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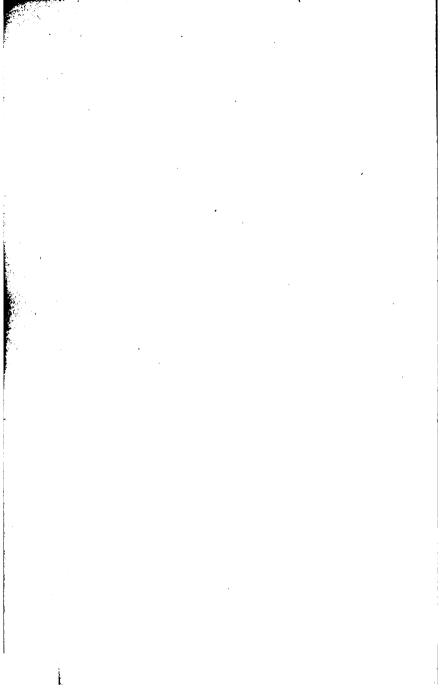
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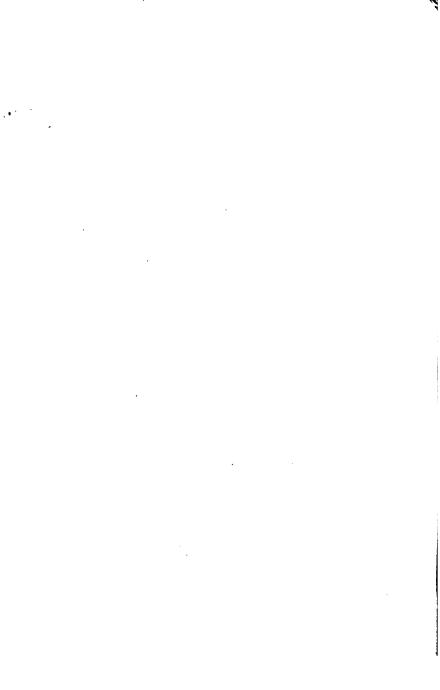
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ALLEN AND GREENOUGH'S

LATIN GRAMMAR

FOR SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

FOUNDED ON COMPARATIVE GRAMMAR

Revised and Enlarged

В¥

JAMES BRADSTREET GREENOUGH

ASSISTED BY

GEORGE L. KITTREDGE

BOSTON, U.S.A., AND LONDON
GINN AND COMPANY
1892

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CAMBRIDGE, September 25, 1877.

NOTE.

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The original standard work on Comparative Forms. Later researches have corrected some erroneous details. English translation (poor). London: 1862. The best form is a French translation, with Notes and Introductions by Michel Bréal. Paris: 1866.

Bezzenberger: Beiträge zur Kunde der Indo-Germanischen Sprachen. 1-13.

BRAMBACH: Lateinitche Orthographie. 1868.

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---- Greek Grammar. See "Müller's Handbuch."

CORSSEN: Aussprache, Vokalismus und Betonung der Lateinischen Sprache. 2 vols. 2d ed. Leipzig: 1868.

The greatest work on Latin alone, treating the language in reference to its own individual development, particularly as to the sounds (Lautlehre). Must be used with caution.

CURTIUS, G.: Grundzüge der Griechischen Etymologie. 3d ed. Leipzig: 1869.

Treats of Latin only by comparison, but is one of the most valuable works on the general subject.

Prag: 1870. English translation ("Elucidations"). London: 1870.

Notes giving in connection with the Greek Grammar the simplest view of the doctrine of forms.

—— Das Griechische Verbum.

DELBRÜCK: Das Conjunctiv und Optativ, im Sanskrit und Griechischen. Halle: 1871.

Origin of the Moods treated scientifically. Should be read in connection with a notice in "North American Review," October, 1871, and "Analysis of the Latin Subjunctive," by J. B. Greenough (Cambridge: 1870).

FICK: Vergleichendes Wörterbuch der Indo-Germanischen Sprachen. Göttingen: 1870.

A Dictionary of Roots and Words supposed to have existed in the Indo-European tongue, with the corresponding words and derivatives in the various languages. It can be used without a knowledge of German. No such book, however, is safe to use without careful study of the laws of consonant and vowel changes.

HADLEY: Essays, Philological and Critical. New York (Holt & Williams) 1873.

HALE, W. G.: Cum Constructions. [Cornell Studies.]

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MEYER, G.: Griechische Grammatik. 2d ed. Leipzig: 1885.

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NEUE: Formenlehre der Lateinischen Sprache. Stuttgart: 1875.

Storehouse of all Latin forms, 1200 pages, containing the result of late textual criticism. The standard work.

Papillon: A Manual of Comparative Philology, as applied to the Illustration of Greek and Latin Inflections. Oxford: 1876.

Behind the times, but a convenient synopsis of the doctrine of forms,

ROBY, H. J.: A Grammar of the Latin Language, from Plautus to Suetonius. London and New York (Macmillan): Vol. I., 1871; Vol. II., 1873. Someerrorshavebeen pointed out in the "North American Review," January, 1872.

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VANIČEK, A.: Etymologisches Wörterbuch der Lateinischen Sprache. Leipzig: 1874.

Suggestive, but to be used with caution.

WESTPHAL: Metrik der Griechen. 2d ed. 1867. 2 vols.

The great authority on the metrical systems of the ancients, with full literary and musical illustration. A convenient summary, with some modifications, will be found in SCHMIDT'S Rhythmik und Metrik, now translated by Prof. J. W. WHITE, and published by the publishers of this book.

WHEELER, B. T.: Analogy and its Scope in Language. [Cornell Studies.]

WHITNEY: Sanskrit Grammar. Leipzig: 1879.

The best grammar of the Sanskrit, without some knowledge of which language it is difficult to pursue the study of comparative grammar to advantage.

ZEITSCHRIFT für vergleichende Sprachforschung. Edited by Dr. A. KUHN. Vol. I., etc. Berlin: 1851 and subsequent years.

Indispensable to correct theories of individual investigators.

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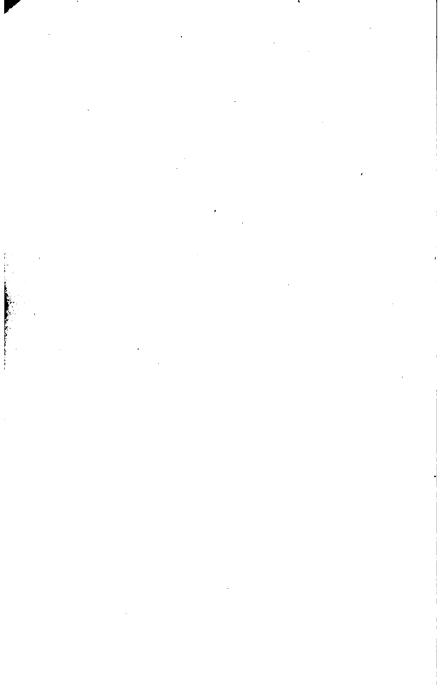
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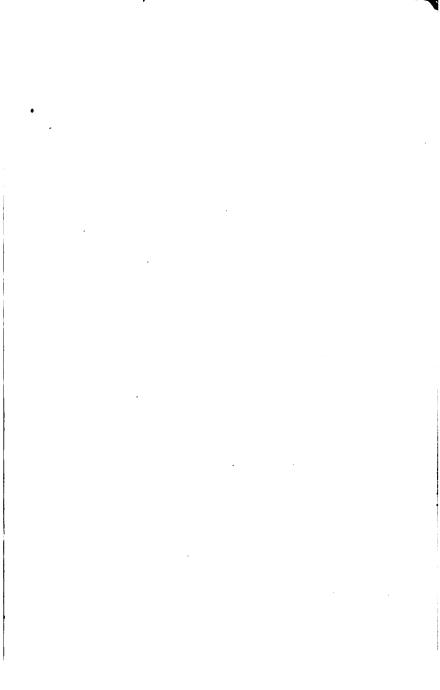
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— Ablativ, Localis, Instrumentalis im Indischen, etc. Berlin: 1867.
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LATIN GRAMMAR.

LATIN GRAMMAR is usually discussed under three heads: I. Etymology; 2. Syntax; 3. Prosody. Etymology treats of the form of separate words, as either written or spoken; Syntax of their function when joined together as parts of the sentence; Prosody of their arrangement in metrical composition.

PART FIRST.—ETYMOLOGY.

CHAPTER I.— Letters and Sounds.

Alphabet.

The Latin Alphabet, as the language is usually written, is the same as the English (which, in fact, was borrowed from it), except that it has no w.

Properly, it consists, however, of only twenty-three letters: a (called ah), b (be [bay]), c (ke), d (de), e (e [eh]), f (ef), g (ge), h (ha), i (ee), k (ka) [see § 6], l (el), m (em), n (en), o (o), p (pe), q (koo), r (er), s (ess), t (te), u, v (oo), x (ix), y (u Graeca?), z (zeta). Of these, y and z were added in Cicero's time to express the corresponding sounds (v, ζ) in borrowed Greek words (cf. Cic. N. D. ii. (s, ζ)).

i and u (v) have a twofold value, which is often in modern writing indicated by a double form: i, j; u, v. See § 4.

Classification of the Letters.

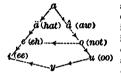
1. The letters are divided, with reference to their sounds, into Vowels (*litterae vōcālēs*) and Consonants (*litterae cōnsonantēs*). Two vowels united so as to express one sound are called a Diphthong.

a. The Vowels are a, e, i, o, u, y. The rest of the letters are Consonants. The Diphthongs are ae (æ), au, ei, eu, oe (œ), ui, and in Early Latin ai, oi, and ou.

NOTE.—All the divisions of the letters apply really to the sounds which the letters represent; but as the sounds in Latin very nearly correspond to the letters, no real confusion need arise if both are spoken of without distinction.

b. Vowels are Open (a, o), Medial (e, u), or Close (i), according to the position of the organs in pronouncing them.

NOTE.—The vowel **a**, as in *father*, is the most open (*i.e.* the organs are least constrained in pronouncing it). Starting from this sound, and narrowing the mouth sidewise, at the same time raising the middle of the tongue, we come through



several gradations not always recognized, but no doubt always more or less existent in speech, to the sound of e (as in eh?) and i (ee, as i in machine). This sound, if enunciated rapidly with a following vowel, passes into the sound of English y (consonant). If, on the other hand, the mouth is narrowed up and down, and at the same time the back of the tongue is raised, we come in the same manner to o and u (oo in fool). If,

starting with 0, we contract in the first manner, we come through a common German sound (5) to e. If, starting from u, we do the same, we come to French u, German u, Greek v, and Latin y. And this sound, in turn, approaches i.

These processes may be represented in a vowel scale as above.

2. Consonants. — a. p, b, c (k), q, g, t, d, as also ch and th, are called Mutes (Explosives, Momentary sounds).

These are produced by an entire stoppage of the breath and a subsequent explosion. They are classified as follows:—

I. p, c (k), q, t, s, are called Surds (tenues).

These are without vocal tone.

2. b, g, d, z, are called Sonants (mediae).

These are accompanied by a slight vocal tone.

3. ch and th are called Aspirates.

In these a breath follows the explosion. They are found chiefly in words borrowed from the Greek. ph, which also was borrowed from the Greek, probably was never sounded as an aspirate in Latin.

b. m and n are called Nasals.

These are pronounced with the same position of the organs as **b** and **d**, except that the nasal passage is opened instead of closed. A third nasal, **n** adulterinum (like n in ink), corresponding in the same way to **g**, existed in the language, but had no separate sign.

3. From the organs of speech chiefly used in the utterance of the mutes and nasals they are divided into Labials (pronounced with the lips), Palatals (with the palate), and Linguals (with the tongue).

Their relations are seen in the following table: -

	SURD.	SONANT.	ASPIRATE.	Nasal.
Labial.	p	ъ	wanting	m
Palatal.	c (k), c	a g	ch	\mathbf{n} (as in ink)
Lingual.	t	đ	th	n (as in rent)

a. Other useful special classes of sounds are distinguished as: —
 Liquids: 1, m, n, r.
 Fricatives (Spirants): f, ph, th (not aspirate, as in thin), h, s, z.
 Sibilants: s, z.
 Double Consonants: x (cs), z (ds).
 Semi-vowels: 1, v (see § 4).

- b. h is merely a breathing.
- 4. Semi-Vowels.—i and v (u) before a vowel in the same syllable are consonants and have the sound of English consonant y and w respectively. (Cf. i and u in pinion, issuing, rapidly pronounced.) They are sometimes called Semi-Vowels.

NOTE 1.—The Latin alphabet had no separate signs for the semi-vowels; but used i for both vowel and consonant i, and v or u (without distinction) for both vowel and consonant v (u). The character J was unknown in classical times, and u was but a graphic variation of v. In mediæval Latin J and v came to be used to indicate the consonant sounds of I and v (u), and this usage is often followed by modern editors in writing small letters. In writing capitals, however, the forms J and U are avoided. Thus iuuenis, iuvenis, or juvenis,—but ivvenis.

In this book vowel and consonant i are both represented by the same character, i; but v is used for the consonant, u for the vowel sound of v (u). Thus iustus, vir. iuvenis.

NOTE 2.—The English sounds of j and v did not exist in Latin in classical times, though consonant v (u) began no doubt to approach English v in many persons' speech.

NOTE 3.—In the combinations qu, gu, and sometimes su, u forms a compound sound with the preceding consonant, and is reckoned neither as a vowel nor a consonant. Thus aqua, anguis, consuetus. (Cf. English quill, anguish, suave.)

5. The Romans distinguished Long vowels from Short in sound, but had no regular characters to express the difference. At various times attempts were made to mark this distinction, but none came into general use.

In modern times short vowels are marked thus: ă, ĕ; and long, thus: ā, ē; those that may be pronounced either long or short, thus: ă, ĕ. In this book all simple vowels not marked are supposed to be short. But final o and i are marked according to their prevailing length or shortness, though they sometimes vary from this quantity in poetry.

NOTE.—Vowels and consonants are not separated by any sharp line from each other, but form a continuous scale from the most open vowel (a) to the mutes, for which the mouth is entirely closed. The general tendency of phonetic changes in language has been from the two extremes towards the middle.

Early Forms.

6. The character c (surd palatal) originally stood for the sonant palatal (g). (Hence, a, b, c, but Alpha, Beta, Gamma.) This force it always retained in the abbreviations C. (for Gāius), and Cn. (Gnaeus).

NOTE. — In prehistoric times these two sounds were confounded, and c was used for both. The character k (surd palatal) was thus supplanted, except in a few words and abbreviations; as, Kal. (Kalendae), Karthāgō.

About 300 B.C. G was invented to distinguish the sonant again, but was put in the place in the alphabet once occupied by z, which at that time had dropped out of use. When z was afterwards restored (in Greek words), it was put at the end of the alphabet.

vas avoided. This was done either by preserving o, when but for this tendency it would have become u, as in voltus (but cultus), servos (but dominus), suos (but meus), quom (but tum), reliquos (but relictus); or in case of quu, by writing cu, as in cur (for quor), ecus (for equos, later equus), cum (for quom, very late quum), relicus (for reliquos, later reliquus). Compare c for qu in cotidie, written for quotidie.

Phonetic Variations.

- 8. Variations of sound are of two classes:—
- 1. Inherited differences of form in the same root (see § 22).

NOTE.—These variations of form in words connected with each other by derivation occur in other languages akin to Latin with great regularity and marked significance. They lost their importance in Latin, but have left traces throughout the language, so that its structure cannot be explained without taking them into account.

2. Unconscious alterations of sounds developed in course of time in the language itself.

NOTE.—Such alterations arise in every language after long use from careless articulation and an unconscious tendency to secure an easier utterance; and they depend very much upon accent. This process is often called *phonetic decay* or *euphonic change*.

- 9. Inherited differences appear in variations of vowels, and less commonly in liquids connected with vowels.
- a. Vowels vary between long and short of the same kind: as, emō, I buy, ēmī, I bought; legō, I read, lēgī, I read; tegō, I cover, tēgula, a tile; sonō, I sound, persōna, a mask (as sounded through); regō, I rule, rēx, a king; dux, a leader, dūcō, I lead.
- b. Vowels vary in quality: as, pendō, I weigh, pondus, weight; tegō, I cover, toga, a robe; fīdus, faithful, foedus, a treaty. (Cf. fall, fell; bind, band, bound.)
- c. Vowels vary between a short vowel of one quality and a long vowel or diphthong of another: miser, wretched, maestus, sad; dare, to give, donum, gift; ago, I lead, egi, I led.
- d. Liquids are transposed with vowels, sometimes with change of the vowel: as, spernō, I spurn, sprēvī, I spurned; sternō, I strew, strāvī, I strewed; gīgnō, I beget, (g)nātus, a son; fulgeō, I shine, flagrō, I burn.
- 10. Unconscious changes occur in both vowels and consonants.
- a. Vowels and diphthongs are weakened, usually in the directions marked on the vowel-scale (see page 2): as, factus, made, confectus, made up; lubet (old) it pleases, libet (later); agmen, a march, agminis, of a march; capio, I take, incipio, I begin; lego, I pick, colligo, I gather; caedo, I cut, cecidi, I have cut; salio, I leap, exsulto, I leap up and down (for joy); pello, I drive, pulsus, driven; servos, a slave (early), servus, a slave (later); optumus, optimus (see § 12. d); eboris, of ivory, eburneus, made of ivory; vorto (early), I turn, verto (later), I turn.

NOTE.—When vowels seem to be changed contrary to the direction of the vowel-scale, either both are changed in different degrees from some common vowel higher up the scale, or the change is due to some special cause: as, iens, euntis (for teions, teiontis); volentem, but voluntes (for volont-); similis, simul (for simolis, etc.); auceps, aucupis.

b. Two vowels coming together are very often contracted: as, cogo for co-ago; obit for obiit; nīl for nihil (see § 347.c); dē-beō for de-hibeō (de-habeō, see a, above); rūrsus, re-versus (re-vorsus, see c below); amārat (for amāverat); cūnctus (for coiunctus); sūrgō (for sub-regō).

- c. Vowels are often entirely lost between two consonants (syncope): as, audācter for audāciter; iūrgium for iūrigium; disciplīna for discipulina; caldus (popular), calidus (literary); or at the end of a word: as, die for dice; satin for satisne; horunc for horunce.
- d. Vowels are rarely inserted between two consonants in the effort to pronounce a difficult combination of sounds (cf. ellum for elm); as, Herculës for Herclës, drachuma for drachma, ager for agr(o) (see § 38).

NOTE. - In many cases in which a vowel is sometimes found it is impossible to tell whether it is original or developed; as, saeclum and saeculum.

- e. Vowels found long in the earlier language are sometimes shortened later: as, fideI (later fideI), amāt (later amat: § 375. g5).
- 11. a. Consonants are unconsciously substituted one for another in accordance with regular tendencies of the language. Thus: -
- I. r for s between two vowels or before m or n: as, eram (root ES), generis (for †genesis, from genus), maereō (cf. maestus), dırimō (dis-emō), diribeō (dis-habeō), veternus (vetus-nus), carmen (†casmen, cf. Casmena). (Compare Eng. was, were.)
- 2. s for d or t, making an easier combination: as, casus (for cad-tus), cēssum (cēd-tum), mānsus (man-tus), passus (pad-tus and pat-tus), equester (equet-ter).
- b. Consonants are omitted: as, examen (exagmen), caementum (caed-mentum), sēmēstris (ses-mēstris), lūna (luc-na), dēnī (†decni), hoc (abl. for hod-ce), autumnus (auctumnus, root AUG), fulmen (fulg-men), pērgō (per-regō), līs (stlīs), cōr (†cord), lāc (lact-), pēs (†peds).
- 1. Especially h: as, praebeō (prae-habeō), vēmēns (for vehemēns).
- 2. And consonant i and v: as, conicio (con-iacio), prorsus (provorsus).
 - 3. Also s at the end of a word after a short vowel.

NOTE. — This is limited to early Latin and colloquial usage: plenu(s) fidel qualist (qualis est).

c. Consonants are unconsciously inserted in passing from one sound to another: as, sumo, I take, sumpsi, I took, sumptus, taken (for sūm-sī, sūm-tus); hiemps, winter, hiemis, of winter. Cf. Thompson (Tom's son).

NOTE. - These are called Parasitic sounds.

d. Consonants are transposed: mīsceō, mīxtus (for misc-tus).

e. Consonants and vowels are unconsciously changed (dissimilation) to avoid a repetition of the same sound in two successive syllables: parīlia (for palīlia, from Palēs), merīdiēs (for medī-diēs), pietās (for †piitās, as in cāritās).

NOTE.—In some cases this principle prevents changes which would take place according to other tendencies of speech.

- f. A consonant is changed by the influence of a neighboring sound, -
- 1. Into the same sound as the neighbor (complete assimilation): as, cess (ced-s), summus (sup-mus), sella (sed-la), puella (puer(u)-la), press (prem-s), occido (ob-cado), mitissimus (for mitius-timus).
- 2. Into a sound of the same organ or the same quality (or both) as the neighbor (partial assimilation) (see table of mutes, § 3): as, conterō (com-terō, labial to lingual), scrīptus (scrīb-tus, sonant to surd), sēgmentum (†secmentum, surd to sonant), imperō (in-perō, lingual to labial).

NOTE. — Sometimes the first consonant governs (regressive assimilation), sometimes the second (progressive assimilation).

3. These changes affect especially the final consonant of the preposition in Compounds: as, accēdō (ad-cēdō), afflciō (ad-faciō), occurrō (ob-currō), corruō (com-ruō), efferō (ec-ferō), suppōnō (sub-pōnō).

NOTE. - The rules for this assimilation may be given as follows: ad is assimilated before c, g, p, t; less regularly before 1, r, s, and rarely before m; while before f, n, q, the form ad is to be preferred. ab is not assimilated, but may take the form a, au, or abs. In com (con, co), m is retained before b, p, m; is assimilated before 1, n, r; is changed to n before c, d, f, g, f, q, s, v; sometimes becomes n before p; is sometimes assimilated (otherwise n) before 1 and r; com loses the final m in conecto, coniveo, conitor, confibium, in usually changes n to m before b, m, p, before I the better orthography retains n, ob and sub are assimilated before c, f, g, p, and sometimes before m; sub also before r; and, in early Latin, b of these prepositions sometimes becomes p before s or t. The inseparable amb loses b before a consonant, and m is sometimes assimilated. circum often loses m before i. s of dis before a vowel becomes r, and before a consonant is lost or assimilated. The d of red and sed is generally lost before a consonant. In most of these cases the later editions prefer the unaltered forms throughout; but the changes given above have good authority. Others, which are corruptions of the middle ages (as assum for adsum), had better be avoided. Lexicons vary in the spelling of these combinations.

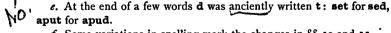
12. Variations of Spelling occur in manuscripts and inscriptions, and especially in modern editions. In the following lists the better forms are put first; objectionable forms in parenthesis.

Note.—These variations are generally mere mistakes in spelling. Many of them are due to the practice of writing from dictation, by which most MS. copies of the classics were made. A single reader dictated to several copyists, whose spelling was often corrupt. The tendency of the best editions is to restore, as normal, the forms of the late Republic or early Empire (the time of Cicero or Augustus),—so far as these may be determined from inscriptions, etc.,—but to preserve, in each author, any peculiarities that mark the spelling of his time. The choice among forms appears often to be arbitrary, for inscriptions of the same period sometimes differ considerably.

a. The letters and sounds of ci and ti are interchanged before a vowel: nūntiō (nūnciō), contiō (conciō), diciō (ditiō), condiciō (conditiō), suspīciō (suspītiō), tribūnīcius (tribūnītius).

NOTE. — This substitution began very early (in a few words) while the c still had the sound of k. But generally it belongs to a later period of the language, and is due to the disturbing influence of consonant 1; natio (natyo) became nacho, or nazio, or nasho. It is this disturbance that has produced the modern sibilant sound of c, as well as that of ti: as, nation (through the French) from natio; species, from species.

- b. Several words are written sometimes with and sometimes without an initial h: as, harēna or (arēna), erus or (herus), umerus or (humerus), ūmor or (hūmor).
- c. In later Latin, ē, ae, and oe became alike in sound (like a in fate), and hence they are often confounded in writing: as, faenus (fēnus, foenus).
- d. Other words variously spelled are: adulēscēns, adolēscēns; ahēneus, aēneus; ānulus, annulus; artus, (arctus); autumnus, (auctumnus); caelum (coelum); cum, quom, (quum); epistula, epistola; exsul, exul; fēcundus (foecundus); fēmina, (foemina); lītera, littera; lubet, libet; lubīdō, libīdō; mīlia, millia; nequīquam, nequicquam, nequidquam; paulus, paullus; quicquam, quidquam; umquam, unquam; vertō, vortō; volnus, vulnus; roelium, (praelium); voltus, vultus; servos, servus. Also the gerundive-form -endus or -undus, and the superlative -imus or -umus.



f. Some variations in spelling mark the changes in §§ 10 and 11.

Combinations.

13. Two words are often united in writing, and sometimes in sound. Thus, —

- a. Conjunctions or other particles and pronouns are sometimes connected: as in etenim, unusquisque, iamdudum, iamdiu, siquis, siquidem; also a few short phrases, as, quare, quamobrem, respublica, iusiurandum, paterfamilias.
- b. The verb est, is, is sometimes joined with the preceding word, especially in the old poets, when the two would be united by elision: as, homost, periculumst, ausust, qualist (qualis est) (like thou'rt, I've).
- c. Similar contractions are found in vīn' (vīsne), scīn' (scīsne), sīs (sī vīs), sōdēs (sī audēs), sūltis (sī vultis). So in English, don't, won't (wol not).

Syllables.

- 14. In Latin every word has as many syllables as it has vowels or diphthongs.
- a. In the division of words into syllables a single consonant between two vowels is to be written and pronounced with the latter.

NOTE. - This rule applies also to v and consonant i.

- b. This rule is sometimes extended to double consonants, or any combination of consonants which can be used to begin a word: as, ho-spes, mā-gnus, dī-xit.
- c. In compounds, the parts should be separated: as, ab-est, ob-latus.
- d. A syllable preceded by a vowel in the same word is called pure, as pi-us; a syllable preceded by a consonant, impure, as constat.
- e. Any syllable ending with a vowel or diphthong is called open; all others are called close. Thus in pa-ter the first syllable is open, the second close.

Kindred Forms.

15. In English words derived from the Latin, the original letters are retained (as *ambition* from ambitio). But in native English words which are cognate with the Latin (see Appendix), the original sounds are rarely represented by the same letters in the two languages, but usually by closely related letters which regularly correspond.

¹ Many words, however, coming through the French follow French changes: as, fashion, façon (factio); chivalry, cheval (caballus); chimney, cheminée (caminus).

RNGLISH LATIN H, WH: qui, who; cos, hone; carpo, harvest; calo (kalenc, k, qu dae), hail; cord-, heart. K. CH: genus, kin; genū, knee; gūstō, choose. g t TH: tū, thou; trēs, three; tenuis, thin. T or D (rarely): stare, stand; torreo, dry. đ T: duō, two: dēns, tooth: sedeō, sit. р F: pater, father; pullus, foal; paucī, few. f (for bh) B: ferō (φέρω), bear; frāter (φράτηρ), brother. D: forēs $(\theta \dot{\nu} \rho a)$, doors; fera $(\theta \dot{\eta} \rho)$, deer. f (for dh) G: vehō, wagon; haedus, goat; hostis, guest. h Y, W: iugum, yoke; ovis, ewe. i cons., v

Sometimes a consonant lost in the Latin appears in the English word. Thus, (s)niv-, snow; (h)ānser, goose; (s)nervo-, snare.

Sounds of the Letters.

NOTE. — The pronunciation of Latin is different in different countries. Among us, it usually follows one of two ways, which may be called the *Roman* (or *Phonetic*) and the *English* method.

16. By the Roman (or Phonetic) method, every letter has always the same sound.

NOTE.—A long vowel in our enunciation almost necessarily acquires a slightly different quality from a short one, as in *boot* and *foot*, *machine* and *holiest*. See also **bs** below.

Vowels: ā as in father; ă as in idea. ē as eh? (prolonged); they; ĕ as eh? (clipped). I as in machine: I as in holiest. o as in holv: ŏ as in obev. ū as oo in boot; ŭ as oo in foot. y between u and i (German \ddot{u}). DIPHTHONGS: ae like ay; oe like oy; au like ow in now. ei as in eight; eu as eh'oo; ui as oo'ee. c and g are always hard, as in come, get. s is always sharp, as in sea, lips. i cons. is like y in young; v (cons. u), like w in wing; CONSONANTS. qu as in English. bs is like ϕs ; ch like k; ph like f. as in English,

except that:

n before s or f was combined with the preceding vowel somewhat as French nasal n, making the vowel long.
z as dz in adze.

z as az in aaze.

th as in rathole, later as in thin.

NOTE 1.—In the ancient pronunciation, ph was distinguished from f by being sounded with the lips only, instead of lip and teeth.

NOTE 2.—In many words (as abjects tenuis), 1 and 11 sometimes had the

NOTE 2.—In many words (as abietis, tenuis), i and u sometimes had the consonant sound, though usually in such words reckoned as vowels,

NOTE 3.—The diphthong **86** was anciently sounded as above, but early in the time of the Empire acquired from popular or provincial use the long sound of **6**.

NOTE 4.—When two consonants come together (as in **condo**, **posteā**), or a consonant is doubled (as in annus, $\mathbf{\tilde{u}llus}$, $\mathbf{mitt\tilde{o}}$), care should be taken to pronounce both letters distinctly. It was doubtless this distinct pronunciation of consonants that made a syllable with a short vowel long by Position (§ 18. d).

- 17. By the English method, the letters have the same sounds as in English; but —
- a. Final a is pronounced as in America; but in the monosyllables a, da, qua, sta, sometimes as in pay; e in open syllables as in me, in close as in men; i in open syllables as in Hi! in close as in pin; o in open syllables as in tone, in close as in not; u as in pull or as in hull, without any definite rules, as ullus (like gull us), but fullo (like full oh); y like i.

NOTE. — In this method of pronunciation, syllables are often treated as open or close according to the position of the accent: as, i'-ter (open), it-i'neris (close).

- b. The diphthongs ae, oe, are pronounced like e; au like aw; eu like ew; ei and ui like i in kite; es and (in plural words) os at the end of a word as in disease, morose.
- c. The consonants c and g are made soft (like s and j) before e, i, y, ae, oe, eu; ch is always hard, as in chasm, chemist.

NOTE. — The English method should be retained in Roman names in English, as Julius Cæsar; and in familiar quotations, as e pluribus unum; viva voce; vice versa; a fortiori; veni, vidi, vici, etc.

Quantity and Accent.

18. Vowels are long or short (as affecting their pronunciation) only by nature. Syllables (as affecting accent and metrical value) are long or short, according to their vowel, but are also made long by Position through the obstruction of consonants. The length or shortness in both cases is called Quantity (cf. § 347).

NOTE. — Some of the rules of Quantity affect length by nature only, some length by position only, and some both.

- a. A vowel before another vowel or h is short: as in via, nihil.
- b. A diphthong is long: as in aedes, foedus. So, also, a vowel derived from a diphthong: as, exclūdo (ex-claudo).
 - c. A vowel formed by contraction is long: as, nīl (nihil).

- d. A syllable in which a vowel is followed by two consonants (except a mute with 1 or r), or a double consonant (x, z), is long by Position; as in pingō, saxum, Mezentius. Before nf and ns, gn and gm, and i consonant the vowel itself becomes long by nature: as in Inferō, praesēns, māgnus, āgmen, hūius.
- e. A syllable in which a short *vowel* is followed by a mute with 1 or r is common; *i.e.* it may be long in verse: as in alacris, latebrae.
- f. A vowel before nd, nt is regularly short by nature: as, amant, amandus from amare.

NOTE.—A vowel is lengthened before i cons, because another i (vowel) is developed as a vanish; thus $\S(!)yo$ becomes $\S 15$.

19. In Latin the accent in words of more than one syllable is on the Penult or Antepenult.

DEFINITION: The Penult is the last syllable but one; the Antepenult, the last but two.

- a. Words of two syllables are always accented on the first syllable: Rō'ma, ve'hō, i'pse.
- b. Words of more than two syllables are accented on the Penult, if that is long: as, amī'cus, praesen'tis; if it is short or common, on the Antepenult: as, do'mīnus, a'lacris, la'tebrae, conti'nŭō, praete'rītum, dissociā'bilis.

NOTE.—In words of more than four syllables a secondary accent usually arises at a convenient distance from the main accent: as, naviga"tio'nibus, pecu"ila'ria.

- c. When an Enclitic is joined to a word, the accent falls on the syllable next before the enclitic, whether long or short: as, děž'que, ămārě've, tĭbi'ne, ſtă'que (and...so), as distinguished from i'tăque (therefore). So (according to some) ex'inde, ec'quando, etc.
- d. EXCEPTIONS: 1. Certain apparent compounds of facio retain the accent of the simple verb: as, benefă'cit, calefă'cit (see § 169. a). (These were not true compounds, but phrases.)
- 2. In the second declension the genitive and vocative of nouns in -ius, and the genitive of those in -ium retain the accent of the nominative: as, Corne'li, Vergi'li, inge'ni (see § 40. c).
- 3. Certain words which have lost a final vowel retain the accent of the complete words: as, illī'c for illī'ce, prōdū'c for prōdūce, sati'n for sati'sne.

NOTE.—The ancients recognized three accents, acute ('), grave ('), and circumflex ('). Accent no doubt originally consisted in a change of pitch,—elevation, depression, or both combined,—and not merely in a more forcible utterance (lotus). But in Latin this pitch accent had been supplanted by a stress accent in historical times.

CHAPTER II. — Words and their Forms.

Inflection.

- 20. INFLECTION is a change made in the form of a word, to show its grammatical relations.
- a. Inflectional changes sometimes take place in the body of a word, or at the beginning, but oftener in its termination: as, vox, a voice; vocis, of a voice; voco, I call; vocat, he calls; vocavit, he has called; tangit, he touches; tetigit, he touched.
- b. Terminations of inflection had originally independent meanings which are now obscured. They correspond nearly to the use of prepositions, auxiliaries, and personal pronouns in English; thus, in vocat, the termination is equivalent to he or she; in vocis, to the preposition of or the like; and in vocet the change of vowel signifies a change of mood.
- c. Inflectional changes in the body of a verb usually denote relations of tense or mood, and correspond to the use of auxiliary verbs in English: as, frangit, he breaks or is breaking; frēgit, he broke or has broken; mordet, he bites; momordit, he bit.1

Root and Stem.

21. The body of a word, to which the terminations are attached, is called the STEM.²

The Stem contains the *idea* of the word without relations; but, except in the first part of a compound, it cannot be used without some termination to express them. Thus the stem võc-denotes voice; with -s added it becomes võx, a voice or the voice, as the subject or agent of an action; with -is it becomes võcis, and signifies of a voice. The stem is in many forms so united with the termination that a comparison with other forms is necessary to determine it.

¹ The only *proper* inflections of verbs are those of the personal endings; and the changes here referred to are strictly changes of Stem, but have become a part of the system of inflections.

² The name Stem is sometimes incorrectly given to that part of a word—as serv- in servus—which is unchanged in inflection. This may be called the base,

22. A Root is the simplest form attainable by analysis of a word into its component parts. Such a form contains the main idea of the word in a very general sense, and is common also to other words either in the same or kindred languages.¹

Thus the root of the stem voc- is voc, which does not mean to call, or I call, or calling, but merely expresses vaguely the idea of calling, and cannot be used as a part of speech without terminations. With a-it becomes voca-, the stem of vocare (to call); with avi- it is the stem of vocavit (he called); with ato- it becomes the stem of vocatus (called); with ation- it becomes the stem of vocationis (of a calling). With its vowel lengthened it becomes the stem of vocationis (a voice: that by which we call). This stem, again, with added, means belonging to a voice; with tila, a little voice.

NOTE.—In inflected languages, words are built up from Roots, which at a very early time were used alone to express ideas, as is now done in Chinese. Roots are modified into Stems, which, by inflection, become Words. The process by which roots are modified, in the various forms of derivatives and compounds, is called Stem-building. The whole of this process is originally one of composition, by which significant endings are added one after another to forms capable of pronunciation and conveying a meaning.

Roots had long ceased to be recognized as such before the Latin existed as a separate language. Consequently the forms which we assume as Latin roots never really existed in Latin, but are the representatives of forms used earlier.

- 23. The Stem is sometimes the same as the root: as in duc-is, of a leader, fer-t, he bears; but it is more frequently formed from the root—
- I. By changing or lengthening its vowel: as in **soob-s**, sawdust (SCAB, shave); rēg-is, of a king (REG, direct); vōc-is, of a voice (voc, call).
- 2. By the addition of a simple suffix (originally another root): as in fug-a, flight (FUG+a); fugi-a, you fly (FUG+ya); pangō, I fasten (PAG+na).
- . 3. By two or more of these methods: as in dio-it, he leads (DUC+a), tollo, I raise (TUL+ya).
- 4. By derivation and composition, following the laws of development peculiar to the language. (See Chap. VIII.)
- 24. Inflectional terminations are variously modified by combination with the final vowel or consonant of the Stem, leading to the various forms of Declension and Conjugation (see § 32).

¹ For example, the root STA is found in the Sanskrit tisthâmi, Greek τστημι, Latin sistere and stāre, German stehen, and English stand. (See Chap. VIII.)

NOTE.—A termination beginning with a vowel is called an open affix one beginning with a consonant, a close affix. When a close affix is joined to a consonant-stem, there is usually either a euphonic change, as in rox for rog-sl, or a vowel appears, as in rog-l-bus. But, in most cases, what is called a conflecting vowel really belongs to the stem, as in voca-mus, rog-mus (see § 123).

The Parts of Speech.

- 25. Words are divided into nine Parts of Speech: Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Participles, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.
- a. A Noun is the name of a person, place, thing, or idea: as, Caesar; Rōma, Rome; domus, a house; virtus, virtue. Names of persons and places are Proper Nouns; other nouns are called COMMON.
- b. An Adjective is a word that attributes a quality: as, bonus, good; fortis, brave, strong.

NOTE. — Etymologically, there is no difference between a noun and an adjective, both being formed alike. So, too, all names originally attribute quality, and any name can still be used to attribute a quality. Thus, King William distinguishes this William from other Williams, by the attribute of royalty expressed in the name King.

- c. A Pronoun is a word used to distinguish a person, place, thing, or idea without either naming or describing it: as, is, he; quī, who; nōs, we.
- d. A Verb is a word which asserts something: as, sum, I am; amat, he loves.

NOTE.—In all modern speech the verb is usually the only word that asserts anything, and a verb is therefore supposed to be necessary to complete an assertion. Strictly, however, any adjective or noun may, by attributing a quality or giving a name, make a complete assertion. In the infancy of language there could have been no other means of asserting, as the verb is of comparatively late development,

- e. A Participle is a word that attributes a quality like an adjective, but being derived from a verb, retains in some degree the power of the verb to assert: as, Caesar consul creatus, Caesar having been elected consul; Caesar Pompeium metuens, Caesar fearing Pompey.
- f. An Adverb is a word used to express the time, place, or manner of an assertion or attribute: as, splendidē mendāx, gloriously false; hodiē nātus, born to-day.

NOTE. — These same functions are often performed by cases (see §§ 148, 149) of nouns, pronouns, and adjectives, and by phrases or sentences. In fact, all adverbs were originally cases or phrases, but have become specialized by use.

- g. A Preposition is a word which shows the relation between a noun and some other word or words in the same sentence: per agros it. he goes ever the fields; e pluribus unum, one out of many.
- NOTE. Prepositions are specialized adverbs (cf. § 152). The relations expressed by prepositions were earlier expressed by cases.
- h. A Conjunction is a word which connects words, phrases, or sentences without affecting their relations: as, et, and; sed, but.
- NOTE. Some adverbs also connect words, etc., like conjunctions. These are called Adverbial Conjunctions or Conjunctive Adverbs: as, ubi, where; donec,
- i. Interjections are mere exclamations. They are not strictly to be classed as Parts of Speech: heus, halloo! 5, oh!
- NOTE. They sometimes express an emotion which affects some other things mentioned, and so have a connection like other words: as, vae victis, woe to the conquered! (alas for the conquered!)
- 26. Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, and Participles have inflections of declension, to denote gender, number, and case. Verbs have inflections of conjugation, to denote voice, mood, tense, number, and person.
- NOTE. Adjectives are often said to have inflections of comparison to indicate degree. These inflections are, however, properly stem-formations made by derivation (cf. § 89).
- 27. Those parts of speech which are not inflected are called PARTI-CLES: these are Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.
- NOTE. The term Particle is sometimes limited to such words as num, -ne, an (interrogative), non, no (negative); BI (conditional), etc., which are used simply to indicate the form or construction of a sentence.

Gender.

- 28. The genders distinguished in Latin are three: Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.
- a. The gender of Latin nouns is either natural or grammatical. Natural gender is distinction as to the sex of the object denoted: as, puer, boy; puella, girl; donum, gift.

NOTE. - Many nouns have both a masculine and feminine form to distinguish sex: as, cervus, cerva, stag, doe; cliens, clienta, client; victor, victrix. conqueror.

Many designations of persons (as nauta, sailor), usually though not necessarily male, are always treated as masculine.

b. Grammatical gender¹ is a formal distinction as to sex where no actual sex exists in the object. It is shown by the form of the adjective joined with the noun: as, lapis māgnus (M.), a great stone; manus mea (F.), my hand.

NOTE.—A few neuter nouns are used to designate persons as belonging to a class; as, mancipium tuum, your slave.

Names of classes or bodies of persons may be of any gender: as, exercitus (M.), acies (F.), and agmen (N.), army; operae (F. pl.), workmen; copiae (F. pl.), troops.

Many pet names of girls (as Paegnium, Glycerium) are neuter.

General Rules of Gender.

- 29. 1. Names of Male beings, Rivers, Winds, Months, and Mountains, are masculine.
- 2. Names of Female beings, Cities, Countries, Plants, Trees, and Gems, of many Animals (especially Birds), and of most abstract Qualities, are *feminine*.

NOTE.—The gender of most of the above may be recognized by their terminations, according to the rules given under the several declensions.

a. A few names of Rivers ending in -a (as Allia), with the Greek names Lēthē and Styx, are feminine; others are variable or uncertain.

Some names of Mountains take the gender of their termination: as, Alpes (f.), the Alps; Soracte (n.).

Names of Months are properly adjectives, the masculine noun mēnsis, month, being understood: as, Iānuārius, January.

b. Some names of Towns and Countries are masculine: as, Sulmō, Gabiī (plur.); or neuter, as Tarentum, Illyricum.

A few names of Plants and Gems follow the gender of their termination: as, centaurēum (N.), centaury; acanthus (M.), bearsfoot; opalus (M.), opal.

Again, in the East and South, the Sun, from its fierce heat and splendor, is masculine, and its paler attendant, the Moon, feminine; while, among Northern nations, the Sun (perhaps for its comforting warmth) is feminine, and the Moon (the appointer of works and days), masculine. The rules of grammatical gender only repeat and extend these early workings of the fancy.

¹ What we call grammatical gender is in most cases the product of the imagination in a rude age, when language was in the course of growth. Thus a River was seen, or a Wind was felt, as a living creature, violent and strong, and so is masculine; and the fable of Atlas shows how similar living attributes were ascribed to Mountains, which, in the northern fables, are the bones of giants. Again, the Earth, or a country or city, seems the mother of its progeny; the Tree shelters and ripens its fruit, as a brooding bird her nest of eggs; and, to this day, a Ship is always referred to by a feminine pronoun.

- c. Indeclinable nouns, infinitives, terms or phrases used as nouns, and words quoted merely for their form, are neuter: as, fas, right: nihil, nothing; gummī, gum; scīre tuum, your knowledge (to know); triste vale, a sad farewell; hoc ipsum diu, this very "long."
- 30. Many nouns may be either masculine or feminine, according to the sex of the object. These are said to be of Common Gender: as, exsul, exile: bos, ox or cow.
- a. If a noun signifying a thing without life may be either masculine or feminine, - as, dies, day; finis, end, - it is sometimes said to be of Doubtful Gender.
- b. Several names of animals have a grammatical gender, independent of sex. These are called Epicene. Thus lepus, hare, is always masculine, and vulpes, fox, is always feminine. To denote a male fox we may say, vulpēs mascula; a female hare, lepus fēmina.

Number and Case.

- 31. Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, and Participles are declined in two Numbers, singular and plural; and in six Cases, nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, vocative, ablative.
 - a. The Nominative is the case of the Subject of a sentence.
- b. The Genitive may generally be translated by the English Possessive, or by the Objective with the preposition of.
- c. The Dative is the case of the Indirect Object (§ 177). It may usually be translated by the Objective with the preposition to or for; but sometimes by the Objective without a preposition.
- d. The Accusative is the case of the Direct Object of a verb (§ 177). It is used also with many of the Latin Prepositions.
 - e. The Vocative is the case of Direct Address.
- f. The Ablative may usually be translated by the Objective with from, by, with, in, or at. It is also often used with prepositions.
- g. All the cases, except the nominative and vocative, may be used as object-cases; and are sometimes called Oblique Cases (casus obliqui).
 - NOTE.—A more convenient arrangement of the cases is the following (see n., p. 205): DIRECT CASES: Nominative, Vocative, Accusative.
 - INDIRECT CASES: Genitive, Dative, Ablative.
- h. In names of towns and a few other words appear traces of another case (the Locative), denoting the place where.
 - i. Still another case, the *Instrumental*, appears in a few adverbs (§ 148).
- NOTE. As the proper inflectional terminations early became fused with the stem in many cases, Latin words are inflected practically by adding case-endings to a part of the noun called the base, which is invariable (see § 21. note 2). But the base and case-endings do not exactly correspond to the proper stem and termination.

CHAPTER III. — Declension of Nouns.

32. Nouns are inflected in five Declensions, distinguished by the case-ending of the Genitive Singular, and by the final letter (characteristic) of the Stem.¹

DECL. I. Gen. Sing. ae Characteristic ă (anciently ā)

" 2. " ĭ " ŏ

" 3. " is " i or a Consonant

" 4. " tīs (uis) " tĭ

" r " at " a tis " a

- a. The Stem of a noun may be found, if a consonant-stem, by omitting the case-ending; if a vowel-stem, by substituting for the case-ending the characteristic vowel.
- b. The Nominative of most masculine and feminine nouns (except in the first declension) is formed from the stem by adding s.²

NOTE.—But many, however, end in 0, or in the liquids, 1, n, r,—the original 8 (sometimes with one or more letters of the stem) having been lost by phonetic decay (§ 11). In some (as in servus, st. servo-) the stem-vowel is modified before the final 8; or, as in ager, imber, st. agro-, imbri-, a vowel has intruded itself into the stem.

33. The following are general Rules of Declension: —

a. The Vocative is always the same as the Nominative, except in the singular of nouns in us of the second declension.

Adjectives are, in general, declined like nouns, and are etymologically to be classed with them. But they have several peculiarities of inflection, and will be more conveniently treated in a group by themselves (see Chap. IV.).

² The s of the nominative is the remnant of an old demonstrative sa, which is found (with modifications) in the Sanskrit personal pronoun, in the Greek article, and in the English she.

8 In the first and second declensions the vocative ends in the weakened stemvowel. Most of the words likely to be used in address are of these declensions; and, in practice, comparatively few other words have a vocative. It is given in the paradigms for the sake of symmetry, but may well be omitted in declining.

¹ Declension is produced by adding terminations originally significant to different forms of stems, vowel or consonant. The various phonetic corruptions in the language have given rise to the several declensions; but it is probable that originally there was only one, with perhaps a few variations. The original terminations (answering to prepositions) can no longer be determined with certainty, except in a few cases. Most of the case-endings, as given in Latin, contain also the final letter of the stem.

- b. In neuters the Nominative and Accusative are always alike, and in the plural end in a.
- c. The Accusative singular of all masculines and feminines ends in m; the Accusative plural in s.
- d. In the last three declensions (and in a few cases in the others) the Dative singular ends in **I**.
 - e. The Dative and Ablative plural are always alike.
 - f. The Genitive plural always ends in um.
- g. Final i, o, u of inflection are always long; final a is short, except in the Ablative singular of the first declension; final e is long in the first and fifth declensions, short in the second and third.
- 34. The Case-endings of the several declensions are the following, rare forms being given in parenthesis, Greek forms in italics:—

DECL. I.	п.	III.	IV.	v.
Sing.				
n. ă, <i>ē</i> , <i>ās</i> , <i>ēs</i>	us, um, or, os, on, eu	S 8 (or modified stem)	us, ü	ēs
G. ae (āī) <i>ēs</i>	Ī (īus) ō, ū, ei	ĭs, yos, ŏs	ūs (uis)	ēī (ē)
D. ae (ai)	ō (ī) ei, eō	I (₹, rare)	uī (ū)	ēī (ē)
A. am, $\bar{a}n$, $\bar{e}n$	um, on, ea	em(im)in, yn, d	um, ū	em
v. ă , <i>ē</i> , <i>ā</i>	ĕ (ī) er, eu	(as nom.) <i>t</i> , <i>y</i>	us, ū	ēs
A. ā, <i>ē</i>	ō, <i>eō</i>	e (ī), ī, <i>yē</i>	ū	8
Plur.				
N.V. ae	ī, ă	ēs, a, ia, <i>žs</i>	ũs, ua	ēs
G. ārum (ūm)	ōrum (ūm, ōm) ōn	um, ium, eōn	uum	ērum
D.A. Is (ābus)		Ibus	ĭbus (ŭbus)	ēbus
A. ās	ōs `	ēs (īs), a, ia, <i>ăs</i>	ūs, ua	ēs

FIRST DECLENSION.

35. The Stem of nouns of the First Declension ends in a, and except in Greek nouns the nominative is like the stem.

Latin nouns of the First Declension are thus declined: -

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL,
Nom.	stellă, a (or the) star.	stellae, stars.
GEN.	stellae, of a star.	stell ārum , of stars.
Dat.	stellae, to (or for) a star.	stell is , to (or for) stars.
Acc.	stellam, a star.	stellās, stars.
Voc.	stella, thou star!	stellae, ye stars!
ABL.	stella, with, from, etc., a star.	stellis, with, from, etc., stars.
Note	-The a- of the stem was originally le	ong.

GENDER. — Nouns of the first declension are Feminine.

EXCEPTIONS: Nouns masculine from their signification: as, nauta, sailor. So a few family or personal names: as, Mūrēna, Scaevola.1 Also, Hadria, the Adriatic.

- **36.** CASE-FORMS. a. The Genitive singular anciently ended in - \overline{a} , which is occasionally found: as, aulai. The same ending occurs in the dative, but only as a diphthong.
- b. An old genitive in -as is preserved in the word familias, used in the combinations pater (mater, filius, filia) familias, father, etc., of a family (plur. patrēs familiās or familiārum).
- c. The Locative form (§ 31. h) for the singular ends in -ae; for the plural in is: as, Romae, at Rome; Athenis, at Athens.
- d. The Genitive plural is sometimes found in -um instead of -arum, especially in compounds with cola and gena, signifying dwelling and descent: as, caelicolum, celestials; Troiugenum, sons of Troy; Aeneadum, sons of Æneas; so amphora and drachma.
- e. The Dative and Ablative plural of dea, goddess, filia, daughter, end in an older form -abus. So rarely with liberta, freed-woman; mula, she-mule; equa, mare. But, except when the two sexes (as in formulas, documents, etc.) are mentioned together, the form in -Is is preferred in all but dea and filia.
- f. The original ending of the Ablative -d is retained in early Latin: as, praedād, booty.

Greek Nouns.

37. Many nouns of the first declension borrowed from the Greek are entirely Latinized, but many retain traces of their Greek forms in various degrees.

a court (F.).	Electra (F.). as	synopsis (F.). 1	he art of music (F.).
Nom. aula	Ēlectră (ā)	epitom ē	mūsica (ē)
GEN. aulae	Electr ae	epitom ēs	mūsic ae (ēs)
DAT. aulae	$\overline{\mathbf{E}}$ lectr \mathbf{ae}	epitom ae	mūsic ae
Acc. aulam	\overline{E} lectram (\overline{a} n)	epitom ēn	mūsic am (ēn)
Voc. aula	E lectra	epitom ē	mūsica (ē)
ABL. aulā	Ēlectr ā •	epitom ē	mūsic ā (ē)

¹ A feminine adjective, used as a noun, meaning little left hand, but from being a name of a man it becomes masculine. Original genders are often thus changed by the use of a noun in another sense.

Andromache (F.).	Æneas (M.). L	eonidas (M.). a	Persian (M.).
Nom. Andromachē (a)	Aenēās	Leonidās	Persēs (a)
GEN. Andromaches (ae)	Aenē ae	Leōnidae	Persae
DAT. Andromachae	Aenē ae	Leōnidae	Persae
Acc. Andromachen (am)	Aenē ān (am)	Leōnid am	Pers ēn (am)
Voc. Andromache (a)	Aenēā (ă)	Leonida (a)	Persa
ABL. Andromache (a)	Aenē ā	Leōnid ā	Persē (ā)
Anchises (M.).	son of Aneas	(M.) comet	(M.).

	Anchises (M.).	.son of Æneas (M.)	comet (M.).
Nom.	Anchīsēs	Aeneadēs (ă)	comētēs (a)
GEN.	Anchīsae	Aenead ae	comēt ae
DAT.	Anchīs ae	Aenead ae	comēt ae
Acc.	Anchīs ēn (am)	Aenead ēn	comēt ēn (am)
Voc.	Anchīsē (ā, ă)	Aeneadē (ă)	comēt ă
ABL.	Anchīsē (ā)	Aeneadē (ā)	comētā (ē)

. Also Scīpiadam, from Scīpiadēs, in Horace.

- a. Many Greek nouns vary between the first, the second, and the third declensions: as, **Boōtae** (gen. of **Boōtēs**, -is), **Thūcydidās** (acc. plur. of **Thūcydidēs**, -is). See § 43. a and § 63.
- b. Greek forms are found only in the singular; the plural is regular: as, comētae, -ārum, etc. There are (besides proper names) about thirty-five of these words, several being names of plants, or names of arts: as, crambē, cabbage; mūsicē, music. Most have also regular Latin forms: as, comēta, but the nominative sometimes has the a long.

SECOND DECLENSION.

38. The Stem of nouns of the Second Declension ends in δ^1 (as of vir, virð-; servos (-us), servð-; dominus, dominð-). The nominative is formed from the stem by adding s in masculines and feminines, m in neuters, the vowel δ being weakened to \tilde{u} (see §§ 7 and 10).

In most nouns whose stem ends in rŏ- the s is not added, but o is lost, and e intrudes before r, if not already present (cf. chamber from chambre): as, ager, stem agrŏ-, Greek ἀγρός. Exceptions are hesperus, icterus, iūniperus, mōrus, numerus, taurus, umerus, uterus, vīrus, and many Greek nouns.

¹ This is the original masculine &-stem corresponding to the &-stem of the first declension; but the a had already approached o before the separation of the languages (see Appendix).

Latin nouns of the Second Declension are the	ıs declined :—	_
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Sing. Nom. GEN. DAT. ACC. VOC. ABL.	slave (M.). servus (OS) servī servō servum (Om) serve servō	boy (M.). puer puerī puerō puerum puer puer	field (M.). ager agrī agrō agrum ager agrō	man (M.). vir virī virō virum vir virō	war (N.). bellum bellī bellō bellum bellum bellum
Plur. Nom. GEN. DAT. ACC. VOC. ABL.	servī serv ōrum servīs serv ōs servī servīs	puerī puerīs puerōs puerī puerīs puerī puerīs puerī puerīs	agrī agrōrum agrīs agrōs agrī agrīs	virī vir ōrum vir īs vir ōs virī v ir ī s	bella bellīs bella bella bella bellīs

NOTE. — The earlier forms for nominative and accusative were -os, -on, and these were always retained after u and v up to the end of the Republic. The terminations s and m are sometimes omitted in inscriptions: as, Cornēlio for Cornēlios, Cornēliom.

- 39. GENDER. Nouns ending in us (0s), er, ir, are Masculine; those ending in um (on) are Neuter. But —
- a. Names of towns in us (os) are Feminine: as, Corinthus. Also many names of plants and gems, with the following: alvos, belly; carbasus, linen (plural carbasa, sails, N.); colus, distaff; humus, ground; vannus, winnowing-shovel. Many Greek nouns retain their original gender: as, arctus (F.), the Polar Bear; methodus (F.), method.
- b. The following in us are Neuter; their accusative, as of all neuters, is the same as the nominative: pelagus (nom. acc. plur. pelagē), sea; vīrus, poison; vulgus (rarely M.), the crowd; so cētē, sea-monsters (nominative plural without nominative singular).
- **40.** Case-Forms.—a. The Locative form of this declension ends for the singular in **I**: as, **humi**, on the ground; **Corinth**, at Corinth; for the plural, in **Is**: as, **Philippis**, at Philippi.
- b. The genitive of nouns in ius or ium ended, until the Augustan Age, in a single I: as, fill, of a son; but the accent of the nominative is retained: as, inge'ni, of genius.\(^1\) The same contraction occurs in the genitive singular and the dative and ablative plural of nouns in -aius and -eius: as, Grais, for the Greeks; Pompei, of Pompey.

¹ The genitive in ii occurs twice in Virgil, and constantly in Ovid, but was unknown to Cicero. The first i was probably retained in sound as y.

- c. Proper names in -ius lose e in the vocative, retaining the accent of the nominative: as, VergYII; also, filius, son; genius, divine guardian: as, audī, mī fIII, hear, my son.
- d. Greek names in -Ius have the vocative Ie. Adjectives in -Ius form the vocative in -ie, and some of these are occasionally used as nouns: as, Lacedaemonie, oh Spartan.
- e. The genitive plural often has tim or (after v) om (cf. § 7) for orum, especially in the poets: as, detim, supertim, divom, of the Gods, virtim, of men. Also in compounds of vir, and in many words of money, measure, and weight: as, sovirtim, of the Seviri, nummtim, of coins, tugertim, of acres.
- f. Deus, god, has vocative deus; plural: nominative and vocative deī or dī (for diī); genitive deōrum, deūm; dative and ablative deīs or dīs (for diīs). For the genitive plur. dīvūm or dīvōm (from dīvus, divine) is often used.
- g. The original ending of the ablative -d is found in early Latin: as, Gnaivod (later, Gnaeo), Cneius.
- 41. The following stems in ero-, in which e belongs to the stem, retain the e throughout:—

adulter, adulterer; gener, son-in-law; puer, boy; socer, father-in-law; vesper, evening.

Also, compounds in fer and ger (stem fero-, gero-): as, lucifer, morning star; armiger, squire.

- a. Some of these have an old nominative in -erus: as, socerus. So vocative puere, a boy, as from puerus (regularly puer).
- b. Vir, man, has the genitive virī; the adjective satur, sated, has satūrī; vesper, evening, has abl. vespere (loc. vesperī, in the evening).
- c. Liber (a name of Bacchus) has genitive Liberi; so, too, the adjective liber, free, of which liberi, children, is the plural (§ 82. b).
- d. Iber and Celtiber, barbaric names not properly belonging to this declension, retain 5 throughout.
 - e. Mulciber, Vulcan, has -berī and -brī in the genitive.
- 42. The following not having e in the stem insert it in the nominative and vocative singular. (Cf. § 10. d.)

ager, field, st. agro; coluber, snake; magister, master; aper, boar; conger, sea-eel; minister, servant; arbiter, judge; culter, knife; oleaster, wild-olive; auster, south wind; faber, smith; cancer, crab; fiber, beaver; acaper, goat; liber, book; magister, master; minister, servant; oleaster, wild-olive; onager (-grus), wild-ass; scomber (-brus), mackerel.

[N.B. - For the corresponding forms of Adjectives, see Chap. IV.]

43. Greek nouns—including many names in -eus—are declined as follows in the Singular, the Plural being regular:—

f	able (M.). 1	mock-sun (n.)). Delos (F.).	Athos (M.).	Orpheus (M.).
Nom.	mÿthos	parēlion	Dēlos	Athōs (ō)	Orpheus
GEN.	mÿth T	parēli ī	Dēl ī	Athō (ī)	Orphe I (eos)
DAT.	mỹth ō	parēli ō	Dēl ō	Athō	Orphe T
Acc.	m ÿ th on	parēli on	Dēlon (um)	Athon (um)	Orphe a
Voc.	mỹth e	parēli on	Dēle	Ath ōs	Orpheu
ABL.	mỹth ō	parēli ō	Dēl ō	Ath ō	Orphe ō

- a. Many names in -5s belonging to the third declension have also a genitive in -1: as, Thūoydidēs, Thūoydidī (compare §§ 37. b and 52).
- b. Several names in -er have also a nominative in -us: as, Teucer or Teucrus. The name Panthüs has the vocative Panthü (§ 63. i).
- c. The genitive plural of certain titles of books takes the Greek termination -on: as, Georgicon, of the Georgics.
- d. The termination -oe (for Greek -o) is sometimes found in the nominative plural: as, Adelphoe, the Adelphi (a play of Terence).

THIRD DECLENSION.

Nouns of the Third Declension are best classed according to their stems, as ending (1) in a Vowel (i), (2) in a Liquid (1, n, r), (3) in a Mute.

A few whose stems end in u, formerly long (grūs, sūs), were treated as consonant-stems.

1. Mute-Stems.

44. Masculine and Feminine nouns, whose stem ends in a Mute, form the nominative by adding -s. If the mute is a *lingual* (t, d), it is suppressed before -s; if it is a *palatal* (c, g), it unites with -s, forming -x: as,—

op-is, ops, help; custod-is, custos, guardian; reg-is, rex, king.1

Neuters have for the nominative the simple stem (with some modifications, see § 45).

capit-is, caput, head; poēmat-is, poēma, poem.

¹ In these the genitive is given first to show the stem as it occurs in practice.

- 45. The vowel before the final consonant of the stem is often modified:—
- a. LABIALS. Stems in Ip- have e before p in the nominative: as, adip-is, adeps. Most stems in clp- are compounds of the root CAP (in capio, take): as, particip-is, particeps, sharer. In these the stem sometimes has the form cup-: as, aucup-is, auceps, fowler.
- b. LINGUALS.—Stems in It- (M. or F.) have e (short) in the nominative: as, hospit-is, hospes. The neuter capit-is has caput. Neuter stems ending in two consonants, and those ending in at- (Greek nouns), drop the final lingual: as, cord-is, cor; poëmat-is, poëma.
- c. PALATALS. Stems in Ic- (short i) have the nominative in -ex, with a few exceptions (§ 67. c), and are chiefly masculine: as, apic-is, apex; indic-is, index. Those in Ic- (long i) retain I, and are feminine: as, cornIc-is, cornIx.²
 - 46. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:

Sing. help (F.)	king (M.).	guide (C.).8	soldier (M.).	head (N.).
Stem op-	rēg-	duc-	mIlit-	capit-
Nом. [ops] 4	rēz.	dux	mīles	caput
Gen. opis	rēg is	ducis	mīlit is	capit is
DAT. opī	rēg ī	duc ī	mīlit ī	capit ī
Acc. opem	rēg em	duc em	mīlit em	caput
Voc. ops	rē ≭	du ≭	mīle s	caput
ABL. ope	rēg e	duc e	mīlite	capit e
Plur. wealth				
Nом. ор ёз	rēg ēs	ducēs	mīlit ēs	capita
GEN. opum	rēgu m	duc um	mīlit um	capitu m
DAT. opibus	rēg ibus	ducibus	mīlit ibus	capit ibus
Acc. opës	rēg ēs	duc ēs	mīlit ēs	capit a
Voc. opës	rēg ēs	duc ēs	mīlit ēs	capit a
ABL. opibus	rēg ibus	duc ibus	mīlit ibus	capiti bus

¹ In these cases **e** is a less weakened form of the root (§ 10. a). A few whose root-vowel is i follow the analogy of the others: as, indic-is, index.

² In nix, nivis, the nominative retains a palatal lost in the other cases (original stem snig-, compare § 15. and ningit, § 146. a). Supellex (-ectilis) is partly a lingual-, partly an i-stem. Of apparent 8-stems in Latin, ās (assis) is an i-stem; and the original stem of os (ossis) is osti- (cf. δστέον and Sanskrit asthi). Original 8-stems have either (1) passed into r-stems (changed from s (§ 11. a. 1)) in most of the cases, as honor, -ōris, corpus, -ōris (see liquid stems); or (2) have broken down into i-stems, as mōlēs (cf. molestus), nūbēs (Sanskrit nabhas), sēdēs (cf. čõos), vis (plur. virēs), etc., but vās keeps its proper form in the nominative.

8 Common gender, see § 30.

⁴ The singular (meaning *help*) is not used in the nominative, except as the name of a divinity. The dative singular occurs but once.

47. In like manner are declined—

prīnceps, -ipis (C.), chief; ariēs, -etis (M.), ram; lapis, -idis (M.), stone; iūdex, -icis (M.), judge; custōs, -ōdis (C.), guard; cornīx, -īcis (F.), raven; comes, -itis (C.), companion; poēma, -atis (N.), poem (§ 47. b).

- a. Many apparent mute-stems, having the genitive plural in -ium, are to be classed with i-stems (§ 54).
- b. Greek neuters (as poēma), with nominative singular in -a, frequently end in the dative and ablative plural in -is, and in the genitive plural rarely in -ōrum.
- c. A few nouns apparent i-stems belong here: canis, or canēs, gen. canis (stem orig. can-), dog.

2. Liquid-Stems.

- 48. In nouns whose stem ends in a Liquid (1, n, r), the nominative is the same as the stem, except when modified as follows:—
- a. Stems in on- (M. and F.) drop n in the nominative: as in leon-is, leo, lion; legion-is, legio, legion.
- b. Stems in din- or gin- (mostly feminine) drop n and keep an original 5 in the nominative: as, virgin-is, virgō, maiden. Also a few others:² as, homin-is, homō, man; turbin-is, turbō, whirlpool; Apollin-is, Apollō; carn-is, carō, flesh (see § 61); Aniōn-is, Aniō. Most other stems in in- have e and retain n: as, cornicin-is, cornicen (M.), horn-blower; carmin-is, carmen (N.), song.³
- c. Stems in tr- have -ter in the nominative: as, patr-is, pater, father: matr-is, mater, mother.4
- d. Many neuter stems in er- and or- (originally s-stems) have -us in the nominative: as, oper-is, opus, work; corpor-is, corpus, body. Some stems in er- have -is: as, ciner-is, cinis, ashes.

A few masculine and feminine stems have the nominative in -s as well as -r: as, honor-is, honos (or honor); arbor-is, arbos (or arbor), tree.⁵

NOTE. - For some irregular nominatives of this kind, see § 50.

¹ That is, as would appear from the nominative,

² All these had originally 5 in the stem.

⁸ These differences are inherited from the parent speech, and depend upon different modifications of the same original vowel (§ 10).

⁴ These, no doubt, had originally ter- in the stem, but this had become weakened to tr- in some of the cases even in the parent speech. In Latin only the nom, and voc. sing. show the e. But cf. Mārspitris and Mārspiteris (Mā(r)s-piter).

⁵ See Note 2, page 26.

e. Stems in 11-, rr- (N.) lose one of their liquids in the nominative: as, farr-is, far, grain; fell-is, fel, gall.

49. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:—

Sing	consul (M.).	lion (M.).	maiden (F.).	name (N.).
	Stem consul-	leōn-	virgin-	nōmin-
Nom.	consul	leō	virgō	nomen
GEN.	cōnsul is	leōn is	virgin is	nōmin is
Dat.	cõnsul ī	leōn ī	virgin ī	nōmin ī
Acc.	cōnsul em	leõn em	virgin em	nōmen
Voc.	cōnsul	leō	virgō	nδmen
ABL.	cōnsul e	leōn e	virgin e	nōmin e
Plur.				
Nom.	cõnsul ēs	leõn ës	virgin ēs	nōmin a
GEN.	cõnsul um	leõn um	'virgin um	nōmin um
Dat.	cõnsul ibus	leōn ibus	virgin ibus	nõmin ibus
Acc.	cõnsul ēs	leōn ēs	virgin ēs	nōmin a
Voc.	cōnsul ēs	leōn ēs	virgin ēs	nōmin a
ABL.	cõnsul ibus	leōn ibus	virgin ibus	nōmin ibus
Sing.	<i>body</i> (N.).	race (N.).	ivory (n.).	plain (N.).
St. corp	or-, orig. corpos-	gener- orig. gene	°s- ebor- ì	aequor-
St. corpo	or-, orig. corpos-	gener- orig. gene genus	°s- ebor-¹ ebur	aequor- aequor
St. corpo Nom. Gen.	or-, orig. corpos- corpus corporis	gener-orig. gene genus generis	ebor- ¹ ebur eboris	aequor- aequor aequoris
St. corpo Nom. GEN. DAT	or-, orig. corpos-	gener- orig. gene genus	ebur eboris eborī	aequor- aequoris aequorī
St. corpo Nom. GEN. DAT Acc.	corpus corpus corporis corporī corpus	gener-orig. gene genus generis	ebur eboris eborī eborī ebur	aequoriaequoriaequoriaequoriaequori
Nom. GEN. DAT ACC. VOC.	or-, orig. corpos- corpus corporis corpori corpus corpus	gener- orig. gene genus generis generī genus genus	ebur eboris ebori ebori ebur ebur	aequoraequoris aequoris aequor aequoraequoraequor
St. corpo Nom. GEN. DAT Acc.	corpus corpus corporis corporī corpus	gener- orig. gene genus generis gener ī genus	ebur eboris eborī eborī ebur	aequoriaequoriaequoriaequoriaequori
Nom. GEN. DAT ACC. VOC.	or-, orig. corpos- corpus corporis corpori corpus corpus	gener- orig. gene genus generis generī genus genus	ebur eboris ebori ebori ebur ebur	aequoraequoris aequoris aequor aequoraequoraequor
Nom. GEN. DAT ACC. VOC. ABL.	or-, orig. corpos- corpus corporis corpori corpus corpus	gener- orig. gene genus generis generī genus genus	ebur eboris ebori ebori ebur ebur	aequoraequoris aequoris aequor aequoraequoraequor
St. corps Nom. GEN. DAT ACC. VOC. ABL. Plur.	corpus corpus corporis corpori corpus corpus corpus corpore	gener- orig. gene genus generis generi genus genus genus genere	ebur eboris ebori ebur ebur ebur ebore	aequor- aequoris aequori aequor aequor aequor aequore
St. corps Nom. Gen. Dat Acc. Voc. Abl. Plur. Nom.	corpus corpus corpuris corpuris corpus corpus corpus corpore	gener- orig. gene genus generis generī genus genus genus genere	ebore ebora	aequoria aequoria aequori aequor aequor aequore
ST. corpo Nom. GEN. DAT ACC. VOC. ABL. Plur. Nom. GEN.	corpus corpus corpus corpus corpus corpus corpus corpore	gener- orig. gene genus generis generi genus genus genus genere	ebora eborum	aequoria aequoria aequori aequori aequor aequor aequore aequora
St. corpo Nom. Gen. Dat Acc. Voc. Abl. Plur. Nom. Gen. Dat.	corpus corpus corpus corpus corpus corpus corpus corpus corpus corpore corpora corporaum corporibus	gener- orig. generated gen	ebora eboribus	aequoria aequoria aequori aequori aequori aequori aequori aequori aequori aequori aequori

50. In like manner are declined -

pater, patris (M.), father;	arbor (-ōs), -oris (F.), tree.
furfur, -uris (M.), bran;	honor (-ōs), -ōris (M.), honor.
opus, -eris (N.), work;	pīgnus, -eris or -oris, pledge.

¹ A foreign word forced into the analogy of the r- (s-) stems.

The following apparently liquid stems have the genitive plural in -ium, and are to be classed with the i-stems: imber, linter, ūter, venter; fūr, glīs, lār, mās, mūs, [†rēn]; also vīrēs (pl. from vīs: see § 61).

3. Vowel-Stems.

- 51. Vowel-stems of the Third Declension end in i- (as turris, stem turri-; mare, stem mari-). The nominative, except in neuters, is formed by adding -s to the stem.
- a. Thirty-five nouns change I to 8 in the nominative, and many others vary between i and 8: as, cīvēs or cīvis, citizen; canēs or canis.
- b. The nominative of a few stems in bri- and tri- does not add-s, but loses i, inserting e before r. These are imber, linter, uter, venter (§ 54, and cf. ager).
- c. The nominative of neuters is the same as the stem, with the change of \mathbf{I} to \mathbf{E} (as in mare). But when \mathbf{I} was preceded by al or ar, the \mathbf{e} was lost, as in animal (§ 53. ϵ).²

52. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:

Sing.	thirst (F.). Stem siti-	tower (F.). turri-	cloud (F.). nubi-	<i>seat</i> (N.). sed ī li-	animal (N.). animāli-
Nom.	sitis	turris	nūbēs	sedīle	animal
GEN.	sit is	turr is	nūb is	sedīl is	animāl is
DAT.	sit ī	turr ī	nūb ī	sedīl ī	animāl ī
Acc.	sit im	turrem (im)	nūb em	sedīl e	animal
Voc.	sit is	turr is	nūb ēs	sedīl e	animal
ABL.	sit ī	turre (ī)	nūb e	sedīl ī	animāl ī
Plur.					
Nom.		turr ēs	nūb ēs	sedīl ia	animāl ia
GEN.		turr ium	nūb ium	sedīl ium	animāl ium
Dat.		turr ibus	nūb ibus	sedīl ibus	animāl ibus
Acc.		turr īs (ēs)	nūb īs (ēs)	sedīl ia	animāl ia
Voc.		turrēs	nūb ēs	sedīl ia	animāl ia
ABL.		turr ibus	nūb ibus	sedīl ibus	animāl ibus

¹ These are acīnacēs, aedēs, alcēs, caedēs, cautēs, clādēs, compāgēs, contāgēs, famēs, fēlēs, fidēs (pl.), indolēs, lābēs, luēs, mēlēs, mōlēs, nūbēs, palumbēs, prōlēs, prōpāgēs, pūbēs, sēdēs, saepēs, sordēs, strāgēs, struēs, subolēs, tābēs, torquēs, tudēs, vātēs, vehēs, veprēs, verrēs, vulpēs (aedēs has also nom. aedis).

² Except in augurāle, collāre, fōcāle, mare, nāvāle, penetrāle, scūtāle, tībiāle; alveāre, capillāre, cochleāre.

53. Nouns of this class include: —

- a. Nouns of the third declension in -5s or -1s (mostly feminine) or e (neuter) having the same number of syllables in the nominative and genitive (parisyllabic).
 - b. Those in -er, except pater, mater, frater, accipiter.
- c. Neuters in -al, -ar (originally neuters of adjectives in -alis, -aris) which have lost a final -e.1
- 54. Many nouns with apparently consonant-stems were originally i-stems.² These are —
- 1. Monosyllables with stem apparently ending in two consonants: as, urbs, mons (gen. montis), nox (gen. noctis), arx; together with imber, linter, uter, venter (\S 51. δ).
- 2. Stems in tāt- (as cīvitās, -ātis), or in d or t preceded by a consonant (including participles used as nouns); also the monosyllables dōs, [†faux], fūr, glīs, līs, mās, mūs, nix, [†rēn], strix, vīs, scrobs (cf. § 50).
- 3. Nouns denoting birth or abode, having stems in at-, It-, originally adjectives: as, Arpīnās, -ātis (§ 164.c.), with penātēs and optimātēs (§ 76. 2).

They are thus declined: -

Sing. city (F.). Stem urbi-	night (F.).	age (F.). aetāti-	mūri-	shower (M.).
Nom. urbs	nox	aetās	mūs	imber
Gen. urb is	noct is	aetāt is	mūr is	imbr is
Dat. urbī	noct ī	aetāt ī	mūr ī	imbr ī
Acc. urbem	noctem	aetāt em	mūr em	imbr em
Voc. urbs	no≖	aetā s	mūs	imber
ABL. urbe	nocte	aetāt e	mūre	imbre (I)

¹ These are animal, bacchānal, bidental, capital, cervīcal, cubital, lupercal, minūtal, puteal, quadrantal, toral, tribūnal, vectīgal; calcar, cochlear, exemplar, lacūnar, laquear, lūcar, lūminar, lupānar, palear, pulvīnar, torcular; with the plurals dentālia, frontālia, genuālia, rāmāña, spōnsālia; altāria, plantāria, speculāria, tālāria; also many names of festivals as Sāturnālia.

² The i-declension was confused even to the Romans themselves, nor was it stable at all periods of the language, early Latin having i-forms which afterwards disappeared. There was a tendency in nouns to lose the i-forms, in adjectives to gain them. The nominative plural (-is) was most thoroughly lost, next the accusative form (-im), next the ablative (-i); while the genitive and accusative plural (-ium, -is) were retained in almost all.

⁸ These, however, more commonly have the genitive plural in -um.

Plur.

Nom.	urb ēs	noctēs	aetāt ēs	mūr ēs	imbrēs
GEN.	urb ium	noctium	aetātum (ium)	mūr ium	imbrium
Dat.	urb ibus	noct ibus	aetatibus	mūr ibus	imbr ibus
Acc.	urb īs (ēs)	noctīs (ēs)	aetāt īs (ēs)	mūr īs (ēs)	imbrīs (ēs)
Voc.	urb ēs	noct ēs	aetāt ēs	mūr ēs	imbr ēs
ABL.	urbibus	noctibus	aetāt ibus	mūr ibus	imbribus

NOTE. — The declension of these nouns in the singular differs in no respect from that of consonant-stems, and in the plural in no respect from that of vowel-stems.

- 55. Vowel-stems show the i of the stem in the following forms:—
- a. They all have the genitive plural in ium (but some monosyllables lack it entirely). For a few exceptions, see § 59.
 - b. All neuters have the nominative and accusative plural in -ia.
 - c. The accusative plural (M. or F.) is regularly -Is.
 - d. The accusative singular (M. or F.) of a few ends in -im (§ 56).
- e. The ablative singular of all neuters, and of many masculines and feminines, ends in -I (see § 57).
- **56.** The regular case-ending of the accusative singular of i-stems (M. or F.) would be -im: as, sitis, sitim (cf. stella, -am; servos, -om); but in most nouns this is changed to -em (following the consonant declension).
 - a. The accusative in -im is found exclusively ---
 - 1. In Greek nouns and names of rivers.
 - 2. In būris, cucumis, rāvis, sitis, tussis, vīs.
 - 3. In adverbs in -tim (being accusative of nouns in -tis), as partim; and in amussim.
- b. The accusative in -im is found sometimes in febris, puppis, restis, turris, securis, sementis, and rarely in many other words.
- 57. The regular form of the ablative singular of i-stems would be -I: as, sitis, siti; but in most nouns this is changed to -e.
 - a. The ablative in -ī is found exclusively -
 - 1. In nouns having the accusative in -im (§ 56); also secūris.
 - In the following adjectives used as nouns: aequālis, annālis, aquālis, consulāris, gentīlis, molāris, prīmipīlāris, tribūlis.
 - In neuters (whose nominative ends in -e, -al, -ar): except bacoar, iubar, and sometimes (in verse) mare, rēte.

- b. The ablative in -I is found sometimes -
 - In avis, clāvis, febris, fīnis, īgnis,¹ imber, nāvis, ovis, pelvis, puppis, sēmentis, strigilis, turris.
 - In the following adjectives used as nouns: affinis, bipennis, canālis, familiāris, nātālis, rīvālis, sapiēns, tridēns, trirēmis, vēcālis.
- c. The ablative of famēs is always famē (§ 78. 1. c). The defective māne has sometimes locative mānī (§ 77. 2. c) used as ablative.
- d. Most names of towns in -e,—as Praeneste, Tergeste,—and Sōracte, a mountain, have the ablative in -e. Caere has Caerēte.
 - e. For canis, see § 47. c.
- 58. The regular Nominative plural of i-stems would be -Is, but this is very rarely found in nouns. The regular Accusative -Is is common, but not exclusively used in any word. An old form for both cases is -61s (diphthong).
- 59. The following have -um (not -ium) in the Genitive plural: canis, iuvenis (originally consonant-stems); ambāgēs, mare (once only, otherwise wanting), volucris; also (sometimes) apis, caedēs, clādēs, mēnsis, sēdēs, struēs, subolēs, vātēs, and (very rarely) patrials in -ās, -ātis; -īs, -ītis; as, Arpīnās, Arpīnātum; Samnīs, Samnītum.

4. Irregular Nouns.

- 60. In many nouns the stem is irregularly modified in the nominative or other cases. Thus—
- a. The vowel-stems grū-, sū-, add -s in the nominative, and are inflected like mute-stems: grūs has also a nominative gruis; sūs has both suibus and subus in the dative and ablative plural.
- δ. In the stem bov- (bou-) the diphthong ou becomes ō in the nominative (bōs, bŏvis). In nāv- (nau-) an i is added (nāvis, -is). In Iŏv- (= Zεύs) the diphthong (ou) becomes ū in Iū-piter (for-păter), gen. Iŏvis, etc.
- c. In iter, itineris (N.), iecur, iecinoris (N.), supellex, supellectilis (F.), the nominative has been formed from a shorter stem, in senex, senis from a longer; so that these words show a combination of two distinct forms. The shorter form is found in the genitive iecor-is.
- d. Of the many original s-stems, only vās, vāsis (N.) (pl. vāsa, -ōrum) (see p. 26, foot-note 2), retains its proper form in the nominative (see § 48. d).

¹ Always in the formula aquā et īgnī interdīcī (§ 243. a).

61. Some peculiar forms are thus declined:—

Sing. ox, cow (C.). old man (M.). flesh (F.). bone (N.). force (F.). swine (C.).						
N., V.	bōs	senex	carō	OS	vīs	នជិន
GEN.	bŏv is	sen is	carn is	os sis	vīs (rare)	suis
DAT.	bov ī	sen ī	carnī	oss ī	vī (rare)	su ī
Acc.	bov em	sen em	carn em	os	vim	suem
ABL.	bov e	sen e	carne	oss e	vī	sue
Plur.	cattle				strength	
N., A., V.	bovēs	sen ēs	carnēs	ossa	vīrēs	suēs
GEN.	bo um	sen um	carn ium	ossium	vīr ium	su um
D., ABL.	bō bus	senibus	carnibus	ossib us	vīr ibus	sŭbu s
	(būbus)					(suibus)

5. Case Forms.

62. The LOCATIVE form for nouns of the third declension ends in the singular in -I or -e: as, rur, in the country; Carthagin or Carthagine, at Carthage; in the plural in -ibus: as, Trallibus, at Tralles.

NOTE. — The Locative singular in -e appears to have been first used in poetry.

a. An old ablative is found ending in -d: as, conventionid, dictatored (cf. praedad, § 36. f; Gnaivod, § 40. g; magistratud, § 70. k).

6. Greek Forms.

- 63. Many nouns originally Greek mostly proper names retain Greek forms of inflection.
- a. Stems in In- (i long): delphInus, -I (M.), has also the form delphIn, -Inis; SalamIs, -is (F.), has acc. SalamIna.
- b. Most stems in Id- (nom. -is) often have also the forms of i-stems: as, tigris, -Idis (-Idos) or -is; acc. -Idem (-Ida) or -im (-in); abl. -Ide or -I. But many, including most feminine proper names, have acc. -idem (-ida), abl. -ide, not -im or -I. (These stems are irregular also in Greek.)
- c. Stems in on-sometimes retain -n in the nominative: as, Agamemnon (or Agamemno), -onis, accusative -ona.
- d. Stems in ont- form the nom. in -on: as, horizon, Xenophon; but a few are occasionally Latinized into on- (nom. -o): as, Draco, -onis.
- e. Stems in ant-, ent-, have the nom. in -ās, -īs: as adamās, -antis; Simoīs, -entis. So a few in tint- (contracted from oënt-) have -ūs: as, Trapezūs, -tintis. Occasionally the Latin form of nominative is also found: as, Atlāns, elephāns, as well as Atlās, elephās.

- f. Many Greek nouns (especially in the poets) have gen. -ŏs, acc. -ä; plur. nom. -ĕs, acc. -äs: as, āēr, aethēr, crātēr, hērōs (-ōis), lampas (-ādis or -ādos), lynx (-cis or -cŏs), nāĭs (-idos), Orpheus (-eos: see § 43).
- g. A few in -ys have acc. -yn, voc. -y, abl. -yë: as, chelys, -yn, -y; Capys, -yos, -yī, -yn, -y, -yë.
- h. Several feminine names in -ō have gen. sing. -ūs, all the other cases ending in -ō; they may also have regular forms: as, Dīdō, gen. Dīdōnis or Dīdūs; dat. Dīdōnī or Dīdō, etc.
- i. Several Greek forms are irregularly retained in the vocative: as, Panthūs, voc. Panthū; Orpheus, Orpheu; Atlās, Atlā; Daphnis, Daphnī; Periclēs, Periclē (cf. § 43).
- **64.** Some of these forms are seen in the following examples:—

Sing. hero (M.).	torch (F.).	base(F.).	tiger (c.). na	iad(F.).	lyre(F.).
STEM hērō-	-		grid- (tigri-)		chely-
N., V. hērōs Gen. hērō is	lampas lampados	basis bas eōs	tigris tigris (idos)	nāis nāidos	chelys
DAT. hēro ī	lampad ī	bas ī	tigr i	nāid ī	
Acc. hērōa	lampada	basin	tigrin (ida)		
ABL. hērō e	lampad e	bas ī	tigrī (ide)	nāid e (V	√.chel y)
Plur.					
N., V. hērō ĕs	lampad ĕs	bas ës	tigr ēs	nāid ĕs	
Gen. hērāum	lampadum	basium (eōn)	tigrium	nāidun	1

bas**īs (ēls**) proper names.

tigribus

tigrīs (idās) nāidās

nāid**ibus**

D., A.1 hērōibus lampadibus basibus

lampadăs

Acc. hērō**ăs**

Nom.	Atlās	Dīdō	Simoīs	Capys	Daphnis
GEN.	Atlant is	Dīdōn is (ūs)	Simoentis	Саруов	Daphnid is
Dat.	Atlant ī	Dīdōn ī (ō)	Simoent T	Capyī	Daphnid ī
Acc.	Atlant a	Dīdōn em (ō)	Simoenta.	Capyn	Daphni m (in)
Voc.	Atlās (ā)	Dīdō	Simoīs	Сару	Daphnĭ
ABL.	Atlante	Dīdōn e (ō)	Simoente	Capy e	Daphnī

NOTE. - The regular Latin forms can be used for most of the above.

7. Rules of Gender.

65. The following are general Rules for the Gender of nouns of the third declension, classed according to the termination of the nominative.

¹ Dative, hērōisin (once only).

- a. Masculine endings are -ō, -or, -ōs, -er, -ĕs (gen. -ĭdis, -ĭtis).
- b. Feminine endings are -ās (gen. -ātis), -ēs (gen. -is), -is, -ys, -x,
 -s (following a consonant); also, -dō, -gō, (gen. -inis), -iō (abstract and collective), and -ūs (gen. -ūdis, -ūtis).
- c. Neuter endings are -a, -e, -ī, -y; -c, -l, -t; -men (gen. -mĭnis); -ar, -ur, -ūs (gen. -eris, -oris).
- **66.** The following are general Rules for the Gender of nouns of the third declension, classed according to their stems.
- a. Vowel-Stems. Stems in i-, having -s in the nominative, are Feminine, except those mentioned below (§ 67. a). Those having -ĕ in the nominative and those in -al and -ar (which have dropped the -e) are neuter.
- b. Liquid-Stems. Stems in 1- are Masculine, except sīl, fel, mel, and sometimes sāl (N.).

Those in min- are Neuter, except homō, nēmō, flāmen (M.). Others in in- are masculine, except pollen, unguen (N.). Those in ēn- are masculine. Those in din-, gin-, iōn-, abstract and collective nouns, are feminine. Others in ōn-, with cardō, margō, ōrdō, ūniō, sēniō, quaterniō, are masculine.

Those in r- preceded by a short vowel are Neuter, except about 30 given below (§ 67. b). Those in r- preceded by a long vowel are masculine, except soror, uxor, glōs, tellūs (F.); crūs, iūs, pūs, rūs, tūs (thūs) (N.), in which the long vowel is due to contraction.

- c. LABIAL STEMS (no neuters).—Stems in b- and m- are Feminine, except chalybs. Stems in p- are chiefly masculine (exceptions below, § 67. c).
- d. LINGUAL STEMS.—Stems in ăd-, ěd-, id-, ūd-, aud-, nd-, are Feminine, except dromas, vas (vadis), pēs, quadrupēs, obses, praeses, lapis (M.). Those in āt-, ūt-, are feminine, except patrials (as Arpīnās), and the masc. plur. penātēs and optimātēs. Those in ēd-, ēt-, are masculine, except mercēs and quiēs with its compounds (F.). Those in ĕt-, ĭt-, are masculine, except abiēs, merges, seges, teges (F.), and those which are common by signification. Those in āt- are neuter; those in nt- various (see list, § 67. d); those in lt-, rt-, feminine. (For a few isolated forms, see list, § 67.)
- e. PALATAL STEMS. Stems in c- preceded by a consonant or long vowel are Feminine, except calx, decunx, phoenix, storax, vervex (M.). Those in c- preceded by a short vowel are chiefly masculine (for exceptions, see list, § 67. e); those in g-, masculine, except [†früx], lex, phalanx, syrinx; also nix (nivis) (F.).

67. The following are the Forms of Inflection of nouns of the Third Declension, classed according to their Stems:

a. VOWEL-STEMS.

- -ēs, -is: about 35 nouns (see list, § 51. a), feminine, except tudēs, vātēs, verrēs, M.
- -is, -is: about 100 nouns, chiefly feminine, as fēlis, pellis.

Exc. — aedīlis, amnis, anguis, c., annālis, antēs (pl.), assis, axis, būris, callis, c., canālis, c., canis, c., cassis, caulis, cīvis, c., clūnis, c., collis, crīnis, c., ēnsis, fascis, finis, c., follis, fūnis, c., fustis, hostis, c., īgnis, iuvenis, c., lactēs (pl.), c., larēs (pl.), mānēs (pl.), mēnsis, molāris, nātālis, orbis, pānis, pedis, c., piscis, postis, sentis, c., sodālis, testis, c., torris, unguis, vectis, veprēs (pl.), c., vermis, m. [Those marked c. are sometimes feminine; the rest are masculine.]

- -ĕ, -is: upwards of 20 nouns, all neuter, as mare, cubile.
- -ăi, -ālis; -ăr, -āris: 24 neuter, with several used only in the plural, as animal, Sāturnālia (see list, § 53. c; for those in -ăr, -ăris, see Liquid Stems).
- -ĕr, -ris: imber, linter, ūter, venter, —all M. except linter, which is commonly F. [For other apparently consonant stems, see below.]

 PECULIAR. grūs, gruis, F.; rhūs, rhois (acc. rhum), M.; sūs, suis, C., hērōs, hērōis, M.; misy, -yos, F.; oxys, -yos, F.; cinnabarī, gummī, sināpī, N. (indecl.); chelys, -yn, -y, F.; bōs, bovis, C.

b. LIQUID-STEMS.

- -1, -lis: 9 nouns, masculine, as cônsul, sôl, except stl, and (sometimes) sāl, N.
- -ēn, -ēnis: [†rēn], splēn, M.
- -ēn, -ĕnis: $H\bar{y}m\bar{e}n$, M.
- -ĕn, -ĭnis: 10 nouns, M., as tībīcen; except pollen, unguen, glūten, sanguen, N.
- -měn, -minis (verbal), as agmen; about 60 nouns, N.; but flamen, M.
- -ōn, -ŏnis (Greek): canōn, daemōn, gnōmōn, M.; aēdōn, akyōn, ancōn, sindōn, F.
- -ō, -ōnis: about 70 nouns, all masculine, as sermō; with many family names, as Cicerō.
- -iō, -iōnis (material objects, etc.), as pugiō: about 30 nouns, masculine.
- -iō, -iōnis (abstract and collective), as legiō, regiō: upwards of 180, feminine, including many rare verbal abstracts.
- -ō, -Inis: homō, turbō, nēmō, Apollō, M.

- -dō, -dǐnis: nearly 50 nouns, as grandō, feminine except cardō, ōrdō, M.
- -gō, -gĭnis: about 40 nouns, as $comp\bar{a}g\bar{o}$, feminine; with $marg\bar{o}$, M. or F.
- -ăr, -ăris: baccar, iubar, nectar, N.; lār, salar, M.
- -er, -ris: accipiter, frater, pater, M., mater, F.
- -ēr, -ēris (mostly Greek): crātēr, haltēr, prestēr, M., vēr, N.
- -ēr, -ĕris: āēr, aethēr, M.
- -ör, -öris: acipēnser, agger, ānser, asser, aster, cancer, carcer, later, passer, vesper, võmer, M.; mulier, F.; acer, cadāver, cicer, laver, papāver, piper, sīler, siser, sūber, tūber, tūber, ūber, verber, N.
- -ēs, -ĕris: Cerēs, F.
- -ĭs, -ĕris: cinis, cucumis, pulvis, vōmis, M.
- -ŏr (-ōs), -ōris: nearly 70 nouns (besides many denoting the Agent, formed upon verb-stems), as favor, ôrātor, all M. except soror, uxor, F.
- -ŏr, -ŏris: castor, rhētor, M.; arbor, F.; ador, aequor, marmor, N.
- -ōs, -ōris: flōs, mōs, rōs, M.; glōs, F.; ōs, N.
- -ūr, -ūris: fur, C.
- -ŭr, -ŭris: 9 masculine, as vultur; with fulgur, guttur, murmur, sulfur, N.
- -ŭr, -ŏris: ebur, femur, iecur, rōbur (-us), N.
- -ŭs, -ĕris: 20 neuter, as genus; also, Venus, F.
- -ŭs, -ŏris: 14 nouns, as pectus, neuter, except lepus, M.
- -ūs, -ūris: mūs, M.; tellūs, F.; crūs, tūs, pūs, rūs, tūs (thūs) N.
 PECULIAR.—Aniō, -iēnis; delphīn, -īnis; sanguis (-en), -ĭnis;

senex, senis, M.; carō, carnis, F.; aes, aeris; far, farris; fel, fellis; mel, mellis; iter, itineris; iecur, iecinŏris (iecŏris), N.; glīs, glīris, M.

c. LABIAL.

- -bs, -bis: chalybs, M.; plēbs, trabs, urbs, F.; scobs, scrobs, C.1
- -ms, -mis: hiems (often written hiemps), F.
- -ps, -pis: 15 nouns, masculine, as prīnceps; except [†daps], merops, ops, stips, F.; forceps, stirps,² C.

d. LINGUAL.

- -ăs, -ădis (mostly Greek): 14 nouns, feminine, as lampas; except dromas, vas, M.
- -ēs, -ēdis: cūpēs, hērēs, M.; mercēs, F.; also, praes, praedis.
- -ēs, -ĕdis: pēs, quadrupēs, M.; compēs, F.
- -ĕs, -ĭdis: obses, praeses, C.

¹ These five were originally 1-stems.

² Originally i-stem.

- -is, -idis: nearly 40 nouns (mostly Greek), as cassis, aegis, F.; lapis, M.
- -os, -odis: custos, C.
- -os, -otis: nepos, M.; cos, dos, F.; sacerdos, C.
- -ūs, -ūdis: incūs, palūs, subscūs; with fraus, laus, pecus (-udis), F.
- -ă, -ătis (Greek): nearly 20 nouns, neuter, as poēma.
- -ās, -ātis: about 20 (besides derivatives), M., satiās, F.; also, anas (-ātis), C.
- -ēs, -ētis: celēs, lebēs, māgnēs, M.; quies, requies, inquies, F.
- -ēs, -ĕtis: ariēs, pariēs, M.; abiēs, F.
- -ĕs, -ĕtis: seges, teges, F.; interpres, C.
- -ĕs, -ĭtis: about 20, masculine or common, as stīpes, hospes.
- -ūs, -ūtis: iuventūs, salūs, senectūs, servitūs, virtūs, F.
- -ns, -ndis: frons, glans, iuglans, F.
- -ns, -ntis: nearly 20 (besides many participles used as nouns), common, as \(\tilde{t}nf\tilde{a}ns\); \(d\tilde{e}ns\), \(f\tilde{o}ns\), \(m\tilde{o}ns\), \(m\tilde{o}ns\), \(m\tilde{o}ns\), \(m\tilde{e}ns\), \(f\tilde{o}ns\), \(g\tilde{e}ns\), \(f\tilde{o}ns\), \(g\tilde{e}ns\), \(f\tilde{e}ns\), \(f\tilde{e}ns
- -rs, -rtis (originally i-stems): ars, pars, cohors, fors, Mārs, mors, sors, F.
- -ys, -ydis; -s, -ntis (Greek): chlamys, f.; Atlās, -antis, m.

 PECULIAR. ās, assis, m.; līs, lītis; nox, noctis; puls, pultis,
 f.; caput, itis; cor, cordis; hēpar, -atis; ŏs, ossis; vās, vāsis, n.;
 also, compounds of -pūs, -pŏdis, m., (foot), as tripūs; lāc, lactis, n.

e. PALATAL.

- -ax, -ăcis: anthrax, corax, fracēs (pl.), panax, scolōpax, m.; fax, styrax (storax), F.
- -āx, -ācis: cnōdāx, cordāx, līmāx, thōrāx, M.; pāx, F.
- -ēx, -ēcis: $\bar{a}l\bar{e}x$, m. or f.; $verv\bar{e}x$, m.
- -ex, -Icis: upwards of 40 nouns, masculine, as apex, vertex, except cārex, forfex, īlex, imbrex, nex (něcis), pellex, F. (imbrex also M.)
- -ix, -iois: appendix, coxendix, filix, fornix, larix, salix, struix, vārix, F.
- -Ix, -Icis: about 30 nouns, feminine, as cervix, rādix; besides many in -trIx, regular feminines of nouns of agency in -tor (§ 162. a).
- -ōx, -ōcis: celōx, vōx, F.
- -ux, -ŭcis: dux, C.; crux, nux, F.
- -ūx, -ūcis: balūx, lūx, F.
- -x, -cis: arx, calx, falx, lynx, merx (def.), F.; calx, calyx, M.
- -x, -gis: coniux (-nx), grex, rēmex (gen. -igis), rēx, M. or C.; [†frūx] (def.), lēx, phalanx, F.; with a few rare names of animals.
- Other nouns in -x are nix, nivis; nox, noctis; supellex, -ectilis, F.; onyx, -ychis, M. and F.; Styx, Stygis, F.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

68. The Stem of nouns of the Fourth Declension ends in u. This is usually weakened to i before -bus. Masculine and feminine nouns form the nominative by adding -s; neuters have for nominative the simple stem, but with the (long).

Nouns of the fourth declension are declined as follows:—

	hand (F.).	lake (M.).	knee (N.).
Sing.	Stem manu-	lacu-	genu-
Nom.	manus	lacus	genü
GEN.	man üs	lac ūs	gen ü (üs)
DAT.	man uī (ū)	lacu ī (ū)	genü
Acc.	man um	lacum	genti
Voc.	ma nus	lac us	genti
ABL.	man ū	lac ū	gen ü
Plur.			
Nom.	man üs	lac ūs	genua
GEN.	man uum	lac uum	genuum
DAT.	ma nibus	lac ubus	gen ibus
Acc.	man üs	lac ūs	gen ua
Voc.	man üs	lac ūs	gen ua
ABL.	man ibus	lac ubus	gen ibus

NOTE. — The fourth declension is only a modified form of the third. The relation is seen in the following parallel forms, uncontracted (of the third) and contracted (of the fourth).

manus	manuŭs (ūs)
†manu is (ūs)	manu um (um)
manu ī (t)	manubus (ibus)
manu m	†manues (tis)
manu s	†manu es (ūs)
tmanue (ū)	manubus (ibus)

- **69.** GENDER.—a. Most nouns in -us are Masculine. The following are Feminine: acus, anus, colus, domus, īdūs (pl.), manus, nurus, porticus, quīnquātrūs (pl.), socrus, tribus, with a few names of plants and trees. Also, rarely, arcus, penus, specus.
 - b. The only neuters are cornū, genū, pecū (§ 78. 1. e), verū.
- **70.** CASE-FORMS. a. The uncontracted form -uis (sometimes -uos) is sometimes found in the genitive, as senātuos; and an old (irregular) genitive in -I is used by some writers: as, ornātī, senātī.

gentle und nutch time of Tiberius

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b. The nominative plural has rarely the form -uus.

c. The genitive plural is sometimes contracted into -um.

d. The following retain the regular dative and ablative plural in -ŭbus: artus, partus, portus, tribus, verū; also dissyllables in -cus: as, lacus (but sometimes portibus, veribus).

e. Most names of plants, and colus, distaff, have also forms of the second declension.

f. Domus, house, has (either originally, or by mistake) two stems ending in u- and o- (cf. gen. in -I, § 70. a), and is declined as follows:1-

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL,
Nom.	domu s	domüs
GEN.	dom ūs (dom ī , loc.)	domuum (domorum)
Dat.	domuī (domō)	domibus `
Acc.	domum	dom ōs (dom ūs)
Voc.	dom us	dom ūs
ABL.	dom ō (dom ū)	dom ibus

g. The only locative form of the fourth declension is domul. But even this is rare, and dom! is almost universally used instead.

h. An old form of the ablative ends in -d: as, magistrātūd (cf. § 62. a).

- 71. Most nouns of the fourth declension are formed from verbstems, or roots, by means of the suffix -tus (-sus) (cf. § 163. b): as, cantus, song, CAN, cano, sing; casus (for cad-tus), chance, CAD, cado, fall; exsulatus, exile, from exsulo, to be an exile (exsul). Many are formed either from verb-stems not in use, or by analogy: as, consulatus (as if from †consulo, -are), senatus, incestus.
- a. The Supines of verbs (§ 109. c) are the accusative and ablative (or dative, perhaps both) of derivatives in -tus (-sus): as, audītum, memorātū.
- b. Of many verbal derivatives only the ablative is used as a noun: as, idssü (med), by (my) command; so inidssü (populi), without (the people's) order. Of some only the dative: as, memoratui, divisui.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

72. The Stem of nouns of the Fifth Declension ends in ē-, which appears in all the cases. The nominative is formed from the stem by adding -s.

¹ The forms in parenthesis are less common. But the form domi is regular as locative, though genitive in Plautus; domorum is poetic.

These nouns are thus declined :-

		g (F.) PLUR. 4 rë -	SING, day (1	•	faith (F.). fldē-
Nom.	rēs	rēs	diēs	diēs	fidēs
GEN.	rĕī	rērum	diēī (diē)	di ē ru m	fidĕī
Dat.	rĕī	rēbus	diēī (diē)	di ēbus	fidĕī
Acc.	rem	rēs	di em	diēs	\mathbf{fidem}
Voc.	rēs	rēs	di ēs	di ēs	fid ēs
ABL.	rē	rēbus	di ē	diēbus	fidē

NOTE. — The **6** has been shortened in the genitive and dative singular of **fides**, spes, res, but in these it is found long in early Latin.

- 73. GENDER. All nouns of this declension are feminine, except dies (usually M.), day, and meridies (M.), noon. Dies is sometimes feminine in the singular, especially in phrases indicating a fixed time, and regularly feminine when used of time in general: as, longa dies, a long time; constitute die, on a set day; also in the poets: as, pulchra dies, a fine day.
- 74. CASE-FORMS.—a. The Genitive singular anciently ended in -5s (cf. -5s of first declension, § 36. b). The genitive ending -5I was sometimes contracted into -61, -I, or -5: as, diI (Æn. i. 636), and the phrases plobI-scitum, tribūnus plobel. An old Dative in -I or -5 also is mentioned by grammarians.
 - b. The fifth declension is only a variety of the first, and several nouns have forms of both: as, māteria, -iēs; saevitia, -iēs.¹ The genitive and dative in -ēī are rarely found in these words.
 - c. The Locative form of this declension ends in -8 (cf. dative -8 under a). It is found only in certain adverbs and expressions of time: as, hodiē (for hoi-diē, cf. huic), to-day; perendiē, day after to-morrow; diē quārtō (old, quārtī), the fourth day; prīdiē, the day before.
 - d. Of nouns of the fifth declension, dies and res only are declined throughout. Most want the plural, which is, however, found in the nominative and accusative in the following: aciës, effigiës, ëluviës, faciës, glaciës, seriës, speciës, spēs.²

² The forms faciërum, speciërum, speciëbus, spērum, spēbūs, are

cited by grammarians, also spērēs, spēribus.

¹ Nouns in -iēs (except diēs) are original ā-stems. The others are probably (excepting rēs) corrupted s-stems, like mōlēs (cf. moles-tus); diēs, cf. diurnus; spēs (cf. spērō). Some vary between the fifth and the third declension: as, requiēs, satiēs (satiās, gen. -ātis), plēbēs (plēbs, plēbis), famē (famēs, gen. -is).

DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

- 75. Some nouns are ordinarily found in the Singular number only (sīngulāria tantum). These are—
 - 1. Most proper names: as, Caesar, Casar, Gallia, Gaul.
- 2. Names of things not counted, but reckoned in mass: as, aurum, gold; aer, air; trīticum, wheat.
- 3. Abstract nouns: as, ambitio, ambition; fortitudo, courage; calor, heat.

But many of these are used in the plural in some other sense. Thus—

- a. A proper name may be applied to two or more persons or places, or even things, and so become strictly common: as, duodecim Caesarēs, the twelve Caesars; Galliae, the two Gauls (Cis- and Transalpine); Castores, Castor and Pollux; Iovēs, images of Jupiter.
- b. Particular objects may be denoted: as, aera, bronze utensils, nivēs, snowflakes; or different kinds of a thing: as, āerēs, airs (good and bad).
- c. The plural of abstract nouns denotes occasions or instances of the quality, or the like: as, quaedam excellentiae, some cases of superiority; otia, periods of rest; calores, frigora, times of heat and cold.
- 76. Some nouns are commonly found only in the Plural (plūrālia tantum (cf. § 79. c)). Such are—
- I. Many proper names: as, Athēnae, Athens, Thūriī, Philippī, Vēiī, names of towns, Adelphoe (The Adelphi), the name of a play; but especially names of festivals and games: as, Olympia, the Olympia Games; Bacchānālia, feast of Bacchus; Quīnquātrūs, festival of Minerva; lūdī Rōmānī, the Roman Games.
- 2. Names of classes: as, optimātēs, the upper classes; māiōrēs, ancestors; līberī, children; penātēs, household gods.
- 3. Words plural by signification: as, arma, weapons; artūs, joints; dīvitiae, riches; scālae, stairs; valvae, folding-doors; forēs, double-doors.

These often have a corresponding singular in some form or other, as noun or adjective.

- a. As noun, to denote a single object: as, Bacchānal, a spot sacred to Bacchus; optimās, an aristocrat.
 - b. As adjective: as, Cato Māior, Cato the Elder.
- c. In a sense rare, or found only in early Latin: as, scala, a ladder; valva, a door; artus, a joint.

- 77. Many nouns are defective in case-forms:
- Indeclinable nouns: fās, nefās, Instar, necesse, nihil, opus (need), secus.
 - 2. Nouns found in one case only (monoptotes): as,
 - a. In the nom. sing. glos, F.
 - b. In the gen. sing. dicis, naucī, N.
 - c. In the dat. sing. memorātuī, m. (cf. § 71. b).
 - d. In the acc. sing. amussim, M.
 - e. In the abl. sing. pondō, N.; māne, N. (Both also treated as indeclinable nouns. Of māne an old locative form mānī is found.) iūssū, iniūssū, M. (§ 71. b).
 - f. In the acc. plur. Infitias, suppetias.
 - 3. Nouns found in two cases only (diptotes).
 - a. In the nom. and abl. sing. fors, forte, F.; astus, astu, M.
 - b. In the gen. and abl. sing. spontis, sponte, F.
 - c. In the dat. and acc. sing. vēnuī (vēnō in Tac.), vēnum, M.
 - d. In the acc. sing. and plur. dicam, dicas, F.
 - e. In the acc. and abl. plur. foras, foris, F. (cf. fores).
 - 4. Nouns found in three cases only (triptotes).
 - a. In the nom., acc., and abl. sing. impetus, -um, -ū (M.); luēs, -em, -ē (F.).
 - b. In the nom., acc., and dat. or abl. plur. grātēs, -ibus (F.).
 - c. In the nom., gen., and dat. or abl. plur. itigera, -um, -ibus (N., but itigerum, etc., in the sing., cf. § 78. 1. b).
- 5. Nouns declined regularly in the plural, but defective in the singular.
 - a. Nouns found in the sing., in gen., dat., acc., abl.: dicionis,
 -I, -em, -e (F.); frügis, -I, -em, -e (F.); opis, -I (once only),
 -em, -e (F., nom. as a divinity, see § 46).
 - b. Nouns found in the dat., acc., abl.: precī, -em, -e (F.).
 - c. Nouns found in the acc. and abl.: cassem, -e (F.); sordem, -e (F.).
 - d. Nouns found in the abl. only: ambage (F.); fauce (F.); obice (C., nom. obex rare).
 - 6. Nouns regular in the singular, defective in the plural.
 - a. iūs and rūs have only iūra, rūra.
 - b. calx, cor, côs, crux, fax, faex, lūx, nex, ôs, pāx, pix, praes, rôs, sāl, sôl, tūs (thūs), vas, want the genitive plural.
 - c. Most nouns of the fifth declension want the whole or part of the plural (see § 74. d).

- 7. Nouns defective in both singular and plural.
 - a. Nouns found in the nom., acc. sing.; nom., acc., abl. plur.: sentis, -em; -ēs, -ibus.
 - b. Nouns found in the gen., acc., abl. sing.; nom., acc., dat., abl. plur.: vicis, -em, -e; -es, -ibus.
 - c. Nouns found in the gen., dat., acc., and abl. sing.; gen. plur. wanting: dapis, -I, -em, -e.

VARIABLE NOUNS.

- 78. Many nouns vary either in Declension or Gender.
- I. In Declension (heteroclites, nomina abundantia).
- a. colus (f.), distaff; domus (f.), house (see § 70. f), and many names of plants in -us, vary between the second and fourth declensions.
- b. Some nouns vary between the second and third: as, i\(\vec{u}\)ger\(\vec{u}\)m, -\(\vec{I}\), abl. -e, plur. -a, -um, etc.; Mulciber, gen. -ber\(\vec{I}\) and -ber\(\vec{u}\)s; sequester, gen. -tr\(\vec{I}\) and -tr\(\vec{u}\)s, v\(\vec{a}\)sis, and v\(\vec{a}\)sum, -\(\vec{I}\).
- c. Some vary between the second, third, and fourth: penus, penum, gen. -I and -oris, abl. penü.
 - d. Many nouns vary between the first and the fifth (see § 74. b).
- e. requies has gen. -ētis, dat. wanting, acc. -ētem or -em; famēs has abl. famē (§ 57. c); pūbēs (pūbis, pūber) (M.) has -eris, -em, -e: pecus has pecoris, etc., but also nom. pecū, dat. pecuī; pl. pecua, pecuum, pecubus.
- f. Many vary between different stems of the same declension: femur (N.), gen.-oris, also -inis (as from †femen); iecur (N.), gen. iecinoris, iecinoris; mūnus (N.), pl. mūnera and mūnia.
 - 2. In Gender (heterogeneous nouns).
- a. The following have a masculine form in -us and a neuter in -um: balteus, cāseus, clipeus, collum, cingulum, pīleus, tergum, vāllum, with many others of rare occurrence.
 - b. The following have in the plural a different gender from the singular:

 balneum (N.), bath; balneae (F.), baths (an establishment).

 caelum (N.), heaven; caelōs (M. acc.).

 carbasus (F.), a sail; carbasa (N.), sails (-ōrum).

 dēlicium (N.), pleasure; dēliciae (F.), pet.

 epulum (N.), feast; epulum (N.), a bride

 frēnī (N.) or frēna (N.) a bride
 - frēnum (N.), a bit; frēnī (M.) or frēna (N.), a bridle.
 iocus (M.), a jest; ioca (N.), iocī (M.).
 rāstrum (N.), a rake; rāstrī (M.), rāstra (N.).
 - locus (M.), place; loca (N.), loci (M., usually topics, spots).

[For § 79. a, b (old edition) see § 78. 2. a, b.]

