THE F .\& C. SHOLVI:R LATIN GRAMMAR

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## ALLEN AND GREENOUGH'S

## SHORTER

# LATIN GRAMMAR 

FOR SCHOOLS AND ACADEMIES

## Condensed and Revised

BY
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ASSISTED BY
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IN MEHORIAM


## PREFACE.

The present editors hold as the result of their experience, that a book designed to instruct in the principles of Latin construction, intended for the use of pupils and young teachers, ought to contain practically the whole grammar of the language. This is especially true of the teachers, because the book from which one teaches is very likely to limit one's own acquisitions. They are, however, aware that a more compendious book may be sufficient with some teachers, and under certain conditions even superior. They have, therefore, endeavored to abbreviate their complete work by omitting from it such portions as could not give appreciable information to the students in preparatory schools. This has been done by noting all the references in the books used in such schools, and saving these along with all the general principles under which they came. It is hoped that by this method nothing has been omitted which was essential, and nothing retained which might not at some time answer a question raised even among preparatory pupils. In order to facilitate the use of the two books side by side, and the later substitution of the larger work, the original notation of sections and subsections has been carefully retained.

In the treatment of the subject, with the exception of all general linguistic lore, the lines of the other work have been pursued. For such lore the student and teacher are referred to the larger grammar.

But in regard to hidden quantities, a subject which has only lately begun to be studied, and whose uncertainties ought not to be allowed to trouble the beginner, the editors have pursued an even more conservative course than before, marking only such vowels long as could, in their opinion, be reasonably proved to be so, and leaving as presumably short all others, even those which many persons, and even the editors themselves, were inclined to think long.

Cambridge, September 1 , 1896.

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## LATIN GRAMMAR.

## INTRODUCTION.

## ELEMENTARY DEFINITIONS.

1. The study of Grammar includes: (I) the Forms of Words (Etymology); (2) the Uses of Words, or the ways of connecting them in sentences (Syntax); (3) the Forms of Verse (Prosody).

## PARTS OF SPEECH.

2. Words are Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Participles, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, or Interjections. These are called Parts of Speech.

Note. - There is no word in Latin for the Articles $a$, an, the .
3. A Noun is the name of a person, place, or thing: as, Cesar, Rome, house, strength, glory. Names of persons and places are Proper Nouns; the others are Common Nouns.
4. An Adjective is a word which describes a noun: as, a brave man, a green tree.
5. A Pronoun is a word which denotes a person, place, or thing without naming or describing it. It may be -
a. Personal: $I$, we (ist person); thou, ye, you (2d person); he, she, it, they (3d person).

Note. - There is in Latin no personal pronoun of the 3d person, but a demonstrative may be used instead; and the others are used only for emphasis, being commonly given in the verb-ending.
6. Possessive: ' ny, mine; thy, thine; his, her, hers; our, ours; your, yours; their, theors; myself, himself, themselves, and the like.
c. Reflexive : these end, in English, in -self or -selzes, following a verb or preposition: as, I blame myself; he came to himself.
d. Demonstrative: this, these; that, those.
e. Relative: who, which; whoever, whatever.
f. Interrogative: who? which? what?

Note. - Possessives, demonstratives, relatives, and interrogatives all have the form of adjectives, and are called Adjective Pronouns.

The relatives whoever, whatever are called Indefinite Relatives.
6. A Verb is a word which asserts, asks, or commands: as, he speaks, do you know? come to me.
7. A Participle is an adjective which describes the act or condition asserted by a verb : as, speaking, chosen.
8. An Adverb is a word used with a verb or adjective to express time, place, or manner: as, now, here, nobly done.
9. A Preposition is a word connecting a noun in a dependent relation with other words in the same sentence: as, in, from, among, into, beyond.
10. A Conjunction is a word used to connect sentences or parts of sentences: such words are and, or, if, but.

Note.-Some words, - as, while, because, till, nevertheless, - used both to define and to connect, are called Adverbial Conjunctions.
11. Interjections are mere exclamations, and are not, strictly, Parts of Speech : as, ah! ho! alas!

## THE SENTENCE.

12. A Sentence is a form of words containing an Assertion, a Question, an Exclamation, or a Command; and it is, accordingly, declaratory, interrogative, exclamatory, or imperative.
13. The Subject of a sentence denotes the person or thing spoken of: it may be (I) a Noun, a Pronoun, or a Phrase ; or (2) it may be given in the ending of a Verb.

Note.-This latter case is regular in Latin : as, doce-o, I teach; doce-t, he (or she) teaches; doce-nt, they teach.
14. The Predicate is that which is spoken of the Subject. It may be a Verb ; and it must contain a verb. Thus a whole Latin sentence may consist of a verb alone.

Note. - If the Predicate is a verb alone - as, "the sun shines" - this verb is called Neuter, or Intransitive; if the verb requires an Object - as, "I see the sun"-it is called Transitive. A noun or adjective used with a neuter verb to complete the statement - as, "these men are brave" - is called the Complement.
15. The Object of a verb denotes the person or thing affected by the action: as, I wrote the letter.

Note. - The Object may be direct or indirect: in the sentence, "I wrote you a letter," letter is the Direct object, and you the Indirect.
16. A Phrase is a group of words, without subject or predicate of its own, which may be used as an adjective or adverb : as, "a man of great virtue" (Adjective Phrase); "I will come within three days" (Adverbial Phrase).
17. A Clause is a group of words, with subject and predicate of its own, used to add something to a sentence, or to qualify its meaning : as, "I spoke and he listened"; "when he had heard, he went away."

Note. - A sentence so modified is called compound; if one part (as in the second example) depends on the other, it is called complex.
18. A noun, pronoun, adjective, or verb is said to AGREE with another word, when it is required to be in the same gender, number, case, or person. A verb or preposition is said to GOVERN a noun, when it requires a noun in connection to be in a particular Case.

## PART FIRST.-ETYMOLOGY.

## 1. LETTERS AND SOUNDS.

## ALPHABET.

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

## Classification of the Letters.

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

The Vowels are a, e, i, o, u, y. The rest of the letters are Consonants. The Diphthongs are ae, au, ei, eu, oe, ui.
2. Consonants. - $a$. p, b, c (k), $\mathrm{q}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$, 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. $\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{c}(\mathbf{k}), \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{s}$, are called Surds (tenuēs).

These are without vocal tone.
2. $\mathbf{b}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{z}$, 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, $\mathbf{n}$ adulterinum (like $n$ in $i n k$ ), corresponding in the same way to $\mathbf{g}$, 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 | $\mathbf{b}$ | wanting | m |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- |
| Palatal: | $\mathrm{c}(\mathbf{k}), \mathbf{q}$ | $\mathbf{g}$ | ch | $\mathbf{n}($ as in ink $)$ |
| Lingual: | t | $\mathbf{d}$ | th | $\mathbf{n}($ as in rent $)$. |

a. Other useful special classes of sounds are distinguished, as, Liquids: $\mathbf{1}, \mathrm{m}, \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{r}$.
Fricatives (Spirants) : f, ph, th (not aspirate, the same as in thin), h, s, z. Sibilants: s, z.
Double Consonants: $x$ (cs), z (ds).
Semi-vozvels: i, v (see \& 4).
$b . \mathbf{h}$ 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, unguent.) They are sometimes called Scmi-Vowels.

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

In this book vowel and consonant $i$ are both represented by the same character, $\mathbf{i}$; but $\boldsymbol{\nabla}$ is used for the consonant, $\mathbf{u}$ for the vowel sound of $\mathbf{v}$ (a). Thus, iūstus, vir, iuvenis.
5. The Romans distinguished Long vowels from Short in sound, but had no regular means to express the difference. This difference is called Quantity, and such vowels are said to be long or short by nature.

In modern times short vowels are marked thus: ă, ĕ; and long, thus: $\overline{\mathbf{a}}, \overline{\mathbf{e}}$; those that may be pronounced either long or short, thus : $\check{a}$, 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 quantity in poetry, though they sometimes vary from this.
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).
7. Till after the age of Augustus the use of $\mathbf{u}$ (vowel) after $\mathbf{u}$ (v) was avoided. This was done either by preserving 0 , when but for this tendency it would have become $\mathbf{u}$, as in voltus (but cultus), servŏs (but dominus); or in case of quu, by writing cu, as in ecus (for equos, later equus).

Hence, where in inflection quu would appear, it should be written and pronounced cu, as, ecus, equī, sequitur, secuntur.

## Phonetic Variations.

8. Variations of sound are of two classes:-
a. Inherited differences of form in the same root (see § 22).
b. Unconscious changes of sounds developed in course of time in the language itself.
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, èmī, I bought; regō, I rule, rēgīna, a queen.
b. Vowels vary in quality: as, pendō, I weigh, pondus, weight.
c. Vowels vary between a short vowel of one quality and a long vowel or diphthong of another : as, miser, zeretched, maestus, sad.
d. Liquids are transposed with vowels, sometimes with change of the vowel : as, spernō, I spurn, sprēvī, I spurned.
10. Unconscious changes occur in both vowels and consonants.
a. Vowels and diphthongs are weakened: as, factus, made, cōnfectus, made up; ägmen, a march, ägminis, of a march.
b. Two vowels coming together are very often contracted: as, cōgō for co-agō ; obit for obiit ; nìl for nihil.
c. Vowels are often lost between two consonants (syncope): as, audācter for audāciter.
d. Vowels are inserted between two consonants in the effort to pronounce a difficult combination of sounds (cf. sailors' hellum for helm): as, Herculēs for Herclēs, drachuma for drachma.
11. $a$. Consonants are substituted one for another. Thus: $r$ for $\mathbf{s}$ between two vowels or before $\mathbf{m}$ or $\mathbf{n}$ : as, eram (root ES), generis (for $\dagger$ genesis, from genus), maereō (cf. maestus).
b. Consonants are omitted : as, exāmen (exāgmen), caementum (caed-mentum), autumnus (auctumnus, root AUG), pērgō (per-regō).

Especially h: as, dēbeō (dē-habeō). And consonant i and v: as, - cōniciō (con-iaciō), prōrsus (prō-vorsus).
c. Consonants are unconsciously inserted in passing from one sound to another : as, sūmō, I take, sūmpsī, I took.
d. Consonants and vowels are unconsciously changed (dissimilation) to avoid a repetition of the same sound in two successive syllables: parilia (for palilia, from Palēs), meridiēs (for medīdiēs).
$e$. A consonant is changed by the influence of a neighboring sound, -
I. Into the same sound as the neighbor (complete assimilation): as, cēssī (cēd-sī), summus (sup-mus), sella (sed-la).
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), scriptus (scrib-tus, sonant to surd), sēgmentum (†secmentum, surd to sonant), imperō (in-perō, lingual to labial).
12. Variations of Spelling occur in manuscripts and inscriptions, and especially in modern editions. Most are provided for in Vocabularies.
a. The letters and sounds of ci and ti are interchanged before a vowel : nūntiō (nūnciō), contiō (conciō), conđiciō (conditiō).
b. Several words are written sometimes with and sometimes without an initial h: as, harēna (arēna), erus (herus), umerus (humerus), ūmor (hūmor).
c. In later Latin, $\bar{e}, a e$, and oe became alike in sound (like $a$ in fate), and are often confounded in writing: as, faenus (fēnus, foenus).
d. Other words variously spelled are : adulēescēns, adolēscēns; ahēneus, aēneus; ānulus, annulus.

## 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, ūnusquisque, iamdūdum, iamdiū, siquis, siquidem; also a few short phrases, as, quärē, quamobrem, rēspūblica, iūsiūrandum, paterfamiliās, tēcum.
$b$. The verb est, $i s$, is joined with the preceding word, especially in the old poets, when the two would be united by elision : as, homōst, periculumst, quālist (quālis est) (like thou'rt, I've).
c. Similar contractions are found in vin' (visne), scin' (scisne). sis (sī vis), sōđēs (si audēs), sūltis (si 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 or a mute followed by a liquid between two vowels must be written and pronounced with the latter.
b. This rule is sometimes improperly extended to doubled consonants, or any combination of consonants which can be used to begin a word: as, ho-spes, mā-gnus; but usage varies.
c. In compounds, the parts should be separated: as, ab-est, ob-lātus.

## Kindred Forms.

15. In English words derived from the Latin, the original letters are retained (as ambition from ambitiō). But in native English words which are cognate with the Latin, the original sounds are represented in the two languages by closely related letters which regularly correspond: as, -

LATIN. ENGLISH.

| $\mathbf{t}$ | $\mathbf{T H}:$ | tū, thou; trēs, three; tenuis, thin. |
| :--- | ---: | :--- |
| $\mathbf{d}$ | $\mathrm{T}:$ | duo, two; dēns, tooth; sedeō, sit. |
| $\mathbf{p}$ | $\mathrm{F}:$ | pater, father; pullus, foal; paucī, few. |

## Sounds of the Letters.

Note. - The pronunciation of Latin is different in different countries. In America, it usually follows what may be called the Roman (or Phonetic) method.
16. By the Roman 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: | $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ as in father; | ă as in idea. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ as eh? (prolonged); they; | ĕ as ch? (clipped). |
|  | i as in machine; | 1 as in holiest. |
|  | $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$ as in holy; | $\bigcirc$ os in obey. |
|  | $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ as oo in boot; | $\breve{\mathrm{u}}$ as 00 in foot. | $y$ between $u$ and $i$ (German $i i$ ).

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.
$\mathbf{i}$ cons. is like $y$ in young; $\mathbf{v}$ (cons. $\mathbf{u}$ ), like $w$ in wing; qu as in English.
bs is like $p s$; ch like $k$; ph like $f$.
n before s or $\mathbf{f}$ was combined with the preceding vowel somewhat as French nasal $n$, making the vowel long.
$\mathbf{z}$ as $d z$ in $a d z e$.
th as in rathole, later as in thin.
When two consonants come together (as in con-dō, pos-terī), or a consonant is doubled (as in an-nus, $\bar{u} l-l u s$, mīt-t $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$ ), care should be taken to pronounce both letters distinctly.
17. Roman names in English (as Julius Cesar), scientific terms, titles of books, and familiar quotations (as e pluribus unum; viva voce; vice versa; veni, vidi, vici, etc.) should be pronounced by the English method. In this the letters have the same sounds as in English.

## Quantity and Accent.

18. The Accent in Latin depends on the Quantity (or length) of the last syllable but one. A long vowel makes a long syllable. A short vowel may make a long syllable if obstructed by consonants. The following are simple rules for quantity.
a. A vowel before another vowel or $\mathbf{h}$ is short: as in via, nhihil.
b. A diphthong is long: as in $\overline{\text { aedēē, foedus. So, also, a vowel }}$ derived from a diphthong: as, exclūdō (ex-claudō).
c. A vowel formed by contraction is long: as, nil (nihil).
d. A syllable in which a vowel is followed by two consonants (except a mute with $\mathbf{1}$ or $\mathbf{r}$ ), or a double consonant ( $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}$ ) 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, mägnus, āgmen, hūius.
$e$. A syllable in which a short vowel is followed by a mute with 1 or $\mathbf{r}$ is common; i.e. it may be long in verse : as in alacris, multiplex.
f. A vowel before nd, nt is regularly short by nature: as, amănt, amăndus from amāre.
19. The accent in words of more than one syllable is on the last syllable but one (Penult), or the last but two (Antepenult).
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, ami'cus, praesen'tis ; if it is short or common, on the Antepenult: as, do'mĭnus, a1ăcris, la'tĕbrae, conti'nŭō, praete'ritum, dissociā’bilis.

Note. - In words of more than four syllables a secondary accent usually arises at a convenient distance from the main accent : as, nāvigä". tiō'nibus, pecĩ" liā́ria.
c. When an Enclitic is joined to a word, the accent falls on the syllable next before the enclitic, whether long or short: as, dĕa'que, ămärĕ've, tĭbi'ne, ită'que ( and . . . so), as distinguished from i'tăque (therefore).
d. Exception : Certain apparent compounds of faciō retain the accent of the simple verb: as, benefă'cĭt, calefă'cit (see § $169 . a$ ). (These are not true compounds, but phrases.)

## 2. WORDS AND THEIR FORMS.

## INFLECTION.

20. Latin is an inflected language: i.e. changes are made in the forms of words to show their grammatical relations.

Such changes sometimes take place in the body of a word, or at the beginning, but oftener in the termination: as, vōx, a voice; vōcis, of a voice; tangit, he touches; tetigit, he touched.

## Root and Stem.

21. The Stem is the body of a word, of which the terminations are changed.
22. A Root is the shortest and simplest form that can express the main idea of a word. It is common also to other words either in the same or kindred languages. ${ }^{1}$

Thus the root of the stem rēg- (in rēx) is reg, which does not mean to rule, or I rule, or ruling, but merely expresses vaguely the idea of directing, and cannot be used as a part of speech without added terminations.
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, -

1. By changing or lengthening its vowel : as in scob-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-s, you fly (FUG + yo); pangō, I fasten (PAG + no).
${ }^{1}$ For example, the root STA is found in the Greek $\boldsymbol{\tau} \tau \eta \mu \iota$, Latin sistere and stäre, German ftehen, and English stand.
3. By two or more of these methods: as in dūc-it, he leads ( $\mathrm{DUC}+\mathrm{o}$ ) ; tollō, I raise (TUL + yo).
4. By derivation and composition, following the laws of development peculiar to the language. (See $\S \S 588 \mathrm{ff}$.)
5. 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).

## The Parts of Speech.

25. Words are divided into nine Parts of Speech : Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns; Verbs, Participles, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections. These are more fully treated in the Introduction, pp. 1 and 2.
26. Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, and Participles have inflections of declension, to show gender, number, and case. Verbs have inflections of conjugation, to show 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. Parts of speech which are not inflected are called Particles: such are Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

## 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; dōnum, gift.
b. Grammatical gender is a formal distinction as to sex where no actual sex exists in the object. It shows itself only in the form of the adjective joined with the noun: as, lapis māgnus (м.), 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.), aciēs (F.), and ăgmen (N.), army; operae (F. pl.), workmen; cōpiae (F. pl.), troops.
29. a. Names of Male beings, Rivers, Winds, Months, and Mountains, are masculine.
b. Names of Female beings, Cities, Countries, Plants, Trees, and Gems, of many Animals (especially Birds), and of most abstract Qualities, are feminine.

To each of these there are some exceptions.
c. Indeclinable nouns, infinitives, words, terms or phrases used as nouns, or quoted merely for their form, are neuter : as, -
fās, right; nihil, nothing; gummī, gum; scire tuum, your knowledge (to know).
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; bōs, ox or cow.
a. If a noun signifying a thing without life may be either masculine or feminine, - as, diēs, 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 vulpēs, fox, is always feminine.

## Number and Case.

31. Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, and Participles have two Numbers, singular and plural; and 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 (Intr. § $15, \S$ 177). It is used also with many 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.
$h$. In names of towns and a few other words appear traces of another case (the Locative), denoting the place where.

## 3. 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.

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. But many end in $\mathbf{o}$, or in the liquids, $\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{r}$.
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.
b. In neuters the Nominative and Accusative are always alike, and in the plural end in ă.
c. The Accusative singular of all masculines and feminines ends in $\mathbf{m}$; the Accusative plural in $s$.
d. In the last three declensions (and in a few cases in the others) the Dative singular ends in $\mathbf{i}$.
e. The Dative and Ablative plural are always alike.
$f$. The Genitive plural always ends in um.
g. Final $\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{u}$ of inflection are always long; final $\mathbf{a}$ is short, except in the Ablative singular of the first declension; final $\mathbf{e}$ is long in the first and fifth declensions, short in the second and third.

Gem.
34. The Case-endings of the several declensions are the following, rare forms being given in parenthesis, Greek forms in italics :-
DECL. I.
II.
III.
IV. V.

## Sing.

N. ă, $\bar{e}, \bar{a} s, \bar{e} s$, us, um, er, os, on, eus $\mathbf{s}$ (or modified stem) us, $\bar{u}$ ès
G. ae (āi) $\bar{e} s \mathbf{i}$ (ius) $\bar{o}, \bar{u}, e i$
D. ae (ai) $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$ (ī) ei, e $\bar{o}$
A. am, àn, èn um, on, ea
v. $̆$ a, $\bar{e}, \bar{a} \quad \breve{e}(\bar{i})$ er, eu
A. $\overline{\mathrm{a}}, \bar{e} \overline{\bar{e}} \quad \overline{\mathbf{o}}, \boldsymbol{e} \overline{\boldsymbol{o}}$
is, yos, òs
ūs (uis) ēī (ē)
$\mathbf{i}$ ( $\check{\imath}$, rare)
$\mathbf{u} \overline{\mathrm{i}}(\overline{\mathrm{u}})$
ēi (e)

Plur.

| N.v. ae | i, ă | ēs, a, ia, els | บิs, ua | ès |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G. ārum (ūm) | ōrum (üm, ōm) $\overline{\text { on }}$ | um, ium, eōn | uum | ru |
| D.A. is (ābus) | is (\%̄bus | ìbus | ǐbus (ŭbus) | ēbu |
| A. ās | о̄s | ês (is), a, ia, | ūs, ua | ēs |

## FIRST DECLENSION.

35. The Stem of nouns of the First Declension ends in ă (originally $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ ), and except in Greek nouns the nominative is like the stem.

Nouns of the First Declension are thus declined:-

## SINGULAR.

Nom. stellă, $a$ (or the) star.
Gen. stellae, of a star.
Dat. stellae, to (or for) a star.
Acc. stellam, a star.
V.ac: stella, thou star!

Abl. stellã, with, from, etc., a star. stellis, with, from, etc., stars.

Gender. - Nouns of the first declension are Feminine.
Exceptions: Nouns masculine from their meaning: as, nauta, sailor. So a few family or personal names : as, Mūrēna, Scaevola.
36. Case-Forms. - $a$. The Genitive singular anciently ended in -äi, which is occasionally found : as, aulāi.
b. An old genitive in -ās is preserved in the word familiās, used in the combinations pater (māter, filius, filia) familiäs, 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, Rōmae, at Rome; Athēnis, at Athens.
d. The Genitive plural is sometimes found in -üm instead of -ārum, especially in compounds with cŏla and gĕna : as, caelicolūm, of the celestials; Troiugenūm, of the sons of Troy; Aeneadūm, of the sons of Eneas; so amphora and drachma.
e. The Dative and Ablative plural of dea, goddess, filia, daughter, end in an older form -ābus.

## 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.). | synopsis (F.). | the art of |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. aula | Enlectră (ā) | epitomē | mūsica ( $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ ) |
| Gen. aulae | Electrae | epitomēs | mūsicae (ès) |
| Dat. aulae | Electrae | epitomae | mūsicae |
| Acc. aulam | Electram (ān) | epitomēn | mūsicam (ēn) |
| Voc. aula | Eleetra | epitomè | mūsica (\%) |
| Abl. aulā | Electrā | epitomē | mūsicā (e) |

Andromache (ғ.). Eneas (м.). Leonidas (м.). a Persian(м.).
Nом. Andromachē (a) Aenēās Leōnidās Persēs (a)
Gen. Andromachēs (ae)/Aenēae Leōnidae Persae

Dat. Andromachae Aenēae Leōnidae Persae
Acc. Andromachēn (am) Aenēān (am) Leōnidam Persēn (am)
Voc. Andromachē (a) Aenēā (ă) Leēnidā (ă) Persa
Abl. Andromachē (̄̄a) Aenēā Leōnidā Persē (̄̄a)
Anchises (м.). son of Aneas (м.). comet (м.).

Nom. Anchiseēs
Gen. Anchīsae
Dat. Anchīsae
Acc. Anchīsēn (am)
Voc. Anchisee (â, ă)
Abl. Anchīsē (ā)

Aeneadēs (ă)
Aeneadae
Aeneadae
Aeneadēn
Aeneadē (ă)
Aeneadē (ā)
comētēs (a) comêtae comētae comētēn (am) comêtă comētā (ē)
a. Many Greek nouns vary between the first, the second, and the third declensions : as, Boōtae (gen. of Boōtēs, -is), Thūc̄̄̄didās (acc. plur. of Thūcȳdidēs, -is). See § 43. $a$ and § 63 .
b. Greek forms are found only in the singular; the plural is regular : as, comētae, -ārum, etc.

## SECOND DECLENSION.

38. The Stem of nouns of the Second Declension ends in ŏ (as of vir, virǒ-; servos (-us), servŏ-; dominus, dominŏ-). The nominative is formed from the stem by adding s in masculines and feminines, $m$ in neuters, the os being weakened to $\mathbf{u}$. But the ending -quo makes -cus (not quus).

In most nouns whose stem ends in ror the $s$ is not added, but $\mathbf{o}$ is lost, and $\mathbf{e}$ intrudes before $\mathbf{r}$, if not already present (cf. chamber from Fr. chambre): as, ager, stem agrö-, Greek ảypós.

Nouns of the Second Declension are thus declined :-

| Sing. slave (M.). <br> Stвm servo- | boy (м.). <br> puero- | $\begin{aligned} & \text { field (м.). } \\ & \text { acro- } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \operatorname{man}(\mathrm{M} .) . \\ \text { viro- } \end{gathered}$ | $\operatorname{war}(\mathrm{N} .) .$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom, servus (os) | puer | ager | vir | bellum |
| Gen. servi | pueri | agri | virī | belli |
| Dat. servō | puerō | agrō | virō | bellō |
| Acc. servum (om) | puerum | agrum | virum | bellum |
| Voc. serve | puer | ager | vir | bellum |
| Abl. servō | puerō | agrō | virō | beliō |
| Plur. |  |  |  |  |
| Nom. servi | pueri | agri | viri | bella |
| Gen. servōrum | puerōrum | agrōrum | virōrum | bellōrum |
| Dat. servis | pueris | agris | viris | bellis |
| Acc. servōs | puerös | agrōs | virōs | bella |
| Voc. sercy | риегіّ | agai | viri | bella |
| Abl. servis | pueris | agris | viris | bellis |

Note. - Stems in -quo, like equo- have ecus (equos), equī, equō, ecum (equom), eque. The rest is regular.
39. Gender. - Nouns ending in us (os), er, ir, are Masculine ; those ending in um (on) are Neuter.
a. Names of towns in us (os) are Feminine: as, Corinthus. Also many names of plants and gems, and some others.
b. The following in us are Neuter ; their accusative is the same as the nominative: pelagus (nom. acc. plur. pelagē), sea; virus, poison; vulgus (rarely m.), the crowd; so cētē, sea-monsters (nom. plur. without singular).
40. Case-Forms. - $a$. The Locative form of this declension ends for the singular in $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ : as, hum $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$, on the ground; Corinth $\mathbf{i}$, at Corinth; for the plural, in is: as, Philippis, at Philippi.
b. The genitive of nouns in ius or ium ends in a single i: as, fili, of $a$ son; but the accent of the nominative is retained : as, ingě'nī, of genius. ${ }^{1}$ The same contraction occurs in the genitive singular and the dative and ablative plural of nouns in -ảius and -eius: as, Gräis, for the Greeks; Pompēi, of Pompey.
c. Proper names in -ius lose $e$ in the vocative, retaining the accent of the nominative : as, Vergíli ; also, filius, son; genius, divine guardian; as, audi, mì fili, 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, O Spartan!
e. The genitive plural often has üm or (after v) ōm (cf. § 7) for ōrum, especially in the poets: as, deūm, superūm, divōm, of the Gods, virūm, of men. Also in compounds of vir, and in many words of money, measure, and weight : as, Sēvirūm, of the Seviri, nummūm, of coins, iūgerūm, of acres.
f. Deus, god, has vocative deus; plural : nominative and vocative deī or dī (for diī); genitive deōrum, deūm; dative and ablative deis or dis (for diis). For the genitive plur. divūm or divōm (from divus, divine) is often used.
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;
socar, father-in-law; vesper, evening.
Also, compounds in fer and ger (stem fero-, gero-) : as, lūcifer, morning star; armiger, squire.
a. Some of these have an old nominative in -erus : as, socerus. So vocative puere, aboy, as from puerus (regularly puer).
${ }^{1}$ 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 $y$.
§§ 42, 43.] UC. CTHIRD DECLENSION. il in
b. Vir, man, has gen, viri; the adjective satur, sated, has satŭui; vesper, evening, has abl. vespere (loc. vesperi, in the evening).
c. Liber (a name of Bacchus) has gen. Liberi; so, too, the adjective liber, free, of which liberi, children, is the plural ( $\$ 82.6$ ).
42. The following not having $e$ in the stem insert it in the nominative and vocative singular. (Cf. § го. d.) ager, field, st. agro-; coluber, snake; magister, master; aper, boar; arbiter, judge;
auster, south wind; cancer, crab; caper, goat; conger, sea-eel; minister, servant; culter, knife; oleaster, wild-olive; faber, smith; onager (-grus), wild-ass; fiben, beaver; scomber (-brus), mackerel. liber, book;
[N.B. - For the corresponding forms of Adjectives, see § 82.]
43. Greek nouns retain many original forms and are declined as follows in the Singular, the Plural being regular:-
fable (м.). mock-sun(n.). Delos (F.). Athos(м.). Orpheus(м.). Nom. mȳthos parēlion Dēlos \& Athōs (̄) Orpheus GEN. mȳthī parèlii $\sqrt{\text { Dēlī Athō (ī) Orpheī (eos) }}$ Dat. mȳthō parēliō Dēlō Athō Orpheī Acc. mȳthon parēlion Dēlon (um) Athōn (um) Orphea Voc. mȳthe parēlion Dēle Athōs Orpheu Abl. mȳthō parēliō Dēlō Athō Orpheō
a. Many names in -ès belonging to the third declension have also a genitive in -ī: as, Thūcȳdidēs, Thūcȳdidī (see $\S \S 37 . b$ and ${ }^{52}$ ).
b. Several names in -er have also a nom. in -us: as, Teucer or Teucrus. The name Panthūs has the vocative Panthū (§63. i). c. The genitive plural of certain titles of books takes the Greek termination -ōn : as, Geōrgicōn, of the Georgics.

## THIRD DECLENSION.

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

A few whose tems end in $\mathbf{u}$, formerly long (grūs, sūs), are 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 $(\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{a})$, it is suppressed before -s ; if it is a palatal ( $\mathbf{c}, \mathrm{g}$ ), it unites with $-\mathbf{s}$, forming -z : as, -
op-is, Ops, help; custōd-is, custōs, guardian; rēs-is, rēz, king. ${ }^{1}$
Neuters have for the nominative the simple stem (for some modifications, see § 45): -
capit-is, caput, head; poēmat-is, poēma, poem.
45. The vowel before the final consonant of the stem is often modified: as, -
adip-is, adeps; particip-is, particeps; aucup-is, auceps; hospit-is, hospes; capit-is, caput; cord-is, cor; poēmat-is, poēma; apic-is, apex; indicc-is, index; but, cornic-is, cornix.
46. Nouns of this class are declined as follows: $\qquad$
Sing. hèlp (F.). king (M.). guide (с.). soldier (M.). head (N.).

| StBM op- |  | rēg- | duc- | milit- |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | capit-

${ }^{1}$ In these the genitive is given first to show the stem as it is shown in vocabularies.
47. In like manner are declined -
princeps, -ipis (c.), chief;
lapis, -idis (M.), stone; custōs, -ōdis (C.), guard; comes, -itis (c.), companion;

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ariēs, -etis (M.), ram;
iūdex, -icis (M.), judge;
cornix, -icis (F.), raven;
poēma, -atis (N.), poem (§47.b).
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a. Many apparent mute-stems, ${ }^{1}$ having the genitive plural in -ium, are for convenience 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 apparent $\mathbf{i}$-stems belong here: canis, or canēs, gen. canis (stem orig. can-), $d o g$ (cf. § 54).

## $\prod$ 2. Liquid-Stems.

48. In nouns whose stem ends in a Liquid ( $1, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{r}$ ), the nominative is the same as the (modified) stem, as follows:-

As leōn-is, leō, lion; legiōn-is, legiō, legion; virgin-is virgō, maiden; homin-is, homō, man; turbin-is, turbō, whirlpool; Apollin-is, Apollō; carn-is, carō, flesh (see § 61); Aniēn-is, Aniō ; cornicin-is, cornicen (M.), horn-blower; carmin-is, carmen (N.), song; patr-is, pater, father; oper-is (originally opesis), opus, work; ciner-is, cinis, ashes.

Note. - A few Masculine and Feminine stems have a nom. in -s as well as -r : as, honōr-is, honōs (or honor) ; arbðr-is, arbōs (or arbor), tree.

Stems in 山-, $\mathbf{r r}$ - (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 (м.). lion (м.). maiden (F.). name (N.).

| Stzm cōnsul- | leōn- | virgin- | nōmin- |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. cōnsul | leō | virgō | nōmen |
| GEN. cōnsulis | leōnis | virginis | nōminis |
| DAt. cōnsulī | leōni | virginī | nōminī |
| Acc. cōnsulem | leōnem | virginem | nōmen |
| Voc. cōnsul | leō | virgō | nōmen |
| Abl. cōnsule | leōne | virgine | nōmine |

${ }^{1}$ That is, as appears from the nominative. No fast line can be drawn between mute-stems and i-stems, as they were confused in both ways.

50. In like manner are declined -
pater, patris (M.), father; furfur, -uris (м.), bran; opus, -eris (N.), work;
arbor (-ōs), -oris (F.), tree; honor (-ōs), -ōris (M.), honor; pignus, eris or -oris, pledge.

The following real or apparent liquid-stems have the genitive plural in -ium, and are for convenience classed with the $i$-stems : imber, linter, $\bar{u} t e r, ~ v e n t e r ; ~ f u ̄ r, ~ g l i s, ~ l a ̄ r, ~ m a ̄ s, ~ m u ̄ s ~[† r e ̄ n] ; ~ a l s o ~$ virēs (pl. from vis : see § 6r). $\Pi$
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 -8 to the stem.
a. Thirty-five nouns change $\mathbf{I}$ and $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ in the nominative, and many others vary between $\mathbf{i}$ and $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ : as, civēs, or civis, citizen: canēs or canis (treated as i-stem), dog.
b. The nominative of a few stems in bri- and tri- does not add -s, but loses $\mathbf{i}$, inserting e before $\mathbf{r}$. These are imber, linter, ūter, venter (§ 54, and cf. ager).
c. The nominative of neuters is the same as the stem, with the change of $\check{i}$ to $\breve{e}$ (as in mare). But when $i$ is preceded byal or ar, the $\mathbf{e}$ is lost, as in animal (§53.c).
52. Nouns of this class are declined as follows :-

Sing. thirst( F. ), tower ( F. ). cloud ( F. ). seat (N.). animal(N.).

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Stem } \\ & \text { Nom. } \end{aligned}$ | sitisitis | turriturris | nūbinūbēs | sedīlisedile | animālianimal |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gen. | sitis | turris | nūbis. | sedilis | animālis |
| Dat. | siti] | turrī | nūbị | sedili | animālī |
| Acc. | sitim | turrem (im) | nūbem | sedīle | animal |
| Voc. | sitis | turris | nūbēs | sedile | animal |
| Abl. | siti | turre (i) | nübe | sedili | animälī |
| Plur. |  |  |  |  |  |
| Nom. |  | turrēs | nūbēs | sedilia | animālia |
| Gen. |  | turrium | nūbium | sedīlium | animālium |
| Dat. |  | turribus | nūbibus | sedilibus | animālibus |
| Acc. |  | turris (ēs) | nūbis (ēs) | sedilia | animālia |
| Voc. |  | turrēs | nūbēs | sedilia | animālia |
| Abl. |  | turribus | nūbibus | sedilibus | animālibu |

53. Nouns of this class include -
a. Nouns in -ēs or -is (mostly feminine) or e (neuter) having the same number of syllables in the nominative and genitive (parisyllabic).
b. Those in -er, except pater, māter, frāter, accipiter.
c. Neuters in -al, -ar (originally neuters of adjectives in ālis, -āris) which have lost a final -e.
54. Many nouns with apparently consonant-stems were originally i-stems or confused with them. ${ }^{1}$ These are -
${ }^{1}$ The i-declension was confused even to the Romans, nor was it stable at all periods of the language, early Latin having i-forms which later disappeared. Nouns tended to lose the i-forms, Adjectives, to gain them.
55. Monosyllables with stem apparently ending in two consonants : as, urbs, mōns (gen. montis), nox (gen. noctis), arx ; together with imber, linter, ūter, venter ( $\S 51 . b$ ).
56. Stems in tāt- (as civitās, -ātis), ${ }^{1}$ or in d or t preceded by a consonant (including participles used as nouns) ; also the monosyllables đōs, [ $\dagger$ faux], fūr, glīs, lis, mās, mūs, nix, [ $\dagger$ rēn], strix, vis, scrobs (cf. §50).
57. Nouns denoting birth or abode, having stems in āt-, it-, originally adjectives: as, Arpinnās, -ātis (§ 164.c), with penātēs and optimātēs (§ 76. 2).

They are thus declined :-
Sing. city (F.). night (F.). age (F.). mouse(M.). shower(M.).

| Stem urbi- | nocti- | aetāti- | mūri- | imbri- |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. urbs | nox | aetās | mūs | imber |
| GEN. urbis | noctis | aetātis | mūris | imbris |
| DAT. urbī | noctī | aetāti | mū̆̄̄̄ | imbrī |
| Acc. urbem | noctem | aetātem | mūrem | imbrem |
| Voc. urbs | nox | aetās | mūs | imber |
| Abl. urbe | nocte | aetāte | mūre | imbre (ĩ) |

Plur.

| Nom. urbēs | noctēs | aetātēs | mūrēs | rēs |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gen. urbium | ctium | aetātum (ium) | mūrium | bbriu |
| Dat. urbibus | noctibus | tibus | müribus | imbribus |
| Acc. urbis (ēs) | noctis (ēs) | aètãtis (ês) | mūris (ès) | mbris (ēs) |
| Voc. urbēs | noctēs | etātēs | mūrēs | mbrēs |
| Abl. urbibus | noctibus | aetãtibus | mūribus | imbribus |

Note. - The declension of these nouns in the singular is exactly like that of consonant-stems, and in the plural like that of vowel-stems.
55. Vowel-stems (real or confused) show the i of the stem in the following forms :-
a. They almost all have the genitive plural in -ium, but some monosyllables lack it entirely. Exceptions are canis and iuvenis (originally consonant-stems), patrials in -ās, ātis and is, ītis, and a few others occasionally for metrical reasons, or from confusion; as, Arpīnās, Arpinātum; Samnis, Samnitum ; clādēe, clādum.
${ }^{1}$ These, however, more commonly have the genitive plural in -um.

## urbe urbes urbvim

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 -
I. In Greek nouns and names of rivers.
2. In būris, cucumis, rāvis, sitis, tussis, vis.
3. In adverbs in -tim (being accusatives of nouns in -tis), as partim ; and in amussim.
b. The accusative in -im is found sometimes in febris, puppis, restis, turris, secūris, sēmentis, and rarely in many other words.
57. The regular ablative singular of i-stems would end in -i: as, sitis, siti; but in most nouns this is changed to -e.
a. The ablative in - i is found exclusively -

1. In nouns having the accusative in -im (§56); also, secūris.
2. In aequālis, annālis, aquālis, cōnsuläris, gentilis, molāris, primipilāris, tribūlis used as nouns.
3. In neuters (whose nominative ends in -e, -al, -ar): except baccar, iubar, and sometimes (in verse) mare, rēte.
b. The ablative in -i is found sometimes -
4. In avis, clāvis, febris, finis, ignis, ${ }^{1}$ imber, nāvis, ovis, pelvis, puppis, sēmentis, strigilis, turris.
5. In affinis, bipennis, canālis, familiāris, nātālis, rīvālis, sapiēns, tridēns, trirēmis, vōcālis used as nouns.
c. The ablative of famēs is always famē. The defective māne has sometimes locative mānī 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.
${ }^{1}$ Always in the formula aquā et ìgnī interdīī ( $\$ 243 . a$ ).
6. The regular Nominative plural of i-stems would end in -is, but this is very rarely found in nouns. The regular Accusative in -is is common, but not exclusively used in any word.
7. 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, sēđēs, struēs, subolēs, vātēs, and patrials in -ās, -ātis; -īs, -itis; as, Arpinās, Arpīnātum ; Samnis, 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.
b. In the stem bov- (bou-) the diphthong ou becomes $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$ in the nominative (bōs, bŏvis). In nāv- (nau-) an $\mathbf{i}$ is added (nāvis, -is). In Iơv- (= Zcús) the diphthong (ou) becomes $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ in $\mathbf{I} \bar{u}$-piter (for -păter), gen. Iŏvis, etc.
c. In iter, itineris (N.), iecur, iecinoris (N.), supellex, supellectilis ( F .), the nominative is formed from a shorter stem, in senex, senis from a longer; so that these words show a mixture 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, -orrum), retains its proper form in the nominative.
61. Some peculiar forms are thus declined:-

Sing. ox,cow(C.).oldman(M.)flesh(F.). bone(N.). force(F.). swine(C.).

| N., V. | bōs | senez | carō | Os | vis | sūs |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gen. | bŏvis | senis | carnis | ossis | vīs (rare) | suis |
| Dat. | bovi | seni | carni | ossi | vī (rare) | suī |
| Acc. | bovem | senem | carnem | os | vim | suem |
| Abl. | bove | sene | carne | osse | vī | sue |
| Plur. | cattle |  |  |  | strength |  |
| N., A.,V | bovēs | senēs | carnēs | ossa | vīrēs | suēs |
| Gen. | boum | senum | carnium | ossium | virium | suum |
| D., Abl. | bōbus (būbus) | senibus | carnibus | ossibus | viribus | sŭbus <br> (suibus) |

## 5. Case-Forms.

62. The Locative form ends in the singular in -i or -e: as, rūri, in the country; Carthāgini or Carthāgine, at Carthage; in the plural in -ibus: as, Trallibus, at Tralles.

## 6. Greek Forms.

63. Many nouns originally Greek - mostly proper names - retain Greek forms of inflection.
a. Stems in in- (i long) : delphinus, $-\mathbf{1}$ (M.), has also the form delphin, -inis; Salamis, -inis (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, Agamemnōn (or Agamemnō), -ŏnis, accusative -ŏna.
d. Stems in ont- form the nom. in -ōn : as, horizōn, Xenophōn; but a few are occasionally Latinized into ōn- (nom. - $\overline{\text { o }}$ ) : as, Dracō, -ōnis.
$e$. Stems in ant-, ent- have the nom. in -ās, -is: as adamās, -antis ; Simois, -entis. So a few in ūnt- (contracted from oeent-) have - $\overline{\mathrm{u}} \mathrm{s}$ : as, Trapezūs, -ūntis. Occasionally the Latin form of nominative is also found : as, Atlāns, elephāns, as well as Atlās, elephās.
f. Many Greek nouns have gen. -ŏs, acc. -ă; plur. nom. -ĕs, acc. -ăs: as, āēr, aethēr, crātēr, hērōs (-ōis), lampas (-ădis or -ădos), 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, -yi, -yn, -y, -yë.
$h$. Several feminine names in $-\bar{o}$ have gen. sing. $-\overline{\mathrm{u}}$, all the other cases ending in - $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$; they may also have regular forms: as, Didē, gen. Dīānis or Dīaūs ; dat. Dīđōnī or Dīdō, etc.
i. Several Greek forms are irregularly retained in the vocative : as, Panthūs, voc. Panthū ; Orpheus, Orpheu; Atlās, Atlā; Daphnis, Daphnĭ; Periclēs, Periclē (cf. § 43).
64. Some of these forms are seen in the following examples :-

| Sing. hero(м.) <br> Sтвм hēēō- | $\operatorname{torch}(\mathrm{F}$. lampad- | base(F.). nai basi- | $i a d(F .) .$ <br> naid- | $\begin{aligned} & \text { tiger }(\mathrm{C} .) . \\ & \text { tigrid-(tigri-) } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N., V. hērōs | lampas | basis | năis | tigris |
| Gen. hērōis | lampados | baseōs | näidos | tigris (idos) |
| Dat. hērōī | lampadi | basì | nāidī | tigri |
| Acc. hērōa | lampada | basin | nāida | tigrin (ida) |
| Abl. hērōa | lampade | basī | nāide | tigrī (ide) |
| Plur. |  |  |  |  |
| N., V. hērōĕs | lampadĕs | basēs | nāidĕs | tigrēs |
| Gen. hērōum | lampadum | basium(eōn) | nāidum | tigrium |
| D., A. ${ }^{1}$ hērōibus | lampadibus | basibus | nāidibus | tigribus |
| Acc. hērōăs | lampadăs | basis (eis) | nāidăs | tigriss (idăs) |

## PROPER NAMES.

| Nom | Atlās | Didō | Simois | Capys | , |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 硣 | Drdonis (a) | Simoentis | Capyos | Daphnidis |
| Dat. | lanti | Dīdōnī ( $\overline{\text { c }}$ ) | Simoenti |  | Daphnidī |
| Acc. | Atlanta | Dīdōnem (\%) | Simoent | Capyn | Daphnim (in |
| Vo | Atlās (a) | Dīdō | Simois | Capy | Daphnir |
| Abl. | Atlante | Dīdōne ( $\overline{\text { ¢ }}$ ) | Simoente | Capye | 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.
a. Masculine endings are $-\overline{0},-o r$, -ōs, -er, -ĕs (gen. -ǐdis, -ǐtis).
b. Feminine endings are -ās (gen. ātis), -ès (gen. -is), -is, -ys, -x, -s (following a consonant) ; also, - $\bar{\chi} \overline{0},-g \bar{o}$ (gen. -inis), -ī̄ (abstract and collective), and - $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ (gen. $\bar{u}$ dis, $-\bar{u} t i s$ ).
c. Neuter endings are $-\mathrm{a},-\mathbf{e},-\mathbf{i},-\mathbf{y} ;-\mathrm{c},-\mathbf{1},-\mathbf{t}$; -men (gen. -mĭnis) ; -ar, -ur, -ŭs (gen. -oris, -oris).

Note. - All these have exceptions.
66. For general Rules for the Gender of nouns of the third declension, classed according to their stems, see Allen and Greenough's larger grammar.

[^0]67. For the Forms of Inflection of nouns of the third declension, classed according to their stems, see Allen and Greenough's larger grammar.

## FOURTH DECLENSION.

68. The Stem of nouns of the Fourth Declension ends in $\boldsymbol{u}$, weakened to $\mathbf{i}$, before -bus. Masculine and feminine nouns form the nominative by adding -8 ; neuters have for nominative the simple stem, but with $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ (long).

Nouns of the Fourth Declension are thus declined:-

| Sing. | hand (F.). | lake (M.). | knee (N.). |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. | manus | lacus | genū |
| Gen. | manūs | lacūs | gen $\bar{u}$ ( $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ s) |
| Dat. | manuī ( $\overline{\text { u }}$ ) | lacui ( $\bar{u}$ ) | genū |
| Acc. | manum | lacum | gen $\bar{u}$ |
| Voc. | manus | lacus | genū |
| Abl. | man̄ | $\mathrm{lac} \overline{\mathbf{u}}$ | genū |
| Plur. |  |  |  |
| Nom. | manūs | lacūs | genua |
| Gen. | manuum | lacuum | genuum |
| Dat. | manibus | lacubus | genibus |
| Acc. | manūs | lacūs | genua |
| Voc. | manūs | lacūs | genua |
| Abl. | manibus | lacubus | genibus |

69. Gender. - a. Most nouns in -us are Masculine. The following are Feminine : acus, anus, colus, domus, ĩ̄ūs (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 corn $\bar{u}$, gen $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$, pec $\bar{u}$, ver $\bar{u}$.
70. CASE-FORMS. - $a$. The uncontracted form -uis (sometimes -uos) is sometimes found in the genitive, as senātuos; and an old (irregular) genitive in $-\mathbf{i}$ is used by some writers : as, ornātī, senāti.
$b$. 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 (but sometimes portibus, veribus) ; also dissyllables in -cus: as, lacus.
$e$. Most names of plants, and colus, distaff, have also forms of the second declension.
f. Domus, house, has two stems, ending in u- and o- (cf. gen. in $-i, \S 70 . a$ ), and is declined as follows: ${ }^{1}$ -

SINGULAR.
N., V.

Gen.
Dat.
Acc.
Abl. domō (dom $\overline{\mathbf{u}})$

PLURAL.

## domūs

domuum (domōrum)
domibus
domōs (domūs) domibus
$g$. The only locative form of the fourth declension is domui. But even this is rare, and dom $\overline{\overline{1}}$ is almost universally used instead.
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, canō, sing.
a. The accusative and ablative (or dative, perhaps both) of these nouns form the Supines of verbs (§ IO9.c) : as, auditum, visū.
b. Of many verbal derivatives only the ablative is used as a noun : as, iūssū (mē̄), by (my) command; so iniūssū, without orders. Of some only the dative : as, memorātū̃, divisuī.

## FIFTH DECLENSION.

72. The Stem of nouns of the Fifth Declension ends in $\overline{\text { e }}$ - The nominative is formed from it by adding -s.

These nouns are thus declined:-

|  | SING. thing (F.) PLUR. Stem rē- |  | SING. day (M.). PLUR. die- |  | faith (F.) fidē |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. | rēs | rēs | diēs | diēs | fidēs |
| Gen. | rĕi | rērum | diēī (diē) | diērum | fiděì |
| Dat. | rěi | rēbus | diēī (diē) | diēbus | fiděi |
| Acc. | rem | rēs | diem | diēs | fidem |
| Voc. | rēs | rēs | diēs | diēs | fidess |
| Abl. | re | rēbus | diē | diēbus | fide |

[^1]Note. - The ē has been shortened in the genitive and dative singular of fidēs, spees, rēs, but in these it is found long in early Latin.
73. Gender. - All nouns of this declension are feminine, except diēs (usually m.), day, and merīdiēs (м.), noon. Diēs is sometimes feminine in the singular, regularly so when used of time in general : as, longa diēs, a long time; cōnstitūtā diē, on a set day; also in the poets: as, pulchra diēs, a fine day.
74. Case-Forms. - $a$. The Genitive singular anciently ended in -ēs (cf. -äs of first declension, § 36.b). The genitive ending -ēi was sometimes contracted into -è, -i, or -ē : as, diii (Æn. i. 636), and the phrases plēbī-scītum, tribūnus plēbề.
b. The fifth declension is only a variety of the first, and several nouns have forms of both : as, māteria, -iēs; saevitia, -iēs.
c. The Locative of this declension ends in - $\bar{e}$. It is found in certain adverbs and expressions of time: as, hodiē (for hoi-diē, cf. huic), to-day; perendiē, day after to-morrow; diē quārtō (old, quārti), the fourth day; pridiē, the day before.
d. Of nouns of the fifth declension, diēs and rēs only are declined throughout. Most want the plural, which is found, however, in the nominative and accusative in the following : aciēs, effigiēs, ēluviēs, faciēs, glaciēs, seriēs, speciēs, spēs.

## DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

75. Some nouns are ordinarily found in the Singular number only (singulāria tantum). These are -
76. Most proper names : as Caesar, Casar, Gallia, Gaul.
77. Names of things not counted, but reckoned in mass : as, aurum, gold; āer, air; triticum, wheat.
78. Abstract nouns : as, ambitiō, ambition; fortitūdō, 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 Caesarès, the twelve Casars; Galliae, the two Gauls (Cis- and Transalpine) ; Castŏrēs, Castor and Pollux; Iovēs, images of Jupiter.
b. Particular objects may be denoted : as, aera, bronze utensils, nivès, snowflakes; or different kinds of a thing: as, āeres, airs (good and bad).
c. The plural of abstract nouns denotes instances of the quality, or the like: as, quaedam excellentiae, some cases of superiority; calōrēs, frigora, times of heat and cold. (See also § 79. d.)
76. Some nouns are commonly found only in the Plural (plürālia tantum [cf. §79.c]). Such are-

1. Many proper names : as, Athēnae, Athens, Thūriī, Philippī, Vēii, names of towns, especially names of festivals and games : as, Olympia, the Olympic Games; Bacchānālia, feast of Bacchus; lūdī Rōmänī, the Roman Games.
2. Names of classes : as, optimātēs, the upper classes; māiōrēs, ancestors; lïberi, children; penātēs, household gods.
3. Words plural by signification: as, arma, weapons; artūs, joints; divitiae, riches; scālae, stairs; valvae, folding-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, Catō Māior, Cato the Elder.
c. In another sense : as, scāla, a ladder; artus, a joint.
77. Many nouns are defective in case forms. For lists, see Allen and Greenough's larger grammar.

## Variable nouns.

78. Many nouns vary either in Declension or Gender. For lists, see Allen and Greenough's larger grammar. The dictionary gives sufficient information in each case.
79. Many nouns have irregularities of Number either in their ordinary or occasional use.
a. Many nouns vary in meaning in the Singular and Plural : as, -
aedēs, -is (F.), temple;
aqua ( F. ), water; auxilium (n.), help; bonum (N.), a good; carcer (N.), dungeon; castrum (N.), fort; comitium (N.), place of assembly; cōpia (F.), plenty;
fidēs ( F .), harp string;
finis (M.), end;
grātia (F.), favor (rarely, thanks);
impedimentum ( N. ), hindrance;
littera ( F. ), letter (of alphabet);
locus (м.), place [pl. loca (N.)];
lūdus (м.), sport;
opera (F.), work; [ops] opis (F.), help (§ 46);
pars (F.), a part;
rōstrum (土.), beak of a ship;
sāl (M. or N. ), salt;
aedēs, -ium, house.
aquae, a watering-place.
auxilia, auxiliaries.
bona, property.
carcerēs, barriers (of race-course).
castra, camp.
comitia, an election(town meeting).
cōpiae, troops.
fiđēs, lyre.
finēs, bounds, territories.
grātiae, thanks (also, the Graces).
impedimenta, baggage.
litterae, epistle.
loci, topics.
lūdī, public games.
operae, day-laborers ("hands").
opēs, resources, wealth.
partēs, part (on the stage), party.
rōstra, speaker's platform.
salēs, witticisms.
b. The singular of a noun usually denoting an individual is sometimes used collectively to deriote a group : as, Poenus, the Carthaginians; miles, the soldiery; eques, the cavalry.
c. Of many nouns the plural is usually, but not exclusively, used : as, cervicēs, the neck; Quiritēs, Romans; viscera, flesh.
d. The poets often use the plural for the singular for metrical reasons, or from a mere fashion : as, ōra (for ōs), the face; scēptra (for scēptrum), sceptre; silentia (for silentium), silence.

## 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 praenomen, or personal name; Tullius, the nomen (properly an
adjective), i.e. the name of the gens, or house, whose supposed original head was a Tullus ; Cicerō, the cōgnōmen, or family name.

Note. - When two persons of the same family are mentioned together, the cognomen is usually in the plural : as Püblius et Servius Sullae.
b. A fourth or fifth name was sometimes given. Thus the complete name of Scipio the Younger was Pūblius Cornëlius Scipiō 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 nomen 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.

App. Appius.
C. (G.) Gāius (Caius) (cf. § 6). Cn. (Gn.) Gnaeus (Cneius).
D. Decimus.
K. Kaeso (Caeso).

## L. Lū̄ius. <br> M. Mārcus. <br> M'. Mānius.

Mam. Māmercus. Sp. Spurius.
N. Numerius.
P. Pūblius.
Q. Quintus.

Ser. Servius.
Sex. Sextus.
T. Titus.

Ti. Tiberius.

## 4. ADJECTIVES.

## INFLECTION.

Adjectives and Participles are formed and declined like Nouns, differing only in their use. They distinguish gender by different forms in the same word, and agree with their nouns in gender, number, and case. They are (1) of the First and Second Declensions, or (2) of the Third Declension.

## 1. First and Second Declensions.

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

## SINGULAR.

PLURAL。
M. F. N. M. F.

| STEM bono- | bona- | bono- |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| NOM. bonus | bonă | bonum | bonī | bonae | bona |
| GEN. bonī | bonae | bonī | bonōrum | bonārum | bonōrum |
| DAT. bonō | bonae | bonō | bonīs | bonis | bonīs |
| ACC. bonum | bonam | bonum | bonōs | bonās | bona |
| Voc. bone | bona | bonum | bonī | bonae | bona |
| AbL. bonō | bonā | bonō | bonīs | bonīs | bonīs |

Note. - Stems in quo- have nominative -cus, -qua, -cum, accusative -cum, -quam, -cum, to avoid -qui, (see § 7). Thus, -

| NOM. relicus (-quos) | reliqua | relicum (-quom) |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| GEN. | reliquī | reliquae | reliquī, etc. |

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.
82. Stems ending in ro- preceded by er 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 :-

Sing.
miser, wretched.
Sтвм misero-, a-, o-
N. miser misera miserum niger
G. miserī miserae miserī nigrì
D. miserō

Ac. miserum
V. miser

Ab. miserō
Plur.
N. miserī miserae misera ntgrī nigrae nigra
G. miserōrum miserārum
D. miseris

Ac. miserō
V. miserī

Ab. miseris
miser miserās miserae misera nigri miseris miseris nigris
niger, black.
nigro-, a-, o-
nigra nigrum
nigrae nigri
nigrae nigrō
nigram nigrum
nigra nigrum
nigrā nigrō

Note. - Which type is followed is shown by the dictionary.
a. Stems in ēro- (as prōcērus), with mōrigěrus, propērus, have the regular nominative masculine in -us.
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, -terius, the other.
nūllus, no, none.
sōlus, alone.
ūllus, any.
ūnus, one. uter, -trius, which (of two).

Of these the singular is thus declined :-

a. The plural of these words is regular, like that of bonus.
b. The $\mathbf{i}$ of the genitive-ending -ius, may be short in verse.

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

In compounds sometimes both parts are declined, sometimes only the latter. Thus, alteri utri or alterutri, to one of the twa.

## 2. Third Declension.

Adjectives of the third declension are of onc, two, or three terminations.
84. Adjectives of the third declension having stems in $\mathbf{i}$ - distinguished by being parisyllabic (§53. a) - have but one form for both masculine and feminine, with 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 :-
lĕvis (stem levi-), light.
singular.
M., F.

| N., V. | levis | leve |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Gen. | levis | levis |
| Dat. | levī | levī |
| Acc. | levem | leve |
| Abl. | levì | levì |

PLURAL.
M., F. N.
levēs levia levium levium levibus levibus levis (ēs) levia levibus levibus
a. The following stems in ri- have a masc. nom. in -er; ācer, alacer, campester, celeber, equester, palūster, peđester, puter, salūber, silvester, terrester, volucer, and are called adjectives of three terminations. So, also, celer, celeris, celere; and names of months in -ber (cf. § $5 \mathrm{r} . \mathrm{b}$ ) : as, Octōber.

These are declined as follows :-
ācer, keen.
Sтем äcri-
SINGULAR.

|  | M. | F. | N. | M. | F. | N. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N., V. | ācer | ācris | ācre | ācrēs | ācrēs | ācria |
| Gen. | ācris | ācris | ācris | ācrium | ãcrium | ācrium |
| Dat. | $\overline{\text { ācrī }}$ | ācrī | ācrī | ācribus | ācribus | ācribus |
| Acc. | ācrem | ācrem | ācre | ācris (ēs) | ācris (ēs) | ācri |
| Abl. | ācrī | $\overline{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{Crī}$ | ācrı | ācribus | ācribus | ācribus |

Note. - This formation is comparatively late, and hence, in the poets, either the masculine or the feminine form was sometimes used for both genders : as, coetus alacris (Enn.). In others, as faenebris, fünebris, illūstris, lūgubris, mediocris, muliebris, there is no separate masculine form. Thus, -

> illūstris, brilliant.
> Sтем iun̄stri-

SINGULAR.
M., $\mathbf{F}$.
N., V. illūstris

GEN. illūstris illūstris
Dat. illūstrī illūstrī
Acc. illūstrem illūstre
Abl. illūstrī illūstrī

PLURAL.
M., F. N.
illūstrēs
illūstria
illūstrium illūstrium
illūstribus illūstribus
illūstris (ēs) illūstria
illūstribus illūstribus
b. Case-Forms. - Adjectives of two and three terminations, being true $i$-stems, retain in the ablative singular $-\bar{i}$, in the neuter plural -ia, in the genitive plural -ium, and in the accusative plural regularly -is. But the forms of some are doubtful.

Note.-An ablative in -e is sometimes found in poetry.
c. celer, swift, as a noun, denoting a military rank, has celerum in the genitive plural. The 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 $-\bar{i}$, 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. All except stems in $\mathbf{1}$ - or $\mathbf{r}$ - form the nominative singular from the stem by adding -s.
a. Adjectives of one termination are declined as follows :-
> atrōx, fierce.

