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Indrews' Series of Latin School Books.

PUBLISHED BY CROCKER AND BREWSTER,

51 WASHINGTON STREET, BOSTON.

THE LATIN SCHOOL BOOKS prepared by Prof. E. A. Andrews, exclusive of his Latin-English Lexicon, founded on the Latin-German Lexicon of Dr. Freund, constitute two distinct series, adapted to different and distinct purposes. The basis of the First Series is Andrews' First Latin Book; of the Second, Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar.

FIRST SERIES.

This Series is designed expressly for those who commence the study of Latin at a very early age, and for such as intend to pursue it to a limited extent only, or merely as subsidiary to the acquisition of a good English education. It consists of the following works, viz.:—

- 1. Andrews' First Latin Book; or Progressive Lessons in Reading and Writing Latin. This small volume contains most of the leading principles and grammatical forms of the Latin language, and, by the logical precision of its rules and definitions, is admirably fitted to serve as an introduction to the study of general grammar. The work is divided into lessons of convenient length, which are so arranged that the student will, in all cases, be prepared to enter upon the study of each successive lesson, by possessing a thorough knowledge of those which preceded it. The lessons generally consist of three parts:—1st. The statement of important principles in the form of rules or definitions, or the exhibition of orthographical or etymological forms; 2d. Exercises, designed to illustrate such principles or forms; and 3d. Questions, intended to assist the student in preparing his lesson. In addition to the grammatical lessons contained in this volume, a few pages of Reading Lessons are annexed, and these are followed by a Dictionary comprising all the Latin words contained in the work. This book is adapted to the use of all schools above the grade of primary schools, including also Academies and Female Seminaries. It is prepared in such a manner that it can be used with little difficulty by any intelligent parent or teacher, with no previous knowledge of the language.
- 2. The Latin Reader, with a Dictionary and Notes, containing explanations of difficult idioms, and numerous references to the Lessons contained in the First Latin Book.
- 3. The Viri Romæ, with a Dictionary and Notes, referring, like those of the Reader, to the First Latin Book. This series of three small volumes, if faithfully studied according to the directions contained in them, will not only render the student a very tolerable proficient in the principles of the Latin language and in the knowledge of its roots, from which so many words of his English language are derived, but will constitute the best preparation for a thorough study of the English grammar.

SECOND SERIES.

Note.—The "Latin Reader" and the "Viri Romæ," in this series, are the same as in the first series.

This Series is designed more especially for those who are intending to become thoroughly acquainted with the Latin language, and with the principal classical authors of that language. It consists of the following works:—

1. Latin Lessons. This small volume is designed for the younger classes of Latin students, who intend ultimately to take up the larger Grammar, but to whom that work would, at first, appear too formidable. It contains the prominent principles of Latin grammar, expressed in the same language as in the larger Grammar, and likewise Reading and Writing Lessons, with a Dictionary of the Latin words and phrases occurring in the Lessons.

NEW SERIES OF LATIN SCHOOL BOOKS.

I have reason to believe that the improvements, introduced into the last edition of Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar by my respected and lamented friend Dr. Andrews, a little before his death, add very decidedly to the value of a work, which has done more to give the knowledge of that language to the youth of this country than any, perhaps than all others.—Theodore W. Woolsey, President of Yale College, New Haven.

No book, probably, has done more to improve classical training in American schools than Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar. Its use is almost universal; and where it has not itself been adopted as a manual, it has made grammars of similar excellence necessary. The last edition, the sixty-fifth, was carefully revised by the lamented Dr. Andrews, not long before his death, by whom it was greatly enlarged by the incorporation of much valuable information, derived mainly from the last edition of the Latin Grammar of Professor Zumpt. It will therefore be found to be much improved as a repository of the principles and facts of the Latin language.—Thomas A. Thacher, Professor of Latin in Yale College, New Haven.