79 [79. c in old edition]. Many nouns have irregularities of Number either in their ordinary or occasional use.

a. Many nouns vary in meaning as they are found in the Singular or Plural: as, —

```
aedēs, -is (F.), temple;
                                   aedes, -ium, house.
aqua (F.), water;
                                    aquae, a watering-place.
auxilium (N.), help;
                                   auxilia, auxiliaries.
bonum (N.), a good;
                                   bona, property.
carcer (M.), dungeon;
                                    carceres, barriers (of race-course).
castrum (N.), fort;
                                   castra, camp.
codicillus (M.), bit of wood;
                                    codicilli, tablets.
comitium (N.), place of assembly; comitia, an election (town-meeting).
copia (F.), plenty;
                                   copiae, troops.
fides (F.), harp-string;
                                   fidēs, lyre.
finis (M.), end;
                                   fines, bounds, territories.
fortuna (F.), fortune;
                                   fortunae, possessions.
grātia (F.), favor (rarely, thanks);
                                   grātiae, thanks (also, the Graces).
hortus (M.), a garden;
                                   horti, pleasure-grounds.
impedimentum (N.), hinderance; impedimenta, baggage.
littera (F.), letter (of alphabet);
                                   litterae, epistle.
locus (M.), place [pl. loca (N.)];
                                   locī, topics. (In early writers the
                                      regular plur.)
lūdus (M.), sport;
                                   lūdī, public games.
nātālis (M.), birthday;
                                   nātālēs, descent.
opera (F.), work;
                                   operae, day-laborers ("hands").
[ops] opis (F.), help (§ 46);
                                   opēs, resources, wealth.
pars (F.), a part;
                                   partes, part (on the stage), party.
plăga (F.), region;
                                   plăgae, snares.
röstrum (N.), beak of a ship;
                                   röstra, speaker's platform.
sāl (M. or N.), salt;
                                   salēs, witticisms.
tabella (F.), tablet;
                                   tabellae, documents, records.
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- b. The singular of a noun usually denoting an individual is sometimes used collectively to denote a group: as, Poenus, the Carthaginians; mles, the soldiery; eques, the cavalry.
- c. Of many nouns the plural is usually, though not exclusively, used (cf. § 76): as, cervices, the neck; Quirites, Romans; viscera, flesh; fauces, throat.

d. The poets often use the plural number for the singular, sometimes for metrical reasons, sometimes from a mere fashion: as, **ōra** (for **ōs**), the face; **scēptra** (for **scēptrum**), sceptre; **silentia** (for **silentium**), silence (cf. § 75. c).

PROPER NAMES.

- 80. A Roman had regularly three names, denoting the person, the gens, and the family.
- a. Thus, in the name Mārcus Tullius Cicerō, we have Mārcus, the pranōmen, or personal name (like a Christian or given name); Tullius, the nōmen (properly an adjective), i.e. the name of the gens, or house, whose original head was a (real or supposed) Tullus; Cicerō, the cōgnōmen, or family name, often in its origin a nickname, in this case from oicer, a vetch, or small pea.

NOTE. — When two persons of the same family are mentioned together, the cognomen is usually put in the plural: as, Püblius et Servius Sullae.

- b. A fourth or fifth name 1 was sometimes given. Thus the complete name of Scipio the Younger was Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpio Āfricānus Aemiliānus: Āfricānus, from his exploits in Africa; Aemiliānus, as adopted from the Æmilian gens.
- c. Women had commonly in classical times no personal names, but were known only by the *nōmen* of their gens. Thus, the wife of Cicero was **Terentia**, and his daughter **Tullia**. A younger daughter would have been called **Tullia secunda** or **minor**, and so on.
 - d. The commonest prænomens are thus abbreviated: -

A. Aulus.	L. Lūcius.	Q. Quintus.
App. Appius.	M. Mārcus.	Ser. Servius.
C. (G.) Gāius (Caius) (cf. § 6).	M'. Mānius.	Sex. Sextus.
Cn. (Gn.) Gnaeus (Cneius).	Mam. Māmercus.	Sp. Spurius.
D. Decimus.	N. Numerius.	T. Titus.
K. Kaesō (Caeso).	P. Pūblius.	Ti. Tiberius.

e. A feminine prænomen is sometimes abbreviated with an inverted letter: as, o for Gāia (Caia).

¹ The Romans of the classical period had no separate name for these additions, but later grammarians invented the word agnomen to express them.

CHAPTER IV. — Adjectives.

INFLECTION.

ADJECTIVES and Participles are in general formed and declined like Nouns, differing from them only in their use. In accordance with their use, they distinguish gender by different forms in the same word, and correspond with their nouns in *gender*, *number*, and *case*. They are (1) of the First and Second Declensions, or (2) of the Third Declension.¹

1.º First and Second Declensions.

81. Adjectives of the first and second declensions (ā-and o-stems) are declined in the Masculine like servus, in the Feminine like stella, and in the Neuter like bellum; as,—

bonus, good.					
SI	NGULAR.			PLURAL.	
M.	F.	N.	м.	F.	N.
Stem bono-	bonā-	bono-			
Nom. bonus	bonă	bonum	bonī	bonae	bona
GEN. bonī	bonae	bon ī	bon ōrum	$bon {\bf \bar{a}rum}$	bon õrum
DAT. bono	bon ae	bon ö	bon īs	bon īs	bon īs
Acc. bonum	bon am	bon um	bon õs	bon ās	bon a
Voc. bone	bona	bonu m	bon ī	bon ae	bon a
ABL. bonō	bon ā	bon ō	bon īs	bon īs	bon īs

¹ Most Latin adjectives and participles are either o-stems with the corresponding feminine $\bar{\bf a}$ -stems, or i-stems. Many, however, were originally stems in u- or a consonant, which passed over, in all or most of their cases, into the i-declension, for which Latin had a special fondness. (Compare the endings $-\bar{\bf a}$ and $-\bar{\bf a}$ s of the third declension with the Greek $-\epsilon s$ and $-\bar{\bf a} s$; $n\bar{\bf a}$ vis (nom.) with the Greek $\nu \alpha \hat{\nu} \hat{s}$; $\beta \rho \alpha \chi \acute{\nu} s$ with brevis; corn with bicornis; lingua with bilinguis; cor, corde, corde, with discors, $-\bar{\bf d} \hat{\bf i}$, $-\bar{\bf d}$ ium; su $\bar{\bf a}$ vis with $\hbar \delta \acute{\nu} s$; fer $\bar{\bf s}$ ns, $-\bar{\bf e}$ ntia, with $\phi \acute{\epsilon} \rho \omega \nu$, $-\nu \nu \tau \alpha$.) A few, which in other languages are nouns, retain the consonant-form: as, vetus $= \bar{\epsilon} \tau o s$. Comparatives also retain the consonant form in most of their cases.

a. The masculine genitive singular of Adjectives in -ius ends in -iI, and the vocative in -ie; not in -I, as in Nouns (cf. § 40. b, c): as, Lacedaemonius, -iI, -ie.

NOTE. — The possessive meus, my, has the vocative masculine mi (cf. § 98.3).

82. Stems ending in ro- preceded by ĕ or a consonant (also satur) form the masculine nominative like noun-stems in ro- of the second declension (cf. puer, ager, § 38). They are thus declined:—

miser, wretched.			niger, <i>black</i> .			
Sin	g. Ste	м misero-, ā-	-, o-	ni	gro-, ā-, o-	
N.	miser	misera	miserum	niger	nigra	nigrum
G.	mis erī	miser ae	miser T	nigr ī	nig rae	nigr ī
D.	miser ō	miser ae	miser ō	nigr ō	nigr ae	nigr ō
Ac.	miser um	miser am	miser um	nigr um	nigram	nigr um
v.	miser	miser a	miser um	niger	nig ra	nigr um
Ab.	miser ō	miser ā	miser ō	nigr ō	nigr ā	nigr ō
Plu	r.					
N.	miser ī	miser ae	misera	nigrī	nigrae	nigra
G.	miser ōrum	miser ārum	miser örum	nigr ōrum	nigr ārum	nigr ōrum
D.	miser īs	miser īs	miser īs	nigr īs	nigr īs	nigr īs
Ac.	miser ōs	miser ās	miser a	nigr ös	nigr ās	nigra
v.	miser ī	miser ae	miser a	nigr ī	nigrae	nigr a
Ab.	miser īs	miser īs	miser īs	nigr īs	nigr īs	nigr īs

- a. Stems in ēro- (as prōcērus), with mōrigērus, propērus, have the regular nominative masculine in -us.
- b. Like miser are declined asper, gibber, lacer, liber, prosper (also prosperus), satur (-ura, -urum), tener, with compounds of -fer and -ger: as, saetiger, -era, -erum, bristle-bearing; also, usually, dexter. In these the e belongs to the stem; but in dextra it is often omitted: as, dextra manus, the right hand.
- c. Like niger are declined aeger, äter, creber, faber, glaber, integer, lüdicer, macer, piger, pulcher, ruber, sacer, scaber, sinister, taeter, vafer; also the possessives noster, vester (p. 64. 3).
- d. The following feminines lack a masculine singular nominative in classic use: cētera, Infera, postera, supera. They are rarely found in the singular except in certain phrases: as, posterō diē, the next day.

Note.—A feminine ablative in -5 is found in a few Greek adjectives: as, lectica octophoro (Verr. v. 11).

83. The following o-stems with their compounds have the genitive singular in -Ius (one only having -Ius) and the dative in -I in all genders:—

alius (N. aliud), other.	tōtus, whole.	alter,1 -terĭus, the other.
nüllus, no, none.	üllus, any.	neuter, -trīus, neither.
sõlus, <i>alone</i> .	ūnus, one.	uter, -trīus, which (of two).

Of these the singular is thus declined: -

M. Nom. tinus GEN. tinus DAT. tinus Acc. tinum	F. ūna ūn ĭus ūn ī ūna m	N. Tum Tus Tus Tunum	M. uter utrīus utrī utrum	F. utra utrīus utrī utra	N. utrum utrīus utrī utrum
ABL. ūnō	ūn ā alia	ūn ō ali ud ²	utrō	utr ā altera	utrō
Nom. alius Gen. alīus	alīus	al īus	alter alterius	alter ius	alterum alterius
DAT. ali ī Acc. alium	ali ī ali am	ali ī aliu d	alter ī alter um	alter ï alt eram	alter ī alterum
ABL. aliō	ali ā	ali ō	alter ō	alter ā	alter ō

- a. The plural of these words is regular, like that of bonus (§ 81).
- b. The i of the genitive-ending -Ius, though originally long, may be made short in verse. Alterius is generally accented on the antepenult, as having the i permanently shortened.

Instead of alīus, alterius is commonly used, or in the possessive sense the adjective alienus, belonging to another, another's.

In compounds—as alteruter—sometimes both parts are declined, sometimes only the latter. Thus, alterutrue or alterutrue, to one of the two.

2. Third Declension.

Adjectives of the third declension are of one, two, or three terminations.

84. Adjectives of the third declension having stems in i-—distinguished by being parisyllabic (§ 53. a)—have but one form for both Masculine and Feminine, and one for the neuter, and hence are called adjectives of two terminations. In the neuter the nominative ends in -e.

They are declined as follows:-

2 The genitive in -lus, dative in -I, and neuter in -d are pronominal (cf. § 101).

¹ The suffix -ter, in alter, uter, neuter is the same as the Greek comparative suffix $-\tau\epsilon\rho\sigma(s)$. The stem of alius appears in early Latin and in derivatives as ali- in the forms alis, alid (for alius, aliud), aliter, etc. The regular forms of the genitive and dative (as in bonus) are also found in early writers.

levis (stem levi-), light.

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.
N., V.	levis	leve	levēs	levia
GEN.	levis	lev is	lev ium	levium
DAT.	lev ī	lev ī	lev i bu s	lev ibus
Acc.	levem	lev e	lev īs (ēs)	levi a
ABL.	lev ī	lev ī	levibus	levi bus

a. The following stems in ri- have the masc. nom. in -er: acer, alacer, campester, celeber, equester, palüster, pedester, puter, salüber, silvester, terrester, volucer, and are called adjectives of three terminations. So also, celer, celeris, celere; and names of months in -ber (cf. § 51. b): as, October.

These are declined as follows: -

ācer, *keen*.

	Stem Scri -					
	SI	NGULAR.		PLURAL,		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N., V.	ācer	ācris	ācre	ācrēs	ācrēs	ācria
GEN.	ācr is	ācr is	ācr is	ācr ium	ācr ium	ācr ium
Dat.	ācr ī	ācr ī	ācr ī	ācr ibus	ācr ibus	āc ribus
Acc.	ācr em	ācr em	ācr e	ācr īs (ēs)	ācr īs (ēs)	ācr ia
ABL.	ācr ī	ācr ī	ācr ī	ācr ibus	ācr ibus	āc ribus

NOTE. — This formation is comparatively late, and hence, in the poets and in early Latin, either the masculine or the feminine form of these adjectives was sometimes used for both genders: as, coetus alacris (Enn.). In others, as faene bris, funebris, illustris, lügubris, mediocris, muliebris, there is no separate masculine form at all. Thus:—

illustris, brilliant.

Stem illustri-Singular. Plural. N. M., F. ris illustre illustr**ës** il

N., V.	illustris	illustre	illustrēs	illustria
GEN.	illustr is	illustr is	illustr ium	illustr ium
DAT.	illustr ī	illustr ī	illustr ibus	illustr ibus
Acc.	illustr em	illustr e	illustr īs (ēs)	illustr ia
ABL.	illustr ī	illustr ī	illustr ibus	illustr ibus

b. CASE-FORMS. — Adjectives of two and three terminations, being true i-stems, retain in the ablative singular -I, in the neuter plural -ia, in the genitive plural -ium, and in the accusative plural regularly -Is (see § 55 and p. 30, n. 2). But the forms of some are doubtful.

NOTE. - For metrical reasons, an ablative in -e sometimes occurs in poetry.

c. celer, swift, when used as a noun, denoting a military rank, has celerum in the genitive plural. The proper name Celer has the ablative in -e.

85. The remaining adjectives of the third declension are Consonant-stems; but all except Comparatives have the form of i-stems in the ablative singular -I, the nominative, accusative and vocative plural neuter -ia, and the genitive plural -ium. In the other cases they follow the rule of Consonant-stems.

NOTE. - The ablative singular of these words often has -e.

These adjectives (except comparatives) have the same nominative singular for all genders, and hence are called *adjectives of one termination.*¹ All except stems in 1- or r- form the nominative singular from the stem by adding -s.

a. Adjectives of one termination are declined as follows: -

	atrōx, fierce		egēns, <i>needy</i> .	
	St. atrōc-		St. egent-	
Sing.	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.
N., V.	atro	ix .	egēr	18
GEN.	atrō	cis	e gen	tis
DAT.	atrōc ī		egen	t ī
Acc.	atrōc em	atrō x	egent em	egēn s
ABL.	atrōc ī d	r atroce	egentī or egente	
Plur.		•		
N., V.	atrōc ēs	atrōc ia	egent ēs	egent ia
GEN.	atrō	cium	egentiu m	
Dat.	atrōc ibus		egentibus	
Acc.	atrōc īs (ēs)	atrōc ia	egent īs (ēs)	egent ia
ABL.	atrōci bus		egen	tibus

¹ The regular feminine of these adjectives, by analogy of cognate languages, would end in -la: this form does not appear in Latin adjectives, but is found in the abstracts amentia (from amens), desidia (from deses), socordia (from socors), etc., and in proper names, as Florentia (cf. Greek φέρουσα for φερουτ-ια). The neuter would regularly have in the nominative and accusative singular the simple stem, as caput, cor(d-), aleo, Greek φέρου(τ-); but in all except liquid stems the masculine form in -s has forced itself not only upon the neuter nominative, but upon the accusative also, where it is wholly abnormal.

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b. Other examples are the following: -

		•		0		
	concors, harmonious.		iens, going.		pār, <i>equal</i> .	
	STEM concord-		eunt-		păr-	
Sing.	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.
N., V.	conc	ors	iēns		pār	
GEN.	conco	rdis	eunti	is	păr is	3
DAT.	conco	rd ī	eunt	ī	par ī	
Acc.	concord em	concors	eunt em	iēn s	par em	pār
ABL.	conco	rd ¢	eunte	e (I)	par ī	
Plur.		•				
N., V.	concord ës	concord ia	eunt ēs	eunt ia	par ēs	par ia
GEN.	conco	rdium	eunt	ium	pari	ım.
D., ABL	conco	rd ibus	eunt	ibus	par i	bus
Acc.	concord īs (ēs) concord ia	eunt īs (ē s	s) euntia	par īs (ēs) par ia
	praeceps,	headlong.	dīves,	rich.	über, <i>fe</i>	rtile.
	STEM pre	ecipit-	dīvi	t	über	r-
		N.	M., F.	N.		
N., V.	praec		ATT	8	ūbe:	r
	pruo	seps		-		
GEN.	praec	ípit is	dīvit	is	ūber	
GEN.	praec	ipit is ipit ī	dīvit	is	ūber	
Gen. Dat.	praec praec	ípit is	dīvit dīvit	is Ī	ūber	ī
GEN. DAT. ACC. 1	praec praec	ípit is ipit ī praecep s	dīvit dīvit	is ī dīves	ūber ūber	ī ūber
GEN. DAT. ACC. 1	praec praec praecipit em	ípit is ipit ī praecep s	dīvit dīvit dīvit em	is ī dīves	ūber ūber ūber em	ī ūber
GEN. DAT. ACC. ABL. Plur.	praec praec praecipit em praec	ípit is ipit ī praecep s	dīvit dīvitem dīvitem	is ī dīves e	über über über em über	ī ūber e
GEN. DAT. ACC. ABL. Plur. N., V.	praec praec praecipit em praeci praecipit ēs	ípit is ipit ī praecep s ipit ī	dīvit dīvitem dīvite dīvit	is ī dīves e [dītia]	über über em über über	ī ūber e ūbera
GEN. DAT. ACC. ABL. Plur. N., V. 1 GEN.	praec praecipit em praeci praecipit ēs praec	ipit is ipit ī praecep s ipit ī praecipi ti	dīvit dīvitem dīvite dīvitēs dīvitēs	is f dīves e [dītia] um	über über em über über ës über	ī ūber e ūbera um

vetus, old.

STEM veter- (for vete°s-)

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.		
	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.	
N., V.	vetus		veterēs	vetera	
GEN.	veter is		v eter um		
DAT.	veter ī		vete	ribus	
Acc.	veter em	vetus	veter ēs	veter a	
ABL.	, veter e		vete	ribus	

NOTE.—Of these vetus is originally an s-stem. In most s-stems the r has intruded itself into the nominative also, as bi-corpor (for bi-corpos), degener (for de-genes).

c. A few adjectives of one termination, used as nouns, have a feminine form in -a: as, clienta, hospita, with the appellative Iūnō Sōspita.

¹ Given by grammarians, but not found.

3. Comparatives.

86. Comparatives are declined as follows:—

	melior, better. Stem melior- for melios-		pl üs , <i>more.</i> plür- for pl üs-	
Sing.	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.
N., V.	melior	meliu s		plüs
GEN.	meliör	is		plūr is
DAT.	meliōr ī			
Acc.	meliõr em	meli us		plūs
ABL.	meliõr e o	r meliõr ī		pl ūre
Plur.				
N., V.	meliõr ēs	meli ōra	plūr ēs	plūr a
GEN.	meliōr um		plūrium	
DAT.	meliõr ibus		plūrit	ous
Acc.	meliōr īs (ēs)	meliō ra	plūr īs (ēs)	plūr a
ABL.	meliōr ibus		plūribus	

- a. The stem of comparatives properly ended in os-; but this became or- in all cases except the neuter singular (N., A., V.), where s is retained, and ŏ is changed to ŭ (cf. honŏr, -ōris; corpus, -ŏris). Thus comparatives appear to have two terminations.
- b. The neuter singular plūs is used only as a noun. The genitive (rarely ablative) is used as an expression of value (cf. § 252. a). The dative is not found in classic use. The compound complūrēs, several, has sometimes neuter plural complūria.

All other comparatives are declined like melior.

4. Case-Forms.

- 87. In adjectives of Consonant stems the following Case-forms are to be remarked:—
- a. The Ablative singular commonly ends in -I; but adjectives used as nouns (as superstes, survivor) have -e. Participles in -ns used as such (especially in the ablative absolute, § 225), or as nouns, regularly have -e; but participles used as adjectives have regularly -I.

The following have uniformly -I: āmēns, anceps, concors (and other compounds of cor), consors (but as a substantive, -e), dēgener, hebes, ingēns, inops, memor (and its compounds), pār (in prose), perpes, praeceps, praepes, teres.

b. In the following, -e is the regular form of the ablative: caeles, compos, [†dēses], dīves, hospes, pauper, particeps, prīnceps, superstes, sospes; also in patrials (see § 54. 3) and stems in āt-, īt-, rt-, when used as nouns, and sometimes when used as adjectives.

- c. The genitive plural ends commonly in -ium. The accusative plural regularly ends in -is, even in comparatives, which are less inclined to the i-declension.
 - d. The genitive plural ends in -um: -
- Always in dīves, compos, inops, particeps, prīnceps, praepes, supplex, and compounds of nouns which have -um: as, quadru-pēs, bi-color.
- 2. Sometimes, in poetry, in participles in -ns: as, silentum concilium, a council of the silent shades (Virg.).
- e. In vetus (gen. -ĕris), pūbes (gen. -ĕris), ūber (gen. -ĕris), which did not become i-stems, the endings -e (abl. sing.), -a (neut. nom. acc. plur.), -um (gen. plur.) are regular. (Ūber has also -ī in abl.)
- f. 1. Several adjectives vary in declension: as, gracilis (-us), hilaris (-us), inermis (-us), bicolor (-ōrus).
- 2. A few are indeclinable: as, damnās, frūgī (really a dat. of service, see § 233), nēquam (originally an adverb).
- .3. Several are defective: as, (a) exspēs (only nom.), exlēx (exlēgem) (only nom. and acc. sing.), pernox (pernocte) (only nom. and abl. sing.); (b) prīmōris, sēminecī, etc., which lack the nom. sing.
- 4. Potis is often used as an indeclinable adjective, but sometimes has pote in the neuter.

5. Special Uses.

- 88. The following special uses are to be observed:—
- a. Many adjectives have acquired the meaning and construction of nouns: as, amīcus, a friend; aequālis, a contemporary; māiōrēs, ancestors (see p. 47, head-note, and § 188).
- b. Many adjectives, from their signification, can be used only in the masculine and feminine. These may be called adjectives of common gender. Such are adulēscēns, youthful; [†dēses], -idis, slothful; inops, -opis, poor; sōspes, -itis, safe. Similarly, senex, old man, and iuvenis, young man, may be called masculine adjectives.
- c. Many nouns may be used as adjectives: as, pedes, a footman or on foot (see § 188. d). Such are especially nouns in -tor (M.) and -trīx (F.), denoting the agent (§ 162. a): as, victor exercitus, the conquering army; victrīx causa, the winning cause.
- d. Certain forms of many adjectives are regularly used as adverbs. These are, the accusative and ablative of the neuter singular (§ 148. d, e): as, multum, multō, much; the neuter singular of comparatives (see § 92): as, melius, better; levius, more lightly.

NOTE. — Adverbs ending in -ē and -ter were also once case-forms: as, care, dearly; leviter, lightly; accrrime, most eagerly (§ 148. a, b).

COMPARISON.

In Latin, as in English, there are three degrees of comparison: the *Positive*, the *Comparative*, and the *Superlative*.

1. Regular Comparison.

89. The Comparative is regularly formed by adding -ior (neuter -ius 1), the Superlative by adding -issimus (-a, -um) to the stem of the Positive, which loses its final vowel: as, —

cārus, dear (st. cāro-); cārior, dearer; cārissimus, dearest.

levis, light (st. levi-); levior, lighter; levissimus, lightest.

fēlīx, happy (st. fēlīc-); fēlīcior, happier; fēlīcissimus, happiest.

hebes, dull (st. hebet-); hebetior, duller; hebetissimus, dullest.

a. Adjectives in -er form the superlative by adding -rimus to the nominative. The comparative is regular: as, —

ācer, keen; ācrior, ācerrimus.
miser, wretched; miserior, miserrimus.

So vetus (gen. veteris) has superlative veterrimus, from the old form veter; and mātūrus, besides its regular superlative (mātūrissimus), has a rare form mātūrrimus.

For the comparative of vetus, vetustior (from vetustus) is used.

- b. The following in -lis add -limus to the stem clipped of its vowel: facilis (st. facili-), difficilis, similis, dissimilis, gracilis, humilis. The comparative is regular: as, facilis, easy; facilior, facilimus.
- c. Compounds in -dicus (saying), -ficus (doing), -volus (willing), take in their comparison the forms of corresponding participles in -ns, which were anciently used as adjectives: as, —

maledicus, slanderous; maledicentior, maledicentissimus. malevolus, spiteful; malevolentior, malevolentissimus.

d. Adjectives in -us preceded by any vowel but u rarely have forms of comparison, but are compared by means of the adverbs magis, more; māximē, most: as,—

idoneus, fit; magis idoneus, māximē idoneus.

NOTE. - But pius has piissimus.

¹ The comparative suffix (earlier -los) is the same as the Greek -ίων, or the Skr.-iyans. That of the superlative (-issimus) is a double form; perhaps for -iostimus (comparative and superlative), or possibly for -ist-timus (two superlatives). The endings -limus and -rimus are formed by assimilation (§ 11. /) from -timus and -simus. The comparative and superlative thus formed are new stems, and are not strictly to be regarded as forms of inflection.

Most derivatives in -Ious, -Idus, -ālis, -āris, -Ilis, -ŭlus, -undus, -timus, -Inus, -īvus, -ōrus, with compounds (as dēgener, inops) are also compared by means of magis and māximē.

- e. Participles when used as adjectives are regularly compared: as,—patiens, patient; patientior, patientissimus. apertus, open; apertior, apertissimus.
- f. A form of diminutive is made upon the stem of some comparatives: as, grandius-culus, a little larger (see § 164. a).

2. Irregular and Defective Comparison.

90. Several adjectives have in their comparison irregular forms: as,—

bonus, melior, optimus, good, better, best.
malus, pēior, pessimus, bad, worse, worst.
māgnus, māior, māximus, great, greater, greatest.
parvus, minor, minimus, small, less, least.
multus, plūs (N.) (§ 86. b), plūrimus, much, more, most.
multī, plūrēs, plūrimī, many, more, most.
nēquam (indecl.), nēquior, nēquissimus, worthless (ct. § 87. f. 2) frūgī (indecl.), frūgālior, frūgālissimus, useful, worthy (cf. § 87. f. 2).
dexter, dexterior, dextimus, on the right, handy.

NOTE. — These irregularities arise from the use of different stems (cf. § 89. c).

- 91. Some Comparatives and Superlatives appear without a Positive: 1
 - a. The following are formed from stems not used as adjectives:—cis, citrā (adv. on this side): citerior, citimus, hither, hither most. in, intrā (prep. in, within): interior, intimus, inner, inmost. prae, prō (prep. before): prior, prīmus, former, first. prope (adv. near): propior, proximus, nearer, next. ültrā (adv. beyond): ülterior, ültimus, farther, farthest.
- b. Of the following the positive forms are rare, except when used as nouns (generally in the plural):—

¹ The forms in -trā and -terus were originally comparative (cf. alter), so that the comparatives in -terior are double comparatives. Inferus and superus are comparatives of a still more primitive form (cf. the English comp. in -er).

The superlatives in -timus (-tumus) are relics of old forms of comparison; those in -mus like imus, summus, primus, are still more primitive. Forms like extrēmus are superlatives of a comparative. In fact, comparison has always been treated with an accumulation of endings, as children say furtherer and furtherest,

exterus, exterior, extremus (extimus), outer, outmost. [inferus], inferior, infimus (imus), lower, lowest (§ 82. d) [posterus], posterior, postrēmus (postumus), latter, last. [superus], superior, suprēmus or summus, higher, highest.

The plurals, exteri, foreigners; Inferi, the gods below; posteri, posterity; superi, the heavenly gods, are common

c. From iuvenis, youth, senex, old man (cf. § 88. b), are formed the comparatives iunior, younger, senior, older. For these, however, minor nātū and māior nātū are sometimes used (nātū being often The superlative is regularly expressed by minimus and māximus, with or without nātū.

NOTE. — In these phrases natu is ablative of specification (see § 253).

- a. In the following, one or other of the forms of comparison is wanting:
- I. The positive is wanting in deterior, deterrimus; ocior, ocissimus; potior, potissimus.
- 2. The comparative is wanting in bellus, caesius, falsus, fīdus (with its compounds), inclutus (or inclitus), invictus, invītus, novus, pius, sacer, vafer, vetus (§ 89. a).
- 3. The superlative is wanting in āctuōsus, agrestis, alacer, arcānus, caecus, diūturnus, exīlis, ingēns, iēiūnus, longīnquus, oblīquus, opīmus, proclīvis, propinquus, satur, sēgnis, sērus, supīnus, surdus, taciturnus, tempestīvus, teres, vīcīnus, and in some adjectives in -Ilis.

NOTE. - Many adjectives - as aurous, golden - are from their meaning incapable of comparison; but each language has its own usage in this respect. Thus niger, glossy black, and candidus, shining white, are compared; but not ater or albus, meaning absolute dead black or white (except that Plautus once has atrior).

3. Comparison of Adverbs.

92. The comparative of Adverbs is the neuter accusative of the comparative of the corresponding Adjective; the superlative is the Adverb in -5 formed regularly from the superlative of the Adjective: as, —

cārē, dearly (from cārus, dear): cārius, cārissimē. misere (miseriter), wretchedly (from miser, wretched): miserius, miserrimē.

leviter (from levis, light): levius, levissimē. audācter (audāciter) (from audāx, bold): audācius, audācissimē. beně, well (from bonus, good): melius, optimě. malě, ill (from malus, bad): pēius, pessimē.

The following are irregular or defective: -

diū, long (in time); diūtius, diūtissimē.

potius, rather; potissimum, first of all, in preference to all.

saepe, often; saepius, oftener, again; saepissimē.

satis, enough; satius, preferable.

secus, otherwise; secius, worse.

multum (multo), magis, māximē, much, more, most.

parum, not enough, minus, less, minime, least.

4. Signification.

- 93. Besides their regular signification (as in English), the forms of comparison are used as follows:—
- a. The Comparative denotes a considerable or excessive degree of a quality: as, brevior, rather short; audācior, too bold.
- b. The Superlative (of eminence) often denotes a very high degree of a quality without implying a distinct comparison: as, māximus numerus, a very great number. With quam, vel, or ūnus it denotes the highest possible degree: as, quam plūrimī, as many as possible; quam māximē potest (māximē quam potest), as much as can be; virum ūnum dootissimum, the one most learned man.
- c. With quisque, each, the superlative has a peculiar signification. Thus the phrase dītissimus quisque means, all the richest (each richest man); prīmus quisque, all the first (each first man in his order).1

Two superlatives with quisque imply a proportion: as, -

sapientissimus quisque aequissimo animo moritur (Cat. Maj.

- 23), the wisest men die with the greatest equanimity.
- d. A high degree of a quality is also denoted by such adverbs as admodum, valde, very, or by per or prae in composition (§ 170. c): as, valde malus, very bad = pessimus; permägnus, very great; praealtus, very high (or deep).
- e. A low degree of a quality is indicated by sub in composition: as, subrūsticus, rather clownish; or by minus, not very; minimē, not at all; parum, not enough; non satis, not much.
- f. The comparative māiōrēs has the special signification of ancestors (cf. §§ 88. a, 91. c).
 - g. The comparative minores often means descendants.

¹ As in taking things one by one off a pile, each thing is uppermost when you take it.

NUMERALS.

1. Cardinal and Ordinal.

94. Cardinal numbers are the regular series of numbers used in counting. Ordinal numbers 1 are adjectives derived from these to express order or place.

NOTE. — Cardinal numbers answer the question quot? how many? Ordinal numbers, the question quotus? which in order? one of how many?

These two series are as follows:—

	CARDINAL.	ORDINAL, ROMAN	NUMI	ERALS.
I.	ūnus, ūna, ūnum, one.	prīmus, -a, -um, first.		ı.
2.	duo, duae, duo, two.	secundus (alter), second.		II.
3.	trēs, tria, three.	tertius, third.		III.
4.	quattuor (quātuor)	quārtus	Ш	IV.
5.	quīnque	.quīntus		v.
6.	sex	sextus		VI.
7.	septem	septimus		VII.
8.	octō	octāvus		VIII.
9.	novem	nōnus	HIII	IX.
10.	decem	decimus		x.
II.	ūndecim	ūndecimus		XI.
I 2.	duodecim	duodecimus		XII.
13.	tredecim (decem et trēs)	tertius decimus		XIII.
14.	quattuordecim	quārtus decimus XII	111	XIV.
15.	quīndecim	quīntus decimus		xv.
16.	sēdecim	sextus decimus		XVI.
17.	septendecim	septimus decimus		XVII.
18.	duodēvīgintī (octōdecim)	duodēvīcēnsimus		xviii.
19.	ūndēvīgintī (novendecim)	ūndēvīcēnsimus X	102	XIX.
20.	vīgintī	vīcēnsimus (vīgēnsimus)		XX.
21.	vīgintī ūnus	vīcēnsimus prīmus		XXI.
	(or ūnus et vīgintī)	(ūnus et vīcēnsimus, etc	:.)	

¹ The Ordinals (except secundus, tertius, octāvus) are formed by means of the same suffixes as superlatives. Thus decimus (compare the form infimus) may be regarded as the last of a series of ten; prīmus is a superlative of the stem of pro; the forms in -tus (quārtus, quīntus, sextus) may be compared with the corresponding Greek forms in -ros, and with $\pi\rho\hat{\omega}\tau$ os, superlative of $\pi\rho\delta$; nonus is contracted from novimus; while the others have the regular superlative ending -simus. Of the exceptions, secundus is a participle of sequor; and alter is a comparative form (compare $-\tau\epsilon\rho\sigma$ s in Greek). The multiples of ten are compounds of the unit with a fragment of decem: as, viginti = dvī-gintī (duidecem-tī?).

	CARDINAL.	ORDINAL.	ROMAN NUMERALS.
30.	trīgintā	trīcēnsimus	xxx.
4 0.	quadrāgintā	quadrāgēnsimus	XXXX XL.
50.	quīnquāgintā	quīnquāgēnsim us	L.
60.	sexāgintā	sexāgēnsimus	LX.
70.	septuāgintā	septuāgēnsimus	LXX.
80.	octōgintā	octōgēnsimus	LXXX.
90.	nōnāgintā	nonāgēnsimus	TXXXX XC
100.	centum	centēnsimus	c.
IOI.	centum (et) ūnus, etc.	centēnsimus prīmi	is, etc. CI.
200.	ducentī, -ae, -a	ducentēnsimus	cc.
300.	trecentī	trecentēnsimus	ccc.
400.	quadringentī	quadringentēnsim	us CCCC.
500.	quīngentī	quīngentēnsimus	I), or D.
600.	sexcentī	sexcentēnsimus	DC.
700.	septingentī	septingentēnsimus	DCC.
800.	octingentī	octingentēnsimus	DCCC.
900.	nōngentī	nõngentēnsimus	DCCCC.
1000.	mille	millēnsimus	CIO, or M.
5000.	quīnque mīlia (millia)	quīnquiēns millēns	cci sumis
10,000.	decem mīlia (millia)	deciēns millēnsim	us CCIOO.
100,000.	centum mīlia (millia)	centiens millensim	us CCCIDDD.

NOTE.—The forms in $-\bar{\mathbf{e}}$ nsimus are often written without the \mathbf{n} : as, $\mathbf{vic\bar{e}}$ -simus, etc.

a. For the inflection of tinus, see § 83. It often has the meaning of same or only. The plural is used in this sense; but also, as a simple numeral, to agree with a plural noun of a singular meaning: as, tinucastra, one camp (cf. § 95. b).

The plural occurs also in the phrase uni et alteri, one party and the other (the ones and the others).

b. Duo,1 two, and ambo, both, are thus declined: -

Nom.	đuo	đuae	đuo
GEN.	duõr um	duā rum	duō rum
DAT.	duō bus	duā bus	duō bus
Acc.	duō s (đuo)	duā s	duo
ABL.	duōbus	duā bus	duõ bus

c. Tres, tria, three, is an i-stem, and is regularly declined like the plural of levis (see § 84). The other cardinal numbers, up to centum (100), are indeclinable.

¹ The form in -o is a remnant of the *dual number*, which was lost in Latin, but is found in cognate languages.

The forms octodecim, novendecim are rare, duodeviginti, undeviginti being used instead. Similar forms for higher numbers are occasionally found: as, duodequadraginta, thirty-eight; undecentum. ninety-nine.

- d. The hundreds, up to 1000, are o-stems, and are regularly declined like the plural of bonus.
- e. Mille, a thousand, is in the singular an indeclinable adjective. In the plural (mīlia or millia, thousands), it is used as a neuter noun, with a genitive plural. Thus, cum mille hominibus, with a thousand men; but cum duōbus mīlibus hominum, with two thousand men.

NOTE.—The singular mille is sometimes found as a noun in the nominative and accusative: as, mille hominum misit; but in the other cases only in connection with the same case of milia: as, cum octo milibus peditum mille equitum, with eight thousand foot and a thousand horse.

f. The ordinals are o-stems, and are declined like bonus. quotes mille

ablative (1)

Distributives.

95. Distributive Numerals are declined like the plural of bonus.

NOTE. — These answer to the interrogative quoteni? how many of each, or at a time? as, —

I. sīngulī, one by one.	18. octonī dēnī or	100. centēnī
2. bīnī, two-and-two.	duodēvīcēnī	200. ducēnī
3. ternī, trīnī	19. novēnī dēnī <i>or</i>	300. trecēnī
4. quaternī	ū ndēvīcēnī	400. quadringēnī
5. quīnī	20. vîcênî	500. quingēnī
6. sēnī	21. vīcēnī sīngulī, etc.	600. sēscēnī
septēnī	30. trīcēnī	700. septingēnī
8. octōnī	40. quadrāgēnī	800. octingēnī
9. novēnī	50. quinquāgēni	900. nöngēnī
10. dēnī	60. sexāgēnī	1000. millēnī
11. ündēnī	70. septuāgēnī	2000. bīna mīlia
12. duodēnī	80. octögëni i	10,000. dēna mīlia
13. ternī dēnī, etc.	90. nonāgēnī 10	00,000. centēna mīlia

Distributives are used as follows:—

a. In the sense of so many apiece or on each side: as, singula singulis, one apiece (one each to each one); agri septēna iūgera plēbī dīvīsa sunt, i.e. seven jugera to each citizen (seven jugera each), etc.

¹ Or, in poetry, cum bis mille hominibus. with twice a thousand men.

- b. Instead of Cardinals, to express simple number, when a noun is plural in form but singular in meaning: as, bīna castra, two camps (duō castra would mean two forts). But the plural ūnī is used (instead of sīngulī), to signify one (see § 94. a), and trīnī (not ternī) for three.
- c. In multiplication: as, bis bina, twice two; ter septēnis diebus, in thrice seven days.
- d. By the poets instead of cardinal numbers, particularly where pairs or sets are spoken of: as, bina hastilia, two shafts (two in a set).

3. Numeral Adverbs.

96. The Numeral Adverbs answer the question quotiens (quoties), how many times, how often.

ı.	semel, once.	12.	duodeciēns	40.	quadrāgiēns
2.	bis, twice.	13.	terdeciēns	50.	quīnquāgiēns
3.	ter, thrice.	14.	quaterdeciēns	60.	sexāgiēns
4.	quater	15.	quīndeciēns	70.	septuāgiens
5.	quīnquiēns (-ēs)	16.	sēdeciēns	80.	octōgiēns
6.	sexiēns (-ēs)	17.	septiēsdeci ēns	90.	nõnāgiēns
7.	septiēns (-ēs)	18.	duodēvīciēns	100.	centiēns
8.	octiēns	19.	ūndēvīciēns	200.	ducentiēns
9.	noviēns	20.	vīciēns	300.	trecentiēns
10.	deciēns	21.	semel et vīciēns, etc.	1000.	mīliēns
II.	ūndeciēns	30.	trīciēns	10.000.	deciens milien

NOTE.—They are used, in combination with mille, to express the higher numbers: as, ter et triciens (centena milia) sestertium, 3,300,000 sesterces. Forms in -ns are often written without the n: as, quinquies.

4. Other Numerals.

- 97. The adjectives simplex, single, duplex, double, two-fold, triplex, quadru-, quīncu-, septem-, decem-, centu-, sēsqui- (1½), multi-plex, manifold, are called Multiplicatives.
 - a. Proportionals are: duplus, triplus, etc., twice as great, etc.
- b. TEMPORALS: bīmus, trīmus, of two or three years' age; biennis, triennis, lasting two or three years; bimēstris, trimēstris, of two or three months; biduum, biennium, a period of two days or years.
 - c. PARTITIVES: bīnārius, ternārius, of two or three parts.
- d. FRACTIONS: dīmidia pars (dīmidium), a half; tertia pars, a third. NOTE. — But fractions are regularly expressed by special words derived from as (a pound) and the numerals: as, trions, a third; bos, two-thirds.
- e. Other derivatives are: @nio, unity; blnio, the two (of dice); primānus, of the first legion; primārius, of the first rank; dēnārius, a sum of 10 asses; blnus (distributive), double, etc.

CHAPTER V. — Pronouns.

98. Pronouns have special forms of declension.

NOTE. — These special forms are, in general, survivals of a more primitive form of declension than that of nouns.

1. Personal Pronouns.

The Personal pronouns of the first person are ego, I, nos, we; of the second person, tū, thou, vos, ye or you.

FIRST PERSON. Now. ego. I: nos. we: nostrūm (trī), of us; GEN. meī, of me; mihi (mī), to me; nobīs, to us; DAT. Acc. mē. me: nos, us; Voc. ABL. mē, by me; nobis, by us. SECOND PERSON. Now. tū, thou; vos, ye or you; GEN. tuī, you; vostrům, vostrí; vestrům (trí) DAT. tibi võhis Acc. tĀ VÕS Voc. tű võs ABL. tē võbīs

- a. The personal pronouns of the third person—he, she, it, they—are wanting in Latin, a demonstrative being sometimes used (see § 101).
- b. The plural nos is often used for the singular ego; the plural vos never for the singular tū.
- c. Old forms are genitive, mīs, tīs; accusative and ablative mēd, tēd (cf. \S 70. h).

2. Reflexive Pronouns.

Reflexive pronouns are used in the Oblique Cases to refer to the Subject of the sentence or clause (see § 196).

a. In the first and second persons the oblique cases of the Personal pronouns are used as Reflexives: as, mē contulī, I went (I betook myself); tē laudās, you praise yourself; nōbīs persuādēmus, we persuade ourselves.

b. The reflexive pronoun of the Third Person has a special form used only in this sense, the same for both singular and plural. It is thus declined:—

GEN. suī, of himself, herself, themselves.

DAT. sibi, to himself, herself, themselves.

ACC. se (sese), himself, herself, then: selves.

ABL. sē (sēsē), by himself, herself, themselves.

Sīs (genitive) and sēd (accusative and ablative) are ancient.

3. Possessive Pronouns.

The Possessive pronouns are, for the first person: meus, my, noster, our; for the second person: tuus, thy, your, voster, vester, your; for the third person: suus, his, her, their. These are declined like adjectives of the first and second declensions (see §§ 81, 82). But meus has regularly mī (rarely meus) in the vocative singular masculine.

NOTE.—Suus is only reflexive, referring to the subject. For a possessive pronoun of the third person not referring to the subject, the genitive of a demonstrative must be used. Thus, patrem suum occidit, he killed his (own) futher; but patrem suus occidit, he killed his (somebody else's) father.

- 99. In the meaning and use of the Personal, Reflexive, and Possessive pronouns it is to be observed that —
- a. To express Possession and similar ideas the possessive pronouns must be used, not the genitive of the personal or reflexive pronouns (cf. § 197. a). Thus, my father is pater meus, never pater meī.
 - b. The forms nostrūm, vostrūm, etc., are used partitively: as,—

unusquisque nostrum, each one of us; so vostrum omnium, of all of you.

NOTE, —The forms of the genitive of the personal pronouns are really the genitives of the possessives: mel, tul, sul, nostri, vostri, gen. sing. neuter: nostrum, vostrum, gen. plu, masc. or neuter contracted. So in early and later Latin we find una vostrum, one of you (women).

c. The genitives meI, tuI, suI, nostrI, vestrI, are chiefly used objectively (see § 213. R.): as,—

memor sīs nostrī, be mindful of us (me). mē tuī pudet, I am ashamed of you. d. The reciprocals one another and each other are expressed by inter se or alter . . . alterum: as,—

alter alterius ova frangit, they break each other's eggs (one ... of the other).

inter sē amant, they love one another (they love among themselves).

- e. The preposition cum, with, is joined enclitically with the ablative of the personal and reflexive pronouns: as, tēcum loquitur, he talks with you.
- f. To the personal and reflexive (and sometimes to the possessive) pronouns certain enclitics are joined for emphasis: -met to all except tū (nom.); -te to tū (tūte, also tūtimet); -pte to the ablative singular of the adjectives, and in early Latin to the others: as,—

võsmetipsõs prõditis, you betray your own very selves. suõpte pondere, by its own weight.

4. Demonstrative Pronouns.

- 100. The Demonstrative pronouns are hio, this; is, ille, iste, that; with the Intensive ipse, self, and idem, same.
- a. Ille is a later form of ollus (olle), which is sometimes used by the poets; a genitive singular in -I, -ae, -I, occurs in ille and iste.
- b. Iste is sometimes found in early writers in the form ste, etc., with the entire loss of the first syllable; and the first syllable of ipse and ille is very often used as short in early poetry.
- c. Ipse is compounded of is and -pse (for -pte, from the same root as potis) (cf. § 99. f), meaning self. The former part was originally declined, as in reapse (for re eapse), in fact. An old form ipsus occurs.

Idem is the demonstrative is with the affix -dem.

¹ These demonstratives are combinations of O- and i-stems, which are not clearly distinguishable. Hic is a compound of the stem ho- with the demonstrative enclitic -co, which appears ir full in early Latin (hice), and when followed by the enclitic -ne (hicine). In most of the cases -co is shortened to -c, and in many lost; but it is often appended for emphasis to forms that do not regularly retain it (as hūiusco). In early Latin -c alone is retained in some of these (hōrunc). Ille and iste are sometimes found with the same enclitic: illic, illaec, illūc; also illōc (acc. or abl.: § IoI. p. 67).

101. The demonstratives are used either with nouns as Adjectives, or alone as Pronouns. From their signification they cannot (except ipse) have a vocative. They are thus declined:—

	hIo, this.			is		
Sing.	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	hīc	haec	hōc	is	ea	id
GEN.	hūius	hūius	hūius	ēius	ēius	ēius
Dat.	huic	huic	huic	еĪ	eΣ	еī
Acc.	hunc	hanc	hōc	eum	eam	iđ
ABL.	hōc	hāc	hōc	eō	eā	eō
Plur.						
Nom.	hī	hae	haec	ī (eī)	eae	ea
GEN.	hōrum	hārum	hōrum	eōrum	eārum	eōrum
Dat.	hīs	hīs	hīs		eīs or īs	
Acc.	hōs	hās	haec	eōs	eās	ea
ABL.	hīs	hīs	hīs		eīs or īs	
a.		411 - 4 <i>7</i> -4				
Sing.		ille, that.		_	se, self.	
Nom.		illa	illud	ipse	ipsa	ipsum
Gen.	illīus	illīus	illīus	ipsīus	ipsīus	ipsīus
Dat.	illī	illī	illī	ipsī	ip s ī	ipsī
Acc.	illum	illam	illuđ	ipsum	ipsam	ipsum
Voc.				ipse	ipsa	ipsum
ABL.	illō	illä	illō	ipsō	ipsā	ipsõ
Plur.						
Nom.	illī	illae	illa	ipsī	ipsae	ipsa
GEN.	illōrum	illārum	illōrum	ipsõrum	ipsārum	ipsõrum
Dat.	illīs	illīs	illīs	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs
Acc.	illös	illās	illa	ipsõs	ipsās	ipsa
Voc.				ipsī	ipsae	ipsa
ABL.	illīs	illīs	illīs	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs
Idem, the same.						
singular.			idem, the st	<i></i>	PLURAL,	

N.	Idem	eădem	ĭdem	īdem (eī-)	eaedem	eădem
						eõrundem
D.	eīdem	eīdem	eīdem	elsdem or lsdem		
Ac.	. eundem	eandem	ĭdem	eösdem	eāsdem	eădem
Ав.	. eōdem	eādem	eŏdem	elisdem or lisdem		

iste, ista, istud, that (yonder), is declined like ille.

Tile and iste are combined with the demonstrative -ce. Thus: -

Sing.	M.	F.	N,	M.	F.	N.
Nom. Acc.			illōc (illāc) illōc (illāc)			istōc (istūc) istōc (istūc)
ABL.	illōc	illāc	illōc	istōc	istāc	istōc
Plur. N., Acc	. —		illaec			istaec

- a. For the dative and ablative plural of hic the old form hibus is sometimes found: haec occurs (rarely) for hae.
- b. The normal forms ill, isti (gen.), and illae, istae (dat.), are found: also the nominative plural istaece, illaece (for istae, illae).
- c. The plural forms I, Is, Idem, Isdem, are often written iI, iIs, etc. Obsolete forms are eae (dat. for eī), and eābus or ībus (dat. plur. for is). For el are found also el and el.
- d. By composition with ecce or en, behold! are formed eccum, eccam, eccos, eccas; eccillum, ellum, ellam, ellos, ellas; eccistam. These forms are dramatic and colloquial.
- e. The combinations hūiusmodī (hūiuscemodī), ēiusmodī, etc., are used as indeclinable adjectives, equivalent to talis, such: as, res Eiusmodi, such a thing (a thing of that sort: compare § 215).
- 102. In the use of these demonstratives it is to be observed that -
- a. Hie is used of what is near the speaker (in time, place, thought, or on the written page). It is hence called the demonstrative of the first person. It is sometimes used of the speaker himself; sometimes for "the latter" of two persons or things mentioned in speech or writing; more rarely for "the former," when that, though more remote on the written bage, is nearer the speaker in time, place, or thought.
- b. Ille is used of what is remote (in time, etc.); and is hence called the demonstrative of the third person. It is sometimes used to mean "the former" (see under hic, a); also (usually following its noun) of what is famous or well-known; often (especially the neuter illud) to mean "the following."

¹ The intensive -ce is also found in numerous combinations; as, huiusce, hunce, hōrunce, hārunce, hōsce, hīsce (cf. n., p. 65), illiusce, īsce; also with the interrogative -ne, in hocine, hoscine, istucine, illicine, etc. The intensive -pse is found in the forms eapse (nom.), eumpse, eampse, eopse, eāpse (abl.).

- c. Iste is used of what is between the two others in remoteness: often in allusion to the person addressed,—hence called the demonstrative of the second person. It especially refers to one's opponent (in court, etc.), and frequently implies a kind of contempt.
- a. Is is a weaker demonstrative than the others and does not denote any special object, but refers to one just mentioned, or to be afterwards explained by a relative. It is used oftener than the others as a personal pronoun (see § 98. I. a); and is often merely a correlative to the relative quI: as, eum quem, one whom; eum consulem quI non dubitet (Cic.), a consul who will not hesitate.
- e. Ipse may be used with a personal pronoun of either person, as nos ipsī (nosmetipsī), we ourselves; or independently (the verb containing the pronoun, or the context implying it), as ipsī adestis, you are yourselves present; or with a noun, as ipsī fontēs (Virg.), the very fountains.
- NOTE.—In English, the pronouns himself, etc., are used both intensively (as, he will come himself) and reflexively (as, he will kill himself): in Latin the former would be translated by ipse; the latter, by so or soso.
- f. The pronouns hie, ille, and is are used to point in either direction, back to something just mentioned or forward to something about to be mentioned. The neuter forms are especially used to refer to a clause, phrase, or idea: as, est illud quidem vel māximum animum vidēre (Tusc. i. 22, 52), that is in truth a very great thing to see the soul.

5. Relative Pronouns.

103. The relative pronoun qui, who, which, is thus declined:—

SINGULAR.			PLURAL,		
Noм. quī	quae	quod	quī	quae	quae
Gen. cüius	cūius	cūius	quōrum	quārum	quōrum
DAT. cui	cui	cui	quibus	quibus	quibus
Acc. quem	quam	quod	quōs	quās	quae
ABL. quō	quā	quō	quibus	quibu s	quibus

Interrogative and Indefinite Pronouns.

104. The interrogative or indefinite quis (qui), who? which? any, is declined in the Singular as follows:—

Nom.	quis (quī)	quae	quid (quod)
GEN.	cūius	cūius	cūius
DAT.	cui	cui	cui
Acc.	quem	quam	quid (quod)
ABL.	quō	quā	quō

The Plural is the same as that of the Relative. The singular quis is rare as an indefinite (see \S 105. d).

NOTE.—The Relative, Interrogative, and Indefinite Pronouns are originally of the same Stem, and the forms for the most part are the same (compare § 103 with § 104). The stem has two forms, quo- and qui-1 The interrogative sense is doubtless the original one.

CASE-FORMS.—a. The relative has always qui, quae, quod. The interrogative and indefinite have quis, quae, quid, substantive, and qui, quae, quod, adjective: as, quis vocat? who calls? quid vides? what do you see? qui homo vocat? what man calls? quod templum vides? what temple do you see?

NOTE.—But qui is often used without any apparent adjective force; and quis is very common as an adjective, especially with words denoting a person: as, qui nominat mo? who calls my name? quis dios fuit? what day, was it? quis homo? what man? but often qui homo? what sort of a man? noscio qui sis, I know not who you are.

- b. Old forms for the genitive and dative are quōius, quoi.
- c. The form quI is used for the ablative of both numbers and all genders; but especially as an adverb (how, by which way, in any way), and in the combination quIcum, with whom, as an interrogative or an indefinite relative.
- d. A nominative plural ques (stem qui-) is found in early Latin. The dative and ablative quis (stem quo-) is old, but not infrequent.
- e. The preposition cum is joined enclitically to all forms of the ablative, as with the personal pronouns (§ 99. e): as, quōcum, quibuscum.

NOTE.—But occasionally cum precedes as with other words: as, cum quō (Juv. 4. 9).

- f. The accusative form quom, cum (stem quo-) is used only as a conjunctive adverb, meaning when or since.
- g. The adjective uter is used as an interrogative and indefinite relative. It is declined as an adjective of three terminations (see § 83).

NOTE. — This word is probably the comparative of the stem quo-; cf. intrā (p. 56, foot-note), and Greek $\pi \delta \tau \epsilon \rho os$.

105. The pronouns quis and qui appear in various combinations.

¹ From qui- are formed quis, quid, quem, quibus, qui (abl.); while qui, quae (nom.), are probably lengthened forms of quŏ-, quā- (see § 32, decl. 1), made by the addition of the demonstrative particle i.

a. The adverb -cumque (-cunque) (cf. quisque) added to the relative makes an indefinite relative, which is declined like the simple word: as, quicumque, quaecumque, quodcumque, whoever, whatever; chiuscunque, etc.

NOTE.—This suffix, with the same meaning, may be used with any relative: as, quāliscumque, of whatever sort; quandōcumque (also rarely quandōque), whenever; ubicumque, wherever.

b. The interrogative form doubled makes an indefinite relative: as, quisquis, whoever (so utut, however, ubiubi, wherever). Of quisquis both parts are declined, but the feminine is wanting in classic use: thus—

Nom. quisquis (quIquI) quidquid (quicquid)
Acc. quemquem quidquid (quicquid)
Abl. quoquo quaqua quoquo

Plur. Nom. quiqui

D., ABL. quibusquibus

NOTE.—This compound is rare, except in the forms quisquis, quicquid, and quoquo. The case-form quamquam is used only as a conjunction, meaning although (strictly however). Quiqui (nom. sing.) is an early and quaqua a late form. The grammarians give also a regular genitive and dative. Cuicuimodi is used like a genitive, but is probably locative.

- c. Indefinite compounds are the following: quīdam, a, a certain; quispiam, any; quīvīs, quīlibet, any you please; quisquam, any at all. Of these the former part is declined like quis and quī, but they all have both quod (adjective) and quid (substantive) in the neuter.
- d. The indefinite quis, otherwise rare, is found in the compounds aliquis, some one, and the combinations sī quis, if any; nē quis, lest any, that none; ecquis, num quis, whether any.

These are declined like quis, but have generally qua instead of quae, except in the nominative plural feminine. The forms aliquae, ecquae, nominative singular feminine, occur rarely.

NOTE. — The compounds quispiam, aliquis, and quisquam are often used instead of quis with sī, nē, and num, and are rather more emphatic, as sī quis, if any one, sī aliquis, if some one, sī quisquam, if any one (ever, cf. h).

These compounds are thus declined:—

Sing.		aliquis, some.	
Nom.	aliquis (alic	ιuī) aliqua	aliquid (aliquod)
GEN.		alic ū iu s	•
DAT.		alicui	
Acc.	aliquem	aliquam	aliquid (aliquod)
ABL.	aliquō	aliquā	aliquō

Plur.			
Nom.	aliqu T	aliquae	ali qua
GEN.	aliquōrum	aliquārum	aliquõrum
Dat.		aliquibus	
Acc.	aliqu ōs	aliquās	aliqua
ABL.		aliquibus	_

The forms in -qui and -quod are adjective; those in -quis and -quid, substantive: as, aliquod bonum, some good thing; but aliquid boni, something good (something of good).

NOTE. — Aliquis is compounded with ali-, old stem of alius (p. 49, foot-note). But the meaning other usually disappears.

e. The enclitic particle que added to the interrogative gives a universal: as, quisque, every one, uterque, either of two, or both. In this combination quis is regularly declined.

In the compound tinusquisque, every single one, both parts are declined, and they are sometimes separated by other words.

Quotus quisque has the signification how many, pray? often in a disparaging sense.

- f. The relative and interrogative have rarely a possessive adjective cūius (-a, -um), whose; and a patrial cūiās (cūiāt-), of what country.
- g. Quantus, how great, qualis, of what sort, are derivative adjectives from the same stem as the interrogative. They are used as interrogative or relative, corresponding to the demonstratives tantus, talis (§106).
- h. Quisquam, with tillus, any, unquam, ever, usquam, anywhere, are chiefly used in negative sentences, or where there is an implied negative, as in interrogative or conditional sentences, or after quam, than; sine, without; vix, scarcely: as, necquisquam ex agmine tanto, and nobody from that great throng; so quisquam est timidus, is ego sum, if any one is timorous, I am the man; sine tillo domino, without any master; an quisquam usquam gentium est aeque miser? why! is there anybody anywhere in the world so wretched?
- i. Quisnam is emphatic: pray, who? ecquis and numquis are compounded from the indefinite particle on and the interrogative num; they mean not who, but any in a question: as, ecquis nos videt? does any one see us? num quid hoc dubitas, do you at all doubt this?

7. Correlatives.

106. Many pronouns, pronominal adjectives, and adverbs have corresponding demonstrative, relative, interrogative, and indefinite forms. Such parallel forms are called Correlatives. They are shown in the following table:—

DEMONSTR. is, that	RELATIVE. quī, who	INTERROG. quis? who	INDEF. RELATIVE. 7 quisquis, whoever	INDEF. aliquis, some
tantus, so great		quantus?	(quantuscumque)	aliquantus
tālis, such	quālis	quālis?	(qualiscumque)	
ibi, there	ubi	ubi?	ubiubi	alicubi
eō, thither	quō	quō?	quōquō	aliquō
eā, that way	quā	quā?	quāquā	aliquā
inde, thence	unde	und∈?	(undecumque)	alicunde
tum, then	quom, cum	quandō?	(cumcumque)	aliquandō
tot, so many	quot	quot?	quotquot	aliquot
toties, so often	quotiës	quotiës?	(quotiescumque)	aliquotiēs

- a. The forms tot (originally toti), so many, quot, how (as) many, aliquot, several, totidem, as many, are indeclinable, and may take any gender or case: as, per tot annös, tot proeliïs, tot imperātorēs (Cic.), so many commanders, for so many years, in so many battles.
- b. The relative word in a pair of correlatives is often to be rendered simply as: thus, tantum argentī quantum aeris, as much (of) silver as (of) copper.
- c. A frequent form of correlative is found in the ablative quō or quantō, by how much; eō or tantō, by so much, used with comparatives (rendered in English the...the) 1: as,
 - quō magis cōnāris, eō longius prōgrederis, the more you try, the farther on you get (by which the more, etc., by that the farther).
- 107. Certain relative and demonstrative adverbs are used correlatively as conjunctions: as,—

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ut (rel.) . . . ita, sīc (dem.), as (while) . . . so (yet).
```

tam (dem.) . . . quam (rel.), so (as) . . . as.

cum (rel.) ... tum (dem.), both ... and; while ... so also; not only ... but also.

Compare et...et, both...and; aut (vel)...aut (vel), either....
or; sīve (seu)...sīve; utrum...an, whether...or.

¹ In this phrase the is not the definite article but a pronominal adverb, being the Anglo-Saxon by, the instrumental case of the pronoun bæt, that. This pronoun is used both as demonstrative and relative. Thus the corresponds exactly to quō...eō.

CHAPTER VI. — Verbs.

I.-INFLECTION OF THE VERB

1. Voice, Mood, Tense.

- 108. The inflection of the Verb denotes Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.
 - a. The Voices are two: Active and Passive.
- b. The Moods are four: Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative, and Infinitive.¹
 - c. The TENSES are six, viz.:-
 - 1. For continued action, Present, Imperfect, Future.
 - 2. For completed action, Perfect, Pluperfect, Future Perfect.
- d. Person and Number. There are separate terminations for each of the three Persons, first, second, and third, both in the singular and in the plural.

2. Noun and Adjective Forms.

- 109. The following Noun and Adjective forms are also included in the inflection of the Latin Verb:
 - a. Four Participles, viz.: -

Active: the Present and Future Participles.

Passive: the Perfect Participle and the Gerundive.8

- b. The GERUND: this is in form a neuter noun of the second declension, used only in the oblique cases of the singular. A corresponding nominative is supplied by the Infinitive (see § 114. note).
 - c. The SUPINE: see §§ 71. a and 114. b.

3. Defective Forms.

110. Special forms for some of the tenses are wanting in certain parts of the verb:—

² The Participles are Adjectives in inflection and meaning (see § 25. e), but have the power of Verbs in construction and in distinguishing time.

⁸ The Gerundive is also used as an adjective, indicating *necessity* or *duty* (see § 113. d). In late use it became a Future Passive Participle.

¹ The Infinitive is strictly a case of an abstract noun, expressing the action of the verb (p. 120.f); but it plays so important a part in verbal construction, that it is properly treated as a part of the verb.

- a. The Subjunctive mood wants the Future and the Future Perfect. In most constructions, these tenses are supplied without ambiguity by the Present (or Imperfect) and the Perfect (or Pluperfect); for originally all tenses of the subjunctive referred to future time. In some constructions the want is supplied by the future participle with the proper tense of the verb signifying TO BE: as, cum secuturus sit, since he will follow.
- b. In the Passive voice in all moods the tenses of completed action (Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect) are supplied by the Perfect Participle with the present, imperfect, and future of the verb signifying TO BE: as, occisus est, he was killed.
- c. In the Imperative mood, the only tenses are the Present and the Future.
- d. In the Infinitive mood the Present (active and passive) and the Perfect (active) only are formed by inflection. A Future in the active voice is formed by the Future Participle with the infinitive signifying TO BE: as, amātūrus esse, to be going to love; in the passive, by the Former Supine with Irī (infin. pass. of Ire, to go): as, amātum Irī, to be about to be loved. For the Perfect passive, see b above.

II.—SIGNIFICATION OF THE FORMS OF THE VERB. 1. Voices.

- 111. The Active and Passive Voices in Latin generally correspond to the active and passive in English; but—
- a. The passive voice often has a Reflexive meaning: as, induitur vestem, he puts on his (own) clothes; Turnus vertitur, Turnus turns (himself).

NOTE.—This use corresponds very nearly to the Greek Middle voice, and is doubtless a survival of the original meaning of the passive (\S 118. note).

b. Many verbs are used only in the passive form, but with an active or reflexive meaning. These are called Deponents (dēpōnentia), i.e., verbs which have laid aside (dēpōnere) the active form and the passive meaning (see § 135).

2. Moods.

- 112. The Moods of the Latin verb are used as follows:
- a. The Indicative Mood is used for direct assertions and interrogations: as, —

valēsne? valeō, are you well? I am well

b. The Subjunctive Mood has many idiomatic uses, as in commands, conditions, and various dependent clauses. It is frequently translated by the English Indicative; sometimes by means of the auxiliaries may, might, would, should; sometimes by the (rare) Subjunctive; sometimes by the Infinitive; and often by the Imperative, especially in prohibitions. Thus—

eāmus, let us go. cum vēnisset, when he had come. adsum ut videam, I am here to see (that I may see). tū nē quaesieris, do not thou inquire. nēmō est quī ita exīstimet, there is no one who thinks so. beātus sīs, may you be blessed. nē abeat, let him not depart. quid morer, why should I delay? sunt qui putent, there are some who think. imperat ut scrībam, he orders me to write (that I write). nescio quid scribam, I know not what to write. licet eas, you may go (it is permitted that you go). cave cadas, don't fall. vereor ne eat, I fear he will go. vereor ut eat, I fear he will not go. sī moneam audiat (pres.), if I should warn, he would hear. si vocarem audiret (imperf.), if I were (now) calling, he would hear. quae cum dixisset abiit, and when he had said this, he went away.

NOTE.—The Latin Subjunctive is often translated, formally, by means of the English auxiliaries may, might, could, would, etc., to distinguish it from the Indicative, because the English has no subjunctive in general use. But the Latin uses the subjunctive in many cases where we use the indicative; and we use a colorless

subjunctive in many cases where we use the indicative; and we use a colorless auxiliary in many cases where the Latin employs a separate verb with more definite meaning. Thus, I may write is often not scribam (subj.), but licet mini scribere; I can write is possum scribere; I would write is scribam, scriberem, or scribere veilim (veilem); I should write, (if, etc.), scriberem (si) ..., or (implying duty) oportet mē scribere.

c. The Imperative is used for exhortation, entreaty, or command; but its place is often supplied by the Subjunctive (§§ 266, 269).

d. The Infinitive is used chiefly as an indeclinable noun, as the subject or object of another verb (§§ 270, 271. a). In special constructions it takes the place of the Indicative, and may be translated by that mood in English (see "Indirect Discourse," § 335 ff.).

NOTE. - For the Syntax of the Moods, see § 264 ff.

3. Participles.

- 113. The Participles of the Latin verb are used as follows:—
- a. The Present participle (ending in -ns) has commonly the same meaning and use as the English participle in -ING: as, vocāns, calling; legentēs, reading. (For its inflection, see egēns, § 85).
- b. I. The Future participle (ending in -tirus) is oftenest used to express what is *likely* or *about* to happen.

NOTE.—When thus used with the tenses of the verb TO BE it forms what is called the First Periphrastic conjugation (see § 129): as, urbs est casura, the city is about to fall; mansurus eram, I was going to stay.

- 2. It is also used, more rarely, to express purpose (see § 293. b): as, vēnit audītūrus, he came to hear (about to hear).
 - c. The Perfect participle (ending in -tus, -sus) has two uses:—
- I. It is sometimes equivalent to the English Perfect Passive participle in -ED: as, totus, sheltered; acceptus, acceptus, acceptus, totus, having been struck; and often has simply an adjective meaning: as, acceptus, acceptable.
- 2. It is also used to form certain tenses of the passive (§ 110. b): as, vocātus est, he was (has been) called.

Note. — There is no Perfect Active or Present Passive participle in Latin. The perfect participle of deponents, however, is generally used in an active sense, as **sectius**, having followed. In the case of other verbs some different construction is used for these missing participles: as, **cum** vonisset, having come (when he had come); **equitatu praemisso**, having sent forward the cavalry (the cavalry having been sent forward); **dum verberatur**, while he is (being) struck (= $\tau \nu \pi \tau \delta \mu \epsilon \nu \sigma s$).

d. 1. The Gerundive (ending in -ndus) is often used as an adjective implying obligation or necessity (ought or must): as, audiendus est, he must be heard.

NOTE. — When thus used with the tenses of the verb TO BE it forms the Second Periphrastic conjugation deligendus erat, he ought to have been chosen (§ 129).

- 2. In the oblique cases the Gerundive commonly has the same meaning as the Gerund (cf. § 114. a), though its construction is different. (For examples, see § 205 ff.)
- e. The Participles may all be used as simple adjectives; and the present and perfect participles are sometimes compared as adjectives: as, amāns, amantior, more fond; dīlēctus, dīlēctissimus, dearest.
- f. The Present and Perfect participles are (like adjectives) often used as nouns, especially in the plural (§ 188): as, regentes, rulers (those ruling); mortuf, the dead.

g. As an adjective, the participle is often used predicatively to indicate some special circumstance or situation: as, morituri võs salutāmus, we at the point of death (about to die) salute you.

4. Gerund and Supine.

- 114. The Gerund and Supine are used as follows:
- a. The GERUND is, in form, the neuter singular of the Gerundive. It is a verbal noun, corresponding in meaning to the English verbal noun in -ING (§ 295): as, loquendI causa, for the sake of speaking.

NOTE.—In this use the Gerund is found only in the oblique cases. A corresponding nominative is supplied by the Infinitive: thus, scribere est utile, writing (to write) is useful; but, are scribendi, the art of writing.

- b. The SUPINE is in form a noun of the fourth declension (§ 71. a), found only in the accusative ending in -tum, -sum and the ablative (or dative, probably both) ending in -tū, -sū. These are sometimes called the Former and the Latter Supine. The Former is used after verbs and the Latter after adjectives (§§ 302, 303): as,—
 - I. vēnit spectātum, he came to see.
 - 2. mīrābile dictū, wonderful to tell.

5. Tenses.

- 115. The tenses of the verb are of two classes, viz.:—
 - 1. Of continued action.
 - I. PRESENT: scrībō, I am writing.
 - 2. IMPERFECT: scribebam, I was writing.
 - 3. Future: scribam, I shall write.
 - 2. Of completed action.
 - 4. Perfect: scripsi, I have written, I wrote.
 - 5. PLUPERFECT: scripseram, I had written.
 - 6. Future Perfect: scrīpserō, I shall have written.

a. Tenses of the Indicative.

- a. The tenses of the Indicative have, in general, the same meaning as the corresponding tenses in English; but are in some cases distinguished differently in their use. Thus—
- 1. The Future or Future Perfect is often used in subordinate clauses where we use the Present: as.—

sī quid habēbō dabō, if I have (shall have) any thing, I will give. cum vēnerō scrībam, when I come (shall have come), I will write.

2. The Present and Imperfect are often used to express continued action where the English uses tenses of completed action: as,—

iam diū aegrōtō, I have long been (and still am) sick.
iam diū aegrōtābam, I had long been (and still was) sick.

NOTE.—Here the Perfect, aegrōtāvī, would imply that I am now well; the Pluperfect, that I was well at the past time designated.

- b. The Imperfect is used to describe in past time a continued action or a condition of things: as, soribebat, he was writing; ardebat, it was on fire.
- c. The Perfect, having two separate uses, is divided into the Perfect Definite and the Perfect Historical (or Indefinite).
- I. The Perfect Definite represents the action of the verb as completed in present time, and corresponds to the English (present- or compound-) perfect: as, sorīpsī, I have written.
- 2. The Perfect Historical narrates a simple act or state in past time without representing it as in progress or continuing. It corresponds to the English past or preterite and the Greek agrist: as, scrīpsit, he wrote; ārsit, it blazed up.

b. Tenses of the Subjunctive.

d. The tenses of the Subjunctive Mood are chiefly used in dependent clauses, following the rule for the Sequence of Tenses (see § 286); but have also special idiomatic uses (see Syntax, §§ 266 ff., 283, 308).

III. - PERSONAL ENDINGS.

116. Verbs have regular terminations 1 for each of the three Persons, both singular and plural, active and passive. These are:—

Sing.	ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.
1m (-ō or-	ī): am-ō, <i>I love.</i>	-r:	amo-r, I am loved.
28:	amā-s, thou lovest.	-ris or -r	e: amā- ris, thou art loved.
3t:	ama- t, <i>he loves</i>.	-tur:	amā-tur, he is loved.
Plur.	ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.
Imus:	amā- mus , we love.	-mur :	amā-mur, we are loved.
2tis:	amā- tis , <i>you love</i> .	-minī:	amā- minī , you are loved.
3nt:	ama-nt, they love.	-ntur:	ama-ntur, they are loved.

¹ These terminations are fragments of old Pronouns, whose signification is thus added to that of the verb-stem (compare p. 19, note 1). But the ending -mini in the second person plural of the passive is a remnant of the participial form found in the Greek -μενοs, and has supplanted the proper form, which does not appear in Latin. It is thought by some scholars that -nt has a similar origin.

Note. — The present indicative of the active voice has lost the -m, and ends in the modified stem-vowel - δ , except in sum and inquam ($\S\S$ 119, 144. δ). This δ stands for m blended in sound with a preceding vowel (am δ = †am δ -m). The perfect the future perfect, and the future in -b δ have also lost the -m.

a. The Perfect Indicative active has the special terminations: -

SING. 2. -sti: amāv-i-stī, thou lovedst.

PLUR. 2. -stis: amāv-i-stis, you loved.

3. - ērunt or - ēre: amāv-ērunt (-ēre), they loved.

b. The Imperative has the following terminations:—

Sing. ACTIVE. 2. —: amā, love thou. -re : amā-re. be thou loved. amā-tō, thou shalt love. -tor: 2. -tō: amā-tor. thou shalt be loved. 3. -tō: amā-tō, let him love. -tor: amā-tor, let him be loved. Plur. 2. -te: amā-te, love ye. -minī: amā-minī. be ve loved. 2. -tōte : amā-tote, ve shall love. ama-nto, let them love. -ntor: ama-ntor, let them be loved. 3. -ntō:

IV.-FORMS OF THE VERB.

- 117. Every Latin verb-form (except the adjective and noun forms) is made up of two parts, viz.:—
- 1. The STEM (see § 21). This is either the root or a modification or development of it.
 - 2. The Ending, consisting of
 - a. the signs of mood and tense.
 - b. the personal ending (see § 116).

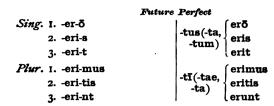
NOTE i.—Thus in the verb vocā-vi-t, he called, the root is voc, modified into the verb-stem vocā-, which by the addition of the tense sign -uī (-vī) becomes the perfect tense vocāvī; and to this is added the personal ending (-t) of the third person singular.

NOTE 2.—These endings are of various origin. In none of them, however, is the tense or mood sign strictly inserted between the root and the personal terminations. All verb-forms are either inherited from a time when the elements were still significant and could still be compounded, or are imitations of such inherited forms.

118. The Verb-endings, as they are formed by the signs for mood and tense combined with personal endings, are exhibited in the following table:—

ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.			
Indic.	Subj.		NDIC.	Subj.
Sing. 15	(-m	<i>sent.</i> -Or		
26	-6	1	_	-ris <i>or</i> -re
3t #2.3	-t	-tu	5.2	-tur
Plur. Imus	-mus		, A &	{
2tis	-tis	-mi	2	-mur
3nt	-nt	-mi	2	-minī
J110	(-116	, -110	uı	(-ntur
C'ara a Nama	_	erfect.		
Sing. Iba-m	-re-m	-ba	_	-re-r
2bā-s	-rē-s		-ris (-re)	-rē-ris (-re)
3ba-t	-re-t	1	-tur	-rē-tur
Plur. Ibā-mus	-rē-mus	1	-mur	-rē-mur
2b ā-tis	-rē-tis		-minī	-rē-minī
3ba-nt	-re-nt	-ba	-ntur	-re-ntur
Indicativi			Indicativ	
L.H. ¹	III. IV.	1	. 11.	111. IV. ¹
Sing. Ib-ō	(-a-m -ē-s	-bo	-ris (-re) ::	-a-r
2bi-s ::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::	-e- t	-De	-118 (-16) %	<i>-ē-</i> ris (-re) <i>-ē-</i> tur
Z.II. 28.	}	01-	Çu. 3.54	
Plur. Ibi-mus 777 =	-ē-mus	-01-	mur 3.5	-ē-mur
2bi-tis appropri	-ē-tis		minī 🖇 🖁 -ntur	-ē-minī
3bu-nt △.♯ ໘.໊	l-e-nt			(-e-ntur
Indic.	Subj. Per		DIC.	Subj.
Sing. 1I	-eri-m	-tus (-ta,	sum	sim
2 i-stī	-eri-s	-tum)	es	sīs
3i-t	-eri-t	1 :	est	sit
Plur. Ii-mus	-eri-mus	-tī (-tae	sumus	sīmus
2i-stis	-eri-tis	-ta)	estis	sītis
3ēru-nt <i>or</i> -ēre	-eri-nt	' (sunt	sint
	-	erfect.		
Sing. Iera-m	-isse-m	-tus (-ta.	eram	essem
2. -e rā- s	-issē-s	-tum)	erās	essēs
3. -e ra-t	-isse-t	'(erat	esset
Plur. 1erā-mus	-issē-mus	-tī(-tae,	erāmus	essēmus
2. -erā-tis	-issē-tis	-ta)	erātis	essētis
3era-nt	-isse-nt	1 , (erant	essent

¹ These numerals refer to the four conjugations given later (see § 122).



IMPERATIVE.

Present.

Sing. 2. —	Plur. 2te	1	Sing. 2re	Plur. 2.	-min I	
Future.						
2tō	2tōte	١	2tor	2.		
2tō	2ntō	1	2 -tor	9	-ntor	

For convenience a table of the Noun and Adjective forms of the verb is here added.

INFINITIVES.

Note. — The 1 of the Perfect, which in early Latin is always long except before -mus, is of doubtful origin. It is probably in all cases a part of the stem, as it is in **ded1**, stet1, where it takes the place of the vowel a. In the suffixes -v1 (of unknown origin) and -s1 (akin to those of Greek $\delta\delta\epsilon\iota\xi\alpha$ and Skr. adiksham), and in the perfects of consonant-roots, it seems to be, but probably is not, a mere connecting vowel. The s before -t1 and -t1s is also anomalous. Most scholars regard it as a remnant of es; but it may be, like the personal endings, of pronominal origin.

The Passive is a middle (or reflexive) form peculiar to Latin and Celtic, and of uncertain origin.

The Verb Sum.

119. The verb sum, be, is both irregular and defective, having no gerund or supine, and no participle but the future.

Its conjugation is given at the outset, on account of its importance for the inflection of all other verbs.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: Pres. sum, Infin. esse, Perf. ful, Fut. Part. futürus.

Fut. Part. futūrus.					
Indicative.	SUBJUNCTIVE.				
Sing. 1. sum, I am.	sim ¹				
2. ĕs, thou art (you are).	. sīs				
3. est, he (she, it) is.	sit				
Plur. 1. sumus, we are.	sīmua				
2. estis, you are.	sītis				
3. sunt, they are.	sint				
Impe	=				
Sing. 1. eram, I was.	essem (forem)				
2. erās, you were.	essēs (forēs)				
3. erat, he (she, it) was	esset (foret)				
Plur. 1. erāmus, we were.	essēmus				
2. erātis, you were.	essētis				
3. erant, they were.	essent (forent)				
Fut	ure.				
Sing. 1. ero, I shall be.					
2. eris, you will be.					
3. erit, he will be.					
Plur. 1. erimus, we shall be.					
2. eritis, you will be.					
3. erunt, they will be.					
Perj					
Sing. 1. ful, I was (have been).	fuer im				
2. fuistī, you were	fueris				
3. fuit, he was.	fuerit				
Plur. 1. fuimus, we were.	fuerimus				
2. fuistis, you were.	fueritis				
3. fuërunt, fuëre, they were.	fuerint				
Plupe	=				
Sing. 1. fueram, I had been.	fuissem				
2. fuerās, you had been.	fuissës				
3. fuerat, he had been.	fuisset				
Plur. 1. fuerāmus, we had been.	fuissēmus				
2. fuerātis, you had been.	fuissētis				
3. fuerant, they had been.	fuissent				

 $^{^1}$ All translations of the subjunctive are misleading, and hence none is given. see \S 112. $\pmb{\delta}.$

Future Perfect.

Sing. 1. fuero, I shall have been. Plur. 1. fuerimus, we shall have been.

2. fueris, you will have been. 2. fu

2. fueritis, you will have been.

3. fuerit, he will have been.

3. fuerint, they will have been.

IMPERATIVE.

Present. Sing. 2. 6s, be thou.

Plur. 2. este, be ye.

Future.

2. esto, thou shalt be.

2. estote, ye shall be.

3. estō, he shall be.

3. sunto, they shall be.

INFINITIVE.

Present. esse, to be.

Perfect. fuisse, to have been.

Future. fore or futurus esse, to be about to be.

PARTICIPLE.

Future. futurus, -a, -um, about to be.

- a. The present participle, which should be †sēns (compare Sanskrit sant), appears in that form in ab-sēns, prae-sēns; and as ēns (compare w) in pot-ēns. The simple form ēns is sometimes found in late or philosophical Latin as a participle or abstract noun, in the forms ēns, being; entia, things which are.
- b. RARE FORMS.—Indicative: Future, escit, escunt (strictly an inchoative present, see § 167. a).

Subjunctive: Present, siem, sies, siet, sient; fuam, fuās, fuat, fuant; Perfect, fūvimus; Pluperfect, fūvisset.

NOTE. — For essem, etc., forem, fores, etc., are often used without difference of meaning.

120. The verb sum appears in numerous compounds, which will be treated under Irregular Verbs (§ 137).

NOTE.—The root of the verb sum is ES, which in the imperfect is changed to ER (see § 11. a. 1), and in many cases is shortened to S. Some of its modifications, as found in several languages more or less closely related to Latin, may be seen in the following table,—the "Indo-European" being the primitive or theoretic form, and the form syām corresponding to the Latin sim (siem):—

INDO-EUROPEAN.	SANS	KRIT.	GREEK.	LATIN.	LITHUANIAN.
es-mi	as-mi	syām (opt.)	$\xi \mu \mu \iota^1$	s-um	es-mi
es-si	as-i	syās	€σσί¹	es	es-i
es-ti	as-ti	syāt	ŧστί	es-t	es-ti
s-masi	s-mas	syāma	₹σμέν	s-umus	es-me
s-tasi	s-tha	syāta	₹στέ	es-tis	es-te
s-anti	s-anti	syus	₹ντ[1	s-unt	es-ti

The Perfect and Supine stems, ful-, futuro-, are kindred with the Greek $\xi\phi\nu$, and with the English $b\epsilon$.

The Three Stems.

- 121. The parts of the Latin verb may be formed upon three different stems (partly real and partly supposed), called the Present, the Perfect, and the Supine Stem (see notes, pp. 86, 119 ff.).
- a. The tenses of continued action, both active and passive, together with the Gerund and Gerundive, are formed upon the PRESENT STEM, and collectively are called the Present System.
- b. The tenses of completed action in the active voice are formed upon the Perfect Stem, and are called the Perfect System.
- c. The Perfect and Future Participles and the Supine are formed upon the SUPINE STEM, and are called the Supine System.

NOTE 1.—Since Latin verbs are commonly spoken of under the form of their present tense, the other parts are usually said to be derived from this. It is only in the verbs formed later in the language that this is true. Thus armāvī, I have armed, does come from armō, I arm; but sīvī, I have allowed, does not come from sinō, I allow; but both sinō and sīvī come from a common source, the root (see §§ 22, 123, 124), by different processes.

NOTE 2.—The Influence of Analogy. Many Latin verbs were not inherited from the parent speech, but formed during the separate existence of the language. The forms of these verbs are not strictly compounds of root or stem and ending, but are imitations of verbs already existing in Latin. For it is only by analogy that elements (parts of words) not complete and significant in themselves can be used to form new words in a developed language. When stems are not felt as significant, they cannot be used for composition. Thus a form like fugābat could be made only from a complete word fuga, or from some form in which fuga seemed to be a complete word; and must be regarded, not as a compound of stem and auxiliary, fugā + bat (like arā + bat), but as an imitation of forms like arābat, which originally were really compounds. Simple Perfects like dedi and compound forms like vēxī have both influenced, by analogy, the production of new forms, like momordi from mordeo, mānsī from maneo.

V.-REGULAR VERBS.

Latin verbs are classed as Regular or Irregular according as they do or do not follow the inflection of the Four Conjugations.

122. There are in Latin four principal forms of Present Stems, ending respectively in a., b., t. With this difference of stem most of the other differences of conjugation coincide.

- a. Verbs are accordingly classed in Four Regular Conjugations, distinguished by the stem-vowel which appears before -re in the Present Infinitive Active.
- b. The Principal Parts of a verb, which determine its conjugation throughout, are—
 - 1. The Present Indicative) showing the present stem and
 - 2. The Present Infinitive \(\) the conjugation.
 - 3. The Perfect Indicative, showing the perfect stem.
 - 4. The Supine (or the Perfect Participle), showing the supine
 - c. The regular forms of the conjugations are seen in the following: -

First: Active, amo, amare, amavī, amatum, love.

Passive, amor, amārī, amātus.

Present- and Verb-stem amā-, Perfect-stem amāv-, Supinestem amāt-.

Second: dēleō, dēlēre, dēlēvī, dēlētum, blot out.

Passive, dēleor, dēlērī, dēlētus.

Present- and Verb-stem dēlē-, Perfect-stem, dēlēv-, Supinestem dēlēt-.

Third: tego, tegere, texī, tectum, cover.

Passive, tegor, tegī, tēctus.

Root TEG, Verb-stem tegë-, Perfect-stem tëx-, Supine-stem tëct-.

Fourth: audiō, audīre, audīvī, audītum, hear.

Passive, audior, audīrī, audītus.

Present- and Verb-stem audī-, Perfect-stem, audīv-, Supinestem, audīt-.

In the Second conjugation, however, the characteristic 8-rarely appears in the perfect and supine: the type of this conjugation is, therefore —

Second: moneō, monēre, monuī, monitum, warn.
Passive, moneor, monērī, monitus.

- d. In many verbs the principal parts take forms belonging to two or more different conjugations (cf. § 134): as,—
 - I. 2, domō, domāre, domuī, domitum, subdue.
 - 2. 3, maneō, manēre, mānsī, mānsum, remain.
 - 3. 4, petō, petĕre, petīvī, petītum, seek.
 - 4. 3, vinciō, vincīre, vinxī, vinctum, bind.

Such verbs are referred to the conjugation to which the first or Presentstem conforms.

1. Present Stem.

Note. — The parent speech from which Latin comes possessed verbs with present stems of three different kinds. These verbs were formed as follows:—

First: From roots, by adding the personal endings.

Second: From noun-stems, by adding the personal endings. These noun-stems had been formed from roots by the addition of various suffixes, as a-, na-, ya-, ta-.

Third: From roots and stems, by adding a common suffix (probably -yami, etc., later -yomi) which already contained the personal endings.

Verbs of all these forms were inherited by the Latin. Of the first class few survive, and these are counted as irregular, except such as have been forced into some one of the four conjugations. Examples are: ēst, from edō; fert, from ferō; dās, from dō (dăre); flēmus, from fleō.

Of the second class a large number remain. In these the verb-stem ends in a short vowel, &- (1-). This is a remnant of the original vowel &- (3-) of the noun-suffixes. Besides this, the consonant of the suffix is often preserved. Verbs of this form are often called *primitive verbs*, because the language lost the power of making new forms of this type except in a few cases. They make up the third conjugation. Examples are: ferō (stem feroe-) for bher-o-mi (cf. fert in the first class); sternimus (stem sternoe-) for star-no-mas; plectunt (stem plectoe-) for plec-to-nti; pellō (stem pelloe-) for pel-yo-mi. So dīscō (stem dīscoe-) for dī(o)sco-mi. This last form became the type for a large number of verbs called *inceptive* (see § 167. a).

Of the third class, those verbs in which any vowel (except u) came in contact with the suffix (-yami) suffered contraction so as to present a long vowel, ā-, ē-, I-, at the end of the stem. These became the types of the first, second, and fourth conjugations respectively. In imitation of these long vowel-stems numerous verbs were formed by the Romans themselves (after the mode of formation had been entirely forgotten) from noun and adjective stems. This came to be the regular way of forming new verbs, just as in English the borrowed suffix -ize can be added to adjectives to make a verb; as, modernize.

Those verbs of the third class in which a consonant or u came in contact with the suffix -yami suffered various phonetic changes. Such verbs fell partly into the third conjugation, giving rise to an irregular form of it, and partly into the fourth, and some have forms of both.

Examples are: (con)spicio, spicere, for spek-yomi; venio, venire, for (g)ven-yomi; cupio, cupere, but cupivi; orior, oritur, but oriri. But pluo, pluere, for plu-yomi: and hence, by analogy, acuo, acuere.

But in all these cases many cross-analogies and errors as well as phonetic changes have been at work to produce irregularities. Hence has arisen the traditional system which may be practically represented as follows:—

- 123. The Present Stem is formed from the Root in all regular verbs in one of the following ways: 1—
- a. In the First, Second, and Fourth conjugations, by adding a long vowel (a-, s-, I-) to the root, whose vowel is sometimes changed: as, voca-re (voc), mone-re (MEN, cf. memini), sopi-re (sop).

NOTE. — These verb-stems are almost all really formed from noun-stems on the pattern of older formations (see note, p. 86).

- b. In the Third conjugation, by adding a short vowel (ĕ-, I-) to the root: as, tegĕ-re (TEG), alI-tis (AL). This vowel may be preceded —
- I. By n, t, sc, or the terminal consonant of the root repeated (a phonetic representative of original i): as, temme-re (TEM), plect-ō (PLEC), crēsce-re (CRE), pell-ō (for pel-iō, PEL), mītt-ō (MIT).
- 2. By i, which in most forms disappears in inflection (see § 126. c): as, fug-i-ō, fug-ĕ-re (FUG).
 - c. The root may also be changed -
 - I. By lengthening the vowel: as, dīc-e-re (DIC), caed-e-re (CAD?).
- 2. By the repetition of a part of it (reduplication): as, gī-gn-e-re (GEN).
- 3. By inserting a nasal (m or n): as, find-e-re (FID); tang-e-re (TAG).
- d. In some verbs the present stem is formed from a noun-stem irregularly treated as a root: as, statu-e-re (statu-s), aestu-ā-re (aestu-s); cf. acuō, acuere.
- e. A few isolated forms use the simple root as a present stem: as, fer-re, fer-t; es-se; vel-le, vul-t. These are counted as irregular.

In some cases there appears to be a connecting vowel not explained above; but this comes from the irregular use of a verb-stem in place of a root, as in oritūrus (cf. ortus), monitus (cf. mēns, mentis).

¹ These formations may be traced in the following parallel inflections:— SANSKRIT. SANSKRIT. ı. vāch-ayā-mi voc-(ā)-ō 2. vah-ā-mi veh-ö 3. pac-yā-mi -spic-i-ō vach-aya-si voc-ā-s vah-a-si veh-i-s paç-ya-si -spic-i-s vach-aya-ti voc-a-t vah-a-ti veh-i-t paç-ya-ti -spic-i-t vach-ayā-mas voc-ā-mus Vah-a-mas veh-i-mus pac-ya-mas-spic-i-mus vach-aya-tha voc-ā-tis vah-a-tha veh-i-tis pac-ya-tha -spic-i-tis vah-a-nti veh-u-nt vach-ava-nti voc-a-nt pac-ya-nti -spic-i-unt

f. A few have roots ending in a vowel. These generally use as present stem the root without additions, but sometimes modified: as, da-mus (DA), flē-mus (stem flē-, root form unknown), sisti-mus (STA). But others, as rui-mus (RU), are formed with an additional vowel according to the analogy of d.

2. Perfect Stem.

124. The Perfect Stem is formed as follows: -

a. The suffix \mathbf{v} (u) (see p. 120, c) is added to the verb-stem: as, vocā-v-ī, audī-v-ī; or to the root: as, son-u-ī (sonā-re, root son), mon-u-ī (monē-re, mon treated as a root).

NOTE. — In a few verbs the vowel of the root is transposed and lengthened (see $\S 9. d$): as, strā-v-I (sternō, STAR), sprē-v-I (spernō, SPAR).

b. The suffix s is added to the root: as, carp-s-ī (CARP), tēx-ī (for teg-s-ī, TEG).

NOTE. — The modifications of the present stem sometimes appear in the perfect: as, finx-i (Fig. present stem finge-), sanx-i (SAC, present stem sanci-).

c. The root is *reduplicated* by prefixing the first consonant—generally with **ĕ**, sometimes with the root-vowel: as, ce-cid-I (cadō, CAD), to-tond-I (tondeō, TOND).

NOTE.—In fid.I (for †fe-fid-I, find-ō), scid-I (for †sci-scid-I, scindō), the reduplication has been lost, leaving merely the root.

- d. The root-vowel is lengthened: as, eg-I (ag-ō), fug-I (fug-i-ō).
- c. The root itself is used as the perfect stem: as, vert-I (vert-ō, VERT), solv-I (solv-ō, SOLV used as root).
- f. Sometimes the perfect is formed from a lost or imaginary stem: as, petī-v-I (as if from †peti-ō, †petī-re, PET).

3. Supine Stem.

- 125. The Supine Stem¹ is formed by adding t- (or phonetically s-):
 - a. To the verb-stem: as, amā-t-um, dēlē-t-um, audī-t-um.
- b. To the root, with or without I: as, cap-t-um (capiō, CAP), moni-t-um (moneō, MON used as root), cās-um (for cad-t-um, CAD).

NOTE 1.—The modifications of the present stem sometimes appear in the supine: as, tinc-t-um (tingō, Tig), tēn-s-um (ten-d-ō, Ten).

NOTE 2.—The supine is sometimes from a lost or imaginary verb-stem: as, petI-t-um (as if from tpetI-5, tpetI-re, PET).

¹ For the modifications of the Supine Stem, see p. 121, 3.

- 126. The forms of the several conjugations from which, by adding the verb endings in § 118, all the moods and tenses can be made are as follows:—
- a. The First Conjugation includes all verbs which add a- to the root to form the present stem: 1 as, ama-re; with a few whose root ends in a (dō, dăre; for, fārī; flō, flāre; nō, nāre; stō, stāre).
- 1. The stem-vowel a- is lost before -5 (as, am5 = †ama-5), and in the present subjunctive is changed to 5: as, am5-s, am5-mus.
- 2. The perfect stem regularly adds v, the supine stem t, to the present stem: as, amā-v-ī, amā-t-um. For exceptions, see § 130.
- b. The Second Conjugation includes all verbs which add 5- to the root to form the present stem, as monē-re; with a few whose root ends in 5 (fle-5, flē-re; ne5, nē-re; re-or, rē-rī).
- 1. In the present subjunctive a is added to the verb-stem: as, mone-a-mus (cf. § 118).
- 2. A few verbs form the perfect stem by adding \mathbf{v} (u), and the supine stem by adding \mathbf{t} to the present stem: as, $\mathbf{d} \neq \mathbf{l} \mathbf{\bar{e}} \mathbf{v} \mathbf{\bar{I}}$, $\mathbf{d} \neq \mathbf{l} \mathbf{\bar{e}} \mathbf{t} \mathbf{\bar{u}}$. But most form the perfect stem by adding \mathbf{v} (u) to the root, and the supine stem by adding \mathbf{t} to a weaker form of the present stem, having $\mathbf{\bar{I}}$ for $\mathbf{\bar{e}}$: as, mon-u- $\mathbf{\bar{I}}$, mon-1-t-um. For lists, see § 131.
- c. The Third Conjugation includes all verbs (not irregular, see § 137) which add ĕ- to the root to form the present stem: as, tegĕ-re, capĕ-re; with a few whose root ends in ĕ: as, se-rĕ-re for †se-se-re (reduplicated from SE, cf. sătum).
- I. The stem-vowel &- is lost before -ō, becomes u² before -nt, and I before the other endings of the indicative and imperative: as, teg-ō, teg-it, tegu-nt; in the imperfect indicative it becomes ē: as, tegē-bam; in the future, ē: as, tegēs; in the present subjunctive ā: as, tegē-s.

Verbs in -iō retain the i before a, ō, u, and ē: as, capi-at, capi-unt, capi-ēbat, capi-ēs, capi-et*; but lose it elsewhere: as, cap-it (not †capi-it), cap-eret.

2. All forms of perfect and supine stems are found in this conjugation. See lists, § 132. But the perfect is never formed from the present stem, but always from the root (§ 121. n. 1).

¹ The present stem is thus the verb-stem. For exceptions, see § 130.

The gerundive varies between -endus and -undus (§ 12. d).

⁸ The e in capiet, once long, was afterwards shortened.

- d. The Fourth Conjugation includes all verbs which add I to the root to form the present stem: as, audI-re. In these the perfect and supine stems regularly add v, t, to the verb-stem: as, audI-v-I, audI-t-um. The endings of the third conjugation are added in the third person plural of the present (indicative and imperative), in the imperfect and future indicative, and in the present subjunctive: as, audi-unt, audi-bbat, audi-btis, audi-at.
- e. The Pres. Imperative Act. (second pers. sing.) is the same as the present stem: as, amā, monē, tegĕ, audī. But verbs in -iō of the third conjugation omit i: as, capĕ (not †capie).
- f. The tenses of completed action are all regularly formed by adding the tense-endings (given in § 118) to the perfect stem: as, amāv-ī, amāv-eram, amāv-erō, amāv-erim, amāv-issem, amāv-isse.
- g. The tenses of completed action in the Passive voice are formed by adding to the perfect participle the corresponding tenses of continued action of the verb esse: as, perf. amātus sum; plup. amātus eram, etc.

4. Synopsis of the Verb.

127. The following synopsis shows the forms of the verbs arranged according to the several stems. Amō, a regular verb of the first conjugation, is taken as a type.

PRESENT STEM, ama-; PERFECT STEM, amav-; SUPINE STEM, amat-.

ACTIVE.	IMP. 2.		!	am ā-tō am āt-ūrus	PERF. amāv-ī amāv-erim amāv-isse	PLUPERF. am āv-eram am āv-issem	FUT. PERF am āv-e rč
		am ā-ns	'	esse am āt-ūrus			
PASSIVE.	Sub.	am e-r	am ā-bar am ā-rer		am āt-us su am āt-us sin		— erō
PAS	Inf. Part.	am ā-rī	'	mā-tum īrī . ama-ndus	am āt-us es s am āt-us	se	

¹ A few are formed from noun-stems, as fini-re (from fini-s), and a few roots end in i; but these are not distinguishable in form.

² For exceptions, see § 133.

128. The following special forms require notice:

- a. In tenses formed upon the perfect stem, v between two vowels is often lost and contraction takes place. Thus, —
- I. Perfects in -āvī, -ēvī, -ōvī, often contract the two vowels into ā, ē, ō respectively: as, amāsse for amāvisse; amārim for amāverim; amāssem for amāvissem; cōnsuērat for cōnsuēverat; flēstis for flēvistis; nōsse for nōvisse. So in perfects in -vī, where the v is a part of the present stem: as, commōrat for commōverat.

NOTE. — The first person of the perfect indicative (as amavi) is never contracted, the third very rarely.

- 2. Perfects in -īvī regularly omit v, but rarely contract the vowels except before st and ss, and very rarely in the third person perfect: as, audieram for audīveram; audīsse for audīvisse; audīstī for audīvistī; abiit for abīvit. The forms sīris, sīrit, sīrītis, sīrint, for sīveris, etc. (from sīverō or sīverim), are archaic.
- b. In many forms from the perfect stem, is, iss, sis are lost in like manner when s would be repeated if they were retained: as, dīxtī for dīxistī (x = cs); trāxe for trāxisse; ēvāstī for ēvāsistī; vīxet for vīxisset; ērēpsēmus for ērēpsissēmus. These forms belong to archaic and colloquial usage.
- c. Four verbs—dīcō, dūcō, faciō, ferō—with their compounds, drop the vowel-termination of the imperative, making dīc, dūc, făc, fĕr; but compounds in -ficiō retain it, as cōnfice. The forms dīce, dūce, face (never fere), occur in early Latin.
- d. For the imperative of soio, the future form soito is always used in the singular, and soitote usually in the plural.
 - e. The following ancient forms are chiefly found in poetry: -
- I. In the fourth conjugation -Ibam, -Ibō for -iēbam, -iam (future). These forms are regular in eō, go (§ 141).
- 2. In the present subjunctive im: as in duim, perduim (for dem, perdem), retained in religious formulas. This form is regular in sum and volo and their compounds (§§ 119, 138).
- 3. In the perfect subjunctive and future perfect -sim, -sō: as, faxim, faxō, iūssō, recēpsō, (= fēcerō, etc.); ausim (= ausus sim).
- 4. In the passive infinitive -ier: as, vocārier for vocārī; agier for agī.
- 5. A form in -āssō, -āssere is found used as a future perfect: as, amāssis, from amō; levāssō, from levō; impetrāssere, from impetrō; iūdicāssit, from iūdicō.

FIRST CONJUGATION. - ACTIVE VOICE.

Principal Parts: Pres. amō, Infin. amāre, Perf. amāvī,
Supine amātum.

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE. Present. amō, I love. amem amās, thou lovest (you love). am**ēs** amat, he (she, it) loves. amet amāmus, we love. am**ēmus** am**ātis**, you love. am**ētis** amant, they love. ament Imperfect. amābam, I loved. am**ārem** amābās, you loved. am**ārēs** amābat, he loved. am**āret** amābāmus, we loved. am**ārēmus** amābātis, you loved. am**ārētis** amärent amābant, they loved. Future. amābō, I shall love. amābis, you will love. amābit, he will love. amābimus, we shall love. amābitis, you will love. amābunt, they will love. Perfect. amāvī, I loved. amāv**erim** amāvistī, you loved. amāv**eris** amāvit. he loved. amāverit amāvimus, we loved. amāv**erimus** amāvistis, you loved. amāveritis amāvērunt (-ēre), they loved. amāverint Pluperfect. amāveram, I had loved. amāvissem amāverās, you had loved. amāvissēs amāverat, he had loved. amāv**isset**

amāvissēmus

amāvissētis

amāvissent

amāverāmus, we had loved.

amāverātis, you had loved.

amaverant, they had loved.

Future Perfect.

SINGULAR. amāverō. I shall have loved. amāveris, you will have loved. amāverit, he will have loved.

PLURAT. amāverimus, we shall have loved. amāveritis, you will have loved. amaverint, they will have loved.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. 2. amā, love thou.

amāte, love ve.

Fut. 2. amato, thou shalt love.

amātōte, ye shall love.

3. amātō, he shall love.

amanto, they shall love.

INFINITIVE.

Present. amare, to love.

Perfect. amavisse or amasse, to have loved. Future. amātūrus esse, to be about to love.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. amans, -antis, loving.

Future. amātūrus, -a, -um, about to love.

GERUND.

GEN. amandī, of loving. DAT. amando, for loving. ABL. amando, by loving.

Acc. amandum, loving.

SUPINE.

Latter. amātū, to love. Former, amātum

129. The so-called Periphrastic conjugations are formed by combining the tenses of esse with the Future Active Participle and with the Gerundive: as, -

First Periphrastic Conjugation.

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE. amātūrus sum, I am about to love. Pres. amaturus sum, I am about to love. Imperf. amaturus eram, I was about to love. Pres. ---- sim – essem Fut. amātūrus erō, I shall be about to love. amātūrus fuī, I was about, etc. Perf. ---- fuerim Pluperf. amaturus fueram, I had been about, etc. — fuissem Fut. Perf. amaturus fuero, I shall have been about, etc.

Infinitive: Pres. amātūrus esse Perf. amātūrus fuisse

Second Periphrastic Conjugation.

amandus sum, I am to be loved. Pres. ____ sim amandus eram, I was to be loved. — essem Imperf. amandus erō, I shall be [worthy] to be loved. Fut. amandus fui, I was to be loved. ---- fuerim Perf. Pluperf. amandus fueram, I had been, etc. ---- fuissem

Fut. Perf. amandus fuero, I shall have been, etc.

INFINITIVE: Pres. amandus esse Perf. amandus fuisse

FIRST CONJUGATION. - PASSIVE VOICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: Pres. amor, Infin. amārī, Perf. amātus sum.

INDICATIVE.

Subjunctive.

amor, I am loved. amāris (-re), you are loved. amātur, he is loved.

am**āmur**, *we are loved*. am**āminī**, *you are loved*. am**antur**, *they are loved*. amer amēris (-re) amētur amēmur amēminī amentur

Imperfect.

amābar, I was loved.
amābāris (-re), you were loved.
amābātur, he was loved.
amābāmur, we were loved.
amābāminī, you were loved.
amābantur, they were loved.

amārer amārēris (-re) amārētur amārēmur amārēminī amārentur

Future.

amābor, I shall be loved. amāberis (-re), you will be loved. amābitur, he will be loved. amābimur, we shall be loved. amābiminī, you will be loved. amābuntur, they will be loved.

Perfect.

amātus sum, I was loved. amātus est, he was loved. amātī sumus, we were loved. amātī estis, you were loved. amātī sunt, they were loved.

amātus sim amātus sīs amātus sit amātī sīmus amātī sītis amātī sint

Pluperfect.

amātus eram, I had been loved. amātus erās, you had been loved. amātus erat, he had been loved. amātī erāmus, we had been loved. amātī erātis, you had been loved. amātī erant, they had been loved. amātus essem amātus essēs amātus esset amātī essēmus amātī essētis amātī essent

Future Perfect.

SINGULAR.

amātus erō. I shall have been loved. amātus eris, you will have, etc. amātus erit, he will have, etc.

PLURAL.

amātī erimus, we shall have, etc. amātī eritis, you will have, etc. amātī erunt, they will have, etc.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. 2. amare, be thou loved.

Fut. 2. amātor, thou shalt be loved.

amāminī, be ye loved.

3. amator, he shall be loved. amantor, they shall be loved.

INFINITIVE.

Present. amarī, to be loved.

Perfect. amatus esse, to have been loved.

Future. amātum īrī (amātus fore), to be about to be loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Perfect. amatus, loved (beloved, or having been loved). Future (Gerundive). amandus, -a, -um, to-be-loved (lovely).

130. There are about 360 simple verbs of this conjugation, most of them formed directly on a noun- or adjective-stem: as, armo, arm (arma, arms); caeco, to blind (caecus, blind); exsulo, be an exile (exsul, an exile) (§ 166. a). Their conjugation is usually regular, like amo; though of many only a few forms are found in use.

The following verbs form their Perfect and Supine stems irregularly. Those marked * have also regular forms.

crepo, crepul, crepit-, resound. cubo, cubul, cubit, lie down. do, dăre, dedī, dăt-, give (DA). domō, domuī, domit-, subdue. frico, fricui, *frict-, rub. iuvo (ad-iuvo), iūvī, iūt-,1 help. labo, -avī (no sup.), totter. mico, micuI (no sup.), glitter.

neco, *necui, *nect-, kill. plico, *-plicui, *-plicit-, fold. pōtō, pōtāvī, *pōt-, drink. seco, secui, sect-,1 cut. sonō, sonuī, sonit-,¹ sound. stō, stetī, stat- (-stit-), stand. tono, tonui, tonit-, thunder. veto, vetui, vetit-, forbid.

NOTE. - Compounds of these verbs have the following forms: crepo : dis-crepui or -crepavi.

do: circum-, inter-, pessum-, satis-, super-, vēnum-do, -dedi, -dat-, of the 1st conjugation; other compounds are of the 3d, as condo, condere, condidi, conditum. mico: dī-micāvī, -micāt-; ē-micuī, -micāt-.

Dlico: re-, sub- (sup-), multi-plico, -plicavi, -plicat-; ex-plico (unfold), -ut, -it-; (explain), -avī, -at-; im-plico, -avī (-uī), -catum (-itum).

Sto: con-sto, -stifi, -stit- (-stat-); ad-, re-sto-, -stifi, —; ante- (anti-), inter-, superstō. -stefi, -; circum-stō, -stefi (-stifi), -; dī-stō, no perfect or supine.

SECOND CONJUGATION.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: Active, moneō, monēre, monuī, monitum; Passive, moneor, monērī, monitus sum.

ACTIVE.			PASSIVE.		
	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.	
			sent,		
	moneō, I warn.	moneam	moneor	monear	
	mon ēs , you warn.		mon ēris (-re)	mone āris (-re)	
	monet, he warns.	moneat	mon ētur	moneātur	
	mon ēmus	mon eāmus	mon ēmur	mon eāmur	
	mon ētis	mone ātis	mon ēminī	mon eāminī	
	monent	moneant	mon entur	moneantur	
		Impe	erfect.		
	mon ēbam	mon ērem	mon ēbar	monērer	
	mon ēbās	mon ērēs	mon ēbāris (-re)	monērēris (-re)	
	mon ëbat	monēret	mon ēbātur	mon ērētur	
	mon ēbāmus	mon ērēmus	mon ēbāmur	mon ērēmur	
	mon ēbātis	mon ērētis	mon ēbāminī	mon ērēminī	
	mon ēbant	monērent	mon ēbantur	mon ërentur	
		Fut	ure.		
	mon ēbō		mon ēbo r		
	mon ēbis		mon ēberis (-rc)		
	mon ēbit		monēbitur		
	mon ēbimus		mon ēbimur		
	mon ēbitis		mon ēbiminī		
	mon ēbunt		mon ēbuntur		
		Per	fect.		
	monu ī	monu erim	monitus sum	monitus sim	
	monu istI	monu eris	monitus es	monitus sīs	
	monuit	monuerit	monitus est	monitus sit	
	monuimus	monuerimus	monitī sumus	monitī sīmus	
	monu istis	monu eritis	monitī estis	monitī sītis	
	monu ērunt (-re)	monu erint	monitī sunt	monit ī sint	
		- Pluve	erfect.		

. Pluperfect.

monitus eram monitus essem monueram monuissem monitus essēs monuerās monuissēs monitus erās monitus esset monuerat monuisset monitus erat monitī erāmus monitī essēmus monuissēmus monuerāmus monitī erātis monuissētis monitī essētis monuerātis monitī erant moniti essent monuerant monuissent

Future Perfect.

monuerō
monueris
monuerit
monuerimus
monueritis

monuerint

monitus eris monitus eris monitus erit moniti erimus moniti eritis moniti erunt

IMPERATIVE.

	SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
Pres. 2	e. mon ë	mon ēte	mon ëre	mon ēminī
Fut. 2	. mon ētō	mon ētōte	monētor	
3	. mon ētō	mon entō	monētor	monentor

INFINITIVE.

Pres. monëre

Perf. monuisse

Fut. monitürus esse

moneri monitus esse monitum iri (monitus fore)

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. monēns Fut. monitūrus Perf. monitus

Ger. monendus

Gerund. monendī, -dō, -dum, -dō

Supine.
monitum, monitü

131. There are nearly 120 simple verbs of this conjugation, most of them denominative verbs of *condition*, having a corresponding noun and adjective from the same root, and an inceptive in -scō (§ 167. a): as, caleō, be warm; calor, warmth; calidus, warm; calēscō, grow warm; timeō, fear; timor, fear; timidus, timid.

Most of the verbs of the second conjugation form their perfect and supine like moneō. The following have -ēvī and -ētum: dēleō, destroy; fleō, weep; neō, spin; vieō, plat; and compounds of -pleō, fill; -oleō, grow. The remainder are:—

algeō, alsī, be cold.
ārdeō, ārsī, ārs-, burn.
audeō, ausus sum, dare.
augeō, auxī, auct-, increase.
caveō, cāvī, caut-, care.
cēnseō, cēnsuī, cēns-, value.
cieō, cīvī, cit-, excite.
doceō, docuī, doct-, teach.

faveō, fāvī, faut-, favor.
ferveō, fervī (ferbuī), glow.
foveō, fōvī, fōt-, cherish.
frīgeō, frīxī, be cold.
fulgeō, fūlsī, shine.
gaudeō, gāvīsus sum, rejoice.
haereō, haesī, haes-, cling.
indulgeō, indūlsī, indūlt-, indulge.

iubeō, iūssī, iūss-, order.
langueō, languī, be faint.
liqueō, līquī (-licuī), melt.
lūceō, lūxī, -luct-, shine.
lūgeō, lūxī, lūct-, mourn.
maneō, mānsī, māns-, wait.
mīsceō, -cuī, mīxt- (mīst-), mix.
mordeō, momordī, mors-, bite.
moveō, mōvī, mōt-, move.
mulceō, mulsī, muls-, soothe.
mulgeō, -sī (-xī), mūls- (-mūlct-),
milk.
nīveō, -nīvī (-nīxī), wink.
paveō, pāvī, fear.

sedeō, sēdī, sēss-, sit. soleō, solitus sum, be wont. sorbeō, sorbuī (sorpsī), sorpt-. suck. spondeō, spopondī, spōns-, pledge. strīdeō, strīdī, whiz. suādeō, suāsī, suās-, urge. teneō (-tineō), tenuī, tent-, hold. tergeō, tērsī, tērs-, wipe. tondeō, totondī, tōns-, shear. torqueō, torsī, tort-, twist. torreō, torruī, tost-, roast. turgeō, tūrsī, swell. urgeō, ūrsī, *urge*. videō, vīdī, vīs-, see. voveč, včví, včt-, vow.

NOTE.—The following have a perfect in -ui, but have no supine. A few (as maereo, be sad) have neither perfect nor supine.

arceō, ward off. egeō, need. calleō, be skilful. flōreō, bloom.

careō, lack.

pendeō, pependī, pēns-, hang.

prandeō, prandī, prāns-, dine. rīdeō, rīsī, rīs-, laugh.

pateō, lie open. studeō, attend to. sileō, be silent. timeō, fear.

horreo, shudder. caneo, be white.

THIRD CONJUGATION.

Principal Parts: Active, tegō, tegŏre, tēxī, tēctum;

Passive, tegor, tegī, tēctus sum.

ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.				
Indic.	Subj.	INDIC.	Subj.			
Present.						
tegō, <i>I cover</i> .	tegam	tegor	tegar			
teg is , you cover.	teg ās	teg eris (-re)	teg āris (-re)			
tegit, he covers.	teg at	tegitur	teg ātur			
teg imus	teg āmus	tegimur	tegāmur			
teg itis	teg ātis	tegi minī	teg āminī			
tegunt	tegant	teguntur	teg antűr			
Imperfect.						
teg ēbam	tegerem	teg ēbar	teg erer			
teg ēbās	teg erēs	teg ēbāris (-re)	tegerēris (-re)			
teg ēbat	teg eret	teg ēbātur	tegerētur			
teg ēbāmus	tegerēmus	teg ēbāmur	tegerēmur			
teg ēbātis	tegerētis	teg ēbāminī	tegerēminī			
teg ēbant	tegerent	tegēbantur	tegerentur			

ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.			
Indic.	Subj. Fut	Indic.	Subj.		
tegam		tegar			
teg ēs		tegēris (-re)			
teget		teg ētur			
teg ēmus		tegēmur			
teg ētis		teg ēmin ī			
tegent		teg entur			
J		fect.			
tēx ī	tēx erim	tēctus sum	tēctus sim		
tēx istī	tēx eris	tēctus es	tēctus sīs		
tēxit	tēx erit	tēctus est	tēctus sit		
tēx imus	tēxerimus	tēctī sumus	tēctī sīmus		
tēx istis	tēx eritis	tēctī estis	tēctī sītis		
tēx ērunt (-re)	tēx erint	tēctī sunt	tēctī sint		
•	Plupe	erfect.			
tēx eram	tēx issem	tēctus eram	tēctus essem		
tēx erās	tē xissēs	tēctus erās	tēctus essēs		
tēx erat	tē xisset	tēctus erat	tēctus esset		
tēx erāmus	tēx issēmus	tēctī erāmus	tēctī essēmus		
tēx erātis	tē xissētis	tēctī erātis	tēctī essētis		
tēx erant	tē xissent	tēctī erant	tëctī essent		
	Future	Perfect.			
tēx erō		tēctus erō			
tēx eris		tēctus eris			
tēx erit		tēctus erit			
tēxerimu s		tēctī erimus			
tēx eritis		tēctī eritis			
tēx erint		tēctī erunt			
	Imper.	ATIVE.			
SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.		
Pres. 2. tege, cover	: teg ite	teg ere	tegi minī		
Fut. 2. tegito	tegitōte	tegitor			
3. teg itō	teg untō	teg itor	teguntor		
	Infin	ITIVE.			
Pres. tegere		teg ī			
Perf. tēxisse		tēc tus esse			
Fut. tēctūru	s esse	tēc tum īrī (tēc tus fore)		
Participles.					
Pres. tegēns	1	Perf. tēctus			
Fut. tēctūru	В	Ger. tegendus (-undus)			
GERUND: tegendī, -dō, -dum, -dō Supine: tēctum, téctū					

Verbs in -io.

Verbs of the third conjugation in -iō have certain forms of the present stem like the fourth conjugation. They retain the i of the stem before a, ō, u, and ē, but lose it elsewhere except in the future and in the participle and gerund. Verbs of this class are conjugated as follows:—

Principal Parts: capiō, capĕre, cēpī, captum; capior, capī, captus sum.

ACT	IVE.	PASSIVE.					
Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.				
Present.							
capiō, I take.	capiam	capior	capiar				
cap is , you take.	-	cap eris (-re)	capi āris (-re)				
capit, he takes.	cap iat	capitur	cap iātur				
cap imus	cap iāmus	cap imur	cap iāmur				
cap itis	cap iātis	cap iminī	cap iāminī				
cap iunt	capiant	cap iuntur	cap iantur				
	Imperfect.						
cap iēbam	caperem	cap iēbar	caperer				
_	Fut						
cap iam		cap iar					
cap iēs		cap iēris (-re)					
cap iet , etc.		cap iētur, etc.					
	Per	fect.					
cēp ī	c ēp erim	captus sum	captus sim				
	Plupe	-					
cēp eram	c ēp issem	captus eram	captus essem				
	Future	Perfect.					
cēp erō	!	captus erō					
	Imper	ATIVE.					
SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.				
Pres. 2. cape	cap ite	capere	cap iminī				
Fut. 2. capitō	cap itōte	cap itor					
3. cap itō	cap iunto	cap itor	capiuntor				
Infinitive.							
Pres. capere		cap ī					
Perf. cēpisse		captus esse					
Fut. captūru	ls esse	cap tum īrī					
Participles.							
<i>Pres.</i> capi ēns		Perf. captus					
Fut. captūru	lB	Ger. capiendus					
GERUND: capiendī, -dō, -dum, -dō SUPINE: captum, -tū							

Note.—Verbs of the third conjugation ending in -iō are the following: capiō, cupiō, faciō, fodiō, fugiō, iaciō, pariō, quatiō, rapiō, sapiō, with compounds of -cutiō, -liciō, -spiciō. For their Principal Parts, see the lists in § 132.

- 132. The following lists include most simple verbs of the third conjugation, classed according to the formation of the perfect stem.
 - a. Forming the perfect stem in s(x) (§ 124. b and note):—

angō, anxī, anct-, choke. carpō, carpsī, carpt-, pluck. cēdō, cēssī, cēss-, yield. cingo, cinxī, cinct-, bind. clango, clanxi, sound. claudo, clausī, claus-, shut. clepō, clepsī, clept-, steal. como, compsi, compt-, comb, deck. coquō, coxī, coct-, cook. -cutio, -cussi, -cuss-, shake. dēmō, dēmpsī, dēmpt-, take away. dīcō, dīxī, dict-, say. dīvidō, dīvīsī, dīvīs-, divide. dūcō, dūxī, dūct-, guide. fīgō, fīxī, fīx-, fix. fingo [FIG], finxi, fict-, fashion. flecto, flexi, flex-, bend. fluo, flūxī, flūx-, flow. frendō, -frēsī, fress-, gnash. frīgō, frīxī, frīct- (frīx-), fry. gerő, gessi, gest-, carry. laedō, laesī, laes-, hurt. -licio, -lexi, -lect-, entice (elicui, -licit-). lingō, linxī, linct-, *lick*. lūdo, lūsī, lūs-, play. mergō, mērsī, mērs-, plunge. mīttō, mīsī, mīss-, send. necto [NEC], nexi (nexui), nex-, t. weave. nūbō, nūpsi, nūpt-, marry. pecto, pexi (pexui), pex-, comb.

pērgō, perrēxi, perrēct-, go on. pingo [PIG], pinxi, pict-, paint. plaudo, plausi, plaus-, applaud. plecto, plexī (-xuī), plex-, braid. premō, pressī, press-, press. promo, -mpsī, -mpt-, bring out. quatio, (-cussi), quass-, shake. rādō, rāsī, rās-, scrape. regō, rēxī, rēct-, rule. rēpō, rēpsī, rēpt-, creep. rōdō, rōsī, rōs-, gnaw. sarpō, sarpsī, sarpt-, prune. scalpō, scalpsī, scalpt-, scrape. scrībō, scrīpsī, scrīpt-, write. serpō, serpsī, serpt-, crawl. spargō, spārsī, spārs-, scatter. -spicio, -spexī, -spect-, view. -stinguō, -stinxī, -stinct-, quench. stringō, strinxī, strict-, bind. struō, strūxi, strūct-, build. sūmō, sümpsi, sümpt-, take. sūrgō, surrēxī, surrēct-, rise. tegő, tēxī, tēct-, shelter. temnő, tempsi, -tempt-, despise. tergō, tērsī, tērs-, wipe. tingō, tīnxī, tīnct-, stain. trahō, trāxī, trāct-, drag. trūdō, trūsī, trūs-, thrust. ūrō, ūssi, ūst-, burn. vādō, -vāsī, -vās-, *go*. vehō, vēxī, vect-, draw. vīvō, vīxī, vīct-, live.

b. Reduplicated in the perfect (§ 124. c):—

cadō, cecidī, cās-, fall. caedo, cecidi, caes-, cut. cano, cecini, cant-, sing. curro, cucurri, curs-, run. dīscō [DIC]. didicī, (dīscitūrus), learn. -dō, -didī, -dit- (as in ab-dō, etc., with crēdo, vēndo), put [DHA]. fallo, fefelli, fals-, deceive. pangō [PAG], pēgī (pepigī), pāct-, fasten, fix, bargain. parco, parsī, pepercī, parcit-(pars-), spare.

c. Adding \mathbf{u} (\mathbf{v}) to the verb-root (§ 124. a):—

alo, aluī, alt- (alit-), nourish. cernō, -crēvī, -crēt-, decree. colō, coluī, cult-, dwell, till. compēsco, compēscuī, restrain. consulo, -lui, consult-, consult. crēscō, crēvī, crēt-, increase. -cumbo [CUB], cubul, cubit-, lie down. depső, depsul, depst-, knead. excellō, -celluī, -cels-, excel. fremö, fremuī, fremit-, roar. furo, furui, rage. gemō, gemuī, gemit-, groan. gīgnō [GEN], genuī, genit-, beget. metō, messuī, mess-, reap. molō, moluī, molit-, grind. occulō, occuluī, occult-, hide.

d. Adding Iv to the verb-root (cf. § 124. f): arcesso, -Ivi, arcessit-, summon. capessō, capessīvī, undertake. cupiō, cupīvī, cupīt-, desire. incessõ, incessīvī, attack. lacessō, lacessīvī, lacessīt-, pro- | terō, trīvī, trīt-, rub. voke.

pario, peperi, part- (pariturus), bring forth. pello, pepulī, puls-, drive. pendő, pependĭ, pēns-, weigh. posco, poposci, (posciturus), demand. pungo [PUG], pupugi, punct-, prick. sisto [STA], stitl, stat-, stop. tango [TAG], tetigī, tāct-, touch. tendo [TEN], tetendo (-tendo), tēns- (cent-), stretch. tundo [TUD], tutudī, tūns- (-tūs-),

pāscō, pāvī, pāst-, feed. percellō, -culī, -culs-, upset. pono [POS], posuī, posit-, put. quiēscō, quiēvī, quiēt-, rest. rapiō, rapuī, rapt-, seize. scīscō, scīvī, scīt-, decree. serō, sēvī, sat-, sow. sero, serui, sert-, entwine. sino, sīvī, sit-, permit. spernő, sprēvī, sprēt-, scorn. sternő, strävī, strät-, strew. stertō, stertuī (stertī), snore. strepō, strepuī, strepit-, sound. -suēscō, -suēvī, -suēt-, be wont. texo, texuī, text-, weave. tremō, tremuī, tremble. vomō, vomuī, vomit-, vomit.

petō, petīvi, petīt-, seek. quaerō, quaesīvī, quaesīt-, seek rudō, rudīvī, rudīt-, bray. sapiō, sapīvī (sapuī), be wise.

e. Lengthening the vowel of the root (cf. § 124. d):-

agō, ēgī, āct-, drive.
capiō, cēpī, capt-, take.
edō, ēdī, ēsum, eat (see § 140).
emō, ēmī, empt-, buy.
faciō, fēcī, fact-, make (see § 142).
fodiō, fōdī, fōss-, dig.
frangō [FRAG], frēgī, frāct-, break.
fugiō, fūgī, fugit-, flee.
fundō [FUD], fūdī, fūs-, pour.
iaciō, iēcī, iact-, throw, (-ieiō, -iect-).

lavō, lāvī, lōt- (laut-), wash (also reg. of 1st conj.).
legō,¹ lēgī, lēct-, gather.
linō [Li], lēvī (līvī), lit-, smear.
linquō [Lic], -līquī, -lict-, leave.
nōscō [GNO], nōvī, nōt- (cō-gnit-, ad-gnit-), know.
rumpō [RUP], rūpī, rupt-, burstscabō, scābī, scratch.
vincō [Vic], vīcī, vict-, conquer.

f. Retaining the present stem or verb-root (cf. § 124. e):-

arguō, -uī, -ūtum, accuse. bibō, bibī, bibit-, drink. -cendo, -cendo, -cens-, kindle. cūdō, -cūdī-, -cūs-, forge. facessō, facessī, facessīt-, execute. -fendō, -fendī, -fēns-, ward off. findo [FID], fidī,2 fīss-, split. īcō, īcī, īct-, *hit*. lambō, lambī, lambit-, *laþ*. luō, luī, luit-, wash. mandō, mandī, māns-, chew. nuō, nuĭ, nuit-, nod. pandō, pandī, pāns-(pass-), open.

pīnsō, -sī, pīns- (pīnst-, pīst-), bruise.

prehendō, -dī, prehēns-, seize.

ruō, ruī, rut- (ruit-), fall.

scandō, scandī, scāns-, climb.

scindō [SCID], scidī,² scīss-,
tear.

sīdō, sīdī (sēdī), -sēss-, settle.

solvō, solvī, solūt-, loose, pay.

strīdō, strīdī, whiz.

vellō, vellī (vulsī), vuls-, pluck.

verrō, verrī, vers-, sweep.

vertō, vertī, vers-, turn.

vīsō [VID], vīsī, vīs-, visit.

volvō, volvī, volūt-, turn.

NOTE. - The following have no perfect or supine: -

claudō, limp. fatīsoō, gape. fulgō, flash. glīscō, swell. glūbō, peel. hīscō, yawn.
rabō, rave.
tollō (sustulī, sublātum supplied from sufferō), raise.
vergō, incline.

 $^{^1\,\}text{The following compounds of lego have -lexi: diligo, intellego, neglego.$

² In these the perfect stem is the same as the verb-root, having lost the reduplication (§ 124. c. note).

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: Active, audio, audire, audivi, auditum;

Passive, audior, audiri, auditus sum.

ACTIVE. PASSIVE.		IVE.	
Indic.	Subj.	INDIC.	Subj.
	audiam Pres	ent. audior	
audiō, I hear.	audiās		audiar
aud īs , <i>you hear</i> . audit, <i>he hears</i> .	audiat	audīris (-re) audītur	audi āris (-re) audi ātur
•			
aud īmus	audi āmus	audīmur	aud iāmur
aud ītis	audi ātis audi an t	audimini audiuntur	audi āminī audi antur
audiunt			audiantur
aud iēbam	aud irem	aud iēbar	audīrer
audiēbās	audīrēs	audiēbāris (-re)	audīrēris (-re)
aud iēbat	audiret	aud iēbātur	aud īrētur
aud iēbāmus	aud īrēmus	audi ēbām ur	aud īrēmur
aud iēbātis	aud īrētis	aud iēbāminī	aud īrēminī
aud iēbant	audirent	aud iēbantur	aud Irentur
	Fut	ure.	
aud iam		aud iar	
aud iēs		aud iēris (-re)	
aud iet		aud iētur	
aud iēmus		audi ēmur	
aud iētis		aud iēminī	
aud ient		aud ientur	
	Per		•
audıv ī	audīverim	audītus sum	audītus sim
audīv istī	audīveris	audītus es	audītus sīs
audīvit	audīverit	audītus est	audītus sit
audīvi mus	audīverimus	audītī sumus	audītī sīmus
audīv istis	audīve ritis	audītī estis	audītī s ītis
audīv ērunt (-re)		audīt ī sunt	audītī sint
audīv eram	Plup audīv issem	perfect. audītus eram	audītus essem
audīv erās	audīvissēm audīvissēs	audītus erām	audītus essēs
audīv erat	audīvisset	audītus erat	audītus esset
audīv erāmus	audīvissēmus	audītī erāmus	audītī essēmus
audīv erāmus audī verātis	audīvissētis	audītī erāmus audītī erātis	audītī essētis
audiveracts audiverant	audīvisseus audīvissent	audītī eratīs	audītī essetis
audiverant	audi ATODOTT 6	auditi Ciant	auulli Caaciil

3 100.]	1 our in	conjugution.	10	
AC'	TIVE.	P	ASSIVE.	
INDIC.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.	
	Futu	re Perfect.	·	
audīver ō		audītus erō		
audīv eris		audītus eris		
audīverit		audītus erit		
audīv erimus		audītī erimu audītī eritis audītī erunt	s	
audīv eritis		audītī eritis		
audīv erint		audītī erunt		
	Імр	ERATIVE.		
SING.	PLUR.	sing.	PLUR.	
Pres. 2. audī	aud īte	aud īre	aud īminī	
Fut. 2. audītō	aud ītōte	aud īto r		
3. aud ītō	aud iuntō	aud ītor	aud iuntor	
	Ini	INITIVE.		
Pres. audīre		audīrī		
Perf. audīvisse		audītus	aud ītus esse	
Fut. audītūrus esse			īrī (audītus fore)	
	PAD	TICIPLES.	,	
Dese sudiān		.TICIFLES.	IIIa	

Pres. audi**ēns** Fut. audītūrus Perf. audītus Ger. audiendus

GERUND. audiendī, -dō, -dum, -dō

SUPINE. audītum, audītū

133. There are - besides a few deponents and some regular derivatives in -ŭriō, as ēsuriō, be hungry (cf. § 167. e) — about 60 verbs of this conjugation, a large proportion of them being descriptive verbs: like —

crōciō, *croak*. ganniō, *yelþ*. hirriö, snarl. scatūrio, gush. cūcūriō, crow. glūtiō, gulp. mūgiō, bellow. tinniō, tinkle. ēbulliō, bubble. grunniō, grunt. muttio, mutter. tussio, cough. fritinnio, twitter. hinnio, neigh. singultio, hiccup. vagio, cry.

Those verbs not conjugated regularly like audio, are the following:

amiciō, amixī (-cuī), amict-, fulciō, fulsī, fult-, prop. clothe. aperio, aperui, apert-, open. comperio, -peri, compert-, find. farcio, farsī, farct- (-tum), stuff. ferio, strike (no perfect or supine). reperio, repperi, repert-, find.

hauriō, hausī, haust- (haus-), drain. operiō, operuī, opert-, cover. rauciō, rausī, raus-, be hoarse.

saepiō, saepsī, saept-, hedge in.
saliō (-siliō), saluī (saliī), salt(-sult-), leap.
sanciō [SAC], sanxī, sanot-, sanc-

tion.

sarciō, sarsī, sart-, patch.

sarriō, -īvī (-uī), -ītum, hoe. sentiō, sēnsī, sēns-, feel. sepeliō, sepelīvī, sepult-, bury. singultiō, -īvī, singultum, sob. veniō, vēnī, vent-, come. vinciō, vinxī, vinct-, bind.

The following are regular in the perfect, but have no supine stem:—caecūtiō, be purblind. gestiō, be overjoyed.

dēmentio, *be mad.*ferocio *be fierce*.

gestiō, be overjoyed. glōciō, cluck (as a hen). ineptiō, play the trifler.

Parallel Forms.

134. Many verbs have more than one set of forms, of which only one is generally found in classic use: as,—

lavő, laväre or lavěre, wash (see § 132. e). scateő, scatěre or scatěre, gush forth. lüdificő, -äre or lüdificor, -ärī, mock. fulgő, fulgěre or fulgeð, fulgěre, shine.

DEPONENT VERBS.

135. Deponent Verbs have the form of the Passive Voice, with an active or reflexive signification: as,—

Ist conj. mīror, mīrārī, mīrātus, admire. 2d conj. vereor, verērī, veritus, fear. 3d conj. sequor, sequī, secūtus, follow. 4th conj. partior, partīrī, partītus, share.

INDICATIVE.

Pres.	I. mīror mīrāris (-re) mīrātur	II. vereor verēris (-re) verētur	III. sequor sequeris (-re) sequitur	iv. partior partiris (-re) partitur
	mīrāmur mīrāminī mīrantur	ver ēmur ver ēminī ver entur	sequimur sequimin ī sequuntur	part īmur part īminī part iuntur
Fut. Perf. Plup.	mīrābar mīrābor mīrātus sum mīrātus eram mīrātus erō	verēbar verēbor veritus sum veritus eram veritus erō	sequ ēbar sequ ar sec ūtus sum sec ūtus eram sec ūtus erō	partiēbar partiar partītus sum partītus eram partītus erō

SUBJUNCTIVE.

I.	II.	III.	IV.
Pres. mirer	verear	sequ ar	partiar
Impf. mīrārer	ver ē r er	sequerer	part īrer
Perf. mīrātus sim	veritus sim	sec ūtus sim	part ītus sim
Plup. mīrātus essem	veritus essem	secūtus essem	partītus essem

IMPERATIVE.

mīrāre, -ātor, etc. verēre, -ētor sequere, -itor partīre, -ītor

INFINITIVE.

Pres.	mîr ārī	ver ērī	sequi	part iri
Perf.	mīr ātus esse	veritus esse	sec ūtus esse	part itus esse
Fut.	mīr ātūrus esse	verit ūrus esse	sec ūturus esse	partīturus esse

PARTICIPLES.

Pres.	mīr āns	ver ëns	sequ ēns	partiēns
Fut.	mīr ātūrus	ver itūrus	sec ūtūrus	part ītūrus
Perf.	mīr ātus	veritus	sec ūtus	part ītus
Ger.	mīr andus	verendus	sequ endus	part iendus

GERUND.

mīrandī, -ō, etc. verendī, etc. sequendī, etc. partiendī, etc. Supine.

mīrātum, -tū veritum, -tū secūtum, -tū partītum, -tū

- a. Deponents have the participles of both voices: as,—
 sequēns, following.
 secūtūrus, about to follow.
 secūtus, having followed.
 sequendus, to-be-followed.
- b. The perfect participle generally has an active sense, but in verbs otherwise deponent it is often passive: as, mercātus, bought; adeptus, gained (or having gained).
- c. The future infinitive is always in the active form: thus, sequor has secuturus esse (not secutum IrI).
- d. The gerundive, being passive in meaning, is found only in transitive verbs, or neuter verbs used impersonally: as,—

hõo confitendum est, this must be acknowledged. moriendum est omnibus, all must die.

- e. Most deponents are neuter or reflexive in meaning, corresponding to what in Greek is called the Middle Voice (§ 111. a).
- f. Some deponents are occasionally used in a passive sense: as, criminor, I accuse, or I am accused.
- g. About twenty verbs are, with an active meaning, found in both active and passive forms: as, mereō or mereor, I deserve.

h. More than half of all deponents are of the First Conjugation, and all of these are regular. The following deponents are irregular: adsentior, -Irī, adsēnsus, assent. nāscor, -ī, nātus, be born. apiscor, (-ip-), -I, aptus (-eptus), nītor, -ī, nīsus (nīxus), strive. oblīviscor, -ī, oblītus, forget. get. dēfetiscor, -I, -fessus, faint. opperior, -IrI, oppertus, await. expērgiscor, -ī, perrēctus, rouse. ördior, -Iri, örsus, begin. orior (3d), -īrī, ortus, (oritūrus), experior, -Irī, expertus, try. fateor, -ērī, fassus, confess. rise. fatiscor, -I, gape. paciscor, -I, pactus, bargain. fruor, -I, fructus (fruitus), enjoy. patior (-petior), -I, passus (-pesfungor, -ī, functus, fulfil. sus), suffer. gradior (-gredior),-I, gressus, step. -plector, -I, -plexus, clasp. īrāscor, -ī, īrātus, be angry. proficiscor, -I, profectus, set-out. lābor, -ī, lāpsus, fall. queror, -I, questus, complain. loquor, -I, loctitus (loquutus), reor, rērī, ratus, think. revertor, -I, reversus, return. -miniscor, -I, -mentus, think. ringor, -I, rictus, snarl. sequor, -I, secūtus (sequūtus). mētior, -īrī, mēnsus, measure. morior, -I (-IrI), mortuus (morifollow. tueor, -ērī, tuitus (tutus), defend. nanciscor, -I, nactus (nanctus), ulciscor, -I, ultus, avenge. find. ūtor, -ī, ūsus, use, employ.

NOTE. - The deponent comperior, -Irl, compertus, is rarely found for comperio. Revertor, until the time of Augustus, had regularly the active forms in the perfect system, reverti, reverteram, etc.

i. The following deponents have no supine stem: devertor, -tī, turn aside (to lodge). | medeor, -ērī, heal. diffiteor, -ērī, deny. liquor, -I, melt (neut.).

reminiscor, -I, call to mind. vescor, -I, feed upon.

NOTE. - Deponents are only passive (or middle) verbs whose active has disappeared. There is hardly one that does not show at some period of the language signs of being used in the active.

Semi-Deponents.

136. A few verbs having no perfect stem are regular in the present, but appear in the tenses of completed action as deponents. These are called semi-deponents or neuter They are: passives.

audeō, audēre, ausus, dare. gaudeō, gaudēre, gāvīsus, rejoice. soleō, solēre, solitus, be wont. fidő, fiděre, fisus, trust.

- a. From audeo there is an old subjunctive perfect ausim. The form sodes (for si audes), an thou wilt, is frequent in the dramatists and rare elsewhere.
- b. The active forms vāpulō, vāpulāre, be flogged, and vēneō, vēnīre, be sold (contracted from vēnum īre, go to sale), have a passive meaning, and are sometimes called neutral passives. To these may be added fierī, to be made (see § 142), and exsulāre, to be banished (live in exile).

Note.—The following verbs are sometimes found as semi-deponents: iūrō, iūrāre, iūrātus, swear; nūbō, nūbere, nūpta, marry; placeō, placēre, placitus, please.

[For the regular Derivative Forms of Verbs, see § 167.]

IRREGULAR VERBS.

137. Several verbs add some of the personal endings of the present system directly to the root, or combine two verbs in their inflection. These are called Irregular Verbs (cf. p. 86). They are sum, volō, ferō, edō, queō, eō, fīō, and their compounds.

Sum has already been inflected in § 119.

* a. Sum is compounded without any change of inflection with the prepositions ab, ad, dē, in, inter, ob, prae, prō (prōd), sub, super.

In the compound prosum, pro retains its original d before e. Thus, —

INDIC. Subi. Pres. prosum, I help. prōsim prodes prosis prodest prosit prosumus prosimus prödestis prosītis prosunt prosint Imp. proderam, I was helping. prödessem prodero, I shall help. Fut. Perf. profui, I helped. pröfuerim

F. P. profuero, I shall have helped.

Plupf. profueram, I had helped.

IMPER. prodesto, etc.