Sтвм atrōc-
Sing.

| N., V. | atrōx | atrōx |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| GEn. | atrōcís | atrōcis |
| Dat. | atrōcī | atrōcī |
| Acc. | atrōcem | atrōx |
| Abl. | atrōcī (e) | atrōcī (e) |

egēne, needy.
Sтвм egent-
M., F.
egēns
egentis
egenti
egentem
egentī (e)
N.
egēns egentis egenti egēns egenti (e)

Plur.

| N., V. | atrōcēs | atrōcia | egentēs | egentia |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Gen. | atrōcium | atrōcium | egentium | egentium |
| DAT. | atrōcibus | atrōcibus | egentibus | egentibus |
| Acc. | atrōcīs $(\bar{e} s)$ | atrōcia | egentīs (ēs) | egentia |
| Abl. | atrōcibus | atrōcibus | egentibus | egentibus |

b. Other examples are the following :-

|  | concors, harmonious. Stem concord- |  | iēns, going. cunt- |  | pār, equal. par- |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sing. | M., F. | N. | M., F. | N. | M., F. | N. |
| N., V. | concors | concors | -̄n | iēns | pār | pār |
| Gen. | concordis | concordis | untis | euntis | păris | păris |
| Dat. | concordi | concordi | unti | eunti | pari | parī |
| Acc. | concordem | concors | euntem | iēns | parem | pār |
| Abl. | concordi | concordi | eunte (i) | unt | parī | pari |

Plur.
N., V. concordēs concordia euntēs euntia pares paria

GEN. concordium concordium euntium euntium parium parium
D., Abl. concordibus concordibus euntibus euntibus paribus paribus

Acc. concordis(ēs) concordia euntis(ēs)euntia paris(ēs) paria
praeceps, headlong. dives, rich. ūber, fertile.
Stвm praecipit-
divit-
M., F. N. M., F. N,
Sing. M., F. N. M., F. N. M., F. N,
N., V. praeceps praeceps dives dīves ūber ūber

GEN. praecipitis praecipitis
DAT. praecipiti praecipiti
Acc. praecipitem praeceps
Abl. praecipiti praecipiti
Plur.
N., V. praecipitēs praecipitia dīvitēs [dītia] ūberēs ūbera Gen. [praecipitium] dīvitum dīvitum überum überum D., Abl. praecipitibus praecipitibus dīvitibus dīvitibus ūberibus ūberibu Acc. praecipitis(ēs) praecipitia dīvitīs(ēs) [dīvitia] ūberēs ūbera vetus, old.

STEM veter- (for vetes or vetos-)
SINGULAR.
M., F.
N., V. vetus

Gen. veteris
Dat. veterī
Acc. veterem
Abl. vetere
N.
vetus
veteris
veteri
vetus
vetere

PLURAL.
M., F.
veterēs
veterum
veteribus veterēs
veteribus
N.
vetera veterum veteribus vetera veteribus
${ }^{1}$ Given by grammarians, but not found.

Note. - Of these vetus is originally an $s$-stem. In most $s$-stems the $\mathbf{r}$ has intruded itself into the nominative also, as bi-corpor (for bi-corpos), dē-gener (for dè-genēs).
c. A few of these adjectives used as nouns, have a feminine form in -a: as, clienta, hospita, so the appellative Iūnō Sōspita.

## 3. Comparatives.

86. Comparatives are declined as follows:-
melior, better.
Stem melior- for melios-
Sing.
N., V. melior

Gen. meliōris
Dat. meliōrī
Acc. meliōrem
Abl. meliōre (ī)
Plur.
N., V. meliōrēs

Gen. meliōrum
Dat. meliōribus
Acc. meliōris (ēs)
Abl. meliōribus
N.
melius meliōris meliōrī melius meliōre (i)
meliōra meliōrum meliōribus meliōra meliōribus
plūs, more.
plūr- for plīs-
M., F.
-
-
-
-

- plūre
plūrēs plūra
plūrium plūrium
plūribus plūribus
plūris (ès) plūra plūribus plūribus
a. The stem of comparatives properly ended in os-; but this became or- except in the neuter singular (nom., acc., voc.), where s is retained, and $\begin{aligned} \\ \text { is changed to } \\ \mathrm{u} \\ \text { (cf. honŏr, corpus). Thus com- }\end{aligned}$ paratives 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 $-\mathbf{i}$; but adjectives used as nouns (as superstes, survivor) have ee. Participles in -ns
used as such, or as nouns, regularly have -e; but when used as adjectives, -i.

The following have uniformly -i: āmēns, anceps, concors (and other compounds of cor), cōnsors (but as a substantive, -e,) dēgener, hebes, ingēns, inops, memor (and its compounds), pār (in prose), perpes, praeceps, praepes, teres.
b. The following have regularly -e: caeles, compos [ $\dagger$ dēses], dives, hospes, pauper, particeps, princeps, superstes, sōspes; also patrials (see § 54. 3) and stems in āt-, it-, nt-, 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 $\mathbf{i}$ - declension.
d. The genitive plural ends in -um :-

1. Always in dives, compos, inops, particeps, princeps, 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. (Über has also $-\overline{1}$ in abl.)
f. I. Several adjectives vary in declension : as, gracilis (-us), hilaris (-us), inermis (-us), bicolor (-ōrus).
3. A few are indeclinable: as, damnās, frūgī, nēquam.
4. Several are đefective : as, exspēs (only nom.), exlēx, exlēgem (only nom. and acc. sing.), pernoz, pernocte (only nom. and abl. sing.) ; primōris, sēminecis, which lack the nom. sing.

## 5. Special Uses.

88. The following special uses are to be observed:-
a. Many adjectives have the meaning and construction of nouns : as, amicus, a friend; aequālis, a contemporary; māiōrēs, ancestors.
b. Many adjectives, from their signification, can be used only in the masculine and feminine. Such are adulēscēns, youthful; [ $\dagger$ dēses], -idis, slothful; inops, -opis, poor; sōspes, -ǐtis, safe. So, senex, old man, and iuvenis, young man, are masculine only.
c. Many nouns may be used as adjectives: as, pedes, a footman or on foot : so especially nouns in -tor (M.) and -trix (F., also as N.), denoting the agent: as, victor exercitus, the conquering army; victricia arma, victorious arms.
d. Certain forms of many adjectives are regularly used as adverbs. These are the accusative and ablative of the neuter singular : as, multum, multō, much; and the neuter singular of comparatives : as, melius, better; levius, more lightly.

## COMPARISON.

Latin, as English, has three degrees of comparison : the Positive, Comparative, and Superlative.

## 1. Regular Comparison.

89. The Comparative is formed by adding -ior (neuter -ius), 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. aecus, equal (st. aequo); aequior, more equal; aequissimus, most equal. levis, light (st. levi-); levior, lighter; levissimus, lightest. fêlix, happy (st.fēlic-); fêlicior, happier; felicissimus,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) veterrimus; 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, facilior, facillimus.
c. Compounds in -dicus (saying), -ficus (doing), -volus (willing) take in comparison the forms of corresponding participles in -ns: as,-
maledicus, slanderous; maledicentior, maledicentissimus.
malevolus, spiteful; malevolentior, malevolentissimus.
d. Adjectives in -us preceded by a vowel rarely have forms of comparison, but take the adverbs magis, more; māximē, most : as, -
idōneus, fit; magis idōneus, māximē idōneus.
So, also, most derivatives in -ǐcus, -ĭdus, -ālis, -āris, -ilis, -ŭlus, -undus, -timus, -inus, -ivus, -ōrus, with many compounds (as dēgener, inops) take magis and māximē.
e. Participles used as adjectives are regularly compared : as, -
patiēns, 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, gfeat, greater, greatest.
parvus, minor, minimus, small, less, least.
multus, plūs (N.), plūrimus, much, more, most.
multi, plūrēs, plūrimī, many, more, most.
nēquam (indecl.), nēquior, nēquissimus, worthless.
frūgī (indecl.), frūgālior, frūgālissimus, useful, worthy.
dexter, dexterior, dextimus, on the right, handy.
Note. - These irregularities arise from the use of different stems.
91. Some Comparatives and Superlatives appear without a Positive : -
a. The following are formed from stems not used as adjectives : -
cis, citrā (adv. on this side) : citerior, citimus, hither, hithermost.
in, intrā (prep. in, within): interior, intimus, inner, inmost.
prae, prō (prep. before) : prior, primus, former, first.
prope (adv. near) : propior, prozimus, nearer, next.
ūltrā (adv. beyond) : ūlterior, $\bar{u} l t i m u s$, farther, farthest.
b. Of the following the positives are rare, except as nouns :-
exterus, exterior, extrēmus (extimus), outer, outmost.
[inferus], inferior, infimus (imus), lower, lowest (§ 82. $d$ ).
[posterus], posterior, postrēmus (postumus), latter, last.
[superus], superior, suprēmus or summus, higher, highest.
But the plurals exterì, foreigners; inferi, the gods below; posteri, posterity; superi, the heavenly gods, are common.
c. From iuvenis, youth, senex, old man are formed iūnior, younger, senior, older. For these minor nātū and māior nātū are sometimes used (nāt $\bar{u}$ being often omitted). The superlative is regularly expressed by minimus and māximus, with or without nātū.
$d$. In the following, one or other of the forms of comparison is wanting :-
92. The positive is wanting in dēterior, dēterrimus; ōcior, ōcissimus ; potior, potissimus.
93. The comparative is wanting in bellus, caesius, falsus, fidus (with its compounds), inclutus, invictus, invitus, novas, pius, sacer, vafer, vetus (§89. ${ }^{\text {) }}$ ).
94. The superlative is wanting in agrestis, alacer, arcānus, caecus, điūturnus, exilis, ingēns, iēiūnus, longincus, oblicus, opimus, prōclivis, propincus, satur, sēgnis, ṡerus, supinus, surdus, taciturnus, tempestivus, teres, vicinus, and in some adjectives in -ilis.

Note. - Many adjectives -as aureus, golden - are from their meaning incapable of comparison; but each language has its own usage.

## 3. Comparison of Adverbs.

92. The comparative of an Adverb is the neuter accusative of the comparative of the corresponding Adjective ; the superlative is the Adverb in $-\bar{e}$ formed regularly from the superlative of the Adjective : as, -
cārē, dearly (from cārus, dear) ; cārius, cārissimē.
misere, wretchedly (from miser, wretched) ; miserius, miserrimē. leviter (from levis, light); levius, levissimē. audācter (audāciter) (from audāx, bold); auđācius, auđācissimē. benĕ, well (from bonus, good); melius, optimē.
malĕ, ill (from malus, bad); pēius, pessimē.
antiquē, anciently, (from anticus), antíquius, antiquissimē.

The following are irregular or defective :-
diū, long (in time); diūtius, diūtissimē.
potius, rather; potissimum, first of all, in preference to all.
saepe, often; Eaepius, oftener, again; saepissimē.
satis, enough; satium preferable.
secus, otherwise; sècius worse,
multum (multō), magis, māximē, much, more, most.
parum, not enough, minus, less, minimē, 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; audacior, too bold.
b. The Superlative (of eminence) may denote a very high degree of a quality with no distinct comparison, often strengthened by quam, vel, or ūnus: as, māximus numerus, a very great number; quam plūrimi, as many as possible; quam māximē potest (māximē quam potest), as much as can be; virum ünum doctissimum, the one most learned man.
c. With quisque, each, the superlative has a peculiar signification. Thus the phrase ditissimus quisque means, all the richest (each richest man) ; primus quisque, all the first (each first man in his order). ${ }^{1}$ Two superlatives with quisque imply a proportion: as, -
sapientissimus quisque aequissimō animō moritur (Cat. Maj. 83), the wisest men die with the greatest equanimity.
d. A high degree of a quality is also denoted by such adverbs as admodum, valdē, very, or by per or prae in composition: as, valdē malus, very bad; permāgnus, very great; praealtus, very high.
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; nōn satis, not much.

[^2]
## NUMERALS.

## 1. Cardinal and Ordinal.

94. Cardinal numbers are the regular numbers used in counting. Ordinal numbers 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.

r. ūnus, üna, ūnum, one.
2. duo, duae, duo, two.
3. trēs, tria, three.
4. quattuor (quātuor)
5. quīnque
6. sex
7. septem
8. octō
9. novem
10. decem
11. ūndecim
12. duodecim
13. tredecim (decem et trēs)
14. quattuordecim
15. quïndecim
16. sēdecim
17. septendecim
18. duodēvīgintī (octōdecim)
19. ūndēvīgintī (novendecim)
20. vīgintī
21. vīgintī ūnus
(or ūnus et vīgintī)
30. trīgintā
40. quadrāgintā
50. quīnquāgintā
60. sexāgintā
70. septuāgintā

ORDINAL.
prïmus, -a, -um, first.
secundus (alter), second. II.
tertius, third. III.
quārtus IV.
quintus v .
sextus vi.
septimus vir.
octāvus viII.
nōnus IX.
decimus x .
ūndecimus . xı.
duodecimus xiI.
tertius decimus xiil.
quārtus decimus xiv.
quīntus decimus xv .
sextus decimus xvi.
septimus decimus xvir.
duodēvicēnsimus xviil.
ūndēvīcēnsimus xix.
vìcēnsimus (vīënsimus) xx .
vīcēnsimus primus Xxi.
(ūnus et vīcēnsimus, etc.)
trīcēnsimus Xxx .
quadrăgēnsimus xL.
quīnquāgēnsimus L.
sexāgēnsimus LX.
septuāgēnsimus Lxx.

CARDINAL.
80. octōgintā
90. nōnāgintā
100. centum
ror. centum (et) ūnus, etc.
200. ducentī, -ae, -a
300. trecentī
400. quadringentī
500. quīngentī
600. sexcentī (sēscentī)
700. septingentī
800. octingentī
900. nōngentī
1000. mille
5000. quĭnque mīlia (millia)
ro,000. decem mīlia (millia) 100,000. centum milia (millia)
ordinal.
ROMAN NUMERALS.
octōgēnsimus Lxxx.
nōnāgēnsimus xc.
centēnsimus c.
centēnsimus prīmus, etc. CI.
ducentēnsimus cc.
trecentēnsimus CCC.
quadringentēnsimus CCCC.
quīngentēnsimus $\quad 10$, or $D$.
sexcentēnsimus DC.
septingentēnsimus DCC.
octingentēnsimus DCCC.
nöngentēnsimus DCCCC.
millēnsimus $\quad \mathrm{Cl} 3$, or M .
quīnquiēns millēnsimus Iวう.
deciēns millēnsimus ccioj.
centiēns millēnsimus ccciojo.

Note. - The forms in -ēnsimus are often written without the n : as, vicēsimus, etc.
a. For the inflection of ūnus, see $\S 83$. It often has the meaning of same or only. The plural is used in this sense; but also, as a simple numeral, with a plural noun of a singular meaning : as, ūna castra, one camp (cf. § 95.b). The plural occurs also in the phrase ūni et alterī, one party and the other (the ones and the others).
b. Duo, two, and ambō, both, are thus declined :-

| NOM. | duo | duae | duo |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| GEN. | duōrum | duārum | duōrum |
| DAt. | duōbus | duābus | duōbus |
| Acc. | duōs (duo) | duās | duo |
| Abl. | duōbus | duābus | duōbus |

c. Trēs, tria, three, is an i-stem, and is regularly declined like the plural of levis (see §84). The other cardinal numbers, up to centum ( I 00 ), are indeclinable.

The forms octōdecim, novendecim are rare, duodēvigintī, ūndēviginti being used instead. Similar forms for higher numbers are occasionally found: as, duōdēquadrägintā, thirty-eight; ūndēcentum, 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 (milia or millia, thousands), it is a neuter noun, followed by a genitive plural. Thus, cum mille hominibus, with a thousand men; but cum duōbus milibus hominum, with two thousand men.

Note. - The singular mille is sometimes found as a noun in the nominative and accusative : as mille hominum misit; rarely in the other cases.
$f$. The ordinals are o-stems, and are declined like bonus.

## 2. Distributives.

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

Note. - These answer the question quotēnī? how many of each, or at a time? as, -

1. sīngulī, one by one. 18. octōnī dēnī or
2. bīni, two-and-two.
3. ternī, trīnī
4. quaternī
5. quīnī
6. sēnī
7. septēnī
8. octōnī
9. novēnī
10. dēnī
ir. ūndēnī
11. duodēnī
12. ternī dēnī, etc.
duodēvicēnī
13. novēnī dēnī or
ūndēvīcēnī
14. vīcēnī
15. vīcēnī singulī, etc.
16. trīcēnī
17. quadrāgēnī
18. quīnquāgēnī
19. sexāgēnī
20. septuāgēnī
21. octōgēnī
22. nōnāgēnī
23. centēnī
24. ducēnī
25. trecēnī
26. quadringēnī
27. quīngēnī

60c. sēscēnì
700. septingēnī
800. octingēnī
900. nōngēnī
1000. millênī
2000. bina mîlia

10,000. dēna mīlia 100,000 . centēna mîlia

Distributives are used as follows $\qquad$
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 plēbi divisa sunt, i.e. seven jugera to each citizen, etc.
b. Instead of cardinals, to express simple number, with a noun plural in form but singular in meaning : as, bina castra, two camps (duō castra would mean two forts). But the plural ūni is used (instead of singuli) to signify one (see § 94. a), and trini (not terni) for three.
c. In multiplication : as, bis bina, twice two; ter septēnis diēbus, in thrice seven days.
d. By the poets freely instead of cardinals, particularly where pairs or sets are meant : as, bina hastilia trwo shafts (two in a set).

## 3. Numeral Adverbs.

96. The Numeral Adverbs answer the question quotièns (quotiēs), how many times, how often.
I. semel, once.
97. bis, twice.
98. ter, thrice.
99. quater
100. quīnquiēns (-ēs)
101. sexiēns (-ēs)
102. septiēns (-ēs)
103. octiêns
104. noviēns
105. deciēns
106. ündeciēns
107. duodeciēns
108. terdeciēns
109. quaterdeciēns

I 5. quīndeciēns
16. sēdeciēns
17. septiēsdeciēns
18. duodēviciēns
19. ūndēvīciēns
20. vīciēns
21. semel et vīciēns, etc. rooo. mîliēns
30. trīciēns
40. quadrāgiēns
50. quīnquägiēns
60. sexāgiēns
70. septuāgiēns
80. octōgiēns
90. nōnāgiēns
100. centiēns
200. ducentiēns
300. trecentiēns

10,000. deciēns mîliēns

Note. - They are used, in combination with mille, to express the higher numbers: as, ter et tríciēns (centēna millia) sēstertiūm, 3,300,000 sesterces. Forms in -ns are often written without the $n$ : as, quinquiēs.

## 4. Other Numerals.

97. The adjectives simplex, single, duplex, double, two-fold, triplex, quadru-, quincu-, septem-, decem-, centu-, seesqui- ( $11 / 2$ ), multi-plex, manifold, are called Multiplicatives.
a. Proportionals are : duplus, triplus, etc., twice as great, etc.
b. Temporals: bimus, trimus, of two or three years' age; biennis, triennis, lasting two or three years; bimēstris, of two months; biduum, biennium, a period of two days or years.
c. Partitives : binārius, ternārius, of two or three parts.
d. Fractions : dimidia pars, a half; tertia pars, a third.

Note. - But fractions are regularly expressed by special words denoting the parts of the ās (pound or unit) : as, triēns, a third; bēs, two-thirds.
$e$. Other derivatives are : ūniō, unity; biniō, the two (of dice); primānus, of the first legion; primārius, of the first rank; dēnārius, a sum of 10 asses; binus (distributive), double, etc.

## 5. PRONOUNS.

98. Pronouns have special forms of declension.
99. Personal Pronouns.

The Personal pronouns of the first person are ego, $I$, nōs, we; of the secand person, $\mathrm{t} \overline{\mathrm{u}}$, thou, vōa, ye or you.

FIRST PERSON.

Nom. ego, $I$.
Gen. mei, of me.
DAT. mihi (mi), to me.
Acc. mē, me.
Voc.
Abl. mē, by me.
nōs, we.
nostrūm (-trī), of us.
nōbis, to us.
nōs, us.
-
nōbis, by us.

SECOND PERSON.

| NOM. | tū, thou or you. | vōs, ye or you. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Gen. | tuī, | vostrūm, vostrí ; vestrūm (-trī) |
| DAT. | tibi | vōbis |
| Acc. | tē | vōs |
| Voc. | tū | vōs |
| Abl. | tē | vōbis |

a. The personal pronouns of the third person - he, she, it, they are wanting in Latin, a demonstrative being used for them when required.
b. The plural nōs is often used for the singular ego; the plural vōs never for the singular tū.

## 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, tē laudās, you praise yourself; nōbis persuādēmus, we persuade ourselves.
b. The reflexive pronoun of the Third Person has a special form, the same for both singular and plural. It is thus declined :-

GEn. suī, of himself, herself, themselves.
Dat. sibi, to himself, herself, themselves.
Acc. sē (sēsē), himself, herself, themselves.
Abl. sē (sēsē), by (etc.) himself, herself, themselves.

## 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 mi (rarely meus) in the vocative singular masculine.

Note. - Suus is always 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) father; but patrem ēius occīit, 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. Thus, my father is pater meus never pater mei.
b. The forms nostrūm, vostrū̄m, etc., are used partitively: as, ūnusquisque nostrūm, each one of $u s$; but also vostrūm omnium, of all of you.
c. The genitives meī, tuī, suī, nostri, vestrī are chiefly used objectively (see § 213. N.) : as,-
memor sis nostri, be minidful of us (me). mè tuī pudet, T am ashamed of you.
d. The reciprocals one another and each other are expressed by inter sē or alter . . . alterum : as, -
alter alterius ōva frangit, they break each other's eggs (one . . . of the other).
inter sē amant, they love one another.
e. The preposition cum, with, is joined 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 t्̄̄u (tūte, also tūtimet) ; -pte to the ablative singular of the adjectives, and in early Latin to the others, as, vōsmetipsös prōditis, you betray your own very selves. suōpte pondere, by its own weight.

## 4. Demonstrative Pronouns.

100. The Demonstrative pronouns are hic, 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 in poetry ; a genitive singular in $-\bar{i},-a e,-\bar{i}$ occurs in ille and iste.
$b$. Hic is compounded of the stem ho- with the demonstrative -ce. In most of the forms final $e$ is dropped, in some the whole termination. But in these latter it is sometimes retained for emphasis ; as, hūius-ce, his-ce. İdem is the demonstrative is with the affix -dem.
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:
hic, this.


| ille, that. |  |  | ipse, self. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. ille | illa | illud | ipse | ipsa | ipaum |
| Gen. illius | illius | illius | ipsius | ipsius | ipsius |
| Dat. illi | illi | illi | ipsi | ipai | ipsi |
| Acc. illum | illam | illud | ipsum | ipsam | ipsum |
| Voc. |  |  | ipse | ipsa | ipsum |
| Abl. illō | illa | illo | ipsō | ipsā | ipsō |
| Plur. |  |  |  |  |  |
| Nom. illi | illae | illa | ipsi | ipsae | ipsa |
| Gen. illōrum | illảrum | illōrum | ipsōrum | ipsārum | ipsōrum |
| Dat. illis | illis | illis | ipsis | ipsis | ipsis |
| Acc. illōs | illās | illa | ipsōs | ipsās | ipsa |
| Voc. |  | - | ipsi | ipsae | ipsa |
| Abl. illis | illis | illis | ipsis | ipsis | ipsis |

idem, the same. singular.

PLURAL.
N. īdem eădem ǐdem
G. ēiusdem ēiusdem ēiusdem
D. eīdem eīdem eīdem

Ac. eundem eandem ǐdem
Ab. eōdem eādem eōdem
dem (eī-) eaedem eădem ieōrundem eārundem eōrundem eisdem(is-) eisdem(is-) eisdem(is-) eōsdem eāsdem eădem eisdem(is-) eisdem(is-) eisdem(is-)
iste, ista, istud, that (yonder), is declined like ille.
Ille and iste are combined with the demonstrative -ce. Thus, -

| Sing. | M. | F. | N. | M. | F. | N. |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| NOM. | illic | illaec | illōc (illūc) | istic | istaec | istōc (istūc) |
| Acc. | illunc | illanc | illōc (illūc) | istunc | istanc | istōc (istūc) |
| AbL. | illōc | illāc | illōc | istōc | istāc | istōc |

Plur.
N.,Acc. - illaec

Note. - This appended -ce is also found with pronouns in numerous combinations: as, hūiusce, hunce, hōrunce, hārunce, hōsce, hīsce (cf. §' ioo. b), illiusce, isce ; also with the interrogative -ne, in hōcine, hōscine, istūcine, illicine, etc. The intensive -pse is found in the forms eapse (nom.), eumpse, eampse, eōpse, eāpse (abl.).
a. The combinations hūiusmodī (hūiuscemodi), ēiusmodi, etc., are used as indeclinable adjectives, equivalent to tālis, such: as, rēs eiusmodi, such a thing (a thing of that sort ; cf. §215).
102. In the use of these demonstratives it is to be observed that -
a. Hic is used of what is near the speaker (in time, place, thought, or on the written page). 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 page, is nearer the speaker in time, place, or thought.
b. Hle is used of what is remote (in time, etc.). It is sometimes used to mean "the former" (see under hīc, $a$ ); also (usually following its noun) of what is famous or well-known.
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 an opponent, and frequently implies a kind of antagonism or contempt.
d. 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 ; and is often merely a correlative to the relative quī: as, eum quem, one whom; eum cōnsulem quī nōn dubitet (Cic.), a consul who will not hesitate.
e. Ipse may be used with a personal pronoun of either person, or a noun: as nōs ipsix (nōsmetipsī), we our selves; ipsi fontēs, the very fountains; also independently (the verb or the context implying the pronoun), as ipsi adestis, you are yourselves present.

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 ipse ; the latter, sê or sêsē.
$f$. The pronouns hic, ille, and is are used to point in either direction, back to something mentioned or forward to something to be mentioned. The neuter forms are 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 de-clined:-

SINGULAR.

| Nom. | quī | quae | quod | quī | quae | quae |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Gen. | cūius | cūius | cūius | quō̄rum | quārum | quōrum |
| DAt. | cui | cui | cuí | quibus | quibus | quibus |
| Acc. | quem | quam | quod | quōs | quās | quae |
| Abl. | quō | quā | quō | quibus | quibus | quibus |

## 6. Interrogative and Indefinite Pronouns.

PLURAL.
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 § $105 . d$ ).

Note. - The Relative, Interrogative, and Indefinite Pronouns are originally of the same Stem, and most of the forms are the same.

Case-Forms. - a. The relative has always qui, quae, quod. The interrogative and indefinite have quis, quae, quid, substantive, and quī, quae, quod, adjective: as, quis vocat? who calls? quid vidēs? what do you see? qui homō vocat? what man calls? quod templum vidēs? 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, quī nōminat mē ? who calls my name? quis diēs fuit? what day was it? quis homō? what man? but often qui homō? what sort of a man ? nesciō 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 dative and ablative plur. quis is old, but not infrequent.
e. The preposition cum is joined to all forms of the ablative, as with the personal pronouns: as, quōcum, quicum, quibuscum.
$f$. 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. For its peculiar declension, see § 83 .
105. The pronouns quis and qui appear in various combinations.
a. The adverb -cumque (-cunque) with the relative makes an indefinite relative, declined like the simple word: as, quicumque, quaecumque, quodcumque, whoever, whatever; cuiuscunque, etc.

Note. - This suffix, with the same meaning, may be used with any relative: as, quāliscumque, of whatever sort; quandōcumque (also rarely quandöque), 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 -

| Sing. Nom. | quisquis (quīquī) | quidquid (quicquid) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ACC. | quemquem | quidquid (quicquid) |
| AbL. | quōquō quāquā | quōquō |

Plur. Nom. quiquī

## D., Abl. quibusquibus

c. Indefinite compounds are: quidam, $a$, a certain; quispiam, any; quivis, quilibet, any you please; quisquam, any at all. Of these the former part is declined like quis and qui, but all have both quod (adjective) and quid (substantive) in the neuter.
d. The indefinite quis, otherwise rare, is found in the compound aliquis, some one, and the combinations sìquis, if any; nē quis, lest any, that none; ecquis, num quis, whether any, and a few others.

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, nê, and num, and are rather more emphatic, as sī quis, if any one, sì aliquis, if some one, sĭ quisquam, if any one (ever, cf. h).

These compounds are thus declined: -

| Sing. | aliquis, |  | some. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| NOM. | aliquis (aliquī) | aliqua | aliquid (aliquod) |
| GEN. | alicūius | alicūius | alicūius |
| DAT. | alicui | alicuí | alicui |
| Acc. | aliquem | aliquam | aliquid (aliquod) |
| Abl. | aliquō | aliquā | aliquō |
| Plur. |  |  |  |
| NOM. | aliqū̄ | aliquae | aliqua |
| GEN. | aliquōrum | aliquārum | aliquōrum |
| D., Abl. aliquibus | aliquibus | aliquibus |  |
| ACC. | aliquōs | aliquās | aliqua |

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).
$e$. 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 declined regularly.

In the compound ūnusquisque, 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 a possessive adjective cūius (-a, -um), whose; and a patrial cūiās (cūiātis), of what country.
g. Quantus, how great, quālis, of what sort, are derivative adjectives from the interrogative. They are either interrogative or relative, corresponding to the demonstratives tantus, tālis.
h. Quisquam, with ūllus, any, unquam, ever, usquam, anywhere, are used only 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, nec quisquam ex ägmine tantō, and nobody from that great throng; sì quisquam est timidus, is ego sum, if any one is timorous, I am the man; sine $\bar{u} l \bar{\circ}$ dominō, without any master.
i. Quisnam is emphatic: pray who? ecquis and numquis are compounded from the indefinite particle en and the interrogative num ; they mean not who, but any in a question : as, ecquis nōs videt? does any one see us? num quid hōc dubitās, do you at all doubt this?
7. Correlatives.
108. 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. relative. interrog. indef. relative. indef.
is, that, he qui, who quis? who? quisquis, whoever aliquis, some tantus, so great quantus tālis, such ibi, there eō, thither eà, that way inde, thence tum, then tot, so many totiès, so often quotiēs quantus? (quantuscumque) aliquantus quâlis? (quâliscumque)

| ubi? | ubiubi | alicubi |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| quō? | quōquō | aliqū̄ |
| quā? | quāquā | aliquā |
| unde? | (undecumque) | alicunde |
| quandō? | (cumcumque) | aliquandō |
| quot? | quotquot | aliquot |
| quotiès? | (quotiēscumque) | aliquotiēs |

a. The forms tot so many, quot, how (as) many, aliquot, several, totidem, as many, are indeclinable, and may take any gender or case: as, per tot annōs, tot proeliis, tot imperātōrēs (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 argenti 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): as, -
quō magis cōnāris, eō longius prōgrederis, the more you try, the farther on you get.
107. Certain relative and demonstrative adverbs are used correlatively as conjunctions: as, -
ut (rel.) ... ita, sic (dem.), as (while) ... so (yet).
tam (dem.) . . quam (rel.), so (as) . . as.
cum (rel.) . . . tum (dem.), both . . and; while ... so also; not only . . . but atso.

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

## 6. VERBS.

## 1. INFLECTION OF THE VERB.

## t. Voice, Mood, Tense.

108. The inflection of the Verb denotes Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.
a. The Vorces are two : Active and Passive.
b. The Moods are four : Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative, and Infinitive.
c. The Tenses are six, viz. : -
I. For continued action, Present, Imperfect, Future.
109. 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.
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 $\$ \S 71 . a$ and ri4. $b$.

## 3. Defective Forms.

110. Special forms for some of the tenses are wanting in certain parts of the verb :-
a. The Subjunctive mood wants the Future and the Future Perfect.
b. In the Passive voice in all moods the tenses of completed action are supplied by the Perfect Participle with the present, imperfect, and future of the verb esse, то BE: as, occisus est, he was killed.
c. The Imperative mood has only 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 esse то ве : as, amātūrus esse, to be going to love; in the passive, by the Former Supine with iri (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.

## I. 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, inđuitur vestem, he puts on his (own) clothes; vertitur, he turns (himself).
$b$. Many verbs are used only in the passive form, but with an active or reflexive meaning. These are called Deponents (dëpōnentia), i.e. verbs which have laid aside (dēpōnere) the active form and the passive meaning (see § 135).
c. Three verbs have a passive form in the tenses of completed action : audeō, ausus sum; gaudeō, gāvisus sum ; fido, fisus sum.

## 2. Moods.

112. The Moods are used as follows : -
a. The Indicative is used for direct assertions and interrogations : as, valēsne? valeō, are you well? I am well; and also in some other idiomatic forms of predication.
b. The Subjunctive has many uses, as in commands, conditions, and various dependent clauses. It is often translated by the Indicative ; often with the auxiliaries may, might, would, should; often by the Infinitive ; or by the Imperative. 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 existimet, there is no one who thinks so.
beātus sis, 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 scribam, he orders me to write (that I write).
nesciō quid scribam, I know not what to write.
licet eäs, you may go (it is permitted that you go).
cave cadās, don't fall.
vereor nē eat, I fear he will go.
vereor ut eat, I fear he will not go.
si moneam audiat (pres.), if I should warn, he would hear.
si vocārem audiret (imperf.), if I were (now) calling, he would hear.
c. The Imperative is used for exhortation, entreaty, or command; but the Subjunctive is often used instead.
$d$. The Infinitive is used chiefly as an indeclinable noun, as the subject or object of another verb. In special uses it takes the place of the Indicative, and may be translated by that mood.

Note. - For the Syntax of the Moods, see $\S \S 264$ ff.

## 3. Participles.

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

Note. - With the tenses of esse, to be, it forms the First Periphrastic conjugation : as, urbs est cäsūra, the city is about to fall.
2. It is also used, more rarely, to express purpose (see § 293. b) : as, vēnit auditūrus, he came to hear (about to hear).
c. The Perfect participle (ending in -tus, -sus) has two uses :-

1. It is sometimes equivalent to the English Perfect Passive participle in -ED : as, tēctus, sheltered; acceptus, accepted; ictus, 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, secūtus, having followed. In the case of other verbs some different construction is used for these missing participles : as, cum vēnisset, having come (when he had come); equitātū praemissō, having sent forward the cavalry (the cavalry having been sent forward) ; dum verberātur, while he is (being) struck.
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. - With the tenses of esse, to be, it forms the Second Periphrastic conjugation; as, dëligendus erat, he ought to have been chosen.
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 $\S \S 295 \mathrm{ff}$.)
$e$. The Participles may all be used as simple adjectives ; and the present and perfect are sometimes compared: as amāns, amantior, more fond; dilēctus, dilēctissimus, dearest.
$f$. The Present and Perfect participles are (like adjectives) often used as nouns : as, regentēs, rulers; mortuī, the dead.
$g$. As an adjective, the participle is often used predicatively to indicate some special circumstance or situation : as, moritūrī vōs salūtāmus, 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, loquendī causā, for the sake of speaking.

Note. - The Gerund is found only in the oblique cases. A corresponding nominative is supplied by the Infinitive: thus, scribere est ütile, zuriting (to write) is useful; but, ars scribendi, the art of writing.
$b$. The Supine is in form a noun of the fourth declension ( $\S 71, a$ ). found only in the accusative, ending in -tum, -sum, and the ablative (or dative, probably both), ending in $-t \bar{u},-s \bar{u}$. These are sometimes called the Former and the Latter Supine. The Former is used after verbs and the Latter after adjectives ( $\$ \S 302,303$ ) : as, -

1. vēnit spectātum, he came to see.
2. mirābile dictū, wonderful to tell.

## 5. Tenses.

115. The tenses of the verb are of two classes, viz.: -
116. Of continued action.
117. Present : scribō, I am writing.
118. Imperfect : scribēbam, I was writing.
119. Future : scribam, I shall write.
120. Of completed action.
121. Perfect : scripsi, I have written, I wrote.
122. Pluperfect ; scripseram, I had written.
123. Future Perfect : scripserō, 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, -
I. The Future or Future Perfect is often used in subordinate clauses, where the English uses the Present : as, -
sī quid habēbō dabō, if I have (shall have) anything, I will give.
cum vēnerō scrïbam, when I come (shall have come), I will write.
124. The Present and Imperfect are often used to express continued action where the English uses tenses of completed action: as, -
iam điū aegrōtō, I have long been (and still am) sick.
iam diū aegrōtābam, I had long been (and still was) sick.
Note. - Here the Perfect, aegrōtāvi, 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, scribēbat, he was writing; ārdēbat, 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, scripsi, I have written.
125. The Perfect Historical narrates a simple act or state in past time without representing it as in progress. It corresponds to the English past or preterite : as, scripsit, 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).

## III. PERSONAL ENDINGS.

116. Verbs have regular terminations for each of the three Persons, both singular and plural, active and passive. These are called Personal endings.

## IV. FORMS OF THE VERB.

117. Every Latin verb-form (except the adjective and noun forms) is made up of two parts, viz.: -
r. The Stem. This is either the root or a modification of it.
118. The Ending, consisting of -
a. the signs of mood and tense.
b. the personal ending (see § 116).
119. 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.
Indic.


Imperfect.

| Sing. 1. -ba-m | $-r e-m$ | -ba-r | -re-r |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2. -bā-s | $-r \bar{e}-s$ | -bā-ris (-re) | -rē-ris (-re) |
| 3. -ba-t | $-r e-t$ | $-b \bar{a}-t u r$ | $-r \bar{e}-t u r$ |
| Plur. 1. | $-b \bar{a}-m u s$ | $-r \bar{e}-m u s$ | -bā-mur |

[^3]active.
Indicative.

PASSIVE.
Indicative.

Future.
in. iv.

| -bo-r |  | $-a-\mathrm{r}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| -be-ris (-re) | $\ddot{\square}$ | -è-ris (re) |
| -bi-tur | ज | - $\bar{e}$-tur |
| -bi-mux | ร. | -ē-mur |
| -bi-mini | 9 | - $\bar{e}$-mini |
| -bu-ntur |  | -e-ntur |

Indic.
Sing. 1. -i
III. IV.

Sing. 1. -b-ō
2. -bi-s
3. -bi-t

Plur. I. -bi-mus
2. -bi-tis
3. -bu-nt
2. -i-sti
3. -i-t

Plur. I. -i-mus
2. -i-stis
3. -ēru-nt or-ēre -eri-nt

Subj. Perfect.

| -eri-m | -tus(-ta,, $\begin{array}{l}\text { sum } \\ \text {-eri-s } \\ \text { esi-t }\end{array}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| es |  |
| est |  |

-ti (-tae,

- ta) $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { sumus } \\ \text { estis } \\ \text { sunt }\end{array}\right.$

Subj. $\operatorname{sim}$ siis sit simus sitis sint

Pluperfect.

| -isse-m <br> -issē-s <br> -isse-t | -tus (-ta, -tum) |  | essem <br> essēs <br> esset |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| -ỉssē-mus <br> -issee-tis <br> -isse-nt | $\begin{gathered} -\mathrm{ti}(- \text { tae }, \\ -\mathrm{ta}) \end{gathered}$ | crāmus erātis erant | essēmus <br> essētis <br> essent |

Future Perfect.

$$
\begin{array}{|l}
\begin{array}{c}
\text {-tus(-ta, } \\
\text {-tum) }
\end{array}
\end{array} \begin{aligned}
& \left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { erō } \\
\text { eris } \\
\text { erit }
\end{array}\right. \\
& \text {-ti(-tae, } \\
& \text {-ta) }
\end{aligned}\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { erimus } \begin{array}{l}
\text { eritis } \\
\text { erunt }
\end{array}
\end{array}\right.
$$

Sing. 1. -era-m
2. -erā-s
3. -era-t
Piur. 1. -erā-mus
2. -erā-tis
3. -era-nt
2. -erā-s
3. $\begin{aligned} & \text { 3. } \\ & \text { Piur. } \\ & \text { 1. } \\ & \text { 2. erā-mus } \\ & \text { 3. -erā-tis } \\ & \text { 3. -era-nt }\end{aligned}$

Piur. 1. -erā-mus $\begin{aligned} & \text { 2. -erā-s } \\ & \text { 2. -erā-tis } \\ & \text { 3. -era-nt }\end{aligned}$
2. -erā-s
3. $\begin{aligned} & \text { 3. } \\ & \text { Piur. } \\ & \text { 1. } \\ & \text { 2. erā-mus } \\ & \text { 3. -erā-tis } \\ & \text { 3. -era-nt }\end{aligned}$
2. -erā-s
3. $\begin{aligned} & \text { 3. } \\ & \text { Piur. } \\ & \text { 1. } \\ & \text { 2. erā-mus } \\ & \text { 3. -erā-tis } \\ & \text { 3. -era-nt }\end{aligned}$

Sing. I. er-ō
2. -eri-s
3. -eri-t

Plur. 1. -eri-mus
2. -eri-tis
3. -eri-nt

Imperative.
Present.
| Sing. 2. -re Plur. 2. -mini Future.
2. -tō
3. $-\mathbf{t o}$
2. -tōte

| 2. -tor 2. - |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| 3. -tor | 3. -ntor |

Sing. 2. - Plur. 2. -te
${ }^{1}$ These numerals refer to the four conjugations given later (see § 122).

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

Infinitives.

| Pres. -re (Pres. stem) | I. II. IV. -rī iII. -ī |
| :--- | :--- |
| Perf. -isse (Perf. stem) | -tus (-ta, -tum) esse |
| Fut. -tūrus (-a, -um) esse | -tum ini |

Participles.

```
Pres, -ns, -ntis
Perf. -
Fut. -türus, -a, -um
```

Gerund.
-ndi, -nđō, -ndum -ndō
-tus, -ta, -tum
Ger. -ndus, -a, -um
Supine.
-tum, -t̄̄̄

THE VERB SUM.
119. The verb sum, be, is irregular and has no gerund or supine, and no participle but the future.

Its conjugation is given at the outset, as it is used in the inflection of all other verbs.

Principal Parts: Pres. sum, Infin. esse, Perf. fuī, Fut. Part. futūrus.

Indicative. Present.
Sing. 1. sum, $I$ am.
2. ĕs, thou art (you are).
3. est, he (she, it) is.

Plur. I. sumus, we are.
2. estis, you are.
3. sunt, they are.

## Subjunctive.

sim ${ }^{1}$
sis
sit
simus
siitis
sint
Imperfect.
Sing. 1. eram, I was.
2. erās, you were.
3. erat, he (she, it) was.

Plur. I. erāmus, we were.
2. erätis, you were.
3. erant, they were.
essem (forem)
essēs (forēs)
esset (foret)
essēmus
essētis
easent (forent)
${ }^{1}$ No translations of the subjunctive are given, as all are misleading.

Indicative.
Future.
Sing. 1. erō, 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.

Subjunctive.

Perfect.
Sing. I. fuĩ, I was (have been).
2. fuisti, you were.
3. fuit, he was.

Plur. I. fuimus, we were.
2. fuistis, you were.
3. fuērunt, fuēre, they were.
fuerim
fueris
fuerit
fuerimus
fueritis
fuerint

Pluperfect.

Sing. I. fueram, I had been.
2. fuerās, you had been.
3. fuerat, he had been.

Plur. I. fuerāmus, we had been.
2. fuerātis, you had been.
3. fuerant, they had been.
fuissem
fuissēs
fuisset
fuissēmus
fuissëtis
fuissent

## Future Perfect.

Sing. 1. fuerō, I shall have been. Plur. I. fuerimus, we shall have been.
2. fueris, you will have been.
3. fuerit, he will have been.
2. fueritis, you will have been.
3. fuerint, they will have been.

## Imperative.

Present. Sing. 2. ës, be thou.
Fiture.
2. estō, thou shalt be.
3. estō, he shall be.

Plur. 2. este, be ye.
2. estōte, ye shall be.
3. suntō, they shall be.

## Infinitive.

Present. ease, to be.
Perfeet. fuisse, to have been.
Future. fore or futūrus esse, to be about to be.

## Participle.

Future. futūrus, -a, -um, about to be.
a. The present participle appears in ab-sēns, prae-sēns; and as ēns in pot-ēns.
b. For easem, etc., forem, forēs, etc., are often used.
120. The verb sum appears in numerous compounds, which are treated under Irregular Verbs (§ I 37)

## The Three Stems.

121. The parts of the Latin verb are formed upon three different stems (partly real and partly supposed), called the Present, the Perfect, and the Supine Stem.
a. The tenses of contimued 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.

## v. REGULAR VERBS.


122. There are four regular forms of Present Stems ending respectively in $\overline{\mathbf{a}}-, \overline{\mathbf{e}}$-, è-, $\overline{\mathbf{i}}$-. With this difference most 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, showing the supine stem.
c. The regular forms of the conjugations are seen in the following:-

First : Active, amō, amāre, amāvī, amātum, love. Passive, amor, amārī, amātus.
Present stem amā-, Perfect stem amāv-, Supine stem amāt-.
Second : Active, dēleō, dēlēre, dēlēvī, dēlētum, blot out. Passive, dēleor, dēlērī dēlētus.
Present stem dēlē-, Perfect stem dēlēv-, Supine stem dēlēt-.
Third : Active, tegō, tegĕre, tēxi, tēctum, cover. Pâssive, tegor, tegī, tēctus.
Root teg, Present stem tegĕ-, Perfect stem tēx-, Supine stem tēct-

Fourth : Active, audiō, audire, audivi, auditum, hear. Passive, audior, audiri, auditus.
Present stem audi-, Perfect stem audiv-, Supine stem audit-.

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

Second : Active, moneō, monēre, monū̄, monitum, warn. Passive, moneor, monēri, monitus.
d. In many verbs the principal parts take forms belonging to two or more different conjugations : as, -

> I, 2, domō, domāre, domuī, domitum, subdue.
> 2, 3, maneō, manēre, mānsī, mānsum, remain.
> 3, 4, petō, petĕre, petīi, petitum, seek.
> 4,3 , vinciō, vincire, vinxī, vinctum, bind.

Such verbs qre referred to the conjugation to which the Present stem conforms.

## x. Present Stem.

123. The Present Stem is formed from the Root in regular verbs in several ways, as appears in dictionaries.

## 2. Perfect Stem.

124. The Perfect Stem is formed as follows:-
a. The suffix $\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{u})$ is added to the present stem : as, vocā-v-i, audi-v-ī ; or to the root : as, son-u-i (son-äre), mon-u-i (mon-ēre, MON treated as a root).

Note. - In a few verbs the vowel of the root is transposed and lengthened (see § 9. $d$ ): as, strā-v-ī (ster-nō), sprē-v-ī (sper-nō).
b. The suffix $\mathbf{s}$ is added to the root : as, carp-s-i्1 (carp- $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$ ), tēx(for teg-s-i, teg- $\overline{\mathrm{o}}$ ).
c. The root is reduplicated by prefixing the first consonant - generally with $\breve{\text { en }}$, sometimes with the root-vowel : as, ce-cid-ī (cad-ō), to-tond-ī (tonđ̄-eō).

Note. - In fid-ī (for $\dagger$ fe-fid-i, find- $\overline{0}$ ), scid-ī (for $\dagger$ sci-scid-ī, scindō), the reduplication has been lost, leaving merely the root.
d. The root-vowel is lengthened : as, $\overline{\mathbf{e} g-\bar{i}}$ (ăg- $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$ ), fūg-i (fŭg-i- $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$ ).
e. The root itself is used as the perfect stem: as, vert-i (vert- $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$ ), solv-ī (solv-0., Solv treated as a root).
$f$. Sometimes the perfect is formed from a lost or imaginary stem : as, peti-v-i (as if from $\dagger$ peti-ō, $\dagger$ peti-re, pet- $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$ ).

## 3. Supine Stem.

125. The Supine Stem is formed by adding t- (or, by a phonetic change, $s$-): -
a. To the present stem : as, amā-t-um, dēē-t-um, audi-t-um.
b. To the root, with or without i: cap-t-um (cap-ī), moni-t-um (mon-eō, MON treated as a root), cās-um (for cad-t-um).
126. Omitted in this edition.

## 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, amā-; Perfect stem, amāv-; Supine stem, amāt-

128. Special Forms. - $a$. In tenses formed upon the perfect stem, $\mathbf{v}$ between two vowels is often lost. Thus, -
I. Perfects in -āvi, -ēvi, -ōvi often contract the two vowels into $\bar{a}$, $\overline{\mathbf{e}}, \overline{\text { ó }}$ respectively : as, amāsse for amāvisse ; amārim for amāverim; cōnsuērat for cōnsuēverat; flēstis for flēvistis. So where the $\mathbf{v}$ is a part of the present stem : as, commōrat for commōverat.
2. Perfects in -ivi regularly omit v, but rarely contract the vowels except before st and ss: as, audieram for audiveram ; audisse for audivisse ; audisti for audivisti ; abiit for abivit.
b. In many forms from the perfect stem, is, iss, sis are lost in like manner when s would be repeated : as, dixti for dixisti ( $x=c s$ ).
c. Four verbs, - dicō, dūcō, faciō, ferō, - with their compounds, drop the vowel-termination in the imperative, making dic, dūc, tăc, fär ; but compounds in -ficiō retain it : as, cōnfice (cōn-ficio).
d. For the imperative of sciō, the future form scito is always used in the singular, and scitōte usually in the plural.
$e$. The following ancient forms are chiefly found in poetry :-

1. In the fourth conjugation -ibam, -ibō for -iēbam, -iam (future).
2. In the present subjunctive -im : as in duim (for dem).
3. In the perfect subjunctive and future perfect -sim, -sō: as, faxim, faxō (= fēcerō, etc.) ; ausim (= ausus sim).
4. In the passive infinitive -ier : as, infer for ini ; agier for agi.

## FIRST CONJUGATION. - ACTIVE VOICE.

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

## Indicative.

amō, I love.
amās, thou lovest ( you love).
amat, he (she, it) loves.
amāmus, we love.
amātis, you love. amant, they love.

## Imperfect.

amābam, I loved. amābās, you loved. amābat, he loved. amābāmus, we loved. amābātis, you loved. amābant, they loved.

Subjunctive.

## Present.

amem
amēs
amet
amēmus
amētis
ament
amārem amārēs amāret amārēmus amārētis amārent

## Future.

amābō, I shall love. amābis, you will love. amābit, he will love. amābimus, we shall love. amäbitis, you will love. amābunt, they will love.
amāvī, I loved. amāvisti, you loved. amāvit, he loved. amāvimus, we loved. amāvistis, you loved. amāvērunt (ēre), they loved.

## Perfect.

amāverim amāveris amāverit amāverimus amāveritis amāverint

Indicative.
amäveram, I had loved. amāverās, you had loved. amāverat, he had loved. amāverāmus, we had loved. amāverātis, you had loved. amāverant, they had loved.

Subjunctive.
Pluperfect.
amāvissem amāvissēs amāvisset amāvissēmus amāvissētis amāvissent

Future Perfect.

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

PLURAL. amāverimus, we shall have loved. amāveritis, you will have loved. amāverint, they will have loved.

## Imperative.

Pres. 2. amä, love thou.
Fut. 2. amātō, thou shalt love.
3. amātō, he shall love.
amāte, love ye.
amātōte, ye shall love.
amantō, they shall love.

## Infinitive.

Present. amãre, to love.
Perfect. amāvisse or amāsse, to have loved.
Future. amātūrus esse, to be about to love.
Participles.
Present. amāns,-antis, loving.
Future. amātūrus, -a, -um, about to love.

## Gerund.

Gen. amandi, of loving. Acc. amandum, loving.
Dat. amandō, for loving. Abl. amandō, by loving.

Supine.
Former. amātum Latter. amātū, to love.
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.
Present. amātūrus sum, I am about to love. Imperf. amātūrus eram, I was about to love. Future. amātūrus erō, I shall be about to love. Perfect. amātūrus fuī, I was about, etc. Pluperf. amātūrus fueram, I had been about, etc. _- fuissem Fut. Perf. amātūrus fuerō, I shall have been about, etc.

Infinitive: Pres. amātūrus esse Perf. amātūrus fuisse

## Second Periphrastic Conjugation.

Subjunctive.
-_sim
-_- essem

Present. amandus sum, I am to be loved.
Subjunctive.
__sim Imperf. amandus eram, I was to be loved. -_ essem Future. amandus erō, I shall be [worthy] to be loved. Perfect. amandus fuī, I was to be loved.

- fuerim Pluperf. amandus fueram, I had been, etc. Fut. Perf. amandus fuerō, 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.
amor, I am loved. amāris (-re), you are loved. amātur, he is loved. amämur, we are loved. amāminī, you are loved. amantur, they are loved.

Subjunctive.
Present.
amer
amēris (-re)
amētur
amēmur
amēmini
amentur

Imperfect.
amäbar, I was loved. amābāris (-re), you were loved. amābātur, he was loved. amābāmur, we were loved. amābāminī, you were loved. amäbantur, they were loved.
amārer
amārēris (-re)
amārētur
amārēmur
amārēminī
amārentur

## Indicative.

amābor, $I$ shall be loved. amäberis (-re), you will be loved. amābitur, he will be loved. amābimur, we shall be loved. amäbiminī, you will be loved. amābuntur, they will be loved.

## Fiture.

Subjunctive.

## Perfect.

amātus sum, I was loved. amātus es, you were loved. amātus est, he was loved. amātī sumus, we were loved. amātī estis, you were loved. amātī sunt, they were loved.
amātus sim amātus sis 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. amāti 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. amāre, be thou loved. amāmini, be ye loved.
Fut. 2. amātor, thou shalt be loved.
3. amātor, he shall be loved.
amantor, they shall be loved.

Infinitive.
Present. amāri, to be loved. Perfeet. amãtus esse, to have been loved. Future. amātum ini (amātus fore), to be about to be loved.

## Participles.

Perfect. amātus, 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, armō, arm (arma, arms); caecō, to blind (caecus, blind); exsulō, be an exile (exsul, an exile) (§ 166.a). Their conjugation is usually regular, like amō ; though of many only a few forms are found in use.

## SECOND CONJUGATION.

Principal Parts : Active, moneō, monēre, monuī, monitum; Passive, moneor, monērī, monitus sum.

## ACTIVE.

Indic. Subj.
moneō, $I$ warn. moneam monēs, you warn. moneās monet, he warns. moneat monēmus moneāmus monētis monent
monēbam monēbās monēbat monēbāmus monēbātis monēbant

PASSIVE.
Present.
moneätis moneant
moneor
monēris (-re)
monētur
monēmur monēminī monentur

Imperfect.
monērem monērēs monēret monērēmus monērētis monērent
monëbar monēbāris (-re) monēbātur monēbāmur monēbāminī monēbantur

## monear

 moneāris(-re) moneātur moneāmur moneāmini moneanturmonērer monērëris (-re) monērētur monërēmur monērēmini monērentur

## Future.

monēbō monēbis monēbit
monēbimus monēbitis monēbunt
monēbor
monēberis (-re)
monēbitur
monēbimur
monēbimini
monēbuntur

- INDIC. ${ }^{\text {ACTIVE. SUBJ. Perfect. INDIC. PASSIVE. }}$ SUBJ.
monuï
monuistī
monuit
monuimus
monuistis
monuērunt (-re)
monueram
monuerās
monuerat
monuerāmus
monuerātis
monuerant
monuerō
monueris
monuerit
monuerimus
monueritis
monuerint
sing.
Pres. 2. monē
Fut. 2. monētō

3. monētō

| monuerim | mon |
| :--- | :---: |
| monueris | mon |
| monuerit | mon |
| monuerimus | mon |
| monueritis | mon |
| monuerint | mon |
| Pluperfect. |  |


| monuissem | monitus eram | monitus essem |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| monuissēs | monitus erās | monitus essēs |
| monuisset | monitus erat | monitus esset |
| monuissēmus | monitī erāmus | monitī essēmus |
| monuissētis | monitī erātis | monitī essētis |
| monuissent | monitī erant | monitī essent |

Future Perfect.
monitus erō
monitus eris
monitus erit
monitī erimus
monitī eritis
monitī erunt
Imperative.

> PLUR.
monēte monētōte monentō

SING.
monēre monētor monētor
monitus sim monitus sis monitus sit monitī simus moniti sitis monitī sint
monitus essem monitus essēs monitus esset monitī essēmus monitī essētis monitī essent

PLUR. monēmini
$\qquad$
monentor

Infinitive.

Pres. monēre
Perf. monuisse
Fut. monitūrus esse
monērī
monitus esse
monitum inī (monitus fore)

Participles.

Pres. monēns
Fut. monitūrus

Perf. monitus
Ger. monendus

Gerund : monendī, -dō, -dum, -d̄̄ SUPINE : monitum, monitū
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 verbs of this conjugation form their perfect and supine like moneō. The following have -ēvi and -ētum : dēleō, destroy; fleō, weep; neō, spin; viē̄, plat; and compounds of -plē̄, fill; -olē̄, grow.

## THIRD CONJUGATION.

> Principal Parts : Active, tegō, tegĕre, tēxi, tēctum ; Passive, tegor, tegi, tēctus sum.

| ACTIVE. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| INDIC. | PUSSIVE. |  |
| SUBJ. | SUBJ. |  |

Present.
tegō, $I$ cover. tegam tegis, you cover. tegās tegit, he covers. tegat
tegimus tegāmus tegitis tegunt
tegātis
tegant

tegor<br>tegeris(-re)<br>tegitur<br>tegimur tegimini<br>teguntur

Imperfect.
tegerem
tegerēs
tegeret
tegerēmus
tegerētis tegerent
tegēbar
tegēbāris (-re) tegēbātur tegēbāmur tegēbāminī
tegēbantur
tegar
tegāris (-re)
tegātur
tegāmur tegāmini tegantur

| tegēbam | tegerem |
| :--- | :--- |
| tegēbās | tegerēs |
| tegēbat | tegeret |
| tegēbāmus | tegerēmus |
| tegēbātis | tegerētis |
| tegēbant | tegerent |

## Future.

tegerer tegerēris (-re) tegerētur tegerēmur tegerēmini tegerentur
tegam
tegēß
teget
tegēmus
tegētis
tegent

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { tegar } \\
& \text { tegēris (-re) } \\
& \text { tegētur } \\
& \text { tegēmur } \\
& \text { tegēmini } \\
& \text { tegentur }
\end{aligned}
$$

| Indic. | E. SUBJ | Indic. | VE. Subj |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perfect. |  |  |  |
| texx | tëxerim | tēctus sum | tēctus sim |
| tēxisti | tēxeris | tēctus es | tēctus sis |
| tēxit | tēxerit | tēctus est | tēctus sit |
| tēximus | tēxerimus | tēctī sumus | tēctī simus |
| tēxistis | tēxeritis | tēctī estis | tēctī sitis |
| tēxērunt (-re) | tēxerint | tēctī sunt | tēctī sint |
| Pluperfect. |  |  |  |
| tēxeram | tēxissem | tēctus eram | tēctus ensem |
| tēxerās | tēxissēs | tēctus erās | tēctus essēs |
| tēxerat | tēxisset | tēctus erat | tēctus esset |
| tēxerāmus | tēxissēmus | tēctī erāmus | tēctī essēmus |
| tēxerātis | tēxissētis | tēctī erātis | tēctī essëtis |
| tēxerant | tēxdssent | teéctī erant | tēctī essent |

tēxerō
tēxeris
tēxerit
tēxerimus
tēxeritia
tēxerint

Future Perfect. tēctus erō .tēctus eris tēctus erit tēctī erimus tēctī eritis tēctī erunt

IMPERATIVE.

| SING. | PLUR. | SING. | PLUR. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pres. 2, tege, cover. tegite | tegere | tegimini |  |
| Fut. 2. tegitō | tegitōte | tegitor | - |
| 3. tegitō | teguntō | tegitor | teguntor |

## Infinitive.

Pres. tegere
Perf. tēxisse
Fut. tēctūrus esse
tegì
tēctus esse
tēctum ìrī (tēctus fore)
Participles.
Pres. tegēns
Fut. tēctūrus
Gerund : tegendī, -dō, -dum, -dō

Perf. tēctus
Ger. tegendus (-undus)

## VERBS IN - I $\overline{0}$.

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 $\overline{\mathrm{a}}, \overline{\mathbf{o}}, \mathrm{u}$, and $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$, but lose it elsewhere except in the future and in the participle and gerund. They are conjugated as follows :-

Principal Parts : capió, capĕre, cêpī, captum ; capior, capī, captus sum.

| active. |  | PASSIVE. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Indic. | Subj. | Indic. | Subj. |
| Present. |  |  |  |
| capiō, I take. | capiam | capior | capiar |
| capis, you take. | capiās | caperis (-re) | capiāris (-re) |
| capit, he takes. | capiat | capitur | capiātur |
| capimus | capiāmus | capimur | capiāmur |
| capitis | capiātis | capimini | capiāminī |
| capiunt | capiant | capiuntur | capiantur |
| Imperfect. |  |  |  |
| capiēbam | caperem | capiēbar | caperer |
| Future. |  |  |  |
| capiam |  | capiar |  |
| capiès |  | capiēris (-re) |  |
| capiet, etc. |  | capiētur, etc. |  |
| Perfect. |  |  |  |
| cēpi | cēperim | captus sum | captus sim |
| Pluperfect. |  |  |  |
| cēperam | cēpissem | captus eram | captus essem |
| Future Perfect. |  |  |  |
| cēperō | \| captus erō |  |  |
| Imperative. |  |  |  |
| SING. | plur. capite | SING. capere | PLUR. capimini |
| Fut. 2. capitō | capitōte | capitor | - |
| 3. capitō | capiunto | capitor | capiuntor |

Infinitive.

