvī	arcessītum	*to summon*
capessō	capessere	capessīvī	capessītum	*to seize*
lacessō	lacessere	lacessīvī	lacessītum	*to provoke*
petō	petere	petīvī[3]	petītum	*to seek*
quaerō	quaerere	quaesīvī	quaesītum	*to seek*
con-quīrō	conquīrere	conquīsīvī	conquīsītum	*to collect*
rudō	rudere	rudīvī	—	*to bray*
terō	terere	trīvī	trītum	*to rub*

[1] Future Participle **ruitūrus**.
[2] **Fluxī** from *flug-sī; **strūxī** follows the analogy of **fluxī**.
[3] Sometimes **petiī**.

1. Note the peculiarities in the following verbs:

facessō	facessere	facessī	facessītum	*to perform*
linō	linere	lēvī	litum	*to smear*
serō	serere	sēvī	satum	*to sow*
cōn-serō	cōnserere	cōnsēvī	cōnsitum	*to plant*
sinō	sinere	sīvī	situm	*to permit*
dē-sinō	dēsinere	dēsiī[1]	dēsitum	*to desist*
incessō	incessere	incessīvī	—	*to attack*

Inceptive or Inchoative Verbs

277. Verbs in **scō** are called Inceptive or Inchoative verbs because most of them denote the Beginning of an Action. They are of three varieties:

1. Primitive Inceptives, formed directly from roots or from lost verbs, generally without inceptive meaning.

2. Verbal Inceptives, formed from other verbs, generally with inceptive meaning.

3. Denominative Inceptives, formed from nouns and adjectives, chiefly from adjectives.

278. Primitive Inceptives; Perfect in **vī**, or in **ī** with Reduplication.

pāscō	pāscere	pāvī	pāstum	*to feed*
crēscō	crēscere	crēvī	crētum	*to grow*
quiēscō	quiēscere	quiēvī	quiētum	*to rest*
nōscō	nōscere	nōvī	nōtum	*to come to know*
īgnōscō[2]	īgnōscere	īgnōvī	īgnōtum	*to pardon*
cōgnōscō[2]	cōgnōscere	cōgnōvī	cōgnitum	*to ascertain*
discō	discere	didicī	—	*to learn*
poscō	poscere	popōscī	—	*to demand*

279. Many Verbal Inceptives have only the Present System in general use, but some take the Perfect of their Primitives whenever the occasion requires it.

ārēscō	ārēscere	āruī	—	*to become dry*	from **āreō**
calēscō	calēscere	caluī	—	*to become warm*	" **caleō**

[1] Here **v** is dropped, **dēsiī** from **dēsīvī**.

[2] **Īgnōscō** is compounded of **in**, meaning *not*, and **gnōscō**, the full form of **nōscō** which has lost its initial **g**. **Cōgnōscō** is compounded of **co** and **gnōscō**.

flōrēscō	flōrēscere	flōruī	—	*to begin to bloom*	from flōreō
ārdēscō	ārdēscere	ārsī	—	*to take fire*	" ārdeō
ab-olēscō	abolēscere	abolēvī	—	*to disappear*	" ab-oleō

1. A very few Verbal Inceptives have also certain forms of the Participial System:

ad-olēsc-ō	-ere	adolēvī	adultum	*to grow up*	from ad, oleō
ex-olēsc-ō	-ere	exolēvī	exolētum	*to go out of use*	" ex, oleō[1]
ob-solēsc-ō	-ere	obsolēvī	obsolētum	*to go out of use*	" ob, soleō
in-veterāsc-ō	-ere	inveterāvī	inveterātum	*to grow old*	" inveterō
con-cupīsc-ō	-ere	concupīvī	concupītum	*to desire*	" con, cupiō
scīsc-ō	-ere	scīvī	scītum	*to enact*	" sciō

280. Many Denominative Inceptives have only the Present System, but some have the Perfect in **uī**:

crēbrēsc-ō	-ere	crēbruī	—	*to grow frequent*	from crēber
dūrēsc-ō	-ere	dūruī	—	*to grow hard*	" dūrus
ē-vānēsc-ō	-ere	ēvānuī	—	*to disappear*	" ē, vānus
mātūrēsc-ō	-ere	mātūruī	—	*to ripen*	" mātūrus
ob-mūtēsc-ō	-ere	obmūtuī	—	*to grow dumb*	" ob, mūtus
ob-surdēsc-ō	-ere	obsurduī	—	*to grow deaf*	" ob, surdus

Deponent Verbs

281. Deponent Verbs with the Perfect in **tus sum**:

	fruor	fruī	frūctus sum[2]	*to enjoy*
	per-fruor	perfruī	perfrūctus sum	*to enjoy fully*
	fungor	fungī	fūnctus sum	*to perform*
	queror	querī	questus sum	*to complain*
	loquor	loquī	locūtus sum	*to speak*
	sequor	sequī	secūtus sum	*to follow*
	per-sequor	persequī	persecūtus sum[3]	*to pursue*
Note	morior	morī	mortuus sum[4]	*to die*
also	līquor	līquī	—	*to melt*
	ringor	ringī	—	*to growl*

282. Deponent Verbs with the Perfect in **sus sum**:

gradior	gradī	gressus sum	*to walk*
in-gredior	ingredī	ingressus sum	*to go into*

[1] Or from ex, soleō, like ob-soleō from ob, soleō.
[2] Fut. Part. fruitūrus.
[3] So other compounds of sequor.
[4] The Future Participle of morior is moritūrus.

lābor	lābī	lāpsus sum	*to slip*
patior	patī	passus sum	*to suffer*
per-petior	perpetī	perpessus sum	*to endure*
ūtor	ūtī	ūsus sum	*to use*
nītor	nītī	nīsus sum, nīxus sum	*to strive*
am-plector	amplectī	amplexus sum	*to embrace*

Note **re-vertor, revertī**; Perfect, **revertī**, rarely **reversus sum**, *to return.*

283. Deponent Verbs with Inceptive Forms:

apīscor	apīscī	—	*to reach*
ad-ipīscor	adipīscī	adeptus sum	*to acquire*
com-minīscor	comminīscī	commentus sum	*to devise*
re-minīscor	reminīscī	—	*to remember*
ex-pergīscor	expergīscī	experrēctus sum	*to awake*
nancīscor	nancīscī	nanctus (nactus) sum	*to obtain*
nāscor	nāscī	nātus sum	*to be born*
ob-līvīscor	oblīvīscī	oblītus sum	*to forget*
pacīscor	pacīscī	pactus sum	*to covenant*
pro-ficīscor	proficīscī	profectus sum	*to set out*
ulcīscor	ulcīscī	ultus sum	*to avenge*
īrāscor	īrāscī	—	*to be angry*
vescor	vescī	—	*to eat*

1. Note the following Semi-Deponent verb:

fīdō	fīdere	fīsus sum	*to trust*

Fourth Conjugation

284. Principal Parts in **iō, īre, īvi, ītum**:

audiō	audīre	audīvī	audītum	*to hear*

1. All regular verbs of this conjugation form their Principal Parts like **audiō**, but note the following:

sepeliō	sepelīre	sepelīvī	sepultum [1]	*to bury*
sitiō	sitīre	sitīvī	—	*to thirst*
vāgiō	vāgīre	vāgīvī	—	*to cry*

2. **v** is often lost in the Perfect: **audiī** for audīvī; see **238**, 2.

285. Principal Parts in **iō, īre, uī, tum**:

amiciō	amicīre	amicuī [2]	amictum	*to wrap about*
aperiō	aperīre	aperuī	apertum	*to open*

[1] With irregular formation.

[2] The Perfect is rare and late.

operiō	**operīre**	**operuī**	opertum	*to cover*
saliō	**salīre**	**saluī, salii**	—	*to leap*
dē-siliō	**dēsilīre**	**dēsiluī, dēsilii**	—	*to leap down*

286. Principal Parts in **iō, īre, sī, tum** or **sum**:

farciō	**farcīre**	**farsī**	fartum [1]	*to fill*
re-ferciō	**refercīre**	**refersī**	refertum	*to stuff*
fulciō	**fulcīre**	**fulsī**	fultum	*to prop up*
hauriō	**haurīre**	**hausī** [2]	haustum [3]	*to draw*
saepiō	**saepīre**	**saepsī**	saeptum	*to hedge in*
sanciō	**sancīre**	**sānxī**	sānctum	*to ratify*
sarciō	**sarcīre**	**sarsī**	sartum	*to patch*
vinciō	**vincīre**	**vinxī**	vinctum	*to bind*
rauciō	**raucīre**	(rausī [4])	rausum	*to be hoarse*
sentiō	**sentīre**	**sēnsī**	sēnsum	*to feel*

287. Principal Parts in **iō, īre, ī, tum**:

1. Perfect Originally Reduplicated

com-periō	**comperīre**	**comperī** [5]	compertum	*to learn*
re-periō	**reperīre**	**re-p-perī**	repertum	*to find out*

2. Perfect with Lengthened Stem Vowel

veniō	**venīre**	**vēnī**	ventum	*to come*
ad-veniō	**advenīre**	**advēnī**	adventum	*to arrive*
in-veniō	**invenīre**	**invēnī**	inventum	*to find out*

288. A few verbs of this conjugation have only the present system in general use. The following are the most important:

1. Desideratives, but **ēsuriō**, *to desire to eat*, has the Future Participle **ēsurītūrus**.

2. Also

balbūtiō, *to stammer*	feriō, *to strike*	ganniō, *to bark*
ineptiō, *to trifle*	sāgiō, *to discern*	superbiō, *to be haughty*

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[1] **C** disappears between **r** and **s**, **l** and **s**, **r** and **t**, **l** and **t**; see **58**, 1.

[2] **Hausī** is simplified from **haus-sī**; the stem is **haus**; **haurīō** from **hausiō**.

[3] Fut. Part. **hausūrus**.

[4] This verb is exceedingly rare and the Perfect without good authority.

[5] The reduplicated form of the simple verb was **pe-perī**. We find a trace of the reduplication in the first **p** in **re-p-perī**, from **re-pe-perī**.

Deponent Verbs

289. All regular Deponent Verbs of this conjugation form their Principal Parts as follows:

blandior	blandīrī	blandītus sum	*to flatter*

1. The following are somewhat irregular:

ex-perior	experīrī	expertus sum	*to try*
op-perior	opperīrī	oppertus sum	*to await*
orior[1]	orīrī	ortus sum	*to rise*
ad-orior	adorīrī	adortus sum	*to assail*
as-sentior	assentīrī	assēnsus sum	*to assent*
mētior	mētīrī	mēnsus sum	*to measure*
ōrdior	ōrdīrī	ōrsus sum	*to begin*

Irregular Verbs

290. A few verbs which have special irregularities are called by way of preëminence Irregular or Anomalous Verbs. They are **sum, edō, ferō, volō, fīō, eō, queō,** and their compounds.

1. The inflection of **sum** has already been given (**205**). Most of its compounds — **ab-sum, ad-sum, dē-sum, ob-sum, prae-sum,** etc. — are inflected in the same way, but **ab-sum** has **ā-fuī, ā-futūrus,** and a Present Participle **ab-sēns,** *absent.* **Prae-sum** has a Present Participle **prae-sēns,** *present.* **Pos-sum** and **prō-sum** require special treatment.

291. Possum posse potuī *to be able*

Indicative

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Pres.	possum, potes, potest	possumus, potestis, possunt
Imp.	poteram[2]	poterāmus
Fut.	poterō	poterimus[3]
Perf.	potuī	potuimus
Plup.	potueram	potuerāmus
F. P.	potuerō	potuerimus

[1] In the Present Indicative and Imperative **orior** is inflected as a verb of the Third Conjugation: **orior, oreris, oritur,** etc.; **orere**; in the Imperfect Subjunctive, it has both **orerer, orerēris,** etc., and **orīrer, orīrēris,** etc. So all compounds of **orior,** except **ad-orior,** which has only forms of the Fourth Conjugation.

[2] Inflected regularly through the different persons: **poteram, poterās, poterat,** etc. So in the other tenses: **potuī, potuistī,** etc.

[3] **Poterunt,** third person plural, but **poterint** also occurs.

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres.	possim, possīs, possit	possīmus, possītis, possint
Imp.	possem	possēmus
Perf.	potuerim	potuerimus
Plup.	potuissem	potuissēmus

INFINITIVE		PARTICIPLE	
Pres.	posse	Pres.	potēns (*as an adjective*)
Perf.	potuisse		

1. **Possum** forms its present system from a compound of **pot** (for **potis, pote**), *able*, and **sum**. **Pot-sum** becomes **possum** by assimilation, and **pot-esse** and **pot-essem** are shortened to **posse** and **possem**.[1]

2. The parts of **possum** are sometimes used separately, and then **potis, pote** is indeclinable: **potis sum**, *I am able;* **potis sumus**, *we are able*, etc.

3. **Possum** derives its Perfect, **potuī**, and its Present Participle, **potēns**, from the verb **potēre**, which has otherwise disappeared from the language.

4. In rare instances passive forms occur in early Latin, as **potestur** = potest, **poterātur** = poterat, used with Passive Infinitives.

292. Prō-sum prōd-esse prō-fuī *to profit*

Prō-sum is compounded of **prō**, **prōd**, *for*, and **sum**. It retains **d** from **prōd**, when the simple verb begins with **e**, but otherwise it is inflected like **sum**:

prō-sum, prōd-es, prōd-est, prō-sumus, prōd-estis, prō-sunt, etc.

293. Edō edere ēdī ēsum *to eat*

In certain parts of the present system this verb has both regular and irregular forms, as follows:

Active Voice

INDICATIVE

Pres.	edō	edis ēs	edit ēst	edimus	editis ēstis	**edunt**

SUBJUNCTIVE

Imp.	ederem ēssem	ederēs ēssēs	ederet ēsset	ederēmus ēssēmus	ederētis ēssētis	ederent ēssent

[1] But the full forms also occur: **pot-esse, pot-essem**, etc.; also **pot-isse** and **pot-issent**.

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	ede	edite	
	ēs	ēste	
Fut.	editō	editōte	eduntō
	ēstō	ēstōte	

INFINITIVE

Pres.	edere	ēsse

Passive Voice

INDICATIVE

Pres.	edor	ederis	editur ēstur	edimur	ediminī	eduntur

SUBJUNCTIVE

Imp.	ederer	ederēris	ederētur ēssētur	ederēmur	ederēminī	ederentur

1. In all the other tenses this verb has the regular inflection, but forms in **im** for **am** occur in the Present Subjunctive: **edim, edīs, edit**, etc., for edam, edās, edat, etc.

2. Observe that the shorter forms have **ē** in the root syllable, but that otherwise they are like the corresponding forms of the verb, **sum**. They are the favorite forms in classical Latin.

3. Compounds are conjugated like the simple verb, but note

com-edō com-edere com-ēdī com-ēsum or com-ēstum *to eat up*

294. Ferō ferre tulī lātum *to bear*

Active Voice

INDICATIVE

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Pres.	ferō, fers, fert	ferimus, fertis,[1] ferunt
Imp.	ferēbam[2]	ferēbāmus
Fut.	feram	ferēmus
Perf.	tulī	tulimus
Plup.	tuleram	tulerāmus
F. P.	tulerō	tulerimus

[1] **Fer-s, fer-t, fer-tis**, like es-t, es-tis, are formed without the thematic vowel.

[2] **Inflect** the several tenses in full: **ferēbam, ferēbās**, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres.	**feram**	**ferāmus**
Imp.	**ferrem**	**ferrēmus**[1]
Perf.	**tulerim**	**tulerimus**
Plup.	**tulissem**	**tulissēmus**

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	**fer**	**ferte**
Perf.	**fertō**	**fertōte**
	fertō	**feruntō**

INFINITIVE		PARTICIPLE	
Pres.	**ferre**[1]	**Pres.**	**ferēns**
Perf.	**tulisse**		
Fut.	**lātūrum esse**	**Fut.**	**lātūrus**

GERUND		SUPINE	
Gen.	**ferendī**		
Dat.	**ferendō**		
Acc.	**ferendum**	**Acc.**	**lātum**
Abl.	**ferendō**	**Abl.**	**lātū**

Passive Voice

feror **ferrī** **lātus sum** *to be borne*

INDICATIVE

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Pres.	**feror, ferris, fertur**	**ferimur, feriminī, feruntur**
Imp.	**ferēbar**	**ferēbāmur**
Fut.	**ferar**	**ferēmur**
Perf.	**lātus sum**	**lātī sumus**
Plup.	**lātus eram**	**lātī erāmus**
F. P.	**lātus erō**	**lātī erimus**

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres.	**ferar**	**ferāmur**
Imp.	**ferrer**	**ferrēmur**
Perf.	**lātus sim**	**lātī sīmus**
Plup.	**lātus essem**	**lātī essēmus**

[1] **Fer-rem**, **fer-rēs**, etc., from **fer-sem**, **fer-sēs**, etc., like es-sem, es-sēs, etc.; and **fer-re** from **fer-se** like es-se, are formed without the thematic vowel. Several other forms have the same peculiarity.

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	ferre	ferimini
Fut.	fertor	—
	fertor	feruntor

INFINITIVE		PARTICIPLE	
Pres.	ferrī		
Perf.	lātum esse	Perf.	lātus
Fut.	lātum īrī	Ger.	ferendus

1. **Ferō** is inflected from two independent stems, **fer** seen in **fer-ō** and **tel, tol** in **tul-ī**, with the ablaut form **tl** seen in **tl-ā-tum**, the original form of **lātum**.

2. Compounds of **ferō** are conjugated like the simple verb, but in a few of them the preposition suffers a euphonic change:

ad	ad-ferō	ad-ferre	at-tulī	al-lātum	*to carry to*
au, ab[1]	au-ferō	au-ferre	abs-tulī	ab-lātum	*to carry away*
con	cōn-ferō	con-ferre	con-tulī	col-lātum	*to bring together*
dis, dī[1]	dif-ferō	dif-ferre	dis-tulī	dī-lātum	*to carry apart*
ex, ē[1]	ef-ferō	ef-ferre	ex-tulī	ē-lātum	*to carry out*
in	īn-ferō	in-ferre	in-tulī	il-lātum	*to carry into*
ob	of-ferō	of-ferre	ob-tulī	ob-lātum	*to bring before*
re	re-ferō	re-ferre	re-t-tulī	re-lātum	*to carry back*
sub	suf-ferō	suf-ferre	sus-tulī	sub-lātum	*to suffer*

NOTE. — In form **sus-tulī** and **sub-lātum** belong to the verb **suf-ferō**, *to undertake, to bear, suffer*, and they sometimes have this meaning; but they also supply the Perfect and the Perfect Participle of **tollō**, *to take up, raise.*

295.

Volō	velle	voluī	*to be willing*
Nōlō	nōlle	nōluī	*to be unwilling*
Mālō	mālle	māluī	*to prefer*

INDICATIVE

Pres.	volō	nōlō	mālō
	vīs	nōn vīs	māvīs
	vult	nōn vult	māvult

[1] **Au** and **ab** are two separate prepositions, but with the same general meaning; **dis** and **dī** are two forms of one and the same preposition; so also are **ex** and **ē**.

	volumus	**nōlumus**	**mālumus**
	vultis	**nōn vultis**	**māvultis**
	volunt	**nōlunt**	**mālunt**
Imp.	**volēbam**	**nōlēbam**	**mālēbam**
Fut.	**volam**	**nōlam**	**mālam**
Perf.	**voluī**	**nōluī**	**māluī**
Plup.	**volueram**	**nōlueram**	**mālueram**
F. P.	**voluerō**	**nōluerō**	**māluerō**

Subjunctive

Pres.	**velim**[1]	**nōlim**	**mālim**
Imp.	**vellem**[2]	**nōllem**	**māllem**
Perf.	**voluerim**	**nōluerim**	**māluerim**
Plup.	**voluissem**	**nōluissem**	**māluissem**

Imperative

Pres.	**nōlī**	**nōlīte**
Fut.	**nōlītō**	**nōlītōte**
	nōlītō	**nōluntō**

Infinitive

Pres.	**velle**	**nōlle**	**mālle**
Perf.	**voluisse**	**nōluisse**	**māluisse**

Participle

Pres.	**volēns**	**nōlēns**

1. The stem of **volō** is **vel**, **vol**, in which **o** is weakened to **u** in **vult**. **Vīs** is from a separate stem, **vī**.

2. **Nōlō** is from **ne-volō**; **mālō** supplanted an earlier formation, **mā-volō**, from **magis-volō**.

3. Other forms occur, especially in early Latin,

of **volō**: **volt**, **voltis**; **sīs**, **sūltis**, for **sī vīs**, **sī vultis**;
of **nōlō**: **ne-vīs**, **ne-volt**; **nōn velim**, **nōn vellem**;
of **mālō**: **mā-volō**, **mā-volam**, **mā-velim**, **mā-vellem**.

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[1] **Velim** is inflected like **sim**, and **vellem** like **essem**.

[2] **Vellem** is from **vel-sem**, like **es-sem**; **velle** from **vel-se**, like **es-se**. Here **s** is assimilated to the preceding **l**.

296. The regular verb **faciō, facere, fecī, factum,** *to make,* has the following irregular Passive:

Fīō, fierī, factus sum, *to become, be made*

INDICATIVE

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Pres.	fīō, fīs, fit	fīunt
Imp.	fīēbam	fīēbāmus
Fut.	fīam	fīēmus
Perf.	factus sum	factī sumus
Plup.	factus eram	factī erāmus
F. P.	factus erō	factī erimus

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres.	fīam	fīāmus
Imp.	fierem	fierēmus
Perf.	factus sim	factī sīmus
Plup.	factus essem	factī essēmus

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	**fī**	**fīte**

INFINITIVE		PARTICIPLE	
Pres.	fierī		
Perf.	factum esse	Perf.	factus
Fut.	factum īrī	Ger.	faciendus

1. The first and second persons plural of the Present Indicative are not found.

2. The Imperative forms **fī** and **fīte** belong to early and late Latin. A rare Infinitive, **fiere**, occurs in early Latin.

3. For the compounds of **faciō** and **fīō**, see **274**.

4. Moreover, a few isolated forms of compounds of **fīō**, with prepositions, occur as follows:

INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INFINITIVE	
cōnfit, cōnfīunt	cōnfīat, cōnfieret	cōnfierī	*to be done*
dēfit, dēfīunt, dēfīet	dēfīat	dēfierī	*to be wanting*
īnfit, īnfīunt			*he begins, they begin*
	interfīat	interfierī	*to be destroyed*

297. **Eō** **īre** **iī** **itum** *to go*

INDICATIVE

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
Pres.	eō	īs	it	īmus	ītis	eunt
Imp.	ībam	ības	ībat	ībāmus	ībātis	ībant
Fut.	ībō	ībis	ībit	ībimus	ībitis	ībunt
Perf.	iī	īstī	iit	iimus	īstis	iērunt
Plup.	ieram	ierās	ierat	ierāmus	ierātis	ierant
F. P.	ierō	ierīs	ierit	ierimus	ieritis	ierint

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres.	eam	eās	eat	eāmus	eātis	eant
Imp.	īrem	īrēs	īret	īrēmus	īrētis	īrent
Perf.	ierim	ierīs	ierit	ierimus	ieritis	ierint
Plup.	īssem	īssēs	īsset	īssēmus	īssētis	īssent

INFINITIVE

Pres.	īre
Perf.	īsse
Fut.	itūrum esse

PARTICIPLE

Pres.	iēns	Gen.	euntis
Fut.	itūrus		

GERUND

Gen.	eundī
Dat.	eundō
Acc.	eundum
Abl.	eundō

SUPINE

Acc.	itum
Abl.	itū

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	ī	īte
Fut.	ītō	ītōte
	ītō	euntō

1. **Eō** is a verb of the Fourth Conjugation, but it forms the Supine from the weak stem **i**, and is irregular in several parts of the present system. In the perfect system the regular classical forms are **iī**, **ieram**, **ierō**, etc., as given in the paradigm, but the forms with **v**, as **īvī**, **īveram**, **īverō**, etc., occur in early and late Latin.

2. Observe that **ii** is regularly contracted into **ī** before **s**, as **īssem**, but the uncontracted **ii** is found in rare instances.

3. The stem of **eō** is the root **ei**, weak form **i**. **Ei** becomes **e** before **ă**, **ŏ**, and **u**, as in **eam**, **eāmus**, **eō**, **eunt**, but in other situations it becomes **ī**,

shortened to **i** before a vowel or final **t**, as in **īs**, **īmus**, **ītis**; **iimus**, **ierō**, **it**. The weak stem is seen in **i-tum** and **i-tūrus**.

4. As an intransitive verb **eō** has no regular passive voice, but certain passive forms are used impersonally: **ītur**, *there is going;* **itum est**, *they have gone;* but **īrī**, the Passive Infinitive, is used as an auxiliary in the Future Infinitive Passive of the regular conjugation: **amātum īrī**, etc.

5. Compounds of **eō** have the short form in the Perfect System and are conjugated as follows:

ab-eō	abīre	abiī	abitum	*to go away*
ex-eō	exīre	exiī	exitum	*to go out*

NOTE. — A few compounds occasionally have a future in **iet**, for **ībit**.

6. Transitive Compounds of **eō** may be used in the passive voice, as **ad-eō**, **adīre**, *to approach*; Passive **ad-eor**, **adīris**, **adītur**, etc. Passive forms are somewhat rare.

7. **Ambiō** (from ambi-eō), ambīre, ambīvī, ambītum, *to solicit*, is inflected as a regular verb of the Fourth Conjugation, like **audiō**, though **ambībam** for ambiēbam occurs.

298. **Queō**, quīre, quīvī, quiī, *to be able*, and **ne-queō**, nequīre, nequīvī, ne-quiī, *not to be able*, are inflected like **eō**, but they are used chiefly in early writers.

1. The forms most frequently used by the best writers are nōn queō, nōn queam, nōn queat, nōn queant, nōn quīre; nequeunt, nequeāmus, nequeant, nequībās, nequībat, nequībant, nequīstī, nequiit, nequiēre, nequierat, nequierant, nequīrem, nequīret, nequīre.

Defective Verbs

299. The following verbs lack the Present System:

	Coepī, *I have begun*	Meminī, *I remember*	Ōdī, *I hate*
	INDICATIVE		
Perf.	coepī	meminī	ōdī
Plup.	coeperam	memineram	ōderam
F. P.	coeperō	meminerō	ōderō
	SUBJUNCTIVE		
Perf.	coeperim	meminerim	ōderim
Plup.	coepissem	meminissem	ōdissem

IMPERATIVE

Sing. mementō
Plur. mementōte

INFINITIVE

Perf.	coepisse	meminisse	ōdisse
Fut.	coeptūrum esse		ōsūrum esse

PARTICIPLE

Perf.	coeptus	ōsus[1]
Fut.	coeptūrus	ōsūrus

1. With Passive Infinitives, **coepī** generally takes the passive form: **coeptus sum, eram**, etc. **Coeptus** is passive in sense.

2. **Meminī** and **ōdī** are Present in sense; hence in the Pluperfect and Future Perfect they have the sense of the Imperfect and Future. **Nōvī**, *I know*, Perfect of **nōscō**, *to learn*, and **cōnsuēvī**, *I am wont*, Perfect of **cōnsuēscō**, *to accustom one's self*, are also present in sense.

300. The three following verbs are used chiefly in certain parts of the Present System.

Āiō, *I say, I say yes:*[2]

INDICATIVE

Pres.	āiō	ais[3]	ait	—	—	āiunt
Imp.	āiēbam[4]	āiēbās	āiēbat	āiēbāmus	āiēbātis	āiēbant
Perf.	—	—	ait	—	—	—

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres.	—	āiās	āiat	—	—	āiant

IMPERATIVE

Pres. aī (rare)

PARTICIPLE

Pres. āiēns

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[1] **Ōsus** is active in sense, *hating*, but is rare, except in compounds.

[2] In this verb **a** and **i** do not form a diphthong; before a vowel **i** is a consonant; see **12**, 2.

[3] The interrogative form **ais-ne** is often shortened to **ain**.

[4] **Aībam, aībās**, etc., occur.

Inquam, *I say*, is used in connection with direct quotations and is inserted after one or more of the words quoted.

Indic.	Pres.	inquam	inquis	inquit	inquimus	inquitis[1]	inquiunt
"	Imp.	—	—	inquiēbat[1]	—	—	—
"	Fut.	—	inquiēs	inquiet	—	—	—
"	Perf.	inquiī	inquīstī	inquit	—	—	—
Imper.	Pres.	inque	Fut.	inquitō			

Fārī, *to speak*

Indic.	Pres.	—	—	fātur	—	—	fantur
"	Fut.	fābor	—	fābitur	—	—	—
"	Perf.	—	—	fātus est	—	—	fātī sunt
"	Plup.	fātus eram	—	fātus erat	—	—	—
Imper.	Pres.	fāre					
Infin.	Pres.	fārī					
Part.	Pres.	fāns	—	fantī	fantem		fante
"	Past	fātus					
"	Ger.	fandus					
Gerund,	Gen.	fandī	Abl.	fandō	Supine,	Abl.	fātū

1. **Fārī** is used chiefly in poetry. The compounds have a few forms not found in the simple verb, as **af-fāmur**, **af-fāminī**, **af-fābar**, etc.

301. Certain verbs have only a few special forms.

1. Imperative and Infinitive.

havē	havēte	havētō	havēre[2]	*hail, to be well*
salvē	salvēte[3]	salvētō	salvēre	*hail, to be well*
cedō	cette			*give me, tell me*
apage				*away with you*

2. Other forms:

ovat	ovāns	*he rejoices, rejoicing*
quaesō	quaesumus	*I entreat, we entreat*

Impersonal Verbs

302. Impersonal Verbs correspond to the English impersonal verbs with *it*: licet, *it is lawful;* oportet, *it is proper.* They are conjugated like

[1] Inquitis is rare. Inquībat for inquiēbat occurs.
[2] Also written avē, avēte; avētō, avēre.
[3] The Future salvēbis is also used for the Imperative.

other verbs, but are used only in the third person singular of the Indicative and Subjunctive, and in the Present and Perfect Infinitive.

1. The subject, when expressed, is generally an Infinitive or a clause: **hōc fierī oportet**, *that this should be done is proper.*

2. The following verbs are generally impersonal:

ningit	ningere	ninxit	*it snows*
pluit	pluere	pluit	*it rains*
tonat	tonāre	tonāvit	*it thunders*
decet	decēre	decuit	*it is becoming*
licet	licēre	licuit, licitum est	*it is lawful*
miseret[1]	miserēre	miseritum est	*it excites pity*
oportet	oportēre	oportuit	*it is proper*
paenitet[1]	paenitēre	paenituit	*it causes regret*
piget	pigēre	piguit	*it grieves*
pudet	pudēre	puduit, puditum est	*it puts to shame*
rēfert	rēferre	rēttulit	*it concerns*
taedet	taedēre	taeduit, taesum est	*it disgusts*

3. Participles are generally wanting, but a few occur, though with a somewhat modified sense:

From **licet**: **licēns**, *free;* **licitus**, *allowed.*
From **paenitet**: **paenitēns**, *penitent;* **paenitendus**, *to be repented of.*
From **pudet**: **pudēns**, *modest;* **pudendus**, *shameful.*

4. Gerunds are generally wanting, but occur in rare instances: **paenitendum, pudendō.**

5. A few verbs, generally personal, admit the impersonal construction in certain senses:

accēdit, *it is added*	accidit, *it happens*	appāret, *it is clear*
cōnstat, *it is agreed*	praestat, *it is better*	restat, *it remains*
contingit, *it happens*	dēlectat, *it delights*	dolet, *it grieves*
ēvenit, *it happens*	interest, *it interests*	iuvat, *it delights*
patet, *it is plain*	placet, *it pleases*	

6. In the Passive Voice intransitive verbs can be used only impersonally. The participle is then neuter: **mihĭ crēditur**, *it is credited to me, I am believed;* **crēditum est**, *it was believed;* **currītur**, *there is running, people run;* **pūgnātur**, *it is fought, they, we,* etc., *fight;* **vīvitur**, *we, you, they live.*

7. The Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (**237**) is often used impersonally. The participle is then neuter: **mihĭ scrībendum est**, *I must write.*

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[1] Mē miseret, *I pity;* mē paenitet, *I repent.*

PARTICLES

303. The Latin has four parts of speech, sometimes called Particles: the Adverb, the Preposition, the Conjunction, and the Interjection.

ADVERBS

304. The Adverb is the part of speech which is used to qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs: **celeriter currere**, *to run swiftly;* **tam celer**, *so swift;* **tam celeriter**, *so swiftly.*

305. Adverbs may be divided into three general classes:

1. Adverbs which were originally the case forms of nouns, adjectives, participles, and pronouns.

2. Adverbs formed by means of suffixes no longer used in the regular declensions.

3. Adverbs formed by the union of prepositions with case forms.

306. Many adverbs were originally Accusatives, both in form and in meaning.

1. Accusatives of Nouns: **vicem**, *in turn;* **partim**, *partly.*

2. Here perhaps may be mentioned adverbs in **tim** and **sim**, probably formed originally from verbal nouns no longer in use: **statim**, *steadily;*[1] **raptim**, *hastily;* **contemptim**, *contemptuously;* **fūrtim**, *stealthily.* These adverbs are sometimes explained as Accusatives, and sometimes as Instrumental cases.

3. Accusatives of Adjectives and Pronouns: **multum**, **multa**, *much;* **cēterum**, **cētera**, *as to the rest;* **vērum**, *truly;* **facile**, *easily;* **saepius**, *oftener;* **bifāriam** = bifāriam partem, *in two parts;* **aliās** = aliās vicēs, *otherwise;* **tam**, *so much;* **quam**, *as much.*

307. Many adverbs were originally Ablatives.[2]

1. Ablatives of Nouns: **forte**, *by chance;* **iūre**, *rightly;* **numerō**, *exactly;* **sponte**, *willingly.*

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[1] Thus **statim** may be formed from **statis**, which is no longer in use, because supplanted by **statiō**. Subsequently it seems to have been associated with the verb **stā-re**, and perhaps some adverbs in **tim** were formed from verbs by analogy. But some adverbs in **tim** and **sim** are formed from adjectives: **singulātim**, *one by one.* In time, doubtless, these endings came to be regarded simply as adverbial suffixes, and were used in forming new adverbs.

[2] The term Ablative, as applied in Latin, includes not only the Ablative proper, but all forms originally Instrumental, and such Locatives as are not easily recognized.

2. Ablatives of Adjectives and Participles: **dextrā**, *on the right;* **extrā**, *on the outside;* **rārō**, *rarely;* **doctē**, *learnedly;* **doctissimē**, *most learnedly;* **māximē**, *especially;* **auspicātō**, *after taking the auspices;* **cōnsultō**, *after deliberating.*

3. Ablatives of Pronouns: **eā**, *there, in that way;* **hāc**, *here, in this way;* **eādem**, *in the same way.*

4. A few Pronominal Adverbs denote direction toward a place: **eō**, *to that place;* **hōc, hūc**, *to this place;* **illō, illō-c**, *to that place;* **istō, istō-c**, *to your place.* These adverbs are explained as Instrumental Ablatives.

5. Here may be mentioned a few adverbs in **im, in-c**: **illim, illin-c**, *from that place;* **interim**, *meanwhile;* often with **de**: **in-de**, *thence;* **proin-de**, *hence.* These adverbs may be Instrumental Ablatives.

308. Some Adverbs were originally Locatives, denoting the Place or Time in which anything is done.

1. Locatives of Nouns and Adjectives in **ī** or **ē**: **herī**, *yesterday;* **temperī**, *in time;* **vesperī**, *in the evening;* **peregrī**, or **peregrē**, *in a foreign land.*

2. Locatives of Pronouns: **hīc**,[1] *here;* **illīc, istīc**, *there;* **ibĭ**, *there;* **ubĭ**, *where;* **sīc**, *in this way, thus.*

309. Adverbs in tus and ter.[2] — Adverbs are also formed by means of the endings **tus** and **ter**, which are no longer used as case endings in the regular declensions: **fundi-tus**, *from the foundation;* **rādīci-tus**, *from the roots, utterly;* **dīvīni-tus**, *by divine appointment, divinely;* **forti-ter**, *bravely;* **prūden-ter**, *prudently.*

1. The stem vowel before **tus** and **ter** becomes **i**, and consonant stems assume **i**, but **ti** is lost by dissimilation (**56**) before **ter**: **prūden-ti-ter, prūden-ter.**

310. Some adverbs are formed by the union of case forms with prepositions, even with prepositions with which they are not otherwise used: **ad-modum**, *to the full measure, fully;* **ex-templō**, *immediately;* **ant-eā**, *before, before that;* **inter-eā**, *in the meantime;* **post-eā**, *afterward;* **tantis-per**, *for so long a time.*

1. A very few adverbs are simply adverbial phrases or clauses whose words have become united in writing, as **scīlicet**, from scīre licet, *certainly;* lit. it is permitted to know; **vidēlicet**, from vidēre licet, *clearly;* **forsitan**, from fors sit an, *perhaps.*

311. Comparison. — Most adverbs are derived from adjectives, and are dependent upon them for their comparison. The comparative is the

[1] Here the Locative ending is **ī**: **hī-c, illī-c.**

[2] Seen also in **in-tus**, *within;* **in-ter**, *in the midst;* **sub-tus, sub-ter**, *below.*

Accusative neuter singular of the adjective, and the superlative changes the ending **us** of the adjective into **ē**:[1]

altus	altior	altissimus	*lofty*
altē	altius	altissimē	*loftily*

1. When the adjective is compared with **magis** and **māximē**, the adverb is compared in the same way:

ēgregius	magis ēgregius	māximē ēgregius	*excellent*
ēgregiē	magis ēgregiē	māximē ēgregiē	*excellently*

2. When the adjective is irregular, the adverb has the same irregularity:

bonus	melior	optimus	*good*
bene	melius	optimē	*well*

3. When the adjective is defective, the adverb is generally defective:

—	dēterior	dēterrimus	*worse*
—	dēterius	dēterrimē	*worse*
novus	—	novissimus	*new*
novē	—	novissimē	*newly*

4. A few adverbs not derived from adjectives are compared:

diū	diūtius	diūtissimē	*for a long time*
saepe	saepius	saepissimē	*often*
satis	satius	—	*sufficiently*
nūper	—	nūperrimē	*recently*

5. Most adverbs not derived from adjectives, as also those from adjectives incapable of comparison (**160**), are not compared: **hīc**, *here;* **nunc**, *now;* **vulgāriter**, *commonly.*

6. Superlatives in **ō** or **um** are used in a few adverbs: **prīmō, prīmum, potissimum.**

PREPOSITIONS

312. The Preposition is the part of speech which shows the relations of objects to each other: **in Italiā esse**, *to be in Italy;* **ante mē**, *before me.*

1. Prepositions were originally adverbs.[2]
2. For Prepositions and their uses, see **420**, **490**.
3. For the form and meaning of Prepositions in Composition, see **374**.

313. Inseparable Prepositions, so called because they are used only in composition, are the following:

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[1] See **307**, 2.

[2] But many adverbs, it will be remembered, are in origin case forms.

ambi, amb, *around, about*	in, *not, un-*	**sēd, sē,** *aside, apart*
au, *away, from*	por, *toward, forth*	**vē,** *not, without*
dis, dī, *asunder*	red, re, *back*	

1. For the form and meaning of the Inseparable Prepositions in Composition, see **375**.

CONJUNCTIONS

314. Conjunctions are mere connectives. They are either Coördinate or Subordinate.

1. Coördinate Conjunctions connect similar constructions:

Labor voluptās-que,[1] *labor and pleasure.*
Carthāginem cēpit ac[1] dīruit, *he took and destroyed Carthage.*

2. Subordinate Conjunctions connect subordinate with principal constructions:

Haec dum[1] colligunt, effūgit, *while they collected these things, he escaped.*

NOTE. — For the use of subordinate conjunctions, see **568, 574.**

315. Coördinate Conjunctions comprise:

1. Copulative Conjunctions, denoting Union:

Et, que, atque,[2] ac, *and;* etiam, quoque, *also;* neque, nec, *and not;* neque . . . neque, nec . . . nec, neque . . . nec, *neither . . . nor.*

2. Disjunctive Conjunctions, denoting Separation:

Aut,[3] vel, ve, sīve (seu), *or;* aut . . . aut, vel . . . vel, *either . . . or;* sīve . . . sīve, *either . . . or.*

NOTE. — Here belong interrogative particles in double or disjunctive questions: **utrum . . . an,** *whether . . . or;* **an,** *or;* **annōn, necne,** *or not;* see **380.**

3. Adversative Conjunctions, denoting Opposition:

Sed,[4] autem, vērum, vērō, *in truth, but;* at, *but, on the contrary;* atquī, *rather;* cēterum, *but still, moreover;*[5] tamen, *yet.*

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[1] Here **que** connects two Nominatives, **ac** two Indicatives, which are entirely coördinate, but **dum** connects the subordinate clause, **haec . . . colligunt,** with the principal clause, **effūgit,** *he escaped while they collected these things.*

[2] Copulative conjunctions are **et** and **que** with their compounds: **et-iam, atque, quo-que, ne-que. Ac** is a shortened form of **at-que; nec** of **ne-que.**

[3] Disjunctives are **aut, vel,** and **ve** with their compounds. **Vel** is the Imperative of **volō,** lit. *choose.*

[4] Conjunctions, like adverbs, consist largely of case forms, chiefly from pronominal stems, especially from the stems of **quī, quae, quod.**

[5] Lit. *as to the rest.*

4. Illative Conjunctions, denoting Inference:

Ergō, igitur, inde, proinde, itaque, *hence, therefore.*

5. Causal Conjunctions, denoting Cause:

Nam, namque, enim, etenim, *for.*[1]

316. Subordinate Conjunctions comprise:

1. Temporal Conjunctions, denoting Time:

Quandō, quom,[2] cum, *when;* ut, ubī, *as, when;* cum prīmum, ut prīmum, ubī prīmum, simul, simulac, simul ac, simul atque, simul-atque, *as soon as;* dum, dōnec, quoad, quamdiū, *while, until, as long as;* antequam, priusquam, *before;* posteāquam, *after.*

2. Comparative Conjunctions, denoting Comparison:

Ut, utī, sīcut, *as, so as;* velut, *just as;* praeut, prout, *according as, in comparison with;* quam, *as;* tanquam, quasi, ut sī, velut sī, *as if.*

3. Conditional Conjunctions, denoting Condition:

Sī,[3] *if;* sī nōn, nisi, nī, *if not;* sīn, *but if;* sī quidem or si-quidem, *if indeed;* sī modo, dum, modo, dummodo, *if only, provided.*

4. Adversative and Concessive Conjunctions, denoting Opposition and Concession:

Quamquam, licet,[4] cum, *although;* etsī, tametsī, etiamsī, *even if;* quamvīs,[4] quantumvīs, quantumlibet,[4] *however much, although;* ut, *grant that;* nē, *grant that not.*

5. Final Conjunctions, denoting Purpose or End:

Ut, utī, *that, in order that;* nē, nēve (neu), *that not;* quō, *that;* quōminus,[5] quīn, *that not.*

6. Consecutive Conjunctions, denoting Consequence or Result:

Ut, *so that;* ut nōn, *so that not.*

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[1] But most causal conjunctions are subordinate; see **316**, 7.

[2] **Quom**, the original form from which **cum** was developed, occurs in early Latin, as in Plautus. **Cum** is the approved form in classical Latin.

[3] Probably a Locative.

[4] **Licet** is strictly a verb, meaning *it is permitted;* **vīs**, *you wish*, in quam-vīs and quantum-vīs, *as much as you wish*, and **libet**, *it pleases*, in quantum-libet, *as much as it pleases*, are also verbs.

[5] **Quōminus** = quō-minus, *by which less;* **quīn** = quī-ne, *by which not*, originally interrogative, *how not?*

7. Causal Conjunctions, denoting Cause:

Quia, quod, quoniam,[1] quandō, *because, inasmuch as;* cum (quom), *since;* quandōquidem, sī quidem or siquidem,[2] utpote, *since indeed.*

8. Interrogative Conjunctions, in dependent or indirect questions:[3]

Ne, nōnne, num, utrum, an, *whether;* an nōn, necne, *or not.*

INTERJECTIONS

317. Interjections are certain particles used as expressions of feeling or as mere marks of address.[4] They may express

1. Astonishment: ō, hem, ehem, attat, babae.
2. Joy: iō, euhoe, euge, ēia, ō, papae.
3. Sorrow: vae, ei, heu, ēheu, ohē, āh, au, prō.
4. Disgust: aha, phȳ, apage.
5. Calling: heus, ō, eho, ehodum.
6. Praise: eu, euge, ēia, hēia.

PART III. — ETYMOLOGY

318. Words in our family of languages were originally formed by the union of primitive elements called Roots.

319. In the formation of words in an inflected language, we distinguish Inflection, Derivation, and Composition; but inflection and derivation are both the result of original composition. The suffixes of inflection and derivation are the worn and mutilated remains of original members of compound words.

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[1] From **quom-iam**, *when now.*

[2] Lit. *if indeed.*

[3] These are sometimes classed as adverbs. In some of their uses they are plainly conjunctions, while in other cases they approach closely to the nature of adverbs. As a matter of convenience they may be called Interrogative Particles; see **378.**

[4] Some interjections seem to be the simple and natural utterance of feeling, and accordingly do not appear to have been built up, like other words, from roots and stems, but to be themselves specimens of the unorganized elements of human speech. Others, however, are either inflected forms, as **age**, *come*, **apage**, *begone*, or mutilated sentences or clauses: **mehercule**, **mehercule**, etc., = mē Herculēs iuvet, *may Hercules protect me;* **mēdius fidius**, *may the true God help me.*

INFLECTION AND DERIVATION

320. Inflection forms Cases, Moods, Tenses, Numbers, and Persons by adding appropriate suffixes to stems: rēg-**is**, rēg-**em**, rēg-**ēs**, rēg-**ibus**; sta-**t**, sta-**nt**, stā-**mus**, stā-**tis**.

1. In Latin, a stem which cannot be resolved into more primitive elements is also a root. Thus **stā**, the stem of **stā-mus**, is a root. Moreover, most roots have a strong form and a weak form. Thus **stā** in **stā-s**, **stā-mus**, **stā-tis** is the strong form, and **sta** in **sta-tim**, **sta-tus** is the weak form of the same root.

321. Derivation forms new stems by adding formative suffixes to other stems or to roots. Thus from the root **sta**, it forms the stem **sta-bili** by adding the suffix **bili**, and from this again it forms the new stem **sta-bili-tāt** by adding the suffix **tāt**.

322. Etymologically words may be divided into groups, each group being derived from one common root. Some of these groups are very large. Thus from the two forms of the single root **stā**, **sta**, *to stand*, are derived

1. All the forms which make up the conjugation of the verb **stō**, **stāre**, **stetī**, **statum**, *to stand*.
2. All the forms of the verb **sistō**, **sistere**, **stitī**, **statum**, *to place*.
3. Many other forms, including nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs.

323. Stems, the basis of all inflection, may be divided into three classes, as follows:

1. Root Stems, identical with roots.
2. Primary Stems, formed either from roots or from the stems of verbs by means of suffixes.
3. Secondary Stems, formed from primary stems by means of suffixes.

324. Words formed by inflection are called

1. Root Words or Primitive Words, if formed from root stems: duc-**is**, *of a leader*, root stem **duc**; es-**tis**, *you are*, root stem **es**.
2. Primary Derivatives, if formed from primary stems: fac-tō-**rum**, *of deeds*, from primary stem **fac-to**, from the root **fac**, seen in the verb **fac-iō**.
3. Secondary Derivatives, if formed from secondary stems: sta-bili-tāt-**is**, *of stead-fast-ness*, from the secondary stem **sta-bili-tāt**, from the primary stem **sta-bili**, from the weak root **sta**.

325. In the language inherited by the Romans, roots, stems, and suffixes sometimes appear with varying quantity, and even with different vowels in different words:

1. With varying quantity: root **reg** in reg-ere, but **rēg** in rēx; **leg** in leg-ere, but **lēg** in lēx.

2. With different vowels, with or without varying quantity: root **teg** in teg-ere, but **tog** in tog-a; **da** in da-mus, da-tus, but **dō** in dō-num.

326. These inherited vowel variations in some languages form a somewhat regular gradation, while in the Latin they have mostly disappeared, as kindred forms have been assimilated to each other.

1. In classical Latin the suffix **ter, tor,** in its several forms,

	tr	**ter**	**tēr**	**tor**	**tōr**
in	pa-tr-is	pa-ter	crā-tēr	vic-tor	vic-tōr-is

is the best illustration of this vowel gradation, called also Ablaut.

2. This suffix is an illustration of what is called the **E**-Series of vowel gradation or ablaut, though the forms **ter** and **tor** were not inherited, but were shortened by the Latin from **tēr** and **tōr**. The form **tr**, in which the vowel has disappeared, is said to have weak grade and is called a weak form, while **ter, tēr, tor, tōr** are said to have strong grade and are called strong forms. Moreover, **tēr** and **tōr** are sometimes distinguished from **ter** and **tor** as the stronger or extended forms.

3. In the examples given above (**325**) the roots **reg, rēg; leg, lēg; teg, tog,** all belong to the **E**-Series, but the root which appears as **da** in da-mus, da-tus, and as **dō** in dō-num, belongs to the **O**-Series.

I. ROOT WORDS — FORMED FROM ROOTS BY INFLECTION

327. The following are examples of Root Words:

1. From Roots of the Weak Grade or Weak Form

Root **duc**:	duc-is,	*of a leader*	duc-e	duc-ibus
da:	da-re,	*to give*	da-mus	da-tis
s:	s-um,	*I am*	s-umus	s-ītis

2. From Roots of the Strong Grade or Strong Form

Root **es**:	es-se,	*to be*	es-t	es-tis
stā:	stā-s,	*you stand*	stā-mus	stā-tis
rēg:	rēg-is,	*of the king*	rēg-e	rēg-ibus

II. PRIMARY DERIVATIVES

328. From the stems of verbs are formed Participles and Verbal Adjectives and Nouns with the following suffixes:

Nom.	**ns**	**tus, a, um**	**tus**	**tūrus, a, um**	**ndus, a, um**
Stem	**nt, nti**	**to, tā**	**tu**	**tūro, tūrā**	**ndo, ndā**

1. With the suffix **ns** are formed Present Participles, Verbal Adjectives, and Verbal Nouns: **amā-ns, ama-nt-is,** *loving;* **innocē-ns,** *innocent;* **adulescē-ns,** *a youth.*

2. With the suffix **tus, a, um,** sometimes **sus, a, um,** are formed Perfect Participles, Verbal Adjectives, and Verbal Nouns: **amā-tus,** *loved;* **al-tus,** *tall,* from al-ere, *to nourish;* **legā-tus,** *envoy,* from legā-re, *to commission;* **fos-sa** (from fod-ta), *trench,* from fod-ere, *to dig.*

Note 1. — The suffix **tus, a, um** is also used in forming Secondary Derivatives; see **343.**

Note 2. — The suffix **nus, a, um** is sometimes used in the sense of **tus, a, um: plē-nus,** *full,* from **plē-re,** *to fill;* **dō-num,** *gift,* from **dō, da-re,** *to give.*

3. With the suffix **tus,** stem **tu,** are formed Supines and other Verbal Nouns: **amā-tum, amā-tū; audī-tus,** *act of hearing,* from audī-re; **exercitus,** *training, army, trained men,* from exercē-re, *to train.*

Note. — For the use of **ā-tus** in forming Secondary Derivatives, see **344.**

4. With the suffix **tūrus, a, um** are formed Future Active Participles, and Verbal Nouns in **tūra: amā-tūrus; cul-tūra,** *a cultivating,* from col-ere, *to cultivate;* **scrīp-tūra,** *writing, written document,* from scrīb-ere, *to write.*

5. With the suffix **ndus, a, um,** are formed Gerundives, Gerunds, and Gerundive Adjectives in **undus, bundus, and cundus** with the general meaning of participles, though they often denote a permanent characteristic: **ama-ndus, ama-ndī, ama-ndō; sec-undus,** *following,* from sequ-ī, *to follow;* **vītā-bundus,** *avoiding,* from vītā-re, *to avoid;* **fā-cundus,** *eloquent,* from fā-rī, *to speak.*

Note. — The suffix **dus** has nearly the same meaning as **undus, bun-dus,** and **cun-dus: timi-dus,** *timid,* from timē-re, *to fear.*

329. Important Verbal Adjectives denoting Capability, Adaptation, generally passive but sometimes active, are formed with the suffixes **ilis** and **bilis,** stems, **ili** and **bili:**

fac-ilis,	*facile, easy,*	from	fac-ere,	*to make*
ūt-ilis,	*useful,*	"	ūt-ī,	*to use*
amā-bilis,	*lovable,*	"	amā-re,	*to love*
laudā-bilis,	*praiseworthy,*	"	laudā-re,	*to praise*

1. With these suffixes adjectives are often derived from Perfect Participles:

duct-ilis,	*ductile,*	from	duct-us,	*led, drawn out*
miss-ilis,	*capable of being sent,*	"	miss-us,	*sent*
umbrāt-ilis,	*living in the shade,*	"	umbrāt-us,	*shaded*
vīs-i-bilis,	*visible,*	"	vīs-us,	*seen*

2. Some of these adjectives occasionally become nouns: **miss-ile,** *a missile,* from mitt-ere, *to send.*

3. From such examples as **duc-t-ilis, mis-s-ilis,** and **umbr-āt-ilis** seem to have been derived the suffixes **tilis, silis,** and **ātilis,** used in forming adjectives from nouns; see **352.**

4. The stems **ili** and **bili** of **ilis** and **bilis** are derived from the stems **ulo** and **bulo** of **ulus** and **bulum**; see **331,** 1, **335.**

330. Verbal Adjectives with the general meaning of participles are formed with the suffixes

Nom.	**āx**	**icus**	**īcus**	**ūcus**	**ius**
Stem	**āc, āci**	**ico**	**īco**	**ūco**	**io:**

aud-āx,	*daring,*	from	aud-ēre,	*to dare*
loqu-āx,	*loquacious,*	"	loqu-ī,	*to talk*
med-icus,	*healing, medical,*	"	med-ērī,	*to heal*
am-īcus,	*loving, friendly,*	"	am-āre,	*to love*
cad-ūcus,	*falling, frail,*	"	cad-ere,	*to fall*
exim-ius,	*select, choice,*	"	exim-ere,	*to select out*

1. These suffixes are comparatively rare, except **āx,** which is a reduced form of **ācus.** It often denotes a faulty inclination. The suffixes **ā-cus, i-cus, ī-cus,** and **ū-cus** are only different forms of a single suffix, produced by adding **cus,** to the stem-vowels **ā, i, ī,** and **ū.**

2. A few of these adjectives sometimes become nouns: **med-icus,** *a physician;* **am-īcus,** *a friend.*

331. Verbal Adjectives having in general a meaning kindred to that of participles are formed with the suffixes

Nom.	**ulus**	**uus**	**vus**	**īvus**
Stem	**ulo**	**uo**	**vo**	**īvo:**

crēd-ulus,	*credulous,*	from	crēd-ere,	*to believe*
noc-uus,	*hurtful,*	"	noc-ēre,	*to hurt*
ar-vus,	*plowed*	"	ar-āre,	*to plow*
cad-īvus,	*falling,*	"	cad-ere.	*to fall*

1. The suffix **ulus** generally denotes a faulty tendency. In verbal adjectives it often becomes **ilis**: **ag-ilis**, *agile;* see **329**; **uus**, **vus**, and **ī-vus** are only different forms of a single suffix.

2. The suffix **īvus** is often added to the stem of Perfect Participles, apparently making a new suffix, **t-īvus**: **cap-t-īvus**, *captive*, from cap-ere, cap-to, cap-t, *to take;* **āc-t-īvus**, *active*, from ag-ere, āc-to, āc-t, *to act.*

3. A few of these adjectives sometimes become nouns: **ar-vum**, *plowed land*, from ar-āre, *to plow;* **cap-t-īvus**, *a captive.*

4. The suffix **īvus**, **t-īvus** is also used in forming secondary derivatives; see **350.**

Verbal Nouns

332. Verbal nouns partake largely of the meaning of the verbs from which they are derived. They may be classified as follows:

1. Verbal nouns denoting Action or its Result; see **333.**

2. Verbal nouns denoting the Agent or Doer of an action; see **334.**

3. Verbal nouns denoting the Means or Instrument of an action; see **335.**

Action or Its Result

333. Verbal nouns denoting Action in the abstract, but often becoming concrete, are formed with the suffixes

Nom.	**iō**[1]	**tiō**	**or**	**us**	**ēs**	**iēs**	**ium**
Stem	**iōn**	**tiōn**	**ōr**	**os, es**	**ēs, i**	**iē**	**io:**

leg-iō,	*a levying, legion, men levied,*	from leg-ere,	*to levy*
audī-tiō,	*a hearing, a report,*	" audī-re,	*to hear*
vī-siō,[2]	*a seeing, a sight,*	" vid-ēre,	*to see*
tim-or,	*fear,*	" tim-ēre,	*to fear*
gen-us,	*birth,*	" gen in gīgn-ere,	*to bear*
frīgus,	*cold,*	" frīg-ere,	*to be cold*
sēd-ēs,	*seat,*	" sed-ēre,	*to sit*
fac-iēs,	*face,*	" fac-ere,	*to make*
gaud-ium,	*joy,*	" gaud-ēre,	*to rejoice*

1. Most of these suffixes generally designate the action or state denoted by the verb, but **ēs**, **iēs**, and **ium** sometimes designate the result of the action or the means employed: **aedific-ium**, *edifice*, from **aedific-āre**, *to build;* **nūb-ēs**, *cloud*, from nūb-ere, *to veil.*

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[1] The suffix **iō** is compounded of **i** and **ōn**; **tiō** of **ti** and **ōn.**

[2] **Vī-siō** is from **vid-tiō**; see **52**, 1.

2. Here belongs the Latin Infinitive in **ere**, which is the Locative of a verbal noun, like **genus, gen-eris, gen-ere**. Observe that the Ablative ending **ere**, which includes the Locative meaning, is the same as that of the Infinitive.

3. For the suffixes **tus** and **tūra**, see **328**, 3 and 4.

Agent or Doer

334. Verbal nouns denoting the Agent or Doer of an action are formed from the stems of verbs or from roots with the suffixes

Nom.	**tor**	**ter**, masculine		**tr-īx**, feminine
Stem	**tōr**	**ter, tr**		**tr-īc:**
vēnā-tor,	*hun-ter*,[1]	from	vēnā-rī,	*to hunt*
vēnā-tr-īx,	*hun-tr-ess*,[1]			
gubernā-tor,	*direc-tor*,	"	gubernā-re,	*to steer, direct*
gubernā-tr-īx,	*direc-tr-ess*,			
audī-tor,	*hearer*,	"	audī-re,	*to hear*
tōn-sor,[2]	*barber*,	"	tond-ere,	*to clip, shave*
tōns-trīx,	*female barber*,			

1. The few nouns in Latin formed with the suffixes **ter, tr**, which, like **tor**, originally denoted the Agent, have become Names of Kindred: **pa-ter, pa-tr-is**, *father;* **mā-ter, mā-tr-is**, *mother;* **frā-ter, frā-tr-is**, *brother.*

2. The suffix **tr** in pa-tr-is, **ter** in pa-ter, **tor** in vic-tor, and **tōr** in vic-tōr-is, are only different forms of the same suffix. For vowel gradation or ablaut, as illustrated in these forms, see **21, 326**, 1.

3. The feminine suffix **trīx** for tr-īcs is an extension of **tr**, the weak form of **tor**, by the addition of **īc-s**, of which **ī** is the inherited feminine suffix and **s** the Nominative suffix.

4. The suffix **tor**, though originally a primary suffix, is sometimes used to form denominatives: **viā-tor**, *a traveler*, from via, *a way;* **sen-ā-tor**, *a senator*, from sen-ex, *an old man.*

5. The suffix **tor, sor**, is often extended to **tōr-ius, sōr-ius** by the addition of **ius**; see **350**, 2.

6. A few nouns in **a, ō** (Gen. ōn-is), **us**, and **ulus** have a meaning kindred to that of Agent or Doer: **scrīb-a**, *a writer*, from scrīb-ere, *to write;* **err-ō, err-ōn-is**, *a wanderer*, from err-āre, *to wander;* **coqu-us**, *a cook*, from coqu-ere, *to cook;* **leg-ulus**, *a collector*, from leg-ere, *to collect.*

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[1] Observe that **ter** and **tor** in *hun-ter* and *direc-tor* are used, as in Latin, to denote the agent or doer, and that in the feminine forms *hun-tr-ess* and *direc-tr-ess* they both take the weak form **tr**, as in the Latin vēnā-tr-ix.

[2] **Tōn-sor** is for tond-tor, **dt** changed to **s**, but **tōns-trīx** is for tond-trīx, **dt** changed to **st** before **r**; see **52**, 1.

Means and Instrument

335. Nouns denoting the Means or Instrument of an action, sometimes its Place or Result, are formed with the suffixes

trum	**s-trum**[1]	**clum**	**culum**	**cula**	**crum**
ulum	**ula**		**bra**	**bulum**	**bula**:[2]

arā-trum,	*plow*,	from arā-re,		*to plow*
rōs-trum,	*beak*,	" rōd-ere,		*to gnaw*
mōn-s-trum,[1]	*prodigy*,	" mon-ēre,		*to admonish*
perī-clum,[3] perī-culum,	*trial, test, peril*,	" obsolete perī-re,		*to try, test*
indū-cula,	*tunic*,	" indu-ere,		*to clothe with*
simulā-crum,	*image*,	" simulā-re,		*to represent*
teg-ulum, teg-ula,	*covering, tile, roof*,	" teg-ere,		*to cover*
dēlū-brum,	*shrine*,	" dēlu-ere,		*to cleanse*
dolā-bra,	*ax, mattock*,	" dolā-re,		*to hew, cut*
sta-bulum,	*stall*,	" stā-re,		*to stand*
fā-bula,	*story, tale*,	" fā-rī,		*to speak, tell*

336. Many verbal nouns denoting the Means of an action, or its involuntary Subject or Object, and sometimes the Act itself or its Result, are formed with the suffixes

men	**mentum**	**mō** (stem mōn)	**mōnium**	**mōnia**:

flū-men,	*stream*,[4]	from flu-ere,		*to flow*
ag-men,	*army on the march*,[4]	" ag-ere,		*to lead*
ōrnā-mentum,	*ornament*,	" ōrnā-re,		*to adorn*
docu-mentum,[5]	*documentary proof*,	" doc-ēre,		*to teach*
ser-mō, ser-mōn-is,	*connected discourse*,	" ser-ere,		*to connect*
ali-mōnia,[5] ali-mōnium,	*nourishment*,	" ale-re,[5]		*to nourish*

[1] The suffix **s-trum** may have derived its **s** from such words as **ca-s-trum**, **rā-s-trum**, and **rō-s-trum**, in which **s** belongs to the root or stem.

[2] **Cula**, **ula**, **bra**, and **bula** differ from the corresponding forms in **um** only in gender; **clum**, **culum**, and **crum** are only different forms of a single suffix, as are also **brum** and **bulum**.

[3] In Latin the form **culum** has almost entirely displaced the older form **clum**.

[4] **Flū-men**, *stream*, that which flows; **ag-men**, *army on the march*, that which is led.

[5] The **u** in docu-mentum, the **i** in ali-mōnia, and the **e** in ale-re are only different forms of the thematic vowel.

1. But the suffixes **mōnium** and **mōnia**, though originally used only in forming verbal nouns, were subsequently employed with great freedom in forming nouns from adjectives, or other nouns; see **344**, **345**.

2. In early Latin **men** was a favorite suffix for the formation of verbal nouns, but it was subsequently extended to **men-tum** by the addition of **tum**; **mōn**, the strong-grade form of **men**, was also extended to **mōn-ia** and **mōn-ium**, by adding **ia** and **ium**.

337. A few verbal nouns are formed with the suffixes

d-ō[1]	**g-ō**	stems **d-ōn**	**d-in**	**g-ōn**	**g-in**:
torpē-dō,	*numbness*,	from torpē-re,			*to be numb*
cupī-dō,	*desire*,	" cupī in cupī-vī,			*I desired*
vorā-gō,	*whirlpool*,	" vorā-re,			*to swallow up*
orī-gō,	*a beginning*,	" orī-rī,			*to rise, begin*

338. Nouns having a great variety of meaning, as Action, its Result or Place, Means or Instrument, etc., are formed from the stems of verbs or from roots with the simple suffixes

a	**us, um**	**us**	stems **ā**	**o**	**u**:
fug-a,	*a fleeing, flight*,	from **fug** in fug-ere,			*to flee*
tog-a,	*gown, toga*,	" **tog, teg**, in teg-ere,			*to cover*
lūd-us,	*game, play*,	" **lūd** in lūd-ere,			*to play*
iug-um,	*yoke*,	" **iug** in iung-ere,			*to join together*
ac-us,	*needle*,	" **ac** in ac-uere,			*to sharpen*

1. For nouns in **a** and **us** denoting the Agent or Doer, see **334**, 6.

III. SECONDARY DERIVATIVES — NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

339. Secondary derivatives, nouns and adjectives, may be classified as follows:

1. Diminutives; see **340**.
2. Patronymics, or Names of Descent; see **342**.
3. Designations of Place; see **343**.
4. Nouns denoting Office, Condition, or Characteristic; see **344**.
5. Adjectives denoting Fullness or Supply; see **346**.
6. Adjectives denoting Material; see **347**.
7. Adjectives denoting Characteristic or Possession; see **348**.

[1] The suffix **dō** may have derived its **d** from words like **card-ō** in which **d** belongs to the root.

Diminutives — Nouns and Adjectives

340. Diminutives of Nouns and Adjectives are generally formed with the following suffixes:

lus, la, lum	**ulus, ula, ulum**		**culus, cula, culum**
fīlio-lus,	*little son,*	from fīlius,	*son*
fīlio-la,	*little daughter,*	" fīlia,	*daughter*
ātrio-lum,	*small hall,*	" ātrium,	*hall*
hortu-lus,	*small garden,*	" hortus,	*garden*
oppidu-lum,	*small town,*	" oppidum,	*town*
rēg-ulus,	*petty king,*	" rēx,	*king*
capit-ulum,	*small head,*	" caput,	*head*
flōs-culus,	*small flower,*	" flōs,	*flower*
diē-cula,	*little day, little while,*	" diēs,	*day*
mūnus-culum,	*small present,*	" mūnus,	*present*
agel-lus,[1]	*small field,*	" ager,	*field*
libel-lus,	*small book,*	" liber,	*book*
vīl-lum,[2]	*a little wine,*	" vīnum,	*wine*
aureo-lus, a, um,	*somewhat golden,*	" aureus,	*golden*
longu-lus, a, um,	*rather long,*	" longus,	*long*
pauper-culus, a, um,	*rather poor,*	" pauper,	*poor*
longius-culus, a, um,[3]	*rather too long,*	" longius,	*too long*
misel-lus, a, um,	*somewhat unfortunate,*	" miser,	*unfortunate*

1. **Lus, la, lum** are appended to **ā-** and **o**-stems; **ulus, ula, ulum** to dental and guttural stems; **culus, cula, culum** to **e-, i-,** and **u**-stems and to liquid and **s**-stems; see examples.