Infin. Pres. prodesse Perf. profuisse Fut. profuturus esse

pröfuissem

PART. profinturus, about to help.

b. Sum is also compounded with the adjective potis, or pote, able, making the verb possum. This is inflected as follows: -

> INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE. Pres. possum, I can. possim potes, you can. possīs potest, he can. possit possumus, we can. possimus possītis potestis, you can. possunt, they can. possint Imb. poteram, I could. possem potero. I shall be able. Fut. Perf. potul, I could. potuerim Plupf. potueram potuissem

F. P. potuero, I shall have been able.

Infin. Pres. posse Perf. potuisse PART. potēns (adj.), powerful.

NOTE. - The forms potis sum, pote sum, etc., occur in early writers. Other early forms are potesse; possiem, -es, -et; poterint, potisit (for possit); potestur (with pass. inf. cf. § 143. a).

138. Volo and its compounds are inflected as follows: —

volo, velle, voluī, wish.

voluerō

nolo (for ne volo), nolle, nolui, be unwilling.

mālō (for magis or mage volō), mālle, māluī, wish rather, prefer.

Present. INDIC. Subi. INDIC. SUBJ. INDIC. Subi. volö velim nőlő nölim mālō mälim nõlīs māvīs mālīs vīs velīs nonvīs volt(vult) velit nonvolt nolit māvolt mālit nõlumus nõlīmus volumus velīmus mālumus mālīmus voltis(vul-) velītis nonvultis nolītis māvultis mālītis mālint volunt velint nõlunt nölint mālunt Imperfect. volēbam vellem mālēbam māllem nölēbam nöllem Future. ทดีใลฑ volam mālam volēs, etc. nölēs, etc. mālēs, etc. Perfect. voluī voluerim nõluI nöluerim māluī māluerim Pluperfect. volueram voluissem nõlueram nõluissem mälueram mäluissem

Future Perfect.

māluerō

nöluerö

IMPERATIVE.

Pres.

nölī

nölīte, do not.

Fut.

nõlītõ

nölītöte, thou shalt not, ye shall not.

nölītö

Infinitive.

velle voluisse nõlle

nõluisse mälle

māluisse

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. volēns, willing.

nolens, unwilling.

GERUND.

volendī (late)

Note. — The forms sis for si vis, sültis for si voltis, and the forms në volō, nëvis (në-vis), mage volō, māvolō, etc., occur in early writers.

139. Ferő, ferre, tŭlī, lātum, bear.

	ACTI	VE.	PAS	SIVE.
	INDIC.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.
Pres.	ferō	feram	feror	ferar
	fers	ferās	ferris	ferāris (-re)
	fert	ferat	fertur	ferātur
	ferimus	ferāmus	ferimur	ferāmur
	fertis	ferātis	feriminī	ferāmin ī
	ferunt	ferant	feruntur	ferantur
Impf.	ferēbam	ferrem	ferēbar	ferrer
Fut.	feram		ferar	
Perf.	tălī	tulerim	lātus sum	lātus sim
Plup.	tuleram	tulissem	lātus eram	lātus essem
F. P.	tulerō		lātus erō	

IMPERATIVE.

Pres.	fer	ferte	ferre	ferimin ī
Fut.	fertő	fertöte	fertor	
	fertō	feruntō	fertor	feruntor

INFINITIVE.

Pres. ferre ferrī
Perf. tulisse lātus esse

Fut. lātūrus esse lātum īrī (lātus fore)

rut. laturus esse

PARTICIPLES.

Pres.ferensPerf.lätusFut.lätūrusGer.ferendus

GERUND: ferendī, -dō, -dum, -dō Supine: lātum, -tū

¹ The perfect tuli is for tetuli (which sometimes occurs), from TUL, root of tollo; the supine latum is for †tlatum (cf. $\tau \lambda \eta \tau \delta s$).

140. Edő, edere, edf, esum, eat, is regular of the third conjugation, but has also some forms directly from the root (ED) without the characteristic vowel. These are in full-faced type.

ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.		
Indic.	Su BJ.	INDIC.	Subj.	
•-	Pres		•	
edō	edam (edim)	edor	edar	
edis (ēs)	edās (edīs)	ederis (-re)		
edit (ēst)	edat (edit)	editur (ēst ur)		
edimus	edāmus (edīmus)	edimur		
	edātis (edītis)		edāminī	
edunt	edant (edint)	eduntur	edantur	
	Impe			
edēbam	ederem (ëssem)		eder er	
edēbās	ederes (ēssēs)	edēbāris (-re)	ederēris (-re)	
edēbat	ederet (ësset)	edē bātu r	ederētur (ēssētur)	
	Fut	ure.		
edam	l	eda r		
edēs		edēris		
edet, <i>etc</i> .	i	edētur, <i>etc</i> .		
	Per	fect.		
ēdī	ēderim (ēsu s su m	ēsus sim	
	Plupe	erfect.		
ēderam	ēdissem [ēsus eram	ēsus essem	
	Future	Perfect.		
ēderō	1	ēsus erō		
	IMPERA	ATIVE.		
ede (ēs)	edite (ēste)	eder e	ediminī	
editō (ēstō)	editote (estote)	editor		
editō (ēstō)	eduntō	editor	eduntor	
	Infin	ITIVE.		
edere (ësse)	I	edī		
ēdisse		ēsus ess e		
ēsūrus esse		ēsum īrī		
	Partic	CIPLES.	_	
Pres.	edēns	Perf. ēsus		
Fut. 8	sūrus	Ger. eder	nd us	
	GERUND.	St	PINE.	
e dend	ī, -dō, -dum, -d ō		m, -sū	
	, -,,	322		

141. Eō, īre, īvī, ĭtum, go.1

INDICATIVE.

Pres. S. eō, Is, it

P. Imus, Itis, eunt

Imperf. Ibam, Ibās, Ibat

Ibāmus, Ibātis, Ibant

Future.

Ibō, Ibis, Ibit

Ibimus, Ibitis, Ibunt

Perfect.

IVI (iI)

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Subjunctive.

eam, eās, eat

eāmus, eātis, eant

Irem, Irēs, īret

Irēmus, Irētis, Irent

Iverim (ierim)

Pluperf. Iveram (ieram)

Iverim (ierim)
Ivissem (Issem)

Fut. Perf. Ivero (iero)

IMPERATIVE.

I, Ite, Itō, Itō, Itōte, euntō

INFINITIVE.

Pres. fre Perf. Ivisse (Isse) Fut. ituus esse

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. iens, euntis Fut. iturus

Ger. eundum

GERUND: eundī, -dō, -dum, -dō

SUPINE: itum, itū

a. The compounds adeo, approach, ineo, enter, and some others, are transitive. They are inflected as follows in the passive:—

INDIC.

Pres. adeor

adiris

Fut. adibor

aditur

perf. aditus sum

adimur

Plup. aditus eram

adimini

F. P. aditus ero

Inpf. adiri.

Perf. aditus sim

Plup. aditus essem

adimini

F. P. aditus ero

INFIN. adiri. aditus esse

adeuntur PART. aditus adeundus

Thus inflected, the forms of eō are used impersonally in the third person singular of the passive: as, itum est (§ 146. d). The infinitive IrI is used with the supine in -um to make the future infinitive passive (§ 147. c. 1). The verb vēneō, be sold (i.e. vēnum eō, go to sale), has also several forms in the passive.

b. In the perfect system of eo, the forms without v are more common, at and in the compounds are regular: 28, adif, adicram, adiase (adisse).

c. The compound ambio is inflected regularly like a verb of the fourth conjugation. But it has also ambibat in the imperfect indicative.

d. Pro with eo retains its original d: as, prodeo, prodis, prodit.

¹ Root I, cf. elm; the e stands for ei, lengthened form of the root I.

142. Facio, facere, feci, factum, make, is regular. But it has imperative fac in the active, and besides the regular forms the future perfect faxo, perfect subjunctive faxim. The passive of facio is — ارد، ۲ که رای راه

fio. fieri, factus sum. be made. or become.

The tenses of the first stem of fio are regular of the fourth conjugation, but the subjunctive imperfect is fierem, and the infinitive fierī.

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE. Pres. S. fio. fis. fit fīam, fīās, fīat P. fīmus, fītis, fīunt flāmus, flātis, flant Imperf. fiebam, fiebas, etc. fierem, fieres, etc. Future. flam, fles, etc. Perfect. factus sum factus sim Pluperf. factus eram factus essem Fut. Perf. factus ero

IMPER. fī, fīte, fītō, fītōte, fīuntō

Perf. factus esse Fut. factum īrī INFIN. Pres. fierī

Ger. faciendus PART. Perf. factus

a. Most compounds of facio with prepositions change a to I (present stem), or & (supine stem), and are inflected regularly: as, -

> conficio, conficere, confeci, confectum, finish. conficior, confici, confectus.

- b. Other compounds retain a, and have -f10 in the passive: as, benefacio, -facere, -feci, -factum; pass. benefio, -fieri, -factus. benefit. These retain the accent of the simple verb: as, bene-fă'cis (§ 19. d). because in the reterm is
 - c. A few isolated forms of -fio occur in other compounds: viz., -

confit, it happens. dēfit, it lacks. Infit, he begins (to speak). confiet deffunt Influnt confiat dēfīet effierī, to be effected. interfier, to perish. confieret dēfīat dēfierī interfiat, let him perish. confieri

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

143. Some verbs have lost their Present stem, and use only tenses of the Perfect, in which they are inflected regularly. These are —

a. Coept, 1 began; Infin. coepisse; Fut. Part. coepturus; Perf. Pass. Part. coeptus.

The passive is used with the passive infinitive: as, coeptus sum vocārī, *I began to be called*, but coepī vocāre, *I began to call* (cf. § 144. g, note). For the present incipiō is used.

- b. Odī, I hate; 2 perfect participle osus, hating or hated (perosus, utterly hateful), future participle osurus, likely to hate.
- c. Meminī, I remember; * with the Imperative mementō, mementōte; Part. meminēns.

NOTE.—Ōdī and meminī have a perfect form with a present meaning, and are called preteritive verbs. Novī and consuēvī (usually referred to nosco and consuēsco) are often used in the sense of I know (have learned), and I am accustomed (have become accustomed), as preteritive verbs. Many other verbs are occasionally used in the same way (see § 279. Remark).

144. Many verbs are found only in the present system. Such are maereō, -ēre, be sorrowful (cf. maestus, sad); feriō, -īre, strike.

In many the simple verb is incomplete, but the missing parts occur in its compounds: as, vādō, vādere, invāsī, invāsum.

Some verbs occur very commonly, but only in a few forms: as,—

a. Aiō, I say: —

Indic. Pres. āiō, ais, ait; — — āiunt

Impf. āiēbam (aībam), āiēbās, etc.

Subj. Pres. āiās, āiat, āiant

IMPER. aī

Part. äiens

b. Inquam, I say (used only, except in poetry, in direct quotations, like the English quoth, which is possibly from the same root):—

INDIC. Pres. inquam, inquis, inquit

inquimus, inquitis (late), inquiunt

Impf. inquiebat

Fut. inquies, -et

Perf. inquisti, inquit

IMPER. inque, inquito

c. The deponent fari, to speak, forms the perfect tenses regularly: as, fatus sum, eram, etc. It has also—

INDIC. Pres. fatur, fantur

Fut. fābor, fābitur

IMPER. färe

Infin. **fārī**

¹ Root AP (as in apiscor) with co(n-). 2 Root OD, as in odium.

³ Root MEN, as in mens.

PART. Pres. (dat.) fantī

Perf. fatus, having spoken. Ger. fandus, to be spoken of.

GER. fandī, -dō

Sup. fātū

Several forms compounded with the prepositions ex, prae, prō, inter, occur: as, praefātur, affārī, pröfātus, interfātur, etc. The compound īnfāns is regularly used as a noun (child). Īnfandus, nefandus, are used as adjectives, unspeakable, abominable.

d. Quaeso, I ask, beg (original form of quaero, § 132. d), has —

Indic. Pres. quaeso, quaesumus

Infin. quaesere
Part. quaesens

e. Ovare, to triumph, has the following: --

Indic. Pres. ovat

Subj. Pres. ovet
Imperf. ovaret

PART. ovāns, ovātūrus, ovātus

GER. ovandī

f. A few verbs are found chiefly in the Imperative: as, -

Pres. sing. salvē, plur. salvēte, hail! (from salvus, safe and sound). An infin. salvēre also occurs.

Pres. sing. avē (or havē), plur. avēte, Fut. avētō, hail or farewell.

Pres. sing. cedo, plur. cedite (cette), give, tell.

Pres. sing. apage! begone! (properly a Greek word).

g. Queō, I can, nequeō, I cannot, are conjugated like eō. They are rarely used except in the present.

Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.
	· ·	Present.	•
queō	queam	nequeō (nōn qu	ıeō) nequeam
quīs	queās	nonquis	nequeās
quit	queat	nequit	nequeat
quīmus	queāmus	nequīmus	nequeāmus
quītis	que ātis	nequ ītis	nequeātis
queunt	queant	nequeunt	nequeant
	11	nperfect.	
quIbam	quirem	nequībam	nequirem
quībat	quīret	nequIbat	nequiret
quībant	quirent	nequībant	nequirent

INDIC.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.
INDIC.	оовј.		30BJ.
		Future.	
quībō			
quibunt		nequ ibunt	
		Perfect.	
quīvī		nequīvī	
		nequīvistī	
quīvit	quīverit	nequ īv it	
quīvērunt		nequīvērunt	
	P	luperfect.	
	quīssent		nequīsset
	In	FINITIVE.	
quīre	quīvisse (qui	isse) nequire	nequ īv isse
	Pa	RTICIPLES.	
aniāna an	omntia.	neaniana	

quiëns, queuntis nequiëns

Note.—A few passive forms are used by old writers with

Note.—A few passive forms are used by old writers with passive infinitives: as, quitur, quitus, queatur, queantur, nequitur, nequitum; cf. possum and coepi (§§ 137. note and 143. a).

Impersonal Verbs.

145. Many verbs, from their meaning, appear only in the *third person singular*, the *infinitive*, and the *gerund*. These are called Impersonal Verbs, as having no personal subject.¹ Their synopsis may be given as follows:—

-	• -	-	_	
Conj. i.	II.	III.	IV.	Pass. Conj. 1.
it is plain.	it is allowed.	it chances.	it results.	it is fought.
constat	licet	accidit	ēvenit	pügnātur
constābat	licēbat	accidēbat	ēveniēbat	pūgnābātur
constabit	licēbit [est	accidet	ēveniet	pūgnābitur
cõnstitit	licuit, -itum	accidit	ēvēnit	pūgnātum est
constiterat	licuerat	acciderat	ēvēnerat	pūgnātum erat
constiterit	licuerit	acciderit	ēvēnerit	pūgnātum erit
constet	liceat	accidat	ēveniat	pūgnētur
constaret	licēret	accideret	ēvenīret	pügnärētur
constiterit	licuerit	acciderit	ēvēnerit	pūgnātum sit
constitisset	licuisset	accidisset	ēvēnisset	pügnātum esset
constare	licēre	accidĕre	ēvenīre	pügnārī
constitisse	licuisse	accidisse	ēvēnisse	pügnātum esse
-stätürum ess	e -itūrum esse		-türum esse	pügnätum īrī

¹ With impersonal verbs the word IT is used in English, having usually no representative in Latin, though id, hoc, illud, are often used nearly in the same way.

- 146. Impersonal Verbs may be classified as follows:—
- a. Verbs expressing the operations of nature and the time of day: as, pluit, it rains; ningit, it snows; grandinat, it hails; fulgurat, it lightens; vesperāscit (inceptive, § 167. a), it grows late; lūcet hōc iam, it is getting light now.

NOTE.—In these no subject is distinctly thought of. Sometimes, however, the verb is used personally with the name of a divinity as the subject: as, Iuppiter tonat, Jupiter thunders. In poetry other subjects are occasionally used: as, fundae saxa pluunt, the slings rain stones.

b. Verbs of feeling, where the person who is the proper subject becomes the object, as being himself affected by the feeling expressed in the verb (§ 221. b). Such are: miseret, it grieves; paenitet (poenitet), it repents; piget, it disgusts; pudet, it shames; taedet, it wearies: as, miseret me, I pity (it distresses me).

Note.—Such verbs often have also a passive form: as, misereor, I pity (am moved to pity); and occasionally other parts: as, paenitūrus (as from †paeniō), paenitendus, pudendus, pertaesum est, pigitum est.

c. Verbs which have a phrase or clause as their subject (§§ 270. a, 330, 332. a): as,—

accidit, contingit, evenit, obtingit, obvenit, fit, it happens. libet, it pleases.

licet, it is permitted.

certum est, it is resolved.

constat, it is clear.

placet, vidētur, it seems gooa.

decet, it is becoming.

delectat, iuvat, it delights.

oportet, necesse est, it is needful.

praestat, it is better.

interest, refert, it concerns.

vacat, there is leisure.

restat, superest, it remains.

NOTE.—Many of these verbs may be used personally. Libet and licet have also the passive forms libitum (licitum) est, etc. The participles libēns and licēns are used as adjectives.

d. The passive of intransitive verbs is very often used impersonally: as, pūgnātur, there is fighting (it is fought); ītur, some one goes (it is gone); parcitur mihi, I am spared (it is spared to me, see § 230).

¹ This use of the passive proceeds from its original reflexive meaning, the action being regarded as accomplishing itself (compare the French cela se fail).

Periphrastic Forms.

- 147. The following periphrastic forms are found in the inflection of the verb:
 - a. The so-called "Periphrastic Conjugations" (see § 129).
- b. The tenses of completed action in the passive formed by the tenses of esse with the perfect participle: as, amātus est.
 - c. The future infinitive passive, formed as follows: -
 - By the infinitive passive of eo, go, used impersonally with the supine in -um: as, amātum īrī.
- 2. By fore (or futurum esse), with the perfect participle (as amatus fore).
 - 3. By fore with ut and the subjunctive (cf. § 288. f).

NOTE.

Origin and History of Verb-Forms.

The forms that make up the conjugation of a verb are composed of formations from a root, originally separate, but gradually grouped together, and afterwards supplemented by new formations made on old lines to supply deficiencies. Some of these forms were inherited, already made, by the Latin language; others were developed in the course of the history of the language itself.

I. PRESENT STEM. — The Present stem is a modification or development of the root (see § 123). In regular forms of the First, Second, and Fourth Conjugations it appears in all the other parts of the verb (including noun and adjective forms) as well, and is accordingly called the Verb-Stem.

The tenses of the Present system are made from the Present stem as follows:—

- a. In the Present Indicative the personal endings are added directly to the present stem. Thus root AR, present- (and verb-) stem arā-; arā-s, arā-mus, arā-tis.
- b. In the Imperfect Indicative the suffix -bam, -bās, etc. (originally a complete verb), is added. bam is probably the imperfect of the root BHU (cf. fuī, futūrus, fīō, $\phi \acute{v}\omega$, be), meaning I was. This was added to a complete word originally a case of a noun, as in I was a-ploughing, hence arā-bam. The form probably began in the second or the third conjugation and from that was extended to the others.
- c. In the Future Indicative a similar suffix, -bō, -bis, etc., is added (by the same process). bō is probably a present form of the same root BHU, with a future meaning: as, arā-bō.

This form once in use in all the conjugations was later supplanted in the third and fourth by an inherited form, which was originally an optative mood, differing from the present indicative only in the final vowel of the stem (see § 126. c. 1): as, sugē-bō (old); sugam, sugēs (later).

- d. In the Present Subjunctive the personal terminations were added to another form of present stem of great antiquity with a different vowel: as, amem, moneam, audiam.
- e. In the Imperfect Subjunctive a suffix, -rem, -res, etc., was added. -rem is doubtless a very old modal form of sum diverted from its original use.
- f. The noun and adjective forms of the Present system were originally separate formations made from the root by means of noun-suffixes. These forms being associated with the verb became types for the formation of new ones from the present stem, in cases where no such formation from the root ever existed. Thus regere is originally a dative (or locative) of a noun like genus, generis; but as regere seems to be rege + re, so arā-re was made in the same manner. Gerendus is the noun-stem geron-, i.e. GER + on- (gero, -onis, § 162. c) + dus; but it seemed to be gere + ndus, and thus gave rise to ama-ndus.
- 2. Perfect Stem.—The Latin inherited from the parent Indo-European speech preterite forms of two kinds:—
- a. In the real perfect (perfect with have in English) the proper terminations (see § 118) are added directly to a root-form, which was originally a reduplication (doubling) of the root with vowel change. Thus stō, root STA, perfect stetī (for †stesti); cf. pungō (root PUG), pupūgī (later pupugī).
- b. In other inherited verbs the perfect was formed by a verbal auxiliary (some form of sum) added to the root (or later to the present stem). Thus dīcō, root DIC, perfect †dīc-sī (dīxī). This auxiliary being a complete verb-form, contained, of course, the personal terminations.
- c. The remaining perfects were formed with a suffix -vI, of uncertain origin, but containing the personal terminations. But these formative processes had been forgotten long before the Latin language reached the stage in which we know it. The form in -vI, however, became the type for new Perfects. By the Romans, the first person singular of the Perfect (however formed), losing its final vowel, was treated as a new stem, from which other forms were developed by the use of added auxiliaries or by analogy with those already formed. This stem is

called the Perfect Stem. Thus were formed the Pluperfect and the Future Perfect Indicative, the Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive, and the Perfect Infinitive. The terminations of these tenses are parts of sum in some form or other, but precisely how they are made is uncertain.

3. SUPINE STEM.—The Perfect and Future Participles and the Supine, though strictly noun-forms, each with its own suffix, agree in having the first letter of the suffix (t) the same and in suffering the same phonetic changes (by which the t becomes s, § 11. a. 2).

Hence these forms, along with several sets of derivatives (see §§ 162. a, 163. b, 164. m) used as nouns or adjectives, were felt by the Romans as belonging to one system, and are conveniently associated with the Supine Stem. Thus,—

pingō, pīctum, pīctus, pīctūrus, pīctūra, pīctor. rīdeō, rīsum (for rīd-tum), rīsus (part.), rīsus (noun), rīsūrus, rīsiō, rīsor, rīsibilis.

The signs of mood and tense are often said to be inserted between the Root (or verb-stem) and the Personal ending. No such insertion is possible in a developed language like the Latin. All true verb-forms are the result, as shown above, of composition; that is, of adding to the root or the verb-stem either pronouns (personal endings) or fully developed auxiliaries (themselves containing the personal terminations), or of adding similar auxiliaries to the perfect stem; or of imitation of such processes. Thus amābāmus is made by adding to amā-, originally a significant word, or a form conceived as such, a full verbal form †bāmus, not by inserting bā between amā- and -mus.

CHAPTER VII. — Particles.

Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions are called Particles.

In their origin these words are either (1) case-forms, actual or extinct, or (2) compounds and phrases.

Particles cannot always be distinctly classified, for many adverbs are used also as prepositions and many as conjunctions (§§ 152 and 155).

I.-ADVERBS.

1. Derivation.

- 148. Adverbs are regularly formed from adjectives as follows:—
- a. From adjectives of the first and second declensions, by changing the characteristic vowel of the stem to -5: as, care, dearly, from carus, dear (stem caro-).

NOTE. — The ending -5 is a relic of an old ablative in -5d (cf. § 36. f).

b. From adjectives of the *third declension* by adding -ter to the stem. Stems in nt- (nom. -ns) lose the t-. All others are treated as i-stems. Thus, —

fortiter, bravely, from fortis (stem forti-), brave. acriter, eagerly, from acer (stem acri-), eager. vigilanter, watchfully, from vigilans (stem vigilant-). prüdenter, prudently, from prüdens (stem prüdent-). aliter, otherwise, from alius (old stem ali-).

Note.—This suffix is probably the same as -ter in the Greek - $\tau \in pos$ and in uter, alter (p. 49, n. 1). If so, these adverbs are neuter accusatives (cf. d).

- c. Some adjectives of the first and second declensions have adverbs of both forms (-ē and -ter). Thus dūrus, hard, has both dūrē and dūriter; miser, wretched, has both miserē and miseriter.
- d. The neuter accusative of adjectives and pronouns is often used as an adverb: as, multum, much; facile, easily; quid, why.
- 'So regularly in the comparative degree: as, acrius, more keenly (positive acriter); facilius, more easily (positive, facili).

NOTE. - These adverbs are strictly cognate accusatives (see § 240. a).

- e. The ablative neuter or (less commonly) feminine of adjectives, pronouns, and nouns, may be used adverbially: as, falso, falsely; cito, quickly; rēctā (riā), straight (straightway); crēbro, frequently: forte, by chance; sponte, of one's own accord.
- f. Some adverbs are derived from adjectives not in use: as, abunds, plentifully (as if from †abundus, cf. abundo, abound); saepe, often (ct. saepes, hedge, and saepio, hedge in); prope, almost (as if from †propis).

NOTE. — Many adverbs and other particles are case-forms of nouns or pronouns. In some the case is not obvious, and in some it is doubtful. Examples may be seen in the following: —

- a. Accusative forms: Sctutum, quickly; non (for no unum), not; iterum (comparative of is), a second time; domum (superlative of do, down), at last.
- β. Ablative or Instrumental forms (§ 31. i): Quä, where; contrā, on the other kand; intrā, within; Qui, how; aliqui, somehow; volgō, commonly; früstrā, in vain; forīs, out of doors.
- γ. Datives of adjectives and pronouns: as, quō, whither; adeō, to that degree; tiltrō, beyond; citrō, this side (as end of motion); retrō, back; illōc (for illō-ce), weakened to illūc, thither.

REMARK. — Those in -tro are from comparative stems (cf. uls, cis, re-).

- 8. Locative forms: ibi, there; ubi, where; peregri (peregre), abroad; hic (for thoi-ce), here; interim, meanwhile (cf. inter); inde, thence; tamen, yet; ölim (from ollus, old form of ille), once. Also the compounds extrinsecus, outside; hodie (hoi + die), to-day; perendie, day after to-morrow.
- e. Feminine accusatives: statim, on the spot; saltim, at least (generally saltem), from lost nouns in -tis (genitive -tis). Thus -tim became a regular adverbial termination; and by means of it adverbs were made from many noun and verb stems immediately, without the intervention of any form which could have an accusative in -tim: as, soparatim, separately, from soparatus, separate. Some adverbs that appear to be feminine accusative are perhaps locative: as, palam, openly; perperam, wrongly; tam, so; quam, as.
 - 6. Plural accusatives: as, alias, elsewhere; foras, out of doors (as end of motion).
 - n. Of uncertain formation: (1) those in -tus (usually preceded by i), with an ablative meaning: as, funditus, from the bottom, utterly; divinitus, from above, providentially; intus, within; penitus, within; (2) those in -dem, -do: as, quidem, indeed; quondam, once; quando (cf. donec), when; (3) dum (probably accusative of time), while; lam (perhaps locative, cf. nam), now.
 - 6. Phrases or clauses which have grown together into adverbs (cf. notwithstanding, nevertheless, besides): anteā, old antideā, before (ante eā, probably ablative or instrumental); postmodo, presently (post modo, a short time after); dēnuō, anew (dē novō); prōrsus, absolutely (prō vorsus, straight ahead); quotannīs, yearly (quot annīs, as many years as there are); quam-ob-rem, wherefore; cōminus, hand to hand (con manus); ēminus at long range (ex manus); ob-viam (as in îre obviam, to go to meet); prīdem (cf. prae and dem in 1-dem), for some time; forsan (fors an [est]) perhaps (it's a chance whether); forsitan (fors sit an), perhaps (it would be a chance whether); scīlicet (scī, licet), that is to say (know, you may); vidēlicet (vidē, licet), to wit (see, you may).

2. Classification.

149. Adverbs are classified as follows: -

a. Adverbs of Place.1

hic, here. ibi, there. istic, there. illic, there. ubi, where. alicubi, somewhere ibidem, in the same place.	eō, thither. istūc, thither illūc, thither quō, whither aliquō, to, etc.	hino, hence. inde, thence. istino, thence. illino, thence. unde, whence. alicunde, from, etc. indidem	hāc, by this way. eā, by that way. istā, by that way. illā (illāc), " quā, by what way. aliquā, by, etc. eādem
alibi, elsewhere. ubiubi, wherever. ubivīs, anywhere. sīcubi, if anywhere nēcubi, lest "	quōvīs	aliunde undecunque undique sīcunde nēcunde	aliā quāquā quāvīs sīquā nēquā
usque, all the way usquam, anywher nusquam, nowher ūltrō, beyond (or	e. e.	oitrō, <i>to this</i> intrō, <i>inwar</i> porrō, <i>furth</i> yond what is required	dly. er on.
quōrsum (for quō turned?), to who hōrsum, this way. prōrsum, forward intrōrsum, inward	t end? (prōrsus, uti	ither retrōrsum, b sūrsum, upu deorsum, do terly). seorsum, ap aliorsum, an	vard. wnward. art.

b. Adverss of Time.

quando? when? (interrog.); cum (quom, quum), when (relat.); ut, when, as. nunc, now; tunc (tum), then; mox, presently; iam, already; dum,

while.

¹ The demonstrative adverbs hic, ibi, istic, illic, and their correlatives, correspond in signification with the pronouns hic, is, iste, ille (see § 102), and are often equivalent to these pronouns with a preposition: as, inde = ab eo, etc. So the relative or interrogative ubi corresponds with qui (quis), ali-cubi with aliquis, ubiubi with quisquis, si-cubi with siquis (see §§ 104, 105, with the table of Correlatives in § 106). All these adverbs were originally case-forms of pronouns. The forms in -bi, -ic, -inc, and -unde are locative, those in -5 and -uc dative, those in -a and -ac ablative or instrumental (p. 123, note).

- prīmum (prīmō), first; deinde (posteā), next after; postrēmum (postrēmō), finally; posteāquam, postquam, when (after that, as soon as).
- umquam (unquam), ever; numquam (nunquam), never; semper, always.
- aliquando, at some time, at length; quandoque (quandocumque), whenever; denique, at last.
- quotions (quotions), how often; totions, so often; aliquotions, a number of times.
- cotīdiē (quotīdiē), every day; in diēs, from day to day.
- nondum, not yet; necdum, nor yet; vixdum, scarce yet; quam prīmum, as soon as possible; saepe, often; crēbro, frequently; iam non, no longer.

c. Adverbs of Degree or Cause.

- quam, how, as; tam, so; quamvīs, however much, although; quō-modō, how.
- cūr, quārē, why; quod, quia, quoniam (for quom-iam), because; eō, therefore.
- ita, sīc, so; ut (uti), as, how; utut, utcumque, however.
- quamquam (quanquam), although, and yet; et, etiam, quoque, even. also.

d. Interrogative Particles.

an, -ne, anne, utrum, utrumne, num, whether.

nonne, annon, whether not; numquid, ecquid, whether at all (ecquid intellegis? have you any idea? do you understand at all?).

utrum (num), -ne, whether; ... an (annon, necne), or.

e. NEGATIVE PARTICLES.

- non, not (in simple denial); haud (hau, haut), minimē, not (in contradiction); nē, not (in prohibition); nēve, neu, nor; nēdum, much less.
- nē, lest; neque, nec, nor; nē . . . quidem, not even.
- non modo . . . vērum (sed) etiam, not only . . . but also.
- non modo ... sed ne ... quidem, not only NOT ... but not even.
- sī minus, if not; quō minus (quōminus), so as not.
- quin (relat.), but that; (interrog.), why not?
- nē, nec (in compos.), not; so in nesciō, I know not; negō, I say no (āiō, I say yes); negōtium, business (nec ōtium); nēmō (nē hŏmō), no one; nē quis, lest any one; necopīnātus, unexpected; neque enim, for . . . not.

- f. Adverbs of Manner (see § 148).
 g. Numeral Adverbs (see § 96).
 - 3. Peculiar Uses of Adverbs.
- 150. Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative: as.—

nemo non audiet, every one will hear (nobody will not hear).

a. Many compounds of which non is the first part express an indefinite affirmative: as, —

nonnullus, some; nonnulli (= aliqui), some few.

nonnihil (= aliquid), something.

nonnemo (= aliquot), sundry persons.

nonnumquam (= aliquotiens), sometimes.

necnon, also (nor not).

b. Two negatives of which the second is **non** (belonging to the predicate) express a *universal* affirmative: as,—

nēmo non, nullus non, nobody [does] not, i.e. everybody [does] (cf. nonnēmo above, not nobody, i.e. somebody).

nihil non, everything.

numquam non, never not, i.e. always (cf. nonnumquam above, not never, i.e. sometimes).

- 151. The following adverbs require special notice:—
- a. Etiam (et iam), also, even, is stronger than quoque, also, and usually precedes the emphatic word, while quoque follows it: as,—

non verbis solum sed etiam vi (Verr. ii. 2, 64), not only by words, but also by force.

hoc quoque maleficium (Rosc. Am. 40), this crime too.

b. Nuno (for †num-ce) means definitely now, in the immediate present, and is not used as in English of past time. Iam means now, already, at length, presently, and includes a reference to previous time through which the state of things described has been or will be reached. It may be used of any time. With negatives it means (no) longer.

Tum, then, is correlative to cum, when, and may be used of any time. Tune, then, at that time, is a strengthened form of tum (tum-ce, cf. nunc). Thus—

ut iam antea dixi, as I have already said before.

sī iam satis aetātis atque roboris habēret (Rosc. Am. 51, 149), if he had attained a suitable age and strength (lit. if he now had, as he will by and by).

non est iam lenitati locus, there is no longer room for mercy.

quod iam erat înstitutum, which had come to be a practice (had now been established).

nunc quidem deleta est, tunc florebat (Leel. 4), now ('tis true) she [Greece] is ruined, then she was in her glory.

tum cum regnabat, at the time when he reigned.

- c. Certo means certainly; certo (usually), at any rate: as, certo scio, I know for a certainty; ego certo, I at least.
- d. Prīmum means first, "firstly" (first in order, or for the first time), and implies a series of events or acts. Prīmō means at first, as opposed to afterwards, giving prominence merely to the difference of time: as,—

hoc primum sentio, this I hold in the first place.

aedes primo ruere rebamur, at first we thought the house was falling.

In enumerations, prīmum (or prīmō) is often followed by deinde, secondly, in the next place, or by tum, then, or by both in succession. Deinde may be several times repeated (secondly, thirdly, etc.). The series is often closed by dēnique or postrēmō, lastly, finally. Thus,—

prīmum dē genere bellī, deinde dē māgnitūdine, tum dē imperātōre dēligendō (Manil. 2), first of the kind of war, next of its magnitude, then of the choice of a commander.

e. Quidem, indeed, gives emphasis, and often has a concessive meaning, especially when followed by sed, autem, etc.: as, —

hoc quidem videre licet (Læl. 15), THIS surely one may see. [Emphatic.] (securitas) specie quidem blanda, sed reapse multis locis repudianda (id. 13), (tranquillity) in appearance, 'tis true, attractive, but in reality to be rejected for many reasons. [Concessive.]

No...quidem means not even or not ... either. The emphatic word or words must stand between no and quidem.

senex ne quod speret quidem habet (C. M. 19), an old man has NOT anything to hope for EVEN.

sed ne Iugurtha quidem quietus erat (Jug. 51), but Jugurtha was not quiet

II. - PREPOSITIONS.

152. Prepositions 1 are regularly used either with the Accusative or with the Ablative.

¹ Prepositions are not originally distinguished from Adverbs in form or meaning, but only specialized in use. Most of them are true case-forms: as, the comparative instrumentals contrā, Infrā, suprā, and the accusatives (cf. § 88. d) circum, coram, cum, circiter, praeter (comp. of prae), propter (comp. of prope). Of the remainder, versus is a petrified nominative (participle of vertō); adversus is a compound of versus; while the origin of the brief forms ab, ad, dē, ex, ob, trāns, is obscure and doubtful.

versus, towards.

a. The following are used with the Accusative: -

extră, outside. post, after. ad. to. adversus, against. praeter, beyond. in, into. adversum, towards. Infra, below. prope, near. inter, among. propter, on account of. ante, before. intră, inside. secundum, next to. apud, at, near. circă, around. iuxtā, near. sub, under. ob, on account of. suprā, above. circum, around. circiter, about. penes, in the power. trans, across. cis, citră, this side. per, through. ultra, on the further side.

contră, against. ergă, towards.

b. The following are used with the Ablative 1:-

pone, behind.

ā, āb, abs, away from, by.in, in.absque, without, but for.prae, in comparison with.cōram, in presence of.prō, in front of, for.cum, with.sine, without.dē, from.sub, under.ē, ex, out of.tenus, up to, as far as.

c. The following may be used with either the Accusative or the Ablative, but with a difference in meaning:—

in, into, in. sub, under. subter, beneath. super, above.

In and sub, when followed by the accusative, indicate motion to, when by the ablative, rest in, a place: as,—

venit in aedes, he came into the house; erat in aedibus, he was in the house. disciplina in Britannia reperta atque inde in Galliam translata esse existimatur, the system is thought to have been discovered in Great Britain and thence brought over to Gaul.

sub ilice consederat, he had seated himself under an ilex.

sub leges mittere orbem, to subject the world to laws (to send the world under laws).

153. The uses of the Prepositions are as follows:—

A, ab, AWAY FROM, FROM, OFF FROM, with the ablative.

a. Of place: as, ab urbe profectus est, he set out from the city.

b. Of time (1) from: as, ab horā tertiā ad vesperam, from the third hour till evening; (2) just after: as, ab eo magistrātū, after [holding] that office.

¹ For palam, etc., see § 261. b, c.

² Ab signifies direction from the object, but often towards the speaker; compare dē, down from, and ex, out of.

Idiomatic uses: ā reliquīs differunt, they differ from the others; ab parvulīs, from early childhood; prope ab urbe, near (not far from) the city; liberāre ab, to set free from; occīsus ab hoste (periit ab hoste), slain by an enemy; ab hāc parte, on this side; ab rē ēius, to his advantage; ā rēpūblicā, for the interest of the state.

Ad, TO, TOWARDS, AT, NEAR, with the accusative (cf. in, into).

- a. Of place: as, ad urbem venit, he came to the city; ad meridiem, towards the south; ad exercitum, with the army; ad hostem, toward the enemy; ad urbem, near the city.
- b. Of time: as, ad nonam horam, till the ninth hour.
- c. With persons: as, ad eum venit, he came to him.

Idiomatic uses: ad supplicia descendunt, they resort to punishment; ad haec respondit, to this he answered; ad tempus, at the [fit] time; adīre ad rempublicam, to go into public life; ad petendam pacem, to seek peace; ad latera, on the flank; ad arma, to arms; ad hunc modum, in this way; quem ad modum, how, as; ad centum, near a hundred; ad hoc, besides; omnes ad unum, all to a man; ad diem, on the day.

Ante, IN FRONT OF, BEFORE, with the accusative (cf. post, after).

- a. Of place: as, ante portam, in front of the gate; ante exercitum, in advance of the army.
- b. Of time: as, ante bellum, before the war.

Idiomatic uses: ante urbem captam, before the city was taken; ante diem quintum (a.d.v.) Kal., the fifth day before the Calends (the 3d day before the last of the month); ante quadriennium, four years before or ago; ante tempus, too soon (before the time).

Apud, AT, BY, AMONG, with the accusative.

- a. Of place (rare and archaic): as, apud forum, at the forum (in the market-place).
- b. With reference to persons or communities: as, apud Helvētios, among the Helvētians; apud populum, before the people; apud aliquem, at one's house; apud sē, at home or in his senses; apud Ciceronem, in [the works of] Cicero.

Circum, circa, circiter, ABOUT, AROUND, with the accusative.

- a. Of place: circum haec loca, hereabout; circa se habent, they have with them.
- b. Of time or number (circā or circiter, not circum): as, circā eandem hōram, about the same hour; circiter passūs mille, about a mile. Especially about, in regard to: circā quem pūgna est (Quintil.), with regard to whom, etc.

Contrā,2 OPPOSITE, AGAINST, with the accusative: as, —

contra Italiam, over against Italy; contra haec, in answer to this.

Often as adverb: as, haec contra, this in reply; contra autem, but on the other hand; quod contra, whereas, on the other hand.

¹ Circum is an accusative form; circa, is instrumental; circiter, accusative of a comparative. For the stem, cf. circus.

² Contra is instrumental comparative of cum (con-).

Cum. WITH. TOGETHER WITH, with the ablative.

 a. Of place: as, vāde mēcum, go with me; cum omnibus impedīmentīs, with all [their] baggage.

b. Of time: as, prima cum luce, at early dawn (with first light).

Idiomatic uses: magno cum dolore, with great sorrow; communicare aliquid cum aliquo, share something with some one; cum malo suo, to his own hurt; confligere cum hoste, to fight with the enemy; esse cum telo, to go armed; cum silentio, in silence.

Dē, DOWN FROM, FROM, with the ablative (cf. ab, away from; ex, out of).

a. Of place: as, de caelo demissus, sent down from heaven; de navibus desilire, to jump down from the ships.

b. Figuratively, CONCERNING, ABOUT, OF: 1 as, cognoscit de Clodi caede, he learns of the murder of Clodius; consilia de bello, plans of war.

c. In a partitive sense (compare ex), out of, of: as, unus de plêbe, one of the people. Idiomatic uses: multis de causis, for many reasons; qua de causa, for which reason; de improviso, of a sudden; de industria, on purpose; de integro, anew; de tertia vigilia, just at midnight (starting at the third watch); de mense Decembri navigare, to sail as early as December.

Ex, 5, FROM (the midst, opposed to in), OUT OF, with the ablative (cf. ab and dē).

a. Of place: as, ex omnibus partibus silvae evolaverunt, they flew cut from all parts of the forest; ex Hispania, [a man] from Spain.

b. Of time: as, ex eo die quintus, the fifth day from that (four days after);

ex hoc die, from this day forth.

Idiomatically or less exactly: ex consulatu, right after his consulship; ex eius sententia, according to his opinion; ex aequo, justly; ex improviso, unexpectedly; ex tua re, to your advantage; magna ex parte, in a great degree; ex equo pugnare, to fight on horseback; ex usu, expedient; e regione, opposite; quaerere ex aliquo, to ask of some one; ex senatus consulto, according to the decree of the senate; ex fuga, in [their] flight (proceeding immediately from it); unus e filiis, one of the sons.

In, with the accusative or the ablative.

1. With the accusative, INTO (opposed to ex).

a. Of place: as, eos in silvas reiecerunt, they drove them back into the woods.

b. Of time, TILL, UNTIL: as, in lucem, till daylight.

Idiomatically or less exactly: in meridiem, towards the south; amor in (ergā or adversus) patrem, love for his father; in āram confugit, he fled to the altar (on the steps, or merely to); in dies, from day to day; in longitūdinem, in length; in hace verba iūrāre, to swear to these words; hunc in modum, in this way; oratio in Catilinam, a speech against Catiline; in perpetuum, for ever; in peius, for the worse; in diem vivere, to live from hand to mouth.

¹ Of originally had the same meaning as $d\bar{e}$ (compare off).

- 2. With the ablative, IN, ON, AMONG.
- In very various connections: as, in castris, in the camp (cf. ad castra, to, at, or near the camp); in mari, on the sea; in urbe esse, to be in town; in tempore, in season; in scribendo, while writing; est mihi in animo, I have it in mind; in ancoris, at anchor; in hoc homine, in the case of this man; in dubio esse, to be in doubt.

Infra, BELOW, with the accusative.

- a. Of place: as, ad mare infra oppidum, by the sea below the town; infra caelum, under the sky.
- b. Figuratively: as, înfră Homērum, later than Homer; înfră tres pedes, less than three feet; înfră elephantos, smaller than elephants; înfră înfimos omnes, the lowest of the low.

Inter, BETWEEN (with two accusatives), AMONG: as, -

inter me et Scipionem, between myself and Scipio; inter os et offam, between the cup and the lip (the mouth and the morsel); inter hostium tela, amid the weapons of the enemy; inter omnes primus, first of all; inter bibendum, while drinking; inter se loquuntur, they talk together; inter nos, between ourselves.

Ob, TOWARDS, ON ACCOUNT OF, with the accusative.

- a. Literally: (1) of motion (archaic): as, ob Rōmam, towards Rome (Ennius); ob viam, to the road (preserved as adverb, in the way of). (2) Of place in which, BEFORE, in a few phrases: as, ob oculōs, before the eyes.
- b. Figuratively, IN RETURN FOR (mostly archaic, probably a word of account, balancing one thing against another): as, ob mulierem, in pay for the woman; ob rem, for gain. Hence applied to reason, cause, and the like, ON ACCOUNT OF (a similar mercantile idea), FOR: as, ob eam causam, for that reason; quam ob rem (quamobrem), wherefore, why.

Per, THROUGH, OVER, with the accusative.

- a. Of motion: as, per urbem ire, to go through the city; per mūros, over the walls.
- b. Of time: as, per hiemem, throughout the winter.
- c. Figuratively, of persons as means or instruments: as, per homines idoneos, through the instrumentality of suitable persons; licet per me, you (etc.) may for all me. Hence, stat per me, it is through my instrumentality. So, per se, in and of itself.
- d. Weakened, in many adverbial expressions: as, per iocum, in jest; per speciem, in show, ostentatiously.

Prae, IN FRONT OF, with the ablative.

- a. Literally, of place (in a few connections): as, prae se portare, to carry in one's arms; prae se ferre, to carry before one (hence figuratively), exhibit, proclaim, ostentatiously make known.
- b. Figuratively, of hindrance, as by an obstacle in front (compare English for): as, prae gaudio conticuit, he was silent for joy.

c. Of comparison: as, prae magnitudine corporum suorum, in comparison with their own ereat size.

Praeter, ALONG BY, BY, with the accusative.

- Literally: as, praeter castra, by the camp (along by, in front of); praeter oculos, before the eyes.
- 2. Figuratively, BEYOND, BESIDES, MORE THAN, IN ADDITION TO, EXCEPT: as, praeter spem, beyond hope; praeter alios, more than others; praeter paucos, with the exception of a few.

Pro, in front of, with the ablative: as, -

- sedēns pro aede Castoris, sitting in front of the temple of Castor; pro populo, in presence of the people. So pro rostris, on [the front of] the rostra; pro contione, before the assembly (in a speech).
- In various idiomatic uses: pro lege, in defence of the law; pro vitula, instead of a heifer; pro centum milibus, as good as a [hundred] thousand; pro rata parte, in due proportion; pro hac vice, for this once; pro consule, in place of consul; pro viribus, considering his strength; pro virili parte, to the best of one's ability.

Propter, NEAR, BY, with the accusative: as,—

propter te sedet, he sits next you. Hence, ON ACCOUNT OF (cf. all along of):
as, propter metum, through fear.

Secundum, 1 JUST BEHIND, FOLLOWING, with the accusative.

- Literally: as, îte secundum mē (Plaut.), go behind me; secundum lītus, near the shore; secundum flūmen, along the stream (cf. secundo flūmine, down stream).
- 2. Figuratively, ACCORDING TO: as, secundum naturam, according to nature.

Sub, UNDER, UP TO, with the accusative or the ablative.

- a. Of motion, with the accusative: as, sub montem succedere, to come close to the hill.
- Idiomatically: sub noctem, towards night; sub lucem, near daylight; sub haec dicta, at (following) these words.
- b. Of rest, with the ablative: as, sub Iove, in the open air (under the heaven, personified as Jove): sub monte, at the foot of the hill.
- Idiomatically: sub eodem tempore, about the same time (just after it).

Super,² ABOVE, OVER, with the accusative or ablative: as,—

vulnus super vulnus, wound upon wound; super Indos, beyond the Hindoos; super tali re, about such an affair.

Suprā,8 on top of, above, with the accusative: as,—

suprā terram, on the surface of the earth. So also figuratively: as, suprā hanc memoriam, before our remembrance; suprā morem, more than usual; suprā quod, besides.

¹ Part. of sequor. 2 Comp. of sub. 8 Instrumental of superus, § 91. b.

Trāns, 1 ACROSS, OVER, THROUGH, BY, with the accusative.

- a. Of motion: as, trans mare current, they run across the sea; trans fiumen ferre, to carry over a river; trans aethera, through the sky; trans caput iace, throw over your head.
- b. Of rest: as, trans Rhenum incolunt, they live across the Rhine; trans
 Tiberim, across the Tiber.

Ultra, BEYOND (on the further side), with the accusative: as, —

cis Padum ultraque, on this side of the Po and beyond; ultra eum numerum more than that number; ultra fidem, incredible; ultra modum, immoderate.

[For Prepositions in Compounds, see § 170.]

III. - CONJUNCTIONS.

- 154. Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or sentences. They are of two classes:—
- a. Co-ordinate, connecting co-ordinate or similar constructions (see § 180. a). These are:—
 - Copulative, implying a connection of thought as well as of words:
 as, et, and.
 - 2. Adversative, implying a connection of words, but a contrast in thought: as, sed, but.
 - 3. Causal, introducing a cause or reason: as, nam, for.
 - 4. Illative, denoting an inference: as, igitur, therefore.
- b. Subordinate, connecting a subordinate or dependent clause with that on which it depends (see § 180. b). These are:—
 - Conditional, denoting a condition or hypothesis: as, sī, if; nisi, unless.
 - Comparative, implying comparison as well as condition: as, āc sī, as if.
 - Concessive, denoting a concession or admission: as, quamquam, although (lit. however much it may be true that, etc.).
 - 4. Temporal: as, postquam, after.
 - 5. Consecutive, expressing result: as, ut, so that.
 - 6. Final, expressing purpose: as, ut, in order that; ne, that not.

NOTE 1.—Conjunctions, like adverbs, are either petrified cases of nouns, pronouns, and adjectives, or obscured phrases: as, sed, an old ablative (cf. rēd, prōd); quod, an old accusative; dum, an old accusative (cf. tum, cum); vērō, an old ablative of vērus; nihilōminus, none the less; proinde, lit. forward from there.

NOTE 2.—A phrase used as a conjunction is called a conjunctive phrase: as, qua propter, quo circa, wherefore.

¹ Probably neuter participle, cf. terminus.

155. Conjunctions are more numerous and more accurately distinguished in Latin than in English. The following list includes the common conjunctions¹ and conjunctive phrases:—

1. Co-ordinate.

a. COPULATIVE AND DISJUNCTIVE.

et, -que, atque (āc), and.

et. .et; et...-que (atque); -que ... et; -que ... -que (poet.), both ... and.

etiam, quoque, neque non (necnon), quinetiam, itidem (item),

cum ... tum; tum ... tum, both ... and; not only . . but also qua ... qua on one hand ... on the other hand.

modo . . . modo, now . . . now.

aut . . . aut; vel . . . vel (-ve), either . . . or.

sive (seu) . . . sive, whether . . . or.

nec (neque) ... nec (neque); neque ... nec; nec . neque (rare), neither ... nor.

et ... neque, both ... and not.

nec . . . et; nec (neque) . . . -que, neither . . . and.

b. Adversative.

sed, autem, vērum, vērō, at, atquī, but.

tamen, attamen, sed tamen, vērumtamen, but yet, nevertheless. nihilōminus, none the less.

at vērō, but in truth; enimvērō, for in truth. cēterum, on the other hand, but.

c. CAUSAL AND ILLATIVE.

nam, namque, enim, etenim, for.

quia, quod, because.

quoniam, quippe, cum (quom, quum), quandō, quandōquidem, sīquidem, utpote, since, inasmuch as.

proptereă (... quod), for this reason (... that).

quapropter, quare, quamobrem, quocirca, unde, wherefore, whence. ergo, igitur, itaque, ideo, idcirco, proinde, therefore, accordingly.

Note.—Of these quia, quod, quoniam, quippe, cum, siquidem, often introduce subordinate clauses. As all subordinate clauses have been developed from clauses once co-ordinate (p. 164), the distinction between co-ordinate conjunctions and subordinate is often obscure,

¹ Some of these have been included in the classification of adverbs. See also list of correlatives, § 106.

d. Concessive.

quidem. to be sure, it is true.

2. Subordinate.

e. CONDITIONAL.

BI, if; sIn, but if; nisi (nI), unless, if not; quod sI, but if modo, dum, dummodo, sI modo, if only, provided. dummodo nē (dum nē, modo nē), provided only not.

f. COMPARATIVE.

ut, uti, sīcut, velut, prout, praeut, ceu, as, like as. tamquam (tanquam), quasi, utsī, āc sī, velut, veluti, velutsī, as if. quam, atque (āc), as, than.

e. Concessive.

etsī, etiamsī, tametsī, tamenetsī, quamquam (quanquam), although.

quamvīs, quantumvīs, quamlibet, however much.

licet (properly a verb), ut, cum (quom, quum), though, suppose, whereas.

h. TEMPORAL.

cum (quom, quum), cum prīmum, ubi, ut prīmum, postquam (posteāquam), when.

prius . . . quam, ante . . . quam, before, non ante . . . quam, not until.

quandō, simul atque (simul āc), simul, as soon as. dum, usque dum, dōnec, quoad, until.

t. Consecutive and Final.

ut (uti), quō, so that, in order that.
nō, ut nō, lest (that ... not, in order that not); nōve (neu), nor.
quīn (after negatives), quōminus, but that (so as to prevent).

- **156.** The following are the principal conjunctions whose meaning requires to be noticed:—
- a. Et, and, simply connects words or clauses; -que combines more closely into one connected whole. -que is always enclitic to the word connected or to the first or second of two or more words connected. Thus,

cum coniugibus et liberis, with [their] wives and children.

ferro ignique, with fire and sword. [Not as separate things, but as the combined means of devastation.]

aqua et igni interdictus, forbidden the use of water and fire. [In a legal formula, where they are considered separately.]

Atque (āc) adds with some emphasis or with some implied reflection on the word added. Hence it is often equivalent to and so, and yet, and besides, and then. But these distinctions depend very much upon the feeling of the speaker, and are often untranslatable: as,—

omnia honesta atque inhonesta, everything honorable and dishonorable (too, without the slightest distinction).

usus atque disciplina, practice and theory beside (the more important or less expected).

atque ego credo, and yet I believe (for my part).

In the second of two connected ideas, and not is expressed by neque (nec): as,—

neque vero hoc solum dixit, and he not only said this.

Atque (ac), in the sense of as, than, is also used after words of comparison and likeness: as,—

non secus (aliter) ac sī, not otherwise than if.
pro eo ac debuī, as was my duty (in accordance as I ought).
aeque ac tū, as much as you.
haud minus ac iūssī faciunt, they do just as they are ordered.
simul atque, as soon as.

b. **Sed** and the more emphatic **vērum** or **vērō**, but, are used to introduce something in opposition to what precedes, especially after negatives (not this... but something else). At introduces with emphasis a new point in an argument, but is also used like the others.

At enim is almost always used to introduce a supposed objection which is presently to be overthrown. At is more rarely used alone in this sense. Autem, however, now, is the weakest of the adversatives, and often has hardly any adversative force perceptible. Atqui, however, now, sometimes introduces an objection and sometimes a fresh step in the reasoning. Quod sī, but if, and if, now if, is used to continue an argument. Ast is old or poetic and is equivalent to at.

NOTE.—A concessive is often followed by an adversative either in a coordinate or a subordinate clause: as, etiamsI quod scrIbās non habēbis, scrIbito tamen (Cic.), though you have nothing to write, still write all the same.

c. Aut, or, excludes the alternative; vel (probably imperative of volo) and -ve give a choice between two alternatives. But this distinction is sometimes disregarded. Thus, —

sed quis ego sum aut quae est in me facultas, but who am I or what special capacity have I? [Here vel could not be used, because in fact a negative is implied and both alternatives are excluded].

- quam tenui aut nulla potius valetudine, what feeble health [he had], or rather none at all. [Here vel might be used, but would refer only to the expression, not to the fact].
- aut bibat aut abeat, let him drink or (if he won't do that, then let him)
 quit. [Here vel would mean, let him do either as he chooses].
- vīta tālis fuit vel fortūnā vel gloriā, his life was such either in respect to fortune or fame (whichever way you look at it).
- sī propīnquos habeant imbēcilliores vel animo vel fortuna, if they have relatives beneath them either in spirit or in fortune (in either respect, for example).
- cum cogniti sunt et aut deorum aut regum filii inventi, sons either of gods or of kings. [Here one case would exclude the other.]
- implicati vel usu diuturno vel etiam officiis, entangled either by close intimacy or even by obligations. [Here the second case might exclude the first.]
- **Sive** (seu) is properly used in disjunctive conditions (if either... or if), but also with alternative words and clauses, especially with two names for the same thing: as,
 - sive arridens sive quod ita putaret (De Or. i. 20, 91), either laughingly or because he really thought so.
 - **Vel**, even, for instance, is often used with no alternative force: as, vel minimus, the very least.
- d. Nam and namque, for, usually introduce a real reason, formally expressed, for a previous statement; enim (always postpositive), a less important explanatory circumstance put in by the way; etenim (for, you see; for, you know; for, mind you) and its negative neque enim introduce something self-evident or needing no proof.
 - (ea vīta) quae est sola vīta nominanda. nam dum sumus in hīs inclūsi compagibus corporis mūnere quodam necessitātis et gravī opere perfungimur. est enim animus caelestis, etc. (Cat. Maj. 21).
 - harum trium sententiarum nulli prorsus assentior. nec enim illa prima vera est, for of course that first one isn't true.
- e. Ergō, therefore, is used of things proved formally, but often has a weakened force. Igitur, then, accordingly, is weaker than ergō and is used in passing from one stage of an argument to another. Itaque, therefore, accordingly, and so, is used in proofs or inferences from the nature of things rather than in formal logical proof.

All of these are often used merely to resume a train of thought broken by a digression or parenthesis. Idcirco, for this reason, on this account, is regularly followed (or preceded) by a correlative: as, quia, quod, sī, ut, nō, and refers to the special point introduced by the correlative.

nē aegrī quidem quia non omnēs convalēscunt, idcirco ars nūlla medicīnae est. prīmum igitur aut negandum est esse deos . . . aut quī deos esse concēdant eis fatendum est eos aliquid agere idque praeclārum; nihil est autem praeclārius mundī administrātione, deorum igitur consilio administrātur. quod sī aliter est, aliquid profecto sit necesse est melius et māiore vī praeditum quam deus. . . . non est igitur nātūra deorum praepotēns neque excellēns, sī quidem ea subiecta est eī vel necessitātī vel nātūrae quā caelum maria terrae regantur, nihil est autem praestantius deo, ab eo igitur mundum necesse est regī. nūllī igitur est nātūrae oboediens aut subiectus deus: omnem ergo regit ipse nātūram. etenim sī concēdimus intellegentīs esse deos, concēdimus etiam providentīs et rērum quidem māximārum. ergo utrum ignorant quae rēs māxumae sint quoque eae modo trāctandae et tuendae an vim non habent quā tantās rēs sustineant et gerant? (N. D. ii. 30.)

malum mihi videtur mors. est miserum igitur, quoniam malum. certe.
ergō et ei quibus evenit iam ut morerentur et ei quibus eventurum est
miserī. mihi ita videtur. nemo ergō non miser. (Tusc. i. 5.)

meministis enim cum illius nefārii gladiātoris voces percrebuissent quās, etc.—tum igitur (Mur. 25, 50).

f. Quia, because, regularly introduces a fact; quod, either a fact or a statement. Quoniam (for quom iam), inasmuch as, since, when now, now that, has reference to motives, excuses or justifications, and the like. Quando, since, is mostly archaic or late.

possunt quia posse videntur, they can because they think they can.

locus est a me quoniam ita Murena voluit retractandus (Mur. 26, 54), I must review the point, since Murena has so wished.

me reprehendis quod idem defendam (as he had not) quod lege punierim (Mur. 32, 67), you blame me because [as you say] I defend the same charge which I have punished by the law.

reprehendis me quia defendam (as he had) (Sull 18, 50).

cur igitur pacem nolo? quia turpis est (Phil. vit. 3, 9), why then do I not wish for peace? Because it is disgraceful.

In the denial of a reason, non quo is used as well as non quod, non quia, and non quin, but not non quoniam. Thus,—

non quia multis debeo ... sed quia saepe concurrunt aliquorum bene de me meritorum inter ipsos contentiones (Planc. 32, 78), not because I am indebted to many, but because, etc.

non quin pari virtute et voluntate alii fuerint, sed tantam causam non habuerunt (Phil. vii. 2, 6), not that there were not others of equal courage and good-will, but they had not so much reason.

g. Cum (quom), when, is always a relative, and is often correlative with tum (see h. 1, below); quando, when (rarely since), is used as interrogative, relative and indefinite: as, quando? hodio, when? to-day; sI quando, if ever.

h. 1. Conjunctions, especially those of relative origin, frequently have a correlative in another clause, to which they correspond: as,—

ut sementem feceris, ita metes, as you sow, so shall you reap. uti initium, sie finis est, as is the beginning, so is the end. tum cum Catilinam eiciebam (Cat. iii. 2, 3), at the time when, etc.

2. Often the same conjunction is repeated in two co-ordinate clauses. Examples are: — $\,$

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et ... et, both ... and.

modo ... modo, now ... now.

nunc ... nunc, now ... now.

iam ... iam, now ... now.

simul ... simul, at once (this) and also (that).

quā ... quā, both ... and, as well ... as, alike (this) and (that).
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i. The concessives (etsi, quamvis, etc., although) may introduce either a fact or a mere supposition, and are often followed by the correlative tamen, yet, nevertheless; quamquam is regularly used to introduce an admitted fact and not a mere supposition.

Quamquam (and rarely etsī, tametsī), in the sense of though (and yet, but, however) are also used to introduce an independent statement made to limit or correct the preceding (quamquam corrēctīvum): as,—

ille volt diū vīvere, hīc diū vīxit, quamquam, ō dī bonī, quid est in hominis vītā diū? (Cat. M. 19, 68), the one wishes to live long, the other has lived long, though (after all) Good Heavens! what is there that is long in the life of man?

k. Autem, enim, and vērō are postpositive, i.e. they always follow one or more words of their clause; so generally igitur and often tamen.

INTERJECTIONS.

O, on, ecce, ehem, papae, van (of astonishment).

io, ovae, ovae, euhoe (of joy).

heu, oheu, vae, alas (of sorrow).

heus, eho, ehodum, ho (of calling); st, hist.

ouisia, euge (of praise).

pro (of attestation): as, pro pudor, shame!

CHAPTER VIII. - Formation of Words.

Note.—All formation of words is originally a process of composition. An element significant in itself is added to another significant element, and thus the meaning of the two is combined. No other combination is possible for the formation either of inflections or of stems. Thus, in fact, words (since roots and stems are significant elements, and so words) are first juxtaposed, then brought under one accent, and finally felt as one word. This gradual process is seen in sea change, sea-nymph, seaside. But as all derivation, properly so-called, appears as a combination of uninflected stems, every type of formation in use must date back of inflection. Hence words were not in strictness derived either from nouns or from verbs, but from stems which were neither, because they were in fact both; for the distinction between noun- and verb-stems had not yet been made.

After the development of Inflection, however, that one of several kindred words which seemed the simplest was regarded as the *Primitive* form, and from this the other words of the group were thought to be *derived*. Such supposed processes of formation were then imitated, often erroneously, and in this way new modes of derivation arose. Thus new adjectives were formed from nouns, new nouns from adjectives, new adjectives from verbs, and new verbs from adjectives and nouns.

In course of time the real or apparent relations of many words became confused, so that nouns and adjectives once supposed to come from nouns were often assigned to verbs, and others once supposed to come from verbs were assigned to nouns.

Further, since the language was constantly changing, many words went out of use, and do not occur in the literature as we have it. Thus many derivatives survive of which the Primitive is lost.

Finally, since all conscious word-formation is imitative, intermediate steps in derivation were sometimes omitted, and occasionally apparent derivatives occur for which no proper Primitive ever existed.

I.-ROOTS AND STEMS.

157. Roots are of two kinds:-

- 1. Verbal, expressing ideas of action or condition (sensible phenomena).
- 2. Pronominal, expressing ideas of position and direction. Stems are divided into (1) Noun- (including Adjective-) stems, and (2) Verb-stems.

NOTE. — Noun- and verb-stems were not originally different (see p. 163), and in the consciousness of the Romans were often confounded, but in general were treated as distinct.

¹ For the distinction between Roots and Stems, see 📢 21, 22.

- 158. Words are formed by inflection: -
- I. From roots inflected as stems:
- a. Without change: as, duc-is (dux), DUC; nec-is (nex); is, id. So in verbs: as, est, fert, est (cf. p. 86).
- b. With change of the root-vowel: as, lūc-is (lūx), LUC; pāc-is (pāx). So in verbs: I-s for jeis, from eō, Ire; fātur from for, fārī.

NOTE. — In these cases it is impossible to say with certainty whether the form of root in a or in b is the original one. But for convenience the above order is adopted.

- c. With reduplication: as, fur-fur, mar-mor, mur-mur. So in verbs: as, si-stō (root STA).
 - 2. From derived stems; see § 159.

II. - SUFFIXES.

- 159. Stems are derived from roots or from other stems by means of *suffixes*. These are:—
- 1. Primary: added to the root, or (in later times by analogy) to verb-stems. The root has either the weaker or the fuller vowel (cf. \S 158. a, b).
 - 2. Secondary: added to a noun- or adjective-stem.

Both primary and secondary suffixes are for the most part pronominal roots (§ 157.2), but a few are of doubtful origin.

Note.—The distinction between primary and secondary suffixes, not being original (see p. 140, head-note), is constantly lost sight of in the development of a language. Suffixes once primary are used as secondary, and those once secondary are used as primary. Thus in hosticus (hosti + cus) the suffix -cus, originally ka (see § 160, \(\delta\)) primary, as in paucus, has become secondary, and is thus regularly used to form derivatives; but in pudicus, apricus, it is treated as primary again, because these words were really or apparently connected with verbs, So in English -able was borrowed as a primary suffix, but also makes forms like clubbable, salable; -some is properly a secondary suffix, as in toilsome, lonesome, but makes also such words as meddlesome, venturesome.

1. Primary Suffixes.

- 160. The words in Latin formed immediately from the root by means of Primary suffixes, are few.
- a. Inherited words so formed were mostly further developed by the addition of other suffixes, as we might make an adjective *lone-ly-some-ish*, meaning nothing more than *lone*, *lonely*, or *lonesome*.
- b. By such accumulation of suffixes, new compound suffixes were formed which crowded out even the old types of derivation: thus—

A word like mēns, mentis, by the suffix on- (nom. -o) gave mentio, and this being divided into men + tio, gave rise to a new type of abstract nouns in -tio (phonetically -sio): as, logatio, embassy.

A word like audītor, by the suffix io- (nom. -ius), gave rise to adjectives like audītorius, of which the neuter is used to denote the place where the action of the verb is performed. Hence tōrio- (nom. -tōrium), N., becomes a regular suffix (§ 164. i. 5).

So in English such a word as mechanically gives a suffix -ally, making telegraphically, though there is no such word as telegraphical.

c. Examples of primary suffixes are: -

I. Vowel suffixes:-

- a,¹ found in nouns and adjectives of ā- and o-stems, as sonus, lūdus, vagus, scrība, toga (root TEG).
- i, less common, and in Latin frequently changed, as in rūpēs, or lost, as in scobs (scobis, root SCAB).
- u, disguised in most adjectives by an additional i, as in suā-vis (for †suādus, cf. ἡδύs), ten-uis (root TEN in tendō), and remaining alone only in nouns of the fourth declension, as acus (root AK, sharp, in ācer, aciēs, ἀκύs), pecū (root PAC, bind, in paciscor).

2 Suffixes with a consonant: -

- a. ta (in the form to-) in the regular perfect passive participle, as tēctus, tēctum; sometimes with an active sense, as in pōtus, prānsus; and found in a few words not recognized as participles, as pūtus (cf. pūrus), altus (alō).
- 6. ti in abstracts and rarely in nouns of agency, as messis, vestis, pars, mēns. But in many the i is lost.
- τu in abstracts (including supines), sometimes becoming concretes, as āctus, lūctus.
- δ. na, forming perfect participles in other languages, and in Latin making adjectives of like participial meaning, which often become nouns, as māgnus (= māctus, root MAG), plēnus, rēgnum.
- 6. ni, in nouns of agency and adjectives, as īgnis, sēgnis.
- ζ. nu, rare, as in manus, sinus.
- η. ma with various meanings, as in animus, almus, firmus, forma.
- va (commonly uo-) with an active or passive meaning, as in equus, arvum, conspicuus, exiguus, vacīvus (vacuus).
- L ra (or la, a passive participle termination in other languages), usually passive, as in ager, integer, plērī-que (= plēnus = plētus), sella (for sed-la, cf. ἔδρα).

¹ Observe that it is the *stem*, not the *nominative*, that is formed by the suffix, although the nominative is here given for convenience of reference. The vowel in these suffixes is given as a to avoid puzzling questions of comparative grammar, though it had no doubt assumed the form o, even in the Parent Speech.

- x. ya (forming gerundives in other languages), in adjectives and abstracts, including many of the first and fifth declensions, as eximius, audācia, Flörentia, perniciēs.
- λ. ka, sometimes primary, as in paucī (cf. παῦρος), locus (for stlocus). In many cases the vowel of this termination is lost, leaving a consonant-stem: as, apex, cortex, loquāx.
- μ. an (in-, on-), in nouns of agency and abstracts: as, aspergo, compago (-inis), gero (-onis).
- man (men-: also used in the form men- as a conscious derivative) expressing MEANS, often passing into the action itself: as, agmen, flumen.
- E. tar, forming nouns of AGENCY: as, pater (i.e. protector), frater (i.e. supporter), orator.
- o. tra, forming nouns of MEANS: as, claustrum, mulctrum.
- π. as (sometimes phonetically changed into er-, or-), forming names of actions: as, genus, furor.
- ρ. ant, forming active PARTICIPLES: as, legens, with some adjectives from roots unknown: as, frequens, recens.

The above, with some suffixes given below, belong to the Indo-European parent speech, and most of them were not felt as living formations in the Latin.

2. Significant Endings.

161. Both primary and secondary suffixes, especially in the form of compound suffixes, were used in Latin with more or less consciousness of their meaning. They may therefore be called Significant Endings.

They form: 1. Nouns of Agency; 2. Names of Action; 3. Adjectives (active or passive).

Note. — There is really no difference in etymology between an adjective and a noun, except that some formations are habitually used as adjectives and others as nouns (δ 25. δ , note).

III. - DERIVATION OF NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

1. Nouns of Agency.

- 162. Nouns of Agency properly denote the *agent* or *doer* of an action. But they include many words in which the idea of agency has entirely faded out, and also many words used as adjectives. Their significant endings are:—
- a. -tor (-sor), M., -trix, F., added to roots or verb-stems to denote the agent or doer of an action.

cano, sing (CAN, supine toantum); cantor, singer; cantrix, song-

vincō (VIC, supine victum), conquer: victor, victrīx, conqueror
 (victorious).

tondeō, shear (TOND as root, sup. tōnsum): tōnsor, tōnstrīx, hair-cutter.

petō, seek (petī- as stem, sup. petītum): petītor, candidate. senātor (lost verb †senō, -āre), senator.

By analogy -tor is sometimes added to noun-stems, but these may be stems of lost verbs (cf. senātor above): as, viātor, traveller, from via, way (but cf. inviō).

NOTE 1.— The termination -tor (-80r) has the same phonetic change as the supine ending -tum (-8um) (p. 121.3), and is added to the same form of root or verb-stem as that ending (see § 125).

NOTE 2. — The feminine form is always -trix. Masculines in -sor lack the

feminine, except expulsor (expultrix) and tonsor (tonstrix).

NOTE 3.—-tor is an inherited termination (cf. ξ , p. 143). The feminine is a further formation in -ca which has lost its final vowel (cf. ξ 160. λ).

b. t- (originally ta-, cf. § 160. a), C., added to verb-stems making nouns in -es (-itis, -etis, stem -it-, -et-) descriptive of a character: as, —

miles (verb-stem mile-, as in mille, thousand), a soldier (man of the crowd).

teges (verb-stem tege-, cf. tegō, cover), a coverer, a mat.

comes, -itis (con- and meō, go, cf. trāmes, sēmita), a companion.

c. -5 (gen. -5nis, stem 5n-), M., added to stems conceived as verb-stems (but perhaps originally noun-stems) to indicate a person employed in some specific art or trade: as, —

gerō (GES in gerō, gerere, carry, but compare -ger in armiger (squire), a carrier.

com-bibō (BIB as root in bibō, bibere, drink), a pot-companion.

NOTE. — This termination is also used to form many nouns descriptive of personal characteristics (cf. § 164. q).

2. Names of Actions.

163. Names of Actions are confused, through their suffixes, with real abstract nouns and nouns denoting means and instruments. They are derived (I) apparently or really from roots and verb-stems (primary) or (2) from noun-stems (secondary).

- 1. Significant endings giving real or apparent primary formations are:—
- a. -or (st. 5r-, earlier 5s-), M., -5s (gen. -is, st. i-, earlier es-), F., -us (st. és-, earlier es- or os-), N., added to roots or forms conceived as roots: as, —

timeo, fear; tim-or, dread.

sedeō, sit; sēd-ēs, seat.

decet, it is becoming; dec-us, grace, beauty.

†facino (old form of facio, do); facin-us, a deed.

NOTE. — Many nouns of this class are formed by analogy from imaginary roots: as, facinus above (from a supposed root FACIN).

b. -iō (st. iōn-), -tiō (st. tiōn-), -tūra (st. tūrā-), F., -tus (st. tu-), M., (phonetically -siō, -sūra, -sus), apparently added to roots or verbstems, making verbal abstracts which easily pass into concretes.

lego, gather, enroll; leg-io, a legion (originally, the annual conscription).

rego, direct; regio, a direction, a region.

Insero (SA), implant; Insi-tio, grafting.

voco, call; vocā-tio, a calling.

molior, toil; moli-tio, a toiling.

pingo (PIG), paint; pic-tura, a painting.

sentio, feel; sen-sus (for sent-tus, § 11. a. 2), perception. fruor, enjoy (for †fruguor); fruo-tus, enjoyment, fruit.

NOTE 1.—-tiō, -tūra, -tus are added to roots or verb-stems precisely as -tor, with the same phonetic change. Hence they are conveniently associated with the supine stem (see p. 121). They sometimes form nouns when there is no corresponding verb in use: as, Senātus, senate (cf. sonex); mentiō, mention (cf. mēns); fētūra, of spring (cf. fētus); litterātūra, literature (cf. litterae); cōnsulātus, consulship (cf. cōnsul).

NOTE 2.—Of these endings, -tus was originally primary (cf. § 160. ?); -iō is a compound formed by adding on- to a stem ending in a vowel (originally i): as, dictō (cf.-dicus and dicis); -tiō is a compound formed by adding on- to stems in ti-: as, gradātiō (cf. gradātim); -tūra is formed by adding -ra, feminine of -rus, to stems in tu-: as, nātūra from nātus; statūra from status (cf. figūra, of like meaning, from a simple u-stem, †figūra; and mātūrus, Mātūta).

c. -men, -mentum, -monium, N., -monia, F., apparently added to roots or verb-stems to denote ACTS, or MEANS and RESULTS of acts.

AG, root of ago, lead; ag-men, line of march.

regi- (stem seen in regō, direct); { regi-men, rule. regi-mentum, rule.

So colu-men, pillar; mo-men, movement; no-men, name.

fruor, enjoy; fru-mentum, grain.

tester, witness; testi-monium, testimony.

queror, complain; queri-monia, complaint (but see note).

Also flā-men (M.). a priest (from flō, blow, in reference to the sacrificial fire).

REMARK: -monium and -monia are also used as secondary, forming nouns from other nouns and from adjectives: as, sancti-monia, sanctity (sanctus, holy); matri-monium, marriage (mater, mother).

NOTE. — Of these endings, -men is primary (cf. § 160. **); -mentum is a further development of -men made by adding to-, and appears for the most part later in the language than -men: as, mōmen, movement (Lucr.); mōmentum (later). So elementum is a development from L-M-N-a, **l-m-n's (letters of the alphabet), changed to elementa along with other nouns in -men. -mōnium and -mōnia are compound secondary suffixes formed from mo-, as in the series almus, fostering; Almōn, a river near Rome; alimōnia, support. But the last was formed from alō later, when -mōnia had become established as a supposed primary suffix.

d. -bulum, -culum, -brum, -crum, -trum, N., added to verb-stems or roots (rarely to noun-stems), to denote MEANS or INSTRUMENT: as,—

pāscō, feed; pā-bulum, fodder.

sto, stand; sta-bulum, stall.

tus (gen. turis), incense; turi-bulum, a censer.

voco, call; voca-bulum, a name, a word.

lateo, hide; lati-bulum, hiding-place.

vehō, carry; vehi-culum, wagon.

piō, purify; piā-culum, an expiation.

cernō (crēvī), sift; crī-brum, sieve.

flō, blow; flā-bra (pl.), blasts.

candēla, a candle; candēlā-brum, a candlestick.

ambulō, walk; ambulā-crum, place for walking.

sepelio, bury; sepul-crum, tomb.

simulō, pretend; simulā-crum, image.

claudo, shut; claus-trum, a bar.

arō, I plough; arā-trum, a plough.

A few Masculines and Feminines of the same formation occur as nouns and adjectives: as, —

for, speak; fā-bula, tale.

rīdeō, laugh; rīdi-culus, laughable.

facio, make; fa-ber, smith.

lateo, hide; late-bra, hiding place.

tero, bore; tere-bra, auger.

mulgeo, milk; mulc-tra, milk-pail.

uro, burn; Auster, South wind.

Note. — These are no doubt compound nominal suffixes, bo-+lo-, co-+lo-, bo-+ro-, co-+ro-, to-+ro-, but the series cannot be distinctly made out. They had become fully welded into independent suffixes before the historical period.

- 2. Significant endings entirely secondary forming Abstract nouns are:—
- e. -ia, -tia (-iēs, -tiēs), -tās, -tūs, -tūdō, F., added to adjective stems and a few to nouns. So -dō and -gō, F., but associated with verbs, and apparently added to verb-stems. Thus:—

audāx, bold; audāc-ia, boldness. So fīdūc-ia, confidence (†fīdūx)
prūdēns, wise; prūden-tia, wisdom.
superbus, proud; superb-ia, pride.
trīstis, sad; trīsti-tia, sadness.
pauper, poor; pauper-iēs, poverty.
sēgnis, lazy; sēgni-tiēs, laziness.
bonus, good; boni-tās, goodness.
cīvis citizen; cīvi-tās, citizenship.
senex, old; senec-tūs, age.
sōlus, alone; sōli-tūdō, solitude.
dulcis, sweet; dulcē-dō, sweetness (probably from a lost stem dulcē,
cf. dulcē-scō).
cupiō, I desire; cupī-dō (as if from stem cupī-, cf. cupī-vī).
lumbus, the loin; lumbā-gō, lumbago (as if from †lumbō, -āre).
plumbum, lead; plumbā-gō, black lead.

rubus, bramble (red bush); rubi-gō, rust (redness).
prūriō, itch; prūrī-gō, itchine.

albus, white; albū-gō, a disease of the eyes (whiteness, as if from †albuō).

Stems ending in o- or ā- lose these vowels before -ia (as superb-ia), and change them to i before -tās, -tūs, -tūa (as boni-tās, above).

Consonant-stems often insert i before -tās: as, loquāx (stem loquāc-), loquāci-tās; but hones-tās, māies-tās (as if from old adjectives in -es), über-tās, volup-tās. o after i is changed to e: as, pius (stem pio-), pie-tās; socius, socie-tās (see § 11. e).

Note.—Of these, -la is inherited as secondary (cf. § 160. *); -tia is formed by adding -ia to stems with a t-suffix: as, militia, from miles (st. milit-); molestia from molestus; clēmentia from clēmēns; whence by analogy, mali-tia, avāri-tia. -tās is inherited, but its component parts, ta-+ ti-, are found as suffixes in the same sense: as, senecta from senex; sēmen-tis from sēmen. -tūs is tū-+ ti-, cf. servitū-dō. -dō and -gō appear only with long vowels, as from verb-stems, by a false analogy; but -dō is do-+ōn-: as, cupidus, cupidō; gravidus, gravēdō (cf. gravē-scō); albidus, albēdō (cf. albē-scō); formidus, hot, formidō (cf. formidulōsus), (hot flash?) fear; -gō is possibly co-+ōn-; cf. vorāx, vorāgō, but cf. Cethēgus. -tūdō is compounded of -dō with tu-stems, which acquire a long vowel from association with verb-stems in u- (cf. volūmen, from volvō); as, cōnsuētū-dō, valētū-dō, habitū-dō, sollicitū-dō; whence servitūdō (cf. servitūs, -tūtis).

f. -ium, -tium, added to noun- and perhaps verb-stems, forming neuter abstracts, which easily pass into concretes denoting OFFICES and GROUPS: as,—

hospes (gen. hospit-is), a guest; hospit-ium, hospitality, an inn. servus, a slave; servi-tium, slavery, the slave class.

collega, a colleague; colleg-ium, colleagueship, a college.

auspex, a soothsayer; auspic-ium, soothsaying, an omen.

gaudeo, rejoice; gaud-ium, joy.

benefació, benefit; benefic-ium, a kindness (but cf. beneficus).

d8-sIderō, miss (from †d8-sIdes, out of place, of missing soldiers);
d8-sIder-ium, longing.

effugio, escape; effug-ium, an escape (cf. profugus).

ad verbum, [added] to a verb; adverb-ium, an adverb.

inter lūnās, between moons; interlūn-ium, time of new moon. rēgis fuga, flight of a king; rēgifug-ium, flight of kings.

Vowel-stems lose their vowel before -ium, as colleg-ium, from collega.

Note. —-ium, neuter of -ius (§ 164. g), -ia (cf. e), is an inherited primary suffix (cf. § 160. e), but is used with great freedom as secondary; -tium is formed like -tia, by adding -ium to stems with t: as, exit-ium, equit-ium (cf. exitus, equites); so, by analogy, calvi-tium, servi-tium (from calvus, servus).

g. Less commonly -nia, P., -nium, -lium, -cinium, N., added to nounstems, but confused with verb-stems: as, —

pecu, cattle; pecu-nia, money (chattels).

conticesco, hush; contici-nium, the hush of night

augeo, increase; auxi-lium, help.

pecti, cattle; pecti-lium, private property (cf. pectilor, implying a noun †pectilum).

lātrō, robber; lātrō-cinium, robbery (cf. lātrōcinor, rob, implying an adj. †lātrōcinus).

Adjectives.

164. Derivative adjectives are *Nominal* (from nouns or adjectives) or *Verbal* (as from roots or verb-stems).

Their significant endings are: -

I. NOMINAL.

a. -ulus (-a, -um) (after a vowel-olus), -culus, -ellus, -tllus, making an important class of adjectives, which are usually appropriated to one gender, that of the Primitive, and used as DIMINUTIVE NOUNS: as, —

rīvus, a brook; rīv-ulus, a streamlet.
gladius, a sword; gladi-olus, a small sword.
fflius, a son; ffli-olus, a little son.
fflia, a daughter; ffli-ola, a little daughter
ātrium, a hall; ātri-olum, a little hall.
homō, a man; homun-culus, a dwarf.
auris, an ear; auri-cula, a little ear.
mūnus, N., a gift; mūnus-culum, a little gift.
†puera (cf. puer, a boy); puella (for †puer-ula), a girl.
cōdex, a block; cōdio-illī, writing-tablets.
miser, wretched; mis-ellus, rather wretched.
liber, a book; lib-ellus, a little book.
aureus (-a, -um), golden; aure-olus (-a, -um), golden.
parvus (-a, -um), little; parv-olus (later parv-ulus), very small.
māior (old māiōs), greater; māius-culus, somewhat larger.

NOTE 1.—These are all formed by adding -lus (originally -rus, cf. § 160. 1) to various stems, forming adjectives. The formation is the same as that of -ulus in I below. But these words became settled as diminutives, and retained their connection with nouns. So in English the diminutives whitish, reddish, are of the same formation as bookish and snappish. -culus comes from -lus added to adjectives in -cus formed from stems in n- and s-: as, luven-cus, Aurun-cus (cf. Aurun-culous), pris-cus, whence the cu becomes a part of the termination, and the whole ending is used elsewhere, but mostly with n- and s-stems, in accordance with its origin.

NOTE 2.—Diminutives are often used to express affection, pity, or contempt: as, deliciolae, little pet; muliercula, a poor (feeble) woman; homunculus, wretched man.

REMARK: -ciō, added to stems in n-, has the same diminutive force, but is added to masculines only: as, homun-ciō, a dwarf (from homō, a man).

b. -adēs, M., -ās, F., -idēs, -īdēs, M., -is, -ēis, F., -ēus, -eus, M., added to proper names, forming Patronymics to indicate descent or relationship.

These, originally Greek adjectives, have almost all become nouns in Latin: as,—

Tyndareus: Tyndar-idēs, Castor or Pollux; Tyndar-is, Helen, daughter of Tyndarus.

Atlas: Atlanti-ades, Mercury; Atlanti-ades (Gr. pl.), the Pleiads

Scīpiō: Scīpi-adēs, son of Scipio. Anchīsēs: Anchīsi-adēs, Æneas. Thēseus: Thēs-īdēs, son of Theseus.

Tydeus: Tyd-Ides, Diomedes, son of Tydeus.

Ofleus: Aiax Oil-Eus, son of Oileus.

Thaumas: Thaumanti-as, Iris, daughter of Thaumas.

Hesperus: Hesper-ides (from Hesper-is, -idis), F. pl., the daughters of Hesperus, the Hesperides.

- c. -ānus, -ēnus, -īnus; -ās, -ēnsis, -acus (-ācus), -icus; -ēus (generally shortened to -ĕus), -ēius, -icius, forming adjectives with the sense of BELONGING TO.
 - I. So from common nouns: as. -

mons (st. monti-), mountain; mont-anus, of the mountains.

vetus (st. veter-), old; veter-anus, veteran.

ante lücem, before light; antelüc-ānus, before daylight.

egeo, lack; eg-enus, needy (see note below).

terra, earth; terr-ēnus, earthly.

sērus, late; ser-ēnus, calm (of evening stillness).

collis, hill; coll-Inus, of a hill.

dīvus, god; dīv-Inus, divine.

libertus, one's freedman; libert-inus, of the class of freedmen.

vitulus, a calf; vitul-īna (sc. carō), veal.

quis, who? cui-as, of what country?

Infimus, lowest; Infim-as, of the lowest rank.

forum, a market-place; for-ensis, of a market-place, or the Forum.

merum, pure wine; mer-acus, pure.

cīvis, a citizen; cīv-icus, civic, of a citizen.

fullo, a fuller; fullon-icus, of a fuller.

fēmina, a woman; fēmin-eus, of a woman, feminine.

lāc, milk (st. lacti-); lact-eus, milky.

plēbēs, the commons; plēb-ēius, of the commons, plebeian.

pater, father; patricius, patrician.

2. But especially from proper nouns (names of places, peoples, and persons), denoting BELONGING TO OR COMING FROM: as,—

Roma: Rom-anus, Roman.

Sulla: Sull-ānī, Sulla's veterans.

Cyzicus: Cyzic-eni, Cyzicenes, people of Cyzicus.

Liguria: Ligur-Inus, of Liguria.

Arpīnum: Arpīn-ās, of Arpinum (ci. Samnium: Samnīs, gen.

-Itis, a Samnite).

Sicilia: Sicili-Ensis, Sicilian.

Īlium, Troy; Īli-acus, Trojan (a Greek torm).

Plato. Platonicus, Platonic.

Aquila: Aquil-eius, a Roman name; Aquileia, a town in Italy.

3. Many derivative adjectives with these endings have by usage become nouns. Thus, —

silva, woods; Silv-anus, M., a god of the woods.

membrum, limb; membr-āna, F., skin.

Aemilia (gens); Aemili-anus, M., name of Scibio Africanus.

lanius, butcher; lāni-ēna, F., a butcher's stall.

†Aufidius (Aufidus), M.; Aufidi-Enus, a Roman name.

incola, an inhabitant; inquil-Inus, M., a lodger.

caecus, blind; Caec-īna, used as M., a Roman name.

gallus, a cock; gall-īna, F., a hen.

ruō, fall (no noun existing); ru-īna, F., a fall.

doctor, teacher; doctr-ina, F., learning.

Note. — Of these terminations, -ānus, -ēnus, -īnus are compounded from -nus added to a stem-vowel: as, arca, arcānus; collis, collinus. The long vowels come from a confusion with verb-stems, as in plē-nus, fini-tus, tribū-tus, assisted by the noun-stem in ā-: as, arcānus. A few nouns occur of similar formation, as from verb-stems in ō- (which were lost in the later language) and in ū-: as, colōnus (colō, cf. incola), patrōnus (cf. patrō, -āre), tribūnus (cf. tribuō, tribus), Portūnus (cf. portus), Vacūna (cf. vacō, vacuus).

d. -ālis, -āris, -ēlis, -īlis, -ūlis, -nus, PERTAINING TO, of various modes of relation or possession, but not used as Gentile adjectives: as, nātūra, nature; nātūr-ālis, natural.

populus, a people; popul-āris, fellow-countryman

patruus, uncle; patru-ēlis, cousin.

hostis, an enemy; host-Ilis, hostile.

currus, chariot; sella cur-ulis, curule chair.

vēr, spring; vēr-nus, vernal.

Note. —-nus is inherited (cf. § 160. δ) and used as secondary. The others are weakened forms of ra- (§ 160. ϵ) added to various vowel-stems. The long vowel comes partly from confusion with verb-stems, cf. Aprilis (aperiō), edülis (edō), and the suffix is afterwards used indiscriminately, as in senilis (senex).

e. -ter (-tris), -ester (-estris), -timus, -ernus, -urnus, -ternus (-turnus), BELONGING TO, of places, times, and the like (but some are general adjectives).

palüs, a marsh; palüs-ter, of the marshes, pedes, a footman; pedes-ter, of the foot.

sex mēnsēs, six months; sēmēs-tris, semi-annual silva, a wood; silv-ester, silv-estris, woody finis, an end; fini-timus, neighboring, on the borders heri (old hesi), yesterday, hes-ternus, of yesterday.

diū, long (in time), diū-turnus, lasting.

hodië, to-day; hodi-ernus, of to-day.

dies, day, di-urnus daily.

Note. — Of these, ester is formed by adding tri- (cf. tro-, § 160) to stems in t- or d- (phonetically 8-). Thus pedet-tri- becomes pedestri-, and others follow the analogy. -ernus and -urnus are formed by adding -nus to 8-stems: as, diur-nus (for †dius-nus), and hence, by analogy, hodiernus (hodiā).

f. -atus, -atus, -atus, PROVIDED WITH, making adjectives with participial ending, formed from nouns, but in reference to an imaginary verb-stem (cf. the English horned, crested, hooked).

barba, a beard; barb-ātus, bearded.

auris, an ear; aur-ītus, long-eared.

versus, a turning; vers-ūtus, crafty, adroit (full of turns).

So -tus, added directly to nouns without reference to any verb: as, — funus. death: funes-tus, deadly.

honor, honor; hones-tus, honorable.

favor, favor; faus-tus (for tfaves-tus), favorable.

g. -eus, -ius, -āceus, -īcius, -āneus (-neus), -ticus, MADE OF or BELONGING TO, forming adjectives of very various meanings: as, --

aurum, gold; aur-eus, golden.

pater, a father; patr-ius, paternal.

uxor, a wife; uxorious.

rosa, a rose; ros-āceus, of roses.

later, a brick; later-Icius, of brick.

praesens, present; praesent-aneus, operating instantly

extrā, without; extr-āneus, external.

sub terra, underground; subterr-aneus, subterranean.

salix, willow; salig-neus of willow.

volo, fly; vola-ticus, winged (volatus, a flight).

domus, a house; domes-ticus, of the house, domestic.

silva, a wood; silvā-ticus, sylvan.

Note, —-ius is originally primitive (\S 160. κ); -icius and -iceus are formed by adding -ius and -eus to stems in i-c-, i-c- (suffix co-, orig. ka-, \S 160. λ); -eus corresponds to Greek - ϵ (25, - ϵ 05, and has lost a y-sound (cf. ya-, \S 160. κ). -neus is no-+ -eus (\S 160. \S). -ineus is formed by adding -neus to in-stems. For -ticus, see \S 159. n.

 λ . -ārius, -tōrius (-sōrius), BELONGING TO, making many adjectives often fixed as nouns (see i)

ordo, rank, order; ordin-arius, regular.

argentum, silver; argent-ārius, of silver or money.

extră, outside; extr-ărius, stranger.

meritus, earned; meri-tōrius, profitable.

devorsus, turned aside; devor-sorius, of an inn (cf. e. 5).

NOTE.—Here -ius (§ 160. *) is added to shorter forms in -āris and -or: as, peculiārius (from peculiāris), bellātōrius (from bellātor).

- i. Many fixed forms of the above adjective suffixes make nouns, more or less regularly used in particular senses: as,—
 - 1. -ārius (regular), person employed about anything: as,—argent-ārius, silversmith, broker (from argentum).
 - 2. aria, thing connected with something: -

arēn-āriae, P. pl., sandpits (from arēna, sand). Asin-āria, P., name of a play (from asinus, ass).

3. -ārium (regular), place of a thing (with a few of more general meaning): as, —

aer-ārium, N., treasury (from aes, copper)
tepid-ārium, N., warm bath (from tepidus, warm).
sūd-ārium, N., a towel (cf. sūdō, -āre, sweat).
sal-ārium, N., salt money, salary (from sāl, salt).
calend-ārium, N., a note-book (from calendae, calends).

4. -tōria (-sōria): as, --

Agitā-tōria, F., a play of Plautus, *The Carter* (from agitātor). vor-sōria, F., a tack (from vorsus, a turn).

5. -tōrium (-sōrium) (regular), place of action (with a few of more general meaning): as,—

dēvor-sōrium, N., an inn (as from dēvortō, turn aside) audī-tōrium, N., a lecture-room (as from audiō, hear). ten-tōrium, N., a tent (as from tendō, stretch). tēc-tōrium, N., plaster (as from tegō, tēctus, cover). por-tōrium, N., toll (cf. portō, carry, and portus, harbor).

6. - Tle, animal-stall: as, -

bov-Ile, N., cattle-stall (bos, bovis, ox, cow). ov-Ile, sheep-fold (ovis, st. ovi-, sheep).

7. -al for -ale, thing connected with the primitive: as, -

capit-al, N., headdress, capital crime (caput, head).
penetr-āle (esp. in pl.), N., inner apartment (cf. penetrō).

Saturn-alia N. pl. (the regular form for names of festivals), feast of Saturn (from Saturnus).

8. -Stum, N. (cf. -Atus, -Utus, see f), place of a thing: as,—quero-Stum, N., oak grove (from querous, oak).

Argil-stum, N., The Clay-pit (from argilla, clay).

9. -cus (sometimes with inserted 1, -icus), -īcus, in any one of the genders, with various meanings: as, —

vIIi-cus, M., vIIi-ca, F., a steward (stewardess) (from villa, farm house).

fabr-ica, F., a workshop (from faber, workman).

būbul-cus, M., ox-tender (from būb-ulus, dim., cf. bos, ox).

cant-icum, N., song (from cantus, act of singing).

rubr-Ica, F., red paint (from ruber, red).

10. -eus, -ea, -eum, with various meanings: as, -

alv-eus, M., a trough (from alvus, the belly).

capr-ea, F., a roe (from caper, he-goat).

flamm-eum, N., a bridal veil (from flamma, flame, from its color).

11. -1um, confounded with the primary suffix (see § 163. f).

12. -ter (stem tro-) and -ter (stem tri-), -aster -ester: as, -

Aus-ter, M., South wind (from uro, burn).

eques-ter, M., knight (for tequet-ter, see e, note).

sequ-ester, M., a stake-holder (from derivative of sequor, follow). ole-aster, M., wild olive (from olea) (cf. surd-aster, from surdus)

k. -osus, -(o)lens, -(o)lentus, FULL OF, PRONE TO: as, -

flüctus, wave; flüctu-osus, billowy.

forma, beauty; form-osus, beautiful.

periculum, peril; pericul-osus, full of danger.

pestis, pesti-lens, pesti-lentus, pestilent.

vīnum, wine; vīno-lentus, vīn-osus, given to drink.

II. VERBAL.

2. -ax, -idus, -ulus, -vus (-uus, -īvus, -tīvus), PRONE TO, FITTED TO, apparently added to verb-stems, forming adjectives, to express the action of a verb as a QUALITY or TENDENCY. -ax, denotes a faulty or aggressive tendency; -tīvus is oftener passive. Thus,—

pūgnō, to fight; pūgn-āx, pugnacious.

audeo, to dare; aud-ax, bold.

cupio, to desire; cup-idus, eager.

bibo, to drink; bib-ulus, thirsty (as dry earth, etc.).

protero, to trample; proter-vus, violent, wanton.

noceo, do harm; noc-uus (noc-Ivus), hurtful, injurious.

capio, take; cap-tivus, captive, M., a prisoner of war. recido, fall back; recid-ivus, restored.

¹ The forms felt as verbal are, like the nominal forms, derived from noun-stems, and the two are constantly confounded.

Note.—Of these, -\(\bar{a}\xi\) is a reduction of -\(\bar{a}\cus\) (stem-vowel \(\bar{a}\to + -\cus\)), become independent and used with verb-stems. Similar forms in -\(\bar{o}\xi\), -\(\bar{o}\xi\), -\(\bar{o}\xi\), and -\(\bar{u}\xi\) are found or implied in derivatives; as, imbrex, M., a rain-tile (from imber); senex, old (from seni-s); fero\(\bar{o}\xi\), ferce (from ferus); atr\(\bar{o}\xi\), savage (from seni-s); cel\(\bar{o}\xi\), F., a yacht (cf. cel\(\bar{o}\)); fell\(\bar{o}\xi\), happy, orig. fertile (from fel\(\bar{o}\xi\), suck [?]); fid\(\bar{o}\xi\), confidence (as from \(\bar{o}\xi\))d\(\bar{o}\xi\); cf. also victr\(\bar{o}\xi\) (from victor). So mand\(\bar{o}\xi\), chewing (from mand\(\bar{o}\xi\)).

-idus is no doubt denominative, as in herbi-dus, herb; tumidus, swollen (cf. tumu-lus, hill; tumul-tus, uproar); callidus, tough, cunning (cf. callum, tough flesh); muci-dus, slimy (cf. mucus, slime); tābidus, wasting (cf. tābēs, wasting disease). But later it was used to form adjectives directly from verb-stems.

-ulus is the same suffix as in diminutives, but attached to verb-stems. Cf. aemulus, rivalling (cf. linttor and imago); sodulus, sitting by, attentive (cf. domi-seda, home-staying, and sodo, calm); pendulus, hanging (cf. pondo, abl., in weight; perpendiculum, a plummet; appendix, an addition); stragulus, covering (cf. stragos); legulus, a picker up of things sacred). But they were thoroughly attached to verbs.

-Vus seems originally primary (cf. § 160. θ), but ivus and -tivus have become secondary and are used with nouns: as, aestivus, of summer (from aestus, keat); tempestivus, timely (from tempus); cf. domes-ticus (from domus).

m. -ilis, -bilis, -ius, -tilis, (-silis), expressing PASSIVE QUALITIES, but occasionally active: as.—

frango (FRAG), break; frag-ilis, frail.

nosco (GNO), know; no-bilis, well known, famous.

eximo, take out, select; exim-ius, choice, rare (cf. 6-greg-ius)

ago, drive; ag-ilis, active.

habeo, hold; hab-ilis, handy.

alo, nourish; al-tilis, fattened (see note).

Note.—Of these, -lus is primary, but is also used as secondary (cf. § 163. f).
-ills is certainly secondary: as, similis, like (cf. $\delta\mu\sigma$ s, Eng. same); agilis, active (cf. prodigus, $\sigma\tau\rho\alpha\tau\eta\gamma\delta$ s, so ago + -lis); facilis, easy (cf. bene-ficus); fragilis, frail (cf. foederi-fragus). -bilis also is probably bo - + -lis (cf. -bus in morbus, -bulum, -bundus, -brum, -bris; cf. also -lils and -tilis); in -tilis and -silis, -lis is added to to - (80-), stem of the perfect participle: as, fossilis, dug up (from fossus, dug); volatilis, winged (from volatus, fight).

n. -minus, -mnus. These endings are properly participial (ct. Greek - $\mu\epsilon\nu$ 05, and amā-minī). They form a few nouns in which the participial force is discernible: as, -

FE, produce; fe-mina, woman (the producer).

alo, nourish; alu-mnus, a foster child, nursling.

e. -ndus (the same as the gerund-ending) forms a few active or reflexive adjectives: as, —

sequor, follow; secu-ndus, second (the following), favorable.

roto, whirl (from rota, wheel); rotu-ndus, round (whirling1).

¹ Compare volvendis mensibus, in the revolving months (Virg.).

Note.—This suffix is no doubt on-+-dus: as, tgerus (st. gerő-, ct. armiger), gerő (st. gerőn-), tgerondus (cf. -bundus and -cundus; and turunda, a paste-ball).

p. -bundus, -cundus, with a participial meaning, but denoting continuance of the act or quality.

iocus, a jest; iū-cundus, pleasant (cf. iuvo, -āre).

vīto, shun; vītā-bundus, dodging about.

tremo, tremble; treme-bundus, trembling,

morior, die; mori-bundus, at the point of death.

for, speak; fā-cundus, eloquent.

FE, produce; fe-cundus, fruitful.

So īra, anger; īrā-cundus, irascible (cf. īrā-scor).

NOTE.—These must have been originally nominal: as in the series, rubus, red bush; rubidus (but no †rubicus), red; Rubicon, Red River (cf. Miniō, a river of Etruria; Minius, a river of Lusitania); rubicundus (as in averruncus homun-culus). So turba, commotion; tur'ō, a top; turbidus, roily, etc. Cf. apexabō, longābō, gravēdō, dulcēdō.

III. IRREGULAR DERIVATIVES.

q. The primary suffix 5n- (nom. -5) is used as secondary to form nouns denoting POSSESSED OF (originally adjectives), and so expressing a character, and often used as proper names: 1 as,—

epulae, a feast; epul-o, a feaster.

nāsus, a nose; nās-ō, with a large nose (also as a proper name).

-volus (in bene-volus), wishing; vol-ones (pl.), volunteers.

frons, forehead; front-o, big-head (also as a proper name).

So cūria, a curia; cūri-ō, head of a curia (also as proper name). restis. a rope; resti-ō, a rope-maker.

tvespertIlis, of the evening; vespertIli-o, a bat.

r. Rarely suffixes are added to compound stems imagined, but not used in their compound form: as,—

ad-verb-ium, adverb; ad, to, and verbum, verb, but without the intervening †adverbus.

läti-fund-ium, large estate; lätus, wide, fundus, estate.

su ove-taur-Ilia, a sacrifice of a sheep, a swine, and a bull; süs, swine, ovis, sheep, taurus, bull, where the primitive would be impossible in Latin, though such formations are common in Sanskrit.

IV. - DERIVATION OF VERBS.

165. Verbs may be classed as Primitive or Derivative.

¹ This suffix is the same as in δ_1 162. c_1 but not connected with a verb.

- 1. Primitive verbs are those inherited by the Latin from the parent speech.
- 2. Derivative verbs are those formed in the development of the Latin as a separate language. They are of two main classes: --
 - a. DENOMINATIVE VERBS, formed from nouns or adjectives.
 - b. Verbs apparently derived from the stems of other verbs (see § 167).

Denominative Verbs.

- 166. Verbs were formed in Latin from almost every form of noun- and adjective-stem.
- a. 1. Verbs of the first conjugation 1 are formed directly from ā-stems, regularly with a transitive meaning: as, fuga, flight; fugō, put to flight.
- NOTE. No doubt originally particular forms of stem formed particular conjugations of verbs, but from changes of stem and from various cross-analogies the relation between conjugations and stem-forms became entirely confused. Thus poena should make †pūnāre, but it really makes pūnīre, in accordance with an i-stem, as in impūni-s; servus makes servāre in one sense, servīre in another.
- 2. Many verbs of the First Conjugation are formed from o-stems, changing the o- into a-. These are more commonly transitive. Thus, —

stimulus, a goad (stem stimulo-); stimulō (-āre), incite. aequus, even (stem aequo-); aequo (-are), make even. hibernus, of the winter (stem hiberno-); hiberno, pass the winter. albus, white (stem albo-); albo (-are), whiten. pius, pure (stem pio-); piō (-āre), expiate.

3. A few verbs, generally neuter, are formed by analogy from consonant- and u-stems, adding a to the stem: as, -

vigil, awake, vigilo (-āre), watch. exsul, an exile; exsulo (-are), be in exile. hiemps (stem hiem-), winter; hiemo (-are), pass the winter. aestus, tide, seething; aestuō (-āre), surge, boil. levis (stem levi-), light; levo (-are), lighten.

b. A few verbs of the Second Conjugation (generally intransitive) are recognizable as formed from noun-stems, but most are inherited, or the primitive noun-stem is lost: as, —

¹ A few verbs of the first conjugation are inherited. These are (1) formed directly from a root ending in a vowel, as dare (DA), stare (STA), nare (NA); (2) formed with -yami (see p. 86), as vocare; or (3) uncertain, as amare.

albus, white; albeō, be white (cf. albō, -āre, whiten, under a. 2). cānus (stem cāno-), hoary; cāneō, be hoary. tumulus, hill (implying † tumus, swelling); tumeō, swell. prō-vidus, foreseeing; prō-videō, foresee.
But moneō, remind; cf. meminī, remember.
algeō, be cold; cf. algidus, cold.

NOTE.—The second conjugation has undoubtedly been formed partly through the agency of stems like those of the fifth declension in §-, originally §s-: as, tsord§s, -is, fith; sord§§, be dirty, cf. Eng. swart; t&b§s, -is, wasting; t&b§, waste away (cf. also pūb§s, pūb§sc§); r§s, thing; reor, reckon. But the traces of the original formation of these verbs are almost lost from the language.

c. Some verbs in -uō, -uere are formed from noun-stems in u-where probably an i has been lost: as, —

status, position; statuō, set up.
metus, fear; metuō, fear.
indu (old form of in), in, on: induō, put on.
So, by analogy, exuō, doff, from ex, out of.

NOTE.—Many verbs in u are inherited, being formed from roots in u: as, fluō, fluere; so-lvō, solvere. Some roots have a parasitic u: as, loquor, locutus.

d. Many verbs of the Fourth Conjugation are formed from 1-stems: as,—

mölös (-is), mass; mölior, -īrī, toil.
fīnis, end; fīniō, -īre, bound.
sitis, thirst; sitiō, -īre, thirst.
stabilis, stable; stabiliō, -īre, establish.

Some arise by confusion from other stems treated as if i-stems: as,—

bulla, bubble; bullio, -Ire, boil.

condus, storekeeper; condio, -Ire, preserve.

Insānus, mad; Insāniō, -Ire, rave.

gestus, gesture; gestio, -Ire, show wild longing.

custos, guardian; custodio, -īre. guard.

NOTE.—Some of this form are of doubtful origin: as, ordior, begin, cf. ordo and exordium. The formation is closely akin to that of verbs in -10 of the third conjugation (p. 100)

2. Verbs from Other Verbs.

167. The following classes of verbs regularly derived from other verbs have special meanings connected with their terminations.

NOTE.—These classes are all really denominative in their origin, but had become so associated with verbs that new derivatives were often formed directly from verbs without the intervention of a noun-stem.

a. INCEPTIVES or INCHOATIVES add -scō to the present stem of verbs. They denote the *beginning* of an action. Of some there is no simple verb in existence. Thus,—

caleō, be warm; calē-scō, grow warm.
labō, totter; labā-scō, begin to totter.
sciō, know; scī-scō, determine.
cupiō, desire; con-cupī-scō, conceive a desire for.
alō, feed; ale-scō, grow.
So Irā-scor, get angry; cf. Irā-tus.
iuvene-sco, grow young; cf. iuvenis, young man.
mīte-scō, grow mild; cf. mītis, mild.
vesperā-scit, it is getting late; cf. vesper, evening.

NOTE.—Inceptives properly have only the present stem, but many use the perfect and supine systems of simple verbs: as, calēscō, caluī; proficiscor, profectus.

b. Intensives or Iteratives end in -tō or -itō (rarely -sō), and denote a forcible or repeated action: as, --

iaciō, throw; iac-tō, hurl. dīcō, say; dict-itō, keep on saying. quatiō, shake; quas-aō, shatter.

They are of the first conjugation, and are properly denominative, derived from the participle in -tus (stem to-).

NOTE.—But they were originally denominatives from a noun of agency in -ta, like nauta, sailor. Hence some are formed from a stem different from the supine: as, ago, agito (not +acto); so, dictito, not +dictato, from dicto.

c. Another form of Intensives—sometimes called Meditatives, or verbs of *practice*—ends in -essō (rarely -issō). These denote a certain *energy* or *eagerness* of action: as,—

capiō, take; cap-essō, lay hold on. faciō, do; fac-essō, do (with energy). petō, seek; pet-issō, seek (eagerly).

These are of the third conjugation, usually having the perfect and supine of the fourth: as,—

lacesso, lacessere, lacessivi, lacessitum, provoke.

d. DIMINUTIVES (derived from real or supposed diminutive nouns) end in -1116, and denote a feeble or petty action: as, -

cavilla, raillery; cav-illor, jest canto, sing; cant-illo, chirp or warble.

e. Desideratives end in -turiō (-suriō), and express longing or wishing. They are of the fourth conjugation, and only three are in common use:—

emō, buy; emp-turiō, want to buy. edō, eat; ē-suriō, be hungry. pariō, bring forth; par-turiō, be in labor.

Others are used by the dramatists.

NOTE. — Desideratives are derived from some noun of agency: as, empturio, from emptor, buyer. Viso, go to see, is an inherited desiderative of a different formation.

3. Compound Words.

A Compound Word is one whose stem is made up of two or more simple stems.

Only noun-stems can be thus compounded. A preposition, however, often becomes attached to a verb.

- 168. New stems are formed by composition as follows:1
- a. The second part is simply added to the first: as,—
- su-ove-taurIlia (süs, ovis, taurus), the sacrifice of a hog, sheep, and bull (cf. § 164. r).
- septen-decim (septem, decem), seventeen.
- b. The first part modifies the second as an adjective or adverb (Determinative Compounds): as,—

läti-fundium (lätus, fundus), a large landed estate.

c. The first part has the force of a case, and the second a verbal force (Objective Compounds): as,—

In these compounds only the second part receives inflection. This is most commonly the proper inflection of the last stem; but, as this kind of composition is in fact older than inflection, the compounded stem sometimes has an inflection of its own (as, cornicon, -clnis; lucifer, -feri; iudex, -dicis), from stems not occurring in Latin. Especially do compound adjectives in Latin take the form of 1-stems: as, animus, exanimis; norma, abnormis (see note, p. 30). In composition stems regularly have their uninflected form: as, igni-spicium, divining by fire. But 0- and 8-stems weaken the final vowel of the stem to 1-, as in alli-pes (from ala, st. ālā-); and 1- is so common a termination of compounded stems, that it is often added to stems which do not properly have it: as, foederifragus (for floeder-fragus: foedus, fragus), treaty-breaking.

agri-cola (ager, †cola akin to colō), a farmer. armi-ger (arma, †ger akin to gerō), armor-bearer. corni-cen (cornū, †cen akin to canō), horn-blower. carni-fex (carō, †fex akin to faciō), executioner.

d. Compounds of the above kinds, in which the last word is a noun, acquire the signification of adjectives, meaning possessed of the quality denoted (Possessive Compounds): as,—

āli-pēs (āla, pēs), wing-footed.

mägn-animus (mägnus, animus), great-souled.

con-cors (con-, cor), harmonious.

an-ceps (amb-, caput), double (having a head at both ends).

Note. — Many compounds of the above classes appear only in the form of some further derivative, the proper compound being impossible in Latin (cf. § 164. r).

169. In many apparent compounds, complete words—not stems—have grown together in speech.

These are not strictly compounds in the etymological sense. They are called Syntactic Compounds. Examples are:—

- a. Compounds of faciō, factō, with an actual or formerly existing noun-stem confounded with a verbal stem in e-. These are CAUSATIVE in force: as, cōnsuē-faciō, habituate (cf. cōnsuē-scō, become accustomed); cale-faciō, cale-factō, to heat (cf. calē-scō, grow warm).
- b. An adverb or noun combined with a verb: as, bene-dīcō (bene dīcō), to bless; sat-agō (satis agō), to be busy enough.
- c. Many apparent compounds of stems: as, fide-iubeo (fidel iubeo), to give surety; man-suetus (manul suetus), tame; Iuppiter (†Ius-pater); Marci-por (Marci puer), slave of Marcus.
 - d. A few phrases forced into the ordinary inflections of nouns: as,—prō-cōnsul, proconsul (for prō cōnsule, instead of a consul). trium-vir, triumvir (singular from trium virōrum). septen-triō, the Bear, a constellation (supposed singular of septem
 - triones, The Seven Oxen).
- 170. Many syntactic compounds are formed by prefixing a Particle to some other part of speech:—
- a. Prepositions are prefixed to Verbs or Adjectives. In these compounds the prepositions retain their original adverbial sense: 1 as, —

¹ The prepositions sometimes, however, have their ordinary force as prepositions, especially ad, in, circum, trans, and govern the case of a noun: as, transire flumen, to cross a river (see § 239. b. Rem.).

ā, ab, AWAY: au-ferre (ab-ferō), to take away.
ad, TO, TOWARDS: af-ferre (ad-ferō), to bring.
ante, BEFORE: ante-ferre, to prefer; ante-cellere, to excl.
circum, AROUND: circum-mūnīre, to fortify completely.
com-, con- (cum), TOGETHER OF FORCIBLY: cōn-ferre, to bring
together; col-locāre, to set firm.
dō, DOWN, UTTERLY: dō-spicere, despise; dōstruere, destroy.
ō, ex, OUT: ef-ferre (ec-ferō), to carry forth, uplift.
in (with verbs), IN, ON, AGAINST: In-ferre, to bear against.
inter, BETWEEN, TO PIECES: inter-rumpere, to interrupt.
ob, TOWARDS, TO MEET: of-ferre, to offer; ob-venīre, to meet.
sub, UNDER: sub-struere, to build beneath.
super, UPON, OVER AND ABOVE: super-fluere, to overflow; su-

NOTE.—In these compounds short a of the root is weakened to i before one consonant, to e before two: as, facio, conficio, confectus; iacio, sicio, siectus. But long a is retained: as, peractus.

perstes, a survivor.

b. Verbs are also compounded with the following inseparable particles, which do not appear as prepositions in Latin:—

amb- (am-, an-), AROUND: amb-īre, to go about (cf. ἀμφί, about).
dis-, dī-, ASUNDER, APART: dis-cēdere, to depart (cf. duō, two).
por-, FORWARD: por-tendere, to hold forth, predict (cf. porrō, forth).

red-, re-, BACK, AGAIN: red-Tre, to return; re-cludere, to open (from claudo, shut); re-ficere, to repair (make-again).
sed-, se-, APART: se-cerno, to separate (cf. sed, but).

c. An Adjective is sometimes modified by an adverbial prefix.

Of these, per (less commonly prae), very; sub, somewhat; in-, not, are regular, and may be prefixed to almost any adjective: as,—

per-mägnus, very large. prae-longus, very long. sub-rüsticus, rather clownish. In-finītus, boundless.

Note. — Per and sub, in these senses, are also prefixed to verbs: as, perterreo, terrify; sub-rideo, smile.

PART SECOND.—USE OF WORDS (SYNTAX).

INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

THE study of formal grammar arose at a late period in the history of language, and deals with language as fully developed. The terms of Syntax correspond accordingly to the logical habits of thought that have grown up at such a period, and have therefore a logical as well as a simply grammatical meaning. But Syntax as thus developed is not essential to language. A form of words—like of puerum pulcrum! oh! beautiful boy—may express a thought, and in some languages might even be a sentence; while it does not logically declare anything, and does not, strictly speaking, make what we call a sentence at all.

At a very early period of spoken language, Roots were no doubt significant in themselves, and constituted the whole of language,—just as to an infant the name of some familiar object will stand for all it can say about it. At a somewhat later stage, two simple roots put side by side 1 made a rudimentary form of proposition: as a child might say fire bright; horse run. With this begins the first form of logical distinction, that of Subject and Predicate; but as yet there is no distinction between noun and verb either in form or function. Roots were presently specialized, or modified in meaning, by the addition of other roots either pronominal or verbal, and Stems were formed; but the same stem could still be either nominal or verbal. In this period composition is the only form of syntax. Still later—by combination chiefly of different pronominal elements with verb-stems and with noun-stems—Inflections were developed to express person, tense, case, and other grammatical relations, and we have true parts of speech.

Not until language reached this last stage was there any limit to the association of words, or any rule prescribing the manner in which they should be combined. But gradually, by custom, particular forms came to be limited to special uses, or were produced to serve those uses; and rules were established for combining words in what we now call Sentences. These rules are in part general laws or forms of thought (Logic), resulting from our habits of mind (General Grammar); and in part are what may be called By-Laws, established by custom in a given language (Particular Grammar), and making what is called the Syntax of that language.

2 Sometimes called accidents: hence the "accidence" of the language. Com-

pare pp. 19, note 1; 78, note 1; 119-21; § 118. note.

¹ In most languages there still remain traces of the unorganized forms of expression: as, for example, the nominative or accusative in Exclamations (§ 240. d), and the omission of the Copula (§ 206. c). These are sometimes wrongly regarded as cases of Ellipsis. Compare also the use of Interjections generally.

In the fully developed methods of expression to which we are almost exclusively accustomed, the unit of expression is the SENTENCE1; that is, the completed statement, with its distinct Subject and Predicate. Originally every sentence is simple. But two simple sentences may be used together, without the subordination of either, to express a more complex form of thought than can be denoted by one alone. This is parataxis (arrangement side by side). In time two sentences, thus habitually used in connection, come to be regularly associated with each other, in certain relations, as parts of one logical idea, and the one is felt to depend upon the other. This is syntaxis (arrangement together). In this way, through various courses of development, which correspond to the growth of our habitual forms of thought. there are produced various forms of complex sentences. Thus timeo ne id accidat was originally two simple sentences: I fear. Let that not happen! and these, becoming attached, formed the complex sentence: I fear (lest) that may happen. The results of these processes constitute the subject-matter of Syntax as shown in the annexed Outline.

```
I. A SENTENCE may be either Simple or Compound: viz.,

I. SIMPLE:

{
    Containing a single statement (Subject and Predicate) (§ 180).

{
    a. Containing two or more Co-ordinate Clauses (§ 180. a).

}
    b. Modified by Subordinate Clauses (complex)
(§ 180. b).
```

- II. The Essential Parts of the Sentence are -
- III. The Subject and Predicate may be MODIFIED as follows:
 - a. Noun in Apposition (§ 184).
 b. Adjective or Participle (§ 186).
 c. Noun in Oblique Case (§ 178. a, b).
 d. Preposition with its case (§ 260).
 e. Relative Clause (§ 180. c).

 a. Adverb or Adverbial Phrase (§§ 179, 207).
 b. Predicate Adjective (§ 191).
 c. Subordinate Clause (§ 180. b).
- IV. Hence: { a. Rules of AGREEMENT (the Four Concords) (§ 182). b. Rules of GOVERNMENT (Construction of Cases) (§ 213 ft.).

¹ The meaning of Sentence is "Thought" (sententia from sentire). The grammatical form of the sentence is the form in which the thought is expressed.

CHAPTER I. — The Sentence.

1. Definitions.

- 171. A SENTENCE is a form of words which contains a Statement, a Question, an Exclamation, or a Command.
- a. A sentence in the form of a Statement is called a DECLARATIVE SENTENCE: as, equus currit, the horse runs.
- b. A sentence in the form of a Question is called an Interrogative Sentence: as, equisne currit? does the horse run?
- c. A sentence in the form of an Exclamation is called an Exclamatory Sentence: as, quam celeriter currit equus! how fast the horse runs!
- d. A sentence in the form of a Command, an Exhortation, or an Entreaty is called an IMPERATIVE SENTENCE: as, currat equus, let the horse run; I, curre per Alpes, go, run across the Alps.
- 172. Every sentence consists of a Subject and a Predicate.

The Subject of a sentence is the person or thing spoken of.

The PREDICATE is that which is said of the Subject.

Thus in equus currit, the horse runs, equus is the subject, and currit the predicate.

NOTE. — Every complete sentence must contain a subject (§ 174) and a verb. The verb itself is usually the predicate, but when any form of sum is used simply to connect a noun or adjective as an attribute with the subject, such word is called the predicate noun or adjective, and sum is known as the copula (or connective) (§ 176. a). Thus in Gaesar consul erat, Casar was consul, Gaesar is the subject, consul the predicate noun, and erat the copula.

But sum in the sense of exist makes a complete predicate alone. It is then called the substantive verb; as, sunt viri fortos, there are (exist) brave men.

2. Subject and Predicate.

173. I. The Subject of a Finite verb is in the Nominative Case: as, —

equus currit, the horse runs. regina sedet, the queen sits.

2. The Subject of an Infinitive is in the Accusative (see § 240. f).

NOTE.—A finite verb is a verb in the Indicative, Subjunctive, or Imperative. These are called finite moods to distinguish them from the Infinitive.

174. 1. The Subject of a sentence is usually a Noun or some word or phrase used as a Noun: as,—

humanum est errare, to err is human.

quaeritur num mors malum sit, the question is whether death is an evil. vēnit, incertum est unde, he came, where from is uncertain.

2. But in Latin the subject may be implied in the termination of the verb (see § 206. a, b): as,—

sede-mus, we sit. curri-tis, you run. inqui-t, says he.

- 175. Verbs are either Transitive or Intransitive.
- a. An Intransitive (or Neuter) verb contains in itself an entire statement: as, —

cado, I fall (am falling).

sol lucet, the sun is shining.

sunt viri fortes, there are brave men.

b. A Transitive (or Active) verb has or requires a Direct Object to complete its sense (see § 177): as,—

fratrem cecidit, he slew his brother.

NOTE I.—Among transitive verbs FACTITATIVE VERBS are sometimes distinguished as a separate class. These state an act which produces the thing expressed by the word which completes their sense. Thus mensam fecit, he made a table (which was not in existence before), is distinguished from mensam percussit, he struck a table (which already existed).

NOTE 2.—A transitive verb may often be used absolutely without any object expressed: as, arat, he is ploughing, where the verb does not cease to be transitive because the object is left indefinite, as we see by adding,—quid, what? agrum

suum, his land.

3. Predicate Noun.

176. An intransitive verb is often followed by a noun or adjective to describe or define the subject. This is called a Predicate Noun or Adjective: as,—

mortuus cecidit, he fell dead.

Quintus sedet iudex, Quintus sits as judge.

Caesar victor incedit, Casar advances victorious (a victor).

a. The copula sum especially is used with a predicate noun or adjective (§ 172. note). So also verbs signifying to become, to be made, to be named, to appear, whence these are called COPULATIVE (i.e. coupling) verbs.

NOTE. — A noun in agreement with some part of the predicate is sometimes a Predicate Noun (see § 185. c).

b. A Predicate noun or adjective after the copula sum or a copulative verb is in the same case as the subject (see § 185. a).

Roma est patria nostra, Rome is our country. stellae lūcidae erant, the stars were bright (cf. stellae lūcebant). consul creatus est, he was elected consul. mors fīnis esse vidētur, death seems to be the end. dicit non omnes bonos esse beātos, he says that not all good men are happy.

4. Object.

177. The person or thing immediately affected by the action of a verb is called the DIRECT OBJECT.

A person or thing indirectly affected is called the IN-DIRECT OBJECT.

Only transitive verbs can have a Direct Object; but an Indirect Object may be used with both transitive and intransitive verbs (§§ 225, 226). Thus:—

pater vocat fīlium (direct object), the father calls his son. mihi (ind. obj.) agrum (dir. obj.) ostendit, he showed me a field. mihi (ind. obj.) placet, it is pleasing to me.

NOTE.—The distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs is not fixed, but most transitive verbs may be used intransitively, and many verbs usually intransitive may take a direct object and so become transitive ($\langle 237. b \rangle$).

a. When a transitive verb is changed from the Active to the Passive voice, the Direct Object becomes the Subject and is put in the nominative case: as, —

Active: pater filium vocat, the father calls [his] son.

Passive: filius a patre vocatur, the son is called by his father.

Active: lunam et stellas videmus, we see the moon and the stars.

Passive: luna et stellae videntur, the moon and stars are seen (appear).

b. With certain verbs, the Genitive, Dative, or Ablative is used where the English, from a difference in meaning, requires the Objective. Thus:—

hominem video, I see the man (ACCUSATIVE). homini servio, I serve the man (DATIVE, see § 227). hominis misereor, I pity the man (GENITIVE, see § 221. a). homine amico ūtor, I treat the man as a friend (ABLATIVE, see § 249).

c. Many verbs transitive in Latin are translated in English by an intransitive verb with a preposition: as, —

petit aprum, he aims at the boar. laudem affectat, he strives after praise. curat valetudinem, he takes care of his health. NOTE.—One or more words, essential to the grammatical completeness of a sentence, but clear enough to the mind of a hearer, are often omitted. This omission is called ELLIPSIS, and the sentence is called an ELLIPTICAL SENTENCE: as, adest, he is here; quis? (sc. adest), who? miles (sc. adest), the soldier

5. Modification.

178. A Subject or a Predicate may be modified by a single word, or by a group of words (a Phrase or a Clause, see §§ 179, 180).

The modifying word or group of words may itself be modified in the same way.

- a. A single modifying word may be an adjective, an adverb, an appositive (§ 184), or the oblique case of a noun. Thus in the sentence vir fortis patienter fert, a brave man bears patiently, the adjective fortis, brave, modifies the subject vir, man, and the adverb patienter, patiently, modifies the predicate fert, bears.
- b. The modifying word is in some cases said to LIMIT the word to which it belongs. Thus in the sentence puer patrem video, I see the boy's father, the genitive puer limits patrem (by excluding any other father).
- 179. A Phrase is a group of words, without subject or predicate of its own, which may be used as an Adjective or an Adverb.

Thus in the sentence vir fuit summā nobilitāte, he was a man of the highest nobility, the words summā nobilitāte, of the highest nobility, are used for the adjective nobilis, noble (or nobilissimus, very noble), and are called an ADJECTIVE PHRASE. In the sentence māgnā celeritāte vēnit, he came with great speed, the words māgnā celeritāte, with great speed, are used for the adverb celeriter, quickly (or celerimē, very quickly), and are called an ADVERBIAL PHRASE.

180. Sentences are either Simple or Compound.

A sentence containing a single statement is called a SIMPLE SENTENCE.