SING.
Pres. capere
Perf. cēpisse
Fut. captuirus esse

PLUR.
capī
captus esse captum inī

Participles.
Pres. capiēns
Fut. captūrus

Perf. captus
Ger. capiendus

GERUND : capiendi, -dō, -dum, - $\overline{\mathrm{d}} \overline{\mathrm{o}}$ SUPINE : captum, $-\mathrm{t} \bar{u}$
182. List of verbs omitted in this edition, see larger grammar.

FOURTH CONJUGATION.
Principal Parts : Active, audiō, audire, audivi, auditum ;
Passive, audior, auduni, auditus sum.
active.
Indic. Subj. audiō, I hear. audiam audis, you hear. audiās audit, he hears. audiat audìmus audiāmus audītis audiātis audiunt audiant
audiēbam audīrem
audiēbās
audiēbat
audiēbāmus
audiēbātis
audiēbant
audiam
audiēs
audiet
audiēmus
audiētis
audient
audirēs
audiret audirêmus audīrētis audirent

Indic. Present.
audior audiris (-re) auditur audimur audimini audiuntur

## Imperfect.

audiēbar audiēbāris (-re) audīēnis (-re) audiēbātur audirētur audiēbāmur audīrēmur audiēbāminī audirēmini audiēbantur audirentur

## Future.

audiar
audiēris (-re)
audiētur
audiēmur
audiēminī
audientur

ACTIVE.

| Indic. | Subj. |
| :--- | :--- |
| audīvi | audīverim |
| audīvisti | audīveris |
| audīvit | audīverit |
| audīvimus | audīverimus |
| audīvistis | audīveritis |
| audīvērunt (-re) | audīverint |

PASSIVE.
Perfect.
auditus sum auditus sim audītus es audītus sis audītus est audītus sit audītī sumus auditi estis audītī sunt

Pluperfect.
audiveram audīverās audīverat audīverāmus audīverātis audīverant
audīverō audīveris audiverit audīverimus audīveritis audīverint

SING.
Pres. 2. audi
Fut. 2. auditō 3. audītō
audiunto
PLUR. audite auditōte
SING.
Pres. 2. audī
Fut. 2. auditō
3. auditō
audītus eram audītus erās audītus erat audītī erāmus audītī erātis audītī erant

Future Perfect. audītus erō audītus eris audītus erit audītī erimus audītī eritis audītī erunt

Imperative.

Pres. audire Perf. audivisse Fut. audītūrus esse

SING.
audire auditor auditor

Subj. audītī simus auditī sitis auditī sint audītus essem audītus essēs audītus esset audītī essēmus audītī essētis auditī essent

## Infinitive.

audiri auditus esse auditum inī (auditus fore)

Participles.
Pres. audiēns
Fut. auditūrus
Gerund : audiendi, -d̄̄, -dum, -dö
Perf. auditus
Ger, audiendus
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.

## Parallel Forms.

134. Many verbs have more than one set of forms, of which only one is generally found in classic use : as, lavō, lavãre or laverre, wash.

## DEPONENT VERBS.

135. Deponent Verbs have the form of the Passive Voice, with an active or reflexive signification : as, ist conj. miror, mirāri, mirātus, admire. 2d conj. vereor, verēri, veritus, fear. 3d conj. sequor, sequi, secūtūs, follow. $4^{\text {th }}$ conj. partior, partiri, partitus, share.
I.

| Pres. miror | vereor |
| :---: | :---: |
| mirāris (-re) | verēris (-re) |
| mirātur | verētur |
| mīrāmur | verēmur |
| mīrāminī | verēmini |
| mïrantur | verentur |
| Impf. mīrābar | verēbar |
| Fut. mirābor | verēbor |
| Perf. mirātus sum | veritus sum |
| Plup. mīrātus eram | veritus eram |
| $F . P$. mīrātus erō | veritus e |


| Pres. mïrer | verear |
| :--- | :--- |
| Impf. mīrārer | verērer |
| Perf. mīrātus sim | veritus sim |
| Plup. mīrātus essem veritus essem |  |

sequar
sequerer
secūtus sim
partiar partīer partitus sim secūtus essem partītus essem
partior partinis (-xe) partitur partimur partiminī partiuntur partiēbar partiar partitus sum partitus eram partītus erō

## Subjunctive.

## Imperative.

$\begin{array}{ccc}\text { I. } & \text { II. } & \text { III. }\end{array} \quad$ IV. ${ }_{c}$
Infinitive.

| Pres. mīrāī | verēri | sequi | partīi |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Perf. mīrātus esse | veritus esse | secūtus esse | partitus esse |
| Fut. mīrātūrus esse veritūrus esse | secūtūrus esse | partitūrus esse |  |

Participles.

| Pres. mīāns | verēns | sequēns | partiēns |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Fut. mīrārus | veritūrus | secū̄̄̄rus | partītūrus |
| Perf. mīrātus | veritus | secūtus | partītus |
| Ger. mīrandus | verendus | sequendus | partiendus |

Gerund.
mīrandī, $-\overline{0}$, etc. verendi, etc. sequendi, etc. partiendi, etc.

## Supine.

mīrātum, -t̄̄ veritum, -t̄̄u secūtum, -t $\bar{u}$ partītum, $-t \bar{u}$
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 secūtūrus esse (not secūtum irī).
d. The gerundive, being passive in meaning, is found only in transitive verbs, or neuter verbs used impersonally : as, -
hōc cōnfitendum est, this must be acknozuledged. moriendum est omnibus, all must die.
e. Most deponents are neuter or reflexive in meaning.
$f$. 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, merēे or mereor, I deserve.
$h$. More than half of all deponents are of the First Conjugation, and all of these are regular.

## 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 passives. They are -
audeō, audēre, ausus, dare. gaudeō, gaudēre, gāvisus, rejoice. fidō, fidĕre, fisus, trust. soleō, solēre, solitus, be wont.

## 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. They are sum, volō, ferō, edō, quē̄, eō, fī̄, and their compounds.

Sum has already been inflected in § 119.
a. Sum is compounded without any change of inflection with the prepositions ab, ad, $\overline{d e}$, in, inter, ob, prae, prō (prōd), sub, super.

In the compound prōsum, prō retains its original $\overline{\mathbf{d}}$ before $\boldsymbol{e}$. Thus, -

Indic.
Pres. prōsum, I help.
prōdes
prōdest
prōsumus
prōdestis
prōsunt

Subj.
prōsim
prōsis
prōsit
prōsimus
prōsitis
prōsint

Impf. prōderam, I was helping. prōdessem
Fut. prōderō, I shall help.
Perf. prötui, I helped. prōfuerim
Plup. prōfueram, I had helped. prōfuissem
F. P. prōfuerō, I shall have helped.

Imper. prōdes, prōdestō, etc.
Infin. Pres. prōdesse Perf. prōfuisse Fut. pröfutürus esse
Part. prōfutūrus, about to help.
b. Sum is also compounded with the adjective potis, or pote, able, making the verb possum. This is inflected as follows :-

138. Volō and its compounds are inflected as follows :(volō, velle, voluī, wish nōlō (for $\mathbf{n e}$ volō), nōlle, nōluī, be unwilling. mālō ( for magis or mage volō), mālle, māluī, wish rather, prefer.

Present.

| - | Subj. velim | Indic. <br> nōō | Subj. nōlim | Indic. <br> mālō | Subj. mālim |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| vis | velis | nōnvis | nōlīs | māvis | mālis |
| volt (vult) | velit | nōnvolt | nōlit | māvolt | mālit |
| volumus | velimus | nōlumus | nōlimus | mālumus | mālìmus |
| voltis(vul-) | velitis | nōnvultis | nōlitis | māvultis | mālītis |
| volunt | velint | nōlunt | nōlint | mālunt | mālint |
| Imperfeet. |  |  |  |  |  |
| volēbam | vellem | nōlëbam | nollem | mālēbam | māllem |
| Future. |  |  |  |  |  |
| volam, volē | es, etc. | nōlam, nō | ēs, etc. | mālam, mālēs, etc. |  |
| Perfeet. |  |  |  |  |  |
| volui | voluerim | nōluī | nöluerim | mālui | māluerim |

volueram voluissem nōlueram nōluissem mālueram māluissem
voluerō

Pres.
Fut.

Future Perfect. nōluerō māluerō

Imperative. nōli nōlite, do not. nōlītō nōlītōte, thou shalt not, ye shall not. nōlītō


Infinitive.
velle voluisse nōlle nōluisse mālle māluisse
Participles.
Pres. volēns, willing. nōlens, unwilling.
Gerund: volendi (làte)
139. Ferō, ferre, tŭlī, lātum, bear. ACTIVE.

PASSIVE.

|  | $\begin{array}{l}\text { INDIC. }\end{array}$ | SUBJ. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Pres. | ferō |  |
| fers | feram |  |$\}$

InDIC.
feror
ferris
fertur
ferimur
ferimini
feruntur
ferēbar
ferar
lātus sum
lātus eram
lātus erō
Imperative.

| Pres, | fer |
| :--- | :--- |
| Fut. |  |
| fertō |  |
| fertō |  |

Pres. ferre
Perf. tulisse
Fut. lātūrus esse

Pres. ferēns
Fut. lātūrus
ferre
fertor
fertor

Infinitive.
ferri
lātus esse

Participles.
Perf. lātu及
Ger. ferendus

Subj.
ferar ferāris (-re)
ferātur ferāmur ferāminī ferantur ferrer
lātus sim lātus essem
ferimini
$\qquad$
feruntor
lātum ini (lātus fore)
140. Ed̄े, edere, ēdi, ēsum, 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.
Indic. Subj.
edam (edim) edās (edis)
edat (edit)
edāmus (edīnus)
edātis (editis) edant (edint)

PASSIVE.
Indic. SUBJ.

## Present.

    ederis (-re) edāris (-re)
    editur (ēstur) edātur
    edimur edāmur
    ediminī edāminī
    eduntur edantur
    Imperfect.

| edēbam | ederem (̄̄ssem) | edēbar | ederer |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| edēbās | ederēs (ēssēs) | edēbāris (-re) | ederēris (-re) |
| edēbat | ederet (ēsset) | edēbātur | ederētur (ēssētur) |

Future.
edar
edēris
edētur, etc.
Perfect.
ēderim | ēsus sum ēsus sim
Pluperfect. ēdissem $\quad$ ēsus eram ēsus essem

Future Perfect.
ēderō
ede (ēs) edite (ëste) editō (ēstō) editō (ēstō) eduntō
edere (ēsse)
èdisse
ēsūrus esse
| ēsus erō
Imperative. editōte (ēstōte)

Infinitive.
ēsus esse
ēsum îrī

> edī
ediminī
edere
editor editor
eduntor

Participles.

Pres. edēns
Fut. ēsūrus

Perf. ēsus
Gor. edendus

Gerund: edendī, -dō, -dum, -dō

141. EOO, ire, ivi, ìtum, go.<br>Indicative.<br>Pres. S. ē̈, is, it<br>$P$. imus, itis, eunt<br>Imperf. ibam, ibäs, ibat<br>ibāmus, ibätis, ibant<br>Future. ibō, îbis, ibit<br>ibimus, ibitis, ibunt<br>Perfect. ivi (ii)<br>Pluperf. iveram (ieram)<br>Fut. Perf. īverō (ierō)

Imperative.
i i, ite, ìto, itō, itōte, euntō
Infinitive.
Pres. ixe
Perf. ivisse( isse) Fut. itūrus esse
Participles.

| Pres. iēns, euntis Fut. itūrus | Ger. eundum |
| :--- | :--- |
| Gerund : eundī, $-\mathrm{d} \overline{0},-$ dum, - dō | SUPINE: itum, itū |

a. The compounds adē̈, approach, inēे, enter, and some others, are transitive. They are inflected as follows in the passive :-

Indicative.
Pres. adeor Impf. adibar
adīis Fut. adibor
aditur Perf. aditus sum
adīmur Plup. aditus eram
adīminī $F . P$. aditus erō adeuntur

Subjunctive.
Pres. adear
Impf. adīer
Perf. aditus sim
Plup. aditus essem Infin. adiri, aditus esse PART. aditus adeundus

Thus inflected, the forms of ē are used impersonally in the third person singular of the passive : as, itum est (§ $146 . d$ ). The infinitive ini is used with the supine in -um to make the future infinitive passive (§ 147. c. I ). The verb vēnēे, be sold (i.e. vēnum eठ, go to sale), has also several forms in the passive.
b. In the perfect system of $\boldsymbol{e} \overline{0}$ and its compounds the forms with $\mathbf{v}$ are extremely rare.
c. The compound ambio, inflected regularly like a verb of the fourth conjugation, has also ambibat in the imperfect indicative.
d. Prō with eō retains its original d: as, prōđeō, prōdis, prōait.
142. Faciō, facëre, fēcī, factum, make, is regular. But it has imperative fac in the active, and besides the regular forms the future perfect faxō, perfect subjunctive faxim. The passive of faciō is -
fiō, fiĕri, factus sum, be made, or become.
The tenses of the first stem of fiō are regular of the fourth conjugation, but the subjunctive imperfect is fierem, and the infinitive fieri.

## Indicative. Subjunctive.

$\begin{aligned} & \text { Pres. } S . \\ & \text { fiö, fis, fit } \\ & P . \text { fimus, fitis, fiunt }\end{aligned}$
Imperf. fiēbam, fiēbās, etc.
Future. fiam, fiès, etc.
Perfect. factus sum factus sim
Pluperf. factus exam
Fut. Perf. factus erō
Imper. fi, fite, fitō, fitōte, fiuntō
Infin. Pres. tierī Perf. factus esse Fut. factum inì Part. Perf. factus Ger. faciendus
a. Most compounds of faciō with prepositions change ă to $\check{\mathbf{I}}$ (present stem), or ĕ (supine stem), and are inflected regularly : as, -
cōnficiō, cōnficĕre, cōnfēci, cōnfectum, finish. cōnficior, cōnficī, cōnfectus.
b. Other compounds retain $a$, and have -fio in the passive : as, benefaciō, -facere, -feci, -factum ; pass. benefiō, -fierī, -factus, benefit. These retain the accent of the simple verb: as, bene-fă'cis (§ $19 . d$ ).
c. A few isolated forms of -fiō occur in other compounds : viz., cōnfit, it happens. dēfit, it lacks. infit, he begins (to speak). cōnfiet
dēfiunt dēfiet dëfiat đēfieri
fiam, fiās, fiat
fiāmus, fiātis, fiant fierem, fierēs, etc. factus essem
gic
cōnfiat
cōnfieret
cōnfierī
infiunt
effieri, to be effected. interfieri, to perish. interfiat, let him perish.

## 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. Coepì, I began; Infin. coepisse ; Fut. Part. coeptūrus; Perf. Pass. Part. coeptus.

The passive is used with the passive infinitive : as, coeptus sum vocārī, I began to be called, but coepi vocāre, I began to call. For the present incipio is used.
b. Ōdī, I hate; perfect participle ōsus, hating or hated (perōsus, utterly hateful), future participle ōsūrus, likely to hate.
c. Meminī, I remember; with the Imperative mementō, mementōte; Part. meminēns.

Note. - $\overline{0} \mathrm{di}$ and meminī have a perfect form with a present meaning, and are called preteritive verbs. Nōvī and cōnsuēvī (usually referred to nōscō and cōnsuēscō) 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'); ferī̄, -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. $\overline{\mathbf{A}} \bar{i}_{\mathrm{o}}, I$ say :-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Indic. Pres. āiō, ais, ait; ——_ āiunt } \\
& \text { Impf. āiēbam (aibam), äiēbās, etc. } \\
& \text { Subj. Pres. āiās, āiat, äiant } \\
& \text { Imper. } \quad \text { aī } \\
& \text { Part. } \\
& \text { āiēns }
\end{aligned}
$$

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. inquiēbat Fut. inquiēe, -et Perf. inquisti, inquit Imper. $\quad$ inque, inquitō
c. The deponent färi, to speak, forms the perfect tenses regularly : as, fātus sum, eram, etc. It has also -

| Indic. | Pres. fātur, fantur |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Fut. | fābor, fābitur |

Several forms compounded with the prepositions ex, prae, prō, inter, occur : as, praefātur, affāri, prōōātus, interfätur, etc. The compound infāns is regularly used as a noun (child). Infandus, nefandus, are used as adjectives, unspeakable, abominable.
d. Quaesō, I ask, beg (original form of quaerō), has -

Indic. Pres. quaesō, quaesŭmus
Infin. quaesere
Part. quaesēns
e. Ovāre, to triumph, has the following :-

Indic. Pres. ovat
Subj. Pres. ovet
Impf. ovāret
Part. ovāns, ovātūrus, ovātus
Ger.'. ovandi
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. Quē̄, I can, nequē̄, I cannot, are conjugated like ē̄. They are rarely used except in the present.
Indic. SUBJ. Indic. SUBJ.

## Present.

| quē̄ | queam | nequeō (nōn quē̄) | nequeam |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| quis | queās | nōnquis | nequeās |
| quit | queat | nequit | nequeat |
| quimus | queāmus | nequīmus | nequeāmus |
| quitis | queātis | nequītis | nequeātis |
| queunt | queant | nequeunt | nequeant |

Imperfect.
quīrem nequibam nequirem
quiret
quirent
nequibat nequiret nequibant nequirent

Future.
quibō
quibunt
quivi
quivit
quivērunt

Pluperfect.
quissent
nequibunt
Perfect.
nequivi
nequivistī
nequivit
nequivērunt
nequisset

Infinitive.
quire
quivisse (quīsse) nequire
nequivisse

## Participles.

quiēns, queuntis nequiēns

## 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. Their synopsis may be given as follows :-

Conj. L
it is plain. cōnstat licet cōnstābat cōnstābit cōnstitit cōnstiterat cōnstiterit cōnstet cōnstāret cōnstiterit cōnstitisset cōnstāre cōnstitisse -stātūrum esse -itūrum esse
III.
it chances.
IV. it results.

Pass. Conj. i.
it is fought.
pūgnātur
pūgnābātur pūgnābitur pūgnātum est pūgnātum erat pūgnātum erit pūgnētur pūgnārētur pūgnātum sit pūgnātum esset pūgnāri
pūgnātum esse -tūrum esse pūgnātum īri
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; lūciscit 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, Iūppiter 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 ( $\S 221 . b)$. Such are miseret, it grieves; paenitet (poenitet), it repents; piget, it disgusts; pudet, it shames; taedet, it wearies : as, miseret mē, 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 $\dagger$ 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, ēvenit, obtingit, obvenit, fit, it happens.
libet, it pleases.
licet, it is permitted. certum est, it is resolved. cōnstat, it is clear. decet, it is becoming.
dēlectat, iuvat it delights.
necesse est, oportet, $\}$ it is needful. praestat, it is better. interest, rēfert, it concerns.

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); itur, some one goes (it is gone); parcitur mihi, I am spared (it is spared to me, see § 230).

## 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:-
148. By the infinitive passive of ē, go, used impersonally with the supine in -um: amātum ini.
149. By fore (or futūrum esse), with the perfect participle (as amātus fore).
150. 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.

## 7. PARTICLES.

Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections are called Particles. In their origin they are (i) caseforms, actual or extinct, (2) compounds and phrases, or (3) meaningless exclamations.

## I. ADVERBS. <br> x. 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 -ē : as, cārē, dearly, from cārus, dear (stem cāro-).
b. From adjectives of the third declension by adding ter to the stem. Stems in nt- (nom, -ns) dose the -t. All others are treated as i-stems. Thus, -
fortiter, bravely, from fortis (stem forti-), brave.
ācriter, eagerly, from ācer (stem ācri-), eager.
vigilanter, watchfully, from vigilāns (stem vigilant-).
prūdenter, prudently, from prūdēns (stem prūdent-).
aliter, otherwise, from alius (old stem ali-).
c. Some adjectives of the first and second declensions have adverbs of both forms ( $\bar{e}$ and -ter). Thus, dūrus, hard, dūrē and dūriter.
d. The neuter accusative of adjectives and pronouns is often used as an adverb : as, multum, much; facilĕ, easily; quid, why.

So, regularly in the comparative degree : as, ācrius, more keenly (positive ācriter) ; facilius, more easily (positive facilĕ).

## 2. Classification.

149. Adverbs are classified as follows :-

> a. Adverbs of Place.
hic, here. hūc, hither. hinc, hence. hāc, by this way.

## b. Adverbs of Time.

quandō? when? (interrog.) ; cum (quom), when (relat.).

## c. Adverbs of Degree or Cause.

quam, how, as; tam, so; quamvis, however much, although; quōmod̄, how.

d. Interrogative Particles.

an, -ne, anne, utrum, utrumne, num, whether.

## e. Negative Particles.

nōn, not (in simple denial) ; haud (hau, haut), minimē, not (in contradiction) ; nē, not (in prohibition) ; nēve, neu, nor; nēdum, much less.
$f$. Adverbs of Manner (see § i48).
g. Numeral Adverbs (see §96).

## 3. Peculiar Uses of Adverbs.

150. Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative : as, -
nēmō nōn audiet, every one will hear (nobody will not hear).
a. Many compounds of which nōn is the first part express an indefinite affirmative : as, -
nōnnūllus, some ; nōnnūllī ( = aliquī), some few.
nōnnihil ( = aliquid), something.
nōnnēmō ( = aliquot), sundry persons.
nōnnumquam ( = aliquotiēns), sometimes.
necnōn, also (nor not).
b. Two negatives of which the second is nōn (belonging to the predicate) express a universal affirmative : as, -
nēmō nōn, nūllus nōn, nobody [does] not, i.e. everybody [does] (cf. nōnnēmō, above, not nobody, i.e. somebody).
nihil nōn, everything.
numquam nōn, never not, ie. always (cf. nōnnumquam, above, not never, i.e. sometimes).
151. The following adverbs require special notice :-
a. Etiam (et lam), also, even, is stronger than quoque, also, and usually precedes the emphatic word, while quoque follows it : as, nōn verbīs sōlum sed etiam vī (Verr. II. ii, 64), not only by words, but also by force.
hōc quoque maleficium (Rosc. Am. 118), this crime 100.
b. Nunc (for tnum-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. Tunc, then, at that time, is a strengthened form of tum $\dagger$ tum-ce, cf. nunc). Thus, -
ut iam anteā dīxī, as I have already said before.
sì iam satis aetātis atque rōboris habēret (Rosc. Am. 149), if he had attained a suitable agre and strength (lit. if he now had, as he will by and by).
nōn est iam lēnitātī locus, there is no longer room for mercy.
quod iam erat institūtum, which had come to be a practice (had now been established).
nunc quidem dēlēta est, tunc flōrēbat (Læl. 13), now ('tis true) she [Greece] is ruined, then she was in her glory.
tum cum rēgnäbat, at the time when he reigned.
c. Certō means certainly; certē (usually), at any rate : as, certō sciō, I know for a certainty; ego certē, I at any rate.
d. Primum 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, -
hōc primum sentiō, this I hold in the first place.
aedēs primō ruere rēbāmur, at first we thought the house was falling.
In enumerations, primum (or primō) 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, -
primum dē genere bellī, deinde dē māgnitūdine, tum dē imperätōre dēligendō (Manil.), first of the kind of war, next of its magnitude, then of the choice of a commander.
e. Quidem, to be sure, gives emphasis, and often has a concessive meaning, especially when followed by sed, autem, etc. : as, -
hōc quidem vidēre licet (Læl. 54), THis surely one may see. [Emphatic.] (sēcūritās) speciē quidem blanda, sed reāpse multīs locīs repudianda (id. 47), (tranquility) in appearance,' 'tis true, attractive, but in reality to be rejected for many reasons. [Concessive.]

Nē ... quidem means not even or not . . . either. The emphatic word or words must stand between $\mathbf{n} \overline{\mathrm{e}}$ and quidem.
senex nē quod spēret quidem habet (C. M. 68), an old man has not anything to hope for EVEN.
sed nē Iugurtha quidem quiētus erat (Jug. 51), but Jugurtha was not quied EITHER.

## II. PREPOSITIONS.

152. Prepositions are regularly used either with the Accusative or with the Ablative.
a. The following are used with the Accusative : -
ad, to.
adversus, against.
adversum, towards.
ante, before.
apud, at, near.
circā, around.
circum, around.
circiter, about.
cis, citrā, this side.
contrā, against.
extrā, outside.
in, into.
infrā, below.
inter, among.
inträ, inside.
iuxtā, near.
ob, on account of.
penes, in the power. per, through. pōne, behind.
post, after.
praeter, beyond.
prope, near.
propter, on account of.
secundum, next to.
sub, under.
suprā, above.
trāns, across.
ūltrā, on the further side.
versus, towards.
ergā, towards.
b. The following are used with the Ablative : -
ā, ăb, abs, away from, by. absque, without, but for. cōram, in presence of. cum, with. $\mathrm{d} \overline{\mathrm{e}}$, from. $\overline{\mathbf{e}}, \mathrm{ex}$, out of.
in, in.
prae, in comparison with.
prō, in front of, for.
sine, without.
sub, under.
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 :-

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { in, into, in. } & \text { sub, under. } \\
\text { subter, beneath. } & \text { super, above. }
\end{array}
$$

In and sub, when followed by the accusative, indicate motion to, when by the ablative, rest in, a place : as, -
vēnit in aedēs, he came into the house; erat in aedibus, he was in the house. sub ilice cōnsēderat, he had seated himself under an ilex.
sub lēgēs mittere orbem, to subject the world to laws (to send the world under laws).
153. The uses of the Prepositions are various, and are explained in the dictionaries.

## 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 -
155. Copulative or disjunctive, implying a connection or opposition of thought as well as of words : as, et, and.
156. Adversative, implying a connection of words, but a contrast in thought : as, sed, but.
157. Causal, introducing a cause or reason : as, nam, for
158. 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-
I. Conditional, denoting a condition or hypothesis: as, sii, if; nisi, unless.
159. Comparative, implying comparison as well as condition : as, āc si, as if.
160. Concessive, denoting a concession or admission : as, quamquam, although (lit. however much it may be true that, etc.).
161. Temporal : as, postquam, after.
162. Consecutive, expressing result : as, ut, so that.
163. Final, expressing purpose : as, ut, in order that; nē, that not.
164. Conjunctions are more numerous and more accurately distinguished in Latin than in English. For classified lists, see larger grammar.
165. 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 līberis, with [their] wives'a\%d children.'
> ferrō ïgnique, with fire and sword. [Not as separate things, but as the combined means of devastation.]
> aquā et īgnī interdictus, forbidden the use of water and fire. [In a legal formula, where they are considered separately.]

Atque ( $\overline{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{c}$ ) 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. But these distinctions depend very much upon the feeling of the speaker, and are often untransiatable : as, -
omnia honesta atque inhonesta, everything honorable and dishonorable (too, without the slightest distinction).
ūsus atque disciplina, practice and theory beside (the more important or less expected).
atque ego crēdō, and yet I believe (for my part).
In the second of two connected ideas, and not is expressed by neque (nec): as, -
neque vērō hōc sōlum dīxit, and he not only said this.
Atque ( $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ ), in the sense of as, than, is also used after words of comparison and likeness : as, -
nōn secus (aliter) āc sī, not otherwise than if.
prō eō āc dēbuī, as was my duty (in accordance as I ought).
$b$. Sed and the more emphatic vērum or vērō, but, 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 almost always introduces 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 si, 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, etiamsī quod scrībās nōn habēbis, scribito tamen (Cic.), though you have nothing to write, still write all the same.
c. Aut, or, excludes one alternative; vel and -ve give a choice between two. But this distinction is sometimes neglected. Thus, -
sed quis' ego' sumt dat 'qua' es't in më facultās, 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 tenuī aut nūllā potius valētūdine, 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.]
vïta tālis fuit vel fortūnā vel glōriā, his life was such either in respect to fortune or fame (whichever way you look at it).
sī propīnquōs habeant imbēcilliōrēs vel animō vel fortūnā, if they have relatives beneath them either in spirit or in fortune (in either respect, for example).
cum cōgnitī sunt et aut deōrum aut rēgum filiī inventī, sons either of gods or of kings. [Here one case would exclude the other.]

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, -
sīve arrīdēns sīve quod ita putāret (De Or. i. 91), either laughingly or because he really thought so.

Vel 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, and its negative neque enim introduce something self-evident or needing no proof.
(ea vīta) quae est sōla vīta nōminanda. nam dum sumus in hīs inclūsī compāgibus corporis mūnere quōdam necessitätis et gravī opere perfungimur. est enim animus caelestis, etc. (Cat. Maj. 77).
hārum trium sententiārum nūllī prōrsus assentior. nec enim illa prīma vēra est, for of course that first one is n'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. Idcircō, for this reason, on this account, is regularly followed (or preceded) by a correlative : as,
quia, quod, sī, ut, nee, and refers to the special point introduced by the correlative.
nē aegrī quidem quia nōn omnēs convalēscunt, idcircō ars nūlla medicīnae est.
malum mihi vidētur mors. est miserum igitur, quoniam malum. certē. ergō et eī quibus ēvēnit iam ut morerentur et eī quibus ēventūrum est miserī. mihi ita vidētur. nēmō ergō nōn miser. (Tusc. i. 9.)
meministis enim cum illīus nefārī̄ gladiātöris vōcēs percrēbuissent quās, etc.-tum igitur (Mur. 50).
f. Quia, because, regularly introduces a fact; quod, either a fact or a statement. Quoniam (for quom liam), inasmuch as, since, when now, now that, has reference to motives, excuses, or justifications, and the like. Quandō, since, is mostly archaic or late.
possunt quia posse videntur, they can because they think they can.
locus est à mē quoniam ita Mūrēna voluit retrāctandus (Mur. 54), I must review the point, since Murena has so wished.
mē reprehendis quod idem dēfendam (as he had not) quod lēge pūnierim (Mur. 67), you blame me because [as you say] I defend the same charge which I have punished by law.

In the denial of a reason, nōn quō is used as well as nōn quod, nōn quia, and nōn quin, but not nōn quoniam. Thus, -
nōn quia multīs dēbeō . . . sed quia saepe concurrunt aliquōrum bene dē mē meritōrum inter ipsōs contentiōnēs (Planc. 78), not because I am indebted to many, but because, etc.
nōn quīn parī virtūte et voluntāte aliī fuerint, sed tantam causam nōn habuērunt (Phil. vii. 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); quandō, when (rarely since), is used as interrogative, relative, and indefinite: as, quandō? hodiē, when? to-day; si quandō, if ever.
h. 1. Conjunctions, especially those of relative origin, frequently have a correlative in another clause, to which they correspond : as, ut sêmentem fēceris, ita metēs, as you sow, so shall you reap.
2. Often the same conjunction is repeated in two co-ordinate clauses. Examples are -

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { et . . . et, both . . . and. } \\
& \text { modo . . . modo, now . . . now. } \\
& \text { nunc . . . nunc, now . . . now. }
\end{aligned}
$$

i. The concessives (etsĩ, quamvis, etc., although) may introduce either a fact or a mere supposition, and are often followed by the correlative tamen, yet, nevertheless; quamquam regularly introduces an admitted fact and not a mere supposition.

Quamquam (and rarely etsī, tametsi) in the sense of though (and yet, but, however) may also introduce an independent statement made to limit or correct the preceding : as, -
ille volt diū vīvere, hīc diū vīxit, quamquam, $\bar{o}$ dī bonī, quid est in hominis vìtā diū? (Cat. M. 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.

$\overline{\mathbf{O}}$, ēn, ecce, ehem, papae, vāh (of astonishment).
iō, ēvae, ēvoe, euhoe (of joy).
heu, ēheu, vae, alas (of sorrozv).
heus, eho, ehodum, ho (of calling) ; st, hist.
ēia, euge (of praise).
prō (of attestation) : as, prō puđor, shame!

## 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.

## I. ROOTS AND STEMS.

157. Roots ${ }^{1}$ are of two kinds :-
158. Verbal, expressing ideas of action or condition (sensible phenomena).
159. Pronominal, expressing ideas of position and direction.
${ }^{1}$ For the distinction between Roots and Stems, see §§ 21, 22.

Stems are divided into (1) Noun- (including Adjec-tive-) stems, and (2) Verb-stems.
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, êst.
b. With change of the root-vowel : as, $\overline{\mathrm{u}} \mathrm{c}-\mathrm{is}$ ( $\mathrm{l} \overline{\mathrm{u} x}$ ), LUC ; pāc-is (pāz). So in verbs: i-s for teis, from ē̄, îre; fâtur, from for, farī

Note. - It is impossible to say 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 § I 59.

## II. SUFFIXES.

159. Stems are derived from roots or from other stems by means of suffixes. These are -
160. Primary : added to the root, or (later by analogy) to verbstems.
161. 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. Thus a word regularly consists of a verbal root and one or more pronominal roots and inflectional terminations.

## 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 $\overline{0} n-(n o m . ~-\bar{\sigma})$ gave mentiō, and this being divided into men + tiō, gave rise to a new type of abstract nouns in -tiō (phonetically -siō) : as, lēgātiō, embassy.

A word like auditor, by the suffix io- (nom. -ius), gave rise to adjectives like auditōrius, of which the neuter is used to denote the place where the action of the verb is performed. Hence -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 -

1. Vowel suffixes : as, -
a, found in nouns and adjectives of a- and o-stems : as, sonus, ludus, vagus, scriba, toga (root TEG).
2. Suffixes with a consonant : as, -
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 putus (cf. pūrus), altus (alō).
va (commonly u0-) with an active or passive meaning, as in ecus, arvum, cōnspicuus, exiguus, vacīvus (vacuus).

## 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).
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.
canō, sing (CAN, supine $\dagger$ cantum); cantor, singer; cantrix, songstress.
tondeō, shear (TOND as root, sup. tōnsum) ; tōnsor, tōnstrix, hair-cutter.
By analogy -tor is sometimes added to noun-stems as if stems of lost verbs : as, viātor, traveller, from via, way (but cf. inviō).
b. t- (originally ta-, cf. § $160 . c$ ), c., added to verb-stems making nouns in -es (-itis, -etis, stem -it-, -et-) descriptive of a character : as,
teges (verb-stem tege-, cf. tegō, cover), a coverer, a mat.
c. - $\bar{o}$ (gen. -ōnis, stem $\overline{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{n}-$ ), 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.

## 2. Names of Actions.

163. Names of Actions are derived (I) really or apparently from roots and verb-stems (primary) or (2) from noun-stems (secondary).

Note. - These easily pass into pure Concrete nouns denoting the result, means, or instrument of the action. Compare an apparition, a congregation, a rainfall, a large following, a drive of logs.
I. Real or Apparent Primary Formations.
a. -or (st. ōr-, earlier ōs-), m., -ēs (gen. -is, st. i-, earlier es-), F., -us (st. ës-, or os-), N., added to roots make names of actions : as, -
timeō, fear (verb); tim-or, fear (noun).
sedeō, sit; sēd-ēs, seat.
decet, it is becoming; dec-us, grace, beauty.
Note. - Many nouns of this class are formed by analogy from imaginary roots : as, facinus (from a supposed root facin).
b. -ī̄ (st. iōn-), -tiō (st. tiōn-), -tūra (st. tūra-), F., -tus (st. tu-), m., (phonetically -siō, -sūra, -sus), apparently added to roots or verbstems, make verbal abstracts.
legō, enroll; leg-iō (an enrolling, the thing_enrolled), a legion. regō, direct; reg-ī̄, a direction, a region.
inserō (SA), implant; insi-tiō, grafting.
vocō, call; vocā-tiō, a calling.
mōlior, toil; mōli-tiō, a toiling.
pingō (PIG), paint; pic-tūra, the art of painting, a painting.
sentiō, feel; sēn-sus, feeling, perception, a feeling.
fruor, enjoy (for †truguor); frūc-tus, enjoyment, fruit, a fruit.
c. -men, -mentum, -mōnium, N., -mōnia, F., apparently added to roots or verb-stems denote acts, or means and results of acts.
agō, root AG, lead; äg-men, line of march, a company.
regi- (stem seen in rego, direct) ; $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { regi-men, rule. } \\ \text { regi-mentum, rule. }\end{array}\right.$
So colu-men, pillar; mō-men, movement; nō-men, name.
fruor, enjoy; frū-mentum, grain.
testor, witness; testi-mōnium, testimony.
queror, complain; queri-mōnia, complaint.
Also flä-men (m.), a priest (flō, blow, of the sacrificial fire).
Remark. --mōnium and -mōnia are also used as secondary, forming nouns from other nouns and from adjectives : as, sancti-mōnia, sanctity (sanctus, holy); mātri-mōnium, marriage (māter, mother).
d. -bulum, -culum, -brum, -crum, -trum, N., added to verb-stems or roots (rarely to noun-stems), denote means, instrument, or PLACE : as, -
pāscō, feed; pā-bulum, fodder.
stō, stand; sta-bulum, stall (standing-place).
tūs (gen. tūris), incense; tūri-bulum, a censer.
vehō, carry; vehi-culum, wagon.
piō, purify; piā-culum, an expiation.
flō, blow; flā-bra (pl.), blasts.
candēla, a candle; candēlā-brum, a candlestick.
sepeliō, bury; sepul-crum, tomb (place for burying).
claud̄, shut; claus-trum, a bar.
A few Masculines and Feminines of the same formation occur as nouns and adjectives : as, -
for, speak; fā-bula, tale.
rideō, laugh; ridi-culus, laughable.
faciō, make; fa-ber, smith.
lateō, hide; late-bra, hiding-place.
terō, bore; tere-bra, auger. mulgē̄, milk; mūlc-tra, milk-pail. ū̄̄, burn; Aus-ter, South wind.

## 2. Secondary Formations.

e. -ia, -tia (-iēe, -tiēs), -tās, -tūs, -tūđ̄̄, F., are added to adjective stems and a few to nouns to make abstracts. So -dō and -gō, F., but associated with verbs, and apparently added to verb-stems. Thus, -
auđāx, bold; audāc-ia, boldness. So, fidūc-ia, confidence ( $\dagger$ fidūx). prūđēns, wise; prūdent-ia, wisdom.
superbus, proud; superb-ia, pride.
tristis, sad; tristi-tia, sadness.
pauper, poor; pauper-iēs, poverty.
sēgnis, lazy; sēgni-tiēs, laziness.
bonus, good; boni-tās, goodness.
civis, citizen; civi-tās, citizenship.
senez, 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-vi).
lumbus, the loin; lumbā-g $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$, lumbago (as if from $\dagger$ lumbō, āre).
rubus, bramble (red bush); rūbi-gō, rust (redness).
prūriō, itch; prū̄i-gō, itching.
Stems ending in o- or a- lose these vowels before -ia (as superb-ia), and change them to $\mathbf{i}$ before -tās, -tūs, -tia (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), ūber-tās, volup-tās. o after $\mathbf{i}$ is changed to $\mathbf{e}$ : as, pius (stem pio-), pie-tās; socius, socie-tās (see § I I. $d$ ).
f. -ium, -tium, added to noun- and perhaps verb-stems, form 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.
collēga, a colleague; collēg-ium, colleagueship, a college. auspex, a soothsayer; auspic-ium, soothsaying, an omen. gaudē̄, rejoice; gaud-ium, joy.
benefaciō, benefit; benefic-ium, a kindness (but cf. beneficus).
dē-sīderō, miss (from $\dagger$ dē-sīdēs, out of place, of missing soldiers) ; dēsider-ium, longing.
effugiō, 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 collēga.

Less commonly -nia, F., -nium, -lium, -cinium, N., are added to noun-stems, but confused with verb-stems : as, -
pecū, cattle; pecū-nia, property consisting of cattle, money (cf. chattels).
conticēscō, hush; contici-nium, the hush of night.
augeō, increase; auxi-lium, help.
pecū, cattle; pecū-lium, private property (cf. pecūlor, implying a noun $\dagger$ pecūlum).
lātrō, robber; lātrō-cinium, robbery (cf. lātrōcinor, rob, implying an adj. $\dagger \dagger$ lātrōcinus).

## 3. Adjectives.

164. Derivative adjectives are Nominal (from nouns or adjectives) or Verbal (as from roots or verb-stems).

## I. Nominal.

a. -ulus (-a, -um) (after a vowel -olus), -culus, -ellus, -illus, make an important class of adjectives, usually appropriated to one gender, that of the Primitive, and used as Diminutive Nouns: as, -
rivus, a brook; riv-ulus, a streamlet.
gladius, a sword; gladi-olus, a small sword.
filius, a son; fili-olus, a little son.
filia, a daughter; fili-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.
$\dagger$ puera (cf. puer, a boy); puella (for $\dagger$ puer-ula), a girl.
cōdex, a block; cōdic-illi, 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.
mảior (old mäiōs), greater; mãius-culus, somewhat larger.
Remark. - -ciō, added to stems in n-, has the same diminutive force, but is added to masculines only: as, homun-ciō, a drearf (from homō, a man).
b. -adēs, M., -ās, F., -idēs, -īdēs, M., -is, -ēis, F., -ēus, -eus, M., are 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 (gen. -idis), Helen, daughter of Tyndarus.
Atlās: Atlanti-adēs, Mercury; Atlant-idĕs (Gr. pl.), the Pleiads.
Scīpiō: Scipi-adēs, son of Scipio.
Anchisēs: Anchisi-adēs, Eneas.
Thēseus: Thēs-idēs, son of Theseus.
TȲdeus: Tyd-idēs, Diomedes, son of Tydeus.
Oileus: Āiāx Oīl-ēus, son of Oileus.
Thaumās: Thaumanti-as (gen. -adis), Iris, daughter of Thaumas.
Hesperus : Hesper-idēs (from Hesper-is, idis), F. pl., the daughters of Hesperus, the Hesperides.
c. ānus, -ēnus, -inus; -ãs, -ēnsis, -acus (-ācus), -icus; -ēus (generally shortened to -ěus), -eius, -icius, form adjectives with the sense of belonging to.
I. So from common nouns : as, -
mōns (st. monti-), mountain; mont-ānus, of the mountains.
ante lūcem, before light; antelūc-ānus, before daylight.
egeō, lack; eg-ēnus, needy.
terra, earth; terr-ènus, earthly.
collis, hill; coll-inus, of a hill.
libertus, one's freedman; libert-inus, of the class of freedmen.
vitulus, a calf; vitul-ina (sc. carō), veal.
quis, who? cūi-ās, of what country?
infimus, lowest; infim-ās, of the lowest rank.
forum, a market-place; for-ēnsis, of a market-place, or the Forum.
merum, pure wine; mer-ācus, pure.
civis, a citizen; civ-icus, civic, of a citizen.
femina, a woman; femin-eus, of a woman, feminine.
lāc, milk (st. lacti-); lact-eus, milky.
plëbēs, the commons; plēb-ēius, of the commons, plebeian.
pater, father; patr-icius, patrician.
2. But especially from proper nouns (names of places, peoples, and persons) denoting belonging To or COMING FROM : as, -

Rōma: Rōm-ānus, Roman.
Sulla: Sull-ānī, Sulla's veterans.
Cÿzicus: $\mathbf{C} \overline{\mathbf{y}}$ zic-ēni, Cyzicenes, people of Cyzicus.
Iiguria: Iigur-inus, of Liguria.
Arpinum: Arpin-ās, of Arpinum (cf. Samnium: Samnïs, gen. -ītis, a Samnite).
Sicilia: Sicili-ēnsis, Sicilian.
Ïum, Troy; $\overline{\mathrm{I}} \mathrm{i}$-acus, Trojan (a Greek form).
Platō: Platōn-icus, Platonic.
Aquila: Aquil-ēus, a Roman name; Aquileia, a town in Italy.
3. Many derivative adjectives with these endings have by usage become nouns. Thus, -
silva, woods; Silv-ānus, M., a god of the woods.
membrum, limb; membr-āna, F., skin.

- Aemilia (gēns) ; Aemili-ānus, M., name of Scipio Africanus.
lanius, butcher; lāni-ēna, F., a butcher's stall.
$\dagger$ Aufidius (Aufidus), M. ; Aufidi-ēnus, a Roman name.
incola, an inhabitant; inquil-inus, M., a lodger.
caecus, blind; Caec-ina, used as m., a Roman name.
gallus, a cock; gall-ina, F., a hen.
rū̄, fall (no noun existing); ru-ina, $\mathrm{F} .$, a fall.
doctor, teacher; doctr-ina, F., learning.
d. -ālis, -äris, -ëlis, -ilis, 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-äris, fellow-countryman.
patruus, uncle; patru-elis, cousin.
hostis, an enemy; host-ilis, hostile.
currus, chariot; sella cur-ūlis, curule chair.
vēr, spring; vēr-nus, vernal.
e. -ter (-tris), -ester (-estris), -timus, -ernus, -urnus, -ternus (-turnus), belonging to, of places, times, and the like (but some are general adjectives).
palūs, a marsh; palūs-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; hēs-ternus, of yesterday.
diū, long (in time); diū-turnus, lasting.
hodiè, to-day; hodi-ernus, of to-day.
diēs, day; di-urnus, daily.
f. -ātus, -itus, -ūtus, PROVIDED WITH, make 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-itus, long-eared.
versus, a turning; vers-ūtus, crafty, adroit (full of turns).
So -tus, added directly to nouns without reference to any verb : as,
fūnus, death; fūnes-tus, deadly.
honor, honor; hones-tus, honorable.
favor, favor; faus-tus (for †faves-tus), favorable.
g. -eus, -ius, -āceus, -icius, -āneus (-neus), -ticus, MADE OF or belonging to, form adjectives of various meanings : as, -
aurum, gold; aur-eus, golden.
pater, a father; patr-ius, paternal.
uxor, a wife; uxōr-ius, uxorious.
rosa, a rose; ros-āceus, of roses.
later, a brick; later-icius, of brick.
praesēns, present; praesent-āneus, operating instantly.
extrā, without; extr-āneus, external.
sub terrā, underground; subterr-āneus, subterranean.
salix, willow; salig-neus, of willow.
volō, fly; volā-ticus, winged (volātus, a fight).
domus, a house; domes-ticus, of the house, domestic.
silva, a wood; silvā-ticus, sylvan.
h. -ārius, -tōrius (-sōrius), belonging to, make many adjectives often fixed as nouns (see $i$ ).
ōrdō, rank, order; ōrdin-ärius, regular.
argentum, silver; argent-ārius, of silver or money.
extrā, outside; extr-ārius, stranger.
meritus, earned; meri-tōnius, profitable.
dēvorsus, turned aside; dēvor-sōrius, of an inn (cf. i. 5).
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, 一 argent-ārius, silversmith, broker (from argentum).
2. -āria, thing connected with something: as, -
arēn-āriae, F. pl., sandpits (from arēna, sand ).
Asin-āria, F., 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 sā1, salt).
calend-ānium, N., a note-book (from calendae, calends).
4. -tōría (-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 đēvortō, turn aside).
audi-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, $\mathbf{N}$. , toll (cf. portō, carry, and portus, harbor).
6. -ile, animal-stall: as, -
bov-ile, N., cattle-stall (bōs, bǒvis, ox, cowv).
ov-ile, sheep-fold (ovis, st. ovi-, sheep).
7. -al for -āle, thing connected with the primitive : as, -capit-al, N., head-dress, capital crime (caput, head). penetr-āle (esp. in pl.), N., inner apartment (cf. penetrō).
Sāturn-ālia, n. pl. (the regular form for names of festivals), feast of Saturn (from Sāturnus).
8. -ētum, N. (cf. -ātus, -ūtus, see $f$ ), place of a thing; as, -
querc-ētum, $N$., oak grove (from quercus, oak).
Argil-ētum, N., The Clay-pit (from argilla, clay).
9. -cus (sometimes with inserted $\mathbf{i}$, -icus), -icus, in any one of the genders, with various meanings : as, -
vili-cus, m., vili-ca, F., a steward (stewardess) (from villa, farmhouse).
fabr-ica, F., a workshop (from faber, workman).
bubul-cus, m., ox-tender (from būb-ulus, dim., cf. bōs, 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).
II. -ium, 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 ūrō, burn).
eques-ter, M., knight (for †equet-ter).
sequ-ester, m., a stake-holder (from derivative of sequor, follow).
ole-aster, m., wild olive (from olea) (cf. surd-aster, from surdus).
k. -ōsus, -(o)lēns, -(o)lentus, full of, prone to : as, -
flūctus, wave; flūctu-ōsus, billowy. forma, beauty; form-ōsus, beautiful. periculum, peril; pericul-ōsus, full of danger. pestis, pest; pesti-lēns, pesti-lentus, pestilent. vinum, wine; vino-lentus, vin-ōsus, given to drink.

## II. Verbal.

l. -āx, -idus, -ulus, -vus- (-uus, -ivus, -tivus), PRONE TO, FITTED то, apparently ${ }^{1}$ added to verb-stems, form adjectives, to express the action of a verb as a quality or tendency. -äz, denotes a faulty or aggressive tendency; -tivus is oftener passive. Thus, -
pūgnō, fight; pūgn-āx, pugnacious.
audeō, dare; aud-āx, bold.
cupiō, desire; cup-idus, eager.
bibō, drink; bib-ulus, thirsty (as dry earth, etc.).
prōterō, trample; proter-vus, violent, wanton.
nocē, do harm; noc-uus (noc-ivus), hurtful, injurious.
capiō, take; cap-tivus, captive, м., a prisoner of war.
recidō, fall back; recid-ivus, restored.
m. -ilis, -bilis, -ius, -tilis (-silis), express passive qualities, but occasionally active : as, -
frangō (FRAG), break; frag-ilis, frail, breakable.
nōscō (GNO), know; nō-bilis, well known, famous.
eximō, take out, select; exim-ius, choice, rare (cf. è-greg-ius).
agō, drive; ag-ilis, active.
habeō, hold; hab-ilis, handy.
al̄̄, nourish; al-tilis, fattened.
n. -minus, -mnus, are properly participial (cf. Greek - $\mu e{ }^{2} \mathrm{os}$, and amā-minī). They form a few nouns in which the participial force is discernible : as, -

FE, produce; fe-mina, woman (the producer).
alō, nourish; alu-mnus, a foster child, nursling.
o. -ndus (the same as the gerund-ending) forms a few active or reflexive adjectives : as, -

[^4]sequor, follow; secu-ndus, second (the following), favorable. rotō, whirl (from rota, wheel) ; rotu-ndus, round (whirling). ${ }^{1}$
p. -bundus, -cundus, with a participial meaning, but denoting continuance of the act or quality.
iocus, a jest; iū-cundus, pleasant (cf. iuvō, -āre).
vitō, shun; vitā-bundus, dodging about.
tremō, tremble; treme-bundus, trembling.
morior, die; mori-bundus, at the point of death.
for, speak; fa-cundus, eloquent.
FE , produce; fe-cundus, fruitful.
So, īra, anger; īrā-cundus, irascible (cf. īrā-scor).

## III. Irregular Derivatives.

q. The primary suffix $\overline{0} \mathrm{n}$, (nom. $-\overline{\mathbf{o}}$ ) is used as secondary to form nouns (originally adjectives), denoting possessed of and so expressing a character, often used as proper names ${ }^{2}$ : as, -
epulae, $a$ feast; epul- $\mathbf{0}$, a feaster.
nāsus, a nose; nās-0., with a large nose (also as a proper name).
-volus (in bene-volus), wishing; vol-ōnēs (pl.), volunteers.
frōns, forehead; front-ō, big-head (also as a proper name).
So, cüria, a curia; cūri-ō, head of a curia (also as proper name).
restis, a rope; resti-ō, a rope-maker.
$\dagger$ vespertilis, of the evening; vespertili-0, 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 $\dagger$ adverbus.
lāti-fund-ium, large estate; lātus, wide, fundus, estate.
su-ove-taur-ilia, a sacrifice of a swine, a sheep, and a bull; sūs, swine, ovis, sheep, taurus, bull, where the primitive would be impossible in Latin.

[^5]
## IV. DERIVATION OF VERBS.

165. Verbs may be classed as Primitive or Derivative.
I. Primitive verbs are those inherited by the Latin from the parent speech.
166. 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 other verbs (see § 167).

## 1. Denominative Verbs.

166. Verbs were formed in Latin from almost every form of noun- and adjective-stem.
a. 1. Verbs of the first conjugation are formed directly from a-stems, regularly with a transitive meaning : as, fuga, flight; fugō, put to fight; belliger, belligero (not bellum and gero, which would be impossible).

Note. - 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 $\dagger$ pūnāre, but it really makes pūnire, as if an ì-stem (as in impūni-s) ; servus makes servāre in one sense, servire in another.
2. Many verbs of the First Conjugation (commonly transitive) are formed from o-stems, changing the o- into $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$-. Thus, -
stimulus, a goad (stem stimulo-); stimulō (-āre), incite.
aecus, even (stem aequo-); aequō (-āxe), make even.
hibernus, of the winter (stem hiberno-); hibernō, pass the winter.
albus, white (stem albo-); albō (-äre), whiten.
pius, pure (stem pio-); piō (-āre), expiate.
3. A few verbs, generally neuter, are formed by analogy from con-sonant- and $\mathbf{u}$ - stems, adding $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ to the stem : as, -
vigil, awake; vigilō (-āre), watch.
exsul, an exile; exsulō (-āre), be in exile.
hiemps (stem hiem-), winter; hiemō (-āre), pass the winter. aestus, tide, seething; aestuō (-āre), surge, boil. levis (stem levi-), light; levō (-äre), 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, -
albus, white; albeō, be white (cf. albō, -āre, whiten, under a. 2).
cānus (stem cāno-), hoary; cāneō, be hoary.
tumulus, hill (implying $\dagger$ tumus, swelling); tumeō, swell.
prō-vidus, foreseeing; prō-vidē̄, foresee.
But moneō, remind; cf. meminī, remember.
algeō, be cold; cf. algidus, cold.
c. Some verbs in -ū, -uere are formed from noun-stems in uwhere probably an $i$ has been lost : as, -
status, position; statuō, set up.
metus, fear; metuō, fear.
d. Many verbs of the Fourth Conjugation are formed from real or imagined $\mathbf{i}$-stems : as,
mōlēs (-is), mass; mōlior, -iñi, toil.
finis, end; finiō, -ire, bound.
sitis, thirst; sitio, -ire, thirst.
stabilis, stable; stabiliō, -re, establish.
Some wrongly from other stems treated as if i -stems : as, -
bulla, bubble; bulliō, -īe, boil.
condus, storekeeper; condiō, -ire, preserve.
inssānus, mad; insāniō, -ire, rave.
gestus, gesture; gestio, -ire, show wild longing.
custōs, guardian; custōdiō, -ire, guard.

## 2. Verbs from other Verbs.

167. The following classes of verbs regularly derived from other verbs have special meanings connected with their terminations.
a. Inceptives or Inchoatives add -acō 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; sci-scō, determine.
cupiō, desire; con-cupi-scō, conceive a desire for.
alō, feed; ale-scō, grow.
So, īā-scor, get angry; cf. īrā-tus.
iuvene-sco, grow young; cf. iuvenis, young man.
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, calui ; proficiscor, profectus.
b. Intensives or Iteratives end in tō̄ or -itō (rarely -sō), and denote a forcible or repeated action : as, -
iaciō, throw; iac-tō, hurl.
dicō, say; dict-itō, keep on saying.
quatiō, shake; quas-sō, shatter.
They are of the first conjugation, and are properly denominative, derived from the participle in tus (stem to-).
c. Another form of Intensives - sometimes called Meditatives, or verbs of practice - ends in -essō (rarely -issō). These denote 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, -
lacessō, lacessĕre, lacessivī, lacessitum, provoke.
d. Diminutives (derived from real or supposed diminutive nouns) end in -illō, and denote a feeble or petty action : as, -
cavilla, raillery; cav-illor, jest.
cantō, sing; cant-illō, 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.
Note. - Desideratives are derived from some noun of agency : as, empturiö, from emptor, buyer. Visõ, 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 (sūs, 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, -lāti-fundium (lātus, fundus), a large landed estate.
c. The first part has the force of a case, and the second a verbal force (Objective Compounds) : as, -
agri-cola (ager, $\dagger$ 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.
${ }^{1}$ In these compounds only the second part receives inflection, commonly the proper inflection of the last stem ; but, as this kind of composition is older than inflection, the compounded stem sometimes has an inflection of its own (as, cornicen, -cinis; lücifer, -ferī; iūdex, -dicis), from stems not occurring in Latin. Especially do compound adjectives take the form of i-stems : as, animus, exanimis; nōrma, abnōrmis (see note, p. 23). In composition stems regularly have their uninflected form : as, igni-spicium, divining by firc. But 0 - and a -stems weaken the final vowel of the stem to i -, as in āli-pēs (from āla); and i - is so common a termination of compounded stems, that it is often added to stems which do not properly have it: as, foederi-fragus (for $\dagger$ foeder-fragus: foedus, tfragus), treaty-breaking.
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.
māgn-animus (māgnus, 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 not found in Latin.
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-dico (bene dicō), to bless; sat-agō (satis agō), to be busy enough.
c. Many apparent compounds : as, fiđē-iubeō (fideī iubeō), to give surety; mān-suētus (manui suētus), tame; Iūppiter ( $\dagger$ Iūspater) ; Mārci-por (Mārci puer), slave of Marcus.
d. A few phrases forced into the inflections of nouns : as, -
prō-cōnsul, proconsul (for prō cōnsule, instead of a consul).
trium-vir, triumvir (singular from trium virōrum).
septen-trio, the Bear, a constellation (supposed singular of septem triōnēs, The Seven Oxen).
170. Many syntactic compounds are formed by prefixing a Parrticle to some other part of speech :-
a. Prepositions are prefixed to Verbs or Adjectives and in these compounds retain their original adverbial sense : ${ }^{1}$ as, -

[^6]$\overline{\mathbf{a}}, \mathrm{ab}$, AWAY : au-ferre (ab-ferō), to take away. ad, то, TOWARDS : af-ferre (ad-ferō), to bring. ante, BEFORE : ante-ferre, to prefer; ante-cellere, to excel. circum, AROUND : circum-mūnire, to fortify completely. com-, con- (cum), TOGETHER or FORCIBLY: cōn-ferre, to bring together; col-locāre, to set firm.
dē, down, utterly : dē-spicere, despise; dēstruere, destroy. $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$, 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-venire, to meet. sub, UNDER : sub-struere, to build beneath.
super, UPON, OVER AND ABOVE: super-fluere, to overflow; superstes, a survivor.
Note. - In these compounds short a of the root is weakened to i before one consonant, to e before two : as, faciō, cōnficiō, cōnfectus; iaciō, ēiciō, ēiectus. But long a is retained: as, perāctus.
b. Verbs are also compounded with the following inseparable particles, which do not appear as prepositions in Latin : -
amb- (am-, an-), AROUND : amb-ire, to go about (cf. ả $\left.\mu \phi i^{\prime}, ~ a b o u t\right)$ ). dis-, di-, ASUNDER, APART: dis-cēdere, to depart (cf. duo, two).
por-, FORWARD : por-tendere, to hold forth, predict (cf. porrō, forth).
red-, re-, BACK, AGAIN : red-ire, to return; re-clūdere, to open (from claudō, shut) ; re-ficere, to repair (make again). sēd-, sē-, APART: sē-cernō, 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-māgnus, very large.
sub-rüsticus, rather clownish.
prae-longus, very long.
in-finitus, boundless.

Note. - Per and sub, in these senses, are also prefixed to verbs : as, perterreō, terrify; sub-rideō, smile. In ignōscō, in- appears to be the negative prefix.
d. Many Verbals are found compounded with a preposition, like the verbs to which they correspond. Thus, -
per-fuga, deserter; cf. per-fugiō.
trādux, vine-branch; cf. trāns-dūcō.