It is unnecessary to commend a Latin Grammar, which has been for twenty years in common use in our Colleges, and has generally superseded all others. The Revised Edition contains the results of the labors of Dr. Andrews, during all that time, on various Latin Classics, and on his great Latin Lexicon; and cannot, therefore, but be greatly improved.—Edward Robinson, D. D., LL. D., Prof of Biblical Literature in Union Theol. Seminary, New York City.

I regard Andrews' and Stoddard's new Latin Grammar, as an exceedingly valuable work. It evidently contains the results of the Author's careful and long continued in vestigation, and from its fulness, clearness, and accuracy, will undoubtedly become the Standard Latin Grammar of this Continent. In Western New York, we have for a long time been using the earlier editions, and they have rapidly won upon the public regard. This new edition will give it a stronger claim upon our favor. It must rapidly supersede all others. I can unhesitatingly recommend the New Grammar as the best in use.—Levis H. Clark, Principal of Sodus Academy, Wayne Co., N. Y.

I have looked over the new edition of the Grammar with great interest. It is now eighteen years since I introduced it into this college, and I have never felt inclined to change it for any other. The revision, without changing its general character, has added greatly to its fulness and completeness. It is now fully equal to Zumpt's in these respects, and far superior to it in adaptation to the class room. There is no other school grammar that can pretend to compare with it. I have introduced the new edition here, and have no idea I shall ever wish to substitute another. The services of Prof. Andrews in the cause of classical learning in the United States cannot be over estimated.—M. Sturgus, Professor in Hanover College, Indiana.

I am willing to say that I am decidedly in favor of Andrews' Latin Series. — Geo. Gale, Galesville University, Wisconsin.

Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar I consider decidedly the best Latin Grammar ever published.—Ransom Norton, North Livermore, Maine.

Such a work as Andrews and Stoddard's Revised Latin Grammar needs no recommendation, it speaks for itself.—A. A. Keen, Professor of Greek and Latin, Tufts College, Medford, Ms.

I have examined the revised edition of Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar, and think it a complete success. I see it has all of Zumpt's merits and none of his defects, and welcome its advent with great pleasure.—James M. Whiton, Hopkins Grammar School, New Haven, Conn.

I have examined Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar, and say, without hesitation, that the principles of the Latin language can be more easily and systematically acquired from it than any work I have ever seen. The arrangement and simplicity of its terms are such as to make it easily comprehended by the beginner, while, at the same time, its copionsness is sufficient for the most advanced student. The author has evidently noted and profited by the defects in this respect of most of the Latin Grammars now in use.—C. W. Field, Mauch Chunk. Pa.

The superior merits of the original work are too well known and appreciated to need any commendation from me. I have had some means of knowing how great pains and labor Dr. Andrews has bestowed upon this final revision and improvement of the work, and, therefore, was not unprepared to find its acknowledged excellence materially increased, and I do not hesitate to say, that its value has been greatly enhanced, and that it has been brought as near as practicable to the present state of philological science.—

John D. Philbrick, Superintendent of Public Schools, city of Boston.

I have looked the Grammar through with much care and a great degree of satisfaction, and I unhesitatingly pronounce it superior to any Latin Grammar in method and manner of discussion, and happily adapted to the wants of both teachers and pupils.—J. W. Simonds, Principal of New England Chr. stian Institute, Andorer, N. II.

NEW SERIES OF LATIN SCHOOL BOOKS.

We have lately introduced the Revised Edition, and regard it as a great improvement open former editions. We shall use it exclusively in future.—E. Flint, Jr., Principal of Lee High School.

After a due examination. I am happy to state that the Author has admirably accomplished the objects which he aimed at in making this last revision. He has added much that is in the highest degree valuable without materially changing the arrangement of the original work. The work appears to me well adapted to the daily use of our Classical Schools, and I shall hereafter direct my classes to use it.—C. L. Cushman, Principal of Peabody High School, South Danvers, Ms.

The Revised Grammar seems to me greatly improved and to be every thing a scholar could wish.—Z. B. Sturgis, Charlestown, Indiana.