A sentence containing more than one statement is called a Compound Sentence, and each single statement in it is called a Clause.

a. If one statement is simply added to another, the clauses are said to be CO-ORDINATE. They are usually connected by a Co-ordinate Conjunction (§ 154.a); but this is sometimes omitted (§ 208.b). Thus:

divide et impera, divide and conquer. But, - veni, vidi, vici, I came, I saw, I conquered.

b. If one statement modifies another in any way, the modifying clause is said to be SUBORDINATE, and the clause modified is called the MAIN CLAUSE.

This subordination is indicated by some connecting word, either a Subordinate Conjunction or a Relative (§ 154. b): as,—

oderint dum metuant, let them hate so long as they fear.

servum misit quem secum habebat, he sent the slave whom he had with him.

A sentence containing one or more subordinate clauses is sometimes called COMPLEX.

NOTE. — A subordinate clause may itself be modified by another subordinate clause.

c. A clause introduced by a Relative pronoun or adverb is called a Relative Clause.

A clause introduced by an adverb of time is called a TEMPORAL CLAUSE. Thus:—

dum tacent clamant, while they are silent they cry aloud.

homines aegri morbo gravi cum iactantur aestu febrique, si aquam gelidam biberint primo relevari videntur, men suffering with a severe sickness, when they are tossing with the heat of fever, if they drink cold water, seem at first to be relieved.

d. A clause containing a Condition, introduced by sī, if, or some equivalent, is called a CONDITIONAL CLAUSE. A sentence containing a conditional clause is called a CONDITIONAL SENTENCE.

Thus, si aquam gelidam biberint, primo relevari videntur (cf. c above) is a Conditional Sentence, and si... biberint is a Conditional Clause.

e. A clause expressing the Purpose of an action is called a FINAL CLAUSE.

edo ut vivam, I eat to live (that I may live).

misit legatos qui dicerent, he sent ambassadors to say (who should say).

A clause expressing the Result of an action is called a Consecutive CLAUSE.¹

tam longe aberam ut non viderem, I was too far away to see (so far away that I didn't see).

¹ Observe that the classes defined in a-e are not mutually exclusive, but that a single clause may belong to several of them at once. Thus a relative clause is usually subordinate, and may be at the same time conditional; and subordinate clauses may be co-ordinate with each other.

f. Sentences or clauses are regularly connected by means of CON-JUNCTIONS; but frequently in Latin—more rarely in English—independent sentences are connected by Relative Pronouns or Adverbs. In this case, the relative is often best translated in English by a conjunction with a demonstrative (cf. §§ 201. e, 336. b. Rem.): as,—

quo cum venisset, and when he had come there (whither when he had come). quae cum ita sint, and since these things are so.

AGREEMENT.

- 181. A word is said to agree with another when it is required by usage to be in the same Gender, Number, Case, or Person.
- 182. The following are the general forms of Agreement, sometimes called the Four Concords:—
- 1. The agreement of the Noun in Apposition or as Predicate (§§ 184, 185).
 - 2. The agreement of the ADJECTIVE with its Noun (§ 186).
 - 3. The agreement of the RELATIVE with its Antecedent (§ 198).
 - 4. The agreement of the VERB with its Subject (§ 204).
- a. A word sometimes takes the gender or number, not of the word with which it should regularly agree, but of some other word implied in that word. This use is called SYNESIS, or constructio ad sons (construction according to sense).

I. - NOUNS.

183. A noun used to describe another, and denoting the same person or thing, agrees with it in Case: as,—

Servius rex, Servius the king. ad urbem Athenas, to the city [of] Athens. Cicero consul creatur, Cicero is chosen consul.

The descriptive noun may be either an Appositive (§ 184) or a Predicate noun (§ 185).

1. Apposition.

184. The descriptive noun, when in the same part of the sentence with the noun described, is called an Appositive, and is said to be in Apposition: as,—

- externus timor, maximum concordiae vinculum, iungebat animos (Liv. ii. 39), fear of the foreigner, the chief bond of harmony, united their hearts.

 [Here the descriptive noun belongs to the subject.]
- quattuor hic primum omen equos vidi (An. iii. 537), I saw here four horses, the first omen. [Here both nouns are in the predicate.]
- litteras Graecas senex didici (Cat. M. 8), I learned Greek when an old man. [Here senex is in apposition with the subject of didici, and expresses the time, condition, etc., of the act.]
- a. An appositive with two or more nouns is in the plural: as,—
- Gnaeus et Püblius Scipiones, Cneius and Publius, the Scipios (Cneius and Publius Scipio).
- b. An appositive generally agrees in Gender and Number when it can: as,
 - sequuntur naturam, optimam ducem (Læl. 19), they follow nature, the best guide.
 - omnium doctrinārum inventricēs Athēnās (De Or. i. 4), Athens, discoverer of all learning.
 - NOTE. —But such agreement is often impossible: as, —
 - olim truncus eram ficulnus inutile lignum, I once was a fig-tree trunk, a useless log (Hor. Sat. i. 8. 1).
- c. A common noun in apposition with a Locative (§ 258. c) is put in the Ablative, with or without the preposition in: as,—
 - Antiochīae, celebrī quondam urbe (Arch. 3), at Antioch, once a famous city.

 Albae constiterunt in urbe mūnītā (Phil. iv. 2), they halted at Alba, a fortified town.
- d. A possessive pronoun or an adjective implying possession may take an appositive in the genitive case agreeing in gender, number, and case with an implied noun or pronoun (§ 197. e): as,
 - in nostro omnium fletu (Mil. 34), amid the tears of us all.
 - ex Anniana Milonis domo (Att. iv. 3) [= ex Anni Milonis domo], out of Annius Milo's house.
- e. A genitive is sometimes used instead of an appositive (see § 214. f). So also a dative in certain constructions (see § 231. b).

2. Predicate Agreement.

The Predicate noun may agree (1) with the subject, being connected with it by the copula or a copulative verb (§ 176. a), or (2) with the direct object of a verb.

185. A descriptive noun used to form a predicate is called a PREDICATE NOMINATIVE (or other case, according to the construction).

a. The case of the predicate after the copula and copulative verbs is the same as that of the subject (§ 176. b): as,—

pacis semper auctor fui (Lig. 19, 28), I have always been an adviser of peace. quae pertinacia quibusdam, eadem aliis constantia videri potest (Marc. 10,

31), what may seem obstinacy to some, may seem to others consistency. eius mortis sedetis ultores (Mil. 29, 79), you sit as avengers of his death. habeatur vir egregius Paulus (Cat. iv. 10, 21), let Paulus be regarded as an extraordinary man.

ego patronus exstiti (Rosc. Am. 2, 5), I have come forward as an advocate.

6. A predicate noun referring to two or more singular nouns is in the plural: as,—

consules creantur Caesar et Servilius (B. C. iii. 1), Caesar and Servilius are elected consuls.

c. For Predicate Accusative, see under that case, § 239. a.

II. - ADJECTIVES.

1. Rules of Agreement.

186. Adjectives, Adjective Pronouns, and Participles agree with their nouns in *Gender*, *Number*, and *Case*.

vir fortis, a brave man.

illa mulier. that woman.

urbium magnarum, of great cities.

cum ducentis militibus, with 200 soldiers.

imperator victus est, the general was beaten.

Note.—All rules for the agreement of adjectives apply also to adjective pronouns and to participles.

Adjectives are either Attributive or Predicate.

a. An Attributive adjective simply qualifies its noun without the intervention of a verb or participle, expressed or implied.

bonus imperator, a good commander. stellae lucidae, bright stars.

- b. All other adjectives are called Predicate adjectives.
- 1. A predicate adjective, like a predicate noun, may be connected with the subject by esse or a copulative verb expressed or implied (see § 176. a): as,—

stellae lucidae erant, the stars were bright.

- 2. After verbs of naming, calling, making, etc., an adjective may be used as a predicative accusative like a noun (see § 239. a).
- 3. A predicate adjective may be used in apposition like a noun (see c, below).

c. Predicate adjectives in apposition follow the rules of agreement of other adjectives (see § 186, above): as,—

Scīpionem vīvum vidī, I saw Scipio in his lifetime (lit., living).

d. With two or more nouns the adjective is regularly plural, but sometimes agrees with the nearest (especially when attributive). Thus,

Nisus et Euryalus primi (Æn. v. 294), Nisus and Euryalus first.

Caesaris omnī et grātiā et opibus fruor (Fam. i. 9), I enjoy all Cæsar's favor and resources.

NOTE. — An adjective referring to two nouns connected by ${\bf cum}$, is occasionally plural: as, —

Iuba cum Labieno captī (B. Afr. 52), Juba and Labienus were taken.

- **187.** One adjective may belong in sense to two or more nouns of different genders.
 - a. In such cases, -
 - 1. An attributive adjective agrees with the nearest: as, -

multae operae ac laboris, of much trouble and toil.

vita moresque mei, my life and character.

- sī rēs, sī vir, sī tempus ūllum dīgnum fuit (Mil. 7), if any thing, if any man, if any time was fit.
- 2. A predicate adjective may agree with the nearest, if the nouns form one connected idea: as, —

factus est strepitus et admurmuratio (Verr. i. 15), a noise of assent was made (noise and murmur).

NOTE. — This is only when the Copula agrees with the nearest subject (§ 205. d).

b. But generally, a predicate adjective will be masculine, if nouns of different genders mean *living beings*; neuter, if things without life: as,

uxor deinde ac liberi amplexi (Liv. ii. 40), then his wife and children embraced him.

labor (M.) voluptāsque (F.), societāte quādam inter sē nātūrāli sunt iūncta (N.) (id. v. 4), labor and delight are bound together by a certain natural alliance.

NOTE.—If nouns of different genders include both male beings and things without life, a predicate adjective is sometimes masculine, sometimes neuter, and sometimes agrees in gender with the nearest if that is plural: as.—

rex regiaque classis una profecti (Liv. xxi. 50), the king and the royal fleet set out together.

natura inimica sunt libera civitas et rex (id. xliv. 24), by nature a free state and a king are hostile.

legatos sortesque oraculi exspectandas (id. v. 15), that the ambassadors and the replies of the oracle should be waited for.

c. Two or more abstract nouns of the same gender may have a predicate adjective in the neuter plural (cf. § 189. c): as,—

stultitia et temeritās et iniūstitia ... sunt fugienda (Fin. iii. 11), folly, rashness, and injustice are [things] to be shunned.

d. A collective noun may take an adjective of a different gender and number agreeing with the gender and number of the individuals implied (Synssis, § 182. a): as,—

pars certare parati (Æn. v. 108), a part ready to contend.
duo milia relicti (Liv. xxxvii. 39), two thousand were left.
coloniae aliquot deductae, Prisci Latini appellati (id. i. 3), several colonies
were planted (led out) [of men] called Old Latins.
magna pars raptae (id. i. 9), a large part [of the women] were seized.
omnis aetas currere obvii (id. xxvii. 51), [people of] every age ran to meet
them.

e. A superlative in the predicate sometimes takes the gender of the partitive genitive by which it is limited: as,—

velocissimum animalium delphinus est (Plin.), the dolphin is the swiftest [creature] of creatures.

2. Adjectives used Substantively.

188. Adjectives are often used as Nouns (substantively), the masculine usually to denote men or people in general of that kind, the feminine women, and the neuter things: as,—

omnēs, all men (everybody). māiōrēs, ancestors. Rōmānī, Romans. līberta, a freedwoman. sapiēns, a sage (philosopher). bonī, the good (good people). omnia, all things (everything). minores, descendants. barbari, barbarians. Sabinae, the Sabine wives amīcus, a friend. bona, goods, property.

REMARK.—The plural of adjectives, pronouns, and participles is very common in this use. The singular is rare except in a few words which have become practically nouns. See below and \S 189. a.

a. Certain adjectives have become practically nouns, and are often modified by other adjectives. Thus, —

tuus vicinus proximus, your next-door neighbor.
propinqui ceteri, his other relatives.
meus aequalis, a man of my own age.
familiaris tuus, an intimate friend of yours (cf. § 218. d').

b. When any ambiguity would arise from the substantive use of an adjective, a noun must be added. Thus,—

boni, the good; omnia, everything (all things); but, potentia omnium rērum, power over everything. [omnium alone would mean all men.]

c. Many adjectives are used substantively either in the singular or the plural, with the added meaning of some noun which is understood from constant association: as. -

Africus [ventus], the south-west wind. vitulina [caro], veal (calf's flesh). fera [bestia], a wild beast. patria [terra], the fatherland. Gallia [terra], Gaul (the land of the Galli). hiberna [castra], winter quarters. triremis [navis], a three-banked galley, trireme. argentarius [faber], a silversmith. regia [domus], the palace. Latinae [feriae], the Latin festival. Tusci [fundi], a Tuscan estate.

NOTE. - These are specific in meaning, not generic like those in § 188, above.

d. A noun is sometimes used as an adjective, and may then be modified by an adverb: as, -

victor exercitus, the victorious army. servum pecus, a servile troop. admodum puer, quite a boy (young). magis vir, more of a man (more manly).

- e. A few adverbs appear to be used like adjectives. Such are:—
- obviam: as. —

fit obviam, he goes to meet (becomes in the way of).

2. contrā, contradicting some previous adjective, and so in a manner repeating it: as, -

alia probabilia, contra alia dicimus (Off. ii. 2), we call some things probable, others the opposite (not probable).

palam: as, —

palam res est, the thing is all out.

- 4. So also, rarely, by a Greek construction —
- erī semper lenitas (Ter. Andr. 175), my master's constant (always) gentle-
- 189. Neuter adjectives are used substantively in the following special senses: -
- a. The neuter singular may denote either a single object or an abstract quality: as, -

rapto vivere, to live by plunder.

in arido, on dry ground.

honestum, an honorable act, or virtue as a quality.

opus est maturato, there is need of haste (cf. impersonal passives, § 146. d).

b. The neuter plural is used to signify objects in general having the quality denoted, and hence may stand for the abstract idea: as,—

honesta, honorable deeds (in general).
praeterita, the past (lit., bygones).

omnes fortia laudant, all men praise bravery (brave things).

c. A neuter adjective may be used as an appositive or predicate noun with a noun of different gender (cf. § 187. c): as,—

turpitudo peius est quam dolor (Tusc. ii. 13), disgrace is [a thing] worse than pain.

triste lupus stabulis, the wolf is a grievous thing for the sheepfold.

varium et mutabile semper femina, woman is ever a changing and fickle thing.

malum mihi videtur esse mors (Tusc. i. 5,9), death seems to me to be an evil (a bad thing).

d. A neuter adjective is used in agreement with an Infinitive or a Substantive Clause: as,—

istuc ipsum non esse (Tusc. i. 6, 12), that very "not to be."

humanum est errare, to err is human.

aliud est errare Caesarem nolle, aliud nolle misereri (Lig. 5), it is one thing to be unwilling that Casar should err, another to be unwilling that he should pity.

3. Possessives.

190. Possessive and other derivative adjectives are often used in Latin where the English has the possessive case, or a noun with a preposition (compare §§ 184. d, 197. a): as,—

pugna Cannensis, the fight at Canna.

C. Blossius Cumanus, Caius Blossius of Cuma.

aliena domus, another man's house.

Caesarīna celeritās (Att. xvi. 10), despatch like Cæsar's (Cæsarian quickness).

a. Possessive and other derivative adjectives are often used substantively to denote some special class or relation (see \S 197. d): as,—

nostri, our countrymen or men of our party.

Sullani, the veterans of Sulla's army.

Pompeiani, the partisans of Pompey.

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b. A possessive or derivative adjective sometimes appears to be used for the Objective Genitive, see § 217. a.

4. Adjectives with Adverbial Force.

191. An adjective, agreeing with the subject or object is often used to qualify the action of the verb, having the force of an adverb: as.—

prīmus vēnit, he came first (was the first to come).
nūllus dubitō, I no way doubt.
laetī audiēre, they were glad to hear.
erat Rōmae frequēns (Rosc. Am. 6), he was often at Rome.
sērus in caelum redeās (Hor. Od. i. 2), may'st thou return late to heaven.

5. Comparatives and Superlatives.

192. When two qualities of an object are compared, both adjectives are in the comparative: as,—

longior quam latior acies erat (Liv. xxvii. 48), the line was longer than it was broad (or, rather long than broad).

- a. Where magis is used, both adjectives are in the positive: as,—clārī magis quam honestī (Jug. 8), more renowned than honorable.
- b. A comparative and a positive, or even two positives, are sometimes connected by quam: as,—

clārīs māioribus quam vetustīs (Ann. iv. 61), of a family more famous than old.

vehementius quam caute (Agric. 4), with more fury than good heed.

NOTE. — This use is rarer and less elegant than those before noticed.

193. Superlatives (and more rarely comparatives) denoting order and succession—also medius, cēterus, reliquus—usually designate not what object, but what part of it, is meant: as,—

summus mons, the top of the hill.
in ultima platea, at the end of the place.
prior actio, the earlier part of an action.
reliqui captivi, the rest of the prisoners.
in colle medio (B. G. i. 24), on the middle of the hill.
inter ceteram planitiem (Jug. 92), in a region elsewhere level.

NOTE.—A similar use is found in such expressions as sora (multa) nocte, late at night. But medium viae, the middle of the way; multum diei, much of the day, also occur.

III. - PRONOUNS.

NOTE.—A pronoun indicates some person or thing without either naming or describing it. Pronouns are derived from a distinct class of roots, which seem to have denoted only ideas of place and direction (§ 157.2), and from which nouns or verbs can very rarely be formed. They may therefore stand for Nouns when the person or thing, being present to the senses or imagination, needs only to be pointed out. Some pronouns indicate the object in itself, without reference to its class, and have no distinction of gender. These are PERSONAL PRONOUNS. They stand syntactically for Nouns, and have the same construction as nouns. Others designate a particular object of a class, and take the gender of the individuals of that class. These are called ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS. They stand for Adjectives, and have the same construction as adjectives. Others are used in both ways; and, though called adjective pronouns, may also be treated as personal, taking, however, the gender of the object indicated.

1. Personal Pronouns.

- 194. The Personal Pronouns have, in general, the same constructions as nouns.
- a. The personal pronouns are not expressed as subjects, except for distinction or emphasis (compare § 346. d): as, —

tē vocō, I call you; but

quis me vocat? ego te voco, who is calling me? I (emphatic) am calling you.

b. The personal pronouns have two forms for the genitive plural, that in -um being used partitively (§ 216), and that in -u oftenest objectively (cf. § 213. 2): as,—

maior vestrum, the elder of you.

habētis ducem memorem vestrī, oblitum suī (Cat. iv. 8), you have a leader who thinks (is mindful) of you and forgets (is forgetful of) himself. pars nostrūm, a part (i.e. some) of us.

nostrī melior pars animus est (Sen.), the better part of us (i.e. of man) is the soul.

NOTE.—"One of themselves" is expressed by finus ex suls or ipsis (rarely ex so), or finus suorum. The genitives nostrum, vestrum are occasionally used objectively (§ 217): as, cupidus vestrum (Verr. iii. 96), fond of you; custos vestrum (Cat. iii. 12), the guardian of you (your guardian).

c. The Latin has no personal pronouns of the third person except the reflexive (sē). The want is supplied by a Demonstrative or a Relative (§§ 180. f, 195, 201. e).

2. Demonstrative Pronouns.

195. Demonstrative pronouns are used either adjectively or substantively.

As adjectives, they follow the rules for the agreement of adjectives (§§ 186, 187).

As substantives, they are equivalent to personal pronouns. This use is regular in the oblique cases, especially of is. Thus:—

1. Personal: -

Caesar et exercitus ēius, Caesar and his army (not suus). [But, Caesar exercitum suum dimisit, Caesar disbanded his [own] army.]

sī obsidēs ab eīs darentur, if hostages should be given by them (persons just spoken of).

his Caesar ita respondit, to them Casar thus replied.

ille minimum propter adolescentiam poterat, he (emphatic) had very little power, on account of his youth.

hī sunt extrā provinciam trans Rhodanum primi, they (those just mentioned) are the first [inhabitants] across the Rhone.

2. Adjective: -

hoe proelio facto, after this battle was fought (this battle having been, etc.). eodem proelio, in the same battle.

eius rei periti, men acquainted with that business.

[For special significations of the demonstratives, see § 102.]

a. The demonstratives are sometimes used as pronouns of reference, to indicate with emphasis a noun or phrase just mentioned: as,—

nullam virtus aliam mercedem desiderat praeter hanc laudis (Arch. 11), virtue wants no other reward except that [just spoken of] of praise.

b. But the demonstrative as a pronoun of reference is commonly omitted, or some other construction is preferred: as,—

memoriae artem quam oblivionis malo, I prefer (like more) the art of memory to (than) [that] of forgetfulness.

Caesaris exercitus Pompējānos ad Pharsālum vīcit, the army of Caesar defeated that of Pompey (the Pompeians) at Pharsalus.

c. When a quality or act is ascribed with emphasis to a person or thing already named, is or Idem (often with the concessive quidem) is used to indicate that person or thing: as,—

vincula, et ea sempiterna (Cat. iv. 4), imprisonment, and that perpetual. legionem neque eam plenissimam despiciebant (B. G. iii. 1), they despised the single legion, and that not a very full one.

tuus dolor humanus is quidem sed, etc., your grief is human, to be sure, but, etc.

per unum servum et eum ex gladiātorio ludo (Att. i. 16. 5), by means of a single slave, and that too one from the gladiatorial school.

Ti. Gracchus regnum occupare conatus est, vel regnavit is quidem paucos menses (C. M. 12, 40), Tiberius Gracchus tried to usurp royal power, or rather he actually reigned a few months.

- d. An adjective pronoun usually agrees with an appositive or predicate noun, if there be one, rather than with the word to which it refers (cf. § 199): as,
 - hīc labor hōc opus est, this is the toil, this the task [namely, revocāre gradum, which would regularly take a neuter pronoun].
 - rerum caput hoc erat, hic fons (Hor. Ep. i. 17. 45), this was the head of things, this the source.
 - eam sapientiam interpretantur quam adhūc mortālis nēmō est consecutus [for id . . . quod] (Læl. 5), they explain that [thing] to be wisdom which no man ever yet attained.
- e. Idem, the same, is often equivalent to an adverb or adverbial phrase (also, too, yet, at the same time): as,
 - oratio splendida et grandis et eadem in primis faceta (Brut. 79), an oration, brilliant, able, and very witty too.
 - cum [haec] dicat, negat īdem in Deo esse grātiam (N. D. i. 43), when he says this, he denies also that there is mercy with God (he, the same man).
- NOTE. This is really the same use as in c, above, but in this case the pronoun cannot be represented by a pronoun in English.
- f. The intensive ipse, self, is used with any of the other pronouns or a noun for the sake of emphasis: as,
 - turpe mihi ipsī vidēbātur (Cic.), even to me (to me myself) it seemed disgraceful.
 - id ipsum, that very thing.
 - quod ipsum, which of itself alone.
 - in eum ipsum locum, to that very place.

REMARK.—The emphasis of ipse is often expressed in English by just, very, mere, etc. (see above examples).

g. Ipse is often used alone, substantively, as an emphatic pronoun of the third person: as, —

mihi satis, ipsīs non satis (Cic.), enough for me, not for themselves.

omnes boni quantum in ipsis fuit (id.), all good men so far as was in their power (in themselves).

- beatos illos qui cum adesse ipsis non licebat aderant tamen (id.), happy they who, when it was not allowed them to attend in person, still were there.
- di capiti ipsius generique reservent (Æn. vii. 484), may the gods hold in reserve [such a fate] to fall on his own and his son-in-law's head.
- A. Ipse is often used alone, substantively, to emphasize an omitted subject of the first or second person: as,
 - vobiscum ipsī recordāminī (Cic.), remember in your own minds (yourselves with yourselves).

i. Ipse, used substantively, sometimes refers to a principal personage, to distinguish him from subordinate persons: as,—

ipse dixit (cf. αὐτὸς ἔφα), HE (the Master) said it.

Nomentanus erat super ipsum (Hor.), Nomentanus was above [the host] himself [at table].

- k. Ipse is often, is rarely, used instead of a reflexive. See under Reflexives, § 196. i.
- 1. Ipse usually agrees with the subject, even when the real emphasis is in English on a reflexive in the predicate: as,
 - mē ipse consolor, I console myself. [Not mē ipsum, as the English would lead us to expect].
 - m. For adverbs used instead of a demonstrative pronoun, see § 207. a.

3. Reflexive Pronouns.

196. The Reflexive pronoun (sē), and usually its corresponding possessive (suus), are used in some part of the predicate to refer to the subject of the sentence or clause: as,—

virtus se novit, virtue knows itself.

promisit se venturum [esse], he promised that he would come.

Brutus amicum suum occidit, Brutus killed his friend.

Caesar statuit sibi Rhēnum esse trānseundum (B. G. iv. 16), Cæsar decided that he must cross the Rhine (the R. must be crossed by himself).

- a. In a subordinate clause of a compound sentence there is a double use of reflexives.
- 1. The Reflexive may always be used to refer to the subject of its own clause (*Direct Reflexive*): as,
 - ex quo iudicari potest quantum habeat in se boni constantia (B. G. i. 40), from which it can be determined how much good firmness possesses (has in itself).

[Caesar] noluit eum locum vacare, ne Germani e suis finibus transirent (B. G. i. 28), Casar did not wish this place to lie vacant, for fear the Germans would cross over from their territories.

sī qua sīgnificātio virtūtis elūceat ad quam sē similis animus adplicet et adiungat (Cat. M. 14, 48), if any sign of virtue shine forth to which a similar disposition may attach itself.

¹ This seems to have been originally the personal pronoun of the third person (Skr. sva and Gr. $\sigma\phi\epsilon\hat{s}$), but it came by use to be purely reflexive.

- 2. If the superfinate chance expresses the words or thought of the superfinite main chance, the redesive is regularly used to refer to that superfinite Laborate 1 25.
 - performed at siles instruct. B. D. i. 30), they begind that it might be allowed them the permissions.
 - iemes minimi at eun mitte, sisi subsidium albi submittatur, etc. (B. G. ii.

 1. eun um a mening tuit maier reite le farmished him (Iccius), etc.
 puon sainen maan meistimum albi (C. ii. 8), who should trust his safety
 to tun. I arms.
 - [Carsar] his in minimizerest et reflicorest, si sibi pargati esse vellent imperart. R. h. 20), Cener waerel shem (the Gauls) to hunt up and brong said [the finguives] of sher (the Gauls) withed to be free from that around time [Cassar].
 - hostman se manuforum numeri vinefermet, si aut Ambiorigem aut eius legatos finitus suis recepissent, [rese] arid that he should treat [them] ar enemes y they received either Ambiorix or his envoys into their territories.
 - decima legid et grātās ēgit, quod dē sē optimum fidicium fecisset (B. G. i. 41., the tenti legim themsed kim because [they said] he had expressed a high revenue of them.
 - si coss les ab eis (the Helvetians' sibi (Cassar, who is the speaker) darentur, ei (Cassar) cum eis pacem esse facturum (B. G. i. 14), [Cæsar said] that if instages were given him by them he would make peace with them.
 - Tarquinium dixisse ferunt se intellexisse quos fidos amicos habuisset, etc. (C. M. 15, 53). Siey say that Tarquin said that he understood, etc.
- NOTE.—Sometimes is or tipes is used as an Indirect Reflexive either from careless writing or to avoid ambiguity (cf. i): as,
 - qui se ex his minus timidos existimari vellent, non se hostem vereri, sed angustias itineris et magnitudinem silvarum quae intercederent inter ipsos (the persons referred to by se above) atque Ariovistum . . . timere dicebant (B. G. i. 39), those of them who wished to be thought less timid said they did not fear the enemy, but were afraid of the narrows and the vast extent of the forests which were between themselves and Ariovistus.
 - audistis nūper dicere lēgātōs Tyndaritānōs Mercurium quī sacrīs anniversārīs apud eōs colerētur Verris imperiō esse sublātum (Verr. iv. 39), you have just heard the ambassadors from Tyndaris say that the statue of Mercury which was worshipped with annual rites among them was taken away, etc. [Here Cicero wavers between apud eōs colēbātur, a remark of his own, and apud sē colerētur, the words of the lēgātī. eōs does not strictly refer to the ambassadors, but to the people—the Tyndaritānī.]
- 3. If the subordinate clause does not express the words, etc., of the main subject, the reflexive is not regularly used, though it is occasionally found.

sunt ita multi ut eos carcer capere non possit (Cat. ii. 10, 22), they are so many that the prison cannot hold them. [Here as could not be used.]

ibi in proximis villis ita bipartito fuerunt, ut Tiberis inter eos et pons interesset (Cat. iii. 2, 5), there they stationed themselves in the nearest farmhouses, in two divisions, in such a manner that the Tiber and the bridge were between them (the divisions). [Here inter se might be used, but it would refer to a purpose of the soldiers.]

non fuit eo contentus quod en praeter spem acciderat (Leg. Man. 9, 25), he was not content with that which had happened to him beyond his

hope.

Compare: qui fit Maecenas ut nemo quam sibi sortem seu ratio dederit seu fors obiecerit illa contentus vivat (Hor. Sat. I. i. 1), how comes it, Macenas, that nobody lives contented with that lot which choice has assigned him or chance has thrown in his way? [Here sibi is used to put the thought into the mind of the discontented man.]

But, — Metellus in eis urbibus quae ad sē defecerant praesidia imponit (Sall. Jug. 61), Metellus posted garrisons in those cities which had revolted to him. [The author vacillates between the thought of Metellus and his

own.]

b. The reflexive in a subordinate clause sometimes refers to the subject of a suppressed main clause: as,—

Paetus, omnēs libros quos frater suus reliquisset mihi donāvit (Att. ii. 1),

Paetus gave me all the books which (as he said in the act of donation)

his brother had left him (cf. a).

c. The reflexive may refer to any noun in its own clause, which is so emphasized as to become in a manner the subject of discourse (cf. the note): as,—

Socratem cives sui interfecerunt, Socrates was put to death by his own fellow-citizens.

qui poterat salūs sua cuiquam non probārī (Mil. 30, 81), how can any one fail to approve his own safety? [In this and the preceding example the emphasis is preserved in English by the change to the passive.]

hunc sī secūtī erunt suī comites (Cat. I. v. 10), this man, if his companions follow him.

NOTE. — Occasionally the clause to which the reflexive really belongs is absorbed: as,—

studeo sanare sibi ipsos (Cat. ii. 8, 17), I am anxious to cure these men for their own benefit (i.e. ut sanī sibi sint).

suo sibi gladio (Plautus), with his own sword. [Here the clause is too indefinite to be supplied.]

d. The reflexive may follow a verbal noun or adjective: as, — suī laus, self-praise.

impotens sui (Q. C.), without self-control.

homines cum sui similibus servis (Phil. i. 2), men with slaves like themselves.

۶.

e. The reflexive may refer to the subject implied in an infinitive or vertal abstract used indefinitely: as,—

bellum est ma villa misse (Cin.), il is a fine thing to know one's own fault, cui prip sita sit misservitio mi (Fig. 5, 13), one whose aim is self-preser-

f. Inter ed. among themselves, is regularly used to express reciprocal action: 25,—

cohaerencia inter se, things consistent with each other.

g. Seems is used for one's own as emphatically opposed to that of or iver, in any part of the sentence and with reference to any word in it: 48.—

mis fammis felete Fi fenas (Liv. iv. 33), destroy Fidenæ with its own fires the fires kin field by that city, figuratively). [Cf. Cat. i. 13, 32.]

A. For redexives of the first and second persons the oblique cases of the personal pronouns (mef., tui, etc.) are used (see p. 63): as,—

mieri më chtili (Mil. 34, 94), I kave exposed myself to death.

hine të rëgime ad limina perfer (Æn. i. 389), do you go (bear yourself) dence to the puren's threshold.

qui i est qual tantis mos in laboribus exerceamus (Arch. 11, 28), what reason is tiere very me should exert ourselves in so great toils?

singulis volus novenos ex turmis manipulisque vestri similes eligite (Liv. xxi. 54), for each of you pick out from the squadrons and maniples nine like yourselves.

i. Ipse is often (is rarely) used instead of an indirect reflexive, to avoid ambiguity; and in later writers is sometimes found instead of the direct reflexive (cf. a. 2 and 3): as,—

cur de sua virtute aut de ipaius diligentia desperarent (B. G. i. 40), why (he asked) should they destair of their own courage or his diligence? qui mortuo Dareo ipaas tugretur repperisse (Q. C. x. 5), we found one

(said she) to protect us after the death of Darius.

omnia aut ipsõs aut hostes populatos (id. iii. 5), [they said that] either they themselves or the enemy had laid all waste.

4. Possessive Pronouns.

197. The Possessive pronouns are derivative adjectives, which take the gender, number, and case of the noun to which they belong, not that of the possessor: as,—

Caesar uxorem suam repudiavit, Caesar put away his wife.

haec sunt mea ornamenta, these are my jewels. [mea is neut. pl., though the speaker is a woman.]

mei sunt ordines, mea descriptio (C. M. 17, 59), mine are the rows, mine the arrangement. [mea is fem., though the speaker is Cyrus.]

multa in nostro collegio praeclara (C. M. 18, 64), [there are] many fine things in our college. [nostro is neut. sing., though men are referred to.]

- a. The possessive pronouns are used instead of the genitive of a personal pronoun.
 - 1. Always instead of the Possessive Genitive: as. -

domus mea, my house. [Never domus mei.]
pater noster, our father. [Never pater nostri.]
patrimonium tuum, your inheritance. [Not tui.]

NOTE 1.—In different languages the ideas associated with possessives are not always the same, and hence idiomatic uses differ. Thus my eulogist may, in Latin, be laudator nostri (Att. i. 14, 6), or, like the English, laudator noster (see Att. i. 16, 5), with a different conception of the relation.

NOTE 2.—The Possessive cuius, -a, -um, is rare: as, cuium pecus? whose

Rock? The genitive cuius is generally used instead.

2. Rarely instead of the Objective Genitive (§ 217, cf. note 1, above). Thus, regularly:—

sui despiciens, disdainful of himself.

non solum sui deprecatorem, sed etiam accusatorem mei, not only a mediator for himself, but an accuser of me (Att. ii. 8).

But occasionally, -

ea quae faciebat, tuā se fīdūciā facere dicebat (Verr. v. 68), what he was doing, he said he did relying on you (with your reliance).

neque negligentia tua, neque id odio fecit tuo (Ter. Phorm. 1016), from oneglect or hatred of you.

b. The possessives have often the acquired meaning of *peculiar* to, or favorable or propitious towards the person or thing spoken of: as,—

[petere] ut suā clēmentiā āc mānsuētūdine ūtātur, they asked (they said) that he would show his [wonted] clemency and humanity.

tempore tuo pugnasti, did you fight at a fit time? (lit., your own).

ignoranti quem portum petat nullus suus ventus est (Sen. Ep. 70), to him who knows not what port he is bound to, no wind is fair (his own).

NOTE. — This use is merely a natural development of the meaning of the possessive, and may often be rendered literally.

- c. The possessives are regularly omitted (like other pronouns) when they are plainly implied in the context: as,
 - amīcum grātulātur, he greets his friend. [amīcum suum would be distinctive, his friend (and not another's); suum amīcum, emphatic, his own friend.]

d. Possessives are often used substantively (§ 190. a): as, -

nostri, our countrymen, or men of our party.

suos continebat (B. C. i. 15), he held his men in check.

flamma extrema meorum (Æn. ii. 431), last flames of my countrymen.

NOTE. — There is no reason to suppose an ellipsis here. The adjective becomes a noun like other adjectives (see § 188).

e. A possessive representing a genitive may have a genitive in apposition (§ 184. d): as,—

meā solius causā, for my sake only. nostra omnium patria, the country of us all. suum ipsius rēgnum, his own kingdom.

- f. A possessive representing a genitive may serve as an antecedent to a relative (see § 199. b. note).
 - g. For the special reflexive use of the possessive suus, see § 196.

5. Relative Pronouns.

NOTE.—A Relative pronoun is properly an Adjective, in agreement with some word expressed or implied either in its own clause, or (often) in the antecedent (demonstrative) clause. The full construction would require the antecedent to be expressed in both clauses, with more commonly a corresponding demonstrative to which the relative would refer: as,—

iter in ea loca facere coepit, quibus in locis esse-Germanos audiebat (B. G. iv. 7), he began to march into those PLACES in which PLACES he heard the Germans were.

But one of these nouns is commonly omitted. The antecedent is, in Latin, very frequently (rarely in English) found in the relative clause, but more commonly in the antecedent clause. Hence relatives serve two uses:—

- 1. as Nouns (or adjectives) in their own clause: as.
- ei qui Alesiae obsidebantur, those who were besieged at Alesia.
- as Connectives: as,—
- T. Balventio, qui superiore anno primum pilum duxerat, Titus Balventio, who the year before had been a centurion of the first rank.

In this latter use they are often equivalent merely to a demonstrative with a conjunction: as,—

quae cum ita sint (= et cum ea ita sint), [and] since these things are so.

This connective force does not belong to the relative originally, but is developed from an interrogative or indefinite meaning specialized by use. The clauses were originally co-ordinate. Thus, qui quietus animo est, is est sapiens originally meant, Who is undisturbed in soul? That [man] is a sage.

A Relative pronoun indicates a relation between its own clause and some substantive. This substantive is called the Antecedent of the relative.

Thus, in the sentence-

eum nihil delectabat, quod fas esset, nothing pleased him which was right,
the relative quod connects its antecedent nihil with the predicate fas
esset, indicating a relation between the two.

198. A Relative agrees with its Antecedent in GENDER and Number; but its Case depends on the construction of the clause in which it stands: as,—

puer qui venit abiit, the boy who came has gone away. liber quem legis meus est, the book you are reading is mine. via qua ambulat ducit ad urbem, the path he walks in leads to the city.

This rule applies to all relative words so far as they are variable in form: as, quālis, quantus, quīcumque.

NOTE.—The relative may be the subject or object of its own clause, or a modifier of either: as,—

eos enim cives pugna illa sustulerat quibus non modo vivis sed etiam victoribus incolumis et florens civitas esse posset (Phil. xiv. 8).

a. If a relative has two or more antecedents, it follows the rules for the agreement of predicate adjectives (§§ 186, 187): as,—

filium et filiam, quos valde dilexit, uno tempore amisit, he lost a son and a daughter at the same time, whom he dearly loved.

grandes natu matres et parvuli liberi, quorum utrorumque aetas misericordiam nostram requirit (Verr. v. 49), aged matrons and little children, whose time of life in each case demands our compassion.

otium atque divitiae quae prima mortales putant (Sall. Cat. 36), idleness and wealth which men count the first (objects of desire).

eae fruges et fructus quos terra gignit (N. D. ii. 14), those fruits and crops which the earth produces.

199. A relative generally agrees in gender and number with an appositive or predicate noun in its own clause, rather than with an antecedent of different gender or number (cf. \S 195. d): as,—

mare etiam quam Neptunum esse dīcēbās (N. D. iii. 20), the sea, too, which you said was Neptune. [Not quod.]

Thebae ipsae, quod Boeotiae caput est (Liv. xxxii. 44), even Thebes, which is the chief city of Baotia. [Not quae.]

NOTE. - This rule is occasionally violated: as, -

flumen quod appellatur Tamesis (B. G. v. 11), a river which is callea the Thames.

- a. A relative occasionally agrees with its antecedent in case (by attraction): as,
 - si aliquid agas eorum quorum consuesti (Fam. v. 14), if you should do something of what you are used to do. [For eorum quae.]
- b. A relative may agree in gender and number with an *implied* antecedent: as,
 - quartum genus . . . qui aere vetere alieno vacillant (Cat. ii. 10), a fourth class, that are staggering under old debts.
 - unus ex eo numero qui parati erant (Jug. 35), one of the number [of those] who were ready.
 - coniūrāvēre pauci . . . dē quā [i.e. coniūrātione] dīcam (Sall. Cat. 18), a few have conspired . . . of which [conspiracy] I will speak.
- NOTE.—So regularly when the antecedent is implied in a possessive pronoun (cf. § 197. f): as,
 - nostra qui adsumus salūs, the safety of us who are present. [Here qui agrees with the nostrum implied in nostra].
- 200. The antecedent noun sometimes appears in both clauses; but usually only in the one that precedes. Sometimes it is wholly omitted. Thus—
- a. The antecedent noun may be repeated in the relative clause: as,
 - loci nature of the ground which our men had chosen was this.
- b. The antecedent noun may appear only in the relative clause: as,
 - quas ros in consulatu nostro gessimus attigit hic versibus (Arch. 11), he has touched in verse the things which I did in my consulship.
 - urbem quam statuo vestra est (Æn. i. 573), yours is the city which I am tounding.
- NOTE. In this case a demonstrative (is, ille, or hic) usually stands in the antecedent clause: as,
 - istos captivos duos, heri quos emi de praeda... hīs indito catenas singularias (Plaut. Capt. 110), those two prisoners that I bought yesterday,—put fetters on them.
 - quae pars civitatis calamitatem populo Romano intulerat, ea princeps poenas persolvit (B. G. i. 12), that part of the state which had brought disaster on the Roman people was the first to pay the penalty.

In a sentence of this class the relative clause usually stands first in Latin (cf. j 201. c), as in the example.

- c. The antecedent may be entirely omitted, especially if it is ineffinite: as,
 - qui decimae legionis aquilam ferebat (B. G. iv. 25), [the man] who bore the eagle of the tenth legion.
 - quī cognoscerent misit (id. i. 21), he sent [men] to reconnoitre (who should, etc.).
- d. A predicate adjective (especially a superlative) agreeing with its antecedent in gender and number may stand in the relative clause: as,
 - vasa ea quae pulcherrima apud eum viderat (Verr. iv. 27), those most beautiful vessels which he had seen at his house. [Nearly equivalent to the vessels of which he had seen some very beautiful ones.]
 - e. The phrase id quod or quae res is used (instead of quod alone) to refer to a group of words or an idea:—
 - [obtrectātum est] Gabīniō dicam anne Pompēiō? an utrīque—id quod est vērius? (Manil. 19), an affront is offered—shall I say to Gabinius or to Pompey? or—which is truer—to both?
 - multum sunt in venationibus . . . quae ros vires alit (B. G. iv. 1), they spend much time in hunting, which [practice] increases their strength. [Cf. B. G. ii. 5.]

NOTE. - But quod alone often occurs: as, -

- Cassius noster, quod mihi magnae voluptati fuit, hostem reiecerat (Fam. ii. 10), our friend Cassius—which was a great satisfaction to me—had driven back the enemy.
- 201. In the use of relatives, the following points are to be observed:—
- a. The relative is never omitted in Latin, as it often is in English. Thus, —

liber quem mihi dedisti, the book you gave me.

is sum qui semper fui, I am the same man I always was.

eo in loco est de quo tibi locutus sum, he is in the place I told you of.

b. A relative clause in Latin often takes the place of some other construction in English; particularly of a participle, an appositive, or a noun of agency: as,—

leges quae nunc sunt, the existing laws (the laws which now exist).

Caesar qui Galliam vicit, Caesar the conqueror of Gaul (who conquered Gaul).

insta gloria quae est fructus virtutis, true glory [which is] the fruit of virtue. qui legit, a reader (one who reads).

ille qui petit, the plaintiff (he who sues).

c. In formal or emphatic discourse, the relative clause usually comes first, often containing the antecedent noun (cf. \S 200. b): as,—

quae mala cum multis patimur, ea nobis leviora videntur, the evils we suffer [in common] with many, seem to us lighter.

NOTE.—In colloquial language, the relative clause in such cases often contains a demonstrative pronoun which properly belongs in the antecedent clause: as,—

ille qui consulte ... cavet, diutine uti ei bene licet partum bene (Plaut. Rud. 1240), he who is on his guard, he may enjoy, etc.

d. The antecedent noun, when in apposition with the main clause, or with some word of it, is put in the relative clause: as, —

firmi amici, cuius generis est magna penuria, steadfast friends, a class of which there is great lack (of which class).

c. A relative may stand (even with another relative or an interrogative) at the beginning of a sentence or clause, where in English a demonstrative must be used (§ 180. f): as,—

quae qui audiebant, and those who heard this (which things). quae cum ita sint, and since these things are so. quorum quod simile factum (Cat. iv. 8), what deed of theirs like this?

f. 1. A relative adverb is regularly used in referring to an antecedent in the Locative case: as,—

mortuus Cumis quo se contulerat (Liv. ii. 21), having died at Cuma, whither he had retired. [Here in quam urbem might be used, but not in quas.]

2. So, often, to express any relation of place instead of the formal relative pronoun (cf. whence, whereto, wherewith): as,—

locus quō aditus non erat, a place to which (whither) there was no access. rēgna, unde genus dūcis, the kingdom from which you derive your race. unde petitur, the defendant (he wherefrom something is demanded, cf. § 207. a).

g. The relatives qui, qualis, quantus, quot, etc., are often rendered simply by As 1 in English (§ 106. b): as, —

idem quod semper, the same as always.

talis dux qualem Hannibalem novimus, such a chief as we know Hannibal [to have been].

tanta dimicatio quanta numquam fuit, such a fight as never was before. tot mala quot sidera, as many troubles as stars in the sky.

¹ The English as in this use is strictly a relative, though invariable in form.

A. The general construction of relatives is found in clauses introluced by relative or temporal adverbs: as, ubi, quō, unde, cum, quārē.

NOTE. — For the use of the Relative in idiomatic clauses of Characteristic and Result (est qui, dignus qui, quam qui, etc.), see § 320.

For the use of Interrogatives, see § 210.

6. Indefinite Pronouns.

202. The Indefinite pronouns are used to indicate that some person or thing is meant, without designating what one.

NOTE. - For the meanings of the compounds of qui and quis, see § 105.

a. Of the particular indefinites meaning some or any (quis, quispiam, nesciō quis, aliquis, quīdam), the simple quis is least definite, quīdam most definite: as,—

dixerit quis (quispiam), some one may say.

aliqui philosophi ita putant, some philosophers think so. [quidam would mean certain particular persons defined to the speaker's mind, though not named.]

habitant hīc quaedam mulieres pauperculae, some poor women live here [i.e. some women he knows of; some women or other would be aliquae or nescio quae].

b. In a particular negative aliquis (aliqui) is regularly used, where in a universal negative quisquam (subst.) or tillus (adj.) would be required: as,—

iūstitia nunquam nocet cuiquam qui eam habet (Cic.), justice never does harm to anybody who possesses it. [alicui would mean to somebody who possesses it.]

sine aliquo metu, [you cannot do this] without some fear.

sine ullo metu, [you may do this] without any fear.

cum aliquid non habeas (Tusc. i. 36), when there is something you have not.

NOTE. — These pronouns are used in like manner in conditional and other sentences ($\{ 105. h \}$: as, —

sī quisquam, ille sapiēns fuit (Læl. 2), if any man was (ever) a sage, he was. dum praesidia ūlla fuērunt (Rosc. Am. 43), while there were any armed forces (till they ceased to be).

si quid in te peccavi (Att. iii. 15, 4), if I have done wrong towards you [in any particular case (see a, above)].

c. Of the general indefinites, quivis and quilibet (any you will), utervis (either you will, of two), are used chiefly in affirmative, quisquam and fillus (any at all) in negative, interrogative, or conditional clauses: as.—

- 2. If the subordinate clause expresses the words or thought of the subject of the main clause, the reflexive is regularly used to refer to that subject (*Indirect Reflexive*): as,
 - petierunt ut sibi liceret (B. G. i. 30), they begged that it might be allowed them (the petitioners).
 - Iccius nuntium ad eum mittit, nisi subsidium sibi submittatur, etc. (B. G. ii. 6), sends him a message that unless relief be furnished him (Iccius), etc. quem salutem suam crediturum sibi (Q. C. iii. 8), who should trust his safety

to him (Darius)?

- [Caesar] his uti conquirerent et redücerent, si sibi purgăti esse vellent imperavit (B. G. i. 28), Casar ordered them (the Gauls) to hunt up and bring back [the fugitives] if they (the Gauls) wished to be free from fault towards him (Cæsar).
- hostium se habiturum numero confirmat, si aut Ambiorigem aut eius legatos finibus suis recepissent, [Cæsar] said that he should treat [them] as enemies if they received either Ambiorix or his envoys into their territories.
- decima legió ei grātiās ēgit, quod de so optimum iūdicium fecisset (B. G. i. 41), the tenth legion thanked him because [they said] he had expressed a high opinion of them.
- si obsides ab eis (the Helvetians) sibi (Cæsar, who is the speaker) darentur, 86 (Cæsar) cum eis pacem esse facturum (B. G. i. 14), [Cæsar said] that if hostages were given him by them he would make peace with them.
- Tarquinium dixisse ferunt se intellexisse quos fidos amicos habuisset, etc. (C. M. 15, 53), they say that Tarquin said that he understood, etc.
- NOTE.—Sometimes is or ipse is used as an Indirect Reflexive either from careless writing or to avoid ambiguity (cf. i): as,
 - qui se ex his minus timidos existimari vellent, non se hostem vereri, sed angustias itineris et magnitudinem silvarum quae intercederent inter ipsos (the persons referred to by se above) atque Ariovistum . . . timere dicebant (B. G. i. 39), those of them who wished to be thought less timid said they did not fear the enemy, but were afraid of the narrows and the vast extent of the forests which were between themselves and Ariovistus.
 - audistis nuper dicere legatos Tyndaritanos Mercurium qui sacris anniversariis apud eos coleretur Verris imperio esse sublatum (Verr. iv. 39), you have just heard the ambassadors from Tyndaris say that the statue of Mercury which was worshipped with annual rites among them was taken away, etc. [Here Cicero wavers between apud eos colebatur, a remark of his own, and apud se coleretur, the words of the legati. eos does not strictly refer to the ambassadors, but to the people—the Tyndaritani.]
- 3. If the subordinate clause does not express the words, etc., of the main subject, the reflexive is not regularly used, though it is occasionally found. Thus:—

sunt ita multi ut eos carcer capere non possit (Cat. ii. 10, 22), they are so many that the prison cannot hold them. [Here so could not be used.]

ibi in proximīs villīs ita bipartītō fuērunt, ut Tiberis inter eōs et pons interesset (Cat. iii. 2, 5), there they stationed themselves in the nearest farmhouses, in two divisions, in such a manner that the Tiber and the bridge were between them (the divisions). [Here inter sē might be used, but it would refer to a purpose of the soldiers.]

non fuit eo contentus quod ei praeter spem acciderat (Leg. Man. 9, 25), he was not content with that which had happened to him beyond his

kobe.

Compare: qui fit Maecēnās ut nēmo quam sibi sortem seu ratio dederit seu fors obiēcerit illā contentus vivat (Hor. Sat. I. i. 1), how comes it, Macenas, that nobody lives contented with that lot which choice has assigned him or chance has thrown in his way? [Here sibi is used to put the thought into the mind of the discontented man.]

But, — Metellus in eis urbibus quae ad sē dēfēcerant praesidia imponit (Sall. Jug. 61), Metellus posted garrisons in those cities which had revolted to him. [The author vacillates between the thought of Metellus and his

own.]

b. The reflexive in a subordinate clause sometimes refers to the subject of a suppressed main clause: as,—

Paetus, omnēs libros quos frater suus reliquisset mihi donāvit (Att. ii. 1),

Pætus gave me all the books which (as he said in the act of donation)

his brother had left him (cf. a).

c. The reflexive may refer to any noun in its own clause, which is so emphasized as to become in a manner the subject of discourse (cf. the note): as,—

Socratem cives sui interfecerunt, Socrates was put to death by his own fellow-citizens.

qui poterat salus sua cuiquam non probari (Mil. 30, 81), how can any one fail to approve his own safety? [In this and the preceding example the emphasis is preserved in English by the change to the passive.]

hunc sī secūtī erunt suī comitēs (Cat. I. v. 10), this man, if his companions follow him.

NOTE. — Occasionally the clause to which the reflexive really belongs is absorbed: as,—

studeo sanare sibi ipsos (Cat. ii. 8, 17), I am anxious to cure these men for their own benefit (i.e. ut sanī sibi sint).

suo sibi gladio (Plautus), with his own sword. [Here the clause is too indefinite to be supplied.]

d. The reflexive may follow a verbal noun or adjective: as, -

suī laus, self-praise.

impotens sui (Q. C.), without self-control.

homines cum sui similibus servis (Phil. i. 2), men with slaves like themselves.

1.2

e. The reflexive may refer to the subject implied in an infinitive or verbal abstract used indefinitely: as,—

bellum est sua vitia nosse (Cic.), it is a fine thing to know one's own faults. cui proposita sit conservatio sui (Fin. 5, 13), one whose aim is self-preservation.

f. Inter sē, among themselves, is regularly used to express reciprocal action: as. —

cohaerentia inter se, things consistent with each other.

g. Suus is used for one's own as emphatically opposed to that of others, in any part of the sentence and with reference to any word in it: as,—

suīs flammīs dēlēte Fīdēnās (Liv. iv. 33), destroy Fīdenæ with its own fires (the fires kindled by that city, figuratively). [Cf. Cat. i. 13, 32.]

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morti me obtuli (Mil. 34, 94), I have exposed myself to death.

hinc te reginae ad limina perfer (Æn. i. 389), do you go (bear yourself) hence to the queen's threshold.

quid est quod tantis nos in laboribus exerceamus (Arch. 11, 28), what reason is there why we should exert ourselves in so great toils?

- singulis vobis novenos ex turmis manipulisque vestri similes eligite (Liv. xxi. 54), for each of you pick out from the squadrons and maniples nine like yourselves.
- i. Ipse is often (is rarely) used instead of an indirect reflexive, to avoid ambiguity; and in later writers is sometimes found instead of the direct reflexive (cf. a. 2 and 3): as,—

cur de sua virtute aut de ipsius diligentia desperarent (B. G. i. 40), why (he asked) should they despair of their own courage or his diligence? qui mortuo Dareo ipsas tu reperisse (Q. C. x. 5), we found one (said she) to protect us after the death of Darius.

omnia aut ipsos aut hostes populatos (id. iii. 5), [they said that] either they themselves or the enemy had laid all waste,

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Caesar uxorem suam repudiāvit, Cæsar put away his wife. haec sunt mea ornāmenta, these are my jewels. [mea is neut. pl., though the speaker is a woman.] mel sunt ordines, mea descriptio (C. M. 17, 59), mine are the rows, mine the arrangement. [mea is fem., though the speaker is Cyrus.] multa in nostro collegio praeclara (C. M. 18, 64), [there are] many fine things in our college. [nostro is neut sing., though men are referred

- a. The possessive pronouns are used instead of the genitive of a personal pronoun.
 - 1. Always instead of the Possessive Genitive: as, -

domus mea, my house. [Never domus mei.] pater noster, our father. [Never pater nostri.] patrimonium tuum, your inheritance. [Not tui.]

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2. Rarely instead of the Objective Genitive (§ 217, cf. note 1, above). Thus, regularly: -

sui despiciens, disdainful of himself.

non solum sui deprecatorem, sed etiam accusatorem mei, not only a mediator for himself, but an accuser of me (Att. ii. 8).

But occasionally. —

ea quae faciebat, tuā se fiduciā facere dicebat (Verr. v. 68), what he was doing, he said he did relying on you (with your reliance).

neque negligentia tua, neque id odio fecit tuo (Ter. Phorm. 1016), from O

neglect or hatred of you.

b. The possessives have often the acquired meaning of peculiar to, or favorable or propitious towards the person or thing spoken of: as, -

[petere] ut sua clementia ac mansuetudine utatur, they asked (they said) that he would show his [wonted] clemency and humanity.

tempore tuo pugnasti, did you fight at a fit time? (lit., your own).

ignoranti quem portum petat nullus suus ventus est (Sen. Ep. 70), to him who knows not what port he is bound to, no wind is fair (his own).

NOTE. - This use is merely a natural development of the meaning of the possessive, and may often be rendered literally.

c. The possessives are regularly omitted (like other pronouns) when they are plainly implied in the context: as, -

amicum gratulatur, he greets his friend. [amicum suum would be distinctive, his friend (and not another's); suum amīcum, emphatic, his own friend.

d. Possessives are often used substantively (§ 190. a): as, —

nostrī, our countrymen, or men of our party. suōs continēbat (B. C. i. 15), he held his men in check. flamma extrēma meorum (Æn. ii. 431), last flames of my countrymen.

NOTE. — There is no reason to suppose an ellipsis here. The adjective becomes a noun like other adjectives (see \S 188).

e. A possessive representing a genitive may have a genitive in apposition (§ 184. d): as,—

meā solius causā, for my sake only. nostra omnium patria, the country of us all. suum ipsius rēgnum, his own kingdom.

- f. A possessive representing a genitive may serve as an antecedent to a relative (see § 199. b. note).
 - g. For the special reflexive use of the possessive suus, see § 196.

5. Relative Pronouns.

Note.—A Relative pronoun is properly an Adjective, in agreement with some word expressed or implied either in its own clause, or (often) in the antecedent (demonstrative) clause. The full construction would require the antecedent to be expressed in both clauses, with more commonly a corresponding demonstrative to which the relative would refer: as,—

iter in ea loca facere coepit, quibus in locis esse Germanos audichat (B. G. iv. 7), he began to march into those PLACES in which PLACES he heard the Germans were.

But one of these nouns is commonly omitted. The antecedent is, in Latin, very frequently (rarely in English) found in the relative clause, but more commonly in the antecedent clause. Hence relatives serve two uses:—

1. as Nouns (or adjectives) in their own clause: as, -

ei qui Alesiae obsidebantur, those who were besieged at Alesia.

2. as Connectives: as,-

T. Balventio, qui superiore anno primum pilum duxerat, Titus Balventio, who the year before had been a centurion of the first rank.

In this latter use they are often equivalent merely to a demonstrative with a conjunction: as.—

quae cum ita sint (= et cum ea ita sint), [and] since these things are so.

This connective force does not belong to the relative originally, but is developed from an interrogative or indefinite meaning specialized by use. The clauses were originally co-ordinate. Thus, qui quiētus animō est, is est sapiēns originally meant, Who is undisturbed in soul? That [man] is a sage.

A Relative pronoun indicates a relation between its own clause and some substantive. This substantive is called the Antecedent of the relative.

Thus, in the sentence-

eum nihil delectabat, quod fas esset, nothing pleased him which was right, the relative quod connects its antecedent nihil with the predicate fas esset, indicating a relation between the two.

198. A Relative agrees with its Antecedent in Gender and Number; but its Case depends on the construction of the clause in which it stands: as,—

puer quī vēnit abiit, the boy who came has gone away. liber quem legis meus est, the book you are reading is mine. via quā ambulat dūcit ad urbem, the path he walks in leads to the city.

This rule applies to all relative words so far as they are variable in form: as, quālis, quantus, quīcumque.

NOTE.—The relative may be the subject or object of its own clause, or a modifier of either: as,—

- eos enim cives pugna illa sustulerat quibus non modo vivis sed etiam victoribus incolumis et florens civitas esse posset (Phil. xiv. 8).
- a. If a relative has two or more antecedents, it follows the rules for the agreement of predicate adjectives (§§ 186, 187): as,—

filium et filiam, quos valde dilexit, uno tempore amisit, he lost a son and a daughter at the same time, whom he dearly loved.

grandes natu matres et parvuli liberi, quorum utrorumque aetas misericordiam nostram requirit (Verr. v. 49), aged matrons and little children, whose time of life in each case demands our compassion.

otium atque divitiae quae prima mortales putant (Sall. Cat. 36), idleness and wealth which men count the first (objects of desire).

- eae fruges et fructus quos terra gignit (N. D. ii. 14), those fruits and crops which the earth produces.
- 199. A relative generally agrees in gender and number with an appositive or predicate noun in its own clause, rather than with an antecedent of different gender or number (cf. \S 195. d): as,—

mare etiam quem Neptūnum esse dīcēbās (N. D. iii. 20), the sea, too, which you said was Neptune. [Not quod.]

Thebae ipsae, quod Boeotiae caput est (Liv. xxxii. 44), even Thebes, which is the chief city of Baotia. [Not quae.]

NOTE. — This rule is occasionally violated: as, —

flumen quod appellatur Tamesis (B. G. v. 11), a river which is callea the Thames.

- a. A relative occasionally agrees with its antecedent in case (by attraction): as,
 - sī aliquid agās eōrum quōrum cōnsuēstī (Fam. v. 14), if you should do something of what you are used to do. [For eōrum quae.]
- b. A relative may agree in gender and number with an *implied* antecedent: as,
 - quartum genus . . . qui aere vetere alieno vacillant (Cat. ii. 10), a fourth class, that are staggering under old debts.
 - unus ex eo numero qui parati erant (Jug. 35), one of the number [of those] who were ready.
 - coniūrāvēre pauci . . . dē quā [i.e. coniūrātione] dīcam (Sall. Cat. 18), a few have conspired . . . of which [conspiracy] I will speak.
- NOTE.—So regularly when the antecedent is implied in a possessive pronoun (cf. § 197. f): as,
 - nostra qui adsumus salūs, the safety of us who are present. [Here qui agrees with the nostrum implied in nostra].
- **200.** The antecedent noun sometimes appears in both clauses; but usually only in the one that precedes. Sometimes it is wholly omitted. Thus—
- a. The antecedent noun may be repeated in the relative clause: as,
 - locī nātūra erat haec quem locum nostrī dēlēgerant (B. G. ii. 18), the nature of the ground which our men had chosen was this.
- b. The antecedent noun may appear only in the relative clause: as,
 - quas res in consulatu nostro gessimus attigit hic versibus (Arch. II), he has touched in verse the things which I did in my consulship.
 - urbem quam statuo vestra est (An. i. 573), yours is the city which I am tounding.
- NOTE. In this case a demonstrative (is, ille, or hic) usually stands in the antecedent clause: as,
 - istos captīvos duos, herī quos ēmī dē praedā... hīs indito catēnās singulāriās (Plaut. Capt. 110), those two prisoners that I bought yesterday,—put fetters on them.
 - quae pars civitatis calamitatem populo Romano intulerat, ea princeps poenas persolvit (B. G. i. 12), that part of the state which had brought disaster on the Roman people was the first to pay the penalty.

In a sentence of this class the relative clause usually stands first in Latin (cf. § 201. c), as in the example.

- c. The antecedent may be entirely omitted, especially if it is indefinite: as,
 - qui decimae legionis aquilam ferebat (B. G. iv. 25), [the man] who bore the eagle of the tenth legion.
 - qui cognoscerent misit (id. i. 21), he sent [men] to reconnoitre (who should, etc.).
- d. A predicate adjective (especially a superlative) agreeing with its antecedent in gender and number may stand in the relative clause: as,
 - vasa ea quae pulcherrima apud eum viderat (Verr. iv. 27), those most beautiful vessels which he had seen at his house. [Nearly equivalent to the vessels of which he had seen some very beautiful ones.]
- e. The phrase id quod or quae res is used (instead of quod alone) to refer to a group of words or an idea:—
 - [obtrectātum est] Gabiniō dicam anne Pompēiō? an utrique—id quod est vērius? (Manil. 19), an affront is offered—shall I say to Gabinius or to Pompey? or—which is truer—to both?
 - multum sunt in venationibus ... quae res vires alit (B.G.iv. I), they spend much time in hunting, which [practice] increases their strength. [Cf. B. G. ii. 5.]

NOTE. - But quod alone often occurs: as, -

- Cassius noster, quod mihi magnae voluptati fuit, hostem reiecerat (Fam. ii. 10), our friend Cassius—which was a great satisfaction to me—had driven back the enemy.
- 201. In the use of relatives, the following points are to be observed:—
- a. The relative is never omitted in Latin, as it often is in English. Thus, —

liber quem mihi dedisti, the book you gave me.

is sum qui semper fui, I am the same man I always was.

eo in loco est de quo tibi locutus sum, he is in the place I told you of.

b. A relative clause in Latin often takes the place of some other construction in English; particularly of a participle, an appositive, or a noun of agency: as,—

leges quae nunc sunt, the existing laws (the laws which now exist).

Caesar qui Galliam vicit, Caesar the conqueror of Gaul (who conquered Gaul).

insta gloria quae est fructus virtutis, true glory [which is] the fruit of virtue, qui legit, a reader (one who reads).

ille qui petit, the plaintiff (he who sues).

c. In formal or emphatic discourse, the relative clause usually comes first, often containing the antecedent noun (cf. § 200. b): as,—

quae mala cum multis patimur, ea nobis leviora videntur, the evils we suffer [in common] with many, seem to us lighter.

NOTE. — In colloquial language, the relative clause in such cases often contains a demonstrative pronoun which properly belongs in the antecedent clause: as, —

ille qui consulte ... cavet, diutine uti ei bene licet partum bene (Plaut. Rud. 1240), he who is on his guard, he may enjoy, etc.

d. The antecedent noun, when in apposition with the main clause, or with some word of it, is put in the relative clause: as, —

firmi amīcī, cūius generis est māgna pēnūria, steadfast friends, a class of which there is great lack (of which class).

e. A relative may stand (even with another relative or an interrogative) at the beginning of a sentence or clause, where in English a demonstrative must be used (§ 180. f): as,—

quae qui audiebant, and those who heard this (which things). quae cum ita sint, and since these things are so. quorum quod simile factum (Cat. iv. 8), what deed of theirs like this?

f. 1. A relative adverb is regularly used in referring to an antecedent in the Locative case: as,—

mortuus Cumis quo se contulerat (Liv. ii. 21), having died at Cuma, whither he had retired. [Here in quam urbem might be used, but not in quas.]

2. So, often, to express any relation of place instead of the formal relative pronoun (cf. whence, whereto, wherewith): as,—

locus quō aditus non erat, a place to which (whither) there was no access, rēgna, unde genus dūcis, the kingdom from which you derive your race, unde petitur, the defendant (he wherefrom something is demanded, cf. § 207. a).

g. The relatives qu**I**, qu**alis**, quantus, quot, etc., are often rendered simply by AS^1 in English (§ 106. b): as,—

idem quod semper, the same as always.

tālis dux quālem Hannibalem novimus, such a chief as we know Hannibal [to have been].

tanta dimicatio quanta numquam fuit, such a fight as never was before. tot mala quot sidera, as many troubles as stars in the sky.

¹ The English as in this use is strictly a relative, though invariable in form.

**. The general construction of relatives is found in clauses introduced by relative or temporal adverbs: as, ubi, quō, unde, cum, quārē.

NOTE. — For the use of the Relative in idiomatic clauses of Characteristic and Result (est qui, dignus qui, quam qui, etc.), see § 320.

For the use of Interrogatives, see § 210.

6. Indefinite Pronouns.

202. The Indefinite pronouns are used to indicate that some person or thing is meant, without designating what one.

NOTE. - For the meanings of the compounds of qui and quis, see § 105.

a. Of the particular indefinites meaning some or any (quis, quispiam, nesció quis, aliquis, quidam), the simple quis is least definite, quidam most definite: as.—

dixerit quis (quispiam), some one may say.

aliqui philosophi ita putant, some philosophers think so. [quidam would mean certain particular persons defined to the speaker's mind, though not named.]

habitant hic quaedam mulieres pauperculae, some poor women live here [i.e. some women he knows of; some women or other would be aliquae or nescio quae].

b. In a particular negative aliquis (aliqui) is regularly used, where in a universal negative quisquam (subst.) or ullus (adj.) would be required: as,—

iūstitia nunquam nocet cuiquam qui eam habet (Cic.), justice never does harm to anybody who possesses it. [alicui would mean to somebody who possesses it.]

sine aliquo metu, [you cannot do this] without some fear.

sine ullo metu, [you may do this] without any fear.

cum aliquid non habeas (Tusc. i. 36), when there is something you have not.

NOTE. — These pronouns are used in like manner in conditional and other sentences ($\{105. h\}$: as, —

sī quisquam, ille sapiēns fuit (Læl. 2), if any man was (ever) a sage, he was. dum praesidia ūlla fuērunt (Rosc. Am. 43), while there were any armed forces (till they ceased to be).

si quid in te peccavi (Att. iii. 15, 4), if I have done wrong towards you [in any particular case (see a, above)].

c. Of the general indefinites, quivis and quilibet (any you will), utervis (either you will, of two), are used chiefly in affirmative, quisquam and ullus (any at all) in negative, interrogative, or conditional clauses: as,—

cuivīs potest accidere quod cuiquam potest, what can happen to any [one] man can happen to any man [whatever].

non cuivis homini contingit adire Corinthum, it is not every man's luck to go to Corinth. [non cuiquam would mean not any man's.]

minus habeo virium quam vestrum utervis, I have less strength than either of you. [For the form utervis, see § 83.]

quidlibet modo aliquid (Cic.), anything you will, provided it be some-

cur cuiquam misi prius, why did I send to anybody before [you]?

sī quisquam est timidus, is ego sum, if any man is timorous, I am he.

cum haud cuiquam in dubio esset (Liv. ii. 3), when it was not a matter of doubt to any one.

si tempus est üllum iure hominis necandi (Milo, 4, 9), if there is any occasion whatever, etc.

NOTE. — The use of these indefinites is very various, and must be learned from the Lexicon and from practice. The choice among them often depends merely on the point of view of the speaker, so that they are often practically interchangeable. The differences are (with few exceptions) those of logic, not of syntax.

d. The distributives quisque (every), uterque (each), and tinus quisque (every single one), are used in general assertions. They are equivalent to a plural, and sometimes have a plural verb (cf. § 205. c. 2): as,—

bonus liber melior est quisque quo maior, the larger a good book is, the better (each good book is better [in the same measure] as it is larger). ambo exercitus suas quisque abeunt domos, both armies go away, every man to his home.

uterque utrique erat exercitus in conspectu, each army was in sight of the other (each to each).

ponite ante oculos unumquemque regum, set before your eyes each of the kings.

e. Quisque is regularly placed in a dependent clause, if there is one:
 s. —

quo quisque est sollertior, hoc docet iracundius (Rosc. Com. 11), the keenerwitted a man is, the more impatiently he teaches (in what measure each is, etc., in that measure he teaches, etc.).

- f. Nēmō, no one, is used: -
- I. As a substantive: as, —

nemo fit repente turpissimus, no one suddenly becomes absolutely base.

2. As an adjective pronoun: as, -

vir nēmo bonus (Leg. ii. 16), no good man.

Note. — Even when used as a substantive, $n\bar{e}m\bar{o}$ may take a noun in apposition: as, —

nēmo scriptor, nobody [who is] a writer.

7. Alius and Alter.

203. The expressions alter . . . alter, the one . . . the other, alius . . . alius, one . . . another, may be used in pairs to denote either division of a group or reciprocity of action: as,—

alii gladiis adoriuntur, alii fragmentis saeptorum (Sest. 42), some make an attack with swords, others with fragments of the railings.

arma ab aliïs posita ab aliïs erepta sunt (Marc. 10, 31), arms were laid down by some and were snatched from others.

duobus Rosciis Amerinis quorum alterum sedere in accusatorum subsessiiis video, alterum tria huiusce praedia possidere audio (Rosc. Am. 6, 17), two Roscii of Ameria, one of whom I see sitting on the benches of the prosecution; the other, I hear, is in possession, etc.

alteri dimicant, alteri victorem timent (Fam. vi. 3), one party fights, the other fears the victor.

hi fratres alter alterum amant, these brothers love one another. alius alium percontamur, we ask each other.

a. Alius means simply other, another (of an indefinite number); alter, the other (of two), often the second in a series; cēterī and reliquī, all the rest, the others; alteruter, one of the two. Thus,—

quid aliud agis, what else are you doing (what other thing)?

cum etiam hi quibus îgnovisti, nolint te esse in alios misericordem (Lig. 5, 15), when even those whom you have pardoned are unwilling that you should be merciful to others.

uni epistulae respondi, venio ad alteram (Fam. ii. 17, 6), one letter I have answered, I come to the other.

unus atque item alter, one and then [likewise] another. [Of an indefinite number, but strictly referring only to the second.]

alterum genus (Cat. ii. 9, 19), the second class.

iēcissem ipse mē potius in profundum ut cēteros conservarem (Sest. 20, 45),

I should have rather thrown myself into the deep to save the rest.

horum utro uti nolumus, altero est utendum (Sest. 42, 92), whichever of the two we do not wish to have, we must take the other.

Servilius consul, reliquique magistratus (B. C. iii. 21), Servilius the consul and the rest of the magistrates.

cum sit necesse alterutrum vincere (Fam. vi. 3), when it must be that one of the two should prevail.

b. Alius and alter are often used to express one as well as another (the other) of the objects referred to: as,—

alter consulum, one of the [two] consuls.

aliud est maledicere, aliud accusare (Cic.), it is one thing to slander, another to accuse.

c. Alius repeated in another case, or with an adverb from the same stem, expresses shortly a double statement: as, —

alius aliud petit, one man seeks one thing, one another (another seeks another thing).

alius alia via civitatem auxerunt (Liv. i. 21), they enlarged the State, each in his own way.

iūssit alios alibi fodere (Liv. xliv. 33), he ordered different persons to dig in various places.

NOTE, — Alter is often used, especially with negatives, in reference to an indefinite number where one is opposed to all the rest taken singly: as.—

qui alterum incusat probri eum ipsum se intueri oportet (Phæd. i. 19), he who accuses his neighbor of wrong ought to look at himself (the other, there being at the moment only two concerned).

dum ne sit te ditior alter (Hor. Sat. i. 1. 40), so long as another is not richer than you.

non ut magis alter, amicus (Hor. Sat. i. 5. 33), a friend such that no other is more so.

IV. -- VERBS.

1. Verb and Subject.

204. A Finite verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person: as,—

ego statuō, I resolve.

senatus decrevit, the senate ordered.

silent leges inter arma, the laws are dumb in time of war.

Note.—In verb-forms containing a participle, the participle agrees with the subject in gender and number (\S 186): as,—

oratio est habita, the plea was delivered. bellum exortum est, a war arose.

a. A verb having a relative as its subject takes the person of the expressed or implied antecedent: as,—

adsum qui fēci (Æn. ix. 427), here am I who did it.

b. The verb sometimes agrees in number, a participle in the verbform in number and gender, with an appositive or predicate noun: as, —

amantium irae amoris redintegratio est (Ter. Andr. 555), the quarrels of lovers are the renewal of love.

non omnis error stultitia est dicenda (Parad. vi. 3), not every error should be called folly.

Corinthus lumen Graeciae exstinctum est, Corinth, the light of Greece, is put out.

2. Double Subject.

205. Two or more singular subjects take a verb in the plural: as,—

pater et avus mortui sunt, his father and grandfather are dead.

NOTE.—So rarely (by a construction according to the sense, § 182) when to the subject is attached an ablative with cum: as,—

dux cum aliquot principibus capiuntur (Liv. xxi. 60), the general and several chiefs are taken.

- a. When subjects are of different persons, the verb is in the first person rather than the second, and in the second rather than the third: as,
 - si tū et Tullia valētis ego et Cicerō valēmus (Fam. xiv. 5), if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well. [Notice that the first person is also first in order, not last, as by courtesy in English.]

NOTE. — In case of different genders a participle in a verb-form follows the rule for predicate adjectives; see § 187. b, c.

b. If the subjects are connected by disjunctives, or if they are considered as a single whole, the verb is singular: as, —

quem neque fides neque iusiurandum neque illum misericordia repressit (Ter. Ad. 306), not faith, nor oath, nay, nor mercy, checked him.

Senātus populusque Romānus intellegit (Fam. v. 8), the Roman Senate and people understand. [Here the phrase Senātus, etc., is the official designation of the government.]

- c. A collective noun commonly takes a verb in the singular: as, Senātus haec intelligit (Cat. i. 1, 2), the Senate is aware of this. ad hiberna exercitus redit (Liv. xxi. 22), the army returns to winter-quarters.
- 1. But the plural is often found with collective nouns when *individuals* are thought of: as,—

pars praedās agēbant (Jug. 32), a part brought in booty.

cum tanta multitūdō lapidēs conicerent (B. G. ii. 6), when such a crowd

was throwing stones.

Note. — The point of view may change in the course of a sentence: as,—
equitatum omnem . . . quem habebat praemittit, qui videant (B. G. i. 15),
he sent ahead all the cavairy he had, to see (who should see).

2. Quisque has very often a plural verb, but may be considered as in apposition with a plural subject implied (cf. \S 202. d): as,—

sibi quisque habeant quod suum est (Plaut. Curc.), let every one keep his own (let them keep every man his own).

d. When a verb belongs to two or more subjects separately, it may agree with one and be understood with the others: as, —

intercedit M. Antonius et Cassius tribuni plebis (B. C. i. 2), Antony and Cassius, tribunes of the people, interpose.

3. Incomplete Sentences.

206. The subject of the verb is sometimes omitted. Thus:

a. A Personal pronoun, as subject, is usually omitted unless emphatic. Thus, —

loquor, I speak. But, ego loquor, it is I that speak.

b. An indefinite subject is often omitted.

This is usually a plural, as in dicunt, ferunt, perhibent (they say); but sometimes singular, as in inquit (Tusc. i. 39), one says (referring to a class of reasoners just spoken of).

- c. The verb is often omitted. Thus, -
- 1. Dīcō, faciō, agō and other verbs in familiar phrases: as, —

quorsum haec [spectant], what does this aim at?

ex ungue leonem [cognosces], you will know a lion by his claw.

quid multa, what need of many words? (why should I say much?)

quid? quod, what of this, that, etc.? (what shall I say of this, that, etc.?)
[A form of transition.]

Aeolus haec contra (Æn. i. 76), Æolus thus [spoke] in reply.

tum Cotta [inquit], then said Cotta.

di meliora [duint], Heaven forefend (may the gods grant better things)! unde [venis] et quo [tendis], where are you from and where bound?

2. The copula sum, very commonly in the indicative and infinitive, rarely (except by late authors) in the subjunctive: as,—

tū coniunx (Æn. iv. 113), you [are] his wife.

omnia praeclara rara (Læl. 21), all the best things are rare.

potest incidere saepe contentio et comparatio de duobus honestis utrum honestius (Off. i. 43), a comparison of two honorable actions, as to which is the more honorable. [Here, if any copula were expressed, it would be sit, but the direct question would be complete without any.]

accipe quae peragenda prius (Æn. vi. 136), hear what is first to be accomplished. [Direct: quae peragenda prius?]

Cf., for omission of a Subjunctive, — cum ille ferociter ad haec [diceret? (Liv. i. 48), upon his replying with insolence to this, that, etc.

V. - PARTICLES.

1. Adverbs.

207. Adverbs are used to modify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs.

NOTE 1.—For the derivation and classification of adverbs, see §§ 148, 149.

NOTE 2.—The proper functions of Adverbs, as petrified case-forms, is to modify Verbs: as, celeriter Ire, to go with speed. It is from this use that they derive their name (adverbium, from ad, to, and verbum, verb; see § 163. f). They also modify adjectives, showing in what manner or degree the quality described is manifested: as, splendidē mendāx, gloriously false. More rarely

NOTE 3. — Many adverbs, especially relative adverbs, serve as connectives, and are hardly to be distinguished from conjunctions (see § 25. h. note).

they modify other adverbs: as, nimis gravitor, too severely.

- a. A Demonstrative or Relative adverb is often equivalent to the corresponding Pronoun with a preposition (see § 201. f): as,
 - eō (= in ea) imponit vasa (Jug. 75), upon them (thither, thereon, on the beasts) he puts the camp-utensils.
 - eō militēs imponere (B. G. i. 42), on them (thereon) he puts the soldiers. apud eōs quō (= ad quōs) sē contulit (Verr. iv. 18), among those to whom (whither) he resorted.
 - qui eum necasset unde ipse natus esset (Rosc. Am. 26), one who should have killed his own father (him whence he had his birth).
 - ō miserās condiciones administrandārum provinciārum ubi [= in quibus] severitās periculosa est (Flacc. 87), oh! wretched terms of managing the provinces, where strictness is dangerous.
- b. The adverbs propius, near; proxime, next (like the adjectives propior, proximus); prīdie, the day before; postrīdie, the day after, are sometimes followed by the accusative (see § 261. a).

The adverbs palam, openly; procul, afar; simul, at the same time, are sometimes followed by the ablative (see § 261. b).

- NOTE. Pridië and postridië are often used with the genitive (\S 223. e. n. 2). Clam, without the knowledge of, may take the accusative, the ablative, or the genitive (\S 261. e).
- c. Many perfect participles used as nouns regularly retain the adverb which modified them as participles: as,—

praeclārē factum, a glorious deed (a thing gloriously done).

d. Very rarely adverbs are used with nouns which contain a verbal idea (cf. § 188. d): as,—

populus lātē rēx (Æn. i. 21), a people ruling far and wide. hinc abitiō (Plaut.), a going away from here. quid cogitem de obviam itione (Att. xiii. 50), what I think about going to meet [him]. [Perhaps felt as a compound.]

e. For adverbs used as adjectives, see § 188. e.

NOTE.—In some cases one can hardly say whether the adverb is treated as an adjective modifying the noun (as in § 188. ϵ), or the noun modified is treated as an adjective (as in § 188. d).

2. Conjunctions.

NOTE. - For the classification of conjunctions, see §§ 154, 155.

208. Copulative and Disjunctive Conjunctions connect similar constructions, and are regularly followed by the same case or mood that precedes them: as,—

scriptum senātui et populo (Cat. iii. 5, 10), written to the senate and people. ut eas [partis] sanārēs et confirmārēs (Mil. 25, 68), that you might cure and strengthen those parts.

neque mea prudentia neque humanis consiliis fretus (Cat. ii. 13, 29), relying neither on my own foresight nor on human wisdom.

a. Conjunctions of Comparison (as ut, quam, tanquam, quasi) also commonly connect similar constructions: as,—

his igitur quam physicis potius credendum existimas (Div. ii. 26), do you think these are more to be trusted than the natural philosophers?

hominem callidiorem vidi neminem quam Phormionem (Ter.), a shrewder man I never saw than Phormio (cf. § 247. a).

ut non omne vinum sie non omnis natura vetustate coacescit (Cat. Mag. 18, 65), as every wine does not sour with age, so [does] not every nature.

Cf. perge ut instituisti (Rep. ii. 11), go on as you have begun.

in me quasi in tyrannum (Phil. xiv. 6, 15), against me as against a tyrant.

b. Two or more co-ordinate words, phrases, or sentences are often put together without the use of conjunctions (Asyndeton, § 346.c): as, — omnēs dī, hominēs, all gods and men.

summî, mediî, înfimî, the highest, the middle class, and the lowest. liberî, servî, freemen and slaves.

- 1. Where there are more than two co-ordinate words, etc., a conjunction, if used at all, must be used with all (or all except the first): as,
 - aut aere alieno aut magnitudine tributorum aut iniuria potentiorum (B. G. vi. 13), by debt, excessive taxation, or oppression on the part of the powerful.

summā fidē et constantiā et iūstitiā, with perfect good faith, [and] consistency, and justice. [Not fidē constantiā et iūstitiā, as in English.]

2. But words are often so divided into groups that the members of the groups omit the conjunction (or express it), while the groups themselves express the conjunction (or omit it): as,—

propudium illud et portentum, L. Antonius insigne odium omnium hominum (Phil. xiv. 3, 8), that wretch and monster, Lucius Antonius, the abomination of all men.

utrumque egit graviter, auctoritate et offensione animi non acerba (Læl. 21, 77), he acted in both cases with dignity, without loss of authority, and with no bitterness of feeling.

3. The enclitic -que is sometimes used with the last member of a series, even when there is no grouping apparent: as,—

voce vultu motuque (Brut. 110), by voice, expression, and gesture.

curam consilium vigilantiamque (Phil. vii. 10), care, wisdom, and vigilance.

multo sudore labore vigiliisque (Div. 72), with much fatigue, toil, and waking.

quorum auctoritatem dignitatem voluntatemque defenderas (Fam. i. 7, 2), whose dignity, honor, and wishes you had defended.

c. Two adjectives belonging to the same noun are regularly connected by a conjunction: as, —

multae et graves causae, many weighty reasons.

d. Many words properly adverbs may be used correlatively, and so become conjunctions, partly or wholly losing their adverbial force (see § 107). Such are,—

cum ... tum, while ... so also (both ... and).

tum ... tum, now ... now.

 $modo \dots modo, now \dots now.$

simul... simul, at the same time... at the same time (at once... as well as).

quā ... quā, now ... now.

nunc . . . nunc, now . . . now.

Thus, —

cum difficile est, tum ne aequum quidem (Læl. 8, 26), not only is it difficult, but even unjust.

erumpunt saepe vitia amicorum tum in ipsos amicos tum in alienos (Leel. 21, 76), the faults of friends sometimes break out, now against their friends themselves, now against strangers.

modo ait modo negat (Ter. Eun. 712), now he says yes, now no.

simul grātiās agit, simul grātulātur (Q. C. vi. 7), he thanks him and at the same time congratulates him.

qua maris qua feminas (Plaut. Mil. 1113), both males and females.

e. Two conjunctions of similar meaning are often used together, for the sake of emphasis or to bind a sentence more closely to what precedes: as, at vērō, but in truth, but surely, still, however; itaque ergō, accordingly then; namque, for; et-enim, for, you see, for of course (§ 156. d).

f. For conjunctions introducing subjunctive clauses, see Chap. V.

3. Negative Particles.

NOTE. — For the list of negative particles, see § 149. e.

209. In the use of the Negative Particles, the following points are to be observed:—

a. Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative, as in English (§ 150): as, nēmō nōn videt, everybody sees.

But a general negation is not destroyed —

- 1. By a following nē...quidem, not even, or non modo, not only: as,
 - numquam tū non modo otium, sed no bellum quidem nisi nefarium concupisti (Cat. i. 10, 25), not only have you never desired repose, but you have never desired any war except one which was infamous.
- 2. By succeeding negatives each introducing a separate subordinate member: as,
 - eaque nesciébant nec ubi nec qualia essent (Tusc. iii. 2), they knew not where or of what kind these things were.
 - 3. By neque introducing a co-ordinate member: as, -
- nequeo satis mirari neque conicere (Ter. Eun. 547), I cannot wonder enough nor conjecture.
 - b. The negative is frequently joined to some other word. Hence the forms of negation in Latin differ from those in English in many expressions. Thus,—

neque (nec) (not et non), and not, but not (neither . . . nor).

nec quisquam (not et nemo), and no one (nor any one).

nūllī or neutrī crēdō (not non crēdo ūllī), I do not believe either (I believe neither).

nego haec esse vēra (not dīco non esse), I say this is not true (I deny that these things are true).

sine üllö periculö (less commonly cum nüllö), with no danger (without any danger).

- nihil unquam audivi iucundius, I never heard anything more amusing (nothing more amusing have I ever heard).
- c. A statement is often made emphatic by denying its contrary (Litotes): as,—

non hace sine numine divom eveniunt (Æn. ii. 777), these things do not occur without the will of the gods.

haec non nimis exquiro (Att. vii. 18, 3), not very much, i.e. very little.

Note. — Compare nonnullus, nonnomo, etc. (§ 150. a).

- d. The particle immō, nay, is used to contradict some part of a preceding statement or question, or its form; in the latter case, the same statement is often repeated in a stronger form, so that immō becomes nearly equivalent to yes (nay but, nay rather): as,
 - causa igitur non bona est? immo optima (Att. ix. 7), is the cause then not a good one? on the contrary, the best.

e. Minus, less (especially with sī, if, quō, in order that), and minimē. least. often have a negative force. Thus.—

sī minus possunt, if they cannot. [For quō minus, see §§ 319. c, 331. c.] audācissimus ego ex omnibus? minimē (Rosc. Am. 1), am I the boldest of them all? by no means (not at all).

[For do not in Prohibitions, see § 269. a.]

VI. - QUESTIONS.

- 210. Questions are either Direct or Indirect.
- 1. A Direct Question gives the exact words of the speaker: as, quid est? what is it?
- 2. An Indirect Question gives the substance of the question, adapted to the form of the sentence in which it is quoted. It depends on a verb or other expression of asking, doubting, knowing, or the like: as,—

rogāvit quid esset, he asked what it was. [Direct: quid est, what is it?] nesciō ubi sim, I know not where I am. [Direct: ubi sum, where am I?]

Questions in Latin are introduced by special interrogative words, and are not distinguished by the order of words, as in English.

NOTE. — For the list of Interrogative Particles, see § 149. d.

a. A question of simple fact, requiring the answer YES or NO, is formed by adding the enclitic -ne to the emphatic word: as,—

tune id veritus es (Cic.), did YOU fear that? hicine vir usquam nisi in patria morietur (Mil. 38, 104), shall THIS man die anywhere but in his native land?

b. The interrogative particle -ne is sometimes omitted: as, -

patère tua consilia non sentis (Cat. i. 1), do you not see that your schemes are manifest? (you do not see, ch?)

NOTE. — In such cases no sign of interrogation appears except in the punctuation, and it is often doubtful whether the sentence is a question or an ironical statement.

c. When the enclitic -ne is added to a negative word,—as in nonne,—an affirmative answer is expected. The particle num suggests a negative answer. Thus,—

nonne animadvertis (N. D. iii. 35), do you not observe? num dubium est (Rosc. Am. 37), there is no doubt, is there?

d. The particle -ne often when added to the verb, less commonly when added to some other word, has the force of nonne: as.—

meministine me in senatu dicere (Cat. i. 3), don't you remember my saying in the Senate?

rectene interpretor sententiam tuam (Tusc. iii. 17, 37), do I not rightly interpret your meaning?

NOTE. — This was evidently the original meaning of -ne; but in most cases the negative force was lost and -ne was used merely to express a question. So the English interrogative no? shades off into ch?

REMARK.—The enclitic -ne is sometimes added to other interrogative words: as, utrumne, whether; anne, or; quantane (Hor. Sat. ii. 3. 317), how big? quone malo (id. 200), by what curse?

e. A question concerning some special circumstance is formed by prefixing to the sentence an interrogative pronoun or adverb (§ 106), as in English: as.—

quid est quod iam amplius exspectes (Cat. i. 3), what is there for you to look for any more?

quo igitur haec spectant (Fam. vi. 6), whither then is all this tending? Icare, ubi es (Ov. M. viii. 232), Icarus, where are you?

REMARK.—A question of this form becomes an exclamation by changing the inflection of the voice: as, qualis vir erat! what a man he was! quot calamitates pass! sumus! how many misfortunes have we suffered!

f. The particles nam (enclitic) and tandem may be added to interrogative pronouns and adverbs for the sake of emphasis: as,—

quisnam est, pray who is it? [quis tandem est? would be stronger.] ubinam gentium sumus (Cat. i. 4), where in the world are we? in quā tandem urbe hoc disputant (Mil. 3, 7), in what city, pray, do they maintain this?

NOTE. - Tandem is sometimes added to verbs: as.-

ain tandem (Fam. ix. 21), you don't say so! (say you so, pray?)
itane tandem, quaeso, est (Ter. Heaut. 954), it's so, is it then?
itane tandem uxorem duxit Antipho (Ter. Ph. 231), so then, eh? Antipho's
got married?

REMARK.—The form of Indirect Questions (in English introduced by whether, or by an interrogative pronoun or adverb) is in Latin the same as that of Direct; the difference being only in the verb, which in indirect questions regularly takes the Subjunctive (§ 334).

In indirect questions num loses its peculiar force (§ 210. c).

Double Ouestions.

211. A Double or Alternative Question is an inquiry as to which of two or more supposed cases is the true one.

In Double or Alternative Questions, utrum or -ne, whether, stands in the first member; an, anne, or; annon, necne, or not, in the second; and usually an in the third, if there be one: as, —

utrum nescīs, an pro nihilo id putās (Fam. x. 26), is it that you don't know, or do you think nothing of it?

quaero servosne an liberos (Rosc. Am. 27), I ask whether slaves or free. utrum hostem an vos an fortunam utriusque populi ignoratis (Liv. xxi. 10, 6), is it the enemy, or yourselves, or the fortune of the two peoples, that you do not know?

REMARK, - Annon is more common in direct questions, necne in indirect,

a. The interrogative particle is often omitted in the first member; in which case -ne (anne, neone) may stand in the second: as, —

Gabinio dicam anne Pompeio an utrique (Manil. 19), shall I say to Gabinius, or to Pompey, or to both?

sunt haec tua verba necne (Tusc. iii. 18), are these your words or not?

- b. Sometimes the first member is omitted or implied, and an (anne) alone asks the question, usually with indignation or surprise: as,
 - an tū miseros putas illos (Tusc. i. 7), what! do you think those men wretched?
- c. Sometimes the second member is omitted or implied, and utrum may ask a question to which there is no alternative: as,—

utrum in clarissimis est civibus is, quem . . . (Flacc. 16), is he among the noblest citizens, whom, etc.?

d. The following table exhibits the various forms of alternative questions:—

utrum ... an ... an
utrum ... annōn
---- ... an (anne)
-ne ... an
---- ... necne

Question and Answer.

212. There is no one Latin word in common use meaning simply yes or no. In answering a question affirmatively, the verb or some other emphatic word is generally repeated; in answering negatively, the verb, etc., with non or a similar negative: as,—

valetne, is he well? valet, yes (he is well).

eratne tecum, was he with you? non erat, no (he was not).

numquidnam novi there is nothing new, is there? nihil sane, oh! nothing.

- a. An intensive or negative particle, a phrase, or a clause is sometimes used to answer a direct question: thus,—
 - I. For YES: -

vērō, in truth, true, no doubt, yes.

ita vēro, certainly (so in truth), etc. sānē quidem, yes, no doubt, etc.

etiam, even so, yes, etc.

ita est, it is so, true, etc.

ita, so, true, etc.

sane, surely (soundly), no doubt, doubtless, etc.

certe, certainly, most assuredly, unquestionably, etc.

factum, true (it was done), it's a fact, you're right, etc.

2. For NO: -

non, not [so].

nullo modo, by no means.

minime, not at all (in the smallest degree, cf. § 209. e).

minime vero, no, not by any means; oh! no, etc.

non quidem, why, no; certainly not, etc.

non hercle vero, why, gracious, no (certainly not, by Hercules)!

Examples are: -

quidnam? an laudationes? ita, why, what? is it eulogies? just so.

aut etiam aut non respondere (Acad. ii. 32, 104), to answer (categorically) yes or no.

estne ut fertur forma? sano (Ter. Eun. 360), is [she] as handsome as they say she is (is her beauty as it is said)? oh! yes.

fugisne hinc? ego vērō āc lubēns (Ter. And. 337), will you clear out from here? indeed I will, and be glad to.

miser ergo Archelaus? certe si iniustus (Tusc. v. 12, 35), was Archelaus wretched then? certainly, if he was unjust.

haec contemnitis? minimo (De Or. ii. 73, 295), do you despise these things? not at all.

volucribusne et feris? minime vero (Tusc. i. 43, 104), to the birds and beasts? why, of course not.

- ex tui animi sententiā tū uxorem habēs? non hercle, ex mei animi sententiā (De Or. ii. 64, 260), Lord 1 no, etc.
- 6. In answering a double question, one member of the alternative, or some part of it, must be repeated: as, —

tune an frater erat, was it you or your brother? ego [eram], it was I.

REMARK.—From double (alternative) questions must be distinguished those which are in themselves single, but of which some detail only is alternative. These have the common disjunctive particles aut or vel (-ve). Thus,—

quaero num iniuste aut improbe fecerit (Off. iii. 13), I ask whether he acted unjustly or even dishonestly.

Here there is no double question. The only inquiry is whether the man did either of the two things supposed, not which of the two he did.

CHAPTER II. — Construction of Cases.

NOTE.—The Cases of nouns express their relations to other words in the sentence. The most primitive way of expressing such relations is by mere juxtaposition of roots or stems. From this arises in time composition, the growing together of stems by means of which a complex expression arises with its parts mutually dependent. Thus such a complex as armo-gero-comes to mean arm-bearing; fldi-con-playing on the lyre. Later, Cases are formed by means of suffixes to express more definitely such relations, and Syntax begins. But the primitive method of composition still continues to hold an important place even in the most highly developed languages.

Originally the family of languages to which Latin belongs had at least seven cases, besides the Vocative. But in Latin the Locative and Instrumental were lost except in a few words (where they remained without being recognized as

cases) and their functions were divided among the others (§§ 224, 242).

The Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative express the oldest forms of caserelations (Direct Cases, § 31. g. note). The Nominative is the case of the Subject,
and the -8 in which it generally ends is thought to be a demonstrative pronoun
(§ 32, n. 2). The Vocative, usually without a termination, or like the Nominative
(§ 33. a), perhaps never had a suffix of its own. The Accusative, most frequently
formed by the suffix -m (doubtless another demonstrative), originally connected
the noun loosely with the verb-idea, not necessarily expressed by a verb proper,
but as well by a noun or adjective (see page 235, head-note).

The other cases were formed by combination with various pronominal suffixes, and at first probably expressed relations of place or direction (TO, FROM, AT, WITH: Indirect Cases, § 31. g. note). But these original meanings have become confused with each other, and in many instances the cases are no longer distinguishable either in form or meaning. Thus the Locative was for the most part lost from its confusion with the Dative and Ablative; and its function was often performed by the Ablative, which is freely used to express the place where (§ 258. f). To indicate relations of place more precisely, Prepositions (originally Adverbs) gradually became necessary. These by degrees rendered the case-endings useless, and so have finally superseded them in all modern languages derived from Latin. But in Latin a large and various body of relations was still expressed by case-forms. It is to be noticed that cases in their literal use tended to adopt the preposition, and in their figurative uses to retain the old construction. (See Ablative of Separation, § 243; Ablative of Place and Time, § 254, 256.)

The word casus, case, is a translation of the Greek πτῶσιs, a falling away (from the erect position). The term πτῶσιs was originally applied to the Oblique Cases (§ 31.g), to mark them as variations from the Nominative, which was called δρθή (cāsus rēctus). The later name Nominative (cāsus nôminātivus) is from nominō, and means the naming case. The other case-names (except ablative) are of Greek origin. The name Genitive (cāsus genetīvus) is a translation of γενική [πτῶσιs], from γένος (class), and refers to the class to which a thing belongs. Dative (cāsus datīvus, from dō) is translated from δοτική, and means the case of giving. Accusative (accūsātīvus, from accūsō) is a mistranslation of aiτιατική (the case of causing), from aiτία, cause, and meant to the Romans the case of accusing. The name Vocative (vocātīvus, from vocō) is translated from κλητική (the case of calling). The name Ablative (ablātīvus, from ablātus, auferō) means taking from. This case the Greek had lost.

I. - GENITIVE.

NOTE. — The Genitive is regularly used to express the relation of one noun to another. Hence it is sometimes called the *adjective* case, to distinguish it from the Dative and the Ablative, which may be called *adverbial* cases. Its uses may be classified as follows: —

I. Of Possession (§ 214).
2. Of Source developed into Material (§ 214. e).
3. Of Quality (§ 215).
4. Of the Whole, after words designating a Part (Partitive, § 216).
5. With Nouns of Action and Feeling (§ 217).

II. GENITIVE WITH (I. Relative adjective (or Verbal) (§ 218. a, b).

ADJECTIVES: 2. Of Specification (later use) (§ 218. c).

III. GENITIVE WITH 1. Of Memory, Feeling, etc. (\$\sqrt{9}\) 210, 221-23).

VERES: 2. Of Accusing, etc. (Charge or Penalty) (\$\sqrt{220}\).

I. GENITIVE WITH NOUNS.

213. A noun used to limit or define another, and not meaning the same person or thing, is put in the Genitive.

This relation is most frequently expressed in English by the preposition OF: as.—

libri Ciceronis, the books of Cicero.
talentum auri, a talent of gold.
vir summae virtūtis, a man of the greatest courage.
pars mīlitum, a part of the soldiers.
cultus deorum, worship of the gods.
vacātio laboris, a respite from toil.
victor omnium gentium, conqueror of all nations.

In most constructions the genitive is either Subjective or Objective.

- 1. The Subjective genitive denotes that to which the noun limited belongs, or from which it is derived (§ 214).
- 2. The Objective genitive denotes that toward which an action or feeling is directed (§ 217 ff.).

This distinction is illustrated by the following example. The phrase amor patris, love of a father, may mean love felt by a father, a father's love (subjective genitive), or love towards a father (objective genitive).

NOTE.—The genitive seems to have denoted originally that to which something belongs, and hence it was originally subjective. The objective genitive is a later development, through such expressions as meI laud&tores, my admirers, in which admirers are first conceived as belonging to me, and afterwards felt as admiring me (cf. § 217. note). For this reason the distinction between the subjective and the objective genitive is very unstable and constantly lost sight of (cf. § 197. a).

214. The Subjective Genitive is used with a noun to denote (1) the Author or Owner, (2) the Source or the Material, (3) the Quality.

1. Possessive Genitive

a. I. The Possessive Genitive denotes the author or owner: as,—

librī Ciceronis, the books of (written by) Cicero. Alexandrī equus, Alexander's horse.

2. For the genitive of possession a possessive or derivative adjective is often used,—regularly for the possessive genitive of the personal pronouns (§§ 190, 197. a): as,—

liber meus, my book. [Not liber meī.] aliēna pericula, other men's dangers. [But also aliōrum.] Sullāna tempora, the times of Sulla. [Oftener Sullae.]

b. The noun limited is understood in a few expressions: as, -

ad Castoris [aedēs], to the [temple] of Castor. Hectoris Andromachē (Æn. iii. 319), Hector's [wife] Andromache. Flaccus Claudi, Flaccus [slave] of Claudius.

c. The possessive genitive is often in the predicate, connected with its noun by a verb: as,—

haec domus est patris mei, this house is my father's.

tūtēlae nostrae [eos] dūximus (Liv.), we held them [to be] in our protection.

compendi facere, to save (make of saving).

lucri facere, to get the benefit of (make of profit).

iam mē Pompēī totum esse scis (Fam. ii. 13), you know I am now all for Pompey (all Pompey's).

REMARK.—These genitives bear the same relation to the examples in \S 213 that a predicate noun bears to an appositive ($\S\S$ 184, 185).

d. An infinitive or a clause, when used as a noun, is often limited by a genitive in the predicate: as,—

neque suī iūdicī [erat] decernere (B. C. i. 35), nor was it for his judgment to decide (nor did it belong to his judgment).

cūiusvīs hominis est errāre (Cic.), it is any man's [liability] to err.

negāvit mōris esse Graecōrum, ut in convīviō virōrum accumberent mulierēs (Verr. ii. 28), he said it was not the custom of the Greeks for
women to appear as guests (recline) at the banquets of men.

timidi est optare necem (Ov. M. iv. 15), it is for the coward to wish for death.

stulti erat spērāre, suādēre impudentis (Phil. ii. 10), it was folly to hope, effrontery to urge (it was the part of a fool. etc.).

sapientis (not sapiens) est pauca loqui, it is wise (the part of a wise man)
to say little.

REMARK. — This construction is regular with adjectives of the third declension instead of the neuter nominative (see the last two examples).

NOTE.—A derivative or possessive adjective may be used for the genitive in this construction, and must be used for the genitive of a personal pronoun: as,—

mentiri non est meum (not mei), it is not for me to lie.

hūmānum (for hominis) est errāre, it is man's nature to err (to err is human).

2. Genitive of Material.

e. The genitive may denote the Substance or Material of which a thing consists (compare §§ 216, 244): as,—

talentum aurī, a talent of gold. flūmina lactis, rivers of milk.

Note. — This is strictly a genitive of source (cf. ex aurō factum, made [out] of gold, \S 244. c).

f. A limiting genitive is sometimes used instead of a noun in apposition (§ 183): as,—

nomen însaniae (for nomen însania), the word madness.

oppidum Antiochiae (for oppidum Antiochia, the regular form), the city
of Antioch.

- g. For the genitive with the ablatives causa, grātiā, for the sake of; ergō, because of; and the indeclinable Instar, like; also with prīdiē, the day before; postrīdiē, the day after; tenus, as far as, see § 223. e.
 - h. For the genitive of the Gerund and Gerundive, see § 298.

3. Genitive of Quality.

215. The genitive is used to denote Quality, but only when the quality is modified by an adjective: as,—

vir summae virtūtis, a man of the highest courage. [But not vir virtūtis] magnae est deliberationis, it is an affair of great deliberation.

magni formica laboris, the ant [a creature] of great toil.

ille autem sui iudici (Nep. Att. 9), but he [a man] of independent (his own) judgment.

NOTE.—Compare Ablative of Quality (§ 251). In expressions of quality, the genitive or the ablative may often be used indifferently: as, praestant! prudentil vir, a man of surpassing wisdom; maximi animi homo (Cic.), a man of the greatest courage. But in general the Genitive is thus used rather of essential, the Ablative of special or incidental characteristics. The Genitive of Quality was no doubt originally subjective.

- a. The genitive of quality is found in the adjective phrases **Sius** modī, cūius modī (equivalent to tālis, such; quālis, of what sort).
- b. The genitive of quality, with numerals, is used to define measures of length, depth, etc. (Genitive of Measure): as, —

fossa trium pedum, a trench of three feet [in depth]. murus sedecim pedum, a wall of sixteen feet [high].

c. For Genitives of Quality used to express indefinite value, see § 252. a.

4. Partitive Genitive.

- 216. Words denoting a Part are followed by the genitive of the Whole to which the part belongs.
 - a. Partitive words, followed by the genitive, are —
 - 1. Nouns or Pronouns: as, -

pars mīlitum, *part of the soldiers*. quis nostrūm, *which of us* (cf. e, below)? nihil erat reliquī, *there was nothing left*.

2. Numerals, Comparatives, Superlatives, and Pronominal words like alius, etc.: as,—

alter consulum, one of the [two] consuls.

unus tribunorum, one of the tribunes (cf. c, below).

plūrimum totius Galliae equitatū valet (B. G. v. 4), is strongest in cavalry of all Gaul.

octavus sapientum (Hor.), the eighth wise man (eighth of the wise men). Hispanorum alii vigilant alii student, of the Spaniards some are on the watch, others are eager.

maior fratrum, the elder of the brothers.

animalium fortiora, the stronger [of] animals.

3. Neuter adjectives and pronouns, used as nouns: as, —

tantum spati, so much [of] space.
aliquid nummorum, a few pence (something of coins).
id loci (or locorum), that spot of ground.
id temporis, at that time (§ 240. b).
plana urbis, the level parts of the town.
quid novi, what news (what of new)?

ā

- 1. Some verbs take the Accusative (with or without a preposition) instead of the Indirect Object, when the idea of Motion prevails (§ 258): as,
 - litteras quas ad Pompēium scripsi (Att. iii. 9), the letter which I have written [and sent] to Pompey. [Cf. non quo haberem quod tibi scriberem (Att. iv. 4), not that I had anything to write to you.]

litterae extemplo Romam scriptae (Liv. xli. 16), a letter was immediately written [and sent] to Rome.

hostes in fugam dat (B. G. v. 51), he puts the enemy to flight. [Cf. ut me dem fugae (Att. viii. 23), to take to flight.]

cur saepius ad mē litterās dedissēs (Fam. iv. 4), why you had several times written letters [addressed] to me.

nullas eis praeterquam ad te et ad Brutum dedi litter (id. iii. 7), I have given to them (the messengers) no letters except (addressed) to you, etc. omnes rem ad Pompeium deferri volunt (id. i. 1), all wish the matter to be put in the hands of Pompey.

an iterum se reddat in arma (An. x. 684), or should throw himself again into the fight (only poetic).

2. On the other hand, many verbs usually followed by the Accusative with ad or in, take the Dative when the idea of motion is merged in some other idea: as, —

nec quicquam quod non mihi Caesar detulerit (Fam. iv. 13), and nothing which Caesar did not communicate to me.

mihi litteras mittere (Fam. vii. 12), to send me a letter.

eum librum tibi misi (id. vii. 19), I sent you that book.

Catonem tuum mihi mitte (id. vii. 24), send me your Cato.

cures ut mihi vehantur (id. viii. 4, end), take care that they be conveyed to me. cum alius aliī subsidium ferrent (B. G. ii. 26), while one lent aid to another. quibus (copiis rex Deiotarus) imperātoribus nostrīs auxilia mitteret (Deiot.

- 8, 22), with which (troops) king D. might send reinforcements to our generals.
- 3. In poetry the End of Motion is often expressed by the dative (see § 258. note 1).
- c. For the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing after verbs of threatening and the like, see § 227. f.
- d. Certain verbs may take either the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing, or (in a different sense) the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing: as,—

donat coronas suis, he presents wreaths to his men; or,

donat suos coronis, he presents his men with wreaths.

vincula exuere sibi (Ov. M. vii. 772), to shake off the leash (from himself). omnēs armīs exuit (B. G. v. 51), he stripped them all of their arms. āram sanguine adspergere (N. D. iii. 36), to sprinkle the altar with blood.

arae sanguinem adspergere, to sprinkle blood upon the altar.

Such are dōnō, impertiō, induō, exuō, adspergō, īnspergō, circumdō, circumfundō, prohibeō, interclūdō, and in poetry accingō, implicō, and similar verbs.

NOTE 1. — Interdico, forbid, takes either (1) the dative of the person and the accusative of the thing, or (2) the dative of the person and the ablative of the thing: as,—

interdixit histrionibus scaenam (Suet. Dom. 7), he forbade the actors [to appear on] the stage (he prohibited the stage to the actors). [Cf. interdictum est mare Antiātī populo (Liv. viii. 14), the sea was forbidden to the people of Antium.]

fēminīs (dat.) purpurae ūsū interdicēmus (Liv. xxxiv. 7), shall we forbid women the wearing of purple?

aqua et igni alicui interdicere, to forbid the use of fire and water.

NOTE 2.—The Dative with the Accusative is used in poetry with many verbs of preventing, protecting, and the like, which usually take the Accusative and Ablative. Intercludo and arceo sometimes take the Dative and Accusative, even in prose: as,—

hisce omnis aditūs ad Sullam interclūdere (Rosc. Am. 38, 110), to shut these men off from all access to Sulla (close to them every approach). [Cf. uti frūmentō commeātūque Caesarem interclūderet (B. G. 1. 48) to shut Casar off from grain and supplies.]

hunc (oestrum) arcebis pecori (Georg. iii. 154), you shall keep this away from the flock. [Cf. illum arcuit Gallia (Phil. v. 13), he excluded him from Gaul.]

solstitium pecori defendite (Ecl. vii. 47), keep the summer heat from the flock.

e. Verbs which in the active voice take the accusative and dative retain the dative when used in the passive: as,—

haec nobis nuntiantur, these things are told us. [Active: haec [quidam] nobis nuntiat.]

Crasso divitiae non invidentur, Crassus is not envied for his wealth. [Active: Crasso divitias non invidet.]

decem talenta oppidanis imperantur, ten talents are exacted of the townspeople. [Active: imperat oppidanis decem talenta.]

2. Indirect Object with Intransitives.

226. The Dative of the Indirect Object may be used with any Intransitive verb whose meaning allows: as,—

cedant arma togae (Phil. i. 8), let arms give place to the gown. Caesari respondet, he replies to Cæsar.

Caesari respondetur, Cæsar is replied to (see § 230).

credimus nûntio, we believe the messenger.

nûntio creditur, the messenger is believed.

respondi maximis criminibus (Phil. i. 14), I have answered the heaviest charges.

ut ita cuique eveniat (id. 46), that it may so turn out to each.

NOTE 1. — Intransitive verbs have no Direct Object. The Indirect Object, therefore, in these cases stands alone (but cf. $\{0, 225, a\}$).

NOTE 2.— Codo, yield, sometimes takes the Ablative of the thing along with the Dative of the person: as,—

cedere alicui possessione hortorum (Mil. 27, 75), to give up to one the possession of a garden.

a. Many phrases consisting of a noun with the copula sum or a copulative verb are equivalent to an intransitive verb and take a kind of indirect object (cf. § 235): as,—

auctor esse alicui, to advise or instigate one (cf. persuādeō). quis huic reī testis est (Quinc. 11), who testifies (is witness) to this fact? is finis populātionibus fuit (Liv. ii. 30), this put an end to the raids.

b. The dative is sometimes used without a copulative verb in a sense approaching that of the genitive (cf. §§ 227. d, 235. a): as,—

lēgātus Caesari, a lieutenant to Cæsar (i.e. a man assigned to Cæsar). hērēs frātrī suō, his brother's heir (heir to his brother). ministrī sceleribus, agents of crime.

NOTE. — The cases in a and b differ from the constructions of b 227, note 2, and b 235 in that the dative is more closely connected in idea with some single word to which it serves as an indirect object,

3. Dative with Special Verbs.

Many verbs of apparently transitive meaning in English correspond to verbs intransitive in Latin. Thus:—

227. Most verbs signifying to favor, help, please, trust, and their contraries; also to believe, persuade, command, obey, serve, resist, envy, threaten, pardon, and spare, take the dative: as.—

cūr mihi invidēs, why do you envy me?
mihi parcit atque īgnōscit, he spares and pardons me.
ignōsce patriō dolōrī (Liv. iii. 48), excuse a father's grief.
sontibus opitulārī poteram (Fam. iv. 13), I was able to help the guilty.
nōn omnibus serviō (id. xvi. 13), I am not a servant to every man.
cum cēterīs tum mihi ipsī displiceō (id. iv. 13), I dissatisfy other people
and myself too.

¹ These include, among others, the following: adversor, crēdō, faveō, fidō, ignōscō, imperō, invideō, irāscor, sūscēnseō, resistō, noceō, parcō, pāreō, placeō, serviō, studeō, suādeō (persuādeō), temperō, (obtemperō), dictō audiēns sum,

non parcam operae (id. wi. 13), I will spare no pains.

sic mihi persuasi (Cat. M. 21), so I have persuaded myself.

mihi Fabius ignoscere debebit si minus eius famae parcere videbor quam ante consului (Tull. 3), Fabius will have to pardon me if I seem to spare his reputation less than, etc.

huie legioni Caesar confidebat maxime (B. G. i. 40), in this legion Casar trusted most.

NOTE 1.—In these verbs the Latin retains an original intransitive meaning. Thus: invidēre, to envy, was originally to look askance at one; servire is to be a slave to; suadēre is to make a thing pleasant (sweet) to one.

NOTE 2.—Some common phrases regularly take the dative precisely like

verbs of similar meaning. Such are -

praesto esse, be on hand (cf. adesse).

morem gerere, humor (cf. morigerari).

grātum facere, do a favor (cf. grātificārī). dicto audiens esse, be obedient (cf. oboedīre).

cui fidem habebat (B.G. i. 19), in whom he had confidence (cf. confidebat).

So also many phrases where no corresponding verb exists. Such are -

bene (male, pulchre, aegre, etc.) esse, to be well (ill, etc.) off.

iniuriam facere, do injustice to.

diem dicere, bring to trial (name a day for, etc.).

agere gratias, to express one's thanks.

habere gratiam, to feel thankful.

referre gratiam, to repay a favor.

opus esse, be necessary.

damnum dare, inflict an injury.

acceptum (expensum) ferre (esse), to credit (charge).

honorem habere, to pay honor to.

a. Some verbs apparently of the same meanings take the Accusative. Such are iuvō, adiuvō, help; laedō, injure; iubeō, order; dēficiō, fail; dēlectō, please. Thus,—

hic pulvis oculum meum laedit, this dust hurts my eye. [Cf. multa oculis nocent, many things are injurious to the eyes.]

b. Some verbs are used transitively with the Accusative or intransitively with the Dative without perceptible difference of meaning.

Such are adulor (generally accusative), aemulor (rarely dative), comitor, dēspērō, praestōlor, medeor, medicor. Thus,—

adūlātus est Antōniō (Nep. Att. 8), he flattered Antony. adūlārī Nerōnem (Tac. Ann. xvi. 19), to flatter Nero.

c. Some verbs are used transitively with the Accusative or intransitively with the Dative with a difference of meaning.¹

¹ See Lexicon under conveniō, cupiō, insistō, maneō, praevertō, recipio, renûntiō, solvō, succēdō, caveō.

ŝ.

Remark.—The genitive of adjectives of the *third declension* is rarely used partitively. Thus—

nihil novī (gen.), nothing new; but nihil memorābile (nom.), nothing worth mention. [Not nihil memorābilis.]

4. Adverbs, especially of Quantity and Place: as, -

satis pecuniae, money enough (enough of money).
parum ōtī, not much ease (too little of ease).
inde locī, next in order (thence of place).
tum temporis, at that point of time (then of time).
eō miseriārum (Sall.), to that [pitch] of misery.
ubinam gentium sumus, where in the world are we (where of nations)?

b. The poets and later writers often use the partitive genitive after adjectives, instead of a noun in its proper case: as, —

sequimur te sancte deorum (Æn. iv. 576), we follow thee, O holy deity.

[For sancte deus.]
nigrae lānārum (Plin. H. N. viii. 48), black wools. [For nigrae lānae.]
electi iuvenum (Liv. xxx. 9), chosen youths. [For electi iuvenes.]
cunctos hominum (Ov.), all men. [For cunctos homines, compare e.]

c. Cardinal numerals regularly take the Ablative with ē (ex) or dē instead of the Partitive Genitive. So also quīdam commonly, and other words occasionally: as,—

unus ex tribunis, one of the tribunes. [But also, unus tribunorum.] minumus ex illis (Jug. 11), the youngest of them. medius ex tribus (ib.), the middle one of the three. quidam ex militibus, certain of the soldiers. hominem de comitibus meis, a man of my companions.

d. Uterque, both (properly each), and quisque, each, with Nouns are used as adjectives in agreement, but with Pronouns always take a partitive genitive: as,—

uterque consul, both the consuls; but, uterque nostrum, both of us. unus quisque vostrum, each one of you.

e. Numbers and words of quantity including the whole of any thing, take a case in agreement, and not the partitive genitive. So also words denoting a part when only that part is thought of. Thus,—

nos omnes, all of us (we all). [Not omnes nostrum.] quot sunt hostes, how many of the enemy are there? cave inimicos qui multi sunt, beware of your enemies, who are many. multi milites, many of the soldiers. nemo Romanus, not one Roman.

5. Objective Genitive.

The Objective Genitive is used with Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs

217. Nouns of action, agency, and feeling govern the genitive of the object: as,—

desiderium oti, longing for rest.
vacătio muneris, relief from duty.
grātia benefici, gratitude for kindness.
fuga malorum, refuge from disaster.
precātio deorum, prayer to the gods.
contentio honorum, struggle for office.
opinio virtutis, reputation for valor.

NOTE. — This usage is an extension of the idea of belonging to (Possessive Genitive). Thus in the phrase odium Caesaris, hate of Caesar, the hate in a passive sense belongs to Caesar, as odium, though in its active sense he is the object of it, as hate (cf. § 213. note). Hence the expression of such ideas often varies; see a and c, below.

a. The objective genitive is sometimes replaced by a possessive or other derivative adjective (see § 197. a. 2): as,—

mea invidia, my unpopularity (the dislike of which I am the object). meus laudātor, my eulogist (one who praises me). caedēs Clōdiāna (Cic.), the murder of Clodius (the Clodian murder 1). metus hostilis (Jug. 41), fear of the enemy (hostile fear).

NOTE. — These possessives really represent possessive genitives (see note above).

b. Rarely the objective genitive is used with a noun already limited by another genitive: as,—

animi multarum rerum percursio (Tusc. iv. 13), the mind's traversing of many things.

c. A noun with a preposition is often used instead of the objective genitive: as,—

odium in Caesarem, hate of Casar. [Cf. odium Caesaris, note above.] merita ergā mē (Cic.), services to me.

auxilium adversus inimicos (id.), help against enemies.

impetus in me (id.), attack on me.

excessus e vita (id.), departure from life. [Also, excessus vitae, Cic.]

NOTE. — So also in late writers the dative of reference (cf. § 226. b): as, — longo bello materia (Tac. H. i. 89), resources for a long war.

II. GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.

218. Adjectives requiring an object of reference govern the objective genitive.

¹ As we say, "The Nathan murder."

These are called Relative Adjectives (adiectīva relātīva) or Transitive Adjectives, and include the following:—

a. Adjectives denoting desire, knowledge, memory, fulness, power, sharing, guilt, and their opposites: as,—

avidus laudis, greedy of praise.
fastīdiosus litterārum, disdaining letters.
iūris perītus, skilled in law. [So also the ablative, iūre, cf. § 253.]
suī oblītus, forgetful of himself.
rationis et orationis expertēs (Off. i. 16), devoid of sense and speech.
reī militāris imperītus, unskilled in military science.
vostrī memor, mindful of you.
plēnus fidei, full of good faith.
egēnus omnis speī, destitute of all hope.
potēns tempestātum, having sway over the storms.
impotēns īrae, ungovernable in anger.
particeps coniūrātionis, sharing in the conspiracy.
affīnis reī capitālis, involved in a capital crime.
insons culpae, innocent of guilt.

b. Verbals in -ax (§ 164. l); also participles in -ns when used as adjectives, i.e. to denote a disposition and not a particular act: as,—

iūstum et tenācem propositī virum (Hor. Od. iii. 3), a man just and steadfast to his purpose.

circus capax populi (Ov.), a circus big enough to hold the people.

cibī vīnīque capācissimus (Liv.), a very great eater and drinker (very able to contain food and wine).

si quem tuī amantiorem cognovisti (Q. Fr. ix. 1), if you have become acquainted with any one more fond of you.

multitudo însolens belli (B. C. ii. 36), a crowd unused to war. sitiens sanguinis, thirsting for blood (i.e. habitually bloodthirsty).

NOTE 1. — Participles in -ns, when used as participles, take the case regularly governed by the verb to which they belong: as, —

Tiberius sitiens sanguinem (Tac.), Tiberius [then] thirsting for blood.

NOTE 2.—Occasionally participial forms in -ns are treated as participles (see note 1) even when they express a disposition or character: as,—

virtūs quam alii ipsam temperantiam dicunt esse, alii obtemperantem temperantiae praeceptīs et eam subsequentem (Tusc. iv. 13, 30), observant of the teachings of temperance and obedient to her.

c. The poets and later writers use the genitive with almost any adjective, to denote that with reference to which the quality exists (Genitive of Specification): as,—

callidus rei militaris (Tac. H. ii. 31), skilled in soldiership, pauper aquae (Hor. Od. iii. 30. 11), scant of water. notus animi paterni (id. ii. 2. 6), famed for a paternal spirit.

fessi rerum (Æn. i. 178), weary of toil.

integer vitae scelerisque purus (Hor.), upright in life, and unstained by guilt.

NOTE 1.—For the Ablative of Specification, the prose construction, see § 253.

NOTE 2.—The Genitive of Specification is only an extension of the construction with relative adjectives. Thus callidus denotes knowledge; pauper, want; pūrus, înnocence; and so these words in a manner belong to the classes under a.

REMARK. — Adjectives of *feeling* are followed by the apparent genitive animi (really locative, cf. § 223. c): as,—

aeger animī, sick at heart.

confusus animi, disturbed in spirit.

So by imitation -

sanus mentis et animi (Plaut. Trin. 454), sound in mind and heart. audax ingenii (late), bold in disposition.

d. For adjectives of likeness, etc., with the genitive, apparently objective, see § 234. d.

III. GENITIVE WITH VERBS.

The Objective Genitive is used with some verbs.

1. Remembering and Forgetting.

219. Verbs of Remembering and Forgetting take the Genitive of the object when they are used of a continued state of mind, but the Accusative when used of a single act: as,—

Baberok h. Commett States

1. Genitive: -

X VIII

recordāns superiōris **trānsmīssiōnis** (Att. iv. 17), remembering your former crossing.

animus meminit praeteritõrum (Div. i. 30), the soul remembers the past. venit mihi in mentem illīus diēī, I bethink me of that day (it comes into my mind of that day).

obliviscere caedis atque incendiorum (Cat. i. 3), turn your mind from slaughter and conflagrations.

nec unquam obliviscar illius noctis (Planc. 42, 101), and I shall never forget that night.

2. Accusative: -

totam causam oblitus est (Brut. 60), he forgot the whole case. pueritiae memoriam recordari (Arch. 1), to recall the memory of childhood.

a. The Accusative is almost always used of a person or thing remembered by an eye-witness: as, —

memineram Paullum (Læl. 2), I remembered Paulus.

b. Recordor, recollect, recall, denotes a single act and is therefore almost always followed by the Accusative: as,—

recordare consensum illum theatri (Phil. i. 30), recall that unanimous agreement of the [audience in the] theatre.

recordamini omnis civilis dissensiones (Cat. iii. 24), recall all the civil mars.

c. Verbs of reminding take with the accusative of the person a genitive of the thing; except in the case of a neuter pronoun, which is put in the accusative (cf. § 238. b).

Catilina admonebat alium egestatis, alium cupiditatis suae (Sall. Cat. 21), Catiline reminded one of his poverty, another of his cupidity.

unum illud monere te possum, I can remind you of this one thing.

So admoneo, commoneo, commonefacio, commonefio. But moneō with the genitive is found only in late writers (cf. § 238. b. note).

NOTE. - All these verbs often take do with the ablative, and the accusative of nouns as well as of pronouns is sometimes used with them; as,—

saepius te admoneo de syngrapha Sittiana (Fam. viii. 14), I remind you again and again of the bond of Sittius.

officium vestrum ut vos malo cogatis commonêrier (Plaut. Ps. 150), to be reminded of your duty.

2. Charge and Penalty.

220. Verbs of Accusing, Condemning, and Acquitting, take the genitive of the charge or penalty: as, -

arguit me furti, he accuses me of theft.

peculātus damnatus (pecuniae publicae damnatus) (Flac. 18), condemned for embezzlement.

video non te absolutum esse improbitatis, sed illos damnatos esse caedis (Verr. ii. 28), I see, not that you were acquitted of outrage, but that they were condemned for homicide.

a. Peculiar genitives, under this construction, are -

capitis, as in damnare capitis, to sentence to death.

māiestātis [laesae], treason (crime against the dignity of the State).

repetundarum [rerum], extortion (lit. of an action for claiming back money wrongfully taken).

voti, in damnatus or reus voti, bound [to the payment] of one's vow; i.e. successful in one's effort.

pecuniae (damnare, iudicare, see note under 3, below).

dupli, etc., as in dupli condemnare, condemn to pay twofold.

b. Other constructions for the charge or penalty are -

1. The ablative of price: regularly of a definite amount of fine, and often of indefinite penalties (cf. § 252. note): as,-

Frusinates tertia parte agri damnati (Liv. x. 1), the people of Frusino condemned [to forfeit] a third part of their land.