# 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 ō 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.

In the fully developed methods of expression to which we are almost exclusively accustomed, the unit of expression is the Sentence ${ }^{1}$; 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, timeō nē 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:
2. Compound:
$\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { Containing a single statement (Subject and } \\ \text { Predicate) (§ } 180 \text { ). }\end{array}\right.$ $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { a. Containing two or more Co-ordinate } \\ \text { Clauses ( } \$ 180 . a \text { ). }\end{array}\right.$
b. Modified by Subordinate Clauses (complex) (§ 180. b).

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.
II. The Essential Parts of the Sentence are -
I. The Subject : con- $\left\{\begin{array}{l}a . \text { Noun or its equivalent (§ 174. 1). } \\ \text { sisting of }\end{array}\right.$ Pronoun contained in verb-ending (§
174. 2).
( $a$. Neuter (intransitive) Verb (§ 175.a).
2. The Predicate: $\quad$ b. Copula with Predicate Noun or Adjecconsisting of tive (§ 172. note).
c. Verb with Object (§§ 175.b, 177).
III. The Subject and Predicate may be Modified as follows:-
a. Noun in Apposition (§ 184).

1. The Noun (Subject
b. Adjective or Participle (§ 186). or Object) by
c. Noun in Oblique Case ( $\$ 178 . a, b$ ).
d. Preposition with its case ( $\$ 260$ ).
e. Relative Clause (§ 180. c).

IV. Hence: $\left\{\begin{array}{l}a \text {. Rules of Agreement (the Four Concords) (§ i82). } \\ b \text { ) }\end{array}\right.$ \{b. Rules of Government (Construction of Cases)(§§ 213 ff .).

## 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, ecus curit, the horse runs.
b. A sentence in the form of a Question is called an Interrogative Sentence : as, ecusne curnit? does the horse run?
c. A sentence in the form of an Exclamation is called an Exclamatory Sentence : as, quam celeriter currit ecus! 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 ecus, let the horse run; $\bar{i}$, curre per Alpēs, 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 ecus currit, the horse runs, ecus 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) ( $\S 176 . a$ ). Thus, in Caesar cōnsul erat, Cesar was consul, Caesar 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 virī fortēs, there are (exist) brave men.

## 2. Subject and Predicate.

173. 174. (Rule 13.) The Subject of a Finite verb is in the Nominative Case : as, -
ecus currit, the horse runs. rēgina sedet, the queen sits.
1. (Rule 36.) 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. I. The Subject of a sentence is usually a Noun or some word or phrase used as a Noun : as, -
hūmānum est erräre, to crr is human.
quaeritur num mors malum sit, the question is whether death is an evil. venit, 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,--
sedē-mus, we sit. curri-tis, yourun. inqui-t, says he.

## 175. Verbs are either Intransitive or Transitive.

a. An Intransitive (or Neuter) verb contains in itself an entire statement : as, -
cadō, I fall (am falling).
sōl lūcet, the sun is shining.
sunt virì fortēs, there are brave men.
b. A Transitive (or Active) verb has or requires a Direct Object to complete its sense (see § 177): as, -
frātrem cecīdit, he slew his brother.
Note 1. - 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, mēnsam fēcit, he made a table (which was not in existence before), is distinguished from mēnsam 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.
Quīntus sedet iūdex, Quintus sits as juulge.
Caesar victor incēdit, Cosar advances victorious (a victor).
a. The copula sum, especially, is used with a predicate noun or adjective (see § 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 called 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).

Rṑma est patria nostra, Rome is our country.
stellae lücidae erant, the stars were bright (cf. stellae lūcēbant).
cōnsul creātus est, he zuas elected consul.
mors finis esse vidētur, death seems to be the end.
dīcit nōn omnēs bonōs esse beātōs, 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 Indirect 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 filium (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 ( $\$$ 237. b).
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 à patre vocātur, the son is called by his father.
Active: lūnam et stellās vidēmus, wee see the moon and the stars.
Passive: lüna 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 videō, I see the man (Accusative).
homini serviō, I serve the man (Dative, see § 227).
hominis misereor, I pity the man (Genitive, see § 221. a).
homine amīcō 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.
cürat valētūdinem, 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 $\S \S$ 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 pueri patrem videō, I see the boy's father, the genitive pueri 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 nōbilitāte, he was a man of the highest nobility, the words summā nōbilitāte, of the highest nobility, are used for the adjective nōbilis, noble (or nöbilissimus, 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 celerrimee, very quickly), and are called an Adverbial Phrase.
180. Sentences are either Simple or Compound.

A Simple Sentence is a sentence containing a single statement.

A Compound Sentence is a sentence containing more than one statement, 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 ( $\S$ I54. a) ; but this is sometimes omitted ( $\S 208 . b$ ). Thus, -
dīvide et imperā, divide and conquer. But, -
vēnī, vìdì, vīcì, I came, I sazv, 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, -
ōderint dum metuant, let them hate so long as they fear.
servum mīsit quem sēcum habēbat, 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 clāmant, while they are silent they cry aloud.
hominēs aegrī morbō gravī cum iactantur aestū febrīque, sỉ aquam gelidam biberint primō relevārī 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, sī aquam gelidam biberint, primō relevărī videntur is a Conditional Sentence, and sī . . . biberint is a Conditional Clause.
e. A clause expressing the Purpose of an action is called a Final or Purpose Clause.
edō ut vivam, I eat to live (that I may live).
mīsit lēgātōs quī dīcerent, he sent ambassadors to say (who should say).
A clause expressing the Result of an action is called a Consecutive or Result Clause. ${ }^{1}$
tam longè aberam ut nōn vidērem, I was too far away to see (so far away that I did n't see).

## 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 :-
I. The agreement of the Noun in Apposition or as Predicate (§§ 184, 185).
183. The agreement of the Adjective with its Noun (§ 186).
184. The agreement of the Relative with its Antecedents (§ 198).
185. The agreement of the Verb with its Subject (§ 204).
a. Synesis, or cōnstrūctiō ad sēnsum (construction according to sense) is a construction in which a word takes the gender or number, not of the word with which it should regularly agree, but of some other word implied in that word.

## I. NOUNS.

183. (Rule I.) 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 Athēnās, to the city [of] Athens.
Cicerō cōnsul creātur, Cicero is chosen consul.
The descriptive noun may be either an Appositive (§ 184) or a Predicate noun (§ 185).
${ }^{1}$ 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.

## 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, māximum concordiae vinculum, iungēbat animōs (Liv. ii. 39), fear of the foreigner, the chief bond of harmony, united their hearts. [Here the descriptive noun belongs to the subject.]
quattuor hīc prïmum ōmen equōs vìdī (Æn. iii. 537), $I$ sazv here four horses, the first omen. [Here both nouns are in the predicate.]
litterās Graecās senex didicī (Cat. M. 26), I learned Greek when an old man. [Here senex is in apposition with the omitted subject of didicī, and expresses the time, condition, etc., of the act.]
a. Words expressing parts may be in apposition with a word including the parts, or vice versa: as, -

Gnaeus et Pūblius Scīpiōnēs, Cneius and Publius, the Scipios.
b. An appositive generally agrees in Gender and Number when it can : as, -
secuntur nātūram, optimam ducem (Læl. 19), they follow nature, the best guide.
omnium doctrīnārum inventriccēs Athēnās (De Or. i. I3), Athens, discoverer of all learning.
c. A common noun in apposition with a Locative ( $\$ 258 . c$ ) is put in the Ablative, with or without the preposition in: as, -

Antiochìae, celebrì quondam urbe (Arch. 4), at Antioch, once a famous city.
Albae cōnstitērunt in urbe mūnītā (Phil. iv. 6), 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 nostrō omnium flētū (Mil. 92), amid the tears of us all.
ex Anniānā Milōnis domō (Att. iv. 3) [=ex Annī Milōnis domō], out of Annius Milo's house.

## 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, 一
päcis semper auctor fuī (Lig. 28), F have always been an adviser of peace.
quae pertinācia quibusdam, eadem aliīs cōnstantia vidērī potest (Marc. 31), what may seem obstinacy to some, may seem to others consistency.
ēius mortis sedētis ultōrēs (Mil. 79), you sit as avengers of his death. ego patrōnus exstitī (Rosc. Am. 5), I have come forward as an advocate.
b. A predicate noun referring to two or more singular nouns is in the plural : as, -
cōnsulēs creantur Caesar et Servilius (B. C. iii. 1), Casar and Servilius are elected consuls.
c. For Predicate Accusative, see under that case, § 239. a.

## II. ADJECTIVES.

1. Rules of Agreement.
2. (Rule 2.) Adjectives, Adjective Pronouns, and Participles agree with their nouns in Gender, Number, and Case.
vir fortis, a brave man.
illa mulier, that woman.
urbium māgnārum, of great cities.
cum ducentīs militibus, with 200 soldiers.
imperātor 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 imperātor, a good commander.
stellae lūcidae, 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 lücidae erant, the stars were bright.
2. After verbs of naming, calling, making, etc., an adjective may be used as a predicate 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, -

Scīpiōnem vìvum vìdi, 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, -

Nīsus et Euryalus primi (Æn. v. 294), Nisus and Euryalus first.
Caesaris omnī et grātiā et opibus fruor (Fam. i. 9, 21), I enjoy all Cesar's favor and resources.
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 noun : as, -
multae operae āc labōris, of much trouble and toil.
vīta mōrēsque meī, my life and character.
sī rēs, sī vir, sī tempus ūllum, dīgnum fuit (Mil. 19), 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 admurmurātiō (Verr. i. 45), a noise of assent was made (noise and murmur).
Note. - This is only when the Copula agrees with the nearest subject (§ $205 . d^{d}$ ).
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 āc līberì amplexi (Liv. ii. 40), then his wife and children embraced him.
labor ( M .) voluptāsque ( F .), societāte quādam inter sē nātūrālī 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, -
rēx rēgiaque clāssis ünā profectī (Liv. xxi. 50), the king and the royal fleet set out together.
nātūrā inimīca sunt lībera cīvitās et rēx (id. xliv. 24), by nature a free state and a king are hostile.
lēgātōs sortēsque ōrāculī exspectandās (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 timiditās et iniūstitia . . . sunt fugienda (Fin. iii. 39), 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 (Synesis, § 182. a): as, -
pars certāre parātī (ङn. v. 108), a part ready to contend.
duo milia relicti (Liv. xxxvii. 39), two thousand were left.

## 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, -

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { omnēs, all men (everybody). } & \text { omnia, all thisgs (everything). } \\
\text { māiōrēs, ancestors. } & \text { minōrēs, descendants. } \\
\text { Rōmānī, Romans. } & \text { barbari, baxbarians. }
\end{array}
$$

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 § 189. $a$.
a. Certain adjectives have become practically nouns, and are often modified by other adjectives. Thus, -
tuus vicinus proximus, your next-door neighbor.
propinnquī cēteri, his other relatives.
b. When any ambiguity would arise from the substantive use of an adjective, a noun must be added. Thus, -
bonī, 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.
vitulīna [carō], veal (calf's flesh).
fera [bestia], a wild beast.
patria [terra], the fatherland.
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 -

1. 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 probābilia, contrā alia dīcimus (Off. ii. 7), we call some things probable, others the opposite (not probable).
3. palam: as, -
palam rēs est, the thing is all out.
4. 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, -
raptō vïvere, to live by plunder.
in āridō, on dry ground.
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).
omnēs 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, -
triste lupus stabulis, the woolf is a grievous thing for the sheepfold.
varium et mūtābile semper fēmina, woman is ever a changing and fickle thing.
d. A neuter adjective is used in agreement with an Infinitive or a Substantive Clause: as, -
istūc ipsum nōn esse (Tusc. i. 12), that very "not to be."
hūmānum est errāre, to err is human.
aliud est errāre Caesarem nōlle, aliud nōlle miserērī (Lig. 16), 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 (cf. §§ 184. $d$, 197. a): as, -
pūgna Cannēnsis, the fight at Canna.
C. Blossius Cūmānus, Caius Blossius of Cuma.
aliēna domus, another man's house.
a. Possessive and other derivative adjectives are often used substantively to denote some special class or relation (see § 197. $d$ ): as,-
nostrī, our countrymen or men of our party.
Sullānī, the veterans of Sulla's army.

## 4. $\mathbf{\Delta d j e c t i v e s}$ 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, -
primus vēnit, he came first (was the first to come).
laetī audiēre, they were glad to hear.
erat Rōmae frequēns (Rosc. Am. 16), he was often at Rome.

## 5. Comparatives and Superlatives.

192. When two qualities of an object are compared, both adjectives are in the comparative : as, -
longior quam lātior aciēs 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.
193. (RuLE 5.) Superlatives (and more rarely comparatives) denoting order and succession -also medius, cēterus, relicus - usually designate not what object, but what part of it, is meant : as, -
summus mōns, the top of the hill.
reliquī captivì, the rest of the prisoners.
in colle mediō (B. G. i. 24), half way up the hill (on the middle of the hill).

Note. - A similar use is found in such expressions as seerā (multā) nocte, late at night. But medium viae, the middle of the way; multum diēi, much of the day, also occur.

## 111. PRONOUNS.

## 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 mē vocat? ego tē vocō, who is calling me? I (emphatic) am calling you.
b. (Rule 6.) The personal pronouns have two forms for the genitive plural, that in -ūm being used partitively (§ 216), and that in -i oftenest objectively (cf. §213.2) : as, -
māior vestrūm, the elder of you.
habētis ducem memorem vestrī, oblītum suī (Cat. iv. 19), 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.

Note. - The genitives nostrūm, vestrūm are occasionally used objectively (§ 217) : as, cupidus vestrūm (Verr. iii. 224), fond of you; custōs vestrūm (Cat. iii. 29), the guardian of you (your guardian).

## 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, -
I. Personal : -

Caesar et exercitus ēius, Cesar and his army (not suus). [But, Caesar exercitum suum dīmīsit, Ccesar disbanded his [own] army.]
his Caesar ita respondit, to them Cesar thus replied.
2. Adjective : -
hōc proeliō factō, after this battle was fought (this battle having been, etc.). eōdem proeliō, in the same battle.
[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, -
nūllam virtūs aliam mercēdem dēsīderat praeter hanc laudis (Arch. 28), virtue wants no other reward except that [jușt 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 oblīviōnis mālō, I prefer (like more) the art of memory to (than) [that] of forgetfulness.
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. 7), imprisonment, and that perpetual.
legiōnem neque eam plēnissimam dēspiciēbant (B. G. iii. 2), they despised the single legion, and that not a very full one.
tuus dolor hūmānus is quidem sed, etc., your grief is human, to be sure, but, etc.
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, -
hic labor hōc opus est, this is the toil, this the task [namely, revocäre gradum, which would regularly take a neuter pronoun].
e. $\overline{\mathbf{I}}$ dem, the same, is often equivalent to an adverb or adverbial phrase (also, too, yet, at the same time) : as, -
örātiō splendida et grandis et eadem in prīmīs facēta (Brut. 273), an oration, brilliant, able, and very witty, too.
$f$. 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.
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, ipsis nōn satis (Cic.), enough for me, not for themselves.
beātōs illōs quī cum adesse ipsīs nōn licēbat aderant tamen (id.), happy they who, when it was not allowed them to attend in person, still were there.
dī capitī ipsius generique reservent (Æen. vii. 484), may the gods hold in reserve [such a fate] to fall on his own and his son-in-law's head.
$h$. Ipse is often used alone, substantively, to emphasize an omitted subject of the first or second person : as, -
vōbīscum 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 dixix (cf. aủrds 厄̈фa), HE (the Master) said it.
$k$. Ipse is often (is rarely) used instead of a reflexive. (Cf. § 196. i.)
l. Ipse usually agrees with the subject, even when the real emphasis is in English on a reflexive in the predicate : as, -
mē ipse cōnsōlor, I console myself. [Not mē ipsum.)

## 3. Reflexive Pronouns.

196. (RuLE 7.) The Reflexive pronoun (sē), ${ }^{1}$ 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, -
virtūs sē nōvit, virtue knows itself.
prōmīsit see ventūrum [esse], he promised that he would come.
Brūtus amīcum suum occīdit, Brutus killed his friend.
a. In a subordinate clause of a compound sentence there is a double use of reflexives.
I. The Reflexive may always be used to refer to the subject of its own clause (Direct Reflexive): as, -
ex quō iūdicārī potest quantum habeat in sē bonī cōnstantia (B. G. i. 40), from which it can be determined how much good firmness possesses (has in itself).
[Caesar] nōluit eum locum vacāre, nē Germānī ē suīs finibus trānsïrent (B. G. i. 28), Casar did not wish this place to lie vacant, for fear the Germans would cross over from their territories.
197. 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, -
petiērunt ut sibi licēret (B. G. i. 30), they begged that it might be allowed them (the petitioners).
Iccius nūntium ad eum mittit, nisi subsidium sibi submīttātur, etc. (B. G. ii. 6), sends him a message that unless relief be furnished him (Iccius), etc.
sī obsidēs ab eis (the Helvetians) sibi (Cæsar, who is the speaker) dentur, sē (Cæsar) cum eīs pācem esse factūrum (B. G. i. i4), [Cæsar said] that if hostages zvere given him by them, he would make peace with them.

Note. - Sometimes is or ipse is used as an Indirect Reflexive either from careless writing or to avoid ambiguity (cf. $i$ ): as, -
quī sē ex hīs minus timidōs exīstimãrī vellent, nōn sē hostem verērĩ, sed angustiās itineris et māgnitūdinem silvārum quae intercēderent inter
${ }^{1}$ This seems to have been originally the personal pronoun of the third person, but it came by use to be purely reflexive.
ipsōs (the persons referred to by sē above) atque Ariovistum . . . timēre dīcēbant (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.
audīstis nūper dīcere lēgātōs Tyndaritānōs Mercurium quī sacrīs anniversārī̀s apud eōs colerētur Verris imperiō esse sublātum (Verr. iv. 84), 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 see colerētur, the words of the lēgātī. eōs does not strictly refer to the ambassadors, but to the people the Tyndaritāni.]
3. If the subordinate clause does not express the words or thought of the main subject, the reflexive is not regularly used, though it is occasionally found. Thus, -
sunt ita multī ut eōs carcer capere nōn possit (Cat. ii. 22), they are so many that the prison cannot hold them. [Here see could not be used.]
ibi in proximīs villīs ita bipartītō fuērunt, ut Tiberis inter eōs et pōns interesset (Cat. iii. 5), there they stationed themselves in the nearest farmhouses, in two divisions, in such a manner that the Tiber and the bridge zuere between them (the divisions). [Here inter sē might be used, but it would refer to a purpose of the soldiers.]
$b$. The reflexive in a subordinate clause sometimes refers to the subject of a suppressed main clause : as, -

Paetus, omnēs librōs quōs frāter suus relīquisset mihi dōnāvit (Att. ii. i, 12), Patus gave me all the books which (as he said in the act of donation) his brother had left (him).
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, -

Sōcratem cīvēs suī interfēcērunt, Socrates was put to death by his own fellow-citizens.
quī poterat salūs sua cuiquam nōn probārī (Mil. 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. ii. 10), this man, if his companions follow him.
Note. - Occasionally the clause to which the reflexive really belongs is absorbed : as, -
studeō sānāre sibi ipsōs (Cat. ii. 17), I am anxious to cure these men for their own benefit (i.e. ut sāni sibi sint).
suō sibi gladiō (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.
impotēns suī (Q. C.), without self-control.
$c$. The reflexive may refer to the subject implied in an infinitive or verbal abstract used indefinitely: as, -
bellum est sua vitia nōsse (Cic.), it is a fine thing to know one's own faults.
cui prōposita sit cōnservātiō suī (Fin. v. 37), one whose aim is selfpreservation.
$f$. Inter sē, among themselves, is regularly used to express reciprocal action: as, -
cohaerentia inter sē, 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, -
suis flammīs dēlēte Fīdēnās (Liv. iv. 33), destroy Fidena with its own fires (the fires kindled by that city, figuratively). [Cf. Cat. i. 32.]
$h$. For reflexives of the first and second persons the oblique cases of the personal pronouns (meī, tuī, etc.) are used (see § 98. 2, a) : as, mortī mee obtulī (Mil. 94), I have exposed myself to death.
hinc tē rēgīnae ad līmina perfer (Æn. i. 389), do you go (bear yourself) hence to the queen's threshold.
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, -
cūr dē suā virtūte aut dē ipsius dīligentiā dēspērārent (B. G. i. 40), why (he asked) should they despair of their own courage or his diligence?

## 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 those of the possessor: as, -

Caesar uxōrem suam repudiāvit, Casar put away his wife.
haec sunt mea örnāmenta, these are my jewels. [mea is neut. pl., though the speaker is a woman.]
a. (Rule 8.) 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 meì.]
pater noster, our father. [Never pater nostri.]
Note r.-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 laudātor nostrī (Att. i. 14, 6), or, like the English, laudātor noster (see Att. i. 16, 5), with a different conception of the relation.

Note 2. - The possessive cūius, -a, -um, is rare : as, cūium pecus? whose flock? The genitive cūius is generally used instead.
2. Rarely instead of the Objective Genitive. Thus, regularly, suī dēspiciēns, disdainful of himself.
nōn sōlum suī dēprecātōrem, sed etiam accūsātōrem meī, not only a mediator for himself, but an accuser of me (Att. xi. 8).
But occasionally, -
ea quae faciēbat, tuā sē fidūciā facere dīcēbat (Verr. v. 176), what he was doing, he said he did relying on you (with your reliance).
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.
īgnōrantī quem portum petat nūllus suus ventus est (Sen. Ep. 71. 3), to him who knows not what port he is bound to, no wind is fair (his own).
c. The possessives are regularly omitted (like other pronouns) when they are plainly implied in the context: as, -
amīcum grātulātur, he greets his friend. [amicum suum would be distinctive, his friend (and not another's); suum amicum, emphatic, his own friend.]
d. Possessives are often used substantively (§ 190.a): as, -
nostrī, our countrymen, or men of our party.
suōs continēbāt (B. G. i. 15), he held his men in check.
flamma extrēma meōrum (Æn. ii. 431), last flames of my countrymen.
e. (Rule 9.) A possessive representing a genitive may have a genitive in apposition (§ 184. $d$ ): as, -
meā sōlīus causā, for my sake only.
nostra omnium patria, the country of us all.

## 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 Germānōs audiēbat (B. G. iv. 7), he began to march into those places in which places he heard the Germans were.

Relatives serve two uses :-
I. as Nouns (or adjectives) in their own clause : as, -
eì quì Alesiae obsidēbantur, those who were besieged at Alesia.
2. as Connectives : as, -
T. Balventiō, quī superiōre annō prīmum pîlum dūxerat, Tïtus 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 : as, quae cum ita sint ( $=$ cum ea ita sint), since these things are so.

197a. 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 dēlectābat, quod fās esset, nothing pleased him which was right, the relative quod connects its antecedent nihil with the predicate fās esset, indicating a relation between the two.
198. (Rule 3.) 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 venit abiit, the boy who came has gone away.
liber quem legis meus est, the book you are reading is mine. via quä 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, quicumque.

Note. - The relative may be the subject or object in its own clause, or a modifier of either : as, -
eōs enim cīvēs pūgna illa sustulerat quibus nōn modo vīvis sed etiam victōribus incolumis et flōrēns cīvitās esse posset (Phil. xiv. 23).
a. If a relative has two or more antecedents, it follows the rules for the agreement of predicate adjectives (§§ 186, 187): as, -
fîlium et fîliam, quōs valdē dïlēxit, ūnō tempore āmīsit, he lost a son and a daughter at the same time, whom he dearly loved.
ōtium atque dīvitiae quae prīma mortālēs putant (Sall. Cat. 36), idleness and wealth which men count the first (objects of desire).
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. § 195. d): as,
mare etiam quem Neptūnum esse dīcēbās (N. D. iii. 52), the sea, too, which you said was Neptune. [Not quod.]
Thēbae ipsae, quod Boeōtiae caput est (Liv. xlii. 44), even Thebes, which is the chief city of Beotia. [Not quae.]
Note. - This rule is occasionally violated : as, -
flūmen quod appellätur Tamesis (B. G. v. II), a river which is called 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, -
quārtum genus . . . quī aere vetere aliēnō vacillant (Cat. ii. 21), $a$ fourth class, that are staggering under old debts.
Note. - So regularly when the antecedent is implied in a possessive pronoun : as, -
nostra quī adsumus salūs, the safety of us who are present. [Here quī agrees with the nostrūm 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 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 may appear only in the relative clause : as, quās rěs in cōnsulātū nostrō gessimus attigit hīc versibus (Arch. 28), he has touched in verse the things which I did in my consulship. urbem quam statuō vestra est (Æn. i. 573), the city which I am founding is yours.
Note. - In this case a demonstrative (is, ille, or hic) usually stands in the antecedent clause : as, -
quae pars cīvitātis calamitātem populō Rōmānō intulerat, ea prīnceps poenās persolvit (B. G. i. I2), that part of the state which had brought disaster on the Roman people was the first to pay the penalty.
c. The antecedent may be entirely omitted, especially if it is indefinite: as, -
quī decimae legiōnis aquilam ferēbat (B. G. iv. 25), [the man] who bore the eagle of the tenth legion.
quī cōgnōscerent 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, -
văsa ea quae pulcherrima apud eum vīderat (Verr. iv. 63), 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 rēs is used (instead of quod alone) to refer to a group of words or an idea : -
[obtrēctātum est] Gabīniō dīcam anne Pompēiō? an utrīque - id quod est vērius? (Manil. 57), an affront is offered - shall I say to Gabinius or to Pompey? or - which is truer - to both?
multum sunt in vēnātiōnibus . . . quae rēs vīrēs 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 mãgnae voluptātī fuit, hostem reiēcerat (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 dedistī, the book you gave me.
is sum quì semper fuī, I am the same man I always was.
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, -
lēgēs quae nunc sunt, the existing laws (the laws which now exist).
Caesar quì Galliam vīcit, Cesar the conqueror of Gaul (who conquered Gaul).
c. In formal or emphatic discourse, the relative clause usually comes first, often containing the antecedent noun (cf. § 200. b): as, -
quae mala cum multīs patimur, ea nōbīs leviōra videntur, the evils we suffer [in common] with many, seem to us lighter.
$d$. The antecedent, when in apposition with the main clause, or with some word of it, is put in the relative clause : as, -
firmī amīcī, cūius generis est māgna pēnūria, steadfast friends, a class of which there is a 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 : as, -
quae quī audiēbant, and those who heard this (which things).
quae cum ita sint, and since these things are so.
quōrum quod simile factum (Cat. iv. I3), what deed of theirs like this?
$f$. I. A relative adverb is regularly used in referring to an antecedent in the Locative case : as, -
mortuus Cūmīs quō sē contulerat (Liv. ii. 21), having died at Cuma, whither he had retired. [Here in quam urbem might be used, but not in quăs.]
2. So, often, to express any relation of place instead of the formal relative pronoun (cf. whence, whereto, wherewith): as, -
locus quō aditus nōn erat, a place to which (whither) there was no access. rēgna, unde genus dūcis, the kingdom from which you derive your race.
g. The relatives quī, quālis, 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 nōvimus, such a chief as we know Hannibal (to have been).
${ }^{1}$ The English as in this use is strictly a relative, though invariable in form.
$h$. The general construction of relatives is found in clauses introduced by relative or temporal adverbs: as, ubi, quō, unde, cum, quārē.

## 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 quī and quis, see § ro5.
a. Of the particular indefinites meaning some or any (quis, quispiam, nescio quis, aliquis, quidam), the simple quis is least definite, quidam most definite : as, -
dixerit quis (quispiam), some one may say.
aliquī philosophī ita putant, some philosophers think so. [quīdam would mean certain particular persons defined to the speaker's mind.]
habitant hīc quaedam mulierēs pauperculae, some poor women live here [i.e. some women he knows of ; some women or other would be aliquae or nesciō quae].
b. In a particular negative aliquis (aliqui) is regularly used, where in a universal negative quisquam (subst.) or üllus (adj.) would be required : as, -
iūstitia numquam nocet cuiquam quī eam habet (Cic.), justice never does harm to anybody who possesses it. [alicui would mean to somebody who possesses it.]
sine aliquō metū, [you cannot do this] without some fear.
sine ūllō metū, [you may do this] without any fear.
Note. - These pronouns are used in like manner in conditional and other sentences (§ ro5. $h$ ) : as, -
sī quisquam, ille sapiēns fuit (Læl. 9), if any man was (ever) a sage, he zwas.
dum praesidia ülla fuērunt (Rosc. Am. 126), while there were any armed forces (till they ceased to be).
c. Of the general indefinites, quivis and quilibet (any you will), utervis (either you will, of two), are used chiefly in affirmative, quisquam and $\bar{u} l l u s$ (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].
nōn cuivīs homini contingit adire Corinthum, it is not cvery man's luck to go to Corinth. [nōn cuiquam would mean not any man's.]
minus habeō virium quam vestrūm utervis, $I$ have less strength than either of you.
quidlibet modo aliquid (Cic.), anything you will, provided it be something. cūr cuiquam mīsī prius, why did I send to anybody before [you]?
d. The distributives quisque (every), uterque (each), and ūnus 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 quō māior, the larger a good book is, the better (each good book is better [in the same measure] as it is larger).
ambō exercitūs suās quisque abeunt domōs, both armies go away, every man to his home.
uterque utrique erat exercitus in cōnspectū, each army was in sight of the other (each to each).
pōnite ante oculōs ūnumquemque rēgum, set before your eyes each of the kings.
e. Quisque is regularly placed in a dependent clause, if there is one :
quō quisque est sollertior, hōc docet irācundius (Rosc. Com. 3r), the keener-witted a man is, the more impatiently he teaches (as each is so, etc.).
Note. - Quisque is generally post-positive. Thus, suum cuique, to every man his own.
$f$. Nēmō, no one, is used : either
As a substantive : as, -
nēmõ fit repentē turpissimus, no one suddenly becomes absolutely base.
As an adjective pronoun : as, -
vir nēmō bonus (Leg. ii. 41), no good man.
Note. - Even when used as a substantive, nēmō may take a noun in apposition : as, -
nēmō scrīptor, nobody [who is] a writer.

## 7. Allus 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, -
arma ab aliis posita ab aliis ērepta sunt (Marc. 31), arms were laid down by some and were snatched from others.
alteri dïmicant, alteri victōrem timent (Fam. vi. 3), one party fights, the other fears the victor.
hì frätrēs alter alterum amant, these brothers love one another.
alius alium percontāmur, wee ask each other.
a. Alius means simply other, another (of an indefinite number); alter, the other (of two), often the second in a series; cēteri and reliquì, all the rest, the others; alteruter, one of the two. Thus, -
quid aliud agis, what else are you doing (what other thing) ?
ünī epistulae respondī, veniō ad alteram (Fam. ii. 17. 6), one letter I have answered, I come to the other.
alterum genus (Cat. ii. 19), the second class.
iēcissem ipse mē potius in profundum ut cēterōs cōnservārem (Sest. 45), I should have rather thrown myself into the deep to save the rest.

Servilius cōnsul, reliquīque magisträtūs (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 cōnsulum, one of the [two] consuls.
aliud est maledīcere, aliud accūsāre (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 aliā viā cīvitātem auxērunt (Liv. i. 21), they enlarged the State, each in his own way.

## IV. VERBS.

## 1. Verb and Subject.

204. (Rule 4.) A Finite verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person : as, -
ego statuō, I resolve.
silent lēgēs 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 (§ 186): as, -
ōrātiō est habita, the plea zeas 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 quī fēcī (尤. 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, -
nōn omnis error stultitia est dicenda (Div. ii. 90), not every error should be called folly.
Corinthus lümen 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.
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, -
sī 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 usually singular: as, -
quem neque fidēs neque iūsiūrandum neque illum misericordia repressit (Ter. Ad. 306), not faith, nor oath, nay, nor mercy, checked him.
Senātus populusque Rōmānus intellegit (Fam. v. 8), the Roman Senate and people understand. But, - neque Caesar neque ego habiti essēmus (Fam. xi. 20), neither C. nor I should have been considered.
c. A collective noun commonly takes a verb in the singular: as, -

Senātus haec intellegit (Cat. i. 2), the Senate is aware of this.
ad hīberna 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 cōnicerent (B. G. ii. 6), when such a crowod was throwing stones.

Note. -The point of view may change in the course of a sentence: as, equitātum omnem ... quem habēbat praemīttit, quī videant (B. G. i. I 5), he sent ahead all the cavalry 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. § 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, -
intercēdit M. Antōnius et Cassius tribūnī plēbis (B. C. i. z), 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. 93), one says (referring to a class of reasoners just spoken of ).
c. The verb is often omitted. Thus, -

1. Dicō, faciō, ag $\overline{\mathbf{O}}$, and other verbs in familiar phrases: as, quōrsum haec [spectant], what does this aim at ?
ex ungue leōnem [cōgnōscēs], 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.]
2. The copula sum, very commonly in the indicative and infinitive, rarely (except by late authors) in the subjunctive : as, -
tū coniūnx (Æn. iv. II 3), you [are] his wife.
omnia praeclāra rāra (Læl. 79), all the best things are rare.
accipe quae peragenda prius (Æn. vi. 136), hear what is first to be accom-
plished. [Direct : quae peragenda prius ?]

## V. PARTICLES.

## 1. Adverbs.

207. (Rule 10.) Adverbs are used to modify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs.
a. A Demonstrative or Relative adverb is often equivalent to the corresponding Pronoun with a preposition (see § 201. $f$ ) : as, -
eō mīlitēs impōnere (B. G. i. 42), on them (thereon, on the horses) he puts the soldiers.
quî eum necāsset unde ipse nātus esset (Rosc. Am. 71), one who should have killed his own father (him whence he had his birth).
$b$. The adverbs propius, near; proximē, next (like the adjectives propior, proximus); pridiē, the day before; postridiē, 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. - Pridiē and postrīdiē are often used with the genitive. Clam, without the knowledge of, may take the accusative, the ablative, or the genitive ( $\S 261 . c$ ).
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. § $188 . d^{\prime}$ ) : as, -
populus lātē rēx (历n. i. 21), a people ruling far and wide.
hinc abitiō (Plaut.), a going away from here.

## 2. Conjunctions.

Note. - For the classification of conjunctions, see $\$$ I $^{154}$, 155.
208. Copulative and Disjunctive Conjunctions connect similar constructions, and are regularly followed by the same case or mood that precedes them : as, -
scrīptum senātuī et populō (Cat. iii. Io), written to the senate and people. ut eās [partī̀] sānārēs et cōnfirmārēs (Mil. 68), that you might cure and strengthen those parts.
neque meā prūdentiā neque hūmānīs cōnsiliīs frētus (Cat. ii. 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, -
hĩs igitur quam physicīs potius crēdendum exīstimās (Div. ii. 37), do you think these are more to be trusted than the natural philosophers? ut nōn omne vinum sīc nōn omnis nātūra vetustāte coacēscit (Cat. Maj. 65), as every wine does not sour with age, so [does] not every nature. Cf. pērge ut īnstituistī (Rep. ii. 22), go on as you have begun.
b. Two or more co-ordinate words, phrases, or sentences are often put together without the use of conjunctions (Asyndeton): as, -
omnēs di, hominḕs, all gods and men.
liberī, servì, freemen and slaves.
r. With 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 aliēnō aut māgnitūdine tribūtōrum aut iniūriā potentiōrum (B. G. vi. 13), by debt, excessive taxation, or oppression on the part of the powerful.
summā fidē et cōnstantiā et iūstitiā, with perfect good faith, [and] consistency, and justice. [Not fidē cōnstantiā et iüstitiä, 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. Antōnius īnsigne odium omnium hominum (Phil. xiv. 8), that wretch and monster, Lucius Antonius, the abomination of all men.
3. The enclitic -que is sometimes used with the last member of a series, even when there is no grouping apparent: as, -
vōce vultū mōtūque (Brut. ito), by voice, expression, and gesture.
multō südōre labōre vigiliīsque (Caecil. 72), with much fatigue, toil, and waking.
c. Two adjectives belonging to the same noun are regularly connected by a conjunction : as, -
multae et gravēs 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 . . . modo, now . . . now.
simul . . . simul, at the same time . . . at the same time (at once . . . as well as).
quā . . . quā, nozv . . . nowv.
nunc . . . nunc, now ... now.
Thus, -
cum difficile est, tum nee aecum quidem (Læl. 26), not only is it diffcult, but cven unjust.
modo ait modo negat (Ter. Eun. 712), now he says yes, now no.
simul grātiās agit, simul grātulātur (Q. C. vi. 7, 15), he thanks him and at the same time congratulates him.
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, still, however; itaque ergō, accordingly then; namque, for; et-enim, for, you see (§ 156. d).
$f$. For conjunctions introducing subjunctive clauses, see $\$ \S 316 \mathrm{ff}$.

## 3. Negative Particles.

Note. - For the list of negative particles, see § I49. 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 (§ 1 50): as, nēmō nōn videt, everybody sees.

But a general negation is not destroyed -

1. By a following nē ... quidem, not even, or nōn modo, not only: as, -
numquam tū nōn modo ōtium, sed nē bellum quidem nisi nefārium concupīstī (Cat. i. 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 nesciêbant nec ubi nec quälia essent (Tusc. iii. 4), they knerw not where or of what kind these things were.
3. By neque introducing a co-ordinate member: as, -
nequeō satis mïrārī neque cōnicere (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), and not, but not (neither . . . nor) (not et nōn).
nec quisquam, and no one (nor any one) (not et nēmō).
nūllī or neutrī crēdō, I do not believe either (I believe neither) (not nōn crēdō üllì).
negō haec esse vēra, I say this is not true (I deny that these things are true) (not dicō nōn esse).
sine ūllō perīculō (less commonly cum nūllō), with no danger (without any danger).
nihil unquam audīvī iūcundius, 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, -
nōn haec sine nūmine dīvōm ēveniunt (Æn. ii. 777), these things do not occur without the will of the gods.
haec nōn nimis exquïrō (Att. vii. 18, 3), not very much, i.e. very little.
Note. - Compare nōnnūllus, nōnnēmō, etc. (§ 1 50. 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 imm $\overline{0}$ becomes nearly equivalent to yes (nay but, nay rather): as, -
causa igitur nōn bona est ? immõ optima (Att. ix. 7), is the cause then not a good one? on the contrary, the best.
e. Minus, less (especially with si, if, quō, in order that), and minimè, least, often have a negative force. Thus, -
sì minus possunt, if they cannot. [For quō minus, see $\S \S 319 . c, 33$ r. e.] audācissimus ego ex omnibus? minimē (Rosc. Am. 2), am I the boldest of them all? by no means (not at all).
[For do not in Prohibitions, see § 269. a.]

## anfauqule vuestions.

210. Questions are either Direct or Indirect.
I. A Direct Question gives the exact words of the speaker: as, quid est? what is it?
211. 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. (Rule II.) A question of simple fact, requiring the answer yes or no, is formed by adding the enclitic -ne to the emphatic word : as, -
tūne id veritus es (Cic.), did you fear that?
hīcine vir usquam nisi in patrià moriètur (Mil. 104), shall. This man die anywhere but in his native land?
b. The interrogative particle -ne is sometimes omitted : as, -
patēre tua cōnsilia nōn sentīs (Cat. i. x), do you not see that your schemes are manifest (you do not see, eh)?
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. (Rule I2.) When the enclitic -ne is added to a negative word, as in nōnne, -an affirmative answer is expected. The particle num suggests a negative answer. Thus, -
nōnne animadvertis (N. D. iii. 89), do you not observe?
num dubium est (Rosc. Am. 107), there is no doubt, is there? when added to some other word, has the force of nōnne: as, -
meministīne mē in senātū dīcere (Cat. i. 7), don't you remember my say. ing in the Senate?
rēctēne interpretor sententiam tuam (Tusc.iii. 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 quesdion. So the English interrogative no? shades off into eh?

- 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 imam amplius exspectēs (Cat. i. 6), what is there for you to look for any more?
quo igitur haec spectant (Fam. vi. 6), whither, then, is all this tending ?
İcare, uni es (Mv. M. viii. 232), Icarus, where are you?
Remark. - A question of this form becomes an exclamation by changing the inflection of the voice: as, quālis vir eat! what a man he was! quot calamitātēs passī 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. 9), where in the world are we?
in quā tandem urbe hōc disputant (Mil. 7), in what city, pray, do they maintain this?
In indirect questions mum loses its peculiar force (§ 210.c).


## Double Questions.

211. A Double or Alternative Question is an inquiry as to which of two or more supposed cases is true.

In Double or Alternative Questions, utrum or -ne, whether, stands in the first member ; an, anne, or, annōn, neocene, or not, in the second; and usually an in the third, if there be one : as, -
utrum nescīs, an prō nihilō id putās (Fam. x. 26), is it that you don't know, or do you think nothing of it?
quaerō servōsne an līberōs (Risc. Am. 74), I ask whether slaves or free.
Remark. - Annōn is more common in direct questions, necne in indirect.
a. The interrogative particle is often omitted in the first member ; in which case an or -ne (anne, necne) may stand in the second: as, -

Gabīniō dīcam anne Pompēiō an utrīque (Man. 57), shall I say to Gabinus, or to Pompey, or to both?
suns haec tia verbs necne (Tusc. iii. 41), 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 miserōs putās illōs (Tusc. i. 13), 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 clārissimīs est cīvibus is, quem . . . (Flacc. 45), is he among the noblest citizens, whom, etc.?
d. The following table exhibits the various forms of alternative questions :-

| utrum $\ldots$ an ... an an | -ne ... an |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| utrum . . annōn | - an (anne) | ... -ne, necne |
| - . . an | -ne | .. 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 nōn or a similar negative : as, -
valetne, is he well? valet, yes (he is well).
eratne tēcum, was he with you? nōn erat, no (he was not).
numquidnam novī, there is nothing new, is there ? nihil sānē, of ! nothing.
a. An intensive or negative particle, a phrase, or a clause is sometimes used to answer a direct question : thus, -
213. For yes : -
etiam, even so, yes, etc.
vērō, in truth, true, no doubt, yes.
ita, so, true, etc.
ita vērō, certainly (so in truth), etc.
sānē quidem, yes, no doubt, etc.
ita est, it is so, true, etc.
sānē, surely (soundly), no doubt, doubtless, etc.
certē, certuinly, most assuredly, unquestionably, etc.
214. For no:-
nōn, not [so].
nūllō modō, by no means.
minimē, not at all (in the smallest degree, cf. § 209. e).
minimé vērō, no, not by any means ; oh! no, etc.
nōn quidem, why, no; certainly not, etc.
nōn hercle vērō, why, gracious, no (certainly not, by Hercules) !

## wat

§ 212.$]$
Examples are:-
quidnam? an laudātiōnēs ? ita, why, what ? is it eulogies ? just so.
aut etiam aut nōn respondēre (Acad. ii. 104), to answer (categorically) yes or no.
estne ut fertur forma? sānē (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 ac lubēns (Ter. And. 337), will you clear out from here? indeed I will, and be glad to.
miser ergō Archelāus? certē sī iniūstus (Tusc. v. 35), was Archelaus wretched then? certainly, if he was unjust.
haec contemnitis? minime (De Or. ii. 295), do you despise these things? not at all.
volucribusne et feris? minimē vērō (Tusc. i. 104), to the birds and beasts? why, of course not.
ex tuī animī sententiā tu uxōrem habēs? nōn hercle, ex meī animī sententiā (De Or. ii. 260), Lord ! no, etc.
b. In answering a double question, one member of the alternative, or some part of it, must be repeated : as, -
tūne an frāter erat, was it you or your brother? ego [eram], it was $I$.
Remark. - From double 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): as, -
quaerō num iniūstē aut improbē fēcerit (Off. iii. 54), 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.

## CONSTRUCTION OF CASES.

## 1. 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:-

$$
\text { I. Genitive with }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { I. Of Possession (§ 214). } \\
\text { 2. Of Source developed into Material (§ 214.e). } \\
\text { 3. Of Quality (§ } 215 \text { ). } \\
\text { 4. Of the Whole, after words designating a Part } \\
\text { (Partitive, § 216). } \\
5 . \text { With Nouns of Action and Feeling (§ 217). . } \\
\text { ihe }
\end{array}\right.
$$

II. Genitive with $\{$ r. Relative adjective (or Verbal) $(\S 218 . a, b)$.

Adjectives: $\{2$. Of Specification (later use) $(\$ 218 . c$ ).
III. Genitive with $\{$ I. Of Memory, Feeling, etc. ( $\$ \S 219,221-23$ ).

Verbs: $\quad\{2$. Of Accusing, etc. (Charge or Penalty) (§ 220).

## I. Genitive with Nouns.

213. (Rule 14.) 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, -
librī Cicerōnis, the books of Cicero, Cicero's books.
talentum aurī, a talent of gold.
vir summae virtūtis, a man of the greatest courage.
pars militum, a part of the soldiers.
cultus deōrum, worship of the gods.
vacātiō labōris, a respite from toil.
victor omnium gentium, conqueror of all nations.
In most constructions the genitive is either Subjective or Objective.
I. The Subjective genitive denotes that to which the noun limited belongs, or from which it is derived (§ 214).
(2. The Objective genitive denotes that towards which an action or feeling is directed ( $\S 217 \mathrm{ff}$.).

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).
214. (Rule 15.) The Subjective Genitive is used with a noun to denote (I) the Author or Owner, (2) the Source or the Material, (3) the Quality.

## 1. Possessive Genitive.

a. 1. The Possessive Genitive denotes the author or owner : as, -
librī Cicerōnis, the books of (written by) Cicero.
Alexandrī ecus, 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 meì.]
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 (cf. English,St. Peter's). Hectoris Andromachē (Æn. iii. 319), Hector's [wife] Andromache.
Flaccus Claudì, 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 meī, this house is my father's.
tūtēlae nostrae [eös] 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 tōtum esse scī̀s (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 $\S{ }^{11} 3$ that a predicate noun bears to an appositive ( $\$ \S 184,185$ ).
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] dēcernere (B. C. i. 35), nor was it for his judgment to decide (nor did it belong to his judgment).
cūiusvis hominis est errāre (Cic.), it is any man's [liability] to err.
timidī est optāre necem (Ov. M. iv. II 5), it is for the coward to wish for death.
sapientis (not sapièns) est pauca loquī, 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 example).

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, -
mentīī nōn est meum (not meī), 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 $\S \S 216,244$ ) : as, -
talentum auri, a talent of gold.
flümina lactis, rivers of milk.
$f$. A limiting genitive is sometimes used instead of a noun in apposition (§ 183) : as, -
nōmen insāniae ( for nōmen insānia), the word madness.
oppidum Antiochiae ( for oppidum Antiochia, the regular form), the city of Antioch. [A very loose use of this genitive, cf. e.]

## 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.] māgnae est dēlīberātiōnis, it is an affair of great deliberation.
ille autem suī iūdicī (Nep. Att. 9), but he [a man] of independent (his own) judgment.
a. The genitive of quality is found in the adjective phrases eius modi, cūius modi (equivalent to tảlis, 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, -
fōssa trium pedum, a trench of three feet [in depth].
mürus sēdecim pedum, a wall of sixteen feet [high].
c. For Genitives of Quality used to express indefinite value, see § 252. $a$.

## 4. Partitive Genitive.

216. (Rule 16.) 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-
I. Nouns or pronouns : as, -
pars militum, part of the soldiers.
quis nostrūm, which of us (cf. e, below)?
nihil erat reliquī, there was nothing left.
217. Numerals, Comparatives, Superlatives, and Pronominal words like alius, etc.: as, -
alter cōnsulum, one of the [two] consuls.
ūnus tribūnōrum, one of the tribunes (cf. $c$, below).
plūrimum tōtīus Galliae equitātū valet (B. G. v, 3), is strongest in cavalry of all Gaul.
mäior frātrum, the elder of the brothers.
218. Neuter adjectives and pronouns, used as nouns : as, -
tantum spatī, so much [of] space.
aliquid nummōrum, a few pence (something of coins).
id locī (or locōrum), that spot of ground. Also at that time.
id temporis, at that time ( $\$ 240 . b$ ).
plāna urbis, the level parts of the town.
quid novī, what news (what of new) ?
Remark. - The genitive of adjectives of the third declension is rarely used partitively. Thus, -
nihil novi (gen.), nothing new ; but
nihil memoräbile (nom.), nothing worth mention. [Not nihil memoräbilis.]
219. Adverbs, especially of Quantity and Place : as, -
satis pecūniae, money enough (enough of money).
parum ōtī, not much ease (too little of ease).
tum temporis, at that point of time (then of time).
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 tē sancte deōrum (Æn. iv. 576), we follow thee, O holy deity. [For sancte deus.]
c. Cardinal numerals regularly take the Ablative with $\overline{\mathbf{e}}(\mathbf{e x})$ or तē instead of the Partitive Genitive. So also quidam commonly, and other words occasionally : as, -
ūnus ex tribūnīs, one of the tribunes. [But also, ūnus tribūnōrum.]
minumus ex illis (Jug. 11), the youngest of them.
quidam ex militibus, certain of the soldiers.
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 cōnsul, both the consuls; but, uterque nostrūm, both of us.
ūnus quisque vostrūm, 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 if only that part is thought of : as, -
nōs omnēs, all of us (we all). [Not omnēs nostrūm] but nostrūm omnium. quot sunt hostēs, how many of the enemy are there?
multī mîlitēs, many of the soldiers.

## 5. Objective Genitive.

The Objective Genitive is used with Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs.
217. (Rule I7.) Nouns of action, dgency, and feeling govern the genitive of the object : as, -
dēsīderium ōtī, longing for rest.
grātia beneficī, gratitude for kindness.
fuga malōrum, refuge from disaster.
precātiō deōrum, prayer to the gods.
Note. - This usage is an extension of the idea of belonging to (Possessive Genitive).
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).
metus hostilis (Jug. 4I), fear of the enemy (hostile fear).
b. Rarely the objective genitive is used with a noun already limited by another genitive : as, -
animī multārum rêrum percursiō (Tusc. iv. 31), 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 Cesar. [Cf. odium Caesaris, note above.] merita ergã mē (Cic.), services to me.
excēssus ē vītā (id.), departure from life. [Also, excēssus vītae, Cic.]

## II. Genitive with Adjectives.

218. Adjectives requiring an object of reference govern the objective genitive.

These are called Relative Adjectives (adiectiva relātīva) or Transitive Adjectives, and include the following :-

ๆ. (Rule 18.) Adjectives denoting desire, knowledge, memory, filness, powers, hearing, guilt, and their opposites : as, -
avidus laudis, greedy of praise.
fastīdiōsus litterārum, disdaining letters.
iüris perītus, skilled in laww. [So, also, the ablative, iūre, cf. \& 253.]
reī mīlitāris impeñtus, unskilled in military science.
ratiōnis et ōrātiōnis expertēs, devoid of sense and speech.
vostrī memor, mindful of you.
plēnus fideî, full of good faith.
impotēns irrae, ungovernable in anger.
particeps coniūrätiōnis, sharing in the conspiracy.
īnsōns culpae, innocent of guilt.
b. (Rule 18.). Verbals in -āx (§ $164 . l$ ); also participles in -ns when used as adjectives, (i.e. to denote a disposition and not a particular act): as, -
tenācem prōpositī virum (Hor. Od. iii, 3), a man steadfast to his purpose. circus capāx populī (Ov.), a circus big enough to hold the people.
sì quem tuī amantiōrem cōgnōvistī (Q. Fr. i. I. 15), if you have become acquainted with any one more fond of you.
multitūdō īnsolēns belli (B. C. ii. 36), a crozud unused to war.
Note. 1. - Participles in -ns, when used as participles, take the case regularly governed by the verb to which they belong : as, -

Tiberius sitiēns sanguinem (Tac.), Tiberius [then] thirsting for blood.
Note 2. - Occasionally participial forms in -ns are treated as participles (see note I), even when they express a disposition or character: as, -
virtūs quam aliī ipsam temperantiam dīcunt esse, aliī obtemperantem temperantiae praeceptīs et eam subsequentem (Tusc. iv. 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 reī militāris (Tac. H. ii. 31), skilled in soldiership.
pauper aquae (Hor. Od. iii. 30. II), scant of water.
fessī rērum (还n. i. 178), weary of toil.
Remark. - Adjectives of feeling are followed by the apparent genitive animī (really locative, cf. § 223.c) : as, -
aeger animi, sick at heart.
cōnfūsus animī, disturbed in spirit.

## III. Genitive with Verbs.

The Objective Genitive is used with some verbs.

1. Remembering and Forgetting.
2. (Rule 19.) 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, -
3. Genitive :-
recordāns superiōris trānsmīssiōnis (Att. iv. 19), remembering your former crossing.
animus meminit praeteritōrum (Div. i. 63), the soul remembers the past. venit mihi in mentem illius diēī, I bethink me of that day (it comes into my mind of that day).
oblīviscere caedis atque incendiōrum (Cat. i. 6), turn your mind from slaughter and conflagrations.
4. Accusative : -
tōtam causam oblitus est (Brut, 217), he forgot the whole case.
pueritiae memoriam recordārī (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. 9), I remembered Paulus.
b. Recordor, recollect, recall, denotes a single act and is therefore almost always followed by the Accusative : as, -
recordāminī omnīs cīīilīs dissēnsiōnēs (Cat. iii. 24), recall all the civil wars.
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. § $238 . b$ ).

Catilīna admonēbat alium egestătis, alium cupiditātis suae (Sall. Cat. 21), Catiline reminded one of his poverty, another of his cupidity.
ūnum illud monēre tē possum, I can remind you of this one thing.
So admonē̄, commonē̄, commonefaciō, commonefī̄. But moneō with the genitive is found only in late writers (cf. § $238 . b$. note).

Note. - All these verbs often take dē with the ablative, and the accusative of nouns as well as of pronouns is sometimes used with them : as, -
saepius tē admoneō dề syngraphā Sittiānā (Fam. viii. 4, 5), I remind you again and again of the bond of Sittius.
officium vestrum ut vōs malō cōgātis commonērier (Plaut. Ps. I50), to be reminded of your duty.

## 2. Charge and Penalty.

220. (Rule 20.) Verbs of Accusing, Condemning, and acquitting take the genitive of the charge or penalty: as, -
arguit mee furti, he accuses me of theft.
videō nōn tē absolūtum esse improbitātis, sed illōs damnātōs esse caedis (Verr. II. i, 72), 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 damnāre capitis, to sentence to death.
măiestātis [laesae], treason (crime against the dignity of the State).
repetundārum [rērum], extortion (lit. of an action for claiming back money wrongfully taken).
vōtī, in damnätus or reus vōtī, bound [to the payment] of one's vow ; i.e.
successful in one's effort.
pecūniae (damnāre, iūdicāre, see note under 3, below).
dūplī, etc., as in dūplī condemnāre, condemn to pay twoofold.
b. Other constructions for the charge or penalty are -
I. The ablative of price : regularly of a definite amount of fine, and often of indefinite penalties (cf. § 252. note) : as, -

Frusinātēs tertiă parte agrī damnātī (Liv. x. 1), the people of Frusino condemned [to forfeit] a third part of their land.
vitia autem hominum atque fraudēs damnīs ignōminiìs vinculīs verberibus exsiliis morte damnantur (De Or. i. 194), but the vices and crimes of men are punished with fines, dishonor, chains, scourging, exile, death.
2. The ablative with $\boldsymbol{d e}$, or the accusative with inter, in idiomatic expressions : as, -
dē aleā, for gambling.
dē ambitū, for bribery.
inter sicāriōs, as an assassin (among the assassins).
dē vī et māiestātis damnātī (Phil. 1, 21), convicted of assault and treason.

## 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 miserēscō, are followed by the genitive : as, -
miserēscite rēgis (Æn. viii. 573), pity the king.
miserēre animī nōn digna ferentis (id. ii. 144), pity a soul, etc.
But miseror, commiseror, bewail, take the accusative : as, 一 commūnem condiciōnem miserārī (Mur. 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, -
hōs hominēs infāmiae suae neque pudet neque taedet (Verr. i. 35), these men are neither ashamed nor weary of their dishonor. [Cf. it repenteth him of the evil.]
mê quidem miseret parietum ipsōrum (Phil. ii. 69), for my part I pity the very walls.
c. An infinitive, a clause, or the accusative (possibly nominative) of a neuter pronoun may be used with these impersonal verbs (except miseret) instead of the genitive of a noun : as, -
mē paenitet haec fēcisse, I repent of having done this.
nihil quod paenitēre possit (Cic.), nothing that may cause repentance.

## 4. Interest and Rēfert.

222. The impersonals interest and refert take the genitive of the person (rarely of the thing) affected: as, -

Clōdī intererat Milōnem perīre (Mil. 56), it was the interest of Clodius that Milo should die.
videō enim quid meā intersit, quid utrīusque nostrūm (Fam. vii. 23), for I 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 with interest or rêfert : as, -
quid tuā id rēfert? māgni (Ter. Ph. 723), how does that concern you? much. [See also the last example above.]
b. The accusative with ad is used with interest and rēfert to ex-pr-ss the thing with reference to which one is interested: as, -
māgnī ad honōrem nostrum interest (Fam. xvi. 1), it is of great consequence to our honor.
rēfert ad frūctūs (Varr. R. R. i. I6), it makes a difference as to the crop.

## 5. Verbs of Plenty and Want.

223. Some verbs of Plenty and Want govern the genitive : as, -
quid est quod dëfēnsiōnis indigeat? (Rosc. Am. 34), 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 egeō, indigeō, satagō.

## 6. Other Verbs.

a. The genitive sometimes follows potior, get possession of; as always in the phrase potiri rērum, to be master of affairs. Thus, illīus rēgnī potīrī (Fam. i. 7, 5), to become master of that kingdom. Cleanthēs sōlem dominārī et rērum potīrī putat (Ac. ii. 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 § 22 I : as, - •
neque hūius sīs veritus fēminae prīmāriae (Ter. Ph. 97r), and you had no respect for this high-born 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. 72), he is zealous for you. [Cf. studiōsus.]
c. The apparent genitive animi (really Locative) is used with a few verbs of feeling and the like (cf. § 218. c. Rem.): as, -

Antiphō më excruciat animī (Ter. Ph. 187), Antipho tortures my mind (me in my mind).

## IV. Peculiar Genitives.

d. A genitive occurs rarely in Exclamations, in imitation of the Greek (Genitive of Exclamation): as, -
dī imınortālēs, mercimōnī lepidì (Plaut. Most. 912), good heavens! what a charming bargain!
$e$. The genitive is often used with the ablatives causā, grātiā, for the sake of; ergō, because of; and the indeclinable instar, like; also with pridiè, the day before; postridiē, the day after; tenus, as far as : as, -
honōris causā, with due respect (for the sake of honor).
verbī grātiā, for example.
ēius lēgis ergō, on account of this law.
ecus instar montis (Æn. ii. I 5), a horse like (the image of) a mountain.
laterum tenus (Æn. x. 210), as far as the sides.

## II. DATIVE.

Note. - The Dative seems to be closely akin to the Locative (cf. otko, at home, with otк $\kappa$, 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 ( $\S 225.6 .3$ ) and in some adverbial forms (as eō, illō, thither).

The uses of the Dative, arranged practically, are the following :-

1. As Indirect Object $\left\{\begin{array}{r}\text { r. With Transitives ( } § 225 \text { ). }\end{array}\right.$ (general use): $\quad$ 2. With Intransitives (§§ 226-28, 230).
2. Of Possession (with esse) ( $\S 231$ ).
3. Special or Idiomatic Uses :
4. Of Agency (with Gerundive) (§ 232).
5. Of Purpose or End (predicate use) (§ 233).
6. Of Fitness, etc. (with Adjectives) (§ 234).
7. Of Reference (dativus commodī) $(\$ \S 235,236)$.
8. (Rule 21.) 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 puerō, he gives a book to the boy.
cēdite tempori, yield to the occasion.
prōvincia Cicerōnī obtigit, the province fell by lot to Cicero.
x. Indirect Object with Transitives.
225. The Dative of the Indirect Object with the Accusative of the Direct may be used with anytuansitive verb whose meaning allows (see § 177) : as, -
dō tibi librum, I give you a book.
illud tibi affïrmō (Fam. i. 7, 5), this I assure you.
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 pecūniam tibi crēdō, I trust this money to you. [Transitive.] in hāc rē tibi crēdō, 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 of Motion (§258. b). Thus, -

1. Some verbs take the Accusative (with or without a preposition), instead of the Indirect Object, when the idea of motion prevails (§ 258) : as, -
litterās quās ad Pompēium scrīpsī (Att. iii. 9), the letter which I have written [and sent] to Pompey. [Cf. nōn quō habērem quod tibi scriberem (Att. iv. 4), not that I had anything to write to you.]
litterae extemplō Rōmām scrīptae (Liv. xli. 16), a letter was immediately written [and sent] to Rome.
hostēs in fugam dat (B. G. v. 51), he puts the enemy to flight. [Cf. ut mee dem fugae (Att. viii. 23), to take to flight.]
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 nōn mihi Caesar dētulerit (Fam. iv. 13), and nothing which Casar did not communicate to me.
eum librum tibi misī (id. vii. 19), I sent you that book.
cūrēs ut mihi vehantur (id. viii. 4), take care that they be conveyed to me.
cum alius alii subsidium ferrent (B. G. ii. 26), while one lent aid to another.
3. In poetry the End of Motion is often expressed by the dative (see § 258. note I).
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, -
dōnat corōnās suīs, he presents wreaths to his men; or,
dōnat suōs corōnis, he presents his men with wreaths.
āram sanguine adspergere (N. D. iii. 88), to sprinkle the altar with blood.
àrae sanguinem adspergere, to sprinkle blood upon the altar.