I have subjected the Revised Edition to the test of actual use in the recitation room, and am persuaded that in its present form it decidedly surpasses every other Latin Grammar in point of adaptation to the wants of students in our Academies, High Schools and Colleges.—William S. Palmer, Central High School, Cleaveland, Ohio.

I think Andrews' Series of Latin Works the most systematic and best arranged course I have ever seen,—and believe if our pupils would use them altogether, we should find them much better scholars. I shall use them wholly in my school.—A. C. Stockin, Principal of Monmouth Academy, Maine.

The examination of the Revised Edition has afforded me very great pleasure, and leads me to express the deep and sincere conviction that it is the most complete Grammar of the Latin language with which I am acquainted, and best adapted for ready consultation upon any subject connected with the study of Latin Authors. The paper, the typography, and the binding,—the whole style of publication—are such as to commend the good taste and judgment of the Publishers.—J. R. Boyd, Principal of Maplewood Young Ladies Institute, Pittsfeld, Mass.

I find the Revised Edition to be just what is needed for a Latin Grammar,—clear, comprehensive, yet concise, in the subject matter. I shall introduce it as a permanent textbook.—B. F. Dake, Principal of Clyde High School, Wayne Co., N. Y.

I have carefully examined your Revised Edition throughout, particularly the Corrections and Additions. It now appears to me all that can be desired. It seems like parting with a familiar friend to lay aside the old edition, with its many excellencies, and adopt the new, but I shall cheerfully make the sacrifice for the greater benefit that will accrue to those commencing the study of Latin from time to time.—J. H. Graham, Principal of Northfield Institution, Vermont.

I thought before that the old edition was entitled to the appellation of "The Latin Grammar," but I perceive its value has been much increased by the numerous emendations and additions of Prof. Andrews. The Grammar is now fitted to be a complete hand-book for the Latin scholar during his whole course.—E. W Johnson, Canton Acad emy, Canton, N. Y.

I unhesitatingly pronounce the Revised Edition of Andrews and Stoddard's Latiz. Grammar the best Grammar of the Latin Language, and shall certainly use my influence in its behalf.—H. E. J. Clute, Edinboro', Re.

After a thorough examination, I have no hesitation in pronouncing it the best Latin Grammar for the purposes of the recitation room that I have ever examined. In the present form it ought certainly to displace a large majority of the Grammars in common use. Its rules of Syntax are expressed with accuracy and precision, and are in fact, what all rules ought to be, reliable guides to the learner.—James W. Andrews, Principal of Hopewell Academy, Penn.

Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar, in the arrangement and adaptation to the learner, has excelled all others, and the revised edition is certainly a great improvement, and I do believe is better adapted to the wants of the student than any other. The whole seems to be critically revised and corrected. Prof. Andrews was truly the student's benefactor.—M. L. Severance, North Troy, Vermont.

It gives me great pleasure to bear my testimony to the superior merits of the Latin Grammar edited by Professor Andrews and Mr. Stoddard. I express most cheerfully, unhesitatingly, and decidedly, my preference of this Grammar to that of Adam, which has, for so long a time, kept almost undisputed sway in our schools.—Dr. C. Beck, Cambridge.

I know of no Grammar published in this country, which promises to answer so well the purposes of elementary classical instruction, and shall be glad to see it introduced into our best schools.—Charles K. Dillavaay, Boston.

Your new Latin Grammar appears to me much better suited to the use of students than any other grammar I am acquainted with.—Prof. Wm. M. Holland, Hartford, Ct.

NEW SERIES OF LATIN SCHOOL BOOKS.

I have adopted the Latin Grammar of Andrews and Stoddard in the school under my charge, believing it better adapted, upon the whole, for elementary instruction than any similar work which I have examined. It combines the improvements of the recent German works on the subject with the best features of that old favorite of the schools, Dr. Adam's Latin Grammar.—Henry Drister, Professor of Latin in Columbia College.

A careful review of the Revised Edition of Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar, shows that this favorite text-book still continues to deserve the affections and confidence of Teachers and Pupils, incorporating as it does the results of Prof. Andrews' own constant study for many years with the investigations of English and German Philologists. No other Grammar is now so well fitted to meet the wants of the country as the rapid demand for it will show beyond doubt.—A. S. Hartvell, University of St. Louis.