2. Before **lus, la, lum,** the stem vowels **ā** and **o** take the form of **o** after **e** or **i,** and the form of **u** in other situations: **fīlio-lus, fīlio-la, hortu-lus.**

3. Before **culus, cula, culum,** stems in **u** change **u** into **i,** and stems in **on** change **o** into **u**: **versi-culus,** *a little verse;* **homun-culus,** *a small man.* Like nouns in **on,** a few other words form diminutives in **un-culus, un-cula,** though probably from an old stem in **on**: **av-unculus,** *maternal uncle,* from **avus,** *grandfather.*

4. In Latin the diminutive suffix was originally **lus, la, lum,** from which was developed the form **u-lus, u-la, u-lum** by including as a part of the suffix the **u** in such words as **hort-u-lus, oppid-u-lum,** where it represents the

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[1] **Agel-lus** is from **agr(o)-lo-s,** which became **agr̥-lo-s, ager-lo-s,** and finally **agel-lus.**

[2] **Vīl-lum** is from **vīn(o)-lo-m,** which became **vīn-lom** and then **vīl-lum.**

[3] The suffix **cu lus** is often thus attached to the neuter of comparatives.

stem vowel of the primitive; **cu-lus** was produced by adding the diminutive **lus** to the suffix **co**: **co-lus, cu-lus.**

5. A few diminutives are formed with the suffixes iō, c-iō:[1] **pūs-iō**, pūs-iōn-is, *a little boy*, from pūsus, *boy;* **homun-ciō**, homun-ciōn-is, *a little man*, from homō, *man.*

341. Diminutive nouns in their true and proper signification represent objects simply as small, but they are often so used as to take on secondary meanings. Thus they sometimes become

1. Terms of Endearment. Thus **filiola** may mean either *little daughter* or *my dear little daughter.*

2. Expressions of Sympathy or Regard. Thus **homunculus** may mean either *a small man* or *a poor unhappy man.*

3. Expressions of Contempt. Thus **canīcula** may mean either *a small dog* or *a contemptible little cur.*

Patronymics

342. The Latin Patronymics, or Names of Descent, were borrowed from the Greek. The common patronymic ending was developed for metrical reasons in two forms, as follows:

Nom.	**idēs**	**iadēs**, masculine	**is**	**ias**, feminine
Stem	**idā**	**iadā**	**id**	**iad**

Tantal-idēs,	*son* or *descendant of Tantal-us*
Thest-iadēs,	*son* or *descendant of Thest-ius*
Lāert-iadēs,	*son of Laert-es*, viz. *Ulysses*
Tantal-is,	*daughter* or *descendant of Tantal-us*
Thest-ias,	*daughter* or *descendant of Thest-ius*

1. In these examples observe that **idēs** and **is** are used after a short syllable and **iadēs** and **ias** after a long syllable.

2. By the union of **idēs** with a preceding vowel was developed the ending **īdēs**: **Thēs-īdēs**, *son* or *descendant of Thes-eus.*

3. By the loss of **i** in **iadēs** was formed the ending **adēs**: **Aene-adēs**, *son* or *descendant of Aene-as.*

4. Nouns in **eus** generally form feminine patronymics in **ēis** or **īnē**; nouns in **us** sometimes form them in **īnē**, and nouns in **ius** in **iōnē**: **Nēr-ēis** or **Nēr-īnē**, *daughter of Ner-eus;* **Neptūn-īnē**, *daughter* or *descendant of Neptune;* **Acris-iōnē**, *daughter of Acris-ius.*

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[1] The suffix **ci ō** is compounded of the two diminutive suffixes **co** and **iō**, a formation quite analogous to that of **cu-lus.**

343. Designations of Place, where trees and plants flourish, are often formed with the suffixes **tum** and **ē-tum**:

virgul-tum,	*thicket,*	from virgul-a,	*bush*
salic-tum,	*thicket of willows,*	" salic-s (cs = x),	*willow*
pīn-ē-tum,	*pine forest,*	" pīn-us,	*pine tree*
ros-ē-tum,	*garden of roses,*	" ros-a,	*rose bush*

1. The suffix **tum** is the neuter of the participial suffix **tus** applied to nouns; see **328, 2**; thus **virgul-tum** is the neuter of the adjective **virgul-tus**, used as a substantive; **ē-tum** is another form of the same suffix. The **ē** was probably developed in such words as **ol-ē-tum**, *an olive garden*, from **ol-ē-re**, from which it derives its **ē**. Thus **ros-ē-tum** means literally *a place furnished with roses.*

344. Derivatives denoting Office, Condition, or Characteristic are formed from nouns with the suffixes

Nom.	**ium**	**mōnium**	**tās**	**tūs**	**tūdō**	**ātus**
Stem	**io**	**mōnio**	**tāt**	**tūt**	**tūdin**	**ātu:**

magister-ium,	*office of master,*	from magister,	*master*
testi-mōnium,	*testimony,*	" testi-s,	*witness*
patr-i-mōnium,[1]	*paternal estate,*	" patr-is,	*of a father*
cīvi-tās,	*citizenship,*	" cīvi-s,	*citizen*
auctōr-i-tās,[1]	*authority,*	" auctor,	*author*
servi-tūs,[2]	*servitude,*	" servu-s,	*servant*
servi-tūdō,[2]	*servitude,*	" servu-s,	*servant*
cōnsul-ātus	*consulship,*	" cōnsul,	*consul*

1. Derivatives in **ium**, **tūs**, and **ātus** sometimes become collective nouns: **collēgium**, *a body of colleagues*, from collēga, *a colleague;* **iuventūs**, *youth, young persons;* **sen-ātus**, *senate, an assembly of old men.* Many derivatives in **tās** are abstract nouns; see **345.**

2. The final vowel of the stem disappears before **ium** but assumes the form of **i** before the other suffixes. Consonant stems sometimes assume **i** in imitation of vowel stems.

3. The suffixes **ium**, **tās**, and **tūs** were all inherited; **tūdō** is closely related to **tūs**; **ā-tus** is the ending of nouns in **tus** derived from **ā**-verbs, as seen in **ōrn-ā-tus.** For **mōnium**, see **336**, 2.

4. The endings **āgō** and **īgō** occur in a few words: **vir-āgō**, *a masculine maiden*, from vir; **rōb-īgō**, *rust*, from rōb-us, *red.*

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[1] Observe that **patr-i mōnium** and **auctōr-i-tās** assume **i** in imitation of **test-i-mōnium** and **cīv-i-tās** in which the **i** belongs to the stem.

[2] Observe that the stem vowel **o** of **serv-us** becomes **i** in **serv-i-tūs** and **serv-i-tūdō.**

345. Many Abstract Nouns are formed from adjectives, and a few from nouns, with the suffixes

a iēs tia tiēs tās tūdō mōnia:

audāc-ia,	*boldness*,	from audāx,	*bold*
sapient-ia,	*wisdom*,	" sapiēns,	*wise*
victōr-ia,	*victory*,	" victor,	*conqueror*
barbar-ia, barbar-iēs,	*barbarism*,	" barbar-us,	*foreign, barbarous*
amīci-tia,	*friendship*,	" amīcu-s,	*friendly, friend*
molli-tia, molli-tiēs,	*softness*,	" molli-s,	*soft*
boni-tās,	*goodness*,	" bonu-s,	*good*
līber-tās,	*freedom*,	" līber,	*free*
pie-tās,	*filial piety*,	" pie in piu-s,	*dutiful, pious*
fīrmi-tās, fīrmi-tūdo,	*firmness*,	" fīrmu-s,	*steadfast, firm*
ācri-mōnia,	*sharpness*,	" ācri-s,	*sharp*

1. The suffixes **ia, iē-s**, were inherited; **t-ia, t-iēs** were formed by adding **ia, iēs** to **t**-stems, as **sapient-ia, sapien-tia.**

2. The stem vowel **o** disappears before **ia, iēs**; is changed to **i** before **tia, tiēs**, and generally before the other suffixes, but it sometimes disappears, as in **līber-tās**; after **i** it retains its ablaut form **e**, as in **pie-tās.**

Adjectives from the Stems of Nouns

346. Fullness.—Adjectives denoting Fullness, Abundance, or Supply are formed from nouns by means of the suffixes

ōsus lēns lentus tus ā-tus ī-tus ū-tus:

anim-ōsus,	*full of courage*,	from anim-us,	*courage*
ann-ōsus,	*full of years*,	" ann-us,	*year*
frūctu-ōsus,	*fruitful*,	" frūctu-s,	*fruit*
pesti-lēns, pesti-lentus,	*pestilential*,	" pesti-s,	*pest*
vīno-lentus,	*full of wine*,	" vīnu-m,	*wine*
vi-o-lēns, vi-o-lentus,	*impetuous*,	" vī-s,	*force*
lūc-u-lentus,	*full of light*,	" lūc in lūx,	*light*
iūs-tus,	*just*,	" iūs,	*right*
āl-ā-tus,	*winged*,	" āl-a,	*wing*
turr-ī-tus,	*turreted*,	" turr-is,	*turret*
corn-ū-tus,	*horned*,	" corn-u,	*horn*

1. The suffix **ōsus** is one of the most important in the Latin language; the number of adjectives formed with it has been estimated to amount to eight hundred.

2. The suffix **ōsus** becomes **i-ōsus** by assuming **i** from some word like **stud-i-ōsus**, *studious*, and it becomes **u-ōsus** by assuming **u** from some word like **frūct-u-ōsus**, *fruitful*.

3. The suffixes **tus**, **ā-tus**, **ī-tus**, and **ū-tus** are the regular participial endings here applied to the formation of adjectives from nouns.

347. Material. — Adjectives designating the material of which anything is made are generally formed with the suffixes

eus	**nus**	**n-eus** [1]	**āc-eus**	**ic-ius:**
aur-eus,	*of gold, golden,*	from aur-um,[2]		*gold*
argent-eus,	*of silver,*	" argent-um,		*silver*
fāgi-nus, fāgi-neus,	*of beech, beechen,*	" fāg-us,[2]		*a beech tree*
ros-eus, ros-āc-eus,	*made of roses,*	" ros-a,		*a rose*
strāment-ic-ius,	*made of straw,*	" strāment-um,		*a straw*

1. Most of these suffixes sometimes take on a more general meaning and denote characteristic or possession; **pater-nus**, *paternal;* **vēr-nus**, *of spring, vernal;* **virgin-eus**, *maidenly.*

348. Characteristic. — Adjectives meaning in general *belonging to, relating to, derived from,* and the like, are formed from nouns with a great variety of suffixes. The following examples illustrate the meaning and use of one class of these suffixes, viz.:

ālis	**ēlis**	**īlis**	**ūlis**	**āris**	**ārius:**
vīt-ālis,	*of life, vital,*	from vīt-a,			*life*
mort-ālis,	*mortal,*	" mors, mort-is,			*death*
fid-ēlis,	*faithful,*	" fid-ēs,			*faith, trust*
patru-ēlis,	*of an uncle,*	" patru-us,			*uncle*
cīv-īlis,	*civil,*	" cīv-is,			*citizen*
vir-īlis,	*manly,*	" vir,			*man*
curr-ūlis,	*of a chariot, curule,*	" curr-us,			*a chariot*
salūt-āris,	*healthful,*	" salūt-is,			*good health*
statu-ārius,	*pertaining to statues,*	" statu-a,			*statue*

[1] The compound suffix **n-eus** is formed by adding **eus** to **no**, the stem of **nus**; **āc-eus** by adding **eus** to **āc**, the stem of **āx**, and **ic-ius** by adding **ius** = **eus** to **ico**, the stem of **icus**; see **350**.

[2] Observe that the stem vowel is dropped before a vowel, but changed to **i** before a consonant.

1. These several suffixes are only different varieties of **lis**; the long vowels have been assumed from the stems to which the suffix has been added. Thus the **ā** in **vītā-lis** may be the stem vowel **ā** of **vīta**, but in **mort-ālis** it belongs to the suffix; the **ē** in **fidē-lis** is the stem vowel of **fid-ēs**, but in **patru-ēlis** it belongs to the suffix.

2. By dissimilation **ālis** becomes **āris** after **l**, as in **salūt-āris**; **ārius** is an extension of **āris**.

3. Adjectives formed with these suffixes often become nouns, especially those in **ārius, ārium, ālis**, and **īle**: **statu-ārius**, *a statuary;* **libr-ārium**. *a bookcase*, from liber, *a book;* **mort-ālis**, *a mortal, a human being;* **ov-īle**, *a sheepfold*, from ov-is, *a sheep*.

349. The following examples illustrate the meaning and use of the suffixes

nus	**ā-nus**	**ē-nus**	**ī-nus**	**ci-nus**
er-nus	**t-er-nus**	**ur-nus**	**t-ur-nus**	

in the formation of adjectives:

vēr-nus,	*of spring, vernal,*	from	vēr,	*spring*
urb-ānus,	*of a city,*	"	urb-s,	*city*
terr-ēnus,	*of the earth, earthy,*	"	terr-a,	*the earth*
mar-īnus,	*of the sea, marine,*	"	mar-e,	*the sea*
vāti-cinus,	*prophetical,*	"	vātē-s, vāti-s,	*prophet*
acer-nus,	*of maple,*	"	acer,	*maple*
hodi-ernus,	*of this day,*	"	hodi-ē,	*this day, to-day*
pater-nus,	*of a father, paternal,*	"	pater,	*father*
hes-ternus,	*of yesterday,*	"	her-ī for hes-i,	*yesterday*
ebur-nus,	*of ivory,*	"	ebur,	*ivory*
noct-ur-nus,	*by night, nightly,*	"	nox, noct-is,	*night*
diū-turnus,	*lasting,*	"	diū,	*a long time*

1. The basis of all these suffixes is **nus**; **ci-nus** is from **co-nus**; it adds **nus** to **co**, the stem of **cus**; see **350**; **er-nus** and **ter-nus** follow the analogy of such words as **ac-er-nus** and **pa-ter-nus**, while **ur-nus** and **t-ur-nus** follow **eb-ur-nus** and **noc-t-ur-nus**.

2. The suffix **cinus** is sometimes extended to **cinius**: **vāti-cinius**, *prophetic*.

3. Many adjectives formed with these suffixes sometimes become nouns, and some words thus formed are always nouns in classical Latin: **īnsul-ānus**, *an islander*, from īnsul-a; **urb-ānus**, *a citizen*, from urb-s; **rēg-īna**, *a queen*, from rēx, rēg-is; **medic-īna**, *medicine*, from medi-cus, *a physician*.

4. Here may be mentioned the kindred suffixes **ōnus, ōna, ūnus, ūna**: **patr-ōnus**, *patron*, from pater; **mātr-ōna**, *matron*, from māter; **trib-ūnus**, *head of a tribe, tribune*, from tribus, *a tribe;* **fort-ūna**, from fors, *chance*.

350. The following examples illustrate the meaning and use of the suffixes

cus i-cus t-icus īvus t-īvus ius cius i-cius ī-cius tī-cius

in the formation of adjectives:

cīvi-cus,	*of a citizen,*	from cīvi-s,	*citizen*
bell-icus,	*of war, military,*	" bell-um,	*war*
cēnā-ticus,	*relating to dinner,*	" cēna,	*dinner*
fēst-īvus,	*pleasing,*	" fēst-us,	*festive*
tempes-tīvus,	*timely,*	" tempus, tempes,	*time*
rēg-ius,	*kingly, royal,*	" rēx, rēg-is,	*king*
ōrā-tōr-ius,	*of an orator,*	" ōrā-tor,	*orator*
cēn-sōr-ius,	*of a censor,*	" cēn-sor,	*censor*
sodāli-cius,	*of a companion,*	" sodāli-s,	*companion*
patr-i-cius,	*patrician,*	" pater,	*father*
nov-i-cius,	*new, inexperienced,*	" nov-us,	*new*
dēdi-tī-cius,	*surrendered,*	" dēdi-tus,	*given up*

1. For **īvus** and **t-īvus**, see **331** and **331**, 2.

2. The other suffixes are only different forms and combinations of **cus** and **ius**, both of which are in common use in kindred languages; **t-icus** and **t-ī-cius** obtain the **t** from participial stems; **cius** is an extension of **cus**; **ius** added to verbal nouns in **tor** and **sor** gives rise to the compound suffix, **tōr-ius**, **sōr-ius**, which may be applied directly to verb stems. Thus **ōrā-tōr-ius** is derived from the verb **ōrā-re** through the verbal noun, **ōrā-tor**; see **334**, 5.

3. A few adjectives formed with these suffixes sometimes become nouns, and a few words thus formed are always used as nouns in classical Latin: **rūs-ticus**, *countryman, peasant,* from rūs, *the country;* **patr-i-cius**, *patrician,* from pater, *father;* **rēg-ia**, *royal palace,* from rēx, *king;* **audī-tōr-ium**, *audience-room,* from audī-tor, *hearer.*

351. The following examples illustrate the meaning and use of the suffixes

ter tris es-ter es-tris ēnsis

in the formation of adjectives:

palūs-ter,	*marshy,*	from palūs,	*marsh*
eques-ter, eques-tris,	*of a horseman,*	" eques,	*horseman*
camp-ester,	*of a level field, level,*	" camp-us,	*level field*
silv-estris,	*of a forest, wooded,*	" silv-a,	*forest*
castr-ēnsis,	*of* or *in the camp,*	" castr-a,	*camp*

1. A few words formed from these suffixes are uniformly used as nouns, while a few others are occasionally so used: **palūs-tria**, *marshy places*, from palūs, *marsh*; **eques-ter**, *knight*, from eques, *horseman*.

2. The endings **ter**, **tris**, **es-ter**, and **es-tris** are different forms of the same suffix; the development of **es-ter** and **es-tris** from **ter** and **tris** is seen by comparing **eques-ter** and **eques-tris**, in which **es** belongs to the stem, with **camp-ester** and **silv-estris**, in which it is a part of the suffix; **ēnsis** is from *ent-ti-s, in which **t-t** becomes **s**.

352. The following examples illustrate the meaning and use of the suffixes

ilis **s-ilis**[1] **t-ilis**[1] **āt-ilis**[1] **ti-mus** **i-ti-mus**

in the formation of adjectives:

hum-ilis,	*low, lowly,*	from	hum-us,	*the earth, ground*
dap-s-ilis,	*sumptuous,*	"	dap-s,	*feast*
aquā-tilis,	*living in water,*	"	aqua,	*water*
sax-āt-ilis,	*living among rocks,*	"	sax-um,	*rock*
op-timus,	*richest, best,*	"	op-is,	*of wealth, help*
mari-timus,	*maritime,*	"	mare for mari,	*sea*
lēg-i-timus,	*lawful,*	"	lēx, lēg-is,	*law*

353. Adjectives from proper names generally end in

ānus, iānus, īnus **ās, aeus, ēus** **ius, iacus, icus** **ēnsis, iēnsis:**

Sull-ānus,	*of Sulla,*	from	Sulla,	*Sulla*
Mari-ānus,	*of Marius,*	"	Marius,	*Marius*
Cicerōn-iānus,	*Ciceronian,*	"	Cicerō,	*Cicero*
Lat-īnus,	*Latin,*	"	Latium,	*Latium*
Fīdēn-ās,	*of Fidenae,*	"	Fīdēnae,	*Fidenae*
Smyrn-aeus,	*Smyrnean,*	"	Smyrna,	*Smyrna*
Pȳthagor-ēus,	*Pythagorean,*	"	Pȳthagorās,	*Pythagoras*
Corinth-ius,	*Corinthian,*	"	Corinthus,	*Corinth*
Corinth-iacus,	*Corinthian,*	"	Corinthus,	*Corinth*
Britann-icus,	*British,*	"	Britannus,	*a Briton*
Cann-ēnsis,	*of Cannae,*	"	Cannae,	*Cannae*
Athen-iēnsis,	*Athenian,*	"	Athēnae,	*Athens*

1. **Ānus** and **iānus** are the endings generally used in derivatives from Names of Persons; but others also occur.

2. Many adjectives from names of places become Patrial Nouns in the plural and designate the citizens of those places: **Rōm-ānī**, *the Romans*, from Rōm-a; **Lat-īnī**, *the Latins*, from Lat-ium.

[1] On these suffixes, see **329**, 3.

354. The names of the Roman Gentes or Clans always ended in **ius**, masculine, and **ia**, feminine:

Aemil-ius,	Aemil-ia	App-ius,	App-ia	Cass-ius,	Cass-ia
Cornēl-ius,	Cornēl-ia	Fab-ius,	Fab-ia	Iūl-ius,	Iūl-ia

1. These forms in **ius** and **ia** are often used as adjectives: **circus Flāminius**, *the Flaminian circus;* **via Appia**, *the Appian way.*

2. Many of the names of the Roman gentes were derived from common nouns or from adjectives: **Virgin-ius**, **Virgin-ia**, from virgō, *maiden;* **Claud-ius**, **Claud-ia**, from claud-us, *lame.*

3. The name of the gens to which a Roman citizen belonged formed one of the three names which he regularly bore: the first, or **praenōmen**, designating the individual; the second, or **nōmen**, the **gēns**; and the third, or **cōgnōmen**, the family. Thus **Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpiō** was **Publius** of the **Scipio** family of the **Cornelian** gens.

4. Many Roman family names, **cōgnōmina**, like the English surnames Smith, Carpenter, and Green, are derived from common nouns or adjectives: **Cornicen**, *Horn-blower;* **Figulus**, *Potter;* **Capit-ō**, *Big-head;* **Lupus**, *Wolf;* **Taurus**, *Bull;* **Niger**, *Black.*

5. Some personal names, **praenōmina**, are also derived from common nouns or adjectives: **Aulus**, *Flute;* **Mārcus**, *Hammer;* **Quīntus**, *Fifth.*

6. In writing, personal names are generally represented by abbreviations:

A.	= Aulus	**M.**	= Mārcus	**S.** (**Sex.**)	= Sextus
Ap.	= Appius	**M'.**	= Mānius	**Ser.**	= Servius
C.	= Gāius[1]	**Mam.**	= Māmercus	**Sp.**	= Spurius
Cn.	= Gnaeus[1]	**N.**	= Numerius	**T.**	= Titus
D.	= Decimus	**P.**	= Pūblius	**Ti.** (**Tib.**)	= Tiberius
L.	= Lūcius	**Q.** (**Qu.**)	= Quīntus		

7. Sometimes an **āgnōmen** or surname was added to the three regular names. Thus **Scīpiō** received the surname **Āfricānus** from his victories in Africa: **Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpiō Āfricānus.**

8. An adopted son took the full name of his adoptive father, and an **āgnōmen** in **ānus** formed from the name of his own **gēns.** Thus **Octāvius**, when adopted by Caesar, became **Gāius Iūlius Caesar Octāviānus.** Afterward the title of **Augustus** was conferred upon him, making his full name **Gāius Iūlius Caesar Octāviānus Augustus.**

9. Women were generally known by the name of their **gēns.** Thus the daughter of Jūlius Caesar was simply **Iūlia**; of Cornēlius Scīpiō, **Cornēlia.** Two daughters in any family of the Cornelian **gēns** would be known as **Cornēlia** and **Cornēlia Secunda** or **Minor.**

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[1] On the use of C for G, see **5**, 1 and 3.

Adjectives from Adverbs and Prepositions

355. A few adjectives are formed from adverbs and prepositions with the following suffixes:

nus	**ā-neus**	**ārius**	**er-nus**	**ter-nus**	**tur-nus**	**ti-nus**

ter-nus,	*three-fold,*	from	ter,	*three times*
extr-āneus, extr-ārius,	*from without, external,*	"	extr-ā,	*on the outside*
hodi-ernus,	*of this day,*	"	hodi-ē,	*this day, to-day*
hes-ternus,	*of yesterday,*	"	herī for hes-i,	*yesterday*
diū-turnus, diū-tinus,	*lasting,*	"	diū,	*a long time*

DERIVATION AND HISTORY OF LATIN VERBS

356. The oldest Latin verbs were all inherited from the parent speech. They comprise three classes:

I. Root Verbs, in which the bare root is the present stem.

II. Thematic Verbs, in which the present stem ends in the thematic vowel.

III. Verbs whose present stem is formed with the suffix **io.**

I. — Root Verbs

357. In Root Verbs personal endings are added directly to the bare root, which forms the present stem. This is the most primitive form of verbal inflection known in our family of languages, and has almost disappeared from the Latin. Only a few isolated forms of irregular verbs remain, of which the following are the most important:

1. From the root **es**, *to be:* **es** = es-s, **es-t, es-tis, es-te, es-tō, es-tōte.**

2. From the root **ēd, ēs,** *to eat:* **ē-s** = ēd-s, **ēs-t, ēs-tis, ēs-te, ēs-tō, ēs-tōte.**

3. From the root **ī,** *to go:* **ī-s, i-t, ī-mus, ī-tis, ī-te, ī, ī-tō, ī-tōte.**

4. From the root **fer,** *to bear:* **fer-s, fer-t, fer-tis, fer-te, fer, fer-tō, fer-tōte,** with a few passive forms.

5. From the root **vel, vol,** *to wish:* **vol-t, vul-t, vol-tis, vul tis.**

6. From the root **dō, da,** *to give:* **dō, dā-s** = dō-s, **da-t, da-mus, da-tis, da-nt, dā, da-te, da-tō, da-tōte.**

NOTE. — Many forms from these roots are thematic, as **s-u-m, s-u-mus, s-u-nt,** etc.

II. — Thematic Verbs

358. The Present Stem ends in the thematic vowel, which was originally **e** or **o**, but in Latin it generally takes the form of **i** or **u**. The personal endings are added to this vowel. This class includes most verbs of the Third Conjugation:

rēg-e-re, *to rule;* rēg-i-t, rēg-i-mus, rēg-i-tis, rēg-u-nt.

III. — Verbs formed with the suffix io

359. This class includes four sub-divisions:

1. A group of **A**-Verbs, in which the present stem ends in **o**, from **ā-io**, in the first person singular of the Present tense and in **ā** in the other persons:

hiāre, *to gape;*	present stem,	hi-o,	hi-ā:	hi-ō,[1]	hi-ā-mus,	hi-ā-tis
lavāre, *to wash;*	" "	lav-o,	lav-ā:	lav-ō,	lav-ā-mus,	lav-ā-tis

2. A group of **E**-Verbs, in which the present stem ends in **eo**, from ē-io or e-io, in the first person singular of the Present tense and in **ē** in the other persons:

favēre, *to favor;*	present stem,	fav-eo,	fav-ē:	fav-eō,[1]	fav-ē-mus,	fav-ē-tis
vidēre, *to see;*	" "	vid-eo,	vid-ē:	vid-eō,	vid-ē-mus,	vid-ē-tis

Note 1. — A few verbs formed with the suffix e-iō are causative in meaning: **mon-eō**, **mon-ē-re**, *to cause to remember*, from the root **men**, *remember;* **noc-eō**, **noc-ē-re**, *to cause to suffer*, from **nec**, *death, ruin.*

Note 2. — In Causative verbs, the root vowel **e** takes its ablaut form **o**; see **326**, 3. Hence the root **men** becomes **mon** in **mon-eō**; **nec** becomes **noc** in **noc-eō**.

3. A group of **I**-Verbs, in which the present stem ends in **io**, from ī-io, in the first person singular of the Present tense, in **iu** in the third person plural, and in **ī** in the other persons:

venīre, *to come;*	pres. stem	ven-io,	ven-iu,	ven-ī:	ven-iō,	ven-ī-mus, ven-iu-nt

Note. — In a few verbs in **iō**, the thematic vowel takes the place of **ī**: **capere**, *to take:* cap-iō, cap-i-mus, cap-i-tis, cap-iu-nt.

4. Probably a very few **U**-Verbs, in which the present stem ends in **o**, from io, in the first person singular of the Present tense and in the thematic vowel in the other persons:

suere, *to sew,*	su-ō,	su-i-mus,	su-i-tis,	su-u-nt

[1] Observe that the first person singular of the Present has **ō**, but that its stem has **o**.

NOTE. — The four groups of inherited verbs just mentioned — viz. a group of **a**-verbs, or verbs of the First Conjugation, a group of **e**-verbs, or verbs of the Second Conjugation, a group of **i**-verbs, or verbs of the Fourth Conjugation, and a very few **u**-verbs of the Third Conjugation — served the Romans for all time as models for the formation of new verbs from the stems of nouns and adjectives. Thus all the Latin verbs were either inherited by the Romans or made by them on inherited models.

THE FORMATION OF VERBS FROM THE STEMS OF NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

360. **A**-Verbs are generally formed from **a**-stems, but sometimes from other vowel stems and even from consonant stems, especially from **n**- and **s**-stems:

cūr-ō,	-ā-re,	*to care for*,	from	cūr-a,	*care*
lacrim-ō,	-ā-re,	*to shed tears*,	"	lacrim-a,	*tear*
numer-ō,	-ā-re,	*to number*,	"	numer-us,	*number*
lev-ō,	-ā-re,	*to lighten*,	"	lev-is,	*light*
aestu-ō,	-ā-re,	*to rage*,	"	aestu-s,	*a raging*
nōmin-ō,	-ā-re,	*to name*,	"	nōmen,	*name*
oner-ō,	-ā-re,	*to burden*,	"	onus, oner-is,	*burden*

361. **E**-Verbs are generally formed from **o**-stems,[1] rarely from consonant stems:

alb-eō,	-ē-re,	*to be white*,	from	alb-us,	*white*
claud-eō,	-ē-re,	*to be lame*,	"	claud-us,	*lame*
flōr-eō,	-ē-re,	*to flower*,	"	flōs, flōr-is,	*flower*
lūc-eō,	-ē-re,	*to be light*,	"	lūx, lūc-is,	*light*

1. **E**-Verbs are generally intransitive; indeed, from the same stem are sometimes formed an **a**-Verb with a transitive meaning and an **e**-Verb with an intransitive meaning:

alb-eō,	-ē-re,	*to be white*,	from	alb-us,	*white*
alb-ō,	-ā-re,	*to make white*,			
clār-eō,	-ē-re,	*to be bright*,	"	clār-us,	*bright*
clār-ō,	-ā-re,	*to make bright*,			

362. **I**-Verbs are generally formed from **i**-stems; but sometimes from **o**-stems, **u**-stems and consonant stems:

fīn-iō,	fīn-ī-re,	*to finish*,	from	fīn-is,	*end*
lēn-iō,	lēn-ī-re,	*to make gentle*,	"	lēn-is,	*gentle*

[1] Remember that **o**-stems have an ablaut form in **e**.

serv-iō,	serv-ī-re,	*to serve,*	from	serv-us,	*servant*
gest-iō,	gest-ī-re,	*to gesture,*	"	gest-us,	*gesture*
cūstōd-iō,	cūstōd-ī-re,	*to guard,*	"	cūstōs,	*guard*

363. **U**-Verbs are formed from **u**-stems:

met-uō,	met-u-ere,	*to fear,*	from	met-us,	*fear*
stat-uō,	stat-u-ere,	*to place,*	"	stat-us,	*position, place*

364. Frequentatives, or Intensives, denote Repeated, Continued, or Intense Action. They are of the First Conjugation, and are formed from verb stems or roots with the following suffixes:

	tō **sō** **itō**		**titō** **sitō**	
cap-tō,	*to snatch,*	from	cap-ere,	*to take*
da-tō,	*to give frequently,*	"	da-re,	*to give*
cur-sō,	*to run about,*	"	cur-rere,	*to run*
ag-itō,	*to move violently,*	"	ag-ere,	*to move, drive*
scrīp-titō,[1]	*to write often,*	"	scrīb-ere,	*to write*
cur-sitō,	*to run hither and thither,*	"	cur-rere,	*to run*

1. Frequentatives were originally denominatives formed from the participle in **tus** or **sus**, but **itō** became an independent suffix and was added to the stems of verbs, regardless of the form of the participle; hence **ag-itō**, not āc-tō. The extension of **to** or **so** by **itō** gives the compound suffix **titō** or **sitō**, but some verbs formed with these suffixes may be explained as derivatives from other frequentatives. Thus **cant-itō** may be formed from **cant-ō**, a frequentative from **can-ō**; **curs-itō** from **curs-ō** from **cur-rō**.

2. A few Intensives of the Third Conjugation, denoting Eager rather than Repeated action, end in **essō**, rarely **issō**: **fac-essō**, *to do* or *perform eagerly*, from fac-ere, *to do, perform;* **incip-issō**, *to begin eagerly*, from incip-ere, *to begin.*

365. Inceptives, or Inchoatives, denote the Beginning of the action. They are regularly formed from the present stem of verbs by adding **scō**:

gelā-scō,	*to begin to freeze,*	from	gelā-re,	*to freeze*
calē-scō,	*to begin to be warm,*	"	calē-re,	*to be warm*
virē-scō,	*to grow green,*	"	virē-re,	*to be green*
obdormī-scō,	*to fall asleep,*	"	obdormī-re,	*to sleep*

1. The endings **āscō**, **ēscō**, and **īscō**, including the stem vowel of the primitive, finally became independent suffixes, and were added to the stems of verbs and apparently to the stems of nouns without regard to the char-

[1] Remember that before **t**, **g** becomes **c** and **b** becomes **p**; see **55**, 1.

acter of the stem vowel: **trem-ēscō**, **trem-īscō**, *to begin to tremble*, from trem-ere, *to tremble*; **puer-āscō**, *to reach boyhood*, from puer, *a boy*.

366. Desideratives, denoting a Desire to perform the action, end in **turiō** or **suriō**:

ēmp-turiō,[1]	*to desire to purchase*,	from em-ere,	*to purchase*
scrīp-turiō,	*to desire to write*,	" scrīb-ere,	*to write*
ē-suriō,[2]	*to desire to eat*,	" ed-ere,	*to eat*

367. Diminutives, denoting a feeble action, end in **illō**:

cant-ill-ō,	-āre,	*to sing feebly*,	from cant-āre,	*to sing*
cōnscrīb-ill-ō,	-āre,	*to scribble*,	" cōnscrīb-ere,	*to write*

1. Diminutives in **illō** are probably formed from verb stems through diminutive verbal nouns.

368. Denominatives are also formed with the suffixes **icō** and **igō**:

medic-or,	medic-ārī,	*to heal*,	from medic-us,	*physician*
claud-icō,	claud-icāre,	*to be lame*,	" claud-us,	*lame*
rēmig-ō,	remig-āre,	*to be an oarsman*,	" rēmex,	*oarsman*
mīt-igō,	mīt-igāre,	*to make gentle*,	" mīt-is,	*gentle*

1. Observe that in **medic-or** the letters **ic** belong to the stem of **medic-us**, while in **claud-icō** they have become a part of the suffix **icō**; also that in **rēmig-ō** the letters **ig** belong to the stem of rēmex, while in **mīt-igō** they have become a part of the suffix **igō**.

COMPOSITION OF WORDS

369. Many compound words are formed by uniting two or more stems and adding the suffixes of inflection when needed. The stem vowel of the first member of the compound generally disappears before a vowel and generally takes the form of **i** before a consonant:

māgn-animus,	from	māgno-animo-s,	*magnanimous*,	**o** disappears
grand-aevus,	"	grandi-aevo-s,	*of great age*,	**i** disappears
omni-potēns,	"	omni-potent-s,	*omnipotent*,	**i** retained
corni-cen,	"	cornu-cen,	*trumpeter*,	**u** changed to **i**
capri-cornus,	"	capro-cornu-s,	*capri-corn*,	**o** changed to **i**

[1] Ēm-p-turiō; **p** is generally thus developed between **m** and **t**; see **52**, 5.
[2] Ē-suriō, from *ēd-turiō, from **ēd**, the strong form of the root of **ed-ō**; for euphonic changes, see **52**, 1.

PART IV. — SYNTAX

SYNTAX OF SENTENCES

I. CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES

376. Syntax treats of the construction of sentences.

377. A sentence is a word, or a combination of words, expressing either a single thought or two or more thoughts.

1. A simple sentence expresses a single thought:

Rōmulus urbem condidit, *Romulus founded the city.*

2. A compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences:

Ego rēgēs ēiēcī, vōs tyrannōs intrōdūcitis, *I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants.*

3. A Declarative Sentence has the form of an assertion:

Miltiadēs accūsātus est, *Miltiades was accused.*

4. An Interrogative Sentence has the form of a question:

Quis nōn paupertātem extimēscit, *who does not fear poverty?*

5. An Imperative Sentence has the form of a command or entreaty:

Līberā rem pūblicam metū, *free the republic from fear.*

6. An Exclamatory Sentence has the form of an exclamation:

Relīquit quōs virōs, *what men he has left!*

378. Simple Interrogative sentences are generally introduced by an interrogative pronoun, adjective, or adverb, or by an interrogative particle, **ne**, **nōn-ne**, or **num**: **ne** asking for information; **nōnne** generally implying an affirmative answer, and **num** a negative answer:

Quis doctior Aristotele fuit, *who was more learned than Aristotle?* Quid tandem tē impedit, *what, pray, hinders you?* Hōra quota est, *what time is it?* Ubinam gentium sumus, *where in the world are we?* Estisne vōs lēgātī missī, *were you sent as ambassadors?* Nōnne nōbilitārī volunt, *do they not wish to be renowned?* Num igitur peccāmus, *are we then at fault?*

1. But questions in Latin, as in English, sometimes dispense with the interrogative word, especially in impassioned discourse:

Ego nōn poterō, *shall I not be able?* Vīs rēctē vīvere, *do you wish to live rightly?*

2. The particle **ne** is regularly appended to the emphatic word of the sentence; appended to **nōn** it forms **nōn-ne**. It is, however, sometimes added to other interrogative words without affecting their meaning, as in **utrum-ne**, **quanta-ne**, etc.

3. An emphatic **tandem**, meaning *indeed, pray, then*, is often found in interrogative sentences, as in the second example.

4. **Nam** appended to an interrogative also adds emphasis, as in **ubinam** in the fourth example.

5. For two interrogatives in the same clause, and for an interrogative with **tantus**, see **511**, 3 and 4.

379. Answers. — In replying to a question of fact the Latin usually repeats some emphatic word, or its equivalent, often with **prōrsus**, **vērō**, and the like, or, if negative, with **nōn**:

Nempe negās, *do you indeed deny?* Prōrsus negō, *certainly I deny;* C. Tusc. 5, 5. Possumusne esse tūtī, *can we be safe?* Nōn possumus, *we can not;* C. Ph. 12, 12. Tuam vestem dētrāxit tibī, *did he strip your garment from you?* Factum, *he did*, lit. *done* = it was done; T. Eun. 707.

1. Sometimes the simple particle is used — affirmatively, **sānē**, **etiam**, **ita**, **vērō**, **certē**, etc.; negatively, **nōn**, **minimē**, etc.:

Vīsne sermōnī dēmus operam sedentēs, *do you wish us to* (that we should) *attend to the conversation sitting?* Sānē quidem, *yes indeed;* C. Leg. 2, 1. Vēnitne, *has he come?* Nōn, *no;* Pl. Ps. 1067.

380. Double or Disjunctive Questions offer a choice or alternative. The first clause generally has **utrum** or **ne**, or it omits the particle; the second generally has **an**, as follows:

utrum,	**an**,	*whether, or*
ne,	**an**,	
—,	**an**,	

Utrum ea vestra an nostra culpa est, *is that your fault or ours?* Rōmamne veniō, an hīc maneam, *am I going to Rome or am I to remain here?* Haec vēra, an falsa sunt, *are these things true or false?*

1. A negative in the second clause gives **an nōn**, very rarely **nec-ne**:

Isne est quem quaerō, an nōn, *is he the one whom I seek or not?* T. Ph. 852. Sunt haec tua verba, necne, *are these your words, or not?* C. Tusc. 3, 18.

2. In poetry and later prose the first clause may have **utrum-ne**, or **utrum . . . ne**, and the second **an**:

Utrumne persequēmur ōtium, an, etc., *shall we enjoy our leisure, or*, etc.? Utrum praedicemne, an taceam, *shall I make it known, or be silent?*

3. By the omission of the first clause, the second sometimes stands alone with **an** in the sense of *or*, and sometimes **an** is used to introduce interrogative sentences which do not seem to involve an ellipsis:

Quid ais, *what do you say?* An vēnit Pamphilus, *or has Pamphilus come?*

4. By the omission of the second clause, the first sometimes stands alone with **utrum**:

Utrum hōc bellum nōn est, *is not this war?* C. Ph. 8, 2, 7.

5. One or two rare forms occur in poetry, as **ne . . . ne**, in Vergil, and **. . . ne**, once in Horace:

Iūstitiaene prius mīrer bellīne, *should I more admire your regard for justice or your martial deeds?* V. 11, 126. Māiōra minōrane fāmā, *are they superior or inferior to their fame?* H. E. 1, 11.

6. Disjunctive, or Compound Questions, are sometimes extended to three or more members. Indeed Cicero, Prō Domō, 22, 57, has a question of this kind with eight members.

II. ELEMENTS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES

381. The Simple Sentence, alike in its most simple and in its most expanded form, consists of two distinct parts, expressed or implied, and of only two:

1. The Subject, or that of which it speaks.
2. The Predicate, or that which is said of the subject.

382. The Simple or unmodified Subject may be a noun, a pronoun, expressed or implied, or some word or words used as a noun; and the Simple or unmodified Predicate may be either a verb alone or a suitable verb, generally **sum**, with a Predicate Noun or a Predicate Adjective:

Cluilius moritur, *Cluilius dies.* Ego scrībō, *I write.* Vīcimus, *we have conquered.* Dolēre malum est, *to suffer is an evil.* Vīta cāra est, *life is dear.*

1. In these examples observe that the subjects are **Cluilius**, **ego**, the pronoun implied in **vīci-mus**, the Infinitive **dolēre** used as a noun, and **vīta**. These subjects are all in the Nominative, according to **387**.

2. Observe that the predicates are **moritur**, **scrībō**, **vīcimus**, **malum est** and **cāra est**. **Malum**, thus used, is called a Predicate Noun, and **cāra** a Predicate Adjective.

383. The Complex Subject consists of the simple subject with one or more modifiers, generally an adjective, a noun in apposition, or a Genitive:

Albānus rēx moritur, *the Alban king dies.* Cluilius rēx moritur, *Cluilius the king dies.* Perūtilēs Xenophōntis librī sunt, *the books of Xenophon are very useful.*

1. Observe that the complex subjects are **Albānus rēx**, **Cluilius rēx**, and **Xenophōntis librī**.

2. In distinction from a predicate noun, or a predicate adjective, any noun or adjective used simply as a modifier of the subject, or of any other noun, is called an Attributive Noun or Adjective.

3. A noun or pronoun, used to describe or identify another noun or pronoun denoting the same person or thing, is said to be in Apposition with it and is called an Appositive: **Cluilius rēx**, *Cluilius the king.* Appositives therefore form one variety of attributive nouns.

384. The Complex Predicate consists of the simple predicate with its modifiers. These may be objective modifiers, adverbial modifiers, or both:

Glōria virtūtem sequitur, *glory follows merit.* Sapientēs fēlīciter vīvunt, *the wise live happily.* In hīs castrīs Cluilius moritur, *in this camp Cluilius dies.* Pōns iter paene hostibus dedit, *the bridge well-nigh offered a passage to the enemy.*

1. Here observe that the modifier in the first example is the object **virtūtem**, in the second the adverb **fēlīciter**, in the third the adverbial expression **in hīs castrīs**, and in the fourth the direct object **iter**, the indirect object **hostibus**, and the adverb **paene**.

2. All nouns may be modified like the subject; see **383.**

3. All adjectives may be modified by adverbs, and some adjectives may be modified by certain oblique cases:

Satis humilis est, *he is sufficiently humble.* Semper avidī laudis fuistīs, *you have always been desirous of praise.* Habētis ducem memorem vestrī, *you have a leader mindful of you.*

III. ELEMENTS OF COMPOUND SENTENCES

385. A Compound Sentence may consist of two or more independent sentences, combined without any change of form:

Sōl ruit et montēs umbrantur, *the sun hastens to its setting and the mountains are shaded.* Audendum est aliquid, aut omnia patienda, *something must be risked, or everything must be endured.*

386. A Compound Sentence may consist of two or more sentences so combined that one of them retains its independent form while the others are made subordinate to it:

Priusquam incipiās, cōnsultō opus est, *before you begin, there is need of deliberation.*

1. In sentences of this kind the part which makes complete sense, — **cōnsultō opus est**, *there is need of deliberation*, — is called the Principal or Independent Clause; and the part which is dependent upon it, — **priusquam incipiās**, *before you begin*, — is called the Dependent or Subordinate Clause.

2. The subordinate clause may be the subject or the predicate of the compound sentence or the modifier either of the subject or of the predicate:

Quid diēs ferat,[1] incertum est, *what a day will bring forth is uncertain.* Exitus fuit ōrātiōnis, sibī nūllam cum hīs amīcitiam esse posse,[1] *the close of his oration was that he could have no friendship with them.* Ego, quī tē cōnfīrmō,[1] ipse mē nōn possum, *I who encourage you am unable to encourage myself.* Zēnōnem, cum Athēnīs essem,[1] audiēbam, *I heard Zeno when I was at Athens.*

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE — RULES OF AGREEMENT

SUBJECT NOMINATIVE

387. Rule. — The subject of a Finite Verb is put in the Nominative:

Rōmulus rēgnāvit, *Romulus reigned.* Glōria virtūtem sequitur, *glory follows merit.* Īgnōrō quid agās, *I do not know how you are.* Ego rēgēs ēiēcī, vōs tyrannōs intrōdūcitis, *I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants;* Ad Her. 4, 53.

1. A Pronominal Subject is seldom expressed, as it is implied in the ending of the verb, as in the third example, but it may be expressed for emphasis or contrast, as in the last example.

2. For the different forms of the subject, see **382**.

3. The subject of an Infinitive is put in the Accusative; see **415**.

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[1] In the first example, the clause **quid diēs ferat** is the subject; in the second, **sibī . . . posse** is the predicate; in the third, **quī . . . cōnfīrmō**, a modifier of the subject; and in the fourth, **cum . . . essem**, a modifier of the predicate.

AGREEMENT OF VERB WITH SUBJECT

388. Rule. — A Finite Verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person:

Rōmulus urbem condidit, *Romulus founded the city.* Castor et Pollūx ex equīs pūgnāre vīsī sunt, *Castor and Pollux were seen to fight on horseback;* C. N. D. 2, 2. Scrībam ad tē, *I shall write to you.*

1. Participles in compound tenses also agree with the subject in gender according to **394**, 1, as in the second example.

2. For the pronominal subject implied in the verb, as in the last example, see **387**, 1.

3. A General or Indefinite subject is often denoted by impersonal passive forms and by certain persons of the active, as the first and third person plural Indicative and Subjunctive and the second person singular Subjunctive, **dīcimus**, *we* (people) *say;* **dīcunt**, *they say;* **dīcās**, *you* (any one) *may say:*

Ad vesperum pūgnātum est, *they fought till evening.* Quae volumus, crēdimus, *we believe what we wish.* Agere quod agās cōnsīderātē decet, *you should do considerately whatever you do;* C. Off. 1, 27.

4. The verb is sometimes omitted, when it can be readily supplied, especially **est** and **sunt** in proverbs and brief sayings:

Omnia praeclāra rāra, *all excellent things are rare;* C. Am. 21. Quot hominēs, tot sententiae, *as many opinions as men;* T. Ph. 454. Ecce tuae litterae, *lo, your letter;* C. Att. 13, 16.

5. **Dīcō** and **faciō** are often omitted in short sentences and clauses:

Pauca dē mē, *a few words in regard to myself;* C. N. D. 3, 2. Quid opus est plūra, *what need of* (saying) *more?* C. Sen. 1, 3. Quae cum dīxisset, Cotta fīnem, *having thus spoken* (when he had thus spoken), *Cotta closed* (made an end); C. N. D. 3, 40.

6. **Faciō** is often omitted in Livy after **nihil aliud** (amplius, minus, etc.) **quam**, *nothing other* (more, less, etc.) *than, merely;* **nihil praeterquam**, *nothing except, merely:*

Nihil aliud quam stetērunt parātī ad pūgnandum, *they merely stood prepared for battle;* L. 34, 46.

7. Certain brief forms of expression very often dispense with the verb: **quid**, *what?* **quid enim**, *what indeed?* **quid ergō**, *what then?* **quid quod**, *what of the fact that?* **nē plūra**, *not to say more;* **quid hōc ad mē**, *what is this to me?* **nihil ad rem**, *nothing to the subject.*

389. Synesis. — Sometimes, especially in poetry and in Livy, the predicate is construed according to the real meaning of the subject without regard to grammatical gender or number. Thus

1. With collective nouns, **iuventūs, multitūdō, pars,** and the like. These, though singular in form, are often plural in sense:

Iuventūs ruit certantque, *the youth rush forth and contend;* V. 2, 68. Multitūdō abeunt, *the multitude depart;* L. 24, 8. Māgna pars abeunt, *a large part withdraws;* S. 60, 8.

NOTE. — In the first example, observe that the former of the two verbs is in the singular and the latter in the plural, not an uncommon construction with collective nouns.

2. With **mīlia,** often masculine in sense:

Sex mīlia peditum mōre Macedonum armātī fuēre, *six thousand of the infantry were armed in the manner of Macedonians;* L. 37, 40.

3. With **quisque, uterque, alius . . . alium, alter . . . alterum,** and the like:

Uterque eōrum exercitum ēdūcunt, *each of them leads out his army;* Caes. C. 3, 30. Alius alium domōs suās invītant, *they invite each other to their homes;* S. 66, 3.

4. With a singular subject accompanied by an Ablative with **cum**:

Dux cum prīncipibus capiuntur, *the leader with his chiefs is taken;* L. 21, 60.

5. With **partim . . . partim** in the sense of **pars . . . pars**:

Bonōrum partim necessāria sunt, partim nōn necessāria, *of good things some are necessary, others are not necessary;* C. Part. 24, 86.

6. Occasionally in poetry with a neuter pronoun or adjective limited by a Partitive Genitive:

Quid hūc tantum hominum (= tot hominēs) incēdunt, *why are so many men coming this way?* Pl. Poen. 619.

390. The verb agrees, not with its subject, but with the Predicate Noun, or with a noun after **quam, nisi,** etc., when that noun is nearer than the subject and when the subject is an Infinitive or a clause:

Nōn omnis error stultitia dīcenda est, *not every error should be called folly;* C. Div. 2, 43. Puerī Trōiānum dīcitur agmen, *the boys are called the Trojan band;* V. 5, 602. Nihil aliud nisi pāx quaesīta est, *nothing but peace was sought;* C. Off. 1, 23. Contentum suīs rēbus esse māximae sunt dīvitiae, *to be content with one's own is the greatest wealth;* C. Parad. 6, 3.

391. The verb often agrees, not with its subject, but with an Appositive, regularly when the appositive is **oppidum**:

Corinthus, Graeciae lūmen, exstīnctum est, *Corinth, the light of Greece, was extinguished;* C. Man. 5, 11. Volsiniī, oppidum Tuscōrum, concremātum est, *Volsinii, a town of the Tuscans, was burned.*

392. With two or more subjects, the verb may agree either with one subject and be understood with the others, or with all the subjects conjointly:

Homērus fuit et Hēsiodus ante Rōmam conditam, *Homer and Hesiod lived before the founding of Rome;* C. Tusc. 1, 1, 3. Aut mōrēs spectārī aut fortūna solet, *either character or fortune is wont to be regarded.* Pompēius, Lentulus, Scīpiō periērunt, *Pompey, Lentulus, and Scipio perished.* Ego et Cicerō valēmus, *Cicero and I are well;* C. Fam. 14, 5. Tū et Tullia valētis, *you and Tullia are well.* Pater mihī et māter mortuī sunt, *my father and mother are dead;* T. Eun. 517. Labor voluptāsque inter sē sunt iūncta, *labor and pleasure are joined together;* L. 5, 4.

1. The verb generally agrees with one subject and is understood with the others, when it stands before the subjects or between them, as in the first example, and when the subjects represent inanimate objects, as in the second example.

2. A verb agreeing conjointly with subjects differing in Person, takes the first person rather than the second and the second rather than the third, as in the fourth and fifth examples.

3. A participle in a compound tense, agreeing conjointly with subjects differing in Gender, is masculine if the subjects denote persons, otherwise generally neuter, as in the sixth and seventh examples.

4. **Two Subjects as a Unit.** — Two singular subjects forming in sense a Unit or Whole admit a singular verb:

Cui senātus populusque Rōmānus praemia dedit, *to whom the senate and Roman people* (i.e. the state as a unit) *gave rewards;* C. Balb. 4, 10. Sed tempus necessitāsque postulat, *but the time and necessity* (i.e. the crisis) *demand;* C. Off. 1, 23, 81.

5. **With Aut or Neque.** — When subjects connected by **aut, vel, neque, nec, sīve,** or **seu** are of the same person, the verb generally agrees with the nearest subject, but when they differ in person, the verb is generally plural:

Aut Brūtus aut Cassius iūdicāvit, *either Brutus or Cassius judged.* Haec neque ego neque tū fēcimus, *neither you nor I have done these things;* T. Ad. 103.

APPOSITIVES AND PREDICATE NOUNS

393. Rule. — A noun used as an Appositive or as a Predicate of another noun denoting the same person or thing agrees with it in Case:

Appositives. — Cluilius rēx moritur, *Cluilius the king dies.* Saguntum, foederātam cīvitātem, expūgnāvit, *he took Saguntum, an allied town.* Themistoclēs vēnī ad tē, *I, Themistocles, have come to you;* N. 2, 9. Venus, rēgīna Cnidī, *Venus, the queen of Cnidus;* H. 1, 80.

Predicates. — Ūsus magister est, *experience is a teacher;* C. R. Post. 4, 9. Vīta magistra est, *life is an instructress;* C. Rosc. A. 27, 75. Exstitistī tū vindex nostrae lībertātis, *you have appeared as the defender of our liberty.* Servius rēx est dēclārātus, *Servius was declared king.*

1. An appositive or a predicate noun with different forms for different genders must agree in gender as well as in case; as **Cluilius rēx, Venus rēgīna, ūsus magister, vīta magistra,** above.

2. An appositive or a predicate noun may agree with a pronoun, whether expressed or only implied in the ending of a verb. Thus **Themistoclēs** above agrees with a pronoun implied in **vēnī**, while **vindex** agrees with **tū** expressed.

3. **Clauses.** — A noun or pronoun may be an appositive or predicate of a clause, or a clause an appositive or predicate of a noun or pronoun:

Cēterum, id quod nōn timēbant, prope lībertās āmissa est, *but liberty was almost lost, that which they did not fear;* L. 2, 8. Facinus est vincīre cīvem Rōmānum, *to bind a Roman citizen is a crime.* Ōrāculum datum erat victrīcēs Athēnās fore, *an oracle had been given that Athens would be victorious;* C. Tusc. 1, 28.

4. **Partitive Apposition.** — The parts may be appositives or predicates of the whole, or the whole may be an appositive or predicate of the parts:

Duo rēgēs, ille bellō, hīc pāce, cīvitātem auxērunt, *two kings advanced the interests of the state, the former by war, the latter by peace;* L. 1, 21. Ptolemaeus et Cleopatra, rēgēs Aegyptī, *Ptolemy and Cleopatra, rulers of Egypt;* cf. L. 87, 8. Nautius et Fūrius cōnsulēs erant, *Nautius and Furius were consuls;* L. 2, 39.

5. **Predicate Apposition.** — Appositives sometimes have nearly the force of subordinate clauses:

Aedem Salūtis dictātor dēdicāvit, *he dedicated the temple of Salus when* (he was) *dictator;* L. 10, 1, 9.

6. Possessives admit a Genitive in apposition with the Genitive implied in them:

Ad tuam ipsīus amīcitiam, *to your own friendship.* Nōmen meum absentis, *my name in my absence.*

7. Locatives admit appositives in the Locative Ablative, with or without a preposition:

Albae cōnstitērunt in urbe opportūnā, *they halted at Alba, a convenient city;* C. Ph. 4, 2. Corinthī, Achāiae urbe, *at Corinth, a city of Achaia;* T. H. 2, 1.

8. Predicate nouns are most frequent with **sum** and a few intransitive verbs, **ēvādō**, **exsistō**, **appāreō**, and the like, and with passive verbs of Appointing, Making, Naming, Regarding, and the like.

9. Predicate nouns are used, not only with finite verbs, but also with Infinitives and participles, and sometimes without verb or participle:

Orestem sē esse dīxit, *he said that he was Orestes.* Dēclārātus rēx Numa, *Numa having been declared king.* Caninio cōnsule, *Caninius being consul.*

10. In the poets, predicate nouns are used with verbs of a great variety of signification:

Rēxque paterque audīstī, *you have been called both king and father* (have heard yourself so called); H. E. 1, 7, 37. Ego quae dīvom incēdō rēgīna, *I who walk as queen of the gods;* V. 1, 46.

11. The Dative of the object for which (**433**), **prō** with the Ablative, and **locō** or **numerō** (or **in numerō**) with the Genitive, are often kindred in force to predicate nouns:

Malō est hominibus avāritia, *avarice is an evil to men* (is to men for an evil). Sicilia nōbīs prō aerāriō fuit, *Sicily was a treasury* (for a treasury) *for us.* Deōrum numerō eōs dūcunt, *they consider them as gods* (in the number of).

12. For the Predicate Accusative, see **410**, 1.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES

394. Rule. — Adjectives, whether Attributive or Predicate, agree with their nouns in Gender, Number, and Case:

Fortūna caeca est, *Fortune is blind.* Vērae amīcitiae sempiternae sunt, *true friendships are enduring.* Ūsus magister est optimus, *Experience is the best teacher.* Haec aurea vāsa, *these golden vessels.* Sōl oriēns diem cōnficit, *the sun rising makes the day.* Certum est līberōs amārī, *it is certain that children are loved.*

1. Demonstratives and participles are adjectives in construction, and accordingly conform to this rule, as **haec vāsa**, **sōl oriēns.**

2. Remember that in the passive forms of the verb the participle sometimes agrees with a predicate noun or with an appositive; see **390, 391.**

3. For the distinction between an attributive adjective and a predicate adjective, see **383**, 2.

4. **Agreement with Clause, etc.** — An adjective may agree with any word or words used substantively, as with a pronoun, clause, infinitive, etc. Thus, in the last example, **certum** agrees with **līberōs amārī**. When an adjective agrees with a clause, or with an Infinitive, it is always neuter, generally singular, but in poetry it is sometimes plural as in Greek:

Ut Aenēās iactētur nōta tibī, *how Aeneas is tossed about is known to you;* V. 1, 667.

5. A neuter adjective used substantively sometimes supplies the place of a predicate adjective:

Cum mors sit extrēmum, *since death is the last thing;* C. Fam. 6, 21. Trīste lupus stabulīs, *a wolf is a sad thing for the flocks;* V. E. 3, 80.

6. A neuter adjective with a Genitive is often used in poetry and in late prose, rarely in Caesar and Cicero, instead of an adjective with its noun; especially in the Nominative and Accusative:

Mīrātur strāta viārum,[1] *he admires the paved streets;* V. 1, 422. Corruptus vānīs rērum, *deluded by vain things;* H. S. 2, 2. Cuncta terrārum subācta, *all lands subdued;* H. 2, 1, 23.

7. Sometimes, though chiefly in poetry, the adjective or participle conforms to the real meaning of its noun, without regard to grammatical gender or number:

Pars certāre parātī, *a part* (some) *prepared to contend;* V. 5, 108. Absente nōbīs (= mē), *in my absence;* T. Eun. 649. Dēmosthenēs cum cēterīs erant expulsī, *Demosthenes with the others had been banished;* N. 19, 2.

8. **Agreement with One Noun for Another.** — When a noun governs another in the Genitive, an adjective belonging in sense to one of the two nouns sometimes agrees with the other, especially in poetry and late prose:

Māiōra rērum initia, *the beginning of greater things;* L. 1, 1. Ad iūstī cursum amnis, *to the regular course of the river;* L. 1, 4.

9. In poetry an adjective or participle predicated of an Accusative is sometimes attracted into the Nominative to agree with the subject:

Ostendit sē dextra, *she shows herself favorable;* V. 2, 388.

395. An adjective or participle, belonging in sense to two or more nouns, may agree with one and be understood with the others, or it may agree with them all conjointly:

[1] **Strāta viārum**, poetical for strātās viās.

Dubitāre vīsus est Sulpicius et Cotta, *Sulpicius and Cotta seemed to doubt;* C. Or. 1, 62. Temeritās īgnōrātiōque vitiōsa est, *rashness and ignorance are bad.* Castor et Pollūx ex equīs pūgnāre vīsī sunt, *Castor and Pollux were seen to fight on horseback;* C. N. D. 2, 2.

1. An attributive adjective generally agrees with the nearest noun; a predicate adjective less frequently:

Agrī omnēs et maria, *all lands and seas;* C. Tusc. 1, 28. Huic Hyperīdēs proximus et Aeschinēs fuit, *next to him were Hyperides and Aeschines;* C. Brut. 9, 36.

2. A plural adjective or participle used with two or more nouns of different genders is generally masculine, when the nouns denote living beings, or are in a manner personified, otherwise generally neuter, used substantively; see **394**, 5:

Pater mihi et māter mortuī sunt, *my father and mother are dead;* cf. T. Eun. 517. Rēx rēgiaque classis[1] profectī, *the king and the royal fleet set out.* Honōrēs, imperia, victōriae fortuīta sunt, *honors, commands, and victories are accidental things;* C. Off. 2, 6. Inimīca inter sē sunt lībera cīvitās et rēx, *a free state and a king are things hostile to each other.* Labor voluptāsque, dissimillima nātūrā, inter sē sunt iūncta, *labor and pleasure, things most unlike by nature, are joined together.*

NOTE. — Moreover, with nouns denoting inanimate objects, the adjective or participle is sometimes neuter, irrespective of the gender of the nouns:

Stultitia et temeritās et iniūstitia sunt fugienda, *folly, rashness, and injustice are things to be avoided;* cf. C. Fin. 3, 11.

3. Two or more adjectives in the singular may belong to a plural noun: **prīma et vīcēsima legiōnēs**, *the first and twentieth legions.*

4. In the same manner two or more **praenōmina**, personal names, in the singular may be combined with a family name in the plural: **Gnaeus et Pūblius Scīpiōnēs**, *Gnaeus and Publius Scipio.*

5. For Roman names, see **354**, 3.

AGREEMENT OF PRONOUNS

396. Rule. — Pronouns agree with their antecedents in Gender, Number, and Person:

Nēmō est quī tē nōn metuat, *there is no one who does not fear you.* Graecī rēbus istīs, quās nōs contemnimus, dēlectantur, *the Greeks are delighted with those things which we despise.* Nihil agis quod ego nōn videam,

[1] Here **rēgia classis** is in a manner personified, as it represents the soldiers who manned the fleet.

you do nothing which I do not see. Ego quī tē cōnfīrmō, ipse mē nōn possum, *I who encouraged you am not able to encourage myself.* Vīs est in virtūtibus; eās excitā, *there is strength in virtues; arouse them.*

1. When the antecedent is a determinative in agreement with a personal pronoun, the relative takes the person of the latter:

Haec is fēcī quī sodālis Dolābellae eram, *I who was the companion of Dolabella did this;* C. Fam. 12, 14.

2. Pronouns which have predicate nouns associated with them generally agree by attraction with those nouns:

Animal quem[1] vocāmus hominem, *the animal which we call man;* C. Leg. 1, 7. Thēbae quod[1] Boeōtiae caput est, *Thebes which is the capital of Boeotia;* L. 42, 44. Ea[1] erat cōnfessiō, *that* (the fact stated) *was an admission;* L. 1, 45.

NOTE. — Pronouns are not usually attracted when they are neuter and stand in a negative sentence nor when the predicate noun is a foreign proper name:

Nec sopor illud erat, *nor was that sleep;* V. 8, 173. Flūmen quod appellātur Tamesis, *a river which is called the Thames;* Caes. 5, 11.

3. Pronouns, when used as adjectives, conform, of course, to the ordinary rule for adjectives; see **394.**

397. Synesis. — The Pronoun is sometimes construed according to the real meaning of the antecedent without regard to grammatical form, and sometimes it refers to the class of objects to which the antecedent belongs:

Equitātum praemittit quī videant, etc., *he sends forward his cavalry to see,* etc.; Caes. 1, 15. Eārum rērum utrumque, *each of these things;* C. Div. 1, 52. Quia fessum mīlitem habēbat, iīs quiētem dedit, *as he had an exhausted soldiery, he gave them rest.* Dēmocritum omittāmus; nihil est enim apud istōs, *let us omit Democritus; for there is nothing in the works of such.*

398. Two or More Antecedents. — When a pronoun refers to two or more antecedents, it generally agrees with them conjointly, but it sometimes agrees with the nearest, or the most important:

Pietās, Virtūs, Fidēs, quārum[2] Rōmae templa sunt, *Piety, Virtue, and Faith, whose temples are at Rome;* C. Leg. 2, 11. Praeter culpam ac peccātum, quā[2] semper carēbis, *except fault and error, from which you will ever be free;* C. Fam. 5, 21.

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[1] **Quem** attracted from **quod** to agree with **hominem**; **quod** attracted from **quae** to agree with **caput**, and **ea** from **id** to agree with **cōnfessiō**.

[2] **Quārum** agrees with **Pietās, Virtūs, Fidēs**, conjointly; **quā** with **culpam**, the more important.

1. With antecedents differing in gender, the pronoun conforms to the rule for adjectives, being generally masculine if the antecedents denote persons, otherwise neuter; see **395**, 2:

Lātōna et Apollō et Diāna, quōrum dīvīnum domicilium compīlāvit, *Latona, Apollo, and Diana, whose divine abode he pillaged;* C. Ver. 5, 72. Inconstantia et temeritās, quae dīgna nōn sunt deō, *inconstancy and rashness, which are things not worthy of a god;* cf. C. N. D. 3, 24.

2. With antecedents differing in person, the pronoun conforms to the rule for verbs, preferring the first person to the second and the second to the third, see **392**, 2:

Errāstis et tū et collēgae tuī quī spērāstis, *both you and your colleagues who hoped, have made a mistake;* C. Agr. 1, 7.

399. Relative Construction. — Originally the relative was a pronominal adjective in agreement with the antecedent repeated in the relative clause, as **itinera duo, quibus itineribus**, *two ways, by which ways.* Generally the antecedent is retained in the principal clause and omitted in the relative clause, but sometimes it is retained in the relative clause and omitted in the principal clause, and sometimes it is omitted in both. Hence the following forms:

1. Antecedent in both clauses:

Erant itinera duo, quibus itineribus domō exīre possent, *there were two ways by which they were able to go from home;* Caes. 1, 6.

2. Antecedent omitted in the relative clause, the usual construction:

Marius quī Ītaliam obsidiōne līberāvit, *Marius who freed Italy from siege.*

3. Antecedent omitted in the principal clause, but retained in the relative clause. In this construction the relative clause in classical prose generally stands first:

In quem ēgressī sunt locum, Trōia vocātur, *the place where* (into which) *they landed is called Troy;* L. 1, 1. Quam quisque nōrit artem, in hāc sē exerceat, *let every one practice the art which he knows;* C. Tusc. 1, 18, 41.

4. Antecedent omitted in both clauses. This is common when the antecedent is indefinite, or is implied in a possessive pronoun, or in an adjective:

Sunt quī cēnseant, *there are some who think.* Vestrā, quī cum integritāte vīxistis, hōc interest, *this interests you who have lived uprightly;* C. Sull. 28, 79. Servīlī tumultū, quōs, etc., *in the revolt of the slaves whom,* etc.; Caes. 1, 40.