Such are đōnō, impertiō, induō, exuō, adspergō, inspergō, circumd̄̄, circumfundō, prohibē̄, interclū̄̄̄, and in poetry accing $\overline{0}$, implicō, and similar verbs.

Note 1. - Interdicō, forbid, takes either (i) 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, -
interdīxit histriōnibus scaenam (Suet. Dom. 7), he forbade the actors [to appear on] the stage (he prohibited the stage to the actors). [Cf. interdictum est mare Antiāti populö (Liv. viii. 14), the sea was forbidden to the people of Antium.]
aquà et ignì 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. Interclūdō and arceō sometimes take the Dative and Accusative, even in prose : as, -
hisce omnīs aditūs ad Sullam interclūdere (Rosc. Am. IIo), 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 Casar off from grain and supplies.]
hunc (oestrum) arcēbis pecori (Georg. iii. I 54), you shall keep this away from the flock. [Cf. illum arcuit Galliā (Phil. v. 37), he excluded him from Gaul.]
sollstitium pecori dēfendite (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 nöbis nūntiantur, these things are told us. [Active : haec [quīdam] nōbīs nūntiat.]
Crassō divitiae nōn invidentur, Crassus is not cnvied for his wealth. [Active : Crassō dīvitiās nōn invident.]
decem talenta oppidảnis imperantur, ten talents are exacted of the townspeople. [Active: imperat oppidānīs 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. ii. 20), let arms give place to the gown.
Caesarì respondet, he replies to Casar.
Caesarī respondētur, Cosar is ieplied to (see § 230).
crēdimus nūntiō, we believe the messenger.
nūntiō crēditur, the messenger is believed.
respondī māximìs criminibus (Phil. ii. 36), I have answered the heaviest charges.

Note 1.-Intransitive verbs have no Direct Object. The Indirect Object, therefore, in these cases stands alone (but cf. §225.a).

Note 2. - Cédō, yield, sometimes takes the Ablative of the thing along with the Dative of the person : as, -
cēdere alicui possēssiōne hortōrum (Mil. 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 reì testis est (Quinc. 37), who testifies (is witness) to this fact? is finis populātiōnibus 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 Caesarī, a lieutenant to Cessar (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 $\$ 227$, note 2 , and $\S 235$ 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. (Rule 22.) Most verbs signifying to favor, help, please, trust, and their contraries ; also to believe, persuade, command, obey, serve, resist, envy, theaten, paxdon, and spare, take the dative : as, -
cūr mihi invidēs, why do you envy me?
mihi parcit atque ignōscit, he spares and pardons me.
ìgnōsce patriọ dolōr̄ (Liv. iii. 48), excuse a father's grief.
nōn parcam operae (Fam. xiii. 27), I will spare no pains.
sìc mihi persuāsī (Cat. M. 78), so I have persuaded myself.

Note. I. - In these verbs the Latin retains an original intransitive meaning. Thus : invidēre, to envy, was originally to look askance at one.

Note 2.-Some common phrases regularly take the dative precisely like verbs of similar meaning. Such are -
praestō esse, be on hand (cf. adesse).
mōrem gerere, humor (cf. mōrigerārī).
grātum facere, do a favor (cf. grātificārī).
dictō audiēns esse, be obedient (cf. oboedīre).
cui fidem habēbat (B. G. i. 19), in whom he had confidence (cf. cōnfīdēbat).
So, also, many phrases where no corresponding verb exists. Such are -
bene (male, pulchrē, aegrē, etc.) esse, to be well (ill, etc.) off.
iniūriam facere, do injustice to.
diem dicere, bring to trial (name a day for, etc.).
agere grātiās, to express one's thanks.
habēre grātiam, to feel thankful.
referre grātiam, to repay a favor.
opus esse, be necessary.
damnum dare, inflict an injury.
acceptum (expēnsum) ferre (esse), to credit (charge).
honōrem habēre, to pay honor to.
a. Some verbs apparently of the same meanings take the Accusative.

Such are iuvō, adiuvō, help; laeđ̄̄, injure; iubeō, order; $\mathbf{~} \overline{\text { ®ēicicō, }}$ fail; dēlectō, please. Thus, -
hīc 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.
parti cīvium cōnsulunt (Off. i. 85), they consult for a part of the citizens.
cum tē cōnsuluissem (Fam. xi. 29), when I had consulted you.
metuēns pueris (Plaut. Am. III3), anxious for the children.
nec metuunt deōs (Ter. Hec. 772), they fear not even the gods.
prospicite patriae (Cat. iv. 3), have regard for the State.
prospicere sēdem senectūtì (Liv. iv. 49), to provide a habitation for old age.

Note. - Fidō and cōnfidō, trust, take the Dative or the Ablative: as, legiōnis decimae cui quam māximē cōnfidēbat (B. G. i. 42), of the tenth legion, in which he had the utmost confidence.
multum nātūrā locī cōnfídēbant (B. G. iii. 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 cōnsulī (Sall.), ill-will against the consul (cf. invideō). obtemperātiō lēgibus (Leg. 42), obedience to the laws (cf. obtemperō). sibi ipsī respōnsiō (De Or. iii. 207), an answer to himself (cf. respondeō).
Note. - In these cases the dative depends immediately upon the verbal force of the noun and not on any complex idea (cf. § 226. $a$ and $b$ ).
e. The Dative is also used -

1. With the impersonals libet (lubet), it pleases; licet, it is allowed: as, -
quod mihi māximē lubet (Fam. i. 8), what most pleases me.
quasi tibi nōn licēret (Fam. vi. 8), as if you were not permitted.
2. With verbs compounded with satis, bene, and male: as, mihi ipse numquam satisfaciō (Fam. i. 1), I never satisfy myself.
optimō virō maledīcere (Deiot. 28), to speak ill of a most excellent man.
pulchrum est benefacere reīpüblicae (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 officiō meō, satis illōrum voluntātī quī ā mē hōc petīvērunt factum esse arbitrābor (Verr. v. 130), that enough has been done for, etc.
3. With the following : grātificor, grātulor, haereō (rarely), nūbō, permīttō, plaudō, probō, studē̄, supplicō, excellō: as, -
haerentem capiti corōnam (Hor. S. i. 10, 49), a wreath clinging to the head. Pompēiō sē grātificārī putant (Fam. i. 1), they suppose they are doing Pompey a service.
Note. - Misceō and iungò 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 with the Dative of the indirect (cf. § 225.a): as, cui cum rēx crucem minitārētur (Tusc. i. 102), when the king threatened him with the cross.
imperat oppidānis decem talenta, he exacts of the townspeople ten talents.

## 4. Dative with Compounds.

228. (Rule 23.) Most verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, prō, sub, super, and some with circum, take the dative of the indirect object : as, -
neque enim adsentior eis (Lael. I 3), for I do not agree with them.
tempestātī obsequī artis est (Fam. i. 9, 21), it is a point of skill to yield to the weather.
omnibus negōtiis nōn interfuit sōlum sed praefuit (id. i. 6), he not only had a hand in all matters, but took the lead in them.
quantum nātūra hominis pecudibus antecēdit (Off. i. IO5), so far as man's nature is superior to brutes.

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 suōs, he calls his men together, the idea of calling is not so modified as to make an indirect object appropriate. So, hominem interficere, to make way with a man (kill him). But in praeficere imperātōrem bellō, to put a man as commander-in-chief in charge of a war, the meaning is suited to an indirect object (see $a$ and $c$, and § 237. $d$ ).

Note 2. - Some of these verbs being originally transitive take also a direct object: as, nē offerāmus nōs perīculis (Off. i. 83), that we may not expose ourselves to perils.
a. Some compounds of ad, ante, ob, with a few others, have acquired a transitive meaning, and take the accusative : aš, -
nōs oppūgnat (Fam. i. r), he opposes us.
mūnus obīre (Lael. 7), 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 nōn erat (Mil. 47), if he was not intending to get in his way.
mihi obviam vēnistī (Fam. ii. 16, 3), you came to mect me.
c. When place or motion is distinctly thought of, the verbs of § 228 regularly take a noun with a preposition, not the dative : as, -
in visceribus inhaerēre (Tusc. iv. 24), it remains fixed in the vitals.
hominĩ coniūnctō mēcum (Tull. 4), to a man united to me.
cum hōc concurrit ipse Eumenēs (Nep. Eum. 4, 1), with him Eumenes himself engages in combat (runs together).
quae ā cēterārum gentium mōre dissentiunt (Font. 30), which differ from the custom of all other nations.
obicitur contrā istōrum impetūs Macedonia (Font. 44), Macedonia is set to withstand their attacks. [Cf. sī quis vöbis error obiectus (Cæc. 5), if any mistake has been caused you.]
in segetem flamma incidit (Æn. ii. 304), the fire falls upon the standing corn.
Note. - As usage varies, the dictionary must be consulted for each verb.
229. (Rule 24.) Many verbs of taking away and the like take the Dative (especially of a person) instead of the Ablative of Separation ( $\S 243$ ) : as, -
mulieri ānulum dētrāxit, he took a ring from the woman.
bona mihi abstulistī, you have robbed me of my gains.
a. The distinct idea of motion, - and, in general, names of things, -require the ablative with a preposition (§ 258.a): as, -
illum ex periculō ēripuit (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, -
victōriam ēripī sibi ē 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 (§ 248.b): as, -
placitōne etiam pügnābis amōnī (Æn. iv. 38), will you struggle event against a love that pleases you?
tibi certat (Ecl. v. 8), vies with you. [tēcum.]
solstitium pecori dēfendite ( Ecl. vii. 47), keep the summer heat from the flock. [ā pecore.]
lateri abdidit ēnsem (En. ii. 553), buried the sword in his side. [in latere, § $260 . a$.]
[For the Dative instead of ad with the Accusative, see § 22 5. 6. 3.]
230. (RULE 25.) The passive of intransitive verbs that govern the dative can be used only impersonally ( $\$ 146$. $d$ ). The dative is retained (cf. § $225 . e$ ).
cui parcī potuit (Liv. xxi. 14), who could be spared?
nōn modo nōn invidētur illī aetātī vērum etiam favētur (Off. ii. 45), that age (youth) is not only not envied, but is even favored.

## 5. Dative of Possession.

231. (Rule 26.) The Dative is used with esse and similar words to denote Possession : as, -
hominì cum deō similitūdō est, man has a likeness to God (there is, etc.). 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 habeō, have, generally signifies hold, often with some secondary meaning: as, -
legiōnem quam sēcum habēbat (B. G. i. 8), the legion which he kępt with him.
domitās habēre libīdinēs, to keep the passions under control.
a. Compounds of esse take the dative (except abesse and posse): as,
deest mihi pecūnia, I lack money.
quid mihi prōderit? in what will it help me (what will it profit me)?
b. After nōmen est, and similar expressions, the name is usually in the dative by a kind of apposition with the person: as, -
cui Āfricānō fuit cōgnōmen (Liv. xxv. 2), whose (to whom) surname was Africanus.
c. The name may also be in apposition with nōmen; or in later Latin in the genitive (cf. § 214.f): as, -
cui nōmen Arethūsa (Verr. iv. if8), [a fount] called Arethusa (to which is the name Arethusa).
puerō nōmen est Märcus (Märcī), the boy's name is Marcus (to the boy, etc.).

## 6. Dative of the Agent.

232. (Rule 27.) The Dative of the Agent is used with the gerundive, to denote the person on whom the necessity rests : as, -
haec vōbīs prōvincia est dēfendenda (Man. 14), this province is for you to defend (to be defended by you).
mihi est pūgnandum, I have to fight (i.e. the need of fighting is to me; compare mihi est liber, I have a book, § 23 I. Rem.).

Note. - This is the regular way of expressing the agent with the Second or Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (§ II 3. d. I). 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 ā vōbis cōnsulendum (Manil. 6), for whom you must consult (for whom it must be consulted by you).
(Cf. istī prīncipēs et sibi et cēterīs populī Rōmānī ūniversī auctōritātī pārendum esse fateantur (id. 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 could be no 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 dēlīberātum et cōnstitūtum est (Rull. i. 25), I have deliberated and resolved (it has been deliberated by me).
mihi rēs tōta prōvisa est (Verr. iv. 91), the matter has been fully provided for by me.
b. The dative of the agent is used by the poets and later writers with almost any passive verb : as, -
neque cernitur ülli (Æn. i. 440), nor is seen by any.
fëlix est dicta sorōri (Ov. Fast. iii. 597), she was called happy by her sister.
c. The dative of the person who sees or thinks is regularly used with videor, seem: as, -
vidētur mihi, it seems (or seems good) to me.
dis aliter visum [est] (Æn. ii. 428), it seemed otherwise to the gods.
Note. - The verb probāre, 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 nōbīs probābātur (Fam. i. 7, 5), this view met both his approval and mine (was made acceptable to, etc.).
mihi ēgregiē probāta est ōrātiō tua (Tusc. iv. 8), your discourse was very satisfactory to me.

## 7. Dative of the Purpose or End.

233. (Rule 28.) The Dative is used to denote the Purpose or End.

This use of the dative, once apparently general, remains in only a few constructions. Thus, -
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 : as, -
māgnō ūsuī nostrīs fuit (B. G. iv. 25), it was of great service to our men (for great use).
tertiam aciem nostris subsidiō mīsit (id. i. 52), he sent the third line as a relief to our men.
omnia deerant quae ad reficiendās nāvēs erant ūsuì (id. iv. 29), all things were wanting which were of use for repairing the ships.

Note. - The word frūgi used as an adjective is a dative of this kind: as, cōgis mē dīcere inimīcum frūgī, you compel me to call my enemy honest. (Cf. erō frūgi bonae (Plaut. Pseud. 468), I will be good for something.)
b. The Dative of concrete nouns is used to express purpose in prose in a few military expressions, and freely in poetry : as, -
receptui canere, to sound a retreat.
locum castris 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 also found in the dative of the Gerundive (§ 299. 6) and after Adjectives (§ 234).

## 8. Dative with Adjectives.

234. (Rule 29.) The dative is used with adjectives, to denote that to which the given quality is directed, for which it exists, or towards which it tends.
$a$. 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. 17), nothing is so fitted to nature.
nihil difficile amantī putō (Or. 33), I think nothing hard to a lover.
rēbus ipsīs pār et aequālis ōrātiō (id. 123), a speech equal and level with the subject.
castris idōneum locum dēligit (B. G. i. 49), a suitable place for a camp. congruenter nātürae (Fin. iii. 26), in harmony with nature.
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 mīlitārem, fit for a soldier's duty.
locus ad insidiās aptior (Mil. 53), a place fitter for lying in wait. nöbīs ūtile 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, -
cōmis in uxōrem (Hor. Ep. ii. 2, 133), kind to his wife.
dīvīna bonitās ergā hominēs (N. D. ii. 60), the divine goodness towards men.
d. Some adjectives of likeness, nearness, belonging, and a few others, ordinarily requiring the Dative, often take the Possessive Genitive. Thus, -
fuit hōc quondam proprium populī Rōmānī (Manil. 32), this was once the peculiar characteristic of the Roman people.
I. The Genitive is especially used with these adjectives when they are used wholly or approximately as nouns. Thus, -
amīcus Cicerōnì, friendly to Cicero. But, Cicerōnis amīcus, a friend of Cicero; and even Cicerōnis amīcissimus, a very great friend of Cicero. hī erant affinēs istius (Verr. iv. 14), these were this man's fellows.
235. 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, -
dominĩ similis es (Ter.) you're like your master (your master's like).
sīmia quam similis turpissima bestia nōbīs (N. D. i. 97, quoted from Enn.), how like us is that wretched beast the ape!
sī enim hōc illi simile sit, est illud huic (N. D. i. 90), for if this is like that, that is like this.
e. The adjectives propior, proximus sometimes, and the adverbs propius, proxime more commonly, take the accusative, as if prepositions, like prope (see § 261. a).
propius periculum (Liv. xxi. r), nearer to danger.
proximē deōs accēssit Clōdius (Mil. 59), Clodius has come very near the gods.
proximus mare ōceanum (B. G. iii. 7), nearest the ocean.

## 9. Dative of Reference.

235. (Rule 30.) The Dative is often required not by any particular word, but by the general meaning of the sentence (dative of reference): as, -
laudāvit mihi frātrem, he praised my brother (out of regard for me; laudāvit frātrem meum would imply no such motive).
meritōs māctāvit honōrēs, taurum Neptūnō, taurum tibi, pulcher Apollō (An. iii. 118), he offered the sacrifices due, a bull to Neptune, a bull to thee, beautiful Apollo.

Note. - The dative in this construction is often called the Dative of Advantage or Disadvantage (datīvus commodī aut incommodī), as denoting the person or thing for whose benefit or to whose prejudice the action is performed.
a. The dative of reference is often used to qualify a whole idea, instead of the Possessive Genitive modifying a single word : as, -
iter Poenis vel corporibus suis obstruere (Cat. Maj. 75), to block the march of the Carthaginians even with their own bodies (to block, etc., for the disadvantage of, etc.).
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 prīmum Thessaliae venientibus ab Ēpīrō (B. C. iii. 80), the first town of Thessaly as you come from Epirus (to those coming, etc.).
est urbe ēgressis tumulus (※n. ii. 713), there is, as you come out of the city, a mound (to those having come out).
c. The dative is (by a Greek idiom) rarely modified by nōlēns, volēns, participles of nōlō, volō, or by some similar word : as, -
ut quibusque bellum invitis aut cupientibus erat (Tac. Ann. i. 59), as each might receive the war reluctantly or gladly.
d. The dative 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?
e. The dative is sometimes used after Interjections : as, -
vae victis, woe to the conquered.
em tibi, there, take that (there, for you)! [Cf. § 236.]
hei mihi, $a h, m e$ !
10. Ethical Dative.
236. The Dative of the Personal Pronouns is used to show a certain interest felt by the person indicated $:^{1}$ as, -

[^7]quid mihi Celsus agit (Hor.), what is my friend Celsus doing ? suō sibi servit patrī (Plaut. Capt. Prol.), he serves his own father.
This construction is called the Ethical Dative (dativus éthicus). It is really only a special case of the dative of reference.

Remark. - To express for, meaning instead of, in defence of, in behalf of, the ablative with prō must be used : as, -
prō patriā morī (Hor. Od. iii. 2), to die for one's country.

## iII. ACCUSATIVE.

The uses of the accusative may be classified as follows :

2. Two Accusatives: $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { 1. Predicate Accusative (of Naming, e } \\ \text { 2. Of Asking or Teaching }(\S 239 . c) \text {. } \\ \text { 3. Of Concealing }(\S 239 \cdot d) \text {. }\end{array}\right.$

1. Adverbial (§ 240. a, b).
2. Of Specification (Greek Accusative) (§ 240.c).
3. Idiomatic Uses: $\{$ 3. Of Extent and Duration (§ 240.e).
4. Of Exclamation (§ $240 . d$ ).
5. Subject of Infinitive (§ $240 . f$ ).

## x. Direct Object.

237. (Rule 3I.) 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) Brūtus Caesarem interfēcit, Brutus killed Casar.
(b) aedem facere, to make a temple. [Compare proelium pūgnāre, 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. Thus timeō, I fear, is transitive in the sentence inimīcum timeō, I fear my enemy, but intransitive (absolute) in nôlī timēre, don't be afraid.
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, -

Brūtus Caesarem interfēcit, Brutus killed Casar.
Caesar à Brūtō interfectus est, Casar was killed by Brutus.
domum aedificat, he builds a house.
domus aedificātur, 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 cāsum lūctumque doluērunt (Sest. 145), they grieved [at] my calamity and sorrow.
sī nōn Acrisium rīsissent Iūppiter et Venus (Hor. O. iii. 16. 5), if Jupiter and Venus had not laughed [at] Acrisius.
c. Verbs of taste, smell, and the like take an accusative of the quality : as, -
vinum redolēns (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, often become transitive, and take the accusative (cf. § 228.a) : as, -
cōnsulātum ineunt (Liv. ii. 28), they enter upon the consulship.
sì insulam adisset (B. G. iv. 20), if he should go to the island.
trānsire flümen (id. ii. 23), to cross the river (cf. § 239. b).
cīvēs quī circumstant senātum (Cat. i. 21), the citizens who stand about the senate.
e. The accusative is used with the impersonals decet, delectat, iuvat, oportet, fallit, fugit, praeterit : as, -
tē nōn praeterit (Fam. i. 8), it does not escape your notice.
mē pedibus dēlectat claudere verba (Hor. Sat. ii. 1. 28), my delight is (it pleases me) to arrange words in measure.
nisi mē fallit, unless I am mistaken (unless it deceives me).
So after latet in poetry and post-classical prose : as, -
latet plērōsque (Plin. ii. 82), it is unknown to most persons.
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 gemēns ignōminiam (Georg. iii. 226), groaning much at the disgrace. [Cf. doleō, \& 237. b.]
festīnäre fugam (Æn. iv. 575), to hasten their fight. [Cf. accelerö.]
$f$. 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 tāctiō est (Plaut. Poen. I308), what business have you to touch her? [Cf. tangō.]
mirābundi bestiam (App. Met. iv. 16), full of wonder at the creature. [Cf. mirror.]
g. In early usage the impersonal gerundive with esse governs the accusative (§ 294. c) : as, -
quam nōbīs ingrediendum sit (Cat. Maj. 6), which (road) we must enter upon. [Here Cicero purposely uses an archaic construction.]
h. Many verbs ordinarily transitive may be used absolutely (§ 237. note), having their natural object in the ablative with $\mathbf{d e}$ : as, -
priusquam Pompōnius dē ēius adventū cōgnōsceret (B. C. iii. Ior), before Pomponius could learn of his coming. [Cf. ēius adventū cōgnitō, his arrival being discovered.]
i. For Accusative and Genitive after Impersonals, see § 221 I. 6 .

## 2. Cognate Accusative.

238. (Rule 32.) 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, -
tertiam iam aetātem hominum vīvēbat (Cat. Maj. 31), he was now living the third generation of men.
coirre societātem, to [go together and] form an alliance.
a. The Cognate Accusative is often loosely used by the poets: as,saltāre Cyclōpa (Hor. Sat. i. 5. 63), to dance the Cyclops (represent in dancing).
Amaryllida resonāre (Ecl. i. 5), to reëcho [the name of] Amaryllis. intonuit laevum (Æn. ii. 693), it thundered on the left.
b. A neuter pronqun or colorless noun or adjective is very common as cognate accusative (cf. §§ 148. $d$ and $240 . a$ ). Thus, -

Empedoclēs multa alia peccat (N. D. i. 29), Empedocles commits many other slips.
quid mē ista laedunt (Agr. ii. 32), what harm do those things do me ? hōc tè moneō, I give you this warning (cf. note, below). id laetor, I rejoice at this (cf. note, below).

So in many common phrases : as, -
sī quid ille sē velit (B. G. i. 34), if he should want anything of him (if he should want him in anything).
numquid mē vis, can I do anything more for you? (there is nothing you want of me, is there?) [A common form of leave-taking.]
id valet, it amounts to this.
Note. - In these cases substantives with a definite meaning would be in some other construction: as, -
bonīs rēbus laetārī, to rejoice at prosperity. [Also: in, dē, or ex.]
dē testāmentō monēre, to remind one of the will. [Later: genitive, §219.c.]
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 (spōnsiōnem, rem, hōc), to prevail on a trial, etc. [As if the case were a difficulty to overcome; cf. vincere iter, Æn. vi. 688.]
terram nāvigāre (Fin. ii. 112), to sail over the land. [Perhaps quoted from a poet.]
aequor nāvigāre, to sail the sea. [As if it were trānsire, § 237. d.]
maria aspera iūrō (ङn. vi. 351), I swear by the rough seas. [The accusative with verbs of swearing is chiefly poetic.]

## 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. head-note).
a. (Rule 33.) Verbs of naming, choosing, appointing, making, esteeming, showing, and the like, may take a Predicate Accusative : as, -

Cicerōnem cōnsulem creāre, to elect Cicero consul. mē augurem nōmināvērunt (Phil. ii. 4), they nominated me for augur.
hominem prae sē nēminem putāvit (Cic.), he thought nobody a man in comparison with himself.
Note I. - The predicate accusative may be an adjective : as, -
hominēs ex ferīs et immānibus mītēs reddidit et mānsuētōs (Inv. i. 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, -
rēx ab suīs appellātur (B. G. vii. 4), he is called king by his [subjects].

## b. Secondary Object.

2. (Ryle 34.) 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 a Secondary Object, originally governed by the preposition : as, -

Caesar Germānōs flūmen träicit (B. C. i. 83), Casar 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, -
dōnec rēs suās trāns Halyn flūmen trāicerent (Liv. xxxviii. 25), till they should get their possessions across the river Halys.
(exercitus) Padō trāiectus Cremōnam (Liv. xxi. 56), the army was conveyed across the Po to Cremona (by way of the Po, § $258 . \mathrm{g}$ ).
Note 2. - The secondary object may be retained with a passive verb : as, -

Belgae Rhēnum trāductī 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. So traiciō comes to mean either ( I ) to pierce (anybody) [by hurling] or (2) to cross (a river, etc.) : as, -
(1) gladiō hominem trāiēcit, he pierced the man with a sword. [Here iaciō has lost all transitive force, and serves simply to give the force of a verb to the meaning of trāns, and to tell the manner of the act.]
(2) Rhodanum träiēcit, he crossed the Rhone. [Here iaciō has become simply a verb of motion, and trāiciō is hardly distinguishable from trānseō.]
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, -
homō trāiectus est gladiō, the man was pierced with a sword.
Rhodanus träiectus est, the Rhone was crossed.
The poetical träiectus lōra (En. ii. 273), pierced with thongs, comes from a mixture of two constructions :-
(1) eum trāiēcit löra, he rove thongs through him, ${ }^{1}$ and
(2) eum trāiēcit lōris, he pierced him with thongs.

In putting the sentence into a passive form, the direct object of the former (lōra) is irregularly kept, and the direct object of the latter (eum) is made the subject.
c. (Rule 35.) Verbs of asking and teaching may take two accusatives, one of the Person (direct object), and the other of the Thing (secondary object): as, -
mē sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion.
docēre puerōs elementa, to teach children their $A B C$ 's.
Note 1.-Some verbs of asking take the ablative of the person with a preposition instead of the accusative. So, always, petō (ab), quaerō (ex, $\mathrm{ab}, \mathrm{de})$ often postulō (ab), and occasionally others : as, -
pācem ab Rōmānīs petiērunt (B. G. ii. 13), they sought peace from the Romans.

Note. 2. - With the passive of verbs of asking or teaching, the person or the thing may be used as subject : as, -

Caesar sententiam rogãtus est, Cesar was asked his opinion.
Remark. - The accusative of the thing may be retained with the passive of rogot, and of verbs of teaching, and occasionally with a few other verbs : as, -
${ }^{1}$ Perhaps not found in the active, but cf. trāiectō fūne (Æn. v. 488).
fuerant hoc rogātī (Cæl. 64), they had been asked this.
Cicerō per lēgātōs cūncta ēdoctus (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 expressed by the ablative with a preposition: as, -
nē postulantur quidem vīrēs ā senectūte (Cat. M. 34), strength is not even expected of an old man (asked from old age).
d. The verb ceelo, conceal, may take two accusatives, and the usually intransitive lateō, lie hid, an accusative of the person (cf. § $237 . e$ ): as,
nōn tē cēlāvī sermōnem T. Ampī (Fam. ii. 16), I did not conceal from you the talk of T. Ampius.
nec latuēre dolī frātrem Iūnōnis (Æn. i. 130), nor did the wiles of Juno escape the notice of her brother.

## 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), sweetly speaking.
acerba tuēns (Æn. ix. 794), looking cruelly.
torvum clāmat (id. vii. 399), 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 (istūc) aetātis, at that age.
id (quod) genus, of that (what) sort (perhaps originally nominative).
meam vicem, on my part.
māximam partem, for the most part.
virile secus, of the male sex (probably originally in apposition).
cētera, in other respects.
quod sĩ, but (as to which) if.
quid est quod, why is it that?
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 oculōs 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, inütile ferrum cingitur (Æn. ii. 510), he girds on the useless steel. nodō sinūs collēcta fluentīs (id. i. 320), having her flowing folds gathered in a knot.
umerōs īnsternor pelle leōnis (id. ii. 722), I cover my shoulders with a lion's skin.
d. The accusative is used in exclamations : as, -
$\overline{\mathrm{O}}$ fortūnātam rempūblicam, oh, fortunate republic! [Cf. $\overline{\mathrm{O}}$ fortūnāta mors (Phil. xiv. 31), oh, happy death! (§ 241. c).]
mē miserum, ah, weretched me!
ēn quātuor ārās (Ecl. v. 65), lo, four altars !
prō deūm fidem, good heavens (oh, protection of the gods) !
huncine hominem (Verr. v. 62), this man, good heavens!
$\bar{O}$ mē infélīcem (Mil. 102), oh, unhappy me!
Note. - 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.]
e. (Rule 37.) Duration of time and extent of space are expressed by the accusative (see $\S \S 256,257$ ).
$f$. (Rule 36.) The subject of the infinitive mood is in the accusative. This is especially frequent after words of knowing, thinking, teling, and perceiving (verba sentiendì et dēclārandī, see §272).
$g$. The accusative in later writers is sometimes used in apposition with a clause.
$h$. For the accusative of the End of Motion, see § 258 ; for that after postridie, 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, tē sancte precor (Liv. ii. io), 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, -
cēnsōrem trabeāte salūtās (Pers. iii. 29), robed you salute the censor.
c. The nominative may be used in exclamations (cf. § 240. $d$ ): as, 一 ēn dextra fidēsque (Æn. iv. 597), lo, the fuith and plighted word!
d. The word mācte is used as a predicate in the phrase mācte estō (virtūte), success attend your (valor). Thus, -
iubērem tē mācte virtūte esse (Liv. ii. 12), I should bid you go on and prosper in your valor.

Note. - As the quantity of the final e in mācte 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, -
līberāre metū, to deliver from fear.
caecus avāritiā, blind with avarice.
occīsus gladiō, slain by the sword.
The following are the uses of the Latin Ablative, classed according to the original cases which have been combined in it :-

[^8]

## 1. Ablative of Separation.

243. (Rule 38.) 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, -
oculīs se privāvit (Fin. v. 87), he deprived himself of eyes.
lēgibus solūtus, relieved from the obligation of laws.
omnī Galliā interdīcit Rōmānōs (B. G. i. 46), he (Ariovistus) bars the Romans from the whole of Gaud.
voluptātibus carēre (Cat. Maj. 7), to lack enjoyments.
nōn egeõ medicīnã (Læl. ı0), I want no physic.
mägnō mē metū līberābis (Cat. i. 10), you will relieve me of great fear.
b. Verbs compounded with $\overline{\mathbf{a}}, \mathbf{a b}, \mathrm{de}, \mathrm{ex}$, take the simple ablative when used figuratively; but when used literally to denote separation or motion, they usually require a preposition (see § 258). Thus, cōnātū dēsistere (B. G. i. 8), to desist from the attempt.
abīre magistrātū, to leave one's office.
abstinēre iniūriā, to refrain from wrong.
But, - aberrāre ā prōpositō (Cic.), to wander from the point.
dè prōvincià dēcēdere (Verr. ii. 49), to withdraw from one's province.
ex cīvitāte excēssēre (B. G. vi. 8), they departed from the state. [But cf. finibus suīs excēsserant (id. iv. 18), they had left their own territory.]
ā māgnō dēmīssum nōmen Iūlō (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 take the ablative : as, urbs nūda praesidiō (Att. vii. 13), the city naked of defence.
immūnis mīlitiā (Liv. i. 43), free of military service.
plēbs orba tribūnis (Leg. iii. 9), the people deprived of tribunes.
Note. - Some adjectives of want take the genitive (see § 218. a).
e. (Rule 39.) Opus and ūsus, signifying need, are followed by the ablative : as, -
magistrātibus opus est (Leg. iii. 5), there is need of magistrates. nunc viribus ūsus (En. viii. 44I), 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 tuā exprōmptā memoriā atque astūtiā (Ter. And. 723), I must have your good memory and cleverness set to work.
properātō opus erat (Mil. 49), there was need of haste.
factō ūsus est, it is desirable to do (there is need of it's being done).
Remark. - Frequently opus is in the predicate, with the thing needed in the nominative as subject : as, -
dūx nōbīs et auctor opus est (Fam. ii. 6, 4), we need a chief and responsible adviser (a chief, etc., is necessary for us).
sī quid ipsī opus esset (B. G. i. 34), if he himself wanted anything (if anything should be necessary for him).
f. Egeō and inđigeō often take the genitive (§ 223) : as, -
nē quis auxilī egeat (B. G. vi. it), lest any require aid.
quae ad cōnsōlandum māiōris ingenī et ad ferendum sīngulāris virtūtis indigent (Fam. vi. 4, 2), [sorrows] which for their comforting need more ability, and for endurance unusual courage.

## 2. Ablative of Source and Material.

244. (Rule 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.

These ablatives commonly take a preposition : as, -
I. Source :-

Rhēnus oritur ex Lepontiis (B. G. iv. 10), the Rhine rises in (from) the country of the Lepontii.

## 2. Material :-

valvās māgnificentiōrēs, ex aurō atque ebore perfectiōrēs (Verr. iv. 124), more splendid doors, more finely wrought of gold and ivory.
templum dē marmore pōnam (Georg. iii. 13), I'll build a temple of marble.
Note I. - 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 nātus et Māiā (N. D. iii. 56), son of Jupiter and Maia.
quō sanguine crētus (Æn. ii. 74), born of what blood.
Remark. - A preposition (ab, dē, ex) is usually expressed with the name of the mother, and often with that of other ancestors : as, -

Trōs est generātus ab illō (Ov. Fast. iv. 33), Tros was sprung from him.
Bēlus et omnēs ā Bēlō (Æn. i. 730), Belus and all his descendants.
b. Rarely the place of birth is expressed by the ablative ; as, -
dēsīderāvit C. Felgīnātem Placentiā, A. Grānium Puteolīs (B. C. iii. 71 ), he lost C. Felginas of Placentia, A. Granius of Puteoli.
Note. - The Roman tribe is regularly expressed by the ablative : as, Q. Verrem Rōmiliā (Verr. i. 23), Quintus Verres of the Romilian tribe.
c. Some verbs may take the Ablative of Material without a preposition. Such are cōnstāre, cōnsistere, and continēri. But with cōnstāre, ex is more common. Thus, -
domūs amoenitās nōn aedificiō sed silvã cōnstābat (Nep. Att. ${ }_{3}$ ), the charm of the house consisted not in the buildings but in the woods.
ex animō cōnstāmus et corpore (Fin. iv. 19), we consist of soul and body.
vita corpore et spīritū continētur (Marc. 28), life consists of body and spirit.
$d$. The Ablative of Material without a preposition is used with facere, fieri, and like words, in the sense of do with, become of: as, quid hōc homine faciātis (Verr. II. i, 42), what are you going to do with this man?
quid Tulliolā meā fiet (Fam. xiv. 4), what will become of my dear Tullia? quid tē futūrum est (Verr. ii. 155), 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, -
nōn pauca pōcula ex aurō (Verr. iv. 62), not a few cups of gold. scopulīs pendentibus antrum (压n. i. 166), a cave of hanging rocks.
${ }^{1}$ Such are nātus, satus, ēditus, genitus, ortus, prōgnātus, generātus, crētus, creātus, oriundus.

## 3. Ablative of Cause.

245. (RULE 4I.) The ablative (with or without a preposition) is used to express Cause.
nimiō gaudiō paene dēsipiēbam (Fam. ii. 9), I was almost wild from too great joy.
neglegentiā plectimur (Læl. 85), we are chastised for negligence.
certìs dè causis, for certain reasons.
mare à sōle lūcet (Acad. ii. 105), the sea gleams in the sun (from the sun).
a. (Rule 42.) Certain verbs and adjectives regularly take the ablative of cause without a preposition. These are -
I. The adjectives dignus, indignus: as, -
vir patre avō māiōribus suīs dīgnissimus (Phil. iii. 25), a man most worthy of his father, grandfather, and ancestors.
tē omnī honōre indīgnissimum iūdicat (Vatin. 39), he judges you entirely unworthy of every honor.
246. The verbs dignor, labōrō (also with ex), exsiliō, exsultō, triumphō, lacrimō, ārdē̄: as, -
haud equidem tālī mē dignor honōre (Æn. i. 335), I do not deem myself worthy of such an honor.
doleō tē aliis malīs labōrāre (Fam. iv. 3), I am sorry that you suffer with other ills.
ex aere aliēnō labōrāre (B. C. iii. 22), to labor under debt (lit., from another's money).
exsiluī gaudiō (Fam. xvi. 16), I jumped for joy.
dëlictō dolēre (Læl. 90), to grieve for the fault.
Note 1. - For gaudeō and glōrior, see § 254. b.
Note 2. - Dignus and indīgnus sometimes take the genitive in colloquial usage and in poetry : as, -
dīgnus salütis (Plaut. Trin. II 53), worthy of safety.
mãgnōrum haud umquam indignus avōrum (屃. 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 or propter with the accusative : as, -
nōn ob praedam aut spoliandi cupīdine (Tac. H. i. 63), not for booty or through lust of plunder.
amicitia ex sē et propter sē expetenda (Fin. ii. 83), friendship must be sought of and for itself.
Note. - But these constructions are often confused : as, -
pārēre lēgibus propter metum (Parad. 34), to obey the laws on account of fear. [Here metum is almost equal to "the terrors of the law," and propter is used where the ablative would be more natural.]
c. The ablatives causā and grātiā, 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.
praedictiōnis causā (N. D. iii, 5), by way of prophecy.
exemplī grātiā (verbī grātiā), for example.
No'te. - But grätiā with possessives in this use is rare.

## 4. Ablative of Agent.

246. (Rule 43.) The Voluntary Agent after a passive verb is expressed by the ablative with $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ or $\mathbf{a b}:$ as, -
laudātur ab hīs, culpātur ab illiss (Hor. Sat. i. 2. ir), he is praised by these, blamed by those.
nē virtūs ab audāciā vincerētur (Sest. 92), that valor might not be overborne by audacity.
Remark. - The ablative of the agent (which requires à or ab) must be carefully distinguished from the ablative of instrument, which has no preposition (§ 248. c. 1). Thus, -
occīsus gladiō, slain by a sword; but, occīsus 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, -
perīre ab hoste, to be slain by an enemy.
$b$. The agent, if conceived as instrument or means, is expressed by per with the accusative, or by operā with a genitive or possessive : as, -

Caesar certior factus est ā lēgătīs, Casar was informed by the ambassadors (in person). But -
Caesar certior factus est per lēgätōs, Casar was informed by ambassadors (i.e. by means of ambassadors).
nōn meä operā ēvēnit (Ter. Hec. 228), it has n'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. (Rule 44.) The Comparative degree is followed by the ablative (signifying THAN) : as,

Catō est Cicerōne èloquentior, Cato is more eloquent than Cicero.
quid nöbís duöbus labōriōsius est (Mil. 5), what more burdened with toil than we two?
vilius argentum est aurō, virtūtibus aurum (Hor. Ep. i. 1. 52), silver is less precious than gold, gold than virtue.
a. (RuLE 45.) 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, -
contiōnibus accommodātior est quam iūdiciìs (Clu. 2), fitter for popular assemblies than for courts.
misericordiā dignior quam contumêliã (Piso 32), more worthy of pity than of disgrace.

Remark. - Relative pronouns having a definite antecedent never take quam in this construction, but always the ablative : as, -
rēx erat Aenēās nōbīs, quō iūstior alter, etc. (Æn. i. 544), EEneas 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 quam : as, 一
pảne egeō iam mellitis potiōre placentis (Hor. Ep. i. 10. it), I want bread better than honey-cakes.
b. The idiomatic ablatives opīniōne, spē, solitō, dictō, aequō, crēdibilī, and iūstō are used after comparatives instead of a clause : as, 一
gravius aequō (Sall.), more seriously than was right.
celerius opīniōne (Fam. xiv. 23), faster than one would think. amnis solitō citātior (Liv. xxiii. 19), a stream swifter than its wont. sērius spē omnium (id. ii. 3), later than all hoped (than the hope of all).
c. After the comparatives plüs, minus, amplius, longius without quam, a word of measure or number is often used with no change in its case : as, -
plūs septingentī captī (Liv. xli. 12), more than 700 were taken.
plūs tertiā parte interfectā (Cæs.), more than a third part being slain.
spatium nōn amplius sexcentōrum pedum (id.), a space of not more than 600 feet.
d. Alius is sometimes used with the ablative in poetic and colloquial use ; in formal prose it takes āc (atque), nisi, quam. Thus, -
alius Lysippō (Hor.), another than Lysippus.
aliō ingeniō āc tū (Plaut.), of a different disposition from you.
erat histōria nihil aliud nisi annālium cōnfectiō (De Or. ii. 52), history was nothing else but a compiling of records.
e. The comparative of an adverb is usually followed by quam, rarely by the ablative except in poetry. Thus, -
tempus tē citius quam ōrātiō dēficeret (Rosc. Am. 89), time would fail you sooner than words. But -
cūr Sybaris olīvum sanguine vīperinõ cautius vītat (Hor. Od. i. 8. 9), why does Sybaris shun oil more carefully than viper's blood?

## 6. Ablative of Manner.

248. (RuLE 46.) The manner of an action is denoted by the ablative ; usually with cum, unless a limiting adjective is used with the noun. Thus, -
cum celeritāte vēnit, he came with speed. But -
summā celeritāte vēnit, he came with the greatest speed.
quid rēfert quā mē ratiōne cōgātis (Læl. 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, -
quantō cum periculō id fēcerit (B. G. i. 17), at what risk he did this.
Remark. - In poetry the ablative of manner often omits cum: as, $\ldots$
mōns aquae sequitur cumulō (Æn. i. IO5), a mountain of water follows in a mass. [Cf. murmure (id. 124) ; rimis (id. 123).]

## 7. Ablative of Accompaniment.

a. (Rule 47.) Accompaniment is denoted by the ablative, regularly with cum : as, -
cum coniugibus āc liberis vestrīs, with your wives and children.
cum funditōribus sagittāriissque flūmen trānsgressī (B. G. ii. 19), having crossed the river with the archers and slingers.
Note. - The ablative is used without cum in military phrases, and here and there by early writers : as, -
subsequēbātur omnibus cōpīs (B. G. ii. 19), he followed close with all his forces.
hōc praesidiō profectus est (Verr. II. i, 86), with this force he set out.
Remark. - Mīsceō and iungō, with their compounds, and cōnfundō may take either (1) the Ablative of Accompaniment with or without cum, or (2) sometimes the Dative : as, -
mīxta dolōre voluptās (B. Al. 56), pleasure mingled with pain.
flētumque cruōrī mīscuit (Ov. Met. iv. I40), and mingled tears with blood.
Caesar eās cohortēs cum suō exercitū coniūnxit (B. C. i. 18), Cesar united those cohorts with his own army.
b. Words of Contention and the like require cum : as, -
armis cum hoste certāre, to fight with the enemy in arms.
libenter haec cum Q. Catulō disputārem (Manil. 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. (Rule 48.) The ablative is used to denote the means or instrument of an action : as, -
certantīs pūgnīs, calcibus, unguibus, morsū dēnique (Tusc. v. 77), fighting with fists, heels, nails, and even teeth.
cum pūgnīs et calcibus concisus esset (Verr. iii. 56), when he had been pummelled with their fists and heels.
2. The Ablative of Means is used with verbs and adjectives of filling, abounding, and the like : as, -
aggere et crātibus fōssās explent (B. G. vii. 86), they fill up the ditches with earth and fascines.
tōtum montem hominibus complēvit (id. i. 24), he filled the whole mountain with men.
opìmus praed̄a (Verr. II. i, 1 $3^{2}$ ), rich with spoils.

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 maerōria fuērunt (Sest. 128), everything was full of grief and mourning.
249. (Rule 49.) The deponents ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, with several of their compounds, govern the ablative : as, -
ūtar vestrā benïgnitāte (Arch. 18), I will avail myself of your kindness.
ita mihi salvā rêpūblicā vōbīscum perfruī liceat (Cat. iv. II), so may 1 enjoy with you the state secure and prosperous.
aurō hērōs potitur (Ov. Met. vii. 155), the hero takes the gold.
fungī inānī mūnere (Æn. vi. 885), to perform an idle service.
a. Potior sometimes takes the Genitive, as always in the phrase potirī rērum, to get control or be master of affairs (§223. a) : as, 一
tōtius Galliae sēsē potīri posse spērant (B. G. i. 3), they hope they can get possession of the whole of Gaul.

## 9. Ablative of Degree of Difference.

250. (Rule 50.) With comparatives and words-implying comparison the ablative is used to denote the Degree of Difference : as, -
quinque milibus passuum distat, it is five miles distant (by five miles).
aliquot ante annis (Tusc. i. 4), several years before.
multō mē vigilāre ācrius (Cat. i. 8), that I watch much more sharply (more sharply by much).
Remark. - This use is especially frequent with the ablatives quō . . . eō (hōc); quantō . . . tantō (cf. § 106. c): as, 一
quō minus cupiditātis, eō plūs auctōritātis (Liv. xxiv. 28), the less greed, the more weight (by what the less, by that the more).
quantō erat gravior oppūgnātiō, tantō crēbriōrēs litterae mīttēbantur (B. G. v. 45), the severer the siege was, the oftener letters were sent.

Note. - To this construction are doubtless to be referred all cases of quō and eō with a comparative, even when they have ceased to be felt as degree of difference and approach the Ablative of Cause : as, -
eōque mē minus paenitet (N. D. i. 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 may be used together with the same adjective: as, -
multō dīvitior Crassō, much richer than Crassus.

## 10. Ablative of Quality.

251. (Rule 51.) Quality is denoted by the Ablative with a Modifier (either an adjective or limiting genitive).

This is called the Descriptive Ablative or Ablative of Quality.
animō meliōre sunt gladiātōrēs (Cat. ii. 26), the gladiators are of a better mind.
quae cum esset cīvitās aequissimō iūre āc foedere (Arch. 6), as this was a city with perfectly equal constitutional rights.
mulierem eximiā pulchritūdine (Verr. II. i, 64), a woman of extraordinary beauty.

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 māgnā pulchritūdine, a zooman of great beauty, with -
mulier pulchritūdine Trōiam dēlēvit, by her beauty a woman destroyed Troy.
mulier excellēns pulchritūdine ( $\$ 253$ ), 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 : as,-
capillō sunt prōmīssō (B. G. v. I4), they have long hair.

## 11. Ablative of Price.

252. (Rule 52.) Price is expressed by the ablative :
agrum vēndidit sēstertiūm sex mīlibus, he sold the land for 6000 sesterces. Antōnius rēgna addīxit pecūniā (Phil. vii. 15), Antony sold thrones for money.
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. 15), it is worth the price (it is of much).
meà māgnì interest, it is of great consequence to me.
illud parvī rēfert (Manil. 18), this is of small account.
Note. - These are really genitives of quality ( $\S 215 . c$ ).
b. The genitive of certain colorless nouns is used in the same way. Such are nihili, nothing; āssis, a farthing; flocci (a lock of wool), a straw. Thus, -
nōn floccī faciō (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!
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 religiōnem pecūniā commūtāre (Cluent. 129), to barter his faith and conscience for money.
vertere fūneribus triumphōs (Hor. Od. i. 35. 4), to change the triumph to the funeral train (exchange triumphs for funerals).
exsilium patriā sēđe mūtāvit (Q. C. iii. 7), he exchanged his native land for exile (he took exile in exchange for his native land).

Note. - With verbs of exchanging cum is often used, perhaps with a different conception of the action : as, -
ariēs . . . cum croceō mūtābit vellera lūtō (Ecl. iv. 44), the ram shall change his flecce 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, minōris: as, -
quantī eam êmit? vilī . . . quot minīs? quadrāgintā minìs (Pl. Epid. 51), what did he buy her for? Cheap. For how many mine? Forty.
12. Ablative of Specification.
253. (Rule 53.) The Ablative of Specification denotes that in-mespect to which anything is or is done: as, -
virtūte praecēdunt (B. G. i. I), they excel in courage.
claudus alterō pede (Nep. Ages 8), lame of one foot.
sunt enim hominēs nōn rē sed nōmine (Off. i. 105), for they are men not
in fact, but in name.
māior nātū, older; minor nātū, younger (cf. § 91. c).
infîrmus mollisque nätūrā (Læl. 75), weak and yielding by nature. homō meā sententiā prūdentissimus (Cæcin. 22), a man, in my opinion, very wise.
equitātū pulsĩ 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 denotes 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 developed from other fundamental ideas. Thus, -
meō iūre, weith perfect right ; but, meō mođō, inn my fashion.
meā sententiā, in my opinion; but also more formally, ex meā sententiã.
[Here the sense is the same, but the first ablative is specification; the second, source.]
qui vincit viribus (Læl. 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.]
a. The Supine in $-\bar{u}$, used chiefly with adjectives, is equivalent to an ablative of specification (cf. §§ $114 . b, 303$ ) : as, -
mïräbile dictū, marvellous' to tell.

## 13. Ablative of Place.

254. (Rule 57.) 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,-
pendēmus animis (Tusc. i. 96), we are in suspense of mind (in our minds).
socius perīculīs vōbīscum aderō (Jug. 85, 47), I will be present with you, a companion in dangers.
premit altum corde dolōrem (Æn. i. 209), he keeps down the pain deep in his heart.
b. 1. Several verbs are regularly followed by the ablative, originally of place. These are : acquiēscō, dēlector, laetor, gaude $\overline{0}$, glōrior, nītor, stō, manē̄, fiā̄ (cōnfī̄̄), cōnsistō, contineor.
nōminibus veterum glōriantur (Orat. 169), they glory in the names of the ancients. [Also, dē dīvitiīs, in virtūte, circā rem, aliquid, glōriārī.]
spē nîtī (Att. iii. 9), to rely on hope.
prūdentiā fīdēns (Off. i. 8), trusting in prudence.
255. (Rule 42.) The verbals frētus, contentus, and laetus take the ablative either of place or means as,
frētus grātiā Brūtī (Att. v. 21, 12), relying on the favor of Brutus.
laetus praeda, rejoicing in the booty.
contentus sorte, content with his lot. [Possibly abl. of cause.]
Remark. - The ablative with the above verbs sometimes takes the preposition in (and the ablative with them is probably locative): as, -
in quibus causa nītitur (Cæl. 25), on whom the case depends.
With several of these verbs the neuter accusative of pronouns is often found.

## 14. Ablative Absolute.

255. (RULE 54.) A noun or pronoun, with a participle, may be put in the ablative to define the time or circumstances of an action : as, -
nōndum hieme cōnfectä (B. G. vi. 3), the winter not yet over.
nē vōbīs quidem omnibus rē etiam tum probātā (Cat. ii. 4), since at that time the facts were not yet proved even to all of you.
a. An adjective, or a second noun, may take the place of the participle in the Ablative Absolute construction : as, -
exiguā parte aestātis reliquā (B. G. iv. 20), when but a small part of the summer was left (a small part of the summer remaining).
M. Messālā et M. Pisōne cōnsulibus (id. i. 2), in the consulship of Mes. sala and Piso (Marcus Messala and Marcus Piso being consuls). [The regular way of expressing dates, see § 259. e.]
b. In later Latin a phrase or clause, used substantively, sometimes occurs as ablative absolute with a participle or an adjective : as, -
incertō quid peterent (Liv. xxviii. 36), as it was uncertain what they should aim at (it being uncertain, etc.).
compertō vānam esse formïdinem (Tac. Ann. i. 66), when it was found that the alarm was groundless.
c. A participle or an adjective is sometimes used adverbially in the ablative absolute without a substantive : as, -
cōnsultō et cōgitātō (Off. i. 27), on purpose and with reflection (the matter having been deliberated and thought on).
serēnō (Liv. xxxi. 12), under a clear sky (it [being] clear).
d. The Ablative Absolute in its developed form often takes the place of a Subordinate Clause, the noun being equivalent to a subject, and the other word to the predicate. So may be replaced -
I. Temporal clauses (§§ 322 ff .) : as, -
patre interfectō, [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. I, I), while the traces of the crime were fresh. [Cf. dum recentia sunt vestigia.]
256. Causal clauses (§ 321) : as, -
at eì quī Alesiae obsidēbantur praeteritā diê quā auxilia suōrum exspectāverant, cōnsūmptō omnī frūmentō, conciliō coāctō cōnsultābant (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 diēs praeteriisset, etc.]
Dārēus, dēspērātā pāce, ad reparandās vīrēs intendit animum (Q. C. iv. 6, 1), Darius, since he despaired of peace, devoted his energies to recruiting his forces. [Cf. cum pācem dēspērāret.]
257. Concessive clauses (§ 3 I 3 ) : as, -
at eō repūgnante fiēbat (cōnsul), immō vērō eō fiēbat magis (Milo 34), but though he (Clodius) opposed, he (Milo) was likely to be elected consul; nay, rather, etc.
258. Conditional clauses (§ 304) : as, -
occurrēbat eī, mancam et dēbilem praetūram futīram suam, cōnsule Milöne (Milo 25), it occurred to him that his pratorship would be maimed and feeble if Milo were consul. [si Milō cōnsul esset.]
quā (regiōne) subāctā licēbit dēcurrere in illud mare (Q. C. ix. 3, I3), if this region is subdued, we shall be free to run down into that sea.
quā quidem dētrāctā (Arch. 28), if this be taken away.
259. Clauses of accompanying circumstance : as, -
ego haec ā Chry̆sogonō meā sponte, remōtō Sex. Rosciō, quaerō (Rosc. Am. 1 30), 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 dominō (Milo 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 ren-
dered 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, intermīssō spatiō, imprīdentibus nostris, atque occupātès in mūnītiōne castrōrum, subitō sē ex silvis ēiēcērunt; impetüque in eōs factō, quī erant in statiōne prō castrís collocātī, ācriter pūgnāvērunt ; duäbusque mīssīs subsidiō cohortibus a Caesare, cum hae (perexiguo intermíssō locī spatiō inter sē) cönstitissent, novō genere pūgnae perterritīs nostrūs, per mediōs audācissimē perrūpērunt, sēque inde incolumēs recēpērunt."-C.eSAR, 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."

## VI. TIME AND PLACE.

## - 1. Time.

256. (RuLE 55.) Time when, or within which, is expressed by the Ablative ; time how Tong by the Accusative : as, -
I. Ablative :-
cōnstitūtā diē, on the appointed day; prīmā lūce, at daybreak. quotā hōrā, at what o'clock? tertiā vigiliā, in the third watch. tribus proxumis annis (Jug. II), within the last three years.
257. Accusative:-
diēs continuōs trīgintā, for thirty days together.
cum triduum iter fēcisset (B. G. ii. 16), when he had marched three days.
a. The Ablative of time within which sometimes takes in, and the Accusative of time how long, per for greater precision : as, -
in diēbus proximis decem (Sall.), within the next ten days.
in brevī spatiō (Ov. Met. i. 4 II ), within a brief space (of time).
lūdī per decem diēs (Cat. iii. 20), games for ten days.
b. Duration of time is occasionally expressed by the Ablative : as, mīlitēs quinque hōris proelium sustinuerant (B. C. i. 47), the men had sustained the fight five hours.

## 2. Space.

257. (Rule 37.) Extent of space is expressed by the Accusative : as, -
fōssās quīndecim pedēs lāāā (B. G. vii. ${ }^{2}$ ), trenches fifteen feet broad. in omnī vītā suā quemque à rēctā cōnscientiā trānsversum unguem nōn oportet discēdere (quoted in Att. xiii. 20), in all one's life, one should not depart a nail's breadth from straightforward conscience.
a. Measure is often expressed by the Genitive of Quality ( $\$ 215.6$ ) : as, -
vallō pedum duodecim (B. G. ii. 30), in a rampart of twelve feet (in height).
b. Distance when considered as extent of space is expressed by the Accusative ; when considered as degree of difference, by the Ablative (§ 250) : as, -
quīnque diērum iter abest (Liv. xxx .29 ), it is distant five days' march. trīgintā milibus passuum īnfrā eum locum (B. G. vi. 35), thirty miles below that place (below by thirty miles).

## 3. Place from Which and End of Motion.

258. (Rule 56.) The place from which is denoted by the Ablative with $\mathbf{a b}, \mathrm{de}$, or ex; the place to which (the End of Motion) by the Accusative with ad or in: as, -
259. Place from which :-
à septentriōne, from the north.
dē prōvinciā dēcēdere, to come away from one's province.
dee monte, down from the mountain.
negōtiātor ex Āfricā (Verr. II. i, 14), a merchant from Africa.
ex Britanniā obsidēs mīsērunt (B. G. iv. 38), they sent hostages from Britain.
Mösa prōfluit ex monte Vosegō (id. iv. 10), the Meuse (flows from) rises in the Vosges mountains.
260. Place to which:-
ad finēs Hyrcāniae penetrat (Q. C. vi. 4, 2), he penetrates to the borders of Hyrcania.
in Africam nāvigāvit, he sailed to Africa.
in Italiam profectus, gome to Italy.
lēgātum in Treverōs mīttit (B. G. iii. iI), he sends his lieutenant into the [country of the] Treveri.

Note 1.- In poetry the end of motion is often expressed by the Dative (§ $225 . b$ 3) : as, -
it clāmor caelō (Æn. v. 451), a shout goes up to the sky.
a. (Rule 56.) The names of towns or small islands from which, as also domus and rūs, are put in the Ablative without a preposition: as, -

Rōmā profectus, having set out from Rome. rūre reversus, having returned from the country.
Rōmā abesse, to be absent from Rome.
domō abire, to leave home.
Note 1. - With names of towns, etc., ab is often used, commonly to denote from the vicinity of: as, -
erat $\bar{a}$ Gergoviā dēspectus in castra (B. G. vii. 45), there was from about G. a view into the camp.
profectī ā domō (Liv. xl. 33), setting out from home.
Note 2. - The ablative without a preposition is used to denote the place from which in certain idiomatic expressions : as,-
cēssisset patriā (Mil. 68), he would have left his country.
patria pellere, to drive out of the country.
manū mittere, to emancipate (let go from the hand).
Note 3. - The poets often omit the preposition where it would be required in prose : as, -
mānīs Acheronte remissōs (Æn. v. 99), the spirits returned from Acheron.
b. (Rule 56.) The names of towns or small islands to which, as, also domus and rūs, are put in the Accusative without a preposition : as, -

Rōmam rediit, he returned to Rome.
Dēlō Rhodum nāvigāre, to sail from Deles to Rhodes.
rūs ībō, $I$ shall go into the country.
domum iit, he went home. [So, suās domōs abire, to go to their homes.]
Note I. - In this use domum may be modified by a possessive pronoun or a genitive. When otherwise modified, domum requires the preposition in. Thus, -
domum rēgis (Deiot. 17), to the king's house. [But also in M. Laecae domum (Cat. i. 8), to M. Laca's house.] But -
in domum māgnam venīre, 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 Athēnās nāvigāre, to set sail for Athens (landing in the harbor).
Note 3. - The general words, urbs, eppidum, insula, require a preposition in either construction (to which or from which): as, ad urbem, ab urbe, ad urbem Rōmam, Rōmam ad urbem, ex urbe Rōmā.

Note 4. - Two or more nouns are sometimes expressed after one verb as limits of motion (see § $259 . h$ ).

Note 5. - The poets often omit the preposition with any noun : as, -
IItaliam Lāvīniaque vēnit lītora (Æn. i. 2), he came to Italy and the Lavinian shores.
finīs Italōs mïttere (id. iii. 440), you shall be allowed to reach the Italian boundaries.

Remark. - The preposition is omitted with the supine in -um (§ 302) and in the following old phrases :-
exsequiās ire, to go to the funeral.
pessum ïre, to go to ruin.
vēnum dare, to sell (give to sale). [Hence vēndere.]
vēnum īre, to be sold (go to sale). [Hence vēnīre.]
forās (used as adverb), out : as, forās ēgredī, to go out of doors.