- vitia autem hominum atque fraudes damnis ignominiis vinculis verberibus exsiliis morte damnantur (De Or. i. 43), but the vices and crimes of men are punished with fines, dishonor, chains, scourging, exile, death.
- 2. The ablative with de, or the accusative with inter, in idiomatic expressions: as, -

de alea, for gambling.

de ambitu, for bribery.

inter sicarios, as an assassin (among the assassins).

de vi et maiestatis damnati (Phil. 1, 9, 21), convicted of assault and treason.

3. The accusative with ad or in to express the penalty (late): as, ad mortem (Tac.), to death. ad (in) metalla. to the mines.

NOTE. — The origin of these genitive constructions is pointed at by pecuniae damnare (Aul. Gell. xx. 1, 38), to condemn to pay money, in a case of injury to the person; quantae pecuniae iudicati essent (id. xx. 1, 47), how much money they were adjudged to pay, in a mere suit for debt; confessi aeris ac debiti iudicati (ibid.), adjudged to owe an admitted sum due. These expressions show 1 that the genitive of the penalty comes from the use of the genitive of value to express a sum of money due either as a debt or as a fine. Since in early civilizations all offences could be compounded by the payment of fines, the genitive came to be used of other punishments, not pecuniary. From this to the genitive of the actual crime is an easy transition, inasmuch as there is always a confusion between crime and penalty.

3. Verbs of Feeling.

- 221. Many verbs of Feeling take the genitive of the object which excites the feeling. Thus—
- a. Verbs of pity, as misereor and miseresco, are followed by the genitive: as. —

miserescite regis (Æn. viii. 573), pity the king.

miserere animi non digna ferentis (id. ii. 144), pity a soul that endures unworthy things.

But miseror, commiseror, bewail, take the accusative: as, -

communem condicionem miserari (Mur. 27, 55), bewail the common lot.

- b. The impersonals miseret, paenitet, piget, pudet, taedet (or pertaesum est), take the Genitive of the cause of the feeling and the Accusative of the person affected: as,
 - hos homines înfamiae suae neque pudet neque taedet (Verr. i. 12), these men are neither ashamed nor weary of their dishonor. [Cf. it repenteth him of the evil.

me quidem miseret parietum ipsorum (Phil. ii. 28), for my part I pity the very walls.

mē civitātis morum piget taedetque (Sall. Jug. 4), I am sick and disgusted with the ways of the state.

decemvirorum vos pertaesum est (Liv. iii. 67), you became tired of the decemvirs.

c. An infinitive, a clause, or the accusative of a neuter pronoun may be used with these impersonal verbs (except **miseret**) instead of the genitive of a noun: as,—

me paenitet haec fecisse, I repent of having done this.

nihil quod paenitere possit (Cic.), nothing that may cause repentance.

d. Miseret, etc., are sometimes used personally with a neuter pronoun as subject; as. —

nonne te haec pudent (Ter. Ad.), do not these things shame you?

4. Interest and Refert.

222. The impersonals interest and refert take the genitive of the person (rarely of the thing) affected: as, —

Clodi intererat Milonem perire (Mil. 21), it was the interest of Clodius that Milo should die.

faciundum esse aliquid quod illorum magis quam sua retulisse videretur (Jug. 111), that something must be done which seemed to be more for their interest than his own.

video enim quid mea intersit, quid utriusque nostrum (Fam. vii. 23), for 1 see what is for my good and for the good of us both.

The subject of the verb is a neuter pronoun or a substantive clause.

a. Instead of the Genitive of a Personal Pronoun the corresponding Possessive is used in the ablative singular feminine after interest or refert: as,—

quid tuā id rēfert? māgnī (Ter. Ph. 723), how does that concern you? much. [See also the last two examples above.]

vehementer intererat vestrā qui patrēs estis (Plin. Ep. iv. 13), it would be very much to your advantage, you who are fathers.

b. The accusative with ad is used with interest and refert to express the thing with reference to which one is interested: as,—

magni ad honorem nostrum interest (Fam. xvi. 1), it is of great con.. quence to our honor.

zefert etiam ad früctüs (Varr. R. R. i. 16), it makes a difference as to the crop.

NOTE.—Very rarely the Person is expressed by ad and the Accusative, or (with refert) by the Dative (probably a popular corruption): as,—

quid id ad me aut ad meam rem refert (Plaut. Pers. iv. 3, 44), what difference does that make to me or to my interests?

quid referat intra naturae fines viventi (Hor. Sat. i. 1. 49), what difference does it make to me who live within the limits of natural desire?

So, nil referre dedecori (Tac. Ann. xv. 65), that it makes no difference as to the disgrace.

5. Verbs of Plenty and Want.

223. Some verbs of Plenty and Want govern the genitive: as,—

quid est quod defensionis indigeat? (Rosc. Am. 12), what is there that needs defence?

satagit rērum suārum, he has his hands full with his own affairs.

NOTE. — But verbs of plenty and want more commonly take the ablative (see §§ 243. a, 248. c.), except egeő, indigeő, satagő.

6. Other Verbs.

a. The genitive sometimes follows potior, get possession of; as always in the phrase potiri rerum, to be master of affairs. Thus,—

illius rēgnī potīrī (Fam. i. 7, 5), to become master of that kingdom. Cleanthes solem dominārī et rērum potīrī putat (Ac. ii. 41, 126), Cleanthes thinks the sun holds sway and is lord of the universe.

But potior usually takes the ablative (see § 249).

- b. Some other verbs rarely take the Genitive: —
- 1. By analogy with those mentioned in § 221: as, -

neque huius sis veritus feminae primariae (Ter. Ph. 971), and you had no respect for this highborn lady.

2. As akin to adjectives which take the genitive: as, -

fastīdit meī (Plaut. Aul. 243), he disdains me. [Cf. fastīdiōsus.] studet tuī (quoted N. D. iii. 29), he is zealous for you. [Cf. studiōsus.]

3. In imitation of the Greek: as, -

iūstitiaene prius mīrer, bellīne laborum (Æn. xi. 126), shall I rather admire [his] justice or his toils in war?

neque ille sepositi ciceris nec longae invidit avenae (Hor. Sat. ii. 6. 84), nor does he grudge his garnered peas, etc. [But cf. invidus, parcus.] abstineto irarum (Hor. Od. iii. 27. 69), refrain from wrath (but cf. §§ 223, 243. f. Rem.).

laborum decipitur (Hor. Od. ii. 13. 38), he is beguiled of his woes. nec sermonis fallebat (Plaut. Ep. 240), nor did I miss the conversation. me laborum levas (Plaut. Rud. 247), you relieve me of my troubles.

c. The apparent Genitive animī (really Locative) is used with a few verbs of feeling and the like (cf. § 218. c. Rem.): as,—

Antipho me excriciat animi (Ter. Ph. 187), Antipho tortures my mind (me in my mind).

animi pendeo (Pl. Merc. 127), I am in suspense.

me animi fallit (Lucr. i. 922), my mind deceives me.

So, by analogy, desipiebam mentis (Pl. Epid. 140), I was out of my head.

u

IV. PECULIAR GENITIVES.

d. A genitive occurs rarely in Exclamations, in imitation of the Greek (Genitive of Exclamation): as,—

di immortales, mercimoni lepidi (Plaut. Most. 895), good heavens! what a charming bargain.

foederis heu taciti (Prop. iv. 7. 23), alas for the unspoken agreement.

e. The genitive is often used with the ablatives causā,¹ grātiā, for the sake of; ergō, because of; and the indeclinable īnstar, like; also with prīdiē, the day before; postrīdiē, the day after; tenus, as far as: as.—

honoris causa, with due respect (for the sake of honor). verbi gratia, for example.

ēius lēgis ergo, on account of this law.

equus īnstar montis (Æn. ii. 15), a horse like (the image of) a mountain. laterum tenus (Æn. x. 210), as far as the sides.

NOTE 1. — Of these the genitive with causa is like that in nomen insaniae

(§ 214. f). The others are of various origin.

NOTE 2.—In prose of the Republican Period pridio and postridio are thus used only in the expressions pridio (postridio) sius dioi, the day before (after) that (cf. the eve, the morrow of that day). Tacitus uses the construction with other words: as, postridio insidiorum, the day after the plot. For the accusative, see § 261. a. Tenus takes also the ablative (§ 260. e).

II. - DATIVE.

NOTE.—The Dative seems to be closely akin to the Locative (cf. olnot, at home, with olnot, to a house), and must have had the primary meaning of to or towards.

But this local meaning appears in Latin only in the poets (§ 225. δ. 3) and in some adverbial forms (as eō, 1115, thither, cf. § 148. note, γ).

In Latin the Dative has two classes of derived meanings: -

1. The Dative denotes an object not as caused by the action, or directly affected by it (like the Accusative), but as reciprocally sharing in the action or receiving it consciously or actively. Thus in dedit puero librum, he gave the boy a book, or fect mini iniuriam, he did me a wrong, there is an idea of the boy receiving the book, and of my feeling the wrong. Hence expressions denoting persons or things with personal attributes are more likely to be in the dative than those denoting mere things.² See examples under \S 224.

This difference between the Accusative and the Dative (i.e. between the Direct and the Indirect Object) depends upon the point of view implied in the verb or existing in the mind of the writer. Hence verbs of similar meaning (to an English

mind) often differ in the case of their object (see § 227. a and b).

2. The Dative is used to express the *purpose* of an action or that for which it serves (see § 233). This construction is especially used with abstract expressions, or those implying an action.

¹ Compare the English for his sake, on my account.

² So in Spanish the dative is used whenever a person is the object of an action; vo veo al hombre, I see [to] the man.

These two classes of Datives approach each other in some cases and are occasionally confounded, as in § 234 (cf. especially § 234. b).

The uses of the Dative, arranged practically, are the following: -

- As Independent of the second of
- **224.** The Dative is used of the object *indirectly affected* by an action.

This is called the Indirect Object (§ 177). It is usually denoted in English by the Objective with to or for. Thus,—

dat librum puero, he gives a book to the boy. cedite tempori, yield to the occasion. provincia Ciceroni obtigit, the province fell by lot to Cicero. inimicis non credimus, we do not trust [to] our enemics. civitatis saluti consulite, consult for the safety of the State. sic mihi videtur, so it seems to me. indicavit mihi Pansa, Pansa has made known to me. hoc tibi spondeo, I promise [to] you this.

1. Indirect Object with Transitives.

225. The Dative of the Indirect Object with the Accusative of the Direct may be used with any transitive verb whose meaning allows (see § 177): as,—

do tibi librum, I give you a book.

illud tibi affirmo (Fam. i. 7), this I assure you.

commendo tibi eius omnia negotia (Fam. i. 1), I put all his affairs in your hands.

dabis profecto misericordiae quod îracundiae negavisti (id. 14), you will surely grant to mercy what you refused to wrath.

litteras a te mihi stator tuus reddidit (Fam. i. 17), delivered to me a letter.

a. Many verbs have both a transitive and an intransitive use (§ 177. note). These take either the Accusative with the Dative, or the Dative alone: as,—

hanc pecuniam tibi crēdo, I trust this money to you. [Transitive.] in hac re tibi crēdo, I trust you in this. [Intransitive.]

b. Certain verbs implying motion vary in their construction between the Dative of the Indirect Object and the Accusative of the End or Motion (§ 258. b). Thus—

à 1

- 1. Some verbs take the Accusative (with or without a preposition) instead of the Indirect Object, when the idea of Motion prevails (§ 258): as,
 - litteras quās ad Pompēium scrīpsī (Att. iii. 9), the letter which I have written [and sent] to Pompey. [Cf. non quo haberem quod tibi scriberem (Att. iv. 4), not that I had anything to write to you.]
 - litterae extemplo Romam scriptae (Liv. xli. 16), a letter was immediately written [and sent] to Rome.
 - hostes in fugam dat (B. G. v. 51), he puts the enemy to flight. [Cf. ut me dem fugae (Att. viii. 23), to take to flight.]
 - cur saepius ad mē litterās dedissēs (Fam. iv. 4), why you had several times written letters [addressed] to me.
 - nullas eis praeterquam ad to et ad Brutum dedi litter s (id. iii. 7), I have given to them (the messengers) no letters except (addressed) to you, etc. omnes rem ad Pompeium deserri volunt (id. i. i), all wish the matter to be put in the hands of Pompey.
 - an iterum se reddat in arma (Æn. x. 684), or should throw himself again into the fight (only poetic).
- 2. On the other hand, many verbs usually followed by the Accusative with ad or in, take the Dative when the idea of motion is merged in some other idea: as,—

nec quicquam quod non mihi Caesar detulerit (Fam. iv. 13), and nothing which Cæsar did not communicate to me.

mihi litteras mittere (Fam. vii. 12), to send me a letter.

eum librum tibi misi (id. vii. 19), I sent you that book.

Catonem tuum mihi mitte (id. vii. 24), send me your Cato.

cūrēs ut mihi vehantur (id. viii. 4, end), take care that they be conveyed to me. cum alius aliī subsidium ferrent (B. G. ii. 26), while one lent aid to another. quibus (cōpiīs rēx Dēiotarus) imperātoribus nostrīs auxilia mītteret (Deiot.

8, 22), with which (troops) king D. might send reinforcements to our generals.

- 3. In poetry the End of Motion is often expressed by the dative (see \S 258. note 1).
- c. For the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing after verbs of threatening and the like, see § 227. f.
- d. Certain verbs may take either the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing, or (in a different sense) the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing: as,—

donat coronas suis, he presents wreaths to his men; or,

donat suos coronis, he presents his men with wreaths.

vincula exuere sibi (Ov. M. vii. 772), to shake off the leash (from himself). omnes armis exuit (B. G. v. 51), he stripped them all of their arms.

aram sanguine adspergere (N. D. iii. 36), to sprinkle the altar with blood. arae sanguinem adspergere, to sprinkle blood upon the altar.

Such are dono, impertio, induo, exuo, adspergo, Inspergo, circumdo, circumfundo, prohibeo, intercludo, and in poetry accingo, implico, and similar verbs.

NOTE I. — Interdico, forbid, takes either (1) the dative of the person and the accusative of the thing, or (2) the dative of the person and the ablative of the thing: as.—

interdixit histrionibus scaenam (Suet. Dom. 7), he forbade the actors [to appear on] the stage (he prohibited the stage to the actors). [Cf. interdictum est mare Antiātī populo (Liv. viii. 14), the sea was forbidden to the people of Antium.]

fēminīs (dat.) purpurae ūsū interdicēmus (Liv. xxxiv. 7), shall we forbid

women the wearing of purple?

aqua et igni alicui interdicere, to forbid the use of fire and water.

NOTE 2.—The Dative with the Accusative is used in poetry with many verbs of preventing, protecting, and the like, which usually take the Accusative and Ablative. Interclüdo and arceo sometimes take the Dative and Accusative, even in prose: as,—

hisce omnis aditūs ad Sullam interclūdere (Rosc. Am. 38, 110), to shut these men off from all access to Sulla (close to them every approach). [Cf. uti frūmentō commeātūque Caesarem interclūderet (B. G. i. 48) to shut Caesar off from grain and supplies.]

hunc (oestrum) arcebis pecori (Georg. iii. 154), you shall keep this away from the flock. [Cf. illum arcuit Gallia (Phil. v. 13), he excluded him from Gaul.]

solstitium pecori defendite (Ecl. vii. 47), keep the summer heat from the flock.

e. Verbs which in the active voice take the accusative and dative retain the dative when used in the passive: as,—

haec nobis nuntiantur, these things are told us. [Active: haec [quidam] nobis nuntiat.]

Crassō divitiae non invidentur, Crassus is not envied for his wealth. [Active: Crassō divitiās non invidet.]

decem talenta oppidanis imperantur, ten talents are exacted of the townspeople. [Active: imperat oppidanis decem talenta.]

2. Indirect Object with Intransitives.

226. The Dative of the Indirect Object may be used with any Intransitive verb whose meaning allows: as,—

cēdant arma togae (Phil. i. 8), let arms give place to the gown. Caesari respondet, he replies to Casar.

Caesari respondētur, Casar is replied to (see § 230).

crēdimus nūntiō, we believe the messenger.

nūntiō crēditur, the messenger is believed.

respondi maximis criminibus (Phil. i. 14), I have answered the heaviest charges.

ut ita cuique eveniat (id. 46), that it may so turn out to each.

NOTE 1. — Intransitive verbs have no Direct Object. The Indirect Object, therefore, in these cases stands alone (but of, δ 225, a).

NOTE 2.— Codo, yield, sometimes takes the Ablative of the thing along with the Dative of the person: as,—

cedere alicui possessione hortorum (Mil. 27, 75), to give up to one the possession of a garden.

a. Many phrases consisting of a noun with the copula sum or a copulative verb are equivalent to an intransitive verb and take a kind of indirect object (cf. § 235): as,—

auctor esse alicui, to advise or instigate one (cf. persuadeo). quis huic reī testis est (Quinc. 11), who testifies (is witness) to this fact? is fīnis populationibus fuit (Liv. ii. 30), this put an end to the raids.

b. The dative is sometimes used without a copulative verb in a sense approaching that of the genitive (cf. §§ 227. d, 235. a): as,—

lēgātus Caesari, a lieutenant to Cæsar (i.e. a man assigned to Cæsar). hērēs frātrī suō, his brother's heir (heir to his brother). ministrī sceleribus, agents of crime.

NOTE. — The cases in a and b differ from the constructions of b 227. note 2, and b 235 in that the dative is more closely connected in idea with some single word to which it serves as an indirect object.

3. Dative with Special Verbs.

Many verbs of apparently transitive meaning in English correspond to verbs intransitive in Latin. Thus:—

227. Most verbs signifying to favor, help, please, trust, and their contraries; also to believe, persuade, command, obey, serve, resist, envy, threaten, pardon, and spare, take the dative: as.—

cūr mihi invidēs, why do you envy me?
mihi parcit atque īgnōscit, he spares and pardons me.
ignōsce patriō dolōrī (Liv. iii. 48), excuse a father's grief.
sontibus opitulārī poteram (Fam. iv. 13), I was able to help the guilty.
nōn omnibus serviō (id. xvi. 13), I am not a servant to every man.
cum cēterīs tum mihi ipsī displiceō (id. iv. 13), I dissatisfy other people
and myself too.

¹ These include, among others, the following: adversor, crēdo, faveo, fido, Ignosco, impero, invideo, Irascor, suscenseo, resisto, noceo, parco, pareo, placeo, servio, studeo, suadeo (persuadeo), tempero, (obtempero), dicto audiens sum.

non parcam operae (ich wit. 13), I will spare no pains.

sic mihi persuasi (Cat. M. 21), so I have persuaded myself.

mihi Fabius ignoscere debebit si minus eius famae parcere videbor quam ante consului (Tull. 3), Fabius will have to pardon me if I seem to spare his reputation less than, etc.

huic legioni Caesar confidebat maxime (B. G. i. 40), in this legion Casar trusted most.

NOTE 1.—In these verbs the Latin retains an original intransitive meaning. Thus: invidere, to envy, was originally to look askance at one; servire is to be a slave to; suadere is to make a thing pleasant (sweet) to one.

NOTE 2.—Some common phrases regularly take the dative precisely like

verbs of similar meaning. Such are -

praesto esse, be on hand (cf. adesse).

morem gerere, humor (cf. morigerari). grātum facere, do a favor (cf. grātificārī).

dicto audiens esse, be obedient (cf. oboedire).

cui fidem habebat (B.G. i. 19), in whom he had confidence (cf. confidebat).

So also many phrases where no corresponding verb exists. Such are -

bene (male, pulchre, aegre, etc.) esse, to be well (ill, etc.) off.

iniuriam facere, do injustice to.

diem dicere, bring to trial (name a day for, etc.).

agere grātiās, to express one's thanks.

habere gratiam, to feel thankful.

referre gratiam, to repay a favor.

opus esse, be necessary.

damnum dare, inflict an injury.

acceptum (expensum) ferre (esse), to credit (charge).

honorem habere, to pay honor to.

a. Some verbs apparently of the same meanings take the Accusative. Such are iuvo, adiuvo, help; laedo, injure; iubeo, order; dēficio, fail; delecto, please. Thus, -

hic pulvis oculum meum laedit, this dust hurts my eye. [Cf. multa oculis nocent, many things are injurious to the eyes.

b. Some verbs are used transitively with the Accusative or intransitively with the Dative without perceptible difference of meaning.

Such are adulor (generally accusative), aemulor (rarely dative), comitor, despero, praestolor, medeor, medicor. Thus, -

adulātus est Antonio (Nep. Att. 8), he flattered Antony. adulari Neronem (Tac. Ann. xvi. 19), to flatter Nero.

c. Some verbs are used transitively with the Accusative or intransitively with the Dative with a difference of meaning.1

¹ See Lexicon under convenio, cupio, insisto, maneo, praeverto. recipio, renuntio, solvo, succedo, caveo.

parti civium consulunt (Off. i. 25), they consult for a part of the citizens. cum to consulussem (Fam. xi. 29), when I had consulted you. metuens pueris (Plaut. Am. 1113), anxious for the children.

nec metuunt deos (Ter. Hec. v. 2), they fear not even the gods. [So al

nec metuunt deos (Ter. Hec. v. 2), they fear not even the gods. [So also timeo.]

prospicite patriae (Cat. iv. 2), have regard for the State.
prospicere sēdem senectūtī (Liv. iv. 49), to provide a habitation for old age.
[So also provideo.]

Note.—Fido and confido, trust, take either the Dative or the Ablative: as,—
legionis decimae cui quam maxime confidebat (B. G. i. 42), of the tenth
legion, in which he had the utmost confidence.

multum nātūrā loci confidebant (B. G. i. 9), they had great confidence in the strength of their position (the nature of the place).

d. Some verbal nouns—as Insidiae, ambush; invidia, envy—take the dative like the verbs from which they are derived: as,—

invidia consuli (Sall.), ill-will against the consul (cf. invideo). obtemperatio legibus (Leg. 15), obedience to the laws (cf. obtempero). sibi ipsi responsio (De Or. iii. 54), an answer to himself (cf. respondeo).

NOTE.—In these cases the dative depends immediately upon the verbal force of the noun and not on any complex idea (cf. $\{226, a \text{ and } b\}$).

- e. The Dative is also used: -
- I. With the impersonals libet (lubet), it pleases; licet, it is allowed: as, —

quod mihi maxime lubet (Fam. i. 18), what most pleases me. quasi tibi non liceret (Fam. vi. 8), as if you were not permitted.

2. With verbs compounded with satis, bene, and male: as, — mihi ipsī numquam satisfaciō (Fam. i. 17), I never satisfy myself. optimō virō maledīcere (Deiot. 10), to speak ill of a most excellent man. pulchrum est benefacere reīpūblicae (Sall. Cat. 3), it is a glorious thing to benefit the State.

NOTE.—These are not real compounds, but phrases, and were apparently felt as such by the Romans. Thus:—

satis officio meo, satis illorum voluntati qui a me hoc petiverunt factum esse arbitrabor (Verr. II. v. 49, 130), that enough has been done for, etc.

3. With the following: grātificor, grātulor, haereō (rarely), nūbō, permīttō, plaudō, probō, studeō, supplicō, excellō: as,—

haerentem capiti coronam (Hor. S. i. 10), a wreath clinging to the head. Pompēio se grātificāri putant (Fam. i. 1), they suppose they are doing Pompey a service.

tibi permitto respondere (N. D. iii. 1), I give you leave to answer. grātulor tibi, mi Balbe (Fam. vi. 12), I congratulate you, my dear Balbus. mihi plaudo ipse domi (Hor. S. i. 1. 66), I applaud myself at home.

- cur tibi hoc non gratificer nescio (Fam. i. 10), why I should not gratify you in this I don't know.
- cum inimici M. Fontei vobis ac populo Romano minentur, amici ac propinqui supplicent vobis (Font. 15, 35), while the enemies of M. Fonteius are threatening you and the Roman people too, while his friends and relatives are beseeching you.
- ut voluerint populo supplicare (Leg. Ag. ii. 7, 18), when they wished to make supplication to the people.
- Note. Miscoō and iungō sometimes take the dative (see § 248. a. Rem.). Haereō usually takes the ablative, with or without in.
- f. Many verbs ordinarily intransitive often have an Accusative of the direct object along with the Dative of the indirect (cf. \S 225. a): as,
 - cui cum rex crucem minitaretur (Tusc. i. 43), when the king threatened him with the cross.

imperat oppidanis decem talenta, he exacts of the townspeople ten talents. omnia sibi ignoscere (Vell. ii. 30), to pardon one's self everything. Crasso divitias non invideo, I do not envy Crassus his wealth.

4. Dative with Compounds.

228. Most verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, pro, sub, super, and some with circum, are followed by the dative of the indirect object: as,—

neque enim adsentior eis (Lael. 3), for I do not agree with them.

tempestātī obsequī artis est (Fam. i. 9), it is a point of skill to yield to the weather.

omnibus negōtiīs nog interfuit solum sed praefuit (id. i. 6), he not only had a hand in all matters, but took the lead in them.

quantum natura hominis pecudibus antecedit (Off. i. 30), so far as man's nature is superior to brutes.

nec unquam succumbet inimicis (Dei. 13), he will never yield to his foes. illis libellis nomen suum inscribunt (Arch. 13), they put their own name to those papers.

cūr mihi te offers, ac meis commodis officis et obstas (Rosc. Am. 38), why do you offer yourself to me, and then hinder and withstand my advantage?

NOTE 1.—In these cases the dative depends not on the preposition, but on the compound verb in its acquired meaning. Hence if the acquired meaning is not suited to an indirect object, the original construction of the simple verb remains or some different construction arises. Thus in convocat suos, he calls his men together, the idea of calling is not so modified as to make an indirect object appropriate. So hominem interficers, to make way with a man (kill him). But in praceficere imperatorem bello, to put a man as commander-in-chief in charge of a war, the idea resulting from the composition is suited to an indirect object (see also a and c, and § 237. d).

NOTE 2.—Some of these verbs being originally transitive take also a direct object: as, no offeramus nos periculis (Off. i. 24), that we may not expose ourselves to perils.

NOTE 3.—The construction of § 228 is not different in its nature from that of § 225 and 226; but the compound verbs make a convenient group.

a. Some compounds of ad, ante, ob, with a few others, have acquired a transitive meaning, and take the accusative (cf. § 237. d): 1 as,—

nos oppugnat (Fam. i. 1), he opposes us.

quis audeat bene comitatum aggredi (Phil. xii. 23), who would dare encounter a man well attended?

mūnus obire (Lael. 2), to attend to a duty.

- b. The adjective obvius and the adverb obviam with a verb take the dative: as,—
- sī ille obvius eī futūrus non erat (Mil. 18), if he was not intending to get in his way.

mihi obviam venisti (Fam. ii. 16), you came to meet me.

c. When place or motion is distinctly thought of, the verbs mentioned in § 228 regularly take a noun with a preposition, instead of the dative: as,

in visceribus inhaerere (Tusc. iv. 11, 24), it remains fixed in the vitals. homini coniuncto mēcum (Tull. 2, 3), to a man united to me.

convenit mihi cum adversāriō (Tull. 9, 23), my adversary and I agree (it agrees to me with my adversary).

cum hoc concurrit ipse Eumenes (Nep. Eum. 4, 1), with him Eumenes himself engages in combat (runs together).

quae a ceterarum gentium more dissentiunt (Font. 13, 30), which differ from the custom of all other nations.

inserite oculos in cūriam (Font. 19, 43), fix your eyes on the senate-house. ignis qui est ob os offusus (Univ. 14), the fire which is diffused before the sight, obicitur contra istorum impetus Macedonia (Font. 20, 44), Macedonia is set to withstand their attacks. [Cf. sī quis vobis error obiectus (Cæc.

2, 5), if any mistake has been caused you. se iniectūros vobīs causam deliberandi (Cæc. 2, 4), that they would give you occasion for considering.]

in segetem flamma incidit (Æn. ii. 305), the fire falls upon the standing corn.

NOTE. — But the usage varies in different authors, in different words, and often in the same word in the same sense. The dictionary must be consulted for each verb.

229. Many verbs of taking away² and the like take the Dative (especially of a person) instead of the Ablative of Separation (§ 243):⁸ as,—

¹ Such verbs are aggredior, adeō, antecēdō; anteeō, antegredior, conveniō, ineō, obeō, offendō, oppūgnō, subeō, praecēdō.

² The dative in these constructions represents the action as *done to* the object, and is thus more vivid than the ablative,

⁸ Such verbs are compounds of ab, de, ex, and a few of ad.

mulieri anulum detraxit, he took a ring from the woman.

bona mihi abstulistī, you have robbed me of my gains.

vitam adulēscentibus vis aufert (C. M. 19), violence deprives young men of life.

nihil enim tibi detraxit senectus (id. 1), for age has robbed you of nothing. nec mihi hunc errorem extorqueri volo (id. 23), nor do I wish this error wrested from me.

a. The distinct idea of *motion*,—and, in general, names of *things*,—require the ablative with a preposition (\S 258. a): as,—

illum ex periculo eripuit (B. G. iv. 12), he dragged him out of danger.

b. Sometimes the dative of the person and the ablative of the thing with a preposition are both used with the same verb: as,—

victoriam eripi sibi e manibus, that victory should be wrested from his hands (cf. § 243. b).

c. The dative is often used by the poets in constructions which would in prose require a noun with a preposition. So especially with verbs of contending (\S 248. b): as,—

contendis Homērō (Prop. i. 7, 3), you vie with Homer. [In prose: cum Homērō.]

placitone etiam pugnabis amorī (Æn. iv. 38), will you struggle even against a love that pleases you?

tibi certat (Ecl. v. 8), vies with you. [tēcum.]

differt sermönī (Hor. S. i. 4. 48), differs from prose. [ā sermöne, § 243.] solstitium pecorī defendite (Ecl. vii. 47), keep the noontide heat from the flock. [ā pecore.]

laterī abdidit ensem (Æn. ii. 553), buried the sword in his side. [in latere, § 260. a.]

[For the Dative instead of ad with the Accusative, see § 225. b. 3.]

230. The passive of intransitive verbs that govern the dative can be used only *impersonally* (\S 146. d). Such verbs retain the dative in this use (cf. \S 225. e).

cui parci potuit (Liv. xxi. 12), who could be spared?

non modo non invidetur illī aetātī vērum etiam favētur (Off. ii. 13), that age (youth) is not only not envied, but is even favored.

tempori serviendum est (Fam. ix. 7), we must serve the exigency of the occasion (the time).

5. Dative of Possession.

231. The Dative is used with esse and similar words to denote Possession: as,—

homini cum deo similitudo est (Cic.), man has a likeness to God (there is to man, etc.).

quibus opes nullae sunt (Sall. Cat. 37), [those] who have no wealth. est mihi domi pater (Ecl. iii. 33), I have a father at home.

REMARK. — The Genitive or a Possessive with esse emphasizes the possessor; the Dative, the fact of possession; as, liber est meus, the book is mine (and no one's else); est mihi liber, I have a book (among other things). The latter is the usual form to denote simple possession, since habed, have, generally signifies hold, often with some secondary meaning: as. -

legionem quam secum habebat (B. G. i. 8), the legion which he kept with

domitas habere libidines (De Or.), to keep the passions under control.

a. Compounds of esse take the dative (except abesse and posse): as, —

deest mihi pecunia, I lack money.

quid mihi proderit? in what will it help me (what will it profit me)?

- b. After nomen est, and similar expressions, the name is usually put in the dative by a kind of apposition with the person: as,
 - cui Africano fuit cognomen (Liv. xxv. 2), whose (to whom) surname was Africanus.
 - puero ab inopia Egerio inditum nomen (Liv. i. 34), the name Egerius was given the boy from his poverty.
- c. The name may also be in apposition with nomen; or in later Latin in the genitive (cf. $\S 214. f$): as,
 - cui nomen Arethusa (Verr. iv. 52), [a fount] called Arethusa (to which is the name Arethusa).
 - puero nomen est Marcus (Marci), the boy's name is Marcus (to the
 - Q. Metello Macedonici nomen inditum est (Vel. Pat. i. 11), to Q. Metellus the name of Macedonicus was given.

6. Dative of the Agent.

232. The Dative of the Agent is used with the gerundive, to denote the person on whom the necessity rests: as, ---

haec vobis provincia est defendenda (Man. 6), this province is for you to defend (to be defended by you).

mihi est pugnandum, I have to fight (i.e. the need of fighting is to me; compare mihi est liber, I have a book, § 231. Rem.).

NOTE. — This is the regular way of expressing the agent with the Second or Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (§ 113. d. 1). But when a dative is expressed governed by the verb itself, and rarely at other times, the agent is denoted by the Ablative with ab (§ 246) to avoid ambiguity; as, -

- quibus est a vobis consulendum (Manil. 2, 6), for whom you must consult (for whom it must be consulted by you).
- rem ab omnibus vobis providendam (Rab. 2, 4), that the matter must be attended to by all of you.
- (Cf. istī prīncipēs et sibi et cēterīs populī Romani universī auctoritatī parendum esse fateantur (Manil. 22, 64), let these leading men admit that both by them and by everybody else the authority of the Roman people as a whole must be obeyed. [Here there was no danger of ambiguity.])
- a. The dative of the agent is common after perfect participles (especially when used in an adjective sense), but rare after other parts of the verb: as.
 - mihi deliberatum et constitutum est (Rull. i. 8), I have deliberated and resolved (it has been deliberated by me).
 - mihi res tota provisa est (Verr. II. iv. 42, 91), the matter has been fully provided for by me.
 - sīc dissimillimīs bestiolīs communiter cibus quaeritur (N. D. ii. 48), so by very different creatures food is sought in common.
- b. The dative of the agent is used by the poets and later writers after almost any passive verb: as, -

neque cernitur üllī (Æn. i. 440), nor is seen by any. felix est dicta sorori (Ov. Fast. iii.), she was called happy by her sister.

c. The dative of the person who sees or thinks is regularly used after videor, seem: as, -

videtur mihi, it seems (or seems good) to me.

dis aliter visum [est] (An. ii. 428), it seemed otherwise to the gods.

videor mihi perspicere ipsīus animum (Fam. iv. 13), I seem (to myself) to see the soul of the man himself.

NOTE. - The verb probare, approve (originally a mercantile word), takes a Dative of Reference (§ 235), which has become so firmly attached that it is retained with the passive, seemingly as Dative of Agent: as, -

haec sententia et illī et nobīs probabātur (Fam. i. 7, 4), this view met both his approval and mine (was made acceptable both to him and to me). mihi egregie probata est oratio tua (Tusc. iv. 4, 8), your discourse was very satisfactory to me.

7. Dative of the Purpose or End.

233. The Dative is used to denote the Purpose or End.

This construction, once apparently general in its use, remains in only a few constructions. Thus --

Lion

a. The dative of an abstract noun is used to show that for which a thing serves or which it accomplishes (Dative of Service), often with another dative of the person or thing affected: 1 as,—

rei publicae clādī sunt (Jug. 85), they are ruin to the State (for a disaster) māgnō ūsuī nostris fuit (B. G. iv. 25), it was of great service to our men (for great use).

tertiam aciem nostris subsidio misit (id. i. 52), he sent the third line as a relief to our men.

omnia deerant quae ad reficiendas naves erant usul (id. iv. 29), all things
• were wanting which were of use for repairing the ships.

evenit facile quod dis cordi est (Liv. i. 39), that comes to pass easily which is desired by the gods (is for a pleasure [lit. heart] to the gods).

NOTE. — The word frūgī used as an adjective is a dative of this kind: as,—
cogis me dicere inimicum frūgī (Cic.), you compel me to call my enemy honest.
homines satis fortes et plane frūgī (Verr. ii. 3, 27), men brave enough and
thoroughly honest.

(Cf. ero frugi bonae (Plaut. Pseud. 468), profitable to his master.)

b. The Dative of Purpose of concrete nouns is used in prose in a few military expressions, and with freedom in poetry: as,—

receptui canere, to sound a retreat.

locum castrīs capere, to select a site for a camp.
optāvit locum rēgnō (Æn. iii. 109), he chose a place for a kingdom.

NOTE.—The construction of purpose or end is found in the dative of the Gerundive (\S 299. δ) and after Adjectives (\S 234).

8. Dative with Adjectives.

234. The dative is used after adjectives or adverbs, to denote that to which the given quality is directed, for which it exists, or towards which it tends.

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¹ The following characteristics have been observed in the use of the Predicate Dative (dative of Service): I. the noun is semi-abstract; 2. it is so used only in the singular; 3. it is "used! predicatively"; 4. generally with esse; 5. rarely qualified by an adjective; 6. or by a genitive or a phrase; 7. but few nouns are used in this way; 8. the use and its limitations appear to be governed by custom, not by any principle. It is common with about 40 nouns, and is found with 185 in all. Of these dono, muneri, vitio, are not used with esse. The verbs with which it exists are habeo, do, dico, duco, pono, verto, with esse and its equivalents, as fleri, etc. The nouns most commonly found in this construction are, adiumento, auxilio, cordi, crimini, curae, damno, decori, dedecori, dono, exemplo, exitio, traudi (damage), honori, indicio, invidiae, impedimento, laudi, ludibrio, malo, morae, odio, oneri, ornamento, praedae, praesidio, probro, pudori, receptui, remedio, saluti, subsidio, terrori, vitio, voluptāti, ūsui.— Roby's Latin Grammar, ii. xxxvii. seq.

- a. The dative is used with adjectives (and a few adverbs) of fitness, nearness, likeness, service, inclination, and their opposites: as,
 - nihil est tam nātūrae aptum (Læl. 5), nothing is so fitted to nature. nihil difficile amantī puto (Or. 10), I think nothing hard to a lover.
 - pompae quam pugnae aptius (id. 13), fitter for a procession than for battle.
 - robus ipsis par et aequalis oratio (id. 36), a speech equal and level with the subject.
 - castris idoneum locum deligit (B. G. i. 49), a suitable place for a camp.
 - tribuni nobis sunt amici (Q. Fr. i. 2), the tribunes are friendly to us.
 - cupidīs rērum tālium odiosum fortasse et molestum est carere (Cat. Maj. 14, 47), to those who are desirous of such things, it is perhaps hateful and disagreeable to do without them.
 - nec eum ... aut invīsum deō aut neglēctum ā deō iūdicēmus (N. D. ii. 66, 167), and let us not deem him either hateful to God or disregarded by God.
 - esse propitius potest nomini (N. D. i. 44, 124), he can be gracious to nobody. est hominum generi prosperus et salūtāris ille fulgor (Rep. vi. 17, 17), that radiance is favorable and beneficial to the race of men.
 - ceterae res quae expetuntur opportunae sunt singulae rebus singulis (Leel. 6, 22), all other things that are sought after are suitable each to some particular thing.
 - magnis autem viris prosperae semper omnes res (N. D. ii. 66, 167), but to great men everything is always favorable.
 - sedes huic nostro non importuna sermoni (De Or. iii. 5, 18), a place not unsuitable for this conversation of ours.
 - adversissimi nāvigantibus venti (B. C. iii. 107), winds most adverse for those who sail.
 - sed non quicquid tibi audire utile est, id mihi dicere necesse est (Off. iii. 12, 52), but not everything that is useful for you to hear is necessary for me to say.
 - cui fundo erat affinis M. Tullius (Tull. 6, 14), to which estate M. Tullius was next neighbor.
 - convenienter nātūras vivere (Off. iii. 3, 13), to live in accordance with nature (δμολογουμένως τῆ φύσει).
 - congruenter naturae (Fin. iii. 7, 26), in harmony with nature.
 - NOTE 1.—So, also, in poetic and colloquial use, with idem: as,—
 - invitum qui servat idem facit occidenti (Hor. Ep. ii. 3. 467), he who saves a man against his will does the same as one who kills him.
- NOTE 2.—Adjectives of *likeness* are often followed by atque (ac), as. So also the adverbs aeque, pariter, similiter, etc. The pronoun idem has regularly atque or a relative. Thus,
 - si parem sententiam hic habet 20 formam (Plaut. Mil. 1240), if he has sense equal to his beauty (like as his beauty).
 - të suspicor eisdem rëbus quibus më ipsum commovëri (Cat. Maj. I, I), I suspect you are disturbed by the same things by which I am.

b. Adjectives of fitness or use take oftener the Accusative with ad to denote the purpose or end; but regularly the Dative of persons: as,—aptus ad rem militarem, fit for a soldier's duty.

locus ad insidias aptior (Mil. 20), a place fitter for lying in wait. nobis utile est ad hanc rem, it is of use to us for this thing.

c. Adjectives and nouns of *inclination* and the like may take the Accusative with in or ergā: as, —

comis in uxorem (Hor. Ep. ii. 2), kind to his wife

divîna bonitas erga homines (N. D. ii. 23), the divine goodness towards men. de benevolentia quam quisque habeat erga nos (Off. i. 15, 47), in regard to each man's good will which he has towards us.

grātiorem mē esse in tē (Fam. xi. 10), that I am more grateful to you.

d. Some adjectives of *likeness*, nearness, belonging, and a few others, ordinarily requiring the Dative, often take the Possessive Genitive.¹ Thus, —

quod ut illi proprium ac perpetuum sit ... optare debetis (Manil. 16, 48), which you ought to pray may be secure (his own) and lasting to him.

fuit hoc quondam proprium populi Romani (id. 12, 32), this was once the peculiar characteristic of the Roman people.

id quod reo maxime necessarium est (Caec. 12, 38), a thing which is especially necessary for the defendant.

cum utrīque sīs māximē necessārius (Att. ix. 7), since you are especially bound to both.

procurator aeque utriusque necessarius (Quinct. 28, 86), an agent equally closely connected with both.

NOTE. — The genitive in this construction is not objective like those above, but possessive (cf. § 214. a).

1. The Genitive is especially used with these adjectives when they are used wholly or approximately as nouns. Thus, —

amicus Ciceroni, friendly to Cicero. But, Ciceronis amicus, a friend of Cicero; and even, Ciceronis amicissimus, a very great friend of Cicero. Creticus et eius aequalis Paeon (Or. 64, 215), the Cretic and its equivalent the Paeon.

hi erant affines istius (Verr. iv. 14), these were this man's fellows.

2. After similis, like, the genitive is more common in early writers. Cicero uses the genitive of living objects, and either the genitive or dative of things: as,—

domini similis es (Ter.) you're like your master (your master's like).

¹ Such are aequālis, affinis, amīcus, cognātus, commūnis, consanguineus, dispār, familiāris, finitimus, inimicus, necessārius, pār, pecūliāris, propinquus, proprius (regularly genitive), similis, superstes. Vicinus, alienus, contrarius, sacer.

ut deorum similes essemus (N. D. i. 35, 97), that we might be like the gods simia quam similis turpissima bestia nobis (N. D. i. 32, 91, quoted from Enn.), how like us is that wretched beast the ape!

si enim hoc illi simile sit, est illud huic (N. D. i. 32, 90), for if this is like that, that is like this.

filius patri similis (Fin. v. 5, 12), a son like his father. est similis māiorum suom (Ter. Ad. 411), he's like his ancestors.

e. The adjectives propior, proximus sometimes, and the adverbs propius, proxime more commonly, take the accusative, as if preposi-

propius, proximē more commonly, take the accusative, as if prepositions, like prope (see § 261. a).

propius periculum (Liv. xxi. 1), nearer to danger.

proxime deos accessit Clodius (Mil. 22, 59), Clodius has come very near the gods.

proximus Pompeium sedebam (Cic.), I was sitting next to Pompey. proximus mare oceanum (B. G. iii. 7), nearest the ocean.

NOTE. - These words take also the ablative with ab 1 (cf. § 260. b)

9. Dative of Reference.

235. The Dative is often required not by any particular word, but by the general meaning of the sentence: as,—

tibi aras (Pl. Merc. i. 1), you plough for yourself.

res tuas tibi habe (formula of divorce), keep your goods to yourself.

laudavit mihi fratrem, he praised my brother (out of regard for me; laudavit fratrem meum would imply no such motive).

meritos mactavit honores, taurum Neptūno, taurum tibi, pulcher Apollo (Æn. iii. 118), he offered the sacrifices due, a bull to Neptune, a bull to thee, beautiful Apollo.

Cūrioni nostro tribunatus conglaciat (Fam. viii. 6), our friend Curio's tribuneship is frozen up (the tribuneship is frozen up for Curio).

Note. — The dative in this construction is often called the Dative of Advantage or Disadvantage (datives commode and incommode), as denoting the person or thing for whose benefit or to whose prejudice the action is performed. The meaning of the softence is complete without the dative, which is not, as in the preceding constructions, closely connected with any single word. Thus the Dative of Reference is easily distinguishable in most instances even when the sentence consists of only two words, as in the first example.

a. The Dative of Reference is often used to qualify a whole idea, instead of the Possessive Genitive modifying a single word: as,—

iter Poenīs vel corporibus suīs obstruere (Cat. Maj. 20), to block the march of the Carthaginians even with their own bodies (to block, etc., for the disadvantage of, etc.).

se in conspectum nautis dedit (Verr. vi. 53), he put himself in sight of the sailors (he put himself to the sailors into sight).

¹ This comes from their original meaning of off, as we say off Newport.

versātur mihi ante oculos (id. 47), it comes before my eyes (it comes to me before the eyes).

b. The dative is used of the person from whose point of view a situation or direction is defined.

This construction answers to the English as you go in, and the like The person is commonly denoted indefinitely by a participle in the plural: as.—

oppidum primum Thessaliae venientibus ab Epirô (B. C. iii. 80), the first town of Thessaly as you come from Epirus (to those coming, etc.).

laeva parte sinum intrantibus (Liv. xxvi. 26), on the left as you sail up the gulf (to those entering).

- est urbe egressis tumulus (Æmii. 713), there is, as you come out of the city, a mound (to those having come out)
- c. The dative of reference is (by a Greek idiom) rarely modified by nolons, volons, participles of nolo, volo, or by some similar word: as,

ut quibusque bellum invitis aut volentibus crat (Tac. Ann. i. 59), as each might receive the war reluctantly or gladly.

ut militibus labos volentibus esset (Jug. 100), that the soldiers might assume the task willingly.

d. The dative of reference is used idiomatically without any verb in colloquial questions and exclamations: as,—

quō mihi fortūnam (Hor. Ep. i. 5. 12), of what use to me is fortune? unde mihi lapidem (Hor. Sat. ii. 7. 116), where can I get a stone? quō tibi, Tillī (Hor. Sat. i. 6. 24), what use for you, Tillius?

e. The dative of reference is sometimes used after Interjections.

vae victis, woe to the conquered.
em tibi, there, take that (there, for you)! [Cf. § 236.]
hei mihi, ah, me!

10. Ethical Dative.

236. The Dative of the Personal Pronouns is used to show a certain interest felt by the person indicated: 1 as, —

quid mihi Celsus agit (Hor.), pray what is Celsus doing? suo sibi servit patri (Plaut. Capt. Prol.), he serves his own father.

at tibi repente venit mihi Cominius (Fam. ix. 2), but, look you, of a sudden comes to me Cominius.

hem tibi talentum argenti (Pl. Trin. v. 1), hark ye, a talent of silver. quid tibi vis, what would you have (what do you wish for yourself)?

This construction is called the Ethical Dative (datīvus ēthicus). It is really only a special case of the dative of reference.

¹ Compare "I'll rhyme you so eight years together." - As You Like It.

REMARK. — To express FOR — meaning instead of, in defence of, in behalf of—the ablative with pro must be used: as,—

pro patria mori (Hor. Od. iii. 2), to die for one's country. pro rêge, lêge, grege (prov.), for king, law, people. ego ibo pro tê (Plaut. Most.), I will go instead of you.

III. - ACCUSATIVE.

NOTE. — The Accusative originally served to connect the noun loosely with the verb-idea, whether expressed by a verb proper or by a verbal noun or adjective. Probably its earliest use was to repeat the verb-idea as in the Cognate Accusative (run a race, fight a battle, see § 238). From this it would be a short step to the Factitative Accusative (denoting the result of an act, as in make a table, drill a hole, cf. § 175. note 1). From this last could easily come the common accusative (of Affecting, break a table, plug a hole, see § 237). Traces of all these uses appear in the language, and the loose connection of noun with verb-idea is seen in the use of stems in composition 1 (cf. p. 205, head-note).

The uses of the accusative may be classified as follows:

I. Directly affected by the Action (§ 237).

2. Effect of the Action { Thing produced (§ 237). (Cognate Accusative (§ 238). (Cognate Accusative (§ 238). 2. TWO ACCUSATIVES: { I. Predicate Accusative (of Naming, etc.) (§ 239. a). 2. Of Asking or Teaching (§ 239. c). 3. Of Concealing (§ 239. d). { I. Adverbial (§ 240. a, b). 2. Of Specification (Greek Accusative) (§ 240. c). 3. Of Extent and Duration (§ 240. e). 4. Of Exclamation (§ 240. d). 5. Subject of Infinitive (§ 240. f).

Direct Object.

237. The Direct Object of a transitive verb is put in the Accusative (§ 177).

The accusative of the Direct Object denotes (a) that which is *directly* affected, or (b) that which is caused or produced by the action of the verb: as,—

- (a) Brutus Caesarem interfecit, Brutus killed Cæsar.
- (b) aedem facere, to make a temple. [Compare proelium pugnare, to fight a battle, § 238].

NOTE. — There is no definite line by which transitive verbs can be distinguished from intransitive. Verbs which usually take a direct object (expressed or implied) are called transitive, but many of these are often used *intransitively* or absolutely.

¹ Compare armiger, armor-bearer, with arma genere, to bear arms; fidicen, lyre-player, with fidibus canere, to (play on) sing to the lyre. Compare also hanc tactio (Plaut.), the [act of] touching her, with hanc tangere, to touch her.

Thus timeo, I fear, is transitive in the sentence inimicum timeo, I fear my enemy, but intransitive (absolute) in noil timeo, don't be afraid. Again, many verbs are transitive in one sense and intransitive in another: as, Helvetios superaverunt Romani, the Romans overcame the Helvetians; but nihil superabat, nothing remained (was left over). So also many verbs usually intransitive may be used transitively with a slight change in their meaning: as, rides, you are laughing; but me rides, you're laughing at me.

a. The object of a transitive verb in the active voice becomes its subject in the passive, and is put in the nominative (§ 177. a): as,—

Brutus Caesarem interfecit, Brutus killed Casar.

Caesar a Bruto interfectus est, Casar was killed by Brutus.

domum aedificat, he builds a house.

domus aedificatur, the house is building (being built).

b. Many verbs apparently intransitive, expressing feeling, take an accusative, and may be used in the passive: as,—

meum casum luctumque doluerunt (Sest. 69), they grieved [at] my calamity and sorrow.

si non Acrisium risissent Iuppiter et Venus (Hor. O. iii. 16. 5), if Jupiter and Venus had not laughed [at] Acrisius.

rīdētur ab omnī conventū (Hor. S. i. 7. 22), he is laughed [at] by the whole assembly.

c. Verbs of taste, smell, and the like take an accusative of the quality: as, —

vinum redolens (Cic.), smelling [of] wine.

herbam mella sapiunt (Plin.), the honey tastes [of] grass.

NOTE. — These are properly Cognate Accusatives (§ 238).

d. Verbs of motion, compounds of circum and trāns, and a few others, frequently become transitive, and take the accusative (cf. § 228. a): as,

mortem obire, to die (to meet death).

consulatum ineunt (Liv. iii. 4), they enter upon the consulship.

neminem conveni (Fam. ix. 14), I met no one.

si insulam adisset (B. G. iv. 20), if he should go to the island.

transire flumen (id. ii. 23), to cross the river (cf. § 239. b).

cives qui circumstant senatum (Cat. i. 8), the citizens who stand about the senate.

e. The accusative is used after the impersonals decet, delectat, invat, oportet, fallit, fugit, praeterit: as, —

te non praeterit (Fam. i. 8), it does not escape your notice.

ita ut vos decet (Plaut. Most. 714), so as befits you.

mē pedibus delectat claudere verba (Hor. Sat. ii. 1. 28), my delight is (it pleases me) to arrange words in measure.

nec me animi fallit (Lucr. i. 136), nor does it escape my attention (elude me in mind).

nisi mē fallit, unless I am mistaken (unless it deceives me).

iūvit mē tibi tuās litterās profuisse (Fam. v. 21), it pleased me that your literary studies had profited you.

So after latet in poetry and post-classical prose: as, -

latet plerosque (Plin. ii. 82), it is unknown to most persons.

NOTE 1.—These verbs are merely ordinary transitives with an idiomatic signification. Hence most of them are also used personally (cf. §§ 227. a, 239. d).

NOTE 2.—Decet and latet sometimes take the dative: as,—

hostique propinquo Roma latet (Sil. It. xii. 614), and Rome ties hidden from the foe close by.

ita nobis decet (Ter. Ad. 928), thus it befits us.

NOTE 3.— Many verbs usually intransitive are sometimes used transitively from a similarity of meaning with other verbs that regularly take the accusative: as,—

multa gemens ignominiam (Georg. iii. 226), groaning much at the disgrace. [Cf. doleo, § 237. b.]

festinare fugam (Æn. iv. 575), to hasten their flight. [Cf. accelero.] comptos arsit crines (Hor. Od. iv. 9. 13), she burned with love for his well-combed locks. [Cf. adamo.]

f. In early and popular usage some nouns and adjectives derived from transitive verbs retain verbal force sufficient to govern the accusative: as,—

quid tibi hanc tactio est (Plaut. Poen. 1306), what business have you to touch her? [Cf. tango.]

mirabundi bestiam (App. Met. 4), full of wonder at the creature. [Cf. miror.]

vitabundus castra (Liv. xxv. 13), trying to avoid the camp. [Cf. vito.]

g. In early usage the impersonal gerundive with esse governs the accusative (§ 294. c): as, —

quam nobis ingrediendum sit (Cat. Maj. 2, 6), which (road) we must enter upon. [Here Cicero purposely uses an archaic construction.]

poenās in morte timendumst (Lucr. i. 111), we have to fear punishment in death.

h. Many verbs ordinarily transitive may be used absolutely (p. 234, note), having their natural object in the ablative with de: as, —

priusquam Pomponius de cius adventu cognosceret (B. C. iii. 101), before Pomponius could learn of his coming. [Cf. cius adventu cognito, his arrival being discovered.]

s. For Accusative and Genitive after Impersonals, see § 221. b.

2. Cognate Accusative.

238. A neuter verb often takes the accusative of a noun of kindred meaning, usually modified by an adjective or in some other manner.

This construction is called the Cognate Accusative or Accusative of Kindred Signification. Thus,—

vitam tutiorem vivere (Hor.), to live a safer life.

tertiam iam aetatem hominum vivebat (Læl. 10, 31), he was now living the third generation of men.

coire societatem, to [go together and] form an alliance.

servitutem servire, to be in slavery.

a. The Cognate Accusative is often loosely used by the poets: as, —

huic errori similem [errorem] însanîre (Hor. Sat. ii. 3. 62), to suffer a delusion like this.

saltāre Cyclopa (Hor. Sat. i. 5. 63), to dance the Cyclops (represent in dancing).

Bacchanalia vivere (Juv. ii. 2), to live in revellings.

Amaryllida resonare (Ecl. i. 5), to re-echo [the name of] Amaryllis.

intonuit laevum (Æn. ii. 693), it thundered on the left.

dulce ridentem (Hor. Od. i. 22. 23), sweetly smiling.

acerba tuens (Lucr. v. 34), looking fiercely. [Cf. Eng. "to look daggers."]

NOTE. — In the last three examples the cognate accusative has an *adverbial* signification. See Adverbial Accusative, § 240. a.

b. A neuter pronoun or colorless noun or adjective is very common as cognate accusative (cf. §§ 148. d and 240. a). Thus,—

Empedocles multa alia peccat (N. D. i. 12, 29), Empedocles commits many other slips.

ego illud assentior Theophrastô (Or. 3, 48), in this I agree with Theophrastus.

multum te opinio ista fefellit (Verr. i. 35), you were much deceived in this expectation (this expectation deceived you much).

quid me ista laedunt (Agr. ii. 13), what harm do those things do me? si ūrēdo aut grando quippiam nocuit (N. D. iii. 35), if drought or hail has done any injury (has harmed at all).

hốc tế moneo, I give you this warning (cf. note below).

id laetor, I rejoice at this (cf. note).

quae homines arant, navigant, etc. (Sall. Cat. 2, 7), what men do in ploughing, sailing, etc.

So in many common phrases: as, -

si quid ille se velit (B. G. i. 34), if he should want anything of him (if he should want him in anything).

numquid me vis, can I do anything more for you? (there is nothing you want of me, is there?). [A common form of leave-taking.]

quid possum, what can I [do]?

id valet, it amounts to this.

NOTE.—In these cases substantives with a definite meaning would be in some other construction: as,—

in hoc eodem peccat, he errs in this same point.

bonis rebus lactari, to rejoice at prosperity. [Also: in, de, or ex.] de testamento monere, to remind one of the will. [Later: genitive, § 219. c.] offici admonere, to remind one of his duty. [Also: de officio.]

c. A few verbs in isolated expressions take the accusative from a forcing of their meaning. Such expressions are:—

ferire foedus, to strike a treaty (i.e. to sanction by striking down a victim). vincere iūdicium (sponsionem, rem, hoc), to prevait on a trial, etc. [As if the case were a difficulty to overcome; cf. vincere iter, Æn. vi. 688.] terram nāvigāre (Fin. ii. 34, 112), to sail over the land. [Perhaps quoted

from a poet.]

aequor navigare, to sail the sea. [As if it were transīre, § 237. d.]
maria aspera iūro (Æn. vi. 351), I swear by the rough seas. [The accusative with verbs of swearing is chiefly poetic.]
noctes dormire, to sleep [whole] nights (to spend in sleep).

NOTE. — These accusatives are of various kinds. The last example approaches the cognate construction, cf. the second example under § 238.

3. Two Accusatives.

239. Some transitive verbs take a second accusative in addition to their Direct Object.

This second accusative is either (1) a Predicate Accusative or (2) a Secondary Object.

a. Predicate Accusative.

- 1. An accusative in the Predicate referring to the same person or thing as the Direct Object, but not in apposition with it, is called a Predicate Accusative (cf. § 185, headnote).
- a. Verbs of naming, choosing, appointing, making, esteeming, showing, and the like, may take a Predicate Accusative along with the direct object: as,—
 - O Spartace, quem enim te potius appellem (Phil. xiii. 10), O Spartacus, for what else shall I call you (than Spartacus)? Ciceronem consulem creare, to elect Cicero consul.

dictatorem dicere, to name [a man] dictator (e.g. Quintus Fabius).

me augurem nominaverunt (Phil. ii. 2, 4), they nominated me for augur. grātiās agebat quod se consulem fecisset (Cic.), he thanked him because he had made him consul (supported his candidacy).

hominem prae se neminem putavit (Cic.), he thought nobody a man in comparison with himself.

ducem se militibus tuis praebuit (Vat. 33), he offered himself to your soldiers as a leader.

omnes Catilinas Acidinos postea reddidit (Att. iv. 3), he has made all the Catilines [seem] Acidini.

NOTE 1. - The predicate accusative may be an adjective: as, -

homines ex feris et immanibus mites reddidit et mansuetos (Inv. 1, 2), has made men from wild and barbarous [creatures] gentle and mild.

NOTE 2.—In changing from the active voice to the passive, the predicate accusative becomes predicate nominative (§ 185): as,—

rex ab suis appellatur (B. G. vii. 4), he is called king by his [subjects].

b. Secondary Object.

- 2. The Accusative of the Secondary Object is used (along with the direct object) to denote something more remotely affected by the action of the verb.
- b. Transitive verbs compounded with prepositions sometimes take (in addition to the direct object) a Secondary Object, originally governed by the preposition: as,—

Caesar Germanos flumen traicit (B. C. i. 83), Caesar throws the Germans across the river.

NOTE 1.—But with these verbs the preposition is more commonly repeated, or sometimes the ablative is used: as,—

donec res suas trans Halyn flumen traicerent (Liv. xxxviii. 25), till they should get their possessions across the river Halys.

(exercitus) Pado traiectus Cremonam (Liv. xxi. 56), the army was conveyed across the Po to Cremona (by way of the Po, § 258. g).

NOTE 2. — The secondary object may be retained with a passive verb: as, —

Belgae Rhenum traducti sunt (B. G. ii. 4), the Belgians were led over the Rhine.

NOTE 3.—Sometimes the Secondary Object appears to become the subject of a passive verb; but this comes from a change of meaning, and the object is really Direct. See the Remark.

REMARK.— The double construction indicated in b is possible only when the force of the preposition and the force of the verb are each distinctly felt in the compound, the verb governing the Direct, and the preposition the Secondary object.

But often the two parts of the compound become closely united to form a transitive verb of simple meaning. In this case the verb-element loses its power to govern the accusative, and the compound verb is transitive solely by virtue of its prepositional part. Thus used the compound can have but one accusative,—the same which was formerly the secondary object, but which now becomes the direct. So traicio comes to mean either (1) to pierce (anybody) [by hurling] or (2) to cross (a river, etc.): as,—

- (1) gladio hominem traiecit, he pierced the man with a sword. [Here iacio has lost all transitive force, and serves simply to give the force of a verb to the meaning of trans, and to tell the manner of the act.]
- (2) Rhodanum traiecit, he crossed the Rhone. [Here iaciō has become simply a verb of motion, and traiciō is hardly distinguishable from transeō.]

In these examples hominem and Rhodanum, which would be secondary objects if trāiēcit were used in its primary signification, have become the direct objects. Hence in the passive construction they become the subjects and are put in the nominative. Thus,—

homo traiectus est gladio, the man was pierced with a sword.

Rhodanus traiectus est, the Rhone was crossed,

The poetical trainctus 15ra (An. ii. 273), pierced with thongs, comes from a mixture of two constructions:—

- (1) eum traiecit lora, he rove thongs through him,1 and
- (2) eum traiecit loris, he pierced him with thongs.

In putting the sentence into a passive form, the direct object of the former (10ra) is irregularly kept, and the direct object of the latter (oum) is made the subject,

c. Verbs of asking and teaching may take two accusatives, one of the Person (direct object), and the other of the Thing (secondary object): as,

me sententiam rogavit, he asked me my opinion. otium divos rogat (Hor. Od. ii. 16. 1), he prays the gods for rest.

haec cum praetorem postulābās (Tull. 39), when you demanded this of the brætor.

aedīlis populum rogāre (Liv. vi. 42), to ask the people [to elect] ædiles. docēre pueros elementa, to teach children their ABC's.

NOTE 1.— Some verbs of asking take the ablative of the person with a preposition instead of the accusative. So, always, petō (ab), postulō (ab), quaerō (ex, ab, dō), and occasionally others: as,—

pacem ab Romanis petierunt (B. G. ii. 13), they sought peace from the Romans.

quod quaesivit ex me P. Appuleius (Phil. vi. I), wha. Publius Appuleius. asked of me.

NOTE 2. — With the passive of verbs of asking or teaching, the person or the thing may be used as subject (cf. d, note): as, —

Caesar sententiam rogātus est, Casar was asked his opinion.
id ab eo flagitābatur (B. G. i. 71), this was urgently demanded of him.

¹ Perhaps not found in the active, but cf. traiecto fune (Æn. v. 488).

REMARK. — The accusative of the thing may be retained with the passive of rogo, and of verbs of teaching, and occasionally with a few other verbs: as, —

fuerant hoc rogati (Cæl. 64), they had been asked this.

poscor meum Laelapa (Ov. Met. vii. 771), I am asked for my Lalaps.

Cicero per legatos cuncta edoctus (Sall. Cat. 45), Cicero being informed of everything through the ambassadors.

But with most verbs of asking in prose the accusative of the thing becomes the subject-nominative, and the person is put in the ablative with a preposition: as,—

ne postulantur quidem vires a senectute (Cat. M. 11), strength is not even expected of an old man (asked from old age).

d. The verb colo, conceal, may take two accusatives, and the usually intransitive lateo, lie hid, an accusative of the person (cf. § 237. e): as,—

non to celavi sermonem T. Ampi (Fam. ii. 16), I did not conceal from you the talk of T. Ampius.

nec latuere doli fratrem Iunonis (An. i. 134), nor did the wiles of Juno escape the notice of her brother.

NOTE. — All the double constructions indicated in c and d arise from the wavering meaning of the verbs. Thus doced means both to show a thing, and to instruct a person; celd, to keep a person in the dark, and to hide a thing; rogd, to question a person, and to ask a question or a thing. Thus either accusative may be regarded as the direct object, and so become the subject of the passive (cf. c, note 2, above), but for convenience the accusative of the thing is usually called secondary.

4. Idiomatic Uses.

240. The Accusative has the following special uses:—

a. A neuter pronoun or adjective is used as cognate accusative with an adverbial force (Adverbial Accusative, cf. § 238. b): as, —

quid moror, why do I delay?

dulce loquentem (Hor. Od. i. 22. 24), sweelly speaking.

acerba tuens (Æn. ix. 793), looking cruelly.

torvum clamat (id. vii. 599), he cries harshly.

NOTE.—This use does not differ from the cognate accusative except that in some cases the connection of the accusative with the verb has faded out so that the words are real adverbs. But no fixed line can be drawn between these two constructions.

b. The accusative is found in a few adverbial phrases: as, -

id temporis, at that time.

id (istuc) aetatis, at that age.

id (quod) genus, of that (what) sort (perhaps originally nominative). meam vicem, on my part.

maximam partem, for the most part.

bonam partem, in a great measure.

virile secus, of the male sex (probably originally in apposition).

cetera, in other respects.

quod si, but (as to which) if.

c. The so-called *synecdochical* or Greek accusative is used by the poets to denote the part affected: as,—

caput nectentur (Æn. v. 309), their head shall be bound (they shall be bound about the head).

ārdentīs oculos suffectī sanguine et īgnī (id. ii. 210), their glaring eyes bloodshot and blazing with fire (suffused as to their eyes, etc.).
nūda genū (id. i. 320). bare to the knee.

NOTE. — In many apparently similar expressions the accusative may be regarded as the direct object of a verb in the middle voice (§ III. a): as,—

inutile ferrum cingitur (Æn. ii. 510), he girds on the useless steel.

nodo sinūs collecta fluentis (id. i. 320), having her flowing folds gathered in a knot.

umeros insternor pelle leonis (id. ii. 722), I cover my shoulders with a lion's skin.

protinus induitur faciem cultumque Dianae (Ov. Met. ii. 425), forthwith she assumes the shape and garb of Diana.

- d. The accusative is used in exclamations: as, -
- O fortunatam rempublicam, oh, fortunate republic! [Cf. O fortunata mors (Phil. xiv. 12, 31), oh, happy death! (§ 241. c).]

mē miserum, ah, wretched me!

en quatuor aras (Ecl. v. 65), lo, four altars!

ēllum (= ēn illum), there he is!

eccos (= ecce eos), there they are, look at them!

pro deum fidem, good heavens (oh, protection of the gods)!

hocine saeclum (Ter. Ad. 304), oh, this generation!

huncine hominem (Verr. v. 29), this man, good heavens!

O mē infēlicem (Mil. 37, 102), oh, unhappy I!

NOTE 1. — Such expressions depend upon some long-forgotten verb. The use of -no in some cases suggests an original question, as in quid? what? why? tell me.

NOTE 2. — The omission of the verb has given rise to some other idiomatic accusatives. Such are:—

salūtem (sc. dīcit) (in letters), greeting. quō mihi fortūnam, of what use is fortune? [Here no verb is thought of.] unde mihi/lapidem, where can I get a stone? mē dius fidius (sc. adiuvet), so help me heaven (the god of faith).

- e. Duration of time and extent of space are expressed by the accusative (see §§ 256, 257).
- f. The subject of the infinitive mood is in the accusative. This is especially frequent after words of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (verba sentiendi et dēclārandi, see § 272).
- g. The accusative in later writers is sometimes used in apposition with a clause: as, —

deserunt tribunal . . . manus intentantes, causam discordiae et initium armorum (Tac. Ann. i. 27), finally they abandon the tribunal shaking their fists,—a cause of dissension and the beginning of war.

NOTE. — This construction is an extension (under Greek influence) of a usage more nearly within the ordinary rules, such as, —

Eumenem prodidere Antiocho, pacis mercedem (Sall. Ep. Mith.), they betrayed Eumenes to Antiochus, the price of peace. [Here Eumenes may be considered the price, although the real price is the betrayal.]

h. For the accusative of the End of Motion, see § 258; for that after postrīdiē, propior, etc., see § 261. a.

[For the Accusative with Prepositions, see § 152. a, c.]

IV. -- VOCATIVE.

- 241. The Vocative is the case of direct address: as, Tiberine pater, te sancte precor (Liv. ii. 103), O, father Tiber, thee, holy one, I pray.
- a. A noun in the nominative in apposition with the subject of the imperative mood is sometimes used instead of the vocative: as,—audī tū, populus Albānus (Liv. i. 24), hear, thou people of Alba.
- b. The vocative of an adjective is sometimes used instead of the nominative, where the verb is in the second person: as,—

censorem trabeate salutas (Pers. iii. 29), robed you salute the censor.

- c. The nominative may be used in exclamations (cf. § 240. d): as,— en dextra fidesque (Æn. iv. 597), lo, the faith and plighted word!
- d. The vocative macte is used as a predicate in the phrase macte esto (virtute), success attend your (valor). Thus,—

iuberem te macte virtute esse (Liv. ii. 12), I should bid you go on and prosper in your valor.

NOTE.—As the quantity of the final e in macte is not determinable, it may be that the word was an adverb, as in bene est, and the like. (See American Journal of Philology, Vol. I.)

V.-ABLATIVE.

242. The Ablative is used to denote the relations expressed in English by the prepositions FROM, IN, AT, WITH, BY: as,—

liberare metu, to deliver from fear. caecus avaritia, blind with avarice. occisus gladio, slain by the sword. excultus doctrina, trained in learning. hoc ipso tempore, at this very time.

NOTE, — The ablative form contains three distinct cases, — the Ablative proper. expressing the relation FROM; the Locative, IN; and the Instrumental, WITH or BY This confusion has arisen partly from phonetic decay (§ 8), by means of which the three cases have become identical in form, and partly from the development by which they have approached one another in meaning. Compare, for the first, the like forms of the dative and ablative plural, the old dative in -5 of the fifth declension ($\sqrt[6]{74}$, and the loss of the original -d in the ablative ($\sqrt[6]{36}$, f, 62, a); and, for the second, the phrases a parte dextra, on the right; quam ob causam, FROM which cause; ad famam, AT (in consequence of) the report.

The relation of FROM includes separation, source, cause, agent, and comparison; that of WITH or BY, accompaniment, instrument, means, manner, quality, and price; that of IN or AT, place, time, circumstance. It is probable that, originally, the idea of accompaniment had a separate case, which became confounded with the instrumental before Latin was separated from the kindred tongues.

The following are the uses of the Latin Ablative, classed according to the original cases which have been combined in it: -

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1. Of Separation, Privation, and Want (§ 243).
                                    2. Of Source (participles of origin, etc.) (§ 244).
I. ABLATIVE (from): 3. Of Cause (gaudeo, dignus, etc.) (§ 245).
                                  4. Of Agent (with ab after Passives) (§ 246).
5. Of Comparison (THAN) (§ 247).
                                   I. Of Manner, Means, and Instrument ($ 248).
      as Of Accompaniment (with cum) (y 240. 27).

3. Of Object of the Deponents litor, etc. (§ 249).

4. Of Degree of Difference (§ 250).

5. Of Quality (with Adjectives) (§ 251).

6. Of Price and Exchange (§ 252).
2. INSTRUMENTAL
                                  7. Of Specification (§ 253).
                                    1. Of Place where (commonly with in) (§ 254).
3. LOCATIVE ABLA-
                                    2. Of Idiomatic Expressions (§ 254. a).
       TIVE (in, on, at): \begin{cases} 3. \text{ Of Time and Circumstance } (\frac{5}{2} 256). \\ 4. \text{ Ablative Absolute } (\frac{5}{2} 255). \end{cases}
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1. Ablative of Separation.

- 243. Words signifying Separation or Privation are followed by the ablative, with or without a preposition.
- a. Verbs meaning to remove, set free, be absent, deprive, and want, require the ablative: as, -

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oculis se privavit (Fin. v. 29), he deprived himself of eyes.
legibus solutus, relieved from the obligation of laws.
omni Gallia interdicit Romanos (B. G. i. 46), he (Ariovistus) bars the
    Romans from the whole of Gaul.
ei aqua et igni interdicitur (Vell. Pat. ii. 45), he is debarred the use of fire
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and water.
voluptātibus carēre (Cat. Maj. 3), to lack enjoyments.
non egeo medicina (Læl. 3), I want no physic.
magno me metu liberabis (Cat. i. 5), you will relieve me of great fear.
Ephorus calcaribus eget (Quint.), Ephorus needs the spur.
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levamur superstitione, liberamur mortis metu (Fin. i. 19), we are relieved from superstition, we are freed from fear of death.

consilio et auctoritate orbari (Cat. Maj. 6), to be bereft of counsel and authority.

b. Verbs compounded with **ā**, ab, d**ē**, ex, take the simple ablative when used figuratively; but when used literally to denote separation or motion, they usually require a preposition (see § 258). Thus,—

conatu desistere (B. G. i. 8), to desist from the attempt.

desine communibus locis (Acad. ii. 25), quit commonplaces.

abire magistratu, to leave one's office.

abstinere iniuria, to refrain from wrong.

But, - aberrare a proposito (Cic.), to wander from the point.

de provincia decedere (Verr. ii. 46), to withdraw from one's province.

ab iure abire (id.), to go outside of the law.

ex civitate excessere (B. G. vi. 8), they departed from the state. [But cf. finibus suis excesserant (id. iv. 18), they had left their own territory.] a magno demissum nomen Iulo (Æn. i. 288), a name descended (sent down) from great Iulus.

NOTE. - For the Dative used instead of the Ablative of Separation, see § 229.

c. For the ablative of the actual place whence in idiomatic expressions, see § 258. a, and note 2.

d. Adjectives denoting freedom and want are followed by the ablative: as, —

urbs nūda praesidio (Att. vii. 13), the city naked of defence. immūnis mīlitia (Liv. i. 43), free of military service. plēbs orba tribūnīs (Leg. iii. 3), the people deprived of tribunes.

NOTE. — Some adjectives of want take the genitive (see § 218, a).

v. Opus and fisus, signifying need, are followed by the ablative:

magistratibus opus est (Leg. iii. 2), there is need of magistrates. nunc viribus usus (Æn. viii. 441), now there is need of strength.

NOTE. — With these words the ablative of the perfect participle, with or without a noun, is often found (§ 292. b): as,—

opus est tua exprompta memoria atque astutia (Ter. And. 723), I must have your good memory and cleverness set to work.

properato opus erat (Mil. 19), there was need of haste.

facto usus est, it is desirable to do (there is need of the thing's being done).

REMARK. — Frequently opus is in the predicate, with the thing needed in the nominative as subject: as, —

¹ This construction is properly an instrumental one, in which **opus** and **usus** mean work and service, and the ablative expresses that with which the work is performed or the service rendered.

dux nobis et auctor opus est (Fam. ii. 6), we need a chief and responsible adviser (a chief, etc., is necessary for us).

si quid ipsi opus esset (B. G. i. 34), if he himself wanted anything (if anything should be necessary for him).

quae opus sunt (Cato R. R. 14, 3), things which are required.

f. Egeo and indigeo are often followed by the genitive (§ 223): as,—

ne quis auxili egeat (B. G. vi. 11), lest any require aid.

quae ad consolandum maioris ingeni et ad ferendum singularis virtutis indigent (Fam. vi. 4), [sorrows] which for their comforting need more ability, and for endurance unusual courage.

REMARK.— The Genit ve is by a Greek idlom often used in poetry instead of the Ablative with all words of separation and want (§ 223. b. 3): as,

abstifeto irarum (Hor Od. iii. 27. 70), abitain from wrath.

operam solūtis (id. 17, 16), free from toils

desine mollium querellirum (id. ii. 9. 17), have done with weak complaints.

2. Ablative, of Source and Material.

244. The Ablative with or without a preposition is used to denote the Source from which anything is derived, or the Material of which it consists.

These ablatives commonly take a preposition: as, -

Source: —

Rhēnus oritur ex Lēpontiis (B. G. v. 4), the Rhine rises in (from) the country of the Lepontii.

ab aliquo sermo oritur (Læl. 1, 5), the conversation is begun by (arises from) some one.

cuius rationis vim atque utilitatem ex illo caelesti Epicuri volumine accepimus (N. D. i. 16, 45), of this reasoning we have learned the power and advantage from that divine book of Epicurus.

suavitatem odorum qui afflarentur e floribus (Cat. Maj. 17, 59), the sweetness of the odors which breathed from the flowers.

2. Material: --

erat totus ex fraude et mendācio factus (Clu. 26), he was entirely made up of fraud and falsehood.

valvas magnificentiores, ex auro atque ebore perfectiores (Verr. ii. 456), more splendid doors, more finely wrought of gold and ivory.

factum de cautibus antrum (Ov. Met. 1. 575), a cave formed of rocks. templum de marmore ponam (Georg. iii. 13), Pll build a temple of marble.

NOTE 1. - In poetry the preposition is often omitted.

NOTE 2. — The Ablative of Material is a development of the Ablative of Source (cf. § 214).

a. Participles denoting birth or origin are followed by the Ablative of Source, generally without a preposition: 1 as,—

Iove natus et Maia (N. D. iii. 22), son of Jupiter and Maia edite regibus (Hor. Od. i. 1. 1), descendant of kings. quo sanguine cretus (Æn. ii. 74), born of what blood. genitae Pandione (Ov. Met. vi. 666), daughters of Pandion.

REMARK. — A preposition (ab, $d\bar{e}$, ex) is usually expressed with the name of the *mother*, and often with that of other ancestors: as, —

cum ex utraque [uxore] filius natus esset (De Or. i. 40, 183), each wife having had a son (when a son had been born of each wife).

Tros est generatus ab illo (Ov. Fast. iv. 33), Tros was sprung from him. ex me hic natus non est sed ex fratre meo (Ter. Ad. 40), this is not my son, but my brother's (not born from me, etc.).

Belus et omnes a Belo (Æn. i. 730), Belus and all his descendants.

b. Rarely, the place of birth is expressed by the ablative of source: as, —

desideravit C. Felginatem Placentia, A. Granium Puteolis (B. C. iii. 71), he lost C. Felginas of Placentia, A. Granius of Puteoli.

NOTE. - The Roman tribe is regularly expressed by the ablative alone: as,-

- Q. Verrem Romilia (Verr. i. 8, 23), Quintus Verres of the Romilian tribe.
- c. Some verbs may take the Ablative of Material without a preposition. Such are constare, consistere, and continers.² But with constare, ex is more common. Thus:—

domus amoenitas non aedificio sed silva constabat (Nep. Att. 13), the charm of the house consisted not in the buildings but in the woods.

ex animo constamus et corpore (Fin. iv. 8), we consist of soul and body.

vita corpore et spiritu continetur (Marc. 9), life consists of body and spirit.

d. The Ablative of Material without a preposition is used with facere, fierI, and similar words, in the sense of do with, become of: as,—

quid hoc homine faciatis (Verr. i. 16), what are you going to do with this man?

quid Tulliola mea fiet (Fam. xiv. 4), what will become of my dear Tullia? quid to futurum est (Verr. ii. 64), what will become of you?

e. The Ablative of Material with ex, and in poetry without a preposition, sometimes depends directly on a noun: as,—

non pauca pocula ex auro (Verr. iv. 27), not a few cups of gold. scopulis pendentibus antrum (An. i. 166), a cave of hanging rocks.

¹ Such are nātus, satus, ēditus, genitus, ortus, prognātus, generātus, crētus, creātus, oriundus.

² The ablative with consistere and continer is locative in origin (cf. § 254. b).

- f. For Genitive of Material, see § 214. e.
- g. For Ablative of Source instead of Partitive Genitive, see § 216. c.

3. Ablative of Cause.

245. The ablative (with or without a preposition) is used to express Cause.1

nimio gaudio paene desipiebam (Fam. i. 13), I was almost wild from too much joy.

neglegentia plectimur (Læl. 22), we are chastised for negligence.

gubernatoris ars utilitate non arte laudatur (Fam. i. 13), the pilot's skill is praised for its service, not its skill.

certis de causis, for certain reasons.

ex vulnere aeger (Rep. ii. 21), disabled by (from) a wound.

mare a sole lucet (Acad. 4, 33), the sea gleams in the sun (from the sun). ex opportunitate loci (Jug. 48, 2), from the advantage of position.

- a. Certain verbs and adjectives regularly take the ablative of cause without a preposition. These are: -
 - 1. The adjectives dignus, indignus: as, -

vir patre avo māioribus suīs dignissimus (Phil. iii. 10), a man most worthy of his father, grandfather, and ancestors.

te omni honore indignissimum iudicat (Vatin. 16, 39), he judges you entirely unworthy of every honor.

2. The verbs dignor, laboro (also with ex), exsilio, exsulto, triumphō, lacrimō, ārdeō: as, -

haud equidem tali me dignor honore (Æn. i. 339), I do not deem myself worthy of such an honor.

doleo te aliis malis laborare (Fam. iv. 3), I am sorry that you suffer with other ills.

ex aere alieno laborare (B. C. iii. 22), to labor under debt (lit., from another's money).

exsultare laetitia ac triumphare gaudio coepit (Clu. 5), she began to exult in gladness, and triumph in joy.

exsilui gaudio (Fam. xvi. 16), I jumped for joy.

lacrimo gaudio (Ter. Ad. 411), I weep for joy.

delicto dolere (Læl. 24), to grieve for the fault.

ardere dolore et ira (Att. ii. 19), to be on fire with pain and anger.

NOTE 1. - For gaudeo and glorior, see § 254. b.

¹ The cause, in the ablative, is originally source, as is shown by the use of ab, **dē**, **ex**; but when the accusative with **ad**, **ob** is used, the idea of cause arises from nearness. Occasionally, however, it is difficult to distinguish between cause and means (which is the old Instrumental Case) or circumstance (which is either the Locative or the Instrumental).

Note 2. — Dignus and indignus sometimes take the genitive in colloquial usage and in poetry: as, —

cūram dīgnissimam tuae virtūtis (Balbus in Att. viii. 15), care mosi worthy of your noble character.

dignus salūtis (Plaut. Trin. 1153), worthy of safety.

māgnōrum haud umquam indignus avorum (Æn. xii. 649), never unworthy my great ancestors.

NOTE 3.—For the construction of dignus and indignus with verbs, see § 320. f.

b. The motive which influences the mind of the person acting is expressed by the ablative of cause; the object exciting the emotion often by ob 1 or propter with the accusative: as,—

non ob praedam aut spoliandi cupidine (Tac. H. i. 63), not for booty or through lust of plunder.

amicitia ex se et propter se expetenda (Fin. ii. 26), friendship must be sought of and for itself.

NOTE. - But these constructions are often confused: as, -

parere legibus propter metum (Parad. 5, 1), to obey the laws on account of fear. [Here metum is almost equivalent to "the terrors of the law," and hence propter is used, though the ablative would be more natural.]

c. The ablatives causa and gratia, for the sake of, are used with a genitive preceding, or with a pronoun in agreement: as,—

eā causā, on account of this; quā grātiā (Ter. Eun. 99), for what purpose? meā causā, for my sake; meā grātiā (Plaut.), for my sake.

ex mea et reipublicae causa, for my own sake and the republic's.

praedictionis causa (N. D. iii. 2, 5), by way of prophecy.

exempli grātiā (verbī grātiā), for example.

sui purgandi gratia, for the sake of clearing themselves.

NOTE. - But gratia with possessives in this use is rare.

4. Ablative of Agent.

246. The Voluntary Agent after a passive verb is put in the ablative with a or ab: as, —

laudātur ab hīs, culpātur ab illīs (Hor. Sat. i. 2. 11), he is praised by these, blamed by those.

ab animo tuo quidquid agitur id agitur a to (Tusc. i. 22), whatever is done by your soul is done by yourself.

¹ This use of ob was originally mercantile; cf. ob decem minas, for the price of ten mina (see p. 131).

ā fīliīs in iūdicium vocātus est (Cat. Maj. 7, 22), he was brought to trial by his sons.

cum ā cuncto consessu plausus esset multiplex datus (Cat. Maj. 18, 63), when great applause had been given by the whole audience.

ne virtus ab audacia vinceretur (Sest. 42), that valor might not be overborne by audacity.

NOTE. — This construction is developed from the Ablative of Source. The agent is conceived as the source or author of the action.

REMARK.— The ablative of the agent (which requires **3** or **ab**) must be carefully distinguished from the ablative of *instrument*, which has no preposition (§ 248. c. 1). Thus—

occisus gladio, slain by a sword; but, occisus ab hoste, slain by an enemy.

a. The ablative of the agent with ab is sometimes used after neuter verbs that have a passive sense: as,—

perire ab hoste, to be slain by an enemy.

b. The agent, when considered as instrument or means, is expressed by per with the accusative, or by operā with a genitive or possessive. Thus,—

Caesar certior factus est & legatis, Caesar was informed by the ambassadors (in person). But, —

Caesar certior factus est per legatos, Caesar was informed by ambassadors (i.e. by means of ambassadors).

clautae opera Neptūnī (Plaut. Rud. 699), washed clean by the services of Neptune.

non mes opers evenit (Ter. Hec. 228), it hasn't happened through me (by my exertions).

NOTE 1.—An animal is usually regarded not as the agent, but as the means or instrument. Hence the simple ablative is used. But ab sometimes occurs. Thus,—

equō vehī, to ride on horseback (be conveyed by means of a horse). [Not ab equō.] But,—

Lūcānō cum sīc lacerēris ab ursō (Mart. Ep. 8), since you are thus mangled by a Lucanian bear.

NOTE 2.— For the Dative of the Agent with the Gerundive, see § 232.

5. Ablative of Comparison.

247. The Comparative degree is followed by the ablative 1 (signifying THAN): as,—

Catō est Cicerone eloquentior, Cato is more eloquent than Cicero.
quid nobis duobus laboriosius est (Mil. 2), what more burdened with toil
than we two?

¹ This is a branch of the Ablative of Separation. The object with which anything is compared is the starting-point from which we reckon. Thus, "Cicero is eloquent"; but starting from him we come to Cato, who is "more so than he."

vilius argentum est auro, virtūtibus aurum (Hor. Ep. i. 1. 52), silver is less precious than gold, gold than virtue.

a. The comparative may be followed by quam, than. When quam is used, the two things compared are put in the same case (cf. § 208. a).

The construction with quam is required when the first of the things compared is in any other case than the nominative or accusative. With those cases its use is optional. Thus,—

*1. (. 7.161 time 3.

contionibus accommodatior est quam iudiciis (Clu. 2), fitter for popular assemblies than for courts.

misericordia dignior quam contumelia (Piso 32), more worthy of pity than of disgrace.

non callidior es quam hic (Rosc. Am. 49), you are not more cunning than he.

REMARK. — Relative pronouns having a definite antecedent never take quam in this construction, but always the ablative: as,—

rex erat Aeneas nobis, quo instior alter, etc. (An. i. 545), Aneas was our king, than whom no other was more righteous, etc.

NOTE. — The poets sometimes use the ablative of comparison where the prose construction requires ${f quam}$: as,—

pane egeo iam mellītīs potiore placentīs (Hor. Ep. i. 10), I want bread better than honey-cakes.

b. The idiomatic ablatives opīnione, spē, solito, dicto, aequo, crēdibilī, and iūsto are used after comparatives instead of a clause: as,

gravius aequo (Sall.), more seriously than was right.

of all).

celerius opinione (Fam. xiv. 23), faster than one would think.

amnis solito citatior (Liv. xxii. 19), a stream swifter than its wont. serius spe omnium (Liv. xxvi. 26), later than all hoped (than the hope

c. After the comparatives plūs, minus, amplius, longius without quam, a word of measure or number is often used with no change in its case: as,—

plūs septingenti capti (Liv. xli. 12), more than 700 were taken.
plūs tertiā parte interfectā (Cæs.), more than a third part being slain.
spatium non amplius sexcentorum pedum (id.), a space of not more than
600 feet.

NOTE. — The noun takes the case required by the context, without reference to the comparative, which is really in a sort of apposition, "seven hundred were taken [and] more."

d. Alius is sometimes followed by the ablative in poetic and colloquial use1; in formal prose it is followed by ao (atque), nisi, quam. Thus,

¹ This has been thought to be an imitation of the Greek, but the construction is found also in Sanskrit, and is probably original.

nec quicquam aliud libertate communi (Fam. xi. 2), nothing else than the common liberty.

alius Lysippo (Hor.), another than Lysippus.

alium sapiente bonoque (Hor. Ep. i. 16. 20), other than the wise and good. alio ingenio ac tu (Plaut.), of a different disposition from you.

erat historia nihil aliud nisi annalium confectio (De Or. ii. 12), history o/ was nothing else but a compiling of records.

nīl aliut nisi quod sibi placet (Plaut. Trin. 395), nothing else than what pleases him.

e. The comparative of an adverb is usually followed by quam, rarely by the ablative except in poetry. Thus,—

tempus tē citius quam orātio dēficeret (Rosc. Am. 89), time would fail you sooner than words. But, —

cur Sybaris olivum sanguine viperino cautius vitat (Hor. Od. i. 8. 9), why does Sybaris shun oil more carefully than viper's blood?

6. Ablative of Manner.

NOTE.—Accompaniment, Manner, Means, and Instrument are denoted by the instrumental ablative (see p. 245), but some of these more commonly take a preposition. As they all come from one source (the old *Instrumental Case*) no sharp line can be drawn between them, and indeed the Romans themselves never thought of any distinction. Thus in omnibus precibus orabant, they entreated with every [kind of] prayer, the ablative is properly that of means, but cannot be distinguished from manner.

248. The manner of an action is denoted by the Ablative; usually with cum, unless a limiting adjective is used with the noun. Thus,—

cum celeritate venit, he came with speed. But,-

summā celeritāte vēnit, he came with the greatest speed.

quid refert qua me ratione cogatis (Læl 8, 26), what difference does it make in what way you compel me?

NOTE. — But cum is often used even when the ablative has a limiting adjective: as. —

quanto cum perículo id fecerit (B. G. i. 17), at what risk he did this. non minore cum taedio recubant (Plin. Ep. ix. 17, 3), they recline with no less weariness.

REMARK.—With such words of manner as modo, pacto, ratione, ritu, via, and with stock expressions which have become virtually adverbs (as silentio, miuria), cum is very rare. Thus,—

apis Matinae more modoque carmina fingo (Hor. Od. iv 2. 28), in the style and manner of a Matinian bee I fashion songs.

So in poetry the ablative of manner often omits cum: as, -

mons aquae sequitur cumulo (Æn. i. 105), a mountain of water follows in a mass. [Cf. murmure (id. 124); rīmīs (id. 123).]

7. Ablative of Accompaniment.

a. Accompaniment is denoted by the ablative, regularly with cum: as,—

cum coningibus ac liberis vestris, with your wives and children.

cum funditoribus sagittariisque flumen transgressi (B. G. ii. 19), having crossed the river with the archers and slingers.

quae supplicatio si cum ceteris conferatur (Cat. iii. 6, 15), if this thanksgiving be compared with others.

quae [lex] esse cum telo vetat (Mil. 4. 11), the law which forbids [one] to go armed (be with a weapon).

si sēcum suos ēdūxerit (Cat. i. 13, 33), if he leads out with him his associates. [For sēcum, see § 99. e.]

NOTE. — The ablative is used without cum in military phrases, and here and there by early writers: as,—

subsequebatur omnibus copiis (B. G. ii. 19), he followed close with all his forces.

hoc praesidio profectus est (Verr. ii. 34), with this force he set out.

REMARK. — Misce 5 and lung 5, with their compounds, and confund 5 may take either (1) the Ablative of Accompaniment with or without cum, or (2) sometimes the Dative: as,—

mixta dolore voluptas (B. Al. 56), pleasure mingled with pain.

cuius animum cum suo misceat (Læl. 2. 81), whose soul he may mingle with his own.

flētumque eruorī mīscuit (Ov. Met. iv. 140), and mingled tears with blood. Caesar eas cohortēs cum suō exercitū coniūnxit (B. G. i. 18), Cæsar united those cohorts with his own army.

aer coniunctus terris (Lucr. v. 562), air united with earth.

hūmānō capitī cervicem equinam iungere (Hor. A. P. 1), to join to a human head a horse's neck.

b. Words of Contention and the like require cum: as,—

armis cum hoste certare, to fight with the enemy in arms.

libenter haec cum Q. Catulo disputarem (Manil. 22, 66), I should gladly discuss these matters with Quintus Catulus.

NOTE. — But words of contention may take the Dative in poetry (see § 229. c).

8. Ablative of Means.

c. 1. The Ablative is used to denote the means or instrument of an action: as,—

certantes pugnis, calcibus, unguibus, morsu denique (Tusc. v. 27, 77), fighting with fists, heels, nails, and even teeth.

cum pūgnīs et calcibus concīsus esset (Verr. iii. 56), when he had been pummelled with their fists and hecls.

meīs laboribus interitū rempūblicam liberāvī (Sulla, 33), by my toils I have saved the state from ruin.

multae istārum arborum meā manū sunt satae (Cat. Maj. 17, 59), many of those trees were set out with my own hands.

2. The Ablative of Means is used with verbs and adjectives of filling, abounding, and the like: as, —

Deus bonis omnibus explevit mundum (Univ. 3), God has filled the world with all good things.

aggere et crātibus fossās explent (B. G. vii. 86), they fill up the ditches with earth and fascines.

totum montem hominibus complevit (id. i. 24), he filled the whole mountain with men.

opimus praedā (Verr. i. 50), rich with spoils.

vita plena et conferta voluptatibus (Sest. 10), a life filled and crowded with delights.

Forum Appi differtum nautis (Hor. Sat. i. 5. 4), Forum Appii crammed with bargemen.

REMARK.—In poetry the Genitive is often used with these words by a Greek idiom. But compleō, impleō, plēnus and refertus often take the genitive in prose (cf. § 223). Thus,—

omnia plēna lūctūs et maeroris fuērunt (Sest. 128), everything was full of grief and mourning.

ollam denariorum implere (Fam. ix. 18), to fill a pot with money. [Here evidently colloquial, otherwise rare in Cicero.]

convivium vicinorum compleo (Cat. Maj. 14, 46, in the mouth of Cato), I fill up the banquet with my neighbors.

249. The deponents utor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, with several of their compounds, govern the ablative: as,

ūtar vestrā benīgnitāte (Arch. 8), I will avail myself of your kindness. sagācitāte canum ad ūtilitātem nostram abūtimur (N. D. ii. 60), we take advantage of the sagacity of dogs for our own benefit.

ita mihi salvā rēpūblicā vobiscum perfruī liceat (Cat. iv. 6, 11), so may / enjoy with you the state secure and prosperous.

auro heros potitur (Ov. Met. vii. 155), the hero takes the gold.

Numidae plerumque lacte et ferina carne vescebantur (Jug. 88), the Numidians fed mostly on milk and game.

fungi inani munere (Æn. vi. 885), to perform an idle service.

NOTE.—This is really an Ablative of Means and the verbs are really in the middle voice (§ III. a). Thus **ator** signifies *I employ myself*, or avail myself by means of, etc. But these earlier meanings disappeared from the language, leaving the construction as we find it.

¹ These are abūtor, deūtor, dēfungor, dēfruor, perfruor, perfungor.

- a. Potior sometimes takes the Genitive, as always in the phrase potīri rērum, to get control or be master of affairs (§ 223. a): as,
 - totius Galliae sese potiri posse sperant (B. G. i. 3), they hope they can get possession of the whole of Gaul.
- b. In early Latin, these verbs are often transitive, and take the accusative: as, —

ille patria potitur commoda (Ter. Ad. 871), he enjoys his ancestral estate. functus est officium (Ter. Ph. 281), he performed the part, etc.

NOTE. — The Gerundive of these verbs is used personally in the passive as if the verb were transitive (but cf. (204.6)); as,—

Heraclio omnia utenda ac possidenda tradiderat (Verr. ii. 46), he had given over everything to Heraclius for his use and possession (to be used and possessed).

9. Ablative of Degree of Difference.

250. With comparatives and words implying comparison the ablative is used to denote the Degree of Difference: as,—

duobus milibus plūrēs, two thousand more (more by two thousand). quinque milibus passuum distat, it is five miles distant (it stands off by five miles).

aliquot ante annis (Tusc. i. 2, 4), several years before.

aliquanto post suspexit (Rep. vi. 9), a while after he looked up.

multo me vigilare acrius (Cat. i. 8), that I watch much more sharply (more sharply by much).

nihilo erat ipse Cyclops quam aries prudentior (Tusc. v. 39, 115), for the Cyclops himself was not a whit wiser than the ram.

REMARK.—This use is especially frequent with the ablatives quo...eo (hoc); quanto...tanto (cf. § 106.c); as,—

quo minus cupiditatis, eo plus auctoritatis (Liv. xxiv. 28), the less greed, the more weight (by what the less, by that the more).

quanto erat gravior oppugnatio, tanto crebriores litterae mittebantur (B.G. v. 45), the severer the siege was, the more frequently letters were sent.

Note. — To this construction are doubtless to be referred all cases of \mathbf{quo} and \mathbf{eo} with a comparative even when they have ceased to be felt as degree of difference and approach the Ablative of Cause: as, —

- eoque me minus paenitet (N. D. i. 4, 8), and for that reason I regret less, etc. (by so much the less I regret).
- a. The Ablative of Comparison (§ 247) and the Ablative of Degree of Difference are often used together with the same adjective: as,—multo divitior Crasso, much richer than Crassus.

10. Ablative of Quality.

251. The quality of a thing is denoted by the Ablative with a Modifier (either an adjective or limiting genitive).

This is called the Descriptive Ablative or Ablative of Quality.

animo meliore sunt gladiatores (Cat. ii. 12, 26), the gladiators are of a better mind.

quae cum esset civitas aequissimo iure ac foedere (Arch. 4, 6), as this was a city with perfectly equal constitutional rights.

mulierem eximis pulchritudine (Vert. i. 64), a woman of extraordinary

beauty.

Hortensius memoriā tantā fuit ut, etc. (Brut. 88, 301), Hortensius had so good a memory that, etc. (was of so great memory).

quam elato animo est (Theramenes) (Tusc. 1. 40, 96), how lofty a spirit Theramenes displays.

Aristoteles, vir summö ingeniö, scientiä, cöpiä (Tusc. i. 4, 7), Aristotle, a man of the greatest genius, learning, and gift of expression.

quam tenui aut nulla potius valetudine (Cat. Maj. 11, 35), what feeble health he had, or rather none at all!

de Domitio dixit versum Graecum eadem sententia (Deiot. 25), concerning Domitius he recited a Greek line of the same tenor.

NOTE.—The Ablative of Quality (like the Genitive of Quality) modifies a substantive by describing it. It is therefore equivalent to an adjective, and may be either attributive or predicate. In this it differs from other ablatives, which are equivalent to adverbs. Compare,—

mulier pulchra, a beautiful woman.

mulier magna pulchritudine, a woman of great beauty, with -

mulier pulchritudine Troiam delevit, by her beauty a woman destroyed Troy. mulier excellens pulchritudine (§ 253), a woman preëminent in beauty.

a. In expressions of quality the Genitive or the Ablative may often be used indifferently; but physical qualities are oftener denoted by the Ablative (cf. § 215, note): as,—

capillo sunt promisso (B. G. v. 14), they have long hair.

ut capite operto sit (Cat. Maj. 10, 34), to have his head covered (to be of covered head).

11. Ablative of Price.

252. The Price of a thing is put in the ablative: as,—agrum vendidit sestertium sex milibus, he sold the land for 6000 sesterces. Antonius regna addixit pecunia (Phil. vii. 5, 15), Antony sold thrones for money.

logos ridiculos: qui cons poscit (Pl. Stich. 225), jokes: who wants them for (at the price of) a dinner?

magno illi ea cunctatio stetit (Liv. ii. 36), that hesitation cost him dear.

NOTE. - To this head is to be referred the Ablative of the Penalty, § 220. b. 1.

a. Certain adjectives of Quantity are used in the Genitive to denote indefinite value. Such are māgnī, parvī, tantī, quantī, plūris, minōris: as,—

est mihi tanti (Cat. ii. 7), it is worth the price (it is of so much).

mea magni interest, it is of great consequence to me.

illud parvi refert (Manil. 18), this is of small account.

Verresne tibi tanti fuit (Verr. i. 77), was Verres of so much account to you?

tantone minoris decumae venierunt (Verr. iii. 106), were the tithes sold for so much less?

ut të redimas captum quam queas minimo: si nequeas paululo, at quanti queas (Ter. Eun. 74), to ransom yourself, when captured, at the cheapest rate you can; if you can't for a small sum, then at any rate for what you can.

NOTE. - These are really genitives of quality (§ 215. c).

b. The genitive of certain colorless nouns is used in the same way. Such are nihilf, sothing; assis, a farthing; flocol (a lock of wool), a straw. Thus,—

non flocci facio (Att. xiii. 50), I care not a straw.

utinam ego istūc abs tē factum nihilī penderem (Ter. Eun. 94), oh! that I cared nothing for this being done by you!

ego non flocci pendere (Ter. Eun. 410), I did not care a straw.

c. With verbs of exchanging, either the thing taken or the thing given in exchange may be in the Ablative of Price. Such are: mūtāre, commūtāre, permūtāre, vertere. Thus,—

fidem suam et religionem pecunia commutare (Cluent. 46, 129), to barter his faith and conscience for money.

vertere funeribus triumphos (Hor. Od. i. 35. 4), to change the triumph to the funeral-train (exchange triumphs for funerals).

exsilium patriā sēde mūtāvit (Q. C. iii. 8), he exchanged his native land for exile (he took exile in exchange for his native land).

velox amoenum saepe Lucretilem mutat Lycaeo Faunus (Hor. Od. i. 17. 1), nimble Faunus often changes Lycaus for Lucretilis. [He takes Lucretilis at the price of Lycaus, i.e. he goes from Lycaus to Lucretilis.]

NOTE. — With verbs of exchanging cum is often used, perhaps with a different conception of the action: as,—

aries...cum croced mutabit vellera luto (Ecl. iv. 44), the ram shall change his fleece for [one dyed with] the yellow saffron.

d. With verbs of buying and selling the simple ablative of price must be used, except in the case of tanti, quanti, plūris, minoris: as, —

quants cam emit? vili ... quot minis? quadraginta minis (Pl. Epid. 49), what did he buy her for? Cheap. For how many mina? Forty.

12. Ablative of Specification.

253. The Ablative of Specification denotes that in respect to which anything is or is done: as, -

virtute praecedunt (B. G. i. 1), they excel in courage.

claudus altero pede (Nep. Ages. 8), lame of one foot.

lingua haesitantes, voce absoni (De Or. i. 25, 115), hesitating in speech, harsh in voice.

tanta caritas patriae est, ut eam non sensu nostro sed salute ipsius metiamur (Tusc. i. 37), such is our love of country that we measure it not by our own feeling, but by her own welfare.

sunt enim homines non re sed nomine (Off. i. 30, 105), for they are men not in fact, but in name.

maior natu, older; minor natu, younger (cf. § 91. e).

infirmus mollisque nātūrā (Læl. 20, 75), weak and yielding by nature. paulum aetate progressi (Cat. Maj. 10, 33), somewhat advanced in age.

corpore senex esse potuit animo nunquam erit (Cat. Maj. 11, 38), he may have been an old man in body, he never will be [old] at heart.

non solum re et sententia sed verbis quoque hoc interdictum ita esse compositum (Cæcin. 86), this prohibition was so conceived not only in substance and effect, but also in language.

homo mea sententia prudentissimus (Cæcin. 22), a man, in my opinion, very wise.

equitatu pulsi erant (B. G. vii. 68), they had been beaten in the cavalry fight.

NOTE. - To this head are to be referred many expressions where the ablative expresses that in accordance with which anything is or is done. But as the Romans had no such categories as we make, it is impossible to classify all uses of the ablative. Hence the ablative of specification is closely akin to that of manner, and to many ablatives which have been developed from other fundamental ideas. Thus, -

meo iure, with perfect right; but, meo modo, in my fashion.

meā sententiā, in my opinion; but also more formally, ex meā sententiā. [Here the sense is the same, but the first ablative is specification; the second, source.]

propinquitate coniunctos atque natura (Læl. 14, 49), closely allied by kindred and nature. [Here the ablative is not different in sense from those above, but no doubt is a development of means.]

qui vincit viribus (Læl. 15, 55), who surpasses in strength. [Here it is impossible to tell whether viribus is the means of the superiority or that in respect to which one is superior.]

neque enim ulla alia condicione bella gesserunt (B. G. vii. 77), for on no other terms did they carry on wars.

a. The Supine in -ū, used chiefly with adjectives, is equivalent to an ablative of specification (cf. §§ 114. b, 303): as, —

mirabile dictu, marvellous to tell.

NOTE. — In this use of the supine, dative and ablative constructions have, no doubt, been confounded.

13. Ablative of Place.

NOTE. - The Locative Case was originally used (literally) to denote the place where and (figuratively) to denote the time when (a development from the idea of place). But this case was preserved only in names of towns and a few other words. and the place where is usually denoted by the Ablative. In this construction the Ablative was, no doubt, used at first without a preposition, but afterwards it became associated with in in most cases.

- 254. The Ablative is used to denote the place where (usually with the preposition in, § 258. c).
- a. The ablative of the place where is retained in many idiomatic expressions (cf. § 259. a) which have lost the idea of place: as. —

pendemus animis (Tusc. i. 40), we are in suspense of mind (in our minds). socius periculis vobiscum adero (Jug. 85), I will be present with you, companion in dangers.

premit altum corde dolorem (An. i. 209), he keeps down the pain deep in his heart.

b. 1. Several verbs are followed by the locative ablative. These are: acquiēscō, dēlector, laetor, gaudeō, glōrior, nītor, stō, maneō, fīdō (confīdo), consisto, contineor.

nominibus veterum gloriantur (Orat. 50), they glory in the names of the ancients. [Also, de divitiis (in virtute, circa rem, aliquid, haec) gloriari.] spe nītī (Att. iii. 9), to rely on hope. prudentia fidens (Off. i. 33), trusting in prudence.

2. The verbals frētus, contentus, and laetus take the locative ablative: as, -

fretus grātiā Brūtī (Att. v. 21), relying on the favor of Brutus.

laetus praeda, rejoicing in the booty.

contentus sorte, content with his lot.

REMARK. - The ablative with the above verbs sometimes takes the preposition in (but fido in is late): as.-

in quibus causa nititur (Cæl. 25), on whom the case depends.

With several of these verbs the neuter accusative of pronouns is often found.

14. Ablative Absolute.

255. A noun or pronoun, with a participle, may be put in the ablative, to define the time or circumstances of an action: as, —

¹ In this construction the noun was originally in the Locative Case, and denoted circumstance considered as place or time. Afterwards a participle was added to modify the noun, and the two words became fused in a single idea equivalent to that contained in a subordinate clause (cf. ab urbe condita, from the founding of the city, lit. from the founded city). After the construction was established, other ablatives not locative no doubt became confounded with the real ablatives absolute.

- vocatis ad se undique mercatoribus (B. G. iv. 20), having called to him the traders from all quarters (traders having been called).
- quibus rebus cognitis Caesar apud milites contionatur (B. C. i. 7), having learned this, Caesar makes a speech to the soldiers.
- āc sī illō sublātō dēpellī ā vōbīs omne perīculum iūdicārem (Cat. iii. 2, 4),

 and if I thought that with his removal (he being removed) all danger,
 etc.
- nondum hieme confecta (B. G. vi. 3), the winter not yet over.
- compressi conatus nullo tumultu publice concitato (Cat. i. 6, 11), the attempts were put down without exciting any general alarm.
- ne vobis quidem omnibus re etiam tum probata (Cat. ii. 2, 4), since at that time the facts were not yet proved even to all of you.
- imprūdentibus nostrīs atque occupātīs in mūnītione castrorum (B.G. v. 15), while our men were off their guard and busy in the fortification of the camp.
- fugato omni equitatu (B. G. vii. 68), all the cavalry being put to flight. interfecto Indutiomaro (B. G. vi. 2), upon the death of Indutiomarus.
- a. An adjective, or a second noun, may take the place of the participle in the Ablative Absolute construction: 1 as,
 - exigua parte aestatis reliqua (B. G. iv. 30), when but a small part of the summer was left (a small part of the summer remaining).
 - M. Messala et M. Pisone consultibus (id. i. 2), in the consulship of Messala and Piso (Marcus Messala and Marcus Piso being consuls). [The regular way of expressing dates, see § 259. e.]
- 6. A phrase or clause, used substantively, sometimes occurs as ablative absolute with a participle or an adjective: as,
 - mcerto quid peterent (Liv. xxviii. 36), as it was uncertain what they should aim at (it being uncertain, etc.).
 - comperto vanum esse formidinem (Tac. Ann. i. 66), when it was found that the alarm was groundless.
 - NOTE. This construction belongs to later Latin.
- c. A participle or an adjective is sometimes used adverbially in the ablative absolute without a substantive: as,
 - consulto et cogitato (Off. i. 8), on purpose and with reflection (the matter having been deliberated and thought on).
 - sereno (Liv. xxxi. 12), under a clear sky (it [being] clear).
 - nec auspicato nec litato (Liv. v. 38), with no auspices or favorable sacrifice.
 - tranquillo, ut aiunt, quilibet gubernator est (Sen. Ep. 95, 34), in good weather, as they say, any man's a pilot.

¹ The participle of **esse**, wanting in Latin (§ 119. a), is used in Sanskrit and Greek as in English.

- d. The Ablative Absolute in its developed form often takes the place of a Subordinate Clause. In such cases the noun is equivalent to a subject, and the other word to the predicate. So may be replaced:—
- 1. Temporal clauses (§ 322. ff.): as,
 - patre interfecto, [his] father having been killed. [This corresponds to cum pater interfectus esset, when his father had been killed.]
 - recentibus sceleris eius vestigiis (Q. C. vii. 11), while the traces of the crime were fresh. [Cf. dum recentia sunt vestigia.]
- 2. Causal clauses (§ 321): as,
 - at ei qui Alesiae obsidebantur praeterită die qua auxilia suorum exspectaverant, consumpto omni frumento, concilio coacto consultabant (B. G. vii. 77), but those who were under siege at Alesia since the time, etc., had expired, and their grain had been exhausted, calling a council (see 5 below), consulted together. [Cf. cum dies praeteriisset, etc.]
 - Alexander, desperata pace, ad reparandas vires intendit animum (Q. C. iv. 6, 23), Alexander, since he despaired of peace, devoted his energies to recruiting his forces. [Cf. cum pacem desperaret.]
- 3. Concessive clauses (§ 313): as,
 - at eo repugnante fiebat (consul), immo vero eo fiebat magis (Milo 13, 34), but though he (Clodius) opposed, he (Milo) was likely to be elected consul; nay, rather, etc.
- 4. Conditional clauses (§ 304): as,
 - occurrebat ei, mancam et debilem praeturam futuram suam, consule Milone (Milo 9, 25), it occurred to him that his praetorship would be maimed and feeble, if Milo were consul. [sī Milo consul esset.]
 - quā (regione) subāctā licēbit dēcurrere in illud mare (Q. C. ix. 38), if this region is subdued, we shall be free to run down into that sea. quā quidem dētrāctā (Arch. 11, 28), if this be taken away.
- 5. Clauses of accompanying circumstance: as,
 - ego haec ā Chrysogonō meā sponte, remōtō Sex. Rosciō, quaerō (Rosc Am. 45), of my own accord, without reference to Sextus Roscius (S. R being put aside), I ask these questions of Chrysogonus.
 - nec imperante nec sciente nec praesente domino (Milo 10, 29), without their master's giving orders, or knowing it, or being present.
- Note.—As the English case absolute (the nominative) is far less common than the ablative absolute in Latin, a change of form is generally required in translation. Thus the present participle is oftenest to be rendered by a relative clause with when or while; and the perfect passive participle by the perfect active participle in English. These changes may be seen in the following example:—

"At illī, intermīlsō spatiō, imprūdentibus nostrīs, atque occupātīs in mūnītiōne castrōrum, subitō sē ex silvīs eiēcērunt; impetūque in eōs factō, quī acriter pūgnāvērunt; duābusque mīssīs subsidiō cohortibus ā Caesare, cum hae (perexiguō intermīssō locī spatiō inter sē) cōnstitissent, novō genere pūgnae perterritīs nostrīs, per mediōs audācissimē perrūpērunt, sēque inde incolumēs recēpērunt."—CÆSAR, B. G. v. 15.

"But they, having paused a space, while our men were unaware and busied in fortifying the camp, suddenly threw themselves out of the woods; then making an attack upon those who were on guard in front of the camp, they fought fiercely; and, though two cohorts had been sent by Cæsar as reinforcements, after these had taken their position (leaving very little space of ground between them), as our men were alarmed by the strange kind of fighting, they dashed most daringly through the midst of them, and got off safe."

[For the Ablative with Prepositions, see § 152.]

VI.-TIME AND PLACE.

1. Time.

256. Time when, or within which, is put in the Ablative; time how long in the Accusative: as,—

I. Ablative: -

constituta die, on the appointed day; prima luce, at daybreak. quota hora, at what o'clock? tertia vigilia, in the third watch. tribus proxumis annis (Jug. 11), within the last three years.

 $\mathcal{I}/$

2. Accusative: -

dies continuos triginta, for thirty days together. cum triduum iter fecisset (B. G. ii. 16), when he had marched three days.

-/

NOTE.—The ablative of time is *locative* in its origin (§ 254, head-note); the accusative is the same as that of the *extent of space* (§ 257).

a. The Ablative of time within which sometimes takes in, and the Accusative of time how long, per for greater precision: as,—

in diebus proximis decem (Sall.), within the next ten days. in brevi spatio (Ov. Met. i. 411), within a brief space (of time). lūdī per decem dies (Cat. iii. 8), games for ten days.

b. Duration of time is occasionally expressed by the Ablative: as, — milites quinque horis proclium sustinuerant (B. C. i. 47), the men had sustained the fight five hours.

NOTE. — In this use the period of time is regarded as that within which the act is done, and it is only implied that the act lasted through the period.

2. Space.

257. Extent of space is put in the Accusative: as, —

fossas quindecim pedes latas (B. G. vii. 72), trenches fifteen feet broad. in omni vita sua quemque a recta conscientia transversum unguem non oportet discedere (quoted in Att. xiii. 20), in all one's life, one should not depart a nail's breadth from straightforward conscience.

NOTE.—This Accusative denotes the object through or over which the action takes place, and is kindred with the Accusative of the End of Motion (cf. § 258).

a. Measure is often expressed by the Genitive of Quality (§ 215. b): as. --

vallo pedum duddecim (B. G. ii. 30), in a rampart of twelve feet (in height).

b. Distance when considered as extent of space is put in the Accusative; when considered as degree of difference, in the Ablative (§ 250): as. —

quinque dierum iter abest (Liv. xxx. 29), it is distant five days' march. trīgintā mīlibus passuum infra eum locum (B. G. vi. 35), thirty miles below that place (below by thirty miles).

3. Place from Which and End of Motion.

258. The place from which is denoted by the Ablative with ab, de, or ex; the place to which (the End of Motion) by the Accusative with ad or in: as, —

1. Place from which: —

a septentrione, from the north.

cum a vobis discessero (Cat. Maj. 22), when I leave you.

de provincia decedere, to come away from one's province.

de monte, down from the mountain.

negotiator ex Africa (Verr. ii. 1, 5), a merchant from Africa.

înfluxit e Graecia rivulus (Rep. ii. 19), there flowed in a rill from Greece.

ex Britannia obsides miserunt (B. G. iv. 38), they sent hostages from Britain. Mosa profluit ex monte Vosego (id. iv. 10), the Meuse (flows from) rises in the Vosges mountains.

quas (navis) ex Pictonibus et Santonis reliquisque pacatis regionibus convenire iusserat (id. iii. 11), the ships which he had given orders should collect from the [country of the] Pictones and the Santoni and from the other conquered regions.

¹ Originally all these relations were expressed with all these words by the cases alone. The accusative denoted the end of motion as in a certain sense the object of the action (cf. Romam petiit), and the ablative in its proper meaning of separation denoted the place from which. The prepositions, originally adverbs, were added to define more exactly the direction of motion, as in to us ward, toward us, and by long association became indispensable except as indicated above.

ñ

2. Place to which: -

ad fines Hyrcaniae penetrat (Q. C. vi. 4), he penetrates to the borders of Hyrcania.

adibam ad istum fundum (Cæc. 29), I was going to that estate (cf. § 237. d). in Africam navigavit, he sailed to Africa.

in Italiam profectus, gone to Italy.

legatum in Treveros mittit (B. G. iii. 11), he sends his lieutenant into the [country of the] Treveri.

in Piraea cum exissem (Att. vi. 9, 1), when I had landed at the Piraus.

[Admitted by Cicero himself to be wrong, the Piraeus being a town (see b, below). The passage is discussed by him in Att. vii. 3.]

Note 1.—In poetry the end of motion is often expressed by the Dative (§ 225. 6.3): as,—

it clamor caelo (Æn. v. 451), a shout goes up to the sky.

NOTE 2.—With the name of a country, ad denotes to the borders; in, into the country itself. Similarly ab denotes away from the outside; ex, out of the interior. Thus ad Italiam pervent would mean, he came to the frontier, regardless of the destination; in Italiam, he went to Italy, i.e. to a place within it, to Rome, for instance. So ab Italia profectus est would mean, he came away from the frontier, regardless of the original starting-point; ex Italia, he came from Italy, from within, as from Rome, for instance.

a. The names of towns or small islands from which, as also domus and rūs, are put in the Ablative without a preposition: as,—

Roma profectus, having set out from Rome.

rure reversus, having returned from the country.

Roma abesse, to be absent from Rome.

domo abire, to leave home.

NOTE 1. — With names of towns, etc., &b is often used, commonly to denote from the vicinity of: as, —

ut a Mutina discederet (Phil. xiv. 2, 4), that he should retire from Mutina (which he was besieging).

erat ā Gergoviā dēspectus in castra (B. G. vii. 45), there was from about G. a view into the camp.

profecti a domo (Liv. xl. 33), setting out from home.

loca quae a Brundisio propius absunt (Att. viii. 14), places which are nearer to Brundisium (nearer from).

NOTE 2.—The ablative without a preposition is used to denote the place from which in certain idiomatic expressions: as,—

cessisset patria (Mil. 25), he would have left his country.

patria pellere, to drive out of the country.

manu mittere, to emancipate (let go from the hand).

Note 3.—The poets often omit the preposition where it would be required in prose: as,—

manis Acheronte remissos (An. v. 99), the spirits returned from Acheron.

b. The names of towns or small islands to which as also domus and rus, are put in the Accusative without a preposition: as, -

Romam rediit, he returned to Rome.

Delo Rhodum navigare, to sail from Delos to Rhodes.

rus ibo, I shall go into the country.

domum iit, he went home. [So, suas domos abire, to go to their homes.]

NOTE 1.—In this use domum may be modified by a possessive pronoun or a genitive. When otherwise modified, domum requires the preposition in. Thus,-

domum regis (Deiot. 6), to the king's house. [But also in M. Laecae domum (Cat. i. 4), to M. Laca's house. But, -

in domum magnam venire, to come into a large house.

NOTE 2.—With the names of towns, etc., ad may be used in the sense of towards, to the neighborhood of: as,-

ad Alesiam proficiscuntur (B. G. vii. 76), they set out for Alesia.

ad Alesiam perveniunt (id. vii. 79), they arrive at Alesia (come through to). ad Athenas navigare, to set sail for Athens (landing in the harbor).

NOTE 3.— The general words, urbs, oppidum, insula require a preposition in either construction (to which or from which): as, ad urbem, ab urbe, ad urbem Romam, Romam ad urbem, ex urbe Roma.

NOTE 4. - Two or more nouns are sometimes expressed after one verb as limits of motion (see § 259. 4).

NOTE 5.— The poets often omit the preposition with any nount as.

Italiam Laviniaque venit litora (Æh. 1. 2), he came to Italy and the Lavin-

ian shores.

finis Italos mittere (id. iii. 440), you shall be allowed to reach the Italian boundaries.

terram Hesperiam venies (id. ji, 781), you shall come to the Hesperian land. REMARK. — The preposition is somitted with the supine in -um (§ 302) and in the following old phrases:-

exsequias ire, to go to the funeral. pessum ire, to go to ruin.

infitias ire, to resort to denial. pessum dare, to ruin (cf. perdo).

venum dare, to sell (give to sale). [Hence vendere.]

venum ire, to be sold (go to sale). [Hence venire.]

foras (used as adverb), out: as, foras egredi, to go out of doors.

4. The Place Where.

c. I. The place where is denoted by the Ablative with the preposition in (Locative Ablative): as, -

in hoc urbe vitam degit, he passed his life in this city.

sī in Gallia remanerent (B. G. iv. 8), if they should stay in Gaul.

dum haec in Venetis geruntur (id. iii. 17), while this was going on among the Veneti.

oppidum in însula positum (id. vii. 58), a town situated on an island.

2. But names of towns and small islands are put in the Locative Case.

This has in the first and the second declension singular the same form as the Cenitive, in the plural and in the third declension the same form as the Dative or Ablative as.

Romae, at Rome (Roma). Rhodi, at Rhodes (Rhodus). Sami, at Samos. Tiburi or Tibure, at Tibur. Philippis, at Philippi. Athēnis, at Athens (Athēnae). Lanuvi, at Lanuvium. Cypri, at Cyprus. Cūribus, at Cures. Capreis, at Capri (Capreae).

REMARK. — Large islands, and all places when thought of as a territory and not as a locality are treated like names of countries: as, —

in Sicilia, in Sicily.

in Ithaca lepores illati moriuntur (Plin. H. N., cf. § 256. a), in Ithaca hares when carried there die. [Ulysses lived at Ithaca, would require Ithacae.]

NOTE 1.—With all names of places AT, meaning near (not in), is expressed by ad or apud with the Accusative. In the neighborhood of may be expressed by circa with the Accusative; among, by apud with the Accusative. Thus,—

pūgna ad Cannās, the fight at Cannae.
conchās ad Cāiētam legunt (Or. ij. 6), at Caieta (along the shore).
ad (apud) înferos, in the world below (near or among those below).
ad forēs, at the doors.
apud Graecos, among the Greeks.
apud Solos (Leg. ii. 16), at Soli.
circā Capuam, round about Capua.

NOTE 2.—In citing an author, apud is regularly used; in citing a particular work, in. Thus,—

apud Xenophontem, in Xenophon. But, — in Xenophontis Oeconomico, in Xenophon's Œconomicus.

d. The Locative Case is also preserved in the following common nouns:—

domi (rarely domui), at home.
belli, militiae (in contrast to domi), abroad, in military service.
humi, on the ground.
foris, out-of-doors.
rūrī, in the country.
terrā marīque, by land and sea.

These are used like names of towns, without a preposition. So also,—

herī (-e), yesterday. vesperī (-e), in the evening. infelicī arborī (Liv. i. 26), on the ill-omened tree.

e. The locative dom! may be modified by a possessive adjective or a limiting genitive; but, when it would be otherwise modified some other construction is used instead of the Locative. Thus, -

domi Caesaris, at Casar's house.

domī suae vel alienae, at his own or another's house. But, -

- in Marci Crassi castissima domo (Cæl. 4, 9), in the chaste home of Marcus Crassus. [Cf. ex Anniana Milonis domo, § 184. d.]
- f. The place where is denoted by the Ablative without a preposition in several constructions: --
 - 1. Regularly in many indefinite words, such as loco, parte: as, quibus loco positis (Or. iii. 38), when these are set in position. qua parte victi erant (Att. ix. 11), on the side where they were beaten. But, exercitum castris continuit (B. G. i. 48), he kept his army in camp. [Here the construction is influenced by means.]
- 2. Frequently with nouns which are qualified by adjectives (regularly when totus is used): as, -

media urbe (Liv. i. 33), in the middle of the city. tota Sicilia (Verr. iv. 23), throughout Sicily (in the whole of Sicily). So, tota Tarracina (De Or. ii. 59), in all Tarracina (cf. c. 2. Rem.).

3. Freely in poetry: as, —

litore curvo (Æn. iii. 16), on the winding shore.

antro seclusa relinquit (id. iii. 446), she leaves them shut up in the cave.

Epīro, Hesperia (id. iii. 503), in Epirus, in Hesperia.

g. The way by which is put in the ablative without a preposition: as, -

via breviore equites praemisi (Fam. x. 9), I sent forward the cavalry by a shorter road.

Aegaeo mari traiecit (Liv. xxxvii. 14), he crossed by way of the Ægean Sea. provehimur pelago (Æn. iii. 506), we sail forth over the sea.

NOTE. — In this use the way by which is conceived as the means of passage,

5. Special Uses of Time and Place.

- 259. The following special uses require to be observed:—
- a. Many expressions have in Latin the construction of time when, where in English the main idea is rather of place: as, -

pugna Cannensi (or apud Cannas), in the fight at Canna. ludis Romanis, at the Roman games. omnibus Gallicis bellis, in all the Gallic wars.

b. In many idiomatic expressions of time, the accusative with ad, in, or sub is used. Such are the following:—

supplicatio decreta est in Kalendas Ianuarias, a thanksgiving was voted for the 1st of January.

convenerunt ad diem, they assembled at the [appointed] day.

ad vesperum, till evening; sub vesperum, towards evening.

sub idem tempus, about the same time.

sub noctem, at night-fall.

c. Time during which or within which may be expressed by the ablative of a noun in the singular, with an ordinal numeral: as,—

quinto die, within [just] four days (lit., on the fifth day). [The Romans counted both ends, see § 376. d.]

regnat iam sextum annum, he has reigned going on six years (he is reigning now the sixth year).

But also, - regnavit iam sex annos, he has already reigned for six years.

d. Distance of time before or after anything is variously expressed: as, —

post (ante) trēs annos, post tertium annum, trēs post annos, tertium post annum, tribus post annis, tertio post anno, three years after.

tribus annîs (tertio anno) post exsilium (postquam eiectus est), three years after his exile.

his tribus proximis annis, within the last three years.

paucis annis, a few years hence.

abhinc annos tres (tribus annis), ante hos tres annos, three years ago.

triennium est cum (tres anni sunt cum), it is three years since.

octavo mense quam (see § 262. note 2), the eighth month after.

e. In Dates the phrase ante diem (a. d.) with an ordinal, or the ordinal alone, is followed by an accusative, like a preposition; and the phrase itself may also be governed by a preposition.