NOTE. — In the second example, the antecedent of **quī** is a personal pronoun implied in **vestrā**, and in the last example the antecedent of **quōs** is **servōrum** implied in **servīlī**, *of the slaves.*

5. **Attracted.** — The relative is sometimes attracted into the case of the antecedent, and in poetry, rarely in prose, the antecedent is sometimes attracted into the case of the relative:

Notante iūdice, quō[1] nōstī, *when the judge whom you know reprimands;* H. S. 1, 6, 14. Urbem,[1] quam statuō, vestra est, *the city which I am building is yours;* V. 1, 573.

6. **Clause as Antecedent.** — When the antecedent is a sentence or clause, the pronoun is in the neuter singular, but the relative generally adds **id** as an appositive to such antecedent:

Rēgem, quod numquam anteā acciderat, necāvērunt, *they put their king to death, which had never before happened;* C. Off. 2, 23. Sīn ā vōbīs, id quod nōn spērō, dēserar, *but if I should be deserted by you, which I do not expect;* C. Rosc. A. 4, 10.

USE OF CASES

GENERAL VIEW OF CASES. — NOMINATIVE AND VOCATIVE

400. Cases, in accordance with their general meaning and use, naturally arrange themselves in pairs, as follows:

I.	Nominative,	Case of the Subject.
	Vocative,	Case of the Person Addressed.
II.	Accusative,	Case of the Direct Object.
	Dative,	Case of the Indirect Object.
III.	Genitive,	Case of Adjective Relations.
	Ablative,	Case of Adverbial Relations.

Note. — The Nominative, Vocative, Genitive, Dative, and Accusative have probably retained, with very slight modifications, their original force as developed in the mother tongue from which the Latin was derived. For the Ablative, see **459**.

NOMINATIVE

401. The Nominative is used as follows:

1. As Subject of the Sentence; see **382**, 1; **387**.
2. As Appositive to another Nominative; see **393**.
3. As Predicate Nominative; see **393**.
4. In Exclamations; see **421**, 3.

[1] **Quō** attracted from **quem** into the case of the antecedent; **urbem** attracted from **urbs** into the case of the relative.

VOCATIVE. — CASE OF ADDRESS

402. Rule. — The name of the person or thing addressed is put in the Vocative:

Tuum est, Servī, rēgnum, *the kingdom is yours, Servius.* Quid est, Catilīna, quod tē dēlectāre possit, *what is there, Catiline, which can please you?* Ō dī immortālēs, *O immortal gods.*

1. An Interjection may or may not accompany the Vocative.

2. In poetry, and sometimes in prose, the Nominative in apposition with the subject occurs where we should expect the Vocative:

Audī tū, populus Albānus,[1] *hear ye, Alban people;* L. 1, 24.

3. Conversely, the Vocative by attraction sometimes occurs in poetry where we should expect the Nominative:

Quibus, Hector, ab ōrīs exspectāte venīs, *from what shores, Hector, do you anxiously awaited come?* V. 2, 282. Iāne libentius audīs, *you prefer to be called Janus*[2]*;* H. S. 2, 6, 20. Macte novā virtūte,[3] *a blessing on your new valor*[3]*;* V. 9, 641.

ACCUSATIVE

403. The Accusative is used as follows:

1. As Direct Object; see **404.**
2. As Direct Object and Predicate; see **410.**
3. As Double Object — Person and Thing; see **411.**
4. As Direct Object with Infinitive; see **414.**
5. As Subject of Infinitive; see **415.**
6. As Accusative of Specification; see **416.**
7. As Accusative of Time, Space, and Limit; see **417, 418.**
8. With Prepositions and in Exclamations; see **420, 421.**

Accusative as Direct Object

404. Rule. — The Direct Object of an action is put in the Accusative:

Marius Ītaliam līberāvit, *Marius freed Italy.* Populī Rōmānī salūtem dēfendite, *defend the safety of the Roman people.* Rōmulus Rōmam condi-

[1] But **populus Albānus** may be a Nominative form with the Vocative meaning following the analogy of all nouns and adjectives except those in **us**; see **75, 1.**

[2] Or, *you more gladly hear yourself called Janus.*

[3] Supply **estō.** Literally *be enlarged by your new valor.* In this expression, **macte** has become so far indeclinable that it is used in the Accusative singular and in the plural.

dit, *Romulus founded Rome.* **Librum dē rēbus rūsticīs scrīpsī,** *I wrote a book on rural affairs.*

1. The Direct Object may be either the Person or Thing on which the action of the verb is directly exerted, as **Ītaliam** and **salūtem** above, or the Result of the action, the object produced by it, as **Rōmam** and **librum.**

2. **Passive Construction.** — In the passive construction, the noun or pronoun which is the direct object of the active becomes the Subject Nominative:

Laudant exquīsītissimīs verbīs legiōnēs, *they praise the legions with the choicest words.* Laudantur exquīsītissimīs verbīs legiōnēs, *the legions are praised with the choicest words;* C. Ph. 4, 3, 6.

3. An Infinitive or a Clause may be used as a direct object:

Vērum audīre nōn vult, *he does not wish to hear the truth.* **Quis sim sciēs,** *you will know who I am.*

4. The object of a transitive verb is often omitted when it can be easily supplied: **moveō** = moveō mē, *I move;* **vertit** = vertit sē, *he turns.*

405. Special Verbs. — Note the use of the Accusative with the following special verbs, many of which admit other constructions, as the Dative or the Ablative with or without **dē.** Thus:

1. With verbs of Feeling or Emotion, of Taste and Smell; as **dēspērāre,** *to despair, to despair of;* **dolēre,** *to grieve, to grieve for;* **gemere,** *to sigh, to sigh over;* **horrēre,** *to shudder, to shudder at;* **maerēre,** *to mourn, to mourn over;* **mīrārī,** *to wonder, to wonder at;* **rīdēre,** *to laugh, to laugh at;* **sitīre,** *to thirst, to thirst after;* **olēre, redolēre,** *to have an odor, to have the odor of;* **sapere,** *to have taste, to have the taste of:*

Meum cāsum doluērunt, *they mourned over my misfortune;* C. Sest. 69, 145. Pācem dēspērāvī, *I despaired of peace;* C. Att. 7, 20. Dētrīmenta rīdet, *he laughs at losses;* H. E. 2, 1, 121. Ōrātiōnēs redolentēs antīquitātem, *orations savoring of antiquity;* C. Brut. 21, 82.

NOTE. — **Dolēre** takes the Accusative or the Ablative with or without **dē;** **dēspērāre,** the Accusative, the Dative, or the Ablative with **dē;** **olēre** and **redolēre,** the Accusative or Ablative: **dēlictō dolēre,** *to grieve over a fault;* **salūtī** or **dē salūte dēspērāre,** *to despair of safety;* **sibī dēspērāre,** *to despair of oneself;* **redolēre thymō,** *to have the odor of thyme.*

2. With a few other verbs; as **dūrāre,** *to grow hard, to make hard;* **suppeditāre,** *to abound, to furnish bountifully;* **tacēre,** *to be silent, to pass over in silence:*

Ego multa tacuī, *I have passed over many things in silence;* C. C. 4, 1, 2.

3. Several impersonal verbs admit the Accusative; as **decet**, *it befits;* **dēdecet**, *it does not befit;* **iuvat**, *it pleases;* **fallit, fugit, praeterit**, *it escapes:*

Ōrātōrem īrāscī minimē decet, *it by no means becomes an orator to be angry.* Nisi mē fallit, *unless it escapes me, unless I mistake.*

4. **Miseret, paenitet, pudet, taedet,** and **piget** take the Accusative and Genitive; see **457.**

NOTE. — Many verbs which are usually rendered by transitive verbs in English are intransitive in Latin, and thus admit only an Indirect Object or some special construction; see **426.**

406. Many Compounds of intransitive verbs with prepositions, especially compounds of verbs of motion with **circum, per, praeter, trāns,** and **super,** take the Accusative:

Mutinam circumsedent, *they are besieging Mutina.* Murmur cōntiōnem pervāsit, *a murmur went through the assembly.* Pȳrēnaeum trānsgreditur, *he crosses the Pyrenees.* Undam innatat alnus, *the boat floats upon the stream;* V. G. 2, 451. Tēla modo exit, *he only avoids the blows;* V. 5, 438.

407. In poetry, rarely in prose, a few verbs, chiefly those of Clothing and Unclothing, — **induō, exuō, cingō, accingō,** etc., — are sometimes used reflexively in the passive, like the Greek Middle Voice, and thus admit an Accusative:

Galeam induitur, *he puts on his helmet;* V. 2, 392. Inūtile ferrum cingitur, *he girds on his useless sword;* V. 2, 510. Puerī suspēnsī loculōs lacertō, *boys with satchels hung upon the arm;* H. S. 1, 6, 73. Pāscuntur silvās, *they browse upon the forests;* V. G. 3, 314. Iūnō necdum antīquum saturāta dolōrem, *Juno not yet having appeased her old resentment;* V. 5, 608.

408. Verbal Adjectives and, in Plautus, a few Verbal Nouns occur with the Accusative:

Vītābundus castra hostium, *avoiding the camp of the enemy;* L. 25, 18. Quid tibī hanc cūrātiōst rem (cūrātiōst = cūrātiō est), *why do you care for this?* Pl. Amph. 519.

409. Cognate Accusative. — Even Intransitive verbs admit the Accusative of an object of cognate or kindred meaning, generally with an adjective or other modifier:

Tūtam vītam vīvere, *to lead a secure life;* C. Ver. 2, 47. Cōnsimilem lūserat ille lūdum, *he had played a similar game;* T. Eun. 586. Nēmō servitūtem servīvit, *no one lived in servitude;* C. Top. 6, 29.

1. Note the following use of neuter pronouns and adjectives in a kindred sense:

Eadem peccat, *he makes the same mistakes;* C. N. D. 1, 12. Idem glōriārī, *to make the same boast;* C. Sen. 10. Hōc puerī possunt, *have the boys this power?* C. Tusc. 2, 14.

2. Note the following poetical constructions:

Pūgnāvit proelia, *he fought battles;* H. 4, 9. Vōx hominem sonat, *the voice sounds human;* V. 1, 328. Corōnārī Olympia, *to be crowned with the Olympic crown;* H. E. 1, 1, 50.

Two Accusatives of the Same Person

410. Rule. — Verbs of Making, Choosing, Calling, Regarding, Showing, and the like, admit Two Accusatives of the Same Person or Thing:

Hamilcarem imperātōrem fēcērunt, *they made Hamilcar commander;* N. 22, 2. Ancum rēgem populus creāvit, *the people made Ancus king;* L. 1, 32. Summum cōnsilium appellārunt senātum, *they called their highest council a senate;* cf. C. Sen. 6. Catō Flaccum habuit collēgam, *Cato had Flaccus as a colleague;* N. 24, 1.

1. **Predicate Accusative.** — One of these two Accusatives is the Direct Object and the other a Predicate Accusative. In the passive the direct object of the active becomes the subject Nominative and the predicate Accusative becomes the predicate Nominative:

Populus Rōmānus cōnsulem mē fēcit, *the Roman people made me consul.* Cōnsul factus sum, *I was made consul.*

2. **Habēre**, *to have*, admits two Accusatives, as in the fourth example under the rule, but when it means to *regard*, it usually takes, instead of the predicate Accusative, the Dative, the Ablative with **in** or **prō**, or the Genitive with **locō**, **numerō**, or **in numerō**:

Paupertās probrō habērī coepit, *the absence of wealth began to be regarded as a disgrace;* S. C. 12. Sēsē illum nōn prō amīcō, sed hoste habitūrum, *that he should regard him, not as a friend, but as an enemy;* Caes. 1, 44. Reductōs in hostium numerō habuit, *he regarded them as enemies, when brought back.*

Note. — These constructions are also used with other verbs meaning *to regard.*

3. The Predicate Accusative is often an adjective:

Ipsōs caecōs reddit avāritia, *avarice makes th[illegible]d;* cf. C. Rosc. A. 35.

Two Accusatives — Person and Thing

411. Rule. — Some verbs of Asking, Demanding, Teaching, and Concealing admit Two Accusatives — one of the Person and one of the Thing:

Mē sententiam rogāvit, *he asked me my opinion;* C. Q. Fr. 2, 1. Pācem tē pōscimus, *we demand peace from you;* V, 11. 362. Philosophia nōs rēs omnēs docuit, *philosophy has taught us all things;* cf. C. Leg. 1, 22. Nōn tē cēlāvī sermōnem, *I did not conceal the conversation from you;* C. Fam. 2, 16.

1. In the passive the Person becomes the subject and the Accusative of the Thing is retained:

Rogātus ego sententiam multa dīxī, *having been asked my opinion I stated many things;* C. Att. 1, 16. Omnēs mīlitiae artēs ēdoctus fuerat, *he had been taught all the arts of war;* L. 25, 37. Id cēlārī nōn potuit, *he could not be kept ignorant of this;* N. 7, 5, 2.

2. Two Accusatives are generally used with **cēlō, doceō, ēdoceō**; often with **rogō, pōscō, repōscō**, and sometimes with **dēdoceō, expōscō, flāgitō**; **cōnsulō, interrogō, percontor**, etc.

3. Instead of the Accusative of the Thing verbs of Asking or Questioning generally take the Ablative with **dē**, **cēlō** sometimes takes the Ablative with **dē**, and **doceō** and **ēdoceō** the Ablative with or without **dē**, an Infinitive or a clause:

Quem ego interrogem dē tūribulīs, *whom I may question about the censers.* Mē dē hōc librō cēlāvit, *he kept me ignorant of this book.* Dē suā rē mē docet, *he informs me in regard to his case.* Litterīs Graecīs doctus, *instructed in Greek literature.* Sōcratem fidibus docuit, *he taught Socrates to play on the lyre;* C. Fam. 9, 22. Tē nihil sapere docuit, *he taught you to know nothing.*

4. **Quaerō**, *to ask*, and verbs of Imploring and Demanding generally take the Accusative of the Thing and the Ablative of the Person with **ā, ab, dē, ē**, or **ex**. In the passive the thing becomes the subject and the Ablative of the person is retained:

Quaerit ex solō ea, etc., *he asks him in private* (from him alone) *about those things;* Caes. 1, 18. Pācem ā vōbīs petimus, *we implore peace from you;* L. 6, 26. Id ab eō flāgitābātur, *this was earnestly demanded of him.*

412. The Accusative of a Neuter Pronoun or Adjective occurs in connection with a direct object with many verbs which otherwise seldom, if ever, take two Accusatives:

Hōc tē hortor, *I give you this exhortation;* C. C. 1, 5. Ea monēmur, *we are admonished of these things;* cf. C. Am. 24. Numquid aliud mē vīs? *do you wish anything else of me?* Illud tē ōrō, *that I ask of you.*

1. In rare instances, **ōrō, moneō** and its compounds admit a noun as the Accusative of the thing:

Auxilia rēgem ōrābant, *they asked auxiliaries of the king;* L. 28, 5. Eam rem nōs locus admonuit, *the place reminded us of that event;* S. 79, 1.

413. A few compounds of **trāns,** and in rare instances of **circum** and **praeter,** admit two Accusatives in the active and one in the passive:

Cōpiās flūmen trādūxit, *he led his forces across the river;* L. 22, 45. Praetervehor ōstia Pantagiae, *I am carried past the mouth of the Pantagias;* V. 3, 688.

Accusative and Infinitive

414. Rule. — Many transitive verbs admit both an Accusative and an Infinitive:

Ut doceam Rullum tacēre, *that I may teach Rullus to be silent;* C. Agr. 3, 2. Ēdocuit gentem cāsūs aperīre futūrōs, *he taught the race to disclose future events.* Sentīmus calēre īgnem, *we perceive that fire is hot.* Rēgem trādunt sē abdidisse, *they relate that the king concealed himself;* L. 1, 31.

1. In these examples observe that **docuit** and **ēdocuit** admit two Accusatives and that the Infinitive here simply takes the place of one Accusative; that **Rullum** and **gentem** are the objects of the finite verbs; that **īgnem,** in the third example, may be explained either as the object of **sentīmus** or as the subject of the Infinitive, **calēre,** *we perceive fire to be hot* or *that fire is hot;* and that the Accusative **rēgem** in the last example is plainly the subject of the Infinitive, **abdidisse,** *that the king concealed himself.* These examples illustrate the development of the subject of the Infinitive out of the direct object of the principal verb. Hence we have the following rule.

415. Rule. — Subject of Infinitive. — The Infinitive sometimes takes an Accusative as its subject:

Platōnem ferunt in Ītaliam vēnisse, *they report that Plato came into Italy,* C. Tusc. 1, 17, 39. Cīvitātis sapientissimum Solōnem dīcunt fuisse, *they say that Solon was the wisest man of the state.*

Accusative of Specification

416. Rule. — In poetry, rarely in prose, a verb or an adjective may take an Accusative to Define its Application:

Nūbe umerōs amictus, *with his shoulders enveloped in a cloud;* H. 1, 2, 31. Mīles frāctus membra labōre, *the soldier with limbs* [illegible] *labor*

(broken as to his limbs); H. 8. 1, 1, 5. Aenēās ōs deō similis, *Aeneas like a god in countenance;* V. 1, 589.

1. This Accusative sometimes concurs with the Poetic Accusative after passive verbs used reflexively. Thus **umerōs** above may be explained either as an Accusative of Specification or as the object of **amictus** used reflexively; see **407**.

2. The Accusative is often used in an adverbial sense, developed largely from the Accusative of Specification and the Cognate Accusative, as **multum, plūrimum, cētera, reliqua,** etc.; **partem, vicem, nihil, secus, aliquid, hōc, illud, id,** etc.; **id aetātis,** *of that age;* **id temporis,** *at that time:*

Cētera īgnārus populī Rōmānī, *in other respects ignorant of the Roman people;* S. 19, 7. Māximam partem lacte vīvunt, *they live mostly* (as to the largest part) *upon milk;* Caes. 4, 1. Id hominibus id aetātis impōnitur, *that is placed upon men of that age,* i.e. of that time in life; C. Or. 1, 47, 207. Locus id temporis vacuus, *a place at that time vacant;* C. Fin. 5, 1.

3. **Id genus, omne genus,** and the like, apparently in the sense of **ēius generis, omnis generis,** etc., are probably best explained as appositives:

Aliquid id genus scrībere, *to write something of this kind* (something, viz. this kind).

Accusative of Time and Space

417. Rule. — Duration of Time and Extent of Space are expressed by the Accusative:

Rōmulus septem et trīgintā rēgnāvit annōs, *Romulus reigned thirty-seven years;* L. 1, 21, 6. Catō annōs quīnque et octōgintā nātus excessit ē vītā, *Cato died at the age of* (having been born) *eighty-five years.* Septingenta mīlia passuum ambulāre, *to walk seven hundred miles.* Aggerem altum pedēs octōgintā exstrūxērunt, *they erected a mound eighty feet high.*

1. Duration of Time is sometimes expressed by the Accusative with **per**:

Per annōs vīgintī certātum est, *the contest was carried on for twenty years.*

2. Duration of Time sometimes so far coincides with time in or within which (**427**) that it is expressed by the Ablative:

Pūgnātum est hōrīs quīnque, *the battle was fought five hours,* or *in five hours;* cf. Caes. C. 1, 46.

3. Distance regarded as Extent of Space is expressed by the Accusative as in the third and fourth examples, but regarded as the Measure of Difference (**479**) it is expressed by the Ablative. Moreover, the Ablative of Distance sometimes takes **ā,** or **ab**:

Mīlibus passuum sex ā Caesaris castrīs cōnsēdit, *he encamped at the distance of six miles from Caesar's camp;* Caes. 1, 48. Ab mīlibus passuum duōbus castra posuērunt, *they pitched their camp two miles off* (at or from the distance of two miles); Caes. 2, 7, 3.

4. In expressions of age with **māior** or **minor**, the Accusative may be used with **nātus** or the Ablative with or without **nātus**.

Māior annōs sexāgintā nātus, *more than sixty years old;* N. 21, 2. Minor quīnque et vīgintī annīs nātus, *less than twenty-five years old;* N. 23, 3. Māior annīs quīnquāgintā, *more than fifty years of age;* L. 42, 33.

Limit of Motion

418. Rule. — The Place towards which the motion is directed as its End or Limit is generally denoted by the Accusative with **ad** or **in**, but in names of Towns by the Accusative alone:[1]

Legiōnēs ad urbem addūcit, *he is leading the legions to* or *towards the city*, C. Ph. 7, 1. Hannibal exercitum in Ītaliam dūxit, *Hannibal led an army into Italy.* Missī lēgātī Athēnās sunt, *ambassadors were sent to Athens*, L. 3, 31. Reditus Rōmam, *a return to Rome.* Carthāginem Novam in hīberna Hannibal concessit, *Hannibal retired into winter quarters at* (lit. to) *New Carthage;* L. 21. 15.

1. The last example illustrates the fact that when a verb of motion takes two nouns denoting the limit of motion, both nouns must be in the Accusative, even when the English idiom requires the use of *at* or *in*, in translating one of them: *into winter quarters at New Carthage;* Latin idiom, *to New Carthage into winter quarters.*

2. **Urbs** or **oppidum**, with **in**, may stand before the name of a town, but if accompanied by a modifier, it regularly stands, with or without **in**, after such name:

Pervēnit in oppidum Cirtam, *he came into the town Cirta;* S. 102. Sē contulit Tarquiniōs, in urbem Etrūriae, *he betook himself to Tarquinii, a city of Etruria;* cf. C. R. P. 2, 19. Capuam colōnia dēdūcētur, urbem amplissimam, *a colony will be conducted to Capua, a very spacious city;* C. Agr. 2, 28.

3. By a Latin idiom, verbs meaning *to collect, to come together*, etc., — **cōgō, convocō, congregō, contrahō, conveniō, adveniō, perveniō**, etc.,—are usually treated as verbs of Motion and accordingly take the Accusa-

[1] Originally the Limit of Motion was uniformly designated by the Accusative without a preposition. Names of towns have retained the original construction, while most other names of places have assumed a preposition.

tive, with or without a preposition. On the contrary, verbs meaning *to place*, — **locō, collocō, pōnō, statuō, cōnstituō**, etc., — are usually treated as verbs of Rest, and accordingly take the Ablative (**483**), generally with a preposition:

Omnēs in ūnum locum cōpiās cōgere, *to collect all the forces in one place;* Caes. 6, 10. Omnēs ūnum in locum conveniunt, *they all assemble in one place.* Rōmam Ītalia tota convēnit, *all Italy assembled at Rome.* Spem salūtis in virtūte pōnēbant, *they all placed their hope of safety in their valor;* Caes. 5, 34.

4. In the names of towns the Accusative with **ad** is used in the sense of *to, towards, in the direction of, into the vicinity of*, and in contrast with **ā**, or **ab**:

Trēs viae sunt ad Mutinam, *there are three roads to Mutina;* C. Ph. 12, 9. Ad Zamam pervēnit, *he came into the vicinity of Zama;* S. 57. Ab Diānīō ad Sinōpēn nāvigāvērunt, *they sailed from Dianium to Sinope;* C. Ver. 1, 34, 87.

419. Like names of towns, the following Accusatives are used without prepositions:

1. Regularly **domum, domōs, rūs**, and Supines in **um**:

Domum reductus est, *he was conducted home;* C. Am. 8, 12. Alius alium domōs suās invītant, *they invite each other to their homes;* S. 66, 3. Domum reditiō, *a return home;* cf. Caes. 1, 5. Ego rūs ībō, *I shall go into the country;* T. Eun. 216. Ad Caesarem congrātulātum convēnērunt, *they came to Caesar to congratulate him;* Caes. 1, 30.

NOTE. — A possessive, or a Genitive of the possessor, may accompany **domum** and **domōs**, as **domum Caesaris**, *to Caesar's house;* **domōs suās**, *to their homes.* With other modifiers a preposition is regularly used, as **in illam domum**, *into that house.*

2. Sometimes the Accusative of names of Islands and Peninsulas, and even of Countries:

Lātōna cōnfūgit Dēlum, *Latona fled to Delos;* cf. C. Ver. 1, 18. Miltiadēs pervēnit Chersonēsum, *Miltiades went to the Chersonesus;* N. 1, 1. Dīcitur Aegyptum profūgisse, *he is said to have fled to Egypt;* C. N. D. 3, 22.

3. In poetry and late prose, the preposition is often omitted before the names of Countries and Nations and sometimes even before common nouns:

Ītaliam vēnit, *he came to Italy;* V. 1, 2. Nōs Ībimus Āfrōs, *we shall go to the Africans;* V. E. 1, 65. Lāvīna vēnit lītora, *he came to the Lavinian shores;* V. 1, 2. Ille īnfitiās ībit, *he is going to deny it* (to a denial of it); T. Ad. 339.

4. A Poetical Dative occurs for the Accusative:

It clāmor caelō, *the shout ascends to Heaven;* V. 5, 451. **Dum īnferret** deōs Latiō, *while he was carrying his gods to Latium;* V. 1, 6. **Facilis** dēscēnsus Avernō, *easy is the descent to Avernus;* V. 6, 126.

NOTE. — See also Dative in Poetry and late Prose, **428.**

Accusative with Prepositions

420. Rule. — The Accusative may take a Preposition to aid in expressing the exact relation intended:

Scrībam **ad** tē, *I shall write to you.* **Ad** tē ante lūcem veniet, *he will come to you before light.* Īnsula contrā Brundisium est, *the island is opposite Brundisium.* Post mē erat Aegīna, *behind me was Aegina.* Īnsulae propter Siciliam, *the islands near Sicily.* Secundum nātūram vīvere, *to live in accordance with nature.*

1. Note the force of the prepositions in the following expressions: **ad urbem**, *to the city;* **in urbem**, *into the city;* **per urbem**, *through the city;* **post urbem**, *behind the city;* **prope urbem**, *near the city.*

2. The following prepositions are used with the Accusative alone:

ad,	*to*	contrā,	*opposite*	pōne,	*behind*
adversus, adversum,	*opposite*	ergā,	*towards*	post,	*behind*
		extrā,	*outside*	praeter,	*beyond*
ante,	*before*	īnfrā,	*below*	prope,	*near*
apud,	*near, at*	inter,	*among*	propter,	*on account of*
circā, circum,	*around*	intrā,	*inside*	secundum,	*next after*
		iūxtā,	*near*	suprā,	*above*
circiter,	*about*	ob,	*on account of*	trāns,	*across*
cis, citrā,	*on this side*	penes,	*in power of*	ultrā,	*beyond*
		per,	*through*	versus,	*towards*

3. The following four prepositions are used either with the Accusative or with the Ablative:

in,	*into, in*	subter,	*beneath, under, towards*
sub,	*under*	super,	*above, about, beyond*

in and **sub** with the Accusative after verbs of motion; **subter** and **super** generally with the Accusative:

Hannibal exercitum in Ītaliam dūxit, *Hannibal led an army into Italy;* N. 23, 3. Sub montem succēdunt, *they approached towards the mountain.* Subter mūrōs hostium āvehitur, *he is borne under the walls of the enemy.* Super Numidiam esse, *to be beyond Numidia;* S. 19, 5.

NOTE. — For the Ablative with these four prepositions, [illegible] 3.

4. Prepositions were originally adverbs (**312**, 1) and many of them are still used as adverbs in classical authors:

Ad mīlibus quattuor, *about four thousand.* Legiō iūxtā cōnstiterat, *the legion had taken a stand near by.* Prope ā Siciliā, *not far* (near) *from Sicily.* Suprā, īnfrā mundōs esse, *that there are worlds above and below.*

5. Conversely, several words which are generally adverbs, sometimes become prepositions and are used with the Accusative: **propius**, *nearer;* **proximē**, *nearest;* **prīdiē**, *the day before;* **postrīdiē**, *the day after;* **clam, clanculum**, *without the knowledge of;* **ūsque**, *as far as, even to:*

Propius perīculum, *nearer to danger;* L. 21, 1, 2. Quam proximē Ītaliam, *as near as possible to Italy;* C. Ph. 10, 11. Prīdiē eum diem, *the day before that day;* C. Att. 11, 23. Postrīdiē lūdōs, *the day after the games;* C. Att. 16, 4. Clam patrem, *without father's knowledge;* T. Hec. 396. Ūsque pedēs, *even to the feet;* Curt. 8, 9.

NOTE. — For the rare use of the Ablative after **clam**, see **490, 4.**

Accusative in Exclamations

421. Rule. — The Accusative, either with or without an interjection, may be used in Exclamations:

Heu mē miserum, *Ah me unhappy*[1]; C. Ph. 7, 4. Mē miserum, *me miserable*[1]; C. Att. 9, 6. Ō fallācem spem, *O deceptive hope.* Prō deōrum fidem, *in the name of the gods.*[2]

1. An adjective or a Genitive generally accompanies this Accusative, as in the examples.

2. Instead of the Accusative, the Vocative may be used when an Address as well as an exclamation is intended:

Īnfēlīx Dīdō, *unhappy Dido.*

3. The Nominative may be used when the exclamation approaches the form of a statement:

En dextra fidēsque, *lo the right hand and the plighted faith;* V. 4, 597. Ecce tuae litterae, *lo your letter;* C. Att. 13, 16, 1.

4. The Ethical Dative is used in exclamations after **ei, vae, ecce,** and a few other interjections; see **432**:

Ei mihī, quid faciam, *woe to me, what shall I do?* T. Ad. 789.

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[1] See Milton, Paradise Lost, IV. 73.

[2] Some of the Accusatives found in exclamations are readily explained as the object of omitted verbs, while others may be the survival of rude unfinished sentences from a primitive age.

DATIVE

422. The Dative is used as follows:

1. As Indirect Object — General Use; see **424.**
2. With Special Verbs; see **426.**
3. With Certain Compound Verbs; see **429.**
4. As Possessor; see **430.**
5. As Apparent Agent; see **431.**
6. As Ethical Dative; see **432.**
7. As Indirect Object and Predicate; see **433.**
8. With Adjectives; see **434.**
9. With Special Nouns and Adverbs; see **436.**

Indirect Object

423. The Indirect Object designates the Person To or For Whom, or the Thing To or For Which, anything is or is done.

Dative with Verbs

424. Rule. — The Indirect Object of an action is put in the Dative. It may be used either alone or in connection with the Direct Object:

Mundus Deō pāret, *the world is subject to God.* Tibĭ seris, tibĭ metēs, *for yourself you sow, for yourself you will reap.* Ego Caesarī supplicābō, *I shall supplicate Caesar.* Pecūniae serviunt, *they are slaves to money.* Vīta vōbīs data est, *life has been granted to you,* C. Ph. 14, 12.

Mīlitibus sīgnum dedit, *he gave the signal to the soldiers.* Tibĭ grātiās agimus, *we give you thanks.* Nātūra hominem conciliat hominī, *nature reconciles man to man.* Lēgēs cīvitātibus suīs scrīpsērunt, *they wrote laws for their states;* C. Leg. 2, 6.

1. The Indirect Object generally designates a Person, or something Personified, as in the examples.

2. The Dative of the Indirect Object must be distinguished from the Accusative, with or without a preposition, denoting the Limit of Motion, and from the Ablative with **prō**, meaning *for, in defense of, in behalf of.* Compare the following examples:

Patriam nōbīs reddidistis, *you have restored our country to us.* Missī lēgātī Athēnās sunt, *envoys were sent to Athens.* Convenit dīmicāre prō patriā, *it is seemly to fight for one's country.*

3. The force of the Dative is often found only by attending to the strict literal meaning of the verb: **nūbō**, *to marry* (strictly, *to veil one's self*, as the bride for the bridegroom); **medeor**, *to cure* (to administer a remedy to):

Venus nūpsit Vulcānō, *Venus married Vulcan;* C. N. D. 3, 23.

425. The Dative of the Indirect Object may be

1. The Dative of Influence, generally designating the Person To Whom, sometimes the Thing To Which, something is or is done:

Cīvitātibus lībertātem reddidit, *he restored liberty to the states.*

Here belong most of the examples under the rule.

2. The Dative of Interest,[1] designating the Person For Whom something is done:

Nōn nōbīs sōlum nātī sumus, *we were not born for ourselves alone.* Nōn sōlum nōbīs dīvitēs esse volumus, sed līberīs, *we wish to be rich, not for ourselves alone, but for our children;* C. Off. 3, 15.

3. The Dative of Purpose or End, designating the Object or End For Which something is or is done:

Receptuī cecinit, *he gave the signal for a retreat;* cf. L. 34, 39. Nōn scholae sed vītae dīscimus, *we learn, not for the school, but for life;* Sen. Ep. 105.

4. The Dative of Relation, designating the Person In Relation To Whom, or In Reference To Whom, something is or is done:

Tū illī pater es, *you are a father to him;* T. Ad. 126. Trīduī iter expeditīs erat, *it was a journey of three days for light-armed soldiers;* L. 9, 9. Est urbe ēgressīs tumulus, *there is a mound as you go out of the city* (to those having [= who have] gone out of the city); V. 2, 712.

Note. — A Dative is sometimes thus added to the predicate when the English idiom would lead us to expect a Genitive depending on a noun:

Sēsē Caesarī ad pedēs prōiēcērunt, *they threw themselves at the feet of Caesar;* Caes. 1, 31. Urbī fundāmenta iēcī, *I laid the foundations of* (for) *the city;* L. 1, 12. Mihī horror membra quatit, *a shudder shakes my limbs;* V. 3, 29.

426. With Special Verbs. — The Dative of the Indirect Object is used with many verbs which require special mention. Thus,

1. With verbs meaning *to please* or *displease, command* or *obey, serve* or *resist, benefit* or *injure, favor* or *oppose, trust* or *distrust*, and the like:

[1] Observe that the Dative of Influence is very closely connected with the verb, and is, in fact, essential to the completeness of the sentence; while the Dative of Interest and the Dative of Purpose are merely added to sentences which would be complete without them. Thus **Dīvitēs esse volumus** is complete in itself.

Ego numquam mihī placuī, *I have never pleased myself;* C. Or. 2, 4, 15. Crūdēlitās eī displicēbat, *cruelty was displeasing to him.* Imperat aut servit pecūnia cuique, *money rules* (commands) *or serves every one;* H. E. 1, 10, 47. Deō oboediunt maria, *the seas obey God.* Nōn licet nocēre alterī, *it is not lawful to injure another.* Omnēs nōbilitātī favēmus, *we all regard nobility with favor.* Diffīdēbant Servīliō, *they were distrusting Servilius.*

NOTE 1. — A few verbs of this class take the Accusative: **laedō, regō,** etc.

NOTE 2. — Here may be mentioned the use of the Dative with **faciō** and **dīcō** accompanied by **satis, bene,** or **male:**

Mihī numquam satis faciō, *I never satisfy myself;* C. Fam. 1, 1. **Dī tibī bene** faciant, *may the gods bless you;* T. Ad. 917. Male dīcēbat tibī, *he slandered you;* C. Deiot. 12, 33.

NOTE 3. — For **fīdō** and **cōnfīdō** with the Ablative, see **476, 3.**

2. With verbs meaning *to indulge, aid, spare, pardon, believe, persuade, flatter, threaten, envy, be angry,* and the like:

Indulgēbat sibī, *he indulged himself.* Nūllīus pepercit vītae, *he spared the life of no one.* Caesar īgnōvit omnibus, *Caesar pardoned all.* Mihī crēde, *believe me.* Facile Nerviīs persuādet, *he easily persuades the Nervii.* Huic imperiō minitābantur, *they were threatening this government.* Probus invidet nēminī, *the upright man envies no one.*

NOTE. — Some verbs of this class take the Accusative: **dēlectō, iuvō,** etc.

3. The Impersonal Passive of verbs which take only an Indirect Object in the active retains the Dative:

Nē mihī noceant, *that they may not injure me;* C. C. 3, 12. Mihī nihil nocērī potest, *no injury can be done to me;* C. C. 3, 12.

4. Some verbs admit either the Accusative or the Dative, but with a difference of meaning:

Hunc tū cavētō, *be on your guard against this one;* H. S. 1, 4, 85. Foedus rēgī cavet, *the treaty provides for the king;* C. Agr. 2, 22. Deum cōnsuluit, *he consulted the god.* Vōbīs cōnsulite, *consult* (take measures) *for yourselves.* Perfidiam timēmus, *we fear perfidy.* Legiōnibus timēbat, *he was fearing for his legions.* Quis mē volt, *who wishes me?* T. And. 872. Tibī bene volō, *I wish you well;* T. Heaut. 959.

NOTE. — **Cavēre aliquem,** *to ward off some one;* **cavēre alicui,** *to care for some one;* **cupere aliquid,** *to desire something;* **cupere alicui,** *to wish one well;* **prōspicere, prōvidēre aliquid,** *to foresee;* **prōspicere,** etc., **alicui,** *to provide for;* **temperāre aliquid,** *to govern, direct;* **temperāre alicui,** (of things) *to restrain,* (of persons) *to spare.*

5. With **scrībō**, *to write*, and **mittō**, *to send*, the Person may be denoted either by the Dative or by the Accusative with **ad**, but with **nūntiō**, *to announce*, the person is generally denoted by the Dative:

Labiēnō scrībit, *he writes to Labienus.* Scrībam ad tē, *I shall write to you.* Ea rēs hostibus nūntiātur, *this fact is announced to the enemy.*

NOTE. — **Dare litterās alicui** generally means *to deliver a letter to some one*, especially to a carrier or messenger, but **dare litterās ad aliquem** means *to address* or *send a letter to some one:*

Litterās ad tē numquam habuī cui darem, *I have never had any one by whom to send* (lit. to whom I might deliver) *a letter to you;* C. Fam. 12, 19.

6. A few verbs admit the Dative of the Person and the Accusative of the Thing, or the Accusative of the Person and the Ablative of the Thing:

Praedam mīlitibus dōnat, *he gives the booty to the soldiers;* Caes. 7, 11. Atticus Athēniēnsēs frūmentō dōnāvit, *Atticus presented the Athenians with grain;* cf. N. 25, 2.

7. **Interdīcō** takes the Dative of the Person and generally the Ablative of the Thing, sometimes with **dē**, but the Accusative also occurs:

Omnī Galliā Rōmānīs interdīxit, *he forbade the Romans all Gaul.*

427. A Dative rendered *from* or *with* sometimes occurs where our idiom would lead us to expect the Ablative, as with verbs of Differing, Dissenting, Repelling, Taking Away, etc., and sometimes with **faciō**, **misceō**, etc.

Sibī dissentīre, *to dissent from himself.* Sibī discrepantēs, *disagreeing with themselves.* Populus nōn adimit eī lībertātem, *the people do not take from him his civil rights;* C. Caec. 34, 99. Quid huic hominī faciās, *what are you to do with* (to) *this man?* C. Caec. 11, 31.

428. Dative in Poetry. — In the poets and in the late prose writers, the Dative is used much more freely than in classical prose. Thus it occurs with more or less frequency with the following classes of verbs:

1. With verbs denoting Motion or Direction — for the Accusative with **ad** or **in**:

Multōs dēmittimus Orcō, *we send many down to Orcus;* V. 2, 398. It clāmor caelō, *the shout goes to heaven;* V. 5, 451.

2. With verbs denoting Separation or Difference — instead of the Ablative with **ab** or **dē**, or the Accusative with **inter**:

1. Instead of the Dative of the Apparent Agent, the Ablative with **ā** or **ab** is sometimes used:

Quibus est ā vōbīs[1] cōnsulendum, *for whom measures must be taken by you;* C. Man. 2.

2. The Dative of the Apparent Agent is sometimes used with the compound tenses of Passive Verbs:

Mihī cōnsilium captum iam diū est, *I have a plan long since formed;* C. Fam. 5, 19.

3. **Habeō** with the Perfect Participle has the same force as **est mihī** with the Participle:

Pecūniās collocātās habent, *they have moneys invested;* C. Man. 7, 18. Equitātum coāctum habēbat, *he had collected his cavalry* or *had his cavalry collected;* Caes. 1, 15.

NOTE. — The Dative with the Gerundive, whether alone or in the Periphrastic Conjugation, designates the person who has the work to do; while with the compound tenses of passive verbs it designates the person who has the work already done.

4. The Real Agent, with passive verbs, in classical prose is denoted by the Ablative with **ā** or **ab**[2]; see **468**.

5. The Dative is used with the tenses for incomplete action, to designate the person who is at once Agent and Indirect Object, the person by whom and for (to) whom the action is performed:

Honesta bonīs virīs quaeruntur, *honorable things are sought by good men;* C. Off. 3, 9.

6. In the poets, the Dative is often used for the Ablative, with **ā** or **ab**, to designate simply the agent of the action:

Neque cernitur ūllī, *nor is he seen by any one;* V. 1, 440. Nūlla tuārum audīta mihī sorōrum, *no one of your sisters has been heard by me;* V. 1, 236. Rēgnāta arva Sāturnō quondam, *lands formerly ruled by Saturn;* V. 6, 793.

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[1] Here **ā vōbīs** is necessary to distinguish the Agent from the Indirect Object, **quibus**; but the Ablative with **ā** or **ab** is sometimes used when this necessity does not exist.

[2] The Dative with the Gerundive is best explained as the Dative of Possessor or of the Indirect Object. Thus, **suum cuique incommodum est** means *every one has his trouble* (**cuique**, Dative of Possessor) and **suum cuique incommodum ferendum est**, *every one has his trouble to bear.* So, too, **mihī cōnsilium est**, *I have a plan;* **mihī cōnsilium captum est**, *I have a plan* (already) *formed.*

432. The Ethical Dative, denoting the person to whom the thought is of special interest, is often introduced into the Latin sentence[1] in the form of a personal pronoun:

At tibĭ venit ad mĕ, *but lo, he comes to me;* C. Fam. 9, 2. Quŏ mihĭ abīs, *whither are you going, pray?* V. 5, 162. Quid mihĭ Celsus agit, *what is my Celsus doing?* Quid vōbīs vultis, *what do you wish* or *mean?* Ei mihĭ, quid faciam, *woe to me, what shall I do?* T. Ad. 789.

Two Datives

433. Rule. — Two Datives, the Object To Which and the Object or End For Which, are used with a few verbs, either alone or in connection with the Direct Object:

Vōbīs honōrī estis, *you are an honor* (for an honor) *to yourselves;* cf. C. Or. 1, 8, 34. Est mihĭ māgnae cūrae, *it is of* (for) *great interest to me;* C. Fin. 3, 2, 8. Odiō sum Rōmānīs, *I am an object of hatred to the Romans;* L. 35, 19, 6. Id mihĭ est cordī, *this is pleasing* (for my heart) *to me;* C. Am. 4, 15. Vēnit Atticīs auxiliō, *he came to the assistance of the Athenians;* N. 8, 3, 1. Hōc illī tribuēbātur īgnāviae, *this was imputed to him as cowardice;* C. Fam. 2, 16, 3.

Quīnque cohortēs castrīs praesidiō relinquit, *he leaves five cohorts for the defense of the camp;* Caes. 7, 60. Periclēs agrōs suōs dōnō reī pūblicae dedit, *Pericles gave his lands to the republic as a present;* Iust. 3, 7.

1. The Dative of the object or end is a Predicate Dative. Thus in the first example the predicate is **honōrī estis**; see Predicate Nominative (**393**) and Predicate Accusative (**410**, 1).

2. The verbs which take two Datives are Intransitive verbs signifying *to be, become, go,* and the like: **sum, fīō,** etc., and Transitive verbs signifying *to give, send, leave, impute, regard, choose,* and the like: **dō, dōnō, dūcō, habeō, mittō, relinquō, tribuō, vertō,** etc. The latter take in the active two Datives with an Accusative; but in the passive two Datives only, as the direct object of the active becomes the subject of the passive; see **404**, 2.

3. One of the Datives is often omitted, or its place supplied by a Predicate Nominative, or by **ad** with the Accusative:

Nāvēs nūllō ūsuī fuĕrunt, *the ships were of no use;* Caes. C. 2, 7, 1. Tū illĭ pater es, *you are a father to him;* T. Ad. 126.

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[1] Compare the following from Shakespeare: 'He plucked me ope his doublet and offered them his throat to cut' (Julius Caesar, Act I., Scene II.). 'He presently steps me a little higher' (Henry IV., Part I., Act IV., Scene III.).

4. With **audiēns** two Datives sometimes occur, **dictō** dependent upon **audiēns**, and a personal Dative dependent upon **dictō audiēns**, and sometimes **dictō oboediēns** is used like **dictō audiēns**:

Nōbīs dictō audientēs sunt, *they are obedient to us;* C. Ver. 5, 82. **Magistrō** dictō oboediēns, *obedient to his master;* Pl. Bac. 489.

Dative with Adjectives

434. Rule. — Many adjectives take the Dative as the Indirect Object of the quality denoted by them:

Id mīlitibus fuit iūcundum, *this was agreeable to the soldiers.* Mihī difficile est dīcere, *it is difficult for me to speak.* Atticus amīcissimus Brūtō, *Atticus most friendly to Brutus.* Canis similis lupō, *a dog similar to a wolf.* Proximus sum egomet mihī, *I am nearest of kin to myself.* Locus castrīs idōneus, *a place suitable for the camp.* Id causae est aliēnum, *this is foreign to the case.* Ūniversae Graeciae ūtile, *useful for all Greece.* Inūtilēs sunt bellō, *they are useless for war.*

1. The Indirect Object of an Adjective, like the Indirect Object of a Verb, generally answers the question *to* or *for whom?* or *to* or *for what?* See examples.

2. Adjectives which take the Dative are chiefly those meaning *agreeable, dear, easy, faithful, friendly, like, near, necessary, suitable, useful,* together with others of a similar or opposite meaning,[1] and with verbals in **ilis** and **bilis**.

3. **Īdem**, like adjectives of likeness, admits the Dative:

Nōn idem illīs cēnsēre, *not to think the same as they;* cf. C. Fam. 9, 6. Idem facit occīdentī, *he does the same as he who kills;* H. A. P. 467.

435. Other constructions sometimes occur where the learner would expect the Dative:

1. The Accusative with a Preposition: **in, ergā, adversus,** with adjectives signifying *friendly, hostile,* etc., and **ad,** to denote the Object or End For Which, with adjectives signifying *useful, suitable, inclined,* etc.:

Perindulgēns in patrem, *very kind to his father;* C. Off. 3, 31. Multās ad rēs perūtilēs, *very useful for many things;* C. Sen. 17.

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[1] Such are accommodātus, aequālis, aliēnus, amīcus, inimīcus, aptus, cārus, facilis, difficilis, fidēlis, infidēlis, fīnitimus, grātus, idōneus, iūcundus, iniūcundus, molestus, necessārius, nōtus, īgnōtus, noxius, pār, dispār, perniciōsus, propinquus, proprius, salūtāris, similis, dissimilis, dīversus, vīcīnus, etc.

2. The Accusative with **propior, proximus**[1]:

Propior montem, *nearer the mountain.* Proximus mare, *nearest the sea.*

3. The Ablative with or without a Preposition:

Hūmānī nīl ā mē aliēnum putō, *I consider nothing human foreign to me;* T. Heaut. 77. Homine aliēnissimum, *most foreign to* or *from man;* C. Off. 1, 13.

4. The Genitive with adjectives meaning *like, unlike, belonging to, characteristic of,* and a few others[2]:

Cȳrī similis esse voluit, *he wished to be like Cyrus;* C. Brut. 81. Populī Rōmānī est propria lībertās, *liberty is characteristic of the Roman people;* C. Ph. 6, 7, 19.

NOTE. — With **similis** Plautus and Terence use only the Genitive; Ovid, Horace, and Vergil generally the Dative; Cicero generally the Dative of persons and either the Genitive or Dative of things.

Dative with Nouns and Adverbs

436. Rule. — The Dative is used with a few special nouns and adverbs derived from primitives which take the Dative:

Iūstitia est obtemperātiō lēgibus, *justice is obedience to the laws;* C. Leg. 1, 15. Opulentō hominī servitūs dūra est, *serving a rich man is hard;* Pl. Amph. 166. Congruenter nātūrae vīvere, *to live in accord with nature;* C. Fin. 3, 7. Proximē hostium castrīs, *nearest to the camp of the enemy;* Caes. C. 1, 72.

1. The Dative occurs with a few nouns and adverbs not thus derived:

Tribūnīcia potestās, mūnīmentum lībertātī, *tribunician power, a defense for liberty;* cf. L. 3, 37.

2. For the Dative of Gerundives with Official Names, see **627**, 2.

GENITIVE

437. The Genitive in its ordinary use corresponds to the English possessive, or the objective with *of,* and expresses various adjective relations. Indeed, many Genitives and adjectives are so entirely synonymous that they are often used the one for the other. Thus **bellī iūs** and **bellicum iūs,** *the right of war,* are often equivalent expressions.

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[1] Like the Accusative after **propius** and **proximē**; see **420**, 5.

[2] As similis, dissimilis, assimilis, cōnsimilis, pār, dispār; adfīnis; proprius, sacer; contrārius, īnsuētus, superstes, etc.

Vir māgnae auctōritātis, *a man of great influence.* Mītis ingeniī iuvenis, *a youth of mild disposition.* Vestis māgnī pretiī, *a garment of great value.* Corōna parvī ponderis, *a crown of small weight.* Exsilium decem annōrum, *an exile of ten years.*

NOTE 1. — For the Predicate Genitive of Price, see **448.**

NOTE 2. — For the Ablative of Characteristic, see **473, 2.**

4. A Defining or Appositional Genitive, having the general force of an appositive (**393**):

Virtūs continentiae, *the virtue of self-control.* Tellūs Ausoniae, *the land of Ausonia.* Nōmen carendī, *the word want* (of wanting); C. Tusc. 1, 36. Vōx voluptātis, *the word pleasure;* C. Fin. 2, 2, 6.

5. A Partitive Genitive, designating the whole of which a part is taken:

Pars flūminis Rhēnī, *a part of the river Rhine.* Quis vestrum, *which of you?* Omnium sapientissimus, *the wisest of all men.* Nihil bonī, nihil malī, *nothing* (of) *good, nothing bad;* C. Am. 4.

NOTE. — The Partitive Genitive, though generally a noun or pronoun, may be an adjective used substantively in the Genitive singular of the Second Declension, as **bonī, malī.** Adjectives of the Third Declension, on the contrary, regularly agree with the partitive word, but in rare instances they are attracted into the Genitive by another Partitive Genitive:

Quicquam, nōn dīcō cīvīlis, sed hūmānī, *anything, I do not say civil, but human;* L. 5. 8.

441. The Partitive Genitive is common with nouns and pronouns used partitively:

Māxima pars hominum, *most men* (the largest part of). Māgnō cum pondere aurī, *with a large quantity of gold.* Montēs aurī pollicēns, *promising mountains of gold.* Ūnus quisque nostrum, *every one of us.* Cōnsulum alter, *one of the consuls.* Aliquid cōnsiliī, *any wisdom* (anything of wisdom). Id temporis, *that* (of) *time.*

442. The Partitive Genitive is also common with numerals[1] and adjectives used substantively, especially with comparatives and superlatives:

Mīlle mīsit mīlitum, *he sent a thousand soldiers.* Quattuor mīlia equitum, *four thousand* (of) *cavalry.* Hōrum omnium fortissimī, *the bravest of all these.* Prior hōrum in proeliō cecidit, *the former of these fell in battle;* N. 21, 1, 2. Aetātis extrēmum, *the end of life;* S. 90, 1.

[1] For the construction of **ūnus,** see **444, 1.**

1. Pronouns and Adjectives, except neuters, when used with the Partitive Genitive usually take the gender of the Genitive, but Predicate Superlatives, when thus used, generally agree with the subject:

Quis eōrum nōn ēgregius, *who of them is not eminent?* Sapientum octāvus, *the eighth of the wise men;* H. S. 2, 3, 296. Indus est omnium flūminum māximus, *the Indus is the largest of all rivers;* C. N. D. 2, 52.

Here observe that **quis** and **octāvus** take the gender of the Genitive, but that the superlative **māximus** agrees with the subject.

2. In the best prose, words meaning *the whole* do not admit the Partitive Genitive, but poets and late writers disregard the rule:

Omnēs omnium ōrdinum hominēs, *all men of all ranks.* Cuncta terrārum, *all lands;* H. 2, 1, 23. Macedonum omnēs, *all the Macedonians;* cf. L. 31, 45, 7.

Observe that in the first example, the adjectives are used regularly in agreement with their nouns, while in the last two they are used substantively and take the Partitive Genitive, though the partitive idea has entirely disappeared and the construction is partitive only in form.

3. In the best prose the Partitive Genitive is rarely used after any adjectives except comparatives and superlatives, but in the poets and late writers the use of this Genitive is greatly extended:

Sāncte deōrum, *thou holy god;* V. 4, 576. Diērum fēstōs, *festal days;* H. S. 2, 2, 60. Strāta viārum = strātae viae, *the paved streets;* V. 1, 422. Ad multum diēī, *till late in the day;* Liv. 22, 45.

4. With Nouns, **quisque**, *each, every*, and **uterque**, *each, both*, generally agree as adjectives, but with Pronouns they are generally used substantively and take the Partitive Genitive, though in the case of **uterque**, agreement is not uncommon:

Quisque imperātor, *every commander.* Uterque exercitus, *each army.* Quisque eōrum dē quāque rē, *each one of them in regard to every thing;* Caes. 4, 5. Utrīque nostrum grātum, *acceptable to each of us;* C. Am, 4, 16. Hīs utrīsque persuāserant, *they had persuaded both of these;* Caes. 2, 16.

5. The Neuter of Pronouns and Adjectives with the Partitive Genitive is sometimes used of Persons:

Quicquid erat patrum, *whatever* (of) *senators there were;* L. 2, 35. Deōrum quicquid rēgit terrās, *whatever gods rule the world;* H. Ep. 5, 1. Quid hūc tantum hominum incēdunt, *why are so many men* (so much of men) *coming this way?* Pl. Poen. 619.

443. The Partitive Genitive is also used with a few Adverbs, especially with Adverbs of Quantity, Degree, and Place:

Satis ēloquentiae, sapientiae parum, *enough of eloquence, of wisdom too little;* S. C. 5, 4. Lūcis habent nimis, *they have too much light;* O. F. 6, 115. Māximē omnium nōbilium Graecīs litterīs studuit, *of all the nobles he most devoted himself to Greek letters;* C. Brut. 20, 78. Ubinam gentium sumus, *where in the world are we?* C. C. 1, 4, 9.

444. Instead of the Partitive Genitive, the Accusative with **ante, inter,** or **apud,** or the Ablative with **ex, dē,** or **in,** is often used, especially when the Whole is denoted by a cardinal number, or by a noun in the singular:

Thalēs sapientissimus in septem fuit, *Thales was the wisest of the seven;* C. Leg. 2, 11, 26. Quis ex tantā multitūdine, *who of so great a multitude?* Ante aliōs pulcherrimus omnēs, *most beautiful of all* (before all others). Apud Helvētiōs dītissimus, *the richest among the Helvetii.*

1. In the best prose, **ūnus** is generally followed by the Ablative with **ex** or **dē,** but sometimes by the Partitive Genitive: **ūnus ex summīs virīs,** *one of the greatest of heroes;* **ūnus dē multīs,** *one of the multitude;* **ūnus ēōrum pontium,** *one of those bridges.*

Genitive in Special Constructions

445. The word upon which the Attributive Genitive depends is often omitted:

1. Especially when it has been expressed with a preceding Genitive. Then the second Genitive is sometimes attracted into the case appropriate for the governing word:

Cōnferre vītam Trebōnī cum Dolābellae, *to compare the life of Trebonius with that of Dolabella;* C. Ph. 11, 4, 9. Nātūra hominis bēluīs antecēdit, *the nature of man surpasses* (that of) *the brutes;* cf. C. Off. 1, 30.

2. When it can be readily supplied, especially **aedēs,** or **templum** after a preposition, as **ad, ante, ā,** or **ab:**

Habitābat rēx ad Iovis, *the king resided near the temple of Jupiter;* L. 1, 41. Hannibal annōrum novem, *Hannibal,* (a boy) *nine years of age;* L. 21, 1. Aberant bīduī (viam), *they were two days' journey distant;* C. Att. 5. 16.

446. Observe also the following constructions:

1. The Genitive of a Proper Name seems to depend directly on another proper noun in many cases in which we supply the word *son, daughter, husband, wife,* or *slave:*

Hasdrubal Giscōnis, *Gisco's Hasdrubal*, i.e., *Hasdrubal, Gisco's son;* L. 28, 12. Hectoris Andromachē, *Hector's Andromache*, i.e., *Hector's wife;* V. 3, 319. Hūius videō Byrriam, *I see his Byrria*, i.e., *his slave Byrria;* T. And. 357.

2. Two Genitives are sometimes used with the same noun, one subjective, the other objective or descriptive. To these a third Genitive is occasionally added:

Helvētiōrum iniūriae populī Rōmānī, *the wrongs done by the Helvetii to the Roman people;* cf. Caes. 1, 30. Memmī odium potentiae nōbilitātis, *Memmius's hatred of the power of the nobility;* cf. S. 30.

3. A Genitive sometimes accompanies a Possessive, especially the Genitive of **ipse, sōlus, ūnus,** or **omnis**:

Ad tuam ipsīus amīcitiam, *to your own friendship;* C. Ver. 3, 4, 7. Meā ūnīus operā, *by my aid alone;* C. Pis. 3, 6. Tuum studium adulēscentis, *your devotion as a young man;* C. Fam. 15, 13.

4. The Genitive is used with **īnstar** meaning *likeness, image,* but generally used in the sense of, *as large as, of the size of, equal to*:

Īnstar montis equum aedificant, *they construct a horse of the size of a mountain;* V. 2, 15. Platō īnstar est omnium, *Plato is worth them all;* C. Brut. 51, 191.

5. The Genitive is used with **prīdiē, postrīdiē, ergō,** and **tenus,** nouns in origin, and as such governing the Genitive; **prīdiē** and **postrīdiē** are Locatives:

Prīdiē ēius diēī, *on the day before that day;* Caes. 1, 47. Postrīdiē ēius diēī, *on the day after that day.* Virtūtis ergō, *on the ground of merit.* Urbium Corcȳrae tenus, *as far as the cities of Corcyra;* L. 26, 24.

Predicate Genitive

447. The Predicate Genitive is generally Subjective or Descriptive, rarely Partitive. When used with transitive verbs, it is of course combined with the Direct Object. It is most common with **sum** and **faciō**, but it also occurs with verbs of Seeming, Regarding, Valuing, etc.:

Est imperātōris superāre, *to conquer is the business of a commander;* Caes. C. 1, 72. Ōram Rōmānae diciōnis fēcit, *he brought the coast under* (made the coast of) *Roman rule;* L. 21, 60. Flēs nōbilium fontium, *you will become* (one) *of the noble fountains;* H. 3, 13.

1. **Aequī, bonī,** and **reliquī** occur as Predicate Genitives in such expressions as **aequī facere, aequī bonīque facere, bonī cōnsulere,** *to take in good part*, and **reliquī facere,** *to leave:*

Aequī bonīque faciō, *I take it in good part;* T. Heaut. 788. **Mīlitēs** nihil reliquī victīs fēcēre, *the soldiers left nothing to the vanquished;* S. C. 11.

2. For the general use of the Predicate Genitive, see also **439.**

Predicate Genitive of Price and Value

448. The Predicate Genitive of Price and Value is used with **sum** and with verbs of Valuing; especially with **aestimō, faciō,** and **putō:**

Parvī pretiī est, *he is of small value.* **Māgnī** erunt mihī tuae litterae, *your letters will be of great value to me.* Patrem tuum plūrimī fēcī, *I prized your father most highly* (made of the greatest value); C. Att. 16, 16, D. **Ea māgnī** aestimantur, *those things are highly valued.* **Honōrēs māgnī putāre,** *to deem honors of great value.* **Nōn** floccī faciunt, *they care not a straw* (lock of wool); Pl. Trin. 211. **Nōn** habeō naucī Marsum, *I do not regard Marsus of the least account;* C. Div. 1, 58. **Hūius nōn** faciam, *I shall not care that* (a snap) *for it;* T. Add. 163.

1. The Genitive of Price or Value is generally an adjective, as **māgnī, parvī, tantī, quantī; plūris, minōris; māximī, plūrimī, minimī,** but **pretiī** is sometimes expressed as in the first example. **Nihilī** and a few other Genitives occur, chiefly in familiar discourse.

2. With **aestimō** the price and value are denoted either by the Genitive or by the Ablative:

Sī prāta māgnō aestimant; quantī est aestimanda virtūs, *if they value meadows at a high price, at what price ought virtue to be valued?* C. Parad. 6, 3, 51.

3. In expressions of price and value, **pendō,** common in early Latin, is exceedingly rare in the classical period:

Quae parvī pendunt, *which they regard of little value;* T. Hec. 513. **Ea vōs** parvī pendēbātis,[1] *those things you deemed of little importance;* S. C. 52, 9.

4. **Tantī, quantī, plūris,** and **minōris** are used as Genitives of Price even with verbs of Buying and Selling, though with these verbs price is generally expressed by the Ablative:

Canius ēmit tantī quantī Pȳthius voluit, *Canius purchased them* (the gardens) *at as high a price as Pythius wished;* cf. C. Off. 3, 14, 59. **Vēndō meum** nōn plūris, quam cēterī, fortasse minōris, *I sell mine* (my grain) *no higher*

[1] An illustration of Sallust's fondness for archaic constructions.

than the others, perhaps lower. Quantī ēmptae, *purchased at what price?* Parvō, *at a low price;* H. S. 2, 3, 156. Vēndidit hīc aurō patriam, *he sold his country for gold;* V. 6. 621.

5. For the Ablative of Price, see **478.**

Predicate Genitive with Rēfert and Interest

449. The Construction of **rēfert** and **interest** is as follows:

1. The Person or Thing[1] interested is denoted by the Genitive, but instead of the Genitive of a personal or reflexive pronoun, the Ablative feminine of the Possessive is regularly used:

Neque rēfert cūiusquam, *nor does it concern any one;* Tac. An. 4, 33. Quid Milōnis intererat, *how was it the interest of Milo?* C. Mil. 13, 34. Interest omnium, *it is the interest of all.* Salūtis commūnis interest, *it concerns the public welfare.* Tuā et meā interest, *it is your interest and mine;* C. Fam. 16, 4, 4.

NOTE. — In a few cases the person is denoted by the Dative or by the Accusative with **ad**; chiefly with **rēfert**, which often omits the person:

Dīc quid rēferat intrā nātūrae fīnēs vīventī, *tell what difference it makes to one living in accord with nature;* H. S. 1, 1, 49. Quid id ad mē rēfert, *how does that concern me?* Pl. Pers. 4, 3, 44.

2. The Subject of Importance, or that which involves the interest, is expressed by an Infinitive, or clause, or by a neuter pronoun:

Interest omnium rēctē facere, *to do right is the interest of all;* C. Fin. 2, 22, 72. Nōn rēfert quam multōs librōs habeās, *it matters not how many books you have;* cf. Sen. E. 5, 4. Quid tuā id rēfert, *how does that concern you?*

3. The Degree of Interest is expressed by an adverb, an adverbial Accusative, or a Genitive of Value:

Vestrā hōc māximē interest, *this especially interests you;* C. Sul. 25, 79. Theodōrī nihil interest, *it does not all interest Theodorus.* Illud meā māgnī interest, *that greatly interests me;* C. Att. 11, 22.

4. The Object or End for which it is important is expressed by the Accusative with **ad**, rarely by the Dative:

Māgnī ad honōrem nostrum interest, *for our honor it is of great importance;* C. Fam. 16, 1, 1.

NOTE. — The most plausible explanation hitherto given of this construction is that the Genitive with **rēfert** depends upon **rē**, the Ablative of **rēs** contained in the verb, that the Possessive, **meā, tuā,** etc., agrees with the Ablative **rē,** and that **interest,** a later word, simply follows the analogy of **rēfert.**

[1] A thing is rarely so used unless personified.

Genitive with Adjectives

450. Rule. — Many adjectives take an Objective Genitive to complete their meaning:

Avidī laudis fuistis, *you have been very desirous of praise*. Cupidus es glōriae, *you are fond of glory*. Prūdēns reī mīlitāris erat, *he was skilled in military science;* N. 9, 1, 2. Habētis ducem memorem vestrī, oblītum suī, *you have a leader mindful of you, forgetful of himself;* C. C. 4, 9, 19. Plēna Graecia poētārum fuit, *Greece was full of poets*. Gallia hominum fertilis fuit, *Gaul was fruitful in men*. Homō amantissimus patriae, *a man very fond of his country*. Iuventūs bellī patiēns, *youth capable of enduring the hardships of war;* S. C. 7.

1. This Genitive corresponds to the Objective Genitive with nouns. Compare the following: **cupidus glōriae**, *desirous of glory;* **propter glōriae cupiditātem**, *on account of the desire of glory*.

2. For the Genitive with **dīgnus** and **indīgnus**, see **481, 1**.

451. This Objective Genitive is used,

1. With Adjectives denoting Desire, Knowledge, Skill, Recollection, and the like, with their contraries: **sapientiae studiōsus**, *studious* (student) *of wisdom;* **perītus bellī**, *skilled in war;* **cōnscius coniūrātiōnis**, *cognizant of the conspiracy;* **īnsuētus nāvigandī**, *unacquainted with navigation:*

Quis est omnium tam īgnārus rērum, *who is so ignorant of all things?* Omnēs immemorem beneficiī ōdērunt, *all hate him who is unmindful of a favor;* C. Off. 2, 18, 63.

NOTE. — **Certus** with the Genitive in the best prose occurs only in the phrase **certiōrem facere**, *to inform*, which takes either the Genitive or the Ablative with **dē**, though Caesar admits only the latter construction:

Certiōrem mē suī cōnsiliī fēcit, *he informed me of his plan;* C. Att. 9, 2, 3. His dē rēbus certior factus, *having been informed of these things*.

2. With Adjectives denoting Participation, Characteristic, Guilt, Fullness, Mastery, etc., with their contraries: **ratiōnis particeps**, *endowed with* (sharing) *reason;* **ratiōnis expers**, *destitute of reason;* **manifestus rērum capitālium**, *convicted of capital crimes:*

Erat Ītalia plēna Graecārum artium, *Italy was full of Grecian arts;* C. Arch. 3, 5. Virī propria est fortitūdō, *fortitude is characteristic of a true man*. Meī potēns sum, *I am master of myself*. Omnēs virtūtis compotēs beātī sunt, *all* (who are) *possessed of virtue are happy;* C. Tusc. 5, 13, 39.

NOTE 1. — A few adjectives, as **similis, dissimilis**; **aliēnus, commūnis**; **contrārius** and **superstes** admit either the Genitive or the Dative; see **435, 4**:

Canis similis lupō, *a dog similar to a wolf;* C. N. D. 1, 35, 97. Cȳrī similis esse voluit, *he wished to be like Cyrus;* C. Brut. 81, 282.

NOTE 2. — **Cōnscius** may take an Objective Genitive in connection with the Dative of a personal or reflexive pronoun:

Mēns sibī cōnscia rēctī, *a mind conscious* (to itself) *of rectitude.*

3. With Present Participles used as Adjectives:

Est amāns suī virtūs, *virtue is fond of itself;* C. Am. 26, 98. Vir amantissimus reī pūblicae, *a man very fond of the republic.* Virtūs efficiēns est voluptātis, *virtue is productive of pleasure;* cf. C. Off. 3, 33. Appetentēs glōriae fuistis, *you have been desirous of glory.*

NOTE. — Observe the difference in meaning between a participle with an objective Genitive and the same participle with a direct object. **Amāns patriae,** *fond of his country,* represents the affection as permanent and constant; whereas the participial construction, **amāns patriam,** *loving his country,* designates a particular instance or act.