## 4. The Place Where.

c. (Rule 57.) I. The place where is denoted by the Ablative with the preposition in (Locative Ablative) : as, -
in hāc urbe vītam dēgit, he passed his life in this city.
sī in Galliā remanērent (B. G. iv. 8), if they should stay in Gaul. oppidum in insulā positum (id. vii. 58), a tozun situated on an island.
2. (Rule 57.) But names of towns and small islands are put in the Locative Case. (See 36. c, 40. a, and 62.)

Rōmae, at Rome (Rōma).
Athēnīs, at Athens (Athēnae).
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 Siciliā, in Sicily.
in Ithacā leporēs illātī moriuntur (Plin. H. N.), in Ithaca hares when carried there die. [Ulysses lived at Ithaca, would require Ithacae.]
Note I. - 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 circã with the Accusative; among, by apud with the Accusative. Thus,-
pūgna ad Cannās, the fight at Cannce.
conchās ad Cāiētam legunt (De Or. ii. 22), at Caieta (along the shore). ad (apud) inferōs, in the world below (near or among those below). apud Graecōs, among the Greeks. apud mē, at my house.
Note 2. - In citing an author, apud is regularly used ; in citing a particular work, in. Thus, -
apud Xenophōntem, in Xenophon. But-
in Xenophōntis Oeconomicō, in Xenophon's EEconomicus.
d. (Rule 57.) 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.
humĩ, on the ground. sūri, in the country.
foris, out-of-doors.
terrā marīque, by land and sea.
These are used like names of towns, without a preposition. So, also,-
heri(-e), yesterday. vesperi (e), in the evening.
infeelicī arborī (Liv. i. 26), on the ill-omened tree.
e. The locative domi 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, -
domī Caesaris, at Casar's house.
domi suae vel aliēnae, at his own or another's house. But -
in Mārcī Crassī castissimā domō (Cæl. 9), in the chaste home of Marcus Crassus. [Cf. ex Anniānā Milōnis domō, § 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 locō, parte : as, quibus locō positīs (De Or. iii. 153), when these are set in position. quã parte victī erant (Cic.), on the side where they were beaten. But exercitum castris continuit (B. G. i. 48), he keft his army in camp. [Here the construction is influenced by means.]
2. Frequently with nouns which are qualified by adjectives (regularly when tōtus is used) : as, -
mediā urbe (Liv. i. 33), in the middle of the city.
tōtā Siciliä (Verr. iv. 51), throughout Sicily (in the whole of Sicily). So tōtā Tarracīnā (De Or. ii. 240), in all Tarracina (cf. c. 2. Rem.).
3. Freely in poetry : as, -
litore curvō (Æn. iii. 16), on the winding shore. antrō sēclūsa relinquit (id. iii. 446), she leaves them shut up in the cave. Epīrō, Hesperiā (id. iii. 503), in Epirus, in Hesperia.
$g$. The way by which is expressed by the ablative without a preposition : as, -
viā breviōre equitēs praemīī̈ (Fam. x. 9), I sent forward the cavalry by a shorter road.
Aegaeō marī trāiēcit (Liv. xxxvii. 14), he crossed by way of the Agean Sea. prōvehimur pelagō (Æn. iii. 506), we sail forth over the sea.

## 5. Special Uses of Time and Place.

259. The following special uses must be observed: $\qquad$
a. Many expressions have in Latin the construction of time when, where in English the main idea is rather of place: as, -
pūgnā Cannēnsì (or apud Cannās), in the fight at Canna.
lūdis Rōmānīs, at the Roman games.
omnibus Gallicīs 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 :-
supplicātiō dēcrēta est in Kalendās Iānuāriās, a thanksgiving was voted for the Ist of January.
convēnērunt 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, quintō diē, within [just] four days (lit., on the fifth day). [The Romans counted both ends, see § 376 . d.]
reggnat iam sextum annum, he has reigned going on six years (he is reigning now the sixth year).
But also, - rēgnāvit iam sex annōs, he has already reigned for six years.
d. Difference of time before or after anything is variously ex-
pressed : as, -
post (ante) trēs annōs, post tertium annum, trēs post annōs, tertium post annum, tribus post annīs, tertiō post annō ( $\$ 250$ ), three years after.
tribus annīs (tertiō annō) post exsilium (postquam ēiectus est,) three years after his exile.
his tribus proximis annis, within the last three years. paucis annis, a few years hence.
abhinc annōs trēs (tribus annīs), ante hōs trēs annōs, three years ago. triennium est cum (trēs annī sunt cum), it is three years since. octāvō mênse 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 diēs erat a. d. quīntum Kalendās Aprilīs L. Pisōne A. Gabīniō cōnsulibus (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. 7), 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 .
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, -
coniūrātī in cūriam convēnērunt, the consprrators met in the Senate-house (came together into the Senate-house).
concilium domum suam convocāvit, 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, -
quadriduō quō haec gesta sunt rēs ad Chrÿsogonum in castra L. Sullae Volāterrās dēfertur (Rosc. Am. 20), within four days after this was done, the matter was reported $\mathbf{T o}$ Chrysogonus in Sulla's camp at Volaterra.

## VII. USE OF PREPOSITIONS.

260. Some Prepositions are used with the Accusative, some with the Ablative, and a few with both.
a. Verbs of placing, though implying motion, take the construction of the place in which.

Such are : pōn̄̄ and its compounds (except impōn̄̄), locō, collocō, statuō, cōnstituō, etc.
statuitur eques Rōmānus in Aprōnī convīviō (Verr. iii. 62), a Roman knight is brought into a banquet of Apronius.
sī in ūnō Pompēiō omnia pōnerētis (Man. 59), if you made everything depend on Pompey alone.
b. Position is frequently expressed by the Ablative with ab (rarely ex), properly meaning from : as, -
à tergō, in the rear.
$\bar{a}$ sinistrā, on the left hand. [Cf. hinc, on this side.]
māgnā ex parte, in a great degree (from, i.e. in, a great part).
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.
sed hà̀c rē super nimis (Att. x. 8, 10), but more than enough on that point.
super culmina tēctī (Æn. ii. 695), above the house-top.
super laterēs coria indūcuntur ( $\mathrm{R} . \mathrm{C} . \mathrm{ii}$. 10), hides are drawn over the bricks.
super Numidiam (Jug. 19), beyond Numidia.
super terrae tumulum (Legg. ii. 66), on the mound of earth.
Note. - The ablative is used in poetry with super in other senses: as, -
ligna super focō largē repōnēns (Hor. Od. i. 9. 5), piling logs generously on the fire.
nocte super mediā (Æn. ix. 61), 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. 36), as far as Taurus.
capulō tenus (Æn. ii. 553), up to the hilt. .
Corcȳrae tenus (Liv. xxvi. 24), as far as Corcyra.
261. Many words may be construed either as Prepositions or as Adverbs : thus, -
a. The adverbs pridiē, postridiē, propius, proxim $\overline{,}{ }^{1}$ usque - also (less frequently) the adjectives propior and proximus - may be followed by the Accusative (cf. §§ 207. b, 234. e) : as, -

[^9]prīdiē Nōnās Iūniās (Cic.), the day before the Nones of June (June 4).
ipse propior montem suōs collocat (Jug. 49), he stations his men nearer the hill.
proximē Pompēium sedēbam (Att. 1. 14), I sat next to Pompey. [Cf. proximus Pompēium sedēbam.]
pars ìnsulae quae est propius sölis occāsum (B. G. iv. 28), the part of the island which is nearer the west (sunset). terminōs usque Libyae (Just.), to the bounds of Libya.
Note. - Pridiê and postridiē take also the Genitive (§ 223. e. note 2). Propior, propius, proximus, and proxime 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 (so, perhaps, intus) : as, -
rem crēditōrī palam populō solvit (Liv. vi. 14), he paid the debt in the presence of the people.
haud procul castrīs in modum mūnicipiī exstrūcta (Tac. H. iv. 22), not far from the camp, built up lite a town.
simul nöbis 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 palam as a preposition is comparatively late. Thus, -
procul à marī, far from the sea.
nōbīscum simul, at the same time with ourselves.
c. The adverb clam is found with the Accusative or Ablative, rarely with the Genitive or Dative : as, -
clam mātrem suam (Plaut.), unknowon to his mother.
clam mihi (id.), in secret from me.
clam patris (id.), without his father's knowledge.
clam vöbīs (B. C. ii. $3^{22}$ ), without your knowledge.
d. Prepositions often retain their original meaning as adverbs. So, especially, -

1. Ante and post in relations of time: as, -
quae paulō ante praecepta dedimus (Cic.), a little while ago, etc.
post tribus diēbus, three days after (cf. § 259. $d$ ).
2. Adversus, contrā, circiter, prope: as, -
adversus resistere, to hold out in opposition.
Aeolus haec contrā, thus EEOLus in reply.
3. In general those ending in -ā: as, -
forte fuit iūxtā tumulus, there happened to be a mound close by.
4. Some prepositions or adverbs which imply Comparison are followed, like comparatives, by quam, either attached to them or separated by several words, or even clauses.
neque ante dīmisit eum quam fidem dedit (Liv. xxxix. 10), nor did he let him go until he gave a pledge.
post diem tertium quam dixerat (Mil. 44), the third day after he said it.
Note r.-Such words are ante, prius, post, pridiē, postrīdiē; also magis and prae in compounds : as, -

Catō ipse iam servire quam pūgnāre māvult (Att. vii. 1 5), Cato himself by this time would rather be a slave than fight.

Note 2. - The ablative of time ( $\$ 256$ ) is sometimes followed by quam in the same way: as, -
octāvō mēnse quam (Liv. xxi. 15), within eight months after, etc.
263. For $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ or ab with the Ablative of Agent, see § 246.

Note. - The following prepositions sometimes follow their nouns : ad, citrã, circā, contrā, dē, ē. (ex), inter, iūxtā, penes, propter, ūltrā, tenus (regularly), and occasionally others : as, -
[ūsus] quem penes arbitrium est et iūs et nōrma loquendī (Hor. A. P. 72), custom, under whose control is the choice, right, and rule of speech.
cūius à mē corpus est cremātum, quod contrā decuit ab illō meum (C. M. 84), whose body I burned [on the funeral pile], while on the contrary (lit. contrary to which) mine should have been burned by him.

## 3. SYNTAX OF THE VERB.

## I. MOODS AND TENSES.

The proper verbal constructions may be thus classified: -
I. Indicative: Direct Assertion or Question (\$ 264).
2. Subjunctive:

2. $\begin{aligned} & \text { I. Direct Commands (often subjunctive) (§ 269). }\end{aligned}$
3. Imperative : $\quad$ 2. Statutes, Laws, and Wills (§ 269. $d$ ).
3. Prohibitions (early or poetic use) (§ 269. note).
a. Subject of esse and Impersonal verbs ( $\S 270$ ).
b. Objective $\quad$ I. Complementary Infinitive( $\$ 27$ I). Constructions: $\{2$ 2. Indirect Discourse (with subjectaccusative) (§ 272).
r. Purpose (poetic or Greek use)
c. Idiomatic (§ 273 ).

Uses :
2. Exclamation (with subject-accusative) (§ 274).
3. Historical Infinitive (\$275).

## 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 ( $\$ 8276 \mathrm{ff}$.).
$b$. 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 is sometimes used for the Imperative ( $\S 269 . f$ ).
d. The Indicative is used in some kinds of conditions ( $\$ \S 306,308$ ).

## II. The Subjunctive.

265. The Subjunctive in general expresses the verbal idea with some modification ${ }^{1}$ such as is expressed in English by auxiliaries, by the infinitive, or by the rare subjunctive (§ I12.b).

The uses of the subjunctive are independent or dependent.
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 Delibenation (Deliberative, § 268).
b. The Subjunctive is used in dependent clauses to express-
(1) Purpose (Final, § 317).
(2) Result (Consecutive, § 319).
(3) Characteristic (§ 320).
(4) Time Temporal, § 325 ).
(5) Indirect Onestion (\$ 334).
(6) Condition. future or contrary to fact ( $\$ \S 307 . b, c, 308$ ).
c. The subjunctive is also used with Particles of Comparison (§312), and in subordinate clauses in the Indirect Discourse (§ 336).
${ }^{1}$ These modifications are of various kinds, each of which had its own special development. 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.

## 土. Hortatory Subjunctive.

266. (Rule 68.) The Hortatory Subjunctive is used to express an exhortation, a command, a concession, or a condition.
hōs lātrōnēs interficiāmus (B. G. vii. 38), let us kill these robbers. caveant intemperantiam, meminerint verēcundiae (Off. i. 122), let them shun excess and cherish modesty.
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 equivalent to the Present. Other tenses are used in some varieties of this construction (see $c$, note, and $e$ ).

Remark. - The negative particle with the hortatory subjunctive is nē.
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, dēfugiendō relinquās (Tusc. v. 118), the wrongs of fortune, which you cannot bear, leave behind by fight.
exoriāre aliquis ultor (£n. iv. 625 ), rise, some avenger.
nē cōnferās culpam in mē (Ter. Eun. 388), don't lay the blame on me.
b. In Prohibitions addressed to a definite person, the perfect is more common than the present (cf. § 269. a) : as, -
hōc facitō : hōc nē fēceris (Div. ii. 127), thou shalt do this; thou shalt not do that.
tū nē quaesieris (Hor.), do not inquire.
nec mihi illud dixeris (Fin. i. 25), and do not say that to me.
c. The hortatory subjunctive may express a CONCESSLON_sometimes with ut, nē, quamvis quamlibet, or similar words (cf. § $313 . a$ ) : as, -
fuerit aliis : tibi quandō esse coepit (Verr. II. i, 37), suppose he was [so] to others, when did he begin to be to you?
ut ratiōnem Platō nūllam afferret (Tusc. i. 49), though Plato adduced no reasons.
nēmō is unquam fuit : nē fuerit (Or. IOI), there never was such a one [you will say] : granted (let there not have been).
quamvis scelerātī illī fuissent (De Or. i. 230), however guilty they might have been.

Note. - 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).
d. The hortatory subjunctive may denote a Proviso or CONdition (see §§ 310. b, 314 ).
e. The Imperfect and Pluperfect of the hortatory subjunctive denote an unfulfilled obligation in past time: as, morerētur, inquiēs (Rab. Post. 28), he should have died, you will say. potius diceret (Off. iii. 88). he should rather have said. nē poposcissēs (Att. ii. 1, 3), you should not have asked.

## 2. Optative Subjunctive.

267. (Rule 69.) The Subjunctive is used to express a Wish. The present tense denotes the wish as possible, the imperfect as unaccomblished in present time, the pluperfect as unaccomplished in past time. Thus, - V
ita vivam (Att. v. I5), so may I live (as true as I live).
nē vīvam sī sciō (id. iv. 16, 8), I wish I may not live if I know.
dì tē perduint (Deiot. 21), the gods confound thee!
valeant, valeant, cīvēs meī ; valeant, sint incolumēs (Mil. 93), farewell [he says], my fellow-citizens; may they be secure from harm.
dī facerent sine patre forem ( Ov. Met. viii. $7^{2}$ ), would that the gods allowed me to be without a father (but they do not)!

Remark. - The negative particle with the optative subjunctive is nē.
a. The Perfect in this use is antiquated : as, -
male dī tibi faxint (Plaut. Curc. 131), may the gods do thee a mischief. quod ōmen dī āverterint (Phil. xii. 14, in a religious formula), and may the gods avert this omen.
b. The Optative Subjunctive is often preceded by the particles uti (ut), utinam, $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$ si : as, -
ut pereat positum rōbīgine tēlum (Hor. Sat. ii. 1, 43), may the weapon unused perish with rust.
falsus utinam vātēs sim (Liv. xxi. 10), I wish I may be a false prophet. utinam P. Clōdius vīveret (Mil. 103), would that Clodius were now alive. $\overline{\mathrm{o}}$ sī angulus ille accēdat (Hor. Sat. ii. 6. 8), oh ! if that corner might only be added.

Note 1. - The subjunctive with uti, etc., was originally deliberative, meaning how may $I$, etc. (§ 268). The subjunctive with $\bar{o}$ sì (poetical) is a protasis (§ 312 . note) ; sī alone is sometimes used to express a wish in the same way : as, -
sī nunc sễ nöbīs ille aureus rāmus ostendat (Æn. vi. 187): if now that golden branch would only show itself to us !
c. Velim and vellem, and their compounds, with a subjunctive or infinitive, are often equivalent to an optative subjunctive : as, -
dē Menedēmō vellem vērum fuisset, dē rēgīnā velim vērum sit (Att. xv. 4, 4), about Menedemus I wish it had been true; about the queen I hope it may be.
nollem accidisset tempus (Fam. iii. 10, 2), I wish the time never had come.

## 3. Deliberative Subjunctive.

268. (Rule 70.) The Subjunctive is used in questions implying (1) doubt, indignation, or (2) an impossibility of the thing being done : as, -
quid hōc homine faciās? quod supplicium dīgnum libīdinī ēius inveniās (Verr. ii. 40), what are you to do with this man? what fit penalty can you devise for his wantonness?
an ego nōn venirem (Phil. ii. 3), what, should I not have come?
mihi umquam bonōrum praesidium defuturum putārem (Mil. 94), could $I$ think that the defence of good men would ever fail me?
quis enim cēlāverit ignem (Ov. Her. xv. 7), who could conceal the flame?
Remark. - This use is apparently derived from the Hortatory Subjunctive : quid faciāmus? = faciāmus [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.

Note. - The Deliberative Subjunctive is sometimes called Dubitative.

## III. The Imperative.

269. The Imperative is used in Commands and Entreaties : as, cōnsulite vōbīs, prospicite patriae, cōnservāte vōs (Cat. iv. 3), have a care for yourselves, guard the country, preserve yourselves. dic Mārce Tullī sententiam, Marcus Tullius, state your opinion.

Note. - In Negative Commands (prohibitions) the Present Imperative with nee is used by early writers and the poets : as, -
nē timē (Plaut. Curc. 520), don't be afraid.
nimium nē crēde colōrī (Ecl. ii. 17), trust not too much to complexion.
equō nē crēdite (Æn. ii. 48), trust not the horse.
a. (Rule 7I.) Prohibition is regularly expressed in classic prose :-

1. By nē with the second person of the Perfect Subjunctive ; as, nē territus fueris (Tac. H. i. 16), don't be alarmed.
2. By nōli with the infinitive : as, -
nōlī putāre (Fam. xiv. 2), do not suppose (be unwilling to suppose).
Note. - The poets frequently use instead of nölī other words of similar meaning (cf. § $273 . \mathrm{c}$ ) : as, -
parce piās scelerāre manūs (用. iii. 42), forbear to defile your pious hands.
3. By cave with or without $\mathbf{n} \overline{\mathbf{e}}$ (colloquially fac $\mathbf{n} \overline{\mathbf{e}}$ ) with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ ( $\S 266 . b$ ) : as, -
cave putēs (Att. vii. 20), don'think.
cave dixeris, don't say so.
fac nē quid aliud cūrēs (Fam. xvi. It), see that you attend to nothing else.
Note. - Other negatives sometimes take the place of nē : as, -
nōn dubitāveris (Sen. Q. N. i. 3, 3), you must not doubt.
nihil İgnōveris (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,
dēnique istō bonō ūtāre dum adsit : cum absit nē requīrās (C. M. 33), 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 nē in prohibitions not general: as, -
molestus nē sīs (Plaut. Most. 771 ), don't be troublesome.
nē sīs 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 : iūsta imperia suntō, eīsque cīvēs modestē pārentō (Leg. iii. 6), let there be lawful authorities, and let the citizens strictly obey them.
${ }^{1}$ In prohibitions the Subjunctive with nee is hortatory ; that with cave is an object clause (originally hortatory, cf. § 331.f. Rem.).

Note. - In prose the Hortatory Subjunctive is commonly used instead (§ 266) : as, -
haec igitur lēx in amīcitiā sanciātur (Læl. 40), let this law be laid down in case of friendship.
d. The Future Imperative is used in commands, etc., where there is a distinct reference to future time : viz., -

1. In connection with a condition precedent (as a future, a future perfect, or an imperative). Thus, -

Phyllida mïtte mihī, meus est nātālis, Ioliā; cum faciam vitulā prō frūgibus ipse venītō (Ecl. iii. 76), send Phyllis to me, it is my birthday, Iollas; when I sacrifice a heifer for the harvest, come yourself.
dīc quibus in terrīs, etc., et Phyllida sōlus habētō (id. iii. 107), tell in what lands, etc., and have Phyllis for yourself.
2. With adverbs or other expressions of Time : as, -
crās petitō, dabitur (Pl. Merc. 770), ask to-morrow [and] it shall be given.
3. In general directions, as Precepts, Statutes, and Wills : as, cum valētūdinī cōnsulueris, tum cōnsulitō nāvigātiōnī (Fam xvi. 4), when you have attended to your health, then look to your sailing.
Boreā flante, nē arātō, sēmen nē iacitō (Plin. H. N. xviii. 77), when the north wind blows, plough not, nor sow your seed.
$e$. The verbs sciō, memin $\overline{\text {, }}$, and habeo (in the sense of consider), regularly use the Future Imperative instead of the Present : as, -
filiolō mē auctum scitō (Att. i. 2), learn that Iam blessed with a little boy. sīc habētō, mī Tirō (Fam. xvi. 4), so understand it, my good Tïro.
dē pallā mementō, amābō (Pl. Asin. 939), remember, dear, about the govun.
$f$. 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, -
sī quid acciderit novī, faciēs ut sciam (Fam. xiv. 8), you will let me know if anything new happens.
quīn accipis (Ter. Heaut. 832) ? here, take it (why not take it ?).
g. Instead of the simple Imperative, cūrā, tac, or velim, followed by the Subjunctive with or without ut is often used, especially in colloquial language : as, -
cūrā ut Rōmae sīs (Att. i. 2), take care to be at Rome.
fac ut valētūdinem cūrēs (Fam. xiv. 17), see that you take care of your health. [Cf. rūs eō. fac, amäbō (Ter. Eun. 533), I'm going into the country. Do, please.]
domi adsìtis facite (id. 506), be at home, do.

## TV. The Infinitive.

## 8. Infinitive as Subject, etc.

270. (Rule 58.) 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. 84), to suffer pain is an evil.
pulchrum est benefacere reī pūblicae (Sall. Cat. 3), it is a noble thing to benefit the state.
mōtōs praestat compōnere flūctūs (Æn. i. 135), it is better to calm the troubled waves.
271. In Apposition with the Subject : as, -

* proinde quasi iniūriam facere id dēmum esset imperiō ūtī (Sall. Cat. I2), 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 nātūrae vivere (Fin. iv. 41), that is to live in conformity with nature. [Cf. üti 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: $_{7}$ as, -
istūc ipsum nōn esse cum fueris miserrimum putō (Tusc. i. 12), for $I$ think this very thing most wretched, not to be when one has been.
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, -
nōn esse cupidum pecūnia (Parad. ${ }^{\text {T }}$ ), to be free from desires (not to be desirous) is money in hand.
a. The infinitive as subject is not common except with est and similar verbs, but is occasionally used with verbs apparently more active in meaning : as, -
quōs omnīs eadem cupere, eadem ōdisse, eadem metuere in ūnum coēgit (Jug. 31, 10), all of whom the fact of desiring, hating, and feuring the same things has united into one.
ingenuās didicisse fidèliter artēs ēmollit mōrēs ( Ov . ex P. ii. 9. 48), faithfully to have learned liberal arts softens the manners.
posse loquī ēripitur (Ov. M. ii. 483), the power of speech is taken away.
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, visum est, pudet, piget, necesse est, opus est, etc.
id prìmum in poētīs cernì licet (De Or. iii. 27), this may be seen first in poets.
reperiēbat quid dīcì opus esset (Brut. 215), he found what needed to be said.
neque mē vixisse paenitet (C. M. 84), I do not feel sorry to have lived.
Note i. - These are generally not real cases of the infinitive used as subject, but they approach that construction.
c. Rarely the infinitive is used exactly like the accusative of a noun : as, -
beätē vīvere aliī in aliō, vōs in voluptāte pōnitis (Fin. ii. 86), a happy life different [philosophers] base on different things, you on pleasure.

## 2. Complementary Infinitive.

271. (Rule 59.) Verbs which imply another action of the same subject to complete their meaning take the infinitive without a subject-accusative : as, -
hōc queō dicere (Cat. Maj. 32), this I can say.
mîttō quaerere (Rosc. Am. 53), I omit to ask.
vereor laudāre praesentem (N. D. i. 58), I fear to praise a man to his face (one who is present).
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.
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. if6), they aim to excel.
$\overline{\text { cum statuissem scribere ad tē aliquid (Off. i. 4), when I had resolved to }}$ address something to you.
istum exhērēdāre in animō habēbat (Rosc. Am. 52), he had it in mind to deprive him of the inheritance.

Note i. - 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, -
cupiō mē esse clēmentem (Cat. i. 4) $=$ cupiō esse clēmens, 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, -
~ quōs tuērī dēbent dēserunt (Off. i. 28), they forsake those whom they should protect.
nōn lubet fugere aveō pūgnāre (Att. ii. 18, 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 different from that of the main verb (see § 331. a) : as, -
signa inferri 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, -
7 fierīque studēbam êius prūdentiā doctior (Læl. 1), I was eager to become more wise through his wisdom.
sciō quam soleās esse occupātus (Fam. xvi. 21, 7), I know how busy you usually are (are wont to be).

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, -
7 peregrinī officium est minimē in aliēnā esse rē pūblicā cūriōsum (Off. i. 125), it is a stranger's duty to be by no means curious in a foreign state.

## 3. Infinitive with Subject-Accusative.

272. (Rule 60.) The Infinitive, with Subject-Accusative, is used with verbs and other expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (Indirect Discourse, § 336) : as, -
dīcit montem ab hostibus tenērī (B. G. i. 22), he says that the hill is held by the enemy. [Direct: mōns ab hostibus tenētur.]

Remark. - The Infinitive Clause may be - 1 . the Direct Object of the verb: as, Caesarem adesse nūntiāvit, he reported that Casar was present; 2. the Subject of the same verb in the passive : as, Caesarem adesse nūntiātum est, it was reported that Cesar 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. I. With certain impersonal verbs and expressions that take the infinitive as an apparent subject ( $\S 270 . b$ ), 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.
T exstinguī hominī suō tempore optābile est (Cat. Maj. 85), 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, ? liçuit esse ōtiōsō Themistoclī (Tusc. i. 33), Themistocles might have been inactive (it was allowed to T. to be inactive).
cūr hīs esse lỉberōs nōn licet (Flacc. 71), why is it not allowed these men to be free?
nōn est stantibus omnibus necesse dīcere (Marc. 33), it is not necessary for all to speak standing.
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 pāce vel bellō clārum fierī 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, -
sēnsit mediōs dēlāpsus in hostēs (Æn. ii. 377), he found himself fallen among the foe. [In prose: sê esse dēlăpsum.]

## 4. Infinitive of Purpose.

278. In a few cases the Infinitive retains its original meaning of Purpose.
$a$. The infinitive is used after habē, d $\overline{\mathbf{0}}$, ministr $\overline{\mathbf{0}}$, in isolated passages instead of a subjunctive clause : as, 一.
tantum habeō pollicērī (Fam. i. 5), so much I have to promise. [Here the more formal construction would be quod pollicear.] merīidē 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, -
currū succēdere suētī (Æn. iii. 541), accustomed to being harnessed to the chariot.
adsuēfactī superārī (B. G. vi. 24), used to being conquered.
Note. - These words more commonly in prose take the gerund or gerundive construction ( $\$ \S 296 \mathrm{ff}$.) either in the Dative, the Genitive, or the Accusative with ad. Thus, -
? alendīs līberīs suētī (Tac. Ann. xiv. 27), accustomed to supporting children. însuētus nāvigandī (B. G. v. 6), unused to making voyages.
corporaīnsuēta ad onera portanda (B. C. 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, -
parce scelerāre (Æn. iii. 42), forbear to pollute.
d. Many adjectives take the infinitive in poetry following a Greek idiom : as, -
cantārī dīgnus (Ecl. v. 54), worthy to be sung. [In prose : quī cantētur.]
? cantāre periiti (Ecl. x. 32), skilled in song.
nescia vincī pectora (Æn. xii. 527), hearts not knowing how to yield.
$e$. The poets and early writers often use the infinitive to express purpose when there is no analogy with any prose construction : as, -
lōricam dōnat habēre virō (辰. v. 262), he gives the hero a breastplate to wear. [In prose: habendam.]
nōn ferrō Libycōs populāre Penātēs vēnimus (Æn. i. 527), wee 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.
z Note. - For tempus est abire, see § 298. note.
g. Rarely in poetry the infinitive is used to express result: as,fingit ecum tenerā docilem cervice magister ire viam, etc. (Hor. Ep. i. 2. 64), makes the horse gentle so as to go, etc.
hīc levāre . . . pauperem labōribus vocātus audit (Hor. Od. ii. 18. 38), he when called, hears, so as to relieve, etc.

## 5. Exclamatory Infinitive.

274. The Infinitive, with subject-accusative, may be used in Exclamations (cf. § 240. d) : as, -
tē in tantās aerumnās propter mē incidisse (Fam. xiv. 1), alas! that you should have fallen into such grief for me.
$\urcorner$ mēne inceptō dēsistere 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. (Rule 6i.) The Infinitive is often used for the Imperfect Indicative in narration, and takes a subject in the nominative : as, -
tum Catilīna pollicērī novās tabulās (Sall. Cat. 2r), then Catiline promised abolition of debts (clean ledgers).
ego instāre ut mihi respondēret (Verr. ii. 188), I kept urging him to answer me.
pars cēdere, aliī insequī ; neque sīgna neque ōrdinēs servāre ; ubi quemque perīculum cēperat, ibi resistere āc prōpulsāre, arma, têla, equī, virī, hostēs atque cīvēs permīxtī, nihil cōnsiliō neque imperiō agī ; fors omnia regere (Jug. 51), a part give way, others press on; they hold wither 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.

## TENSES.

## I. Tenses of Incomplete Action.

## 1. Present (General Use).

276. The Present Tense denotes an action or state (I) 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 intellegit, cōnsul videt, hīc tamen vīit (Cat. i. 2), the Senate knows this, the consul sees it, yet this man lives.
tibi concēdō meās sēdēs (Div. i. 104), I give you my seat (an offer which may or may not be accepted).
obsequium amīcōs, vēritās odium parit (Ter. And. 68), flattery gains friends, truth hatred. [General truth.]
a. The Present, with expressions of duration of time, especially iam diū, iam dūdum, denotes an action continuing in the present, but begun in the past (cf. § 277. b) : as, 一
tē iam dūdum hortor (Cat. i. 12), I have long urged you.
patimur iam multōs annōs (Verr. v. 126), we suffer now these many years.
[The perfect would imply, we no longer suffer.]
Note 1.-In this use the present is commonly to be rendered by the perfect in English.

Note 2. - Similarly the Present Imperative with iam dūdum indicates that the action commanded ought to have been done or was wished for long ago (cf. the Perfect Imperative in Greek) : as, -
iam dūdum sūmite poenās (Æn. ii. 103), exact the penalty long delayed.
b. The Present sometimes denotes an action attempted or begun in present time, but never completed (Conative Present, cf. § 277.c) : as, 一
iam iamque manū tenet (Æn. ii. 530), and now, even now, he attempts to grasp him.
dēnsōs fertur in hostis (id. 511), he starts tornsh into the thickest of the foe.
đēcernō quīnquāgintā diērum supplicātiōnēs (Phil. xiv. 29), I move for fifty days' thanksgiving. [Cf. senātus dëcrévit, the senate ordained.]
c. The Present, especially in colloquial language and poetry, is often used for the Future : as, -
ìmusne sēssum (De Or. iii. 17), shall we take a seat (are we going to sit)? haud mūtō factum (Ter. And. 40), I do not wish to change it (I am not trying to change).
hodiē uxōrem dūcis (id. 32 r ), are you to be married to-day ?
sī pereō hominum manibus periisse iuvābit (En. iii. 606), if I perish, it will be pleasant to perish at the hands of men (cf. § 307. a. note).

## 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 domī (Verr. v. 92), the news is brought to Syracuse; they run to headquarters; Cleomenes, 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 (repraesentātiō).

## 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, -
hōc dum nārrat, forte audīvī (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 vōbīscum animum meum vidēbātis (Cat. Maj. 79), while I was with you, you could n't see my soul. [Here the time when he was alive is contrasted with that after his death.]
coorta est pūgna, pār dum cōnstābant ōrdinēs (Liv. xxii. 47), a conflict began, well matched as long as the ranks stood firm.
But - dum ūnum adscendere gradum cōnātus est, vēnit in perīculum (Mur. 55), while he aittempted to climb one step [in rank] he fell into danger.
$f$. The present is regularly used in quoting writers whose works are extant : as, -

Epicūrus vērō ea dīcit (Tusc. ii. 17), but Epicurus says such things.

## 4. Imperfect.

277. The Imperfect denotes an action or a state as continued or repeated in past time : as, -

Sōcratēs ita cēnsēbat itaque disseruit (Tusc. i. 72), Socrates thought so (habitually), and so he spoke (then).
iamque rubēscēbat Aurōra (Æn. iii. 521), and now the dawn was blushing.
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 rēx erat
and rēx fuit 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, -

Aeduī graviter ferēbant, neque lēgātōs ad Caesarem mīttere audēbant (B. G. v. 6), the AEdui 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 vīcōsque habēbant (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 omnīnō itinera duo . . mōns altissimus impendēbat (B. G. i. 6), there were in all two ways . . . a very high mountain overhung.
b. With iam diū, iam dū̃um, and other expressions of duration of time, the Imperfect denotes an action continuing in the past but begun at some previous time (cf. § 115.a. 2): as, -
iam dūdum flëbam (Ov. M. iii. 656), I had been weeping for a long time.
cōpiās quäs diū comparäbant (Fam. xi. 13. 5), 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 (§ 276.a).
c. The Imperfect sometimes denotes an action as begun (Inceptive Imperfect), or as attempted or only intended (Conative Imperfect) (cf. § 276.b): \%
in exsilium ēiciēbam quem iam ingressum esse in bellum vidēbam (Cat. ii. 14), was I sending (i.e. trying to send) into exile one who I saw had already gone into war?
hunc igitur diem sibi prōpōnēns Milō, cruentīs manibus ad illa augusta centuriārum auspicia veniēbat (Mil. 43), was Milo coming (i.e. was it likely that he would come), etc. ?
iamque arva tenëbant ultima (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, -
$\overline{\mathrm{O}}$ tū quoque aderās (Ter. Ph. 858 ), oh! you are here too.
$\dot{e}$. The Imperfect is often used in dialogue where we should expect the Perfect : as, -
ad amicum Calliclem quoi rem aibat mandāsse hīc suam (Plaut. Trin. 956), to his friend Callicles, to whom, he said, he had intrusted his property.
Note. - So also, in conversation, the imperfect of verbs of saying (cf. as I was a-saying): as, -
at medicī quoque, ita enim dīcēbās, saepe falluntur (N. D. iii. 15), for that was what you were saying just now.
$f$. For the Imperfect 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. 62), 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 vōbīscum animum meum vidëbātis (Cat. Maj. 79) for, you know, while I was with you, you could not see my soul. [Here the Perfect would refer only to one moment.]

## 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 shown by the main classe : as, -
cum aderit vidēbit, when he is there he will see (cf. § 325.c).
sānābimur sĩ volēmus (Tusc. iii. 13), we shall be healed if we wish.

## 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, quī Graecās litterās senex didicī (Cat. Maj. 26), as I have done, who have learned Greek in my old age.
(2) tantum belium extrēmā hieme apparāvit, ineunte vēre suscēpit, mediā aestāte cönfēcit (Man. 35), 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, though almost if not wholly lost to the minds of the Romans, must be noticed, on account of the marked distinction in English (see also § $115 . c$ ).
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 hāc rē pūblicā virtūs (Cat. i. 3), there was once such virtue in this commonwealth.
habuit, nōn habet (Tusc. i. 87), he had, he has no longer.
fuimus Trōes, fuit Ïlium (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, -
quī in compedibus corporis semper fuērunt, etiam cum solūtī sunt tardius ingrediuntur (Tusc. i. 75), they who have always been in the fetters of the body, even when released move more slowly.
c. The perfect is sometimes used of a general truth, especially with negatives (Gnomic Perfect): as, -
nōn aeris acervus et aurī dēdūxit corpore febrēs (Hor. 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 alzways 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,
dicēbat melius quam scrīpsit Hortēnsius (Or. 132), Hortensius spoke better than he wrote. [Here the negative is implied in the comparison.]
$e$. The completed tenses of some verbs are equivalent to the incomplete tenses of verbs of kindred meaning.

Such are the preteritive verbs $\overline{\mathbf{o}} \mathrm{d} \mathbf{i}, I$ hate; memini, $I$ remember; nōvī I know; cōnsuēvi, I am accustomed, ${ }^{1}$ with others sometimes used preteritively, as vēnerat (= aderat, he was at hand, etc.) (see § 143. note). Thus, -
quī diēs aestūs māximōs efficere cōnsuēvit (B. G. iv. 29), which day generally makes the highest tides (is accustomed to make).
cūius splendor obsolēvit (Quinc. 68), whose splendor is now all faded (has become old).
Remark. - Many other verbs are occasionally so used : as, -
dum oculōs certāmen āverterat (Liv. xxxii. 24), while the contest had turned their eyes (kept them turned). [Here āverterat $=$ tenēbat.]

## 2. Pluperfect.

280. The Pluperfect is used (I) 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) locī nātūra erat haec, quem locum nostrī castrīs dēlēgerant (B. G. ii. 18), this was the nature of the ground our men had chosen for a camp.
Viridovix summam imperī tenēbat eārum omnium cīvitātum quae dēfēcerant (id. iii. 17), Viridovix held the chief command of all those tribes which had revolted.
(2) neque vērō cum aliquid mandāverat cōnfectum putābat (Cat. iii. 16), but when he had given a thing in charge he did not look on it as done.
quae sī quandō adepta est id quod eī fuerat concupītum, tum fert alacritātem (Tusc. iv. 35), if it (desire) ever has gained what it had [previously] desired, then it produces joy.

## 3. Future Perfect.

281. The Future Perfect denotes an action as com pleted in the future : as, -
ut sēmentem fēceris, ita metēs (De Or. ii. 261), as you sow (shall have sown), so shall you reap.
carmina tum melius cum vēnerit ipse canēmus (Ecl. ix. 67), then shall we sing our songs better, when he himself has come.
ego certê meum officium praestiterō (B. G. iv. 25), I at least shall have done my duty (i.e. when the time comes to reckon up the matter, I shall 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 paulō post vīderō (Acad. ii. 76), what has been found out I will see presently.

## 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 haec scribēbam, eram nescius quantis oneribus premerēre (Fam. v. 12, 2), nor while I write this am I ignorant under what burdens you are weighed down.

## 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 (or indefinite) time, the Imperfect to either past or present, the Perfect to either future or past, the Pluperfect always to past.
r
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.

## 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. - 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).
286. (Rule 62.) 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 nōs moneat, he writes to warn us.
> scribet ut nōs moneat, he will write to warn us.
> scrībe (scrībitō) ut nōs moneās, write that you may warn us.
> scripsit ut nōs monēret, he worote to warn us.
> scribit quasi oblītus sit, he writes as if he had forgotten.
> scripsit quasi oblitus esset, he wrote as if he had forgotten.
> rogō quid factūrus sis I ask what you are going to do.

Note. - This 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. note 2, 339 . note 2.)

Remark. - In applying the rule for the sequence of tenses, observe (i) 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) $u s$, scribit ut nōs moneat.
$I$ ask (primary) what you were doing (now past), rogō quid fēceris.
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, rogō quid perfēceris.
he asked what he zoould have accomplished, rogāvit quid perfēcisset.
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 praesidī prōvīsum est (Cat. ii. 26), provision has been made that there should be ample guard. [Secondary sequence.]
addūxī hominem in quō satisfacere exterīs nātiōnibus possētis (Verr. i. 2), I have brought a man in whose person you can make satisfaction to forcign nations. [Secondary sequence.]
ea adhibita doctrīna est quae vel vitiōsissimam nātūram excolere possit (Q. Fr. i. I, 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, 一
adeōn rem redīsse patrem ut extimēscam (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, and may represent-
I. A Perfect Definite : as, -
nōn dubitō quīn omnēs tuī scrīpserint (Fam. v. 8), I do not doubt that all your friends have written. [Direct statement : scripsērunt.]
quārē nōn ignōrō quid accidat ūltimīs terrīs, cum audierim in Îtaliā querēlās cīvium (Q. Fr. i. 1, 33), therefore I know well what happens 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, -
mē autem hīc laudat quod retulerim, nōn quod patefēcerim (Att. xii. 2r), 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, -

sì forte ceciderint tum intellegitur quam fuerint inopēs amicōrum (Læl. 53), if by chance they fall (have fallen), then one can see how poor they were in friends. [Direct question : quam inopees erant?]
quī status rērum fuerit cum hās litterās dedī scīre poteris ex C. Tidiō Strabōne (Fam. xii. 6), what the state of affairs was when I wrote this letter, you can learn from Strabo. [Direct question: qui 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 fëcerit 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, -

Hortēnsius ărdēbat dīcendī cupiditāte sīc ut nūllō unquam flagrantius studium viderim (Brut. 302), Hortensius was so hot with desire of speaking that I have never seen a more burning ardor in any man.
Siciliam Verrēs per triennium ita vēxāvit āc perdidit, ut ea restituī in antīcum statum nūllō modō possit (Verr. i. i2), for three years Verres so racked and ruined Sicily, that she can in no way be restored to her former state. [Here the Present describes a state of things actually existing.]

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 nōn superstitiōsus ut illa plūrima in suā patriā et sacrificia et fāna contemneret; ita nōn timidus ad mortem ut in aciē sit ob rem pūblicam interfectus (Fin. ii. 63), Thorius was so little superstitious that he despised [contemnēbat] 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.
Zēnō nūllō modō is erat qui nervōs virtūtis incīderet (cf. § 279. $d$ ) ; sed contrā quī omnia in ūnā virtūte pōneret (Acad. i. 35), Zeno was by no means one to cut the sinews of virtue; but one, on the contrary, who made everything depend on virtue alone. [incīdit . . . pōnëbat.]
d. A general truth after a past tense follows the sequence of tenses : as, -
ex hīs quae tribuisset sibi quam mūtābilis esset reputābat (Q. C. iii. 8, 20), from what she (Fortune) had bestowed on him, he reflected how inconstant she is. [Direct : mūtābilis est.]
ibi quantam vim ad stimulandōs animōs īra habēret appāruit (Liv. xxxiii. 37), here it appeared what power anger has to goad 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 cūret quod dixisset (Quinct. 18), he asks him to attend to the thing he had spoken of.
castella commūnit quō facilius prohibēre 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 tāle sit, ut vel sī īgnōrārent hominēs, etc. (Fin. ii. 49), because it is such that even if men WERE ignorant, etc.
$g$. The Imperfect Subjunctive in present conditions contrary to fact ( $\S 308$ ) is regularly followed by the secondary sequence : as, -
sĩ aliī cōnsulēs essent, ad tē potissimum, Paulle, mïtterem, ut eōs mihi quam amícissimōs redderēs (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.
sī eōs dīcerēs miserōs quibus moriendum esset, nēminem exciperēs (Tusc.
i. 9), if you called those wretched who must die, you zoould 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 tamen ut scirēs haec tibi scribō (Fam. xiii. 47), but yet that you may know, I write thus. [As if he had used the common epistolary imperfect scribēbam (§ 282).]
cūius praeceptī tanta vīs est ut ea nōn hominī cuipiam sed Delphicō deō tribuerētur (Leg. i. 58), 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, -
tantum prōfēcisse vidēmur ut ā Graecīs nē verbōrum quidem cōpiā vincerēmur (N. D. i. 8), we seem to have advanced so far that even in fulness of words zve ARE not surpassed by the Greeks.
But - beātē vīxisse videor quia cum Scīpiōne vixerim (Læl. 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. (Rule 63.) The Tenses of the Infinitive denote present, past, or future time, relatively to the time of the verb on which they depend : as, -
nostrōs nōn esse inferiōrēs intellēxit (B. G. ii. 8), he ascertained that our men were not inferior. [Direct : sunt.]
quam Iūnō fertur terrīs magis omnibus coluisse (Æn. i. I 5), which Juno is said to have cherished above all lands. [Direct : colëbat.]
spērant sē māximum frūctum esse captūrōs (Læl. 79), they hope they shall receive the greatest advantage. [Direct : capiêmus.]
a. With past tenses of verbs of necessity, propriety, and possibility (as potuî, dëbuï, and oportuit) the Present infinitive must be rendered by the Perfect infinitive in English : as, -
scīre potuit (Milo, 46), he might have known.
quī vidēbātur omnīnō morī nōn dēbuisse (Arch. 17), who seemed [one that] ought not to have died at all.
b. For the tenses of the infinitive in Indirect Discourse, see § 336. A.
c. Except in indirect discourse, the Present is the only tense of the infinitive in common use. It has no distinct reference to time. Thus,-
est adulēscentis māiōrēs nātü verêri (Off. i. 122), it is [the duty] of a youth to reverence his elders.
d. With verbs of wishing, necessity, and the like, ${ }^{1}$ the Perfect Passive infinitive is often used instead of the Present : as, -
quod iam prïdem factum esse oportuit (Cat. i. 5), which ought to have been done long ago (cf. $a$, above).
Remark. - In early and late Latin, and in poetry, rarely in good prose, the Perfect Active infinitive is also used instead of the Present, and even with other verbs than those of wishing and the like: as, -
commisisse cavet (Hor. A. P. 168), he is cautious of doing.
$\varepsilon$. With verbs of feeling the Perfect infinitive is used, especially by the poets, to denote a completed action.

So also with satis est, satis habeō, melius est, contentus sum, and in a few other cases where the distinction of time is important. Thus, -
pudet mē nōn praestitisse (Fam. xiv. 3), I am ashamed not to have shown.
sunt quōs curriculō pulverem Olympicum collēgisse iuvat (Hor. Od. i.

1. 3), there are those who delight, etc.
quièsse erit melius (Liv. iii. 48), it will be better to have kept quiet.
$f$. The Future infinitive is often expressed by fore (or futūrum esse) ut with the subjunctive; so necessarily in verbs which have no supine stem (cf. §§302. Rem., 332.e). Thus, -
spērō fore ut contingat id nōbīs (Tusc. i. 82), I hope that will be our happy lot.

## II. NOUN AND ADJECTIVE FORMS.

The several Noun and Adjective forms associated with the verb are employed as follows :-

| 1. Participles: | a. Present and | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { 1. Attributive }(\S 29 \mathrm{r} \text { and } a) . \\ \text { 2. Simple Predicate (§ 291.b). } \\ \text { 3. Periphrastic Perfect (pass.) ( }(\$ 29 \mathrm{I} . \mathrm{R}) . \\ \text { 4. Predicate of Circumstance (§ 292). } \\ \text { 5. Descriptive (Ind. Discourse) }(\$ 292 . e) . \end{array}\right.$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | b. Future: | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { 1. Periphrastic with esse }(\S 293 . a) \text {. } \\ \text { 2. Periphrastic with fuil }(=\text { Pluperfect } \\ \text { Subjunctive) }(\S 293 . c) \text {. } \end{array}\right.$ |
|  | c. Gerundive: | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { 1. As Descriptive Adjective }(\S 294 \cdot a) \text {. } \\ \text { 2. Periphrastic with esse }(\S 294 \cdot b) \text {. } \\ \text { 3. Of Purpose with verbs }(\$ 294 \cdot d) \text {. } \end{array}\right.$ |

[^10]2. Gerund or Gerundive:

1. Genitive as Objective Genitive ( $\$ 298$ ).
2. Dative, with Adjectives, Nouns, Verbs (§ 299).
3. Accusative, with certain Prepositions ( $\$ 300$ ).
4. Ablative, of Means, Comparison, or with Prepositions (§ 301.)
5. Supine : $\quad\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { 1. Former Supine (in -um), with Verbs of Motion (§ 302). }\end{array}\right.$ 2. Latter Supine (in -ū), chiefly with Adjectives ( $\$ 303$ ).

## PARTICIPLES.

289. The Participle expresses the action of the verb in the form of an Adjective ; but has a partial distinction of tense, and may govern a case.

Note. - Thus the participle combines all the functions of an adjective with some of the functions of a verb. As an adjective, it limits substantives, and agrees with them in gender, number, and case (§ 186). As a verb, it has distinctions of time ( $\S 290$ ), and often takes an object.

## 1. Distinctions of Tense.

290. (Rule 64.) Participles denote time as present, past, or future with respect to the time of the verb in their clause.

Thus the Present Participle represents the action as in progress at 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 (§276. a) : as, -
quaerentī mihi iamdiū certa rēs nūlla veniēbat in mentem (Fam. iv. I3), though I had long sought, no certain thing came to my mind.
2. Attempted action (§ 276.6 ) : as, -
C. Flāminiō restitit agrum Picentem dīvidentī (Cat. Maj. ıI), he resisted Flaminius when attempting to divide the Picene territory.
3. Futurity (§ $276 . c$ ) : as, -
iēns in Pompēiānum bene māne haec scrīpsī (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.

So, regularly, ratus, solitus, veritus; commonly, fisus, ausus, secūtus, and occasionally others, especially in later writers. Thus, -
cohortātus militēs docuit (B. C. iii. 80), encouraging the men, he showed. ìrātus dīxistī (Mur. 62), you spoke in a passion.
oblitus auspiciōrum (Phil. i. 31), forgetting the auspices.
insidiās veritus (B. G. ii. II), fearing ambuscade.
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: as, -
nūllīs ēvidentibus causīs obiēre dum calceantur mātūtīnō duo Caesarēs (Plin. N. H. vii. 181), from no obvious cause two Cesars died while having their shoes put on in the morning.
mēque ista dëlectant cum Latīnē dīcuntur (Acad. i. 13), those things please me when they are spoken in Latin.
crucibus adfixī aut flammandī (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, nōs tē hīc vidisse iacentēs, dum sanctīs patriae lēgibus 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 $\pi \epsilon \in \theta \delta \mu \in \nu 0 \iota$.]
$d$. 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 sīngulās [nāvēs] nostrī cōnsectātī expūgnāvērunt (B. G. iii. i 5), for our men having overtaken them one by one, captured them by boarding.
2. In other verbs, by the ablative absolute with a change of voice (§ $255 . d$ note) or by a clause (especially with cum or dum) : as, itaque convocātīs centuriōnibus mīlitēs certiōōēs 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 kill.
Note. - The perfect participle of several deponent verbs may be either active or passive in meaning ( $\$ 135.6$ ).

## 2. Adjective Use.

291. The Present and Perfect participles are used sometimes as attributive, nearly like adjectives : as, -
cum antiquissimam sententiam tum comprobātam (Div. i. II), a viezo at once most ancient and well approved.
sïgna nunquam ferē ēmentientia (id. 15), signs hardly ever deceitful.
auspiciīs ūtuntur coāctīs (id. 27), they use forced auspices.
a. Participles often become complete adjectives, and may be compared or used as nouns. Thus, -
quõ mulierī esset rēs cautior (Cæcin. 11), that the matter might be more secure for the woman.
in illis artibus praestantissimus (De Or. i. 217), preëminent in those arts.
sibi indulgentēs et corpori dēservientēs (Leg. i. 39), the self-indulgent, and slaves to the body (indulging themselves and serving the body).
male parta male dilābuntur (Phil. ii. 65), ill-got, ill-spent (things illacquired, etc.).
cōnsuētūdō valentis (De Or. ii. 186), 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, 一

Gallia est divisa (B. G. i. 1), Gaul is divided.
locus quī nunc saeptús est (Liv. i. 8), the place which is now enclosed.
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 fui, etc., retains its proper force; but in later writers the two sets of tenses (as amātus sum or fuī), are often used indiscriminately to form the tenses of the perfect system in the passive: as, -
arma quae fixa in parietibus fuerant, humi inventa sunt (Div. i. 74), the arms which had been fastened on the walls were found upon the ground. [Cf. occupātī sunt et fuērunt (Off. i. 57), are and have been engaged. The difference between this and arma quae, etc., is, that occupătus 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, -
volventēs hostilia cadāvera amīcum reperiēbant (Sall. Cat. 61), while rolling over the corpses of the enemy they found a friend. [Time.]
paululum commorātus, sīgna canere iubet (Sall. Cat. 59, 1), after delaying a little while, he orders to give the signal. [Time.]
longius prōsequī veritus, ad Cicerōnem pervēnit (B. G. v. 52), because he feared to follow further, he came to Cicero. [Cause.]
quī scîret laxās dare iūssus habēnās (Æn. i. 63), who might know how to give them loose rein when bidden. [Occasion.]
damnātum poenam sequī oportēbait (B. G. i. 4), if condemned, punishment must overtake him. [Condition.]
salūtem inspērantibus reddidistī (Marc. 21), 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 trepidēs in ūsum poscentis aevī pauca (Hor. Od. ii. 11. 5), be not anxious for the needs of age that demands little. [Characteristic.]
incitātī fugā montēs altissimōs petēbant (B. C. iii. 93), in headlong flight they made for the highest mountains. [Manner.]
mîlitēs sublevātī aliī ab aliīs māgnam partem itineris cōnficerent (B. C. i. 68), the soldiers helped up by each other, etc. [Means.]
hōc laudāns, Pompēius idem iūrāvit (B. C. iii. 87), approving this, Pompey took the same oath. [Attendant circumstance.]
aut sedēns aut ambulảns disputābam (Tusc. i. 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, -
instrūctōs ōrdinēs in locum aecum dēdūcit (Sall. Cat. 59), he drawes up the lines, and leads them to level ground.
ut hōs trānsdūctōs necāret (B. G. v. 6), 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 prōficientem angī (N. D. iii. 14), 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, -
quās pecūniās ferēbat eīs expēnsās (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.
illī lībertātem cīvium Rōmānōrum imminītam nōn tulērunt; vōs vītam ēreptam neglegētis (Manil. II), they did not endure the infringement of the citizens' liberty; will you disregard the destruction of their life? post hominēs nātōs (Brut. 224), since the creation of man.
iam ā conditā 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 factō est viāticō (Pl. Trin. 887), there is need of laying in provision. mātürātō opus est (Liv. viii. 13), there is need of haste.
c. The perfect participle with habeō (rarely with other verbs) has almost the same meaning as a perfect active, but denotes the continued effect of the action of the verb : ${ }^{2}$ as, -
fidem quam habent spectātam iam et diū cōgnitam (Div. C. ri), my fidelity, which they have proved and long known.
cohortēs in aciē lxxx. cōnstitūtās habēbat (B. C. iii. 89), he had eighty cohorts stationed in line of battle.
nefāriōs ducēs captōs iam et comprehēnsōs tenētis (Cat. iii. 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, -
${ }^{1}$ Compare the participle in indirect discourse in Greek (Goodwin's Greek Grammar, § 1588) ; and the English, "'T was at the Royal feast for Persia won" (Dryden), i.e. for the conquest of Persia.
${ }^{2}$ The perfect with have, in modern languages of Latin stock, has grown out of this use of habeढ̄.
praefectōs suōs multī mīssōs fēcērunt (Verr. iii. 134), many discharged their officers (made dismissed).
hīc trānsāctum reddet omne (Plaut. Capt. 345), he will get it all done (restore it finished).
Note. - Similarly volō (with its compounds) and cupiō, with a perfect participle without esse (cf. § 288. d. note) : as, -
mē excūsātum volō (Verr. II. i. 103), I wish to be excused (I want myself excused, of. I pray thee have me excused).
e. With verbs denoting an action of the senses the present participle in agreement with the object is nearly equivalent to the infinitive of indirect discourse ( $\S 336$ ), but expresses the action more vividly: as, -
ut eum nēmō unquam in equō sedentem viderit (Verr. v. 27), so that no one ever sazu him sitting on a horse.

## 4. Future Participle.

293. The Future Participle (except futūrus and ventūrus) is rarely used in simple agreement with a noun, except by later writers.
a. The future participle is chiefly used with the verb esse (which is often omitted) in the active periphrastic conjugation (§ I29): as, morere, Diagorā, nōn enim in caelum adscēnsūrus es (Tusc. i. III), die, for you are not likely to rise to heaven.
spērat adolēscēns điū sē victūrum (Cat. Maj. 68), the young man hopes to live long (that he shall live long).
b. By later writers and the poets the future participle is also used in simple agreement with a substantive to express :-
294. Likelihood or certainty : as,
ausus est rem plūs fāmae habitūram (Liv. ii. 10), he dared a thing which would have more repute.
295. Purpose, intention, or readiness : as, -
cum leō rēgem invāsūrus incurreret ( Q . C. viii. $\mathbf{I}, \mathbf{1 4}$ ), when a lion rushed on to attack the king.
sī peritūrus abīs (Æ̌n. ii. 675), if you are going away to perish.
296. Apodosis : as, -
dedit mihi quantum māximum potuit, datūrus amplius sī 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 § 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 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 cōnservandum virum (Mil. 104), 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, -
nōn agitanda rēs.erit (Verr. v. 179), 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, -
via quam nōbīs ingrediendum sit (Cat. Maj. 6), the way we have to enter.
Note. - This use is regular with verbs which take their object in the dative or ablative : as, -
lēgibus pärendum est, the lawes must be obeyed.
d. With verbs signifying to give, deliver, agree for, have, receive, undertake, demand, a gerundive in agreement with the object is used to express purpose : as, -
redemptor quī columnam illam condūxerat faciendam (Div. ii. 47), the contractor who had undertaken to make that column. [The regular construction with this class of verbs.]
aedem Castoris habuit tuendam (Verr. II. i, I32), he had the temple of Castor to take care of.
nāvēs atque onera diligenter adservanda cūrābat (id. v. 146), he took care that the ships and cargoes should be kept.

## 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 disserendī et vēra āc falsa dīiūdicandī (De Or. ii. I 57), the art of discoursing well, and distinguishing the true and false.

Remark. - A 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 disserere and diiuũ dicāre.
296. When the Gerund would have an object in the accusative, the Gerundive is generally used instead. The gerundive agrees with its noun, and takes the case which the gerund would have had : as, -
parātiōrēs ad omnia perīcula subeunda (B. G. i. 5), readier to undergo all dangers. [Here subeunda agrees with pericula, which is itself governed by ad. The construction with the gerund would be, ad subeundum pericula ; ad governing the gerund, and the gerund governing the accusative pericula.]
exercendae memoriae grātiā (Cat. Maj. 38), for the sake of training the memory. [Here the gerund construction would be memoriam exercendī grātiă.]
plērisque in rêbus gerendīs tarditās odiōsa est (Phil. vi. 7), in the conducting of most business, sloth is odious.

The following examples illustrate the parallel constructions of gerund and gerundive :-

Gen. cōnsilium $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { urbem capiendī } \\ \text { urbis capiendae }\end{array}\right\}$ a design of taking the city.
DAT. dat operam $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { agrōs colendō } \\ \text { agris colendis }\end{array}\right\}$ he attends to tilling the fields.
Acc. veniunt ad $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { mihi pārendum } \\ \text { pācem petendam }\end{array}\right\}$ they come $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { to obey me. } \\ \text { to seek peace. }\end{array}\right.$
AbL. terit tempus $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { scribendō epistulās } \\ \text { scribendis epistulis }\end{array}\right\}$ he spends time in writing letters.

Remark. - In the gerundive construction the verbs ūtor, fruor, etc., are treated like transitive verbs governing the accusative, as they do in early Latin : as, -
expetuntur dīvitiae ad perfruendās voluptātēs (Off. i. 25), riches are sought for the enjoyment of pleasures (for enjoying pleasures).
297. (Rule 65.) 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 with nouns or adjectives either as subjective or objective genitive : as, -
neque cōnsiliī habendī neque arma capiendì spatiō datō (B. G. iv. 14), time being given neither for forming plans nor for taking arms. [Objective.]
nē cōnservandae quidem patriae causā (Off. i. I 59), not even for the sake of saving the country. [Originally subjective genitive.]
vivendī finis est optimus (Cat. Maj. 72), it is the best end of living. [Subjective.]
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, 一
quae rēs ēvertendae reīpūblicae solent esse (Verr. iii. 132), things which generally tend to the overthrow of the commonwealth.
sī arborum truncī dēiciendī operis essent mīssae (B. G. iv. 17), in case trunks of trees should be sent down [with the object] of overthrowing the work. [Pred. gen. like quās suī commodī fēcerat (v. 8).]
a. The genitive of the Gerund is occasionally limited by a noun or pronoun (especially sui) in the objective genitive instead of taking a direct object : as, -
êius videndī cupidus (Ter. Hec. 372 ), eager to see her (for a seeing of her).
rēiciendī trium iūdicum potestās (Verr. ii. 77), the power of challenging. three jurors (of the rejecting of three jurors).
suī colligendì facultās (B. G. iii. 6), the opportunity to recover themselves.
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.