The year is expressed by the names of the consuls in the ablative absolute, often without a conjunction (§ 255. a): as,—

is dies erat a. d. quintum Kalendas Aprilis L. Pisone A. Gabinio consulibus (B. G. i. 6), that day was the 5th before the calends of April (March 28), in the consulship of Piso and Gabinius.

in a. d. v. Kal. Nov. (Cat. i. 3), to the 5th day before the calends of November (Oct. 28).

xv. Kal. Sextilis, the 15th day before the calends of August (July 18). [Full form: quintō decimō diē ante Kalendās.]

f. For AT, meaning near (not in), see § 258. c. note 1.

NOTE. — For TO and FROM with names of places, see § 258,

g. When motion to a place is implied in English, though not expressed, the accusative with or without a preposition must be used in Latin: as. -

coniurati in curiam convenerunt, the conspirators met in the Senate-house, (came together into the Senate-house).

concilium domum suam convocavit, he called a council at his own house.

h. When two or more names of place follow a verb of motion, each must be under its own construction. Thus,-

quadriduo quo haec gesta sunt res ad Chrysogonum in castra L. Sullae Volāterrās defertur (Rosc. Am. 7), within four days after this was done, the matter was reported TO Chrysogonus IN Sulla's camp AT Volaterræ.

VIL-USE OF PREPOSITIONS.

260. Some Prepositions are used with the Accusative. some with the Ablative, and a few with both.

NOTE. - For the list of Prepositions, see § 152.

a. Verbs of placing, though implying motion, take the construction of the place in which.

Such are: pono and its compounds (except impono), loco, colloco, statuo, constituo, etc.

qui in sede ac domo collocavit (Parad. iii. 2), who put [one] into his place and home.

statuitur eques Romanus in Aproni convivio (Verr. iii. 61), a Roman knight is brought into a banquet of Apronius.

insula Delos in Aegaeo mari posita (Leg. Man. 55), the island of Delos. situated in the Ægean Sea.

sī in und Pompēid omnia ponerētis (id. 59), if you made everything depend on Pompey alone.

b. Position is frequently expressed by the Ablative with ab (rarely ex), properly meaning from: 2 as,-

ā tergo, in the rear.

a parte Pompēiana, on the side of Pompey.

ā sinistrā, on the left hand. [Cf. hinc, on this side.]

ex altera parte, on the other side.

magna ex parte, in a great degree (from, i.e. in, a great part).

¹ The force lies strictly with the Case, and the preposition only indicates more clearly direction or place. 2 Apparently the direction whence the sensuous impression comes.

c. Super in the sense of concerning takes the Ablative; in all other senses it takes the Accusative: as,—

hāc super rē (Cic.), concerning this thing.
super tāli causā mīssī (Nep. Paus. 4), sent on such an errand.
sed hāc rē super nimis (Att. x. 8), but more than enough on that point.
super culmina tēctī (Æn. ii. 695), above the house-top.
super vallum praecipitārī (Jug. 58), to be hurled over the rampart.
super laterēs cōria indūcuntur (B. C. ii. 10), hides are drawn over the bricks.
super Numidiam (Jug. 19), beyond Numidia.
super terrae tumulum (Legg. 26), on the mound of earth.
super vīnum (Q. C. viii. 4), over [his] wine.

NOTE. - The ablative is used in poetry with super in other senses: as. -

figna super foco large reponens (Hor. Od. i. 9. 5), piling logs generously on the fire.

nocte super media (Æn. ix. 59), after midnight.

- d. Subter takes the Accusative, except sometimes in poetry. Thus, subter togam (Liv.), under his mantle. But,—subter litore (Catull.), below the shore.
- e. Tenus (which follows its noun) regularly takes the Ablative, but sometimes the Genitive (§ 223. e). Thus,—

Taurō tenus (Deiot. 13), as far as Taurus. capulō tenus (Æn. v. 55), up to the hilt. Corcyrae tenus (Liv. xxv. 24), as far as Corcyra.

NOTE. — Tenus is frequently connected with the feminine of an adjective pronoun, making an adverbial phrase: as,—

hactenus, hitherto; quatenus, so far as. de hac re hactenus, so much for that (about this matter so far).

- 261. Many words may be construed either as Prepositions or as Adverbs: thus,—
- a. The adverbs prīdiē, postrīdiē, propius, proximē,¹ usque—also (less frequently) the adjectives propior and proximus—may be followed by the Accusative (cf. §§ 207. b, 234. e): as,—
- pridie Nonas Iunias (Cic.), the day before the Nones of June (June 4). postridie ludos (Att. xvi. 4), the day after the games.

ipse propior montem suos collocat (Jug. 49), he stations his men nearer the hill.

proximē Pompēium sedēbam (Att. i. 14), *I sat next to Pompey*. [Cf. proximus Pompēium sedēbam.]

pars insulae quae est propius solis occasum (B. G. iv. 28), the part of the island which is nearer the west (sunset).

terminos usque Libyae (Just.), to the bounds of Libya.

NOTE.—Pridiē and postridiē take also the Genitive (§ 223. e. note 2). Propior, propius, proximus, and proximē, take also the Dative, or the Ablative with ab. Usque is commonly followed by ad. Thus,—

propius Tiberi (Nep.), nearer the Tiber. propius ab urbe (Plin.), nearer the city usque ad mare, to the sea.

b. The adverbs palam, procul, simul, may be used as prepositions and take the Ablative: as.—

rem crēditori palam populo solvit (Liv. vi. 14), he paid the debt in the presence of the people.

haud procul castris in modum municipii exstructa (Tac. H. iv. 22), not far from the camp, built up like a town.

simul nobis habitat barbarus (Ov. Tr. v. 10. 29), close among us dwells the barbarian.

Note.—But simul regularly takes cum; procul is usually followed by ab in classic use; and the use of palam as a preposition is comparatively late. Thus.—

procul a mari, far from the sea.

nobiscum simul, at the same time with oursetves.

c. The adverb clam is found with the Accusative or Ablative, rarely with the Genitive or Dative: as, —

clam matrem suam (Plaut.), unknown to his mother.

clam mihi (id.), in secret from me.

clam patris (id.), without his father's knowledge.

clam vobis (B. C. ii. 32), without your knowledge.

- d. Prepositions often retain their original meaning as adverbs. So especially—
- I. Ante and post in relations of time: as, quae paulo ante praecepta dedimus (Cic.), a little while ago, etc. post tribus diebus, three days after (cf. § 259. d').
- Adversus, contrā, circiter, prope: as, —
 adversus resistere, to hold out in opposition.
 Aeolus hace contrā, thus Eolus in reply.
 circiter pars quarta, about the fourth part.
 prope exanimatus, nearly lifeless.
- 3. In general those ending in -ā: as, —

forte fuit iuxta tumulus, there happened to be a mound close by.

NOTE. — Clam and versus are by many excluded from the list of prepositions.

[For the use of Prepositions in Composition, see § 170.]

262. Some prepositions or adverbs which imply Comparison are followed, like comparatives, by quam, which may be separated by several words, or even clauses.

neque ante dimisit eum quam fidem dedit (Liv. xxxix. 10), nor did he let him go until he gave a pledge.

post diem tertium quam dixerat (Man. 16), the third day after he said it.

NOTE 1.—Such words are ante, prius, post, pridiē, postrīdiē; also magis and prae in compounds: as,—

Cato ipse iam servire quam pugnare mavult (Att. vii. 15), Cato himself by this time would rather be a slave than fight.

sī iam prīncipātum Galliae obtinēre non possint, Gallorum quam Romanorum imperia praeferre (B. G. i. 17), if they can no longer hold the chief rank in Gaul, [they] prefer the rule of Gauls to that of Romans.

NOTE 2.—The ablative of time (\S 256) is sometimes followed by **quam** in the same way: as,—

octavo mense quam (Liv. xxi. 15), within eight months after, etc.

263. For a or ab with the Ablative of Agent, see § 246.

NOTE.—The following prepositions sometimes follow their nouns: ad, citrā, circā, contrā, dē, ē (ex), inter, iūxtā, penes, propter, ūltrā, tenus (regularly), and occasionally others: as,—

[usus] quem penes arbitrium est et ius et norma loquendi (Hor. A. P. 72), custom, under whose control is the choice, right, and rule of speech.

cūius ā mē corpus est cremātum, quod contrā decuit ab illo meum (C. M. 23), whose body I burned [on the funeral pile], while on the contrary (lit. contrary to which) mine should have been burned by him.

CHAPTER III. - Syntax of the Verb.

I. - MOODS AND TENSES.

NOTE. — The Syntax of the Verb relates chiefly to the use of the Moods (expressing the manner in which the action is conceived) and the Tenses (expressing the time of the action). There is no difference in origin between mood and tense. The moods, except the infinitive, are only specialized tenses; and hence the uses of mood and tense frequently cross each other. Thus the tenses sometimes have modal significations (compare indicative in apodosis, § 311. ϵ ; future for imperative, § 269. f); and the moods sometimes express time (compare subjunctive in future conditions, § 307. δ , and notice the want of a future subjunctive § 110. a).

The parent language, besides the imperative mood, had two distinct forms with modal signification: the Subjunctive, expressing an action as willed or vividly conceived; and the Optative, expressing an action as wished for or vaguely conceived.

Of these, the Subjunctive was developed from a Present Tense, by which an action continued in present time was represented as future: compare in English, the army marches to-morrow. Such an action came to be conceived on the one hand as command: compare the military order, the regiment will advance; and on the other as a possibility or a mere conception: compare anybody will understand that.

The Optative has had a similar development. It was originally a tense-form compounded with YA, and probably denoted past time (cf. Eng. should and would); but like the subjunctive, it has acquired the two meanings of conception and command.

It must not be supposed, however, that in any given construction either the subjunctive or the optative was deliberately used because it denoted conception or possibility. On the contrary, each construction has had its own line of development from more tangible and literal forms of thought to more vague and ideal; and by this process the mood used comes to have in each case a special meaning, which is afterwards habitually associated with it in that construction. Thus in English the expression I would do this has become equivalent to a mild command; while by analysis it is seen to be the apodosis of a present condition contrary to fact (§ 308): if I were you, etc. By further analysis, I would go is seen to have meant, originally, I should have wished (or I did wish) to go.

In Latin, the original subjunctive and the optative became confounded in form and meaning, and were merged in the present subjunctive. Then new tense-forms of the subjunctive were formed by composition; ¹ and to these the original as well as the derived meanings of both moods became attached (see § 265). All the *independent* uses of the Latin subjunctive are thus to be accounted for,

The dependent uses of the subjunctive have arisen in every case from the employment of some independent subjunctive construction in co-ordination with a main statement. In time the two clauses have so grown together as to form a single

¹ For the signification of these tense-endings, see pp. 120, 121.

compound sentence, and the subjunctive member is felt to have assumed subordinate relations toward the other clause. The original meaning of the mood has disappeared, and a new meaning has arisen by implication. Thus, misit 18gatos qui dicerent, he sent ambassadors to say (i.e. who would say in a supposed case). Similar processes may be seen in the growth of Apodosis. Thus, tolle hanc opinionem, luctum sustuleris (remove this notion, you will have done away with grief: i.e. if you remove, etc.).

The infinitive is originally a verbal noun, modifying a verb like other nouns: volo vidoro, lit. "I wish for-seeing": compare English what went ye out for to see? But in Latin it has been surprisingly developed, so as to have forms for tense, and some proper modal characteristics, and to be used as a substitute for other moods.

The other noun and adjective forms of the verb have been developed in various ways, which are treated under their respective heads below.

The proper verbal constructions may be thus classified: -

I.-MOODS.

I. THE INDICATIVE.

- **264.** The Indicative is the mood of direct assertions or questions when there is no modification of the verbal idea except that of time.
- a. The Tenses of the Indicative generally denote time, as present, past, or future, with reference to the speaker (§ 276 ff.).

¹ Compare note on the development of syntaxis from parataxis, p. 164.

NOTE. — Time thus denoted is often called absolute time, as not being relative to any other time than the speaker's own.

b. The Indicative is sometimes used where the English idiom would suggest the Subjunctive: as,—

longum est, it would be tedious [if, etc.]. satius erat, it would have been better [if, etc.]. persequi possum, I might follow up [in detail].

- c. The Future Indicative is sometimes used for the Imperative (\S 269. f).
- d. The indicative is used in some kinds of conditions (see §§ 306, 308).
- e. The place of the indicative in narration is sometimes supplied by the Historical Infinitive (§ 275).
- f. In Indirect Discourse a narrative clause has its verb in the Infinitive (see §§ 272, 336).

II. THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

265. The Subjunctive in general expresses the verbal idea with some modification such as is expressed in English by auxiliaries, by the infinitive, or by the rare subjunctive (§ 112. b).

The uses of the subjunctive are independent or dependent (cf. head-note, p. 274).

- a. The Subjunctive is used independently to express -
 - 1. An Exhortation, Concession, or Command (Hortatory, § 266).
 - 2. A Wish (Optative, § 267).
 - 3. A Question of Doubt or Deliberation (Deliberative, § 268).

NOTE. — These constructions (with the exception of some forms of Deliberative Subjunctive) are merely different phases of the same use.

REMARK.—In the conclusion (apodosis) of Conditional Sentences, the subjunctive is grammatically independent, though logically it depends on some condition expressed or implied (§ 304). The so-called Potential Subjunctive comes under this head (see § 311. a).

b. The subjunctive is used in dependent clauses to express -

¹ These modifications are of various kinds, each of which has had its own special development (compare introductory note, p. 274). The subjunctive in Latin has also many idiomatic uses (see clauses of Result and Time), where the English does not modify the verbal idea at all, but expresses it directly; but in these cases the Latin merely takes a different view of the action, and has developed its construction differently from the English.

- 1. Purpose (Final, § 317).
- 2. Result (Consecutive, § 319).
- 3. Characteristic (§ 320).
- 4. Time (Temporal, § 325).
- 5. Indirect question (§ 334).
- 6. Condition: future or contrary to fact (§§ 307. b, c, 308).
- c. The subjunctive is also used with Particles of Comparison (§ 312), and in subordinate clauses in the Indirect Discourse (§ 336).

1. Hortatory Subjunctive.

266. The Hortatory Subjunctive is used to express an exhortation, a command, a concession, or a condition.

The Present tense refers to future or indefinite time; the Perfect, to past time or completed future time; the Imperfect, to present or past time; the Pluperfect, to completed past time: as,—

hos latrones interficiamus (B. G. vii. 58), let us kill these robbers. caveant intemperantiam, meminerint verecundiae (Off. i. 34), let them shun excess and cherish modesty.

Epicurus hoc viderit (Acad. ii. 7), let Epicurus look to this.

NOTE 1. — The simple subjunctive of exhortation and command takes the present tense, less commonly the perfect. The Perfect represents an action as completed in future time; but in most cases is hardly to be distinguished from the Present. Other tenses are used in some varieties of this construction (see ϵ . note 1 and ϵ).

REMARK. - The negative particle used with the hortatory subjunctive is no.

a. The Second Person is used only of an *indefinite subject*, except in prohibition, in early Latin, and in poetry (cf. § 269. b). Thus, —

iniūriās fortūnae, quās ferre nequeās, dēfugiendo relinquās (Tusc. v. 41), the wrongs of fortune, which you cannot bear, leave behind by flight. exoriāre aliquis ultor (id. iv. 625), rise, some avenger.

isto bono ūtare dum adsit, cum absit ne requiras (Cat. Maj. 10), use this blessing while it is present; when it is wanting, do not regret it.

nē conferās culpam in mē (Ter. Eun. 387), don't lay the blame on me.

nihil Ignoveris (Mur. 31), pardon nothing.

doceas iter et sacra ostia pandas (Æn. vi. 109), show us the way and lay open the sacred portals.

b. In Prohibitions addressed to a definite person, the perfect is more common than the present (cf. § 269. a): as,—

hoc facito: hoc ne feceris (Div. ii. 61), thou shalt do this; thou shalt not do that.

tu ne quaesieris (Hor.), do not inquire.

nec mihi illud dixeris (Fin. i. 7), and do not say that to me.

c. The hortatory subjunctive is expecially used to express a Concession, sometimes with ut, no, quamvis, quamlibet, or similar words (cf. § 313. a): as,—

fuerit aliis: tibi quando esse coepit (Verr. i. 41), suppose he was [so] to others, when did he begin to be to you?

ut rationem Plato nullam afferret (Tusc. i. 21), though Plato adduced no reasons.

nemo is unquam fuit: ne fuerit (Or. 29), there never was such a one [you will say]: granted (let there not have been).

no sit summum malum dolor, malum certe est (Tusc. ii. 5), granted that pain is not the greatest evil, at least it is an evil.

quamvis scelerati illi fuissent (De Or. i. 53), however guilty they might

quamvīs comis in amicitiis tuendis fuerit (Fin. ii. 25), amiable as he may have been in keeping his friendships (let him have been as amiable as you please).

NOTE 1.— In this use the Present refers to future or indefinite time, the Imperfect to present or past time (the concession being impliedly untrue), the Perfect to past or completed future time, the Pluperfect to completed action in past time (the concession being usually untrue).

NOTE 2. — The Indicative is often used in concessions (see § 313).

REMARK. — Concessions with si and its compounds belong to Protasis (see § 313. c); those with licet, to Substantive Clauses (see § 313. b).

d. The hortatory subjunctive may be used to denote a Proviso (see § 314).

The Imperfect and Pluperfect of the hortatory subjunctive denote an unfulfilled obligation in past time: as,—

morerëtur, inquies (Rab. Post. 10), he should have died, you will say.
potius diceret (Off. iii. 22), he should rather have said.

ne poposcisses (Att. ii. 1), you should not have asked.

saltem aliquid de pondere detraxisset (Fin. iv. 20), at least he should have taken something from the weight.

REMARK. — This use of the subjunctive is carefully to be distinguished from its use in apodosis (potential, § 311. a). The difference is indicated by the translation, should or ought (not would).

NOTE. — In this use the Pluperfect differs from the Imperfect only in more clearly representing the time for action as momentary or as past.

3 #. Optative Subjunctive.

267. The Subjunctive is used to express a Wish. The present tense denotes the wish as *possible*, the imperfect as *unaccomplished* in present time, the pluperfect as *unaccomplished* in past time. Thus,—

ita vivam (Att. v. 15), so may I live (as true as I live).

ne vivam si scio (id. iv. 16), I wish I may not live if I know.

di te perduint (Deiot. 7), the gods confound thee!

valeant, valeant, cives mei; valeant, sint incolumes (Mil. 34), farewell [he says], my fellow-citizens: may they be secure from harm.

- di facerent sine patre forem (Ov. Met. viii. 72), would that the gods allowed me to be without a father (but they do not)!
- a. The Perfect in this use is antiquated: as, -

male dī tibi faxint (Plaut. Curc. 131), may the gods do thee a mischief. quod omen di averterint (Phil. xii. 6, 14, in a religious formula), and may the gods avert this omen.

- 6. The Optative Subjunctive is often preceded by the particles uti (ut), utinam, ō sī: as,
 - ut pereat positum robigine telum (Hor. Sat. ii. 1), may the weapon unused perish with rust.

falsus utinam vātēs sim (Liv. xxi.), I wish I may be a false prophet. utinam P. Clodius vīveret (Mil. 38), would that Clodius were now alive. stinam we mortuum vidioses (Q. Fr. i. 3), would you had seen me dead.

ō sī angulus ille accēdat (Hor. Sat. ii. 6. 8), oh! if that corner might only be added.

NOTE 1.—The subjunctive with util, etc., was originally deliberative, meaning how may 1, etc. (§ 268). The subjunctive with 5 si (poetical) is a protasis (§ 312, note); si alone is sometimes used to express a wish in the same way: as,—

sī nunc sē nobis ille aureus rāmus ostendat (Æn. vi. 187), if now that golden branch would only show itself to us!

NOTE 2.—The subjunctive of Wish without a particle is rarely found in the imperfect or pluperfect except by sequence of tenses in Indirect Discourse (§ 286): as,—

- ac venerata Ceres ita culmo surgeret alto (Hor. Sat. ii. 2. 124), and Ceres worshipped [with libations] that so she might rise with tall stalk. [Direct: ita surgas.]
- c. Velim and vellem, and their compounds, with a subjunctive or infinitive, are often equivalent to an optative subjunctive: as,
 - de Menedemo vellem verum fuisset, de regina velim verum sit (Att. iv. 16), about Menedemus I wish it had been true; about the queen I hope it may be.

nollem accidisset tempus (Fam. iii. 10), I wish the time never had come.
mallem Cerberum metueres (Tusc. i. 6), I had rather have had you afraid
of Cerberus (I should have preferred that you feared C.).

NOTE. — Velim, etc., in this use, are strictly apodoses with the protasis omitted (§ 311. b). The *thing wished* is really a substantive clause used as object of the verb of wishing (§ 331. b).

[For Concessive Subjunctive, see § 313; for Potential Subjunctive, see § 311.]

2, अ Deliberative Subjunctive.

268. The Subjunctive is used in questions implying (1) doubt, indignation, or (2) an impossibility of the thing being done: as,—

quid hoc homine facias? quod supplicium dignum libidini eius invenias (Verr. ii. 16), what are you to do with this man? what fit penalty can you devise for his wantonness?

an ego non venirem (Phil. ii. 2), what, should I not have come?

quid dicerem (Att. vi. 3), what was I to say?

mihi umquam bonorum praesidium defuturum putarem (Mil. 34), could I think that the defence of good men would ever fail me?

quis enim celaverit ignem (Ov. Her. xv. 7), who could conceal the flame?

REMARK.—This use is apparently derived from the Hortatory Subjunctive: quid faciamus? = faciamus [aliquid], quid? Let us do — what? Once established, it was readily transferred to the past: quid faciam? what AM I to do? quid facerem? what WAS I to do? Questions implying impossibility, however, cannot be distinguished from Apodosis (cf. § 305).

NOTE. - The Deliberative Subjunctive is sometimes called Dubitative.

III. THE IMPERATIVE.

269. The Imperative is used in Commands and Entreaties: as,—

consulite vobis, prospicite patriae, conservate vos (Cat. iv. 2), have a care for yourselves, guard the country, preserve yourselves.

die Marce Tulli sententiam, Marcus Tullius, state your opinion.

tē ipsum concute, examine yourself.

vive, valêque (Hor. Sat. ii. 5. 110), farewell, bless you (live and be well)! miserêre animî non dîgna ferentis (Æn. ii. 144), pity a soul bearing undeserved woes.

NOTE.—In Negative Commands (prohibitions) the Present Imperative with no is used by early writers and the poets: as,—

ne time (Plaut. Curc. 520), don't be afraid.

nimium ne crede colori (Ecl. ii. 17), trust not too much to complexion. equo ne credite (Æn. ii. 48), trust not the horse.

[For the Future Imperative with no in laws and formal precepts, see d. 3, below.]

- a. Prohibition is regularly expressed in classic prose:—
- 1. By ne with the second person of the Perfect Subjunctive: as, -

ne territus fueris (Tac. H. i. 16), don't be alarmed.

- në vos quidem iudices ei qui me absolvistis mortem timueritis (Tusc. i. 41), nor must you fear death, you judges that, etc.
- 2. By noll with the infinitive: as, -

noli putare (Fam. xiv. 2), do not suppose (be unwilling to suppose). nolite cogere socios (Verr. i. 82), do not compet the allies.

NOTE. — The poets frequently use instead of noll other words of similar meaning (cf. § 273. c): as,—

parce piās scelerāre manūs (Æn. iii. 42), forbear to defile your pious hands. cētera mītte loqui (Hor. Epod. 13. 7), forbear to say the rest. fuge quaerere (Hor. Od. i. 9. 13), do not inquire.

3. By cave with or without no (colloquially fac no) with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive (§ 266. b): as,—

cave putes (Att. vii. 20), don't think.

carners !! ::

cave dixeris, don't say so. cave faxis (Ter. Heaut. 187), don't do it.

fac ne quid aliud cures (Fam. xvi. 11), see that you attend to nothing else.

NOTE. — Other negatives sometimes take the place of no: as. —

non dubitaveris (Sen. Q. N. i. 3, 3), you must not doubt. nihil ignoveris (Mur. 65), grant no pardon (pardon nothing).

b. General Prohibitions addressed to no definite person are regularly expressed by the Present Subjunctive with nē (cf. c, below): as,—

denique isto bono ûtare dum adsit: cum absit ne requiras (Cat. Maj. 10), in short, use this good while present; when wanting, do not regret it.

NOTE.—The poets and early writers sometimes use the Present Subjunctive with no in prohibitions not general: as,—

molestus ne sis (Plaut. Most. 771), don't be troublesome. ne sis patruus mihi (Hor. Sat. ii. 3. 88), don't be a [harsh] uncle to me.

c. The third person of the imperative is antiquated or poetic: — ollis salus populi suprēma lêx estō, the safety of the people shall be their first law.

iusta imperia sunto, eisque cives modeste parento (Leg. iii. 3), let there be lawful authorities, and let the citizens strictly obey them.

NOTE.—In prose the Hortatory Subjunctive is commonly used instead (§ 266): as, hace igitur lex in amīcitiā sanciātur (Læl. 12), let this law then be laid down in case of friendship.

In prohibitions the Subjunctive with no is hortatory; that with cave is an object clause (originally hortatory, cf. § 331. f. Rem.).

- d. The Future Imperative is used in commands, etc., where there is a distinct reference to future time: viz.. —
- 1. In connection with some form that marks a condition precedent (as a future, a future-perfect, or an imperative). Thus,—

Phyllida mitte mihi, meus est nātālis, Iollā; cum faciam vitulā pro frūgibus ipse venīto (Ecl. iii. 76), send Phyllis to me, it is my birthday, Iollas; when I [shall] sacrifice a heifer for the harvest, come yourself.

dic quibus in terris, etc., et Phyllida solus habēto (id. iii. 107), tell in what lands, etc., and have Phyllis for yourself.

2. With adverbs or other expressions of Time: as, -

crās petito, dabitur (Pl. Merc. 769), ask to-morrow [and] it shall be given.

3. In general directions, as Precepts, Statutes, and Wills: as, -

cum valētūdinī consulueris, tum consulito navigationī (Fam xvi. 4), when you have attended to your health, then look to your sailing.

is iūris cīvīlis custos esto (Leg. iii. 3), let him (the prætor) be the guardian of civil right.

Borea flante, ne arato, semen ne iacito (Plin. H. N. xviii. 77), when the north wind blows, plough not nor sow your seed.

e. The verbs soio, memini, and habeo (in the sense of consider). regularly use the Future Imperative instead of the Present: as,—

filiolo me auctum scito (Att. i. 2), learn that I am blessed with a little boy. sic habeto, mi Tro (Fam. xvi. 4), so understand it, my good Tiro.

de palla memento, amabo (Pl. Asin.), pray, dear, remember about the gown.

f. The Future Indicative is sometimes used for the imperative; and quin (why not?) with the Present Indicative may have the force of a command: as,—

si quid acciderit novi, faciës ut sciam (Fam. xiv. 8), you will let me know if anything new happens.

quin accipis (Ter. Heaut. iv. 7)? here, take it (why not take it?).

g. Instead of the simple Imperative, cūrā, fac, or velim, followed by the subjunctive with or without ut (§ 331. f. R.) is often used, especially in colloquial language: as,—

cura ut Romae sis (Att. i. 2), take care to be at Rome.

fac cures ut ores (Ter. Eun. 500), do try to induce [him].

fac ut valētūdinėm cūrēs (Fam. xiv. 17), see that you take care of your health. [Cf. rūs eo. fac, amābo (Ter. Eun. 532), I'm going into the country. Do, please.

domī adsītis facite (id. 505), be at home, do.

eum mihi velim mittas (Att. viii. 11), I wish you would send it to me.

- h. In the Indirect Discourse all imperative forms of speech are represented by the Subjunctive (see § 339).
- i. The Imperative sometimes has the force of a Conditional Clause (see § 310. b).

IV. THE INFINITIVE.

NOTE. — The Infinitive is properly a noun denoting the action of the verb abstractly. It differs, however, from other abstract nouns in the following points: (1) it admits in many cases of the distinction of tense; (2) it is modified by adverbs, not by adjectives; (3) it governs the same case as its verb; (4) it is limited to special constructions.

The Latin Infinitive is the dative (or locative) case of such a noun and was originally used to denote Purpose; but it has in many constructions developed into

a substitute for a finite verb. Hence the variety of its use.

In its use as a verb, the Infinitive may take a Subject-Accusative (§ 240. f), originally the object of another verb on which the Infinitive depended. Thus iubeo to valore is literally, I command you for being well (cf. substantive clauses, § 330).

1. Infinitive as Subject, etc.

- 270. The Infinitive, with or without a subject-accusative, may be used with est and similar verbs (1) as the Subject, (2) in Apposition with the subject, or (3) as a Predicate Nominative. Thus, -
 - I. Subject: as, -

dolēre malum est (Fin. v. 28, 84), to suffer pain is an evil.

bellum est sua vitia nosse (Att. ii. 17), it's a fine thing to know one's own faults.

pulchrum est benefacere rei publicae (Sall. Cat. 3), it is a noble thing to benefit the state.

motos praestat componere fluctus (Æn. i. 135), it is better to calm the troubled waves.

hoc facere illum mihi quam prosit nescio (Att. ii. 1 6), I don't know how his doing this benefits me.

- 2. In Apposition with the Subject: as, —
- proinde quasi iniuriam facere id demum esset imperio uti (Sall. Cat. 12). just as if this, - to commit injustice, were to use power. [Here facere is in apposition with id.]
- 3. Predicate Nominative: as, -
- id est convenienter naturae vivere (Fin. iv. 15, 41), that is to live in conformity with nature. [Cf. ūtī in the last example.]
- NOTE 1.—An infinitive may also be used as Direct Object in connection with a Predicate Accusative, or as Appositive with such Direct Object: as, -

istuc ipsum non esse cum fueris miserrimum puto (Tusc. i. 6), for I think this very thing most wretched, not to be when one has been.

miserārī, invidēre, gestīre, laetārī, haec omnia morbos Graeci appellant (Tusc. iii. 4, 7), to feel pity, envy, desire, joy, — all these things the Greeks call diseases.

NOTE 2.—An Appositive or Predicate noun used with an infinitive in any of these constructions is put in the Accusative, whether the infinitive has a subject expressed or not. Thus,—

- non esse cupidum pecunia (Parad. 63), to be free from desires (not to be desirous) is money in hand.
- a. 1. The infinitive as subject is not common except with est and similar verbs. (See examples above.)

NOTE. — In this use the abstract idea expressed by the infinitive is represented as having some quality or belonging to some thing.

- 2. But occasionally, especially in less careful writers and in poetry, the infinitive is used as the subject of verbs which are apparently more active in meaning: as,
 - quos omnis eadem cupere, eadem odisse, eadem metuere in unum coegit (Jug. 31), all of whom the fact of desiring, hating, and fearing the same things has united into one.

ingenuas didicisso fideliter artes emollit mores (Ov. ex P. ii. 9. 48), faithfully to have learned liberal arts softens the manners.

posse loqui eripitur (Ov. M. ii. 483), the power of speech is taken away.

non cadit invidere in sapientem (Tusc. iii. 10, 21), the sage is not liable to
envy (to envy does not fall upon the sage).

istuc nihil dolēre non sine māgnā mercēde contingit (Tusc. iii. 6, 12), that apathy is not to be had except at great cost (does not fall to one's lot).

b. The infinitive is used with many impersonal verbs and expressions, partly as subject and partly as complementary infinitive (§ 271).

Such are libet, licet, oportet, decet, placet, vīsum est, pudet, piget, necesse est, opus est, etc.

id primum in poētis cernī licet (De Or. iii. 7), this may be seen first in poets.

reperiebat quid dīcī opus esset (Brut. 59), he found what needed to be said. haec praescripta servantem licet magnifice vīvere (Off. i. 26), one who observes these precepts may live nobly.

Catō negat iūs esse qui mīles non sit pūgnāre cum hoste (Off. i. 11), Cato says it is not right that one who is not a soldier should fight with the enemy.

necesse est morī (Tusc. ii. 1), it is necessary to die.

quid attinet gloriose loqui nisi constanter loquare (Fin. ii. 27, 89), what good does it do to talk boastfully unless you speak consistently?

non lubet enim mihi deplorare vitam (Cat. Maj. 23, 84), for it does not please me to lament my life.

neque me vixisse paenitet (id. 23, 84), I do not feel sorry to have lived. iam pridem gubernare me taedebat (Att. ii. 7, 4), I had long been tired of being pilot.

NOTE 1.—These are not generally real cases of the infinitive used as subject, but approach that construction,

NOTE 2.—For the subject of such infinitives, and for predicate nouns or adjectives agreeing with the subject, see $\S\S\ 271.\ c,\ 272.\ a$.

c. Rarely the infinitive is used exactly like the accusative of a noun: as,—

beate vivere alii in alio, vos in voluptate ponitis (Fin. ii. 27, 86), a happy life different [philosophers] base on different things, you on pleasure.

quam multa . . . facimus causa amicorum, precarī ab indigno, supplicare etc. (Læl. 16, 57), how many things we do for our friends' sake, ask favors from an unworthy person, resort to entreaty, etc.

nihil exploratum habeas, ne amare quidem aut amarî (Læl. 26, 97), you have nothing assured, not even loving and being loved.

NOTE. — Many complementary and other constructions approach a proper accusative use of the infinitive, but their development has been different from that of the examples under c. Thus, —

avāritia . . . superbiam, crūdēlitātem, deōs neglegere, omnia vēnālia habēre ēdocuit (Sall. Cat. 10), avarice taught pride, cruelty, to neglect the gods, and to hold everything at a price.

2. Complementary Infinitive.

271. Verbs which imply another action of the same subject to complete their meaning take the infinitive without a subject-accusative: as,—

hoc queo dicere (Cat. Maj. 10), this I can say.

mītto quaerere (Rosc. Am.), I omit to ask.

vereor laudare praesentem (N. D. i. 21), I fear to praise a man to his face (one who is present).

oro ut matures venire (Att. iv. 1), I beg you will make haste to come.

oblivisci non possum quae volo (Fin. ii. 32, 104), I cannot forget that which I wish.

desine me id docere (Tusc. ii. 12, 29), cease to teach me that.

audeo dicere, I venture to say.

loqui posse coepi (Cic.), I began to be able to speak.

Such are verbs denoting to be able, dare, undertake, remember, forget, be accustomed, begin, continue, cease, hesitate, learn, know how, fear, and the like.

NOTE.—The mark of this construction is that no Subject of these infinitives is in general admissible or conceivable. But some infinitives usually regarded as objects can hardly be distinguished from this construction when they have no subject expressed. Thus volo dicere and volo me dicere mean the same thing, I wish to speak; but the latter is object-infinitive, while the former is not apparently different in origin and construction from queo dicere (complementary infinitive), and again volo eum dicere, I wish him to speak, is essentially different from either.

a. Many verbs take either a subjunctive clause or a complementary infinitive, without difference of meaning. Such are verbs signifying willingness, necessity, propriety, resolve, command, prohibition, effort, and the like (cf. § 331): as,—

student excellere (Off. i. 32), they aim to excel.

cum statuissem scribere ad te aliquid (Off. i. 2), when I had resolved to address something to you.

istum exheredare in animo habebat (Rosc. Am. 18), he had it in mind to deprive him of the inheritance.

NOTE 1.—With some of these verbs an infinitive with subject-accusative may be used as *object*, taking the place of a *complementary* infinitive. In this use the subject of the infinitive and that of the main verb are of course the same. Thus,—

cupio me esse clementem (Cat. i. 2) = cupio esse clemens, I desire to be merciful (cf. § 331. b, note).

NOTE 2.—Some verbs of these classes never take the subjunctive, but are identical in meaning with others which do: as,—

quos tueri debent deserunt (Off. i. 2), they forsake those whom they should protect.

non lubet fugere aveo pugnare (Att. xviii. 3), I have no desire to run away, I'm anxious to fight.

b. Some verbs of these classes—iubeō and vetō regularly—may take (as object) the infinitive with a subject 1 different from that of the main verb (see § 331. a): as,—

sīgna înferrī iubet (Liv. xlii. 59), he orders the standards to be advanced. Pompēius ... rem ad arma dēdūcī studēbat (B. C. i. 4), Pompey was anxious to have matters come to open war.

c. A Predicate Noun or Adjective after a complementary infinitive takes the case of the subject of the main verb: as,—

fierique studêbam ēius prūdentiā doctior (Læl. 1, 1), I was eager to become more wise through his wisdom.

¹ This construction, though in many cases different from the two preceding shades off imperceptibly into them. In none of the uses under § 271 is the infinitive strictly Subject or Object; but its meaning is developed from the original one of purpose (cf. § 273. a).

scio quam soleas esse occupatus (Fam. xvi. 21), I know how busy you usually are (are wont to be).

brevis esse laboro obscurus fio (Hor. A. P. 25), I struggle to be brief, I become obscure.

NOTE. — If the construction of the main verb is impersonal, a predicate noun or adjective is in the accusative (but for licet, etc., see § 272. a. 2). Thus, —

peregrīni officium est minimē in aliēnā esse rēpūblicā cūriōsum (Off. i. 34), it is the duty of a stranger to be by no means curious in a foreign state.

d. For the infinitive in poetry instead of a substantive clause of purpose, see § 331. g.

3. Infinitive with Subject-Accusative.

272. The Infinitive, with Subject-Accusative, is used with verbs and other expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (Indirect Discourse, § 336): 1 as,—

dicit montem ab hostibus tenērī (B. G. i. 22), he says that the hill is held by the enemy. [Direct: mons ab hostibus tenētur.]

REMARK.—The Infinitive Clause may be—1. the Direct Object of the verb: as, Caesarem adesse nuntiavit, he reported that Casar was present; 2. the Subject of the same verb in the passive: as, Caesarem adesse nuntiatum est, it was reported that Casar was present; 3. the Predicate Nominative after some such phrase as rumor est: as, rumor erat Caesarem adesse, there was a report that Casar was present.

- a. 1. With certain impersonal verbs and expressions that take the infinitive as an apparent subject (§ 270. b), the personal subject of the action may be expressed
 - 1. By a dative, depending on the verb or verbal phrase: or,
 - 2. By an accusative expressed as the subject of the infinitive. Thus, rogant ut id sibi facere liceat (B. G. i. 7), they ask that it be allowed them to do this.
 - si licet vivere eum quem Sex. Naevius non volt (Quinct. 94), if it is allowed a man to live against the will of Sextus Nævius (whom S. N. does not wish).
 - quid est tam secundum natūram quam senibus emori (Cat. Maj. 19, 71), what is so much in accordance with nature as for old men to die? exstingui hominī suo tempore optabile est (id. 23, 86), it is desirable for a man to die at the appointed time.
- 2. With licet regularly, and other verbs occasionally, a predicate noun or adjective following the infinitive may be in the dative: as,—

¹ The Infinitive may thus represent, in *indirect discourse*, a finite verb in *direct discourse*, admitting all the variations of the verb except number and person.

licuit esse ötiösö Themistocli (Tusc. î. 15, 33), Themistocles might have been inactive (it was allowed to T. to be inactive).

mihi neglegenti esse non licet (Att. i. 17), I must not be negligent. [But also neglegentem.]

cur his esse liberos non licet (Flacc. 71), why is it not allowed these men to be free?

non est stantibus omnibus necesse dicere (Marc. 11), it is not necessary for all to speak standing.

expedit bonas esse vobis (Ter. Heaut. ii. 4, 8), it is for your advantage to be good.

mediocribus esse poëtis non homines non di concessere (Hor. A. P. 372), neither gods nor men have granted to ordinary men to be poets.

NOTE.—When the subject is not expressed, as being indefinite (one, anybody), a predicate noun or adjective must be in the accusative (cf. § 271. c. note): as,—

vel pace vel bello clarum fieri licet (Sall. Cat. 3), one can become illustrious either in peace or in war.

b. In poetry, by a Greek idiom, a Predicate Noun or Adjective in the indirect discourse sometimes agrees with the subject of the main verb: as,—

vir bonus et sapiëns ait esse parātus (Hor. Ep. i. 7), a good and wise man says he is prepared, etc. [In prose: ait sē esse parātum.] sēnsit mediōs dēlāpsus in hostēs (Æn. ii. 377), he found himself fallen among the foe. [In prose: sē esse dēlāpsum.]

4. Infinitive of Purpose.

- 273. In a few cases the Infinitive retains its original meaning of Purpose.
- a. The infinitive is used after habeō, dō, ministrō, in isolated passages instead of a subjunctive clause: as,—

tantum habeō pollicērī (Fam. i. 5), so much I have to promise. [Here the more formal construction would be quod pollicear.] ut Iovi bibere ministrāret (Tusc. i. 26), to serve Jove with wine (to drink), merīdiē bibere datō (Cato R. R. 89), give (to) drink at noonday.

b. Parātus, suētus and their compounds (used as adjectives) take the infinitive, like the verbs from which they come: as,—

id quod parati sunt facere (Quin. 2), that which they are ready to do. adsuefacti superari (B. G. vi. 24), used to being conquered. curru succedere sueti (Æn. iii. 541), accustomed to being harnessed to the chariot.

copias bellare consuctas (B. Afr. 73), forces used to fighting.

NOTE.—These words more commonly in prose take the gerund or gerundive construction (§ 296 ff.) either in the Dative, the Genitive, or the Accusative with ad. Thus.—

alendis liberis sueti (Tac. Ann. xiv. 27), accustomed to supporting children. insuetus navigandi (B. C. iii. 49), unused to making voyages. corpora insueta ad onera portanda (id. i. 78), bodies unaccustomed to carry burdens.

c. In poetry and later writers almost any verb may have the infinitive, after the analogy of verbs of more literal meaning that take it in prose: as,—

furit te reperire (Hor. Od. i. 15. 27), he rages to find thee. [A forcible way of saying cupit (§ 271. a).]

saevit exstinguere nomen (Ov. M. i. 200), he rages to blot out the name. fuge quaerere (Hor. Od. i. 9. 13) forbear to ask (cf. § 269. a. 2. note). parce scelerare (Æn. iii. 42), forbear to pollute.

d. Many adjectives take the infinitive in poetry following a Greek idiom: as.—

dūrus componere versūs (Hor. Sat. i. 4. 8), harsh in composing verse. cantārī dīgnus (Ecl. v. 54), worthy to be sung. [In prose: quī cantātur] fortis trāctāre serpentis (Hor. Od. i. 37. 26), brave to handle serpents. periti cantāre (Ecl. x. 32), skilled in song. facilēs aurem praebēre (Prop. ii. 21. 15), ready to lend an ear. nescia vincī pectora (Æn. xii. 527), hearts not knowing how to yield. tē vidēre aegrōtī (Plaut. Trin. 75), sick of seeing you.

e. The poets and early writers often use the infinitive to express purpose when there is no analogy with any prose construction: as,—

loricam donat habere viro (Æn. v. 262), he gives the hero a breastplate to wear. [In prose: habendam.]

filius tum introiit videre quid agat (Ter. Hec. iii. 2, 10), the son then went in to see what, etc. [In prose: the supine visum.]

non ferro Libycos populare Penates venimus (An. i. 527), we have not come to lay waste with the sword the Libyan homes.

NOTE. -So rarely in prose writers of the classic period.

f. For the infinitive used instead of a substantive clause of purpose, see § 331. a-g.

Note. — For tempus est abire, see § 298, note.

g. Rarely in poetry the infinitive is used to express result: as, -

fingit equum tenera docilem cervice magister ire viam, etc. (Hor. Ep. i. 2. 64), makes the horse gentle so as to go, etc.

hic levare ... pauperem laboribus vocatus audit (Hor. Od. ii. 18. 38), he when called, hears, so as to relieve. etc.

NOTE. — These poetic constructions (\$\rightarrow\$_0\$) were no doubt originally regular and belong to the Infinitive as a noun in the Dative or Locative case (p. 283, head-note). They had been supplanted, however, by other more formal constructions, and were afterwards restored through Greek influence.

h. In late or poetic usage the infinitive occasionally occurs as a pure noun limited by a possessive or other adjective: as,—

nostrum vivere (Pers. Sat. i. 9), our life (to live). scire tuum (id. 27), your knowledge (to know).

5. Exclamatory Infinitive.

274. The Infinitive, with subject-accusative, may be used in Exclamations (cf. § 240. d): as,—

te in tantas aerumnas propter me incidisse (Fam. xiv. 1), alas! that you should have fallen into such grief for me.

mēne incepto desistere victam (Æn. i. 37), what! I beaten desist from my purpose?

NOTE. — The Present and the Perfect Infinitive are used in this construction with their ordinary distinction of time.

6. Historical Infinitive.

275. The Infinitive is often used for the Imperfect Indicative in narration, and takes a subject in the nominative: as,—

tum Catilina pollicērī novās tabulās (Sall. Cat. 21), then Catiline promised abolition of debts (clean ledgers).

ego instare ut mihi responderet (Verr. ii. 77), I kept urging him to answer me.

pars cēdere, alii însequi; neque signa neque ordines servare; ubi quemque periculum ceperat, ibi resistere ac propulsare; arma, tela, equi, viri, hostes atque cives permixti; nihil consilio neque imperio agi; fors omnia regere (Jug. 51), a part give way, others press on; they hold neither to standards nor ranks; where danger overtook, there each would stand and fight; arms, weapons, horses, men, foe and friend, mingled in confusion; nothing went by counsel or command; chance ruled all.

NOTE. — This construction is not strictly historical, but rather descriptive, and is never used to state a mere historical fact.

¹ This construction is elliptical; that is, the thought is quoted in Indirect Discourse, though no verb of *saying*, etc., appears, or perhaps is thought of (compare the French *dire que*). Passages like hancine ego ad rem nātam miseram mē memorābō (Plaut. Rud. 188)? point to the origin of the construction.

II. - TENSES.

NOTE.—The number of possible Tenses is very great. For in each of the three times, Present, Past, and Future, an action may be represented as going on, completed, or beginning; as habitual or isolated; as defined in time or indefinite (aoristic); as determined with reference to the time of the speaker, or as not itself so determined but as relative to some time which is determined; and the past and future times may be near or remote. Thus a scheme of thirty or more tenses might be devised.

But, in the development of forms, which always takes place gradually, no language finds occasion for more than a small part of these. The most obvious distinctions, according to our habits of thought, appear in the following scheme:—

L. DEFINITE (fixing the time of the action).

NCOMPLETE.

PRESENT: a. I am writing.

A. I was writing.

B. I was writing.

FUTURE: 7. I shall be writing.

C. I shall have written.

C. I shall have written.

C. I shall have written.

C. I shall write.

Most languages disregard some of these distinctions, and some make other distinctions not here given. The Indo-European parent speech had a Present tense to express α and η , a Perfect to express δ , an Aorist to express θ , a Future to express γ and ι , and an Imperfect to express β . The Latin, however, confounded the Perfect and Aorist in a single form (the Perfect scripes), thus losing all distinction of form between δ and θ and probably in a great degree the distinction of meaning. The nature of this confusion may be seen by comparing dixi, dicāvi, and didici (all Perfects derived from the same root, DIC), with $\delta \delta \epsilon \iota \xi \alpha$, Skr. adiksham, $\delta \delta \delta \epsilon \iota \chi \alpha$, Skr. dideça. Latin also developed two new forms, those for ϵ (scripseram) and ζ (scripser δ), and thus possessed six tenses, as seen in δ 115.

The lines between these six tenses in Latin are not hard and fast, nor are they precisely the same that we draw in English. Thus in many verbs the form corresponding to I have written (δ) is used for those corresponding to I an writing (a) and I write (η) in a slightly different sense, and the form corresponding to I had written (ϵ) is used in like manner for that corresponding to I was writing (β) . Again, the Latin often uses the form for I shall have written (ζ) instead of that for I shall write (i). Thus novI, I have learned, is used for I know; constituent, he had taken his position, for he stood; cognovero, I shall have learned, for I shall be aware.

I. Tenses of Incomplete Action.

1. Present (General Use).

276. The Present Tense denotes an action or state (1) as now taking place or existing; and so (2) as incomplete in present time, or (3) as indefinite, referring to no particular time, but denoting a general truth. Thus,—

senātus haec intelligit, consul videt, hic tamen vivit (Cat. i. 1), the Senate knows this, the consul sees it, yet this man lives.

etiam nunc mē ducere istis dictis postulās (Ter. And. 644), even now you are expecting, etc.

tibi concedo meas sedes (Div. i. 46, 104), I give you my seat (an offer which may or may not be accepted).

exspecto quid velis (Ter. And. 34), I await your pleasure (what you

wish).

- tū actionem instituis, ille aciem instruit (Mur. 9), you arrange a case, he arrays an army. [The present is here used of regular employment.]
- minora di neglegunt (N. D. iii. 35, 86), the gods disregard trifles. [Of a general truth.]
- obsequium amicos, vēritās odium parit (Ter. And. 68), flattery gains friends, truth hatred. [General truth.]
- a. The Present, with expressions of duration of time, especially iam did, iam dddum, denotes an action continuing in the present, but begun in the past (cf. § 277. b): as,
 - iam diū īgnoro quid agas (Fam. vii. 9), for a long time I have not known what you are doing.

te iam dudum hortor (Cat. i. 5, 12), I have long urged you.

patimur iam multos annos (Verr. vi. 48), we suffer now these many years.

[The perfect would imply, we no longer suffer.]

anni sunt octo cum ista causa versatur (Clu. 30), it is now eight years that this case has been in hand.

annum iam audis Cratippum (Off. i. 1), for a year you've been a hearer of Cratippus.

NOTE 1.—In this use the present is commonly to be rendered by the perfect in English. The difference in the two idioms is that the English states the beginning and leaves the continuance to be inferred, while the Latin states the continuance and leaves the beginning to be inferred. Compare: he has long suffered (and still suffers) with h: still suffers (and has suffered) long.

NOTE 2. — Similarly the Present Imperative with fam dudum indicates that the action commanded ought to have been done or was wished for long ago (cf. the

Perfect Imperative in Greek): as,-

iam dudum sumite poenas (Æn. ii. 103), exact the penalty long delayed.

b. The Present sometimes denotes an action attempted or begun in present time, but never completed at all (Conative Present, cf. § 277. c): as,—

iam iamque manū tenet (Æn. ii. 530), and now, even now, he attempts to grasp him.

densos fertur in hostis (id. i. 511), he starts to rush into the thickest of the

- dēcernō quinquāgintā diērum supplicātionēs (Phil. xiv. 11), I move for fifty days' thanksgiving. [Cf. senātus dēcrēvit, the senate ordained.]
- c. The Present, especially in colloquial language and poetry, is often used for the Future: as. —

imusne sessum (De Or. iii. 5), shall we take a seat? (are we going to sit?)

haud mūto factum (Ter. And. 40), I do not wish to change it (I am not trying to change).

quod si fit pereo funditus (id. 244), if this happens, I am utterly undone. hodie uxorem ducis (id. 321), are you to be married to-day?

abin hinc in malam rem (id. 317), will you be off? go and be hanged!

si pereo hominum manibus periisse iuvabit (Æn. iii. 606), if I perish, it will be pleasant to perish at the hands of men (cf. § 307. a, note).

ecquid me adiuvas (Clu. 26), won't you give me a little help?

in ius voco te. non eo. non is (Pl. As. 480)? I summon you to the court. I won't go. You won't?

NOTE. — E5 and its compounds are especially frequent in this use. (Cf. where are you going to-morrow? and the Greek $\epsilon l\mu$ in a future sense.)

REMARK.—For other uses of the Present in a future sense, see under Conditions (§ 307), cum (§ 328), antequam (§ 327. a), dum (§ 328), and the Deliberative Subjunctive (§ 268).

2. Historical Present.

d. The Present in lively narrative is often used for the Historical Perfect (Historical Present): as,—

affertur nūntius Syrācūsās; curritur ad praetōrium; Cleomenēs, quamquam nox erat, tamen in pūblicō esse nōn audet; inclūdit sē domi (Verr. vi. 35), the news is brought to Syracuse; they run to headquarters; Cleomones, though it was night, does not venture to be abroad; he shuts himself up at home.

NOTE.—This usage, common in all languages, comes from imagining past events as going on before our eyes (repraesentātiā).

3. Present with dum.

e. Dum, while, regularly takes the Present Indicative in reference to past events.

In translating, the English imperfect must generally be used. Thus, —

haec dum aguntur, interea Cleomenes iam ad Elori litus pervenerat (Verr. vi. 35), while this was going on, Cleomenes meanwhile had come down to the coast at Elorum.

hoc dum narrat, forte audivi (Ter. Heaut. 272), I happened to hear this while she was telling it.

NOTE.—A past tense with dum (usually so long as) makes the time emphatic by contrast. But a few irregular cases of dum with a past tense occur where no contrast is intended. Thus,—

nec enim dum eram vobiscum animum meum videbātis (Cat. Maj. 22), while I was with you, you couldn't see my soul. [Here the time when he was alive is contrasted with that after his death.]

coorta est pugna, par dum constabant ordines (Liv. xxii. 47), a conflict began, well matched as long as the ranks stood firm.

But, - dum oculos hostium certamen averterat (id. xxxii. 24), while the struggle kept the eyes of the enemy turned away.

dum unum adscendere gradum conatus est, venit in periculum (Mur. 27), while he attempted to climb one step [in rank] he fell into danger.

f. The present is regularly used in quoting writers whose works are extant: as. —

Epicurus vēro ea dīcit (Tusc. ii. 7), but Epicurus says such things. apud illum Ulixēs lāmentātur in vulnere (id. 21), in him (Sophocles)

Ulysses bewails over his wound.

Polyphémum Homérus cum ariete colloquentem facit (Tusc. v. 39, 115),

Homer brings in (makes) Polyphemus talking with his ram.

4. Imperfect.

277. The Imperfect denotes an action or a state as continued or repeated in past time: as,—

hunc audiebant antea (Man. 5), they used to hear of him before.

Socrates ita consobat itaque disseruit (Tusc. i. 30), Socrates thought so (habitually), and so he spoke (then).

prūdēns esse putābātur (Læl. 2, 6), he was (generally) thought wise. [The perfect would refer to some particular case, and not to a state of things.]

iamque rubēscēbat Aurora (Æn. iii. 521), and now the dawn was blushing. ara vetus stabat (Ov. M. vii. 1), an old altar stood there.

NOTE.—The Imperfect is a descriptive tense and denotes an action conceived as in progress or a state of things as actually observed. Hence in many verbs it does not differ in meaning from the Perfect. Thus rex erat and rex fult may often be used indifferently; but the former describes the condition while the latter only states it. The English is less exact in distinguishing these two modes of statement. Hence the Latin Imperfect is often translated by the English Preterite. Thus:—

Aedui graviter ferebant, neque legatos ad Caesarem mittere audebant (B. G. v. 6), the Ædui were displeased, and did not dare, etc. [Here the Imperfects describe the state of things.] But,—

id tulit factum graviter Indutiomarus (id. v. 4), Indutiomarus was displeased, etc. [Here the Perfect merely states the fact.]

aedificia vicosque habebant (id. iv. 4), they had buildings and villages.

REMARK.—The Imperfect represents a present tense transferred to past time. Hence all the meanings which the present has derived from the continuance of the action, belong also to the imperfect in reference to past time (see details below).

a. The Imperfect is used in descriptions: as, -

erant omnino itinera duo ... mons altissimus impendebat (B. G. i. 6), there were in all two ways ... a very high mountain overhung.

b. With iam did, iam dddum, and other expressions of duration of time, the Imperfect denotes an action continuing in the past but begun at some previous time (cf. \S 115. a. 2): as,—

iam dūdum flēbam (Ov. M. iii. 656), I had been weeping for a long time. copias quas diū comparabant (Fam. x. 13), the forces which they had long been getting ready.

NOTE.—In this construction the Imperfect is rendered by the English Pluperfect. Compare the Present in similar phrases (\S 276. a).

c. The Imperfect sometimes denotes an action as begun (*Inceptive Imperfect*), or as attempted or only intended (*Conative Imperfect*) (cf. § 276. b): as,—

in exsilium ēiciēbam quem iam ingressum esse in bellum vidēbam (Cat. ii. 6), was I sending (i.e. trying to send) into exile one who I saw had already gone into war?

hunc igitur diem sibi proponens Milo, cruentis manibus ad illa augusta centuriarum auspicia veniebat (Mil. 16), was Milo coming (i.e. was it likely that he would come), etc.?

si licitum esset veniēbant (Verr. vi. 49), they were coming if it had been allowed (they were on the point of coming, and would have done so if, etc.).

NOTE.—To this head may be referred the imperfect with iam, denoting the beginning of an action or state: as,—

iamque arva tenēbant ūltima (Æn. vi. 477), and now they were just getting to the farthest fields.

d. The Imperfect is sometimes used to express a surprise at the present discovery of a fact already existing: as,—

O tu quoque hic aderas (Ter. Ph. 858), oh! you are here too. ehem pater mi, tu hic eras (Plaut.), what! you here, father?

āh miser! quantā laborābās Charybdi (Hor. Od. i. 27. 19), unhappy boy, what a whirlpool you are struggling in [and I never knew it]!

e. The Imperfect is often used in dialogue by the comic poets where later writers would employ the Perfect: as,—

ad amicum Calliclem quoi rem aībat mandāsse hīc suam (Plaut. Trin. 956), to his friend Callicles, to whom, he said, he had intrusted his property. praesāgībat animus frūstrā mē îre quom exībam domō (Plaut. Aul. 222), my mind mistrusted when I went from home that I went in vain.

NOTE.—So also, in conversation, the imperfect of verbs of saying (cf. as I was a-saying): as,—

at medici quoque, ita enim dicebas, saepe falluntur (N. D. iii. 6, 15), for that was what you were saying just now.

haec mihi fere in mentem veniābant (id. ii. 67, 168), this is about what occurred to me, etc. [In a straightforward narration this would be vēnērunt.]

- f. For the Imperfect Indicative in apodosis contrary to fact, see § 308. b.
- g. The Imperfect with negative words often has the force of the English auxiliary could or would: as,
 - itaque (Dāmoclēs) nec pulchrōs illōs ministrātōrēs adspiciēbat (Tusc. v. 21, 6), therefore he could not look upon those beautiful slaves. [In this case did not would not express the idea of continued prevention of enjoyment by the overhanging sword.]

nec enim dum eram võbīscum animum meum vidēbātis (Cat. Maj. 22, 79), for, you know, while I was with you, you could not see my soul. [Here

the Perfect would refer only to one moment.]

A. For the Epistolary Imperfect, see § 282.

5. Future.

- 278. The Future denotes an action or state that will occur hereafter.
- a. The Future sometimes has the force of an Imperative (see § 269. f).
- b. The Future is often required in a subordinate clause in Latin where in English futurity is sufficiently expressed by the main clause: as,—

cum aderit vidēbit, when he is there he will see (cf. § 325. e). sānābimur sī volēmus (Tusc. iii. 6), we shall be healed if we wish (cf. § 307. a).

II. THE TENSES OF COMPLETED ACTION.

1. Perfect.

- 279. The Perfect denotes an action either as now completed (Perfect Definite), or as having taken place at some undefined point of past time (Historical or Aoristic Perfect). Thus,—
- (1) ut ego fēcī, qui Graecās litterās senex didicī (Cat. Maj. 8), as I have done, who have learned Greek in my old age.

diuturni silenti finem hodiernus dies attulit (Marc. 1), this day has put an end to my long-continued silence.

(2) tantum bellum extrema hieme apparavit, ineunte vere suscepit, media aestate confecit (Man. 12), so great a war he made ready for at the end of winter, undertook in early spring, and finished by midsummer.

NOTE. — The distinction between these two uses of the perfect, which is represented by two forms in most other Indo-European languages, was almost if not wholly lost to the minds of the Romans. It must be noticed, however, on account of the marked distinction in English (see also \S 115. ϵ).

- a. The perfect is sometimes used emphatically to denote that a thing or condition of things that once existed no longer exists: as,
 - fuit ista quondam in hac re publica virtus (Cat. i. 1), there was once such virtue in this commonwealth.
 - habuit, non habet (Tusc. i. 36), he had, he has no longer.
 - filium habeō... immō habuī; nunc habeam necne incertumst (Ter. Heaut. 92), I have a son, no, I had one; whether I have one now or not is uncertain.
 - fuimus Trões, fuit Îlium (Æn. ii. 325), we have ceased to be Trojans, Troy is no more.
- b. The Indefinite Present, denoting a customary action or a general truth (§ 276), often has the Perfect in a subordinate clause referring to time antecedent to that of the main clause: as,
 - qui in compedibus corporis semper fuerunt, etiam cum solūti sunt tardius ingrediuntur (Tusc. i. 31), they who have always been in the fetters of the body, even when released move more slowly.
 - haec morte effugiuntur, etiam si non evenerunt, tamen quia possunt evenire (id. 36), these things are escaped by death even if they have not [yet] happened, etc.
 - simul ac mihi collibitum est, praesto est imago (N. D. i. 38), as soon as I have taken a fancy, the image is before my eyes.
- NOTE. This use of the perfect is especially common in the protasis of general conditions in present time (\S 309. ϵ).
- c. The perfect is sometimes used of a general truth, especially with negatives (Gnomic Perfect): as,
 - qui studet contingere metam multa tulit fecitque (Hor. A. P. 412), he who aims to reach the goal, first bears and does many things.
 - non aeris acervus et auri deduxit corpore febres (id. Ep. i. 2, 47), the pile of brass and gold removes not fever from the frame.
- NOTE. The gnomic perfect strictly refers to past time; but its use implies that something which never did happen in any known case, never does happen, and never will (cf. the English "Faint heart never won fair lady"); or without a negative that what has once happened will always happen under similar circumstances.
- d. The Perfect is often used in expressions containing or implying a negation, where in affirmation the Imperfect would be preferred: as,
 - dicebat melius quam scripsit Hortensius (Or. 38), Hortensius spoke better than he wrote. [Here the negative is implied in the comparison: compare the use of quisquam, ūllus, etc. (§ 202. c), and the French ne after comparatives and superlatives.]
- e. The completed tenses of some verbs are equivalent to the incomplete tenses of verbs of kindred meaning.

Such are the preteritive verbs odi, I hate; memini, I remember; novi, I know; consuovi, I am accustomed, with others used preteritively, as vonerat (= aderat, he was at hand, etc.) (see § 143, note). Thus,—

qui dies aestus maximos efficere consuevit (B. G. iv. 29), which day generally makes the highest tides (is accustomed to make).

cūius splendor obsolēvit (Quinc. v. 18), whose splendor is now all faded (has become old).

REMARK. - Many other verbs are occasionally so used: as, -

dum oculos certamen averterat (Liv. xxxii. 24), while the contest had turned their eyes (kept them turned). [Here averterat = tenebat.]

2. Pluperfect.

- 280. The Pluperfect is used (1) to denote an action or state *completed* in past time; or (2) sometimes to denote an action in indefinite time, but prior to some past time referred to: as,—
- (1) loci natura erat haec, quem locum nostri castris delegerant (B.G. ii. 18), this was the nature of the ground which our men had chosen for a camp.

Viridovix summam imperi tenebat earum omnium civitatum quae defecerant (id. iii. 17), Viridovix held the chief command of all those tribes which had revolted.

(2) neque vero cum aliquid mandaverat confectum putabat (Cat. iii. 7), but when he had given a thing in charge he did not look on it as done.

- quae si quando adepta est id quod ei fuerat concupitum, tum fert alacritatem (Tusc. iv. 15), if it (desire) ever has gained what it had [previously] desired, then it produces joy.
- a. For the Epistolary Pluperfect, see § 282.

3. Future Perfect.

281. The Future Perfect denotes an action as completed in the future: as,—

ut sēmentem fēceris, ita metēs (Or. ii. 65), as you sow (shall have sown), so shall you reap.

carmina tum melius cum vonerit ipse canemus (Ecl. ix. 67), then shall we sing our songs better, when he himself has come.

sī illīus īnsidiae clāriōrēs hāc lūce fuerint tum dēnique obsecrābō (Mil. 2, 6), when the plots of that man have been shown to be as clear as daylight, then, and not till then, shall I conjure you.

¹ Cf. dētestor, reminiscor, sciō, soleō.

ego certe meum officium praestitero (B. G. iv. 25), I at least will have done my duty (i.e. when the time comes to reckon up the matter, I will be found to have done it, whatever the event).

REMARK. — The Future Perfect is used with much greater exactness in Latin than in English, and may even be used instead of the Future, from the fondness of the Latins for representing an action as completed: as, —

quid inventum sit paulo post videro (Acad. ii. 24), what has been found out I will see presently.

qui Antonium oppresserit bellum taeterrimum confecerit (Fam. x. 19), whoever crushes (shall have crushed) Antony will finish (will have finished) a most loathsome war.

NOTE. - For the future perfect in future conditions, see § 307. c.

III. EPISTOLARY TENSES.

282. In Letters, the Perfect Historical or the Imperfect may be used for the present, and the Pluperfect for any past tense, as if the letter were *dated* at the time it is supposed to be *received*: as,—

neque tamen, cum hace scrībēbam, eram nescius quantis oneribus premerēre (Fam. v. 12), nor while I write this am I ignorant under what burdens you are weighed down.

ad tuas omnes [epistulas] rescripseram pridie (Att. ix. 10), I [have] answered all your letters yesterday.

cum quod scrīberem ad tē, nihil haberem, tamen hās dedī litterās (Att. ix. 16), though I have nothing to write you, still I write this letter.

NOTE.—In this use these tenses are called the Epistolary Imperfect and Pluperfect. The epistolary tenses are not used with any uniformity, but only when attention is particularly directed to the *time of writing*. (So especially scrībēbam, dabam, etc.).

IV. Tenses of the Subjunctive.

- 283. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Independent Clauses denote time in relation to the time of the speaker. The Present always refers to future time, the Imperfect to either past or present, the Perfect to either future or past, the Pluperfect always to past.
- 284. In Dependent Clauses the tenses of the Subjunctive were habitually used in certain fixed connections determined by the time of the main verb and the time of the dependent verb together.

NOTE. - The tenses of the Subjunctive were originally used in Dependent clauses (as in Independent), each with its own time in relation to the point of view of the speaker; but in consequence of the natural tendency of language to refer all the parts of a complex sentence to one time, - namely, that of the speaker, - the connections in which these tenses were used became fixed. Hence the rules for the Sequence of Tenses. These are by no means rigid, but allow many varieties, as is natural from their origin.

Sequence of Tenses.

285. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Dependent clauses follow special rules for the SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

With reference to these rules all tenses when used in Independent clauses are divided into two classes, - primary and secondary.

1. PRIMARY. The primary tenses include all forms that express present or future time. These are the Present, Future, and Future Perfect Indicative, the Present and Perfect Subjunctive, and the Present and Future Imperative

NOTE. — The Perfect Definite is sometimes treated as primary, but see § 287. a.

2. SECONDARY. The secondary tenses include all forms that refer to past time. These are the Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect Indicative, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive, and the Historical Infinitive.

NOTE 1. - To these may be added certain forms less commonly used in Independent Clauses. Such are: (1) Primary: Present Infinitive in Exclamations: (2) Secondary: Perfect Infinitive in Exclamations (see § 287. a. note).

NOTE 2. - For the Historical Present, see § 287. e; for the Imperfect Subjunctive in Apodosis, see § 287. g.

286. The following is the general rule for the SEQUENCE OF TENSES:

In complex sentences a Primary tense in the main clause is followed by the Present or Perfect in the dependent clause, and a secondary tense by the Imperfect or Pluperfect: as, —

scribit ut nos moneat, he writes to warn us. scribet ut nos moneat, he will write to warn us. scribe (scribito) ut nos moneas, write that you may warn us. scripsit ut nos moneret, he wrote to warn us. scribit quasi oblitus sit, he writes as if he had forgotten. scripsit quasi oblitus esset, he wrote as if he had forgotten. rogo quid facturus sis, I ask what you are going to do.

NOTE. - The beginner must observe that the rule affects only the tenses of the Subjunctive in dependent clauses. The tenses of the other moods and those of the Subjunctive in independent constructions (as in apodosis contrary to fact, § 308) are not affected by the sequence of tenses. (But cf. §§ 338. a. note 2, 339. note 2.)

REMARK. — In applying the rule for the sequence of tenses, observe (1) whether the main verb is (a) primary or (b) secondary, (2) whether the dependent verb is to denote completed action (i.e. past with reference to the main verb) or incomplete (i.e. present or future with reference to the main verb). Then—

(a) If the leading verb is primary, the dependent verb must be in the Present if

it denotes incomplete action, in the Perfect if it denotes completed action.

(b) If the leading verb is secondary, the dependent verb must be in the Imperfect if it denotes incomplete action, in the Pluperfect if it denotes completed action. Thus,—

he writes (primary) to warn (incomplete) us, scribit ut nos moneat. I ask (primary) what you were doing (now past), rogo quid feceris.

Notice that the Future Perfect denotes action completed (at the time referred to), and hence is represented in the Subjunctive by the Perfect or Pluperfect. Thus,—

I ask what you will have accomplished, rogo quid perfeceris. he asked what he would have accomplished, rogavit quid perfecisset.

- 287. In the Sequence of Tenses some special points are to be noted:—
- a. The Perfect Indicative is ordinarily a secondary tense, but allows the primary sequence when the present time is clearly in the writer's mind. Thus,
 - ut satis esset praesidi provisum est (Cat. ii. 12), provision has been made that there should be ample guard. [Secondary sequence.]
 - addūxī hominem in quo satisfacere exteris nātionibus possētīs (Verr. i. 1),

 I have brought a man in whose person you can make satisfaction to foreign nations. [Secondary sequence.]
 - est enim res iam in eum locum adducta, ut quamquam multum intersit inter eorum causas qui dimicant, tamen inter victorias non multum interfuturum putem (Fam. v. 21, 3), for affairs have been brought to such a pass that, though there is a great difference between the causes of those who are fighting, still I do not think there will be much difference between their victories. [Primary sequence.]
 - ea adhibita doctrina est quae vel vitiosissimam naturam excolere possit (Q. Fr. i. 1, 7), such instruction has been given as can train even the faultiest nature. [Primary sequence.]
 - NOTE.—The Perfect Infinitive in exclamations follows the same rule: as,—adeon rem redisse patrem ut extimescam (Ter. Ph. 153), to think that
 - adeon rem redisse patrem ut extimescam (Ter. Ph. 153), to think that things have come to such a pass that I should dread my father.
- b. After a primary tense the Perfect Subjunctive is regularly used to denote any past action. Thus the Perfect Subjunctive may represent,—
 - I. A Perfect Definite: as,-
 - non dubito quin omnes tui scripserint (Fam. v. 8), I do not doubt that all your friends have written. [Direct statement: scripserunt.]

- quare non ignoro quid accidat in ültimis terris, cum audierim in Îtalia querelas civium (Q. Fr. i. 1, 33), therefore I know well what kappens at the ends of the earth, when I have heard in Italy the complaints of citizens. [In a direct statement, audivi.]
- 2. A Perfect Historical: as, -
- me autem hic laudat quod retulerim, non quod patefecerim (Att. xii. 21), me he praises because I brought the matter [before the senate], not because I brought it to light. [Direct statement: retulit.]
- 3. An Imperfect: as, -
- si forte ceciderint tum intellegitur quam fuerint inopes amicorum (Læl. 15, 53), if by chance they fall (have fallen), then one can see how poor they were in friends. [Direct question: quam inopes erant?]

qui status rerum fuerit cum has litteras dedi scire poteris ex C. Tidio Strabone (Fam. xii. 6), what the condition of affairs was when I wrote this letter, you can learn from Strabo. [Direct question: qui erat?]

quam civitâti carus fuerit maerore funeris indicatum est (Læl. 3, 11), how dear he was to the State has been shown by the grief at his funeral.
[Direct question: quam carus erat?]

ex epistulis intellegi licet quam frequens fuerit Platonis auditor (Or. 4), it may be understood from his letters how constant a hearer he was of Plato. [Direct question: quam frequens erat?]

NOTE. — Thus the Perfect Subjunctive may represent, not only a Perfect Definite or a Perfect Historical of a direct statement or question, but an Imperfect as well. This comes from the want of any special tense of the subjunctive to express continued action after a primary tense. Thus, mIror quid focerit may mean (1) I wonder what he has done, (2) I wonder what he did (hist, perf.), or (3) I wonder what he was doing.

c. In clauses of Result, the Perfect subjunctive is very often (the Present rarely) used after secondary tenses: as,—

Hortensius ardebat dicendi cupiditate sic ut in nullo unquam flagrantius studium viderim (Brut. 88), Hortensius was so hot with desire of speaking that I have never seen a more burning ardor in any man.

Siciliam Verres per triennium ita vexavit ac perdidit, ut ea restitui in antiquum statum nullo modo possit (Verr. i. 4), for three years Verres so racked and ruined Sicily, that she can in no way be restored to her former state. [Here the Present is used in describing a state of things actually existing.]

videor esse consecutus ut non possit Dolabella in Italiam pervenire (Fam. xii. 14), I seem to have brought it about that Dolabella cannot

come into Italy.

REMARK.—This construction emphasizes the result; the regular construction subordinates it.

NOTE. — There is a special fondness for the Perfect Subjunctive to represent a Perfect Indicative. Thus, —

- Thorius erat ita non superstitiosus ut illa plurima in sua patria et sacrificia et fana contemneret; ita non timidus ad mortem ut in acie sit ob rem publicam interfectus (Fin. ii. 20, 63), Thorius was so little superstitious that he despised [contemnebat] the many sacrifices and shrines in his country; so little timorous about death that he was killed [interfectus est] in battle, in defence of the State.
- Zēno nūllo modo is erat qui nervos virtūtis inciderit (cf. § 279. d); sed contrā qui omnia in ūna virtūte poneret (Acad. i. 10), Zeno was by no means one to cut the sinews of virtue; but one, on the contrary, who made everything depend on virtue alone. [incidit . . . ponebat.]
- erant enim nobis perirati, quasi quicquam de nostra salute decrevissemus quod non idem illis censuissemus aut quasi utilius rei publicae fuerit eos etiam ad bestiarum auxilium confugere quam vel emori vel cum spe vivere (Fam. ix. 6, 3), for they were very angry with us, just as if we had voted for anything in regard to our own preservation which we had not advised them also, or as if it were more advantageous to the state for them to fly for help to brutes than either to die or to live in hope. [Without quasi, decreveramus and fuit would have been used.]
- d. A general truth after a past tense follows the sequence of tenses: as,
 - ex his quae tribuisset sibi quam mūtābilis esset reputābat (Q. C. iii. 9), from what she (Fortune) had bestowed on him, he reflected how inconstant she is. [Direct: mūtābilis est.]
 - ibi quantam vim ad stimulandos animos ira haberet apparuit (Liv. xxxiii. 37), here it appeared what power anger has to good the mind. [Direct: habet.]

NOTE. - In English the original tense is more commonly kept.

e. The Historical Present (§ 276. d) is sometimes felt as a primary, sometimes as a secondary tense. Accordingly it is followed by either the primary or the secondary sequence, more commonly by the secondary. Thus,—

rogat ut curet quod dixisset (Quinct 5), he asks him to attend to the thing he had spoken of.

castella communit quo facilius prohibere posset (B. G. i. 8), he strengthens the forts that he might more easily keep them off.

NOTE. — After the historical present, cum temporal with the subjunctive must follow the secondary sequence.

- f. The Imperfect and Pluperfect in conditions contrary to fact (§ 308) are not affected by the sequence of tenses: as,
 - quia tale sit, ut vel si ignorarent homines, etc. (Fin. ii. 15, 49), because it is such that even if men WERE ignorant, etc.
- g. The Imperfect Subjunctive in present conditions contrary to fact (§ 308) is regularly followed by the secondary sequence: as,—

- si alii consules essent, ad te potissimum, Paulle, mitterem, ut eos mihi quam amicissimos redderes (Fam. xv. 13), if there were other consuls, I should send to you, Paulus, in preference to all, that you might make them as friendly to me as possible.
- si cos diceres miseros quibus moriendum esset, neminem exciperes (Tusc. i. 5), if you called those wretched who must die, you would except no one.
- h. The Present is sometimes followed by a secondary sequence, seemingly because the writer is thinking of past time (Synesis): as,
 - sed si res coget, est quiddam tertium, quod neque Selicio nec mihi displicebat; ut neque iacere rem pateremur, etc. (Fam. i. 5. a), but if the case shall demand, there is a third [course] which neither Selicius nor myself disapproved, that we should not allow, etc. [Here Cicero is led by the time of displicebat.]

sed tamen ut scīrēs haec tibi scrībō (Fam. xiii. 47), but yet that you may know, I write thus. [As if he had used the common epistolary imperfect scrībēbam (§ 282).]

cuius praecepti tanta vis est ut ea non homini cuipiam sed Delphico deo tribueretur (Leg. i. 22), such is the force of this precept, that it was ascribed not to any man, but to the Delphic god. [The precept was an old one.]

NOTE. — The rules for the sequence of tenses must not be regarded as inflexible. They were often disregarded by the Romans themselves, either from carelessness or purposely for one reason or another.

- i. When a clause depends upon one already dependent, the sequence becomes secondary as soon as the time is thrown back into the past by any form that represents past time: as,
 - sed tamen qua re acciderit ut ex meis superioribus litteris id suspicarere nescio (Fam. ii. 16), but yet how it happened that you suspected this from my previous letter, I don't know.

tantum profecisse videmur ut a Graecis ne verborum quidem copia vinceremur (N. D. i. 4, 8), we seem to have advanced so far that even in fulness of words we ARE not surpassed by the Greeks.

But, — beātē vīxisse videor quia cum Scīpione vīxerim (Læl. 4, 15), I seem to have lived happily in that I have lived with Scipio (who had just died).

NOTE. — For the application of this rule to Indirect Discourse, see § 336. B. note.

V. Tenses of the Infinitive.

288. The tenses of the Infinitive denote present, past, or future time, relatively to the time of the verb on which they depend: as,—

nostros non esse înferiores intellexit (B. G. ii. 8), he ascertained that our men were not inferior. [Direct: sunt.]

quam Iuno fertur terris magis omnibus coluisse (An. i. 15), which Juno is said to have cherished above all lands. [Direct: colebat.] sperant se maximum fructum esse capturos (Læl. 21), they hope they shall

receive the greatest advantage. [Direct: capiemus.]

a. After past tenses of verbs of necessity, propriety, and possibility (as potul, debul, and opportuit) the present infinitive must be rendered by the Perfect infinitive in English: as, -

scire potuit (Milo, 17), he might have known.

qui videbatur omnino mori non debuisse (Arch. 8), who seemed one the time indicated by the tense of the verb, the Perfect as completed, and the Future as still to take place.

- a. The Present Participle has several of the special uses of the Present Indicative. Thus it may denote: -
- 1. An action continued in the present but begun in the past $(\S 276. a): as, --$

quaerenti mihi iamdiu certa res nulla veniebat in mentem (Fam. iv. 13). though I had long sought, no certain thing came to my mind.

- 2. Attempted action (§ 276. b): as, -
- C. Flaminio restitit agrum Picentem dividenti (Cat. Maj. 4), he resisted Flaminius when attempting to divide the Picene territory.
- 3. Futurity (§ 276. c): as, —

ions in Pompeianum bene mane haec scripsi (Att. iv. 9), I write this when about going very early to my place at Pompeii.

b. The Perfect Participle of a few deponent verbs is used nearly in the sense of a Present.

Such are, regularly, ratus, solitus, veritus; commonly, fīsus, ausus, secutus, and occasionally others, especially in later writers. Thus, --

cohortatus milites docuit (B. C. iii. 80), encouraging the men, he showed īrātus dixisti (Mur. 30), you spoke in a passion. oblitus auspicia (Phil. i. 13), forgetting the auspices.

- insidias veritus (B. G. ii. 11), fearing ambuscade. imperio potitus (Liv. xxi. 2), holding the command. ad pugnam congressi (id. iv. 10), meeting in fight. rem incredibilem rati (Sall. Cat. 48), thinking the thing incredible.
- c. The Latin has no Present Participle in the passive. The place of such a form is supplied usually by a clause with dum or cum, rarely by the participle in -dus (cf. p. 314, foot-note): as, -

nullis evidentibus causis obiere dum calceantur matutino duo Caesares (Plin. N. H. vii. 181), from no obvious cause two Casars died while having their shoes put on in the morning.

REMARK.—The genitive of the gerund or gerundive is used (especially in early and late Latin) as a predicate genitive. When so used it often expresses purpose: as,—

quae res vertendae reipublicae solent esse (Verr. iii. 53), things which generally tend to the overthrow of the commonwealth.

si arborum trunci deiciendi operis essent missae (B. G. iv. 17), in case trunks of trees should be sent down [with the object] of overthrowing the work. [Pred. gen. like quas sui commodi fecerat (v. 8).]

Aegyptum proficiscitur cognoscendae antiquitatis (Tac. Ann. ii. 59), he

sets out for Egypt to study old times.

- ne id assentandi magis quam quo habeam gratum facere existumes (Ter. Ad. 270), for fear you should think that I do it more for the sake of flattery than because, etc.
- a. The genitive of the gerund is occasionally limited by a noun or pronoun (especially sull) in the objective genitive instead of taking a direct object: as,—

ēius videndī cupidus (Ter. Hec. 372), eager to see her (eager for a seeing of her).

reiciendi trium iudicum potestas (Inv. ii. 2), the power of challenging three jurors (of the rejecting of three jurors).

suī colligendi facultas (B. G. iii. 6), the opportunity to recover themselves.

NOTE. — This construction undoubtedly arose from the fact that the gerund, with the noun (or adjective) on which it depends, was conceived as a compound noun (or adjective) governing an objective genitive (cf. § 217. b). Thus sul colligend! facults would be literally, a chance of a recovering of theirs. This construction is easily distinguished from that of the gerundive by the fact that the gerund does not agree with the substantive in gender and number.

- b. In genitive constructions the Gerund and Gerundive are about equally common.
- c. The genitive of the Gerund or Gerundive is used with causa or gratia to denote purpose (see § 318).

NOTE. - This is merely a special use under the main head of \ 298.

2. Dative.

299. The Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used after adjectives which take the dative and rarely after nouns (§ 234. a): as,—

¹ The dative of the gerund and gerundive occurs most commonly after the adjectives accommodātus, aptus, ineptus, bonus, habilis, idōneus, pār, ūtilis, inūtilis. But the accusative with ad is common with most of these (cf. § 234. b).

genus armorum aptum tegendis corporibus (Liv. xxxii. 10), a sort of armor suited to the defence of the body.

tē sociam studeo scribendis versibus esse (Lucr. i. 25), I desire that

thou (Venus) be my partner in writing verses.

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perferendis militum mandātis idoneus (Tac. Ann. 1, 23), suitable for carrying out the instructions of the soldiers.

a. The dative is used in a few expressions after verbs 1: as, —

diem praestitit operī faciendo (Verr. ii. 56), he appointed a day for doing the work.

praeesse agro colendo (Rosc. Am. 18), to take charge of cultivating the land.

esse solvendo, to be able to pay (to be for paying).

NOTE. — This construction is a remnant of a more general use of the dative of the gerund and gerundive.

b. The dative is also used in certain legal phrases after nouns meaning officers, offices, elections, etc., to indicate the function or scope of the office, etc.: as,—

comitia consulibus rogandis (Div. i. 17), elections for nominating consuls. triumvir coloniis deducundis (Jug. 42), a triumvir for planting colonies. triumviri reipublicae constituendae (title of the Triumvirate), triumvirs (u commission of three) for settling the government.

3. Accusative.

300. The Accusative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used only after the prepositions ad, inter, circa, ob (and rarely in and ante); most frequently after ad, denoting Purpose (cf. § 318. b): as,—

me vocas ad scribendum (Or. 10), you summon me to write.

vivis non ad deponendam sed ad confirmandam audaciam (Cat. i. 2),
you live, not to put off, but to confirm your daring.

nactus aditūs ad ea conanda (B. C. i. 31), having found means to undertake these things.

inter agendum (Ecl. ix. 24), while driving.

NOTE.—The Accusative of the gerund with a preposition never takes a direct object, the Ablative of the gerund very rarely. The Gerundive is used instead () 296).

¹ Such are pracesse, operam dare, diem dicere, locum capere.

1 -

meque ista delectant cum Latine dicuntur (Ac. Prior. 1, 5), those things please me when they are spoken in Latin.

crucibus adfixi aut flammandi (Tac. Ann. xv. 44), crucified or set on fire (in flames).

Note. — The constructions with dum and cum are often used when a participle might be employed: as, —

dic, hospes, Spartae, nos te hic vidisse iacentes, dum sanctis patriae legibus obsequimur, tell it, stranger, at Sparta, that you saw us lying here obedient to our country's sacred laws. [Here dum obsequimur is a translation of the Greek present participle πειθόμενοι.]

dum [Ulixes] sibi, dum sociis reditum parat (Hor. Ep. i. 2. 21), Ulysses, while securing the return of himself and his companions. [In Greek:

ἀρνύμενοs.]

d. The Latin has no Perfect Participle in the active voice. The deficiency is supplied —

1. In deponents by the perfect passive form with its regular active meaning: as,—

nam singulās [nāvēs] nostrī consectātī expugnāvērunt (B. G. iii. 15), for our men having overtaken them one by one, captured them by boarding.

2. In other verbs, either by the ablative absolute with a change of voice (§ 255. d, note) or by a clause (especially with cum or dum): as,—

itaque convocatis centurionibus milites certiores facit (B. G. iii. 5), and so, having called the centurions together, he informs the soldiers (the centurions having been called together).

cum vēnisset animadvertit collem (id. vii. 44), having come (when he had come), he noticed a hill.

NOTE. — The perfect participle of several deponent verbs may be either active or passive in meaning (§ 135. δ).

2. Adjective Use.

291. The Present and Perfect participles are used sometimes as attributive, nearly like adjectives: as,—

cum antiquissimam sententiam tum comprobatam (Div. i. 5), a view at once most ancient and well approved.

signa nunquam fere ömentientia (id. 9), signs hardly ever deceitful. auspiciis ūtuntur coāctīs (id. 15), they use forced auspices.

a. Participles often become complete adjectives, and may be compared or used as nouns. Thus, —

quo mulieri esset res cautior (Cæcin. 4, 11), that the matter might be more secure for the woman.

in illis artibus praestantissimus (De Or. i. 50, 217), pre-eminent in those arts

sibi indulgentës et corpori dëservientës (Leg. i. 13), the self-indulgent, and slaves to the body (indulging themselves and serving the body).

recte facta paria esse debent (Par. iii. 1), right deeds (things rightly done) ought to be like in value (see § 207. c).

male parta male dīlābuntur (Phil. ii. 27), ill got, ill spent (things ill- acquired, etc.).

consuetudo valentis (De Or. ii. 44), the habit of a man in health.

b. Participles are often used as Predicate Adjectives. As such they may be joined to the subject by esse or a copulative verb (see §§ 186. b, 176. a): as,—

Gallia est dīvīsa (B. G. i. 1), Gaul is divided.

locus qui nunc saeptus est (Liv. i. 8), the place which is now enclosed. videtis ut senectus sit operosa et semper agens aliquid et moliens (C. M. 8),

you see how busy old age is, always aiming and trying at something.

nēmo adhūc convenire voluit cui fuerim occupātus (Cat. Maj. 10, 32), nobody hitherto has [ever] wished to converse with me, to whom I have been "engaged."

REMARK. — From this predicate use arise the compound tenses of the passive, — the participle of completed action with the incomplete tenses of esse developing the idea of past time: as interfectus est, he was (or has been) killed, lit., he is having-been-killed (i.e. already slain).

In the best writers (as Cicero), the perfect participle, when used with ful, etc., retains its proper force; but in later writers the two sets of tenses (as amātus sum or ful) are often used indiscriminately to form the tenses of the perfect system in the passive: as,—

[leges] cum quae latae sunt tum vero quae promulgatae fuerunt (Sest. 25), the laws, both those which were proposed, and those which were published. [The proposal of the laws was a single act: hence latae sunt is a compound perfect. The publishing, or posting, was a continued state, which is indicated by the participle promulgatae, and fuerunt is the perfect of the copula.]

arma quae fīxa in parietibus fuerant, humi inventa sunt (Div. i. 34), the arms which had been fastened on the walls were found upon the ground. [Cf. occupātī sunt et fuērunt (Off. i. 17), are and have been engaged. The difference between this and arma quae, etc., is, that occupātus in this sense is used only as an adjective.]

3. Predicate Use.

292. The Present and Perfect participles are often used as a predicate, where in English a phrase or clause would be usual.

In this use the participles express time, cause, occasion, condition, concession, characteristic (or description), manner, means, attendant circumstances. Thus,—

volventes hostilia cadavera amicum reperiebant (Sall. Cat. 61), while rolling over the corpses of the enemy they found a friend. [Time.]

paululum commorātus, signa canere iubet (Sall. Cat. 59, 1), after delaying a little while, he orders to give the signal. [Time.]

longius prosequi veritus, ad Ciceronem pervenit (B. G. v. 52), because he feared to follow further, he came to Cicero. [Cause.]

quo sciret laxas dare iūssus habenas (Æn. i. 63), who might know how to give them loose rein when bidden. [Occasion.]

damnātum poenam sequi oportēbat (B. G. i. 4), if condemned, punishment must overtake him. [Condition.]

salūtem inspērantibus reddidisti (Marc. 7), you have restored a safety which we did not hope. [Concession.]

Dardanius caput ecce puer dētēctus (Æn. x. 133), the Trojan boy with his head uncovered. [Description.]

nec trepides in usum poscentis aevi pauca (Hor. Od. ii. 11. 5), be not anxious for the needs of age that demands little. [Characteristic.]

incitātī fugā montēs altissimos petēbant (B. C. iii. 93), in headlong flight they made for the highest mountains. [Manner.]

milites sublevati alii ab aliis magnam partem itineris conficerent (B. C. i. 68), the soldiers helped up by each other, etc. [Means.]

hoc laudans, Pompeius idem iuravit (B. C. iii. 87), approving this, Pompey took the same oath. [Attendant circumstance.]

aut sedens aut ambulans disputabam (Tusc. i. 4, 7), I conducted the discussion either sitting or walking. [Circumstance.]

Remark.—These uses are especially frequent in the ablative absolute (§ 255. d). A co-ordinate clause is sometimes compressed into a perfect participle: as,—

īnstrūctos ordines in locum aequum dedūcit (Sall. Cat. 59), he draws up the lines, and leads them to level ground.

ut hös transductos necaret (B. G. v. 5), that he might carry them over and put them to death.

NOTE 1.—A participle with a negative often expresses the same idea which in English is given by without and a verbal noun: as,—

miserum est nihil proficientem angi (N. D. iii. 5), it is wretched to vex oneself without effecting anything.

NOTE 2.—Acceptum and expēnsum as predicates with ferre and referre are book-keeping terms; as,—

quas pecunias ferebat eis expensas (Verr. ii. 170), what sums he charged to them.

a. A noun and a passive participle are often so united that the participle and not the noun contains the main idea: 1 as, —

ante conditam condendamve urbem (Liv. Pref.), before the city was built or building.

¹ Compare the participle in indirect discourse in Greek (Goodwin's Greek Grammar, § 280); and the English, "Twas at the royal feast for Persia won" (Dryden), i.e. for the conquest of Persia.

illi libertatem civium Romanorum imminutam non tulerunt; vos vitam ereptam neglegetis (Manil. 5), they did not endure the infringement of the citizens' liberty; will you disregard the destruction of their life? post homines natos (Brut. 62, 224), since the creation of man. iam a condita urbe (Phil. iii. 9), even from the founding of the city.

b. The perfect participle with a noun in agreement, or in the neuter as an abstract noun, is used in the ablative with opus, need (cf. § 243. e): as,—

opus facto est viatico (Plaut. Trin. 887), there is need of laying in provision.

mātūrātō opus est (Liv. viii. 13), there is need of haste.

NOTE. — The omission of the noun in agreement gives rise to complex constructions: as, —

quid opus factost, what must be done? [A mixture of quid opus est fieri? and quo facto opus est?]

c. The perfect participle with habeo (rarely with other verbs) has almost the same meaning as a perfect active, but denotes the continued effect of the action of the verb: 1 as,—

fidem quem habent spectātam iam et diū cognitam (Div. C. 4), my fidelity, which they have proved and long known.

cohortes in acie lxxx. constitutas habebat (B. C. iii. 89), he had eighty cohorts stationed in line of battle.

nefărios duces captos iam et comprehensos tenetis (Cat. iii. 7, 16), you have captured and hold in custody the infamous leaders, etc.

d. A verb of *effecting* or the like may be used in combination with the perfect participle of a transitive verb to express the action of that verb more forcibly: as,—

praefectos suos multi missos fecerunt (Verr. iv. 58), many discharged their officers (made dismissed).

hic transactum reddet omne (Plaut. Capt. 345), he will get it all done (restore it finished).

ademptum tibi iam faxo omnem metum (Ter. Haut. 341), I will relieve you of all fear (make it taken away).

illam tibi incensam dabo (Ter. Ph. 974), I will make her angry with you.

NOTE. — Similarly volo (with its compounds) and cupio, with a perfect participle without esse (cf. § 288 d. note): as,—

me excused (I want myself excused, cf. I pray thee have me excused).

qui te conventum cupit (Plaut. Curc. 304), who wants to meet you (wants you met).

¹ The perfect with have, in modern languages of Latin stock, has grown out of this use of habeo.

e. After verbs denoting an action of the senses the present participle in agreement with the object is nearly equivalent to the infinitive of indirect discourse (§ 336), but expresses the action more vividly: as,—

ut eum nemo unquam in equo sedentem viderit (Verr. v. 27), so that no one ever saw him sitting on a horse. [Cf. Tusc. iii. 31.]

NOTE. — The same construction is used after facio, induco, and the like, with the name of an author as subject; as, —

Xenophon facit Socratem disputantem (N. D. i. 11), Xenophon represents Socrates disputing.

4. Future Participle.

- 293. The Future Participle (except futurus and venturus) is rarely used in simple agreement with a noun, except by later writers.
- a. The future participle is chiefly used with esse (which is often omitted) in the active periphrastic conjugation (see § 129): as,
 - morere, Diagora, non enim in caelum adscensurus es (Tusc. i. 46), die, for you are not likely to rise to heaven.

sperat adolescens diu se victurum (Cat. Maj. 19), the young man hopes to live long (that he shall live long).

- neque petītūrus unquam consulātum viderētur (Off. iii. 20), and did not seem likely ever to be a candidate for the consulship.
- b. By later writers and the poets the future participle is also used in simple agreement with a substantive to express:—
 - 1. Likelihood or certainty: as, -
 - ausus est rem plūs fāmae habitūram (Liv. ii. 10), he dared a thing which would have more repute.
 - 2. Purpose, intention, or readiness: as, —
 - cum leo regem invasurus incurreret (Q. C. viii. 1), when a lion rushed on to attack the king.
 - rediit belli casum de integro tentaturus (Liv. xvii. 62), he returned to try the chances of war anew.
 - dispersos per agros milites equitibus invasuris (id. xxxi. 36), while the horse were ready to attack the soldiers scattered through the fields. [A rare use of the Ablative Absolute.]
 - si periturus abis (Æn. ii. 675), if you are going away to perish.
 - 3. Apodosis: as, —
 - dedit mihi quantum maximum potuit, daturus amplius si potuisset (Plin. Ep. iii. 21), he gave me as much as he could, ready to give me more if he had been able.

c. With past tenses of **esse**, the future participle is often equivalent to the pluperfect subjunctive (see \S 308. d).

5. Gerundive (Future Passive Participle).

NOTE. — The participle in -dus, commonly called the Gerundive, has two distinct uses: —

(1) Its predicate and attribute use as participle or adjective (\(\) 294).

- (2) Its use with the meaning of the gerund (§ 296). This may be called its gerundive use.
- 294. The gerundive when used as a Participle or an Adjective is always passive, denoting necessity or propriety.

In this use of the gerundive the following points are to be observed (a-d).

a. The gerundive is sometimes used, like the present and perfect participles, in simple agreement with a noun: as,—

fortem et conservandum virum (Mil. 38), a brave man, and worthy to be preserved.

b. The most frequent use of this form is with esse in the second (passive) periphrastic conjugation (see § 129): as,—

non agitanda res erit (Verr. vi. 70), will not the thing have to be agitated?

c. The neuter of the gerundive is occasionally used impersonally with an object. The object is in the case regularly governed by the verb. Thus,—

agitandumst vigilias (Pl. Tr. 869), I have got to stand guard.

via quam nobis ingrediendum sit (Cat. Maj. 2), the way we have to enter.

NOTE. — This use is regular with verbs which take their object in the dative or ablative: as, —

legibus parendum est, the laws must be obeyed.

ütendum exercitătionibus modicis (Cat. Maj. 11), we must use moderate exercise.

d. After verbs signifying to give, deliver, agree for, have, receive, undertake, demand,² a gerundive in agreement with the object is used to express purpose: as,—

1 Sometimes called Nominative of the Gerund. Compare Greek verbal in -τέος (Goodwin's Grammar, § 281).

² Such verbs are accipiō, adnōtō, attribuō, condūcō, cūrō, dēnōtō, dēposcō, dō, dīvidō, dōnō, ēdīcō, ēdoceō, ferō, habeō, locō, mandō, obiciō, permīttō, petō, pōnō, praebeō, prōpōnō, relinquō, rogō, suscipiō, trādō, voveō.

- redemptor qui columnam illam conduxerat faciendam (Div. ii. 21), the contractor who had undertaken to make that column. [The regular construction with this class of verbs.]
- aedem Castoris habuit tuendam (Verr. ii. 50), he had the temple of Castor to take care of.
- naves atque onera diligenter adservanda curabat (id. vi. 56), he took care that the ships and cargoes should be kept.

II.-GERUND AND GERUNDIVE.

- 295. The Gerund expresses an action of the verb in the form of a verbal noun. As a noun the gerund is itself governed by other words; as a verb it may take an object in the proper case. Thus,
 - ars bene disserendi et vera ac falsa diidicandi (De Or. ii. 38), the art of discoursing well, and distinguishing the true and false.

REMARK.—The nominative of the gerund is supplied by the infinitive. Thus in the example above, the verbal nouns discoursing and distinguishing, if used in the nominative, would be expressed by the infinitives disserve and difficience.

- **296.** When the Gerund would have an object in the accusative, the Gerundive¹ is generally used instead. The gerundive agrees with its noun, and takes the case which the gerund would have had: as,
 - parātiorēs ad omnia perīcula subeunda (B. G. i. 5), readier to undergo all dangers. [Here subeunda agrees with perīcula, which is itself governed by ad. The construction with the gerund would be, ad subeundum perīcula; ad governing the gerund, and the gerund governing the accusative perīcula.]

exercendae memoriae gratia (Off. i. 15), for the sake of training the memory. [Here the gerund construction would be memoriam exercendi gratia.]

plērīsque in rēbus gerendīs tarditās odiosa est (Phil. vi. 3), in the conducting of most business, sloth is odious.

¹ The gerundive construction is probably the original one. The participle in dus seems to have had a present passive force (as in ante condendam urbem (§ 292. a), rotundus, volvenda dies (Virg.), flammandī (Tac.), § 290. c) from which the idea of necessity was developed through that of futurity, as in the development of the subjunctive (see p. 274). Consilium urbis delendae would have meant a plan of a city being destroyed [in process of destruction], then about to be destroyed, then to be destroyed, then a plan of destroying the city, the two words becoming fused together as in ab urbe conditā.

NOTE.—In this use the gerund and the gerundive are translated in the same way, but have really a different construction. The Gerundive is a passive participle, and agrees with its noun, though in translation we change the voice, just as we may translate vigiliae agitandae sunt (guard must be kept) by I must stand guard. The Gerund is the neuter of the gerundive used impersonally, but retaining the verbal idea sufficiently to govern an object, as in agitandumst vigilias (§ 294. c). It may therefore be considered as a noun (cf. opus est mātūrātō, § 292. b) with a verbal force (cf. hanc tāctiō, p. 235, foot-note). See p. 314, foot-note.

The following examples illustrate the parallel constructions of gerund and gerundive: —

GEN. consilium { urbem capiendi } a design of taking the city.

DAT. dat operam { agros colendo } he attends to tilling the fields.

ACC. veniunt ad { mihi parendum pacem petendam } they come { to seek peace.

ABL. terit tempus { scribendo epistulas } he spends time in writing letters.

REMARK.—In the gerundive construction the verbs **ûtor**, fruor, etc., are treated like transitive verbs governing the accusative, as they do in early Latin (§ 249. b): as,—

expetuntur divitiae ad perfruendas voluptates (Off. i. 8), riches are sought for the enjoyment of pleasures (for enjoying pleasures).

297. The Gerund and the Gerundive are used, in the oblique cases, in many of the constructions of nouns.

1. Genitive.

298. The Genitive of the Gerund and Gerundive is used after nouns or adjectives either as subjective or objective genitive: as,—

neque consilii habendi neque arma capiendi spatio dato (B. G. iv. 14), time being given neither for forming plans nor for taking arms. [Objective.]

ne conservandae quidem patriae causa (Off. i. 45), not even for the sake of saving the country. [Originally subjective genitive.]

vivendi finis est optimus (Cat. Maj. 20), it is the best end of living. [Subjective.]

non tam commutandarum rerum quam evertendarum cupidos (Off. ii. 1), desirous not so much of changing as of destroying the state. [Objective.]

NOTE.—In a few phrases the Infinitive is used with nouns which ordinarily have the genitive of the Gerund or Gerundive. Thus tempus est abire, it is time to depart.

REMARK.—The genitive of the gerund or gerundive is used (especially in early and late Latin) as a predicate genitive. When so used it often expresses purpose: as,—

quae res vertendae reipublicae solent esse (Verr. iii. 53), things which generally tend to the overthrow of the commonwealth.

si arborum trunci deiciendi operis essent missae (B. G. iv. 17), in case trunks of trees should be sent down [with the object] of overthrowing the work. [Pred. gen. like quas sui commodi fecerat (v. 8).]

Aegyptum proficiscitur cognoscendae antiquitatis (Tac. Ann. ii. 59), he

sets out for Egypt to study old times.

- ne id assentandi magis quam quo habeam gratum facere existumes (Ter. Ad. 270), for fear you should think that I do it more for the sake of flattery than because, etc.
- a. The genitive of the gerund is occasionally limited by a noun or pronoun (especially sul) in the objective genitive instead of taking a direct object: as,—

eius videndi cupidus (Ter. Hec. 372), eager to see her (eager for a seeing of her).

reiciendi trium iddicum potestas (Inv. ii. 2), the power of challenging three jurors (of the rejecting of three jurors).

suī colligendi facultas (B. G. iii. 6), the opportunity to recover themselves.

NOTE. — This construction undoubtedly arose from the fact that the gerund, with the noun (or adjective) on which it depends, was conceived as a compound noun (or adjective) governing an objective genitive (cf. § 217. b). Thus sui colligend! facultas would be literally, a chance of a recovering of theirs. This construction is easily distinguished from that of the gerundive by the fact that the gerund does not agree with the substantive in gender and number.

- b. In genitive constructions the Gerund and Gerundive are about equally common.
- c. The genitive of the Gerund or Gerundive is used with causā or grātiā to denote purpose (see § 318).

NOTE. — This is merely a special use under the main head of \$ 298.

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299. The Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used after adjectives which take the dative and rarely after nouns (§ 234. a): as,—

¹ The dative of the gerund and gerundive occurs most commonly after the adjectives accommodātus, aptus, ineptus, bonus, habilis, idōneus, pār, ūtilis, inūtilis. But the accusative with ad is common with most of these (cf. § 234. b).

genus armorum aptum tegendis corporibus (Liv. xxxii. 10), a sort of armor suited to the defence of the body.

te sociam studeo scribendis versibus esse (Lucr. i. 25), I desire that thou (Venus) be my partner in writing verses.

reliqua tempora demetendis fructibus et percipiendis accommodata sunt (Cat. Maj. 19), the other seasons are fitted to reap and gather in the harvest.

perferendis militum mandātis idoneus (Tac. Ann. 1, 23), suitable for carrying out the instructions of the soldiers.

a. The dative is used in a few expressions after verbs 1: as, -

diem praestitit operi faciendo (Verr. ii. 56), he appointed a day for doing the work.

pracesse agro colendo (Rosc. Am. 18), to take charge of cultivating the land.

esse solvendo, to be able to pay (to be for paying).

Note. — This construction is a remnant of a more general use of the dative of the gerund and gerundive.

b. The dative is also used in certain legal phrases after nouns meaning officers, offices, elections, etc., to indicate the function or scope of the office, etc.: as,—

comitia consulibus rogandis (Div. i. 17), elections for nominating consuls. triumvir coloniis deducundis (Jug. 42), a triumvir for planting colonies. triumviri reipublicae constituendae (title of the Triumvirate), triumvirs (a commission of three) for settling the government.

3. Accusative.

300. The Accusative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used only after the prepositions ad, inter, circā, ob (and rarely in and ante); most frequently after ad, denoting Purpose (cf. § 318. b): as,—

mē vocās ad scrībendum (Or. 10), you summon me to write. vivis non ad dēponendam sed ad confirmandam audāciam (Cat. i. 2), you live, not to put off, but to confirm your daring.

nactus aditus ad ea conanda (B. C. i. 31), having found means to undertake these things.

inter agendum (Ecl. ix. 24), while driving.

NOTE.—The Accusative of the gerund with a preposition never takes a direct object, the Ablative of the gerund very rarely. The Gerundive is used instead () 296).

¹ Such are pracesse, operam dare, diem dicere, locum capere.

4. Ablative.

- 301. The Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used (1) to express Manner, Means, Cause, etc.; and (2) after Comparatives; and (3) after the prepositions ab, dē, ēx, in, and (rarely) prō and cum: as,—
- (1) multa pollicendo persuadet (Jug. 46), he persuades by large promises. Latine loquendo cuivis par (Brut. 34), equal to any man in speaking Latin.

nüllis virtūtis praeceptis trādendīs (Off. i. 2), without delivering any precepts of virtue (by delivering no precepts).

his ipsis legendis (Cat. Maj. 7), by reading these very things.

obscuram atque humilem conciendo ad se multitudinem (Liv. i. 8), calling to them a mean and obscure multitude.

- (2) nüllum officium referendā grātiā magis necessārium est (Off. i. 15), no duty is more important than repaying favors.
- (3) in re gerends versari (Cat. Maj. 6), to be employed in conducting affairs.

 NOTE.—The Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive is also very rarely used with verbs and adjectives: as.—

Appius non abstitit continuando magistratum (Liv. ix. 34), Appius did not desist from continuing his magistracy.

REMARK.—The gerund is often found co-ordinated with nominal constructions, and sometimes even in apposition with a noun: as,—

(1) in foro, in cūriā, in amicorum periculis pulsandis (Phil. vii. 3), in the forum, in the senate-house, in defending my friends in jeopardy.

(2) ad res diversissimas, parendum atque imperandum (Liv. xxi. 3), for the most widely different things, obeying and commanding.

III. - SUPINE.

Note. — The supine is a verbal abstract of the fourth declension (§ 71. a), having no distinction of tense or person, and limited to two uses. (1) The form in -um is the accusative of the end of motion (§ 258. b, Rem.). (2) The form in -ü is usually dative of purpose (§ 233), though probably the ablative has been confused with it.

302. The Former Supine (in -um) is used after verbs of *motion* to express purpose. It may take an object in the proper case. Thus,—

¹ In this use the ablative of the gerund is, in later writers nearly, and in mediæval writers entirely, equivalent to a present participle: as, cum una disrum flend sodisset, quidam miles generosus iuxta eam equitando vonit (Gesta Romanorum, 66 [58]), as one day she sat weeping, a certain knight came riding by. (Compare § 301, fifth example.) From the gerund used as ablative of manner come the Italian and Spanish forms of the present participle (as mandando, esperando), the true participial form becoming an adjective in those languages.

quid est, imusne sõssum? etsi monitum vēnimus tõ, non flägitätum (De Or. iii. 5), how now, shall we be seated? though we have come to remind, not to entreat you?

nuptum dare (collocare), to give in marriage.

venerunt questum iniurias (Liv. iii. 25), they came to complain of wrongs.

REMARK.—The supine in -um is especially common with eo; and with the passive infinitive irl forms the future infinitive passive. Thus,—

fuere cives qui rempublicam perditum irent (Sall. Cat. 36), there were citizens who went about to ruin the republic (cf. § 258. b, Rem.)

non Grais servitum matribus îbo (Æn. ii. 786), I shall not go to be a slave to the Grecian dames.

si scisset se trucidatum iri (Div. ii. 9), if he (Pompey) had known that he was going to be murdered. [For the more usual form of the future infinitive, see § 147. c.]

303. The Latter Supine (in -\vec{u})¹ is used only with a few adjectives, with the nouns fas, nefas, and opus, and rarely with verbs, to denote an action in reference to which the quality is asserted: as,—

O rem non modo visu foedam, sed etiam audītu (Phil. ii. 25), a thing not only shocking to see, but even to hear of.

quaerunt quid optimum factū sit (Verr. ii. 27), they ask what is best to do. hūmanum factū aut inceptū (Ter. Andr. 236), a human thing to do or undertake.

si hoc fas est dictu (Tusc. v. 13), if this is lawful to say.

vidētis nefas esse dictū miseram fuisse tālem senectūtem (Cat. Maj. 5), you see it is a sin to say that such an old age was wretched

pudet dicta (Agric. 32), it is shame to tell.

Note.—The latter supine is thus in appearance an ablative of specification (§ 253), but see § 302, head-note.

REMARK.—The supine in -1 is found especially with such adjectives as indicate an effect on the senses or the feelings, and those which denote ease, difficulty, and the like. But with facilis, difficilis, iucundus, ad with the gerund is more common. Thus,—

nec visū facilis nec dictū adfābilis ūlli (Æn. iii. 621), he is not pleasant for any man to look at or address.

difficilis ad distinguendum similitudo (De Or. ii. 53), a likeness difficult to distinguish.

With all these adjectives the poets often use the Infinitive in the same sense: as,—faciles aurem praebere (Prop.), indulgent to lend an ear.

¹ The only latter supines in common use are auditū, dictū, factū, inventū, memorātū, nātū, visū. In classic use this supine is found, in all, in twenty four verbs. It is never followed by an object-case.

CHAPTER IV. — Conditional Sentences.

NOTE.—The Conditional Sentence differs from other compound sentences in this, that the form of the main clause (APODOSIS) is determined in some degree by the nature of the subordinate clause (PROTASIS), upon the truth of which the whole statement depends. Like all compound sentences, however, the Conditional Sentence has arisen from putting together two independent statements, which in time became so closely united as to make one modified statement. Thus—Speak the word: my servant shall be healed is an earlier form of expression than If thou speak the word, etc.

The Conditional Particles were originally independent pronouns: thus si, if, is a weak demonstrative of the same origin as sic, so (si-ce like hi-ce, see footnotes at pp. 65, 67), and has the primitive meaning of in that way, or in some way.

In its origin the Condition was of two kinds. Either it was assumed and stated as a fact, or it was expressed as a mild command. From the first have come all the uses of the Indicative in protasis; from the latter all the uses of the Subjunctive in protasis. The Apodosis has either (1) the Indicative, expressing the conclusion as a fact; and the Present and Perfect Subjunctive, expressing it originally as future - and hence more or less doubtful - or (2) the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive expressing it as futurum in praeterito, and so unfulfilled in the present or past. Thus rides, maiore cachinno concutitur, you laugh, he shakes with more boisterous laughter, is the original form for the Indicative in protasis and apodosis: 81 rides originally means merely you laugh in some way or other, and so, later, IF you laugh. So roges Aristonem, neget, ask Aristo, he would say no. is the original form of the subjunctive in protasis and apodosis; si roges would mean ask in some way or other. In si rogares, negaret, the Imperfect rogares transfers the command of roges to past time,2 with the meaning suppose you had asked, and si would have the same meaning as before; while negaret transfers the future idea of neget to past time, and means he was going to deny. Now the stating of this supposition at all gives rise to the implication that it is untrue in point of fact, -because, if it were true, there would ordinarily be no need to state it as a supposition: for it would then be a simple fact, and as such would be put in the indicative.8 Such a condition or conclusion - originally past, meaning suppose you had asked [yesterday], he was going to deny - came to express an unfulfilled condition in the present; suppose (or if) you were now asking, he would [now] deny just as in English ought, which originally meant owed,4 has come to express a present obligation.

¹ The futurum in praeterito is a tense future relatively to a time absolutely past. It denotes a future act transferred to the point of view of past time, and hence is naturally expressed by a past tense of the Subjunctive: thus dixisset, he would have said—dicturus fuit, he was about to say [but did not]. As that which looks towards the future from some point in the past has a natural limit in present time, such a tense (the imperfect subjunctive) came naturally to be used to express a present condition purely ideal, that is to say, contrary to fact.

² Compare potius diceret, he should rather have said (§ 266. e).

⁸ There are, however, some cases in which this implication does not arise: as, deciens centena dedisses, nil erat in loculis (Hor. Sat. i. 3. 15), if you'd given him a million, there was nothing in his coffers.

^{4 &}quot;There was a certain lender which ought him five nundred pieces." — Tyw dale's N. T.

Conditional Sentences may be classified as follows: --

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    SIMPLE PRESENT OR PAST CONDITIONS, nothing implied as to fulfilment
(§ 306).
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- 2. FUTURE CONDITIONS: { a. More vivid (\$\frac{1}{2}\) 307).
 b. Less vivid (\$\frac{1}{2}\) 307).
 3. CONDITIONS CONTRARY { a. Present (\$\frac{1}{2}\) 308).
 b. Past (\$\frac{1}{2}\) 308).
- 4. GENERAL CONDITIONS: { a. Indefinite Subject (§ 309. a). b. Repeated Action (§ 309. b. c).
- 5. IMPLIED CONDITIONS: $\begin{cases}
 a. \text{ Protasis Disguised} \\
 b. \text{ Protasis Omitted}
 \end{cases}$ I. in clause of Fact, Wish, Command (§ 310. δ , c). $a. \text{ inParticipialExpression} \\
 (§ 310. <math>a$). $a. \text{ Potential Subjunctive} \\
 (§ 311. <math>a$). $a. \text{ Subjunctive of Modesty} \\
 (§ 311. <math>\delta$).

1. Protasis and Apodosis.

304. A complete conditional sentence consists of two clauses, the Protasis and the Apodosis.

The clause containing the *condition* is called the Protasis; the clause containing the *conclusion* is called the Apodosis: as,—

- si qui exire volunt [PROTASIS], conivere possum [APODOSIS] (Cat. ii. 12), if any wish to depart, I can keep my eyes shut.
- si est in exsilio [PROTASIS], quid amplius postulatis [APODOSIS] (Lig. 4), if he is in exile, what more do you ask?

NOTE. — It should be carefully noted that the Protasis is the dependent clause.

a. The Protasis is regularly introduced by the conditional particle sī (IF) or one of its compounds.

NOTE. — These compounds are sin, nisi, etiamsi, etsi, tametsi, tamenetsi (see Conditional and Concessive Particles, § 155. e, g). An Indefinite Relative, or any relative or concessive word, may also serve to introduce a conditional clause (see § 316).

b. The Apodosis is often introduced by some correlative word or phrase: as, sīc, ita, tum, eā condicione, etc. Thus,—

ita enim senectus honesta est, si se ipsa defendit (Cat. Maj. 11), on this condition is old age honorable, if it defends itself.

si quidem me amaret, tum istuc prodesset (Ter. Eun. 446), if he loved me, then this would be profitable.

NOTE. — In this use sic and ea condicione are rare.

- c. The Apodosis is the principal clause of the conditional sentence, but may at the same time be subordinate to some other clause, and so be in the form of a Participle, an Infinitive, or a Phrase: as,
 - sepultura quoque prohibituri, ni rex humari iussisset (Q. C. viii. 2), intending also to deprive him of burial, unless the king had ordered him to be interred.

quod si praeterea nemo sequatur, tamen se cum sola decima legione iturum [esse] (B. G. i. 40), but if no one else would follow, he would go with the tenth legion alone.

si quos adversum proelium commoveret, hos reperire posse (id.), if the loss of a battle alarmed any, they might find, etc.

NOTE. — When the Apodosis itself is in Indirect Discourse, or in any dependent construction, the verb of the Protasis is regularly in the Subjunctive (as in the first two of the above examples, see § 337).

- d. Conditions are either (1) Particular or (2) General.
- 1. A Particular Condition refers to a definite act or series of acts occurring at some definite time.
- 2. A General Condition refers to any one of a class of acts which may occur (or may have occurred) at any time.

2. Classification.

- **305.** The principal or typical Forms of conditional sentences may be exhibited as follows:
 - a. SIMPLE CONDITIONS, with nothing implied as to fulfilment.
 - 1. Present, nothing implied. Present Indicative in both clauses.
 - si adest, bene est, if he is [now] here, it is well.
- 2. Past, nothing implied. Some past tense of the Indicative in both clauses.
 - si aderat, bene erat, if he was [then] here, it was well. si adfuit, bene fuit, if he has been here, it has been well.
 - b. FUTURE CONDITIONS (necessarily as yet unfulfilled).
 - I. More vivid.
 - (a) Future Indicative in both clauses.
 - si aderit, bene erit, if he is (shall be) here, it will be well.
- (β) Future Perfect Indicative in protasis, Future Indicative in apodosis (condition thought of as completed before conclusion begins).

¹ Cf. the Greek forms: — a. I. εἰ πράσσει τοῦτο, καλῶς ἔχει.

^{2.} εί ξπρασσε τοῦτο, καλῶς είχεν. εί ξπραξε τοῦτο, καλῶς ξσχεν.

b. I. ἐὰν πράσση τοῦτο, καλῶς ἔξει. 2. εἶ πράσσοι τοῦτο, καλῶς ἃν ἔχοι.

c. 1. εἰ ἔπρασσε τοῦτο, καλῶς αν εἰχεν. 2. εἰ ἔπραξε τοῦτο, καλῶς αν ἔσχεν.

d. I. εάν τις κλέπτη, κολάζεται. 2. εί επραζε τουτό, καλώς αν εσχ

- sī adfuerit, bene erit, if he is (shall have been) here, it will [then] be well (but it will not begin to be well until he actually is here).
- 2. Less vivid.
- (a) Present Subjunctive in both clauses.
- sī adsit, bene sit, if he should be (or were to be) here, it would be well.
- (β) Perfect Subjunctive in protasis, Present Subjunctive in apodosis (condition thought of as completed before conclusion begins).
 - sī adfuerit, bene sit, if he should be (should have been) here, it would [then] be well.
 - c. CONDITIONS CONTRARY TO FACT.
 - 1. Present, contrary to fact. Imperfect Subjunctive in both clauses.
 - sī adesset, bene esset, if he were [now] here, it would be well (but he is NOT here).
 - 2. Past, contrary to fact. Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses.
 - sī adfuisset, bene fuisset, if he had [then] been here, it would have been well (but he was NOT here).
- d. General Conditions. Usually not differing in form from Particular Conditions (a, b, and c); but sometimes distinguished in the cases following:—
 - 1. Present General Condition (Indefinite Time).
- (a) Present Subjunctive second person singular in protasis, Present Indicative in apodosis.
 - si hoc dicas, creditur, if any one [ever] says this, it is [always] believed.
 - (β) Perfect Indicative in protasis, Present in apodosis.
 - sī quid dīxit, crēditur, if he [ever] says anything, it is [always] believed.
 - 2. Past General Condition (Repeated Action in Past Time).
- (a) Imperfect Subjunctive in protasis, Imperfect Indicative in apodosis.
 - sī quid diceret, crēdēbātur, if he [ever] said anything, it was [always] believed (= whatever he said was always believed).
 - (β) Pluperfect Indicative in protasis, Imperfect in apodosis.
 - si quid dixerat, credebatur, if he [ever] said anything, it was [always] a. / believed.

REMARK.—The use of tenses in Protasis is very loose in English. Thus if he is alive now is a PRESENT condition, to be expressed in Latin by the Present Indicative; if he is alive next year is a FUTURE condition, expressed in Latin by the Future Indicative. Again, if he were here now is a PRESENT condition contrary to fact, and would be expressed by the Imperfect Subjunctive; if he were to see me thus is a FUTURE condition less vivid to be expressed by the Present Subjunctive; and so too, if you advised him, he would attend may be future less vivid.

3. Present and Past Conditions - Nothing Implied.

306. In the statement of present and past conditions whose falsity is NOT implied, the present and past tenses of the Indicative are used in both Protasis and Apodosis. Thus,—

si tu exercitusque valetis, bene est (Fam. v. 2), if you and the army are well, it is well. [Present Condition.]

haec igitur, sī Romae es; sīn abes, aut etiam sī ades, haec negotia sīc sē habent (Att. v. 18), this, then, if you are at Rome; but if you are away — or even if you are there — these matters are as follows.

[Present.]

si qui magnis ingeniis in eo genere exstiterunt, non satis Graecorum gloriae responderunt (Tusc. i. 2, 3), if any men have appeared of great genius in that branch, they have failed to compete with the glory of the Greeks.

[Past Condition.]

accēpī Romā sine epistulā tuā fasciculum litterārum in quo sī modo valuisti et Romae fuistī Philotimī dūco esse culpam non tuam (Att. v. 17), I have received from Rome a bundle of letters without any from you, which, provided you have been well and at Rome, I take to be the fault of Philotimus, not yours. [Mixed: Past condition and present conclusion.]

quas litteras, si Romae es, videbis putesne reddendas (Att. v. 18), as to this letter, if you are at Rome, you will see whether in your opinion it

ought to be delivered. [Mixed: Present and Future.]

si nemo impetravit adroganter rogo (Ligar. 10, 31), if no one has succeeded in obtaining it, my request is presumptuous. [Past and Present.]

a. In these conditions, the apodosis need not always be in the Indicative; but may assume any form, according to the sense. Thus,—

si placet...videāmus (Cat. Maj. 5), if you please, let us see. [Hortatory.] fuerit hoc censoris, si iūdicābat (Div. i. 16), suppose it was the censor's duty, if he judged it false. [Hortatory Subjunctive.]

si nondum satis cernitis, recordamini (Milo, 23, 61), if you do not yet see

clearly, recollect. [Imperative.]

si quid habes certius, velim scire (Att. iv. 10), if you have any trustworthy information, I should like to know it. [Subjunctive of Modesty, § 311. b.]

NOTE.—Although the form of these conditions does not imply anything as to the truth of the supposition, the sense or the context may of course have some such implication: as,—

nolite, sī in nostro omnium fletu nullam lacrimam aspexistis Milonis, hoc minus ei parcere (Milo, 34, 92), do not, if amid the weeping of us all you have seen no tear [in the eyes] of Milo, spare him the less for that.

ā

petimus a vobis, iudices, si qua divina in tantis ingeniis commendatio debet esse, ut eum in vestram accipiatis fidem (Arch. 12, 31), we ask you, judges, if there ought to be anything in such genius to recommend it to us as by a refommendation of the gods, that you receive him under your protection.

In these two passages, the protests really expresses eause: but the cause is put by the speaker in the form of a non-committal condition. His hearers are to draw the inference for themselves. In this way the desired impression is made on their minds more affectively than if an autspoken causal clause had been need.

4. Future Conditions.

307. Future Conditions may be more or less vivid.

- 1. In a more vivid future condition the protasis makes a distinct supposition of a future case, the apodosis expressing what will be the result.
- 2. In a less vivid future condition, the supposition is less distinct, the apodosis expressing what would be the result in the case supposed.
- a. In the more vivid future condition the Future Indicative is used in both protasis and apodosis: as,—

sānābimur sī volēmus (Tusc. iii. 6), we shall be healed if we wish. quod sī legere aut audīre volētis...reperiētis (Cat. Maj. 6), if you will [shall wish to] read or hear, you will find.

NOTE. — In English the protasis is usually expressed by the Present Indicative, rarely by the future with SHALL. Often in Latin the Present Indicative is found in the protasis of a condition of this kind (cf. $\frac{1}{2}$ 276. c): as,—

- sī vincimus, omnia nobis tūta erunt; sīn metū cosserimus, eadem illa advorsa fient (Sall. Cat. 58, 3), if we conquer, all things will be safe for us; but if we yield through fear, those same things will become hostile.
- sī pereō hominum manibus periisse iuvābit (Æn. iii. 606), if I perish, it will be pleasant to have perished at the hands of men.
- b. In the less vivid future condition the Present Subjunctive is used in both protasis and apodosis: as,
 - haec si tecum patria loquatur, nonne impetrare debeat (Cat. i. 8), if your country should thus speak with thee, ought she not to prevail?
 - quod si quis deus mihi largiatur... valde recusem (Cat. Maj. 23), but if some god were to grant me this, I should stoutly refuse.

REMARK.—The present subjunctive sometimes stands in protasis with the future in apodosis from a change in the point of view of the speaker.¹

- c. If the conditional act is regarded as completed before that of the apodosis begins, the Future Perfect is substituted for the Future Indicative in protasis, and the Perfect Subjunctive for the Present Subjunctive: as,
 - sin cum potuero, non venero, tum erit inimicus (Att. ix. 2), but if I do not come when I can, he will be unfriendly.
 - si non feceris ignoscam (Fam. v. 19), if you do not do it, I will excuse you.

REMARK.— The Future Perfect is very often used in the apodosis of a future condition: as.—

- vehementer mihi grātum fēceris, sī hunc adolēscentem hūmānitāte tuā comprehenderis (Fam. xiii. 15), you will do (will have done) me a great favor, if you receive this young man with your usual courtesy.
- d. Any form denoting or implying future time may stand in the apodosis of a future condition. So the Imperative, the participles in -dus and -rus, and verbs of necessity, possibility, and the like: as,
 - alius finis constituendus est si prius quid maxime reprehendere Scipio solitus sit dixero (Læl. 16), another limit must be set if I first state what Scipio was wont most to find fault with.
 - si me praeceperit satum, vos mandasse memento, if fate cuts me off too soon, do you remember that I ordered this (Q. C. ix. 7, 21).
 - nisi oculis videritis însidias Miloni a Clodio factas, nec deprecaturi sumus nec postulaturi (Milo, 2, 6), unless you see with your own eyes the plots laid against Milo by Clodius, I shall neither beg nor demand, etc. non possum istum accusare si cupiam (Verr. v. 41), I cannot accuse him if I should desire to.
- e. Rarely the Perfect Indicative is used in apodosis with a Present or even a Future in protasis, to represent the conclusion rhetorically as already accomplished: as,
 - si hoc bene fixum in animo est, vicistis (Liv. xxi. 44), if this is well fixed in your minds, you have conquered. [For you will have conquered.]
 - sī eundem [animum] habueritis, vīcimus (id. 43), if you shall have kept the same spirit, we have conquered.
- f. A future condition is frequently thrown back into past time, without implying that it is contrary to fact (§ 308). In such cases the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive may be used: as,—

It often depends entirely upon the view of the writer at the mbment, and not upon the nature of the condition, whether it shall be stated vividly or not; as in the proverbial "If the sky falls, we shall catch larks," the impossible condition is ironically put in the vivid form, to illustrate the absurdity of some other supposed condition stated by some one else.

non poterat nisi vellet (B. C. iii. 44), was not able unless he wished (cf. d, above).