452. In poetry and in late prose, especially in Tacitus, the Genitive is used:

1. With Verbals in **āx** and with Adjectives of almost every variety of meaning, simply to define their application:

Fugāx ambitiōnis eram, *I was inclined to shun ambition;* O. Tr. 4, 10. Tenāx prōpositī, *steadfast of purpose;* H. 3, 3. Aevī mātūrus, *mature in age;* V. 5, 73. Sērī studiōrum, *late in studies;* H. S. 1, 10. Aeger animī,[1] *afflicted in spirit;* L. 1, 58. Fīdēns animī, *confident in spirit;* V. 2, 61.

2. With a few Adjectives to denote Separation, or Cause, like the Ablative:

Līber labōrum, *released from his labors;* H. A. P. 212. Integer vītae scelerisque pūrus, *of upright life and innocent of crime;* H. 1, 22. Nōtus animī paternī, *distinguished for paternal affection;* H. 2, 2.

453. Adjectives which usually take the Genitive sometimes admit other constructions. Compare the following examples:

1. Genitive, or Accusative with **ad** or **in**:

Avidī laudis fuistis, *you have been very desirous of praise;* C. Man. 3, 7. Avidī ad pūgnam, *eager for battle;* L. 7, 23. Avidus in novās rēs, *eager for new things;* cf. L. 22, 21.

[1] Probably a Locative in origin, as **animīs**, not **animōrum**, is used in similar instances in the plural.

2. With verbs of Accusing, etc., the Genitive with **nōmine, crīmine, iūdiciō**, or some similar word is sometimes used. This may be the original construction, and if so, it is a sufficient explanation of the Genitive with these verbs.[1] Compare the following examples:

Nē quem innocentem iūdiciō capitis arcessās, *that you should not arraign an innocent man on a capital charge;* C. Off. 2, 14, 51. Inimīcum frātris capitis arcessit, *he arraigned his brother's enemy on a capital charge;* Ad Her. 1, 11, 18.

NOTE. — Latin verbs of Accusing, when they mean simply *to find fault with, to complain of*, take the Accusative of the crime, or fault, as in English:

Inertiam accūsās adulēscentium, *you complain of the indolence of the young men;* C. Or. 58, 246.

3. With verbs of Condemning, the Penalty is generally expressed by the Ablative, with or without **dē**, or by the Accusative with a preposition, usually **ad**. The Ablative is regularly used when the penalty is a fine of a definite sum of money:

Pecūniā multātus est, *he was condemned to pay a fine in money;* N. 1, 7, 6. Sī illum morte multāssem, *if I had condemned him to death.* Tertiā parte agrī damnātī, *condemned to forfeit a third of their land.* Multōs ad bēstiās condemnāvit, *he condemned many to the wild beasts;* Suet. Cal. 27.

4. Notice the following special expressions: **dē māiestāte** or **māiestātis damnāre**, *to condemn for high treason;* **dē vī damnāre**, *to condemn for assault;* **dē pecūniīs repetundīs postulāre**, *to prosecute for extortion;* **inter sīcāriōs damnāre**, *to convict of homicide;* **vōtī damnātus**, *condemned to fulfill a vow* = having obtained a wish; **ad metalla condemnātus**, *condemned to the mines.*

Genitive with Verbs of Feeling

457. Rule. — **Misereor** and **miserēscō** take the Objective Genitive; **miseret, paenitet, piget, pudet,** and **taedet** take the Accusative of the Person and the Genitive[2] of the Object which produces the feeling:

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[1] Observe, however, that the use of the Genitive with these verbs in Latin accords entirely with the English idiom; as, *he was accused of treason.*

[2] The Genitive with some of these verbs of feeling doubtless follows the analogy of other constructions, in which the Genitive depends on a noun or adjective, expressed or understood, but with others it seems to depend directly on the substantive idea suggested by the verbs themselves. Thus **taedet** readily suggests its exact equivalent **taedium capit.** Indeed, Seneca's **taedium eum vītae capit,** in which **vītae** depends upon **taedium,** is equivalent to **eum vītae taedet.**

Miserēminī sociōrum, *have pity on our allies;* C. Ver. 1, 28, 72. Arcadiī miserēscite rēgis, *pity the Arcadian king;* V. 8, 573. Eōrum nōs miseret, *we pity them* (pity for, or of them moves us); C. Mil. 34, 92. Nostrī nōsmet paenitet, *we are dissatisfied with ourselves,* T. Ph. 172. Frātris mē piget, *I am grieved at my brother.* Mē stultitiae meae pudet, *I am ashamed of my folly.* Mē cīvitātis mōrum taedet, *I am tired of the manners of the state.*

1. **Miserēscō** belongs to poetry.

2. **Miseror** and **commiseror**, *I pity, deplore,* take the Accusative in the best prose:

Miserantur commūnem Galliae fortūnam, *they deplore the common fortune of Gaul;* Caes. 7, 1, 5.

3. The impersonal verbs **miseret, paenitet,** etc., sometimes admit an impersonal subject, as an Infinitive or clause, rarely a neuter pronoun or **nihil**:

Neque mē vīxisse paenitet, *nor am I sorry to have lived;* C. Sen. 23, 84. Nōn tē haec pudent, *do not these things put you to shame?* T. Ad. 754.

4. **Pudet** sometimes takes the Genitive of the person in whose presence one has a feeling of shame or unworthiness:

Mē tuī pudet, *I am ashamed in your presence;* T. Ad. 688.

5. Like **miseret** are sometimes used **miserēscit, commiserēscit,** and **miserētur**; like **taedet, pertaesum est** and, in early Latin, **distaedet** and a few other rare words. In Suetonius **pertaesus** occurs with the Accusative.

Genitive with Special Verbs

458. In certain Special Constructions, largely colloquial, or poetical in their origin,[1] many verbs by analogy occasionally admit the Genitive, or if transitive, the Accusative and Genitive:

1. Some verbs denoting Desire, Emotion, or Feeling, like adjectives and verbs of the same general meaning and construction:

Cupiunt tuī, *they desire you;* Pl. Mil. 963. Nē tuī quidem testimōnīī veritus, *regarding not even your testimony;* C. Att. 8, 4. Ego animī[2] pendeō, *I am uncertain in mind;* cf. C. Leg. 1, 8. Discrucior animī,[2] *I am troubled in spirit.* Dēsipiēbam mentis, *I was out of my senses.*

2. Some Verbs of Plenty and Want, as **compleō, impleō, egeō, indigeō**, like adjectives of the same general meaning (**451**, 2):

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[1] Greek influence may also be recognized in some of them.

[2] **Animī** in such instances is probably a Locative in origin, as **animīs, not animōrum,** is used in the same way in the plural.

Virtūs exercitātiōnis indiget, *virtue requires exercise;* cf. C. Fin. 3, 15 Egeō cōnsiliī, *I need counsel;* C. Att. 7, 22. Mē complēvit formīdinis, *he has filled me with fear;* Pl. Men. 901.

3. Some verbs denoting Mastery or Participation, — **potior, adipīscor, rēgnō,** — like adjectives of similar meaning (**451**, 2):

Partis Siciliae potītus est, *he became master of a part of Sicily;* N. 10, 5. Rēgnāvit populōrum, *he was king of the peoples;* H. 3, 30.

4. In the poets, a few verbs which usually take the Ablative of Separation or Cause admit the Genitive:

Mē labōrum levās, *you relieve me of my labors;* Pl. Rud. 247. Abstinētō īrārum, *abstain from quarrels;* H. 3, 27, 69. Dēsine querellārum, *desist from your lamentations.* Mīrārī belli labōrum, *to wonder at warlike achievements.* Damnī īnfectī prōmittere, *to become responsible for possible damage;* cf. C. Top. 4, 22.

NOTE. — The Genitive in Exclamations, in imitation of the Greek, occurs in three or four isolated examples in the Latin poets, but it is not found in Terence, Vergil, or Horace:

Ō mihī nūntiī beātī, *O the glad tidings to me;* Catul. 9, 5.

ABLATIVE

459. The Latin Ablative performs the duties of three cases originally distinct:

I. Ablative Proper, denoting the relation From:
II. Instrumental, denoting the relation With, By:
III. Locative, denoting the relation In, At.

NOTE. — This threefold nature of the Latin Ablative gives us a basis for a general classification, at once scientific and practical, although in the course of the development of the language so many new applications of these original elements were made that it is sometimes impossible to determine with certainty to which of them a given construction owes its origin.

I. Ablative Proper

460. — The Ablative Proper includes:

1. Ablative of Separation; see **461**.
2. Ablative of Source, including Agency, Parentage, etc.; see **467**.
3. Ablative of Comparison; see **471**.

Ablative of Separation

461. Rule. — The Ablative of Separation is generally used with a preposition — **ā, ab, dē,** or **ex** — when it represents a person or is used with a verb compounded with **ab, dē, dis, sē,** or **ex**:

Legiōnēs abdūcis ā Brūtō, *you alienate the legions from Brutus;* C. Ph. 10, 3, 6. Caedem ā vōbīs dēpellēbam, *I was warding off slaughter from you.* Plēbs ā patribus sēcessit, *the common people seceded from the patricians.* Dē forō discessimus, *we withdrew from the forum.* Caesar cōpiās suās ē castrīs ēdūxit, *Caesar led his forces out of the camp;* Caes. 1, 50. Ex oppidō fūgit, *he fled out of the town.*

462. Rule. — The Ablative of Separation is generally used without a preposition when it is the name of a town or is used after a verb meaning *to relieve, free, deprive, need, be without,* etc.:

Dēmarātus fūgit Corinthō, *Demaratus fled from Corinth;* C. Tusc. 5, 37. Rōmā accēperam litterās, *I had received a letter from Rome.* Quī Narbōne reditus, *what a return from Narbo!* C. Ph. 2, 30, 76. **Levā** mē hōc onere, *relieve me from this burden;* C. Fam. 3, 12, 3. Māgnō mē metū līberābis, *you will free me from great fear.* Mūrus dēfēnsōribus nūdātus est, *the wall was stripped of its defenders;* Caes. 2, 6. Nōn egeō medicīnā, *I do not need a remedy.* Vacāre culpā māgnum est sōlācium, *to be free from fault is a great comfort;* C. Fam. 7, 3, 4.

1. With the Ablative of Separation, the preposition is more freely used when the separation is local and literal than when it is figurative: **dē forō,** *from the forum;* **ex oppidō,** *out of the town;* but **metū līberāre,** *to free from fear;* **vacāre culpā,** *to be free from fault.*

2. The preposition is sometimes used with names of towns, especially for emphasis or contrast, regularly after **longē**:

Longē ab Athēnīs esse, *to be far from Athens;* Pl. Pers. 151.

3. The preposition is generally used when the vicinity, rather than the town itself, is meant:

Discessit ā Brundisiō, *he departed from Brundisium* (i.e. from the port); Caes. C. 3, 24.

4. Many Names of Islands and the Ablatives **domō, humō,** and **rūre,** are used like names of towns:

Lēmnō advenīō Athēnās, *from Lemnos I come to Athens;* Pl. Truc. 91. Cum domō profūgisset, *when he had fled from home;* C. Brut. 89, 306. Videō rūre redeuntem senem, *I see the old man returning from the country.* Vix oculōs attollit humō, *she hardly raises her eyes from the ground.*

Ablative of Separation with Special Verbs

463. With **moveō, cēdō,** and **pellō** in special expressions the Ablative of Separation is used without a preposition:

Locō ille mōtus est, *he was dislodged from his position;* C. C. 2, 1. Eundem vīdī cēdentem Ītaliā, *I saw the same man leaving Italy;* C. Ph. 10, 4, 8. Cīvem pellere possessiōnibus cōnātus est, *he attempted to drive a citizen from his possessions;* C. Mil. 27, 74.

464. With many verbs the Ablative of Separation is used, sometimes with and sometimes without a preposition.

Dē prōvinciā dēcessit, *he withdrew from the province;* C. Ver. 2, 20, 48. Dēcēdēns prōvinciā, *withdrawing from the province;* C. Lig. 1, 2. Expellet ex patriā, *will he banish them from the country?* Mē patriā expulerat, *he had driven me from the country.*

1. Note also the expressions **ab oppidīs prohibēre,** *to keep from the towns;* **suīs fīnibus prohibēre,** *to keep out of their territory;* **dēpellere ā vōbīs, dē prōvinciā,** *to drive away from you, from the province;* **tōtā Siciliā dēpellere,** *to drive from the whole of Sicily.*

2. **Arceō** generally takes the Ablative with a preposition, but at variance with general usage it sometimes omits the preposition when used in a purely local sense:

Tū hunc ā tuīs templīs arcēbis, *you will keep him from your temples;* C. C. 1, 13, 33. Tē illīs aedibus arcēbit, *he will keep you from this abode;* C. Ph. 2, 40, 104.

3. **Interdīcō** regularly takes the Dative of the person and the Ablative of the thing:

Galliā Rōmānīs interdīxit, *he forbade the Romans the use of Gaul;* cf. Caes. 1, 46.

465. With adjectives meaning *free from, destitute of,* the Ablative of Separation is used sometimes with and sometimes without a preposition:

Haec loca ab arbitrīs lībera sunt, *these places are free from spectators;* cf. C. Att. 15, 16. Animus līber cūrā, *a mind free from care;* C. Fin. 15, 49.

1. Notice also the following expressions: **nūdus ā propinquīs**, *destitute of relatives;* **nūdus praesidiō**, *destitute of defense;* **vacuus ab dēfēnsōribus**, *without defenders;* **gladius vāgīnā vacuus**, *a sword without a sheath.*

2. **Expers** generally takes the Genitive, but sometimes the Ablative:

Omnis ērudītiōnis expers fuit, *he was destitute of all learning;* cf. C. Or. 2, 1. Omnēs fortūnīs expertēs sumus, *we are all destitute of fortunes;* S. C. 33.

3. Some adjectives with this meaning take the Genitive; see **451**, 2.

466. In the poets and late writers the Ablative of Separation, even in a purely local sense, is often used without a preposition:

Columbae caelō vēnēre volantēs, *the doves came flying from the heavens;* V. 6, 190. Nōn poterit vērō dīstinguere falsum, *he will not be able to distinguish the false from the true;* H. E. 1, 10, 29. Cecidēre caelō lapidēs, *stones fell from the heavens;* L. 1, 31.

1. Notice also the following expressions from Vergil and Horace: **Lyciā missus**, *sent from Lycia;* **cadere nūbibus**, *to fall from the clouds;* **carceribus missus**, *sent forth from the barriers;* **lābēns equō**, *falling from his horse.*

Ablative of Source

467. Rule. — The Ablative of Source, including Agency, Parentage, and Material, generally takes a preposition, — **ā, ab, dē, ē,** or **ex**:

Source in General. — Ab hīs sermō oritur, *with* (from) *these the conversation begins;* C. Am. 1, 5. Hōc audīvī dē patre meō, *this I have heard from my father.* Appellāta est ex virō virtūs, *virtue was named from* **vir**, *a man.* Ex invidiā labōrāvit, *he suffered from unpopularity;* C. Clu. 71, 202.

Agency. — Ab hīs amātur, *by these he is loved.* Mōns ā Labiēnō tenētur, *the mountain is held by Labienus;* Caes. 1, 22.

Parentage or Ancestry. — Ex mē nātus es, *you are my son.* Oriundī ab Sabīnīs, *descended from the Sabines;* L. 1, 27.

Material. — Erat ex fraude factus, *he was made of fraud.* Pōcula ex aurō, *cups of gold;* C. Ver. 4, 26, 62.

468. The Ablative of the Independent Agent, or the Author of an action, takes the preposition **ā** or **ab**:

Rēx ab suīs appellātur, *he is called king by his own men.* Nōn est cōnsentāneum vincī ā voluptāte, *it is not meet to be overcome by pleasure.*

1. When anything is personified and treated as the agent of an action, the Ablative with **ā** or **ab** may be used as in the second example above.

2. The Ablative without a preposition may be used of a person, regarded not as the author of the action, but as the means by which it is effected:

Cornua Numidīs firmat, *he strengthens the wings with Numidians.*

3. The Accusative with **per** may be used of the person through whom, through whose agency or help, the action is effected:

Ab Oppiānicō per Fabriciōs factus, *made by Oppianicus through the agency of the Fabricii;* cf. C. Clu. 23, 62.

Note. — Compare these three kindred constructions for the names of persons: **ab Oppiānicō**, *by Oppianicus*, the author of the action; **per Fabriciōs**, *through the Fabricii*, i.e. through their agency or help; and **Numidīs**, *with Numidians*, used as the means of the action.

469. The Ablative of Parentage and Ancestry is generally used

1. With **ā** or **ab**, in designating Remote Ancestry:

Belgae sunt ortī ab Germānīs, *the Belgians originated from the Germans;* cf. Caes. 2, 4. Oriundī ex Etrūscīs, *descended from the Etruscans.*

2. Without a preposition with the verb **nāscor** and a few Perfect Participles, as **nātus, prōgnātus, ortus**, and in poetry and late prose, with **ēditus, genitus, satus**, etc.:

Sī parentibus nātī sint humilibus, *if they have been born of humble parents;* C. Am. 19, 70. Nōbilī genere nātī sunt, *they were born of a noble race;* C. Ver. 5, 70, 180. Rēgis nepōs, fīliā ortus, *the grandson of the king, born of his daughter;* L. 1, 32, 1. Ēdite rēgibus, *thou descendant of kings;* H. 1, 1. Dīs genite, *thou descendant of gods;* V. 9, 642. Satae Peliā, *the daughters of Pelias;* O. M. 7, 322.

470. The Ablative of Material generally takes **ē** or **ex**, and is used with verbs or participles, and sometimes with nouns:

Erat ex fraude factus, *he was made of fraud.* Homō ex animō cōnstat et corpore, *man consists of a soul and a body;* cf. C. N. D. 1, 35. Vās ex ūnā gemmā, *a vase from a single gem;* C. Ver. 4, 27, 62.

1. The Ablative of Material is often used without a preposition in poetry, and sometimes even in prose:

Aere cavō clipeus, *a hollow shield of bronze;* cf. V. 3, 286. Pictās abiete puppēs, *painted sterns of fir.* Cōnstat tōta ōrātiō membrīs, *the whole discourse is made up of members.*

Ablative with Comparatives

471. Rule. — Comparatives without **quam** are followed by the Ablative:

Nihil est virtūte[1] amābilius, *nothing is more lovely than virtue.* C. Am. 8. Nihil habet iūcundius vītā,[1] *he considers nothing more agreeable than life.* Amīcitia, quā nihil melius habēmus, *friendship, than which we have nothing better.* Nihil lacrimā citius ārēscit, *nothing dries sooner than a tear.*

1. Comparatives with **quam** are followed by the Nominative or by the case of the corresponding noun before them:

Melior est certa pāx quam spērāta victōria, *better is a sure peace than a hoped-for victory;* L. 30, 30. Nēminem aequiōrem reperiet quam mē, *he will find no one more just than* (he will find) *me.* Equum meliōrem habet quam tuus est, *he has a better horse than yours is;* C. Inv. 1, 31, 52.

2. After **quam** the second of the two nouns compared is sometimes omitted:

Themistoclī nōmen quam Solōnis est illūstrius, *the name of Themistocles is more illustrious than that of Solon;* cf. C. Off. 1, 22, 75.

3. The Ablative is used chiefly in negative sentences. It is freely used for **quam** with a Nominative or Accusative, regularly so for **quam** with the Nominative or Accusative of a relative pronoun, as in the third example under the rule. In other cases **quam** is retained in the best prose, though sometimes omitted in poetry.

4. After **plūs**, **minus**, **amplius**, or **longius**, in expressions of number and quantity, **quam** is often omitted without influence upon the construction; sometimes also after **māior**, **minor**, etc.:

Tēcum plūs annum vīxit, *he lived with you more than a year;* C. Quinc. 12, 41. Minus duo mīlia effūgērunt, *less than two thousand escaped;* L. 24, 16. Nōn amplius novem annōs nātus, *not more than nine years old;* cf. N. 23, 2, 3.

5. Instead of an Ablative after a comparative, a preposition with its case — as **ante**, **prae**, **praeter**, or **suprā** — is sometimes used, especially in poetry:

Ante aliōs immānior, *more monstrous than* (before) *the others;* V. 1, 347.

6. In poetry and in conversational prose, **alius**, involving a comparison, *other than*, is sometimes used with the Ablative, but in the best prose its regular construction is **alius ac** or **atque**, **alius quam**, or **alius nisi**:

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[1] This Ablative furnishes the standard of comparison — that from which one starts. Thus, if virtue is taken as the standard of what is lovely, nothing is more so. **Virtūte** = quam virtūs; **vītā** = quam vītam (habet).

Putāre alium sapiente bonōque beātum, *to consider any other than the wise and good happy;* cf. H. E. 1, 16, 20. Nihil aliud nisi pāx quaesīta est, *nothing but peace was sought;* cf. C. Off. 1, 23, 80.

7. **Quam prō** denotes that the two objects compared are out of proportion to each other:

Minor caedēs quam prō tantā victōriā fuit, *the slaughter was small in comparison with the victory;* L. 10, 14, 21.

8. Note the following special uses of the Ablative: **plūs aequō**, *more than is fair;* **plūs iūstō**, *more than is proper:*

Celerius omnī opīniōne vēnit, *he came sooner than any one expected;* cf. Caes. 2, 3. Id spē omnium sērius fuit, *this was later than all hoped it would be;* L. 2, 3.

9. In rare instances, mostly poetical, a few verbs and adverbs involving comparison — as **mālō, praestō, aequē, adaequē** — admit the Ablative:

Nūllōs hīs māllem lūdōs spectāsse, *no games would I prefer to have seen rather than these;* H. S. 2, 8, 79. Mē aequē fortūnātus, *equally fortunate with me;* Pl. Curc. 141.

10. With comparatives the Measure of Difference — the amount by which one thing surpasses another — is denoted by the Ablative (**479**):

Hibernia dīmidiō minor quam Britannia, *Ireland smaller by one-half than Britain.*

II. Instrumental Ablative

472. The Instrumental Ablative includes

1. Ablative of Association; see **473.**
2. Ablative of Cause; see **475.**
3. Ablative of Means; see **476** and **477.**
4. Ablative of Price; see **478.**
5. Ablative of Difference; see **479.**
6. Ablative of Specification; see **480.**

Ablative of Association

473. Rule. — The Ablative of Association is used

1. To denote Accompaniment, or Association in a strict sense. It then takes the preposition **cum**:

Cum patre habitābat, *she was living with her father.* Cum hīs armīs ēruptiōnem fēcērunt, *with these arms they made a sally;* Caes. 2, 33.

2. To denote Characteristic or Quality. It is then modified by an adjective or by a Genitive:

Flūmen rīpīs praeruptīs, *a stream with precipitous banks;* Caes. 6, 7. Summā virtūte adulēscēns, *a youth of the highest worth.* Catō singulārī fuit industriā, *Cato was a man of remarkable industry;* N. 24, 3.

NOTE 1. — The Ablative of Characteristic and the Genitive of Characteristic supplement each other. The Genitive is generally used to designate permanent characteristics, as Kind, Size, Weight, Value, and the like. In other cases the Ablative is generally used.

NOTE 2. — The Ablative of Characteristic may be either Attributive, as in the first two examples, or Predicative, as in the last example.

3. To denote Manner or Attendant Circumstance.[1] It then takes the preposition cum, or is modified by an adjective or by a Genitive:

Cum silentiō auditī sunt, *they were heard in silence.* Templum māgnā cūrā cūstōdiunt, *they guard the temple with great care.* Epulābātur mōre Persārum, *he feasted in the style of the Persians.* Catō summā cum glōriā vīxit, *Cato lived with the highest glory;* C. Ver. 5, 70, 180.

NOTE. — The Ablative of Manner often takes **cum**, even when modified by an adjective, as in the last example.

474. The Ablative of Association is used without **cum** in a few special instances, as follows:

1. A few Ablatives, perhaps involving the idea of Means: **arte**, *according to art, skillfully;* **clāmōre**, *with a shout;* **cōnsiliō**, *on purpose;* **ōrdine**, *in an orderly way:*

Nēmō solitus viā dīcere, *no one accustomed to speak properly;* cf. C. Brut. 12, 46. Aut vī aut fraude fit, *it is done either by violence or by fraud;* cf. C. Off. 1, 13, 41.

NOTE. — The Accusative with **per** sometimes denotes Manner: **per vim**, *violently;* **per fraudem**, *fraudulently;* **per lūdum**, *sportively.*

2. The Ablative of Association is sometimes used without **cum**, after verbs meaning *to mingle* or *to join together*, as **cōnfundō**, **iungō**, **mīsceō**, and their compounds; also whenever the idea of means is involved, especially in military operations:

[1] Note the close connection between these three uses of the Ablative — the first designating an attendant person or thing, the second an attendant quality, the third an attendant circumstance.

Siculīs cōnfunditur undīs, *it mingles with the Sicilian waters;* V. 3, 696. Improbitās scelere iūncta, *depravity joined with crime;* C. Or. 2, 58, 237. Gravitāte mīxtus lepōs, *pleasantry united with dignity;* C. R. P. 2, 1. Ingentī exercitū profectus, *having set out with a large army;* L. 7, 9.

Note 1. — In military language the Ablative of Association generally takes **cum**, if without modifiers or modified only by a numeral, otherwise it is generally used without **cum**: **cum exercitū**, but **ingentī exercitū**.

Note 2. — Instead of the Ablative of Association, the Dative is sometimes used with verbs denoting Union or Contention:

Sapientia iūncta ēloquentiae, *wisdom united to eloquence;* cf. C. Or. 3, 35, 142. Sōlus tibī certat, *he alone competes with you;* V. E. 5, 8.

3. A special use of the Ablative of Association is seen with **faciō**, **fiō**, and **sum** in such expressions as the following:

Quid hōc homine faciās, *what will you do with this man?* C. Ver. 2, 16. Quid tē futūrum est, *what will become of you?* C. Ver. 2, 64, 155.

Note. — The Ablative with **dē** occurs in nearly the same sense:

Sed dē frātre quid fīet, *but what will become of my brother?* T. Ad. 996.

Ablative of Cause

475. Rule. — The Ablative of Cause, designating the Cause, Ground, or Reason for an action, is used without a preposition:[1]

Gubernātōris ars ūtilitāte laudātur, *the pilot's art is praised because of its usefulness;* C. Fin. 1, 13. Quisque glōriā dūcitur, *every one is influenced by glory.* Lūxuriā cīvitās labōrābat, *the state was suffering from luxury.* Nimiō gaudiō dēsipiēbam, *I was wild with* (from) *excessive joy.* Rēgnī cupiditāte inductus coniūrātiōnem fēcit, *influenced by the desire of ruling, he formed a conspiracy.* Timōre perterritī ad Rhēnum contendērunt, *moved by fear, they hastened towards the Rhine.* Aeger erat vulneribus, *he was ill in consequence of his wounds;* N. 1, 7, 5.

1. When the cause is fear, anger, hatred, etc., it is often combined with a Perfect Participle, as in the fifth and sixth examples.

2. **Causā** and **grātiā**, as Ablatives of Cause, are regularly limited by the Genitive or by a possessive or interrogative pronoun:

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[1] The Ablative of Cause seems to have been developed in part from the Instrumental case and in part from the true Ablative.

Quem **honōris grātiā nōminō**, *whom I name as a mark of honor;* C. Rosc. A. 2, 6. Vestrā hōc causā volēbam, *I desired this on your account;* C. Or. 1, 85, 164. Quā grātiā iussī, *for what purpose did I give the order?* T. Eun. 99.

3. Examine the following specimens of the Ablative of Cause, more commonly limited by an adjective or Genitive, **cōnsuētūdine, iūre, lēge, sententiā**, and Ablatives in **ū** from verbal nouns: **cōnsuētūdine suā,** *in accordance with his own custom;* **meā sententiā**, *according to* or *in my opinion;* **aliōrum hortātū**, *at the request of others;* **hortātū suō**, *at his own request;* **populī iussū**, *at the bidding of the people.*

4. Instead of the Ablative of Cause, the Ablative with **ā, ab, dē, ē, ex,** is sometimes used to emphasize the idea of Source, from which Cause was so readily developed, as **ex cōnsuētūdine suā**, *in accordance with their custom;* **ex sententiā tuā**, *in accordance with your wish:*

Mare ā sōle collūcet, *the sea gleams with the light of the sun* (from the sun). Ex vulneribus periēre, *they perished of their wounds.*

5. The Ablative with **prae** in classical Latin generally denotes a Hindrance or an Obstacle:

Nōn prae lacrimīs possum scrībere, *I cannot write on account of my tears.*

Ablative of Means

476. Rule. — The Instrument and Means of an action are denoted by the Ablative without a preposition:

Ipse suā manū fēcit, *he did it himself with his own hand.* Cornibus taurī sē tūtantur, *bulls defend themselves with their horns.* Sōl omnia lūce collūstrat, *the sun illumines all things with its light.* Terra vestīta flōribus, *the earth covered with flowers.* Lacte atque pecore vīvunt, *they live upon milk and flesh;* Caes. 4, 1. Aurēliā viā profectus est, *he went by the Aurelian road;* C. C. 2, 4. Portā Capēnā Rōmam ingressus, *having entered Rome by the Porta Capena;* L. 26, 10.

1. The Ablative of Means is used not only with verbs, but also with a few adjectives, as **contentus, praeditus,** and **frētus:**

Domō suā rēgiā contentus nōn fuit, *he was not satisfied with his royal palace;* C. Ver. 5, 31, 80. Homō summō ingeniō praeditus, *a man endowed with the highest abilities.* Neque hūmānīs cōnsiliīs frētus, *nor depending upon human counsels;* C. C. 2, 13.

2. **Adficiō** with the Ablative of Means forms a very common circumlocution: **honōre adficere** = **honōrāre**, *to honor;* **cruciātū adficere**, *to torture:*

Omnēs laetitiā adficit, *he gladdens all;* Caes. 5, 48. **Adficitur beneficiō,** *he is benefited;* C. Agr. 1, 4.

3. This Ablative is used with **fīdō, cōnfīdō, nītor, innītor, assuēscō, assuēfaciō, recipiō, teneō,** etc.:

Nēmō fortūnae stabilitāte cōnfīdit, *no one trusts the stability of fortune;* cf. C. Tusc. 5, 14, 40. Salūs vēritāte nītitur, *safety rests upon truth.* Nūllō officiō assuēfactī, *trained to* (familiar with) *no duty;* Caes. 4, 1. Sēsē castrīs tenēbant, *they kept themselves in camp;* Caes. 3, 24. **Marium tēctō recēpērunt,** *they received Marius into their houses.*

4. The following Ablatives deserve notice:

Quadrāgintā hostīīs sacrificāre, *to make a sacrifice with forty victims;* L. 41, 17. Facere vitulā, *to make a sacrifice with a calf;* V. E. 3, 77. Fidibus canere, *to play upon the lyre;* C. Tusc. 1, 2, 4. Pilā lūdere, *to play ball* (with the ball); H. S. 1, 5, 49.

Ablative of Means — Special Uses

477. Rule. — I. The Ablative of Means is used with **ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor,** and their compounds:

Plūrimīs rēbus fruimur atque ūtimur, *we enjoy and use very many things;* C. N. D. 2, 60, 152. Fungitur officiō senātōris, *he is discharging the duty of a senator.* Māgnā erat praedā potītus, *he had obtained great booty.* Lacte et carne vescēbantur, *they lived* (fed) *on milk and flesh;* N. 89, 7.

1. These deponent verbs are all survivals of the middle voice, and accordingly contain the direct object in themselves, while the Ablative is the means by which the action is effected; thus **ūtor,** *I use, I serve myself by means of;* **fruor,** *I enjoy, I delight myself with,* etc. Originally transitive, they are occasionally so used in classical authors:

Ūtēris operam meam, *you shall have* (use) *my assistance;* Pl. Poen. 1088.

2. **Ūtor** admits two Ablatives of the same person or thing:

Facilī mē ūtētur patre, *he will find me an indulgent father;* T. Heaut. 217.

3. **Potior** admits the Genitive:

Partis Siciliae potītus est, *he became master of a part of Sicily;* N. 10, 5.

II. The Ablative of Means is used with verbs of Abounding and Filling and with adjectives of Fullness: **abundō, redundō, adfluō,** etc.; **compleō, expleō, impleō, onerō,** etc.; **onustus, refertus, plēnus,** etc.:

Vīlla abundat lacte, cāseō, melle, *the villa abounds in milk, cheese, and honey;* C. Sen. 16, 56. Deus bonīs explēvit mundum, *God has filled the world with blessings;* C. Univ. 8, 5. Nāvēs onerant aurō, *they load the ships with gold.* Nāvēs frūmentō onustae, *ships loaded with grain.* Urbs referta cōpiīs, *a city filled with supplies;* C. Att. 7, 13.

1. **Compleō** and **impleō** take either the Accusative and Genitive or the Accusative and Ablative:

Mē complēvit formīdinis, *he filled me with fear;* Pl. Men. 901. Ītaliam vestrīs colōnīs complēre voluistis, *you wished to fill Italy with your colonists.*

2. Most adjectives of Fullness occasionally admit the Genitive. With **plēnus** this is the regular construction in the best prose. In Cicero **refertus** takes the Genitive when used of persons, but the Ablative when used of things:

Erat Ītalia plēna Graecārum artium, *Italy was full of Grecian arts;* C. Arch. 3, 5. Domus referta vāsīs Corinthiīs, *a house full of Corinthian vases;* C. Rosc. A. 46, 133. Mare refertum praedōnum, *a sea full of pirates;* C. Rab. P. 8, 20.

III. The Ablative of Means is used with **opus** and **ūsus**, often in connection with the Dative of the person:

Mīlitī nummīs ducentīs ūsus est, *the soldier needs two hundred sesterces;*[1] Pl. Bac. 706. Auctōritāte tuā nōbīs opus est, *we need your influence.* Cōnsultō opus est, *there is need of deliberation;* S. C. 1.

NOTE. — With **opus est**, rarely with **ūsus est**, the thing needed may be denoted by the Nominative, or an Infinitive; rarely by the Genitive,[2] a supine, or an **ut**-clause:[3]

Dux nōbīs opus est, *we need a leader;* C. Fam. 2, 6, 4. Opus est tē valēre, *it is necessary that you be well;* C. Fam. 16, 14. Temporis opus est, *there is need of time;* cf. L. 22, 51. Ita dictū opus est, *it is necessary to say so;* T. Heaut. 941. Mihī opus est ut lavem, *it is necessary for me to bathe;* Pl. Truc. 328.

ABLATIVE OF PRICE AND VALUE

478. Rule. — Price and Value are denoted by the Ablative, if expressed definitely or by means of Nouns, but by the Genitive or Ablative, if expressed indefinitely by means of Adjectives:

Aurō virī vītam vēndidit, *for gold she sold her husband's life;* C. Inv. 1, 50, 94. Fānum pecūniā grandī vēnditum est, *the temple was sold for much*

[1] Lit. *there is to the soldier a use for* or *with two hundred sesterces.*
[2] First in Livy.
[3] In Plautus and late prose.

money. Multō sanguine Poenīs victōria stetit, *the victory cost the Carthaginians* (stood to them at) *much blood;* L. 23, 30. Līs aestimātur centum talentīs, *the fine is fixed at a hundred talents.* Vēnālis decem mīlibus, *for sale at ten thousand* (sesterces); C. Cael. 7, 17.

Prāta māgnō aestimant, *they value meadows highly.* Quantī est aestimanda virtūs, *how highly should virtue be valued?* Quem plūrimī fēcerat, *whom he had esteemed most highly;* N. 18, 2. Vēnīre quam plūrimō, *to be sold at as high a price as possible.* Ēmit, *he purchased?* Quantī, *for how much?* Vīgintī minīs, *for twenty minae;* T. Eun. 984.

1. The Ablative of Price is used with verbs of Buying, Selling, Hiring, Letting; of Costing; of Being Cheap or Dear, as **emō**, **vēndō**, **vēneō**; **condūcō**, **locō**; **stō**, **cōnstō**, **liceor**, and with a few adjectives of kindred meaning, as **vēnālis**, *for sale;* **cārus**, *dear;* **vīlis**, *cheap;* see examples. With these words only five Genitives of Price are used: **tantī**, **tantī-dem**, **quantī**, **plūris**, and **minōris**.

2. With verbs of Valuing the following Genitives are used, **parvī**, **māgnī**, **permāgnī**, **tantī**, **tantī-dem**, **quantī**, **plūris**, **plūrimī**, **minōris**, **minimī**, etc.

3. Instead of the Ablative of Price, adverbs are sometimes used, as **bene emere**, *to buy well* (i.e. at a low price); **bene vēndere**, *to sell well* (i.e. at a high price).

4. **Exchanging.** — With verbs of Exchanging — **mūtō**, **commūtō**, etc. — the thing received is generally treated as the price, as with verbs of selling, but, in poetry and late prose, the thing given is often treated as the price, as with verbs of buying:

Victor pācem bellum mūtāvit, *the victor exchanged war for peace;* S. C. 58, 15. Cūr valle permūtem Sabīnā dīvitiās, *why should I exchange the Sabine vale for riches?* H. 3, 1, 47.

5. But with verbs of Exchanging, the thing given is sometimes designated by the Ablative with **cum** or **prō**:

Cum patriae cāritāte glōriam commūtāre, *to exchange love of country for glory;* cf. C. Sest. 16, 37.

6. For a fuller treatment of the Genitive of Price, see **448**.

Ablative of Difference

479. Rule. — The Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative. It is used

1. With Comparatives and Superlatives:

Ūnō diē longiōrem mēnsem faciunt, *they make the month one day longer* (longer by one day); C. Ver. 2, 52, 129. Sōl multīs partibus māior est quam

terra, *the sun is very much* (by many parts) *larger than the earth;* cf. C. N. D. 2, 36, 92. Tantō longior ānfractus, *a circuitous route so much longer.* Cōnspectus multō iūcundissimus, *a sight by far the most pleasing.*

2. With verbs and other words implying Comparison:

Multō mihī praestat, *it is much better for me;* C. Sest. 69, 146. Virtūtem omnibus rēbus multō antepōnunt, *they much prefer excellence to everything else;* cf. C. Fin. 4, 18, 51.

3. To denote Intervals of Time or Space:

Homērus annīs multīs fuit ante Rōmulum, *Homer lived* (was) *many years before* (before by many years) *Romulus;* C. Brut. 10, 40. Paucīs diēbus post mortem Āfricānī, *a few days after the death of Africanus;* C. Am. 1. Mīlibus passuum sex ā Caesaris castrīs cōnsēdit, *he encamped at the distance of six miles from Caesar's camp;* Caes. 1, 48.

Ablative of Specification

480. Rule. — A Noun, Adjective, or Verb may take an Ablative to define its application:

Agēsilāus nōmine, nōn potestāte, fuit rēx, *Agesilaus was king in name, not in power;* N. 21, 1. Fuit claudus alterō pede, *he was lame in one foot.* Illī linguā, īnstitūtīs, lēgibus inter sē differunt, *those differ from each other in language, institutions, and laws;* Caes. 1, 1.

1. **Nātū** and Supines in **ū** are often used as Ablatives of Specification:

Minimus nātū omnium, *the youngest of all.* Difficile dictū est, *it is difficult to tell* (in the telling).

2. The Ablative of Specification is often used with verbs of Measuring and Judging, to show in reference to what the statement is true:

Māgnōs hominēs virtūte mētimur, nōn fortūnā, *we measure great men by* (in reference to) *their merit, not their success;* N. 18, 1. Benevolentiam nōn ārdōre amōris, sed cōnstantiā iūdicēmus, *let us judge of good will, not by the glow of affection, but by its constancy.*

3. The Ablative of Specification, in a strict sense, shows *in what respect* or *particular* anything is true, and, in a somewhat freer sense, *in regard to what, in reference to what,* it is true.

4. For the Accusative of Specification, see **416.**

481. To the Ablative of Specification may be referred the Ablative with **dignus** and **indignus**:

Dignī sunt amīcitiā, *they are worthy of friendship;* C. Am. 21, 79. Tē honōre indignissimum iūdicat, *he judges you most unworthy of honor;* C. Vat. 16, 39.

1. In rare instances, mostly poetical, **dīgnus** and **indīgnus** occur with the Genitive:

Dīgnissimum tuae virtūtis, *most worthy of your high character;* cf. C. Att. 8, 15, A. Māgnōrum haud umquam indīgnus avōrum, *never unworthy of my great sires;* V. 12, 649.

2. **Dīgnor**, as a passive verb meaning *to be deemed worthy*, takes the Ablative; but as a deponent verb meaning *to deem worthy*, used only in poetry and late prose, it takes the Accusative and Ablative:

Honōre dīgnantur, *they are deemed worthy of honor;* C. Inv. 2, 53, 161. Haud tālī mē dīgnor honōre, *not of such honor do I deem myself worthy;* V. 1, 335.

III. Locative and Locative Ablative

482. The Locative and the Locative Ablative in a measure supplement each other. They include

1. Ablative of Place, generally with the preposition **in**; see **483.**
2. Locative in Names of Towns; see **483.**
3. Ablative of Time; see **486.**
4. Ablative Absolute; see **489.**

Ablative of Place

483. Rule. — The Place In Which anything is done is denoted generally by the Locative Ablative with the preposition **in**, but in names of Towns by the Locative:

Caesar duās legiōnēs in Galliā cōnscrīpsit, *Caesar enrolled two legions in Gaul.* In oppidō obsidēbantur, *they were besieged in the town.* Exercitum in hībernīs collocāvit, *he placed the army in winter quarters.*

Rōmae supplicātiō redditur, *at Rome a thanksgiving is appointed;* Caes. 7, 90. Alesiae obsidēbantur, *they were besieged at Alesia.* Dionȳsius Corinthī puerōs docēbat, *Dionysius taught boys at Corinth.* Carthāgine rēgēs creābantur, *at Carthage kings were elected;* N. 23, 7. Aristīdēs Athēnīs fuit, *Aristides was at Athens.*

1. In the names of Towns, instead of the Locative, the Ablative is used, with or without a preposition, when qualified by an adjective or adjective pronoun, and sometimes when not thus modified:

In Īllyricō, in ipsā Alexandrēā, *in Illyria, in Alexandria itself;* C. Att. 11, 16. Longā dominārī Albā, *to hold sway at Alba Longa;* V. 6, 766. In monte Albānō Lāvīniōque,[1] *on the Alban mount and at Lavinium;* L. 5, 52, 8.

[1] Here **Lāvīniō** is probably assimilated to the case of **monte Albānō**.

2. When **oppidō** or **urbe** accompanies the name of the town in expressions of Place, if without a modifier, it takes the preposition **in** and is followed by the Ablative of the name; but if with a modifier, it follows the name, and is used either with or without the preposition:

In oppidō Citiō est mortuus, *he died in the town Citium;* N. 5, 3. Albae cōnstitērunt, in urbe opportūnā, *they halted at Alba, a convenient city;* C. Ph. 4, 2, 6. Corinthī, Achāiae urbe, *at Corinth, a city of Achaia;* Tac. H. 2, 1.

484. Like Names of Towns are used

1. Many Names of Islands and Peninsulas:

Conōn Cyprī vīxit, *Conon lived in Cyprus;* N. 12, 3. Miltiadēs domum Chersonēsī habuit, *Miltiades had a house in the Chersonesus.*

2. The Locatives **domī, rūrī, humī, mīlitiae, bellī,** and a few others found in poets and late writers:

Et domī et mīlitiae cōnsilium praestābant, *they showed their wisdom at home and abroad;* C. Or. 3, 33, 134. Rūrī agere vītam cōnstituit, *he decided to spend his life in the country.* Rōmae et domī tuae vīvere, *to live at Rome and in your house.* Dēprehēnsus domī Caesaris, *caught in the house of Caesar;* cf. C. Att. 1, 12. Tamquam aliēnae domī, *as if in the house of another.* Truncum relīquit harēnae, *he left the body in the sand;* V. 12, 382.

NOTE 1. — **Domī** may be modified by a possessive, a Genitive, or **aliēnus,** as in the examples; when any other modifier is required, the Ablative with **in** is generally used:

In prīvātā domō fūrtum, *a theft in a private house;* C. C. 3, 7, 17.

NOTE 2. — Instead of **domī** with its modifier, **apud** with an Accusative of the person may be used: **apud mē** = domī meae, *at my house:*

Apud tē fuit, *he was at your house.* Fuistī apud Laecam, *you were at the house of Laeca;* C. C. 1, 4.

485. The Locative Ablative is often used without a preposition:

1. When the idea of place is figurative rather than literal:

Meō iūdiciō stāre mālō, *I prefer to abide by my own judgment;* C. Att. 12, 21. Prōmissīs manēre (poetical), *to abide by promises;* V. 2, 160. Nova pectore versat cōnsilia, *she devises* (turns over) *new plans in her breast.* Pendēmus animīs, *we are perplexed in mind;* C. Tusc. 1, 40, 96.

2. The Locative Ablative qualified by **tōtus,** and the Ablatives **terrā** and **marī,** especially in **terrā marīque,** are regularly used without the preposition; **locō** and **locīs** are generally so used; occasionally other Ablatives, especially when qualified by adjectives:

Mānat tōtā urbe rūmor, *the report spreads through the whole city;* L. 2, 49, 1. Nātiōnibus terrā marīque imperāre, *to rule nations on land and sea;* C. Man. 19, 56. Eōdem locō nātī sunt, *they were born in the same situation;* C. Rosc. A. 51, 149. Reliquīs oppidī partibus, *in the remaining parts of the town.*

3. In poetry and late prose, the Locative Ablative is freely used without the preposition:

Lūcīs habitāmus opācīs, *we dwell in shady groves;* V. 6, 673. Populus laetum theātrīs ter crepuit sonum, *the people made the joyful applause thrice resound in the theater;* H. 2, 17, 25.

4. By a difference of idiom, the Latin sometimes uses the Ablative with **ā, ab, ē,** or **ex,** where the English would lead us to expect the Locative Ablative, but in such cases the Latin calls attention to the place from which the action proceeds: **ā** or **ab dextrā**, *on the right* (from the right):

Hās ab utrōque latere prōtegēbat, *these he protected on both sides;* Caes. C. 1, 25. Continentur ūnā ex parte Rhēnō, alterā ex parte, monte Iūrā, *they are shut in by the Rhine on one side, by mount Jura on another;* Caes. 1, 2. Ex equīs pūgnāre vīsī sunt, *they were seen to fight on horseback;* C. N. D. 2, 2, 6.

5. Instead of the Locative Ablative, especially in plural names of tribes and peoples, the Accusative with **apud** or **inter** may be used:

Cīvitās māgnā inter Belgās auctōritāte, *a state of great influence among the Belgae;* Caes. 2, 15.

NOTE. — The Accusative with **apud**, meaning *in the works of*, is the regular form in citing authors:

Ille apud Terentium, *that well-known character in the works of Terence;* C. Fin. 5, 10, 28.

ABLATIVE OF TIME

486. Rule. — The Time At or In Which an action takes place is denoted by the Ablative without a preposition:

Sōlis occāsū suās cōpiās Ariovistus redūxit, *at sunset Ariovistus led back his forces;* Caes. 1, 50. Posterō diē lūce prīmā movet castra, *on the following day at dawn he moves his camp.* Bellum ineunte vēre suscēpit, *he entered upon the war in the beginning of spring.*

1. The Ablative of Time is found in the names of Games, Festivals, Offices, and in almost any words that may be used to denote time:

Līberālibus litterīs accēpī tuās, *I received your letter on the festival of Liber;* C. Fam. 12, 25, 1. Cōnsulātū dēvēnimus in medium certāmen, *in my consulship I became involved in the midst of the strife;* C. Or. 1, 1.

487. The Time Within Which an action takes place is denoted by the Ablative with or without **in**, sometimes with **dē**:

Ter in annō audīre nūntium, *to hear the tidings three times in the course of the year;* C. Rosc. A. 46, 132. In diēbus proximīs decem, *within the next ten days.* Nēmō hīs annīs vīgintī reī pūblicae fuit hostis, *there has been no enemy of the republic within these twenty years.* Dē tertiā vigiliā castra movet, *in the third watch he moves his camp;* cf. Caes. C. 1, 63.

1. The Ablative with **in** is often used to call attention to the Circumstances of the Time or the Condition of Affairs:

In perīculōsissimō reī pūblicae tempore, *in a most perilous condition of the republic.* In tālī tempore, *at such a time* (i.e. under such circumstances).

2. The Accusative with **inter** or **intrā**, like the Ablative with **in**, may be used of the Time Within Which; the Accusative with **ad** or **in**, of an Appointed Time, and with **ad** or **sub**, of an Approaching Time:

Haec inter cēnam dictāvī, *I dictated this during the dinner.* Fīlium intrā paucōs diēs āmīsit, *within a few days he lost his son.* Omnia ad diem facta sunt, *all things were done on the appointed day;* Caes. 2, 5. Ad cēnam hominem invītāvit in posterum diem, *he invited the man to dinner for the next day.* Sub vesperum exīre, *to go out towards evening.*

488. The Interval between two events may be variously expressed:

1. By the Accusative or Ablative with **ante** or **post**:

Classis post diēs paucōs vēnit, *after a few days the fleet arrived.* Paucōs ante diēs, *a few days before.* Homērus annīs multīs fuit ante Rōmulum, *Homer lived many years before Romulus;* C. Brut. 10, 40. Paucīs ante diēbus nōluit, *he declined a few days before.* Paucīs post annīs, *a few years after.*

2. By the Accusative or Ablative with **ante quam**, **post quam**, or **post**, generally with an ordinal numeral:

Post diem tertium quam dīxerat, *the third day after he had spoken;* C. Mil. 16, 44. Annō ipsō ante quam nātus est Ennius, *in the very year before Ennius was born.* Nōnō annō post quam in Hispāniam vēnerat, *in the ninth year after he had come into Spain;* N. 22, 4, 2.

3. By the Ablative of a relative and its antecedent:

Mors Rōscī quadriduō quō is occīsus est nūntiātur, *the death of Roscius is announced four days after he was killed;* C. Rosc. A. 36, 104.

NOTE 1. — **Prīdiē quam** means *on the day before*, and **postrīdiē quam**, *on the day after* or *a day later:*

Postrīdiē vēnit, quam exspectāram, *he came a day later than I had expected;* C. Fam. 16, 14.

NOTE 2. — The question *how long ago?* may be answered by the Accusative with **abhinc**:

Abhinc annōs trecentōs fuit, *he lived three hundred years ago;* C. Div. 2, 57, 118.

NOTE 3. — In rare instances the Ablative with **abhinc** is used like the Ablative with **ante**:

Abhinc diēbus trīgintā, *thirty days before;* C. Ver. 2, 52, 135.

ABLATIVE ABSOLUTE[1]

489. Rule. — A noun with a participle, an adjective, or another noun, may be put in the Ablative to add to the predicate an Attendant Circumstance:

Serviō rēgnante viguērunt, *they flourished in the reign of Servius* (Servius reigning).[2] Cōnsulēs, rēgibus exāctīs, creātī sunt, *after the banishment of the kings,*[3] *consuls were elected;* L. 4, 4, 2. Caesar equitātū praemissō subsequēbātur, *Caesar having sent forward his cavalry followed.* Hōc dīcit, mē audiente, *he says this in my hearing.* Lēgātōs discēdere, nisi mūnītīs castrīs, vetuerat, *he had forbidden his lieutenants to depart, unless the camp was fortified;* Caes. 2, 20. Caelō serēnō obscūrāta lūx est,[4] *while the sky was clear, the sun* (the light) *was obscured;* L. 37, 4, 4. L. Pīsōne, Aulō Gabīniō cōnsulibus, *in the consulship of L. Piso and Aulus Gabinius.*

1. The Ablative Absolute, much more common than the English Nominative Absolute, generally expresses the Time, Cause, or some Attendant Circumstance of the action. It is generally best rendered by a noun with a preposition — *in, during, after, by, with, through,* etc.; by an active participle with its object; or by a clause with *when, while, because, if, though,* etc.; see examples above.

2. A conjunction, as **nisi, tamquam,** etc., sometimes accompanies the Ablative, as in the fifth example.

3. The Ablative in this construction generally refers to some person or thing not otherwise mentioned in the clause to which it belongs, but exceptions occur:

Obsidibus imperātīs, hōs Aeduīs trādit, *having demanded hostages, he delivers them to the Aedui;* Caes. 6, 4.

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[1] This Ablative is called Absolute, because it is not directly dependent for its construction upon any other word in the sentence. In classical Latin it expresses both Instrumental and Locative relations.

[2] Or, *while Servius was reigning,* or, *while Servius was king.*

[3] Or, *after the kings were banished.*

[4] The construction by which a noun and an adjective, or two nouns, may be in the Ablative Absolute is peculiar to the Latin. In the corresponding construction in Sanskrit, Greek, and English, the present participle of the verb, *to be,* is used.

4. In the Ablative Absolute, Perfect Participles of deponent verbs are generally found only in the poets and late writers. With an object they are first found in Sallust:

Sullā omnia pollicitō, *as Sulla promised everything;* S. 108, 7.

5. Two participles, or a participle and a predicate noun or adjective, are occasionally combined with a noun in the Ablative Absolute:

Agrō captō ex hostibus dīvīsō, *when the land taken from the enemy had been divided;* L. 1, 46. Hasdrubale imperātōre suffectō, *when Hasdrubal succeeded as commander;* N. 23, 3.

6. An Infinitive or Clause may be in the Ablative Absolute with a neuter participle or adjective:

Alexander, audītō Dārēum mōvisse, pergit, *Alexander having heard that Darius had withdrawn, advances;* Curt. 5, 13. Multī, incertō quid vītārent, interiērunt, *many, uncertain what they should avoid, perished;* L. 28, 36.

7. A Participle or an Adjective may stand alone in the Ablative Absolute:

Multum certātō,[1] pervīcit, *he conquered after a hard struggle;* Tac. An. 11, 10.

8. **Quisque** or **ipse** in the Nominative may accompany the Ablative Absolute:

Causā ipse prō sē dictā damnātur,[2] *having himself advocated his own cause, he is condemned;* L. 4, 44, 10. Exercitus, multīs sibī quisque imperium petentibus, dīlābitur,[2] *while many seek the command, each for himself, the army goes to pieces;* S. 18, 3.

9. **Absente nōbīs**, *in my absence*, in which **nōbīs** is used for **mē**, is an instance of Synesis:

Quid absente nōbīs turbātumst (= turbātum est), *what is the disturbance in my absence?* T. Eun. 649.

Ablative with Prepositions

490. Rule. — The Ablative may take a preposition to aid in expressing the exact relation intended:

Mātūrat ab urbe proficīscī, *he hastens to set out from the city.* Ab hīs amātur, *by these he is loved.* Statua ex aere facta, *a statue made of bronze.*

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[1] Here the participle is used impersonally, *it having been much contested.*

[2] In the first example **ipse** may be explained as belonging to the subject of **damnātur**, but in the second **quisque** has no grammatical connection with any other word in the sentence. A plausible view of the construction is that **sibī quisque**, which in certain connections has become almost a stereotyped formula, has been brought over unchanged into the Ablative Absolute from the clause which it represents.

Cōram frequentissimō conventū, *in the presence of the crowded assembly.* Dulce et decōrum est prō patriā morī, *it is sweet and seemly to die for one's country.* Taurō tenus rēgnāre iussus est, *he was bidden to limit his realm by Mount Taurus* (to reign as far as Taurus); cf. C. Deiot. 18, 36.

1. Note the force of the prepositions in the following expressions: **ab urbe**, *from the city;* **ex urbe**, *out of the city;* **in urbe**, *in the city;* **cum urbe**, *with the city;* **prō urbe**, *before the city* or *in behalf of the city.*

2. The following ten prepositions are used with the Ablative only:

ā, ab, abs,	*from, by*	ē, ex,	*out of, from*
absque,	*without*	prae,	*before, in comparison with*
cōram,	*in the presence of*	prō,	*before, for*
cum,	*with*	sine,	*without*
dē,	*down from, from*	tenus,	*as far as*

Note 1. — **Ā** and **ē** are used only before consonants, **ab** and **ex** before either vowels or consonants. **Abs** is antiquated, except before **tē**.

Note 2. — **Cum**, when used with a Personal or a Relative Pronoun, is generally appended to it.

Note 3. — **Tenus** follows its case. Being in origin the Accusative of a noun, it often takes the Genitive; see **446**, 5.

3. The following four prepositions are used either with the Accusative or with the Ablative:

in,	*into, in*	subter,	*beneath, under, towards*
sub,	*under, towards*	super,	*above, about, beyond*

In and **sub** with the Accusative after verbs of motion; with the Ablative after verbs of rest. **Subter** and **super** generally with the Accusative; **subter** with the Ablative rare and mostly poetical; **super** with the Ablative meaning *concerning, of, on*, used of a subject of discourse:

Hannibal exercitum in Ītaliam dūxit, *Hannibal led an army into Italy.* Quam diū in Ītalia fuit, *as long as he was in Italy.* Mīlitēs sub montem succēdunt, *the soldiers approach towards the mountain.* Sub pellibus hiemāre, *to winter in camp* (under skins). Subter mūrum hostium āvehitur, *he is borne under the wall of the enemy.* Subter dēnsā testūdine, *under a compact testudo.* Aquila super carpentum volitāns, *an eagle flying above the carriage.* Hāc super rē scrībam, *I shall write on this subject.*

4. A few words, generally adverbs, sometimes become prepositions, and are used with the Ablative, as **intus**, **palam**, **procul**, **simul** (poetic), and rarely **clam**:

Tālī intus templō, *within such a temple;* V. 7, 192. Palam populō, *in the presence of the people;* L. 6, 14. Procul dubiō, *without doubt* or *far from doubtful;* L. 39, 40. Simul hīs, *with these;* H. S. 1, 10, 86. Clam vōbis, *without your knowledge;* Caes. C. 2, 32.

Summary of Constructions of Place and Space

491. I. The Names of Places are generally put

1. In the Accusative with **ad** or **in** to denote the Place to or into Which:

Exercitum in Ītaliam dūxit, *he led an army into Italy.*

2. In the Ablative with **ab**, **dē**, or **ex** to denote the Place from Which:

Ab urbe proficīscitur, *he sets out from the city.*

3. In the Locative Ablative with **in** to denote the Place at or in Which:

Hannibal in Ītaliā fuit, *Hannibal was in Italy.* In oppidō obsidēbantur, *they were besieged in the town.*

II. The Names of Towns and words which follow their analogy are put

1. In the Accusative to denote the Place to Which:

Lēgātī Athēnās missī sunt, *ambassadors were sent to Athens.* Ego rūs ībō, *I shall go into the country.*

2. In the Ablative to denote the Place from Which:

Dēmarātus fūgit Corinthō, *Demaratus fled from Corinth.* Platōnem Athēnīs arcessīvit, *he summoned Plato from Athens.* Cum domō profūgisset, *when he had fled from home.*

3. In the Locative to denote the Place at or in Which:

Rōmae et domī tuae vīvere, *to live at Rome and in your house.* Cyprī vīxit, *he lived in Cyprus.*

III. The common constructions of Space are as follows:

1. Extent of Space is denoted by the Accusative:

Agger altus pedēs octōgintā, *a mound eighty feet high.*

2. Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative:

Sōl multīs partibus māior est quam terra, *the sun is very much larger than the earth.*

3. Distance, when regarded as Extent of Space, is denoted by the Accusative, but when regarded as Measure of Difference, by the Ablative:

Septingenta mīlia passuum ambulāre, *to walk seven hundred miles.* Mīlibus passuum sex ā Caesaris castrīs cōnsēdit, *he encamped at the distance of six miles from Caesar's camp.*

USE OF ADJECTIVES.

492. Adjectives in Latin correspond in their general use to adjectives in English.

1. In Latin, as in English, an adjective may qualify the complex idea formed by a noun with one or more other modifiers: **duae legiōnēs novae**,[1] *two new legions;* **nāvēs longae veterēs**, *old war vessels;* **columna aurea solida**, *a column of solid gold;* **onerāria nāvis māxima**, *a very large ship of burden.*

NOTE. — In general no connective is used when adjectives are combined as in these examples; but if the first adjective is **multī**, the connective is usually inserted, though it is sometimes omitted, especially when one of the adjectives follows the noun: **multae bonaeque**[2] **artēs**, *many good arts;* **multa et praeclāra**[2] **facinora**, *many illustrious deeds;* **multae līberae cīvitātēs**, *many free states, many republics;* **multa bella gravia**, *many severe wars.*

493. Prolepsis, or Anticipation. — An adjective or a participle is sometimes applied to a noun, especially in poetry, to denote the result of the action expressed by the verb:

Submersās[3] obrue puppēs, *overwhelm and sink the ships* (overwhelm the sunken ships); V. 1, 69. Scūta latentia condunt, *they conceal their* (hidden) *shields;* V. 3, 237.

494. Adjectives and Participles are often used Substantively in the plural. Thus:

1. Masculine Adjectives and Participles are used of persons; Neuter Adjectives, chiefly in the Nominative and Accusative, are used of things: **fortēs, dīvitēs, pauperēs**, *the brave, the rich, the poor;* **multī, paucī, omnēs**, *many, few, all;* **nostrī, vestrī, suī**, *our friends, your friends, their friends;* **spectantēs, audientēs, dīscentēs**, *spectators, hearers, learners;* **bona, ūtilia, futūra**, *good things, useful things, future events;* **mea, nostra, omnia**, *my things, our things, all things.*

495. Adjectives and Participles are occasionally used Substantively in the singular. Thus:

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[1] Here **duae** modifies not simply **legiōnēs**, but **legiōnēs novae**; so **veterēs** qualifies **nāvēs longae**, *war vessels.*

[2] Lit. *many and good; many and illustrious.*

[3] Observe that **submersās** gives the result of the action denoted by **obrue**, and is not applicable to **puppēs** until that action is performed; **latentia** likewise gives the result of **condunt**.

1. In the masculine in a collective sense, especially as a predicate Genitive after **est**, etc., and when accompanied by a pronoun: **Rōmānus** = **Rōmānī**, *the Roman, the Romans;* **bonus**, *the good man, the good;* **sapientis est**, *it is the mark of a wise man* or *of wise men* = *it is wise;* **hīc doctus**, **doctus quīdam**, *this learned man, a certain learned man;* **hīc Rōmānus**, **Rōmānus quīdam**, *this Roman, a certain Roman.*

2. In the neuter in the Nominative and Accusative, in the Partitive Genitive, and in the Accusative or Ablative with a preposition: **bonum**, *a good thing, a blessing;* **malum**, *an evil thing, an evil;* **nihil bonī**, *nothing* (of the) *good;* **nihil hūmānī**, *nothing human;* **in futūrum**, *for the future;* **in praesentī**, *at present.*

3. Conversely a few substantives are sometimes used as adjectives, especially verbal nouns in **tor** and **trīx**: **victor exercitus**, **victrīcēs Athēnae**, *a victorious army, victorious Athens;* **homō gladiātor**, **servus homō**, *a gladiator, a servant;* **populus lātē rēx**, *a people ruling far and wide.*

4. For the use of adjectives with the force of qualifying Genitives, see **437**.

496. Equivalent to a Clause. — Adjectives, like nouns in predicate apposition, are sometimes equivalent to clauses:

Alterum vīvum amāvī, alterum nōn ōdī mortuum, *the one I loved while he was alive, the other I do not hate now that he is dead;* C. Off. 3, 18. **Ab** homine numquam sōbriō, *from a man who is never sober;* C. Ph. 2, 32.

497. Adjectives and Adverbs. — Adjectives are sometimes used where our idiom requires adverbs or adverbial expressions:

Sōcratēs venēnum laetus hausit, *Socrates cheerfully drank the poison;* Sen. Prov. 3. Quod invītus faciō, *which I do unwillingly;* C. Rosc. A. 42, 123. Castrīs sē pavidus tenēbat, *he timidly kept himself in camp;* L. 3. 26. In amōre est tōtus, *he is wholly in love.* Erat ille Rōmae frequēns, *he was frequently at Rome.* Senātus frequēns convenit, *the senate assembles in large numbers;* C. Fam. 10, 12, 3.

1. The adjectives chiefly thus used are those expressive of Joy, Knowledge, and their opposites, — **laetus**, **libēns**, **invītus**, **trīstis**, **sciēns**, **īnsciēns**, **prūdēns**, **imprūdēns**, etc.; also **nūllus**, **sōlus**, **tōtus**, **ūnus**, **propior**, **proximus**, etc.

2. A few adjectives of Time and Place are sometimes used in the same way, though chiefly in the poets:

Vespertīnus pete tēctum, *at evening seek your abode;* H. E. 1, 6, 20. Domesticus ōtior, *I idle about the house;* H. S. 1, 6, 127.

3. Note the following special uses of such adjectives as **prior**, **prīmus**, **prīnceps**, **postrēmus**, **ultimus**, etc.:

Est primus rogātus sententiam, *he was the first to be asked his opinion;* L. 37, 14. Princeps in proelium ībat, *he was the first to go into battle;* L. 21, 4.

4. Certain adjectives, as **prīmus, medius, ultimus, summus**, etc., may designate a part of an object; as **prīma nox**, *the first part of the night;* **summus mōns**, *the top of the mountain.*

5. In rare instances, adverbs seem to supply the place of adjectives:

Rēctissimē sunt omnia, *all things are perfectly right;* C. Fam. 9, 9. Nunc hominum mōrēs, *the character of the men of the present day;* Pl. Pers. 385.

6. Numeral adverbs often occur with titles of office:

Rēgulus cōnsul iterum, *Regulus when consul for the second time;* cf. C. Off. 3, 26, 99.

498. Comparatives and Superlatives. — Latin Comparatives and Superlatives are generally best rendered by the corresponding English forms, but comparatives may sometimes be rendered by *somewhat, unusually, too,* i.e. more than usual, or more than is proper, while superlatives are sometimes best rendered by *very:*

Ego miserior sum quam tū, *I am more unhappy than you.* Senectūs est loquācior, *old age is somewhat loquacious.* Grātissimae mihī tuae litterae fuērunt, *your letter was very acceptable to me.* Quam māximus numerus, *the largest possible number.* Ūnus omnium doctissimus, *without exception, the most learned of all.* Quantam māximam vāstitātem potest ostendit, *he exhibits the greatest possible desolation* (as great as the greatest he can); L. 22, 3.

1. Certain superlatives are common as titles of honor: **clārissimus, nōbilissimus**, and **summus** — especially applicable to men of consular or senatorial rank; **fortissimus, honestissimus, illūstrissimus**, and **splendidissimus** — especially applicable to those of the equestrian order:

Pompēius, vir fortissimus et clārissimus, *Pompey, a man most brave and illustrious;* C. I. Ver. 15, 44. Equitēs Rōmānī, honestissimī virī, *the Roman knights, most honorable men;* C. C. 1, 8, 21.

499. Comparatives after Quam. — When an object is said to possess one quality in a higher degree than another, the two adjectives thus used may be connected by **magis quam**, the usual method in Cicero, or both may be put in the comparative:

Praeclārum magis est quam difficile, *it is more admirable than difficult,* or *admirable rather than difficult;* C. Q. Fr. 1, 1, 11. Dītiōrēs quam fortiōrēs, *more wealthy than brave;* L. 39, 1.