## 2. Dative.

299. The Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used after adjectives ${ }^{1}$ which take the dative and rarely after nouns (§ 234. a) : as, -
genus armōrum aptum tegendis corporibus (Liv. xxxii. 10), a sort of armor suited to the defence of the body.
tē sociam studeō scribendis versibus esse (Lucr. i. 25), I desire that thou be my partner in writing verses.
a. The dative is used in a few expressions after verbs : ${ }^{2}$ as, -
diem praestitit operi faciendō (Verr. II. i, 148), he set a day for doing the work. praeesse agrō colendō (Rosc. Am. 50), to take charge of cultivating the land.
esse solvendō, 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 cōnsulibus rogandis (Div. i. 33), elections for nominating consuls. triumvir colōniīs dēdūcundīs (Jug. 42), a triumvir for planting colonies. triumvirī reīpūblicae cōnstituendae (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 after the prepositions ađ, inter, circā, ob (and rarely in and ante) ; most frequently after ad, denoting Purpose (cf. § 318. b) : as, -
${ }^{1}$ The dative of the gerund and gerundive occurs most commonly after the adjectives accommodātus, aptus, ineptus, bonus, habilis, idōneus, pār, ütilis, inūtilis. But the accusative with ad is common with most of these (cf. § 234. b).
${ }^{2}$ Such are praeesse, operam dare, diem dicere, locum capere.
mē vocās ad scribendum (Or. 34), you summon me to zurite.
vīvis nōn ad dēpōnendam sed ad cōnfirmandam audāciam (Cat. i. 4), you live, not to put off, but to confirm your daring.
nactus aditūs ad ea cōnanda (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 rarely takes a direct object, the Ablative of the gerund very rarely. The Gerundive is used instead (§ 296).

## 4. Ablative.

301. The Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used (1) to express Manner, Means, Cause, etc.; (2) after Comparatives ; (3) after the prepositions ab, $\mathbf{d e}, \bar{e} \mathbf{e}$, in, and (rarely) prō and cum : as, -
(I) multa pollicendō persuādet (Jug. 46), he persuades by large promises. Latīnē loquendō cuivīs pār (Brut. 128), equal to any man in speaking Latin. nüllīs virtūtis praeceptīs trādendīs (Off. i. 5), without delivering any precepts of virtue (by delivering no precepts).
hīs ipsis legendis (Cat. Maj. 21), by reading these very things.
obscūram atque humilem conciendō ad sē multitūdinem (Liv. i. 8), calling to them a mean and obscure multitude.
(2) nūllum officium referendā grātiā magis necessārium est (Off. i. 47), no duty is more important than repaying favors.
(3) in rē gerendā versārī (Cat. Maj. 17), to be employed in conducting affairs.
Note. - The Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive is also very rarely used depending on verbs and adjectives : as, -

Appius nōn abstitit continuandō magistrātum (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 forō, in cūriā, in amícōrum perículis pulsandis (Phil. vii. 7), in the forum, in the Senate-house, in defending my friends in jeopardy.
(2) ad rēs dīversissimās, pārenduum atque imperanđum (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 (§7r. a), having no distinction of tense or person, and limited to two uses.

## 302. (Rule 66.) The Former Supine (in -um) is used

 after verbs of motion to express purpose. It may take an object in the proper case. Thus, -quid est, īmusne sēssum ? etsī monitum vēnimus tē, nōn flāgitātum (De Or. iii. 17), how now, shall we be seated? though we have come to remind, not to entreat you.
vēnērunt questum iniūriās (Liv. iii. 25), they came to complain of wrongs.
Remark. - The supine in um is especially common with eō; and with the passive infinitive ini forms the future infinitive passive. Thus, -
fuēre cīvēs quī rempüblicam perditum irent (Sall. Cat. 36), there were citizens who went about to ruin the republic (cf. § 258 . $b$. Rem.).
nōn Grāīs servitum mātribus ībō (Æn. ii. 786), I shall not go to be a slave to the Grecian dames.
sī scisset sē trucidātum iri (Div. ii. 22), if he (Pompey) had known that he was going to be murdered. [cf. § 288. f.]
303. (Rule 67.) The Latter Supine (in $-\overline{\mathbf{u}})^{1}$ is used only with a few adjectives, with the nouns fäs, nefäs, and opus, and rarely with verbs, to denote an action in refer. ence to which the quality is asserted : as, -
$\overline{\mathrm{O}}$ rem nōn modo visū̃ foedam, sed etiam audītū (Phil. ii. 63), a thing not only shocking to see, but even to hear of.
quaerunt quid optimum factū sit (Verr. II. i, 68), they ask what is best to do.
pudet dictū (Agric. $3^{2}$ ), it is shame to tell.
Note. - The latter supine is thus in appearance an ablative of specification (§ 253), but see §71. $a$.

Remark. - The supine in -ī 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, iūcundus, ad with the gerund is more common. Thus, -
nec visư̆ facilis nec dictū adfābilis üllì (Æn. iii. 62r), he is not pleasant for any man to look at or address.
difficilis ad distinguendum similitūdō (De Or. ii. 212), a likeness difficult to distinguish.
With all these adjectives the poets often use the Infinitive in the same sense: as, - .
facilēs aurem praebēre (Prop.), indulgent to lend an ear.
${ }^{1}$ The only latter supines in common use are audītū, dictū, factū, inventū, memorātū, nātū, visū. In classic use this supine is found, in all, in twentyfour verbs. It is never followed by an object-case.

## 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.

Conditional Sentences may be classified as follows :-
i. Simple Present or Past Conditions, nothing implied as to fulfilment (§ 306 ).
2. Future Conditions : $\left\{\begin{array}{l}a \text {. More vivid }(\S 307) \text {. 7ut: ined, is } \\ \text { b. Less vivid }(\S 307) .\end{array}\right.$
3. Conditions Contrary to Fact :
$\{$ a. Present ( $\S 308$ ).
b. Past (§ 308).
4. General Conditions:
$\left\{\begin{array}{l}a . \text { Indefinite Subject }(\S 309 . a) \text { ). } \\ \text { b. Repeated Action }(\S 309 . b, c) \text {. }\end{array}\right.$
I. in clause of Fact, Wish, Command ( $\$ 310 . b, c$ ).
$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { a. Protasis } \\ \text { Disguised: } \\ \text { b. Protasis } \\ \text { Omitted: }\end{array}\right.$
2. in Participial Expression (§ 3ro.a).
I. Potential Subjunctive ( $\S$ 3II. a).
2. Subjunctive of Modesty (§ 3 II. b).

## 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, -
sì quī exīre volunt [protasis], cōnīvēre possum [Apodosis] (Cat. ii. 27), if any wish to depart, I can keep my eyes shut.
sī est in exsiliō [PROTASIS], quid amplius postulātis [APODOSIS] (Lig. 13), 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 si ( IF ) or one of its compounds : sin, nisi, etiamsi, etsi, tametsi,
tamenetsì. Any relative or concessive word, may also serve to introduce a protasis.
b. The Apodosis is often introduced by some correlative word or phrase : as, sīc, ita, tum, eā condiciōne, etc. Thus, -
ita enim senectūs honesta est, sī sē ipsa dēfendit (Cat. Maj. 38), on this condition is old age honorable, if it defends itself.
sī quidem mē amāret tum istūc prōdesset (Ter. Eun. 446), if he loved me, then this would be profitable.
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, -
sepultūrā quoque prohibitūrī nī rēx humārī iūssisset ( Q . C. viii. 2, 12), in-
tending also to deprive him of burial, unless the king had ordered him to be interred.
quod sī praetereā nēmō sequātur, tamen sē cum sōlā decimā legiōne itūrum [esse] (B. G. i. 40), but if no one else would follow, he would go with the tenth legion alone.
sï quōs adversum proelium commoverret, hōs 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.
306. Present, nothing implied. Present Indicative in both clauses. si adest, ${ }^{1}$ bene est, if he is [now] here, it is well.





307. Past, nothing implied. Some past tense of the Indicative in both clauses.
sï aderat, bene erat, if he was [then] here, it was well.
sï adfuit, bene fuit, if he has been here, it has been well.
b. Future Conditions (necessarily as yet unfulfilled).
308. More vivid.
(a) Future Indicative in both clauses.
sī aderit, bene erit, if he is (shall be) here, it will be well.
( $\beta$ ) Future Perfect Indicative in protasis, Future Indicative in apodosis (condition thought of as completed before conclusion begins).
sì adfuerit, bene erit, if he is (shall have been) here, it will [then] be well.
309. Less vivid.
(a) Present Subjunctive in both clauses.
sì adsit, bene sit, if he should be here it would be well.
( $\beta$ ) Perfect Subjunetive in protasis, Present Subjunctive in apodosis (condition thought of as completed before conclusion begins).
sì adfuerit, bene sit, if he should be (should have been) here, it would [then] be well.
c. Conditions Contrary to Fact.
310. Present contrary to fact Imperfect Subjunctive in both clauses. si adesset, bene esset, if he were [now] here, it would be well (but he is not here).
311. Past, contrary to fact. Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses. si 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 ( $a, b, c$ ) ; but sometimes distinguished in the cases following : -
312. Present General Condition (Indefinite Time).
(a) Present Subjunctive second person singular in protasis, Present Indicative in apodosis.
sī hōc dīcās, crēditur, if any one [ever] says this, it is [always] believed.
( $\beta$ ) Perfect Indicative in protasis, Present in apodosis.
sī quid dixit, crēditur, if he [ever] says anything, it is [always] believed.
313. Past General Condition (Repeated Action in Past Time).
(a) Imperfect Subjunctive in protasis, Imperfect Indicative in apodosis.
sī quid dīceret, crēdēbātur, if he [ever] said anything it was [always] believed ( $=$ whatever he said was always believed).
( $\beta$ ) Pluperfect Indicative in protasis, Imperfect in apodosis. sì quid dīxerat, crēdēbātur, if he [ever] said anything, it was 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. (Rule 73.) 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, -
sĩ tū exercitusque valētis, bene est (Fam. v. 2), if you and the army are well, it is well. [Present Condition.]
sī quī māgnīs ingeniīs in eō genere exstitērunt, nōn satis Graecōrum glōriae respondērunt (Tusc. i. 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 Rōmā sine epistulā tuā fasciculum litterārum in quō sī modo valuistī et Rōmae fuistī Philotimì dūcō esse culpam nōn tuam (Att. v. 17), I have received from Rome a bundle of letters without any from you, which, if you have been well and at Rome, I take to be the fault of Philotimus, not yours. [Mixed : Past condition and Present conclusion.]
quās litterās, sī Rōmae es, vidēbis putēsne reddendās (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.]
sī nēmō impetrāvit adroganter rogō (Ligar. 30), 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, -
fuerit hōc cēnsōris, sī iūdicābat (Div. i. 29), suppose it was the censor's duty, if he judged it false. [Hortatory Subjunctive.]
sī nōndum satis cernitis, recordāmini (Milo, 61), if you do not yet see clearly, recollect. [Imperative.]
sī quid habēs certius, velim scīre (Att. iv. Io), if you have any trustrworthy information, I should like to know it. [Subj. of Modesty, § 311.b.]
Note. - Although the form of these conditions does not imply anything as to their truth, the sense or context may have some such implication : as, -
nōlīte, sī in nostrō omnium flētū nūllam lacrimam aspexistis Milōnis, hōc minus eī parcere (Milo, 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.
In this passage a cause is put by the speaker in the form of a noncommittal condition. His hearers are to draw the inference for themselves.

## 4. Future Conditions.

307. Future Conditions may be more or less vivid.
I. In a more vivid future condition the protasis makes a distinct supposition of a future case, the apodosis expressing what will be the result.
308. 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 sĩ volēmus (Tusc. iii. 13), we shall be healed if we zuish.
Note. - In English the protasis is usually expressed by the Present Indicative, rarely by the future with shall. Sometimes in Latin a condition of this kind has the Present Indicative in the protasis: as, -
sī pereõ hominum manibus periisse iuväbit (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 sī tēcum patria loquātur, nōnne impetrāre dēbeat (Cat. i. 19), if your country should thus speak with thee, ought she not to prevail?
Remark. - The present subjunctive sometimes stands in protasis with the future in apodosis from a change in the point of view of the speaker.
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, -
sĩ nōn fēceris, īnnōscam (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 fêceris, sĩ 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 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, -
sī mē praecēperit fātum, vōs mandāsse mementō, if fate cuts me off too soon, do you remember that I ordered this (Q. C. ix. 6, 26).
nisi oculīs vīderitis īnsidiās Milōnī ā Clōdiō factās, nec đēprecātūrī sumus nec postulātūri (Milo, 6), unless you see with your owon eyes the plots laid against Milo by Clodius, I shall neither beg nor demand, etc. nōn possum istum accūsāre sī cupiam (Verr. iv. 87), 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, -
sī hōc bene fixum in animō est, vicistis (Liv. xxi. 44), if this is well fixed in your minds, you have conquered. [For you will have conquered.] si eundem [animum] habueritis, vicimus (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 ( $\S 308$ ). In such cases the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive may be used : as, -
nōn poterat nisi vellet (B. C. iii, 44), was not able unless he wished.
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. [The first two appear like ind. disc., but are not. An observer describing the situations as present ones would say potest si velit (etc., see $d$ ), and no ind. disc. would be thought of.

## 5. Conditions Contrary to Fact.

308. (Rule 73.3.) In the statement of a supposition known to be false, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used in both Protasis and Apodosis. The imperfect refers to Present Time, the pluperfect to Past : as', -
quās sĩ exsequī nequīrem, tamen mē lectulus oblectāret meus (Cat. Maj. 38), if I could not [now] follow this (an active life), yet my couch would afford me pleasure. [Present.]
nisi tū āmisissēs, nunquam recêpissem (id. i1), unless you had lost it, $I$ should not have recovered it. . [Past.]
( 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, -
hīc sī mentis esset suae, ausus esset ēdūcere exercitum (Pis. 50), 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.]
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, -
sī licitum esset mātrēs veniēbant (Verr. v. 129), the mothers were coming if it had been allowed (see § 305. c. 2).
iam tūta tenēbam, nī gēns crūdēlis ferrō invāsisset (Æn. vi. 358), I was just reaching a place of safety, had not the fierce people attacked me.

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, -
sĩ ita putāsset certē optābilius Milōnī fuit (Mil. 3i), if he had thought so, surely it would have been preferable for Milo.
sí Rōmae prīvătus esset hōc tempore, tamen is erat dēligendus (Manil. 50), if he (Pompey) were at this time a private citizen at Rome, yet he ought to be appointed.

Note i. - 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 cōnsul fuissem ? cōnsul autem esse quī potuī nisi eum vitae cursum tenuissem à pueritiā (Rep. i. 10), 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 further in poetry: as, -
sī nōn alium iactāret odōrem, laurus erat (Georg. ii. 133), it were a laurel, but for giving out a different odor.
d. The participle in -ūrus with efam 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. r), what would have happened if, etc.
neque ambigitur quīn . . . id factürus fuerit, sī . . . (id.), nor is there any question he would have done it if, etc. [Direct : fēcisset.]
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 fuī (see § 337).
e. The Present and Perfect subjunctive are sometimes used in poetry in the protasis and apodosis of conditions contrary to fact : as,
nī comes admoneat, inruat (Æn. vi. 293), had not his companion warned him, he would have rushed on.
nī faciat maria āc terrās ferant (id. i. 58), unless he did this, they would bear away sea and land.
Note. - This is 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 not 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:-
a. The Subjunctive is sometimes used in the second person singular, to denote the act of an Indefinite Subject ( $y$ ou =any one). Here the Indicative of a general truth may stand in the apodosis: as, -
mēns prope uti ferrum est : sī exerceās conteritur; nisi exerceās, rübīginem 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.

$\succ$
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, -
accūsātōrēs, sĭ facultās incideret, poenīs adficiēbantur (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, -
sī quōs aliquā membrōrum parte inūtilēs notāvērunt, necārī iubent $(Q . C$. ix. 1,25 ), if they [ever] mark any infirm in any part of their limbs, they [always] order them to be put to death. [Present.]
sī ā persequendō hostēs dēterrēre nequiverant ab tergō circumveniēbant (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 mē paterer - illō ipsō iūdice quaerente - prō Sex. Rosciō dīcere (Rosc. Am. 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.]
nülla alia gēns tantā mōle clädis nōn 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 : si alia fuisset.]
nēmō unquam sine māgnă spē immortālitātis, sē prō patriā offerret ad mortem (Tusc. i. 32), no one, without great hope of immortality, would ever expose himself to death for his country. [Present contrary to fact : nisi mägnam spem habēret.]

C 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 nōbīs nōn 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.]

Note. - The so-called concessive subjunctive with ut and nē often has the force of a protasis ( $\$ 3 \mathrm{r} 3 \cdot a$ ) : as, 一
ut enim ratiōnem Platō nūllam afferret, ipsā auctōritāte mē frangeret (Tusc. i. 49), even if Plato gave no reason, [still] he would, etc.
c. Rarely the condition is in an independent clause, as, -
rìdēs : māiōre cachinnō concutitur (Juv. iii. 100), you laugh; he shakes with louder laughter ( $=$ if you laugh, he shakes).
d. The condition is often contained in a Relative Clause (§ 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 impūne negāre : quis enim redargueret (Fin. ii. 55), Sextilius might have denied with impunity; for who would prove him wrong (if he had).
Remark. - Under this head apparently belongs the Potential Subjunctive.

## I. POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

(a. (Rule 72.) 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, -
hic quaerat quispiam (N. D. ii. I33), here some one may ask. ut aliquis fortasse dixerit (Off. iii. 97), as one may perhaps say. tum in lectō quōque vidērēs susurrōs (Hor. Sat. ii. 8. 77), then on each couch you might hear whisperings.
Note 1.-The Present is sometimes used for the Imperfect : as, migrantīs cernās (Æn. iv. 401), you might have seen them moving.

Note 2.- The Pluperfect is rare. Its place is supplied by the Imperfect : as, -
putāssēs êius lūctūs aliquem fīnem 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 an Indirect Question (§ $334 \cdot \mathrm{~g}$ ) : as, -
forsitan haec illī mirentur (Verr. iv. 124), they may perchance marvel at these things.

Remark. - The potential subjunctive is strictly an apodosis with omitted protasis, sometimes easily supplied, but often not present to the mind of the speaker. So also the Subjunctive of Modesty ( $b$, below).

## II. SUBJUNCTIVE OF MODESTY.

b. The Subjunctive is used in cautious, modest, or hypothetical statements (coniünctivus modestiae). This use is especially common in a polite wish, with velim or vellem. Thus, -
pāce tuā dīxerim (Mil. 103), I would say by your leave.
tū velim sic existimēs (Fam. xii. 6). L should like you to think so.
vix ausim creedere (Ov. M. vi. 561), I should hardly dare believe.
vellem adesset M. Antōnius (Phil. i. 16), I could wish Antony were here.
[Here vellem implies an unfulfilled wish in present time; volō or nölō would express a peremptory 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, -
longum est ea dīcere, sed . . . (Sest. 12), it would be tedious to tell, etc. [Future.]
illud erat aptius, aecum cuique concēdere (Fin. iv. 2), it would be more fitting to yield each one his rights.
quantō melius fuerat (Off. iii. 94), how much better it would have been.
Remark. - Notice that, in this construction, the Imperfect indicative refers to present time; the Pluperfect to simply past time, like the Perfect. Thus oportēbat means it ought to be [now], but is not; oportuerat 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.

## 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, -
sī quis hōrum dīxisset . . . sī verbum dē rēpūblicā fēcisset . . . multa plūra dīxisse quam dīxisset putārētur (Rosc. Am. 2), 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 dīxisset is the whole of the following statement (si . . . putārētur), which is itself conditioned by a protasis of its own : si verbum, etc.].
quod sī in hōc mundō fierī sine deō nōn potuit nē in sphaerā quidem eōsdem mōtūs sine dīvīnō ingeniō potuisset imitārī (Tusc. i. 63) 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 sil 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 . ingeniō.]
10. Particles of Comparison (Conclusion Omitted).
312. The particles of Comparison - tamquam, tamquam si, quasi, àcsi, utsi, velutsi, veluti, and poetic ceu (all meaning as if), and quam si (than if) - take the Present or Perfect Subjunctiye, unless these are changed by the sequence of tenses. Thus, -
tamquam clausa sit.Asia (Fam. xii. 9), as if Asia were closed.
ita hōs [honōrēs] petunt, quasi honestē vixerint (Jug. $8_{5}$ ), they seek them (offices) just as if they had lived honorably.
velut sī cōram adesset (B. G. i. 32 ), as if he were present in person.
ceu cētera nusquam bella forent ( $£ \mathrm{~m} . \mathrm{ii} .438$ ), 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.

## 11. Concessive Clauses.

313. The particles of Concession (meaning although, granting that) are : quamquam quamlibet, quamvis, quantumvis, ut, nē, cum, licet etsi, tametsi, etiamsi.
a. Quamvis, quatumvis, quamlibet, ut, and nē take the Subjunctive (§266.c) : as, -
quamvis ipsī īnfantēs sint, tamen . . . (Or. 76), however incapable of speaking they themselves may be, yet, etc.
ut nēminem alium rogāsset (Mil. 46), even if he had asked no other.
b. Licet (properly a verb) takes a Substantive clause in the Subjunctive (§ $331 . c$ ) : as, -
licet omnēs in mē terrōrēs perīculaque impendeant (Rosc. Am. 31), thought 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. Etsi, etiamsi, tametsì, even if, take the same constructions as si (§ 305): as, -
etsī abest mātūritās (Fam. vi. 184), though ripeness of age is wanting: etsī nihil aliud abstulissētis (Sull. 90), even if you had taken away nothing else.
etiamsī quod scrībās nōn habēbis, scribitō tamen (Fam. xvi. 26), even if you [shall] have nothing to write, still write.
d. Cum concessive taker the Subjunctive (see § 326) : as, -
cum mihi nōn omninō excidisset (Fam. v. 13, 2), though it had not entirely vanished [from my mind].
e. Quamquam introduces an admitted fact and takes the Indicior tive : as, -
omnibus - quamquam ruit ipse suīs clādibus - pestem dēnūntiat (Phil. xiv. 8), though he is breaking down under his disasters, still he threatens all with destruction.
f. Quamquam more commonly means and yet, introducing a correction in the indicative : as, -
quamquam haec quidem tolerābilia vidēbantur, etsī, etc. (Mil. 76), 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 movērētur (Liv. xxxvi. 34), although he was moved.
Polliō amat nostram, quamvīs est rūstica, mūsam (Ecl. iii. 84), Pollio loves my muse, though she is rustic.

Note. - Even Cicero occasionally uses quamquam with the Subjunctive : as,
quamquam nē id quidem suspīciōnem coitiōnis habuerit (Planc. 53), though not even that raised any suspicion of a coalition.
h. The Relative pronoun qui is often used with the Subjunctive to express concession (see § $320 . e$ ).
i. Concession is often expressed by the Hortatory Subjunctive without a particle ( $\S 266$ ) : as, -
sit clārus Scīpīo, ōrnētur eximiā laude Āfricānus, habeãtur vir ēgregius Paullus . . . erit profectō inter hōrum laudēs aliquid locī nostrae glōriae (Cat. iv. 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.

## 22. Proviso.

314. (RULE 74.) Dum, modo dummodo, and tantum, introducing a Proviso, take the Subjunctive : as, -
ōderint dum metuant (Off. i. 97), let them hate, if only they fear.
valētūdō modo bona sit (Brut. 64), provided the health is good.
dummodo inter mē atque tē mürus intersit (Cat. i. 10), provided only the wall (of the city) is between us.
a. In a negative proviso $\bar{n} \overline{\mathrm{e}}$ is used, with or without modo, etc. : as,
modo nē sit ex pecudum genere (Off. i. 105), provided [in pleasure] he be not of the herd of cattle.
id faciat saepe, dum nee lassus fiat (Cato R. R. v. 4), let him do this often, provided he does not get tired.
dummodo ea (sevēritās) nē variētur (Q. Fr. i. 1, 20), provided only it (strictness) be not allowed to swerve.
tantum nē noceat ( $\mathrm{Ov} . \mathrm{M} . \mathrm{ix} .21$ ), only let it do no harm.
b. The Hortatory Subjunctive without a particle sometimes expresses a proviso (see § $266 . d$ ) : as, -
sint Maecēnātēs, nōn deerunt, Flacce, Marōnēs (Mart. viii. 56, 5), so there be Macenases, Virgils will not be lacking.

## 13. Use of $S 7$ and its Compounds.

315. The uses of some of the more common Conditional Particles may be stated as follows :-
$C^{\text {a }}$. 1. Si is used for affirmative, nisi ( ni ) and sin̄n 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) pot trues Thus, -
nisi Conōn adest maereō, 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 sīnon (if not) the apodosis is only stated as true in the (negative) case supposed, but as to other cases no statement is made. Thus, -
sì Conōn nōn adest maereō, 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).
316. Ni is an old form surviving in a few conventional phrases, and reappearing in poets and later writers.

Sometimes niai sī, except if, unless, occurs : as, -
nōlī putāre mē ad quemquam longiōrēs epistulās scribere, nisi sī quis ad mē plūra scrīpsit (Fam. xiv. 2), except in case one werites more to me.
b. Nisi vērō and nisi forte regularly introduce an objection or exception ironically, and take the Indicative : as, -
nisi vērō L. Caesar crūdēlior visus est (Cat. iv. i3), unless, indeed, $L$. Cesar seemed too cruel.
NOTE. - This is the regular way of introducing a reductio ad absurdum in Latin. Nisi alone is sometimes used in this sense : as, -
nisi unnum hōc faciam ut in puteō cēnam coquant (Plaut. Aul. 365), 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 illō locō libentissimē soleō ūtī, sĩve quid mēcum ipse cōgitō, sīve quid aut scrībō aut legō (De Leg. ii. r), 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.


## DEPENDENT CONSTRUCTIONS.

## I. RELATIVE CLAUSES.

Dependent Relative Clauses may be thus classified :-

1. Conditional Relative Clauses ( $\S 316$ ).
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 ( $\$ 8322 \mathrm{ff}$.).
4. Conditional Relative Clauses.
5. A clause introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Relative Adverb may be treated as a conditional clause and take the constructions of Protasis (§ 305) : as, -
quī enim vitiis modum appōnit, is partem suscipit vitiōrum (Tusc. iv. 42), he who [only] sets a limit to faults, takes up the side of the faults. [ $=$ sī quis appōnit.]
quod quī faciet, non aegritūdine sōlum vacābit, sed, etc. (Tusc. iv. 38), and he who does [shall do] this, will be free not only, etc. [=sī quis faciet.]
philosophia, cui quī pāreat, omne tempus aetātis sine molestiā possit dēgere (Cat. Maj. 2), philosophy, which IF any one should obey, he could spend his whole life without vexation. [= sī quis pāreat.]
quaecumque causa vōs hūc attulisset, laetārer (De Or. ii. 1 5), 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 more commonly in form.
a. The special constructions of General Conditions are sometimes found in Conditional Relative Clauses : viz., -
6. The Second Person Singular Subjunctive in the protasis with the Indicative of a general truth in the apodosis (§309.a) : as, -
bonus sēgnior fit, ubi neglegās (Jug. 31, 28), a good man becomes less diligent when you don't watch him.
7. In later writers the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in the protasis and the Imperfect Indicative in the apodosis : as, -
quōcumque sē intulisset, victōriam sēcum trahēbat (Liv. vi. 8), wherever he advanced, he carried victory with him.
8. The Perfect or Pluperfect Indicative in the protasis and the Present or Imperfect Indicative in the apodosis (§309.c) : as, -
cum ad villam vênī, hōc ipsum nihil agere mê dëlectat (De Or. ii. 24), whenever $I$ come to the villa, this very doing nothing delights me (whenever I have come, etc.). [Present General Condition.]
cum rosam vīderat, tum incipere vēr arbitrābātur (Verr. v. 27), whenever he saw (had seen) a rose, then he thought spring was beginning. [Past General Condition.]

## 2. Clauses of Purpose.

317. (Rule 75.) A clause expressing purpose is called a Final Clause.

Final clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut (uti), negative $n \bar{e}$ ( $u t \mathbf{n} \bar{e}$ ), or by a Relative pronoun or adverb.

They may be divided into Pure, Relative and Substantive.
I. Pure Clauses of Purpose are introduced by ut (uti) or ne. 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 n $\bar{\theta}$. They differ from Pure Final Clauses in having the construction of a substantive. (For Substantive Clauses of Purpose, see § 33 r .)

Examples of Pure and Relative clauses of purpose are -
ab arātrō abdūxērunt Cincinnātum, ut dictātor esset (Fin. ii. 12), they brought Cincinnatus from the plough that he might be dictator.
nē qua ēius adventūs procul significātiō fiat (B. G. vi. 29), that no sign of his arrival may be made at a distance.
ut nē sit impūne (Mil. 31), that it be not with impunity.
V scrībēbat ōrātiōnēs quās aliī diecerent (Brut. 206), he wrote speeches for other men to deliver.
eō exstinctō fore unde discerem nēminem (Cat. Maj. 12), that when he was dead there would be nobody from whom (whence) I could learn.
Note. - The Relative in this construction is equivalent to ut with the corresponding demonstrative. Thus qui $=u t$ is (etc.), ubi $=u t i b i$, and so on (cf. § 319, note).
a. Sometimes the relative or conjunction has a correlative in the main clause : as, -
lēgibus idcircō omnēs servīmus, ut līberī esse possìmus (Clu. 146), for this reason we are all subject to the laws, that we may be free.
eō cōnsiliō ... ut (regularly), with this design, that, etc.
eā causā ... nē, for this reason, lest, etc.
$\downarrow b$. The ablative quō ( $\equiv \boldsymbol{u t} \boldsymbol{e} \overline{\mathbf{o}}$ ) is used as a conjunction in final clauses which contain a comparative: as, -
lībertāte ūsus est, quō impūnius dicāx esset (Quinct. 11), he took advantage of liberty, to bluster with more impunity (by which the more).
Note r. - So quōminus ( $=$ ut eō minus) introduces a subjunctive clause after verbs of hindering (see § 331. e).

Note 2. - Occasionally quō introduces final clauses which do not contain a comparative : as, -
quō 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. ro), and, not to be tedious, we ordered, etc. [Strictly, in order not to be tedious, I say, we ordered.]
sed ut eōdem revertar, causa haec fuit timōris (Fam. vi. 7, 3), but, to return to the same point, this was the cause of fear.
Remark. - By a similar ellipsis the subjunctive is used with nêdum (sometimes nē), still less, not to mention that : as, -
nëdum . . . salvī esse possimus (Clu. 95), much less could we be safe.
nēdum istī . . . nōn statim conquīisitūrī sint aliquid sceleris et flăgitī (Leg. Ag. ii. 97), far more will they hunt up at once some sort of crime and scandal.
quippe secundae rēs sapientium animōs fatīgant ; nē illī corruptis mōribus victōriae temperārent (Sall. Cat. II), for prosperity overmasters the souls, even of the wise; much less did they with their corrupt morals put any check on victory.
Note. - With needum the verb itself is often omitted : as, -
aptius hūmānitātī tuae quam tōta Peloponnēsus nēdum 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 ro: as, -
vēnī ut vidērem, 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 ren-dered-
(1) vēnērunt ut pācem peterent. [Final clause with ut (§ 317).]
(2) vēnērunt quī pācem peterent. (Final clause with Relative (§ 317).]
(3) [vēnērunt ad petendum pācem.] (Not found with transitive verbs ( $\S 300$, note), but cf. ad pārendum senātuī.) [Gerund with ad (§ 300 ).]
(4) vēnērunt ad petendam pācem. [Gerundive with ad (§ 300).]
(5) vēnērunt pācem petendī causā (grātiā). [Gen. of Gerund with causā̃ or grätiā (§ 298.c).]
(6) vēnērunt pācis petendae causā (grātiā). [Gen. of Gerundive with causã (§ 298.c).]
(7) vēnērunt pācem petītūrī. [Future participle (§ 293.b) : not in Cicero.]
(8) vēnērunt pācem petītum. [Former supine (§ 302).]

These forms are not used indifferently, but -
$\boldsymbol{a}$. The usual way of expressing purpose is by ut (negatively nē), unless the purpose is closely connected with some one word, in which case a relative is more common. Thus, -

Arria gladium dedit marïtō ut sē interficeret, Arria gave her husband a sword to kill himself (that he might kill himself).
Arria gladium dedit marītō quō sē 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 (§ 293. b).


Note. - The use of the Subjunctive to express Result comes from its use in Clauses of Characteristic.
319. (Rule 76.) A clause that expresses Result is called a Consecutive Clause.

Consecutive Clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut, so that (negative, ut nōn), or by a Relative (pronoun or adverb).

They may be divided into Pure, Relative, and Substantive (cf. § 317).

1. Pure Clauses of Result are introduced by ut or ut nōn. They express the result of the main verb in the form of a modifying clause. $C_{2}$. Relative Clauses of Result are introduced by the Relative pronoun quī, or by the Relative adverbs ubi, unde, qū$\overline{0}$, etc. The antecedent is expressed or implied in the main clause.
2. Substantive Clauses of Result are introduced by ut or ut nōn. 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 vīs probitātis est ut eam in hoste diligảmus'(Læl. 29), so great is the power of goodness that we love it even in an enamy.
nam est innocentia affectiō tālis animī, quae noceât nēminī (Tusc. iii. 16), for innocence is such a quality of mind as to do harm to no one.
nūlla est celeritās quae possit cum animī celeritāte contendere (Tusc. i. 43), there is no swiftness which can compare, etc.

Note. - The Relative in this construction is equivalent to ut with the corresponding demonstrative. Thus, quī $=u t$ is (etc.), $u b i=u t i b i$, and so on (cf. § 317. note).

Remark. - Clauses of Result are often introduced by such correlative words as tam, tālis, tantus, ita, sīc, adeõ, usque eō, which belong to the main clause.
racteristec of the enlecderd where the re vo no
a. A negative result is regularly expressed by ut or quiz with non, nēmō, and similar negatives (not nee). Thus, -
multics gravibusque vulneribus cōnfectus ut tam see sustinēre nōn posset
(B. G. ii. 25), used up with many severe wounds so that he could no longer stand.
nēmō est tam sene quī see annum nōn putt posse vīvere (Cat. Maj.
24), nobody is so of a Wot to think that he can live a year.

Note. - When the result implies an effect intended (not a simple purepose), ut nee or nēis sometimes used as being less positive than ut non: as, -
[Hbrungita corrigās nee mini noceat (Fam. vi. 7, 6), correct the book so that if may not hurt me.

Frequently a clause of result is used in a restrictive sense, and so amounts to a Proviso (cf. §314) : as, -
hōc est ta ūtile ut nee plānē illūdāmyr ab accūsātōribus (Roc. Am. 55), this is so far useful that we arempt utterly mocked by the accusers (ie. useful only on this condition, that, etc.).
c. The subjunctive with the Relative quōminus (= ut eō minus) may be used, te express a result, after words of hindering or refusing (cf. nee aetās medit duōmiñus agio colendi studia teneàmus (Cat. Maj. 60), nor apes age prevent us from retaining an interest in tilling the groused.
d. A cause of sesult is Introduced behan after general negatives, Where quin is equisent to quiqquae, quod) nōn, so, also after
 there is mashing of the that I pave not told him.
hon dubito quin, $I$ got doubt that (cf. the Eng., I do not doubt but than. aegre t(vix) abstinu quin ..., I hardly refrained from, etc. nihil mpedit quin . . ., there is nothing to prevent, etc.
Remark. - The constructions of Purpose and Result in Latin are precisely alike in the affirmative (but see sequence, § 287. c), but in the negative, Purpose takes nev, Result ut non, etc. Thus, -
custōdītus est nee effugeret, he was guarded in order that he MIGHT not escape.
custōditus est ut non effugeret, he was guarded so that he DID not.
§ 320.] CLAUSES OF CHARACTERISTIC.

So in Purpose clauses nē quis, nē quid, nē üllus, nē quō, nēquandō, nēcubi, etc., are used; in Result clauses, ut nēmō, ut nihil, ut nūllus, etc. Thus, -
cernere nē quis eōs neu quis contingere posset (※n. i. 413), that no one might see them, no one touch them.
ita multī sunt imbēcillī senēs ut nūllum officī mūnus exsequī possint (Cat. Maj. 35), many old men are so feeble that they cannot perform their duties to society.
në quandō līberīs prōscrīptōrum bona patria reddantur (Rosc. Am. 145), lest ever the patrimony of the proscribed should he restored to their children.

The clause of Result is sometimes expressed in English by the Infinitive with ro or SO-As-TO or an equivalent : as, -
tam longē aberam ut nōn vidērem, I was too far away to see (so far that I did not see; cf. § 320. c).
4. Clauses of Characteristic.
320. (RuLE 77.) A relative clause with the Subjunctive is often used to indicate a characteristic of the antecedent, where there is no idea of Result.

This construction is especially common where the antecedent is otherwise undefined. Thus, -
neque enim tū is es, quī nesciăs (Fam. v. 12, 6), for you are not such a one, as not to know.
multa dicunt quae vix intellegant (Fin. iv. 2), they say many things which (such as) they hardly understand.
a. A relative clause of characteristic is used after general expressions of existence or non-existence, including questions implying a negative, especially with sunt qui, there are [some] who; quis est qui, who is there who? Thus, -
sunt quĩ discēssum animī a corpore putent esse mortem (Tusc. i. 18), there are some who think that the departure of soul from body constitutes death.
erant qui Helvidium miserārentur (Ann. xvi. 29), there were some who pitied Helvidius. [Cf. est cum (§ 322. Rem.).]

Note.-These are called Relative Clauses with an Indefinite Antecedent, but are to be distinguished from the Indefinite Relative in protasis (see §316).

Cor A relative clause of characteristic may follow unnus and solus:as, -
sōlus es cūius in victōriā ceciderit nēmō nisi armātus (Deiot. 34), you are the only man at whose victory no one has fallen unless armed.
c. A clause of result or characteristic, with quam ut, quam quī, may be used after comparatives : as, -
māiōrēs arborēs caedēbant quam quās ferre mîles posset (Liv. xxxiii. 5), they cut larger trees than what a soldier could carry (too large for a soldier to carry).
Canachī signa rigidiōra sunt quam ut imitentur vēritātem (Brut. 70), the statues of Canachus are too stiff to represent nature (stiffer than that they should).
Note. - This construction corresponds to the English too . . .to.
d. A relative clause of characteristic is used in expressions of Restriction or Proviso (cf. § 319.6 ): as, -
quod sciam, so far as I know.
servus est nēmō, quī modo tolerābilī condiciōne sit servitūtis (Cat. iv. 16), there is not a slave, at least in any tolerable condition of slavery.
C. A relative clause expressing cause or concession takes the subjunctive ( $\S \S 313 . h, 321 . b$ ): as, -
virum simplicem quī nōs nihil cēlet (Or. 230), oh ! guileless man, who hides nothing from us! [Causal.]
peccāsse mihi videor quī ā tē discēsserim (Fam. xvi. 1), I seem to myself to have done wrong because I have left you. [Causal.]
Note. - In this use the relative is equivalent to cum is, etc. It is often preceded by ut, utpote, or quippe : as, -
nec cōnsul, ut quī id ipsum quaesīsset, moram certāminī fēcit (Liv. xlii. 7), nor did the consul delay the fight, inasmuch as he had sought that very thing (as [being one] who had sought, etc.).
convīvia cum patre nōn inībat, quippe quī nē in oppidum quidem nisi perrārō venīret (Rosc. Am. 52), since he did not even come, etc.
f. (Rule 78.) Dignus, indignus, aptus, idōneus take a clause probably of result with a relative (or rarely with ut) : as, -
digna in quibus ēlabōrārent (Tusc. i. i), (things) worth spending their toil on (worthy on which they should, etc.).
indīgnus erās quī facerēs iniūriam, it was beneath you to do a wrong (you were unworthy who should, etc.).
idōneus quī impetret (Manil. 57), fit to obtain.

Note. - With these words the poets often use the Infinitive : as, fōns rīvō dare nōmen idōneus (Hor. Ep. i. 16, 12), a soïrce fit to give a name to a stream.
aetās mollis et apta regì (Ov.), a time of life soft and easy to be guided.

## 5. Causal Clauses.

321. (Rule 79.) The Causal Particles quod, quia, and quoniam take the Indicative, when the reason is given on the authority of the suxitex or speaker; the Subjunctive, when the reason is given on the authority of another: as, -
322. Indicative:-
cum tibi agam grâtiās quod mē vīvere coēgisti (Att. iii. 3), when I may thank you that you have forced me to live.
quia postrēma aedificāta est (Verr. iv. I19), because it was built last.
quoniam dē ūtilitāte dīximus, dē efficiendī ratiōne (Or. Part. 94), since we have spoken of its advantage, let us speak of the method of effecting it.
323. Subjunctive :-
mihi grātulābāre quod audīssēs mē meam prīstinam dīgnitātem obtinēre (Fam. iv. 14, I,) you congratulated me because [as you said] you had heard, etc.
mea māter īrāta est quia nōn redierim (Plaut. Cist. 103), my mother is angry because I did n't return.
Note 1. - The Subjunctive in this use depends on the principle of Intermediate Clauses ( $\S 34 \mathrm{I} . \mathrm{d}$ ).

Remark. - Nōn quod, nõn quia, nōn quoniam, introducing a reason expressly to deny it, take the Subjunctive. Nōn quō and nōn quīn introduce a Result clause, but with nearly the same meaning ( $\$ 34 \mathrm{I}$. $d$. Rem.). Thus, pugilēs ingemiscunt, nōn quod doleant, sed quia omne corpus intenditur (Tusc. ii. 56), boxers groan not because they are in pain, but because, etc. nōn quia philosophia percipī nōn posset (id. i. i), not that philosophy cannot be acquired.
nōn quoniam hōc sit necesse (Verr. II. i. 24), not that this is necessary.
nōn quīn ēnītendum sit (De Or. ii. 295), 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 ( $\S 326$. note 3 ).

## 6. Relations of Time.

322. The particles ubi, ut, cum, quandō, alone or with -eumque may be used as Indefinite Relatives, and have the constructions of protasis (cf. § 316). Thus, -
cum id malum esse negās (Tusc. ii. 29), when you (the individual disputant) deny it to be an evil. [Present, nothing implied (cf. \& 306).]
quod profectō cum mē nūlla vīs cögeret, facere nōn audērem (Phil. v. $\mathrm{F}^{1}$ ), which I would surely not venture to do, as long as no force compelled me. [Present, contrary to fact: cf. \& 308.]
cum vĩ̃eás eōs . . dolōre nōn frangi (Tusc. ii. 66), when you see that those are not orokembyy pain, etc. [General condition : cf. § 309. a.] id ubi dixisset, hastam in fiñes' eêrum ēmittēbat (Liv. i. 32, I3), when he had said this, he used to cast the spear into thair territories. [Repeated achion : see § 309. b.]
Remarb - Rarely a time characterized by its circumstances, etc. . . . So the phrases est cum, fuit cum, etc., are used in general expressions like ost guii, sunt qui ( $\$ 320 . a$ ) : as, -
àc fuit quidem cum mihi quoque initium requiesscendī fore iūstum arbītrārer (De Or. i. 1), and there was a time when I thought a beginning of rest would be justifactle on my part.
323. Temporal clauses have two uses :-
324. They themselves define (with reference to the time of the speaker) the time of the clause on which they depend.
325. They describe. by its circumstances the fime of the main clause, which is defined not by them, but by the main clause itself.

Thus, in : When did the Emperor Fredertck tict 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, wowile 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.

## 1. POSTQUAM, UBI, ETC.

324. The particles postquam (posteāquam), ubi, ut (ut primum, ut semel), simul atque (simul āc, or simul) take the Indicative (usually in the perfect or the historical present) : as, -
mîlitēs postquam victōriam adeptī-suint, nihil reliquī victīs fēcêre (Sall. Cat. 11), when the armies had won the victory, they left nothing to the vanquished.
ubi omnēs idem sentirre intellēxit (B. G. iii. 23), when he understood that all agreed (thought the same thing).
simul āc persēnsit (Æn. iv. 90), as soon as he perceived.
a. These particles less commonly take the Imperfect or Pluperfect indicative. The Imperfect in this case denotes a state of things; the Pluperfect, an action completed in past time. Thus, -
P. Āfricānus posteāquam bis cōnsul et cēnsor fuerat (Div. in Cæc. 69), when Africanus had been (i.e. had the dignity of having been) twice consul and censor.
haec iuventūtem, ubi familiārēs opēs dēfēcerant, ad facinora incendēbant (Sall. Cat. I 3), when their inherited resources had given out.
b. Rarely some of these particles take the subjunctive : as, -
posteāquam māximās aedificāsset ōrnāssetque clāssēs (Manil. 9), having built and equipped mighty fleets (after he had, etc.). [But the more approved editions have posteā cum.]

## II. CUM TEMPORAL.

325. (RULE 80.) Cum (quom) TEMPORAL, meaning quhen, takes the Imperfect and Pluperfect in the Subjunctive, other tenses in the Indicative. Thus, -
cum servilī bellō premerētur (Manil. 30), 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, ibīdem fuērunt servī (Rosc. Am. I20), when Roscius was slain, the slaves were on the spot.
[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 Peffect takes the Indicative as the tense of narration, as with postquam, etc. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are, from their nature, better fitted to describe than to define the time.
a. Cum temporal sometimes takes the Imperfect and Pluperfect Indicative to indicate a definite past time : as, -
quem quidem cum ex urbe pellēbam, hōc prōvidēbam animō (Cat. iii. 16), when I was trying to force him (conative imperfect) from the city, I looked forward to this.
tum cum in Asiā rēs māgnās permultī āmīserant (Manil. 19), at that time, when many had lost great fortunes in Asia.
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, -
hōc facere noctū apparābant, cum mātrēs familiae repentē in pūblicum prōcurrērunt (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, -
longum illud tempus cum nōn erō (Att. xii. 18), that long time when $I$ shall be no more.
cum vēneris, cōgnōscēs (Fam. v. 7), when you come (shall have come) you will find out.

Remark. - Rarely a future time is characterized and takes the SubJunctive.

## III. CUM CAUSAL OR CONCESSIVE.

326. (Rule 8i.) Cum causal or concessive takes the Subjunctive : as, -
cum prīmī ōrdinēs . . . concidissent, tamen ācerrimē reliquī resistēbant (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 reprehēnsiōnem nōn fūgerim (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 timz. The attendant circumstances are regarded as the cause of the action, or as tending to hinder it (cf. quī causal and concessive).

Note 3. - In early Latin cum (quom) causal and concessive usually takes the Indicative. So sometimes in classical Latin : as, -
quom tua rēs distrahitur, utinam videam (Plaut. Trin. 573), since your property is torn in pieces, oh! that I may see, etc. [Cf. § 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, -
grātulor tibi cum tantum valēs apud Dolābellam (Fam. ix. 14, 3), I congratulate you that you are so strong with Dolabella.
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 probō, tum illud in prīmis (Fin. i. 18), while there are many things I do not approve, there is this in chief. But -
cum rēs tōta ficta sit puerīliter, tum nē efficit quidem quod vult (id. 19), 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 tuās lēgi litterās (Att. ii. 7), before I read your letter.
neque ante dīmīsit eum quam fidem dedit adulēscēns (Liv. xxxix. 10), she did not let the young man go till he pledged his faith.
antequam hominēs nefāriī dē meō adventū audīre potuissent, in Macedoniam perrēxī (Planc. 98), before those evil men could learn of my coming, I arrived in Macedonia.
Note. - The idea of purpose (usually corresponding to could or should in English) regularly requires the subjunctive: as, -
nunquam prius discēssit quam ad finem sermō esset perdūctus, i.e. he waited for the conversation to be finished.
a. Antequam and priusquam, when referring to future time, take the Present or Future Perfect Indicative; rarely the Present Subjunctive: as, -
priusquam dê cēterīs rēbus respondeō, dē amícitiā pauca dīcam (Phil. ii. 3), before I reply to the rest, I will say a little on friendship.
antequam veniat litterās mittet (Ag. ii. 53), before he comes, he will send a letter.
b. In a few cases the Subjunctive of the indefinite second person is found with antequam and priusquam (cf. § 309 a) : as, -
in omnibus negōtiīs priusquam aggrediāre, adhibenda est praeparātiō dīligēns (Off. I, 73), in all undertakings, before you proceed to action, careful preparation must be used.
328. Dum, dōnec, and quoad,implying purpose, doubt, or expectation. take the Subjunctive, otherwise the Indicative.
I. Subjunctive : as, -
exspectās fortasse dum dicat (Tusc. ii. 17), you are waiting perhaps for him to say (till he say).
Aenēān morandō sustinuit dum genitor prōtéctus abīret (Æn. x. 800), he kept Aneas in check till his father chull get away in safety.
Epamīnōndās exercēbātur plūrimum luctandō ad eum fīnem quoad stāns complectī 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).
329. Tndicative (cf. $a$, below) : as, -
hōc fêcī dum licuit, intermīsī quoad nōn licuit (Phil. iii. 33), I did this so long as it was allowed, I discontinued it so long as it was not. quoad potuit restitit (Cat. Maj. it), he resisted as long as he could.

Note i. - Quamdiū takes the Indicative only : as, -
sē oppidō tam diū tenuit quamdiū in prōvinciā Parthī fuērunt (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.
Remark. - With all temporal particles the Subjunctive is often found depending on some other principle of construction. (See Intermediate Clauses below, $\S \S 340$ ff.)

## 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 postuläbat ut quaestiō habērētur. 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, relicum est ut dē bellō dīcam pirāticō.

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 : -

1. Infinitive Clauses : $\quad\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { a } \text {. Infinitive clause as Subject (§ 270). }\end{array}\right.$
\{b. Infinitive clause as Object ( $\$ 330$. B).
2. Subjunctive Clauses:
(ut, nē, quō, quīn, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { a. Of Purpose (command, wish, fear) }(\S 331 \text { ). } \\ \text { b. Of Result (happen, effect, hinder) }(\S 332) \text {. }\end{array}\right.$ quōminus).
3. Indicative Clause with quod: Fact, Specification, Feeling.
4. Indirect Questions : Subjunctive, introduced by Interrogative Word.

## x. 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 -
331. Of all verbs and expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (Indirect Discourse) (§ 272).
mē spērō līberātum [esse] metū (Tusc. ii. 67), I trust I have been freed from fear.
332. Of iubeō and vet $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$, and rarely of other verbs of commanding, requesting, admonishing, and the like (§331. a). Thus,-
vetuēre [bona] reddī, vetuēre in pūblicum redigi (Liv. ii. 5), they forbade the return of the goods (that they be returned), etc.
Labiēnum iugum montis adscendere iubet (B. G. i. 21), he orders Labienus to ascend the ridge of the hill.
333. Sometimes of verbs of wishing (§ 331. b) : as, -
iūdicem mē esse nōn doctōrem volō (Or. 117), 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, -
334. The subject of the infinitive becomes nominative, and the infinitive is retained (Personal Construction) : as, -
*mōns dīcitur ab hostibus tenērī, the hill is said to be held by the enemy.
Labiēnus iugum montis adscendere iubētur, Labienus is ordered to ascend the ridge of the hill.
335. The passive is used impersonally, and the clause retained as its subject (Impersonal Construction) :-
dīcitur montem ab hostibus tenēri, it is said that the hill is held by the enemy.
b. I. Verbs of saying, thinking, etc., take in the Passive either the Personal or the Impersonal construction. But the Personal is more common and is regular with the tenses of incomplete action. Thus, -
beātē vīxisse videor (Læl. I 5), I seem to have lived happily.
Epamīnōndās fidibus praeclärē cecinisse dīcitur (Tusc. i. 4), Epaminondas is said to have played excellently on the lyre.
336. Iubeō and vetō always take the personal construction : as, -
iūssus es renūntiārī cōnsul (Phil. ii. 79), you were under orders to be declared consul.
Nōlānī mūrōs portāsque adīre vetitī 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 more common, and with the gerundive is regular: as, -
trāditum est etiam Homērum caecum fuisse (Tusc. v. 114), it is a tradition, too, that Homer was blind.
ubi tyrannus est, ibi nōn vitiōsam, sed dīcendum est plānē nūllam esse rempūblicam (Rep. iii. 43), 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.
$f$. 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 abire (Plaut. Asin. 604), he threatens to go away. [Direct : abeō, I am going away.]
ex quibus spērant sē māximum frūctum esse captūros (Læl. 79), from which they hope to gain the utmost advantage. [Direct : capiêmus.]
Note. - These verbs, however, often take a simple Complementary Infinitive. Thus, - pollicentur obsidēs dare (B. G. iv. 21), they promise to give hostages.

## 2. Clauses of Purpose.

Note. - Clauses of Purpose may be used substantively (1) as the Object of verbs of admonishing, etc. (§331) ; (2) as the Subject of these same verbs in the passive ( $\S 331 . h$ ), and of impersonal verbs and verbal phrases (§331. i) ; (3) in apposition with a substantive, or as predicate nominative, etc.
331. Substantive Clauses of Purpose with ut (negative nē) are used as the object of all verbs denoting an action directed toward the future. ${ }^{1}$

Such are, verbs meaning to admonish, ask, bargain, command, decree, determine, permit, persuade, resolve, urge, and wish. Thus, -
${ }^{1}$ Such verbs or verbal phrases are id $\mathrm{ag} 0 \overline{0}$, ad id veniō, caveō (nē), cēnseō, cōgō, concēdō, cōnstituō, cūrō, dēcernõ, ēdīcō, flảgitō, hortor, imperō, īnstō, manđō, moneō, negōtium dō, operam dō, ōrō, persuā ${ }^{\text {eō }}$, petō, postulō, praecipiō, precor, prōnūntiō, quaerō, rogō, sciiscō, timeō, videō, volō.
his ut conquirerent 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. Iubē̄, order, and veto, forbid, take the Infinitive with Subject Accusative (§ 330. B. 2) : as, -
līberōs ad see addūcī iūssit (B. G. ii. 5), he ordered the children to be brought to him.
ab opere lēgātōs discēdere vetuerat (id. 20), he had forbidden the lieutenants to leave the work.
Note I. - Other verbs of commanding, etc., may take the Infinitive : as,
haec facere imperātum est, orders were given to do this.
rēs monet cavēre (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, -

1. Subject of dependent verb same as that of main verb :-
quōs nōn tam ulcīscī studeō quam sānāre (Cat. ii. 17), whom I do not care so much to punish as to cure.
2. Subject of dependent verb different from that of main verb : cupiō ut impetret (Plait. Capt. 102), I wish he may get it.
māllem Cerberum metuerēs (Tusc. i. 12), I would rather you feared Cerberus.
Note.-Volō and cupiō, 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, -
iūdicem mes esse, non doctōrem volō (Or. 117), I wish to be a judge, not a teacher.
cupiō mē esse clēmentem (Cat. i. 4), I desire to be merciful. [But regularry, cupiō esse clēmēns (see § 271. a).]
c. Verbs of permitting take either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive. Patio takes regularly the Infinitive with Subject Accusative ; so often sine. Thus, -
permīsit ut partēs faceret (De Or. ii. 366), permitted him to make divisions. vinum importārī 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, -
cōnstituerant ut L. Bestia quererētur (Sall. Cat. 43), they had determined that Lucius Bestia should complain.
proeliō supersedēre statuit (B. G. ii. 8), he determined to refuse battle.
Note 1.- Different verbs of these classes with the same meaning vary in their construction. For verbs of bargaining with the Gerundive, see 8294 . .

Note 2. - Verbs of decreeing and voting often take the Infinitive of the Second Periphrastic conjugation : as, -

Rēgulus captīvōs ređdendōs [esse] nōn cēnsuit (Off. i. 39), Regulus voted that the captives should not be returned. [He said, in giving his formal opinion: captivi nōn reddendi sunt.]
e. I. Verbs of caution and effort take the Subjunctive with ut. But cōnor, try, usually takes the Complementary Infinitive as, -
cūrā ut quam prīmum intellegam (Fam. xiii. IO), let me know as soon as possible (take care that I may understand).
dant operam ut habeant (Sall. Cat. 41), they take pains to have (give their attention that, etc.).
sī trānsīre cōnārentur (B. G. i. 8), if they should try to cross.
Note. - Cōnor sī also occurs (cf. miror sī, etc., § 333. b. Kem.).
2. Verbs denoting an effort to hinder take either (I) a Subjunctive clause with quōminus or nē, or (2) the Infinitive : as, -
nōn dēterret sapientem mors quōminus . . . (Tusc. i. 9r), death does not prevent the wise man from, etc.
nē facerem impedīvit (Fat. 1), prevented me from doing.
prohibet accēdere (Caec. 46), 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 nee affirmative and nē nōn or ut negative. Thus, -
timeō nē Verrēs fēcerit (Verr. v. 3), I fear that Verres has done, etc.
vereor ut tibi possim concēdere (De Or. i. 35), I fear [that] I cannot grant you.

No'te. - In this use nē is commonly to be translated by that or lest, ut and nề nōn by that not.

REmark. - With some verbs of the above classes ut is often omitted. So generally after verbs of wishing, necessity, permission, after dic, fac, and often in Indirect Discourse after verbs of commanding, etc.: as, -
volō amēs (Att. ii. 10), I wish you to love, etc.
mē ipsum amēs oportet (Fin. ii. 85), you ought to love me.
Mnēsthea vocat, clāssem aptent sociī (En. iv. 289), he calls Mnestheus [and orders that] his comrades should make ready the fleet (cf. § 339).
Note. - Similarly nē 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, -
hortāmur fārī (Æn. ii. 74), we urge [him] to speak.
nē quaere docērī (id. vi. 614), seek not to be told.
$h$. A substantive clause of Purpose used as the object of a verb becomes the subject when that verb is put in the passive. Thus, -
imperātum est ut iter facerent, it was ordered that they should march.
permissum est ut irent, permission was given that they should go.
$i$. The impersonals licet and oportet take as subject either a Substantive clause of Purpose or an Infinitive with or without subjectaccusative. Thus, -
licet mee ire, it is allowed me to go.
querāmur licet (Cæc. 41), we are allowed to complain.
Note 1.- The Subjunctive with oportet omits ut, exceptoin later writers (see § 33 r . $f$. Rem.).

Note 2. - Licet may take the Subjunctive, usually without ut, to denote concession (see § $3^{1} 3 . b$ ).

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 irre, licet mē īre, or licet mihi ìre.

## 3. Clauses of Result.

Note. - Clauses of Result may be used substantively, (1) as the object of faciō, etc. ( $\S 33^{2}$ ) ; (2) as the subject of these same verbs in the passive, as well as of other verbs and verbal phrases (§ 332. a, d) ; (3) in apposition with another substantive, or as predicate nominative, etc. (see § $33^{2}$. $f$ ).
332. Substantive Clauses of Result with ut (negative ut nōn) are used as the object of verbs denoting the accomplishment of an effort.

Such are especially faciō and its compounds (efficiō, cōnficiō, etc.). Thus, -
efficiam ut intellegātis (Cluent. 7), I will make you understand (lit. effect that you, etc.). [So faciam ut intellegātis (id. 4).]
commeātūs ut portārī posset efficiēbat (B. G. ii. 5), made it possible that supplies could be brought.
a. Substantive Clauses of Result are used as the Subject -
I. 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, and the like : ak, -
accidit ut esset lūna plēna (B. G. iv. 29), it happened to be full moon (it happened that it was, etc.). [Here ut esset is subject of accidit.] reliqua est quārta virtūs ut sit ipsa frūgālitās (Tusc. iii. 17), it remains that the fourth virtue is thrift. [So also restat.]
b. A result clause, with or without ut, frequently follows quam, after a comparative (but see $\S 336 . c$. note 2 ) : as, -
perpessus est omnia potius quam indicāret (Tusc. ii. 52), he endured all rather than betray, etc.
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? tē ut ūlla rēs frangat (Cat. i. 22), yet why do I speak? [the idea] that anything should bend you!
egone ut tē interpellem (Tusc. ii. 42), what, I interrupt you?
ego tē vidēre nōluerim (Q. Fr. i. 3, 1), 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 eō difficilēs āc mōrōsī sīmus, ut nōbīs nōn satisfaciat ipse Dēmosthenēs (Or. 104), 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 (§3r9) ; and the third, after usque eō.]
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. 42), it was with reluctance that I expelled Flaminius from the senate.
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. I). In this case a demonstrative usually precedes: as, -
praeclārum illud est, ut eōs . . . amēmus (Tusc. iii. 73), this is a noble thing, that we should love, etc.
vērīisimile nōn est ut ille antepōneret (Verr. iv. II), it is not likely that he preferred.
g. A Relative clause of Result with quin is used with verbs or other expressions of hindering and the like when these are negatived. Thus, -
facere nōn possum quīn . . . (Att. xii. 27), I cannot avoid, etc.
ut nüllā rē impedīrer quīn (Att. iv. 2, 6), that I might be hindered by nothing from, 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 nōn dubitō, $I$ do not doubt, and similar expressions : as, -
nōn dubitābat quīn eī crēderēmus (Att. vi. 2, 3), he did not doubt that we believed him.