Caesar sī peteret ... non quicquam proficeret (Hor. Sat. i. 3. 4), if even Caesar were to ask he would gain nothing. [Here the construction is not contrary to fact, but is simply sī petat non proficiat, thrown into past time.]

tumulus appāruit...sī lūce palam īrētur hostis praeventūrus erat (Liv. xxii. 24), a hill appeared...if they should go openly by light, the enemy would prevent. [If independent of appāruit, this would be, sī eātur, praeventūrus est (for praeveniat).]

NOTE. - This construction is not common except in Indirect Discourse (§ 337).

5. Conditions Contrary to Fact.

308. In the statement of a supposition known to be false, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used in both Protasis and Apodosis.¹ The imperfect refers to Present Time, the pluperfect to Past: as,—

quae sī exsequi nequīrem, tamen mē lectulus oblectāret meus (Cat. Maj. II), if I could not [now] follow this (an active life), yet my couch would afford me pleasure. [Present.]

nisi tu amīsissēs, nunquam recepissem (id. 4), unless you had lost it, I

should not have recovered it. [Past.]

si meum consilium auctoritasque valuisset, tu hodie egerés, nos liberi essemus, respublica non tot duces et exercitus amisisset (Phil. ii. 15), if my judgment and authority had prevailed [as they did not], you would this day be a beggar, we should be free, and the republic would not have lost so many leaders and armies. [Mixed Present and Past.] qui nisi revertisset, in eo conclavi ei cubandum fuisset, quod proxima

qui nisi revertisset, in eo conclavi ei cuoandum iuisset, quod proxima nocte conruit: ruinā igitur oppressus esset; at id neque si fatum fuerat effügisset, nec si non fuerat in eum cāsum incidisset (Div. ii. 8), if it had been decreed by fate, he would not have escaped, etc. [The apodosis of fuerat is not effügisset, but the whole conditional sentence of which effügisset is the apodosis; the real protasis of effügisset is revertisset (cf. § 311. d).]

a. In conditions contrary to fact the Imperfect often refers to past time, both in protasis and apodosis, especially when a repeated or continued action is denoted, or when the condition if true would still exist: as,—

The implication of faisity, in this construction, is not inherent in the Subjunctive; but comes from the transfer of a future condition to past time. Thus the time for the happening of the condition has, at the time of writing, already passed; so that, if the condition remains a condition, it must be contrary to fact. So past forms implying a future frequently take the place of the subjunctive in apodosis in this construction (see a, below, and head-note, p. 320).

hic si mentis esset suae, ausus esset educere exercitum (Pis. 21), if he were of sane mind, would he have dared to lead out the army? [Here esset denotes a continued state, past as well as present.]

non concidissent, nisi illud receptaculum classibus nostris pateret (Verr. ii.

1), [the power of Carthage] would not have fallen, unless that station had been open to our fleets. [Without the condition, patebat.]

REMARK.—This use necessarily arises from the fact that the pluperfect is equivalent to a future perfect in practicitio, and so represents the action as completed and momentary, rather than as continuing.

- b. In the apodosis of a condition contrary to fact the Past tenses of the Indicative may be used to express what was *intended*, or *likely*, or already begun: as,
 - si licitum esset mātrēs veniēbant (Verr. vi. 49), the mothers were coming if it had been allowed (see § 305. c. 2).
 - in amplexus filiae ruebat, nisi lictores obstitissent (Tac. A. xvi. 32), he was about rushing into his daughter's arms, unless the lictors had opposed.
 - iam tuta tenebam, ni gens crudelis ferro invasisset (Æn. vi. 358), I was just reaching a place of safety, had not the fierce people attacked me.

NOTE.—In such cases the apodosis may be regarded as elliptical. Thus,—
mātrēs veniebant (et vēnissent) sī licitum esset, the matrons were coming
(and would have kept on) if it had been allowed. [And so in the
other examples: tūta tenēbam (et tenuissen) sī, etc.]

REMARK. — In this use, the imperfect indicative corresponds in time to the imperfect subjunctive, and the perfect or pluperfect indicative to the pluperfect subjunctive.

- c. Verbs and expressions denoting necessity, propriety, possibility, duty, when used in the Apodosis of a condition contrary to fact are regularly put in the Imperfect, Perfect, or Pluperfect Indicative instead of the Subjunctive: as,
 - sī ita putāsset certe optābilius Milonī fuit (Mil. 11, 31), if he had thought so, surely it would have been preferable for Milo.
 - si Romae privatus esset hoc tempore, tamen is erat deligendus (Manil. 17), if he (Pompey) were at this time a private citizen at Rome, yet he ought to be appointed.

quod esse caput debebat si probari posset (Fin. iv. 9), what ought to be the main point if it could be proved.

nam nos decebat lagere (Tusc. i. 48, 115), for it would best us to mourn.

1 Such are possum, decet, oportet, debeo, and the Second Periphrastic Conjugation. Observe that all these expressions contain the idea of futurity (cf. note above). Thus, decet me [nodie] Ire cras, means it is proper for me [to-day] to go to-morrow; and, decebat me [heri] Ire hodie, it was proper for me [vesterday] to go to-day, usually with the implication that I have not gone as I was bound to.

- NOTE 1.— In this construction it is only the *thing necessary* (etc.) that is conditioned, and not the necessity itself. If the *necessity itself* is conditioned, the Subjunctive is used as with other verbs. The difference is often imperceptible, but may be seen in the following example:
 - quid facere potuissem nisi tum consul fuissem? consul autem esse qui potui nisi eum vitae cursum tenuissem a pueritia (Rep. i. 6), what could I have done if I had not then been consul; and how could I have been consul if I had not followed that course of life from boyhood.
 - NOTE 2.—This construction is sometimes carried still further in poetry: as,—sī non alium iactaret odorem, laurus erat (Georg. ii. 133), it were a laurel, but for giving out a different odor.
- d. The participle in -ūrus with eram or fuī may take the place of an Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in the Apodosis of a condition contrary to fact: as,
 - quid enim futūrum fuit [= fuisset], sī . . . (Liv. ii. 1), what would have happened if, etc.
 - neque ambigitur quin . . . id factūrus fuerit, sī . . . (id.), nor is there any question he would have done it if, etc. [Direct: fēcisset.]
 - ex quo intellegi potest quam acuti natura sint, qui haec sine doctrina credituri fuerint (Tusc. i. 21), hence it may be understood how keen they are by nature, who, without instruction, would have believed this.

 [Here the condition is contained in the words sine doctrina.]
 - adeo parata seditio fuit, ut Othonem rapturi fuerint, ni incerta noctis timuissent (Tac. H. i. 26), so far advanced was the conspiracy that they would have seized upon Otho, had they not feared the hazards of the night. [In a main clause: rapuissent ni timuissent.]
- NOTE.—This construction is regularly used when the apodosis is itself a dependent clause requiring the subjunctive, and also in Indirect Discourse. In Indirect Discourse fuisse replaces eram or ful (see § 337).
- e. The Present and Perfect subjunctive are sometimes used in poetry in the protasis and apodosis of conditions contrary to fact: as,
 - ni comes admoneat, inruat (An. vi. 293), had not his companion warned him, he would have rushed on.
 - ni faciat, maria ac terras ferant (id. i. 58), unless ne did this, they would bear away sea and land.

NOTE.—This is probably a remnant of an old construction. Its use puts the condition in a vivid form,—as if possible at any moment in the future though nor now true.

6. General Conditions.

309. General Conditions (§ 304. d) have usually the same forms as Particular Conditions. But they are sometimes distinguished in the following three cases:—

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a. The Subjunctive is sometimes used in the second person singular, to denote the act of an Indefinite Subject (you = any one). Here the Indicative of a general truth may stand in the apodosis: as, —

mens prope uti ferrum est: si exerceas conteritur; nisi exerceas, rubiginem contrahit (Cato de Mor.), the mind is very like iron: if you use it, it wears away; if you don't use it, it gathers rust.

virtutem necessario gloria, etiamsi tu id non agas, consequitur (Tusc. i. 38), glory necessarily follows virtue, even if that is not one's aim.

si prohibita impune transcenderis, neque metus ultra neque pudor est (Tac. A. iii. 54), if you once overstep the bounds with impunity, there is no fear nor shame any more.

si cederes placabilis (Tac. Ann.), [he was] easily appeased if one yielded.

b. In later writers (not in Cicero), the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used in protasis, with the Imperfect Indicative in apodosis, to state a repeated or customary action in past time: as, -

accusatores, si facultas incideret, poenis adficiebantur (Tac. A. vi. 30), the accusers, whenever opportunity offered, were visited with punishment.

c. In a general condition in present time, the protasis often takes the Perfect, and the apodosis the Present Indicative. For past time, the Pluperfect is used in the protasis, and the Imperfect in the apodosis. Thus. ---

si quos aliqua membrorum parte inutiles notaverunt, necari iubent (Q. C. ix. 1, 3), if they [ever] mark any infirm in any part of their limbs, they [always] order them to be put to death. [Present.]

si a persequendo hostes deterrere nequiverant ab tergo circumveniebant (Jug. 50), if [ever] they were unable to prevent the enemy from pursuing, they [always] surrounded them in the rear. [Past.]

d. In all other cases, general suppositions—including those introduced by Indefinite Relatives—are not distinguished in form from Particular Conditions.

7. Condition Disguised.

- 310. In many sentences properly conditional, the Protasis is not expressed by a conditional clause, but is stated in some other form of words or implied in the nature of the thought. Thus, -
- a. The condition may be implied in a Clause or in a Participle, Noun. Adverb, or some other word or phrase. Thus, -

facile me paterer - illo ipso iudice quaerente - pro Sex. Roscio dicere (Rosc. Am. 30, 85), I should readily allow myself to speak for Roscius if that very judge were conducting the trial. [Present contrary to fact: si quaereret, etc.]

- non mihi, nisi admonito, venisset in mentem (De Or. ii. 42), it would not have come into my mind unless [I had been] reminded. [Past contrary to fact: nisi admonitus essem.]
- nulla alia gens tanta mole cladis non obruta esset (Liv. xxii. 54), there is no other people that would not have been crushed by such a weight of disaster. [Past contrary to fact: sī alia fuisset.]
- nemo unquam sine magna spe immortalitatis, se pro patria offerret ad mortem (Tusc. i. 15), no one, without great hope of immortality, would ever expose himself to death for his country. [Present contrary to fact: nisi magnam spem haberet.]
- quid hunc paucorum annorum accessio iuvare potuisset (Læl. 3), what good could the addition of a few years have done him (if they had been added)? [Past contrary to fact: sī accessissent.]
- qui igitur mihi ferārum laniātus oberit nihil sentientī (Tusc. i. 13, 104), what harm will the mangling by wild beasts do me if I don't feel anything (feeling nothing)? [Future more vivid: sī nihil sentiam.]
- incitāta semel proclīve lābuntur (Tusc. iv. 18), if once given a push, they slide down rapidly. [Present General: sī incitāta sunt.]
- b. The condition may be contained in a Wish (optative subjunctive), or expressed as an Exhortation or Command (hortatory subjunctive, or imperative): as,
 - utinam quidem fuissem! molestus nobis non esset (Fam. xii. 3), I wish I had been [chief]: he would not now be troubling us (i.e. if I had been). [Optative Subjunctive.]
 - naturam expellas furca, tamen usque recurret (Hor. Ep. i. 10. 24) drive out nature with a pitchfork, still she will ever return. [Hortatory.]
 - roges enim Aristonem, neget (Fin. iv. 25), for ask Aristo, he would deny. manent ingenia senibus, modo permaneat studium et industria (Cat. Maj. 7), old men keep their mental powers, only let them keep their zeal and diligence (§ 266. d). [Hortatory.]
 - tolle hanc opinionem, luctum sustuleris (Tusc. i. 13), remove this notion, and you will have done away with grief. [Imperative.]
- NOTE.—The so-called *concessive subjunctive* with ut and $n\bar{e}$ is really hortatory, and often has the force of protasis (§ 313. a): as,
 - ut enim rationem Plato nullam afferret, ipsa auctoritate me frangeret (Tusc. i. 21, 49), even if Plato gave no reasons, [still] he would overpower me, etc.
- c. Rarely the condition takes the form of an independent clause: as,
 - rīdēs: māiōre cachinnō concutitur (Juv. iii. 100), you laugh; he shakes with louder laughter (= if you laugh, he shakes).

¹ This usage is probably the origin of the use of the subjunctive in Protasis; the subjunctive being used first as in § 266, while the conditional particle is a form of an indefinite pronoun (see head-note, p. 320).

commovē: senties (Tusc. iv. 24), stir him up [and] you'll find, etc. de paupertate agitur: multi patientes pauperes commemorantur (Tusc. iii. 24), we speak of poverty; many patient poor are mentioned.

d. The condition is often contained in a Relative Clause (see § 316).

REMARK.—For the use of a participle as APODOSIS, see § 304. c.

8. Condition Omitted.

311. The Protasis is often wholly omitted, but may be inferred from the course of the argument. Thus, —

poterat Sextilius impūnē negāre: quis enim redargueret (Fin. ii. 17), Sextilius might have denied with impunity; for who would prove him wrong (if he had).

REMARK. -- Under this head belongs the so-called POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

I. POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

a. The Potential Subjunctive is used to denote an action not as actually performed, but as possible.

In this use the Present and the Perfect refer without distinction to the immediate *future*; the Imperfect to *past* time. The second person is common, indicating an Indefinite Subject (cf. § 309. a). Thus,—

hīc quaerat quispiam (N. D. ii. 53), here some one may ask. assimilāre freto possīs (Ov. M. v. 6), you might compare. ut aliquis fortasse dīxerit (Off. iii. 6), as one may perhaps say.

forsitan haec illi mirentur (Verr. v. 56), they may perchance marvel at these things.

tum in lecto quoque videres susurros (Hor. Sat. ii. 8. 77), then on each couch you might hear whisperings.

NOTE 1. - The Present is sometimes used for the Imperfect: as,-

migrantis cernas (Æn. iv. 401), you might have seen them moving.

NOTE 2.—The Pluperfect is rare in this construction. Its place is supplied by the Imperfect, \mathcal{F} ;

putāssēs ēius lūctūs aliquem finem esse dēbēre (Sen. Dial. 6, 13), you would have thought there ought to be some end to his grief.

NOTE 3.—The subjunctive with forsitan does not differ in meaning from the Potential Subjunctive, but is really an Indirect Question (\S 334. g).

REMARK.—The potential subjunctive is strictly an apodosis with omitted protasis. Sometimes the protasis may be easily supplied, but often none is present to the mind of the speaker. So also the Subjunctive of Modesty (6, below).

II. SUBJUNCTIVE OF MODESTY.

b. The Subjunctive is used in cautious, modest, or hypothetical statements (coniunctīvus modestiae). This use is especially common in a polite wish, with velim or vellem. Thus,—

pace tua dixerim (Mil. 28), I would say by your leave.
haud sciam an (De Or. 1. 25, I should incline to think.
tū velim sīc exīstimēs (Fam. xii. 6), I should like you to think so.
vix ausim crēdere (Ov. M. vi. 561), I should hardly dare believe.

vellem adesset M. Antonius (Phil. i. 7), I could wish Antony were here.
[Here vellem implies an unfulfilled wish in present time; volo or nolo would express a peremptory wish.]

haec erant fere quae tibi nota esse vellem (Fam. xii. 5), this is about what I should like you to know. [Here vellem is simply velim transferred to past time on account of erat (epistolary), by sequence of tenses, and does not imply an impossible wish.]

III. VERBS OF NECESSITY.

c. The Indicative of verbs signifying necessity, propriety, and the like, may be used in the apodosis of implied conditions, either future or contrary to fact: as,—

12 longum est ea dicere, sed . . . (Fis. 10), it would be tedious to tell, etc. [Future.]

illud erat aptius, aequum cuique concedere (Fin. iv. 1), it would be more fitting to yield each one his rights.

quanto melius fuerat (Off. iii. 25), how much better it would have been.

quod contra decuit ab illo meum [corpus cremari] (Cat. Maj.), whereas on the other hand mine ought to have been burnt by him.

ipsum enim exspectare magnum fuit (Phil. ii. 40), would it have been a great matter to wait for the man himself?

nam nos decebat domum lugere ubi esset aliquis in lucem editus (Tusc. i. 48), for it were fitting to mourn the house where a man has been born (but we do not).

nunc est bibendum . . . nunc Saliāribus ornāre pulvīnar deorum tempus erat dapibus sodālēs (Hor. Od. i. 37. 1), i.e. it would be time (if it were for us to do it, but it is a public act).

REMARK.—Notice that, in this construction, the Imperfect indicative refers to present time; the Pluperfect to simply past time, like the perfect. Thus oportobat means it ought to be [now], but is not; oportuorat means it ought to have been, but was not.

NOTE. — In many cases it is impossible to say whether a protasis was present to the mind of the speaker or not (see third example above).

9. Complex Conditions.

d. Either the protasis or the apodosis may be a complex idea in which the main statement is made with expressed or implied qualifications. In such cases the true logical relation of the parts is sometimes disguised: as,—

_

si quis horum dixisset ... si verbum de republica fecisset ... multa plura dixisse quam dixisset putaretur (Rosc. Am. 1), if any of these had spoken in case he had said a word about politics, he would be thought to have said much more than he did say. [Here the apodosis of dixisset is the whole of the following statement (si... putaretur), which is itself conditioned by a protasis of its own: sī verbum, etc.].

quod si in hoc mundo fieri sine deo non potuit ne in sphaera quidem eosdem motus sine divino ingenio potuisset imitari (Tusc. i. 25), now if that cannot be done in this universe without divine agency, no more could [Archimedes] in his orrery have imitated the same revolutions without divine genius. [Here sī potuit (a protasis with nothing implied) has for its apodosis the whole clause which follows, but potuisset has a contrary-to-fact protasis of its own implied in sine ... ingenio.]

peream male si non optimum erat (Hor. Sat. ii. 1. 6), confound me (may I perish wretchedly) if it wouldn't be better. [Here peream is apodosis to the rest of the sentence, while the true protasis to optimum erat, contrary to fact. is omitted.]

10. Particles of Comparison (Conclusion Omitted).

312. The particles of Comparison — tamquam, tamquam sī, quasi, ācsī, utsī, velutsī, veluti, and poetic ceu (all meaning as if), and quam sī (than if) — take the Present or Perfect Subjunctive, unless the sequence of tenses requires the Imperfect or Pluperfect. Thus, —

tamquam clausa sit Asia (Fam. xii. 9), as if Asia were closed.

tamquam sī claudus sim (Plaut. Asin. ii. 4, 21), just as if I were lame (i.e. just as it would be if I should be lame).

ita hos [honores] petunt, quasi honeste vixerint (Jug. 85), they seek them (offices) just as if they had lived honorably.

quasi vero non specie visa indicentur (Acad. ii. 18), as if for sooth visible things were not judged by their appearance.

similiter facis ac si me roges (N. S. iii. 3), you do exactly as if you asked me. aeque ac si mea negotia essent (Fam. xiii. 43), as much as if it were my own business.

velut sī coram adesset (B. G. i. 32), as if he were present in person. ceu cetera nusquam bella forent (Æn. ii. 438), as if there were no fighting elsewhere.

magis quam sī domī essēs (Att. vii. 4), more than if you were at home.

REMARK.—The English idiom would lead us to expect the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive with these particles; but the point of view is different in the two languages. Thus the second example above is translated just as if I were lame,—as if it were a present condition contrary to fact; but it really means just as [it would be] if I should [at some future time] be lame, and so is a less vivid future condition requiring the present subjunctive. Similarly quast honests vixerint, as if they had lived honorably, is really as [they would do in the future] if they should have lived honorably, and so requires the Perfect Subjunctive (§ 307. c.).

NOTE.—These subjunctive clauses are really future conditions with apodosis implied in the particle itself. Thus in tamquam si claudus sim the protasis is introduced by si, and the apodosis implied in tamquam.

11. Concessive Clauses.

313. The particles of Concession (meaning although, granting that) are the following: quamquam, quamlibet, quamvis, quantum vis, ut, no, cum, licet, etsi, tametsi, etiamsi.

Some of these take the Subjunctive, others the Indicative. Thus

- a. Quamvis, ut, and no take the Subjunctive (§ 266.c): as, quamvis ipsi infantes sint, tamen . . . (Or. 23), however incapable of speaking they themselves may be, yet, etc.
- ut neminem alium rogasset (Mil. 17), even if he had asked no other.
- no sit sane summum dolor: malum certe est (Tusc. ii. 5, 14), suppose pain is not the greatest evil, still it surely is an evil.
- NOTE. Quamvis means literally, as much as you will. Thus in the example above, let them be as indepable as you will, still, etc. The subjunctive with quamvis and no is hortatory; that with ut is of incertain origin.
- b. Licet (properly a verb) takes a Substantive clause in the Subjunctive (§ 331. c): as,—

licet omnes in me terrores periculaque impendeant (Rosc. Am. 11), though all terrors and perils should menace me.

NOTE.—The subjunctive with licet is by the sequence of tenses necessarily limited to the Present and Perfect tenses.

- c. Etsī, etlamsī, tametsī, even if, take the same constructions as sī (§ 305): as,
 - etsi abest maturitas (Fam. vi. 18), though ripeness of age is wanting.
 - etsi nunquam dubium fuit (id. v. 19), although it has never been doubtful. etsi statueram (id. v. 5), though I had determined.
 - etsi nihil aliud abstulissetis (Sull. 32), even if you had taken away nothing else.
 - etiamsi quod scribas non habebis, scribito tamen (Fam. xvi. 26), even if you [shall] have nothing to write, still write.
 - sed ea tametsi vos parvi pendēbātis (Sall. Cat. 52), but although you regarded those things as of small account.
 - d. Cum concessive takes the Subjunctive (see § 326): as, -
 - cum mihi non omnino excidisset (Fam. v. 13), though it had not entirely vanished [from my mind].

NOTE.—In early Latin cum (quom) concessive usually takes the Indicative: as,—

- nil quom est nil desit tamen (Ter. Eun. 243), while I have nothing, still nothing is wanting. [See also § 326, note 3.]
- e. Quamquam introduces an admitted fact and takes the Indicative: as.
 - omnibus quamquam ruit ipse suis cladibus pestem denuntiat (Phil. xiv. 3), though he is breaking down under his disasters, still he threatens all with destruction.
- f. Quamquam more commonly means and yet, introducing a new proposition in the indicative: as,
 - quamquam haec quidem tolerābilia vidēbantur, etsi, etc. (Mil. 28), and yet these, in truth, seemed now bearable, though, etc.
- g. The poets and later writers frequently use quamvis and quamquam like etsi, connecting them with the Indicative or the Subjunctive, according to the nature of the condition. Thus,—

quamquam mov rētur (Liv. xxxvi. 34), although he was moved.

Pollio amat nostram, quamvīs est rūstica, mūsam (Ecl. iii. 84), Pollio loves my muse, though she is rustic.

quamvīs pervēnerās (Liv. ii. 40), though you had come.

NOTE.—Even dicero occasionally uses quashquam with the Subjunctive:
,—
quamquam ne id quidem suspicionem coitionis habuerit (Playe. 22), though
not guen that raised any suspicion of a coalition.

- h. The Relative pronoun **quī** is often used with the Subjunctive to express concession (see § 320. e).
- i. Concession is often expressed by the Hortatory Subjunctive without a particle (§ 266): as,
 - sit clārus Scipiō, ōrnētur eximiā laude Āfricānus, habeātur vir ēgregius Paullus ... erit profectō inter hōrum laudēs aliquid locī nostrae glōriae (Cat. iv. 10, 21), let Scipio be renowned, let Africanus be honored with especial praise, let Paulus be regarded as a remarkable man, [still] there will surely be some room for my glory amid the praises of these men.

12. Proviso.

314. Dum, modo, dummodo, or tantum, introducing a Proviso, takes the Subjunctive: as,—

oderint dum metuant (Off. i. 28), let them hate, if only they fear. valetūdo modo bona sit (Brut. 16), provided the health is good. dummodo inter mē atque tē murus intersit (Cat. i. 5), provided only the wall (of the city) is between us.

a. In a negative proviso ne is used, with or without modo, etc.: as, modo në sit ex pecudum genere (Off. i. 30), provided [in pleasure] he be not of the herd of cattle.

id faciat saepe, dum ne lassum fiat (Cato R. R. v. 4), let him do this often, provided he does not get tired.

dummodo ea (sevēritās) ne varietur (O. Fr. i. I), provided only it (strictness) be not allowed to swerve.

tantum ne noceat (Ov. M. ix. 21), only let it do no harm.

NOTE. — The Subjunctive with modo is hortatory (§ 266. d); that with dum and dummodo, a development from the use of the Subjunctive with dum in temporal clauses, § 328 (compare the colloquial, so long as my health is good, I don't care).

b. The Hortatory Subjunctive without a particle sometimes expresses a proviso (see § 266. d): as, —

sint Maecenates, non decrunt, Flacce, Marones (Mart. viii. 56, 5), so there be Maecenases, Virgils will not be lacking.

NOTE. — For a clause of Result expressing proviso, see § 319. b.

13. Use of $S\overline{I}$ and its Compounds.

- **315.** The uses of some of the more common Conditional Particles may be stated as follows: -
- a. I. Sī is used for affirmative, nisi (nī) and sī non for negative conditions. With nisi (generally unless) the apodosis is stated as universally true except in the single case supposed, in which case it is (impliedly) not true. Thus, -

nisi Conon adest maereo, unless Conon is here, I mourn (i.e. I am always in a state of grief except in the single case of Conon's presence, in which case I am not).

With sī non (if not) the apodosis is only stated as true in the (negative) case supposed, but as to other cases no statement is made. Thus, -

sī Conon non adest maereo, if Conon is not here, I mourn (i.e. I mourn in the single case of Conon's absence, nothing being said as to other cases in which I may or may not mourn).

NOTE. - It often, however, makes no difference in which form the statement is made.

2. NI is an old form surviving in a few conventional phrases and reappearing in poets and later writers.

Sometimes nisi sī, except if, unless, occurs: as, -

- noli putare me ad quemquam longiores epistulas scribere, nisi sī quis ad me plura scripsit (Fam. xiv. 2), except in case one writes more to me.
- b. Nisi vērō and nisi forte regularly introduce an objection or exception ironically, and take the Indicative: as, -

il

nisi vēro L. Caesar crūdēlior visus est (Cat. iv. 6), unless indeed L. Casar seemed too cruel.

nisi forte volumus Epicureorum opinionem sequi (De Fato, 16), unless to be sure we choose to follow the notion of the Epicureans.

NOTE. — This is the regular way of introducing a reductio ad absurdum in Latin. Nisi alone is sometimes used in this sense: as,—

nisi unum hoc faciam ut in puteo cenam coquant (Plaut. Aul. 363), unless I do this one thing, [make them] cook dinner in the well.

c. Sive (seu)...sive (seu), whether...or, introduce a condition in the form of an alternative. They may be used with any form of condition, or with different forms in the two members. Often also they are used without a verb. Thus,—

nam illö locö ibentissime soleö üti, sīve quid mecum ipse cogito, sīve quid aut scribo aut lego (De Leg. ii. 1), for I enjoy myself most in that place, whether I am thinking by myself, or am either writing or reading.

NOTE. - Sive ... seu and seu ... sive are late or poetic.

d. Nisi is often used loosely by the comic poets in the sense of only: as, —

ecce autem de integro: nisi quidquid est volo scire (Ter. Ad. 153), but there it is again; only whatever it is I want to know it.

CHAPTER V. — Dependent Constructions.

I. - RELATIVE CLAUSES.

The Relative, being in origin a weak demonstrative (or possibly, in some cases, an interrogative), may be used indifferently with either the indicative or the subjunctive. A simple relative, introducing a merely descriptive fact, takes the Indicative, as any demonstrative would do. Thus, tellüs quae fuerat rudis. But many relative constructions take the subjunctive to indicate a closer logical connection between the relative clause and the main clause.

These constructions have grown up from the future meaning of the subjunctive, each with its own special development. In general they are of two kinds, which are not, however, very distinct in meaning: t. clauses where the implied logical connection is that of Purpose; 2. clauses which express more or less distinctly some Characteristic of the antecedent. Of these last the most common is the ordinary clause of Result. Besides these two classes, however, there are general relatives of Protasis, in which the indefinite relatives unocurer, whenever, etc., are regarded as conditional expressions, equivalent to, if any one, if at any time, etc.

Dependent Relative Clauses may be thus classified: -

1. Conditional Relative Clauses (§ 316).

2. Clauses of PURPOSE (Final Clauses) (§ 317).

3. Clauses of CHARACTERISTIC, including —

a. Simple Result (Consecutive Clauses) (§ 319).

b. Clauses of Characteristic (including cause and hindrance) (\$\\$ 320, 321).

c. Clauses of Time (§ 322 ff.).

1. Conditional Relative Clauses.

- 316. A clause introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Relative Adverb may be treated as a conditional clause and take any of the constructions of Protasis¹ (§ 305): as,
 - quī enim vitis modum apponit, is partem suscipit vitiorum (Tusc. iv. 18), he who [only] sets a limit to faults, takes up the side of the faults. [= sī quis apponit.]

quicquid potuit, potuit ipsa per se (Agr. 1, 7), whatever power she had, she had by herself. [= sī quid potuit.]

quod quī faciet, non aegritudine solum vacabit, sed, etc. (Tusc. iv. 17), and he who does [shall do] this, will be free not only, etc. [= sī quis faciet.]

quisquis huc vonerit vapulabit (Plaut. Am. 153), whoever comes here shall get a thrashing. [= sī quis vonerit.]

¹ As in the Greek δs Åν, δταν, etc.; and in statutes in English, where the phrases if any person shall and whoever shall are used indifferently.

philosophia, cui qui pareat, omne tempus aetatis sine molestia possit degere (Cat. Maj. 1), philosophy, which IF anyone should obey, he would be able to spend his whole life without vexation. [= si quis pāreat.]

quaecumque causa vos huc attulisset, laetarer (De Or. ii. 4). I should be glad, whatever cause had brought you here (i.e. if any other, as well as the one which did). [= si...attulisset.]

NOTE. - The relative in this construction is always Indefinite in meaning, and usually in form.

- a. The special constructions of General Conditions are sometimes found in Conditional Relative Clauses: viz., -
- 1. The Second Person Singular of the Subjunctive in the protasis with the Indicative of a general truth in the apodosis (§ 300. a): as. —

bonus segnior fit, ubi neglegas (Jug. 31), a good man becomes less diligent when you don't watch him.

- 2. In later writers the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in the protasis and the Imperfect Indicative in the apodosis (§ 300. b): as.
 - quocumque se intulisset, victoriam secum trahebat (Liv. vi. 8), wherever he advanced, he carried victory with him.
- 3. The Perfect or Pluperfect Indicative in the protasis and the Present or Imperfect Indicative in the apodosis (§ 309. c): as,
 - cum ad villam vēnī, hoc ipsum nihil agere mē dēlectat (De Or. ii. 6), whenever I come to the villa, this very doing nothing delights me (whenever I have come, etc.). [Present General Condition.]

cum rosam viderat, tum incipere ver arbitrabatur (Verr. v. 10), whenever he saw (had seen) a rose, then he thought spring was beginning. [Past General Condition.]

2. Clauses of Purpose.

NOTE. - The Subjunctive clause of Purpose has arisen either from the original future meaning of the subjunctive, or from its hortatory use. Either affords a satisfactory analysis. If developed from the hortatory subjunctive, the Subjunctive of Purpose has come through a kind of indirect discourse construction (for which see § 340). Thus misit legatos qui dicerent means either he sent ambassadors who would say (future use), or, he sent ambassadors who should say, i.e. let them say (cf. hortatory subjunctive in past tenses, § 266. e, and hortatory clauses in Indirect Discourse, § 339).

As ut (uti) is of relative origin, the construction with ut is the same as that of relatives. That with ne is, no doubt, in origin, a hortatory subjunctive.

317. A clause expressing purpose is called a Final Clause.

Final clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut (uti), negative no (ut no), or by a Relative pronoun or adverb.

Final clauses may be divided into Pure, Relative, and Substantive.

- 1. Pure Clauses of Purpose are introduced by ut (uti) or nē. They express the purpose of the main verb in the form of a modifying clause.
- 2. Relative Clauses of Purpose are introduced by the Relative pronoun quī, or by the Relative adverbs ubi, unde, quō, etc. The antecedent is expressed or implied in the main clause.
- 3. Substantive Clauses of Purpose are introduced by ut (uti), negative no. They differ from Pure final Clauses in having the construction of a substantive. (For Substantive Clauses of Purpose, see § 331.)

Examples of Pure and Relative clauses of purpose are: -

- ab arātro abdūxērunt Cincinnatum, ut dictator esset (Fin. ii. 4), they brought Cincinnatus from the plough that he might be dictator.
- ne qua etus adventus procul significatio fiat (B. G. vi. 29), that no sign of his arrival may be made at a distance.
- ut ne sit impune (Mil. 12), that it be not with impunity.
- scribedat orationes quas alii dicerent (Brut. 56), he wrote speeches for other men to deliver.
- nihil habeo quod scribam, I have nothing to write.
- eo exstincto fore unde discerem neminem (Cat. Maj. 4), that when he was dead there would be nobody from whom (whence) I could learn.
- huic në ubi consisteret quidem contra të locum reliquisti (Quinct. 22), you have lest him no ground even to make a stand against you.
- habebam quo confugerem (Fam. iv. 6), I had [a retreat] whither I might flee.

NOTE.—The Relative in this construction is equivalent to ut with the corresponding demonstrative. Thus qui = ut is (etc.), ubi = ut ibi, and so on (cf. § 319. note).

a. Sometimes the relative or conjunction has a correlative in the main clause: as,—

legum ideired omnes servi sumus, ut liberi esse possimus (Clu. 53), for this reason we are all subject to the laws, that we may be free.

- eo consilio . . . ut (regularly), with this design, that, etc.
- ea causa ... ne, for this reason, lest, etc.
- hoc consilio ut montium tegerentur altitudine (Nep. Milt. 5), with this purpose, that they might be protected by the height of the mountains.

- b. The ablative quō (= ut eō) is used as a conjunction in final clauses which contain a comparative: as,
 - libertate usus est, quo impunius dicax esset (Quinct. 3), he took advantage of liberty, that he might bluster with more impunity (by which the more easily).
- Note 1.—So quōminus (= ut eō minus) introduces a subjunctive clause after verbs of hindering (see § 331. e).
- NOTE 2. Occasionally quo introduces final clauses which do not contain a comparative: as,
 - quo sibi (exercitum) fidum faceret (Sall. Cat. 11), in order to make the army devoted to himself.
- c. The Principal clause, on which a final clause depends, is often to be supplied from the context. Thus,
 - āc nē longum sit . . . iūssimus (Cat. iii. 5), and, not to be tedious, we ordered, etc. [Strictly, in order not to be tedious, I say, we ordered.]
 - sed ut ad Dionysium redeamus (Tusc. v. 22), but to return to Dionysius.
 - sed ut eodem revertar, causa haec fuit timoris (Fam. vi. 7), but, to return to the same point, this was the cause of fear.
 - satis inconsiderati fuit, ne dicam audacis (Phil. xii. 5), it was the act of one rash enough, not to say daring.
- REMARK. By a similar ellipsis the subjunctive is used with nodum (sometimes no), still less, not to mention that: as,
 - nedum . . . salvi esse possimus (Clu. 35), much less could we be safe.
 - nodum isti . . . non statim conquisituri sint aliquid sceleris et flagiti (Leg. Ag. ii. 35), far more will they hunt up at once some sort of crime and scandal. nedum in mari et via sit facile (Fam. xvi. 8), still less is it easy at sea, and on a journey.
 - quippe secundae res sapientium animos fatigant; ne illi corruptis moribus victoriae temperarent (Sall. Cat. 11), for prosperity overmasters the soul even of the wise; much less did they with their corrupt morals put any check on victory.
 - NOTE. With nedum the verb itself is often omitted: as, -
 - aptius humanitati tuae quam tota Peloponnesus, nedum Patrae (Fam. vii. 28, 1), fitter for your refinement than all Peloponnesus, to say nothing of Patra.
- REMARK. Clauses of Purpose are sometimes rendered in English by that, or in order that, with may or might; but more frequently by the Infinitive with TO: as, veni ut viderem, I came to see (that I might see).
- 318. The Purpose of an action is expressed in Latin in various ways; but never (except rarely in poetry) by the simple Infinitive as in English (§ 273).
 - The sentence, they came to seek peace, may be rendered —

- (1) vēnērunt ut pācem peterent. [Final clause with ut (§ 317).]
 (2) vēnērunt qui pācem peterent. [Final clause with Relative (§ 317).]
- (3) [venerunt ad petendum pacem.] (Not found with transitive verbs (§ 300, note), but cf. ad parendum senatui.) [Gerund with ad (§ 300).]

(4) venerunt ad petendam pacem. [Gerundive with ad (§ 300).]

- (5) venerunt pacem petendi causa (gratia). [Gen. of Gerund with causa (§ 298. c).]
- (6) venerunt pacis petendae causa (gratia). [Gen. of Gerundive with causa (§ 298. c).]
- (7) venerunt pacem petituri. [Future participle (§ 293. b): not in Cicero.]

(8) venerunt pacem petitum. [Former supine (§ 302).]

These forms are not used indifferently, but —

a. The usual way of expressing purpose is by ut (negatively ne), unless the purpose is closely connected with some one word, in which case a relative is more common. Thus. -

Arria gladium dedit marito ut se interficeret, Arria gave her husband a sword to kill himself (that he might kill himself).

Arria gladium dedit marito quo se interficeret, Arria gave her husband a sword to kill himself WITH (with which he might, etc.).

- b. The Gerund and Gerundive constructions of purpose are usually limited to short expressions, where the literal translation of the phrase, though not the English idiom, is nevertheless not harsh or strange.
- c. The Supine is used to express purpose only with verbs of motion, and in a few idiomatic expressions (§ 302).
- d. The Future Participle used to express purpose, is a late construction of inferior authority (§ 293. b).

3. Clauses of Result.

NOTE. — The use of the Subjunctive to express Result comes from its use in Clauses of Characteristic. The clause of CHARACTERISTIC is a development peculiar to Latin, and has its origin in the potential use of the subjunctive (§ 311. a). A Protasis was, perhaps, originally implied, though this is not necessary to the analysis. The difference between the Subjunctive in such clauses and the Indicative of simple description is that the subjunctive expresses what would happen in a supposed case, while the indicative states what does or did in fact take place. The most common and obvious use of this construction is to express a quality of characteristic of an indefinite antecedent (either expressed or implied). Thus, is [Epicurus] qui ponat summum bonum in voluptate would mean, literally, a man who would (in any supposable case) make the highest good consist in pleasure. This serves to express a characteristic of the indefinite person referred to by is, making him one of a class; while is qui ponit would mean the man (Epicurus) who in fact does, etc. So, non sum ita hebes ut ita dicam would mean, literally, I am not dull in the manner (degree) in which I should say that. Since in these characteristic clauses the quality often appears in the form of a supposed result, the construction readily passes over into Pure Result, with no idea of characteristic: as, —

tantus terror omnēs occupāvit ut etiam ipse rēx ad flumen perfugerit, so great panic seized all that the king himself fled to the river.

319. A clause that expresses Result is called a Consecutive Clause.

Consecutive Clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut, so that (negative, ut non), or by a Relative (pronoun or adverb).

Consecutive Clauses may be divided into Pure, Relative, and Substantive (cf. § 317).

- 1. Pure Clauses of Result are introduced by ut or ut non. They express the result of the main verb in the form of a modifying clause.
- 2. Relative Clauses of Result are introduced by the Relative pronoun quī, or by the Relative adverbs ubi, unde, quō, etc. The antecedent is expressed or implied in the main clause.
- 3. Substantive Clauses of Result are introduced by ut or ut non. They differ from Pure consecutive clauses in having the construction of a substantive. (For Substantive Clauses of Result, see § 332.)

Examples of Pure and Relative Clauses of Result are. -

tanta vis probitatis est ut eam in hoste diligamus (Cat. M. 9), so great is the power of goodness that we love it even in an enemy.

nam est innocentia affectio talis animi, quae noceat nemini (Tusc. iii 8), for innocence is such a quality of mind as to do harm to no one.

sunt aliae causae quae plane efficiant (Top. 15), there are other causes such as to bring to pass.

nulla est celeritas quae possit cum animi celeritate contendere (Tusc. i. 19, 43), there is no swiftness which can compare, etc.

NOTE.—The Relative in this construction is equivalent to ut with the corresponding demonstrative. Thus, qui = ut is (etc.), ubi = ut ibi, and so on (cf. § 317. note).

REMARK.—Clauses of Result are often introduced by such correlative words as tam, tālis, tantus, ita, sīc, adeō, usque eō, which belong to the main clause.

a. A negative result is regularly expressed by ut or quī with non, nomo and similar negatives (not no). Thus,—

multis gravibusque vulneribus confectus ut iam se sustinere non posset
(B. G. ii. 25), used up with many severe wounds so that he could no longer stand.

nemo est tam senex qui se annum non putet posse vivere (Cat. Maj. 7, 24), nobody is so old as not to think that he can live a year.

NOTE. — When the result implies an effect intended (not a simple purpose), ut no or no is sometimes used as being less positive than ut non: as. —

- [librum] ita corrigas ne mihi noceat (Fam. vi. 7), correct the book so that it may not hurt me.
- b. Frequently a clause of result is used in a restrictive sense, and so amounts to a Proviso (cf. § 314): as,—

hoc est ita utile ut ne plane illudamur ab accusatoribus (Rosc. Am. 20), othis is so far useful that we are not utterly mocked by the accusers (i.e. useful only on this condition, that, etc.).

nihil autem molestum quod non desideres (Cat. Maj. 14, 47), but nothing is troublesome which (= provided that) you do not miss.

c. The subjunctive with the Relative quominus (= ut eo minus) may be used, to express a result, after words of hindering or refusing (cf. § 317. b, note 1): as,—

nec aetas impedit quominus agri colendi studia teneamus (Cat. Maj. 17), nor does age prevent us from retaining an interest in tilling the ground.

d. A clause of result is introduced by quin after general negatives, where quin is equivalent to qui (quae, quod) non; so also after negative clauses of hindrance, resistance, doubt, hesitation, and the like. Thus,—

nihil est illörum quin [= quod non] ego illi dixerim (Plaut. Bac. iii. 9), there is nothing of this that I have not told him.

non dubito quin, I do not doubt that (cf. the Eng., I do not doubt but that). aegre (vix) abstinui quin . . ., I hardly refrained from, etc.

nihil impedit quin ..., there is nothing to prevent, etc. abesse non potest quin (Or. 70), it cannot be but that.

REMARK.—It is to be observed that the constructions of Purpose and Result in Latin are precisely alike in the affirmative, but that in the negative Purpose takes no. Result ut non, etc. Thus,—

custoditus est no effugeret, he was guarded in order that he MIGHT not escape. custoditus est ut non effugeret, he was guarded so that he DID not.

So in Purpose clauses ne quis, ne quid, ne üllus, ne quo, nequando, necubi, etc., are used; in Result clauses, ut nemo, ut nihil, ut nüllus, etc. Thus,—

- ita multi sunt imbēcilli senēs ut nūllum offici mūnus exsequi possint (Cat. Maj. 11, 35), many old men are so feeble that they cannot perform their duties to society.
- qui summum bonum sic instituit ut nihil habeat cum virtute coniunctum (Off. i. 2, 5), who has so settled the highest good that it has nothing in common with virtue.
- cernere no quis eos neu quis contingere posset (Æn. i. 413), that no one might see them, no one touch them.

no quando libers proscriptorum bona patria reddantur (Rosc. Am. 50, 451), lest ever the patrimony of the proscribed should be restored to their children.

ipse no quo inciderem reverti Formias (Att. viii. 3, 7), that I might not come upon him anywhere.

dispositis exploratoribus nocubi Romani copias transducerent (B. G. vii. 35), having stationed scouts here and there lest the Romans should lead their troops across anywhere.

tū tamen eas epistolas concerpito nequando quid emanet (Att. x. 12, 3), lest anything ever leak out.

The clause of Result is sometimes expressed in English by the Infinitive with TO or SO-AS-TO or an equivalent: as.—

tam longe aberam ut non viderem, I was too far away to see (so far that I did not see; cf. § 320. c).

NOTE. — Result is never expressed by the Infinitive in Latin except by the poets in a few passages (§ 273. Rem.).

4. Clauses of Characteristic.

320. A relative clause with the Subjunctive is often used to indicate a *characteristic* of the antecedent, where there is no idea of Result (see § 319. head-note)

This construction is especially common where the antecedent is otherwise undefined. Thus, —

neque enim tu is es, qui nescias (Fam. v. 12), for you are not such a one, as not to know.

multa dicunt quae vix intellegant (Fin. iv. i. 1), they say many things which (such as) they hardly understand.

paci quae nihil habitura sit insidiarum semper est consulendum (Off. i. 11), we must always aim at a peace which shall have no plots.

unde agger comportari posset, nihil erat reliquum (B. C. ii. 15), there was nothing left, from which an embankment could be got together.

a. A relative clause of characteristic is used after general expressions of existence or non-existence, including questions implying a negative.

So especially with sunt qui, there are [some] who; quis est qui, who is there who? Thus, —

sunt qui discessum animi a corpore putent esse mortem (Tusc. i. 9), there are some who think that the departure of soul from body constitutes death. erant qui Helvidium miserarentur (Ann. xvi. 29), there were some who

pitied Helvidius. [Cf. est cum (§ 322. Rem.).]
quis est quī id non māximis efferat laudibus (Læl. 7), who is there that
does not extol it with the highest praise?

noctū ambulābat Themistoclēs quod somnum capere non posset (Tusc. iv. 19). Themistocles used to walk about at night because [as he said] he could not sleep.

mea mater īrata est quia non redierim (Plaut. Cist. i. 1, 103), my mother is angry because I didn't return.

non quoniam hoc sit necesse (Verr. ii. 9), not that this is necessary.

NOTE 1. - The Subjunctive in this use depends on the principle of Intermediate Clauses (§ 341. d).

NOTE 2. — Under this head what the speaker himself thought under other circumstances may have the Subjunctive (§ 341. d. Rem.): as,-

ego laeta vīsa sum quia soror vēnisset (Plaut. Mil. 387), I seemed (in my dream) glad because my sister had come.

So with quod even a verb of saying may be in the Subjunctive: as,-

rediit quod se oblitum nescio quid diceret (Off. i. 13), he returned because he said he had forgotten something.

NOTE 3.—The Subjunctive with quia is rare. The causal particle quando takes the Indicative: as,-

quando ita vis, di bene vortant (Plaut. Trin. 573), since you so wish, may the gods bless the undertaking.

REMARK. - Non quod, non quia, non quoniam, introducing a reason expressly to deny it, take the Subjunctive. Non quo and non quin introduce t it A Rom). Thus.

NOTE. - This construction corresponds to the English too . . . to.

d. A relative clause of characteristic is used in expressions of Restriction or Proviso (cf. § 319. b): as,—

quod sciam, so far as I know.

Catonis orationes, quas quidem invenerim (Brut. 17), the speeches of Cato, a at least such as I have discovered.

servus est nemo, qui modo tolerabili condicione sit servitutis (Cat. iv. 8), there is not a slave, at least in any tolerable condition of slavery.

e. A relative clause expressing cause or concession takes the subjunctive (§§ 313. h, 321. b): as,—

virum simplicem qui nos nihil celet (Or. 69), oh! guileless man, who hides nothing from us ! [Causal.]

peccasse mihi videor qui a te discesserim (Fam. xvi. 1), I seem to myself to have done wrong because I have left you. [Causal.]

egomet qui sero Graecas litteras attigissem tamen complures Athenis dies sum commoratus (De Or. 18), I myself though I began Greek literature late, yet, etc. (lit. [a man] who, etc.). [Concessive.]

NOTE 1.— In this use the relative is equivalent to cum is, etc. It is often preceded by ut, utpote, or quippe: as,-

nec consul, ut qui id ipsum quaesisset, moram certamini fecit (Liv. xlii. 7), nor did the consul delay the fight, since he had sought that very thing (as [being one] who had sought, etc.).

ea nos, utpote qui nihil contemnere soleamus, non pertimescebamus (Att. ii. 24, 4), as being men who are accustomed to despise nothing.

convivia cum patre non inibat, quippe qui ne in oppidum quidem nisi perraro veniret (Rosc. Am. 18), since he did not even come, etc.

NOTE 2.—The Relative of Cause or Concession is merely a variety of the Characteristic construction. The quality expressed by the subjunctive is connected with the action of the main verb either as cause on account of which (SINCE) or as hindrance in spite of which (APHOUGH).

f. Dignus, indignus, aptus, idoneus, take a clause of result with a relative (or rarely with ut): as,—

digna in quibus elaborarent (Tusc. i. 1, 1), (things) worth spending their toil on (worthy on which they should, etc.).

dīgna rēs est ubi tū nervos intendās tuos (Ter. Eun. 312), the affair is worthy of your stretching your sinews (worthy wherein you should,

indignus erās quī facerēs iniūriam, it was beneath you to do a wrong (you were unworthy who should, etc.).

idoneus qui impetret (Manil. 19), fit to obtain.
idoneus qui impetret (Manil. 19), fit to obtain.
indigni nt redimeremur (Liv. xxii. rep. 1. 10, 12), a source fit to give a
aetas mollis et apta regi (Ov.), a time of life soft and easy to be guided.

5. Causal Clauses.

NOTE. — Causal clauses take either the Indicative or the Sul junchive, according to their construction; the idea of Cause being contained, not in the mood itself, but in the form of the argument, or in the connecting particles.

321. The Causal Particles quod, quia, and quoniam take the Indicative, when the reason is given on the authority of the writer or speaker; the Subjunctive, when the reason is given on the authority of another: as,—

1. Indicative: --

cum tibi agam grātiās quod mē vivere coēgistī (Att. iii. 3), when I may thank you that you have forced me to live.

quia postrema aedificata est (Verr. iv. 53), because it was built last. quoniam de ūtilitate diximus, de efficiendi ratione (Or. Part. 26), since we have spoken of its advantage, let us speak of the method of effecting it.

2. Subjunctive: -

mihi grātulābāre quod audīssēs mē meam pristinam dignitātem obtinēre (Fam. iv. 14, 1), you congratulated me because [as you said] you had heard, etc.

noctū ambulābat Themistoclēs quod somnum capere non posset (Tusc. iv. 19), Themistocles used to walk about at night because [as he said] he could not sleep.

mea māter īrāta est quia non redierim (Plaut. Cist. i. 1, 103), my mother is angry because I didn't return.

non quoniam hoc sit necesse (Verr. ii. 9), not that this is necessary.

NOTE 1.—The Subjunctive in this use depends on the principle of Intermediate Clauses (δ 341. d).

NOTE 2. — Under this head what the speaker himself thought under other circumstances may have the Subjunctive (§ 341. d. Rem.): as,—

ego laeta vīsa sum quia soror vēnisset (Plaut. Mil. 387), I seemed (in my dream) glad because my sister had come.

So with quod even a verb of saying may be in the Subjunctive: as,-

rediit quod se oblitum nescio quid diceret (Off. i. 13), he returned because he said he had forgotten something.

Note 3.—The Subjunctive with quia is rare. The causal particle quando takes the Indicative: as,—

quando ita vis, di bene vortant (Plaut. Trin. 573), since you so wish, may the gods bless the undertaking.

REMARK. — Non quod, non quia, non quomam, introducing a reason expressly to deny it, take the Subjunctive. Non quo and non quin introduce a Result clause, but with nearly the same meaning (§ 341. d. Rem.). Thus,—

pugiles ingemiscunt, non quod doleant, sed quia omne corpus intenditur (Tusc. ii. 23), boxers groan not because they are in pain, but because, etc. non quia philosophia percipi non posset (id. i. 1), not that philosophy cannot be acquired.

non quoniam hos sit necesse (Verr. ii. g), not that this is necessary. If 1. 2. \(\) non quin enitendum sit (De Or. ii. 72), not that pains must not be taken.

- a. Causal Clauses introduced by quod, etc., take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse, like any other dependent clause (see § 336).
- b. A Relative, when used to express cause, regularly takes the Subjunctive (see § 320. e).
 - c. Cum causal takes the Subjunctive (see § 326).

NOTE. - In early Latin cum causal takes the Indicative (§ 326. note 3).

6. Relations of Time.

NOTE. — Temporal clauses are introduced by particles which are almost all of relative origin. They are construed like other relative plauses, except where they have developed into special idiomatic constructions. (For list of Temporal Particles, see p. 124.)

322. The particles ubi, ut, cum, quando, either alone or compounded with -cumque, may be used as Indefinite Relatives, and have the constructions of protasis (cf. § 316). Thus, —

cum id malum esse negās (Tusc. ii. 12), when you (the individual disputant) deny it to be an evil. [Present, nothing implied (cf. § 306).]

quod profecto cum me nulla vis cogeret, facere non auderem (Phil. v. 18), which I would surely not venture to do, as long as no force compelled me. [Present, contrary to fact: cf. § 308.]

cum videas eos . . . dolore non frangi (id. 27), when you see that those are

not broken by pain, etc. [General condition: cf. § 309. a.]

id ubi dīxisset, hastam in fines eorum emittebat (Liv. i. 32), when he had said this, he used to cast the spear into their territories. [Repeated action: see § 309. 6.]

cum rosam viderat, tum incipere ver arbitrabatur (Verr. v. 10), whenever he had seen a rose he thought spring had begun. [Past general condition: cf. § 309. c.]

REMARK. - The phrases est cum, fuit cum, etc., are used in general expressions like est qui, sunt qui (\(\) 320. a): as,-

ac fuit quidem cum mihi quoque initium requiescendi fore iustum arbitrarer (De Or. i. 1), and there was a time when I thought a beginning of rest would be justifiable on my part.

- **323.** Temporal clauses have two uses: 1—
- 1. They themselves define (with reference to the time of the speaker) the time of the clause on which they depend.
- 2. They describe by its circumstances the time of the main clause. which is defined not by them, but by the main clause itself.

Thus, in: When did the Emperor Frederick die? He died while the people were still mourning the death of his father, the time of the main clause, he died, is definitely fixed by the temporal clause, while the people, etc., as is seen by the fact that the temporal clause answers the question, WHEN did he die? But in: The Emperor Frederick died while the people were still mourning the death of his father, the time of the main clause is not defined by the temporal clause, but is regarded as sufficiently definite in itself (or from the context). The temporal clause is added to describe that time by the circumstances of the people's grief,

These two sorts of temporal clauses the Romans distinguished by means of the mood, invariably using the Indicative in the first and the Subjunctive in the second. They commonly also used the particles and the tenses in accordance with this division.

I. POSTOUAM, UBI, ETC.

324. The particles postquam (posteāquam), ubi, ut (ut prīmum, ut semel), simul atque (simul ac, or simul alone) take the Indicative (usually in the perfect or the historical present): as,

¹ The terms Absolute and Relative Time naturally applied to these two uses have been abandoned in this book because they have given rise to misapprehension and have often been used by learners as pigeon-hole expressions to conceal a want of knowledge of the subject.

- milites postquam victoriam adepti sunt, nihil reliqui victis fecere (Sall. Cat. 11), when the armies had won the victory, they left nothing to the vanquished.
- posteāquam forum attigistī (Fam. xv. 16), since you came to the forum.
- ubi omnes idem sentire intellexit (B. G. iii. 23), when he understood that all agreed (thought the same thing).
- Catilina ubi eos convenisse videt secedit (Sall. Cat. 20), when Catiline sees they have come together, he retires.
- quod (sc. agmen) ubi pergere vident (Q. C. v. 3, 12), and when they see that it is advancing.
- Pompēius ut equitātum suum pulsum vīdit, aciē excēssit (B. C. iii. 94), when Pompey saw his cavalry beaten, he left the army. simul āc persēnsit (Æn. iv. 90), as soon as he perceived.
- NOTE. These particles are appropriated to time defined, and take the historical tenses in accordance with the distinction set forth in § 323. When they take the descriptive tenses (see a, below), they do not describe the time by its circumstances, but still define it, referring it to a then-existing state of things (Imperfect) or the then-existing result of a completed action (Pluperfect).
- a. These particles less commonly take the Imperfect or Pluperfect indicative. The Imperfect denotes a continued state of things; the Pluperfect, an action completed in past time. Thus,
 - postquam înstructi utrimque stabant, duces in medium procedunt (Liv. i. 23), when they stood in array on both sides, the generals advance into the midst.
 - P. Āfricānus posteāquam bis consul et censor fuerat (Div. in Cæc. 21), when Africanus had been (i.e. had the dignity of having been) twice consul and censor.
 - postquam id difficilius vīsum est, neque facultās perficiendī dabātur, ad Pompēium trānsiērunt (B. C. iii. 60), when this seemed too hard, and no means of effecting it were given, they passed over to Pompey.
 - post diem quintum quam barbari iterum male pūgnāverant (= victi sunt), lēgātī ā Bocchō veniunt (Jug. 110), the fifth day after the barbarians were beaten the second time, envoys come from Bocchus.
 - haec iuventutem, ubi familiares opes defecerant, ad facinora incendebant (Sall. Cat. 13), when their inherited resources had given out.
 - ubi pericula virtute propulerant (id. 6), when they had dispelled the dangers by their valor.
- b. Rarely some of these particles seem to take the subjunctive: as.
 - posteāquam māximās aedificāsset ōrnāssetque clāssēs (Manil. 4), having built and equipped mighty fleets (after he had, etc.). [But the more approved editions have posteā cum.]

II. CUM TEMPORAL.

- **325.** Cum (quom), TEMPORAL, meaning when, takes the Imperfect and Pluperfect in the Subjunctive, other tenses in the Indicative. Thus,
 - cum servili bello premeretur (Manil. 11), when she (Italy) was under the load of the Servile War.
 - cum id nūntiātum esset, mātūrat (B. G. i. 7), when this had been reported, he made (makes) haste.
 - cum occiditur Sex. Roscius, ibidem fuerunt servi (Rosc. Am. 61), when Roscius was slain, the slaves were on the spot.
 - nempe eo [lituo] regiones direxit tum cum urbem condidit (Div. i. 17), he traced with it the quarters [of the sky] at the time he founded the city.

[For examples with the Future, see c below.]

- NOTE.—The Present takes the Indicative, because present time is generally, from its very nature, defined in the mind; and it is only when the circumstances are described as causal or adversative (see below, § 326), that the Subjunctive is used. The Perfect takes the Indicative as the tense of narration, as with post-quam, etc. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are, from their nature, fitter to describe than to define the time.
- a. Cum, temporal, sometimes takes the Imperfect and Pluperfect Indicative to indicate a definite past time: as,
 - res cum haec scrībebam erat in extremum adducta discrimen (Fam. xii. 6), at the time I write (epistolary) the affair has been brought into great hazard.
 - quem quidem cum ex urbe pellebam, hoc providebam animo (Cat. iii. 7), when I was trying to force him (conative imperfect) from the city, I looked forward to this.
 - fulgentes gladios hostium videbant Decii cum in aciem eorum inruebant (Tusc. ii. 24), the Decii saw the flashing swords of the enemy when they rushed upon their line.
 - tum cum in Asia res magnas permulti amiserant (Manil. 7), at that time, when many had lost great fortunes in Asia.
- NOTE.—The distinction explained in § 323 is unknown to early Latin. In Plautus quom always has the Indicative unless the Subjunctive is required for some other reason.
- b. When the clauses are inverted, so that the logical temporal clause becomes the main clause, and the main clause becomes the temporal clause, the Indicative must be used with **cum**: as,
 - dies nondum decem intercesserant, cum ille alter filius înfans necătur (Clu. 9), ten days had not yet passed, when the other infant son was killed. [Instead of, when ten days had not yet passed, etc.]
 - iamque lux apparebat cum procedit ad milites (Q. C. vii. 8, 32), and day was already dawning when he appears before the soldiers.

- hoc facere noctu apparabant, cum matres familiae repente in publicum procurrerunt (B. G. vii. 26), they were preparing to do this by night, when the women suddenly ran out into the streets.
- c. To denote future time cum takes the Future or Future Perfect Indicative: as.
 - non dubitabo dare operam ut te videam, cum id satis commode facere potero (Fam. xiii. 1), I shall not hesitate to take vains to see you, when I can do it conveniently.
 - longum illud tempus cum non ero (Att. xii. 18), that long time when I shall be no more.
 - cum veneris, cognosces (Fam. v. 7), when you come (shall have come), you will find out.

III. CUM CAUSAL OR CONCESSIVE.

326. Cum CAUSAL or CONCESSIVE takes the Subjunctive:

as, ---

- cum solitudo ... insidiarum et metus plena sit (Fin. i. 20), since solitude is full of treachery and fear. [Causal.]
- cum initio non amplius duobus milibus habuisset (Sall. Cat. 56), though at the start he had had not more than two thousand. [Concessive.]
- cum primi ordines . . . concidissent, tamen acerrime reliqui resistebant (B. G. vii. 61), though the first ranks had fallen, still the others resisted vigorously. [Concessive.]
- Note 1.—Cum in these uses is often emphasized by ut, utpote, quippe, praesertim: as,
 - nec reprehendō: quippe cum ipse istam reprehēnsionem non fügerim (Att. x. 3), I find no fault: since I myself did not escape that blame.
- NOTE 2.—These causal and concessive relations are merely variations of the idea of time. The attendant circumstances are regarded as the cause of the action, or as tending to hinder it (cf. QuI causal and concessive, \S 320. e).
- NOTE 3.—In early Latin cum (quom) causal and concessive usually takes the Indicative: as.
 - quom tua res distrahitur, utinam videam (Plaut. Trin. 573), since your property is torn in pieces, oh! that I may see, etc. [See also § 313. d, note.]
- REMARK.—Cum causal may usually be translated by since; cum concessive by although or while.
- a. Cum in the sense of quod, on the ground that, frequently takes the Indicative: as.
 - gratulor tibi cum tantum vales apud Dolabellam (Fam. xi. 14), I congratulate you that you are so strong with Dolabella.
- REMARK.—This use of the indicative appears to be a colloquial relic of the old Indicative construction with cum (see note 3, above).

 $^{\prime}$

b. Cum...tum, signifying both...and, usually takes the Indicative; but when cum approaches the sense of while or though, it may have the Subjunctive (§ 326). Thus,—

cum multa non probo, tum illud in primis (Fin. i. 6), while there are many things I do not approve, there is this in chies. But, —

cum res tota ficta ait pueriliter, tum ne efficit quidem quod vult (ib.), while the whole thing is childishly got up, he does not even make his point (accomplish what he wishes).

IV. ANTEQUAM AND PRIUSQUAM.

327. Antequam and priusquam, before, have in narration the same construction as cum temporal (§ 325): as,—

antequam tuas legi litteras (Att. ii. 7), before I read your letter.

neque ante dimisit eum quam fidem dedit adulescens (Liv. xxxix. 10), she did not let the young man go till he pledged his faith.

antequam homines nesarii de meo adventu audire potuissent, in Macedoniam perrexi (Planc. 41), before those evil men could learn of my coming, I arrived in Macedonia.

a. Antequam and priusquam, when referring to future time, take the Present or Future Perfect Indicative; rarely the Present Subjunctive: as,—

priusquam de ceteris rebus respondeo, de amicitia pauca dicam (Phil. ii. 1), before I reply to the rest, I will say a little of friendship.

non desatigabor antequam illorum ancipites vias percepero (De Or. iii. 36), I shall not weary till I have traced out their doubtful ways.

antequam veniat litteras mittet (Ag. 2, 20), before he comes, he will send a letter.

b. In a few cases the Subjunctive of protasis is found with antequam and priusquam (cf. § 309. a): as,—

priusquam incipiās consulto et ubi consulueris māturē facto opus est (Sall. Cat. 1), before beginning (before you begin) you need reflection, and after reflecting, prompt action.

in omnibus negotiis priusquam aggrediāre, adhibenda est praeparātio diligens (Off. i. 21, 73), in all undertakings before you proceed to action, careful preparation must be used.

V. DUM, DÖNEC, AND QUOAD.

- 328. Dum, donec, and quoad, implying purpose, doubt, or futurity, take the Subjunctive, otherwise the Indicative.
 - 1. Subjunctive: as, -
 - exspectas fortasse dum dicat (Tusc. ii. 7), you are waiting perhaps for him to say (till he say).

- irātīs subtrahendī sunt eī in quos impetum conantur facere dum se ipsī colligant (Tusc. iv. 36), till they come to their senses (collect themselves).
- Aenean morando sustinuit dum genitor protectus abiret (An. x. 800), he kept Aneas in check till his father could get away in safety.
- et duxit longe donec curvata corrent inter se capita (id. xi. 860), and drew it (the bow) until the curved tips touched.
- Epaminondas exercebatur plurimum luctando ad eum finem quoad stans complecti posset atque contendere (Nep. Epam. 2), Epaminondas trained himself in wrestling so far as to be able to grapple standing and fight (in that way).
- 2. Indicative (cf. a, below): as,—
- hoc fēci dum licuit, intermīsī quoad non licuit (Phil. iii. 13), I did this so long as it was allowed, I discontinued it so long as it was not.
- causas innecte morandi dum pelago desaevit hiemps (An. iv. 51), weave excuses for delay until the storm upon the sea hath spent its rage.
- donec rediit silentium fuit (Liv. xxiii. 31), there was silence till he returned.
- quoad potuit restitit (Cat. Maj. 4, 11), he resisted as long as he could.
- NOTE 1. Quamdit takes the Indicative only: as, -
- se oppido tam diu tenuit quamdiu in provincia Parthi fuerunt (Fam. xii. 19), he kept himself within the town so long as the Parthians were in the province.

NOTE 2.—For dum and dummodo introducing a proviso, see § 314.

a. Dum in the sense of while usually takes the Present Indicative to indicate a continued action in past time, if that time is not contrasted with any other (§ 276 e. and note): as,—

dum haec geruntur (B. G. i. 46), while this was going on.

NOTE.—Dum, donec, and quoad in later writers sometimes take the Subjunctive when the classical usage would require the Indicative: as,—

- nec obstitit falsis donec tempore ac spatio vanescerent (Tac. Ann. ii. 82), nor did he contradict the falsehoods until they died out from lapse of time.
- nihil sane trepidabant elephanti donec continenti velut ponte agerentur (Liv. xxi. 28), the elephants showed no alarm whatever so long as they went over the continuous bridge, as it were.

REMARK. — With all temporal particles the Subjunctive is often found depending on some other principle of construction. (See Intermediate Clauses below, p. 378.)

II.-SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

329. A clause used as a noun is called a Substantive Clause.

A Substantive Clause may be used as the Subject or Object of a verb, as an Appositive or as a Predicate Nominative or Accusative.

NOTE.—Many ideas which in English take the form of an abstract noun may be rendered by a substantive clause in Latin. Thus, he demanded an investigation, may be postulabat ut quaestio haberetur. The common English expression FOR with the infinitive also corresponds to a Latin substantive clause: as, it remains for me to speak of the piratic war, reliquum est ut de bello dicam piratico.

REMARK. — When a Substantive Clause is used as Subject, the verb to which it is subject is called *impersonal*, and the sign of the construction in English is the so-called *expletive* IT.

Substantive Clauses are classified as follows:-

- I. INFINITIVE CLAUSES: { a. Infinitive clause as Subject (§ 270).
 b. Infinitive clause as Object (§ 330, B).
- 2. SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES: (ut, nē, quō, quin, quōminus).

 [a. Of Purpose (command, wish, fear) (§ 331).

 b. Of Result (happen, effect, hinder) (§ 332).
- 3. INDICATIVE CLAUSE with quod: Fact, Specification, Feeling.
- 4. INDIRECT QUESTIONS: Subjunctive, introduced by Interrogative Word.

1. Infinitive Clauses.

- **330.** A. The Infinitive with Subject-Accusative may be used as the *subject* of sum and of many impersonal verbs (see § 270).
- B. The Infinitive with Subject-Accusative is used as the object 1—
- 1. Of all verbs and expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (Indirect Discourse) (§ 272).

mē spērō līberātum [esse] metū (Tusc. ii. 27), I trust I have been freed from fear.

dīcit montem ab hostibus tenērī (B. G. i. 22), he says that the height is held by the enemy.

negat üllös patere portus (Liv. xxviii. 43), he says that no ports are open.

¹ The accusative with the infinitive is found with about 80 verbs and verbal phrases, the most common being: (1) accipio, affirmo, animadverto, arbitror, audio, conseo, cogito, dico, disputo, doceo, existimo, fama est, fateor, intellego, memini, narro, nego, puto, recordor, rumor est, sentio, spēro, suspicor, trāditur, vērum est, video, vidētur; (2) iubeo, veto, patior, cogo, sino; (3) cupio, volo, nolo, mālo; (4) decet, iuvat, aequum est, oportet, opus est, placet, fas est, nefas est, interest.

- 2. Of iubeo and veto, and rarely of other verbs of commanding, requesting, admonishing, and the like (§ 331. a). Thus,
 - vetuere [bona] reddī, vetuere in pūblicum redigī (Liv. ii. 4), they forbade the return of the goods (that they be returned), etc.
 - Labiënum iugum montis adscendere iubet (B. G. i. 21), he orders Labienus to ascend the ridge of the hill.
 - 3. Sometimes of verbs of wishing (§ 331. b): as, -
 - iūdicem mē esse non doctorem volo (Or. 33), I wish to be a judge, not a teacher.

REMARK. — The Infinitive with Subject-Accusative, though not strictly a Clause, is equivalent to one, and may be treated as such.

- a. If the main verb is changed to the Passive, either —
- 1. The subject of the infinitive (like other objects of active verbs) becomes nominative, and the infinitive is retained (Personal Construction): as,
 - mons dicitur ab hostibus teneri, the mountain is said to be held by the enemy.
 - Labienus iugum montis adscendere iubetur, Labienus is ordered to ascend the ridge of the hill.
- 2. The passive is used *impersonally*, and the clause retained as its subject (*Impersonal Construction*):
 - dicitur montem ab hostibus teneri, it is said that the mountain is held by the enemy.
 - nuntiatur piratarum naves esse in portu (Verr. v. 24), it is told that the ships of the pirates are in port.
- b. 1. Verbs of saying, thinking, etc., may take in the Passive either the Personal or the Impersonal construction. But the Personal construction is more common and is regularly used in the tenses of incomplete action. Thus,—

beate vixisse videor (Læl. 4, 15), I seem to have lived happily.

Epaminondas fidibus praeclare cecinisse dicitur (Tusc. i. 2, 4), Epaminondas is said to have played excellently on the lyre.

multi idem factūrī esse dicuntur (Fam. xvi. 12), many are said to be about to do the same thing. [Active: dīcunt multos factūros (esse).]

primi traduntur arte quadam verba vinxisse (Or. 13), they first are related to have joined words with a certain skill.

putatur is esse constitutus ex marmore (Arch. 18, 22), he is thought to have been set up in marble.

Bibulus audiebatur esse in Syriā (Att. v. 18), it was heard that Bibulus was in Syria (Bibulus was heard, etc.). [Direct: Bibulus est.] ceterae Illyrici legiones secuturae sperabantur (Tac. Hist. ii. 74), the rest of the legions of Illyricum were expected to follow.

- vidēmur enim quiētūrī fuisse nisi essēmus lacessītī (De Or. ii. 56), it seems that we should have kept quiet if we had not been molested (we seem, etc.). [Direct: quiēvissēmus...nisi essēmus lacessītī.]
- 2. Iubeō and vetō always take the personal construction of the pessive: as,
 - iūssus es renūntiārī consul (Phil. ii. 32), you were under orders to be declared consul.
 - Nolani muros portasque adire vetiti sunt (Liv. xxiii. 16), the men of Nola were forbidden to go to visit the walls and gates.
 - c. In the compound tenses of verbs of saying, etc., the impersonal construction is mere common, and with the gerundive is regular: as,
 - trāditum est etiam Homērum caecum fuisse (Tusc. v. 39), it is a tradition, too, that Homer was blind.
 - ubi tyrannus est, ibi non vitiosam, sed dicendum est plane nullam esse rempublicam (Rep. iii. 31), where there is a tyrant, it must be said, not that the Commonwealth is evil, but that it does not exist at all.
 - d. The poets and later writers extend the personal use of the passive to verbs which are not properly verba sentiendi, etc.: as,
 - colligor dominae placuisse (Ov. Am. ii. 6, 61), it is gathered [from this memorial] that I pleased my mistress.
 - e. The Infinitive with a subject may depend on any word implying speech or thought, though not strictly a verb of saying, etc. (see § 336, note 2).
 - f. Verbs of promising, hoping, expecting, threatening, swearing, and the like, regularly take the construction of Indirect Discourse, contrary to the English idiom: as,
 - minātur sēsē abīre (Plaut. Asin. iii. 3), he threatens to go away. [Direct: abeō, I am going away.]
 - ex quibus sperant se maximum fructum esse capturos (Læl. 21), from which they hope to gain the utmost advantage. [Direct: capiemus.]
 - quem inimicissimum futurum esse promitto ac spondeo (Mur. 41), who I promise and warrant will be the bitterest of enemies. [Direct: erit.]
 - dolor fortitudinem se debilitaturum minatur (Tusc. v. 27), pain threatens to wear down fortitude. [Direct: debilitabo.]
 - NOTE. These verbs, however, often take a simple Complementary Infinitive (§ 271). So regularly in early Latin (except spērō). Thus,
 - pollicentur obsides dare (B. G. iv. 21), they promise to give hostages. [Compare the Greek agrist infinitive after similar verbs].
 - promissi dolium vini dare (Plaut. Cist. ii. 2. 7), I promised to give a jar of wine.

2. Clauses of Purpose.

NOTE. — Clauses of Purpose may be used substantively 1 (1) as the Object of verbs of admonishing, etc. (§ 331); (2) as the Subject of these same verbs in the passive (§ 331. k), as well as of certain impersonal verbs and verbal phrases (§ 311. i); (3) in apposition with another substantive, or as predicate nominative, etc.

331. Substantive Clauses of Purpose with ut (negative ne) are used as the object of all verbs denoting an action directed toward the future.²

Such are, verbs meaning to admonish, ask, bargain, command, decree, determine, permit, persuade, resolve, urge, and wish. Thus,—

monet ut omnes suspiciones vitet (id. 20), he warns him to avoid all suspicion.

te rogo atque oro ut eum iuves (Fam. xiii. 66), I beg and pray you to aid him.

hīs ut conquīrerent imperāvit (B. G. i. 28), he ordered them to search. persuādet Casticō ut rēgnum occupāret (B. G. i. 3), he persuades Casticus to usurp royal power.

a. Iubeō, order, and vetō, forbid, take the Infinitive with Subject Accusative (§ 330. B. 2): as,—

līberes ad se addūcī iūssit (B. G. ii. 5), he ordered the children to be brought of him.

ab opere lögātös discēdere vetuerat (id. 20), he had forbidden the lieutenants to leave the work.

NOTE 1.—Some other verbs of commanding, etc., occasionally take the Infinitive: as,—

haec facere imperatum est, orders were given to do this.

res monet cavere (Sall. Cat. 52), the occasion warns us to be on our guard.

- b. Verbs of wishing take either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive. The Infinitive is more common when the subject remains the same; the Subjunctive, when it changes. Thus,—
 - I. Subject of infinitive same as that of main verb:

quos non tam ulcisoi studeo quam sanare (Cat. ii. 8), whom I do not care so much to punish as to cure.

2. Subject of infinitive different from that of main verb:

cupio ut impetret (Plaut. Capt. 102), I wish he may get it.
mallem Cerberum metueres (Tusc. i. 6), I would rather you feared

1 See p. 362, foot-note 1.

Cerberus.

² Such Verbs or verbal phrases are id agō, ad id veniō, caveō (nē), cēnseō, cōgō, concēdō, cōnstituō, cūrō, dēcernō, ēdicō, flāgitō, hortor, imperō, instō, mandō, metuō (nē), moneō, negōtium dō, operam dō, ōrō, persuādeō, petō, postulō, praecipiō, precor, prōnuntiō, quaerō, rogō, sciscō, timeō, vereor (nē), videō, volō.

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NOTE. — Volo and cupio, however, tend to take the Accusative and Infinitive rather than the Subjunctive, even when the subject changes. When it remains the same, the subject-accusative is rarely found. Thus, —

vim volumus exstinguī (Sest. 42, 92), we wish violence to be put down. tē tuā fruī virtūte cupimus (Brut. 97, 331), we wish you to reap the fruits of your virtue.

indicem me esse, non doctorem volo (Or. 33, 117), I wish to be a judge, not a teacher.

- cupio me esse clementem (Cat. i. 2), I desire to be merciful. [But segularly, cupio esse clements (see § 271. a).]
- c. Verbs of permitting take either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive. Patior takes regularly the Infinitive with Subject Accusative; so often sino. Thus,—

permisit ut partes faceret (De Or. ii. 90), permitted him to make divisions. concedant ut boni viri fuerint (Læl. 5, 18), let them allow them to have been good men.

nullo so implicari negotio passus est (Lig. 3), he suffered himself to be entangled in no business.

vinum importari non sinunt (B. G. iv. 2), they do not allow wine to be imported.

d. Verbs of determining, decreeing, resolving, bargaining, take either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive: as, —

constituerant ut L. Bestia quereretur (Sall. Cat. 43), they had determined that Lucius Bestia should complain.

proelio supersedere statuit (B. G. ii. 8), he determined to refuse battle.

de bonis regis quae reddi censuerant (Liv. ii. 5), about the king's goods, which they had decreed should be restored.

decernit ut consules delectum habeant (Sall. Cat. 34), decreeş that the consuls shall hold a levy.

edicto no quis iniussu pugnaret (Liv. v. 19), having commanded that none

should fight without orders.

pacto ut victorem res sequeretur (id. xxviii. 21), having bargained that the property should belong to the victor.

NOTE 1. — Different verbs of these classes with the same meaning vary in their construction. For verbs of *bargaining* with the Gerundive, see § 294. d.

NOTE 2.—Verbs of decreeing and voting often take the Infinitive of the Second Periphrastic conjugation: as,—

- Rēgulus captīvos reddendos [esse] non censuit (Off. i. 13), Regulus voted that the captives should not be returned. [He said, in giving his formal opinion: captīvī non reddendī sunt.]
- e. 1. Verbs of caution and effort take the Subjunctive with ut. But conor, try, commonly takes the complementary Infinitive. Thus,
 - cura ut quam primum intellegam (Fam. xiii. 10), let me know as soon as possible (take care that I may understand).

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dant operam ut habeant (Sall. Cat. 41), they take pains to have (give their attention that, etc.).

impellere ut Caesar nominārētur (id. 49), to induce them to name Casar (that Caesar should be named).

sī trānsīre conārentur (B. G. i. 8), if they should try to cross.

NOTE 1. — Conor si also occurs (as B. C. 1. 8; cf. miror si, etc., § 333. 8. Rem.).

NOTE 2. — Ut no occurs occasionally with verbs of caution and effort (cf.

- cura et provide ut nequid et desit (Att. ii. 3), take gare and see that he lacks nothing.
- 2. Verbs denoting an effort to hinder take either (1) a Subjunctive clause with quōminus or nē, or (2) the Infinitive: as,—

non deterret sapientem mors quominus . . . (Tusc. i. 38), death does not prevent the wise man from, etc.

ne facerem impedivit (Fat. i. I), prevented me from doing.

obstitisti në transire copiae possent (Verr. vi. 2), you opposed the passage of the troops (opposed lest the troops should cross).

prohibet accedere (Cæc. 16), prevents him from approaching (to approach).

NOTE. - For verbs of hindering negatived (not to hinder), see § 332. g.

f. Verbs of fearing take the Subjunctive, with no affirmative and no no no ut negative. Thus, —

timeo ne Verres fecerit (Verr. vi. 1), I fear that Verres has done, etc.

ne animum offenderet verebatur (B. G. i. 19), he feared that he should hurt the feelings, etc.

orator metuo ne languescat senectute (Cat. Maj. 9, 28), I fear the orator grows feeble from old age.

vereor ut tibi possim concedere (De Or. i. 9), I fear [that] I cannot grant you.

haud sane periculum est no non mortem optandam putet (Tusc. v. 40), there is no danger that he will not think death desirable.

NOTE. — In this use no is commonly to be translated by that or lest, ut and no non by that not.

REMARK.—The particle ut is often omitted with some verbs of the above classes. So generally after verbs of wishing, necessity, permission; after dle, fac, and frequently in Indirect Discourse after verbs of commanding and the like. These

volo ames (Att. ii. 10), I wish you to love, etc. me ipsum ames oportet (Fin. ii. 26), you ought to love me.

¹ With verbs of Fearing the subjunctive with no is hortatory in origin: timeo no accident is literally I fear, let it not happen. The subjunctive with ut may have been either hortatory or deliberative,—I fear, let it happen, or I fear; how may it happen? = I hope it will happen, but I fear it will not.

fac dīligās (Att. iii.), do love.

dic exeat, tell him to go out.

Mnesthea vocat, classem aptent socii (An. iv. 289), he calls Mnestheus [and orders that] his comrades should make ready the fleet (cf. § 339).

NOTE. - Similarly no is omitted after cave in Prohibitions (cf. § 269. a).

g. With any verbs of the above classes the poets may use the Infinitive instead of an object clause: as,—

hortamur farī (Æn. ii. 74), we urge [him] to speak. nē quaere docērī (id. vi. 614), seek not to be told. temptat praevertere (id. i. 721), she attempts to turn, etc.

h. A Substantive clause of Purpose used as the object of a verb becomes the subject when that verb is put in the Passive. Thus, —

imperatum est ut iter facerent, it was ordered that they should march. permissum est ut irent, permission was given that they should go. mihi persuadētur ut exeam, I am persuaded to go out (it is persuaded to me).

i. The impersonals licet and oportet take as subject either a Substantive clause of Purpose, or an Infinitive with or without subject-accusative. Thus, —

licet mē īre, it is allowed me to go. querāmur licet (Cæc. 14), we are allowed to complain. sint enim oportet (Tusc. i. 6), they must exist.

NOTE 1.—The Subjunctive with oportet omits ut, except in later writers (see § 331. f. Rem.).

NOTE 2.—Licet may take the Subjunctive, usually without ut, to denote con-

cession (see § 313. b).

NOTE 3.—Licet may take (1) the Subjunctive; (2) the Simple Infinitive; (3) the Infinitive with Subject Accusative; or (4) the Dative and the Infinitive. Thus, I may go is licet eam, licet ire, licet me ire, or licet min ire.

3. Clauses of Result.

NOTE.—Clauses of Result may be used substantively, (1) as the object of facio, etc. (\S 332); (2) as the subject of these same verbs in the passive, as well as of other verbs and verbal phrases (\S 332. a, a); (3) in apposition with another substantive, or as predicate nominative, etc. (see \S 332. f).

In all these cases the clause is not strigtly subject or object. The main verb originally conveyed a meaning complete in itself, and the result clause was merely appended. This is seen by the frequent use of its and the like with the main verb (its accidit ut, etc.). In like manner purpose clauses are only apparently subject or object of the verb with which they are connected.

332. Substantive Clauses of Result with ut (negative ut non) are used as the object of verbs denoting the accomplishment of an effort.¹

Such are especially facio and its compounds (efficio, conficio, etc.). Thus, —

efficiam ut intellegātis (Cluent. 3), I will make you understand (lit. effect that you, etc.). [So, faciam ut intellegātis (id. 4).]

commeatus ut portari possent efficiebat (B. G. ii. 5), made it possible that supplies could be brought.

quae libertas ut laetior esset regis superbia fecerat (Liv. ii. I), the arrogance of the last king had made this liberty more welcome.

- evincunt instando ut litterae darentur (id. 4), by insisting they gain their point, that letters should be sent. [Here evincunt = efficient.]
- a. Substantive Clauses of Result are used as the Subject of the following:—
 - Of passive verbs denoting the accomplishment of an effort: as, impetrātum est ut in senātū recitārentur (litterae) (B. C. i. 1), they succeeded in having the letter read in the senate (it was brought about that, etc.).
- 2. Of Impersonals meaning it happens, it remains, it follows, it is necessary, it is added,² and the like: as,
 - accidit ut esset luna plena (B. G. iv. 29), it happened to be full moon (it happened that it was, etc.). [Here ut esset is subject of accidit.]
 - reliquum est quarta virtus ut sit ipsa frugalitas (Deiot. 1), it remains that the fourth virtue is thrift. [So also restat.]
 - sequitur ut doceam (N. D. ii. 32), the next thing is to show (it follows that I should show).
 - accedit ut conturber (Deiot. I), besides this I am troubled (it is added that, etc.).
 - 3. Of est in the sense of it is the fact that, etc. (mostly poetic): as, est ut viro vir latius ordinet arbusta (Hor. Od. iii. 1. 9), it is the fact that one man plants his vineyards in wider rows than another.
- b. A result clause, with or without ut, frequently follows quam, after a comparative (but see § 336. c, note 2): as,—

perpessus est omnia potius quam indicaret (Tusc. ii. 22), he endured all rather than betray, etc.

2 See the impersonals in the list above.

¹ Verbs and phrases taking an ut-clause of result as subject or object are accedit, accidit, additur, altera est res, committo, consequor, contingit, efficio, evenit, facio, fit, fieri potest, fore, impetro, integrum est, mos est, munus est, necesse est, prope est, rectum est, relinquitur, reliquum est, restat, tanti est, tantum abest, and a few others.

c. A result clause, with or without ut, is often used elliptically, in exclamatory questions. The question may be introduced by the interrogative -ne. Thus, -

quamquam quid loquor? te ut ulla res frangat (Cat. i. 9), yet why do I speak? [the idea] that anything should bend you! egone ut te interpellem (Tusc. ii. 18), what, I interrupt you? ego te videre noluerim (O. Fr. i. 3), I unwilling to see you?

REMARK. — The Infinitive, in exclamations (§ 274), usually refers to something actually occurring; the Subjunctive, to something contemplated.

d. The phrase tantum abest, it is so far [from being the case], regularly takes two clauses of result with ut: one is substantive, the subject of abest; the other is adverbial, correlative with tantum. Thus. -

tantum abest ut nostra mīrēmur, ut usque eo difficiles ac morosi sīmus, ut nobis non satisfaciat ipse Demosthenes (Or. 29), so far from admiring my own works, I am difficult and captious to that degree, that not Demosthenes himself satisfies me. [Here the first ut-clause is the subject of abest (§ 332. a); the second, a result clause, after tantum (§ 319); and the third, after usque eo.]

e. The expressions facere ut, committere ut with the subjunctive, often form a periphrasis for the simple verb: as, -

invītus fēcī ut Flāminium ē senātū ēicerem (Cat. Maj. 12), it was with reluctance that I expelled Flaminius from the senate.

NOTE.—With this may be compared fore ut for the future infinitive ($\{288.f\}$).

f. Rarely, a thought or an idea is considered as a result, and is expressed by the subjunctive with ut instead of the accusative and infinitive (§ 336. 1). In this case a demonstrative usually precedes: as, —

praeclarum illud est, ut eos . . . amēmus (Tusc. iii. 29), this is a noble thing, that we should love, etc.

verisimile non est ut ille anteponeret (Verr. II. iv. 6), it is not likely that he preferred.

Jan Jan g. A Relative clause of Result with quin is used after verbs or other expressions of hindering and the like when these are negatived. Thus,

facere non possum quin . . . (Att. xii. 27), I cannot avoid, etc.

nihil praetermisi quin scribam . . . (Q. F. iii. 3), I have lest nothing undone to write.

ut nulla re impedirer quin (Att. iv. 2), that I might be hindered by nothing from, etc.

non humana ulla neque divina obstant quin (Sall. Ep. Mith. 17), no human or divine laws prevent, but that, etc.

NOTE 1.— The negative may be expressed (as in the examples above) or merely implied (as in quis impedit quin eam, who (i.e. nobody) hinders me from going?).

REMARK.—This usage is found especially with the phrase non dubito, I do not doubt, and similar expressions: as,—

non dubitabat quin ei crederemus (Att. vi. 2), he did not doubt that we believed him.

illud cave dubites quin ego omnia faciam (Fam. v. 20), do not doubt that I will do all.

quis ignorat quin (Flacc. 27), who is ignorant that, etc.?

neque ambigitur quin Brutus pessimo publico id facturus fuerit si priorum regum alicui regnum extorsisset (Liv. ii. 1), nor is there any question that Brutus, if he had wrested the kingdom from any one of the former kings, would have done it with the worst results to the state. [Direct statement: fecisset.]

NOTE 2.—Non dubito, in the sense of *I do not hesitate*, commonly takes the Infinitive, but sometimes quin with the subjunctive. Thus,—

nec dubitare illum appellare sapientem (Læl. 1, 1), and not to hesitate to call him a sage.

dubitandum non existimavit quin proficisceretur (B. G. ii. 2), he did not think he ought to hesitate to set out.

h. Some verbs and expressions may be used either as verbs of saying or as verbs of commanding, effecting, and the like. These take as their object either a Substantive clause of Purpose or Result or an Infinitive with subject accusative, according to the sense. Thus,—

sequitur ilico esse causas immutabiles (Fat. 12), it follows directly that there are unalterable causes. [Result clause, the regular construction with sequor when used of a logical sequence.]

laudem sapientiae statuō esse māximam (Div. v. 13), I hold that the glory of wisdom is the greatest.

statuunt ut decem milia hominum mittantur (B. G. vii. 21), they resolve that 10,000 men shall be sent. [Purpose clause, cf. § 331. d.]

res ipsa monebat tempus esse (Att. x. 8), the thing itself warned that it was time. [Cf. monere ut, warn to do something.]

fac mihi esse persuāsum (N. D. i. 27), suppose that I am persuaded of that. [Cf. facere ut, accomplish that.]

hoc volunt persuadere, non interire animos (B. G. vi. 13), they wish to convince that souls do not perish.

huic persuadet uti ad hostes transeat (B. G. iii. 18), persuades him to pass over to the enemy.

NOTE. — The infinitive with subject accusative in this construction is Indirect Discourse, and is to be distinguished from the simple infinitive sometimes found with these verbs instead of a subjunctive clause.

4. Indicative with Quod.

333. A peculiar form of Substantive Clause consists of quod causal with the Indicative.

The clause in the Indicative with quod is used when the statement is regarded as a fact: as,—

alterum est vitium, quod quidam nimis magnum studium conferunt (Off. i. 6), it is another fault that some bestow too much zeal, etc. [Here ut conferant could be used, meaning that some should bestow; or the accusative and infinitive, meaning to bestow (abstractly); quod makes it a fact that men do bestow, etc.]

inter inanimum et animal hoc maxime interest, quod animal agit aliquid (Ac. ii. 12), this is the chief difference, etc., that an animal aims at something.

quod rediit nobis mirabile videtur (Off. iii. 31), that he (Regulus) returned seems wonderful to us.

vetus illud Catonis admodum scitum est, qui mirari se aiebat quod non rīderet haruspex haruspicem cum vidisset (Div. ii. 24), 'tis an old and shrewd saying of Cato, that he wondered a soothsayer did not laugh when he looked another in the face. [Here rīderet is in the subjunctive as being a subordinate clause of indirect discourse: see § 336.]

NOTE. — Like other substantive clauses, the clause with quod may be used as subject, as object, as appositive, etc., but it is commonly either the subject or in apposition with the subject.

a. In colloquial language, the clause with quod sometimes appears as an accusative of specification, corresponding to the English WHEREAS (cf. § 326. a): as, —

quod de domo seribis (Fam. xiv. 2), as to what you write of the house. quod mihi de nostro statu grātulāris, minime mīrāmur te tuis praeclāris operibus laetārī (Att. i. 5), as to your congratulating me on our condition, no wonder you are pleased with your own noble works.

b. Verbs of *feeling* and the expression of feeling take either **quod**, **quia** (Causal), or the accusative and infinitive (Indirect Discourse): as,—

quod scribis . . . gaudeo (Q. F. iii. 1), I am glad that you write.

facio libenter quod eam non possum praeterire (Leg. i. 24), I am glad that I cannot pass it by.

quae perfecta esse vehementer lactor (Rosc. Am. 47), I greatly rejoice that this is finished.

REMARK. — Miror and similar expressions are sometimes followed by a clause with si. 1 This is apparently substantive, but really protasis (cf. § 331. c. 1. note 1). Thus, —

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miror si quemquam amicum habere potuit (Læl. 15), I wonder if he could ever have a friend. [Originally, If this is so, I wonder at it.]

5. Indirect Questions.

NOTE.—An Indirect Question is any sentence or clause which is introduced by an Interrogative word (pronoun, adverb, etc.), and which is itself the subject or object of a verb, or depends on any expression implying uncertainty or doubt. In grammatical form, exclamatory sentences are not distinguished from interrogative (see the third example below).

334. An Indirect Question takes its verb in the Subjunctive: as,—

quid ipse sentiam exponam (Div. i. 6), I will explain what I think. [Direct: quid sentio.]

id possetne fieri consuluit (id. 7), he consulted whether it could be done.
[Direct: potestne.]

quam sīs audāx omnēs intellegere potuērunt (Rosc. Am. 31), all could understand how bold you are. [Direct: quam es audāx!]

doleam necne doleam nihil interest (Tusc. ii. 12), it is of no account whether I suffer or not. [Double question.]

rogat mē quid sentiam, he asks me what I think. [Cf. rogat mē sententiam, he asks me my opinion.]

hoc dubium est, uter nostrum sit verecundior (Acad. ii. 41, 126), this is doubtful, which of us two is the more modest.

incerti quatenus Volero exerceret victoriam (Liv. ii. 55), uncertain how far Volero would push victory. [As if, dubitantes quatenus, etc.]

NOTE.—An Indirect Question may be the subject of a verb (as in the fourth example), the direct object (as in the first), the secondary object (as in the fifth), an appositive (as in the sixth).

The use of tenses in Indirect Question is illustrated by the following examples:—

dīco quid faciam, I tell you what I am doing.

dīco quid facturus sim, I tell you what I will do.

dīco quid fecerim, I tell you what I did (have done, was doing, had done).

dixi quid facerem, I told you what I was doing.

dixi quid fecissem, I told you what I had done.

dixi quid facturus essem, I told you what I would do (was going to do).

dixi quid facturus fuerim, I told you what I would have done.

a. Indirect Questions referring to future time take the subjunctive of the First Periphrastic conjugation: as,—

prospició qui concursús futuri sint (Div. in Cæc.), I foresee what throngs there will be [Direct: qui erunt?]

quid sit futurum cras, fuge quaerere (Hor. Od. i. 9), forbear to ask what will be on the morrow. [Direct: quid erit or futurum est?]

NOTE. This periphrastic future avoids the ambiguity which would be caused by using the present subjunctive to refer to future time in such clauses.

b. The Deliberative Subjunctive (see § 268 and examples) remains unchanged in an Indirect Question, except sometimes in tense: as,—

[quaeritur] utrum Carthago diruatur, ar Carthaginiensibus reddatur (De Inv. i. 12), [the question is] shall Carthage be destroyed, or restored to the Carthaginians.

nec quisquam satis certum habet, quid aut spēret aut timeat (Liv. xxii. 7), nor is any one well assured what he shall hope or fear. [Here the future participle with sit could not be used.]

incerto quid peterent aut vitarent (Liv. xxviii. 36), since it was doubtfui (abl. abs.) what they should seek or shun.

c. In colloquial usage and in poetry the subject of an Indirect Question is often attracted into the main clause as object (accusative of anticipation): as,—

nosti Marcellum quam tardus sit (Fam. viii. 10), you know how slow Marcellus is. [For nosti quam tardus sit Marcellus. Cf. I know thee who thou art.]

Cf. potestne igitur eārum rērum quārē futūrae sint ūlla esse praesēnsiō (Div. ii. 5), can there be, then, any foreknowledge as to those things, why they will occur? [A similar use of the objective genitive.]

REMARK.—In some cases the *Object of anticipation* becomes Subject by a change of *voice*, and an apparent mixture of relative and interrogative construction is the result: as,—

quidam saepe in parva pecunia perspiciuntur quam sint leves (Læl. 17), it is often seen, in a trifling matter of money, how unprincipled some people are (some people are often seen through, how unprincipled they are).

quemadmodum Pompēium oppūgnārent ā mē indicāti sunt (Leg. Ag. i. 2), it has been shown by me in what way they attacked Pompey (they have been shown by me, how they attacked).

d. Indirect Questions often take the Indicative in early Letin and in poetry: as,—

non reputat quid laboris est (Plaut. Am. 172), he does not consider what a task it is.

vineam quo in agro conseri oportes sic observato (Cato R. R. 6), in what soil a vineyard should be set you must observe thus.

e. A few interrogative expressions are used parenthetically in an indefinite sense and do not take a subjunctive. Such are—

nescio quis (and kindred forms), I know not who, somebody or other, etc. mirum (nim.rum) quam, marvellously (marvellous how).

mirum quantum, tremendously (marvellous how much).

immane quantum, monstrously (monstrous how much).

sane quam, immensely.

valde quam, enormously.

Examples are: -

qui istam nescio quam indolentiam magnopere laudant (Tusc. iii. 6), who greatly extol that freedom from pain, whatever that is.

mīrum quantum profuit (Liv. ii. I), it helped prodigiously.

ita fato nescio quo contigisse arbitror (Fam. xv. 13), I think it happened so by some fatality or other.

nam suos valde quam paucos habet (Fam. xi. 13), for he has uncommonly few of his own.

sane quam sum gavisus (id.), I was immensely glad.

vino et lucernis Medus acinaces immane quantum discrepat (Hor. Od. i. 27. 5), is monstrously at variance.

f. An indirect question is occasionally introduced by st in the sense of whether (like if in English, cf. § 333. b. Rem.): as,—

circumfunduntur hostes at quem aditum reperire possent (B. G. vi. 37), the enemy pour round [to see] if they can find entrance. visam at domi est (Ter. Heaut. 118), I will go see if he is at home.

NOTE. — This is strictly a Protasis, but usually no Apodosis is thought of, and the clause is virtually an Indirect Question.

g. Forsit, forsitan, forsan, fortasse, fortasse an, perhaps, are often followed by the Subjunctive: as,—

forsitan quaerātis qui iste terror sit (Rosc. Am. 2), you may perhaps inquire what this alarm is.

NOTE.—The Subjunctive Clause in this case was originally an Indirect Question. Thus, it would be a chance whether, etc. Fortasse is also followed by the Infinitive with Subject Accusative in Plantus.

III.-INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

NOTE.—The use of the Accusative and Infinitive in Indirect Discourse (ōrātiō oblīqua) is a comparatively late form of speech, developed in the Latin and Greek only, and perhaps separately in each of them. It is wholly wanting in Sanskrit and Zend, but some forms like it have grown up in English and German.

The essential character of Indirect Discourse is, that the language of some other person than the writer or speaker is compressed into a kind of Substantive Clause, the verb of the main clause becoming Infinitive, while modifying clauses, as well as all hortatory forms of speech, take the Subjunctive. The person of the verb is necessarily conformed to the new relation of persons.

The construction of the Indirect Discourse, however, is not limited to reports of the language of some person other than the speaker; it may be used to express what any one—whether the speaker or some one else—says, thinks, or perceives, whenever that which is said, thought, or perceived is capable of being expressed in the form of a complete sentence. For anything that can be said, etc., can also be reported indirectly as well as directly.

The use of the Infinitive in the main clause undoubtedly comes from its use as a case-form to complete or modify the action expressed by the verb of saying, etc., and its object together. This object in time came to be regarded as, and in fact

to all intents became, the subject of the infinitive. A transition state is found in Sanskrit, which, though it has no indirect discourse proper, yet allows an indirect predication after verbs of saying and the like, by means of a predicative apposition, in such expressions as, "The maids told the king [that] his daughter [was] bereft of her senses."

The simple form of indirect statement with the accusative and infinitive was afterwards amplified by introducing dependent or modifying clauses; and in Latin it became a common construction, and could be used to report whole speeches, etc., which in other languages would have the direct form. (Compare the style of reporting speeches in English, where only the person and tense are changed, as is also occasionally the case in Sanskrit.)

The use of the Subjunctive in dependent clauses in Indirect Discourse probably came from regarding the statements contained in them as not absolutely true, but as conditioned upon the trustworthiness of the original speaker; that is, as Apodosis with an implied Protasis (if we may believe the speaker, or the like). So the French conditional is often equivalent to "it is said": as, ainsi il aurait à peu près doublé, "it is said to have nearly doubled," lit, "would have doubled," i.e. if we should believe the report. Cf. in German, Er soll krank sein, "he is said to be sick," lit, "he ought to be sick, unless the story is false."

The Subjunctive standing for hortatory forms of speech in Indirect Discourse is simply the usual hortatory subjunctive, with only a change of person and tense (if necessary), as in the reporter's style, and in Sanskrit.

335. A Direct Quotation gives the exact words of the original speaker or writer.

An Indirect Quotation adapts the words of the speaker or writer to the construction of the sentence in which they are quoted.

REMARK.—The term INDIRECT DISCOURSE (ôrātiō oblīqua) is used in two senses. In the wider sense it includes all clauses—of whatever kind—which express the words or thought of any person indirectly; that is, in a form different from that in which the person said the words or conceived the thought. In the narrower sense the term Indirect Discourse is restricted to those cases in which some complete proposition is cited in the form of an Indirect Quotation, which may be extended to a narrative or an address of any length, as in the speeches reported by Cæsar and Livy. In this book the term is used in the restricted sense,

I. FORMAL INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

336. I. Verbs and other expressions of *knowing*, *thinking*, *telling*, and *perceiving*, govern the Indirect Discourse.

¹ Such are: (1) knowing, sciō, cōgnōscō, compertum habeō, etc.; (2) thinking, putō, existimō, arbitror, etc.; (3) telling, dicō, nūntiō, referō, polliceor, prōmittō, certiōrem faciō, etc.; (4) perceiving, sentiō, comperiō, videō, audiō, etc. So in general any word that denotes thought or mental and visual perception or their expression may govern the Indirect Discourse.

- 2. In the Indirect Discourse the *main clause* of a Declaratory Sentence is put in the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. All *Subordinate* clauses take the Subjunctive. Thus,
 - spēro mē līberātum [esse] dē metu (Tusc. iii. 27), I trust I have been freed from fear.
 - [dicit] esse nonnullos quorum auctoritas plurimum valeat (B. G. i. 17), he says there are some, whose influence most prevails. [In direct discourse: sunt nonnulli...valet.]
 - nisi iūrāsset, scelus sē factūrum [esse] arbitrābātur (Verr. i. 47), he thought he should incur guilt, unless he should take the oath. [Direct: nisi iūrāverō, faciam.]
 - Stöici negant quidquam [esse] bonum, nisi quod honestum sit (Fin. ii. 21), the Stoics assert that nothing is good but what is right. [The verb negō is used in preference to dīcō with a negative.]

NOTE 1.—In the statement of all speech or thought, the Romans tended to use the Indirect Discourse, etc., with verbs of the classes mentioned, but: inquam, said I (etc.), is appropriated to the Direct Discourse except in poetry.

NOTE 2.—The verb of saying, etc., is often not expressed, but implied in some

word or in the general drift of the sentence: as, -

- consulis alterius nomen invisum civitati fuit: nimium Tarquinios regno adsuesse; initium a Prisco factum; regnasse dein Ser. Tullium, etc. (Liv. ii. 2), the name of the other consul was hateful to the state; the Tarquins (they thought) had become too much accustomed to royal power, etc. [Here invisum implies a thought, and this thought is added in the Indirect Discourse.]
- orantes ut urbibus saltem—iam enim agros deploratos esse—opem senatus ferret (Liv. xvi. 6), praying that the senate would at least bring aid to the cities—for the fields [they said] were already given up as lost.

NOTE 3. Verbs of promising, hoping, expecting, threatening, swearing, and the like, regularly take the construction of Indirect Discourse (see § 330. f, and note)

1. Subject Accusative.

a. 1. The Subject of the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse must regularly be expressed, even if it is wanting in the direct: as,—

orator sum, I am an orator; dicit se esse oratorem, he says he is an orator.

NOTE. — But the subject is often omitted, if easily understood: as,—

- ignoscere imprudentiae dixit (B. G. iv. 27), he said he pardoned their rashness.
- rogavi pervenissentne Agrigentum: dixit pervenisse (Verr. iv. 12), I asked whether they (the curtains) had come to Agrigentum; he answered that they had.

REMARK. — After a relative, or quam (than), if the verb would be the same as that of the main clause, it is usually omitted, and its subject is attracted into the accusative: as,—

- të suspicor eisdem rebus quibus mëipsum commoveri (Cat. Maj. 1), I suspect that you are disturbed by the same things as I.
- 2. When the verb of saying, etc., becomes passive, the construction may be either Personal or Impersonal.

NOTE 1. — For rules in regard to the choice between these constructions, and for examples, see § 330. — d.

NOTE 2.—An Indirect Narrative begun in the personal construction may be continued with the infinitive and Accusative,

2. Subordinate Clauses.

- b. A subordinate clause *merely explanatory* or containing statements which are regarded as true independently of the quotation, takes the Indicative: as,
 - quis neget hace omnia quae videmus deorum potestate administrari (Cat. iii. 9), who can deny that all these things we see are ruled by the power of the gods?
 - cuius ingenio putabat ea quae gesserat posse celebrari (Arch. 9), by whose genius he thought that those deeds which he had done could be celebrated. [Here the fact expressed by quae gesserat, though not explanatory, is felt to be true without regard to the quotation: quae gessisset would mean, what Marius claimed to have done.]

NOTE.—It often depends merely upon the feeling of the writer whether he shall use the Indicative or Subjunctive in such clauses (cf. §§ 340-342).

- c. Clauses introduced by a relative which is equivalent to a demonstrative with a conjunction are not properly subordinate, and hence take the Accusative and Infinitive in Indirect Discourse (see § 180. f): as.—
 - Marcellus requisivisse dicitur Archimedem illum, quem cum audisset interfectum permoleste tulisse (Verr. iv. 58), Marcellus is said to have sought for Archimedes, and when he heard that he was slain, to have been greatly distressed.
 - unumquemque nostrum censent philosophi mundi esse partem, ex quo [= et ex eo] illud natura consequi (Fin. iii. 19), the philosophers say that each one of us is a part of the universe, from which this naturally follows.
 - NOTE 1. Really subordinate clauses occasionally take this construction: as, —
 - quemadmodum sī non dedātur obses pro rupto sē foedus habitūrum, sīc deditam inviolātam ad suos remīssūrum (Liv. ii. 13), [he says] as in case the hostage is not given up he shall consider the treaty as broken, so if given up he will return her unharmed to her friends.

NOTE 2.—The infinitive construction is regularly continued after a comparative with quam: as,—

addit se prius occisum iri ab eo quam me violatum iri (Att. ii. 20), he adds that he himself will be killed by him, before I shall be injured.

NOTE 3.—The Subjunctive with or without ut also occurs with quam (see § 332. b).

d. A subordinate clause in the Indirect Discourse occasionally takes the Indicative when the *fact* is emphasized: as,—

factum ēius hostis periculum...cum, Cimbris et Teutonis...pulsis, non minorem laudem exercitus quam ipse imperator meritus vidēbātur (B. G. i. 40), that a trial of this enemy had been made when, etc., the army seemed, etc.

3. Tenses of the Infinitive.

336. A. The Present, the Perfect, or the Future Infinitive is used in Indirect Discourse, according as the time indicated is *present*, *past*, or *future* with reference to the verb of *saying*, etc., by which the Indirect Discourse is introduced. Thus,—

cadō, I am falling: dixit se cadere, he says he said he was falling.
cadēbam, I was falling dicit se cecidisse, he says he was falling, cecideram, I had fallen dixit se cecidisse, he said fell, had fallen.
cadam, I shall fall dicit dixit se casūrum [esse], he says he shall fall. he said he should fall.
cecidero, I shall dicit fore ut ceciderit [rare], he says he shall have fallen.
have fallen dixit fore ut cecidisset [rare], he said he should have fallen.

NOTE 1.—All varieties of past time are usually expressed in Indirect Discourse by the Perfect Infinitive, which may stand for the Imperfect, the Perfect, or the Pluperfect Indicative of the Direct. But sometimes continued or repeated action in past time is expressed by the Present Infinitive, which in such cases stands for the Imperfect Indicative of the Direct Discourse, and is often called the Imperfect Infinitive (so regularly after memini, cf. § 288. b): Thus,—

tê meminî dicere, I remember that you said. [Direct: dicēbās.]
NOTE 2.—For various ways of expressing the Future Infinitive, see 6 147. c.

4. Tenses of the Subjunctive.

336. B. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse follow the rule for the Sequence of Tenses (§ 286). They depend for their sequence on the verb of saying, etc., by which the Indirect Discourse is introduced.

Thus in the sentence, dixit se Romam iturum ut consulem videret, he said he should go to Rome in order that he might see the consul, videret follows the sequence of dixit without regard to the Future Infinitive, iturum [esse], on which it directly depends.

NOTE 1. - This rule applies not only to the subjunctive in subordinate clauses in indirect discourse, but also to that which stands for the imperative, etc. (see examples in § 339), and to that in questions (§ 338).

NOTE 2.—A subjunctive depending on a Perfect Infinitive is commonly in the Imperfect or Pluperfect, even if the verb of saying, etc., is in a primary tense

(cf. § 287 i). Thus, -

Tarquinium dixisse ferunt tum exsulantem se intellexisse quos fidos amicos habuisset (Lael. 15), they tell us that Tarquin said that then in his exile he had found out what foithful friends he had hoft. [Here the main verb of saying, ferunt is primary, but the time is carried back by dīxisse and intellēxiese, and the sequence then becomes secondary.] tantum profecisse videmur at a Graecis ne verborum quidem copia vinceremus (N. D. i. 4, 8), we seem to have advanced so far that even in fulness of words we ARE not surpassed by the Greeks.

a. The Present and Perfect Subjunctive are often used in dependent clauses of the Indirect Discourse even when the verb of saying, etc., is in a secondary tense: as, -

dīcēbant . . . totidem Nervios (pollicēri) qui longissime absint (B. G. ii. 4), they said that the Nervii, who live farthest off, promised as many.

NOTE 1. - This construction comes from the tendency of language to refer all time in narration to the time of the speaker (Repraesentatio). In the course of a long passage in the Indirect Discourse the tenses of the subjunctive often vary, sometimes following the Sequence, and sometimes affected by Repraesentatio. Examples may be seen in B. G. i. 13, vii. 20, etc.

NOTE 2. — Certain constructions are never affected by Repraesentātiō. Such are the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive with cum temporal, antequam, and priusquam.

5. Conditions in Indirect Discourse.

- 337. Conditional sentences in Indirect Discourse are expressed as follows:—
- 1. The Protasis, being a subordinate clause, is always in the Subjunctive.
- 2. The Apodosis, if independent and not hortatory or optative, is always in some form of the Infinitive.
- a. The Present Subjunctive in the apodosis of less vivid future conditions (§ 307. b) becomes the Future Infinitive. Thus there is no distinction between more or less vivid future conditions in the Indirect Discourse.

Examples of conditional sentences in Indirect Discourse are: -

- 1. Simple Present Condition (§ 306).
- (dixit) si ipse populo Romano non praescriberet quemadmodum suo iure uteretur, non oportere sese a populo Romano in suo iure impediri (B. G. i. 36), he said that if he did not dictate to the Roman people how they should use their rights, he ought not to be interfered with by the Roman people in the exercise of his rights. [Direct: si non praescribo... non oportet.]
- praedicavit...si pace uti velint, iniquum esse, etc. (B. G. i. 44), he asserted that if they wished to enjoy peace, it was unfair, etc. [Direct: si volunt...est. Present tense kept by Repraesentatio (§ 336. B. a, note 1).]
- 2. Simple Past Condition (§ 306).
- non dicam ne illud quidem, si maxime in cu!pa fuerit Apollonius, tamen in hominem honestissimae civitatis honestissimum tam graviter animadverti causa indicta non oportuisse (Verr. II. v. 8, 20), I will not say this either, that, even if Apollonius was greatly in fiult, still an honorable man ought not to have been punished so severely, etc. [Direct: sī fuit . . . non oportuit.]
- 3. Future Conditions (§ 307).
- Aeduis se obsides redditūrum non esse, neque eis... bellum illātūrum, si in eo manērent, quod convēnisset, spendiumque quotannis penderent: si id non fēcissent, longe eis fraternum nomen populi Romani abfutūrum (B. G. i. 36), he said that he would not give up the hostages to the Ædui, but would not make war upon them if they observed the agreement, etc., and paid tribute yearly; but if they should not ao this, the name of brothers to the Roman people would be far from aiding them. [Direct: reddam...inferam...si manēbunt...pendent: sī non fēcerint...aberit.]
- (dixit) quod si praeterea nemo sequatur, tamen se cum sola decima legione iturum (B. G. i. 40), but if nobody else should follow, still he would go with the tenth legion alone. [Direct: si sequetur...ibo. Present tense by Repraesentatio.]
- id Datames ut audivit, sensit, si in turbam exisset ab homine tam necessario se relictum, futurum [esse] ut ceteri consilium sequantur (Nep. Dat. 6), if it should get abroad that he had been abandoned by a man so closely connected with him, everybody else would follow his example. [Direct: si exierit...sequentur.]
- (dixerunt) nisi me civitate expulissent, obtinere se non posse licentiam cupiditatum suarum (Att. x. 4), they said that unless they drove me out of the state, they could not have free play for their desires. [Direct: nisi (Ciceronem) expulerimus, obtinere non poterimus.]
- b. In changing a Condition contrary to fact (§ 308) into the Indirect Discourse, the following points require notice.

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- 1. The Protasis always remains unchanged in tense.
- 2. The Apodosis, if active, takes a peculiar infinitive form, made by combining the Participle in -ūrus with fuisse.
- 3. If the verb of the Apodosis is passive or has no supine stem, the periphrasis futurum fuisse ut (with the Imperfect Subjunctive) must be used.

Examples are: —

nec se superstitem filiae futurum fuisse, nisi spem ulciscendae mortis eius in auxilio commilitonum habuisset (Liv. iii. 50), and that he should not now be a survivor, etc., unless he had had hope, etc. [Direct: non

superstes essem, nisi habuissem.]

illud Asia cogitet, nullam a se neque belli externi neque discordiarum domesticarum calamitatem abfuturam fuisse, si hoc imperio non teneretur (Q. Fr. i. i., ii), let Asia (personified) think of this, that no disaster etc., would not be hers, if she were not held by this government. [Direct: abesseph, sī non tenerer.]

quid inimicitiarum creditis excepturum fuisse, si insontes lacessissem (Q. C. vi. 10, 29), what enmities do you think I should have incurred if I had wantonly assailed the innocent. [excepissem . . . si laces-

sīssem.]

an censemus, si Fabio...laudi datum esset quod pingeret, non multos etiam apud nos futuros Polycletos et Parrhasios fuisse (Tusc. i. 2, 4), or do we think that if praise had been given to Fabius because he painted, there would not have been many a Polycletus and Parrhasius among us too? [Direct: sī datum esset ... non fuissent.]

invitum se dicere, nec dicturum fuisse, ni caritas rei publicae vinceret (Liv. ii. 2), that he spoke unwillingly and should not have spoken (at all), did not love for the commonwealth prevail? [Direct: nec dixis-

sem . . . nī vinceret.]

quorum si aetas potuisset esse longinquior, futurum fuisse ut omnibus perfectis artibus hominum vita erudiretur (Tusc. iii. 28, 69), if life could have been longer, human existence would have been embellished by every art in its perfection. [Direct: erudita esset.]

NOTE 1.—In Indirect Discourse Present Conditions contrary to fact are not distinguished in the apodosis from Past, but the protasis may keep them distinct.

NOTE 2.—The periphrasis futurum fulsse ut is sometimes used from choice when there is no necessity for resorting to it.

NOTE 3.— Very rarely the Future Infinitive is used in the Indirect Discourse to express the Apodosis of a Present Condition contrary to fact. Only four or five examples of this use occur in classic authors: as,—

Titurius clamabat si Caesar adesset neque Carnutes, etc., neque Eburones tanta cum contemptione nostra ad castra venturos esse (B. G. v. 29), Titurius cried out that if Casar were present, neither would the Carnutes, etc., nor would the Eburones be coming to our camp with such contempt. [Direct: si adesset . . . venirent.]

6. Questions in Indirect Discourse.

338. A Question in the Indirect Discourse may be either in the Subjunctive or in the Infinitive with Subject Accusative.

A real question, asking for an answer, is generally put in the Subjunctive; a rhetorical question, asked for effect and implying its own answer, in the Infinitive. Thus,—

quid sibi vellet? cūr in suās possēssionēs venīret (B. G. i. 44), what did he want? why did he come into his territories? [Real question. Direct: quid vīs? cūr venīs?]

num recentiam iniūriārum memoriam [sē] dēponere posse (id. i. 14), could he lay aside the memory of recent wrongs? [Rhetorical Question. Direct: num possum?]

quem signum datūrum fugientibus? quem ausūrum Alexandro succedere (Q. C. iii. 5), who will give the signal on the retreat? who will dare succeed Alexander? [Rhetorical. Direct: quis dabit...audēbit.]

NOTE 1.—No sharp line can be drawn between the Subjunctive and the Infinitive in questions in the Indirect Discourse. Whether the question is to be regarded as *rhetorical* or *real* often depends merely on the writer's point of view. Thus,—

utrum partem rēgni petitūrum esse, an totum ēreptūrum (Liv. xlv. 19), will you ask part of the regal power (he said), or seize the whole?

quid tandem praetori faciendum fuisse (id. xxxi. 48), what, pray, ought a prator to have done?

quid repente factum [esse] cur, etc. (id. xxxiv. 54), what had suddenly happened, that, etc.?

Note 2.—Questions coming immediately after a verb of asking are treated as Indirect Questions and take the Subjunctive (see § 334). This is true even when the verb of asking serves also to introduce a passage in the Indirect Discourse. The question may be either real or rhetorical. See quaesivit, etc. (Liv. xxxvii. 15). Note 3.—For the use of tenses, see § 336. B, note 1.

a. A Deliberative Subjunctive in the Direct Discourse is always retained in the Indirect: as,—

cūr aliquōs ex suis amītteret (B. C. i. 72), why (thought he) should he lose some of his men? [Direct: cūr amīttam?]

7. Commands in Indirect Discourse.

339. All Imperative forms of speech take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse: as,—

reminisceretur veteris incommodi (B. G. i. 13), remember (said he) the ancient disaster. [Direct: reminiscere.]

finem faciat (id. 20), let him make an end. [Direct: fac.]

ferrent opem, adiuvarent (Liv. ii. 6), let them bring aid, let them help.

REMARK. - This rule applies not only to the Imperative of the direct discourse, but to the hortatory and the optative subjunctive as well.

NOTE 1.- Though these subjunctives stand for independent clauses of the direct discourse, they follow the rule for the sequence of tenses, being in fact dependent on the verb of saying, etc. (cf. \$\\$ 286, 336. B, note 1).

NOTE 2. — A Prohibition in the Indirect Discourse is regularly expressed by ne with the Subjunctive, even when noll with the Infinitive would be used in the Direct: as. -

ne perturbarentur (B. G. vii. 29), do not (he said) be troubled. [Direct: nolite perturbari. But sometimes nollet is found in Ind. Disc.]

The following example illustrates some of the foregoing principles in a connected address: -

INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Sī pācem populus Romānus cum Helvētiis faceret, in eam partem itūros atque ibi futuros Helvētios, ubi eos Caesar constituisset atque esse voluisset: sin bello persequi persevērāret, reminiscerētur et veteris incommodi populi Romani, et pristinae virtūtis Helvētiorum. Quod improviso unum pagum adortus esset, cum ei qui flumen transissent suis auxilium ferre non possent, ne ob eam rem aut suae magno opere virtūti tribueret, aut ipsos despiceret: sē ita a patribus maioribusque suīs didicisse, ut magis virtute quam dolo contenderent, aut insidiis niteren-Quare ne committeret, ut is locus ubi constitissent ex calamitate populi Romani et internecione exercitus nomen caperet, aut memoriam proderet.-B. G. i. 13.

DIRECT DISCOURSE.

Si pacem populus Romanus cum Helvētiis faciet, in eam partem ībunt atque ibi erunt Helvētii, ubi eos tu constitueris atque esse volueris: sin bello persequi perseverabis, reminiscere [inquit] et veteris incommodi populi Romani, et pristinae virtutis Helvetiorum. Quod improviso unum pagum adortus es, cum ei qui flumen transierant suis auxilium ferre non possent, ne ob eam rem aut tuae māgno opere virtūtī tribueris, aut nos despexeris: nos ita a patribus māioribusque nostrīs didicimus, ut magis virtute quam dolo contendamus, aut însidiis nîtāmur. noli committere, ut hic locus ubi constitimus ex calamitate populi Romani et internecione exercitus nomen capiat, aut memoriam prodat.

II. INTERMEDIATE CLAUSES.

340. A Subordinate clause takes the Subjunctive, (1) when it expresses the thought of some other person than the speaker or writer (Informal Indirect Discourse), or (2) when it is an integral part of a Subjunctive clause or equivalent Infinitive 1 (Attraction).

¹ See note at head of Indirect Discourse, p. 369.

1. Informal Indirect Discourse.

- **341.** A subordinate clause takes the subjunctive when it expresses the thought of some other person than the writer or speaker. Thus:—
- a. In subordinate clauses in formal indirect discourse (\S 336); but also in Informal Indirect Discourse in the following cases (b-d):—
- b. When the clause depends upon another containing a wish, a command, or a question expressed indirectly, though not strictly in the form of Indirect Discourse: as,
 - animal sentit quid sit quod deceat (Off. i. 6), an animal feels what it is that is fit.
 - hunc sibi ex animo scrupulum, qui se dies noctesque stimulet ac pungat, ut evellatis postulat (Rosc. Am. 2), he begs you to pluck from his heart this doubt that goads and stings him day and night. [Here the relative clause is not a part of the Purpose expressed in evellatis, but is an assertion made by the subject of postulat.]
- c. When the main clause of a quotation is merged in the verb of saying, or some modifier of it: as,
 - si quid de his rebus dicere vellet, feci potestatem (Cat. iii. 5, 11), if he wished to say anything about these matters, I gave him a chance.
 - tulit de caede quae in Appia via facta esset (Milo 5, 15), he passed a law concerning the murder which (in the language of the bill) took place in the Appian Way.
 - nisi restituissent statuas, vehementer eis minatur (Verr. iii. 67), he threatens them violently unless they should restore the statues. [Here the main clause, "that he will inflict punishment," is contained in minatur.]
 - eis auxilium suum pollicitus si ab Suevis premerentur (B. G. iv. 19), he promised them his aid if they should be molested by the Suevi. [= pollicitus se auxilium lätürum, etc.]
 - prohibitio tollendi, nisi pactus esset, vim adhibebat pactioni (Verr. iv. 14), the forbidding to take away unless he came to terms gave force to the bargain.
- d. When a reason or an explanatory fact is introduced by a relative or by quod (rarely quia) (see § 321). Thus,—
 - Paetus omnēs libros quos pater suus reliquisset mihi donāvit (Att. iii. 1), Paetus presented me all the books which (he said) his father had left.
- REMARK.—Under this head even what the speaker himself thought under other circumstances may have the Subjunctive. So also with quod even the verb of saying may be in the Subjunctive. Here belong also non quia, non quod, introducing a reason expressly to deny it. (See § 321. Rem. and note 2.)

¹ This usage probably originates in Apodosis, the condition being the supposed truth of the speaker, the main subject. (See Indirect Discourse, Note, p. 370.)

2. Subjunctive of Integral Part (Attraction).

342. A clause depending upon a Subjunctive clause or an equivalent Infinitive will itself take the Subjunctive if regarded as an integral part of that clause: 1 as,—

imperat, dum res adiudicetur, hominem ut adservent: cum iudicetum sit, ad se adducant (Verr. iv. 22), he orders them, till the affair should be decided, to keep the man; when he is judged, to bring him to him.

etenim quis tam dissolūto animo est, qui haec cum videat, tacēre āc neglegere possit (Rosc. Am. II), for who is so reckless of spirit, that, when he sees these things, he can keep silent and pass them by?

- mos est Athenis laudāri in contione eos qui sint in proeliis interfecti (Or. 44), it is the custom at Athens for those to be publicly eulogized who have been slain in battle. [Here laudārī is equivalent to ut laudentur.]
- a. But a dependent clause may be closely connected grammatically with a Subjunctive or Infinitive clause, and still take the Indicative, if it is not regarded as a necessary logical part of that clause: as,
 - quodam modo postulat ut, quemadmodum est, sic etiam appelletur, tyrannus (Att. x. 4), in a manner he demands that as he is, so he may be called, a tyrant.
 - si mea in te essent officia solum tanta quanta magis a te ipso praedicari quam a me ponderari solent, verecundius a te ... peterem (Fam. ii. 6), if my good services to you were only so great as they are wont rather to be called by you than to be estimated by me, I should, etc.
 - natura fert ut eis faveamus qui eadem pericula quibus nos perfuncti sumus ingrediuntur (Mur. 2, 4), nature prompts us to feel friendly towards those who are entering on the same dangers which we have passed through.
 - ne hostes, quod tantum multitudine poterant, suos circumvenire possent (B. G. ii. 8), lest the enemy, because they were so strong in numbers, should be able to surround his men.