1. In a similar manner, two Adverbs may be connected by **magis quam**, or both may be put in the comparative:

Magis audācter quam parātē, *with more courage than preparation;* C. Brut. 68, 241. Bellum fortius quam fēlīcius gerere, *to wage war with more valor than success.*

2. The form with **magis**, both in adjectives and in adverbs, may sometimes be best rendered *rather than:*

Ars magis māgna quam difficilis, *an art extensive rather than difficult.*

3. In the later Latin, the positive sometimes follows **quam**, even when the regular comparative precedes, and sometimes two positives are used:

Vehementius quam cautē appetere, *to seek more eagerly than cautiously;* cf. Tac. Agr. 4. Clārī quam vetustī, *illustrious rather than ancient.*

4. For the use of comparatives before **quam prō**, see **471, 7.**

USE OF PRONOUNS

500. Personal Pronouns. — The Nominative of Personal Pronouns is used only for emphasis or contrast:

Nātūram sī sequēmur, numquam aberrābimus, *if we follow nature, we shall never go astray.* Ego rēgēs ēiēcī, vōs tyrannōs intrōdūcitis, *I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants;* Ad Her. 4, 58.

1. With **quidem**, the pronoun is usually expressed, but not with **equidem**:

Facis amīcē tū quidem, *you act indeed in a friendly manner.* **Nōn** dubitābam equidem, *I did not doubt indeed.*

2. A writer sometimes speaks of himself in the plural, using **nōs** for **ego**, **noster** for **meus**, and the plural verb for the singular:

Vidēs nōs multa cōnārī, *you see that I attempt many things;* C. Orator, 30, 105. Et nostra lēctitās, *and you often read my writings;* C. Orator, 30, 105. Librum ad tē mīsimus, *I have sent the book to you;* C. Sen. 1, 3.

3. In Plautus and in Horace, **noster**, *our friend*, occurs in the sense of **ego**:

Tū mē aliēnābis numquam quīn noster siem, *you shall never make me to be any other than myself;* Pl. Amph. 399. Subiectior in diem invidiae noster, *I am daily more exposed to unpopularity;* H. S. 2, 6.

4. **Meī, tuī, suī, nostrī,** and **vestrī** are generally used as Objective Genitives; **nostrum** and **vestrum**, as Partitive Genitives — though with

omnium, and in certain special expressions, **nostrum** and **vestrum** are used as Possessive Genitives:

Habētis ducem memorem vestrī, oblītum suī, *you have a leader mindful of you, forgetful of himself;* C. C. 4, 9. Ūnī cuique vestrum, *to every one of you;* C. Ph. 5, 1. Commūnis parēns omnium nostrum, *the common mother of us all;* C. C. 1, 7. Quantus cōnsēnsus vestrum, *how great unanimity on your part* (of you); C. Ph. 5, 1.

5. A Personal Pronoun with **ab**, **ad**, or **apud** may designate the Residence or Abode of a person:

Quisnam ā nōbīs ēgreditur forās, *who is coming out of our house?* T. Heaut. 561. Vēnī ad mē, *I came to my house;* C. Att. 16, 10. Rūrī apud sē est, *he is at his residence in the country;* cf. C. Or. 1, 49, 214.

501. Possessives, when not emphatic, are seldom expressed if they can be supplied from the context:

In eō studiō aetātem cōnsūmpsī, *I have spent my life in this pursuit.* Sīc oculōs, sīc ille manūs ferēbat, *thus he moved his eyes, thus his hands.* Mea domus tibī patet, mihī clausa est, *my house is open to you, closed to me;* C. Rosc. A. 50, 145.

1. Possessives sometimes mean *appropriate, proper, favorable, propitious*, as **aliēnus** sometimes means *unsuitable, unfavorable:*

Ego annō meō cōnsul factus sum, *I was made consul in my own proper year* (i.e. on reaching the legal age); cf. C. Brut. 94, 323. Ferunt sua flāmina classem, *favoring winds bear the fleet;* V. 5, 832. Aliēnō locō proelium committunt, *they engage in battle in an unfavorable situation;* Caes. 1, 15.

2. Remember that the Possessive is regularly used for the Subjective Genitive of personal pronouns, and sometimes, though rarely, for the Objective Genitive; see **440**, 2, Note 2:

Tuā suī memoriā dēlectātur, *he is delighted with your recollection of him;* C. Att. 13, 1, 3. Neque odiō id fēcit tuō, *nor did he do it from hatred of you;* T. Ph. 1016.

3. For the possessive in combination with a Genitive, see **446**, 3.

502. Reflexive Use of Pronouns. — The Personal and Possessive Pronouns may be used reflexively; **suī** and **suus** are regularly so used:

Mē ipse cōnsōlor, *I comfort myself;* C. Am. 3, 10. Ipse sē quisque dīligit, *every one loves himself.* Anteposuit suam salūtem meae, *he preferred his own safety to mine.*

1. **Reciprocal Use of Pronouns.** — The reciprocal relation which objects often sustain to each other may be variously expressed, as by **inter nōs, inter vōs,** and **inter sē**, *each other, one another, together;* by the reflexive **suī** with **ipsī**; by **alius alium** or **alter alterum**; and by repeating the noun in an oblique case:

Puerī amant inter sē, *the boys love one another.* Mīlitēs sibī ipsī sunt impedīmentō, *the soldiers are a hindrance to one another.* Alius alium domōs suās invītant, *they invite one another to their homes.* Hominēs hominibus ūtilēs esse possunt, *men can be useful to men* (i.e. to one another).

503. In simple sentences and in principal clauses, **suī** and **suus** generally refer to the subject:

Per sē quisque sibī cārus est, *every one is by his own nature* (**per sē**, *through* or *of himself*) *dear to himself;* C. Am. 21, 80. Caesar cōpiās suās dīvīsit, *Caesar divided his forces.*

1. As **suī** and **suus** generally refer to the subject, the demonstratives **is, ille,** etc., are generally used to refer to other words in the sentence:

Deum āgnōscis ex operibus ēius, *you recognize God by* (from) *his works.*

2. **Synesis.** — When the subject of the verb is not the real agent of the action, **suī** and **suus** may refer to that agent:

Ā Caesare invītor sibī ut sim lēgātus, *I am invited by Caesar* (real agent) *to be lieutenant to him;* C. Att. 2, 18.

3. With such indefinite and impersonal expressions as the following, **suī** and **suus** refer to some indefinite person conceived as the author of the action:

Dēfōrme est dē sē praedicāre,[1] *to boast of one's self is unseemly;* C. Off. 1, 38, 137. Perventum ad suōs erat,[1] *they had come to their friends;* L. 33, 8.

4. **Suus**, meaning *his own, their own, fitting,* etc., especially with **quisque**, and the plural of **suus**, meaning *his friends, their friends, their possessions,* etc., are used with great freedom, often referring to oblique cases:

Iūstitia suum cuique distribuit, *Justice gives to every one his due* (his own); C. N. D. 3, 15. Suō cuique iūdiciō est ūtendum, *every one must use his own judgment;* C. N. D. 3, 1. Cōnservā tuīs suōs, *for the sake of your friends, spare their friends;* C. Lig. 11, 33.

504. In Subordinate Clauses expressing the Thought, Wish, or Purpose of the principal clause, as in the Infinitive clause, final

[1] Here observe that the reflexives **sē** and **suōs** refer to the indefinite agents of the action expressed by **praedicāre** and **perventum erat.**

clause, indirect questions, and the like, **suī** and **suus** generally refer to the subject of the principal clause; in all other subordinate clauses, they generally refer to the subject of their own clause, and are called Direct Reflexives:

Sentit animus sē vī suā movērī, *the soul perceives that it is moved by its own power;* C. Tusc. 1, 23, 55. Ubiī ōrant ut sibī parcat, *the Ubii ask him to spare them.* Pervēstīgat quid suī cīvēs cōgitent, *he tries to ascertain what his fellow-citizens think.* Nēminem cōgnōvī poētam, quī sibī nōn optimus vidērētur, *I have known no poet who did not seem to himself to be the best;* C. Tusc. 5, 22, 63.

1. After verbs of Advising, Exhorting, etc., **suī** and **suus** generally refer to the Subordinate Subject, as the person in whose interest the advice is given:

Nerviōs hortātur nē suī līberandī occāsiōnem dīmittant, *he exhorts the Nervii not to lose the opportunity of freeing themselves;* Caes. 5, 38.

2. **Two Reflexives.** — Sometimes a clause has one reflexive referring to the Principal subject, and another referring to the Subordinate subject:

Respondit nēminem sēcum sine suā perniciē contendisse, *he replied that no one had fought with him without* (his) *destruction;* Caes. 1, 36.

3. When the Reflexive refers to the Subordinate subject, the Demonstrative or Determinative refers to the Principal subject:

Persuādent Tulingīs utī oppidīs suīs exūstīs ūnā cum iīs proficīscantur, *they persuaded the Tulingi that, having burned their towns, they should depart with them;* Caes. 1, 5, 4.

4. Reflexives are sometimes used with participles, referring to the agent of the action implied in them:

Hunc rēx excēpit diffīdentemque[1] rēbus suīs cōnfīrmāvit, *the king received him and encouraged him when he had lost confidence in his own strength;* C. Man. 9, 23.

5. Reflexives are sometimes used idiomatically with a few prepositions, especially with **per, propter, cum, in:**

Valētūdinem ipsam propter sē expetēmus, *we shall seek health for itself;* C. Fin. 5, 17. Caesar Fabium cum suā[2] legiōne remittit, *Caesar sends back Fabius with* (having) *his legion;* Caes. 5, 53.

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[1] Observe that if an equivalent subordinate clause be substituted for the participle **diffīdentem**, as in the translation, the reflexive would be entirely in order, and would refer to the subject of its own clause.

[2] Observe that **cum legiōne suā** is equivalent to **legiōnem suam habentem**, in which the use of the reflexive is the same as that described above under number 4.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

505. **Hīc, iste, ille,** are often called, respectively, demonstratives of the first, second, and third persons, as **hīc** designates that which is near the speaker; **iste,** that which is near the person addressed; and **ille,** that which is remote from both:

Iovem, cūstōdem hūius urbis, *Jupiter the guardian of this* (our) *city.* Mūtā istam mentem, *change that purpose of yours.* Illōs quōs vidēre nōn possumus neglegis, *you disregard those whom we can not see.*

1. **Hīc** designates an object conceived as near, and **ille** as remote, whether in space, time, or thought:

Nōn antīquō illō mōre, sed hōc nostrō ērudītus, *educated not in the manner of the olden times, but in this our modern way;* C. Brut. 35, 132.

506. **Former and Latter.** — In reference to two objects previously mentioned,

1. **Hīc** generally follows **ille** and refers to the latter object, while **ille** refers to the former:

Acerbōs inimīcōs . . . eōs amīcōs . . . illī vērum saepe dīcunt, hī numquam, *bitter enemies . . . those friends . . . the former often speak the truth, the latter never;* cf. C. Am. 24, 90.

2. **Hīc** refers to the former object when that object is conceived of as near in thought, either because of its importance or because of its close connection with the subject under discussion. It may then stand either before or after **ille**:

Melior est certa pāx quam spērāta victōria; haec in tuā, illa in deōrum manū est, *sure peace is better than hoped-for victory; the former is in your own hand, the latter in that of the gods;* L. 30, 30. Senex . . . adulēscēns . . . ille vult diū vīvere, hīc diū vīxit, *the aged man . . . the young man . . . the latter wishes to live a long time; the former has lived a long time;* C. Sen. 19, 68.

507. **Other Uses of Demonstratives.** — **Hīc** and **ille** are often used of what belongs to the immediate context:

Haec quae scrībō et illa quae anteā questus sum, *these things which I am writing and those of which I before complained;* S. 24, 9. Hīs verbīs epistulam mīsit, *he sent a letter in these* (the following) *words;* N. 2, 9, 1.

1. **Hīc et ille, ille aut ille,** etc., *this and that, that or that,* are sometimes used in the sense *one or two, one or another:*

Hōc sīgnum et illud, *this statue and that, one or two statues.*

2. **Hīc**, as a demonstrative of the first person, is sometimes, especially in poetry, equivalent to **meus** or **noster**; and **hīc homō**, rarely **hīc** alone, to **ego**:

Suprā hanc memoriam, *before our time* (this memory); Caes. 6, 19. Hīc homōst (homō est) omnium hominum praecipuos, *this man* (myself) *is the most favored of all men;* Pl. Trin. 1115. Hunc hominem vellēs sī trādere, *if you were willing to introduce me* (this man); H. S. 1, 9, 47.

3. **Iste**, as a demonstrative of the second person, is often applied to an opponent, or to a defendant in a court of justice; accordingly the idea of Disrespect or Contempt seems at times to be associated with it, though not strictly contained in the pronoun itself:

Quae est ista praetūra, *what sort of praetorship is that of yours?* C. Ver. 2, 18, 46. Animī est ista mollitia, nōn virtūs, *that is an effeminate spirit, not valor.*

4. **Ille** is often used of what is *well known, famous*, and in that sense it is sometimes in apposition with a Personal pronoun:

Māgnus ille Alexander, *that famous Alexander the Great;* C. Arch. 10, 24. Ille ego līber, ille ferōx tacuī, *I, that unrestrained, that fearless one, was silent.*

5. **Ille** is sometimes nearly or quite redundant, especially with **quidem**:

Apollōnius ille quidem suō cōnsiliō, sed etiam mē auctōre est profectus, *Apollonius set out of his own free will indeed, but also with my advice;* C. Fam. 13, 16. Quī vēnit, multum ille et terrīs iactātus et altō, *who came, after having been much tossed about on land and sea;* V. 1, 1.

6. A demonstrative is sometimes equivalent to a Genitive or to a preposition with its case: **hīc amor = amor hūius reī**, *the love of this;* **haec cūra = cūra dē hōc**, *care concerning this:*

Eā formīdine multī mortālēs Rōmānīs deditī obsidēs, *from the fear of these things many were delivered as hostages to the Romans;* S. 54, 6.

7. Adverbs derived from demonstratives share the distinctive meanings of the pronouns themselves:

Hīc plūs malī est, quam illīc bonī, *there is more of evil here than of good there;* T. And. 720.

DETERMINATIVE PRONOUNS

508. **Is** and **īdem** refer to preceding nouns, or are the antecedents of relatives:

Dionȳsius aufūgit; is est in prōvinciā tuā, *Dionysius has fled; he is in your province.* Hominēs id quod volunt crēdunt, *men believe that which they*

desire. Fēcit idem quod fēcerat Coriolānus, *he did the same thing which Coriolanus had done.*

1. The pronoun **is** is often understood before the relative or a Genitive:

Sunt quī cēnseant, *there are those who think.* Flēbat uterque, pater dē fīliī morte, dē patris fīlius, *each wept, the father over the impending death of the son, the son over* (that) *of the father;* C. Ver. 1, 30.

2. **Is** with a conjunction is often used for emphasis, like the English *and that too, and that indeed:*

Ūnam rem explicābō, eamque māximam, *one thing I will explain, and that too a very important one.* Audīre Cratippum, idque Athēnīs, *to hear Cratippus, and that too at Athens;* cf. C. Off. 1, 1.

3. **Īdem** is sometimes best rendered *also, at the same time, both, yet:*

Quī fortis est, īdem est fīdēns, *he who is brave, is also confident.* Cum optimam nātūram deī dīcat esse, negat īdem, etc., *though he says that the nature of God is most excellent, he yet denies,* etc.; C. N. D. 1, 48, 121. Rēx Anius, rēx īdem hominum Phoebīque sacerdōs, *King Anius, both king of men and priest of Apollo;* V. 3, 80.

4. **Is . . . quī** means *he . . . who, such . . . as, such . . . that:*

Tū es is quī mē ōrnāstī, *you are the man* (he) *who has honored me.* Ea est Rōmāna gēns quae victa quiēscere nesciat, *the Roman race is such that it knows not how to rest when vanquished;* L. 9, 3.

5. **Īdem . . . quī** means *the same . . . who, the same . . . as;* **īdem . . . ac** or **atque, īdem . . . et** or **que, īdem . . . ut, īdem . . . cum** with the Ablative, *the same . . . as:*

Animus tē ergā īdem est ac fuit, *the feeling toward you is the same as it was;* T. Heaut. 265. Eōdem mēcum patre genitus est, *he is the son of the same father as I* (with me); Tac. A. 15, 2.

509. **Ipse** adds emphasis, generally rendered *self:*

Quod ipse Caesar cōgnōverat, *which Caesar himself had ascertained.* Ipse pater fulmina molītur, *the father himself* (Jupiter) *hurls the thunderbolts.* Ipse dīxit[1]; ipse autem erat Pȳthagorās, *he himself said it; but he was Pythagoras.*

1. **Ipse** belongs to the emphatic word, whether subject or object, but with a preference for the subject when no special emphasis rests on the object:

[1] Applied to Pythagoras by his disciples. **Ipse** is often thus used of a superior, as of a master, teacher, etc.

6. Relative clauses in Latin, with or without antecedents, are sometimes equivalent to nouns, adjectives, or participles in English, as, **iī quī audiunt**, *those who hear, hearers;* **hominēs quī nunc sunt**, *men of the present generation, our contemporaries;* **iī, quōs suprā dīxī**, *the above-mentioned persons:*

Polītus iīs artibus, quās quī tenent, ērudītī appellantur, *accomplished in those arts whose possessors are called learned;* C. Fin. 1, 7, 26.

7. **Quī dīcitur, quī vocātur**, or the corresponding active, **quem dīcunt, quem vocant**, etc., are often used in the sense of *so called, the so-called, what they* or *you call*, etc.:

Vestra, quae dīcitur, vīta mors est, *your so-called* (your which is called) *life is death.* Lēx ista, quam vocās, nōn est lēx, *that law, as you call it, is not a law;* C. Dom. 19, 50.

8. A Relative Clause is sometimes equivalent to the Ablative with **prō**. **Quae tua prūdentia est** = quā es prūdentiā = prō tuā prūdentiā means *such is your prudence*, or *in accordance with your prudence:*

Spērō, quae tua prūdentia est, tē valēre, *I hope you are well, such is your prudence* (which is, etc.); C. Att. 6, 9, 1.

9. The neuter **quod**, used as an adverbial Accusative, often stands at the beginning of a sentence or clause, especially before **sī, nī, nisi, etsī**, and sometimes before **quia, quoniam, utinam**, etc., to indicate a close connection with what precedes. In translating, it is sometimes best omitted, and sometimes best rendered by *now, in fact, but, and:*

Quod sī forte ceciderint, *but if, perchance, they should fall;* C. Am. 15, 53. Quod sī ego rescīvissem id prius, *now, if I had learned this sooner;* T. And. 258.

10. The neuter **quicquid**, of the general relative, accompanied by an adjective, a participle, or a Genitive, may be used of persons:

Mātrēs et quicquid tēcum invalidum est dēlige, *select the mothers and whatever feeble persons there are with you;* V. 5, 715.

11. The Relative Adverbs **quō, ubī**, and **unde** are sometimes used of persons, instead of relative pronouns with prepositions:

Apud eōs quō sē contulit, *among those to whom he betook himself.* Is unde tē audīsse dīcis, *he from whom you say that you heard it;* C. Or. 2, 70, 285.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

511. The Interrogatives **quis** and **quid** are generally used as substantives, *who? what person? what? what thing?* **Quī** and **quod** are generally used as adjectives, *what? of what kind, sort,* or *character?*

Quis clārior Themistocle, *who more illustrious than Themistocles?* Quis ego sum, *who am I?* Quid ego dīcō, *what am I saying?* Quī locus est, quod tempus, *what place is there? what time?* In quā urbe vīvimus, *in what sort of a city are we living?*

1. This distinction between **quis** and **quī, quid** and **quod**, was almost or quite unknown in early Latin, and it is not always observed even by Cicero:

Quis homō tē rapit, *what man is seizing you?* Pl. Rud. 870. **Quis** rēx umquam fuit, *what king was there ever?* C. Div. 1, 43, 95.

2. *Which* of two is generally expressed by **uter**. *Which one* of a larger number is expressed by **quis**:

Quaeritur, ex duōbus, uter dignior; ex plūribus, quis dignissimus; *of two, we ask, which is the more worthy; of a larger number, who is the most worthy;* Quint. 7, 4, 21.

3. Two Interrogatives sometimes occur in the same clause:

Quis quem fraudāvit, *who defrauded, and whom did he defraud* (who defrauded whom)? C. Rosc. C. 7, 21.

4. **Tantus** sometimes accompanies the Interrogative Pronoun:

Quī tantus fuit labor, *what so great labor was there?* C. Dom. 11, 27.

5. **Quid**, *why? how is that?* is often used adverbially, or stands apparently unconnected: **quid enim**, *why then? what then? what indeed?* **quid ita**, *why so?* **quid quod**, *what of the fact that?* **quid sī**, *what if?*

Loquere, quid vēnistī, *say, why have you come?* Quid? nōnne respondēbis, *what? will you not reply?* Quid quod dēlectantur, *what of the fact that they are delighted?* C. Fin. 5, 19, 52.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

512. **Quis, ali-quis, quis-piam,** and **quī-dam** may be conveniently grouped together. Of these, **quis**, *any one,* is the most indefinite, and **quīdam**, *a certain one,* the least indefinite, while **aliquis** and **quispiam**, *some one,* not distinguished from each other in meaning, are less indefinite than **quis**, but more so than **quīdam**:

Sī qua cīvitās fēcisset aliquid ēius modī, *if any state had done anything of this kind.* Num quid vīs aliud, *do you wish anything else?* Pōnere iubēbam, dē quō quis audīre vellet, *I asked any one to name the subject about which he* (any one) *might wish to hear;* C. Tusc. 1, 4, 7. Forsitan aliquis ēius modī quippiam fēcerit, *perhaps some one may have done something of the kind.* Est aliquod nūmen, *there is a divinity.* Accurrit quīdam, nōtus mihī nōmine tantum, *a certain one runs up, known to me only by name;* H. S. 1, 9, 8.

1. **Quis** as a substantive, and **quī** as an adjective, are used chiefly after **sī, nisi, nē, num**, and in Relative clauses; see the first three examples above. They sometimes stand in the relative clause, even when logically they seem to belong to the antecedent clause, as in the third example.

2. Most of the forms of **aliquis** may be used either as nouns or as adjectives, but **aliquid** is a noun, and **aliquod** an adjective. **Aliquis** and **aliquī** sometimes mean some person or thing of importance, note, or value:

Audē aliquid, sī vīs esse aliquis, *dare something, if you wish to be anybody;* Iuv. 1, 73.

3. **Aliquis** seems at times to mean *many a one:*

Dīxerat aliquis sententiam, *many a one had expressed his opinion;* Caes. C. 1, 2.

4. **Aliquis** is sometimes used with numerals to denote an approximate number, chiefly in familiar Latin:

Aliquōs vīgintī diēs, *some twenty days.*

5. **Quīdam**, with an adjective, is sometimes used to qualify or soften the statement:

Est glōria solida quaedam rēs, *glory is a somewhat substantial thing.*

6. **Quīdam** with **quasi** has the force of *a certain, a kind of, as it were:*

Quasi quaedam Sōcratica medicīna, *a kind of Socratic medicine, as it were.*

7. **Nesciō quis** and **nesciō quī** often supply the place of indefinite pronouns, especially in poetry:

Hīc nesciō quis loquitur, *here some one* (I know not who) *speaks.*

513. **Quis-quam**, *any one whatever*, is more general in its meaning than the simple **quis**, *any one.* This pronoun and the pronominal adjective **ūllus** are used chiefly in negative and conditional sentences, and in interrogative sentences, implying a negative:

Neque mē quisquam ibī āgnōvit, *and no one whatever recognized me there;* C. Tusc. 5, 86, 104. Num cēnsēs ūllum animal sine corde esse posse, *do you think that any animal can be without a heart?*

1. **Nēmō** is the negative of **quisquam**, and like **quisquam** is generally used as a noun, though with the designations of persons it may be used as an adjective:

Aut nēmō aut Catō sapiēns fuit, *either no one or Cato was wise.* Nēminem cōgnōvī poētam, *I have known no poet;* C. Tusc. 5, 22.

2. **Nūllus**, the negative of **ūllus**, is generally used as an adjective, though it regularly supplies the Genitive and Ablative of **nēmō**:

Nūlla aptior persōna, *no more suitable person.* Nēminem laesit; nūllīus aurīs violāvit, *he has injured no one; he has shocked no one's ears;* C. Mur. 40, 87.

3. **Nūllus** and **nihil** are sometimes used for an emphatic **nōn**:

Philotīmus nūllus vēnit, *Philotimus did not come;* C. Att. 11, 24.

GENERAL INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

514. **Quīvīs** and **quīlibet** mean, *any one you wish, any one you please, any one whatever;* **quisque**, *every one, each one:*

Quīvīs hērēs pecūniam potuit auferre, *any heir whatever might take the money.* Quidlibet faciat, *let him do what he likes.* Quod quisque dīxit, *what every one said.*

515. **Quisque** is very freely used in Latin, but chiefly as follows:

1. After Reflexive, Relative, and Interrogative Pronouns:

Ipse sē quisque dīligit, *every one loves himself.* Dēfendat quod quisque sentit, *let every one defend his convictions* (what he thinks). Interest quōs quisque audiat, *it makes a difference whom each one hears;* C. Brut. 58, 210.

2. After Superlatives and Ordinals, where it is generally best rendered by *all*, *every;* with **prīmus** by *very, possible:*

Epicūrēōs doctissimus quisque contemnit, *all the most learned despise the Epicureans.* Quīntō quōque annō, *every four years* (every fifth year). Prīmō quōque tempore, *at the earliest possible opportunity, the very first.*

3. After **ūnus**, as in **ūnus quisque**, *every one, every person:*

Ego nōvī et ūnus quisque vestrum, *I know and every one of you knows.*

4. Observe that in all these examples, **quisque** follows the word with which it is associated. This is the usual order, but the reflexive often follows in poetry, and sometimes even in classical prose:

Quod est cūiusque māximē suum, *which is especially one's own;* C. Off. 1, 31.

5. **Ut quisque . . . ita** with the superlative in both clauses is often best rendered, *the more . . . the more:*

Ut quisque sibī plūrimum cōnfīdit, ita māximē excellit, *the more confidence one has in one's self, the more one excels;* C. Am. 9, 30.

6. **Quotus quisque** means, *how rarely one, how few:*

Quotus quisque disertus est, *how rarely is one eloquent*, or *how few are eloquent?* C. Planc. 25, 62.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES

516. **Alius** means *another, other;* **alter,** *the one, the other* (of two), *the second, a second.* They are often repeated: **alius . . . alius,** *one . . . another;* **aliī . . . aliī,** *some . . . others;* **alter . . . alter,** *the one . . . the other;* **alterī . . . alterī,** *the one party . . . the other:*

Aliud est male dīcere, aliud accūsāre, *it is one thing to revile, another to accuse.* Aliī glōriae serviunt, aliī pecūniae, *some are slaves to glory, others to money.* Altera (fīlia) occīsa, altera capta est, *one daughter was slain, the other captured;* Caes. 1, 53. Hamilcar, Mārs alter, *Hamilcar, a second Mars;* L. 21, 10, 8. Alterī dīmicant, alterī timent, *one party fights, the other fears.*

1. **Alius** and **alter** repeated in different cases, or combined with **aliās** or **aliter,** form various idiomatic expressions, which, if judged by the English standard, would seem to be elliptical:

Alius alium domōs suās invītant, *they invite one another to their homes;* S. 66, 3. Aliter aliī vīvunt, *some live in one way, others in another;* C. ad Brut. 1, 13. Illī aliās aliud sentiunt, *they entertain one opinion at one time, another at another;* C. Or. 2, 7.

2. The derivative adverbs, **aliās** and **aliter,** are sometimes repeated as correlatives, **aliās . . . aliās,** *at one time . . . at another time,* **aliter . . . aliter,** *in one way . . . in another way:*

Aliās beātus est, aliās miser, *at one time he is happy, at another, unhappy;* cf. C. Fin. 2, 27, 87.

3. After **alius, aliter,** and the like, **atque, ac,** and **et** often mean *than,* and **nisi,** *than* or *except:*

Nōn alius essem atque nunc sum, *I would not be other than I am;* C. Fam. 1, 9, 21. Nihil aliud nisi pāx quaesīta vidētur, *nothing except* (other than) *peace seems to have been sought;* cf. C. Off. 1, 23, 80.

4. **Uterque** means *both, each of two.* In the plural it generally means *both, each of two parties,* but sometimes *both, each of two persons or things;* regularly so with nouns which are plural in form but singular in sense:

Uterque, māter et pater, domī erant, *both, mother and father, were at home.* Utrīque victōriam crūdēliter exercēbant, *both parties made a cruel use of victory.* Ē castrīs utrīsque, *out of both camps.*

5. **Uterque** standing in two different cases may mean *one . . . the other* or *one another: each . . . the other:*

Cum uterque utrīque esset in cōnspectū, *since they were in sight of one another;* Caes. 7, 35.

SYNTAX OF VERBS

USE OF VOICES, NUMBERS, AND PERSONS

517. The Voices in Latin correspond in their general meaning and use to the Active and Passive Voices in English, but originally the Passive Voice had a reflexive meaning, like the Greek Middle, and was equivalent to the Active with a reflexive pronoun, a meaning which is still retained in a few verbs, especially in poetry:

Lavantur in flūminibus, *they bathe* (wash themselves) *in the rivers;* Caes. 4, 1. Carne vescēbantur, *they lived upon* (fed themselves with) *flesh;* S. 89. Galeam induitur, *he puts on his helmet;* V. 2, 392. Capita vēlāmur, *we veil our heads;* V. 3, 545.

518. Passive Construction. — With transitive verbs, a thought may at the pleasure of the writer be expressed either actively or passively:

Deus mundum aedificāvit, *God made* (built) *the world.* Ā deō mundus aedificātus est, *the world was made by God.*

1. Intransitive verbs have regularly only the active voice, but they are sometimes used impersonally in the third person singular of the passive:

Curritur ad praetōrium, *they run to the praetorium* (there is running); C. Ver. 5, 35, 92. Mihī cum iīs vīvendum est quōs vīcī, *I must live with those whom I have conquered;* C. C. 3, 12.

2. Some verbs, otherwise intransitive, occasionally form a personal passive in poetry:

Ego cūr, adquīrere pauca sī possum, invideor, *why am I envied if I am able to add a few words?* H. A. P. 55. Nunc tertia vīvitur aetās, *I am now living in the third age* (the third age is being lived); O. M. 12, 188.

3. Deponent Verbs have in general the forms of the Passive Voice with the meaning of the Active, or Middle. They have, however, certain forms of the Active; see **222**:

Hōc mīrābar, *I wondered at this.* Plūrimīs rēbus fruimur, *we enjoy* (delight ourselves with) *many things.*

4. For Semi-Deponent Verbs, see **224.**

PERSON AND NUMBER

519. In Latin an individual is regularly addressed in the singular, but the writer, or speaker, often refers to himself in the plural; see **500**, 2:

Sīc rārō scrībis, *you write so seldom.* Dē cēterīs saepe dīcēmus, *I shall often speak of the other things;* C. Sen. 1, 3.

1. For the Use of Voice, Number, and Person in Designating a General or Indefinite Subject, *you, we, people in general*, see **388**, 3.

DISTINCTION BETWEEN THE THREE FINITE MOODS

520. The Indicative Mood, alike in present, past, and future time, represents the action of the verb as an actual fact:

Glōria virtūtem sequitur, *glory follows merit.* Quoniam dē genere bellī dīxī, nunc dē māgnitūdine dīcam, *since I have spoken of the character of the war, I shall now speak of its magnitude.*

521. The Subjunctive Mood represents the action of the verb, as Possible, as Desired, or as Willed:

Forsitan quaerātis, *perhaps you may inquire;* C. Rosc. A. 2, 5. Valeant cīvēs meī, *may my fellow citizens be well.* Suum quisque nōscat ingenium, *let every one learn to know his own character;* C. Off. 1, 31, 114.

522. The Imperative Mood, like the Subjunctive, represents the action as willed or desired, but it is used almost exclusively in Commands and Prohibitions. Accordingly, in these the Imperative and Subjunctive supplement each other; see **560**:

Valētūdinem tuam cūrā, *take care of your health.* Salūs populī suprēma lēx estō, *the safety of the people shall be* (let it be) *the supreme law;* C. Leg. 3, 3. Nōlī imitārī malōs medicōs, *do not imitate incompetent physicians;* C. Fam. 4, 5, 5.

USE OF THE INDICATIVE

523. Rule.—The Indicative is used in treating of facts:

Rōmulus septem et trīgintā rēgnāvit annōs, *Romulus reigned thirty-seven years.* Nōnne nōbilitārī volunt, *do they not wish to be renowned?* Sī haec cīvitās est, *if this is a state.*

1. The Indicative thus treats of facts, not only in the form of statements, as in the first example, but also in the form of questions, as in the second, and of conditions or assumptions, as in the third.

524. The Indicative, though more common in Principal Clauses, is also used in Subordinate Clauses, but only in treating of Facts. Thus

1. In Relative Clauses:

Hominēs id, quod volunt, crēdunt, *men believe that which they wish.*

For the Subjunctive in Relative Clauses, see **589.**

2. In Conditional Clauses:

Sī haec cīvitās est, *if this is a state.*

For the Subjunctive in Conditional Sentences, see **573.**

3. In Adversative and Concessive Clauses:

Quamquam festīnās, nōn est mora longa, *although you are in haste, the delay is not long.*

For the Subjunctive in Adversative and Concessive Clauses, see **586.**

4. In Causal Clauses:

Quoniam supplicātiō dēcrēta est, *since a thanksgiving has been decreed.*

For the Subjunctive in Causal Clauses, see **598.**

5. In Temporal Clauses:

Cum quiēscunt, probant, *while they are silent, they approve.*

For the Subjunctive in Temporal Clauses, see **600.**

525. Special Uses. — Notice the following special uses of the Indicative, apparently somewhat at variance with the English idiom:

1. In expressions of Duty, Propriety, Ability, and the like; hence in the Periphrastic Conjugations, especially in conditional sentences:

Eum contumēliīs onerāstī, quem colere dēbēbās,[1] *you have loaded with insults one whom you ought to have revered;* C. Phil. 2, 38. Nōn suscipī bellum oportuit,[1] *the war should not have been undertaken;* L. 5, 4. Multōs possum[1] bonōs virōs nōmināre, *I might name* (I am able to name) *many good men;* C. Tusc. 2, 19. Relictūrī agrōs erant,[1] nisi litterās mīsisset, *they*

[1] In these examples, the peculiarity in the use of the Indicative is only apparent. Here, as elsewhere, it deals only with facts. Thus, **quem colere dēbēbās,** *whom it was your duty, in fact, to revere;* **oportuit,** *it was actually proper that the war should not be undertaken;* **possum,** *I am able,* etc.; **relictūrī erant,** *they were about to leave,* or *on the point of leaving.*

would have left their lands if he had not sent a letter; C. Ver. 2, 52. Haec condiciō nōn accipienda fuit, *this condition should not have been accepted.*

2. The Indicative of the verb **sum** is often used with **longum, aequum, aequius, difficile, iūstum, melius, pār, ūtilius,** etc., in such expressions as **longum est,** *it would be tedious;* **melius erat,** *it would have been better:*

Longum est omnia ēnumerāre proelia, *it would be tedious* (it is a long task) *to enumerate all the battles;* N. 23, 5. Melius fuerat, prōmissum nōn esse servātum, *it would have been better* (it had been better) *that the promise should not have been kept;* C. Off. 3, 25.

3. Pronouns and Relative Adverbs, made general by being doubled, or by assuming the suffix **cumque,** and the Conjunctions **sīve . . . sīve,** take the Indicative:

Quisquis est, is est sapiēns, *whoever he may be* (is), *he is wise;* C. Tusc. 4,17. Hōc ultimum, utcumque initum est, proelium fuit, *this, however it may have been begun, was the last battle;* L. 26, 6. Veniet tempus, sīve retrāctābis, sīve properābis, *the time will come whether you may be reluctant or in haste;* C. Tusc. 1, 81, 76.

4. The Historical Tenses of the Indicative, particularly the Pluperfect, are sometimes used for effect, to represent, as an actual fact, something which is shown by the context never to have become fully so:

Vīcerāmus, nisi recēpisset Antōnium, *we should have* (we had) *conquered, had he not received Antony.*

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE

526. The Latin, like the English, distinguishes three periods of time, Present, Past, and Future: **legō,** *I am reading;* **legēbam,** *I was reading;* **legam,** *I shall be reading.*

527. In each of the three periods of time, Present, Past, and Future, an action may be represented in three different ways. It may be Incomplete, Completed, or Indefinite. An action is said to be Indefinite when it is viewed in its simple occurrence without reference to duration or completion.

528. The Latin has special forms for Incomplete and Completed action, but it has no special forms for Indefinite action, as is shown in the following:

529. TABLE OF TENSES

TIME	ACTION		
	Incomplete	**Completed**	**Indefinite**
Present	Pres. **legō**, *I am reading*	Perf. **lēgī**, *I have read*	Pres. **legō**, *I read*
Past	Imperf. **legēbam**, *I was reading*	Pluperf. **lēgeram**, *I had read*	Hist. perf. **lēgī**, *I read*
Future	Fut. **legam**, *I shall be reading*	Fut. perf. **lēgerō**, *I shall have read*	Fut. **legam**, *I shall read*

1. In this table, observe that Indefinite action for Present and Future time is denoted by the Present and Future tenses, and for Past time by the Historical Perfect.

NOTE. — Observe that the Present and Future may denote either Incomplete action, *I am reading*, *I shall be reading*, or Indefinite action, *I read*, *I shall read;* and the Perfect, either Completed action in Present time, *I have read*, or Indefinite action in Past time, *I read.*

530. All the tenses for Incomplete action, the Present, Imperfect, and Future, may denote an attempted or intended action:

Virtūtem accendit, *he tries to kindle their valor.* Sēdābant tumultūs, *they were trying to quell the seditions.* Expōnam cōnsilium, *I shall attempt to explain my plan.*

531. In the Periphrastic Conjugation, the tenses of the verb **sum** preserve their usual force, and the meaning of any periphrastic form is readily obtained by combining the proper meaning of the participle with that of the tense. Thus the Present of the Active Periphrastic Conjugation denotes a present intention, or an action about to take place, and the Perfect, a past intention, or an action which was about to take place; the Present of the Passive Periphrastic denotes a present necessity or duty, and the Perfect, a past necessity:

Bellum scrīptūrus sum, *I am about to write the history of the war.* Quid futūrum fuit, *what would have been* (was about to be) *the result?* Ea facienda sunt, *those things ought to be* (must be) *done.* Haec condiciō nōn accipienda fuit, *this condition should not have been* (was not one that ought to be) *accepted;* C. Att. 8, 8, 8.

I. Present Indicative

532. The Present Indicative represents the action of the verb as taking place at the present time. It is used

1. Of actions and events which are actually taking place at the present time:

Ego et Cicerō valēmus, *Cicero and I are well.*

2. Of actions and events which belong to all time, as, for instance, of general truths and customs:

Nihil est virtūte amābilius, *nothing is more lovely than virtue;* C. Am. 8, 28. Fortēs fortūna adiuvat, *fortune helps the brave;* T. Ph. 203.

3. Of past actions and events which the writer, transferring himself to the past, represents as taking place before his eyes. It is then called the Historical Present, and is generally best rendered by a past tense, as the Historical Present is much more common in Latin than in English:

Duās ibī legiōnēs cōnscrībit, *he there enrolled two legions.* Caes. 1, 10. Vāllō moenia circumdat, *he surrounded the city with a rampart.*

533. **Special Uses.** — 1. The Present is often used of a present action which has been going on for some time, especially after **iam diū, iam dūdum**, etc.:

Iam diū īgnōrō quid agās, *I have not known for a long time how you are;* C. Fam. 7, 9.

2. The Present is sometimes used of an action really Future, especially in animated discourse and in conditions:

Quam prēndimus arcem, *what stronghold do we seize,* or *are we to seize?* V. 2, 322. Sī vincimus, omnia tūta erunt, *if we conquer, all things will be well;* S. C. 58, 9.

3. The Present in Latin, as in English, may be used of authors whose works are extant:

Xenophōn facit Sōcratem disputantem, *Xenophon represents Socrates as discussing;* C. N. D. 1, 12, 31.

4. With **dum**, *while*, the Historical Present is generally used, but with **dum** meaning *as long as*, each tense has its usual force:

Dum haec geruntur, Caesarī nūntiātum est, *while these things were taking place, it was announced to Caesar;* Caes. 1, 46. Vīxit, dum vīxit, bene, *he lived well as long as he lived;* T. Hec. 461.

II. Imperfect Indicative

534. The Imperfect Indicative represents the action as taking place in past time. It is used

1. Of actions going on at the time of other past actions:

An tū erās cōnsul, cum mea domus ārdēbat, *or were you consul when my house was burning?* C. Pis. 11, 26.

2. In lively descriptions of scenes, or events:

Ante oppidum plānitiēs patēbat, *before the town extended a plain.* Fulgentēs gladiōs vidēbant, *they saw the gleaming swords;* C. Tusc. 2, 24, 59.

3. Of Customary or Repeated actions and events, often best rendered *was wont*, etc.:

Epulābātur mōre Persārum, *he was wont to banquet in the Persian style.*

535. **Special Uses.** — 1. The Imperfect is often used of a past action which had been going on for some time, especially with **iam, iam diū, iam dūdum**, etc.[1]:

Domicilium Rōmae multōs iam annōs habēbat, *he had already for many years had his residence at Rome;* cf. C. Arch. 4, 7.

2. The Latin sometimes uses the Imperfect, where the English idiom requires the Present[2]:

Pāstum animantibus nātūra eum, quī cuique aptus erat, comparāvit, *nature has prepared for animals that food which is adapted to each.*

3. For the Imperfect of an Attempted Action, see **530.**
4. For the Imperfect in letters, see **539**, 1.
5. For the Descriptive Imperfect in Narration, see **538, 2.**

III. Future Indicative

536. The Future Indicative represents the action as one which will take place in future time:

Scrībam ad tē, *I shall write to you.* Numquam aberrābimus, *we shall never go astray.*

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[1] Observe that the peculiarities of the Present reappear in the Imperfect. This arises from the fact that these two tenses are precisely alike in representing the action in its progress, and that they differ only in time. The one views the action in the present, the other transfers it to the past.

[2] This occurs occasionally in the statement of general truths and in the description of natural scenes, but in such cases the truth, or the scene, is viewed not from the present, as in English, but from the past.

1. The Future, like the Present, is sometimes used of General Truths and Customs:

Nātūram sī sequēmur, numquam aberrābimus, *if we follow* (shall follow) *nature, we shall never go astray.*

2. In Latin, as in English, the Future Indicative sometimes has the force of an Imperative:

Cūrābis et scrībēs, *you will take care and write.*

IV. Perfect Indicative

537. The Perfect Indicative performs the duties of two tenses, originally distinct.

1. As the Present Perfect or Perfect Definite, it represents the action as at present completed, and is rendered by our Perfect with *have:*

Dē genere bellī dīxī, *I have spoken of the character of the war.*

2. As the Historical Perfect or Perfect Indefinite, corresponding to the Greek Aorist, it represents the action simply as an historical fact:

Accūsātus est prōditiōnis, *he was accused of treason.*

538. **Special Uses.** — 1. The Perfect is sometimes used to contrast the past with the present, implying that what *has been* or *was true* in the past *is not true* at present. This is especially common with compound Passive forms with **fuī**:

Habuit, nōn habet, *he had, but he has not;* C. Tusc. 1, 36. Fuit Īlium, *Ilium has been,* or *was;* V. 2, 325. Bis Iānus clausus fuit, *Janus has been twice closed;* L. 1, 19.

2. In Animated Narrative the Perfect usually narrates the leading events, and the Imperfect describes the attendant circumstances:

Cultum mūtāvit, veste Mēdicā ūtēbātur, epulābātur mōre Persārum, *he changed his mode of life, used the Median dress, and feasted in the Persian style;* N. 4, 3, 1.

3. Conjunctions meaning *as soon as, after,* — **ubĭ, simul atque, postquam, posteāquam,** etc., — when used of past actions, are generally followed by the Perfect or by the Historical Present. The Pluperfect is sometimes used, especially to denote the Result of a Completed action:

Ubī certiōrēs factī sunt, *as soon as they were informed;* Caes. 1, 7. Simul atque intrōductus est, *as soon as he was introduced.* Posteāquam in Formiānō sum, *as soon as I am in my Formian villa.* Simul atque in oppidum vēnerat, *as soon as he had come into a town;* C. Ver. 4, 21, 47.

4. Many Latin Perfects may denote either a completed action or the Present Result of that action. Thus **cōgnōvī** may mean either *I have learned* or *I know;* **cōnsuēvī**, *I have accustomed myself* or *I am wont;* **doctus sum**, *I have been taught* or *I am learned.* In this and similar cases the Participle practically becomes an Adjective. In a few of these verbs the second meaning has mostly supplanted the first, so that the Perfect seems to have the time of the Present, the Pluperfect that of the Imperfect, and the Future Perfect that of the Future:

Nōvī omnem rem, *I know the whole thing.* Meminit praeteritōrum, *he remembers the past.*[1] Memineram Paullum, *I remembered Paullus.* Fuit doctus ex dīsciplīna Stoicōrum, *he was instructed in* (out of) *the learning of the Stoics;* C. Brut. 25, 94.

5. The Perfect is sometimes used of General Truths, Repeated Actions, and Customs. It is then called the Gnomic Perfect[2]; and if it is used in a Subordinate clause, the Present is generally retained in the Principal clause, though in Poetry and Late Prose the Perfect sometimes occurs:

Pecūniam nēmō sapiēns concupīvit, *no wise man too eagerly desires* (has desired) *money;* S. C. 11, 3. Omnia sunt incerta, cum ā iūre discessum est, *all things are uncertain, whenever one departs from the right;* C. Fam. 9, 16. Omne tulit pūnctum quī mīscuit ūtile dulcī, *he wins* (has won) *every vote who combines the useful with the agreeable;* H. A. P. 343.

6. The Perfect with **paene, prope,** may often be rendered by *might, would,* or by the Pluperfect Indicative:

Brūtum nōn minus amō, paene dīxī, quam tē, *I love Brutus not less, I might almost say, than I love you;* C. Att. 5, 20.

7. For the Perfect in letters, see **539, 1.**

V. Pluperfect Indicative

539. The Pluperfect Indicative represents the action as completed at the time of some other past action, either already mentioned or to be mentioned in a subsequent clause:

Pyrrhī temporibus iam Apollō versūs facere dēsierat, *in the time of Pyrrhus, Apollo had already ceased to make verses.* Cōpiās quās prō oppidō collocāverat, in oppidum recipit, *he received into the town the forces which he had stationed in front of the town.*

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[1] Literally *has recalled,* and so *remembers,* as the result of the act. The Latin presents the completed act; the English, the result.

[2] This use of the Latin Perfect corresponds to the Gnomic Aorist in Greek.

1. In letters the writer often adapts the tense to the time of the reader, using the Imperfect or Perfect of present actions and events, and the Pluperfect of those which are past. This change — which is by no means uniformly made, but is subject to the pleasure of the writer — is most common near the beginning and the end of letters:

Nihil habēbam quod scrīberem; ad tuās omnēs rescrīpseram prīdiē, *I have* (had) *nothing to write; I replied to all your letters yesterday;* C. Att. 9, 10. Prīdiē Īdūs haec scrīpsī; eō diē apud Pompōnium eram cēnātūrus,[1] *I write this on the day before the Ides; I am going to dine to-day with Pomponius;* C. Q. Fr. 2, 3, 7.

Note. — Observe that the adverbs and the adverbial expressions are also adapted to the time of the reader. **Herī**, *yesterday*, becomes to the reader **prīdiē**, *the day before*, i.e. the day before the writing of the latter. In the same way **hodiē**, *to-day, this day*, becomes to the reader **eō diē**, *that day.*

2. The Pluperfect after **cum**, **sī**, etc., is often used of Repeated Actions, General Truths, and Customs:

Cum quaepiam cohors impetum fēcerat, hostēs refugiēbant, *whenever any cohort made* (had made) *an attack, the enemy retreated;* Caes. 5, 35.

3. The Pluperfect may state what had been true at some previous past time, implying that it was no longer true at the time of the writer. This is especially common with compound Passive forms with **fueram**:

Pōns, quī fuerat interruptus, paene erat refectus,[2] *the bridge which had been broken down was* (had been) *almost repaired.*

4. For the special use of the Pluperfect in general, see **525**, 4.

5. For the Pluperfect of Special verbs, see **538**, 4.

VI. Future Perfect Indicative

540. The Future Perfect Indicative represents the action as one which will be completed at some future time:

Rōmam cum vēnerō, quae perspexerō, scrībam ad tē, *when I reach* (shall have reached) *Rome, I shall write you what I have* (shall have) *ascertained;* C. Q. Fr. 3, 7. Ut sēmentem fēcerīs, ita metēs, *as you sow* (shall have made the sowing), *so shall you reap;* C. Or. 2, 65, 261. Plūra scrībam, sī plūs ōtiī habuerō, *I shall write more if I have* (shall have had) *more leisure;* C. Fam. 10, 28.

[1] The Imperfect of the Periphrastic Conjugation is sometimes thus used of future events which are expected to happen before the receipt of the letter. Events which will be future to the reader as well as to the writer must be expressed by the Future.

[2] Observe that it was no longer a broken (interruptus) bridge, as it had been repaired (refectus).

1. The Future Perfect is sometimes used to denote the Complete Accomplishment of the work:

Ego meum officium praestiterō, *I shall discharge* (shall have discharged) *my duty;* Caes. 4, 25.

2. The examples here given of the Future Perfect, together with those of the Future under **536**, illustrate the fact that the Latin is very exact in expressing future time and completed action, while the English, in subordinate clauses, and especially in conditional clauses, often disregards both.

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

541. The four tenses of the Subjunctive perform the duties of the six tenses of the Indicative, and are, accordingly, used as follows:

1. They have in general the same temporal meaning as the corresponding tenses of the Indicative:

Sunt quī dīcant, *there are some who say;* S. C. 19. Fuēre quī crēderent, *there were some who believed;* S. C. 17. Oblītus es quid dīxerim, *you have forgotten what I said;* C. N. D. 2, 1, 2. Caesarī cum id nūntiātum esset, *when this had been announced to Caesar;* Caes. 1, 7.

2. In addition to this general use, these four tenses supply the place of the Future and of the Future Perfect, the Present and the Imperfect supplying the place of the Future; the Perfect and the Pluperfect, that of the Future Perfect, but chiefly in subordinate clauses denoting relative time, though the Present, even in principal clauses, often embraces both present and future time:

Erit tempus cum dēsīderēs, *the time will come when you will desire;* C. Mil. 26, 69. Loquēbantur, etiam cum vellet Caesar, sēsē nōn esse pūgnātūrōs, *they were saying that they would not fight even when Caesar should wish it;* Caes. C. 1, 72. Egestātem suam sē lātūrum putat, sī hāc suspiciōne līberātus sit, *he thinks he will bear his poverty if he shall have been freed from this suspicion;* C. Rosc. A. 44. Dīcēbam, simul ac timēre dēsīssēs, similem tē futūrum tuī, *I was saying that as soon as you should cease* (shall have ceased) *to fear, you would be like yourself;* C. Phil. 2, 35.

NOTE 1. — But the place of the Future may be supplied by the Present and Imperfect of the active Periphrastic Conjugation, and is generally so supplied when the idea of future time is emphatic; see Table of Subjunctive Tenses, **544**.

NOTE 2. — In the passive, the place of the Future Perfect is sometimes supplied by **futūrus sim** and **futūrus essem** with the Perfect Participle:

Nōn dubitō quīn cōnfecta iam rēs futūra sit, *I do not doubt that the thing will have been already accomplished;* C. Fam. 6, 12, 3.

3. By a transfer of tenses, the Imperfect Subjunctive, in Conditional Sentences and in expressions of Wish, refers to Present time, and the Pluperfect to Past time:

Plūra scrīberem, sī possem, *I would write more* (i.e. now) *if I were able* (but I am not); C. Att. 8, 15, 3. Sī voluisset, dīmicāsset, *if he had wished, he would have fought;* N. 23, 8, 3.

DISTINCTION BETWEEN ABSOLUTE AND RELATIVE TIME

542. The time of an action is said to be Absolute when it has no reference to the time of any other action, but it is said to be Relative when it indicates the Temporal Relation that the action sustains to some other action. Thus, in independent clauses, the Present, Perfect, and Future express absolute time, but in dependent clauses, the Imperfect and Pluperfect, and sometimes other tenses, express relative time:

Hasdrubal tum, cum haec gerēbantur, apud Syphācem erat, *Hasdrubal, at the time when these things were taking place, was with Syphax;* L. 29, 31.

Here **gerēbantur** denotes relative time, action going on at the time of **erat**, — Contemporaneous Action.

Cōpiās quās prō oppidō collocāverat, in oppidum recēpit, *he received into the town the forces which he had stationed before it;* Caes. 7, 71.

Here **collocāverat** denotes relative time, action completed at the time of **recēpit**, — Prior Action.

Cupiō scīre ubī sīs hiemātūrus, *I desire to know where you will spend the winter;* C. Fam. 7, 9.

Here **sīs hiemātūrus** denotes relative time, action about to take place, but still future at the time of **cupiō**, — Subsequent Action.

543. In Dependent clauses, the tenses of the Subjunctive generally denote relative time, and they may represent the action of the verb as going on at the time of the principal verb, Contemporaneous action; as completed at that time, Prior action; or, as about to take place, Subsequent action. Moreover, they conform to the following rule for

SEQUENCE OF TENSES

Rule. — Principal tenses depend on Principal tenses, and Historical on Historical:

Quālis sit animus, animus nescit, *the soul knows not what the soul is;* C. Tusc. 1, 22, 53. Quaerāmus quae vitia fuerint, *let us inquire what the faults were;* C. Rosc. A. 14, 41. Rogāvit essentne fūsī hostēs, *he asked whether the enemy had been routed;* C. Fin. 2, 30, 97.

544. TABLE OF SUBJUNCTIVE TENSES

INDEPENDENT CLAUSE	DEPENDENT CLAUSE		
	Contemporaneous Action	**Prior Action**	**Subsequent Action**
PRINCIPAL TENSES			
Quaerō **Quaeram** **Quaesierō**	**quid faciās**	**quid fēceris**	**quid faciās** **quid factūrus sīs**
I ask *I shall ask* *I shall have asked*	*what you are doing*	*what you have done*	*what you will do*
HISTORICAL TENSES			
Quaerēbam **Quaesīvī** **Quaesieram**	**quid facerēs**	**quid fēcissēs**	**quid facerēs** **quid factūrus essēs**
I was asking *I asked* *I had asked*	*what you were doing*	*what you had done*	*what you would do*

545. In this table, observe:

I. That the Subjunctive dependent on a Principal Tense is put:

1. In the Present, to denote Incomplete, or Contemporaneous, action.
2. In the Perfect, to denote Completed, or Prior, action, and
3. In the Present, either of the simple, or the periphrastic, form, to denote Future, or Subsequent, action:

Quaeritur cūr dissentiant, *the question is asked why they disagree.* Nēmō erit quī cēnseat, *there will be no one who will think.* Nōn dubitārī dēbet, quīn fuerint ante Homērum poētae, *it ought not to be doubted that there were poets before Homer;* C. Brut. 18. Quid diēs ferat incertum est, *what a day will bring forth is uncertain.* Incertum est, quam longa vīta futūra sit, *it is uncertain how long life will continue;* C. Ver. 1, 58.

II. That the Subjunctive dependent on an Historical Tense is put

1. In the Imperfect, to denote Incomplete, or Contemporaneous, action.
2. In the Pluperfect, to denote Completed, or Prior, action; and
3. In the Imperfect, either of the simple, or of the periphrastic form, to denote Future, or Subsequent, action:

Quaesīvit, salvusne esset clipeus, *he asked whether his shield was safe;* C. Fin. 2, 30, 97. Cum trīduī viam prōcessisset, nūntiātum est eī, *when he had advanced a three days' journey, it was announced to him.* Timēbam nē ēvenīrent ea, *I feared that those things would happen.* Incertum erat quō missūrī classem forent, *it was uncertain whither they would send the fleet;* L. 30, 2.

PECULIARITIES IN THE SEQUENCE OF TENSES

546. In the sequence of tenses the Perfect Indicative, the Historical Present, the Present used of authors, and the Historical Infinitive are generally Historical tenses, though sometimes used as Principal tenses:

Quoniam quae subsidia habērēs exposuī,[1] *since I have shown what aids you have;* Q. C. Pet. Cons. 4, 13. Oblītus es quid dīxerim, *you have forgotten what I said;* C. N. D. 2, 1, 2. Persuādet Casticō ut rēgnum occupāret, *he persuaded Casticus to seize the government;* Caes. 1, 3. Ubiī ōrant ut sibī parcat, *the Ubii implored him to spare them;* Caes. 6, 9.

547. The Imperfect Subjunctive, even when it refers to present time, as in conditional sentences, is generally treated as an Historical tense:

Sī probārem, quae ille dīceret, *if I approved what he says;* C. Fin. 1, 8, 27.

1. In the sequence of tenses the Perfect Subjunctive is generally a Principal tense, but in relation to another Subjunctive depending upon it it is generally Historical:

Quaerāmus quae vitia fuerint, quārē is patrī displicēret, *let us inquire what were the faults by which he displeased his father;* C. Rosc. A. 14, 41.

[1] Observe that **exposuī** and **persuādet** are treated as historical tenses, while **oblītus es** and **ōrant** are treated as principal tenses.

NOTE. — Here **fuerint** is a principal tense in relation to **quaerāmus**, but in relation to **displicēret** it is historical.

548. The Perfect Infinitive is generally treated as an Historical tense, but the Present and the Future Infinitive, the Present and the Future Participle, as also Gerunds and Supines, share the tense of the verb on which they depend, as they express only relative time:

Satis docuisse videor, hominis nātūra quantō anteīret animantēs, *I think I have sufficiently shown how much the nature of man surpasses* (that of) *the other animals;* C. N. D. 2, 61, 153. Spērō fore[1] ut contingat, *I hope it will happen;* C. Tusc. 1, 84. Nōn spērāverat fore ut ad sē dēficerent, *he had not hoped that they would revolt to him;* L. 28, 44. Mīsērunt Delphōs cōnsultum quidnam facerent, *they sent to Delphi to ask what they should do;* N. 2, 2.

549. Clauses containing a General Truth usually conform to the law for the sequence of tenses, at variance with the English idiom:

Quanta cōnscientiae vīs esset, ostendit, *he showed how great is the power of conscience;* C. C. 3, 5, 11.

550. In clauses denoting Result, or Consequence, the Subjunctive tenses have the ordinary temporal force of the corresponding tenses of the Indicative:

Atticus ita vīxit, ut Athēniēnsibus esset cārissimus, *he so lived that he was very dear to the Athenians;* N. 25, 2. Adeō excellēbat Aristīdēs abstinentiā, ut Iūstus sit appellātus, *Aristides so excelled in self-control, that he has been called the Just;* N. 3, 1.

1. Observe the temporal force of these Subjunctives: **esset**, *was*, result continuing in past time, the usual force of the Imperfect; **sit appellātus**, *has been called*, the usual force of the Present Perfect.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES

551. The Latin Subjunctive performs the duties of two moods originally distinct, the Subjunctive and the Optative. It comprises three varieties[2]:

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[1] Literally, *I hope it will be that it may happen.* Here **fore** shares the tense of **spērō**, and is accordingly followed by the Present, **contingat**; but below it shares the tense of **spērāverat**, and is followed by the Imperfect, **dēficerent**.

[2] The three varieties of the Latin Subjunctive were all inherited from the mother tongue — the Potential and the Optative from the original Optative, and the Volitive from the original Subjunctive.

I. Subjunctive of Possibility, or Potential Subjunctive, which represents the action as Possible; see **552**.

II. Subjunctive of Desire, or Optative Subjunctive, which represents the action as Desired; see **558**.

III. Subjunctive of Will, or Volitive Subjunctive, which represents the action as Willed; see **559**.

Potential Subjunctive

552. Rule. — The Potential Subjunctive is used to represent the action, not as real, but as Possible or Conditional. The negative is **nōn**:

Forsitan quaerātis, *perhaps you may inquire;* C. Rosc. A. 2. Forsitan aliquis quippiam fēcerit, *perhaps some one may have done something;* C. Ver. 2, 32, 78. Ita laudem inveniās, *thus you* (any one) *may* or *will win praise;* T. And. 65. Ubī sōcordiae tē trādiderīs, nēquīquam deōs implōrēs, *when you have given yourself up to sloth, you will implore the gods in vain;* S. C. 52, 29. Eum facile vītāre possīs, *you may easily avoid him;* C. Ver. 1, 15, 39. Hōc sine ūllā dubitātiōne cōnfīrmāverim, *this I should assert without any hesitation;* C. Brut. 6, 25.

553. In these examples observe that the Potential Subjunctive in its widest application includes two varieties:

1. The **Potential Subjunctive** in a strict sense is comparatively rare.

2. The **Conditional Subjunctive** represents the action as dependent on a condition, expressed or implied, but the condition is often so very vague and so fully implied in the mood itself, as in the last two examples, that there is no need of supplying it, even in thought, but when it is expressed, the two clauses form a regular conditional sentence; see **572, 573.**

554. On the use of Tenses, observe:

1. That the Present may be used of Incomplete actions either in Present or Future time: **quispiam dīcat**, *some one may say*, now or at any time; see also **541**, 2.

2. That the Perfect may be used of Completed actions either in Present time, as in the second example, or in Future time, as in the last example. When used of Future time, it may be compared with the special use of the Future Perfect described in **540**, 1. Like that it fixes the attention on the Completion or the Result of the action, and like that it is used especially in earnest and impassioned discourse.

3. That the Imperfect is sometimes used in its original meaning as a Past tense: **tum dīcerēs**, *you would then have said*, and sometimes in its later

transferred meaning to represent the statement as contrary to fact: **dīcerēs**, *you would say*. The latter is its regular meaning in conditional sentences; see **579**.

555. In simple sentences, the Potential Subjunctive is most common in the third person singular with an indefinite subject, as **aliquis, quispiam**, as in the second example under the rule, and in the second person singular of the Imperfect, used of an indefinite *you*, meaning *one, any one:*

Dīcerēs,	*you, any one, would say*, or *would have said*
Scīrēs,	*you, any one would know*, or *would have known*
Crēderēs, putārēs,	*you would have believed, would have thought*
Cernerēs, vidērēs,	*you would have perceived, would have seen*

Canēs vēnāticōs dīcerēs, *hunting dogs you would have called them;* C. Ver. 4, 18, 31. Maestī, crēderēs victōs, redeunt in castra, *sad, vanquished you would have thought them, they returned to camp;* L. 2, 48.

556. In the language of Politeness and Modesty, the Potential Subjunctive is often used in the first person of the Present and Imperfect of verbs of Wishing, as **velim**, *I should wish;* **nōlim**, *I should be unwilling;* **mālim**, *I should prefer;* **vellem**, *I should wish*, or *should have wished;* **nōllem**, *I should be unwilling*, or *should have been unwilling;* **māllem**, *I should prefer*, or *should have preferred:*

Sī quid habēs certius, velim scīre, *if you have any tidings, I should like to know it;* C. Att. 4, 10. Ego tē salvom vellem, *I should wish you safe;* Pl. Pseud. 309. Nōllem factum, *I should not have wished it done;* T. Ad. 165.

1. For the Subjunctive, with or without **ut**, dependent upon **velim**, or **vellem**, see **558, 4**; **565**.

557. Potential Questions. — The Potential Subjunctive is used in questions to ask, not what *is*, but what *is likely to be*, what *may be, would be*, or *should be:*

Quis dubitet, *who would doubt*, or *who doubts?* Cūr ego nōn laeter, *why should I not rejoice?* Cūr Cornēlium nōn dēfenderem, *why should I not have defended Cornelius?* C. Vat. 2, 5.

Optative Subjunctive

558. Rule. — The Optative Subjunctive is used to express pure Desire without any idea of authority, as in prayers and wishes. The negative is **nē**:

Sint incolumēs, sint flōrentēs, sint beātī, *may they be safe, may they be prosperous, may they be happy;* C. Mil. 84, 93. Stet haec urbs praeclāra, *may this illustrious city stand secure.* Id sit quod spērō, *may that which I hope take place.* Illud utinam nē scrīberem, *would that I were not writing this;* C. Fam. 5, 17, 3. Utinam omnēs servāre potuisset, *would that he had been able to save all;* C. Ph. 5, 14, 39.

1. **Force of Tenses.** — The Present implies that the wish may be fulfilled, as in the first three examples; the Imperfect and Pluperfect that it cannot be fulfilled, as in the last two examples.

NOTE. — In rare instances in early and familiar Latin the Perfect is used to emphasize the Completion of the action, as in **554, 2**:

Utinam haec mūta facta sit, *may she be* (have been made) *dumb;* T. And. 463.

2. **Utinam** is regularly used, with rare exceptions in poetry, with the Imperfect and Pluperfect, and sometimes with the Present.

3. The first person of the Optative Subjunctive is often found in earnest and solemn affirmations:

Nē sim salvus, sī aliter scrībō ac sentiō, *may I not be safe, if I write otherwise than as I think;* C. Att. 16, 13. Sollicitat, ita vīvam, mē, *as I live, it troubles me*[1]; C. Fam. 16, 20.

4. Wishes may also be introduced by **velim** and **vellem**:

Velim vērum sit, *I wish it may be true;* C. Att. 15, 4. Velim mihī īgnōscās, *I wish you would pardon me;* C. Fam. 13, 75. Vellem vērum fuisset, *I wish it had been true*[2]; C. Att. 15, 4.

5. In early Latin, wishes are sometimes introduced by **ut** and in poetry sometimes, though rarely, by **sī**, or **ō sī**:

Ut illum dī perdant, *would that the gods would destroy him;* T. Eun. 802. Sī nunc sē aureus rāmus ostendat, *would that* (if) *the golden branch would show itself;* V. 6, 187. Ō mihī praeteritōs referat sī Iuppiter annōs, *O if Jupiter would restore to me my past years;* V. 8, 560.

Subjunctive of Will, or Volitive Subjunctive

559. Rule. — The Volitive Subjunctive is used to represent the action, not as real but as Willed. The negative is

[1] Here **ita vīvam** means, *may I so live*, i.e. may I live only in case this statement, **sollicitat**, *it troubles me*, is true.

[2] Here **velim** and **sit** were originally independent Subjunctives, meaning *I should wish, may it be true*, the first Subjunctive being potential and the second optative, but subsequently the two verbs became so closely united in thought that **sit** became practically the object of **velim**, *I should wish* (what?) *that it may be true.* **Vellem fuisset** has had the same history.

nē. This Subjunctive covers a wide range of feeling and comprises the following varieties:

1. The Hortative Subjunctive, used in Exhortations, but only in the first person plural of the Present tense:

Amēmus patriam, cōnsulāmus bonīs, *let us love our country, let us consult for the good;* C. Sest. 68, 143. Nē difficilia optēmus, *let us not desire difficult things.*

2. The Imperative or Jussive Subjunctive, used chiefly in the third person and generally best rendered by *let;* but see **560**:

Dēsinant īnsidiārī domī suae cōnsulī, *let them cease to lie in wait for the consul in his own house;* C. C. 1, 13.