Note 2. - Nōn dubitõ, in the sense of $I$ do not hesitate, commonly takes the Infinitive, but sometimes quin with the subjunctive. Thus, -
nec dubitāre illum appellāre sapientem (Læel. 1), and not to hesitate to call him a sage.
dubitandum nōn exīstimāvit quīn proficiscerētur (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 or effecting. Hence they are variously construed. Thus, -
rēs ipsa monēbat tempus esse (Att. x. 8), the thing itself warned that it was time. [Cf. monēee ut, warn to do something.]
hōc volunt persuādēre, nōn interire animās (B. G. vi. 14), they wish to convince that souls do not perish.
huic persuādet uti ad hostēs trānseat (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 consisting of quod causal with the Indicative is used when the statement is regarded as a fact: as, -
alterum est vitium, quod quīdam nimis māgnum studium cōnferunt (Off.
i. 19), it is another fault that some bestow too much zeal, etc. [Here ut cōnferant could be used, meaning that some should bestow; or the accusative and infinitive, meaning to bestow (abstractly) ; quod makes it a fact that men $d o$ bestow, etc.]
quod rediit nōbīs mīrābile vidētur (Off. iii. II I), that he (Regulus) returned seems wonderful to us.
Note. - 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 dē domō scribis (Fam. xiv. 2, 3), as to what you write of the house.
b. Verbs of feeling and the expression of feeling take either quod, quia (Causal), or the accusative and infinitive (Indirect Discourse): as, -
quod scribis . . . gaudeō (Q. F. iii. 1, 9), I am glad that you write.
quae perfecta esse vehementer laetor (Rosc. Am. 136), I greatly rejoice that this is finished.
Remark. - Miror and similar expressions are sometimes followed by a clause with sii, $^{1}$ apparently substantive, but really a protasis (cf. § 33 r. e. 1. note). Thus, -
mīror sī quemquam amīcum habēre potuit (Læl. 54), I wonder if he could ever have a friend. [Originally, If this is so, I wonder at it.]
${ }^{1}$ Cf. the Greek $\theta a v \mu d{ }^{2} \omega \omega$ si.

## 5. Indirect Questions.

Note. - An Indirect Question is any sentence or clause introduced by an Interrogative word (pronoun, adverb, etc.), 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.
334. (Rule 82.) An Indirect Question takes its verb in the Subjunctive : as,
quid ipse sentiam expōnam (Div. i. 10), I will explain what I think. [Direct : quid sentio.]
rogat mē quid sentiam, he asks me what I think. [Cf. rogat mè sententiam, he asks me my opinion.]

Note. - An Indirect Question may be the subject of a verb, the direct object, the secondary object, or an appositive.

The tenses in Indirect Questions follow the rules for sequence of tenses.
a. Indirect Questions referring to future time take the subjunctive of the First Periphrastic conjugation : as, -
prospiciō quī concursūs futūrī sint (Div. in Caec. 42), I foresee what throngs there will be. [Direct : qui erunt?]
b. The Deliberative Subjunctive (see $\S 268$ and examples) remains unchanged in an Indirect Question, except in tense : as, -
[quaeritur] utrum Carthāgō dīruātur, an Carthăginiēnsibus reddātur (De
Inv. i. 17), [the question is] shall Carthage be destroyed, or restored to the Carthaginians.
incertō quid peterent aut vītārent (Liv. xxviii. 36), since it was doubtful (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, -
nōsti Märcellum quam tardus sit (Fam. viii. 10), you know how slow Marcellus is. [For nōstī quam tardus sit Mārcellus. Cf. I know thee who thou art.]
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, -
quīdam saepe in parvā pecūniā perspiciuntur quam sint levēs (Læl. 63), it is often seen, in a trifing matter of money, how unprincipled some people are (some people are often seen through, how unprincipled they are).
d. Indirect Questions often take the Indicative in poetry : as, nōn reputat quid labōris est (Plaut. Am. 172), he does not consider what a task it is.
e. A few interrogative expressions are used parenthetically in an indefinite sense and do not take a subjunctive. Such are -
nesciō quis (and kindred forms), I know not who, somebody or other, etc. mīrum (nīmīrum) quam, marvellously (marvellous how).

Examples are:-
quī istam nesciō quam indolentiam māgnopere laudant (Tusc. iii. 12), who greatly extol that freedom from pain, whatever that is.
mirum quantum prōfuit (Liv. ii. r), it helped prodigiously.
$f$. An indirect question is occasionally introduced by sīin the sense of whether (like if in English, cf. § 333.b. Rem.) : as, -
circumfunduntur hostēs sĩ quem aditum reperíre possent (B. G. vi. 37), the enemy pour round [to see] if they can find entrance.

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 quī iste terror sit (Rosc. Am. 5), 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.

## III. INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

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.

## I. Formal Indirect Discourse.

336. 337. Verbs and other expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving ${ }^{1}$ govern the Indirect Discourse.
1. (Rule 83.) 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, -
spērō mē līberātum [esse] dē metū (Tusc. ii. 67), I trust I have been freed from fear.
[dīcit] esse nōnnũllōs quōrum auctōritās plūrimum valeat (B. G. i. 17), he says there are some whose influence most prevails. [In direct discourse : sunt nōnnūllì . . . valet.]
Note i. - 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, -
ōrantēs ut urbibus saltem-iam enim agrōs dēplōrātōs esse - opem senātus ferret (Liv. xli. 6), praying that the senate would at least bring aid to the cities - for the fields [they said] were already given up as lost.

## 1. Subject Accusative.

a. I. The Subject of the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse must regularly be expressed, even if it is wanting in the direct : as, -
ōrātor sum, I am an orator; dīcit sē esse ōrātōrem, he says he is an orator.
Note. - But the subject is often omitted, if easily understood : as, -
ignōscere imprūdentiae dīxit (B. G. iv. 27), he said he pardoned their rashness.
${ }^{1}$ Such are: (1) knowing, sciō, cōgnōscō, compertum habeō, etc.; (2) thinking, putō, existimō, arbitror, etc. ; (3) telling, dičō, nūntiō, referō, polliceor, prōmīttō, 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.

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, -
tē suspicor eīsdem rēbus quibus mē ipsum commovērī (Cat. Maj. I), $I$ 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 (see §330. $a$-d).

## 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 haec omnia quae vidēmus deōrum potestāte administrārī (Cat. iii. 21), who can deny that all these things we see are ruled by the power of the gods?
cüius ingeniō putābat ea quae gesserat, posse celebrārī (Arch. 20), 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 : as, -

Mārcellus requīsīsse dīcitur Archimēdem illum, quem cum audīsset interfectum permolestē tulisse (Verr. iv. 131), Marcellus is said to have sought for Archimedes, and when he heard that he was slain, to have been greatly distressed.
ūnumquemque nostrūm cēnsent philosophī mundī esse partem, ex quō [ $=$ et ex ē̄] illud nātūrā cōnsequī (Fin. iii. 64), 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 nōn dedātur obses prō ruptō sē foedus habitūrum, sīc deditam inviolātam ad suōs 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 sē prius occīsum iirī ab eō quam mē violātum īrī (Att. ii. 20, 2), 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 perīculum . . . cum, Cimbrīs et Teutonīs . . . pulsis, nōn minōrem laudem exercitus quam ipse imperātor 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 $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { dicit } \\ \text { dīxit }\end{array}\right\}$ sē cadere, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { he says } \\ \text { he said }\end{array}\right\}$ he $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { is } \\ \text { was }\end{array}\right\}$ falling.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { cadēbam, I was falling } \\ \left.\begin{array}{l}\text { cecidì, } I \text { fell } \\ \text { cecideram, I had fallen }\end{array}\right\} \text { dīixit }\end{array}\right\}$ dixit $\}$ sē cecidisse, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { he says } \\ \text { he said }\end{array}\right\}$ he was falling,
cadam, I shall fall $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { dīcit } \\ \text { dixitit }\end{array}\right\}$ sē cāsürum [esse], $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { he says he shall fall. } \\ \text { he said he should fall. }\end{array}\right.$
ceciderō, 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 Present Indicative of the Direct Discourse, and is often called the Imperfect Infinitive (so regularly after meminī): thus, -
tē meminì dīcere, I remember that you said. [Direct : dīcēbās.]
NOTE 2. - For various ways of expressing the Future Infinitive, see § $147 . c$.

## 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 sē Rōmam itūrum ut cōnsulem vidēret, he said he should go to Rome in order that he might see the consul, vidēret follows the sequence of dixit without regard to the Future Infinitive, itūrum [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 (§ $33^{8}$ ).

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, -
tantum prōfēcisse vidēmur ut ā Graecīs nē verbōrum quidem cōpiā vincereemur (N. D. i. 8), we seem to have advanced so far that even in fullness 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, -
diceēbant ... totidem Nerviōs (pollicērī) quī longissimē absint (B. G. ii. 4), they said that the Nervii, who live farthest off, promised as many.
Note. - 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. For examples see B. G. i. 13, vii. 20, etc.

## 5. Conditions in Indirect Discourse.

387. Conditional sentences in Indirect Discourse are expressed as follows:-
388. The Protasis, being a subordinate clause, is always in the Subjunctive.
389. 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 ( $\$ 307.6$ ) 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-
I. Simple Present Condition (§ 306 ).
(dīxit) sĩ ipse populō Rōmānō nōn praescriberet quemadmodum suō iūre ūterētur, nōn oportēre sēsē à populō Rōmānō in suō iūre impedīrī (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: sī nōn praescribō . . . nōn oportet.]
praedicāvit . . . sī pāce ūtī velint, inīcum esse, etc. (B. G. i. 44), he as. serted that if they wished to enjoy peace, it was unfair, etc. [Direct : sī volunt . . . est. Present tense kept by Repraesentātiō (§ 336. B. a. note).]
2. Simple Past Condition (§ 306.)
nōn dīcam nēe illud quidem sī māximē in culpā fuerit Apollōnius, tamen in hominem honestissimae cīvitātis honestissimum tam graviter animadvertī causā indictā nōn oportuisse (Verr. v. 20), I will not say this either, that, even if Apollonius was greatly in fault, still an honorable man ought not to have been punished so severely, etc. [Direct: si fuit . . . nōn oportuit.]
3. Future Conditions (§ 307).

Aeduīs sē obsidēs redditūrum nōn esse, neque eīs . . . bellum illātūrum, sī in eō manērent, quod convēnisset, stīpendiumque quotannīs penderent: sī id nōn fēcissent, longē eīs frāternum nōmen populī Rōmānī abfutūrum (B. G. i. 36), he said that he would not give up the hostages to the Cdui, but would not make war upon them if they observed the agreement, etc., and paid tribute yearly; but if they should not do this, the name of brothers to the Roman people would be far from aiding them. [Direct : reddam . . . inferam . . . sì manêbunt . . . pendent: sī nōn fēcerint . . . aberit.]
id Datamēs ut audīvit, sēnsit, sī in turbam exīsset ab homine tam necessāriō sē relictum, futūrum [esse] ut cēterī cōnsilium 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 : sī exierit . . . sequentur.]
b. In changing a Condition contrary to fact (§ 308) into the Indirect Discourse, the following points require notice:-

1. The Protasis always remains unchanged in tense.
2. If the verb of the Apodosis is active it takes a peculiar infinitive form, made by combining the Participle in -ürus with fuisse,
3. If it is passive or has no supine stem, the periphrasis futurum fuisse ut (with the Imperfect Subjunctive) must be used.
4. An Indicative in the Apodosis becomes Perfect Infinitive.

## Examples are -

nec sē superstitem filiae futūrum fuisse, nisi spem ulcīscendae mortis ēius in auxiliō commīlitōnum habuisset (Liv. iii. 50), and that he should not now be a survivor, etc., unless he had had hope, etc. [Direct : nōn superstes essem, nisi habuissem.]
quōrum sī aetās potuisset esse longīnquior, futūrum fuisse ut omnibus perfectīs artibus hominum vīta ērudīrētur (Tusc. iii. 69), if life could have been longer, human existence would have been embellished by every art in its perfection. [Direct : ërudita esset.]
sī Cn . Pompēius prīvātus esset, tamen erat dëligendus (Manil. 50), if $P$. were a private citizen, still he ought to be chosen, would become deligendum fuisse.
Note I.- 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 futūrum fuisse 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 clāmābat sī Caesar adesset neque Carnūtēs, etc., neque Eburōnēs tantā cum contemptiōne nostrī ad castra ventūrōs 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 : sī adesset . . . venīrent.]

## 6. Questions in Indirect Discourse.

338. (Rule 84.) In the Indirect Discourse 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 possēssiōnēs venīret (B. G. i. 44), what did he want? why did he come into his territories? [Real question. Direct : quid vis ? cuir venis ? ]
num recentium iniūriārum memoriam [sē] dēpōnere posse (id. i. 14), could he lay aside the memory of recent worongs? [Rhetorical Question. Direct : num possum ?]
Note r. - 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 rēgnī petītūrum esse, an tōtum ēreptūrum (Liv. xiv. 19), will you ask part of the regal power (he said), or seize the whole?
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.

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, -
cuir aliquōs ex suīs āmitteret (B. C. i. 72), why (thought he) should he lose some of his men? [Direct : cūr āmīttam ?]

## 7. Commands in Indirect Discourse.

339. (Rule 85.) All Imperative forms of speech take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse : as, -
reminiscerētur veteris incommodī (B. G. i. 13), remember (said he) the ancient disaster. [Direct: reminiscere.]
finem faciat (id. 20), let him make an end. [Direct : fac.]
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. $\S \S 286,336$. B, note 1 ).

Note 2. - A Prohibition in the Indirect Discourse is regularly expressed by nee with the Subjunctive, even when nöli with the Infinitive would be used in the Direct : as, -
nē perturbārentur (B. G. vii. 29), do not (he said) be troubled. [Direct : nölite perturbār̄. But sometimes nōllet is found in Ind. Disc.]

The following example illustrates some of the foregoing principles in a connected address :-

INDIRECT DISCOURSE.
Sī pācem populus Rōmānus cum Helvētiis faceret, in eam partem itürōs atque ibi futürōs Helvētiōs, ubi eōs Caesar cōnstituisset atque esse voluisset: sin bellō persequī persevērāret, reminiscerētur et veteris incommodī populī Rōmānī, et prīstinae virtūtis Helvētiōrum. Quodimprōvīso ūnum pāgum adortus esset, cum eī quī flūmen trānsīssent suīs auxilium ferre nōn possent, nē ob eam rem aut suae māgnō opere virtūtī tribueret, aut ipsōs dēspiceret: sē ita ā patribus māiōribusque suis didicisse, ut magis virtūte quam dolō contenderent, aut insidiis nīterentur. Quārē nē committeret, ut is locus ubi cōnstitissent ex calamitāte populī Rōmānī et interneciōne exercitūs nōmen caperet, aut memoriam prōderet. - B. G. i. 13 .

## DIRECT DISCOURSE.

Sī pācem populus Rōmānus cum Helvētiīs faciet, in eam partem ibunt atque ibi erunt Helvētiì, ubi eōs tū cōnstitueris atque esse volueris: $\sin$ bellō persequī persevērābis, reminiscere [inquit] et veteris incommodĩ populī Rōmānī et prīstinae virtūtis Helvētiōrum. Quod imprōvīsō ūnum pāgum adortus es, cum eī quī flümen trānsierant suīs auxilium ferre nōn possent, nē ob eam rem aut tuae māgnō opere virtūtī tribueris, aut nōs dēspēxeris: nōs ita $\bar{a}$ patribus māiōribusque nostris didicimus, ut magis virtüte quam dolō contendāmus, aut insidiīs nĩtāmur. Quārē nōlī commīttere, ut hic locus ubi cōnstitimus ex calamitāte populī Rōmānī et interneciōne exercitūs nōmen capiat, aut memoriam prōdat.

## II. Intermediate Clauses.

340. A Subordinate clause takes the Subjunctive, (I) 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 (Attraction).
341. Informal Indirect Discourse.
342. (Rule 86.) 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 ( $\$ 336$ ). So also in Informal Indirect Discourse in the following cases:-
$b$. 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. 14), an animal feels what it is that is fit.
hunc sibi ex animō scrūpulum, quī sē diēs noctēsque stimulet āc pungat, ut ēvellātis postulat (Rosc. Am. 6), he begs you to pluck from his heart this doubt that goads and stings him day and night.
c. When the main clause of a quotation is merged in the verb of saying, or some modifier of it : as, -
sī quid dè hīs rēbus dīcere vellet, fēcī potestātem (Cat. iii. I i), if he wished to say anything about these matters, I gave him a chance.
tulit dē caede quae in Appiā viā facta esset (Milo 15 ), he passed a law concerning the murder which (in the language of the bill) took place in the Appian Way.
d. When a reason or an explanatory fact is introduced by a relative or by quod (rarely quia) (see §32I). Thus, -

Paetus omnēs librōs quōs pater suus relīquisset mihi dōnāvit (Att. ii. I, I2), Patus presented me all the books which (he said) his father had left.

Remark. - Under this head even what the speaker himself thought elsewhere may have the Subjunctive. So with quod the verb of saying may be in the Subjunctive. (Especially nōn quia, etc. See § 321. Rem.)

## 2. Subjunctive of Integral Part (Attraction).

342. (Rule 87.) 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: as, -
imperat, dum rēs adiūdicētur, hominem ut adservent : cum iūdicātum sit, ad sē addūcant (Verr. iii. 55), he orders them, till the affair should be decided, to keep the man; when he is judged, to bring him to him.
mōs est Athēnīs laudārī in contiōne eōs quī sint in proeliīs interfectī (Or. 151), it is the custom at Athens for those to be publicly culogized who have been slain in battle. [Here laudāri = ut laudentur.]
a. But a dependent clause, closely connected grammatically with a Subjunctive or Infinitive clause, may still take the Indicative, if it is not regarded as a necessary logical part of that clause : as, nē hostēs, quod tantum multitūdine poterant, suōs circumvenīre 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 serves to emphasize the fact, as true. But often no distinction between the two moods is perceptible.

## IMPORTANT RULES OF SYNTAX.

1. A noun used to describe another, and denoting the same person or thing, agrees with it in Case ( $\S 183$ ).
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).
5. Superlatives (more rarely comparatives) denoting order and succession - also medius, cēterus, relicus - 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 -üm being used partitively, and that in -i oftenest objectively (§ 194.b).
7. The Reflexive pronoun (sē), 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 : (I) always instead of the possessive genitive, (2) rarely instead of an objective genitive (§ 197. a).
9. A Possessive representing a genitive may have a genitive in apposition (§ 197.e).
ro. Adverbs are used to modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs (§207).
10. A question of simple fact, requiring the answer yes or no, is formed by adding the enclitic -ne to the emphatic word (§ 2 1o. a).
11. When the enclitic -ne is added to a negative word, - as in nōnne, - an affirmative answer is expected. The particle num suggests a negative answer (§ 210. c).
12. The subject of a finite verb is in the Nominative (§ 173.a).
13. A noun used to limit or define another, and not denoting the same person or thing, is put in the Genitive (§ 213 ).
14. 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 ).
15. Words denoting a Part are followed by the Genitive of the Whole to which the part belongs (Partitive Genitive, §216).
16. Nouns of action, agency, and feeling govern the genitive of the object (Objective Genitive, § 217).
17. 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 (§ $218 . a, b$ ).
18. 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 (§ 219 ).
19. Verbs of accusing, condemning, and acquitting take the Genitive of the Charge or Penalty ( $\$ 220$ ).
20. The Dative is used of the object indirectly affected by an action (Indirect Object, § 224).
21. 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 (§ 227).
22. Most verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, prō, sub, super, and some with circum, take the Dative of the indirect object (§ 228).
23. Many verbs of taking away, and the like, take the Dative (especially of a person) instead of the Ablative of Separation (§ 229).
24. The passive of intransitive verbs that govern the dative can be used only impersonally ( $\$ 146 . d$ ). The dative is retained (cf. § $225 . e$ ).
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.e).
37. Words signifying separation or privation are followed by the Ablative, with or without a preposition (Ablative of Separation, § 243).
38. Opus and ūsus, signifying need, are followed by the Ablative (§ $243 . e$ ).
39. 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).
40. The Ablative, with or without a preposition, is used to express cause (§ 245).
41. Dignus and indiggnus; contentus, laetus, praeditus, etc., take the Ablative ( $\$ 245 . a$ ).
42. The Voluntary Agent after a passive verb is put in the Ablative with ā or ab (§ 246).
43. The Comparative degree is followed by the Ablative (signifying than) without quam (§ 247).
44. The Comparative may be followed by quam, than. When quam is used, the two things compared are put in the same case ( $\$ 247 . a$ ).
45. The manner of an action is denoted by the Ablative, usually with cum, unless a limiting adjective is used with the noun (§ 248).
46. Accompaniment is denoted by the Ablative, regularly with cum (§ 248.a).
47. The Ablative is used to denote the means or instrument of an action (§ 248.c. r).
48. The deponents, ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, and vescor, with several of their compounds, govern the Ablative ( $\S 249$ ).
49. With comparatives and words implying comparison the Ablative is used to denote the degree of difference (§ 250 ).
50. Quality is denoted by the Ablative with a modifier, usually an adjective or limiting genitive ( $\$ 251$ ).
51. Price is expressed by the Ablative ( $\$ 252$ ).
52. The Ablative of Specification denotes that in respect to which anything is or is done (§ 253).
53. 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 (\$255. a).
55. Time when, or within which, is expressed by the Ablative ; time how long by the Accusative ( $\$ 256$ ).
56. 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 ( $\$ 258 . c$ ).
But names of towns or small islands from which, as also domus and rūs, are put in the Ablative without a preposition (§ 258.a).
So also names of towns or small islands to which, as also domus and rūs, are put in the Accusative without a preposition (§ 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 ( $\S 258 . c$ ).
The Locative Case is also preserved in domĩ, bellī, militiae, humī, foris, rūrī, terrā mariqque ( $\$ 258 . d$ ).
58. 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 (§ 270 ).
59. Verbs which imply another action of the same subject to complete their meaning take the Infinitive without a subject accusative, (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 for the Imperfect Indicative, in narration 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 ( $\S 286$ ).
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 $-\bar{u}$ ) 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 ( $\S 3 \circ 3$ ).
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 (r) by ne with the second person of the Perfect Subjunctive, (2) by nōli 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. In both Protasis and Apodosis (1) simple conditions take the present and past tenses of the Indicative; (2) future conditions take the future and future perfect Indicative and the present and perfect Subjunctive ; (3) conditions contrary to fact take the imperfect and pluperfect Subjunctive (see §§ 306-3II).
74. Dum, modo, dummodo, and tantum, introducing a Proviso, take the Subjunctive (§3I4).
75. Final clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut (uti),
negative ne (ut nē), or by a Relative (pronoun or adverb) (§ 317 ).
76. Consecutive clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut, so that (negative, ut nōn), or by a Relative (pronoun or adverb) (§ 319).
77. A Relative clause with the Subjunctive expresses a characteristic of the antecedent ( $\$ 320$ ).
78. Dignus, indignus, aptus, and idōneus take a clause of result with a relative (rarely with ut) (§320.f).
79. 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).
8o. Cum temporal, meaning when, takes the Imperfect and Pluperfect in the Subjunctive, other tenses in the Indicative ( $\$ 325$ ).
81. Cum Causal or concessive takes the Subjunctive (§ 326 ).
82. An Indirect Question takes its verb in the Subjunctive (§334).
83. 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).
84. In the Indirect Discourse a real question is generally put in the Subjunctive; a rhetorical question in the Infinitive (§ $33^{8}$ ).
85. All Imperative forms of speech take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse (§ 339).
86. A Subordinate clause takes the Subjunctive when it expresses the thought of some other person than the writer or speaker (Informal Indirect Discourse, § 341).
87. 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 ).

## 6. ORDER OF WORDS.

343. The Subject usually stands first in the sentence, the Predicate last. Thus, -

Pausāniās Lacedaemonius māgnus homō sed varius in omnī generé vítae fuit.

The verb is usually placed last of all, after all its modifiers. But it is often made 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, corresponding with the emphasis given in English by a graduated stress of voice.
$a$. In any phrase the determining and most significant word comes first : as, -
I. Adjective and Noun :-
omnēs hominēs decet, every man ought (opposed to some who do not).
Lūcius Catilīna nōbilī genere nātus fuit māgnā vī et animī et corporis sed ingeniō malō prāvōque (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 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 so takes the prominent place.]
2. Word with modifying case:-
lacrimā nihil citius arēscit (Inv. i. 109), nothing dries quicker than a TEAR. nēmō ferē laudis cupidus (De Or. i. 14), hardly any one desirous of GLory (cf. Manil. 7, avidì laudis, eager for glory).
b. Numeral adjectives, adjectives of quantity, demonstrative, relative, and interrogative pronouns, and adverbs usually precede the word or words to which they belong: as, -
cum aliquā perturbātiōne (Off. i. 137), with some disturbance. hōc ūnō praestāmus (De Or. i. 32), in THis one thing we excel. cēterae ferē artēs, the other arts.
c. When sum is used as the Substantive verb (see § 172 . note), it regularly stands first, or at any rate before its subject : as, -
est virì māgnī pūnīre sontēs (Off. i. 82), 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, -
dicêbat idem Cotta (Off. ii. 59), Cotta used to say the same thing (opposed to others' boasting).
idem fēcit adulēscēns M. Antōnius (id. ii. 49), the same thing was DONE by M. Antonius in his youth. [Opposed to dixī just before.]
(2) or because the statement of the idea is emphatic: as, -
nisi forte erunt dīgnī calamitāte (Off. ii. 62), unless perchance they really Deserve their misfortune.
praesertim cum scribat (Panaetius) (id. iii. 8), especially when he DOEs SAY (in his books). [Opposed to something omitted by him.]
(3) or because the tense only is emphatic: as, -
fuimus Trōes, fuit Ĩlium (压. ii. 32 5), we have ceased to be Trojans, Troy is now no more.
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 to follow in inconspicuous places : as, -
plūrēs solent esse causae (Off. i. 28), there are usually several reasons.
quōs āmīsimus cīvīs eōs Mārtis vis perculit (Marc. 17), what fellowcitizens we have LOST, have been stricken down by the violence of war.
māximās tibi omnēs grātiās agimus (Marc. 33), we All render you the warmest thanks.
$f$. 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 cōpia verbōrum cōpiam gignit (De Or. iii. 125), ABUNDANCE of MATTER produces COPIOUSNESS of EXPRESSION.
(2) lēgēs suppliciō improbōs afficiunt, dēfendunt āc tuentur bonōs (Leg. ii. 13), the laws VISIT PUNISHMENTS upon the wicked, but the Good they defend and protect.
g. A modifier of a phrase or some part of it is often embodied within the phrase (cf. a) : as, -
dē commūnī hominum memoriā (Tusc. i. 59), 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 another : as, -
et superiectō pavidae nātārunt aequore dāmae (Hor. Od. i. 2. ir).
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 hortulōs aliquōs emere velle (Off. iii. 58), gave out that he wanted to buy some gardens. [Here aliquōs is less emphatic than emere, but precedes it on account of the emphasis on hortuloss.]
$j$. 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, -
cōnsul ego quaesīvī, cum vōs mihi essētis in cōnsiliō (R. P. iii. 28), as consul I held an investigation in which you attended me in council.
falsum est id tōtum (id. ii. 28), that is all false.
k. Many expressions have acquired an invariable order : as, rēs püblica ; populus Rōmānus; honōris causā ; pāce tantī virī.
Note. - Thus, senātus populusque Rōmānus (S. P. Q. R.) originally stated with emphasis the official bodies, but became fixed so as to be the only permissible form of expression.
l. The Romans had a fondness for emphasizing persons, so that a name or a pronoun often stands in an unduly emphatic place : as, [dixit] vēnälīs quidem sē hortōs nōn habēre (Off. iii. 58), [said] that he didn't have any gardens for sale, to be sure.
$m$. Kindred words, as in figüra etymologica, often come together :
ita sēnsim sine sēnsū aetās senēscit (C. M. 38), thus gradually, without being perceived, man's life grows old.

## SPECIAL RULES.

345. The following are special rules of arrangement :-
a. I. 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 cōpiīs ; 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; ne ... quidem include the emphatic word or words.
c. Inquam, inquit are always used parenthetically, following one or more words. So, often, crē̄̄̄, opinor, and in poetry 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.
$e$. In the arrangement of clauses, the relative clause often comes first in Latin, and, if so, usually contains the antecedent noun : as, -
quōs āmīsimus cīvis, eōs Märtis vīs perculit (Marc. 17), 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 recēnsuisset auxilia Gādēs profectus est, when Hannibal had reviewed, etc.
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 coordinate 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 barbaric incendium effūgisse vīdērunt, tēlīs ēminus ēmīssīs interfēcērunt, when the barbarians saw that he had escaped, THEy threw darts at HIM and killed HIM.
celeriter cōnfectō negōtiō, in hīberna legiōnēs revertērunt, 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, -
dolōrem sī nōn poterō frangere occultābō, if I cannot conquer the pain, I will hide IT. [Cf. if I cannot conquer, I will hide the pain.]
$f$. The Romans were careful to close a period with an agreeable succession of long and short syllables. Thus, -
quod acis nihil prōdest, quod nescis multum obest (Or. 166), what you know is of no use, what you do not know does great harm.


## PART THIRD.-PROSODY (RULES OF VERSE).



1. QUANTITY.
2. General Rules.
3. The following are General Rules of Quantity (cf. § 18) :-
a. Vowel. A vowel before another vowel or h is short: as, via, trăhō.

Exceptions. In. In the genitive form -ius, $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$ is long, except usually in alterius. Thus, utrius, nüllius. It is, however, sometimes made short in verse ( $\S 83 . b$ ).
2. In the genitive and dative singular of the fifth declension, e is long between two vowels : as, dièi ; but it is short in fiděī, réi, spěí; a is long before $\mathbf{i}$ in the old genitive of the first declension : as, aulāi.
3. In the conjugation of fiow, $\mathbf{i}$ is long except when followed by er. Thus, fī̄, fiebam, fiam, but fieri, fierem; so, also, fit.
4. In many Greek words the vowel in Latin represents a long vowel or diphthong, and retains its original long quantity : as, Trō̈̆

5. In ©̄eu and dius, and sometimes in Diāna and öhe, the first vowel is long.
b. Diphthong. A Diphthong is long: as, roedus, c $\bar{u}$, deinde.

Exception. The preposition prae in compounds is generally shortened before a vowel : as, prăe-ūstis (Æn. vii. 524), prăe-eunte (id. v. 186).
c. Contraction. A vowel formed by contraction (crasis) is long : as, nill, from nihil ; currūs, genitive for curruis.

But often two syllables are united by Synæresis without contraction : as when parrětibŭs is pronounced paryetťbus.
d. Position. A vowel, though short, followed by two consonants or a double consonant, makes a long syllable : as, adventus, cortez.

But if the two consonants are a mute followed by 1 or $\mathbf{r}$, the syllable may be either long or short (common) ; as, alacris or alăcris ; patris or pătris.

Note 1.- Any vowel before i consonant makes a long syllable (except in bliugis, quảdriugis).

NOTE 2. - The compounds of iaciō, 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).
pröice tēla manū (at the beginning of a hexameter, Æn. vi. 836).
Remark. - The $\mathbf{y}$ or $\mathbf{w}$ sound resulting from synaresis has the effect of a consonant in making position : as, abietis (abyetis), fluviōrum (fluvyōrum). Conversely, when the semivowel becomes a vowel, position is lost : as, silŭae, for silvae.

## (d. Final Syllablet.

348. The Quantity of Final Syllables is determined by the following Rules : -
349. Monosyllables ending in a vowel are long : as, $\mathbf{m} \overline{\mathrm{e}}, \mathrm{t} \overline{\mathrm{u}}, \mathrm{h} \overline{\mathrm{i}}, \mathbf{n} \overline{\mathrm{e}}$.

The attached particles -nĕ, -quĕ, -vĕ, -cĕ, -ptĕ, and rĕ- (rĕd-) are short ; sē- is long. Thus, sēcēdit, exercitumquě rědūcit. But reis often long in rëligiō (relligiō), rētuli (rettuli), rēpulī (reppulī).
2. Nouns and adjectives of one syllable are long: as, sō, $\overline{\text { ons }}$ (ōris), bōs, pār, vies.

Exceptions. cŏr (sometimes long), fĕl, lăc, mĕl, ŏs (ossis), vĭr, tŏt, quŏt.
3. Most monosyllabic Particles are short : as, ăn, inn, cĭs, nĕc. But āc, crās, cūr, ēn, nōn, quīn, sin - with adverbs in c: as, hīc, hūc, sic - 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, eă stellă (nom.), cum eā stellā (abl.) ; frūstrā, vocā (imperat.), posteā, trigintā.

Exceptions. ēiă, ită, quiă, pută (suppose) : and, in late use, trigintä, etc.
5. Final $e$ is short, as in nūbĕ, dūcitĕ, saepĕ. Except -

1. In nouns of the fifth declension: as, fidē (also famē), hodiē (hoi điè), quārè (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, saepissimè. So, ferē, fermè, 'probably of same origin.
4. In the imperative singular of the second conjugation : as, vide.

Exceptions. To 3: benĕ, malĕ; infernĕ, supernĕ. To 4: sometimes, cavĕ, habĕ, tacĕ, valĕ, vidĕ.
6. Final $\mathbf{i}$ is long : as in turri, fili, audi.

But it is common in mihi, tibi, sibi, ibi, ubi; and short in nisi, quasĭ, cuĭ (when making two syllables), and in Greek vocatives, as Alexi.
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, modǒ (adverb), ІІicŏ, profectŏ, dummodŏ, immŏ, egŏ, duŏ, octǒ.
8. Final $\mathbf{u}$ is long. Final y is short.
9. Final as, es, os, are long ; final is, us, ys, are short ; as, nefāe, rūpēs, servōs (acc.), honōs ; hostĭs, amicŭs, Tethy̆s.

Exceptions. as is short in Greek plural accusatives, as lampadăs; and in anăs.
es is short in nouns of the third declension (lingual) having a short vowel in the stem ${ }^{1}$ : as, milĕs (-itis, ), obsĕs (-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, lampaděs.
$0 s$ is short in compos, impors ; in the Greek nominative ending, as barbitŏs; also, in the old nominative ending of the second declension, as servŏs (later, servus).
is in plural cases is long, as in bonis, nōbis, vōbis, omnis (accusative plural).
is is long in fis, sis, vis (with quivis, etc.), velis, mālis, nōlis; in the second person singular of the fourth conjugation, as audis and sometimes in the forms in -eris (perfect subjunctive).
${ }^{1}$ The quantity of the stem-vowel may be seen in the genitive singular.
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 $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ (long) in the stem : as, virtūs (- $\bar{u} t i s$ ), incūs (-ūdis). But, pecŭs, -ŭdis.
10. Of other final syllables, those ending in a consonant, except -c, are short. Thus, amăt, amātŭr ; but, istūc, ālēc.

EXCEPTIONS. dōnĕc, făc, nĕc, sometimes hĭc ; āēr, aethēr, crātēr, liēn, splēn.

## 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 stellãrum, corpŏris, amātis, tegitis, the penultimate syllable is called the increment. In itinněribus, amāverrĭtis, the syllables with the quantities marked are called the first, second, and third increments of the noun or verb.

Note. - In such words as Iūppiter, Iorvis; senex, sěnis, the syllables whose vowel-quantity is marked are called increments. These forms must be referred to lost nominatives from the same stems. So itineribus has really only two increments as from titinus.
350. In increments of Nouns and Adjectives, a and o are generally long; e, i, u, y, generally short: as, -
aetās, aetātis ; honor, honōris ; servos, servōrum ; opus, opěris ; carmen, carmĭnis; murnux, murmŭnis; pecus, pecŭdis; chlamys, chlamy̌dis. Exceptions are -
a: short in baccar (-ăris), hēpar (-ătis), iubar (-ăris), lār (-lăris), mās (măris), nectar (-ăris), pār (păris), sā (sălis), vas (vădis), đ̄aps (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 (Iǒvis), Hector (-ŏris), and compounds of -pūs (as, tripūs, -pŏdis).
e : long in increments of fifth declension : as, diēe, diēi ; 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, felicis, rādicis (except filix, nix, strix) ; also in dīs (ditis), glis (glinis), lis (litis), vis (virēs), Quiritēs, Samnitēs.
$\mathbf{u}$ : long in forms from nouns in -ūs: as, palūs, pal̄̄đis; tellūs, tellüris ; virtūs, virtūtis ; also in lūx, lūcis ; [frūx], frūgis ; für, fūris.
351. In the increment of Verbs the characteristic vowels are as follows:-
I. In the first conjugation $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ : as, amāre, amātur.
2. In the second conjugation $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ : as, monēre, monētur.
3. In the third conjugation ĕ, $\mathbf{i}$ : as, tegĕre, teğtur.
4. In the fourth conjugation $i$ : as, audire, auditur.

Exception. dō and its compounds have ă: as, dăre, circumaăbat.
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, -rō ; in the future personal endings -běris, -běre; and sometimes in the perfect -ěrunt (as, stětěruntque comae, Æn. ii. 774).
$\mathbf{i}$ is long in forms which follow the analogy of the fourth conjugation: as, petivi, lacessitus (in others, short : as, monitus) ; also in the subjunctive present of esse and velle (simus, velimus) ; and (rarely) in the endings -rimus, -ritis. It is short in the future forms amäbiltis, etc.

0 is found only in imperatives, and is long : as, monētōte, etc.
u is short in sŭmus, volŭmus, quaesŭmus; in the Supine and its derivatives it is long : as, solūtūrus.
b. Perfects and Supines of two syllables lengthen the first syllable:


Exceptions. bǐbī, dĕdī, fidī, scǐdī, stěti, stǐtī, tŭlī ; cĭtum, dătum, ǐtum, lǐtum, qư̌tum, rătum, rŭtum, sătum, sĭtum, stătum. In some compounds of stō, stātum is found long, as prōstātum.
c. In reduplicated perfects the vowel of the reduplication is short ; the following syllable is, also, usually short : as, cĕcìdi (cădō), dǐdĭci (discō), pŭpŭgī (pungō), cŭcurri (currō), tĕtendi (tenđō), mŏmordi (mordeō). But, cĕcīdī from caedō, pepēdī from pēdō.
352. The following terminations are generally preceded by a long vowel: -

1. -brum, -crum, -trum : as, lăvācrum, dē̄̄̄̄rum, vērātrum.
2. -na, -ne, -nis: as, carinna, māne, inānis.
3. -re, -ris, -ta, -tis : as, altāre, sălūtāris, mŏnēta, immītis.
4. The following terminations are preceded by a short vowel :-
I. -cus, -dus (with some exceptions), -lus: as, rūsticcus, călĭdus, glădiŏlus.
5. -tās (in nouns), -ter and -tus (in adverbs): as, civǐtās, fortiter, pĕnĭtus.
6. -culus, -cellus, -lentus, -tūवō: as, fascĭcŭlus, ŏcellus, lūcŭlentus, mägnittūdō.
7. Rules for the quantity of Derivatives are -
a. Forms from the same Stem regularly have the same quantity : as, ămō, ămāvistī ; gĕnus, gĕneris.
b. Compounds retain the quantity of the words which compose them : as, oc-cĭdō (cădō), oc-cīdō (caedō), in-icus (aecus).
8. RHYTHM.

## 1. Measures.

355. Rhythm consists in the recurrence in musical sound of accent at regular intervals. These intervals are called measures or feet.

The most natural measures of musical time consist of either two or three equal parts. But the ancients also distinguished measures of five parts.

Remark. - In poetry these intervals are taken up by enunciated syllables which in Latin have a definite length or quantity.
a. The unit of length in Prosody is one short syllable. This is called a Mora. It is represented by the sign $v$, or may be represented in musical notation by the quaver ( $(\stackrel{\rho}{0}$ ).
b. A long syllable is regularly equal to two mora, and is represented by the sign $\ldots$, or may be represented by the $\operatorname{crotchet}(\mathcal{\rho})$.
356. The measures most frequently employed in Latin verse, together with their musical notation, are the follow-ing:-
a. Triple or Unequal Measures ( $\frac{3}{8}$ ).
I. Trochee ( $1 \cup=\boldsymbol{\rho}$ ) : as, rēgts.
2. Iambus $(\cup \perp=\ell \dot{\rho}):$ as, dŭucēs.

b. Double or Equal Measures ( $\frac{2}{4}$ ).

2. Anapest $(\cup \cup ノ=\emptyset \rho$ ) : as, mònǐtōs.
3. SPONDEE $(\xlongequal[-]{ }=$ р́p): as, rēgēs.

For the more complex measures, see larger grammar.
357. In most 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. Thus, a Spondee (-) may take the place of a Dàctyl $(-\cup \cup)$.

## 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.
a. The stress of voice laid upon the Thesis is called the Ictus (beat). It is marked thus : $\ell \cup \cup$.
b. The ending of a word within a measure is called Cessura. 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

## 3. VERSIFICATION.

## THE VERSE.

359. A single line of poetry - that is, a series of measures (feet) set in a known order - is called a Verse.
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 (scānsiō, from scandō, 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.

In reading it is usual entirely to suppress elided syllables. Strictly, however, they should be sounded lightly.
d A final -m , with the preceding vowel, is suppressed in like manner when the next word begins with a vowel-or $\mathbf{h}$ : this is called ECTHLIPSIS: as, mōnstrum hörendum, inform, insēns, cui lûmen ademptum.
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. In such cases the final vowel is sometimes shortened.
$f$. A final syllable, regularly short, is sometimes lengthened before a pause : it is then said to be long by Diastole : as, -

> nostrōrum obruimur, - oriturque miserrima caedēs.
$g$. The last syllable of a verse may be either long or short.

## Forms of Verse.

360. A verse receives its name from its dominant or fundamental measure ; as, Dactylic, Iambic, Trochaic, Anapastic; 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.

## 1. Dactylic Hexameter.

362. The Dactylic Hexameter, or Heroic Verse, consists theoretically of six dactyls. It may be represented thus :-
or in musical notation as follows :-

## rourroprory

a. For any one of the feet, except the fifth, a spondee may be substituted. The last foot is a trochee standing for a dactyl, but the final syllable is not measured, and the foot is called a spondee.

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.
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 (masculine), less commonly in the arsis (feminine) of the third foot, dividing the verse into two parts.

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 instead of two : as, -
partĕ fĕ | rōx || âr | dēnsque ǒcŭ | līs || et | sībīlă | collă. - Enn. v. 277.
Remark. - Often the only indication of the principal among a number of cæsuras is the break in the sense.
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 :-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Ārmă vì| rumquĕ cǎ | nō \| Trō | iae quī | prīmŭs ăb | ōrīs }
\end{aligned}
$$

litǒră, | multum ille | et ter|ris || iac | tātǔs ět | altō
vī sǔpě | rūm sae | vae || měmǒ| rem Iū |nōň̌s ǒb | irăm;
multǎ quŏ | que et bel | 10 pas |sus $\|$ dum | conděrět | urběm,
īnfer |retquě dě $\mid$ ōs Lătī $\mid \overline{0}$, $\|$ gěnǔs | undě Lă $\mid$ tīnum,
Albā | nīquě pă | trēs, || at |que altae | moenĭă | Rōmae.

The feminine casura is seen in the following :-
Dīs.gěnĭ | tī pǒtŭ|ērě: : || tě | nent mědĭ |a omnǐa | silvae.
—An. vi. I3r.

## 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, -

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { péplodelprooploopler }
\end{aligned}
$$

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 Cæsura ; but the first half-verse must always end with a word, followed by a pause to complete the measure. ${ }^{2}$
c. The following verses will illustrate the forms of the Elegiac Stanza:-
${ }^{1}$ Called pentameter by the old grammarians, who divided it, formally, into five feet (two dactyls or spondees, a spondee, and two anapæsts), as follows :-

$$
\|-v v|-v v|-\|-|v v-| v v \therefore \|
$$

${ }^{2}$ The time of this pause, however, may be filled by the pratraction of the preceding syllable : thus, -

$$
\rightarrow v \cup|-v v| ゅ \|-v v|-v v|-\pi
$$

> cum sǔbǐt | illī $\mid$ us tris $\mid$ tissìmă | noctis $\bar{i} \mid$ māgō quā mǐhĭ | suprē | mum $\bar{\lambda} \|$ tempǔs inn | urbě fŭ $\mid$ ǐ, cum rěpě | tō noc |tem quā | tot mǐhĭ | cāră rě | līquī, lābǐtŭr | ex ǒcŭ|lis $\overline{\mathbb{A}} \| \mid$ nunc quŏquĕ | guttă mě| iss. iam prŏpě | lūx ădĕ | rat quā | mē dis | cēděrě |Caesar fīnĭbŭs | extrē | mae $\bar{\Lambda} \|$ iusssěrăt | Ausŏnĭ|ae.
> —Ovid, Trist. i. 3 .

364-375. For these sections showing other forms of verse, and for the metres of Horace, see the larger grammar.

## MISCELLANEOUS.

## I. 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. $691=$ B.c. 63 .

Before Cæsar's reform of the Calendar (B.c. 46), the Roman year consisted of 355 days ; March, May, Quīntilis (July), and October having each 31 days; February having 28, and each of the remainder 29. 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 Iülius (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.
876. Dates, according to the Roman Calendar, are reckoned as follows:-
a. The first day of the month was called Kalendae (Calends).
b. On the fifteenth day of March, May, July, and October, but the thirteenth of the others, were the Iavis (ddes), 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 Nōnae (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.:-

Hence if the given date be Calends, add two to the number of days in the month preceding, - if Nonies or Ides, add one to that of the day on which they fall;- and from this sum subtract the given date : thus,-
viii. Kal. Feb. $(33-8)=$ Jan. 25 .
iv. Nōn. Mār. $(8-4)=$ Mar. 4.
iv. Id. Sept. $(14-4)=$ Sept. 10 .
e. The days of the Roman month by the Julian Calendar, as thus ascertained, are given in the following Table :-
January. February. March. April.

| 1. Kal. Ian. <br> 2. iv. Nōn. Iān. | Kal. Feb. IV. Nōn. Feb. | vi. Nōn. Mārt. |  | Kal. Apriles <br> IV. Nōn. Apr. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3. III. " | III. | v. " | " | III. " | " |  |
| 4. prid. " | prid. " | Iv. " | " | prid. " | " |  |
| 5. Nōn. İAn. | Nōn. Febr. | III. " | " | Nön. | April |  |
| 6. viii. İd. Iān. | viII. Id. Feb. | prid. " | " | vin. İd | d. Ap |  |
| 7. VII. | vir. | Nōn | Mārtiae | vir. " | c |  |
| 8. vi. | vi. | viii. | İd. Mārt. | vi. | ، " |  |
| 9. v. | v . | vii. | " " |  |  |  |
| 10. iv. | iv. | vi. | " " | Iv. | " " |  |
| II. III. | III. | v. | " " | III. | " |  |
| 12. prid. " | prid. " | Iv. | " " | prid. |  |  |
| 13. İdūs IĀn. | Idū̆ Feb. | III. | " " | $\overline{\text { İdūs A }}$ | Aprīl |  |
| 14. xix. Kal. Feb. | xvı. Kal. Mārtiās | prid. | " " | xviii. | Kal. | Māās. |
| 15. XVIII. " | xv . | İvus | Mārtiae | xvir. | " | " |
| 16. xviI. | xiv. | xvii. | Kal. Aprilis. | xvi. | " | " |
| 17. XVI. | xili. | xvi. | " " | xv . | " | " |
| 18. xv . | XII. | xv . | " " | xiv. | " | " |
| 19. xiv. | xI. | xiv. | " " | .xill. | " | " |
| 20. XIII. | x. " " | xili. | " " | xII. | " | \% |
| 21. XII. | ix. | xI | " " | XI. | " | " |
| 22. xI . | viif. | xi. | " " | x. | " | ، |
| 23. x . | vil | x . | " " | 1x. | " | " |
| 24. IX. | vi. | Ix. | " " | viif. | " | * |
| 25. VIII. | v. | vili. | " " | vir. | " | " |
| 26. VII. | rv. | viI. | " " | vr. | " | " |
| 27. VI. | III. | vi. | " " | v. | " | " |
| 28. v . | prid. | v. | " " | rv. | " | " |
| 29. Iv. | [prid Kal Mârt. | Iv. | " ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | in. | " | " |
| 30. 11 I . | in leap-year, the | III. | " " | prīd. | " |  |
| 31. prìd. " | vi. Kal.(24th) being | prid. | " " | (So Jun | ne, Se | ept., |
| (So. Aug., Dec.) | counted twice.] | (So Ma | May, July,Oct.) |  |  |  |

Note. - Observe that a date before the Julian Reform (b.c. 46) would be found not by the above table, but by taking the earlier reckoning of the number of days in the month.

## II. MEASURES OF VALUE, ETC.

377. The money of the Romans was in early times wholly of copper. The unit was the ās, nominally a pound in weight, but actually somewhat less. It was divided into twelve unciae (ounces).

In the third century b.c. the ās was gradually reduced to one-half of its original value. In the same century silver coins were introduced, - the Dēnärius $=10$ asses ; and the Sēstertius $=2 \frac{1}{2}$ asses.
378. The Sestertius was probably introduced at a time when the às had been so far reduced that the value of the new coin ( $2 \frac{1}{2}$ asses) was equivalent to the original value of the ās. 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:-
$2 \frac{1}{2}$ asses $=1$ sēstertius or nummus (HS), value nearly 5 cents.

| 10 asses or 4 sēstertī̄=I dēnārius . . . 6 |  |
| ---: | :--- |
| IOOO | sēstertī̄ $=1$ sēstertium |

Note. - The word sēstertius is a shortened form of sēmis-tertius, the third one, a half. The abbreviation IIS or HS $=$ duo et sēmis, $2 \frac{1}{2}$, two and a half.
379. The Sēstertium (probably originally the genitive plural of sēstertius) was a sum of money, not a coin ; the word is inflected regularly as a neuter noun : thus, tria seestertia $=\$ 150.00$.

When séstertium was combined with a numeral adverb, centēna milia (hundreds of thousands) was originally understood: thus deciēns sēstertium (deciēns HS $=\$ 50,000$. But later sēstertium was inflected as a neuter singular, as deciēns sēstertiō, etc..

In the statement of large sums sēstertium is often omitted: thus sexägiēns (Rosc. Am. 2) signifies, sexägiēns [centēna milia] 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. $=600$ sēstertī ; HS. $\overline{\mathrm{DC}} .=$ 600,000 sēstertī̄, or 600 sestertia; HS. $|\overrightarrow{\mathrm{DC}}|=60,000,000$ séstertī̄.
881. The Roman Measures of Length are the following:-

12 inches (unciae) $=1$ Roman Foot (pes: 11.65 English inches).
${ }_{1} \frac{1}{2}$ Feet $=1$ Cubit (cubitum). $-2 \frac{1}{2}$ 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) $=$ I Pound (libra, about $\frac{3}{4} \mathrm{lb}$. avoirdupois).
Fractional parts (weight or coin) are -
I. $\left(\frac{1}{12}\right)$, uncia.
5. (55), quïncunx.
9. ( $\frac{(3}{4}$ ), dō$d r a \bar{a} s$.
2. ( $\frac{1}{6}$ ), sextäns.
6. $\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$, sèmissis.
10. (5), dextäns.
3. (1), quadrāns.
7. $\left(\frac{7}{12}\right)$, septunx.
11. ( $\frac{1}{1} \frac{1}{2}$ ), deunx.
4. $\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)$, triëns.
8. $\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)$, bēssis.
12. ãs.

The Talent (talentum) was a Greek weight ( $\tau$ d́入avtov) $=60$ librae.
383. The Measures of Capacity are -

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 12 \text { cyathī }=1 \text { sextārius (nearly a pint). } \\
& 16 \text { sextārī̀ }=1 \text { modius (peck). } \\
& 6 \text { sextāriī }=1 \text { congius ( } 3 \text { quarts, liquid measure). } \\
& 8 \text { congiī }=1 \text { amphora ( } 6 \text { gallons). }
\end{aligned}
$$

384. The following are some of the commonest abbreviations found in Latin inscriptions and sometimes in editions of the classic authors.
A., absolvō, antīquō.
A. U., annō urbis.
A. U. C., ab urbe conditā.
C., condemnō, comitialis.
cos., cōnsul (cōnsule). coss., cōnsulès (cōnsulibus).
D., dīvus.
D. D., dōnō dedit.
D. D. D., dat, dicat, dēdicat.
des., dèsignätus.
D. M., diī mãnēs.
eq. Rom., eques Rōmanus.
F., fìlius, fästus.

Ictus., iūriscōnsultus.
Id., $\bar{d} \bar{u} s$.
imp., imperätor.
I. O. M., Iovĩ optimō māximō.
K., Kal., Kalendae.
N., nepōs, nefâstus.
N. L., nōn liqiuet.
P. C., patrès cōnscrīpti.
pl., plēbis.
pont. max., pontifcx miximus.
pop., populus.
P. R., populus Rōmānus.
pr., praetor.
proc., prōcōnsul.
Q. B. F. F. Q. S., quod bonum fêlīx faustumque sit.
Quir., Quiritès.
resp., rēspüblica, respondet.
S., salūtem, sacrum, senätus.
S. C., senätū̀s cōnsultum.
S. D. P., salūtem dīcit plūrimam.
S. P. Q. R., Senãtus Populusque Rōmänus.
S. v. B. E. E. V., sī valēs bene est, ego valeō.
pl. tr., tribūnus plēbis.
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 mēd and tēd (§ 98. c) were supposed to owe their d to Paragoge, sūmpsī its $\mathbf{p}$ 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. Grammaticai, 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 ( $\S 10 . c$ ).
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 (§ II.c).
Hellenism : use of Greek forms of constructions.
Hendiadys (Eึv $\delta i \alpha{ }_{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{\delta voî}$ ) : 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.
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 (§ II. 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.
Synesis (cōnstrūctiō ad sēnsum) : agreement of words according to the sense, and not the grammatical form (§ 182).
Tmesis: the separation of two parts of a compound word by other words (cutting).
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 ( $\$ 344 \cdot f$ ).
Antithesis : opposition, or contrast of parts (for emphasis, § 344).
Antonomasia: use of a proper for a common noun, or the reverse.
Aposiopesis : an abrupt pause for rhetorical effect.
Catachresis: a harsh metaphor (abūsio, misuse of words).

Chiasmus: a reversing of the order of words in corresponding pairs. Climax: a gradual increase of emphasis, or enlargement of meaning. Euphemism: the mild expression of a painful or repulsive idea.
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.
Onomatopaia: a fitting of sound to sense in the use of words.
Oxymoron : the use of contradictory words in the same phrase.
Paronomasia: the use of words of like sound.
Prosopopaia: 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 a rhythm by substituting different measures. Anacrusis : the unaccented syllable or syllables preceding a verse. 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.
Casura : 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 $\mathbf{i}$ (consonant) and $\mathbf{v}$ as vowels (siluia =silva).
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.
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.
Ictus : the metrical accent (§358.a).
Irrational: not conforming strictly to the unit of time (§356. note).
Logacedic: varying in rhythm, making the effect resemble prose.
Monometer: consisting of a single measure.
Mora: the unit of time = one short syllable (§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.
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.
Synaresis : i (vowel) and $\mathbf{u}$ becoming consonants before a vowel.
Synaloopha: 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.


USED IN CITING AUTHORS AND THEIR WORKS.

Cæsar:
B. C., Bellum Civile.
B. G., Bellum Gallicum.
B. Afr., Bellum Afriсапит.
Catull., Catullus.
Cic., Cicero :
Ac., Acad., Academica.
Arch., pro Archia.
Att., ad Atticum.
Cæc., pro Caecina.
Cæl., pro M. Caelio.
Cat., in Catilinam.
Clu., pro Cluentio.
C. M., Cato Major.

Deiot., pro Deiotaro.
De Or., de Oratore.
Div., de Divinatione.

Cæcil., Divinatio in Caecilium.
Fam., ad Familiares.
Fat., de Fato.
Fin., de Finibus.
Flac., pro Flacco.
Font., pro M. Fonteio.
Ad Her. [ad Herennium].
Inv., de Inventione.
Læl., Laelius.
Legg., de Legibus.
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 Ofjiciis.
Or., Orator.
Par., Paradoxa.
Part. Or., de Partitione.
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.
Hor., Horace :
A. P., de Arte Poetica.

Ep., Epistulae.
Epod., Epodes.
Od., Odes.
Sat., Satires.
Juv., Juvenal.
Liv., Livy.

Lucr., Lucretius.

Mart., Martial.
Nep., Nepos.
Ov., Ovid :
F., Fasti.
M., Metamorphoses.
ex P., Epistulae ex Ponto.
Trist., Iristia.
Pers., Persius.
Plaut., Plautus.
Plin., Pliny, senior :
H. N., Historia Naturalis.
Plin., Pliny, junior :
Ep., Epistulae.
Prop., Propertius.
Q. C., Q. Curtius.

Quint., Quintilian.
Sall., Sallust :
Cat., Catilina.
Jug., Jugurtha.
Sen., Seneca :
Ep., Epistulae.
Q. N., Quaestiones

Naturales.
Sil. It., Silius Italicus.
Suet., Suetonius.
Tac., Tacitus :
Agr., Agricola.
A., Ann., Annales.
H., Historiae.

Ter., Terence.
Virg., Virgil :
Æn., Eneid.
E., Eclogae.
G., Georgica.

## INDEX OF WORDS AND SUBJECTS.

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Note. - The numerical references are to sections, with a few exceptions in which the page ( $p$.) is referred to. The letters refer to subsections. The letter n. signifies Note; r., Remark. Abl. = ablative; acc. = accusative; adj. = adjective; adv. = adverb; apod. = apodosis ; app. = appositive ; comp. = comparison or compound ; compar. = comparative ; constr. $=$ construction $;$ conj. $=$ conjugation or conjunction $;$ dat. $=$ dative $;$ gen. $=$ genitive ; gend. $=$ gender ; ind. disc. $=$ indirect discourse ; loc. = locative ; prep. = preposition; subj. $=$ subject or subjunctive; $\mathrm{vb} .=$ verb $; \mathrm{w} .=$ with. (Other abbreviations present no difficulty.)

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Dative, hêrōisin (once only).

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ The forms in parenthesis, except domi (cf. §70.g), are less common.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ As in taking things one by one off a pile, each thing is uppermost when you take it.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ These numerals refer to the four conjugations given later (see § 122).

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ The forms felt as verbal are, like the nominal forms, derived from noun-stems, and the two are constantly confounded.

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ Compare volvendis mēnsibus, in the revolving months (Virg.).
    ${ }^{2}$ This suffix is the same as in $\S 162 . c$, but not connected with a verb.

[^6]:    ${ }^{1}$ The prepositions sometimes, however, especially ad, in, circum, träns, have their ordinary force as prepositions, and govern the case of a noun : as, trănsîre flūmen, to cross a river (see § 239.b. Rem.).

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ Compare "I'll rhyme you so eight years together." - As You Like It.

[^8]:    1. Of Separation, Privation, and Want (§ 243).
    2. Of Source (participles of origin, etc.) (§ 244).
    3. Ablative (from) : $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { 2. Of Cause (gaudeō, dignus, etc.) (§ 24). }\end{array}\right.$
    4. Of Agent (with ab after Passives) (§246).
    5. Of Comparison (THAN) (§ 247).
[^9]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. prope, $\$ 152 . a$.

[^10]:    ${ }^{1}$ Chiefly volō, nōlō, mālō, oportet, decet.