NOTE. — The use of the Indicative in such clauses sometimes serves to emphasize the fact, as true independently of the statement contained in the subjunctive or infinitive clause. But in many cases no such distinction between the Indicative and Subjunctive is perceptible.

It is often difficult to distinguish between Informal Indirect Discourse and the Integral Part. Thus in imperavit ut ea flerent quae opus essent, essent may stand for sunt, and then will be Indirect Discourse, being a part of the thought, but not a part of the order; or it may stand for erunt, and then will be

Integral Part, being a part of the order itself.

¹ The Subjunctive in this use is in a manner of the same nature as the Subjunctive in the main clause. A dependent clause in a clause of Purpose is really a part of the purpose, as is seen from the use of should and other auxiliaries in English. In a Result clause this is less clear, but the result construction is a branch of the characteristic, to which category the dependent clause in this case evidently belongs, when it takes the Subjunctive.

IMPORTANT RULES OF SYNTAX.

- A noun used to describe another, and denoting the same person or thing, agrees with it in Case (§ 183).
- 2. Adjectives, adjective pronouns, and participles agree with their nouns in gender, number, and case (§ 186).
- 3. A Relative pronoun agrees with its Antecedent in gender and number, but its case depends on the construction of the clause in which it stands (§ 198).
- 4. A Finite Verb agrees with its Subject in number and person (§ 204).
- Superlatives (more rarely comparatives) denoting order and succession also medius, cēterus, reliquus—usually designate not what object, but what part of it, is meant (§ 193).
- 6. The Personal Pronouns have two forms for the genitive plural, that in -um being used partitively, and that in -i oftenest objectively (§ 194. b).
- 7. The Reflexive pronoun (so), and usually the corresponding possessive (suus), are used in some part of the predicate to refer to the subject of the sentence or clause (§ 196).
- 8. The Possessive Pronouns are used instead of the genitive of a personal pronoun: (1) always instead of the possessive genitive, (2) rarely instead of an objective genitive (§ 197. a).
- A Possessive representing a genitive may have a genitive in apposition (§ 197. e).
- 10. Adverbs are used to modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs (§ 207).
- 11. A question of simple fact, requiring the answer YES or No, is formed by adding the enclitic -ne to the emphatic word (§ 210. a).
- 12. When the enclitic -ne is added to a negative word, as in nonne, an affirmative answer is expected. The particle num suggests a negative answer (§ 210. c).
- 13. The subject of a finite verb is in the NOMINATIVE (§ 173. a).
- 14. A noun used to limit or define another, and not meaning the same person or thing, is put in the GENITIVE (§ 213).
- 15. The Subjective Genitive is used with a noun to denote (1) the Author or Owner, (2) the Source or the Material, (3) the Quality (§ 214).
- 16. Words denoting a Part are followed by the genitive of the Whole to which the part belongs (Partitive Genitive, § 216).
- 17. Nouns of action, agency, and feeling govern the genitive of the object (Objective Genitive, § 217).
- 18. Adjectives denoting desire, knowledge, memory, fulness, power, sharing, guilt, and their opposites; verbals in -āx, and participles in -ns when used as adjectives, govern the Genitive (§ 218. a, b).
- 19. Verbs of remembering, forgetting, take the Genitive of the object when they are used of a continued state of mind, but the Accusative when used of a single act (§ 219).

- Verbs of accusing, condemning, and acquitting take the Genitive of the Charge or Penalty (§ 220).
- The DATIVE is used of the object indirectly affected by an action (Indirect Object, § 224).
- 22. Most verbs meaning to favor, help, please, trust, and their contraries; also, to believe, persuade, command, obey, serve, resist, envy, threaten, pardon, and spare, take the Dative (§ 227).
- 23. Most verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, pro, sub, super, and some with circum, are followed by the Dative of the indirect object (§ 228).
- 24. Many verbs of taking away, and the like, take the Dative (especially of a person) instead of the Ablative of Separation (§ 229).
- 25. The Dative is used with esse and similar words to denote Possession (§ 231).
- 26. The Dative of the Agent is used with the Gerundive, to denote the person on whom the necessity rests (§ 232).
- 27. The Dative is used to denote the Purpose or End, often with another Dative of the person or thing affected (§ 233. a).
- 28. The Dative is used with adjectives (and a few adverbs) of fitness, nearness, service, inclination, and their opposites (§ 234. a).
- 29. The Dative is often required, not by any particular word, but by the general meaning of the sentence (Dative of Reference, § 235).
- 30. The Direct Object of a transitive verb is put in the ACCUSATIVE (§ 237).
- 31. A neuter verb often takes an accusative of kindred meaning (§ 238).
- 32. Verbs of naming, choosing, appointing, making, esteeming, showing, and the like, may take a Predicate Accusative along with the direct object (§ 239. a).
- 33. Transitive verbs compounded with prepositions sometimes take (in addition to the direct object) a Secondary Object, originally governed by the preposition (§ 239. b).
- 34. Verbs of asking and teaching may take two Accusatives, one of the person, and the other of the thing (§ 239. c).
- 35. The subject of an Infinitive is in the Accusative (§ 173. 2).
- 36. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are expressed by the Accusative (§ 240. ε).
- 37. The VOCATIVE is the case of direct address (§ 241).
- 38. Words signifying separation or privation are followed by the ABLATIVE, with or without a preposition (Ablative of Separation, § 243).
- 39. Opus and usus, signifying need, are followed by the Ablative (§ 243. e).
- 40. The ablative, with or without a preposition, is used to denote the source from which anything is derived or the material of which it consists (§ 244).

- 41. The Ablative, with or without a preposition, is used to express cause (§ 245).
- Dīgnus and indīgnus, contentus, laetus, praeditus, etc., take the Ablative (§ 245. a).
- 43. The Voluntary Agent after a passive verb is put in the Ablative with ā or ab (§ 246).
- 44. The Comparative degree is followed by the Ablative (signifying THAN) (§ 247).
- 45. The Comparative may be followed by quam, than. When quam is used, the two things compared are put in the same case (§ 247. α).
- 46. The manner of an action is denoted by the Ablative, usually with cum, unless a limiting adjective is used with the noun (§ 248).
- 47. Accompaniment is denoted by the Ablative, regularly with cum (§ 248. a).
- 48. The Ablative is used to denote the *means* or *instrument* of an action (§ 248. c. 1).
- 49. The deponents, ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, and vescor, with several of their compounds, govern the Ablative (§ 249).
- 50. With comparatives and words implying comparison the Ablative is used to denote the degree of difference (§ 250).
- 51. The quality of a thing is denoted by the Ablative with a modifier, usually an adjective or limiting genitive (§ 251).
- 52. The price of a thing is put in the Ablative (§ 252).
- 53. The Ablative of Specification denotes that in respect to which anything is or is done (§ 253).
- 54. A noun or pronoun, with a participle, may be put in the Ablative, to define the time or circumstances of an action (Ablative Absolute).
 - An adjective, or a second noun, may take the place of the participle in the ablative absolute construction ($\frac{1}{2}$ 255 and a).
- 55. Time when, or within which, is put in the Ablative; time how long in the Accusative (§ 256).
- 56. The place from which is denoted by the Ablative with ab, dē, or ex; the place to which (the end of motion), by the Accusative with ad or in (§ 258. c).
 - The names of towns or small islands from which, as also domus and rus, are put in the Ablative without a preposition (§ 258. a).
 - The names of towns or small islands to which, as also **domus** and \mathbf{rus} , are put in the Accusative without a preposition (\S 258. b).
- 57. The place where is denoted by the Ablative with the preposition in (Locative Ablative); but names of towns and small islands are put in the Locative Case (§ 258. c).
 - The Locative Case is also preserved in domi, belli, militiae, humi, foris, rūrī, terrā marīque (§ 258. d).

- 58. The Infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, may be used with est and similar verbs (1) as the subject, (2) as in apposition with the subject, or (3) as a predicate nominative (§ 270).
- 59. The Infinitive, without a subject accusative, is used with verbs which imply another action of the same subject to complete their meaning (Complementary Infinitive, § 271).
- 60. The Infinitive, with subject accusative, is used with verbs and other expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (Indirect Discourse, see § 272).
- 61. The Infinitive is often used in narrative for the Imperfect Indicative, and takes a subject in the Nominative (*Historical Infinitive*, § 275).
- 62. SEQUENCE OF TENSES. In complex sentences, a primary tense in the main clause is followed by the Present or Perfect Subjunctive; a secondary tense by the Imperfect or Pluperfect (§ 286).
- 63. The tenses of the Infinitive denote time as present, past, or future with respect to the time of the verb on which they depend (§ 288).
- 64. Participles denote time as present, past, or future with respect to the time of the verb in their clause (§ 290).
- 65. The GERUND and the GERUNDIVE are used, in the oblique cases, in many of the constructions of nouns (§ 297).

For particulars see §§ 298-301.

- 66. The Former SUPINE (in -um) is used after verbs of motion to express Purpose (§ 302).
- 67. The Latter Supine (in -ū) is used only with a few adjectives, with the nouns fās, nefās, and opus, and rarely with verbs, to denote an action in reference to which the quality is asserted (§ 303).
- 68. The Hortatory Subjunctive is used to express an exhortation, a command, a concession, or a condition (§ 266).
- 69. The Subjunctive is used to express a wish. The present tense denotes the wish as possible, the imperfect as unaccomplished in present time, the pluperfect as unaccomplished in past time (Optative Subjunctive, § 267).
- 70. The Subjunctive is used in questions implying doubt, indignation, or an impossibility of the thing being done (Deliberative Subjunctive, § 268).
- 71. Prohibition is regularly expressed in classic prose (1) by nē with the second person of the Perfect Subjunctive, (2) by nölī with the Infinitive, (3) by cave with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive (§ 269. a).
- 72. The Potential Subjunctive is used to denote an action not as actually performed, but as possible (§ 311. a).
- 73. Dum, modo, dummodo, and tantum, introducing a Proviso, take the Subjunctive (§ 314).
- 74. Final clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut (uti), negative ne (ut nē), or by a Relative (pronoun or adverb) (§ 317).

- 75. Consecutive clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut, so that (negative, ut non), or by a Relative (pronoun or adverb) (§ 319).
- 76. Dīgnus, indīgnus, aptus, and idoneus, take a clause of result with a relative (rarely with ut) (§ 320. f).
- 77. The Causal Particles quod, quia, and quoniam take the Indicative when the reason is given on the authority of the speaker or writer; the Subjunctive when the reason is given on the authority of another (§ 321).
- 78. Cum TEMPORAL, meaning when, takes the Imperfect and Pluperfect in the Subjunctive, other tenses in the Indicative (§ 325).
- 79. Cum CAUSAL or CONCESSIVE takes the Subjunctive (§ 326).

 For other concessive particles, see § 313.
- 80. In the Indirect Discourse the main clause of a Declaratory Sentence is put in the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. All subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive (§ 336. 2).
- 81. In the Indirect Discourse a real question is generally put in the Subjunctive; a rhetorical question in the Infinitive (§ 338).
- All Imperative forms of speech take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse (§ 339).
- 83. A Subordinate clause takes the Subjunctive when it expresses the thought of some other person than the writer or speaker (Informal Indirect Discourse, § 341).
- 84. A clause depending on a Subjunctive clause or an equivalent Infinitive will itself take the Subjunctive if regarded as an integral part of that clause (Attraction, § 342).

For PREPOSITIONS and their cases, see §§ 152, 153.

For CONDITIONAL Sentences, see § 304. ff. (Scheme in § 305.)

For ways of expressing Purpose, see § 318.

CHAPTER VI. - Order of Words.

NOTE. — Latin differs from English in having more freedom in the arrangement of words for the purpose of showing the relative importance of the ideas in a sentence.

343. As in other languages, the Subject tends to stand first, the Predicate last. Thus,—

Pausāniās Lacedaemonius māgnus homō sed varius in omnī genere vītae fuit.

NOTE.—This happens because from the speaker's ordinary point of view the subject of his discourse is the most important thing in it, as singled out from all other things to be spoken of.

There is in Latin, however, a special tendency to place the verb itself *last of all* after all its modifiers. But many writers purposely avoid the monotony of this arrangement by putting the verb last but one, followed by some single word of the predicate.

344. In *connected discourse* the word most prominent in the speaker's mind comes first, and so on in order of prominence.

This relative prominence corresponds to that indicated in English by a graduated stress of voice (usually called *emphasis*).

NOTE. — This stress or emphasis, however, in English does not necessarily show any violent contrast to the rest of the words in the sentence, but is infinitely varied, constantly increasing and diminishing, and often so subtle as to be unnoticed except in careful study. So, as a general rule, the precedence of words in a Latin sentence is not mechanical, but corresponds to the prominence which a good speaker would mark by skilfully managed stress of voice. A Latin written sentence, therefore, has all the clearness and expression which could be given to a spoken discourse by the best actor in English.

REMARK. - Some exceptions to this rule will be treated later.

Thus the first chapter of Cæsar's Gallic War rendered so as to bring out so far as possible the shades of emphasis, would run thus:

GAUL, in the widest sense, is divided 2 into three parts, which are inhabited 4 (as follows): one 5 by the Belgians, another 6 by the Aquitani, the third by a people called in their own 7 language Celts, in ours Gauls. These, 8 in their language, 9 institutions, and laws are all of them 10 different. The GAULS 11 (proper) are separated 12 from the Aquitani by the river Garonne, from the Belgians

Gallia est omnis dīvīsa in partēs trēs, quārum ūnam incolunt Belgae, aliam Aquitānī, tertiam qui ipsorum linguā Celtae, nostrā Gallī appellantur. Hī omnēs linguā, īnstitūtīs, lēgibus inter sē differunt. Gallōs ab Aquitānīs Garumna flūmen, ā Belgīs Mātrona et Sēquana dīvidit. Hōrum omnium fortissimī sunt Belgae, proptereā quod ā cultū atque hūmānitāte

by the Marne and Seine. Of THESE ¹⁸ (TRIBES) the bravest of all ¹⁴ are the Belgians, for the reason that they live farthest ¹⁵ away from the CIVILIZA-

1 GAUL: emphatic as the subject of discourse, as with a title or the like.

8 Parts: continuing the emphasis begun in divisa. Not three parts as opposed to any other number, but into parts at all.

4 Inhabited: emphatic as the next subject, "The inhabitants of these parts are, etc."

6 Another, etc.: opposed to one.

7 Their own, ours: strongly opposed to each other.

10 All of them: the emphasis on all marks the distributive character of the adjective, as if it were "every one has its own, etc."

18 OF THESE: the subject of discourse.

² Divided: opposed to the false conception (implied in the use of omnis) that the country called Gallia by the Romans is one. This appears more clearly from the fact that Cæsar later speaks of the Galli in the narrower sense as distinct from the other two tribes, who with them inhabit Gallia in the wider sense.

⁵ One: given more prominence than it otherwise would have on account of its close connection with quarum.

⁸ THESE (tribes): the main subject of discourse again, collecting under one head the names previously mentioned.

⁹ Language, etc.: these are the most prominent ideas as giving the striking points which distinguish the tribes. The emphasis becomes natural in English if we say "these have a different language, different institutions, different laws."

¹¹ GAULS: emphatic as referring to the Gauls proper in distinction from the other tribes.

¹² Separated: though this word contains an indispensable idea in the connection, yet it has a subordinate position. It is not emphatic in Latin, as is seen from the fact that it cannot be made emphatic in English. The sense is: The Gauls lie between the Aquitani on the one side, and the Belga on the other.

¹⁴ All: emphasizing the superlative idea in bravest; they, as Gauls, are assumed to be warlike, but the most so of all of them are the Belgians.

¹⁵ Farthest away: one might expect absunt (are away) to have a more emphatic place, but it is dwarfed in importance by the predominance of the main idea, the effeminating influences from which the Belgæ are said to be free. It is not that they live farthest off that is insisted on, but that the civilisation of the province, etc., which would soften them, comes less in their way. It is to be noticed also that absunt has already been anticipated by the construction of cultu and still more by longissime, so that when it comes it amounts only to a formal part of the sentence. Thus because the civilization, etc., of the province (which would soften them) is farthest from them.

TION and REFINEMENT of the Province, and because they are LEAST 16 of all of them subject to the visits of traders.17 and to the (consequent) importation of such things as 18 tend to soften 19 their warlike spirit; and are also nearest 2) to the Germans, who live across the Rhine,21 and with whom they are incessantly 22 at war. For the same reason the HELVETII. as well, are superior to all the other Gauls in valor, because they are engaged in almost daily battles with the Germans, either defending their own boundaries from them, or themselves making war on those of the Germans. Of ALL THIS country, one part, the one which as has been said the Gauls (proper) occupy, BEGINS at the river Rhone. Its boundaries are the river Garonne, the ocean, and the confines of the Belgians. It even REACHES on the side of the Sequani and Helvetians the river Rhine. Its general direction is towards the north. The BELGIANS begin at the extreme limits of Gaul; they reach (on this side) as far as the lower part of the Rhine.

provinciae longissime absunt, minimeque ad eos mercatores saepe commeant atque ea quae ad effeminandos animos pertinent, important, proximique sunt Germanis, qui trans Rhenum incolunt, quibuscum continenter bellum gerunt. Qua de causa Helvetii quoque reliquos Gallos virtute praecedunt, quod fere cotidianis proeliis cum Germanis contendunt, cum aut suīs fīnibus eos prohibent, aut ipsī in eorum finibus bellum gerunt. Eorum una pars, quam Gallos obtinere dictum est, initium capit a flumine Rhodano; continentur Garumna flumine. Oceano, finibus Belgarum; attingit etiam ab Sequanis et Helvetiis flumen Rhēnum; vergit ad septentriones. Belgae ab extremis Galliae finibus oriuntur: pertinent ad inferiorem partem fluminis Rheni; spectant in septentrionem et orientem solem. Aquitania a Garumna flumine ad Pyrenaeos montes et eam partem Oceani. quae est ad Hispaniam, pertinet; spectat inter occasum solis et septentriones.

They spread to the northward and eastward.

AQUITANIA extends from the Garonne to the Pyrenees, and that part of the ocean that lies towards Spain. It runs off westward and northward.

¹⁶ LEAST: made emphatic here by a common Latin order,—the chiasmus (see f, p. 390).

¹⁷ traders: the fourth member of the chiasmus opposed to cultū and hūmānitāte.

¹⁸ Such things as: the importance of the nature of the importations overshadows the fact that they are imported, which fact is anticipated in "traders."

¹⁹ Soften: cf. what is said in note 15. They are brave because they have less to soften them, their native barbarity being assumed.

²⁰ Nearest: the same idiomatic prominence as in 16, but varied by a special usage (see f, p. 390) combining chiasmus and anaphora.

²¹ Across the Rhine; i.e. and so are perfect savages.

²² Incessantly: the continuance of the warfare becomes the all-important idea, as if it were, "and not a day passes in which they are not at war with them."

REMARK. — The more important word is never placed last for emphasis. The apparent cases of this usage (when the emphasis is not misconceived) are cases where a word is added as an afterthought, either real or affected, and so has its position not in the sentence to which it is appended, but, as it were, in a new one.

- a. In any phrase the determining and most significant word comes first: as.
 - 1. Adjective and Noun: —

omnēs hominēs decet, EVERY man ought (opposed to some who do not). Lūcius Catilina nobilī genere natus fuit māgnā vī et animī et corporis sed ingenio malo pravoque (Sall. Cat. 5), Lucius Catiline was born of a NOBLE family, with GREAT force of mind and body, but with a NATURE that was evil and depraved. [Here the adjectives in the first part are the emphatic and important words, no antithesis between the nouns being as yet thought of; but in the second branch the noun is meant to be opposed to those before mentioned, and immediately takes the prominent place, as is seen by the natural English emphasis, thus making a chiasmus.]

- 2. Word with modifying case: —
- cui rei magis Epaminondam, Thebanorum imperatorem, quam victoriae Thebanorum consulere decuit (Inv. i. 38), what should Epaminondas, commander of the THEBANS, have aimed at more than the VICTORY of the Thebans?

lacrimā nihil citius arēscit (id. i. 56), nothing dries quicker than a TEAR. nēmo ferē laudis cupidus (De Or. i. 4), hardly any one desirous of GLORY (cf. Manil. 3, avidī laudis, EAGER for glory).

b. Numeral adjectives, adjectives of quantity, demonstrative, relative, and interrogative pronouns and adverbs, tend to precede the word or words to which they belong: as,—

cum aliqua perturbatione (Off. i. 38), with SOME disturbance. hoc uno praestamus (De Or. i. 8), in this one thing we excel. ceterae fere artes, the other arts.

NOTE. — This happens because such words are usually emphatic; but often the words connected with them are more so, and in such cases the pronouns, etc., yield the emphatic place: as,—

causa aliqua (De Or. i. 58), some CASE.

stilus ille tuus (id. i. 60), that STYLE of your's (in an antithesis; see passage).

Romam quae asportata sunt (Verr. iv. 54), what were carried to ROME (in contrast to what remained at Syracuse).

- c. When sum is used as the Substantive verb (§ 172, note), it regularly stands first, or at any rate before its subject: as,
 - est viri magni punire sontes (Off. i. 24), it is the duty of a great man to punish the guilty.

- d. The verb may come first, or have a prominent position either (1) because the *idea* in it is emphatic: as,
 - dicabat idem Cotta (Off. ii. 17), Cotta used to SAY the same thing (opposed to others' boasting).
 - idem fecit adulescens M. Antonius (id. ii. 14), the same thing was DONE by M. Antonius in his youth. [Opposed to dīxī just before.]
 - facis benignē (Læl.), you act kindly. [Cf. benignē facis, you are very KIND (you act KINDLY).]
- (2) or because the predication of the whole statement is emphatic: as, propension benignitas esse debebit in calamitosos nisi forte erunt digni calamitate (Off. ii. 18), unless perchance they REALLY DESERVE their misfortune.
 - praesertim cum scrībat (Panaetius) (id. iii. 2), especially when he DOES SAY (in his books). [Opposed to something omitted by him.]
- (3) or the tense only may be emphatic: as,
 - fuimus Troes, fuit Ilium (Æn. ii. 325), we have ceased to be Trojans, Troy is now no more.
 - loquor autem de communibus amīcitiis (Off. iii. 10), but I am speaking now, etc.
- e. Often the connection of two emphatic phrases is brought about by giving the precedence to the most prominent part of each and leaving the less prominent parts to follow in inconspicuous places: as,
 - plūrēs solent esse causae (Off. i. 9), there are USUALLY SEVERAL reasons. quōs āmīsimus cīvīs eos Mārtis vīs perculit (Marc. 6), WHAT fellow-citizens we have LOST, have been stricken down by the violence of war.
 - māximās tibi omnēs grātiās agimus (Marc. 11), we ALL render you the
 - haec res unius est propria Caesaris (Marc. 4), THIS exploit belongs to Caesar ALONE.
 - obiurgationes etiam nonnunquam incidunt necessariae (Off. i. 38), OCCA-SIONS FOR REBUKE also SOMETIMES occur which are unavoidable.
- f. Antithesis between two pairs of ideas is indicated either (1) by placing the pairs in the same order (anaphora) or (2) in exactly the opposite order (chiasmus 1).
- rērum copia verborum copiam gignit (De Or. iii. 3, 31), ABUNDANCE of MATTER produces COPIOUSNESS of EXPRESSION.
- (2) lēgēs suppliciō improbōs afficiunt, dēfendunt āc tuentur bonōs (Fin. iii. 5), the laws visit punishments upon the Wicked, but the Good they defend and protect.

¹ So-called from the Greek letter X (chi), on account of the criss-cross arrangement. Thus $_{a}^{a}X_{a}^{b}$.

NOTE. — Chiasmus is very common in Latin, and seems in fact the more inartificial construction. In an artless narrative one might hear, "The women were all drowned, they saved the men."

non igitur utilitatem amicitia sed utilitas amicitiam consecuta est (Læl. 14), it is not then that friendship has followed upon advantage, but advantage upon friendship. [Here the chiasmus is only grammatical, the ideas being in the parallel order.] (See also in the example from Cæsar, p. 388: longissimē, minimē, proximī.)

g. A modifier of a phrase or some part of it is often embodied within the phrase (cf. α): as, —

de communi hominum memoria (Tusc. i. 24), in regard to the UNIVERSAL memory of man.

h. A favorite order with the poets is the *interlocked*, by which the attribute of one pair comes between the parts of the other (*synchysis*): as,—et superiectō pavidae nātārunt aequore dāmae (Hor. Od. i. 2. 11).

NOTE. — This is often joined with chiasmus: as, — arma nondum expiatis uncta cruoribus (id. ii. 1. 5).

i. Frequently unimportant words follow in the train of more emphatic ones with which they are grammatically connected, and so acquire a prominence out of proportion to their importance: as,—

dictitābat sē hortulos aliquos emere velle (Off. iii. 14, 58), gave out that he wanted to buy some gardens. [Here aliquos is less emphatic than emere, but precedes it on account of the emphasis on hortulos.]

j. The copula is generally felt to be of so little importance that it may come in anywhere where it sounds well; but usually under cover of more emphatic words: as,—

consul ego quaesivi, cum vos mihi essetis in consilio (R. P. iii. 18, 28), as consul, I held an investigation in which you attended me in council. falsum est id totum (id. ii. 15. 28), that is all false.

k. Many expressions have acquired an invariable order: as,—rēs pūblica; populus Rōmānus; honōris causā; pāce tantī virī.

NOTE. — These had, no doubt, originally an emphasis which required such an arrangement, but in the course of time have changed their shade of meaning. Thus, senātus populusque Rōmānus originally stated with emphasis the official bodies, but became fixed so as to be the only permissible form of expression.

1. The Romans had a fondness for emphasizing persons, so that a name or a pronoun often stands in an emphatic place: as,—

[dixit] vēnālīs quidem sē hortos non habēre (Off. iii. 14, 58), [said] that he didn't have any gardens for sale, to be sure. [A representation of the direct, I have no gardens, etc.]

m. At the end of a sentence the Romans arranged the words so as to give an agreeable succession of long and short syllables.

Special Rules.

- 345. The following are special rules of arrangement:—
- a. 1. Prepositions (except tenus and versus) regularly precede their nouns; 2. but a monosyllabic preposition is often placed between a noun and its adjective or limiting genitive: as,—

quem ad modum; quam ob rem; māgnō cum metū; omnibus cum copiis; nūlla in rē (cf. § 344. i).

- b. Itaque regularly comes first in its sentence or clause; enim, autem, vērō, quoque, never first, but usually second, sometimes third if the second word is emphatic; quidem never first, but after the emphatic word; nē...quidem include the emphatic word or words.
- c. Inquam, inquit, are always used parenthetically, following one or more words. So often credo, opinor, and in poetry sometimes precor.
- d. The negative precedes the word it especially affects; but if it belongs to no one word in particular, it generally precedes the verb; if it is especially emphatic, it begins the sentence. (See example, 344. f, note.)
- e. In the arrangement of clauses, the Relative clause more often comes first in Latin, and usually contains the antecedent noun: as,—

quōs āmīsimus cīvīs, eōs Mārtis vīs perculit (Marc. 6), those citizens whom we have lost, etc.

Structure of the Period.

NOTE.— Latin, unlike modern languages, expresses the relation of words to each other by *inflection* rather than by *position*. Hence its structure not only admits of great variety in the arrangement of words, but is especially favorable to that form of sentence which is called a Period. In a period, the sense is expressed by the sentence as a whole, and is held in suspense till the delivery of the last word.

An English sentence does not often exhibit this form of structure. It was imitated, sometimes with great skill and beauty, by many of the earlier writers of English prose; but its effect is better seen in poetry, in such a passage as the following:—

"High on a throne of royal state, which far
Outshone the wealth of Ormus and of Ind,
Or where the gorgeous East with richest hand
Showers on her kings barbaric pearl and gold,
Satan exalted sat."—Paradise Lost, Book II. 1-5.

But in argument or narrative, the best English writers more commonly give short clear sentences, each distinct from the rest, and saying one thing by itself. In Latin, on the contrary, the story or argument is viewed as a whole; and the logical relation among all its parts is carefully indicated. Hence—

- **346.** In the structure of the Period, the following rules are to be observed:—
- a. In general the main subject or object is put in the main clause, not in a subordinate one (according to § 344): as, —

Hannibal cum recensuisset auxilia Gades profectus est, when Hannibal had reviewed, etc.

- Volscī exiguam spem in armīs, aliā undique abscissā, cum tentāssent, praeter cētera adversa, locō quoque inīquō ad pūgnam congressī, inīquiōre ad fugam, cum ab omnī parte caederentur, ad precēs a certāmine versī dēditō imperātōre trāditīsque armīs, sub iugum missī, cum singulīs vestīmentīs, īgnōminiae clādisque plēnī dimittuntur (Liv. iv. 10). [Here the main fact is the return of the Volscians. But the striking circumstances of the surrender, etc., which in English would be detailed in a number of brief independent sentences, are put in the several subordinate clauses within the main clause, so that the passage gives a complete picture in one sentence.]
- b. Clauses are usually arranged in the order of prominence in the mind of the speaker; so, usually, cause before result; purpose, manner, and the like, before the act.
- c. In co-ordinate clauses, the copulative conjunctions are frequently omitted (asyndeton). In such cases the connection is made clear by some antithesis indicated by the position of words.
- d. A change of subject, when required, is marked by the introduction of a pronoun, if the new subject has already been mentioned. But such change is often purposely avoided by a change in structure,—the less important being merged in the more important by the aid of participles or of subordinate phrases: as,
 - quem ut barbari incendium effügisse viderunt, telis eminus emissis interfecerunt, when the barbarians saw that he had escaped, they threw darts at HIM and killed HIM.
 - celeriter confecto negotio, in hiberna legiones reverterunt, the matter was soon finished, and the legions, etc.
- e. So the repetition of a noun, or the substitution of a pronoun for it, is avoided unless a different case is required: as,
 - dolorem si non potero frangere occultabo, if I cannot conquer the pain, I will hide II. [Cf. if I cannot conquer I will hide the pain.]

PART THIRD.—PROSODY (RULES OF VERSE).

CHAPTER I. — Quantity.

NOTE.—The poetry of the Indo-European people seems originally to have been somewhat like our own, depending on accent for its metre and disregarding the natural quantity of syllables. The Greeks, however, developed a form of poetry which, like music, pays close attention to the natural quantity of syllables; and the Romans borrowed their metrical forms in classical times from the Greeks. Hence Latin poetry does not depend, like ours, upon accent and rhyme; but is measured, like musical strains, by the length of syllables. Especially does it differ from our verse in not regarding the prose accent of the words, but substituting for that an entirely different system of metrical accent or ictus (see § 358. a). This depends upon the character of the measure used, falling regularly on certain long syllables. Each syllable is counted as either long or short in Quantity; 1 and a long syllable is generally reckoned equal in length to two short ones (for exceptions, see § 355. c—).

The quantity of radical or stem-syllables—as of short a in pater or of long a in mater—can be learned only by observation and practice, unless determined by the general rules of quantity. Most of the rules of Prosody are only arbitrary rules devised to assist the memory; the syllables being long or short because the ancients pronounced them so. The actual practice of the Romans in regard to the quantity of syllables is ascertained chiefly from the usage of the poets; but the ancient grammarians give some assistance, and in some inscriptions the long vowels are distinguished in various ways,—by marks over the letters, for instance, or by doubling.

Since Roman poets borrowed very largely from the poetry and mythology of the Greeks, numerous Greek words, especially proper names, make an important part of Latin poetry. These words are generally employed in accordance with the Greek, and not the Latin, laws of quantity. Where these laws vary in any important point, the variations will be noticed in the rules below.

347. The following are General Rules of Quantity (cf. § 18):—

1. General Rules.

a. Vowel. A vowel before another vowel or h is short: as, via, trahō.

¹ The terms *long* and *short*, when used of Latin sounds, apply to their *quantity*; when used of English sounds, to their *quality*.

EXCEPTIONS. I. In the genitive form -ius, I is long, except usuallyin alterius. Thus, utrīus, nūllīus. It is, however, sometimes made
short in verse (§ 83. b).

2. In the genitive and dative singular of the fifth declension, e is long between two vowels: as, diel; but it is short in fidel, rel, spel

NOTE. — It was once long in these also: as, plēnus fidēl (Ennius, at end of hexameter).

A is also long before I in the old genitive of the first declension: as, aulaI.

- 3. In the conjugation of fio, i is long except when followed by er. Thus, fio, fiebam, fiam, but fieri, fierem; so also fit, by § 354. a. 3.
- 4. In many Greek words the vowel in Latin represents a long vowel or diphthong, and retains its original long quantity: as, **Trões** ($\text{T}\rho\hat{\omega}\epsilon s$), **Thalīa** ($\text{@a}\lambda\epsilon\hat{u}a$), hērōas ($\tilde{\eta}\rho\omega as$), āēr ($\tilde{u}\eta\rho$).

Note.—But many Greek words are more or less Latinized in this respect: as, Acadēmīa, chorēa, Malĕa, platĕa.

- 5. In **sheu** and **dīus**, and sometimes in **Dīāna** and **ŏhe** the first vowel is long.
 - b. DIPHTHONG. A Diphthong is long: as, foedus, cui, deinde.

EXCEPTION. The preposition prae in compounds is generally shortened before a vowel: as, prăe-ūstīs (Æn. vii. 524), prăe-eunte (id. v. 186).

Note. — U following q, s, or g, does not make a diphthong with a following vowel (see \S 4. n. 2).

c. Contraction. A vowel formed by contraction (crasis) is long: as, nīl, from nihil; currūs, genitive for curruis.

But often two syllables are united by Synæresis without contraction: as when parietibus is pronounced paryetibus.

d. Position. A vowel, though short, followed by two consonants or a double consonant, makes a long syllable: as, adventus, cortex.

But if the two consonants are a mute followed by 1 or r the syllable may be either long or short (common); as, alacris or alacris; patris or patris.

NOTE 1.—Any vowel before 1 consonant makes a long syllable (except in bliugis, quadrliugis).

But it is probable that in all such cases the vowel was long by nature. So also rēiciō, etc. (from rē-iaciō), cf. note 2.

NOTE 2.—The compounds of iacio, though written with one i, commonly retain the long vowel of the prepositions with which they are compounded, as if before a consonant, and lengthen the short as if by Position. (But how the syllables were pronounced is uncertain.) Thus,—

obicis hosti (at the end of a hexameter, Æn. iv. 549).
inicit et saltū (at the beginning of a hexameter, Æn. ix. 552).
proice tela manū (at the beginning of a hexameter, Æn. vi. 836).

The later poets sometimes shorten the preposition in trisyllabic forms, and the prepositions ending in a vowel are sometimes contracted as if the verb began with a vowel. Thus:—

- (1) turpe pu|tās ăbĭ|cī (Ov. Pont. ii. 3, 37). cūr an|nōs ŏbĭ|cis (Claud. Cons. Hon. iv. 364).
- (2) reice că pellas (Ecl. iii. 96, at end).

REMARK.—The y or w sound resulting from synæresis has the effect of a consonant in making position: as, abjetis (abyetis), fluviōrum (flunyōrum). Conversely, when the semivowel becomes a vowel, position is lost: as, Bluae, for silvae.

e. In early Latin, s at the end of words was not sounded, and hence does not make position with another consonant.

REMARK.—A syllable made long by the rule in d, but containing a short vowel, is said to be long by POSITION: as in docetne. The rules of Position do not, in general, apply to final vowels.

2. Final Syllables.

- **348.** The Quantity of Final Syllables is determined by the following Rules:—
- 1. Words of one syllable ending in a vowel are long: as, mē, tū, hī, nē.

The attached particles -nĕ, -quĕ, -vĕ, -cĕ, -ptĕ, and rĕ- (rĕd-) are short; sē- is long. Thus, sēcēdit, exercitumquĕ rĕdūcit. But re- is often long in rēligiō (relligiō), rētulī (rettulī), rēpulī (reppulī).

2. Nouns and adjectives of one syllable are long: as, sol, os (oris), bos, par, vis.

EXCEPTIONS. cor (sometimes long), fel, lac, mel, os (ossis), vir, tot, quot.

- 3. Most monosyllabic Particles are short: as, ăn, în, cis, něc. But āc, crās, cūr, ēn, nōn, quīn, sīn with adverbs in c: as, hīc, hūc, sīc are long.
- 4. Final a in words declined by cases is short, except in the ablative singular of the first declension; in all other words final a is long. Thus, ex stellä (nom.), cum ex stellä (abl.); früsträ, vocā (imperat.), posteā, trīgintā.

EXCEPTIONS. čiă, ită, quiă, pută (suppose): and, in late use, trīgintă, etc.

- 5. Final e is short, as in nubě, ducitě, saepě. Except -
- I. In nouns of the fifth declension: as, fidē (also famē), hodiē (hoi diē), quārē (quā rē).
 - 2. In Greek neuters plural of the second declension: as, cētē.
- 3. In adverbs formed from adjectives of the first and second declension, with others of like form: as, altē, miserē, apertē, saepissimē. So ferē, fermē, probably of same origin.

4. In the imperative singular of the second conjugation: as, vidē.

EXCEPTIONS. To 3: beně, malě; înferně, superně. To 4: sometimes, cavě, habě, tacě, valě, vidě (cf. \S 375. δ).

6. Final i is long: as in turrī, fīlī, audī.

But it is common in mihi, tibi, sibi, ibi, ubi; and short in nisĭ, quasĭ, cuĭ (when making two syllables), and in Greek vocatives, as Alexĭ.

7. Final o is common; but long in datives and ablatives, also, almost invariably, in verbs, and in nouns of the third declension.

EXCEPTIONS. citŏ, modŏ, Ilicŏ, profectŏ, dummodŏ, immŏ, egŏ, duŏ, octŏ.

- 8. Final u is long. Final y is short.
- 9. Final as, es, os, are long; final is, us, ys, are short; as, nefās, rūpēs, servōs (acc.), honōs; hostIs, amīcŭs, Tethỳs.

EXCEPTIONS. as is short in Greek plural accusatives, as lampadas; and in anas.

es is short in nouns of the third declension (lingual) having a short vowel in the stem 1: as, mīlēs (-Itis), obsēs (-Idis), — except abiēs, ariēs, pariēs, pēs; in the present of esse (ĕs, adĕs); in the preposition penĕs, and in the plural of Greek nouns, as hērōĕs, lampadĕs.

os is short in compos, impos; in the Greek nominative ending, as barbitos; also, in the old nominative ending of the second declension, as servos (later servus).

is in plural cases is long, as in bonīs, nōbīs, vōbīs, omnīs (accusative plural).

is is long in fis, sis, vis (with quivis, etc.), velis, mālīs, nōlīs; in the second person singular of the fourth conjugation, as audīs (where it is the stem-vowel); and sometimes in the forms in -eris (perfect subjunctive), where it was originally long.

us is long (by contraction) in the genitive singular and nominative, accusative, and vocative plural of the fourth declension; and in nouns of the third declension having ū (long) in the stem: as, virtūs (-ūtis), incūs (-ūdis). But pecūs, -ŭdis.

10. Of other final syllables, those ending in a consonant, except -c, are short. Thus, amat, amatur; but, istuo, alec.

Exceptions. döněc, făc, něc, sometimes híc; āër, aethēr, crātēr, liën, splēn.

¹ The quantity of the stem-vowel may be seen in the genitive singular.

3. Penultimate Syllables.

349. A noun or adjective is said to *increase*, when in any case it has more syllables than in the nominative singular.

A verb is said to increase, when in any part it has more syllables than in the stem. Thus, amā-tis (stem, amā-), tegi-tis (stem, tege-), capi-unt (stem, capi-).

In such words as stellārum, corpŏris, amātis, tegītis, the penultimate syllable is called the *increment.*¹ In itineribus, amāvērītis, the syllables marked are called the first, second, and third increments of the noun or verb.

NOTE. — In such words as Iuppiter, Iovis; senex, senis, the syllables whose vowel-quantity is marked are called increments. These forms must be referred to lost nominatives from the same stems (cf. §§ 60, 61, foot-note). So itineribus has really only two increments as from †itinus.

350. In increments of Nouns and Adjectives, a and o are generally long; e, i, u, y, generally short: as,—

aetās, aetātis; honor, honoris; servos, servorum; opus, operis; carmen, carmīnis; murmur, murmūris; pecus, pecūdis; chlamys, chlamydis. Exceptions are:—

- a: short in baccar (-ăris), hēpar (-ătis), iubar (-ăris), lār (-lăris), mās (măris), nectar (-ăris), pār (păris), sāl (sălis), vas (vădis), daps (dăpis), fax (făcis), anthrax (-ăcis).
- o: short in neuters of the third declension (except ōs, ōris): as, corpus (-ŏris); also in arbor (-ŏris), scrobs (scrŏbis), ops (ŏpis), bōs (bŏvis), memor (-ŏris), Iūppiter (Iŏvis), Hector (-ŏris), and compounds of -pūs (as, tripūs, -pŏdis).
- e: long in increments of fifth declension: as, diēs, diēī; also in hērēs (-ēdis), lēx (lēgis), locuplēs (-ētis), mercēs (-ēdis), plēbs (plēbis), quiēs (-ētis), rēx (rēgis), vēr (vēris), crātēr (-ēris). But see § 347. 2.
- i: long in most nouns and adjectives in ix: as, fēlīcis, rādīcis (except filix, nix, strix); also in dīs (dītis), glīs (glīris), līs (lītis), vīs (vīrēs), Quirītes, Samnītēs.
- u: long in forms from nouns in -ūs: as, palūs, palūdis; tellūs, tellūris; virtūs, virtūtis; also in lūx, lūcis; [frūx], frūgis; fūr, fūris.

¹ The rules of Increment are purely arbitrary, as the syllables are long or short according to the proper quantity of the Stem or of the formative terminations. The quantity of noun-stems appears in the schedule of the third declension (see § 67); and the quantity of inflection-endings is seen under the various inflections, where it is better to learn it. For quantities of Greek stems, see § 63.

- 351. In the increment of Verbs the characteristic vowels are as follows:-
 - In the first conjugation a: as, amare, amatur.
 - 2. In the second conjugation ē: as, monēre, monētur.
 - 3. In the third conjugation ĕ, Y: as, tegĕre, tegYtur.
 - 4. In the fourth conjugation I: as, audire, auditur.

EXCEPTION. do and its compounds have a: as, dare, circumdabat

- a. In other verbal increments (not stem-vowels) —
- a is always long: as, moneāris, tegāmus.
- e is long: as, tegēbam, audiēbar.

NOTE. - But e is short before -ram, -rim, -ro; in the future personal endings -běris, -běre; and sometimes in the perfect -ĕrunt (as stětěruntque comae, Æn. ii. 774).

i is long in forms which follow the analogy of the fourth conjugation: as, petīvī, lacessītus (in others short: as, monītus); also in the subjunctive present of esse and velle (sīmus, velīmus); and (rarely) in the endings -rimus, -ritis. It is short in the future forms amābītis, etc.

o is found only in imperatives, and is always long: as, monēto, etc. u is short in sumus, volumus, quaesumus; in the Supine and its derivatives it is long: as, solūtūrus.

b. Perfects and Supines of two syllables lengthen the first syllable: as, iūvī, iūtum (iŭvō), vīdī, vīsum (vǐdeō); fūgī (fŭgiō).

EXCEPTIONS. bibī, dědī, fidī, scidī, stětī, stitī, tůlī; - citum. dătum, Itum, lItum, quitum, rătum, rŭtum, sătum, situm, stătum. In some compounds of sto, statum is found (long), as prostatum.

- c. In reduplicated perfects the vowel of the reduplication is short; the following syllable is, also, usually short: as, cecidi (cado), didici (dīscō), pupugī (pungō), cucurrī (currō), tetendī (tendō). momordi (mordeo). But cecidi from caedo, pepedi from pedo.
- 352. The following terminations are preceded by a long vowel.
 - -al, -ar: as, vectīgal, pulvīnar.

EXCEPTIONS. animal, căpital, iŭbar.

- 2. -brum, -crum, -trum: as, lăvācrum, dēlūbrum, vērātrum.
- 3. -dő, -ga, -gő: as, formīdő, aurīga, imāgő.

Exceptions. cădo, divido, ĕdo, modo, solido, spădo, trepido; caliga, fūga, toga, plaga; ago, tego, nego, rego, harpago, ligo, lěgo. So ěgo.

4. -le, -les (-lēs), -lis: as, anclle, miles, crūdēlis, hostīlis.

EXCEPTIONS. mālē; indolēs, sūbolēs; grācīlis, hūmīlis, sīmīlis, stērīlis; and verbal adjectives in -Ilis: as, docīlis, fācīlis, terrībīlis, āmābīlis.

5. -ma, -men, -mentum: as, poēma, flümen, iümentum

EXCEPTIONS. ăn'ima, lacrima, victima; tămen, columen; with regimen and the like from verb-stems in e-.

6. -mus, -nus, -rus, -sus, -tus, -neus, -rius: as, extrēmus, sūpīnus, octōnī, sēvērus, fūmōsus, pērītus, sēnārius, extrāneus.

EXCEPTIONS. (a.) I before -mus: as, fīnītīmus, mārītīmus (except bīmus, trīmus, quadrīmus, opīmus, mīmus, līmus); and in superlatives (except Imus, prīmus): also, domus, humus, nomus, calamus, thalamus.

- (b.) I before -nus: as in crāstīnus, fraxīnus, etc. (except dīvīnus, mātūtīnus, vespertīnus, rēpentīnus); ācīnus, āsīnus, cōmīnus, cophīnus, ēmīnus, domīnus, facīnus, fraxīnus, protīnus, termīnus, vātīcīnus; also, manus, oceānus, plātānus; gēnus, Vēnus. So o in bonus, onus, sonus, tonus.
 - (c.) ĕ before -rus (-ra, -rum): as, mĕrus, hĕdĕra (except prōcērus, sincērus, sĕvērus). In like manner, barbārus, chŏrus, nŭrus, pĭrus; sătĭra, amphŏra, ancŏra, lÿra, pÿra, purpūra; fŏrum, suppărum, gărum, părum.
 - (d.) lätus, mětus, větus, anhēlitus, dīgitus, servitūs, spīritus; quŏtus, tötus; arbūtus, häbitus, and the like.
 - 7. -na, -ne, -nis: as, carīna, māne, inānis.

EXCEPTIONS. advěna, angina, domina, fēmina, māchina, mina, gěna, pāgina, pătina, sarcina, trūtina, and compounds with -gena; běne, sine; cănis, cinis, iŭvěnis.

8. -re, -ris, -ta, -tis: as, altāre, sălūtāris, monēta, immītis.

EXCEPTIONS. măre, hilăris, rota, nota, sătis, sitis, potis, and most nouns in -ita.

 -tim. -tum, and syllables beginning with v: as, prīvātim, quercētum, ŏlīva.

EXCEPTIONS. affătim, stătim; nīvis (nix); brĕvis, grāvis, lĕvis (light); nŏvus, nŏvem; and several verb roots (as, iŭvō, făveō); also, ŏvis, bŏvis, Iŏvis.

10. -dex, -lex, -mex, -rex, -dīx, -nīx: and the numeral en lings -gintī, -gintā: as, iūdex, Ilex, rādīx, vīgintī, trīgintā.

Exceptions. culex, silex, rumex.

353. The following terminations are preceded by a short vowel:—

I. -cus, dus, -lus: as, rūsticus, călidus, glădiŏlus.

Exceptions. opācus, amīcus; antīcus, aprīcus, fīcus, mendīcus, postīcus, pūdīcus; fīdus, nīdus, sīdus; and ū before -dus: as, crūdus, nūdus; ē before -lus, as phasēlus (except gĕlus, scĕlus); asīlus; lūcus.

2. -nō, -nor, -rō, -ror, in verbs: as, destĭnō, crīmĭnor, gĕrō, quĕror.

Exceptions. dīvīnō, festīnō, prŏpīnō, săgīnō, ŏpīnor, inclīnō; dēclārō, spērō, spīrō, ōrō, dūrō, mīror.

3. -ba, -bō, -pa, -pō: as, făba, bǐbō, lǔpa, crĕpō.

EXCEPTIONS. glēba, scrība; būbō, nūbō, scrībō; pāpa, pūpa, rīpa, scōpa, stūpa; cāpō, rēpō, stīpō.

- 4. -tās (in nouns), -ter and -tus (in adverbs): as, cīvitās, fortīter, pēnītus.
- 5. -culus, -cellus, -lentus, -tūdō: as, fascĭcŭlus, ŏcellus, lūcŭ-lentus, māgnĭtūdō.

354. Rules for the quantity of Derivatives are:

a. Forms from the same STEM have the same quantity: as, amo, amavist; gonus, goneris.

EXCEPTIONS. I. bos, lār, mās, pār, pēs, sāl, vās — also arbos — have a long vowel in the nominative, though the stem-vowel is short (cf. genitive bovis, etc.).

- 2. Nouns in -or, genitive -ōris, have the vowel shortened before the final r: as, honor. (But this shortening is comparatively late, so that in Plautus and inscriptions these nominatives are often found long.)
- Many verb-forms with vowel originally long shorten it before final -r
 or -t: as, amër, dicerër, amët (compare amëmus), dicerët, audit, fit.

NOTE. — The final syllable in -t of the perfect seems to have been originally long, but to have been shortened under this rule.

- 4. A few long stem-syllables are shortened, apparently under the influence of accent: as, acer, acerbus. So dō-iĕrō and pō-iĕrō, weakened from iūrō.
- b. Forms from the same Root often show inherited variations of quantity (see § 10): as, dīcō (cf. maledĭcus), dūcō (dŭcis), fīdō (perfīdus), vōcis (vŏcō), lēgis (lĕgō).
- c. Compounds retain the quantity of the words which compose them: as, oc-cidō (cadō), oc-cidō (caedō), in-īquus (aequus).
- d. Greek words compounded with πρό have o short: as, pròphēta, pròlògus. Some Latin compounds of prō have o short: as, pròficiscor, pròfiteor. Compounds with nē vary: as, nĕfās, nĕgō, nĕqueō, nēquis, nēquam,

CHAPTER II. — Rhythm.

NOTE. — The essence of Rhythm in poetry is the regular recurrence of syllables pronounced with more stress than those intervening. To produce this effect in its perfection, precisely equal times should occur between the recurrences of the stress. But, in the application of rhythm to words, the exactness of these intervals is sacrificed somewhat to the necessary length of the words; and, on the other hand, the words are forced somewhat in their pronunciation, to produce more nearly the proper intervals of time. In different languages these adaptations take place in different degrees; one language disregarding more the intervals of time, another the pronunciation of the words.

The Greek language early developed a very strict rhythmical form of poetry, in which the intervals of time were all-important. The earliest Latin, on the other hand,—as in the Saturnian and Fescennine verse,—was not so restricted. But the purely metrical forms were afterwards adopted from the Greek, and supplanted the native forms of verse. Thus the Latin poetry with which we have to do follows for the most part Greek rules, which require the formal division of words (like music) into measures of equal times, technically called Feet. The strict rhythm was doubtless more closely followed in poetry that was sung than in that which was declaimed or intoned. In neither language, however, is the time perfectly preserved, even in single measures; and there are some cases in which the regularity of the time between the ictuses is disturbed.

The Greeks and Romans distinguished syllables of two kinds in regard to the time required for their pronunciation, a long syllable having twice the metrical value of a short one. But it must not be supposed that all long syllables were of equal length, or even that in a given passage each long had just twice the length of the contiguous shorts. The ratio was only approximate at best, though necessarily more exact in singing than in recitation. Nor are longs and shorts the only forms of syllables that are found. In some cases a long syllable was protracted, so as to have the time of three or even of four shorts, and often one long or two shorts were pronounced in less than their proper time, though doubtless always distinguishable in time from one short (see § 355. c, d). Sometimes a syllable naturally short seems to have been slightly prolonged, so as to represent a long, though in most (not all) cases the apparent irregularity can be otherwise explained. In a few cases, also, a pause takes the place of one or more syllables to fill out the required length of the measure. This could, of course, take place only at the end of a word: hence the importance of Cæsura and Diæresis in prosody (see § 358).

1. Measures.

355. Rhythm consists of the division of musical sound into measures or feet.

The most natural division of musical time is into measures consisting of either two or three equal parts. But the ancients also distinguished measures of five equal parts.

REMARK.—The divisions of musical time are marked by a stress of voice on one or the other part of the measure. This stress is called the ictus (beat), or metrical accent (see § 358).

- a. The unit of length in Prosody is one short syllable. This is called a Mora. It is represented by the sign \cup , or in musical notation by the quaver ($^{\circ}$).
- b. A long syllable is regularly equal to two *moræ*, and is represented by the sign _, or by the *crotchet* (*).
- c. A long syllable may be *protracted*, so as to occupy the time of three or four *moræ*. Such a syllable, if equal to three *moræ*, is represented by the sign \sqsubseteq (or \triangleright); if equal to four, by \sqcup (or \triangleright).
- d. A long syllable may be contracted, so as to take practically the time of a short one. Such a syllable is sometimes represented by the sign >.
- e. A short syllable may be contracted so as to occupy less than one mora.
- f. A pause sometimes occurs at the end of a verse or a series of verses, to fill up the time. A pause of one *mora* in a measure is indicated by the sign \wedge ; one of two *mora* by the sign $\overline{\wedge}$.
- g. One or more syllables are sometimes placed before the proper beginning of the measure. Such syllables are called an ANACRŪSIS or prelude.¹

The anacrusis is regularly equal to the unaccented part of the measure.

356. The measures most frequently employed in Latin verse, together with their musical notation, are the following:—

a. Triple or Unequal Measures (\$).2

- 1. Trochee $(\angle \cup = f)$: as, $r\bar{e}g$.
- 2. IAMBUS (∪ ∠ =): as, dŭcēs.
- 3. Tribrach 8 ($\langle \cdot \rangle \cup \cup =$): as, hŏmĭnĭs.

¹ The same thing occurs in modern poetry, and in modern music any unaccented syllables at the beginning are treated as an anacrusis, i.e. they make an incomplete measure before the first bar. This was not the case in ancient music, The ancients seem to have treated any unaccented syllable at the beginning as belonging to the following accented ones, so as to make with them a foot or measure. Thus it would seem that the original form of Indo-European poetry was iambic in its structure, or at least accented the second syllable rather than the first.

² Called diplasic, the two parts (Thesis and Arsis) being in the ratio of 2 to 1.

⁸ Not found as a fundamental foot, but only as the resolution of a Trochee or lambus.

- b. Double or Equal Measures $(\frac{2}{4})$.
- I. DACTYL (∠ ∪ ∪ = f p): as, cōnsŭlĭs.
- 2. Anapæst ($\cup \cup \angle = \bigcap f$): as, mönitās.
- 3. Spondee (∠ <u>^</u> = **p**): as, *rēgēs*.
 - c. SIX-TIMED MEASURES (3).
- IONIC ā māiōre (__ _ _ _ _ = P P P): as, cōnfēcērăt.
- 2. IONIC ā minore (U U _ _ = P P P P): as, retulissent.
- 3. CHORIAMBUS (_ U U _ = P P P): as, contulerant.
 - d. Quinary or Hemiolic 1 Measures (\$).
- 1. CRETIC (_ U _ = [[]]): as, consules.
- 2. PÆON prīmus (_ U U U = P PP): as, consultbus.
- 3. PÆON quārtus (U U U = = PPPP): as, itinērī.
- e. Several compound measures are mentioned by the grammarians, viz., Antibacchīus (_____), Proceleusmatic (____), the 2d and 3d Pæon, having a long syllable in the 2d and 3d places, with three short ones; 1st, 2d, 3d, and 4th Epitrītus, having a short syllable in the 1st, 2d, 3d, and 4th places, with three long ones. None of them, however, are needed to explain rhythmically all the forms of ancient verse.
- f. Feet with these apparent quantities do not always occupy the same time in the measure, but may be contracted or prolonged to suit the series in which they occur. They are then called *irrational*, because the thesis and arsis do not have integral ratios. Such are:—

IRRATIONAL SPONDEE: $_>=$] (or nearly). (CYCLIC DACTYL: $-\lor \lor =$ [] (or nearly).

¹ Called hemiolic, the two parts being in the ratio of 1 to 11, or of 3 to 2.

CYCLIC ANAPÆST: = the same reversed.

IRRATIONAL TROCHEE: $_>=$ \rfloor \land .

NOTE. - Of feet and combinations of feet (sometimes extending to an entire verse, and controlled by a single leading accent), the following are recognized, assuming 1 to be the unit of musical time: -

3, 4, 5, 6, 9, 10, 12, 15, 16, 18, 20, 25, 8

Narrative poetry was written for rhythmical recitation, or Chant, with instrumental accompaniment; and Lyrical poetry for rhythmical melody, or singing. It must be borne in mind that in ancient music - which in this differs widely from modern - the rhythm of the melody was identical with the rhythm of the text. The lyric poetry was to be sung; the poet was musician and composer, as well as author. To this day a poet is said conventionally to "sing."

Thus a correct understanding of the rhythmical structure of the Verse gives us the exact time, though not the tune, to which it was actually sung. The exact time, however, as indicated by the succession of long and short syllables, was varied according to certain laws of so-called "Rhythmic," as will be explained below. In reading ancient verse it is necessary to bear in mind not only the variations in the relative length of syllables, but the occasional pause necessary to fill out the measure; and to remember that the rhythmical accent is the only one of importance, though the words should be distinguished carefully, and the sense preserved. Do not scan, but read metrically.

357. In many cases measures of the same time may be substituted for each other, a long syllable taking the place of two short ones, or two short ones the place of one long one.

In the former case the measure is said to be contracted: in the latter, to be resolved. Thus:—

- a. A Spondee (___) may take the place of a dactyl (__ \cup \cup) or an anapæst (000); and a Tribrach (000) may take the place of a Trochee (_ _) or an lambus (_ _). The optional substitution of one long syllable for two short ones is represented by the sign $\overline{\omega}$.
- b. Another form of dactyl when substituted for a trochee is represented thus, __ \times_.

A spondee, similarly substituted for a trochee, is represented thus, $_>$.

c. When a long syllable having the Ictus (§ 358. a) is resolved, the ictus properly belongs to both the resulting short syllables; but for convenience the mark of accent is placed on the first: as, -

núnc experiar | sítne ăceto | tíbi cor acre in | péctore. — Bacch. 405.

2. The Musical Accent.

- 358. That part of the measure which receives the stress of voice (the musical accent) is called the Thesis; the unaccented part is called the Arsis.¹
- a. The stress of voice laid upon the Thesis is called the ICTUS (beat). It is marked thus: $\angle \cup \cup$.
- b. The ending of a word within a measure is called CÆSŪRA. When this coincides with a rhetorical pause, it is called the Cæsura of the verse, and is of main importance as affecting the melody or rhythm.
- c. The coincidence of the end of a word with that of a measure in Prosody is called DIERESIS.

The error mentioned arose from applying to trochaic and dactylic verse a definition which was true only of jambic or anapæstic

¹ The Thesis signifies properly, the putting down ($\theta \acute{e}\sigma \iota s$, from $\tau l\theta \eta \mu \iota$) of the foot in beating time, in the march or dance ("downward beat"), and the Arsis, the raising ($\ell \iota \rho \sigma \iota s$, from $\dot{\alpha} \dot{\epsilon} (\rho \omega)$ of the foot ("upward beat"). By the Latin grammarians these terms were made to mean, respectively, the ending and beginning of a measure. By a misunderstanding which has prevailed till recently, since the time of Bentley, their true signification has been reversed. They will here be used in accordance with their ancient meaning, as has now become more common. This metrical accent, recurring at regular intervals of time, is what constitutes the essence of the rhythm of poetry as distinguished from prose, and should be constantly kept in mind,

CHAPTER III. — Versification.

1. The Verse.

359. A single line of poetry — that is, a series of measures set in a recognized order — is called a Verse.¹

NOTE.— Most of the common verses originally consisted of two series (hemistichs), but the joint between them is often obscured. It is marked in Iambic verse by the Diæresis, in Dactylic Hexameter by the Cæsura.

- a. A verse lacking a syllable at the end is called CATALECTIC, that is, having a pause to fill the measure; when the end syllable is not lacking, the verse is called ACATALECTIC, and has no such pause.
- b. To divide the verse into its appropriate measures, according to the rules of quantity and versification, is called scanning or scansion (scansio, from scando, a climbing or advance by steps).

REMARK.—In reading verse rhythmically, care should be taken to preserve the measure or time of the syllables, but at the same time not to destroy or confuse the words themselves, as is often done in scanning.

c. In scanning, a vowel or diphthong at the end of a word (unless an interjection) is partially suppressed when the next word begins with a vowel or with h. This is called ELISION (bruising).²

In reading it is usual entirely to suppress elided syllables. Strictly, however, they should be sounded lightly.

REMARK.—Elision is sometimes called by the Greek name Synalcepha (smearing).

Rarely a syllable is elided at the end of a verse when the next verse begins with a vowel: this is called Synapheia (binding).

¹ The word Verse (versus) signifies a turning back, i.e. to begin again in like manner, as opposed to Prose (prōrsus or prōversus), which means straight ahead.

² The practice of Elision is followed in Italian and French poetry, and is sometimes adopted in English, particularly in the older poets: as,—

T' inveigle and invite th' unwary sense. — Comus, 538.

In early Latin poetry a final syllable ending in s often loses this letter even before a consonant (cf. § 13. b): as,—

d. A final-m, with the preceding vowel, is suppressed in like manner when the next word begins with a vowel or h: 1 this is called ECTHLIPSIS (squeezing out): as,—

monstrum horrendum, informe, ingens, cui lumen ademptum.

- En. iii. 658.

Final -m has a feeble nasal sound, so that its partial suppression before the initial vowel of the following word was easy.

REMARK.—The monosyllables do, dom spo, sim, sto, stem, qui (plural) are insure clided; por is an implic word clided in dactylic verse. Elision is often evaded by skilful collocation of words.

e. Elision is sometimes omitted when a word ending in a vowel has a special emphasis, or is succeeded by a pause. This omission is called HIATUS (gaping).

The final vowel is sometimes shortened in such cases.

f. A final syllable, regularly short, is sometimes lengthened before a pause: 2 it is then said to be long by Diastole: as,—

nostrorum obruimur, - oriturque miserrima caedes.

g. The last syllable of any verse may be indifferently long or short (syllaba anceps).

FORMS OF VERSE.

360. A verse receives its name from its dominant or fundamental measure: as, *Dactylic*, *Iambic*, *Trochaic*, *Anapæstic*; and from the number of measures (single or double) which it contains: as, *Hexameter*, *Tetrameter*, *Trimeter*, *Dimeter*.

REMARK.—Trochaic, Iambic, and Anapæstic verses are measured not by single feet, but by pairs (dipodia), so that six Iambi make a Trimeter.

361. A Stanza, or Strophe, consists of a definite number of verses ranged in a fixed order.

Many stanzas are named after some eminent poet: as, Sapphic (from Sappho), Alcaic (from Alcæus), Archilochian (from Archilochus), Horatian (from Horace), and so on.

1. Dactylic Hexameter.

362. The Dactylic Hexameter, or *Heroic Verse*, consists theoretically of six dactyls. It may be represented thus:—

² This usage is comparatively rare, most cases where it appears to be found being caused by the retention of an originally long quantity

Hence a final syllable in -m is said to have no quantity of its own — its vowel, in any case, being either elided or else made long by Position.

a. For any one of the feet, except the fifth, a spondee may be substituted, and must be for the last.

Rarely a spondee is found in the fifth place; the verse is then called *spondaic*. Thus in Ecl. iv. 49 the verse ends with **incrēmentum**.

NOTE. — La reality the last foot is a trochee standing for a dactyl, but the final syllable is not measured, and the foot is usually said to be a spondee.

b. The hexameter has always one principal casura—sometimes two—almost always accompanied by a pause in the sense.

The principal cæsura is usually after the thesis (less commonly in the arsis) of the third foot, dividing the verse into two parts in sense and rhythm.

It may also be after the thesis (less commonly in the arsis) of the fourth foot. In this case there is often another cæsura in the second foot, so that the verse is divided into three parts: as,—

partě fě | rox || ar | densque ocu | lis || et | sibilă | collă. — Æn. v. 277.

REMARK.—Often the only indication of the principal among a number of caesuras is the break in the sense.

A cæsura occurring after the first syllable of a foot is called *masculine*. A cæsura occurring after the second syllable of a foot is called *feminine* (as in the fifth foot of the 3d and 4th verses in c). A cæsura may also be found in any foot of the verse, but a proper cæsural pause could hardly occur in the first or sixth.

When the fourth foot ends a word, the break (properly a diæresis) is sometimes improperly called bucolic cæsura, from its frequency in pastoral poetry.

c. The introductory verses of the Æneid, divided according to the foregoing rules, will appear as follows. The principal cæsura in each verse is marked by double lines:—

Armă vi | rumque că | no || Tro | iae qui | primus ăb | oris Ităli | am fa | to profu | gus || La | viniaque | venit litoră, | multum ille | et ter | ris || iac | tatus et | alto vi supe | rum sae | vae || memo | rem Iu | nonis ob | irăm; multă quo | que et bel | lo pas | sus || dum | conderet | urbem, înfer | retque de | os Lăti | o, || genus | unde Lă | tinum, Alba | nique pă | tres, || at | que altae | moenia | Romae.

The feminine casura is seen in the following: -

Dis geni ti potu ere: | te | nent medi | a omnia | silvae. — Æn. vi. 131.

NOTE, - The Hexameter is thus illustrated in English verse: -

"Over the sea, past Crete, on the Syrian shore to the southward, Dwells in the well-tilled lowland a dark-haired Æthiop people, Skilful with needle and loom, and the arts of the dyer and carver, Skilful, but feeble of heart; for they know not the lords of Olympus,

Lovers of men; neither broad-browed Zeus, nor Pallas Athené,
Teacher of wisdom to heroes, bestower of might in the battle;
Share not the cunning of Hermes, nor list to the songs of Apollo,
Fearing the stars of the sky, and the roll of the blue salt water."

— Kingsley's Andromeda

2. Elegiac Stanza.

363. The Elegiac Stanza consists of two lines, — an hexameter followed by a pentameter.¹

The Pentameter verse is the same as the hexameter, except that it omits the last half of the third foot and of the sixth foot. Thus.—

- a. The Pentameter verse is thus to be scanned as two half-verses. the second of which always consists of two dactyls followed by a single syllable.
- b. The Pentameter has no regular Cæsura; but the first half-verse must always end with a word, which is followed by a pause to complete the measure.²
- c. The following verses will illustrate the forms of the Elegiac Stanza:—

cum sŭbit | illī | us trīs | tissīmă | noctīs ī | māgō quā mihī | suprē | mum | | tempūs in | urbē fū | it, cum rēpē | tō noc | tem quā | tot mihī | cāră rē | līquī, lābītūr | ex ŏcŭ | līs | | nunc quŏquē | guttă mē | īs. iam prŏpē | lūx ădē | rat quā | mē dis | cēdērē | Caesar fīnībūs | extrē | mae | | iūssērāt | Ausŏnī | ae. | |

-OVID, Trist. i. 3.

NOTE. — The Elegiac Stanza differs widely in character from hexameter verse (of which it is a mere modification) by its division into Distichs, each of which must have its own sense complete. It is employed in a great variety of compositions,—epistolary, amatory, and mournful,—and was especially a favorite of the poet Ovid. It has been illustrated in English verse, imitated from the German:—

"In the Hex|ameter | rises the | fountain's | silvery | column; In the Pen|tameter | aye || falling in | melody | back."

¹ Called *pentameter* by the old grammarians, who divided it, formally, into five feet (two dactyls or spondees, a spondee, and two anapæsts), as follows:—

The time of this pause, however, may be filled by the *protraction* of the preceding syllable, thus:—

3. Other Dactylic Verses.

- **364.** Other dactylic verses or half-verses are occasionally used by the lyric poets. Thus: -
- a. The Dactylic Tetrameter alternates with the hexameter, forming the Alcmanian Strophe, as follows: -

O for | tes pe | iorăque | passi, mecum | saepe vi|ri || nunc | vino | pellit" | curas; cras in | gens ite | rabimus | aequor.

- Hor. Od. i. 7 (so 28; Ep. 12).

NOTE. — This verse is a single measure, its time being represented by \{ \(\bar{\chi} \) 356. f. note).

b. The Dactylic Penthemim (five half-feet) consists of half a pentameter verse. It is used in combination with the Hexameter to form the First Archilochian Strophe: as,-

> diffu|gere ni|ves | rede|unt iam | gramina | campis, arbori|busque co|mae; mutat | terră vi|ces | et | decres | centiă | ripas flumină | praetere | unt. — Hor. Od. iv. 7.

[For the Fourth Archilochian Strophe (Archilochian Heptameter, alternating with iambic trimeter catalectic), see § 372. 11.]

4. Iambic Trimeter.

365. The Iambic Trimeter is the ordinary verse of dramatic dialogue. It consists of three measures, each containing a double iambus (iambic dipody). Thus, —

It is seen in the following: -

iam iam effical ci do mănus | scientiae supplex et o | ro regna per | Proserpinae, per et Dia nae non moven da numina, i per atque li|bros carminum | vălentium delixă cae lo devoca re sidera, Cămidiă par ce vocibus | tandem săcris, citumque re tro retro sol ve turbinem. - Hor. Epod. 17.

The last two lines may be thus translated, to show the movement in English: --

> "Oh! stay, Canidia, stay thy rights of sorcery, Thy charm unbinding backward let thy swift wheel fly!"

a. The Iambic Trimeter is often used in lyric poetry, alternating with the Dimeter to form the *lambic Strophe*, as follows: -

u

běatůs fi lě qui procul | něgotiis, át priscă gens | mortalium, păternă rū | ră būbūs ex | ercet sŭis, solūtůs om | ni fenore; něque excita | tur classico | mîles truci, něque horrět i | ratum mărě. — Hor. Epod. 2.

b. In the Iambic Trimeter an irrational spondee (> __) or its equivalent (a cyclic anapæst \cup \cup or an apparent dactyl > \cup \cup (§ 356. f)) may be regularly substituted for the first iambus of any dipody. A Tribrach (\cup \cup \cup) may stand for an Iambus anywhere except in the last place.

In the comic poets any of these substitutions may be made in any

foot except the last: as, -

ă/

O lūcis al|me rēctor || et | caeli decus! qui alterna cur|rū spitia || flam|miferi ambiens, illústre lae|tīs || éxseris | terris caput.

- SENECA, Herc. Fur. 592-94.

quid quaéris? an | nos || séxăgin | tā nātus es.

— Terence, Heaut. 10.

homo sum: hūma ni || nihîl a mi ali enúm puto. vel mé mone re hoc || vel percon tarf puta.

- Heaut. 77, 78.

c. The CHOLIAMBIC (lame Iambic) substitutes a trochee for the last iambus: as,—

∥∠ _ ∪ _ | ∠ _ ∪ _ | ∪ _ ∟ | _ ∧ ∥

aeque ést bĕā|tus ác pŏē|mă cúm scrībit:

tam gaúdět in | sē, túmquě se īp|sĕ mírātur.

-CATULL. xxii. 15, 16.

d. The Iambic Trimeter Catalectic is represented as follows:-

14_0_14_0_14641.

It is used in combination with other measures (see § 372.11), and is shown in the following:—

Vulcānus ār dēns urit of ficinās. — Hor. Od. i. 4.

or in English: -

ū'

"On purple peaks a deeper shade descending." - Scott.

NOTE.—The Iambic Trimeter may be regarded, metrically, as "a single foot" (its time being represented by $\frac{1}{2}$), consisting of three dipodies, and having its principal accent, probably, on the second syllable of the verse, though this is a matter of dispute. The spondee in this verse, being a substitute for an iambus, is irrational, and must be shortened to fit the measure of the iambus (represented by >__).

5. Other Iambic Measures.

366. Other forms of Iambic verse are the following: —

a. The Iambic Tetrameter Catalectic (Septenarius). This consists of seven iambic feet, with the same substitutions as in Iambic Trimeter. It is used in lively dialogue: as,—

nam ideíres arces sor, núptiās | quod ms ádpārā ri sēnsīt. quībus quídēm quam fācī | le pótuerat | quīesci ss hic | quiescet! — Ter. Andria. 600. 601.

The rhythm of the Iambic Septenarius may be thus represented according to our musical notation (see p. 403, foot-note 1):—

8010000100000000000

Its movement is like the following: -

"In goód king Chárles's gólden dáys, when lóyaltý no hárm meant," etc.

— Vicar of Bray.

8. The Iambic Tetrameter Acatalectic (Octonarius). This consists of eight full iambic feet with the same substitutions as in Iambic Trimeter. It is also used in lively dialogue: as,—

hocinest hūmā num fácta aut in cepta? hocinest of ficiúm patris? quid filud est? pro deum fidem, quid est, s hoc non con tuméliast?

— Andria, 236, 237.

- c. The Iambic DIMETER. This may be either acatalectic or catalectic.
- 1. The Iambic Dimeter Acatalectic consists of four iambic feet. It is used in combination with some longer verse (see § 365. a).
- 2. The Iambic Dimeter Catalectic consists of three and a half iambic feet. It is used only in choruses: as,—

quōnám cruen ta Maénās, praecéps amō re saévo, rapitúr quod im poténti facinús parat furore? — Sen. Medea, 850-853.

6. Trochaic Verse.

367. The most common form of Trochaic verse is the Tetrameter catalectic (*Septēnārius*), consisting of four dipodies, the last of which lacks a syllable. It is represented metrically thus, —

1140->140->140->140-

or in musical notation,

& LOLDING LOLDING LAIS

ád t^p adveniő, spém, salūtem, || cônsilium aúxilium éxpetēns.
— Ter. Andr. ii. 18.

In English verse: -

"Tell me not in mournful numbers life is but an empty dream."

— Longfellow

a. The spondee and its resolutions can be substituted only in the even places; except in comic poetry, which allows the substitution in any foot but the last: as,—

ftidem habet peta|sum äc vestītum: | tám consimilist | átque ego. sūra, pēs, sta|tūra, tonsus, | óculī, nāsum, | vél labra, mālae, mentum, | bárba, collus; | tôtus! quid ver|bīs opust? sī tergum ci|cātrīcosum, | nshīl hoc similist | sīmilius.

— Plaut. Amphitr. 443-446.

b. Some other forms of trochaic verse are found in the lyric poets, in combination with other feet, either as whole lines or parts of lines: as.—

non ebur ne que aureum. [Dimeter Catalectic.]
mea renī | det in domo | la cunar. [Iambic Trimeter Catalectic.]
— Hor. Od. ii. 18.

7. Mixed Measures.

NOTE. — Different measures may be combined in the same verse in two different ways. Either (1) a series of one kind is simply joined to a series of another kind (compare the changes of rhythm not uncommon in modern music); or (2) single feet of other measures are combined with the prevailing measures, in which case these odd feet are adapted by changing their quantity so that they become *irrational* (see § 356, Note).

When enough measures of one kind occur to form a series, we may suppose a change of rhythm; when they are isolated, we must suppose adaptation. Of the indefinite number of possible combinations but few are found in Latin poetry.

- **368.** The following verses, combining different rhythmical series, are found in Latin lyrical poetry:—
- I. GREATER ARCHILOCHIAN (Dactylic Tetrameter; Trochaic Tripody):—

 $\| _{\infty} \| _{\infty}$

NOTE. — It is possible that the dactyls were cyclic; but the change of measure seems more probable.

2. Verse consisting of Dactylic Trimeter catalectic (Dactylic Penthemim); Iambic Dimeter:—

8. Logacedic Verse.

- 369. Trochaic verses containing in regular prescribed positions, irrational measures or irrational feet, are called Logaœdic. The principal logaædic forms are:—
 - 1. Logacedic Tetrapody (four feet): GLYCONIC.
 - 2. Logacedic Tripody (three feet): PHERECRATIC.
- 3. Logacedic Dipody (two feet): this may be regarded as a short Pherecratic.

Note. — Irrational measures are those in which the syllables do not correspond strictly to the normal ratio of length (see § 355). Such are the Irrational Spondee and the Cyclic Dactyl. This mixture of various ratios of length gives an effect approaching that of prose: hence the name Logacedic ($\lambda \delta \gamma os$, $\delta oi\delta h$). These measures originated in the Greek lyric poetry, and were adopted by the Romans. All the Roman lyric metres not belonging to the regular iambic, trochaic, dactylic, or Ionic systems, were constructed on the basis of the three forms given above: viz., Logacedic systems consisting respectively of four, three, and two feet. The so-called Logacedic Pentapody consists of five feet, but is to be regarded as composed of two of the others.

370. Each logacedic form contains a single dactyl, which may be either in the first, second, or third place. The verse may be catalectic or acatalectic. Thus, —

¹ Different Greek poets adopted fixed types in regard to the place of the dactyls, and so a large number of verses arose, each following a strict law, which were imitated by the Romans as distinct metres.

371.	The verses constructed upon the several Logacedic
forms or	models are the following:—

I. GLYCONIC (Second Glyconic, catalectic): -

Romae | principis | urbi | um.

In English: -

"Forms more real than living man." - Shelley.

NOTE.—In this and most of the succeeding forms the first foot is always irrational in Horace, consisting of an apparent spondee (__>).

2. ARISTOPHANIC (First Pherecratic): -

NOTE. — It is very likely that this was made equal in time to the preceding by protracting the last two syllables: thus,—

3. ADONIC (First Pherecratic, shortened): -

Terruit | urbem. - Hor.

Or perhaps: -

4. PHERECRATIC (Second Pherecratic):-

crás donáberis haédo. - Hor.

5. Lesser Asclepiadic (Second and First Pherecratic, both catalectic):—

$$\| - > | - \cup | - \cup | - \cup | \le \Lambda \|$$

Maécēnās atavīs êdite rēgibūs. — Hor.

6. Greater Asclepiadic (the same, with a *Logaædic Dipody* interposed):—

th ne quaesieris — scire nefas — quem mihi quem tibl. — Hor.

7. Lesser Sapphic (Logaædic Pentapody, with dactyl in the third place):—

 $\| _ \cup | _ > | _ \cup | _ \cup | _ | \bigcirc \wedge \|$ Integér vitaé scelerísque ptrus. — *Hor*. Or in English: ---

"Brilliant hopes, all woven in gorgeous tissues." — Longfellow.

9. LESSER ALCAIC (Logaædic Tetrapody, two dactyls, two trochees):-

In English (nearly):-

"Blossom by blossom the Spring begins." — Atalanta in Calvdon.

10. GREATER ALCAIC (Logardic Pentapody, catalectic, with Anacrusis, and dactyl in the third place, — compare Lesser Sapphic):—

NOTE. - Only the above Logacedic forms are employed by Horace.

II. PHALÆCIAN (Logaædic Pentapody, with dactyl in the second place):—

| \u2 > | \u2 | \u

In English: --

"Gorgeous flowerets in the sunlight shining." - Longfellow.

12. GLYCONIC PHERECRATIC (Metrum Satyricum): -

O Colonia quáe cupis || pónte lúdere lóngo. — Catull. xvii.

9. Metres of Horace.

- 372. The Odes of Horace include nineteen varieties of stanza; these are:—
- 1. ALCAIC, consisting of two Greater Alcaics (10), one Trochaic Dimeter with anacrusis, and one Lesser Alcaic (9) 1: as, —

iūst*** ét tenācem propositi virúm non civi*** ārdor prāva iubéntiúm non vúltus instantis tyránni ménte quatit solidā nequ* Aúster. — Od. iii. 3.

(Found in Od. i. 9, 16, 17, 26, 27, 29, 31, 34, 35, 37; ii. 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11. 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20; iii. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 17, 21, 23, 26, 29; iv. 4, 9, 14, 15.)

¹ The figures refer to the foregoing list (§ 371).

NOTE. — The Alcaic Strophe was a special favorite with Horace, of whose Odes thirty-seven are in this form.¹ It is sometimes called the *Horatian Stanza*. The verses were formerly described as, 1, 2, spondee, bacchius, two dactyls; 3, spondee, bacchius, two trochees; 4, two dactyls, two trochees.

2. SAPPHIC (minor), consisting of three Lesser Sapphics (7) and one Adonic (3): as,—

iám satís terris nivis átque dírae grándinís misít pater ét rubénte déxterá sacrás iaculátus árces térrnit úrbem.— Od. i. 2.

(Found in Od. i. 2, 10, 12, 20, 22, 25, 30, 32, 38; ii. 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 16; iii. 8, 11, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27; iv. 2, 6, 11. Carm. Sec.)

NOTE.—The Sapphic Stanza is named after the poetess Sappho of Lesbos, and was a great favorite with the ancients. It is used by Horace in twenty-five Odes—more frequently than any other except the Alcaic. The Lesser Sapphic verse was formerly described as consisting of a Choriambus preceded by a trochaic dipody and followed by a bacchius.

3. SAPPHIC (major), consisting of one Aristophanic (2) and one Greater Sapphic (8): as,—

Lŷdia dîc, per ómnēs tê deős ōrô, Sybarín cûr properâs amándō. — Od. i. 8.

4. ASCLEPIADEAN I. (minor), consisting of Lesser Asclepiadics (5): as,—

éxēgī monumént** aére perénniús rēgalīque sitū — pŷramid** áltiús. — Od. ii. 30. (Found in Od. i. 1; iii. 30; iv. 8.)

5. ASCLEPIADEAN II., consisting of one Glyconic (1) and one Lesser Asclepiadic (5): as, —

Nåvis quaé tibi créditúm děbes Vírgiliúm, — finibus Atticis réddas incolumém, precór, ét servês animaé — dimidiúm meaé. — Od. i. 2.

(Found in Od. i. 3, 13, 19, 36; iii. 9, 15, 19, 24, 25, 28; iv. 1, 3.)

6. ASCLEPIADEAN III., consisting of three Lesser Asclepiadics (5) and one Glyconic (1): as,—

Quís desiderió sít pudor aút modús tám cart capitís? — praécipe lügubrês cántūs, Mélpomené, — cui liquidám patér vôcem cám cythará dedít. — Od. i. 24.

(Found in Od. i. 6, 15, 24, 33; ii. 12; iii. 10, 16; iv. 5, 12.)

¹ See the Index below (pp. 420, 421).

7. ASCLEPIADEAN IV., consisting of two Lesser Asclepiadics (5), one Pherecratic (4), and one Glyconic (1): as,—

Ö föns Bándusiaé spléndidiór vitrö, dúlci dígne merö, nön sine flöribús, crás dönáberis haédö cuí fröns túrgida córnibús. — Od. iii. 13.

(Found in Od. i. 5, 14, 21, 23; ii. 7; iii. 7, 13; iv. 13.)

8. ASCLEPIADEAN V. (major), consisting of Greater Asclepiadics (6): as,—

tů në quaésieris — scîre nefás! — quém mihi, quém tibí finem df dederint — Leúconoë — néc Babylôniôs téntāris numerôs. — Od. i. 11.

(Found in Od. i. 11, 18; iv. 10.)

- 9. ALCMANIAN, consisting of Dactylic Hexameter (§ 362) alternating with Tetrameter (§ 364. a). (Od. i. 7, 28; Epod. 12.)
- 10. ARCHILOCHIAN I., consisting of Dactylic Hexameter alternating with Trimeter Catalectic (*Dactylic Penthemim*, see § 364. b). (Od. iv. 7.)
- 11. ARCHILOCHIAN IV., consisting of a Greater Archilochian (heptameter, § 368. 1), followed by Iambic Trimeter Catalectic (§ 365. d). The stanza consists of two pairs of verses: as—

sólvitur åcris hiéms grātā vice || Vēris ét Favônī, trahúntque siccās māchinae carīnās; åc neque iám stabulīs gaudét pecus, || aút arātor ignī, nec prāta cānīs álbicant pruinīs. — Od. i. 4.

- 12. Iambic Trimeter alone (see § 365). (Ep. 17.)
- 13. Iambic Strophe (see § 365. a). (Ep. 1-10.)
- 14. Dactylic Hexameter alternating with Iambic Dimeter: as, nóx erat, ét caelô fulgébat lûna serênō intér minōra sîdera, cûm tū, māgnōrúm nūmén laesúra deðrum, in vérba iūrābās mea. Epod. 15. (So in Ep. 14.)
- 15. Dactylic Hexameter with Iambic Trimeter (§ 365); as, áltera iám teritúr bellfs cīvīlibus aétās, sufs et ipsa Rôma vīribús ruit. Epod. 16.
- 16. Verse of Four Lesser Ionics: as, miserār*** est | neque amori | dare lūdum | neque dulci mala vino | lavere aut ex | animāri | metuentēs. — Od. iii. 12.

17. Iambic Trimeter (§ 365); Dactylic Penthemim (§ 364. b); Iambic Dimeter: as. -

> Pecti nihil mē sicut anteá iuvat scribere vérsiculos — amôre perculsúm gravi. — Epod. 11.

18. Dactylic Hexameter; Iambic Dimeter; Dactylic Penthemim $(\S 364. b)$: as, —

> hórrida témpestás caelúm contráxit, et ímbres nivésque deducánt Iovem: núnc mare, núnc silüae. . . . - Epod. 13.

19. Trochaic Dimeter, Iambic Trimeter, each catalectic (see § 367. b).

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Lydia dic: 3. Vides ut alta: 1.	28.	
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8. Rogare longo: 13.	17. Iam iam efficaci: 12.
9. Quando repostum: 13.	

373. Other lyric poets use other combinations of the above-mentioned verses. Thus, -

a. Glyconics with one Pherecratic (both imperfect): as,:-

Dia nae sumus | in fide puel | lae et puer | integri : Dīā | nam, puĕri | integrī puel | laeque că | na | mus. - CATULL. 34.

b. Sapphics, in a series of single lines, closing with an Adonic: as, -

An mă | gis di | ri tremu | ere | Manes Hercu | lem? et vi | sum cănis | înfe | rorum

أرسال

fügit | abrup | tis trepi | dus că | tenis? falli mur: lae | te věnit | ecce | vultū. quem tu lit Poe as; hume | risque | tela gestăt | et no | tas popu | lis pha | retras Herculis | heres. - SEN. Herc. Œt. 1600-6.

c. Sapphics followed by Glyconics, of indefinite number (id. Herc. Fur. 830-874, 875-894).

10. Miscellaneous.

- 374. Other measures occur in various styles of poetry: viz., —
- a. Anapæstic verses of various lengths are found in dramatic poetry. The spondee, dactyl, or proceleusmatic may be substituted for the anapæst: as, -

hic homost | omni ** homi | num prae | cipuos volupta | tibus gau | dzīsque an | tepotens. ită com modă quae | cupi e veniunt, quod ago | subit, ad | secue | sequitur: ītā gau dium sup pedītat. — PLAUT. Trin. 1115-19.

b. BACCHIAC verses (five-timed) occur in the dramatic poets, - very rarely in Terence, more commonly in Plautus. - either in verses of two feet (Dimeter) or of four (Tetrameter). They are treated very freely, as are all measures in early Latin. The long syllables may be resolved, or the molossus (three longs) substituted: as,-

> multas res | simit# in | meo cor | de vorso, mult*# in colgitando | dolore# in dipiscor ĕgomet me | cogo et ma | cero et de | fatigo; magister | mihf exer | citor ani | mus nunc est. - PLAUT. Trin. 223-226.

c. CRETIC measures occur in the same manner as the Bacchiac, with the same substitutions. The last foot is usually incomplete: as, -

> amor ami cus mihi | ne fuas | unquam. his ego | de artibus | gratiam | facio. nil ego is tos moror | faeceos | mores. — id. 267, 293, 297.

d. SATURNIAN VERSE. In early Latin is found a rude form of verse, not borrowed from the Greek like the others. The rhythm is Iambic Tetrameter (or Trochaic with Anacrusis), but the Arsis is often syncopated, especially in the middle and at the end of the verse: as, -

dabunt | malum | Metél | li - || Naévi | o po jetae.

11. Early Prosody.

- 375. The prosody of the earlier poets differs in several respects from that of the later.¹
- a. At the end of words s was only feebly sounded, so that it does not make *position* with a following consonant, and is sometimes cut off before a vowel. This usage continued in all poets till Cicero's time (§ 347.6).
- b. The last syllable of any word of two syllables may be made short if the first is short. (This effect remained in a few words like pută, cave, vale, vide; cf. § 348.) Thus,
 - ăběst (Cist. ii. 1. 12); ăpud têst (Trin. 196); sŏrŏr dictast (Enn. 157); bŏnās (Stich. 99); dŏmī dĕaeque (Pseud. 37); dŏmī (Mil. 194).
- c. In the same way a long syllable may be shortened when preceded by a short monosyllable: as,
 - īd est profecto (Merc. 372); erīt et tībi exoptātum (Mil. 1011); sī quidem hercle (Asin. 414); quid est si hoc (Andria, 237).
- d. In a few isolated words position is often disregarded.² Such are Ille, Iste, Inde, unde, nempe, esse (?). Thus,—

ĕcquis his in aedibust (Bacch. 58i).

- c. In some cases the accent seems to shorten a syllable preceding it in a word of more than three syllables, as in senectūtī, Syraoūsae.
- f: At the beginning of a verse many syllables long by position stand for short ones: as. —

idně tū (Pseud. 442); estne consimilis (Epid. v. 1. 18).

- g. The original long quantity of many final syllables is retained. Thus:—
 - Final -a of the first declension is often long: as, —
 p* epístulā quidem filla sit in aédibus (Asin. 762).
- 2. Final -a of the neuter plural is sometimes long (though there seems no etymological reason for it): as,—

núnc et amico | prósperabo et | génio meo mul | ta bona faciam (Pers. 263).

² Scholars are not yet agreed upon the principle or the extent of this irregularity.

¹ Before the Latin language was used in literature, it had become much changed by the loss of final consonants and the shortening of final syllables under the influence of accent (which was originally free in its position, but in Latin became limited to the penult and antepenult). This tendency was arrested by the study of grammar and by literature, but shows itself again in the Romance languages. In many cases this change was still in progress in the time of the early poets.

3. The ending -or is retained long in nouns with long stem-vowel (original r-stems or original s-stems): as,—

módo quom dicte in m³ ingerēbās ódium non uxor eram (Asin. 927). íta m¹ in pector³ átque corde, fácit amor incéndium (Merc. 500). átque quanto nóx fuisti lóngior hac próxuma (Amph. 548).

- 4. The termination -es (-Itis) is sometimes retained long, as in mIlēs, superstēs.
- 5. All verb-endings in -r, -s, and -t may be retained long where the vowel is elsewhere long in inflection: as,
 - régredior audisse me (Capt. 1023); átque ut qui fueris et qui nunc (id. 248); me nôminat haec (Epid. iv. 1. 8); faciat ut semper (Poen. ii. 42); infuscabat, amabo (Cretics, Cist. i. 21); qui amet (Merc. 1021); ut fit in bello capitur alter filius (Capt. 25); tibi sit ad me revisas (Truc. ii. 4. 79).
- h. The hiatus is allowed very freely, especially at a pause in the sense, or when there is a change of the speaker.¹

¹ The extent of this license is still a question among scholars; but in the present state of texts it must sometimes be allowed.

MISCELLANEOUS.

1. Reckoning of Time.

NOTE.—The Roman Year was designated, in earlier times, by the names of the Consuls; but was afterwards reckoned from the building of the City (ab urbe conditā, annō urbis conditae), the date of which was assigned by Varro to a period corresponding with B.C. 753. In order, therefore, to reduce Roman dates to those of the Christian era, the year of the city is to be subtracted from 754: e.g. A.U.C. 691

(the year of Cicero's consulship) = B.C. 63.

Before Cæsar's reform of the Calendar (B.C. 46), the Roman year consisted of 355 days: March, May, Quintilis (July), and October having each 31 days; February having 28, and each of the remainder 29. As this Calendar year was too short for the solar year, the Romans, in alternate years, at the discretion of the Pontifices, inserted a month of varying length (mēnsis intercalāris) after February 23, and omitted the rest of February. The "Julian year," by Cæsar's reformed Calendar, had 365 days, divided into months as at present. Every fourth year the 24th of February (vi. kal. Mārt.) was counted twice, giving 29 days to that month: hence the year was called Bissextilis. The month Quintilis received the name Iālius (July), in honor of Julius Cæsar; and Sextilis was called Augustus (August), in honor of his successor. The Julian year (see below) remained unchanged till the adoption of the Gregorian Calendar (A.D. 1582), which omits leap-year three times in every four hundred years.

- 376. Dates, according to the Roman Calendar, are reckoned as follows:
 - a. The first day of the month was called Kalendae (Calends).
- NOTE.—Kalendae is derived from calāre, to call,—the Calends being the day on which the pontiffs publicly announced the New Moon in the Comitia Calāta, which they did, originally, from actual observation.
- b. On the fifteenth day of March, May, July, and October, but the thirteenth of the other months, were the Idis (Ides), the day of Full Moon.
- c. On the seventh day of March, May, July, and October, but the fifth of the other months, were the Nonae (Nones or ninths).
- d. From the three points thus determined, the days of the month were reckoned backwards as so many days before the Nones, the Ides, or the Calends. The point of departure was, by Roman custom, counted in the reckoning, the second day being three days before, etc. This gives the following rule for determining the date:—

If the given date be Calends, add two to the number of days in the month preceding,—if Nones or Ides, add one to that of the day on which they fall,— and from the number thus ascertained subtract the given date: thus,—

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viii. Kal. Feb. (33-8)=Jan. 25. iv. Non. Mar. (8-4)=Mar. 4. iv. Id. Sept. (14-4)=Sept. 10.
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For peculiar constructions in dates, see § 259. e.

e. The days of the Roman month by the Julian Calendar, as thus ascertained, are given in the following Table:—

	Jan	uar	y.		Febr	uary.		Ма	rch.		Apri	Z.
I.	KAL	IAN	ī.	KAL.	FEB.		KAL.	MĀR	TIAE	KAL	APRĪ	LĒS
2.	IV. N	ōn.	Iān.	ıv. N	ōn. F	eb.	vi. N	lõn. N	∕lārt.	IV. N	lon. Aı	or.
3.	III.	44	"	III.	*	"	v.	*	"	III.	"	•
	prid.	4	"	prid.	14	4	IV.	"	"	prid.	**	•
5.	Non.	IĀ	N.	Non.	FEB.		III.	"	44	Non	. Aprī	LĒS
6.	VIII.	Īd.	lān.	VIII.	ld. F	eb.	prid.	44	*	VIII.	Td. Ap	F.
7.	VII.	**	4	VII.	44	4	Non	. Mãi	RTIAE	VII.		
8.	VI.	66	64	VI.	4	••	VIII.	Īd. M	lārt.	VI.	" "	
9.	v.	*	4	v.	"	"	VII.	"	4	v.	4 4	
IO.	IV.	46	"	ıv.	"	4	VI.	44	"	IV.	"	
II.	III.	*	44	III.	**		v.	"	4	III.	** **	
12.	prid.	**	"	prid.	**	4	IV.	44	4	prid.	"	
13.	ĪDŪS	IĀN	ſ .	ĪDŪS	FEB.		III.	"	"	Īdūs	Aprīi	ĒS.
14.	XIX.	Kal.	Feb.	xvi.	Kal.	Mārtiās	prid.	"	"	XVIII	i. Kal.	Māiās
15.	XVIII	. "	"	xv.	**	".	Īdūs	Mār	TIAE	XVII.	- 64	**
16.	XVII.	**	**	xIV.	**	**	XVII.	Kal.	Aprīlīs.	XVI.	66	44
17.	XVI.	**	**	XIII.	44	*	XVI.	. "	44	xv.	**	44
18.	xv.	**	"	XII.	66	44	xv.	44	44	XIV.	**	44
19.	XIV.	**	"	XI.	14	**	XIV.	**	44	XIII.	. "	•
20,	XIII.	**	**	x.	66	44	XIII.	"	4	XII.	66	•
21.	XII.	44	".	IX.	**	**	XII.	66	*	XI.	66	44
22.	xi.	**	**	VIII.	**	44	XI.	"	66	x.	44	•
23.	x.	**	"	VII.	44	**	x.	*	**	IX.	**	•
	IX.	**	"	VI.	**	66	IX.	44	66	VIII.	**	**
25.	VIII.	**	"	v.	"	**	VIII.	66	*	VII.	44	4
26.	VII.	**	**	IV.	**	66	VII.	**	*	VI.	66	44
27.	VI.	"	**	III.	44		VI.	4	44	v.	66	**
28.	v.	"	"	prīd.	**	**	v.	**	44	IV.	66	**
29.	IV.	46	**	[prid.	, Kal	. Mārt.	IV.	"	**	III.	44	**
30.	III.	**	"	in lea	p-yea	r, the	III.	"	"	prīd.	**	44
31.	prīd.	**	"	vi. Ka	ıl. (2	4th) being	prīd.	"	44	(So	June,	Sept.,
(So	Aug.	, De	c.)	count	ed tw	ice.]	(So I	May,	July, Oct.) No	v.)	-

NOTE. — Observe that a date before the Julian Reform (E.C. 46) is to be found not by the above table, but by taking the earlier reckoning of the number of days in the month.

2. Measures of Value, etc.

377. The money of the Romans was in early times wholly of copper. The unit was the ās, which was nominally a pound in weight, but actually somewhat less. It was divided into twelve unciae (ounces).

In the third century B.C. the as was gradually reduced to one-half of its original value. In the same century silver coins were introduced,—the Denarius and the Sestertius. The Denarius = 10 asses; the Sestertius = 2½ asses.

378. The Sestertius was probably introduced at a time when the as had been so far reduced that the value of the new coin (2½ asses) was equivalent to the original value of the as. Hence, the Sestertius (usually abbreviated to IIS or HS) came to be used as the unit of value, and nummus, coin, often means simply sestertius. As the reduction of the standard went on, the sestertius became equivalent to 4 asses. Gold was introduced later, the aureus being equal to 100 sesterces. The value of these coins is seen in the following table:—

NOTE. — The word sestertius is a shortened form of semis-tertius, the third one, a half. The abbreviation IIS or HS = duo et semis, 21/2, two and a half.

379. The Söstertium (probably originally the genitive plural of söstertius) was a sum of money, not a coin; the word is inflected regularly as a neuter noun: thus, tria söstertia = \$150.00.

When sestertium se combined with a numeral adverb, centena milia, hundreds of thousands, is to be understood: thus deciens sestertium (deciens HS) = \$50,000.

In the statement of large sums sēstertium is often omitted: thus sexāgiēns (Rosc. Am. 2) signifies, sexāgiēns [centēna mīlia] sēstertium (6,000,000 sesterces) = \$300,000 (nearly).

- **380.** In the statement of sums of money in cipher, a line above the number indicates thousands; lines above and at the sides also, hundred-thousands. Thus Hs. DC. = 600 sestertit; Hs. $\overline{DC} = 600,000 \text{ sestertit}$, or 600 sestertit; H.S. $\overline{DC} = 600,000,000 \text{ sestertit}$.
 - 381. The Roman Measures of Length are the following:
 - 12 inches (unciae) = I Roman Foot (pes: 11.65 English inches).
 - 1½ Feet = I Cubit (cubitum). 2½ Feet = 1 Degree or Step (gradus).

 5 Feet = 1 Pace (passus). 1000 Paces (mille passuum) = 1 Mile.

The Roman mile was equal to 4850 English feet.

The *Iugerum*, or unit of measure of land, was an area of 240 (Roman) feet long and 120 broad; a little less than $\frac{2}{3}$ of an English *acre*.

382. The Measures of Weight are -

12 unciae (ounces) = one pound (libra, about $\frac{3}{4}$ lb. avoirdupois).

Fractional parts (weight or coin) are -

1. $(\frac{1}{12})$, uncia. 5. $(\frac{1}{12})$, quincunx. 9. $(\frac{3}{4})$, $d\bar{o}dr\bar{a}ns$. 2. $(\frac{1}{6})$, sextāns. 6. $(\frac{1}{2})$, sēmissis. 10. $(\frac{6}{8})$, $dext\bar{a}ns$. 3. $(\frac{1}{4})$, quadrāns. 7. $(\frac{7}{12})$, septunx. 11. $(\frac{1}{12})$, deunx.

4. (1), triens. 8. (1), bessis.

The Talent (talentum) was a Greek weight (τάλαντον) = 60 librae.

383. The Measures of Capacity are —

12 cyathi = 1 sextarius (nearly a pint).

16 sextārii = 1 modius (peck).

6 sextāriī = 1 congius (3 quarts, liquid measure).

8 congii = 1 amphora (6 gallons).

384. The following are some of the commonest abbreviations found in Latin inscriptions and sometimes in editions of the classic authors.

A., absolvo, antiquo.

A. U., annõ urbis.

A. U.C., ab urbe conditā.

C., condemno, comitialis.

cos., consul (consule).

coss., consules (consulibus).

D., divus.

D. D., dono dedit.

D. D. D., dat, dicat, dedicat.

des., designatus.

D. M., dis manes.

eq. Rom., eques Romanus.

F., filius, fastus.

Ictus., iūrisconsultus.

Id., idūs.

imp., imperator.

I.O.M., Iovī optimo māximo.

K., Kal., Kalendae.

N., nepos, nefastus.

N. L., non liquet.

P. C., patres conscripti.

pl., plebis.

pont. max., pontifex maximus.

12. ās.

pop., populus.

P. R., populus Romanus.

pr., praetor.

proc., proconsul.

Q. B. F. F. Q. S., quod bonum felix faustumque sit.

Quir., Quirites.

resp., respublica, respondet.

S., salūtem, sacrum, senātus.

s. c., senātus consultum.

S. D. P., salūtem dicit plūrimam.

S. P. Q. R., Senātus Populusque Ro-

S. V. B. E. E. V., sī vales bene est, ego valeā.

pl. tr., tribūnus plebis.

U. (U. R.), uti rogās.

GLOSSARY

OF TERMS USED IN GRAMMAR, RHETORIC, AND PROSODY

NOTE.—Many of these terms are pedantic names given by early grammarians to forms of speech used naturally by writers who were not conscious that they were using figures at all—as, indeed, they were not. Thus when one says, "It gave me no little pleasure," he is unconsciously using Litotes; when he says, "John went up the street, James down," Antithesis; when he says, "High as the sky," Hyperbole. Many were given under a mistaken notion of the nature of the usage referred to. Thus med and ted (§ 98. c) were supposed to owe their d to Paragoge, sumpes its p to Epenthesis. Such a sentence as "See my coat, how well it fits!" was supposed to be an irregularity to be accounted for by Prolepsis.

Many of these, however, are convenient designations for phenomena which often occur; and most of them have a historic interest, of one kind or another.

385. I. GRAMMATICAL TERMS.

Anacoluthon: a change of construction in the same sentence, leaving the first part broken or unfinished.

Anastrophe: inversion of the usual order of words.

Apodosis: the conclusion of a conditional sentence (see Protasis).

Archaism: an adoption of old or obsolete forms.

Asyndeton: omission of conjunctions (§ 208. b).

Barbarism: adoption of foreign or unauthorized forms.

Brachylogy: brevity of expression.

Crasis: contraction of two vowels into one (§ 10. c).

Ellipsis: omission of a word or words necessary to complete the sense (§ 177. note).

Enallage: substitution of one word or form for another.

Epenthesis: insertion of a letter or syllable (§ 11. c).

Hellenism: use of Greek forms or constructions.

Hendiadys (ἐν διὰ δυοῖν): the use of two nouns, with a conjunction, instead of a single modified noun.

Hypallage: interchange of constructions.

Hysteron proteron: a reversing of the natural order of ideas.

This term was applied to cases where the natural sequence of events is violated in language because the later event is of more importance than the earlier and so comes first to the mind. This was supposed to be an artificial embellishment in Greek, and so was imitated in Latin. It is still found in artless narrative; cf. "Bred and Born in a Brier Bush" (Uncle Remus).

Metathesis: transposition of letters in a word (§ 11. d).

Paragoge: addition of a letter or letters to the end of a word.

Parenthesis: insertion of a phrase interrupting the construction.

Periphrasis: a roundabout way of expression (circumlocution).

Pleonasm: the use of needless words.

Polysyndeton: the use of an unnecessary number of copulative conjunctions.

Prolepsis: the use of a word in the clause preceding the one where it would naturally appear (anticipation).

Protasis: a clause introduced by a conditional expression (if, when, whoever), leading to a conclusion called the Apodosis (§ 304).

Syncope: omission of a letter or syllable from the middle of a word $(\S 11. b)$.

Synesis (constructio ad sensum): agreement of words according to the sense, and not the grammatical form (§ 182).

Tmesis: the separation of the two parts of a compound word by other words (cutting).

This term came from the earlier separation of prepositions (originally adverbs) from the verbs with which they were afterwards joined; so in **per ecastor scitus puer**, a very fine boy, egad! As this was supposed to be intentional, it was ignorantly imitated in Latin; as in **cere-comminuit-brum** (Ennius).

Zeugma: the use of a verb with two different words, to only one of which it strictly applies (yoking).

386. II. RHETORICAL FIGURES.

Allegory: a narrative in which abstract ideas figure as circumstances, events, or persons, in order to enforce some moral truth.

Alliteration: the use of several words that begin with the same sound.

Analogy: argument from resemblances.

Anaphora: the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clauses (\S 344.f).

Antithesis: opposition, or contrast of parts (for emphasis: § 344).

Antonomasia: use of a proper for a common noun, or the reverse: as,—

sint Maecēnātēs non deerunt Flacce Marones, so there be patrons (like Maecenas), poets (like Virgil) will not be lacking.

illa furia et pestis, that fury and plague (i.e. Clodius); Homēromastīx, scourge of Homer (i.e. Zoilus).

Aposiopesis: an abrupt pause for rhetorical effect.

Catachresis: a harsh metaphor (abūsiō, misuse of words).

Chiasmus: a reversing of the order of words in corresponding pairs of phrases (§ 344. f).

Climax: a gradual increase of emphasis, or enlargement of meaning.

Euphemism: the mild expression of a painful or repulsive idea: as,—sī quid eī acciderit, if anything happens to him (i.e. if he dies).

Euphony: the choice of words for their agreeable sound.

Hyperbaton: violation of the usual order of words.

Hyperbole: exaggeration for rhetorical effect.

Irony: the use of words which naturally convey a sense contrary to what is meant.

Litotes: the affirming of a thing by denying its contrary (§ 209. c).

Metaphor: the figurative use of words, indicating an object by some resemblance.

Metonymy: the use of the name of one thing to indicate some kindred thing.

Onomatopæia: a fitting of sound to sense in the use of words.

Ozymoron: the use of contradictory words in the same phrase: as, — insanions sapientia, foolish wisdom.

Paronomasia: the use of words of like sound.

Prosopopæia: personification.

Synchysis: the interlocked order (§ 344. h).

Synecdoche: the use of the name of a part for the whole, or the reverse.

387. III. TERMS OF PROSODY.

Acatalectic: complete, as a verse or a series of feet (§ 359. a).

Anaclasis: breaking up of rhythm by substituting different measures.

Anacrusis: the unaccented syllable or syllables preceding a verse $(\S 355 \cdot g)$.

Antistrophe: a series of verses corresponding to one which has gone before (cf. strophe).

Arsis: the unaccented part of a foot (§ 358).

Basis: a single foot preceding the regular movement of a verse.

Cæsura: the ending of a word within a metrical foot (§ 358. b).

Catalexis: loss of a final syllable (or syllables) making the series catalectic (incomplete, § 359. a).

Contraction: the use of one long syllable for two short (§ 357).

Correption: shortening of a long syllable, for metrical reasons.

Diaresis: the coincidence of the end of a foot with the end of a word (§ 358. c).

Dialysis: the use of i (consonant) and v as vowels (silüa = silva § 347. d. Rem.).

Diastole: the lengthening of a short syllable by emphasis (§ 359. f).

Dimeter: consisting of two like measures

Dipody: consisting of two like feet.

Distich: a system or series of two verses.

Ecthlipsis: the suppression of a final syllable in -m before a word beginning with a vowel (§ 359. d).

Elision: the cutting off of a final before a following initial vowel (§ 359.6).

Heptameter: consisting of seven feet.

Hexameter: consisting of six measures.

Hexapody: consisting of six feet.

Hiatus: the meeting of two vowels without contraction or elision (§ 359.2).

Ictus: the metrical accent (§ 358. a).

Irrational: not conforming strictly to the unit of time (§ 356. note).

Logaædic: varying in rhythm, making the effect resemble prose (§ 369).

Monometer: consisting of a single measure.

Mora: the unit of time = one short syllable ($\S 355$. a).

Pentameter. consisting of five measures.

Pentapody: consisting of five feet.

Penthemimeris: consisting of five half-feet.

Protraction: extension of a syllable beyond its normal length (§ 355. c).

Resolution: the use of two short syllables for one long (§ 357).

Strophe: a series of verses making a recognized metrical whole (stanza), which may be indefinitely repeated.

Synæresis: i (vowel) and u becoming consonants before a vowel.

Synalæpha: the same as elision (§ 359. c. Rem.).

Synapheia: elision between two verses (§ 359. c. Rem.).

Synizesis: the combining of two vowels in one syllable (§ 347. c)

Syncope: loss of a short vowel.

Systole: shortening of a syllable regularly long.

Tetrameter: consisting of four measures.

Tetrapody: consisting of four feet.

Tetrastich: a system of four verses.

Thesis: the accented part of a foot (§ 358).

Trimeter: consisting of three measures.

Tripody: consisting of three feet.

Tristich: a system of three verses.

APPENDIX.

LATIN was originally the language of the plain of Latium, lying south of the Tiber, the first territory occupied and governed by the Romans. This language, and, together with it, Greek, Sanskrit, Zend (Old Persian), the Sclavonic and Teutonic families, and the Celtic, are shown by comparative philology to be offshoots of a common stock, a language once spoken by a people somewhere in the interior of Asia, whence the different branches, by successive migrations, passed into Europe and Southern Asia.

This Parent Speech is called the Indo-European, and the languages descended from it are known collectively as the Indo-European Family. By an extended comparison of the corresponding roots, stems, and forms, as they appear in the different languages of the family, the original Indo-European root, stem, or form can in very many cases be determined. A few of these forms are given in the grammar for comparison (see, especially, p. 83). Others are here added for further illustration:—

I. CASE FORMS (Stem VAK, voice).

		Indo-Eur.	Sanskrit.	GREEK.	LATIN.
Sing. N	om.	vāks ¹	vāks	δψ	võx
G	en.	vakás	vāchás	∂πόs	võcis
D	at.	vakái	vāché	òπί	võci
A	cc.	vákam	vácham	δπα.	võcem
A	bl.	vakát	vāchás	(gen. or dat.)	voce(d)
L	oc.	vakí	vāchí	(dat.)	(dat.)
Ir	str.	vaká	vāchā	(dat.)	(abl.)
PLUR. N	om.	vākas	váchas	δπes	võçēs
G	en.	vakām	vāchám	ỏ πῶν	võcum
D	at.	vakbhyams	vāgbhy ás	òψί	vocibus
A	c c.	vākams	vāchás	бжаs	võcēs
A	Ы.	vākbhyams	(as dat.)	(gen. or dat.)	võcibus
L	oc.	vaksvas	vāksú	(dat.)	(dat.)
In	str.	vakbhis	vāgbhís	(dat.)	(abl.)

¹ To avoid unsettled questions of Comparative Grammar, the stem-vowel is here given as a, though the vowel undoubtedly had approached o before the separation of the various Indo-European languages from the parent speech.

2. CARDINAL NUMBERS.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	INDO-EUR. ? dva tri kvatvar kvankva ? septm aktam navam dekm	Sanskert. [eka] dva tri chatur panchan shash saptan ashtun navan dasan	GREEK. [eĪs] δύο τρεῖs τέτταρεs πέντε ἔξ ἐπτά ὀκτά ἐννέα δέκα	LATIN. [unus] duo tres quattuor quinque sex septem octo novem decem
•			****	
10	dekin dvadekm	dasan dva-dasan	οεκα δώδεκα	decem duodecim
13	tridekm	trayo-dasan	τρισκαίδεκα	tredecim
20	dvidekņta	vin s ati	είκοσι	viginti
30	tridekņta	trin s ati	τριάκοντα	trīgintā
100	kņtom	çatam	έκατόν	centum

3. FAMILIAR AND HOUSEHOLD WORDS.

The emigrants who peopled the Italian peninsula also divided into several branches, and the language of each branch had its own development, until all the rest were crowded out by the dominant Latin. These dialects have left no literature, but fragments of some of them

¹ Clansman.

have been preserved, in inscriptions, or as cited by Roman antiquarians; and other fragments were probably incorporated in that popular or rustic dialect which formed the basis of the modern Italian. The most important of these ancient languages of Italy were the Oscan of Campania, and the Umbrian of the northern districts. To these should be added the Etruscan, which is of uncertain origin. Some of their forms, as compared with the Latin, may be seen in the following:—

LATIN	OSCAN.	Umbrian.	LATIN.	OSCAN.	Umbrian
accinere		arkane	nequ e	nep	
alteri (loc.)	alttrei		pe r	perum	
argentō	aragetud		portet		portaia
avibus		aveis	quadruped	ibu s	peturpursus
cēnsor	censtur		quattuor	petora	petur
cēnsēbit	censazet		quinque	pomtis	
contrā, F.	contrud, N.		quī, quis	pi s	pis
cornicem		curnaco	quid	pid	
dextra		destru	quod	pod	pod
dicere	deicum (cf.	vēnum-dō)	cui	piei	
dīxerit	dicust		quom		pone, pune
duodecim	•	desenduf	rêctőri	regaturei	
extrā	ehtrad		sīq uis		svepıs
facitō	factud		stet	stai°t (stai°e	t)
fecerit	fefacust		subvocô		suboc au
fertöte		fertuta	sum	sum	
frātribu s		fratrus	est	i°st	
ibi	ip		sit	set	
imperator	embratur		fuerit	fust	fust
inter	anter	anter	fuērunt	fufans	
licētō	licitud		fuat	fuid	fuia
magistrõ		mestru	tertium		tertim
medius		mefa	ubi	puf	
mügiátur		mugatu	uterque	-	puturus pid
multāre	moltaum	-	utrique	puterei•	putrespe

Fragments of early Latin are preserved in inscriptions dating back to the third century before the Christian era; and some Laws are attributed to a much earlier date,—to Romulus (B.C. 750), to Numa (B.C. 700); and especially to the Decemvirs (Twelve Tables, B.C. 450); but in their present form no authentic dates can be assigned to them. Specimens of these are usually given in a supplement to the Lexicon. (See also Cic. De Legibus, especially ii. 8; iii. 3, 4.)

An instructive collection of them is given in "Remnants of Early Latin," by F. D. Allen: Ginn & Co.

Latin did not exist as a literary language until about B.C. 200. The language was then strongly influenced by the writings of the Greeks, which were the chief objects of literary study and admiration. The most popular plays, those of Plautus and Terence, were simply translations from the Greek, introducing freely, however, the popular dialect and the slang of the Roman streets. As illustrations of life and manners they belong as much to Athens as to Rome. Thus the natural growth of a genuine Roman literature was very considerably checked. Orations, rhetorical works, letters, and histories, — dealing with practical affairs and the passions of politics, — seem to be nearly all that sprang direct from the native soil. The Latin poets of the Empire were mostly court-poets, writing for a cultivated and luxurious class; satires and epistles alone keep the flavor of Roman manners, and exhibit the familiar features of Italian life.

In its use since the classic period, Latin is known chiefly as the language of the Civil Code, which gave the law to a large part of Europe; as the language of historians, diplomatists, and philosophers during the Middle Ages, and in some countries to a much later period; as the official language of the Church and Court of Rome, down to the present day; as, until recently, the common language of scholars, so as still to be the ordinary channel of communication among many learned classes and societies; and as the universal language of Science, especially of the descriptive sciences, so that many hundreds of Latin terms, or derivative forms, must be known familiarly to any one who would have a clear knowledge of the facts of the natural world, or be able to recount them intelligibly to men of science. In some of these uses it may still be regarded as a living language; while, conventionally, it retains its place as the foundation of a liberal education.

During the classical period of the language, Latin existed not only in its literary or urban form, but in local dialects, known by the collective name of lingua rāstica, far simpler in their forms of inflection than the classic Latin. These dialects, it is probable, were the basis of modern Italian, which has preserved many of the ancient words without aspirate or case-inflection: as, orto (hortus), gente (gentem). In the colonies longest occupied by the Romans, Latin, in its ruder and more popular form, came to be the language of the common people. Hence the modern languages called "Romance" or "Romanic"; viz., Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and French, together with the Catalan of Northeastern Spain, the Provençal or Troubadour language of the South of France, the "Rouman" or Wallachian of the lower Danube (Roumania), and the "Roumansch" of some districts of Switzerland

A comparison of words in several of these tongues with Latin will serve to illustrate that process of phonetic decay to which reference has been made in the body of this Grammar (§ 8. 2), as well as the degree in which the substance of the language has remained unchanged. Thus, in the verb to be the Romance languages have preserved from the Latin the general tense-system, together with both the stems on which the verb is built. The personal endings are somewhat abraded, but can be traced throughout. The following table shows the forms assumed by sum in five of the Romance languages. In the others, the alterations are more marked.

LATIN.	Italian.	Spanish.	PORTUGUESE.	FRENCH.	Provençal.
sum	sono	soy	sôu	suis	son (sui)
es	sei	eres	és	es	ses (est)
est	è	es	hé	est	es (ez)
sumus	siamo	somos	sômos	sommes	sem (em)
estis	siet e	sois	sôis	êtes -	etz (es)
sunt	sono	son	s aõ	sont	sont (son)
eram	era	era	era	étais (V STA)	era
erās	eri	eras	eras	étais	era s
erat	era	era	era	était	era
erāmus	eravamo	éramos	éramos	étions	eram
erātis	eravate	erais	éreis	étiez	eratz
erant	érano	eran	éraõ	étaient	eran
fuī	fui	fui	fui	fus	fui
fuistī	fosti	fuiste	fôste	fus	fust
fuit	fù.	fuè	fôi	fut	fo (fon)
fuimus	fummo	fuimos	fômos	fûmes	fom
fuistis	foste	fuisteis	fôsto s	fûtes	fotz
fuerunt	fárono	fueron	fôraõ	furent	foren
sim	sia	sea	seja	sois	sia.
s īs	sii	seas	sejas	sois	sia s
sit	sia	sea	seja	soit	sia
sīmus	siamo	seamos	sejâmos	soyons	siam
sītis	siate	seais	sejai s	soyez	siatz
sint	siano	s ean	séjaő	soient	sian
fuissem	fossi	fuese	fôsse	fusse	fos
fuisses	fossi	fueses	fôsses	fusses	fosses
fuisset	fosse	fuese	fôsse	fût	fossa (fos)
fuissēmus	főssimo	fuésemos	fôssemos	fussions	fossem
fui ss ētis	foste	fueseis	fôsseis	fussiez	fossetz
fuissent	fóssero	fuesen	fôssem	fussent	fossen

430			ppenan.					
es esto este	sii sia siate	se sea sed	sê seja sêde	sois soit soyez		sias sia siatz		
sunto	siano	sean	séjaő	soient		sian		
esse	éssere	ser	sêr	être		esser		
[sēns]	essendo	siendo	sêndo	étant		essen	t	
	PRI	NCIPAL I	ROMAN W	/RITER	s.			
REPUBLICAN WRITERS.								
							B.C.	
	Plautus, Co			• •	•	•	254-184	
	Annals, Sai			• •	•	•	239-169	
			quities, etc.		•	•	234-149	
	s, <i>Tragedie</i> : s Afer (TER			• •	•	•	220-130	
	Satires (Fi		eutes .		•	•	195–159 148–103	
	or Accius),		Fragments)	• •	•	•	170-75	
			ntiquities, et	· ·	•	•	116-28	
			s, Dialogues		:	·	106-43	
	æsar, Comm			, .	•		100-44	
			um Natura"			•	95-52	
	Catullus, M						87-47	
	s Crispus (S						86-34	
Cornelius N	Tepos, Lives	of Famous	Comma nders	•	•	•	3	
	W	RITERS OF	THE AUGUST	AN AGE.				
P. Vergilius	s Maro (Vir	GIL), Ecloga	ues, Georgics,	Æneid			70-19	
Q. Horatius	s Flaccus (H	IORACE), Sa	tires, Odes, I	Epistles			65-8	
	ıllus, <i>Elegie</i> s			• •			54–18	
Sextus Prop	pertius, Eleg	ies					51-15	
	atavinus (Li						59-A.D. 17	
			phoses, Fasti,	etc	•		43-A.D. 18	
	s Maximus, .				•	•	-31	
	Paterculus,				•	•	19–31	
Pomponius	Mela, Husb	andry and	Geography	• •	•	•	-50	
		Writers	of Silver	Agr.				
A. Persius	Flaccus, Sat	ires					A.D. 34-62	
			etters, etc.;				-65	
M. Annæus	Lucanus (I	LUCAN), His	torical Poem	" Pharsal	ia"		39–65	
Q. Curtius	Rufus, Histo	ry of Alexa	nder .		•		3	
C. Plinius S	Secundus (P	LINY), <i>Nati</i>	ıral History,	etc	•	•	23-79	

470-520

about 500

Anicius Manlius Boëthius, Philosophical Dialogue

Maximianus, Elegies

[†] Christian writers.

INDEX OF VERBS.

In this index are given all the simple irregular verbs that the student will find in his reading. Compounds are to be looked for under simple verbs. If the simple verb is given with no mention of compounds, the compounds are conjugated like the simple verb. If to the simple verb a compound form is added (as "statuo [constituo]"), the compounds vary from the simple verb, as may be seen under the particular compound mentioned. If different compounds of the same verbs present different irregularities, several specimens are appended to the simple verb (see e.g. ago). Full-face figures (thus, 91) designate the most important among several references. References are to sections, unless "p." is used.

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4

ABBREVIATIONS

USED IN CITING AUTHORS AND THEIR WORKS.

Appuleius: Met., Metamorphoses. Cæsar: B. C., Bellum Civile. B. G., Bellum Gallicum. B. Afr., Bellum Africanum. Cato: R. R., De Re Rustica. Catull., Catullus. Cic., Cicero: Ac., Acad., Academica. Arch., pro Archia. Att., ad Atticum. Caec., pro Caecina. Cael., pro M. Caelio. Cat., in Catilinam. Clu., pro Cluentio. C. M., Cat. Maj., Cato Major. Inv., de Inventione. Deiot., pro Deiotaro. De Or., de Oratore. Div., de Divinatione. Caecil.. Divinatio in Caecilium. Fam., ad Familiares. Fat., de Fato. Fin., de Finibus. Flac., pro Flacco. Font., pro M. Fonteio. Ad. Her., [ad Herennium. Inv. R., de Inventione Rhetorica. Lael., Laelius (de Amicitia). Legg., de Legibus. Leg. Agr., de Lege Agraria.

Lig., pro Ligario. Manil., pro Lege Manilia. Marc., pro Marcello. Mil., pro Milone. Mur., pro Murena. N. D., de Natura Deorum. Off., de Officiis. Or., Orator. Par., Paradoxa. Part. Or., de Partitione Oratoria. Phil., Philippicae. Planc., pro Plancio. Pis., in Pisonem. Quinct., pro Quinctio. Q. Fr., ad Q. Fratrem. Rabir., pro Rabirio. Rep., de Republica. Rosc. Am., pro Roscio Amerino. Rosc. Com., pro Roscio Comoedo. Sest., pro Sestio. Sulla, pro Sulla. Top., Topica. Tusc., Tusculanae Disputationes. Univ., de Universo. Vatin., in Vatinium. Verr., in Verrem. Enn., Ennius. Gell., A. Gellius. Hor., Horace: A. P., De Arte Poetica. Ep., Epistulae. Epod., Epodes. Od., Odes. Sat., Satires. Juv., Juvenal.

Lucr., Lucretius. Mart., Martial. Nepos. Ov., Ovid: F., Fasti. M., Metamorphoses. Epist. ex P., Epistulae ex Ponto. Trist., Tristia. Pers., Persius. Phaed., Phaedrus. Plaut., Plautus. Am., Amphitruo. Asin., Asinaria. Aul., Aulularia. Bac., Bacchides. Capt., Captivi. Cist., Cistellaria. Curc., Curculio. Epid., Epidicus. Merc., Mercator. Mil., Miles Gloriosus. Most., Mostellaria. Pers., Persa. Poen., Poenulus. Ps., Pseud., Pseudolus. Rud., Rudens. Stich., Stichus. Tr., Trin., Trinummus. Truc., Truculentus. Plin., Pliny, senior: H.N., Historia Naturalis. Plin., Pliny, junior: Ep., Epistulae. Prop., Propertius. Q. C., Q. Curtius. Quint., Quintilian. Sall., Sallust: Cat., Catilina.

Liv., Livy.

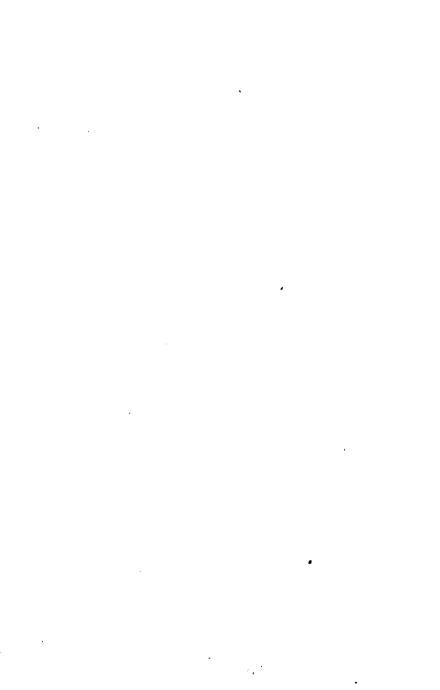
Ep. Mithrid., Epistula
Mithridatis.
Jug., Jugurtha.
Sen., Seneca:
Ep., Epistulae.
Herc. Oet., Hercules Oetaeus.
Q. N., Quaestiones Naturales.

Sil. It., Silius Italicus.
Suet., Suetonius.
Tac., Tacitus:
Agr., Agricola.
A., Ann., Annales.

H., Historiae. Ter., Terence: Ad., Adelphi. And., Andria. Eun., Eunuchus.
Heaut., Heautontimorumenos.
Hec., Hecyra.
Ph., Phormio.
Virg., Virgil:
Æn., Æneid.
E., Eclogae.

G., Georgica.

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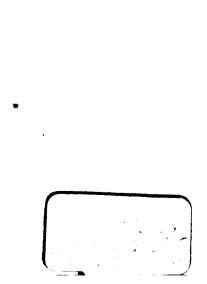
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