3. The Concessive Subjunctive, used in Admissions and Concessions:

Sit ista rēs māgna, *admit that that is* (let that be) *an important matter.* Nē sit summum malum dolor, *grant that pain may not be the greatest evil;* C. Tusc. 2, 5, 14. Age, sit ita factum, *well, admit that it took place thus;* C. Mil. 19, 49.

4. The Deliberative Subjunctive, used in Deliberative or Doubting Questions, implying that the speaker is in doubt in regard to the proper course to be pursued and that he desires to be directed:

Quid agam, iūdicēs, *what am I to do, judges?* Quid agerem, iūdicēs, *what was I to do, judges?* C. Sest. 19, 43. Quō mē vertam, *whither am I to turn?* Ēloquar an sileam, *am I to speak,* or *be silent?* Rogem tē ut veniās? nōn rogem, *am I to ask you to come? am I not to ask you?* C. Fam. 14, 4, 3.

NOTE. — The negative **nē**, which always implies a negative wish, is not used in deliberative questions, as they ask affirmatively what the wish of the hearer is. The negative **nōn** sometimes occurs, but it always limits some particular word and never implies a negative wish: **rogem tē**, *is it your wish that I should ask you?* **nōn rogem tē**, *is it your wish that I should not ask you?*

5. **Repudiating Questions.** — The Subjunctive with or without **ut** is also used in questions which express Surprise or Impatience, especially common in Early Latin:

Auscultā, quaesō, *listen, I pray.* Ego auscultem tibī, *am I to listen to you?* Pl. Mil. 496. Tē ut ūlla rēs frangat, *how is anything to subdue you?* C. C. 1, 9.

NOTE. — Deliberative and Repudiating questions may be readily distinguished from the Potential questions considered under **557**. The latter never represent the speaker as in any doubt or perplexity. They are mostly rhetorical questions, used for rhetorical effect in place of assertions, as **quis dubitet**, *who would doubt?* equivalent to **nēmō dubitet**, or **nēmō dubitat**.

6. The Subjunctive is occasionally used to state what ***should have been*** or *ought to have been*:

Potius dīceret, *he should have said rather*. **Restitissēs**, **mortem pūgnāns oppetissēs**, *you should have resisted, should have met death in battle;* C. Sest. 20, 54, 45.

7. Note the following use of the Subjunctive with **nēdum**, *do not think, not to say, much less*:

Satrapa numquam sufferre sūmptūs queat, **nēdum tū possīs**, *a satrap would not be able to bear the expense, much less would you be able* (do not think that you would); T. Heaut. 452. **Nec potuērunt, nēdum possīmus**, *and they were not able, much less should we be able;* C. Clu. 35, 95.

IMPERATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE AND IMPERATIVE

560. Rule. — In commands the Subjunctive and Imperative supplement each other, the Imperative being used in the second person and the Subjunctive in the third:

Līberā rem pūblicam metū, *free the republic from fear;* C. C. 1, 8. **Pergite**, ut facitis, *go on, as you are now doing.* **Suum quisque nōscat ingenium**, *let every one know his own character.* **Sēcernent sē ā bonīs**, *let them separate themselves from the good;* C. C. 1, 13.

1. The second person of the Present Subjunctive may be used of an indefinite *you*, meaning *one, any one*, and in early Latin and in the poets, even of a definite person:

Istō bonō ūtāre, dum adsit, *use that blessing of yours, while it is with you;* C. Sen. 10, 33. Apud nōs hodiē cēnēs, *dine with us to-day;* Pl. Most. 1129.

2. The Future Imperative may be used in the sense of the Present, if the latter is wanting, as **scītō**, **scītōte**, **mementō**, **mementōte**, etc.:

Mementōte hōs esse pertimēscendōs, *remember that these are to be feared.*

3. An Imperative may supply the place of a Conditional clause:

Lacesse, iam vidēbis furentem, *provoke him* (if you provoke him), *you will at once see him frantic.*

4. In Commands involving future rather than present action, and in Laws, Orders, Precepts, etc., the Future Imperative is used:

Rem penditōte, *you shall consider the subject.* Crās petitō, dabitur, *ask to-morrow, it shall be granted.* Salūs populī suprēma lēx estō, *the safety of the people shall be the supreme law;* C. Leg. 3. 3.

NOTE. — The place of the Future Imperative is sometimes supplied by the Future Indicative:

Quod optimum vidēbitur, faciēs, *do* (you will do) ***what shall seem best.***

561. Prohibitive Sentences. — In ordinary Prohibitive Sentences the following forms occur:

1. **Nōlī** and **nōlīte** with the Infinitive. This is the approved form in classical prose:

Nōlīte id velle quod fierī nōn potest, *do not desire that which cannot be done;* C. Ph. 7, 8, 25.

2. **Cavĕ, cavĕ nē, fac nē,** or **nē** with the Subjunctive. These forms are common in early Latin, but rare in classical prose. The Perfect seems to emphasize the Completion or the Result of the action:

Cavĕ īgnōscās, *do not pardon, beware of pardoning.* Fac nē quid aliud cūrēs, *do not attend to anything else.* Nē cōnferās culpam in mē, *do not throw the blame on me;* T. Eun. 888. Istō bonō ūtāre, dum adsit; cum absit, nē requīrās, *use your blessing while it is with you; when it is gone, do not long for it;* C. Sen. 10, 33. Iocum nē sīs aspernātus, *do not despise* (be not having despised) *the jest;* C. Q. Fr. 2, 10, 5.

NOTE. — In prohibitions in Cicero, **nē** with the present Subjunctive is used only of general or indefinite subjects, as in the fourth example, and **nē** with the Perfect Subjunctive with a definite subject, as in the fifth example, is exceedingly rare.

3. In Prohibitive Laws and Ordinances the Future Imperative is used:

Hominem mortuum in urbe nē sepelītō, nēve ūritō, *thou shalt not bury nor burn a dead body in the city;* in C. Leg. 2, 23.

4. **Negative in Prohibitive Sentences.** — The negative, when not contained in the auxiliary verb **nōlī**, or **cavĕ**, is regularly **nē**; with a connective, **nē-ve**, or **ne-que**. **Nēve**, *or not*, is the regular connective in classical prose between Prohibitive clauses; **neque**, *and not*, admissible in prose to connect a Prohibitive clause with an affirmative command, is freely used in poetry between any two Imperative clauses, whether affirmative or negative.

Nē sepelītō nēve ūritō, *do not bury nor burn.* Habē tuum negōtium nec exīstimā, *manage your own business and do not consider*[1]; C. Att. 12, 22, 3. Nē cape nec tē cīvīlibus īnsere bellīs, *do not take arms and do not involve yourself in civil wars;* O. M. 3, 116.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

562. 1. The meaning of the Subjunctive in Subordinate Clauses is either precisely the same as in Principal Clauses, or is a natural development from that meaning. The following examples show the process by which an Affirmative Subjunctive Clause may pass from the Independent to the Dependent construction:

Independent. — Vērum sit,[2] *may it be true.* Velim; vērum sit,[2] *I should wish it; may it be true.*

Dependent. — Velim vērum sit, *I should wish* (what?) *that it may be true;* C. Att. 15, 4, 4.

Independent. — Velim; beātus sīs, *I should wish it; may you be happy.*

Dependent. — Velim ut beātus sīs, *I should wish* (what?) *that you may be happy;* C. Att. 10, 16, 1.

NOTE. — These two examples illustrate the two ways in which Affirmative Subjunctive Clauses may be connected with the Principal Clause; first, without any connective whatever, as in **velim vērum sit**; and, second, with the connective **ut**, as in **velim ut beātus sīs**. With most verbs the second is the usual method.

2. The following examples show the process by which a Negative Subjunctive Clause may pass from the Independent to the Dependent construction:

Independent. — Cūrā; nē quid Tulliae dēsit, *see to it; let nothing be wanting to Tullia.*

Dependent. — Cūrā nē quid Tulliae dēsit, *see that nothing may be wanting to Tullia;* C. Att. 11, 3, 3.

Independent. — Praedīcit; nē lēgātōs dīmittant, *he gives the order: "let them not release the envoys."*

Dependent. — Praedīcit ut nē lēgātōs dīmittant, *he gives the order that they shall not release the envoys;* cf. N. 2, 7, 3.

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[1] Observe that this use of **neque, nec**, *and not*, after an affirmative clause corresponds exactly to our use of '*and not*' in the same situation: "*and* do *not* consider."

[2] **Vērum sit**, *may it be true*, is an Independent Subjunctive of Desire in these two examples, but in **velim vērum sit** it has become dependent upon **velim**, of which it is now the object, though it still continues to be a Subjunctive of Desire.

NOTE. — These two examples illustrate the two ways in which Negative Subjunctive Clauses may be connected with the Principal Clause: first, without any connective whatever, as in **cūrā nē quid Tulliae dēsit, as nē** belongs to the negative clause itself; and, second, with the connective **ut**, as in **praedīcit ut nē lēgātōs dīmittant**. The former is the usual method.

563. A clause containing an Optative or Volitive Subjunctive, when dependent, may become,

1. A Substantive Clause, generally used as the Object of the Principal verb:

Velim ut beātus sīs, *I should wish that you may be happy.*

2. An adverbial Clause, used to denote the Purpose or Intention of the action, often called a Final Clause:

Oportet ēsse ut vīvās, *it is proper to eat in order that you may live.*

OPTATIVE OR VOLITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES

564. Rule. — The Subjunctive, generally with **ut** or **nē**, may be used in Substantive Clauses which involve Purpose:

I. In Substantive Clauses used as the Objects of Verbs:

Scrībās ad mē velim, *I wish that you would write to me;* C. Att. 5, 2, 3. Ōrant ut sibī parcat, *they ask that he would pardon them.* Suīs imperāvit nē quod tēlum rēicerent, *he enjoined upon his men that they should not hurl back any weapon;* Caes. 1, 46, 2.

II. In Substantive Clauses used as Subjects or Predicates:

In epistulā scrīptum erat, ut omnia parāret,[1] *that he was to make all preparations had been written in the letter;* C. Att. 13, 45, 1. Est lēx amīcitiae, ut idem amīcī velint, *it is a law of friendship, that friends should have the same wish;* C. Planc. 2, 5. Altera est rēs ut rēs gerās māgnās, *the other thing is that you should perform great deeds;* C. Off. 1, 20, 66.

1. Subject Clauses sometimes take the Subjunctive without **ut**, regularly with **licet** and **oportet**, and generally with **necesse est**:

Sīs licet fēlīx,[2] *you may be happy* (it is allowed); H. 3, 27, 18. Tē oportet virtūs trahat, *virtue ought to attract you;* C. R. P. 6, 23. Causam habeat, necesse est, *it is necessary that it should have a cause;* C. Div. 2, 28.

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[1] The Subjunctive Clause, **ut parāret**, is the subject of **scrīptum erat**.

[2] **Sīs fēlīx**, originally independent of **licet**, *may you be happy.* **So, too, virtūs trahat**, independent of **oportet**, *let virtue attract.*

III. In Substantive Clauses used as Appositives to Nouns or Pronouns:

Fēcit pācem hīs condiciōnibus, nē quī adficerentur exsiliō,[1] *he made peace on these terms, that none should be punished with exile;* N. 8, 3. Id agunt, ut virī bonī esse videantur,[1] *they strive for this, that they may appear to be good men;* C. Off. 1, 13.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN CLAUSES USED AS THE OBJECTS OF VERBS

565. Verbs meaning *to Desire, Wish, Ask, Command, Persuade, Determine, Decree,* and the like, generally take the Subjunctive in Object Clauses:

Velim ut tibī amīcus sit, *I wish him to be* (that he may be) *a friend to you;* C. Att. 10, 16. Tē hortor ut ōrātiōnēs meās legās, *I exhort you to read my orations;* C. Off. 1, 1, 3. Ōrō ut hominēs cōnservēs incolumēs, *I ask that you would keep the men unharmed.* Dēcrēvit senātus, ut Opīmius vidēret, *the senate decreed that Opimius should see to it.* Huic persuādet utī ad hostēs trānseat, *he persuaded him to go over to the enemy.* Praedīxit ut nē lēgātōs dīmitterent, *he charged them not to release the delegates;* N. 2, 7, 3. Hōc tē rogō, nē dēmittās animum, nēve tē obruī sinās, *I ask you not to be discouraged, and not to permit yourself to be overcome;* C. Qu. Fr. 1, 1, 4.

1. For the negative connective between Subjunctive Clauses, see **561**, 4.

2. The regular constructions with **volō**, **mālō**, and **nōlō** are the Infinitive, with or without a Subject-Accusative, and the Subjunctive without **ut**, though **volō** and **mālō** sometimes take **ut**:

Vērum audīre nōn vult, *he does not wish to hear the truth.* Mihī crēdās velim, *I wish you to believe me.* Id ut faciās velim, *I wish you to do this.*

3. **Iubeō** and **vetō** regularly take the Accusative and the Infinitive in the Active, with the Personal Constructions in the Passive; see **611**, 1:

Helvētiōs oppida restituere iussit, *he ordered the Helvetii to rebuild their towns.* Ab opere lēgātōs discēdere vetuerat, *he had forbidden the lieutenants to leave* (depart from) *the work.* Iubentur scrībere exercitum, *they are ordered to enroll an army.*

4. Verbs meaning *to direct, urge,* etc., and the Imperatives **fac** and **facitō** often take the Subjunctive without **ut**, and **cavĕ** sometimes takes the Subjunctive without **nē**:

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[1] The clause **nē . . . exsiliō**, originally a Volitive Subjunctive, is an Appositive to **condiciōnibus** and **ut . . . videantur**, an Appositive to **id**.

Labiēnō mandat Belgās adeat, *he directs Labienus to visit the Belgae;* cf. Caes. 3, 11, 2. Fac plānē sciam, *let me know fully* (make that I may know); C. Fam. 7, 16. Cavē exīstimēs, *beware of supposing;* C. Fam. 9, 24.

5. Verbs meaning *to determine, decide,* etc., — **statuō, cōnstituō, dēcernō,** etc., — generally take the Subjunctive when a new subject is introduced, otherwise the Infinitive (**614**):

Senātus dēcrēvit, darent operam cōnsulēs, *the senate decreed that the consuls should attend to it;* S. C. 29, 2. Rhēnum trānsīre dēcrēverat, *he had decided to cross the Rhine;* Caes. 4, 17.

6. Several other verbs of this class admit either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive, but generally with some difference of meaning:

Persuādēbō tibī ut maneās, *I shall persuade you to remain.* Persuādēbō tibī hōc vērum esse, *I shall convince you that this is true.* Moneō ut maneās, *I advise you to remain.* Moneō tē hōc vērum esse, *I remind you that this is true.*

566. Verbs meaning *to Make, Obtain, Hinder,* and the like, generally take the Subjunctive in Object Clauses:

Fac ut tē ipsum cūstōdiās, *make sure that you protect yourself;* C. Fam. 9, 14, 8. Effēcit ut imperātor mitterētur, *he caused a commander to be sent.* Nē mihī noceant, vestrum est prōvidēre, *it is your duty to see to it that they may not injure me;* C. C. 3, 12. Dī prohibeant ut hōc praesidium exīstimētur, *the gods forbid that this should be regarded as a defense;* C. Rosc. A. 52, 151.

1. **Ut** with the Subjunctive sometimes forms with **faciō** and **agō,** rarely with **est,** a circumlocution:

Invītus faciō ut recorder, *I unwillingly recall* (I do unwillingly that I recall); C. Vat. 9, 21. Invītus fēcī ut Flāmininum ē senātū ēicerem, *I reluctantly expelled Flamininus from the senate;* C. Sen. 12, 42.

2. Some verbs of this class which generally take the Subjunctive, admit the Infinitive, with or without a Subject, but with a somewhat different meaning:

Cūrā ut valeās, *take care to be in good health;* C. Att. 11, 8. Nihil quod tē putem scīre cūrāre, *nothing which I think you would care to know;* C. Fam. 9, 10.

567. Verbs meaning *to Fear* generally take the Subjunctive in Object Clauses:

Timeō ut labōrēs sustineās, *I fear that you will not endure the labors;* C. Fam. 14, 2. Timeō nē ēveniant ea, *I fear that those things may happen;* cf. C. Fam. 6, 21.

1. The following examples show the process by which a Subjunctive clause becomes dependent upon a verb of Fearing. They also show why **ut** must be rendered *that not*, and **nē** *that* or *lest:*

Timeō; nē ēveniant ea, *I fear; may those things not happen.*

Timeō nē ēveniant ea, *I fear that*, or *lest, those things may happen* = I fear, may they not happen; negative desire, hence **nē.**

Timeō; veniant ea, *I fear; may those things happen.*

Timeō ut veniant ea, *I fear that those things may not happen* = I fear, may those things happen; affirmative desire, hence **ut.**

2. After verbs of Fearing, **nē nōn** is sometimes used in the sense of **ut,** regularly so after a negative clause:

Nōn vereor nē hōc iūdicī nōn probem, *I do not fear that I may not make this acceptable to the judge;* C. Ver. 4, 38, 82.

3. Verbs of Fearing admit the Infinitive as in English:

Vereor laudāre praesentem, *I fear* (hesitate) *to praise you in your presence.*

4. Various expressions, nearly or quite equivalent to verbs of Fearing, are also followed by the Subjunctive; as, **timor est; metus, cūra, perīculum est; perīculōsum est; anxius, pavidus sum; in metū, in perīculō sum; cūra, timor incēdit; pavor capit,** etc.:

Num est perīculum nē quis putet turpe esse, *is there any fear that any one may think it to be disgraceful?* Orat. 42, 145. Pavor cēperat mīlitēs nē mortiferum esset vulnus, *fear that the wound might be mortal had seized the soldiers.* Nē quod bellum orīrētur, anxius erat, *he was fearful that some war might arise.* Sunt in metū, nē afficiantur poenā, *they are in fear that they may be visited with punishment;* C. Fin. 2, 16, 53.

VOLITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE IN CLAUSES OF PURPOSE — FINAL CLAUSES

568. Rule. — The Subjunctive is used with **ut, nē, quō, quō minus, quōminus,** to denote the Purpose of the action:

Rōmānī ab arātrō abdūxērunt Cincinnātum, ut dictātor esset, *the Romans took Cincinnatus from the plow that he might be dictator;* C. Fin. 2, 4, 12. Lēgibus idcircō servīmus ut līberī esse possīmus, *we are servants of the laws for this reason, that we may be able to be free;* C. Clu. 53, 146. Claudī cūriam iubet, nē quis ēgredī possit, *he orders the senate house to be closed that no one may be able to come out.* Medicō aliquid dandum est, quō sit studiōsior, *something ought to be given to the physician, that* (by this means) *he may be more attentive.* Neque tē dēterreō quō minus

id disputēs, *and I am not trying to deter you from discussing* (that you may less discuss) *that point;* C. Att. 11, 8, 1.

1. The following examples show the process by which the Volitive Subjunctive may become the Subjunctive of Purpose:

Independent Volitive. — Nē quid rēs pūblica dētrīmentī capiat,[1] *let the republic suffer no harm.*

Dependent Volitive = Purpose. — Dent operam cōnsulēs nē quid rēs pūblica dētrīmentī capiat,[1] *let the consuls give heed that* (in order that) *the republic may suffer no harm.*

Independent. — Vincat,[1] *let him conquer.* Contendit; vincat, *he is striving; let him conquer.*

Dependent. — Contendit ut vincat,[1] *he strives that he may conquer.*

2. **Object Clauses and Final Clauses.** — Object clauses and Final clauses, as they are both developed from the Volitive Subjunctive, are sometimes difficult to distinguish. An Object clause, however, is always the grammatical object of a verb, while a Final clause is never thus used.

3. Conjunctions introducing Final clauses sometimes have correlatives in the Principal clause, as **ideō**, **idcircō**, **eō**, etc., as in the second example.

4. Subjunctive clauses with **ut** or **ne** are sometimes inserted parenthetically in sentences:

Amīcōs parāre, optimam vītae, ut ita dīcam, supellectilem, *to secure friends, the best treasure, so to speak, of life;* C. Am. 15.

5. A clause of purpose may take **ut nōn** when the negative belongs, not to the entire clause, but to some particular word:

Suās cōpiās prōdūxit, ut, sī vellet Ariovistus, *etc.*, eī potestās nōn deesset (non deesset = adesset), *he led out his forces that, if Ariovistus wished,* etc., *he might not lack the opportunity;* Caes. 1, 48, 3. Ut plūra nōn dīcam, *not to say more,* or *to say no more;* C. Man. 15, 44.

6. The negative connective between Subjunctive Clauses, whether Substantive or Final, is regularly **nēve**, or **neu**, but sometimes **neque**:

Lēgem tulit, nē quis accūsārētur, nēve multārētur, *he proposed a law that no one should be accused or punished;* N. 8, 3. Nunc ut ea praetermittam, neque eōs appellem, quid lucrī fīat cōgnōscite, *now, to omit those things, and not to call upon those persons, learn what the profit is;* C. Ver. 3, 48, 115.

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[1] Observe that the negative clause **nē quid . . . capiat** becomes negative Purpose without any change whatever, and that the affirmative **vincat** becomes affirmative Purpose without change, though **ut** is used to connect it with **contendit**.

7. **Quō**, *by which, that*, sometimes introduces **Final Clauses**, chiefly with comparatives, as in the fourth example. **Quō minus** is simply **quō** with the comparative **minus**.

8. **Quō minus**, *by which the less, that thus the less, that not*, is generally used with verbs of Hindering, Opposing, Refusing, — **dēterreō, impediō, obstō, prohibeō, recūsō**, etc., — and it always takes the Subjunctive. It originally denoted Purpose, but it often introduces Substantive Clauses:

Nōn recūsāvit quō minus poenam subīret, *he did not refuse to submit* (that he might not submit) *to punishment;* N. 15, 8. Nōn dēterret sapientem mors, quō minus reī pūblicae cōnsulat, *death does not deter a wise man from deliberating for the republic;* C. Tusc. 1, 88, 91. Per eum stetit, quō minus dīmicārētur, *it was due to his influence* (stood through him) *that the battle was not fought;* Caes. C. 1, 41, 3.

POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

569. Rule. — The Potential Subjunctive is used in Subordinate clauses, whatever the connective, to represent the action as Possible or Conditional, rather than real:

Nēmō est quī nōn līberōs suōs beātōs esse cupiat, *there is no one who would not wish his children to be happy;* C. Inv. 1, 30, 48. Quoniam cīvitātī cōnsulere nōn possent, *since they would not be able to consult for the state.* Ubī perīclum faciās, *whenever you* (any one) *may make the trial;* Pl. Bac. 68.

1. A clause containing a Potential Subjunctive, when made dependent, often becomes an Adverbial clause denoting the Result of the action:

Ita vīxit ut offenderet nēminem, *he so lived that he would offend no one,* or *that he offended no one;* C. Planc. 16, 41.

2. The following example shows the process by which the Potential Subjunctive may become the Subjunctive of Result:

Independent Potential. — Probitātem in hoste etiam dīligāmus, *we should love goodness even in an enemy.*

Dependent Potential = Result. — Tanta vīs probitātis est ut eam in hoste etiam dīligāmus, *so great is the power of goodness that we should love it even in an enemy,* or *that we love it even in an enemy.*

NOTE. — The strict meaning of the Potential Subjunctive **dīligāmus** is precisely the same both in the Independent and in the Dependent form, viz.

we should love; but from this primary meaning was developed by way of inference a secondary meaning, *we love*, as we very naturally assume that what one *would love as a matter of course*, one *may love as a matter of fact.*

POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE IN CLAUSES OF RESULT— CONSECUTIVE CLAUSES

570. Rule. — The Potential Subjunctive is used with **ut**, or **ut nōn**, to denote the Result of the action:

Tāle est ut possit iūre laudārī, *it is such that it may be justly praised;* C. Fin. 2, 14. Tanta tempestās coorta est, ut nūlla nāvis cursum tenēre posset, *so great a tempest arose that no vessel would be able*, or *was able, to hold its course;* Caes. 4, 28. Nēmō adeō ferus est, ut nōn mitēscere possit, *no one is so fierce that he may not become gentle;* H. E. 1, 1, 89. Atticus ita vīxit, ut Athēniēnsibus esset cārissimus, *Atticus so lived that he was* (would be) *very dear to the Athenians;* N. 25, 2.

1. The Potential Subjunctive occurs with **quam**, with or without **ut**:

Indulgēbat sibī līberālius, quam ut invidiam posset effugere, *he indulged himself too freely to be able* (more freely than so as to be able) *to escape unpopularity;* N. 12, 3. Impōnēbat amplius quam ferre possent, *he imposed more than they would be able*, or *were able, to bear;* C. Ver. 4, 34, 76.

2. After **tantum abest ut**, denoting Result, a second **ut**-clause of Result sometimes occurs:

Philosophia, tantum abest ut laudētur, ut etiam vituperētur, *so far is it from the truth* (so much is wanting) *that philosophy is praised that it is even censured;* C. Tusc. 5, 2, 6.

3. **Ita . . . ut nōn** introduces the Subjunctive of Result, but **ita . . . ut nē**, *so that not, on condition that not*, introduces the Subjunctive of Purpose:

Singulīs cōnsulātur, sed ita ut ea rēs nē obsit reī pūblicae, *let the interests of individuals be consulted, but only on condition that this does not harm the republic;* C. Off. 2, 21, 72.

4. **Nē** with the Subjunctive, denoting the wish or purpose of the writer, is sometimes found in clauses of Result:

Ex quō efficitur, nōn ut voluptās nē sit voluptās, sed ut voluptās nōn sit summum bonum, *from which it follows, not* (I wish you to understand) *that pleasure is not pleasure, but that pleasure is not the highest good;* C. Fin. 2, 8, 24.

POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES

571. Rule. — The Potential Subjunctive is often used with **ut** and **ut nōn** in Substantive Clauses[1] as follows:

1. In Subject clauses, with certain Impersonal verbs meaning *it happens, it follows*, etc., — **accidit, accēdit, ēvenit, fit, efficitur, fierī potest, fore, sequitur**, etc.:

Potest fierī ut fallar, *it may be that I am deceived;* C. Fam. 13, 73, 2. Fit ut quisque dēlectētur, *the result is* (it comes to pass) *that every one is delighted.* Accidit ut esset lūna plēna, *it happened that the moon was full.* Ad senectūtem accēdēbat ut caecus esset, *to age was added the fact that he was blind;* C. Sen. 6, 16. Ēvēnit ut rūrī essēmus, *it happened that we were in the country.* Spērō fore ut contingat id nōbīs, *I hope that this will fall to our lot;* C. Tusc. 1, 34.

2. In Subject clauses with predicate nouns and adjectives:

Mōs est ut nōlint, *it is their custom to be unwilling;* C. Brut. 21, 64. Fuit meum officium ut facerem, *it was my duty to do it.* Vērum est ut bonōs bonī dīligant, *it is true that the good love the good.* Quid tam incrēdibile quam ut eques Rōmānus triumphāret, *what so incredible as that a Roman knight should triumph?* C. Man. 21, 62.

3. In Object clauses depending upon **faciō, efficiō**, etc., of the action of irrational forces:

Sōl efficit, ut omnia flōreant, *the sun causes all things to bloom* (that all things may bloom); C. N. D. 2, 15, 41. Splendor vester facit ut peccāre sine perīculō nōn possītis, *your conspicuous position causes this result, that you cannot err without peril;* C. Ver. 1, 8, 22.

4. In clauses in Apposition with nouns or pronouns:

Est hōc vitium ut invidia glōriae comes est, *there is this fault, that envy is the companion of glory;* N. 12, 3. Id est proprium cīvitātis ut sit lībera,

[1] The Subjunctive, in some of these substantive clauses, was developed directly from the independent Potential Subjunctive, as in the first example: independent, **potest fierī**; **fallar**, *it may be; I may be deceived;* dependent, **potest fierī ut fallar**, *it may be that I am deceived.* In some other examples, it was developed through the clause of result, as in the second example. If this is interpreted to mean, *it is done in such a way that every one is delighted*, then **ut . . . dēlectētur** is a clause of result, but, if it is interpreted as in the text, it becomes a substantive clause. In some instances, however, substantive clauses, apparently with the Potential Subjunctive, have not been developed in either of these two ways, but formed by analogy, after the general type of substantive clauses.

it is characteristic of a state to be free. Sōlī hōc contingit sapientī ut nihil faciat invītus, *this happens only to the wise man, that he does nothing unwillingly;* C. Parad. 5, 1, 34.

MOODS IN CONDITIONAL SENTENCES. — INDICATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE

572. Every Conditional Sentence consists of two distinct parts expressed or understood, the Condition or Protasis, and the Conclusion or Apodosis:

Sī negem, mentiar, *if I should deny it, I should speak falsely.*

Here **sī negem** is the condition or protasis and **mentiar**, the conclusion or apodosis.

573. Conditional sentences naturally arrange themselves in three distinct classes with well-defined forms and meanings, as follows:

Class I. — Indicative in both clauses; Condition assumed as Real:

Negat quis, negō, *some one denies* (= if some one), *I deny;* T. Eun. 251. **Sī** quis negat, negō, *if some one denies, I deny.*

Class II. — Subjunctive, Present or Perfect, in both clauses; Condition assumed as Possible:

Rogēs mē, nihil fortasse respondeam, *ask me, I may perhaps make no reply;* C. N. D. 1, 21, 57. Sī rogēs mē, nihil fortasse respondeam, *if you should ask me, I should perhaps make no reply.*

Class III. — Subjunctive, Imperfect or Pluperfect, in both clauses; Condition assumed as Contrary to Fact:

Tū māgnam partem, sineret dolor, habērēs, *you would have had a large share, had grief permitted;* V. 6, 30. Tū māgnam partem, sī sineret dolor, habērēs, *you would have had a large share, if grief had permitted.*

Note. — From these examples it is manifest that a conditional particle, as **sī**, *if*, although regularly used, is not an essential part of a conditional sentence, and that it originally had no influence upon the mood in either clause, as the mood in each of these examples without **sī** is the same as in the corresponding example with **sī**. Originally the two clauses, the condition and the conclusion, were independent of each other, and the mood in each was determined by the ordinary principles which regulate the use of moods in independent sentences; see **523, 551.**

8. The condition is sometimes ironical, especially with **nisi forte** and **nisi vērō**:

Nisi forte id dubium est, *unless perchance this is doubtful;* C. Ver. 1, 89, 100.

9. A condition is sometimes implied in a participle, in an ablative absolute, or even in the oblique case of a noun:

Nōn potestis, voluptāte omnia dērigentēs, retinēre virtūtem, *you can not retain your manhood, if you arrange all things with reference to pleasure;* C. Fin. 2, 22, 71. Rēctē factō, exigua laus prōpōnitur, *if the work is well done, small praise is offered;* C. Agr. 2, 2, 5. Nēmō sine spē sē offerret ad mortem, *no one without a hope* (= if he had not a hope) *would expose himself to death;* C. Tusc. 1, 15, 32.

10. For Conditional Sentences in the Indirect Discourse, see **646.**

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES. — CLASS II

Subjunctive, Present or Perfect in Both Clauses

576. Rule. — The Present or Perfect Subjunctive in Conditional Sentences with **sī, nisi, nī, sīn,** assumes the supposed case as Possible:

Diēs dēficiat, sī velim causam dēfendere, *the day would fail me, if I should wish to defend the cause;* C. Tusc. 5, 35, 102. Haec sī tēcum patria loquātur, nōnne impetrāre dēbeat, *if your country should speak thus with you, ought she not to obtain her request?* C. C. 1, 8. Sī quid tē fūgerit, ego perierim, *if anything should escape you, I should be ruined;* T. Heaut. 316.

1. The time denoted by these tenses, the Present and the Perfect, is either Present or Future, and the difference between the two is that the former regards the action in its progress, the latter in its completion; but the Perfect is rare, especially in the conclusion.

2. In early Latin the Present Subjunctive is often used in conditions contrary to fact:

Magis id dīcās, sī sciās quod ego sciō, *you would say this the more, if you knew what I know;* Pl. Mil. 1429. Tū sī hīc sīs, aliter sentiās, *if you were in my place, you would think differently;* T. And. 310.

Present Subjunctive in Conditional Clauses

577. Conditional Sentences with the Present Subjunctive in the condition exhibit the three following varieties:

1. The first variety has the Present Subjunctive in both clauses. This is the regular form in Plautus, and the prevailing form in classical Latin:

Quod facile patiar, sī tuō commodō fierī possit, *which I can easily bear, if it can be for your advantage;* C. Att. 2, 17, 3.

2. The second variety has the Present Subjunctive in the Condition and the Present Indicative in the Conclusion. This form, somewhat rare in Plautus, became the prevailing form in the rhetorical works of Cicero, and finally the regular form in Tacitus and other late writers. These changes illustrate the gradual extension in principal clauses of the Indicative in constructions once occupied by the Potential Subjunctive:

Sī accūsētur, nōn habet dēfēnsiōnem, *if he should be accused, he has no defense;* C. Inv. 1, 13, 18. Intrāre, sī possim, castra hostium volō, *I wish to enter the camp of the enemy, if I may be able.*

3. The third variety has the Present Subjunctive in the Condition and the Future Indicative in the Conclusion. This combination is readily explained from the close relationship between the Present Subjunctive and the Future Indicative, both in etymology and in meaning, but it was not a favorite form in the classical period:

Nec, sī cupiās, licēbit, *nor if you should desire it, will it be allowed;* C. Ver. 2, 69, 167.

578. General Conditions. — Conditional sentences which contain General Truths or Repeated Actions usually take the following forms:

1. Any required tense of the Indicative in the condition with the Present or Imperfect Indicative in the conclusion:

Parvī foris sunt arma, nisi est cōnsilium domī, *arms are of little value abroad unless there is wisdom at home;* C. Off. 1, 22, 76. Sī quod erat grande vās inventum, laetī adferēbant, *if any large vessel had been found, they gladly brought it to him;* C. Ver. 4, 21, 47.

2. The Present or Perfect Subjunctive, generally in the second person used of an indefinite *you* = *one, any one,* in the condition, with the Present Indicative in the conclusion:

Memoria minuitur nisi eam exerceās, *the memory is impaired if you do not* (if one does not) *exercise it;* C. Sen. 7, 21. Nūlla est excūsātiō peccātī, sī amīcī causā peccāverīs, *it is no excuse for a fault, that* (if) *you may have committed it for the sake of a friend;* C. Am. 11, 37.

Note 1. — In Livy and late writers the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are sometimes used. Solitary examples also occur in Cicero and Caesar:

Sī apud prīncipēs haud satis prōsperē esset pūgnātum, referēbantur, *if among the principes the battle had not been sufficiently successful, they were led back;* L. 8, 8, 11.

NOTE 2. — Observe that all the Indicative forms given in this section for General Conditions are also used in Particular Conditions.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES. — CLASS III

Subjunctive, Imperfect or Pluperfect in Both Clauses

579. Rule. — The Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in Conditional Sentences with **sī, nisi, nī, sīn,** assumes the supposed case as Contrary to Fact:

Sapientia nōn expeterētur, sī nihil efficeret, *wisdom would not be sought* (as it is) *if it accomplished nothing;* C. Fin. 1, 13, 42. Sī optima tenēre possēmus, haud sānē cōnsiliō egērēmus, *if we were able to secure the highest good, we should not indeed require counsel.* Sī voluisset, propius Tiberī dīmicāsset, *if he had wished, he would have fought nearer the Tiber.* Numquam abīsset, nisi sibī viam mūnīvisset, *he would never have gone, if he had not prepared for himself a way;* C. Tusc. 1, 14, 32.

1. Here the Imperfect generally relates to Present time and the Pluperfect to Past time, as in the examples; but sometimes the Imperfect retains its original signification as a past tense of continued action,[1] especially when it is accompanied by a word denoting past time:

Neque tantum laudis Nestorī tribuisset Homērus, nisi tum esset honōs ēloquentiae, *Homer would not have awarded so great praise to Nestor, if there were then no honor for eloquence;* C. Brut. 10, 40.

DEVIATIONS FROM THE REGULAR FORMS OF CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

580. Certain deviations from the regular form of the conclusion are admissible from the following facts:

1. The conclusion is often an independent clause, especially in the first class of conditional sentences, and as such it may take any form

[1] The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive alike seem to have been capable originally of representing a condition either as Possible or as Impossible, but by a shifting of tenses which began before the time of Plautus, the Imperfect gradually assumed the latter function for present time, thus relinquishing, in conditional sentences, its original force as a past tense, though traces of this original meaning are seen even in the classical period. Moreover, the use of the Present Subjunctive in early Latin in conditions contrary to fact is only an illustration of its original use.

admissible in such clauses, as that of a Statement, a Wish, or a Command.

2. Certain equivalent expressions may be substituted for the regular Subjunctive.

581. The Indicative in the Condition may be accompanied by the Imperative or Subjunctive in the Conclusion, regarded as an Independent Clause:

Sī quid peccāvī, ignōsce, *if I have done anything wrong, pardon me;* C. Att. 3, 15, 4. Quid timeam, sī beātus futūrus sum, *what should I fear, if I am going to be happy?* Sī quid habēs certius, velim scīre, *if you have any tidings, I should like to know it;* C. Att. 4, 10.

1. The Subjunctive in the condition may be accompanied by the Indicative in the conclusion to emphasize a fact, especially with a condition introduced by **nisi**, or **nī**:

Certāmen aderat, nī Fabius rem expedīsset, *a contest was at hand, but Fabius* (if Fabius had not) *adjusted the affair;* L. 3, 1. Nec vēnī, nisi fāta locum dedissent, *and I should not have come, if the fates had not assigned the place;* V. 11, 112.

582. The Indicative of the Periphrastic Conjugations, denoting that the action is About to take place or Ought to take place, has almost the same meaning as the ordinary Subjunctive forms of the same verb. Accordingly periphrastic forms in the conclusion of conditional sentences are generally in the Indicative (**525, 1**):

Quid, sī hostēs veniant, factūrī estis, *what will you do, if the enemy should come?* L. 3, 52. Sī quaerātur, iūdicandum est, *if inquiry should be made, a decision must be given;* C. Top. 23, 87. Relictūrī agrōs erant, nisi litterās mīsisset, *they would have left* (were about to leave, but did not) *their lands, if he had not sent a letter.* Sī vērum respondēre vellēs, haec erant dīcenda,[1] *if you had wished to answer truly, this should have been said.*

1. The close relationship in meaning between the periphrastic forms in **ūrus sum** and the ordinary Subjunctive forms is illustrated by the following examples:

Quae Caesar numquam fēcisset, ea nunc prōferuntur, *those things which Caesar would never have done are now reported as his;* C. Att. 14, 13, 6. Quae

[1] Observe that the Indicative of this Passive Periphrastic Conjugation, *this should have been said,* has precisely the same force as the Subjunctive in such sentences as the following:

Mortem pūgnāns oppetīssēs, *you should have met death in battle;* C. Sest. 20, 45.

ille **factūrus nōn fuit, ea fīunt,** *those things which he would not have done* (was not about to do) *are now done;* C. Att. 14, 14, 2.

2. When the Perfect or Imperfect of the Periphrastic Indicative in the conclusion of a conditional sentence is brought into a construction which requires the Subjunctive, the Perfect is generally used irrespective of the tense of the principal verb:

Adeō inopiā est coāctus ut, nisi timuisset, Galliam repetītūrus fuerit,[1] *he was so pressed by want that, if he had not feared, he would have returned to Gaul;* L. 22, 32.

583. The Historical tenses of verbs denoting Ability, as **possum**, and of those denoting Duty, Propriety, Necessity, as **dēbeō** and the like, are often in the Indicative in the conclusion of conditional sentences, on account of their close relationship in meaning to the Subjunctive (**525, 1**):

Dēlērī exercitus potuit, sī persecūtī victōrēs essent, *the army might have been destroyed if the victors had pursued;* L. 32, 12. Quem, sī ūlla in tē pietās esset, colere dēbēbās, *whom you ought to have honored, if there was any filial affection in you;* C. Ph. 2, 38, 99. Quae sī dubia essent, tamen omnēs bonōs reī pūblicae subvenīre decēbat, *even if these things were doubtful, still it would behoove all good men to aid the republic;* S. 85, 48.

1. But these verbs often take the Subjunctive in accordance with the general rule, especially in Cicero:

Quid facere potuissem, nisi tum cōnsul fuissem, *what should I have been able to accomplish, if I had not then been consul?* C. R. P. 1, 6, 10.

2. The Perfect Tense in the conclusion of a conditional sentence is regularly in the Indicative when accompanied by **paene** or **prope** (**538, 6**):

Pōns iter paene hostibus dedit, nī ūnus vir fuisset, *the bridge would have furnished* (almost furnished) *a passage to the enemy, had there not been one man;* L. 2, 10.

3. The historical tenses of the verb **esse** with predicate adjectives (as **aequius, melius, rēctius, satius; iūstum, rēctum, pār,** etc.) are generally in the Indicative in the conclusion of conditional sentences; see **525, 2**:

Sī ita putāsset, optābilius Milōnī fuit dare iugulum Clōdiō, *if he had so thought, it would have been preferable for Milo to offer his neck to Clodius;* C. Mil. 11, 31.

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[1] Here **repetītūrus fuerit** is the Subjunctive of Result; but it is in the Perfect, because, if it were not dependent, the Perfect Indicative would have been used.

4. In a few other cases also, a conclusion of one form of the conditional sentence is sometimes combined with a condition of a different form:

Sī tibī umquam sum vīsus fortis, certē mē in illā causā admīrātus essēs, *if I have ever seemed to you to be brave, you would certainly have admired me in that trial;* C. Att. 1, 16. Id neque, sī fātum fuerat, effūgisset, *nor would he have escaped this if it had been fated;* C. Div. 2, 8, 20.

CONDITIONAL CLAUSES OF COMPARISON

584. Rule. — Conditional Clauses of Comparison, introduced by **ac sī, ut sī, quam sī, quasi, tamquam, tamquam sī, velut, velut sī,** *as if, than if,* take the Subjunctive:

Tū similiter facis, ac sī mē rogēs, *you are doing nearly the same thing, as if you should ask me;* C. N. D. 3, 3, 8. In eādem sunt iniūstitiā, ut sī in suam rem aliēna convertant, *they are involved in the same injustice, as if they should appropriate another's possessions to their own use;* C. Off. 1, 14, 42. Tam tē dīligit quam sī vīxerit tēcum, *he loves you as much as if he had lived with you;* C. Fam. 16, 5, 1. Quasi nihil umquam audierim, *as if I had never heard anything.* Sīc iacent, tamquam sine animō sint, *they lie as if they were without mind.* Crūdēlitātem, velut sī adesset, horrēbant, *they shuddered at his cruelty, as if he were present;* cf. Caes. 1, 32.

1. In all these sentences the principal clause is entirely independent of the conditional clause.

2. In the conditional clause the Present or Imperfect is used for Present time, and the Perfect or Pluperfect for Past time.

3. The Present and Perfect may be used in conditions contrary to fact — a survival of the ancient usage as seen in Plautus and Terence.

4. **Ceu** and **sīcutī** are sometimes used like **ac sī, ut sī,** etc.:

Ceu cētera nūsquam bella forent, *as if there were nowhere any other battles;* V. 2, 438. Sīcutī audīrī possent, *as if they could be heard;* S. 60, 4.

5. Clauses of Comparison, which are not conditional, are treated as Independent clauses. They are generally introduced by such correlatives as **ita** or **sīc . . . ut,** *thus* or *so . . . as;* **tam . . . quam,** *so* or *as . . . as;* **tālis . . . quālis,** *such . . . as;* **tantus . . . quantus,** *so great . . . as:*

Ut sementem fēcerīs, ita metēs, *as you sow, so shall you reap;* C. Or. 2, 65, 261. Nihil est tam populāre quam bonitās, *nothing is so popular as goodness.* Tam diū requiēscō quam diū ad tē scrībō, *I am comforted so long as I am writing to you;* C. Att. 9, 4, 1. Tālem amīcum volunt, quālēs ipsī esse nōn possunt, *they wish their friend to be such as they themselves can not be.*

6. **Quamvīs**, meaning *as you wish, as much as you wish, however much*, may accompany **licet** with the Subjunctive:

Quamvīs ēnumerēs multōs licet, *though you may count up as many as you wish*; C. Leg. 3, 10, 24.

MOODS WITH **Dum, Modo, Dummodo**

587. Rule. — The Jussive Subjunctive is used with **dum, modo, modo ut**, and **dummodo**, meaning *if only, provided*, in conditional clauses of desire:

Dum rēs maneant, verba fingant, *let them manufacture words, if only the facts remain*. Manent ingenia, modo permaneat industria, *mental powers remain if only industry continues*; C. Sen. 7, 22. Modo ut haec nōbis loca tenēre liceat, *if only it is permitted us to occupy these places*. Dum nē tibi videar, nōn laborō, *provided I do not seem so to you, I do not care*; C. Au. 8, 11, B. 8. Dummodo nē continuum sit, *provided this be not continuous*.

MOODS WITH **Quod, Quia, Quoniam, Quandō**[1]

588. Rule. — Causal Clauses with **quod, quia, quoniam, quandō**, generally take

I. The Indicative to assign a reason positively, on one's own authority:

Dēlectātus sum tuīs litterīs, quod tē intellēxī iam posse rīdēre, *I have been delighted with your letter, because I have learned from it that now you can laugh*; C. Fam. 9, 20, 1. Quia nātura mutārī nōn potest, *because nature can not be changed*. Quoniam supplicātiō decrēta est, celebrātōte illōs diēs, *since a thanksgiving has been decreed, celebrate those days*. Quandō pauperiem horres, *since you shudder at poverty*; H. S. 2, 5, 9.

II. The Subjunctive to assign a reason doubtfully, or on another's authority[2]:

Aristīdēs nōnne expulsus est patriā, quod iustus esset, *was not Aristides banished because* (on the alleged ground that) *he was just?* C. Tusc. 5, 36, 105.

[1] **Quod** and **quia** are in origin relative pronouns. **Quoniam** = **quom iam**, *when now*.

[2] Observe that causal clauses with the Indicative state a fact, and at the same time present that fact as a reason or cause, but that causal clauses with the Subjunctive simply assign a reason. Thus **quod iūstus esset** does not state that Aristides was just, but simply indicates the alleged ground of his banishment.

Reprehendis mē, quia dēfendam, *you reprove me because* (on the ground that) *I defend him.* Quoniam cīvitātī cōnsulere nōn possent, *since they could not consult for the state.*

1. Sometimes by a special construction the Subjunctive of a verb of Saying or Thinking is used, while the verb which introduces a reason or a statement on another's authority is put in the Infinitive; see **649**, I:

Diēs prōrogātur, quod tabulās obsignātās dīceret (= obsignātae essent), *the time is extended on the ground that the documents were signed, as he said;* C. Ver. 1, 38, 98. Lēgātīs accūsāntibus, quod pecūniās cēpisse arguerent, *as the ambassadors accused him on the ground that he had received moneys, as they claimed;* C. Fin. 17, 24.

2. **Nōn quod, nōn quō, nōn quīn, nōn quia,** also **quam quod,** etc., are used with the Subjunctive to denote an alleged reason, in distinction from the true reason:

Nōn quod suscēnsērem, sed quod suppudēbat, *not because I was angry, but because I was ashamed;* C. Fam. 9, 1, 2. Nōn quō habērem quod scrīberem, *not because* (that) *I had anything to write;* C. Att. 7, 15, 1. Nōn quīn rēctum esset, sed quia, etc., *not because it was not right, but because,* etc.

NOTE. — In such clauses the Indicative is sometimes used to call attention to the facts in the case:

Nōn quod multīs dēbeō, sed quia, etc., *not because I am indebted to many* (as I really am), *but because,* etc.; C. Planc. 32, 78.

3. The **quod** clause was originally a substantive clause used as Appositive, Subject, or Object:

Hōc praestāmus ferīs quod colloquimur inter nōs, *we are superior to the brutes in this that we converse together;* C. Or. 1, 8, 32. Praetereō quod hanc sibī domum dēlēgit, *I pass over the fact that she chose for herself this home.* Hūc accēdēbat quod exercitum lūxuriōsē habuerat, *to this was added the fact that he had kept the army in luxury;* S. C. 11, 5.

NOTE. — Clauses with **quod** sometimes stand at the beginning of sentences to announce the subject of discourse:

Quod mē Agamemnonem aemulārī putās, falleris, *as to the fact that you think that I emulate Agamemnon, you are in error;* N. 15, 5, 6.

4. From the Substantive clause was developed the Causal clause, as follows:

Propter hanc causam quod mē adiūvērunt, *for this reason, that they aided me,* or *because they aided me;* C. Ver. 3, 46, 109. Dolēbam quod socium labōris āmīseram, *I was grieving over the fact that I had lost the companion*

of my labor, or *because I had lost the companion of my labor.* **Tibī** agō grātiās quod mē molestiā līberāstī, *I thank you because you have freed me from annoyance;* C. Fam. 13, 62.

NOTE. — Observe that in the first example the **quod** clause may be either an Appositive to **causam** or a Causal clause, that in the second it may be either the Direct object of **dolēbam** or a Causal clause, i.e. in these examples we see the Causal clause in the actual process of development, while in the third example we have a fully developed Causal clause. In the time of Plautus the Causal meaning of **quod** was just beginning to make its appearance, while that of **quia** was already fully developed.

5. **Quia** had the same development as **quod**:

Dolēō quia dolēs, *I grieve over the fact that you grieve*, or *because you grieve.*

6. **Quoniam** and **quandō** were originally temporal particles meaning *when now*, *when*, and are so used in Plautus, but the causal meaning was early developed in both.

INDICATIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE IN RELATIVE CLAUSES

589. Rule. — Clauses introduced by the relative **quī**, or by Relative Adverbs, **ubī**, **unde**, **quō**, etc., take

I. The Indicative, when they simply state or assume facts, without any accessory notion of Purpose, Result, Concession, or Cause:

Ego quī tē cōnfīrmō, ipse mē nōn possum, *I who encourage you am not able to encourage myself;* C. Fam. 14, 4, 5. Cīvitātēs propinquae hīs locīs, ubī bellum gesserat, *states near to those places where he had been carrying on war.* Athēniēnsēs, unde lēgēs ortae putantur, *the Athenians, from whom laws are supposed to have been derived.* Cūmīs, quō sē contulerat, *at Cumae, to which he had betaken himself.*

NOTE. — So especially with General Relatives:

Quisquis est, is est sapiēns, *whoever he is, he is wise.*

II. The Subjunctive in all other cases:

Missī sunt dēlēctī, quī Thermopylās occupārent, *picked men were sent to take possession* (that they might take possession) *of Thermopylae;* N. 2, 3, 1. Domum, ubī habitāret, lēgerat, *he had selected a house where he might dwell* (that he might dwell in it); C. Ph. 2, 25, 62. Quae tam firma cīvitās est, quae nōn odiīs possit ēvertī, *what state is so firmly established that it cannot be ruined by dissensions?*

590. The Volitive Subjunctive is used in Relative clauses, to denote Purpose, as in **ut** clauses (**568**):

Certumst (certum est) hominem conloquī, quī possim vidērī huic fortis, **ā** mē ut abstineat manum, *I am determined to address the man face to face, that I may appear to him brave, that he may keep his hands off from me;* Pl. Amph. 339. Lēgātōs Rōmam, quī auxilium peterent, mīsēre, *they sent ambassadors to Rome to ask aid* (that they might ask aid). Locum petit, unde hostem invādat, *he seeks a position from which he may* (that from it he may) *attack the enemy;* L. 4, 27, 8.

1. In the first example, observe that the Relative clause, **quī possim . . . fortis**, and the **ut** clause, are equivalent expressions of Purpose. In the Independent form, they would read: **possim vidērī huic fortis**, *let me be able to appear to him brave;* **ā mē abstineat manum**, *let him keep his hands off from me.*

591. The Potential Subjunctive is used in Relative clauses:

1. To characterize Indefinite or General antecedents, especially General Negatives:

Nēmō est ōrātor quī Dēmosthenī sē similem nōlit esse, *there is no orator who would be unwilling to be like Demosthenes;* C. Opt. G. 2, 6. Quis est quī hōc dīcere audeat, *who is there who would dare to say this?*

NOTE 1. — Observe that, in these relative clauses, the Subjunctive is purely Potential, and that it has precisely the same force as in the following independent sentence:

Quis hōc dīcere audeat, *who would dare to say this?*

NOTE 2. — The Indicative is freely used in relative clauses after indefinite antecedents, in poetry, especially in Plautus and Terence, and in late prose. Even in the best writers it is often used when the Fact is to be made prominent:

Sunt quōs iuvat, *there are those whom it delights;* H. 1, 1, 8. Permulta sunt, quae dīcī possunt, *there are many things which may be said;* C. Rosc. A. 33, 94.

2. To denote the Natural Result of an Action or Quality:

Nōn is sum quī hīs dēlecter, *I am not one who would be delighted with these things*, or *such a one as to be delighted;* C. Harus. 9, 18. Nōn tū is es quem nihil dēlectet, *you are not one whom nothing would please.* Neque quisquam fuit, ubī nostrum iūs obtinērēmus, *there was no one with whom* (where) *we could obtain our right;* C. Quinct. 9, 34.

3. In Restrictive clauses, as **quod sciam**, *as far as I* (may) *know;* **quod meminerim**, *as far as I can remember;* **quōs ego audierim**, *at least such as I have* (may have) *heard*, etc.:

Nōn ego tē, quod sciam, umquam ante hunc diem vīdī, *as far as I know, I have never seen you before this day;* Pl. Men. 500. Omnium, quōs ego audierim, *of all whom I may have heard;* C. Br. 55, 203.

4. In clauses with **quod**, or with a relative particle, **cūr, quārē**, etc., in certain idiomatic expressions. Thus, after **est**, *there is reason;* **nōn est, nihil est**, *there is no reason;* **nūlla causa est**, *there is no reason;* **nōn habeō, nihil habeō**, *I have no reason;* **quid est**, *what reason is there?* etc.:

Est quod gaudeās, *there is reason why you should rejoice* (there is that as to which you may rejoice); Pl. Trin. 310. Nihil habeō, quod accūsem senectūtem, *I have no reason to complain of old age;* C. Sen. 5, 13. Tibī causa nūlla est cūr velīs,[1] *you have no reason why you should wish.*

5. After **ūnus, sōlus**, and the like:

Sapientia est ūna quae maestitiam pellat, *wisdom is the only thing which dispels* (may dispel) *sadness;* C. Fin. 1, 13, 43. Sōlī centum erant quī creārī patrēs possent, *there were only one hundred who could be made senators.*

6. After Comparatives with **quam**:

Damna māiōra sunt quam quae (ut ea) aestimārī possint, *the losses are too great to be estimated* (greater than so that they can be estimated); L. 3, 72.

NOTE. — For the Infinitive after comparatives with **quam**, see **643, 2.**

7. After **dīgnus, indīgnus, idōneus**, and **aptus**:

Hunc Caesar idōneum iūdicāverat quem mitteret, *Caesar had judged him a suitable person to send* (whom he might send); Caes. C. 3, 10, 2. Fabulae dīgnae quae legantur, *plays worth reading* (which may or should be read).

NOTE. — For the Infinitive with these words, see **608**, 4, and note 1.

592. The Subjunctive, originally Potential, is used in Relative clauses to denote Cause or Reason:

Ō vīs vēritātis, quae sē dēfendat, *O the power of truth, that it* (which) *can defend itself;* C. Am. 26, 63. Ō fortūnāte adulēscēns, quī tuae virtūtis Homērum praecōnem invēnerīs, *O fortunate youth, in having obtained* (who may have obtained) *Homer as the herald of your valor;* C. Arch. 10, 24. Nec facillimē āgnōscitur, quippe quī blandiātur, *he is not very easily detected, as he is likely to flatter.* Maritimae rēs, ut quae celerem mōtum habērent, *maritime affairs, as they involve prompt movement* (as things which would have, etc.). Nōn procul aberat, utpote quī sequerētur, *he was not far away, as he was pursuing* (as one who might be pursuing); S. C. 57, 4.

[1] Observe that the mood in **cūr velīs** would be precisely the same in an independent sentence. It is Potential, not Deliberative.

1. **Quippe, ut,** and **utpote** sometimes accompany the relative in Causal clauses, as in the last three examples. They emphasize the causal relation.

2. In Plautus and Terence, causal clauses with **quī** and **quippe quī** admit either the Indicative or the Subjunctive. The latter mood emphasizes the causal relation and is used especially with **ut quī**:

Quem rogem, quī hīc nēminem alium videam, *whom am I to ask, since I can see no other one here?* Ut quī mē tibī esse cōnservom velint, *since they* (as those who) *would wish me to be your fellow-servant;* Pl. Capt. 243.

3. Causal clauses with **quī** admit the Indicative in all writers, when the statement is viewed as a fact rather than as a cause:

Habeō senectūtī grātiam, quae mihī sermōnis aviditātem auxit, *I cherish gratitude to old age, which has increased my love of conversation;* C. Sen. 14, 46.

4. In Sallust **quippe quī** regularly takes the Indicative:

Quippe quī rēgnum animō iam invāserat, *since in thought he had already seized the kingdom;* S. 20, 6.

593. The Subjunctive, originally Jussive, is used

1. In those Relative clauses which are equivalent to Conditional clauses with the Subjunctive (**573**):

Haec quī (= sī quis) videat, nōnne cōgātur cōnfitērī, etc., *if any one should see these things, would he not be compelled to admit,* etc.? C. N. D. 2, 4, 12. Quī vidēret, urbem captam dīceret, *if any one saw it, he would say that the city was taken;* C. Ver. 4, 23, 52.

2. In those Relative clauses which are equivalent to Concessive clauses with the Subjunctive (**586**, II.):

Absolvite eum, quī sē fateātur pecūniās cēpisse, *acquit him, although he confesses* (let him confess) *that he has accepted money;* C. Ver. 3, 95, 221. Egomet quī leviter Graecās litterās attigissem, tamen complūrēs diēs Athēnīs sum commorātus, *although I had pursued Greek studies only superficially, yet I remained in Athens several days;* cf. C. Or. 1, 18, 82.

MOODS WITH Quīn

594. Rule. — I. **Quīn** in direct questions and commands takes the ordinary construction of independent sentences:

Quīn cōnscendimus equōs, *why do we not mount our horses?* L. 1, 57, 7. Quīn tacēs, *why are you not silent?* Quīn ūnō verbō dīc, *nay, say in a single word;* T. And. 45.

II. **Quīn** in subordinate clauses takes the Subjunctive:[1]

Nec dubitārī dēbet, quīn fuerint ante Homērum poētae, *nor ought it to be doubted that there were poets before Homer;* C. Brut. 18, 71. Neque recūsāre, quīn armīs contendant, *and that they do not refuse to contend in arms.* Nēmō est tam fortis, quīn reī novitāte perturbētur, *no one is so brave, as not to be disturbed by the suddenness of the event;* Caes. 6, 39, 3.

1. In number I., observe that the use of **quīn** in commands is developed from its use in questions. Thus, **quīn tacēs**, *why are you not silent?* implies a reproof which readily passes into a Command, as **quīn tacē**, *nay, be silent.*

2. In number II., the **quīn** clause in the first example is developed from the interrogative **quīn** = **quī-ne**, meaning *why not?* **Quīn . . . poētae**, *why may there not have been poets before Homer?* The mood is Potential. In the next example, **quīn** is used in the sense of **quō minus** and thus introduces a clause of Purpose; see **568**. In the last example, **quīn** is equivalent to **quī nōn** and introduces a clause of Characteristic and accordingly takes the Potential Subjunctive.

595. Quīn is used after Negatives and Interrogatives implying a Negative. Thus:

1. After negative expressions implying Doubt, Uncertainty, Distance, Omission, and the like, as **nōn dubitō, nōn dubium est, nihil abest, nihil** or **nōn praetermittō**, etc.:

Nōn dubitat quīn sit Trōia peritūra, *he does not doubt that Troy will fall;* C. Sen. 10, 31. Nōn erat dubium, quīn plūrimum possent, *there was no doubt that they had very great power;* Caes. 1, 3. Nihil abest quīn sim miserrimus, *nothing is wanting to make me* (that I should be) *most unhappy.* Nūllum intermīsī diem, quīn aliquid ad tē litterārum darem, *I have allowed no day to pass without sending* (but that I sent) *a letter to you.*

2. After verbs of Hindering, Preventing, Refusing, and the like, to denote Purpose, like **quō minus** and **nē** after the same verbs:

Quīn loquar haec, numquam mē potest dēterrēre, *you can never deter me from saying this;* Pl. Amph. 559. Retinērī nōn potuerant quīn tēla cōicerent, *they could not be restrained from hurling their weapons;* Caes. 1, 47, 2.

3. After **facere nōn possum, fierī nōn potest**, etc., in Object and Subject clauses:

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[1] **Quīn** in subordinate clauses seems to represent two separate words: an interrogative **quīn** = **quī-ne**, *why not*, from which was developed a negative relative, meaning *by which not* = **quōminus**; and a relative **quīn** = **quī nōn, quae nōn, quod nōn**, *who not.*

Facere nōn possum, quīn cottīdiē litterās ad tē mittam, *I cannot but send* (cannot help sending) *a letter to you daily;* cf. C. Att. 12, 27. Efficī nōn potest quīn eōs ōderim, *it cannot be brought about that I should not hate them.*

4. After **nēmō, nūllus, nihil, quis,** and the like, in the sense of **quī nōn, quae nōn, ut nōn**:

Nēmō est, quīn mālit, *there is no one who would not prefer;* cf. C. Fam. 6, 1, 1. Nēmō est quīn audierit, *there is no one who has not heard.* Nūlla fuit cīvitās quīn Caesarī pārēret, *there was no state which was not subject to Caesar.* Quis est quīn cernat, *who is there who does not* (would not) *perceive?* C. Acad. 2, 7, 20.

5. After various verbs with **numquam** and in Interrogative clauses with **umquam**:

Numquam tam male est Siculīs, quīn aliquid facētē dīcant, *it is never so bad with the Sicilians that they cannot say something witty;* C. Ver. 4, 43, 95. Quis umquam templum illud adspexit quīn avāritiae tuae testis esset, *who ever looked upon that temple without being a witness of your avarice?*

6. A pronoun, **is** or **id**, referring to the subject of the principal clause, is sometimes expressed after **quīn**:

Quis vēnit quīn is dē avāritiā tuā commonērētur, *who came without being reminded* (but that he was reminded) *of your avarice?* C. Ver. 1, 59, 154.

596. Special Verbs. — Certain verbs which take **quīn** with more or less frequency also admit other constructions. Thus:

1. **Nōn dubitō** admits either a **quīn** clause or a dependent question:

Nōlīte dubitāre, quīn huic crēdātis omnia, *do not hesitate to intrust everything to him;* C. Man. 23, 68. Nōn dubitō quid nōbīs agendum putēs, *I do not doubt what you think we ought to do;* C. Att. 10, 1, 2.

2. A few verbs of Hindering and Opposing, especially **dēterreō** and **impediō**, take the Subjunctive with **nē, quīn,** or **quō minus**:

Hōs multitūdinem dēterrēre nē frūmentum cōnferant, *that these deter the multitude from bringing the grain together;* Caes. 1, 17, 2. Quīn loquar haec, numquam mē potēs dēterrēre, *you can never deter me from saying this.* Nōn dēterret sapientem mors quō minus reī pūblicae cōnsulat, *death does not deter a wise man from deliberating for the republic;* C. Tusc. 1, 38, 91.

CLAUSES WITH **Cum**

597. The particle **cum**, like the relative from which it is derived, is very extensively used in subordinate constructions, as in Causal, Concessive, and Temporal clauses.

SUBJUNCTIVE WITH **Cum** IN CAUSAL AND CONCESSIVE CLAUSES

598. Rule. — In writers of the best period, Causal and Concessive clauses with **cum** take the Subjunctive:

Cum vīta sine amīcīs metūs plēna sit, ratiō monet amīcitiās comparāre, *since life without friends is* (would be) *full of fear, reason advises us to establish friendships;* C. Fin. 1, 20, 66. Quae cum ita sint, perge, *since these things are so, proceed.* Quippe cum eōs dīligāmus, *since in truth we love them;* C. Am. 8, 28. Utpote cum sine febrī labōrāssem, *since indeed I had been without fever in my illness.* Cum praesertim vōs alium mīseritis, *especially since you have sent another;* C. Man. 5, 12.

Phōciōn fuit pauper, cum dīvitissimus esse posset, *Phocion was a poor man, although he might have been very rich;* cf. N. 19, 1, 2. Sōcratēs, cum facile posset ēdūcī ē cūstōdiā, nōluit, *Socrates, though he could easily have escaped from prison, was unwilling to do so;* cf. C. Tusc. 1, 29, 71. Cum multa sint in philosophiā ūtilia, *although there are many useful things in philosophy.*

1. Observe that the causal relation is emphasized by the addition of **quippe** and **utpote** to **cum**, precisely as it is by the addition of these particles to **quī**; see **592**, 1. **Praesertim** added to **cum**, as in the fifth example, has a similar force.

599. Indicative in Causal and Concessive Clauses with Cum. — The Indicative in Causal clauses with **cum** is the regular construction in Plautus and Terence; and it is used in all writers when the statement is viewed as an actual fact, especially after **laudō**, **gaudeō**, **grātulor**, and the like:

Quom optumē fēcistī, *since you have done excellently;* Pl. Capt. 423. Quom hōc nōn possum, *since I have not this power.* Cum dē tuīs factīs conqueruntur, *since they complain of your deeds;* C. Ver. 2, 64, 155. Grātulor tibī, cum tantum valēs, *I congratulate you on the fact that you have so great influence.*

1. Concessive clauses with **cum** sometimes take the Indicative to emphasize the fact rather than the concession:

Cum tabulās emunt, tamen dīvitiās suās vincere nequeunt, *though they purchase paintings, they are yet unable to exhaust their wealth;* S. C. 20, 12.

2. **Ut . . . sīc** and **ut . . . ita**, *though . . . yet* (as . . . so), involving Comparison, rather than Concession, generally take the Indicative:

Ut ā proeliīs quiētem habuerant, ita nōn cessāverant ab opere, *though* (as) *they had had rest from battles, yet* (so) *they had not ceased from work.*

MOODS IN TEMPORAL CLAUSES WITH **Cum**

600. Rule. — Temporal clauses with **cum**, meaning *when*, *while*, *after*, take

I. The Indicative in the Present, Perfect, and Future Tenses:

Librōs, cum est ōtium, legere soleō, *I am wont to read books when I have leisure;* C. Or. 2, 14, 59. Tum cum urbem condidit, *at the time when he founded the city.* Cum Caesar in Galliam vēnit, *when Caesar came into Gaul.* Cum hominēs cupiditātibus imperābunt, *when men shall govern their desires.*

1. **Cum Inversum.** — Here belong clauses with **cum inversum**, i.e. with **cum** in the sense of **et tum**, *and then.* This is an inverted construction by which the leading thought is put in the Temporal clause which generally takes the Historical Present or Perfect, often with **repente, subitō**, or some similar word, while the Principal clause generally takes the Imperfect or Pluperfect with **vix, nōndum, iam**, etc.:

Vix ille hōc dīxerat, cum iste prōnūntiat, etc., *scarcely had he said this when* (and then) *that man proclaimed*, etc.; C. Ver. 2, 88, 93. Diēs nōndum decem intercesserant, cum alter fīlius necātur, *ten days had not yet intervened when* (and then) *the other son was put to death.*

II. The Subjunctive in the Imperfect and Pluperfect Tenses:

Zēnōnem, cum Athēnīs essem, audiēbam frequenter, *I often heard Zeno when I was at Athens;* C. N. D. 1, 21, 59. Cum dīmicāret, occīsus est, *when he engaged in battle, he was slain;* N. 21, 3, 2. Fuistī saepe, cum Athēnīs essēs, in scholīs philosophōrum, *you were often in the schools of the philosophers, when you were at Athens.* Caesarī cum id nūntiātum esset, mātūrat ab urbe proficīscī, *when this had been announced to Caesar, he hastened to set out from the city.* Cum trīduī viam prōcessisset, nūntiātum est eī, etc., *when he had gone a three days' journey, it was announced to him*, etc.

1. It will be found on an examination of these and similar examples that temporal clauses introduced by **cum** with the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive name, or describe, the occasion on which the action of the principal verb is performed. Thus presence in Athens was the essential condition on which alone one could hear Zeno, and in the fourth example the announcement made to Caesar was the actual cause of his hasty departure from the city. These clauses therefore sustain a close relationship to causal clauses with **cum**, and probably take the Subjunctive after the analogy of those clauses. They are used chiefly in historical narration, in which the causal relation of events is often manifest.

2. The Subjunctive of the second person singular, used of an indefinite *you*, meaning *any one*, may be used in any tense:

Difficile est tacēre, cum doleās, *it is difficult to be quiet when you are suffering;* C. Sull. 10, 31. Cum quōsdam audīrēs, *when you heard certain persons;* C. Brut. 85, 184.

601. Indicative. — The Indicative in the Imperfect and Pluperfect in Temporal clauses with **cum** is the regular construction in Plautus and Terence, but it is exceedingly rare[1] in the classical period. It is used, however, in temporal clauses, which logically are nearly or quite independent of the principal clause. Thus

1. After **cum** = **et tum**, as often in **cum interim, cum intereā**, *when in the meantime* = *and* or *but in the meantime;* **cum etiam tum**, *and even then;* **cum nōndum, hauddum**, *and not yet:*

Caedēbātur virgīs, cum intereā nūllus gemitus audiēbātur, *he was beaten with rods, but in the meantime no groan was heard;* C. Ver. 5, 62, 162. Multum diēī prōcesserat, cum etiam tum ēventus in incertō erat, *a large part of the day had passed, and even then the result was uncertain.*

2. After such correlative expressions as **tum . . . cum**, *then . . . when;* **eō** or **illō tempore** or **diē . . . cum**, *on that time* or *day . . . when*, and kindred expressions:

Senātus tum, cum flōrēbat imperium, dēcrēvit, *the senate decreed at that time when its power was at its height;* C. Div. 1, 41, 92. Eō tempore pāruit, cum pārēre necesse erat, *he obeyed at that time when it was necessary to obey.*

Note. — So in the dating of letters:

Cum haec scrībēbam, spērābam,[2] *when I wrote this, I hoped;* C. Fam. 3, 13.

3. After **cum**, meaning *from the time when, since, during which*, in such expressions as the following:

Nōndum centum et decem annī sunt cum lāta est lēx, *it is not yet a hundred and ten years since the law was proposed;* C. Of. 2, 21, 75. Permultī annī iam erant, cum nūlla certāmina fuerant, *it was already many years during which there had been no contests.*

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[1] Caesar, Dē Bellō Gallicō, has about two hundred and forty instances of the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive in clauses with **cum**, and only one of the Imperfect Indicative, explained by **601**, 2, and seven of the Pluperfect Indicative, explained by **601**, 4. Nepos has upwards of three hundred Subjunctives in these clauses, and only four Indicatives in the Imperfect and Pluperfect tenses.

[2] Remember that the tense is here adapted to the time of the reader, while to the writer the time is present.

4. More commonly after **cum**, meaning *as often as, whenever*, in clauses denoting Repeated Action or General Truth, though the Subjunctive is often used:

Haec renovābam, cum licēbat, *I was wont to renew my acquaintance with these subjects whenever an opportunity offered;* C. Acad. P. 1, 3, 11. Cum rosam vīderat, tunc incipere vēr arbitrābātur, *whenever he saw* (had seen) *a rose, he thought that spring was beginning;* C. Ver. 5, 10, 27. Erat, cum dē iūre cīvīlī disputārētur, argūmentōrum cōpia, *whenever the discussion was about the civil law, there was an abundance of arguments.*

NOTE. — **Meminī cum**, *I remember when*, generally takes the Indicative; **audiō cum, videō cum**, and **animadvertō cum** generally the Subjunctive:

Meminī, cum mihī dēsipere vidēbāre, *I remember when you seemed to me to be unwise;* C. Fam. 7, 28, 1. Soleō audīre Rōscium, cum dīcat, *I am accustomed to hear Roscius say* (when he says); C. Or. 1, 28, 129. Ego ex iīs saepe audīvī, cum dīcerent, etc., *I have often heard them say* (from them when they said); C. Or. 2, 37, 155.

TEMPORAL CLAUSES WITH **Postquam, Ubī, Ut**, ETC.

602. Rule. — Temporal Clauses, introduced by the particles, **postquam, posteā quam**, *after*, — **prīdiē quam, postrīdiē quam**, *on the day before, on the day after;* **ubī, ut, simul, simul atque**, *when, as, as soon as*, — state facts, and accordingly take the Indicative, generally the Perfect, or the Historical Present:

Postquam omnēs Belgārum cōpiās ad sē venīre vīdit, castra posuit, *after he saw that all the forces of the Belgae were coming against him, he pitched his camp;* Caes. 2, 5, 4. Prīdiē quam tū coāctus es cōnfitērī, etc., *on the day before you were compelled to admit*, etc.; C. Ver. 5, 80, 77. Ubī dē ēius adventū certiōrēs factī sunt, *when they were informed of his approach.* Id ut audīvit, *as soon as he heard this.* Simul in āridō cōnstitērunt, *as soon as they stood on dry land.* Postquam vident, *after they saw.*

1. The Pluperfect is used to denote the result of a Completed action, and to mark the interval between two events:

Posteā quam bis cōnsul fuerat, *after he had been twice consul;* C. Div. C. 21, 69. Annīs sex postquam vōverat, *six years after he had made the vow;* L. 42, 10.

2. The Pluperfect is also used to denote Repeated or Customary action:

Ut quisque vēnerat, haec vīsere solēbat, *every one, as he came, was wont to visit these objects;* C. Ver. 4, 3, 5.

NOTE 1. — Other tenses of the Indicative are comparatively rare, though the Present and Imperfect are sometimes used to denote Incomplete action:

Postquam aurum habēs, *now that you have the gold;* Pl. Truc. 919. Postquam nox aderat, *when night was approaching;* S. 53, 7.

NOTE 2. — In a few passages, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are found after **postquam** and **posteā quam**:

Posteā quam sūmptuōsa fierī fūnera coepissent, Solōnis lēge sublāta sunt, *after funerals had begun to be expensive, they were abolished by Solon's law;* C. Leg. 2, 25, 64.

3. In Livy and the late historians, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are often used in temporal clauses to denote Repeated action and General truth, and sometimes even in earlier writers:

Id ubī dīxisset, hastam mittēbat, *when he had said this, he was wont to hurl a spear;* L. 1, 32, 13. Ut quisque venīret, *as each one arrived;* L. 2, 33.

4. In any temporal clause, the Subjunctive may be used in the second person singular to denote an indefinite subject, *you, one, any one:*

Ubī perīclum faciās, *when you make the trial;* Pl. Bac. 63. Ubī revēnissēs domum, *when you* (any one) *had returned home.* Priusquam incipiās, cōnsultō opus est, *before you begin, there is need of deliberation;* S. C. 1, 6.

TEMPORAL CLAUSES WITH **Dum**, **Dōnec**, AND **Quoad**

603. Rule. — I. Temporal clauses with **dum, dōnec,** and **quoad,** meaning *as long as,* take the Indicative:

Hōc fēcī, dum licuit, *I did this as long as it was allowed;* C. Ph. 3, 13, 33. Haec cīvitās, dum erit, laetābitur, *this state will rejoice as long as it shall exist.* Dōnec eris sōspes, *as long as you shall be prosperous.* Quoad potuit, restitit, *he resisted as long as he could;* Caes. 4, 12, 6.

II. Temporal clauses with **dum, dōnec,** and **quoad,** meaning *until,* take:

1. The Indicative, Present, Perfect, or Future Perfect, when the action is viewed as an actual fact:

Dēlīberā hōc, dum ego redeō, *consider this until I return;* T. Ad. 196. Dōnec perfēcerō hōc, *until I shall have accomplished this.* Quoad renūntiātum est, *until it was actually announced;* N. 15, 9, 3.

2. The Subjunctive, Present or Imperfect, when the action is viewed as something desired, proposed, or conceived:

Differant, dum dēfervēscat īra, *let them defer it until their anger cools*, or *shall cool;* C. Tusc. 4, 36, 78. Exspectās dum dīcat, *you are waiting until he speaks* (i.e. that he may speak). Dōnec cōnsiliō patrēs fīrmāret, *until he strengthened the senators by his counsel.* Ea continēbis quoad tē videam, *you will keep them until I see you;* C. Att. 13, 21, 4.

604. Special Constructions of dum and dōnec. — Note the following:

1. **Dum**, meaning *while*, as distinguished from *as long as*, generally takes the Historical Present Indicative (**533**, 4), but in the poets and in the historians it sometimes takes the Imperfect Subjunctive:

Dum ea geruntur, Caesarī nūntiātum est, *while those things were taking place, it was announced to Caesar.* Dum ea gererentur, bellum concītur, *while those things were taking place, war was begun;* L. 10, 18.

2. **Dōnec** belongs chiefly to poetry and late prose. It is not found in Caesar or Sallust, and only four times in Cicero. In Livy **dōnec**, meaning *while*, is found with the Imperfect Subjunctive of a repeated action, and with the meaning *until* it is found with the Pluperfect Subjunctive. In Tacitus, when it means *until*, it generally takes the Subjunctive, whatever the tense:

Nihil trepidābant, dōnec continentī velut ponte agerentur, *they did not fear at all while they were driven on a continuous bridge, as it were;* L. 21, 28. Rhēnus servat violentiam cursūs, dōnec Ōceanō mīsceātur, *the Rhine preserves the rapidity of its current until it mingles with the ocean;* Tac. A. 2, 6, 3.

TEMPORAL CLAUSES WITH **Antequam** AND **Priusquam**

605. Rule. — I. In Temporal clauses with **antequam** and **priusquam** the Present and Perfect are put in the Indicative when the action is viewed as an Actual Fact, and in the Subjunctive when the action is viewed as something Desired, Proposed, or Conceived:

Antequam ad sententiam redeō, dē mē pauca dīcam, *before I resume asking your opinions, I shall say a few words in regard to myself;* C. C. 4, 10, 20. Nec prius respexī quam vēnimus, *nor did I look back until we arrived.* Priusquam incipiās, cōnsultō opus est, *before you begin, there is need of deliberation;* S. C. 1, 6. Nōn prius ducēs dīmittunt, quam sit concessum, etc., *they did not let the leaders go, until it was granted,* etc.; Caes. 3, 18, 7.

II. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are put in the Subjunctive: [1]

Pervēnit, priusquam Pompēius sentīre posset, *he arrived before Pompey could become aware of his approach;* Caes. C. 3, 67, 4. Paucīs ante diēbus quam Syrācūsae caperentur, *a few days before Syracuse was taken;* L. 25, 31, 12. Antequam dē meō adventū audīre potuissent, in Macedoniam porrēxī, *before they were able* (had been able) *to hear of my approach, I went straight into Macedonia;* C. Planc. 41, 98.

1. When the Principal clause is negative, and contains an historical tense, the Temporal clause generally takes the Perfect Indicative, as in the second example under the rule, rarely the Imperfect, Indicative or Subjunctive:

Nec, antequam vīrēs deerant, expūgnātī sunt, *nor were they captured until their strength failed;* L. 23, 30, 4. Nōn prius ēgressus est quam rēx eum in fidem reciperet, *he did not withdraw until the king took him under his protection;* N. 2, 8, 4.

2. The Future Indicative is exceedingly rare, and is found only in Plautus and Cato:

Priusquam istam pūgnam pūgnābō, *before I fight that battle;* Pl. Pseud. 594.

3. The Pluperfect Subjunctive is very rare; see the third example under II.

INFINITIVE. — SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES

606. The Infinitive is a verbal noun with special characteristics. Like verbs, it has voice and tense, takes adverbial modifiers, and governs oblique cases.

607. Rule. — Infinitive. — Many verbs admit the Infinitive to complete or qualify their meaning:

Cupiō vidēre, quī id audeat dīcere, *I desire to see who will dare to say this;* C. Phil. 5, 2, 6. Proeliō supersedēre statuit, *he decided to avoid* (abstain from) *a battle;* Caes. 2, 8. Dēsinō quaerere, *I forbear to inquire.* Latīnē loquī didicerat, *he had learned to speak Latin;* S. 101, 6. Quid facere cōgitās, *what do you intend to do?* Dubitās abīre, *do you hesitate to depart?* Persium nōn cūrō legere, *I do not care to read Persius.* Dēbēs hōc rescrībere, *you ought to write this in reply.*

[1] The Subjunctive in the Imperfect and Pluperfect is sometimes best explained like the Subjunctive after **Dum**, and sometimes like the Subjunctive of the historical tenses after **cum**; see **600, II.**

1. The Infinitive is used especially with transitive verbs meaning *to dare, desire, determine; to begin, continue, end; to know, learn; to intend, prepare; to hesitate, not to care, refuse; to owe, be under obligations*, etc.

NOTE. — After these verbs the Infinitive is the object of the action, like the Accusative with a transitive verb, but with some of them the Subjunctive is sometimes used; see **565, 568**, etc.

2. The Infinitive is also used with Intransitive verbs meaning *to be able, to be wont, be accustomed*, etc.:

Mortem effugere nēmō potest, *no one is able to escape death.* Rūrī esse soleō, *I am wont to be in the country.*

ORIGIN, EARLY USE, AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE INFINITIVE

608. Originally the Latin Infinitive appears to have been made up of Dative and Locative forms of a verbal noun. Indeed, in early Latin and in the poets, rarely in classical prose, it is used in special constructions with nearly the same force as the Dative of Purpose or End (**425**, 3). It is thus used:

1. With many Intransitive verbs, especially with those which denote Motion, **eō, abeō, veniō**:

Illa abiit aedem vīsere Minervae, *she has gone to see the temple of Minerva;* Pl. Bac. 900. Ībit aurum arcessere, *he will go to get the gold.* Nōn populāre penātēs vēnimus, *we have not come to lay waste your homes;* V. 1, 527.

2. With Transitive verbs in connection with the Accusative:

Pecus ēgit altōs vīsere montēs,[1] *he drove his herd to visit the lofty mountains;* H. 1, 2, 7. Quid habēs dīcere, *what have you to say?* Dederat comam diffundere ventīs,[1] *she had given her hair to the winds to scatter;* V. 1, 319.

3. Sometimes, chiefly in poetry and late prose, with verbs which usually take the Subjunctive:

Gentem hortor amāre focōs, *I exhort the race to love their homes;* V. 3, 133. Cunctī suāsērunt Ītaliam petere, *all advised to seek Italy;* V. 3, 363.

4. With a few adjectives:

Est parātus audīre, *he is prepared to hear;* C. Inv. 1, 16, 23. Avidī committere pūgnam, *eager to engage in battle;* O. M. 5, 75. Fōns rīvō dare nōmen idōneus, *a fountain worthy to give its name to the river;* H. E. 1, 16, 12.

[1] In these examples with transitive verbs, observe that the Accusative and Infinitive correspond to the Accusative and Dative under **424**, and that the Accusative, Dative, and Infinitive correspond to the Accusative and two Datives under **433**.

NOTE 1. — With adjectives, and participles used as adjectives, the Infinitive, rare in prose, is freely used in poetry in a variety of constructions:

Cantāre perītus, *skilled to sing*, or *in singing;* V. Ec. 10, 32. Piger scrībendī ferre labōrem, *reluctant to bear the labor of writing;* H. S. 1, 4, 12. Erat dignus amārī, *he was worthy to be loved.* Certa morī, *determined to die.* Vitulus niveus vidērī, *a calf snow-white to view;* H. 4, 2, 59.

NOTE 2. — The Infinitive also occurs, especially in poetry, with verbal nouns and with such expressions as **cōpia est, tempus est**:

Cupīdō Stygiōs innāre lacūs, *a desire to sail upon the Stygian lakes;* V. 6. 133. Quibus molliter vīvere cōpia erat, *who had the means for living at ease;* S. C. 17, 6. Tempus est māiōra cōnārī, *it is time to attempt greater things;* L. 6, 18, 13.

609. Infinitive as Object or Subject. — From this early use of the Infinitive to denote the Object or End of the Motion, or Action, expressed by the verb, was gradually developed its use as a General Modifier of the verb and as the Direct Object of the action:

Exīmus lūdōs vīsere,[1] *we have come out to see the sports;* Pl. Cas. 855. Mortem effugere nēmō potest, *no one is able to escape death.* Māgna negōtia volunt agere,[1] *they wish to perform great deeds.* Scythīs bellum īnferre[1] dēcrēvit, *he decided to wage war against the Scythians;* N. 1, 3, 1.

1. From the use of the Infinitive as the direct object of the action was developed its use as the Subject of the verb:

Dēcrēvērunt nōn dare sīgnum, *they decided not to give the signal.* Dēcrētum est nōn dare sīgnum, *it was decided not to give the signal.*

2. The Infinitive sometimes occurs with Prepositions:

Multum interest inter dare et accipere, *there is a great difference between giving and receiving;* Sen. Ben. 5, 10, 1.

610. Historical Infinitive. — In lively descriptions, the Present Infinitive, like the Historical Present, is sometimes used for the Imperfect or Perfect Indicative. It is then called the Historical Infinitive, and, like a finite verb, has its subject in the Nominative:

Catilīna in prīmā aciē versārī, omnia prōvidēre, multum ipse pūgnāre, saepe hostem ferīre, *Catiline was active in the front line, he attended to everything, fought much in person, and often smote down the enemy;* S. C. 60, 4.

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[1] **Vīsere** illustrates this early use of the Infinitive, but **agere** is the direct object of **volunt** and **īnferre** of **dēcrēvit**.

1. The Historical Infinitive sometimes denotes customary or repeated action:

Omnia in pēius ruere ac retrō referrī, *all things change rapidly for the worse, and are borne backwards;* V. G. 1, 199.

2. Remember that the subject of an Infinitive, when not historical, is put in the Accusative, and that it was originally developed from the direct object of the principal verb (**414, 415**):

Rēgem trādunt sē abdidisse, *they relate that the king concealed himself.*

NOTE. — In this example, **rēgem** is the subject of **abdidisse**, but originally it was the direct object of **trādunt**.

3. An Infinitive and its subject, with their modifiers, form what is called an Infinitive clause, in distinction from the simple Infinitive. Thus, in the example just given, **rēgem sē abdidisse** is an Infinitive clause.

611. Passive Construction. — When a Transitive verb, which has an Accusative and an Infinitive depending upon it, becomes Passive, it may admit one or both of the following constructions:

1. The Personal construction, in which the noun or pronoun which is the object of the active becomes the subject of the passive. Thus, **rēgem trādunt sē abdidisse**, if made to take the personal construction in the passive, becomes **rēx sē abdidisse trāditur**, *the king is said to have concealed himself.*

2. The Impersonal construction, in which the verb is used impersonally, and the rest of the sentences unchanged, becomes the impersonal subject. Thus, **rēgem trādunt sē abdidisse**, if made to take the impersonal construction in the passive, becomes **rēgem sē abdidisse trāditur**, *it is said that the king concealed himself.*

NOTE 1. — A few verbs admit either the personal or the impersonal construction, as **dīcor, iūdicor, nūntior, putor**, and **trādor**.

NOTE 2. — A few verbs generally take the personal construction, as **iubeor, vetor**, and **videor**; also, **arguor, audior, cōgnōscor, exīstimor, intellegor, invenior, prohibeor, reperior**, etc.

NOTE 3. — A few verbs generally take the impersonal construction, as **adfertur, cōnfitendum est, crēditur, fatendum est, prōditur**, etc.

612. A Predicate Noun, or a Predicate Adjective, after an Infinitive, or a Participle in a compound tense of an Infinitive, agrees with the noun or pronoun of which it is predicated, according to the general rules of agreement (**393, 394**). It is thus put:

1. In the Nominative, when it is predicated of the principal subject:

Sōcratēs pārēns philosophiae dīcī potest, *Socrates can be called the father of philosophy;* C. Fin. 2, 1.

2. In the Accusative, when predicated of the subject of the Infinitive, expressed or understood:

Ego mē Phīdiam esse māllem, *I should prefer to be Phidias;* C. Brut. 73, 257. Contentum suīs rēbus esse māximae sunt dīvitiae, *to be content with one's own is very great wealth;* C. Parad. 6, 3, 51.

NOTE 1. — In the compound forms of the Infinitive, **esse** is often omitted, especially in the future:

Flūmen neque hostēs trānsiturōs exīstimābat, *nor did he think that the enemy would cross the river;* Caes. 6, 7, 5.

NOTE 2. — As a rare exception in early Latin, the participle in the Future Active Infinitive occurs with the ending **ūrum** regardless of the gender of the subject:

Alterō tē occīsūrum ait, alterō vīlicum, *with one* (sword) *she says that she will kill you, with the other the bailiff;* Pl. Cas. 693.

3. Generally in the Dative, but sometimes in the Accusative, when predicated of a noun or pronoun in the Dative:

Patriciō tribūnō plēbis fierī nōn licēbat, *it was not lawful for a patrician to be made tribune of the people;* C. Har. 21, 44. Eī cōnsulem fierī licet, *it is lawful for him to be made consul;* Caes. C. 3, 1, 1.

INFINITIVE CLAUSE AS OBJECT

613. The Accusative and an Infinitive, or an Infinitive with a Subject Accusative, is used as the Object of a great variety of verbs, especially of verbs of Perceiving, Thinking, and Declaring:

Sentīmus nivem esse albam, *we perceive that snow is white.* Nēmō umquam prōditōrī crēdendum putāvit, *no one ever thought that we ought to trust a traitor.* Simōnidem prīmum ferunt artem memoriae prōtulisse, *they say that Simonides was the first to make known the art of memory;* C. Or. 2, 86, 351.

1. Verbs of Perceiving and Thinking include **audiō, videō, sentiō; cōgitō, putō, exīstimō, crēdō, spērō; intellegō, sciō,** etc.

2. Verbs of Declaring are **dīcō, nārrō, nūntiō, doceō, ostendō, prōmittō,** etc.

3. Expressions equivalent to verbs of perceiving and of declaring — as **fāma fert,** *report says;* **testis sum,** *I am a witness, I testify;* **cōnscius**

mihĭ sum, *I am conscious, I know* — also admit an Accusative with an Infinitive:

Nūllam mihĭ relātam esse grātiam, tū es testis, *you are a witness that no grateful return has been made tō me;* C. Fam. 5, 5, 2.

4. Verbs of Perceiving generally take the Accusative with a Present Participle when the object is to be represented as actually seen, heard, etc., while engaged in a given act:

Catōnem vīdī in bibliothēca sedentem, *I saw Cato sitting in the library;* C. Fin. 3, 2, 7. Videt sequentēs, ūnum haud procul ab sēsē abesse, *he sees them following, one not far from himself;* L. 1, 25, 8.

5. Note the following constructions with **audiō**:

Sōcratem audiō dīcentem, *I hear Socrates say;* C. Fin. 2, 28, 90. Soleō audīre Rōscium, cum dīcat, *I am wont to hear Roscius say;* C. Or. 1, 28, 129. Saepe ex socerō meō audīvī, cum is dīceret, *I have often heard* (from) *my father-in-law say;* C. Or. 2, 6, 22.

6. **Subjects Compared.** — When two subjects with the same predicate are compared, and the Accusative with the Infinitive is used in the first clause, the Infinitive may be understood in the second:

Platōnem ferunt sēnsisse idem quod Pȳthagoram, *they say that Plato held the same opinion as Pythagoras;* C. Tusc. 1, 17, 39.

7. **Predicates Compared.** — When two predicates with the same subject are compared, and the Accusative with the Infinitive is used in the first clause, the Accusative may be understood in the second, or the second clause may take the Subjunctive with or without **ut**:

Num putātis dīxisse eum minācius quam factūrum fuisse, *do you think that he spoke more threateningly than he would have acted?* C. Ph. 5, 8, 21. Audeō dīcere ipsōs potius cultōrēs agrōrum fore quam ut colī prohibeant, *I dare say that they will themselves become tillers of the fields rather than prevent them from being tilled;* L. 2, 34.

614. An Infinitive Clause is also used as the Object of verbs of Wishing, Desiring, Commanding, and their opposites,[1] and of verbs of Emotion and Feeling[1]:

Tē tuā fruī virtūte cupimus, *we desire that you should enjoy your virtue;* C. Brut. 97, 331. Pontem iubet rescindī, *he orders the bridge to be broken down.* Lēx eum necārī vetuit, *the law forbade that he should be put to death.*

Gaudeō id tē mihĭ suādēre, *I rejoice that you give me this advice.* Minimē mīrāmur tē laetārī, *we do not wonder at all that you were pleased.*

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[1] As **cupiō, optō, volō, nōlō, mālō**, etc.; **patior, sinō, imperō, iubeō; prohibeō, vetō**, etc.; **gaudeō, doleō, mīror, queror, aegrē ferō**, etc.

1. Several verbs involving a Wish or a Command admit the Subjunctive, with or without **ut** or **nē**, when a new subject is introduced:

Volō ut mihī respondeās, *I wish you would answer me;* C. Vat. 6, 14. Quid vīs faciam, *what do you wish me to do?* Suīs imperāvit nē quod tēlum in hostēs rēicerent, *he commanded his men not to hurl any weapon back upon the enemy.*

2. **Volō, nōlō, mālō,** and **cupiō** also admit the simple Infinitive when no new subject is introduced:

Vērum audīre nōn vult, *he does not wish to hear the truth.* Servīre quam pūgnāre māvult, *he prefers to serve rather than to fight.* Scīre cupiō quid reprehendās, *I desire to know what you criticise.*

3. On the construction of **volō, nōlō,** and **mālō,** see also **565, 2.**

4. Verbs of Emotion and Feeling sometimes take a clause with **quod,** *that* or *because,* and sometimes with **cum,** in nearly the same sense:

Gaudeō quod tē interpellāvī, *I rejoice that* (because) *I have interrupted you.* Dolēbam quod socium āmīseram, *I was grieving because I had lost a companion.* Tibī grātiās agō, cum tantum litterae meae potuērunt, *I thank you that my letter had so great influence;* C. Fam. 13, 24, 2.

INFINITIVE OR INFINITIVE CLAUSE AS SUBJECT

615. An Infinitive, or an Infinitive Clause, is often used as the Subject of a verb:

Infinitive. — Dīligī iūcundum est, *to be loved is pleasant.* Nōn est mentīrī meum, *to tell a falsehood is not my way.* Peccāre licet nēminī, *to transgress is lawful for no one.* Facere fortia Rōmānum est, *to do brave deeds is Roman.* Vacāre culpā māgnum est sōlācium, *to be free from fault is a great comfort.* Cārum esse iucundum est, *to be held dear is delightful;* C. Fin. 1, 16, 53.

Infinitive Clause. — Caesarī nūntiātum est equitēs accēdere, *it was announced to Caesar that the cavalry was approaching;* Caes. 1, 46. Facinus est vincīre cīvem Rōmānum; scelus, verberāre, *to bind a Roman citizen is an outrage; to scourge him, a crime.* Omnibus expedit, salvam esse rem pūblicam, *it is important for all that the republic should be safe.*

1. When the subject is an Infinitive or an Infinitive clause, the predicate is either a noun or adjective with the verb **sum,** or a verb used impersonally, as in the examples above.

2. An Infinitive, or an Infinitive clause, may be the subject of another Infinitive:

Intellegī necesse est esse deōs, *it is necessary that it be understood that there are gods;* C. N. D. 1, 17, 44.

3. The Infinitive sometimes has a demonstrative or a possessive in agreement with it:

Quibusdam hōc displicet philosophārī, *this philosophizing displeases some persons;* C. Fin. 1, 1. Vīvere ipsum turpe est nōbīs, *to live is itself ignoble for us;* cf. C. Att. 13, 28, 2. Tuom cōnfertō amāre semper, *always consider your loving* (your love affairs); Pl. Curc. 28.

616. Special Constructions. — An Infinitive Clause is sometimes used

1. As a Predicate:

Exitus fuit ōrātiōnis sibī nūllam cum hīs amīcitiam esse posse, *the close of his oration was that he could have no friendship with these;* Caes. 4, 8.

NOTE. — Occasionally an Infinitive without a Subject is so used:

Doctō hominī vīvere est cōgitāre, *to a learned man to live is to think;* C. Tusc. 5, 38, 111.

2. As an Appositive:

Ōrāculum erat datum victrīcēs Athēnās fore, *an oracle had been given that Athens would be victorious.* Hōc admīrātus sum, mentiōnem tē hērēditātum ausum esse facere, *I wondered at this, that you dared to make mention of the inheritances;* C. Ph. 2, 16, 42.

3. In Exclamations:

Tē sīc vexārī, *that you should be thus troubled!* Mēne inceptō dēsistere victam, *am I vanquished to abandon my undertaking?* V. 1, 37.

4. In the Ablative Absolute:

Alexander, audītō Dārēum mōvisse, pergit, *Alexander, having heard that Darius had withdrawn* (that Darius had withdrawn having been heard) *advanced;* Curt. 5, 13, 1.

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE

617. The three tenses of the Infinitive, the Present, Perfect, and Future, represent the time of the action respectively as present, past, or future, relatively to that of the principal verb. Accordingly the Present denotes that the action is contemporaneous with that of the principal verb, the Perfect, that it is prior to it, and the Future, that it is subsequent to it.

618. The Present Infinitive denotes Contemporaneous Action:

Nōlīte id velle quod fierī nōn potest, *do not wish that which cannot be accomplished.* Catō esse quam vidērī bonus mālēbat, *Cato preferred to be*

SUPINES

632. The Supine, like the Gerund, is a verbal noun. It has a form in **um**, an Accusative, and a form in **ū**, generally an Ablative, though perhaps sometimes a Dative.

1. The Supine in **um** governs the same case as the verb:

Lēgātōs mittunt rogātum auxilium, *they send ambassadors to ask aid.*

Supines in um

633. Rule. — The Supine in **um** is used with verbs of motion to express purpose:

Ad Caesarem congrātulātum convēnērunt, *they came to Caesar to congratulate him.* Mittit rogātum vāsa, *he sends to ask for the vases.* Lēgātī vēnērunt rēs repetītum, *deputies came to demand restitution;* L. 3, 25, 6.

1. The Supine in **um** is sometimes used after verbs which do not directly express motion:

Daturne illa Pamphilō hodiē nūptum, *is she given in marriage to-day to Pamphilus?* T. And. 301. Lacedaemoniōs senem sessum recēpisse, *that the Lacedaemonians welcomed the old man to a seat;* C. Sen. 18, 63.

2. The Supine in **um** with the verb **eō** is equivalent to the forms of the Active Periphrastic conjugation, and may often be rendered literally:

Bonōs omnēs perditum eunt, *they are going to destroy all the good;* cf. S. C. 52, 12.

3. The Supine in **um** with **īrī**, the Infinitive Passive of **eō**, forms, it will be remembered (**235**, 2), the Future Passive Infinitive:

Brūtum vīsum īrī ā mē putō, *I think that Brutus will be seen by me.*

634. The Supine in **um** is not very common, though it occurs in a large number of verbs,[1] but Purpose may be denoted by various other constructions:

1. By the Subjunctive with **ut, nē, quō, quō minus**; see **568.**
2. By the Subjunctive in Relative clauses; see **590.**
3. By Gerundives or Gerunds; see **622, 626,** 5.
4. By Future Participles; see **638,** 3.

[1] According to Draeger, II., p. 829, the Supine in um is found in one hundred and seventy-nine verbs, and also forms an element in the Future Infinitive Passive of fifty-seven verbs.

Supines in ū

635. Rule. — The Supine in **ū** is generally used as an Ablative; sometimes perhaps as a Dative:

Quid est tam iūcundum audītū, *what is so agreeable to hear* (in hearing)? C. Or. 1, 8, 31. Dē genere mortis difficile dictū est, *it is difficult to speak of the kind of death;* C. Am. 3, 12. Sed ita dictū opus est, *but it is necessary to say this* (so, thus). Incrēdibile memorātū est, *it is incredible to relate.* Pudet dictū, *it is a shame to tell;* Tac. Agr. 32.

1. The Supine in **ū** is used with adjectives, as **facilis, difficilis**; **crēdibilis, incrēdibilis**; **iūcundus, iniūcundus**; **mīrābilis, terribilis**, etc.; with **fās, nefās, opus**, and in early or late Latin, with two or three verbs.

2. The Supine in **ū** is comparatively rare.[1] The most common examples are **audītū, aditū, cōgnitū, dictū, factū**; **intellēctū, inventū, memorātū, nātū, relātū, scītū, tāctū, trāctātū, victū, vīsū.**

3. It is probable that the Supine in **ū** contained originally the forms both of the Dative and of the Ablative, and that such forms as **memorātuī** are illustrations of the former:

Istaec lepida sunt memorātuī, *these things are fine to relate;* Pl. Bac. 62.

4. It is generally assumed that the second Supine never takes an object, but it may take the Ablative with a preposition, as in the second example, or an adverb, as in the third.

PARTICIPLES

636. The Participle is a verbal adjective which governs the same cases as the verb to which it belongs:

Animus sē nōn vidēns alia cernit, *the mind, though it does not see itself* (not seeing itself), *discerns other things;* C. Tusc. 1, 27, 67.

1. Remember that participles are sometimes used as substantives (**494**):

Cōnsiliō condentium urbēs, *in accordance with the policy of the founders of* (those who found) *cities.* Nihil difficile amantī putō, *I think nothing difficult for a lover.*

2. Participles used as substantives sometimes retain the adverbial modifiers which belong to them as participles, and sometimes assume adjective modifiers which belong to them as substantives:

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[1] According to Draeger, II., p. 833, on the authority of E. L. Richter, Dē Supīnīs Latīnae Linguae, the second Supine is found in one hundred and nine verbs, and is used with one hundred and sixty-two different adjectives.

Nōn tam praemia sequī rēctē factōrum quam ipsa rēctē facta, *not to seek the rewards of good deeds so much as good deeds themselves;* C. Mil. 35, 96. Factum praeclārum atque dīvīnum, *an excellent and divine deed;* C. Ph. 2, 44, 114.

3. A participle with a negative is often best rendered by a participial noun with the preposition *without:*

Voluptātēs nōn ērubēscēns persequitur, *he pursues pleasures without blushing;* C. N. D. 1, 40, 111. Nātūra dedit ūsūram vītae, nūlla praestitūtā diē, *nature has given the loan of life without fixing the day for payment.*

4. The Perfect Participle is often best rendered by a participial or verbal noun with *of:*

Homērus fuit ante Rōmam conditam, *Homer lived before the founding of Rome* (before Rome founded); C. Tusc. 1, 1, 3. Prōditae patriae crīmen, *the charge of having betrayed the country.*

637. Participles are sometimes equivalent to Qualifying Relative clauses:

Omnēs aliud agentēs, aliud simulantēs, improbī, *all who do one thing and pretend another are dishonest.*

638. Participles are sometimes equivalent to Adverbial clauses.

1. Participles sometimes denote Time, Cause, Manner, Means:

Platō scrībēns est mortuus, *Plato died while writing;* C. Sen. 5, 13. Fortissimē pūgnāns interficitur, *he is slain while bravely fighting.* Renūntiant, sē perfidiam veritōs revertisse, *they report that they returned because they feared perfidy.* Rōmānī grātulantēs Horātium accipiunt, *the Romans receive Horatius with congratulations* (congratulating). Sōl oriēns diem cōnficit, *the sun by its rising causes the day;* C. N. D. 2, 40, 102.

2. Participles sometimes denote Condition, or Concession:

Reluctante nātūrā, inritus labor est, *if nature opposes, effort is vain.* Ista iam diū exspectāns, nōn audeō tamen flāgitāre, *though I have been long expecting your treatise, yet I do not dare to ask for it;* C. Ac. 1, 1, 3.

3. Participles sometimes denote Purpose, the Future in Livy and late writers, the Gerundive even in the best authors (**622**):

Rediit, bellī cāsum tentātūrus, *he returned to try* (about to try) *the fortune of war;* L. 42, 62. Dedit mihī epistulam legendam tuam, *he gave me your letter to read.*

639. Participles are sometimes used in Latin where principal clauses would be required in English:

Classem dēvictam cēpit, *he conquered and took the fleet* (took the fleet conquered); N. 5, 2, 3.

1. Perfect Participles sometimes repeat the action of the preceding verb, or give its result:

Exercitum fundit, fūsum persequitur, *he routs the army and pursues it routed;* L. 1, 10, 4.

640. The Tenses of Participles, Present, Perfect, and Future, represent the time, respectively, as Present, Past, and Future relatively to that of the principal verb. Thus, in relation to the principal action, the Present represents contemporaneous action, the Perfect, prior action, and the Future, subsequent action:

Mendācī hominī nē vērum quidem dīcentī crēdere solēmus, *we are not wont to believe a liar even when he speaks the truth;* cf. C. Div. 2, 71, 146. Ūva mātūrāta dulcēscit, *the grape, when it has been ripened* (prior action), *becomes sweet.* Bona semper placitūra laudat, *he praises blessings that will always please* (subsequent action).

1. The Perfect Participle in deponent and passive verbs is sometimes used of present time, and sometimes in passive verbs it loses in a great degree its force as a tense and is best rendered by a verbal noun:

Īsdem ducibus ūsus Numidās mittit, *employing the same persons as guides he sends the Numidians;* Caes. 2, 7, 1. Incēnsās perfert nāvīs, *he reports the firing of the ships* (ships on fire); V. 5, 665.

2. The Perfect Participle with **habeō** has nearly the same force as the corresponding English Perfect with *have:*

Equitātum coāctum habēbat, *he had collected the cavalry* (had the cavalry collected); Caes. 1, 15, 1.

3. Perfect Participles are often used as predicate adjectives to denote the Result of the action:

Id parātī sunt facere, *they are prepared to do this;* C. Quinct. 2, 8.

4. The want of a Perfect Active Participle is sometimes supplied by a Temporal Clause, and sometimes by a Perfect Passive Participle in the Ablative Absolute:

Postquam in Trēvirōs vēnit, Rhēnum trānsīre cōnstituit, *having arrived among the Treviri, he decided to cross the Rhine;* Caes. 6, 9, 1. Equitātū praemissō subsequēbātur, *having sent forward his cavalry, he followed.*

5. The want of a Present Passive Participle is generally supplied by a Temporal clause:

Cum ā Catōne laudābar, reprehendī mē ā cēterīs facile patiēbar, *being praised by Cato, I cheerfully bore being* (to be) *censured by the others;* C. Orator, 13, 41.

INDIRECT DISCOURSE — ORATIO OBLIQUA

641. Direct and Indirect Discourse. — When a writer or speaker expresses thoughts in the original words of the author, he is said to use the Direct Discourse, **Ōrātiō Rēcta**; but when he expresses thoughts, whether his own, or those of another, in any other form, he is said to use the Indirect Discourse, **Ōrātiō Oblīqua.** The Indirect Discourse regularly depends upon a verb of Saying, Thinking, Perceiving, etc.:

Direct. — Platō in Ītaliam vēnit, *Plato came into Italy.*

Indirect with ferunt. — Platōnem ferunt in Ītaliam vēnisse, *they say that Plato came into Italy.*

Direct. — Ūtilis est scientia, *knowledge is useful.*

Indirect with arbitror. — Ūtilem arbitror esse scientiam, *I think that knowledge is useful.*

1. Words quoted without change belong to the Direct Discourse:

Direct. — Duumvirōs secundum lēgem faciō, *I appoint duumvirs according to law.*

Direct with inquit. — Rēx "duumvirōs" inquit "secundum lēgem faciō," *the king said,* "*I appoint duumvirs according to law.*"

MOODS AND TENSES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE

Moods in Principal Clauses

642. Rule. — The principal clauses of the Direct Discourse, on becoming Indirect, take the Infinitive with the Subject Accusative when Declarative, and the Subjunctive when Interrogative or Imperative:

Dīcō classem māgnam superātam esse atque dēpressam,[1] *I say that a large fleet was conquered and sunk.* Caesar respondit sē id factūrum, *Caesar replied that he would do it.* Catō mīrārī sē āiēbat, *Cato was wont to say that he wondered.* Hippiās glōriātus est ānulum sē suā manū cōnfēcisse,[1] *Hippias boasted that he had made the ring with his own hands;* C. Or. 3, 32, 127.

[1] In Direct Discourse these examples would read (1) **classis māgna superāta est atque dēpressa**, (2) **id faciam**, (3) **mīror**, (4) **ānulum meā manū cōnfēcī**. Observe that the pronominal subjects implied in **faciam, mīror**, and **cōnfēcī** are expressed with the Infinitive: **sē factūrum, mīrārī sē, sē cōnfēcisse**. But the subject is sometimes omitted when it can be readily supplied.

Ad postulāta Caesaris pauca respondit; quid sibī vellet? cūr in suās possessiōnēs venīret,[1] *to the demands of Caesar he replied briefly: what did he* (Caesar) *wish? why did he come into his possessions?* Caes. 1, 44, 7. Respondērunt; cūr suī quicquam esse imperiī trāns Rhēnum postulāret,[1] *they replied; why did he demand that anything beyond the Rhine should be under his sway?* Postulāvit eadem, nē Aeduīs bellum īnferret, obsidēs redderet,[2] *he made the same demands, that he should not make war upon the Aedui, and that he should return the hostages.* Scrībit Labiēnō cum legiōne veniat,[2] *he writes to Labienus to come* (that he should come) *with his legion;* Caes. 5, 46, 4.

1. The verb on which the Infinitive depends is often omitted, or only implied in some preceding verb or expression, especially after the Subjunctive of Purpose:

Pȳthia praecēpit ut Miltiadem imperātōrem sibī sūmerent; incepta prōspera futūra, *Pythia ordered that they should take Miltiades as their commander* (telling them), *that their efforts would be successful;* N. 1, 1, 3.

2. Rhetorical Questions — which are questions only in form, as they are used for rhetorical effect in place of declarative sentences — take the Infinitive. Here belong most questions which in the direct form have the verb in the first or in the third person:

Respondit, num memoriam dēpōnere posse,[3] *he replied, could he lay aside the recollection?* Caes. 1, 14, 3. Docēbant ā Caesare conventūra subsidia; quid esse levius, etc., *they showed that assistance would come from Caesar; what was more inconsiderate,* etc.?

3. Deliberative and Potential Questions generally retain the Subjunctive from the Direct Discourse:

In spem vēnerat, sē sine pūgnā rem cōnficere posse; cūr fortūnam perīclitārētur,[4] *he had hoped* (had come into the hope) *to be able to accomplish the work without a battle; why should he try fortune?* Caes. C. 1, 72, 1.

4. In the Indirect Discourse, affirmative commands, except after verbs of wishing and asking, generally take the Subjunctive without **ut**, but negative commands take the Subjunctive with **nē**; see examples.

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[1] In Direct Discourse these examples would read (1) **quid tibī vīs? cūr in meās possessiōnēs venīs?** and (2) **cūr tuī quicquam esse imperiī cis Rhēnum postulās?**

[2] In Direct Discourse, (1) **nōlī Aeduīs bellum īnferre, obsidēs redde,** and (2) **cum legiōne vēnī.**

[3] Direct Discourse, (1) **num memoriam dēpōnere possum?** = memoriam dēpōnere nōn possum, (2) **quid est levius?** = nihil est levius.

[4] Direct Discourse, **cūr fortūnam perīcliter?**

5. After **iubeō** and **vetō**, commands are regularly expressed by the Accusative with the Infinitive, but occasionally by the Subjunctive with or without **ut** or **nē**, especially in poetry:

Nāvēs aedificārī iubet, *he orders vessels to be built.* Castra mūnīrī vetuit, *he forbade the camp to be fortified.* Iubētō ut certet Amyntās, *bid Amyntas be my rival;* V. E. 5, 15.

Moods in Subordinate Clauses

643. Rule. — The subordinate clauses of the Direct Discourse, on becoming Indirect, take the Subjunctive:

Dīcō classem māgnam quae ad Ītaliam raperētur, superātam esse,[1] *I say that a large fleet, which was hurrying toward Italy, was conquered;* C. Man. 8, 21. Caesar respondit, sē id quod in Nerviīs fēcisset, factūrum,[2] *Caesar replied that he would do that which he had done in the case of the Nervii.* Hippiās glōriātus est ānulum quem habēret sē suā manū cōnfēcisse,[3] *Hippias boasted that he had made with his own hands the ring which he wore.*

1. Clauses introduced by relative pronouns, or by relative adverbs — as **ubī, unde, quārē**, etc. — sometimes have the force of independent clauses, and accordingly take the Infinitive with subject Accusative:

Ad eum dēfertur, esse cīvem Rōmānum quī quererētur, quem (= et eum) adservātum esse, *it was reported to him that there was a Roman citizen who made a complaint, and that he had been placed under guard;* C. Ver. 5, 62, 160. Dēmōnstrābitur, nē sī iūdiciō quidem illa damnāta esset potuisse hunc ipsum dē illā supplicium sūmere; quārē esse indignum, *it will be shown that not even if she had been condemned by a court of justice would he have been able to inflict punishment upon her; that therefore it was a disgraceful act.*

2. Clauses introduced by certain conjunctions, as **ut, quam, quam-quam, quia**, and **cum**, sometimes take the Infinitive with subject Accusative, especially in Livy and Tacitus:

Num putātis, dīxisse eum minācius quam factūrum fuisse, *do you think that he spoke more threateningly than he would have acted?* C. Ph. 5, 8, 21. Dīcit sē moenibus inclūsōs tenēre eōs, quia per agrōs vagārī, *he says that he keeps them shut up within the walls, because they would wander through the fields.* Cum interim lēgem tantam vim habēre, *when in the mean time the law has such force;* L. 4, 51, 4.

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[1] Direct, **classis māgna quae ad Ītaliam rapiēbātur superāta est.**
[2] Direct, **faciam id quod in Nerviīs fēcī.**
[3] Direct, **ānulum quem habeō meā manū cōnfēcī.**

3. Parenthetical and explanatory clauses introduced into the Indirect Discourse, without strictly forming a part of it, take the Indicative:

Referunt silvam esse, quae appellātur Bacēnis, *they report that there is a forest which is called Bacenis;* Caes. 6, 10, 5. Condrūsōs, quī Germānī appellantur, arbitrārī ad XL mīlia, *that they estimated the Condrusi, who are called Germans, at forty thousand.*

4. Sometimes clauses which are not parenthetical, especially relative and temporal clauses, take the Indicative to emphasize the fact stated:

Certior factus est ex eā parte vīcī, quam Gallīs concesserat, omnēs discessisse, *he was informed that all had withdrawn from that part of the village which he had assigned to the Gauls;* Caes. 3, 2.

644. Tenses in the Indirect Discourse generally conform to the ordinary rules for the use of tenses in the Subjunctive and Infinitive; but notice the following special points:

1. The Present and Perfect may be used even after an historical tense, to impart a more lively effect to the narrative:

Caesar respondit, sī obsidēs sibī dentur, sēsē cum iīs pācem esse factūrum, *Caesar replied that if hostages should be given to him, he would make peace with them;* Caes. 1, 14, 6. Exitus fuit ōrātiōnis, neque ūllōs vacāre agrōs, quī darī possint, *the close of the speech was that there were not any lands unoccupied which could be given.*

2. The Future Perfect in a subordinate clause of the direct discourse is changed in the indirect into the Perfect Subjunctive after a principal tense, and into the Pluperfect Subjunctive after an historical tense:

Cum trigeminīs agunt rēgēs, ut prō suā patriā dīmicent; ibī imperium fore, unde victōria fuerit, *the kings arrange with the triplet-brothers that they shall fight for their country; that the sovereignty shall be on the side which shall win the victory* (whence the victory shall have been); L. 1, 24, 2.

PRONOUNS AND PERSONS IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE

645. In passing from the Direct Discourse to the Indirect, pronouns of the first and second persons are generally changed to pronouns of the third person, and the first and second persons of verbs are generally changed to the third person:

Hippiās glōriātus est, pallium quō amictus esset, sē suā manū[1] cōnfēcisse, *Hippias boasted that he had made with his own hands the cloak which he wore*

[1] Direct, **ego meā manū.** **Ego** becomes **sē**, and **meā** becomes **suā.**

(in which he was clad). Respondit sī obsidēs ab **iīs sibī**[1] dentur, sēsē cum iīs pācem esse factūrum, *he replied that if hostages should be given to him by them, he would make peace with them.*

1. Thus (1) **ego** is changed to **suī, sibī**, etc., or to **ipse**; **meus** and **noster** to **suus**; (2) **tū** to **is** or **ille**, sometimes to **suī**, etc., **tuus** and **vester** to **suus**, or to the Genitive of **is**; and (3) **hīc** and **iste** generally to **ille**, but **hīc** is sometimes retained. But the pronoun of the first person may of course be used in reference to the reporter or author, and the pronoun of the second person in reference to the person addressed:

Mīror tē ad mē nihil scrībere, *I wonder that you do not write anything to me;* C. Att. 8, 12, B. 1.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE

646. Conditional sentences of the First and of the Second Form in the Indirect Discourse take the Subjunctive in the Condition and the Infinitive in the Conclusion:

Respondit sī quid Caesar sē velit, illum ad sē venīre oportēre,[2] *he replied that if Caesar wished anything of him, he ought to come to him;* Caes. 1, 34, 2. Id sī fieret, intellegēbat māgnō cum perīculō futūrum,[3] *he understood that if this should be done, it would be attended with great danger;* Caes. 1, 10, 2.

1. The Future Infinitive is the regular construction in the Conclusion of the second form, as in the last example.

2. The Conclusion takes the Subjunctive when it is Imperative or Interrogative, and when it is brought into such connection as to require that mood, as when it is the purpose or result of some other action:

Scrībit Labiēnō, sī reī pūblicae commodō facere posset, cum legiōne veniat, *he wrote to Labienus to come with his legion, if he could do so consistently with the interests of the republic;* Caes. 5, 46, 4. Caesar suās cōpiās prōdūxit, ut sī vellet Ariovistus proeliō contendere, eī potestās nōn deesset, *Caesar led out his forces in order that, if Ariovistus wished to fight, he might have the opportunity;* Caes. 1, 48, 3.

647. Conditional Sentences of the Third Form in the Indirect Discourse depending on a verb of Saying, Thinking, etc., retain the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive unchanged in the Condition, regardless of the Tense of the Principal verb, but in the

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[1] Direct, **a vōbīs mihī . . . ego vōbīscum. Vōbīs** becomes **iīs, vōbīscum** becomes **cum iīs, mihī** becomes **sibī**, and **ego, sēsē**.

[2] Direct, **sī quid Caesar mē vult illum ad mē venīre oportet.**

[3] Direct, **id sī fīat** or **fīet, māgnō cum perīculō sit** or **erit.**

Conclusion they take the Periphrastic Infinitive, the Present in **ūrum esse** when the condition belongs to present time, and the Perfect in **ūrum fuisse** when it belongs to past time:

Respondit, sī quid ipsī ā Caesare opus esset, sēsē ad eum ventūrum fuisse, *he replied that, if he needed anything from Caesar, he would have come to him;* Caes. 1, 34, 2. Clāmitābat, neque aliter Carnūtēs cōnsilium fuisse captūrōs, neque Eburōnēs, sī ille adesset, ad castra ventūrōs esse, *he cried out that otherwise the Carnutes would not have conceived the purpose, nor would the Eburones be coming to our camp;* Caes. 5, 29, 2.

1. The conclusion of this form of the conditional sentence in the Indirect Discourse corresponds to the Periphrastic Indicative in the Direct Discourse. Thus, in the first example, the conclusion in the Direct Discourse would be **ad tē ventūrus fuī.** Hence we have here the simple change from the Periphrastic Indicative to the Periphrastic Infinitive. For the close relationship in meaning between the Periphrastic Indicative and the regular Subjunctive, see **582, 1.**

2. In the conclusion of conditional sentences of the third form the circumlocution, **futūrum esse ut** or **fore ut** with the Imperfect Subjunctive for present time, and **futūrum fuisse ut** with the Imperfect Subjunctive for past time, is used in the passive voice and sometimes in the active:

Nisi nūntiī essent allātī, exīstimābant futūrum fuisse ut oppidum āmitterētur, *they thought that the town would have been lost, if tidings had not been brought;* cf. Caes. C. 3, 101, 3.

3. Remember that in the conclusion of conditional sentences of the third form, certain special verbs (**583**) generally take the ordinary forms of the historical tenses of the Indicative. In the Indirect Discourse the Perfect Infinitive of course takes the place of this Indicative, and in deponent and passive verbs it sometimes occurs where we expect the circumlocution:

Platōnem exīstimō, sī voluisset, gravissimē potuisse dīcere, *I think that Plato could have spoken most forcibly, if he had wished;* C. Off. 1, 1, 4. Respondit, sī populus Rōmānus alicūius iniūriae sibī cōnscius fuisset, nōn fuisse difficile cavēre, *he replied that if the Roman people had been conscious of any wrong doing, it would not have been difficult for them to be on their guard.* Nēmō mihī persuādēbit, multōs virōs tanta esse cōnātōs, nisi cernerent, etc., *no one will persuade me that many men would have attempted so great things, unless they perceived,* etc.; C. Sen. 23, 82.

648. Conditional Sentences of the Third Form depending on verbs which require the Subjunctive admit the following constructions:

I. If the condition relates to present time, the entire sentence remains unchanged:

Honestum tāle est, ut vel sī īgnōrārent id hominēs, suā tamen pulchritūdine esset laudābile, *honor is such that, even if men were ignorant of it, it would still be praiseworthy because of its own beauty;* cf. C. Fin. 2, 15, 49.

II. If the condition relates to past time, the condition remains unchanged, but the conclusion, though unchanged in the passive, takes one of the following forms in the active:

1. If it is an indirect question, the Perfect or Pluperfect of the Periphrastic Conjugation is used, the tense being determined by the general law for the sequence of tenses:

Dīc quidnam factūrus fuerīs sī cēnsor fuissēs, *say what you would have done, if you had been censor;* L. 9, 33.

2. If it is not an indirect question, the Perfect Subjunctive of the Periphrastic Conjugation is generally used:

Quis dubitat, quīn, sī Saguntīnīs tulissēmus opem, tōtum in Hispāniam āversūrī bellum fuerimus, *who doubts that if we had carried aid to the Saguntines, we should have transferred the entire war to Spain?* L. 31, 7.

3. But verbs denoting Ability, Duty, etc., **possum, oportet,** etc., generally take the Perfect Subjunctive of the rēgular conjugation:

Haud dubium fuit, quīn, nisi ea mora intervēnisset, castra capī potuerint, *there was no doubt that the camp could have been taken, if that delay had not occurred;* L. 24, 42.

INDIRECT CLAUSES

649. Indirect Discourse in its widest application includes, not only reported speeches, but all indirect clauses.

I. Subordinate Clauses containing statements made on the authority of any other person than that of the speaker, or on the authority of the speaker at any other time than that when the statements are reported, regularly take the Subjunctive:

Laudat Āfricānum quod fuerit abstinēns,[1] *he praised Africanus because he was temperate;* C. Off. 2, 22, 76. Hospitem inclāmāvit quod mihī fidem habēre nōluisset, *he rebuked the stranger because he had been unwilling to put confidence in me.* Privātim petere coepērunt, quoniam cīvitātī cōnsulere nōn

[1] **Quod . . . abstinēns,** *on the ground that,* etc., the reason in the mind of the eulogist, not of the historian.

possent,[1] *they began to present their personal petitions, since they could not act for the state.* Librōs quōs frāter suus relīquisset,[2] mihī dōnāvit, *he gave me the books which his brother had left;* C. Att. 2, 1, 12.

II. Indirect Questions are subordinate interrogative clauses and accordingly take the Subjunctive:

Epamīnōndās quaesīvit salvusne esset clipeus,[3] *Epaminondas inquired whether his shield was safe;* cf. C. Fin. 2, 30, 97. Quālis sit animus, animus nescit, *what the nature of the soul may be, the soul knows not.* Quaeritur, cūr doctissimī hominēs dissentiant, *the question is asked why the most learned men disagree.* Mīror cūr mē accūsēs, *I wonder why you accuse me.* Ut tē oblectēs scīre cupiō, *I wish to know how you amuse yourself.*

1. The Subjunctive is put in the periphrastic form in the indirect question when it represents a periphrastic form in the direct question:

Cupiō scīre ubī sīs hiemātūrus, *I desire to know where you are going to spend the winter.*

2. In indirect questions **ne** and **num** are used without any perceptible difference of meaning:

Quaesīvit, salvusne esset clipeus, *he asked whether his shield was safe;* C. Fin. 2, 30, 97. Num quid vellem, rogāvit, *he asked whether I wished anything;* C. Att. 6, 3, 6.

3. **SĪ** is sometimes best rendered, *to see whether, to see if, to try if,* etc. In this sense it generally takes the Subjunctive, but it also occurs with the Indicative, especially in the poets:

Tē adeunt, sī quid vīs, *they come to you to see if you wish anything;* C. Fam. 3, 9, 2. Īnspice, sī possum dōnāta repōnere laetus, *see whether I can cheerfully return your gifts.*

4. An Accusative, referring to the same person or thing as the subject of the question, is sometimes, especially in poetry, inserted as the direct object of the principal verb:

Quis tuum patrem, quis esset, audīvit, *who ever heard who your father was* (heard of your father who he was)? C. Deiot. 11, 30. Nōstī Mārcellum, quam tardus sit, *you know how slow Marcellus is.* Nōn mē pernōstī, quālis sim, *you do not know what sort of a person I am;* T. And. 503.

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[1] **Quoniam . . . nōn possent,** *since they could not,* as they thought.

[2] **Quōs . . . relīquisset,** *which he said his brother had left.*

[3] Here no question is directly asked; we are simply told that Epaminondas asked a question, but this statement involves the question, **salvusne est clipeus,** *is my shield safe?*

5. A Personal Passive construction, corresponding to this form of the active, is sometimes used, although indirect questions are in general either the objects of active verbs or the subjects of impersonal passive verbs:

Perspiciuntur quam sint levēs,[1] *it is seen* (they are seen) *how inconstant they are;* C. Am. 17, 63.

6. Often in early Latin, as in Plautus and Terence, and sometimes in the poets and in late writers, the Indicative is used in indirect questions, or at least in questions which would take the indirect form in the best prose:

Loquere tū, quid puerō factumst, *tell what has been done with the boy;* Pl. Truc. 787. Quīn tū dīc, quid est quod mē velīs, *nay, tell what it is, that you wish of me;* T. And. 45.

650. Indirect Double Questions are generally introduced by the same interrogative particles as those which are direct (**380**).

1. They generally take in the first member **utrum**, or **ne**, and in the second **an**, sometimes **anne**, in the sense of *or*, and **necne**, or **an nōn** in the sense of *or not:*

Difficile dictū est, utrum timuerint, an dīlēxerint, *it is difficult to say whether they feared or loved.* Quaeritur, sintne dī necne sint, *the question is asked whether or not there are gods;* C. N. D. 1, 22, 61.

2. But they often omit the particle in the first member, and take in the second **an**, or **ne** in the sense of *or*, and **necne**, or **an nōn**, in the sense of *or not:*

Vīvat an mortuus sit, quis cūrat, *who cares whether he is living or dead?* C. Ph. 13, 16, 33. Fīlius nepōsne fuerit parum liquet, *whether he was the son or the grandson is not at all clear.* Sapientia beātōs efficiat necne, quaestiō est, *whether or not wisdom makes men happy is a question.*

3. Other forms of indirect double questions, as those with **ne . . . ne**, **an . . . an**, etc., and those without any interrogative particles, are rare or poetic:

Quī teneant, hominēsne feraene, quaerere cōnstituit, *he determined to ascertain who inhabit them, whether men or beasts;* V. 1, 308. Velit, nōlit, scīre difficile est, *it is difficult to find out whether he wishes it or does not wish it.*

4. **An**, in the sense of *whether not*, implying an affirmative, is used after expressions of doubt and uncertainty: **dubitō an**, **nesciō an**, **haud sciō an**, *I doubt whether not, I know not whether not = I am inclined to think;* **dubium est an**, **incertum est an**, *it is uncertain whether not = it is probable:*

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[1] Observe that the passive construction corresponds to the active **perspiciunt, eōs quam sint levēs**, *they perceive them, how inconstant they are*, a form entirely analogous to **nōstī Mārcellum, quam tardus sit**, given above.

Dubitō an Thrasybūlum prīmum omnium pōnam, *I doubt whether I should not place Thrasybulus first of all* (i.e. I am inclined to think I should). Haud sciō an omnium praestantissimus, *I am inclined to think the most distinguished of all;* C. N. D. 2, 4, 11.

651. Indirect Questions must be carefully distinguished

1. From clauses introduced by relative pronouns or relative adverbs. These always have an antecedent expressed or understood, and are never, as a whole, the subject or object of a verb, while indirect questions are generally so used:

Relative. — Ego quod sentiō loquar, *I shall say what* (that which) *I think.*
Interrogative. — Dīcam quid intellegam, *I shall state what I understand.*

2. From clauses introduced by **nesciō quis = quīdam**, *some one*, **nesciō quō modo = quōdam modō**, *in some way*, **mīrum quantum**, *wonderfully much, wonderfully*, etc. These take the Indicative:

Hīc nesciō quis loquitur, *here some one* (I know not who) *speaks.* Id mīrum quantum prōfuit, *this profited, it is wonderful how much* (i.e. it wonderfully profited). Mīrē quam dēlectat, *how wonderfully it delights.*

652. Clauses closely dependent upon an Infinitive or upon a Subjunctive are virtually Indirect clauses, and as such they generally take the Subjunctive:

Quam bellum fuit cōnfitērī nescīre quod nescīrēs, *what a fine thing it was to admit not to know what you did not know;* C. N. D. 1, 30, 84. Recordātiōne nostrae amīcitiae sīc fruor ut beātē vīxisse videar quia cum Scīpiōne vīxerim, *I so enjoy the recollection of our friendship that I seem to have lived happily because I have lived with Scipio.* Vereor nē, dum minuere velim labōrem, augeam, *I fear that while I wish to diminish the labor, I shall increase it;* C. Leg. 1, 4, 12. Cum timidius ageret quam cōnsuesset, *since he acted more timidly than had been his custom;* Caes. C. 1, 19. 3.

1. In clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon a Subjunctive, the Subjunctive is used, when the dependent clauses are essential to the general thought of the sentence, as in the examples just given, but the Indicative is used when the clauses are in a measure parenthetical, and when they give special prominence to the fact stated, and often when they are introduced by **dum**, especially in the poets and historians:

Mīlitēs mīsit, ut eōs quī fūgerant persequerentur, *he sent soldiers to pursue those who had fled* (i.e. the fugitives); Caes. 5, 10, 1. Tanta vīs probitātis est, ut eam vel in eīs quōs numquam vīdimus, dīligāmus, *so great is the power of integrity that we love it even in those whom we have never seen.* Petam ā

2. **Autem** and **vērō** are postpositive, i.e. they are placed after one or more words in their clauses.

660. Illative Conjunctions (**315**, 4) denote Inference:

Nihil obstat; ergō omnia prōsperē, igitur beātē, *there is no opposition, therefore all things are moving prosperously, therefore happily;* C. Tusc. 5, 18, 53.

1. **Igitur** is generally postpositive: **hīc igitur**, *this one therefore.*

661. Causal Conjunctions (**315**, 5) denote Cause:

Nēmō enim maeret suō incommodō, *for no one mourns over his own misfortune;* C. Tusc. 1, 13, 30.

1. **Enim** is postpositive; **etenim** and **namque** are stronger than **enim** and **nam.**

NOTE. — The use of Subordinate Conjunctions has been illustrated in the discussion of Moods in Subordinate Clauses.

RULES OF SYNTAX

662. For convenience of reference, the principal Rules of Syntax are here introduced in a body.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE — RULES OF AGREEMENT

1. The subject of a Finite Verb is put in the Nominative (**387**).

2. A Finite Verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person (**388**).

3. A noun used as an Appositive or as a Predicate of another noun denoting the same person or thing agrees with it in Case (**393**).

4. Adjectives, whether Attributive or Predicate, agree with their nouns in Gender, Number, and Case (**394**).

5. Pronouns agree with their antecedents in Gender, Number, and Person (**396**).

VOCATIVE AND ACCUSATIVE

6. The name of the person or thing addressed is put in the Vocative (**402**).

7. The Direct Object of an action is put in the Accusative (**404**).

8. Verbs of Making, Choosing, Calling, Regarding, Showing, and the like, admit Two Accusatives of the Same Person or Thing (**410**).

9. Some verbs of Asking, Demanding, Teaching, and Concealing admit two Accusatives, — one of the Person and one of the Thing (**411**).

10. Many transitive verbs admit both an Accusative and an Infinitive (**414**).

11. **Subject of Infinitive.** — The Infinitive sometimes takes an Accusative as its subject (**415**).

12. **Accusative of Specification.** — In poetry, rarely in prose, a verb or an adjective may take an Accusative to Define its Application (**416**).

13. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are expressed by the Accusative (**417**).

14. The Place towards which the motion is directed as its End or Limit is generally denoted by the Accusative with **ad** or **in**, but in the names of Towns by the Accusative alone (**418**).

15. The Accusative may take a Preposition to aid in expressing the exact relation intended (**420**).

16. The Accusative, either with or without an interjection, may be used in Exclamations (**421**).

DATIVE

17. The Indirect Object of an action is put in the Dative. It may be used either alone or in connection with the Direct Object (**424**).

18. Two Datives — the Object To Which and the Object or End For Which — are used with a few verbs, either alone or in connection with the Direct Object (**433**).

19. Many adjectives take the Dative as the Indirect Object of the quality denoted by them (**434**).

20. The Dative is used with a few special nouns and adverbs derived from primitives which take the Dative (**436**).

GENITIVE

21. A noun used as an Attributive or Predicate of another noun denoting a *different* person or thing is put in the Genitive (**438**).

22. Many adjectives take an Objective Genitive to complete their meaning (**450**).

23. Verbs of Remembering and Forgetting — **memini**, **reminiscor**, and **oblīviscor** — regularly take the Objective Genitive when used of Persons, but either the Genitive or the Accusative when used of Things (**454**).

24. Verbs of Reminding, Admonishing, and Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, Condemning, Acquitting, take the Accusative of the Person and the Genitive of the Thing, Crime, Charge, etc. (**456**).

25. **Misereor** and **miserēscō** take the Objective Genitive; **miseret**, **paenitet**, **piget**, **pudet**, and **taedet** take the Accusative of the Person and the Genitive of the Object which produces the feeling (**457**).

ABLATIVE

I. Ablative Proper

26. The Ablative of Separation is generally used with a preposition — **ā**, **ab**, **dē**, or **ex** — when it represents a person or is used with a verb compounded with **ab**, **dē**, **dis**, **sē**, or **ex** (**461**).

27. The Ablative of Separation is generally used without a preposition when it is the name of a town, or is used after a verb meaning *to relieve, free, deprive, need,* or *be without* (**462**).

28. The Ablative of Source, including Agency, Parentage, and Material, generally takes a preposition, — **ā**, **ab**, **dē**, **ē**, or **ex** (**467**).

29. Comparatives without **quam** are followed by the Ablative (**471**).

II. Instrumental Ablative

30. The Ablative of Association is used (**473**):

(1) To denote Accompaniment, or Association in a strict sense. It then takes the preposition **cum**.

(2) To denote Characteristic or Quality. It is then modified by an adjective or by a Genitive.

(3) To denote Manner or Attendant Circumstance. It then takes the preposition **cum**, or is modified by an adjective or by a Genitive.

31. The Ablative of Cause, designating the Cause, Ground, or Reason for an action, is used without a preposition (**475**).

32. The Instrument and Means of an action are denoted by the Ablative without a preposition (**476**).

33. **Means. — Special Uses.** — (1) The Ablative of Means is used with **ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor,** and their compounds (**477**).

(2) The Ablative of Means is used with verbs of Abounding and Filling, and with adjectives of Fullness: **abundō, redundō, adfluō,** etc.; **compleō, expleō, impleō, onerō,** etc.; **onustus, refertus, plēnus,** etc.

(3) The Ablative of Means is used with **opus** and **ūsus,** often in connection with the Dative of the person.

34. Price and Value are denoted by the Ablative, if expressed definitely or by means of Nouns, but by the Genitive or Ablative, if expressed indefinitely by means of Adjectives (**478**).

35. The Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative. It is used (**479**):

(1) With Comparatives and Superlatives.

(2) With verbs and other words implying Comparison.

(3) To denote Intervals of Time or Space.

36. **Ablative of Specification.** — A Noun, Adjective, or Verb may take an Ablative to define its application (**480**).

III. Locative and Locative Ablative

37. The Place In Which anything is done is denoted generally by the Locative Ablative with the preposition **in,** but in names of Towns by the Locative (**483**).

38. The Time At or In Which an action takes place is denoted by the Ablative without a preposition (**486**).

39. **Ablative Absolute.** — A noun with a participle, an adjective, or another noun, may be put in the Ablative to add to the predicate an Attendant Circumstance (**489**).

40. The Ablative may take a preposition to aid in expressing the exact relation intended (**490**).

USE OF THE INDICATIVE

41. The Indicative is used in treating of facts (**523**).

SEQUENCE OF TENSES

42. Principal Tenses depend on Principal Tenses, and Historical on Historical (**543**).

SUBJUNCTIVE IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES

43. The Potential Subjunctive is used to represent the action, not as real, but as Possible or Conditional. The negative is **nōn** (**552**).

44. The Optative Subjunctive is used to express pure Desire without any idea of authority, as in prayers and wishes. The negative is **nē** (**558**).

45. The Volitive Subjunctive is used to represent the action, not as real, but as Willed. The negative is **nē**. This Subjunctive covers a wide range of feeling and comprises the following varieties (**559**):

(1) The Hortative Subjunctive, used in Exhortations, but only in the first person plural of the Present tense.

(2) The Imperative or Jussive Subjunctive, used chiefly in the third person, and generally best rendered by *let;* but see **560**.

(3) The Concessive Subjunctive, used in Admissions and Concessions.

(4) The Deliberative Subjunctive, used in Deliberative or Doubting Questions, implying that the speaker is in doubt in regard to the proper course to be pursued, and that he desires to be directed.

IMPERATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE AND IMPERATIVE

46. In commands the Subjunctive and Imperative supplement each other, the Imperative being used in the second person and the Subjunctive in the third (**560**).

SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

47. **Substantive Clauses.**—The Subjunctive, generally with **ut** or **nē**, may be used in Substantive Clauses which involve Purpose. Thus (**564**):

(1) In Substantive Clauses used as the Objects of Verbs.

(2) In Substantive Clauses used as Subjects or Predicates.

(3) In Substantive Clauses used as Appositives to Nouns or Pronouns.

48. **Final Clauses.** — The Subjunctive is used with **ut, nē, quō, quō minus, quōminus,** to denote the Purpose of the action (**568**).

49. The Potential Subjunctive is used in Subordinate clauses, whatever the connective, to represent the action as Possible or Conditional, rather than real (**569**).

50. **Consecutive Clauses.** — The Potential Subjunctive is used with **ut,** or **ut nōn,** to denote the Result of the action (**570**).

51. **Substantive Clauses.** — The Potential Subjunctive is often used with **ut** and **ut nōn** in Substantive Clauses as follows (**571**):

(1) In Subject clauses, with certain Impersonal verbs meaning *it happens, it follows,* etc., — **accidit, accēdit, ēvenit, fit, efficitur, fierī potest, fore, sequitur,** etc.

(2) In Subject clauses with Predicate nouns and adjectives.

(3) In Object clauses depending upon **faciō, efficiō,** etc., of the action of irrational forces.

(4) In clauses in Apposition with nouns or pronouns.

CONDITIONAL, CONCESSIVE, AND CAUSAL CLAUSES

52. The Indicative in Conditional Sentences with **sī, nisi, nī, sīn,** assumes the supposed case as Real (**574**).

53. The Present or Perfect Subjunctive in Conditional Sentences with **sī, nisi, nī, sīn,** assumes the supposed case as Possible (**576**).

54. The Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in Conditional Sentences with **sī, nisi, nī, sīn,** assumes the supposed case as Contrary to Fact (**579**).

55. Conditional Clauses of Comparison, introduced by **ac sī, ut sī, quam sī, quasi, tamquam, tamquam sī, velut, velut sī,** *as if, than if,* take the Subjunctive (**584**).

56. **Etsī** and **etiam sī,** when they mean *although,* introduce Adversative clauses and take the Indicative, but when they mean

even if, they introduce **Conditional clauses, and accordingly** take the same construction **as sī (585).**

57. (1) Clauses introduced by **quamquam** and **tametsī** contain admitted facts, and accordingly take the **Indicative (586).**

(2) Clauses introduced by **licet, quam-vīs, ut,** or **nē,** are Concessive, and accordingly take the **Concessive Subjunctive;** see **559.** 3.

58. The Jussive Subjunctive is used with **dum, modo, modo ut,** and **dummodo,** meaning *if only, provided,* in conditional clauses of desire (**587**).

59. Causal Clauses with **quod, quia, quoniam, quandō,** generally take (**588**):

(1) The Indicative **to assign a reason positively, on one's own** authority.

(2) The Subjunctive **to assign a reason doubtfully,** or on another's authority.

RELATIVE CLAUSES AND QUĪN CLAUSES

60. Clauses introduced by the Relative **quī,** or by Relative Adverbs, **ubī, unde, quō,** etc., take (**589**):

(1) The Indicative, when they simply state or assume facts, without any accessory notion of Purpose, Result, Concession, or Cause.

(2) The Subjunctive in all other cases.

61. (1) **Quīn** in direct questions and commands takes the ordinary construction of independent sentences (**594**).

(2) **Quīn** in Subordinate Clauses takes the Subjunctive.

CUM CLAUSES, TEMPORAL CLAUSES

62. In writers of the best period, Causal and Concessive Clauses with **cum** take the Subjunctive (**598**).

63. Temporal Clauses introduced by **cum,** meaning *when, while, after,* take (**600**):

(1) The Indicative in the Present, Perfect, and Future Tenses.

(2) The Subjunctive in the Imperfect and Pluperfect Tenses.

64. Temporal Clauses introduced by the particles **postquam, posteā quam,** *after,* **prīdiē quam, postrīdiē quam,** *on the day before, on the day after;* **ubī, ut, simul, simul atque,** *when, as, as soon as,* state facts, and accordingly take the Indicative, generally the Perfect, or the Historical Present (**602**).

65. I. Temporal clauses with **dum, dōnec,** and **quoad,** meaning *as long as,* take the Indicative (**603**).

II. Temporal clauses with **dum, dōnec,** and **quoad,** meaning *until,* take:

(1) The Indicative, Present, Perfect, or Future Perfect, when the action is viewed as an Actual Fact.

(2) The Subjunctive, Present or Imperfect, when the action is viewed as something Desired, Proposed, or Conceived.

66. (1) In Temporal clauses with **antequam** and **priusquam** the Present and Perfect are put in the Indicative when the action is viewed as an Actual Fact, and in the Subjunctive when the action is viewed as something Desired, Proposed, or Conceived (**605**).

(2) The Imperfect and Pluperfect are put in the Subjunctive.

INFINITIVE AND SUPINE

67. **Infinitive.** — Many verbs admit the Infinitive to complete or qualify their meaning (**607**).

68. The Supine in **um** is used with verbs of motion to express Purpose (**633**).

69. The Supine in **ū** is generally used as an Ablative, sometimes perhaps as a Dative (**635**).

MOODS IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE

70. **Principal Clauses.** — The Principal clauses of the Direct Discourse on becoming Indirect take the Infinitive with the Subject Accusative when Declarative, and the Subjunctive when Interrogative or Imperative (**642**).

71. **Subordinate Clauses.** — The Subordinate clauses of the Direct discourse on becoming Indirect take the Subjunctive (**643**).

ADVERBS

72. Adverbs qualify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs (**654**).

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS AND CLAUSES

663. The Latin allows great variety in the arrangement of the different parts of the sentence, thus affording peculiar facilities both for securing proper emphasis and for imparting to its periods that harmonious flow which characterizes the Latin classics. But with all this freedom and variety, there are certain general laws of arrangement which it will be useful to notice.

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS IN A SIMPLE SENTENCE

General Rules

664. The Subject followed by its modifiers occupies the first place in the sentence, and the Predicate preceded by its modifiers the last place:

Sōl oriēns et occidēns diem noctemque cōnficit, *the sun by its rising and setting makes day and night.* Scīpiō Āfricānus Carthāginem Numantiamque dēlēvit, *Scipio Africanus destroyed Carthage and Numantia;* C. C. 4, 10, 21.

1. The Modifiers of the Subject either follow it or are grouped around it. Substantive modifiers generally follow it, while Adjective modifiers may stand either before or after it; see **671**, 1–5:

Cluilius rēx moritur, *Cluilius the king dies.* Vērae amīcitiae sempiternae sunt, *true friendships are enduring.* Hominēs industriī in Āsiā negōtiantur, *active men are engaged in business in Asia.*

2. In the arrangement of the modifiers of the Predicate the place directly before the verb is generally occupied by the Direct object, or by an Adverb which directly qualifies the action:

Fortiter bellum gesserat, *he had waged war valiantly;* Flac. 39, 98. Rem pūblicam fēlīcissimē gessērunt, *they administered the republic most successfully;* Caes. C. 7, 7.

3. In the arrangement of Objects the Indirect object generally stands before the Direct:

Dārēus Scythīs bellum inferre dēcrēvit, *Darius decided to make war upon the Scythians.*

4. Expressions of Place, Time, or Means generally stand before the other modifiers of the verb, often even before the subject:

Athēniēnsēs locō idōneō castra fēcērunt, *the Athenians pitched their camp in a suitable place.* Proximō diē Caesar ē castrīs utrīsque cōpiās suās ēdūxit,

the next day Caesar led out his forces from both his camps; Caes. 1, 50. Marius commeātū nāvēs onerat, *Marius loads his vessels with supplies.*

665. Emphasis and the relative importance of different parts of the sentence often cause a departure from the Grammatical arrangement just described. Thus,

1. Any word, except the subject, may be made emphatic by being placed at the beginning of the sentence:

Catōnem quis nostrōrum ōrātōrum legit, *who among our orators reads Cato?* C. Brut. 17, 65. Numitōrī Remus dēditur, *Remus is delivered to Numitor.*

2. Any word, except the predicate, may be made emphatic by being placed at the end of the sentence:

Nōbīs nōn satisfacit ipse Dēmosthenēs, *even Demosthenes does not satisfy us;* cf. C. Or. 29, 104.

3. In any phrase within a sentence the emphatic word stands first:

Mihī ūnī cōnservātae reī pūblicae grātulātiōnem dēcrēvistis, *to me alone you have decreed a thanksgiving for having preserved the republic;* C. C. 4, 10, 20.

4. Two words naturally connected, as a noun and its adjective, or a noun and its limiting Genitive, are sometimes made emphatic by separation:

Obiūrgātiōnēs nōn numquam incidunt necessāriae, *sometimes necessary reproofs occur;* C. Off. 1, 88, 136.

NOTE. — A word is sometimes made emphatic by being placed between the parts of a compound tense or between **nē** and **quidem**:

Cōnsuētūdō imitanda medicōrum est, *the custom of physicians should be imitated;* C. Off. 1, 24, 88. Nē illud quidem, *not even that.*

666. Two groups of words may be made prominent and emphatic either by Anaphora or by Chiasmus.

1. **Anaphora.** — Here the order of words in the second group is identical with that in the first:

Mē cuncta Ītalia, mē ūniversa cīvitās cōnsulem dēclārāvit, *me all Italy, me the whole state proclaimed consul;* C. Pis. 1, 3.

2. **Chiasmus.** — Here the order of words in the first group is reversed in the second:

Fragile corpus animus sempiternus movet, *the imperishable soul moves the perishable body;* C. R. P. 6, 24. Satis ēloquentiae, sapientiae parum, *enough eloquence, but little wisdom.*

Special Rules

671. The Substantive Modifiers of a Noun generally follow it, but Adjective Modifiers may stand either before or after it:

Pausaniās in aedem Minervae cōnfūgit, *Pausanias fled into the temple of Minerva;* N. 4, 5, 2. Ūsus magister est optimus, *experience is the best teacher.* Tuscus ager Rōmānō adiacet, *the Tuscan territory borders on the Roman.*

1. Modifiers, when emphatic, generally stand before the noun:

Catōnis ōrātiōnēs, *Cato's orations;* Xenophōntis librī, *Xenophon's books.*

2. In a few expressions, the Genitive has a definite position before its noun and in a few others a definite position after it:

Magister equitum, *the master of the horse;* tribūnus plēbis, *tribune of the people;* tribūnus mīlitum, *tribune of the soldiers,* etc.; senātūs auctōritās, *the authority of the senate;* senātūs cōnsultum, *a decree of the senate.*

3. In certain expressions the Adjective regularly follows:

Cīvis Rōmānus, *a Roman citizen;* populus Rōmānus, *the Roman people;* pontifex māximus, *the chief priest;* dī immortālēs, *the immortal gods;* genus hūmānum, *the human race;* iūs cīvīle, *civil law,* etc.

4. When a noun is modified by an Adjective and a Genitive, the usual order is Adjective — Genitive — Noun:

Omnēs Graeciae cīvitātēs, *all the states of Greece.*

5. An Adjective is often separated from its noun by a monosyllabic preposition and sometimes by two or more words:

Māgnō cum perīculō, *with great peril;* māxima post hominum memoriam classis, *the largest fleet in the memory of man;* N. 2, 5.

672. **Modifiers of Adjectives.** — Adverbial modifiers generally st[illegible] djectives while Objective modifiers more commonly foll[illegible]

[illegible]ma, *a very great expectation.* Appetentēs glōriae [illegible] *glory and* [illegible]*irous of praise.*

[illegible]rbs [illegible]tand before them (**664**):

[illegible] best, *death is never far*

[illegible]c. 1, 38, 91.

[illegible] sentence the modi-

667. Kindred Words. — Different forms of the same word, or different words of the same derivation, are generally placed near each other.

Ad senem senex dē senectūte scrīpsī, *I, an old man, wrote to an old man about old age;* C. Am. 1.

668. A word which has a common relation to two other words connected by conjunctions, is placed

1. Generally before or after both:

Graecīs et litterīs et doctōribus, *by means of Greek literature and Greek teachers;* C. Tusc. 1, 1. Et bellī et pācis artibus, *by the arts both of war and of peace;* L. 1, 21.

NOTE. — But a Genitive, or an adjective, following two nouns, more frequently qualifies only the latter:

Percunctātiō ac dēnūntiātiō bellī, *the inquiry and the declaration of war.*

2. Sometimes directly after the first, before the conjunction:

Honōris certāmen et glōriae, *a struggle for honor and glory;* C. Am. 10.

669. Moreover, the context often has some share in determining the arrangement of words in the sentence. Thus,

1. A word or phrase closely related to some part of the preceding sentence generally stands at or near the beginning of its own sentence:

In hīs castrīs Albānus rēx moritur, *in this camp the Alban king dies.*

NOTE. — **In hīs castrīs** refers back to **castra** in the preceding sentence.

2. A word or phrase closely related to some part of the following sentence stands at or near the end of its sentence:

Apud Helvētiōs longē nōbilissimus fuit Orgetorix, *among the Helvetii by far the highest of the nobles was Orgetorix.* Is coniūrātiōnem nōbilitātis fēcit, *he formed a conspiracy of the nobles.*

670. Euphony and Rhythm. — The best Latin writers in the arrangement of words regard sound as well as meaning. They aim at variety in the length, sound, and ending of successive words and pay special attention to the manner in which the sentence closes. A word of two or more syllables with a clear and full sound is generally selected for this place:

Pūblius Āfricānus, Carthāgine dēlētā, Siculōrum urbēs signīs monumentīsque pulcherrimīs exōrnāvit, *Publius Africanus, having destroyed Carthage, adorned the cities of the Sicilians with the most beautiful statues and monuments;* C. Ver. 2, 2, 3.

Special Rules

671. The Substantive Modifiers of a Noun generally follow it, but Adjective Modifiers may stand either before or after it:

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1. Modifiers, when emphatic, generally stand before the noun:

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3. In certain expressions the Adjective regularly follows:

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672. Modifiers of Adjectives. — Adverbial modifiers generally stand before adjectives while Objective modifiers more commonly follow them:

Exspectātiō valdē māgna, *a very great expectation.* Appetentēs glōriae atque avidī laudis, *eager for glory and desirous of praise.*

673. The Modifiers of verbs generally stand before them (**664**):

Mors propter brevitātem vītae numquam longē abest, *death is never far distant in consequence of the shortness of life;* cf. C. Tusc. 1, 38, 91.

NOTE. — When the verb stands at the beginning of the sentence the modifiers of course follow it and may be separated from it:

Silent lēgēs inter arma, *laws are silent in war;* C. Mil. 4, 10.

674. Modifiers of adverbs generally stand before them, but a Dative depending on an adverb usually follows it:

Illud valdē graviter tulērunt, *they bore this with great displeasure.* Congruenter nātūrae vīvit, *he lives in harmony with nature.*

675. Pronouns. — Possessives generally follow the nouns to which they belong, but other pronominal adjectives generally precede their nouns, Demonstratives and Interrogatives regularly:

Cōpiās suās dīvīsit, *he divided his forces.* Cūstōs hūius urbis, *the guardian of this city.* In quā urbe vīvimus, *in what sort of a city are we living?*

1. **Ille** in the sense of *well-known* usually follows its noun, if not accompanied by an adjective: **Mēdēa illa**, *that well-known Medea*, but **Māgnus ille Alexander**, *that famous Alexander the Great.*

2. Pronouns are often grouped together, especially **quisque** with **suus** or **suī**:

Per sē quisque sibī cārus est, *every one is by his own nature dear to himself;* C. Am. 21, 80.

676. Prepositions generally stand directly before their cases, but **tenus** and **versus** follow their cases:

Taurō tenus, *as far as Taurus.* Narbōnem versus, *towards Narbo.*

1. The preposition frequently follows the relative, sometimes other pronouns, and sometimes even nouns, especially in poetry:

Ītaliam contrā, *over against Italy;* quibus dē, *in regard to which;* hunc post, *after him.* See also **175**, 7; **182**, 2.

2. Genitives, adverbs, and a few other words sometimes stand between the preposition and its case. In adjurations **per** is usually separated from its case:

Ad eārum rērum facultātem, *to a supply of those things.* Ad bene beātēque vīvendum, *for living well and happily.* Per ego hās lacrimās tē ōrō, *I implore you by these tears;* V. 4, 314.

677. Conjunctions and Relatives, when they introduce clauses, generally stand at the beginning of such clauses: but **autem, enim, quidem, quoque, vērō**, and generally **igitur**, follow some other word:

Sī haec cīvitās est, *if this is a state.* Iī quī audiunt, *those who hear.* Ipse autem omnia vidēbat, *but he himself saw everything.* See also **659**, 2, and **660**, 1.

1. Conjunctions and relatives may follow emphatic words:

Id ut audīvit, *as he heard this.* Trōiae quī prīmus ab ōrīs vēnit, *who came first from the shores of Troy;* V. 1, 1.

2. **Que, ve, ne,** introducing a clause or phrase, are generally appended to the first word; but if that word is a preposition, they are often appended to the next word:

In forōque, *and in the forum.* Inter nōsque, *and among us.*

678. **Nōn,** when it qualifies some single word, stands directly before that word; but when it is particularly emphatic, or qualifies the entire clause, it sometimes stands at the beginning of the clause, and sometimes before the finite verb or before the auxiliary of a compound tense:

Homō nōn probātissimus, *a man by no means the most approved.* Nōn fuit Juppiter metuendus, *Jupiter was not to be feared.* Pecūnia solūta nōn est, *the money has not been paid.*

1. In general, in negative clauses the negative word, whether particle, verb, or noun, is made prominent:

Nūlla vidēbātur aptior persōna, *there seemed to be no more fitting character.* Nihil est melius, *nothing is better.*

679. **Inquam,** sometimes **āiō,** introducing a quotation, follows one or more of the words quoted:

Nihil habeō, inquit, quod accūsem senectūtem, *I have nothing, said he, of which to accuse old age;* C. Sen. 5, 13.

680. The Vocative rarely stands at the beginning of a sentence. It usually follows an emphatic word:

Vōs, Quirītēs, in vestra tēcta discēdite, *you, Romans, retire to your homes.*

ARRANGEMENT OF CLAUSES

681. Clauses connected by coördinate conjunctions (**315, 1**) follow each other in the natural order of the thought, as in English:

Sōl ruit et montēs umbrantur, *the sun hastens to its setting, and the mountains are shaded.* Gȳgēs ā nūllō vidēbātur, ipse autem omnia vidēbat, *Gyges was seen by no one, but he himself saw all things.*

682. A clause used as the Subject of a compound sentence (**386, 2**) generally stands at the Beginning of the sentence, and a clause used as the Predicate at the End:

Quid diēs ferat incertum est, *what a day may bring forth is uncertain.* Exitus fuit ōrātiōnis, sibī nūllam cum hīs amīcitiam esse, *the close of the oration was, that he had no friendship with these men.*

1. This arrangement is the same as that of the simple sentence ; see **664**.
2. Emphasis and euphony often have the same effect on the arrangement of clauses as on the arrangement of words ; see **665, 670.**

683. Clauses used as the Subordinate Elements of compound sentences admit three different arrangements.

1. They are generally inserted within the principal clause, like the subordinate elements of a simple sentence:

Ariovistus, ex equis ut colloquerentur, postulāvit, *Ariovistus demanded that they should converse on horseback;* Caes. 1, 43. Libenter hominēs id quod volunt crēdunt, *men willingly believe that which they wish;* Caes. 3, 18, 6.

2. They are often placed before the principal clause:

Cum quiēscunt, probant, *while they are quiet, they approve.* Quālis sit animus, animus nescit, *the soul knows not what the soul is.*

Note. — This arrangement is generally used when the subordinate clause either refers back to the preceding sentence, or is preparatory to the thought of the principal clause. Hence Causal, Temporal, Conditional, and Concessive clauses often precede the principal clause, and in sentences composed of correlative clauses with **is . . . quī, tālis . . . quālis, tantus . . . quantus, tum . . . cum, ita . . . ut**, etc., the relative member, i.e. the clause with **quī, quālis, quantus, cum, ut**, etc., generally precedes.

3. They sometimes follow the principal clause:

Ēnītitur ut vincat, *he strives that he may conquer.* Sōl efficit ut omnia flōreant, *the sun causes all things to bloom.*

Note. — This arrangement is generally used when the subordinate clause is either intimately connected in thought with the following sentence, or explanatory of the principal clause. Hence, clauses of Purpose and Result generally follow the principal clause, as in the examples.

684. When either the subject or the object is the same both in the Principal and in the Subordinate clause, it usually stands at or near the beginning of the sentence and is followed by the subordinate clause:

Hostēs ubī prīmum nostrōs equitēs cōnspexērunt, celeriter nostrōs perturbāvērunt, *the enemy, as soon as they saw our cavalry, quickly put our men to rout;* Caes. 4, 12. Illa ut potuī tulī, *those things I endured as* (well as) *I could.*

1. When the object of the principal clause is the same as the subject of the subordinate clause, it usually stands at the beginning of the sentence:

Vōs moneō ut fortī animō sītis, I counsel you to be of a courageous spirit.

685. Latin Periods. — A carefully elaborated Latin sentence consisting of one or more subordinate clauses inserted in the principal clause, or placed before it, and so combined with it and with each other as to make one complete organic whole, is a Latin Period:

Ut quod turpe est, id quamvīs occultētur, tamen honestum fierī nūllō modō potest; sīc quod honestum nōn est, id ūtile ut sit efficī nōn potest, *as that which is base, although it may be concealed, can in no way be made honorable, so that which is not honorable can not by any possibility be made useful;* C. Off. 3, 19, 78.

Ut saepe hominēs aegrī morbō gravī, cum aestū febrīque iactantur, sī aquam gelidam bibērunt, prīmō relevārī videntur, deinde multō gravius vehementiusque adflīctantur, sīc hīc morbus quī est in rē pūblicā, relevātus istīus poenā, vehementius vīvīs reliquīs ingravēscet, *as men ill with a severe disease if they take cold water when they are tossed with heat and fever, often seem at first to be relieved but afterwards are much more grievously and violently distressed, so this disease which is in the republic, though alleviated by the punishment of this one, will gain greater strength while the rest are alive;* C. C. 1, 13, 31.

Note 1. — The examples under **683**, 1, and the first example under **684**, are also short and simple illustrations of the periodic structure, so popular with Latin writers.

Note 2. — For further illustration of the Latin Period, see Cicero's Third Oration against Catiline, 12, **sed quoniam . . . prōvidēre**; the Oration for the Poet Archias, 1, **quod sī haec . . . dēbēmus**; also Livy, 1, 6, **Numitor inter prīmum tumultum . . . ostendit.**

PART V. — PROSODY

686. Prosody treats of Quantity and Versification.

QUANTITY

687. A syllable is long if it contains a diphthong or a long vowel, or is the result of contraction: **haec, dīcō, nīl.**

1. **Prae** in *composition is* usually short before a vowel: **praeacūtus.**

688. A syllable is long if its vowel is followed in the same word by a double consonant, or any two consonants except a mute and a liquid[1]: **dux, servus, sunt.**

1. A syllable is also long before two consonants, even if only one of them belongs to that word; and in the thesis (**725**) of a foot it is generally long before a double consonant or two single consonants at the beginning of the following word.

NOTE 1. — The aspirate **h** never affects the quantity of a syllable.

NOTE 2. — In the early poets a short final syllable ending in **s** often remains short before a word beginning with a consonant; sometimes, also, short final syllables ending in other consonants remain short in that situation.

2. A syllable is long before **i** consonant, except in the compounds of **iugum**. Even in the compounds of **iaciō** with monosyllabic prepositions the first syllable is long, although **i** consonant is suppressed in writing; **abiciō, adiciō.**

3. In the early poets many syllables, long by position in the Augustan poets, are sometimes short, as the first syllable of **ecce, ille, immō, nempe, omnis, quippe.**

NOTE. — In Greek words a syllable with a vowel before a mute and a nasal is sometimes short: **cycnus, Tecmēssa.**

689. A syllable is short if its vowel is followed in the same word by another vowel, by a diphthong, or by the aspirate **h**: **diēs, viae, nihil.** But a few exceptions occur.

1. For **ā** before another vowel, see **79**, 3, and note proper names in **āius**: **aulāī, Gāius.**

2. For **ē** or **ĕ** before a vowel, see **134**: **diēī, fidĕī, rĕī, spĕī,** and note **ēheu** and **Rhēa.**

3. For **ī** or **ĭ** before a vowel, see **93**, 4, **179**, and **296**: **fīam, fiēbam,** but **fierī; illīus, totīus,** but **alterĭus.** Note also **dīus, Dĭāna.**

NOTE. — In Greek words, vowels are often long before vowels because long in the original: **Mēdēa, āēr, Aenēās, Trōes.**

690. A syllable is common in quantity if its vowel, naturally short, is followed by a mute and a liquid: **agrī, patris.**

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[1] Here the syllable is long by nature if the vowel is long, but long only by *position* if the vowel is short. For the hidden quantity of vowels before two *consonants* or a double consonant, see **749**.

1. A syllable ending in a mute in the first part of a compound before a liquid at the beginning of the second part is long: **ab-rumpō, ob-rogō.**

2. In Plautus and Terence a syllable, not in a compound, is short before a mute and a liquid if its vowel is short.

QUANTITY OF FINAL SYLLABLES

691. Monosyllables are generally long: **dā, sī, dō, dōs, pēs, sīs, bōs, pār, sōl.** But note the following exceptions:

1. Enclitics: **que, ve, ne, ce, te, pse, pte.**
2. Monosyllables in **b, d, l, m, t**: **ab, ad, fel, sum, et**; except **sāl, sōl.**
3. **Ac, an, bis, cis, cor, es, fac, fer, in, is, nec, os, per, ter, quis, vir, vas,** and **hĭc** and **hŏc** in the Nominative and Accusative.

692. In words of more than one syllable

1. The final vowels **i, o,** and **u** are long; **a, e,** and **y,** short: **audī, servō, frūctū; via, mare, misy.**

2. Final syllables in **c** are long; in **d, l, m, n, r, t,** short: **illūc; illud, cōnsul, amem, carmen, amor, caput.**

NOTE. — **Dōnec** and **līēn** are exceptions; also final syllables in **n** and **r** in many Greek words.

3. The final syllables **as, es,** and **os** are long; **is, us, ys,** short: **amās, nūbēs, servōs; avis, bonus, chlamys.**

NOTE 1. — Plautus retains the original quantity of many final syllables usually short in the Augustan age. Thus the endings **ā, ē, āl, ār, ōr, īs, ūs, āt, ēt, īt,** often stand in place of the later endings **a, e, al, ar, or, is, us, at, et, it.** Some of these are retained by Terence, and occasionally by the Augustan poets.

NOTE 2. — Plautus and Terence often shorten final syllables after an accented short syllable: **ama, dedi, domi, viro, pedes.**

NOTE 3. — In Plautus and Terence the doubling of a letter does not necessarily affect the quantity of the syllable: **ll** in **ille, mm** in **immō.**

693. **I** final, usually long, is short in **nisi, quasi**; common in **mihĭ, tibĭ, sibĭ, ibĭ, ubĭ**; and short or common in a few Greek words.

694. **O** final, usually long, is short in **duo, ego, eho, cedo, cito, illico, modo** and its compounds, and sometimes in nouns of the Third Declension and in verbs, though rarely in the best poets.

695. **A** final, usually short, is long

1. In the Ablative: **mēnsā, bonā, illā.**
2. In the Vocative of Greek nouns in **ās**: **Aenēā, Pallā.**
3. In certain numerals: **trigintā, quadrāgintā,** etc.
4. In verbs and particles: **amā, cūrā; circā, iuxtā, anteā, frūstrā;** except **ita, quia, hēia,** and **puta** used adverbially.

696. **E** final, usually short, is long

1. In the First and Fifth Declensions, and in Greek plurals of the Third Declension: **epitomē; diē; tempē.** Hence in **hodiē, prīdiē, postrīdiē, quārē.**
2. In the singular Imperative Active of the Second Conjugation: **monē, docē.** But **e** is sometimes short in **cavĕ, vidĕ,** etc., and in the comic poets many dissyllabic Imperatives with a short penult shorten the ultimate: as **habe, iube, mane, move, tace, tene,** etc.
3. In **ferē, fermē, ŏhē,** and in adverbs from adjectives of the Second Declension: **doctē, rēctē;** except **bene, male,** and sometimes in the early poets **māxumē, probē, temerē.**

697. **As** final, usually long, is short in a few forms, chiefly Greek: **anas, Arcas, lampas; Arcadas, hērŏas.**

698. **Es** final, usually long, is short

1. In the Nominative singular of the Third Declension with short increment (**702**) in the Genitive: **mīles,** sometimes **mīlēs** in Plautus, **obses, interpres;** except **abiēs, ariēs, pariēs, Cerēs,** and compounds of **pēs,** as **bipēs.**
2. In **penes** and the compounds of **es,** as **ades, potes.**
3. In a few Greek forms: **Arcades, Trōades, Hippomanes.**

699. **Os** final, usually long, is short in **compos, impos, exos,** and a few Greek words: **Dēlos, melos.**

700. **Is** final, usually short, is long

1. In plural cases: **mēnsīs, vōbīs.** Hence **forīs, grātīs, ingrātīs.**
2. In Nominatives of the Third Declension, increasing long in the Genitive: **Quirīs, Salamīs.**
3. In the singular Present Indicative Active of the Fourth Conjugation: **audīs.**
4. In the singular Present Subjunctive Active: **possīs, velīs, nōlīs.**
5. Sometimes in the singular of the Future Perfect and of the Perfect Subjunctive: **amāverĭs, docuerĭs.**
6. In early Latin sometimes in **pulvis, cinis,** and **sanguis.**

Note. — **Māvīs, quīvīs,** and **utervīs** retain the quantity of **vīs.**

701. **Us** final, usually short, is long (1) in Nominatives of the Third Declension increasing long in the Genitive: **virtūs, tellūs,** but **palus** occurs in Horace; (2) in the Fourth Declension, in the Genitive singular, and in the plural: **frūctūs**; and (3) generally in Greek words ending long in the original: **Panthūs, tripūs.**

QUANTITY IN INCREMENTS

702. A word is said to increase in declension, when it has in any case more syllables than in the Nominative singular, and to have as many increments of declension as it has additional syllables: **sermō, sermōnis, sermōnibus.**[1]

703. A verb is said to increase in conjugation, when it has in any part more syllables than in the second person singular of the Present Indicative Active, and to have as many increments of conjugation as it has additional syllables: **amās, amātis, amābātis.**[2]

704. If there is but one increment, it is uniformly the penult; if there are more than one, they are the penult with the requisite number of syllables before it. The increment nearest the beginning of the word is called the First increment, and those following this are called successively the Second, Third, and Fourth increments.[3]

Increments of Declension

705. In the Increments of Declension, **a** and **o** are long; **e, i, u,** and **y,** short:[4] **aetās, aetātibus**; **sermō, sermōnis**; **puer, puerōrum**; **mīles, mīlitis**; **fulgur, fulguris**; **chlamys, chlamydis.**

NOTE. — The quantity in the increments of Greek nouns is best learned from the dictionary. It is usually that of the original Greek.

706. **A,** usually long in the increments of declension, is short in the first increment (1) of masculines in **al** and **ar**: **Hannibal, Hannibalis**; **Caesar, Caesaris**; (2) of nouns in **s** preceded by a consonant: **daps, dapis**; **Arabs, Arabis**; and (3) of **lār, nectar, pār**; **mās, vas**; **sāl, fax,** and a few other words.

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[1] **Sermōnis,** having one syllable more than **sermō,** has one increment, while **sermōnibus** has two increments.

[2] **Amātis** has one increment, **amābātis** two.

[3] In **ser-mōn-i-bus,** the first increment is **mōn,** the second **i**; and in **mon-u-e-rā-mus,** the first is **u,** the second **e,** the third **rā.**

[4] **Y** occurs only in Greek words, and is long in the increments of nouns in **ys.**

707. **O**, usually long in the increments of declension, is short in the first increment (1) of neuters in the Third Declension: **aequor, aequoris**; **tempus, temporis**; (2) of nouns in **s** preceded by a consonant: **(ops), opis**; and (3) of **arbor, bōs, lepus**; **compos, impos, memor, immemor.**

708. **E**, usually short in the increments of declension, is long in the first increment (1) of the Fifth Declension: **diēī, diērum, rēbus**; but note **fidēī, rĕī, spĕī**; and (2) of **vēr, hērēs, locuplēs, mercēs, quiēs, inquiēs, requiēs, plēbs, lēx, rēx.**

709. **I**, usually short in the increments of declension, is long in the first increment (1) of words in **īx**: **rādīx, rādīcis**; and (2) of **dīs, līs, vīs, Quirīs, Samnīs.**

710. **U**, usually short in the increments of declension, is long in the first increment (1) of nouns in **ūs**: **iūs, iūris**; **salūs, salūtis**; **palūs, palūdis**; and (2) of **fūr, (frūx), frūgis, lūx.**

Increments of Conjugation

711. In the Increments of Conjugation (**703**) **a**, **e**, and **o** are long; **i** and **u** short: **amāmus, amēmus, amātōte**; **regimus, sumus.**

1. **A**, usually long in the increments of conjugation, is short in the first increment of the verb **dō, dare**: **dabam, circumdabam.**

2. **E**, usually long in the increments of conjugation, is generally short before **r**: **amāveram, amāverō**; **regere, regeris**; see also **218–221.**

3. **I**, usually short in the increments of conjugation, is generally long, except before a vowel, in the first increment of the Fourth Conjugation and of those verbs of the Third Conjugation which follow the analogy of the fourth: **audīre, audīvī, audītum**; **cupīvī, cupīverat, cupītus.**

4. Note also (1) **sīmus, sītis**; **velīmus, velītis**; **nōlīte, nōlītō, nōlītōte**; (2) the different persons of **ībam, ībō**, from **eō**; and (3) the endings **rĭmus** and **rĭtis** of the Future Perfect and Perfect Subjunctive: **amāverĭmus, amāverĭtis.**

5. **U**, usually short in the increments of conjugation, is long in the participial system: **volūtum, volūtūrus, amātūrus.**

QUANTITY OF DERIVATIVE ENDINGS

712. Note the quantity of the following derivative endings:

1. ābrum, ācrum, ātrum:

flābrum, simulācrum, arātrum.

2. ēdō, īdō, tūdō; āgō, īgō, ūgō:

dulcēdō, cupīdō, sōlitūdō; vorāgō, orīgō, aerūgō.

3. **ēla, īle; ālis, ēlis, ūlis:**

querēla, ovīle; mortālis, fidēlis, curūlis.

4. **ānus, ēnus, īnus, ōnus, ūnus; āna, ēna, ōna, ūna:**

urbānus, egēnus, marīnus, patrōnus, tribūnus; membrāna, habēna, annōna, lacūna.

5. **āris, ōsus; āvus, īvus, tīvus:**

salūtāris, animōsus; octāvus, aestīvus, tempestīvus.

6. **ātus, ētus, ītus, ōtus, ūtus.**

ālātus, facētus, turrītus, aegrōtus, cornūtus.

7. **ēnī, īnī, ōnī** — in Distributives:

septēnī, quīnī, octōnī.

8. **adēs, iadēs, idēs** — in Patronymics:

Aenēadēs, Lāertiadēs, Tantalidēs.

9. **olus, ola, olum; ulus, ula, ulum; culus, cula, culum** — in Diminutives:

fīliolus, fīliola, ātriolum; hortulus, virgula, oppidulum; fīosculus, particula, mūnusculum.

QUANTITY OF STEM SYLLABLES

713. All simple verbs in **iō** of the Third Conjugation have the stem syllable[1] short: **capiō, cupiō, faciō, fodiō, fugiō.**

714. Most verbs which form the Perfect in **uī**, except inceptives, have the stem syllable short: **domō, secō, habeō, moneō, alō, colō.**

715. Dissyllabic Perfects, Supines, and Perfect Participles generally have the first syllable long, unless short by position: **iuvō, iūvī, iūtum; foveō, fōvī, fōtum.**

1. Eight Perfects and ten Supines or Perfect Participles have the first syllable short:

Bibī, dedī, fidī, liquī,[2] scidī, stetī, stitī, tulī; citum, datum, itum, litum, quitum, ratum, rutum, satum, situm, statum.

716. Trisyllabic Reduplicated Perfects generally have the first two syllables short unless the second is long by position: **cadō, cecidī; canō, cecinī; currō, cucurrī;** but note **caedō, cecīdī.**

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[1] That is, the syllable preceding the characteristic.

[2] *Liquī from* **liqueō**: **linquō** has **līquī.**

717. In general, inflected forms retain the quantity of stem syllables unchanged unless affected by position: **avis, avem; nūbēs, nūbium; levis, levissimus.**

718. Derivatives generally retain the quantity of the stem syllables of their primitives: **bonus, bonitās; animus, animōsus; cīvis, cīvicus.**

1. But remember that many roots have a strong form and a weak form (**320**, 1):

dicō	dīcō	odium	ōdī
dux, ducis	dūcō	regō	rēx, rēgis
fidēs	fīdō	sedeō	sēdēs
iomō	hūmānus	tegō	tēgula
iegó	lēx, lēgis	vocō	vōx, vōcis

719. Compounds generally retain the quantity of their elements; **ante-ferō, dē-dūcō, prō-dūcō**; but note **dēierō** (dē, iūrō).

1. **Prō** is generally shortened before **f** followed by a vowel:

Profānus, profārī, proficīscor, profiteor, profugiō, profugus, profundus; but note prōferō and prōficiō.

NOTE. — **Prō** is shortened in **procella, procul,** and in a few other words.

2. At the end of a verbal stem compounded with **faciō** or **fiō, e** is generally short: **calefaciō, calefīō, lābefaciō, patefaciō.**

3. **I** is usually long in the first part of the compounds of **diēs**: **merīdiēs, prīdiē, postrīdiē, cottīdiē, trīduum.**

4. **Hodiē, quasi, quoque,** and **siquidem** have the first syllable short.

VERSIFICATION

GENERAL VIEW OF THE SUBJECT

720. Latin Versification is based upon Quantity. Syllables are combined into certain metrical groups called Feet, and feet, singly or in pairs, are combined into Verses.[1]

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[1] Modern versification is based upon Accent. An English verse is a regular combination of Accented and Unaccented syllables, but a Latin verse is a similar combination of Long and Short syllables. The rhythmic accent, or ictus (**724**), in Latin depends entirely upon quantity. Compare the following lines:

Tell′ me	not′, in	mourn′-ful	num′-bers,
Life′ is	but′ an	emp′-ty	dream′.
Trū′-di-	tur′ di-	ēs′ di-	ē′.
At′ fi-	dēs′ et	in′-ge-	nī′.

Observe that in the English lines the accent, or ictus, falls upon the **same syllables** *as in prose,* while in the Latin it falls uniformly upon long syllables.

1. In quantity or time the unit of measure, called a Time or Mora, is a short syllable indicated either by a curve ◡ or by an eighth note in music, ♪. A long syllable has in general twice the value of a short syllable, and is indicated either by the sign —, or by a quarter note in music, ♩.

2. **Triseme.** — A long syllable is sometimes prolonged so as to have the value of three short syllables, indicated by the sign ⌊—, or ♩.

3. **Tetraseme.** — A long syllable is sometimes prolonged so as to have the value of four short syllables, indicated by ⌊⌋, or 𝅗𝅥.

4. A long syllable is sometimes shortened so as to have approximately the value of a short syllable, and is marked by the sign >; and two short syllables sometimes seem to have approximately the value of one, and are marked ◡◡. Syllables thus used are said to have Irrational time.

5. The final syllable of a verse, often called **syllaba anceps** (*doubtful syllable*), may generally be either long or short at the pleasure of the poet.

721. The feet of most frequent occurrence in the best Latin poets are

1. Feet of Four Times or Four Morae

Dactyl	*one long and two short*	— ◡ ◡	♩ ♪♪	carmina
Spondee	*two long syllables*	— —	♩ ♩	lēgēs

2. Feet of Three Times or Three Morae

Trochee[1]	*one long and one short*	— ◡	♩ ♪	lēgis
Iambus	*one short and one long*	◡ —	♪♩	parēns
Tribrach	*three short syllables*	◡ ◡ ◡	♪♪♪	dominus

Note 1. — To these may be added the following:

Anapaest	◡ ◡ —	bonitās	Ditrochee	— ◡ — ◡	cīvitātis
Proceleusmatic	◡ ◡ ◡ ◡	calefacit	Greater Ionic	— — ◡ ◡	sententia
Bacchius	◡ — —	dolōrēs	Lesser Ionic	◡ ◡ — —	adulēscēns
Cretic	— ◡ —	mīlitēs	Choriambus	— ◡ ◡ —	impatiēns[2]
Diiambus	◡ — ◡ —	amoenitās			

Note 2. — A Dipody is a group of two feet; a Tripody, of three; a Tetrapody, of four; etc. A Trihemimeris is a group of three half feet, i.e. a foot and a half; a Penthemimeris, of two and a half; a Hephthemimeris, of three and a half; etc.

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[1] Sometimes called Choree.

[2] Most feet of four syllables are only compounds of dissyllabic feet. Thus the Diiambus is a double Iambus; the Ditrochee, a double Trochee; the Choriambus, a Trochee (Choree) and an Iambus.

722. Metrical Equivalents. — A long syllable may be resolved into two short syllables, as equivalent to it in quantity, or two short syllables may be contracted into a long syllable. The forms thus produced are metrical equivalents of the original feet.

NOTE. — Thus the dactyl becomes a spondee by contracting the two short syllables into one long syllable; the spondee becomes a dactyl by resolving the second syllable, or an anapaest by resolving the first. Accordingly, the dactyl, the spondee, and the anapaest are metrical equivalents. In like manner the iambus, the trochee, and the tribrach are metrical equivalents.

723. In certain kinds of verse admitting irrational time (**720, 4**), spondees, dactyls, and anapaests are shortened so that they have approximately the time of a trochee or of an iambus, and thus become metrical equivalents of each of these feet.

1. A spondee used for a trochee is called an **Irrational Trochee**, and is marked — >.
2. A spondee used for an iambus is called an **Irrational Iambus**, and is marked > —.
3. A dactyl used for a trochee is called a **Cyclic Dactyl**, and is marked — ⏑ ⏑ or _ ⏑⏑.
4. An anapaest used for an iambus is called a **Cyclic Anapaest**, and is marked ⏑ ⏑ — or ⏑⏑ _.

724. Ictus, or Rhythmic Accent. — As in the pronunciation of a word one or more syllables receive a special stress of voice called accent, so in the pronunciation of a metrical foot one or more syllables have a special prominence called Rhythmic Accent, or Ictus.

1. Feet consisting of both long and short syllables have the ictus uniformly on the long syllables, unless used as equivalents for other feet.
2. Equivalents take the ictus of the feet for which they are used.

NOTE 1. — Thus the spondee, when used for the dactyl, takes the ictus of the dactyl, i.e. on the first syllable; but when used for the anapaest, it takes the ictus of the anapaest, i.e. on the last syllable.

NOTE 2. — When two short syllables of an equivalent take the place of a long syllable in the thesis, the ictus is marked upon the first of these syllables. Thus a tribrach used for an iambus is marked ⏑ ⏑́ ⏑.

725. Thesis and Arsis. — In every foot the syllable which has the ictus is called the Thesis (*putting down*), and the rest of the foot is called the Arsis (*raising*).[1]

[1] Greek writers on versification originally used the terms ἄρσις and θέσις of *raising* and *putting down* the foot in marching or in beating time. Thus the

726. Rhythmic Series. — A group of feet forming a single rhythmic unit by the predominance of one ictus over the rest is called a Rhythmic Series, or Colon.

1. A Rhythmic Series may consist of two, three, four, five, or six feet, but never of more than six.

727. Verses. — A verse consists of a single rhythmic series, or of a group of two or three series so united as to form one distinct and separate whole, usually written as a single line of poetry. It has one characteristic or fundamental foot, which determines the ictus for the whole verse.

NOTE 1. — Thus every dactylic verse has the ictus on the first syllable of each foot, because the Dactyl has the ictus on that syllable.

NOTE 2. — A verse consisting of a single rhythmic series is called Monocolon; of two, Dicolon; of three, Tricolon.

NOTE 3. — Two verses sometime unite and form a compound verse (**746**).

728. Caesura or Caesural Pause. — Most Latin verses are divided metrically into two nearly equal parts, each of which forms a rhythmic series. The pause, however slight, which separates these parts is called

1. A Caesura,[1] or a Caesural Pause, when it occurs within a foot (**736**).
2. A Diaeresis, when it occurs at the end of a foot (**736**, 2 and 3).

NOTE 1. — Some verses consist of three parts thus separated by caesura or diaeresis.

NOTE 2. — The term caesura is often made to include both the Caesura proper and the Diaeresis. The chief pause in the line is often termed the Principal Caesura or simply the Caesura.

729. The full metrical name of a verse consists of three parts. The first designates the characteristic foot, the second gives the number of feet or measures, and the third shows whether the verse is complete or incomplete. Thus

1. A Dactylic Hexameter Acatalectic is a dactylic verse of six feet (Hexameter), all of which are complete (Acatalectic).

Thesis was the accented part of the foot, and the Arsis the unaccented part. The Romans, however, applied the terms to *raising* and *lowering* the voice in reading. Thus Arsis came to mean the accented part of the foot, and Thesis the unaccented part. But most scholars at present deem it advisable to restore the terms to their original meaning, though some still prefer to use them in the sense in which the Roman grammarians employed them.

[1] Caesūra (from caedō, *to cut*) means a cutting; it cuts or divides the foot and the verse into parts.

2. A Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic is a trochaic verse of two measures (Dimeter), the last of which is incomplete (Catalectic).

NOTE 1. — A verse with a Dactyl as its characteristic foot is called Dactylic; with a Trochee, Trochaic; with an Iambus, Iambic; etc.

NOTE 2. — A verse consisting of one measure is called Monometer; of two, Dimeter; of three, Trimeter; of four, Tetrameter; of five, Pentameter; of six, Hexameter.

NOTE 3. — A verse which closes with a Complete measure is called Acatalectic; with an Incomplete measure, Catalectic; with an excess of syllables, Hypermetrical.

NOTE 4. — The term Acatalectic is often omitted, as a verse may be assumed to be complete unless the opposite is stated.

NOTE 5. — A Catalectic verse is said to be Catalectic *in syllabam*, *in disyllabum*, *in trisyllabum*, according as the incomplete foot has one, two, or three syllables.

NOTE 6. — Verses are sometimes briefly designated by the number of feet or measures which they contain. Thus, Hexameter (verse of six measures) sometimes designates the Dactylic Hexameter Acatalectic, and Senarius (verse of six feet), the Iambic Trimeter Acatalectic.

3. In reading catalectic verses, a pause is introduced in place of the lacking syllable or syllables.

4. A Pause or Rest equal to a short syllable is marked $\wedge$; a Pause equal to a long syllable is marked $\overline{\wedge}$.

730. Verses and stanzas are often designated by names derived from celebrated poets. Thus Alcaic is derived from Alcaeus; Archilochian, from Archilochus; Sapphic, from Sapphō; Glyconic from Glycōn, etc.

NOTE. — Verses sometimes receive a name from the kind of subjects to which they are applied: as Heroic, applied to heroic subjects; Paroemiac, to proverbs, etc.

731. A Stanza or Strophe is a combination of two or more verses into one metrical whole; see **747**, 1, 2, etc.

NOTE. — A stanza of two lines or verses is called a Distich; of three, a Tristich; of four, a Tetrastich.

732. **Rhythmical Reading.** — In reading Latin verse care must be taken to preserve the words unbroken, to show the quantity of the syllables, and to mark the poetical ictus.

733. **Figures of Prosody.** — The ancient poets sometimes allowed themselves, in the use of letters and syllables, certain liberties generally *termed Figures* of Prosody.

1. **Elision.** — A final vowel, a final diphthong, or a final **m** with the preceding vowel, is generally elided[1] before a word beginning with a vowel or with **h**:

Mōnstr^{um} horrend^{um} īnfōrm^{e} ingēns. Verg.

NOTE 1. — Final **e** in the interrogative **ne** is sometimes dropped before a consonant: **Pyrrhīn' connūbia servās?** Verg.

NOTE 2. — In the early poets, final **s** before a consonant is often so far suppressed that it fails to make position with the following consonant: **ex omnibus rēbus.**

NOTE 3. — The elision of a final **m** with the preceding vowel is sometimes called Ecthlipsis or Synaloepha.

NOTE 4. — The elision of a final vowel or diphthong is sometimes called Synaloepha, or, if at the end of a line, Synapheia.

2. **Hiatus.** — A final vowel or diphthong is sometimes retained before a word beginning with a vowel, especially in the thesis of a foot. It is regularly retained in the interjections **ō**, **heu**, and **prō**.

NOTE. — In the arsis, and in early Latin even in the thesis, a final long vowel or diphthong is sometimes shortened before a short vowel instead of being elided; see Verg. Aen. 3, 211; 6, 507.

3. **Synizesis.** — Two syllables are sometimes contracted into one: **dēinde, īidem, īisdem.**

NOTE 1. — In the different parts of **dēsum, ee** is generally pronounced as one syllable: **dēesse, dēest, dēerat,** etc.; so **ei** in the verb **anteeō: antēīre, antēīrem.**

NOTE 2. — **I** and **u** before vowels are sometimes used as consonants with the sound of **y** and **w**. Thus **ariete** becomes **aryete**; **tenuēs** becomes **tenwēs.**

NOTE 3. — In Plautus and Terence, Synizesis is used with great freedom.

NOTE 4. — The contraction of two syllables into one is sometimes called Synaeresis.

4. **Dialysis.** — In poetry, two syllables usually contracted into one are sometimes kept distinct: **aurāī** for **aurae, soluendus** for **solvendus.**

NOTE 1. — Dialysis properly means the Resolution of one syllable into two, but the Latin poets seldom, if ever, actually make two syllables out of one. The examples generally explained by dialysis are only ancient forms, used for effect or convenience.

NOTE 2. — Dialysis is sometimes called Diaeresis.

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[1] That is, partially suppressed. In reading, it should be lightly and indistinctly sounded, and blended with the following syllable, as in English poetry:

"Th^{e} eternal years of God are here."

5. **Diastole.** — A syllable usually short is sometimes long, especially in the thesis of a foot: **Prĭamidēs** for **Priamidēs.**

6. **Systole.** — A syllable usually long is sometimes short: **tulerunt** for **tulērunt.**

7. **Syncope.** — An entire foot is sometimes occupied by a single long syllable; see **720**, 3.

NOTE. — In reading syncopated verses, the long syllable must of course be allowed to occupy the time of an entire foot.

VARIETIES OF VERSE

Dactylic Hexameter

734. All Dactylic Verses consist of Dactyls and their metrical equivalents, Spondees. The ictus is on the first syllable of every foot.

735. The Dactylic Hexameter[1] consists of six feet. The first four are either Dactyls or Spondees, the fifth a Dactyl, and the sixth a Spondee (**720**, 5).[2] The scheme is,[3]

∠ ⏑⏑ | ∠ ⏑⏑ | ∠ ⏑⏑ | ∠ ⏑⏑ | ∠ ⏑ ⏑ | ∠ ⏑.[4]

Quadrupe- | dante pu- | trem soni- | tū quatit | ungula | campum. Verg.
Arma vi- | rumque ca- | nō Trō- | iae quī | prīmus ab | ōrīs. Verg.
Īnfan- | dum rē- | gīna iu- | bēs reno- | vāre do- | lōrem. Verg.
Illī[5] in- | ter sē- | sē māg- | nā vī | bracchia | tollunt. Verg.[6]

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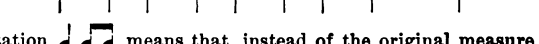
[1] This is at once the most important and the most ancient of all the Greek and Roman meters. The most beautiful and finished Latin Hexameters are found in the works of Vergil and Ovid.

[2] The Dactylic Hexameter in Latin is here treated as Acatalectic, as the Latin poets seem to have regarded the last foot as a genuine Spondee, thus making the measure complete. Some authorities, however, treat the verse as Catalectic, and mark the last foot ∠ ⏑ ∧.

[3] In this scheme the sign ′ marks the ictus (**724**), and — ⏑⏑ denotes that the original Dactyl, marked — ⏑ ⏑, may become by contraction a Spondee, marked — —, i.e. that a Spondee may be used for a Dactyl (**722**).

[4] Expressed in musical characters, this scale is as follows:



The notation means that, instead of the original measure , the equivalent may be used.

[5] The final ī of illī is elided; see **733**, 1.

[6] With these lines of Vergil compare the following Hexameters from the *Evangeline* of Longfellow:

1. The scheme of dactylic hexameters admits sixteen varieties, produced by varying the relative number and arrangement of Dactyls and Spondees.

2. **Effect of Dactyls.** — Dactyls produce a rapid movement, and are adapted to lively subjects. Spondees produce a slow movement, and are adapted to grave subjects. But the best effect is produced in successive lines by variety in the number and arrangement of Dactyls and Spondees.

3. **Spondaic Line.** — The Hexameter sometimes takes a Spondee in the fifth place. It is then called Spondaic, and generally has a Dactyl as its fourth foot:

Cāra de- | um subo- | lēs māg- | num Iovis | incrē- | mentum. Verg.

NOTE. — In Vergil, spondaic lines are used much more sparingly than in the earlier poets,[1] and generally end in words of three or four syllables, as in **incrēmentum** above.

736. Caesura, or Caesural Pause. — The favorite caesural pause of the Hexameter is *after the thesis* or *in the arsis* of the third foot[2]:

Armā- | tī ten- | dunt; || it | clāmor et | agmine | factō. Verg.
Īnfan- | dum, rē- | gīna, || iu- | bēs renō- | vāre do- | lōrem. Verg.

NOTE. — In the first line the caesural pause, marked ||, is after **tendunt**, after the thesis of the third foot; and in the second line, after **rēgīna**, in the arsis of the third foot. A caesura after the thesis of a foot is termed a Masculine caesura, while a caesura in the middle of the arsis is termed a Feminine caesura.[3]

1. The Caesural Pause is sometimes in the fourth foot, and then an additional pause is often introduced in the second:

Crēdide- | rim; || vēr | illud e- | rat, || vēr | māgnus a- | gēbat. Verg.

2. **Bucolic Diaeresis.** — A pause called the Bucolic Diaeresis, because originally used in the pastoral poetry of the Greeks, sometimes occurs at the end of the fourth foot:

This is the forest primeval; but where are the hearts that beneath it
Leaped like the roe, when he hears in the woodland the voice of the huntsman?

[1] A single poem of Catullus, about half as long as a book of the Aeneid, contains more spondaic lines than all the works of Vergil.

[2] That is, the first rhythmic series ends at this point. This pause is always at the end of a word, and may be so very slight as in most cases not to interfere with the sense, even if no mark of punctuation is required; but the best verses are so constructed that the caesural pause coincides with a pause in the sense.

[3] The Masculine Caesura is also called the Strong or the Syllabic Caesura; the Feminine, the Weak or the Trochaic Caesura. Caesuras are often named from the place which they occupy in the line. Thus a caesura after the thesis of the second foot is called Trihemimeral; after the thesis of the third, Penthemimeral; after the thesis of the fourth, Hephthemimeral.

Ingen- | tem cae- | lō soni- | tum dedit; || inde se- | cūtus. Verg.

NOTE. — The Bucolic Diaeresis, or Caesura, though often employed by Juvenal, was in general avoided by the best Latin poets, even in treating pastoral subjects. Vergil, even in his Bucolics, uses it very sparingly.

3. A diaeresis at the end of the third foot without any proper caesural pause is regarded as a blemish in the verse:

Pulveru- | lentus e- | quīs furit; || omnēs | arma re- | quīrunt. Verg.

4. The ending of a word within a foot always produces a caesura. A line may therefore have several caesuras, but generally only one of these is marked by any perceptible pause:

Arma vi- | rumque ca- | nō, || Trō- | iae quī | prīmus ab | ōrīs. Verg.

NOTE. — Here there is a caesura in every foot except the last, but only one of these — that after **canō**, in the third foot — has the caesural pause.

5. The caesura, with or without the pause, is an important feature in every hexameter. A line without it is prosaic in the extreme:

Rōmae | moenia | terruit | impiger | Hannibal | armīs. Enn.

NOTE 1. — The Penthemimeral caesura has great power to impart melody to the verse, but the best effect is produced when it is aided by other caesuras, as in 4 above.

NOTE 2. — A happy effect is often produced by combining the Hephthemimeral caesura with the Trihemimeral:

Inde to- | rō || pater | Aenē- | ās || sīc | ōrsus ab | altō. Verg.

737. The ictus often falls upon unaccented syllables, especially in the third foot, but in the fifth and sixth feet it generally falls upon accented syllables; see examples under **735**.

738. The last word of the hexameter is generally either a dissyllable or a trisyllable.

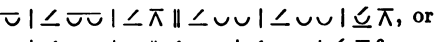
NOTE 1. — Two monosyllables at the end of a line are not particularly objectionable, and sometimes even produce a happy effect:

Praecipi- | tant cū- | rae, || tur- | bātaque | fūnere | mēns est. Verg.

NOTE 2. — In Vergil, twenty-one lines, apparently hypermetrical (**729**, *note* 3), are supposed to elide a final vowel or a final **em** or **um** before the *initial vowel* of the next line; see Aen. 1, 332; Geor. 1, 295.

Other Dactylic Verses

739. Dactylic Pentameter.[1] — The Dactylic Pentameter consists of two Dactylic Trimeters — the first syncopated or catalectic, the second catalectic — separated by a diaeresis. The Spondee may take the place of the Dactyl in the first part, but not in the second:



Admoni- | tū coe- | pī ‖ fortior | esse tu- | ō. Ovid.

1. **Elegiac Distich.** — The Elegiac Distich consists of the Hexameter followed by the Pentameter:

Sēmise- | pulta vi- | rum ‖ cur- | vīs feri- | untur a- | rātrīs
Ossa, ru- | inō- | sās ‖ occulit | herba do- | mūs. Ovid.

NOTE. — Elegiac composition should be characterized by grace and elegance. Both members of the distich should be constructed in accordance with the most rigid rules of meter, and the sense should be complete at the end of the couplet. Ovid and Tibullus furnish us the best specimens of this style of composition.

2. The Dactylic Tetrameter is identical with the last four feet of the hexameter:

Ībimus | ō soci- | I, comi- | tēsque. Hor.

NOTE. — In compound verses, as in the Greater Archilochian, the tetrameter in composition with other meters has a Dactyl in the fourth place; see **745**, 10.

3. The Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic, also known as the Lesser Archilochian, is identical with the second half of the dactylic pentameter:

Arbori- | busque co- | mae. Hor.

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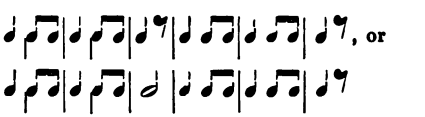
[1] The name Pentameter is founded on the ancient division of the line into five feet; the first and second being Dactyls or Spondees, the third a Spondee, the fourth and fifth Anapaests.

[2] In musical characters:



Thus in reading Pentameters, a pause may be introduced after the long syllable in the third foot, or that foot may be lengthened so as to fill the measure; see **729**, 3.

Saturnian Verse

2. The Saturnian verse is employed in some of the earliest remains of Latin literature, but its nature is still in dispute. According to one theory it is purely accentual, with trochaic rhythm. The verse is divided into two halves by a diaeresis. The first half verse has three theses; the second usually three, but sometimes only two, and in the latter case it is usually preceded by an anacrusis:

Dábunt málum Metéllī || Naéviŏ poḗtae.
Prímᵃ incḗdit Céreris || Prosérpina púer. Naevius.

NOTE 1. — In the early specimens of this meter hiatus is common, but in the later literary Saturnians it occurs chiefly at the diaeresis.

NOTE 2. — There is usually one unaccented syllable between every two accented syllables, but in the literary Saturnians there are regularly *two* unaccented syllables between the second and third theses.

3. According to the quantitative theory held by some scholars, the Saturnian is a trochaic verse of six feet, with anacrusis. Each thesis may be a long syllable or two shorts; each arsis may be a long syllable, two shorts, or a single short. A short final syllable is often lengthened under the ictus, and an arsis is frequently suppressed:

Dabúnt malúm Metéllī || Naéviŏ poḗtae.
Noctū́ Troiā́d exíbant || cápitibū́s opértīs; Naevius.

NOTE 1. — The principal pause is usually after the fourth arsis, but sometimes after the third thesis. Hiatus is common, but, in strictly constructed Saturnians, occurs chiefly at the end of the first rhythmic series.

NOTE 2. — There are many modified forms of both the accentual and quantitative theories of the Saturnian.

APPENDIX

HIDDEN QUANTITY

749. On the natural quantity[1] of vowels before two consonants or a double consonant, observe

I. That vowels are long before **ns, nf, gn,**[2] and before the inceptive endings **scō** and **scor**:

Cōnscius, cōnsul, īnscrībō, īnsula, amāns, audiēns; cōnferō, cōnficiō, īnfēlīx, īnferō; benīgnus, māgnus, māgna, rēgnum; gelāscō, flōrēscō, silēscō, cōncupīscō, scīscō; adipīscor.

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[1] It is often difficult, and sometimes absolutely impossible, to determine the natural quantity of vowels before two consonants, but the subject has of late received special attention from orthoepists. An attempt has been made in this article to collect the most important results of these labors. The chief sources of information upon this subject are (1) ancient inscriptions, (2) Greek transcriptions of Latin words, (3) the testimony of ancient grammarians, (4) the modern languages, (5) the comic poets, and (6) etymology.

Valuable information on the subject of hidden quantity will be found in the following works:

STOLZ, FR., Lautlehre und Stammbildungslehre, historische Grammatik der lateinischen Sprache, Erste Band. Leipzig, 1895.

BRUGMANN, K., Grundriss der vergleichenden Grammatik. Strassburg, 1888–93.

OSTHOFF, H., Zur Geschichte des Perfects im Indogermanischen. Strassburg, 1884.

MARX, A., Aussprache der lateinischen Vokale in positionslangen Silben. 2te Auflage, Berlin, 1889.

SEELMANN, E., Die Aussprache des Latein. Heilbronn, 1885.

CHRISTIANSEN, J., De Apicibus et I longis. Husumensen, 1889.

ROERSTER, W., Bestimmung der lateinischen Quantität aus dem Romanischen. Rheinisches Museum, XXXIII. Frankfurt am Main.

GRÖBER, G., Vulgärlateinische Substrate romanischer Wörter, Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie und Grammatik; I–VI. Leipzig.

KÖRTING, G., Lateinisch-romanisches Wörterbuch. Paderborn, 1891.

LINDSAY, W. M., The Latin Language. Oxford, 1894.

[2] On the direct testimony of Priscian, confirmed by inscriptions, all vowels are long before the endings **gnus, gna, gnum**; and, in view of the very large number of words, *simple* and compound, primitive and derivative, which have these

GENERAL INDEX

NOTE. — The numbers refer to sections unless **p.** (= page) is added. **Adjs.** = adjectives; **advs.** = adverbs; **appos.** = appositive or apposition; **comp.** = compound or composition; **compar.** = comparative or comparison; **compds.** = compounds; **condit.** = condition or conditional; **conj.** = conjugation; **conjunc.** = conjunction; **constr.** = construction; **ff.** = and the following; **gen.** = genitive; **gend.** = gender; **ger.** = gerund; **indir. disc.** = indirect discourse; **instrum.** = instrumental; **loc.** = locative; **pred.** = predicate; **preps.** = prepositions; **prons.** = pronouns; **qualit.** = qualitative; **quant.** = quantity; **seq.** = sequence; **subj.** = subject or subjunctive; **w.** = with.

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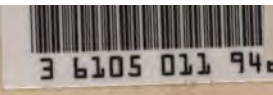
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