This Grammar of the Latin Language, now universally pronounced the very best, is greatly improved by the corrections, revisions and additions of this revised edition. We do not believe a text-book was ever written which introduced so great an improvement in the method of teaching Latin, as this has done. We wish the revised edition the greatest success, which we are sure it merits.—Rhode Island Schodmaster.

I have examined your revised edition with considerable care, and do not hesitate to pronounce it a great improvement upon the old editions, and as near perfection as we are likely to have. I have no doubt it will come into general use.—A. Williams, Professor of Latin, Peferson College, Canonsburg, Pa.

I have been much interested in the Revised Edition. The improvement is very striking, and I shall no longer think of giving it up and putting Zumpt in its place. I am much pleased with the great improvement in the typography. You have given to our schools a book fifty per cent better in every respect, and I trust you will have your reward in largely increased sales.—William J. Rolfe, Master of Oliver High School, Lauvence, Ms.

I can with much pleasure say that your Grammar seems to me much better adapted to the present condition and wants of our schools than any one with which I am acquainted, and to supply that which has long been wanted—a good Latin Grammar for common use.—F. Gardner, Principal of Boston Latin School.

The Latin Grammar of Andrews and Stoddard is deserving, in my opinion, of the approbation which so many of our ablest teachers have bestowed upon it. It is believed that, of all the grammars before the public, this has greatly the advantage, in regard both to the excellence of its arrangement, and the accuracy and copiousness of its information.—H. B. Hackett, Prof. of Biblical Literature in Newton Theological Seminary.

The universal favor with which this Grammar is received was not unexpected. It will bear a thorough and discriminating examination. In the use of well-defined and expressive terms, especially in the syntax, we know of no Latin or Greek grammar which is to be compared to this.—American Quarterly Register.

These works will furnish a series of elementary publications for the study of Latin along there in advance of any thing which has hitherto appeared, either in this country or in England.—American Biblical Repository.

I cheerfully and decidedly bear testimony to the superior excellence of Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar to any manual of the kind with which I am acquainted. Every part bears the impress of a careful compiler. The principles of syntax are happily developed in the rules, whilst those relating to the moods and tenses supply an important deficiency in our former grammars. The rules of prosody are also clearly and fully exhibited.—Rev. Lyman Coleman, Manchester, Vt.

This work bears evident marks of great care and skill, and ripe and accurate scholarship in the authors. We cordially commend it to the student and teacher.—Biblical Repository.

Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar is what I expected it would be—an excellent book. We cannot hesitate a moment in laying aside the books now in use, and introducing this.—Rev. J. Penney, D. D., New York.

Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar bears throughout evidence of original and thorough investigation and sound criticism. It is, in my apprehension, so far as simplicity is concerned, on the one hand, and philosophical views and sound scholarship on the other, far preferable to other grammars; a work at the same time highly creditable to its authors and to our country.—Professor A. Packard, Bowdoin College, Maine.

I do not hesitate to pronounce Andrews and Stoddard's Latin Grammar superior to any other with which I am acquainted. I have never seen, any where, a greater amount of valuable matter compressed within limits equally narrow.—Hon. John Hall, Principal of Ellington School, Conn.

We have no hesitation in pronouncing this Grammar decidedly superior to any now in use.—Boston Recorder.

Dr. Robinson's Gesenius.

Robinson's Hebrew Lexicon. Sixth Edition, Revised and Stereotyped. A Hebrew and English Lexicon of the Old Testament, including the Biblical Chaldee. Translated from the Latin of William Gesenius, late Professor of Theology in the University of Halle-Wittemberg. By Edward Robinson, D. D., LL. D., Professor of Biblical Literature in the Union Theological Seminary, New York. A new edition, with corrections and large additions, partly furnished by the author in manuscript, and partly condensed from his larger Thesaurus, as compiled by Roediger. These corrections and additions were made by Dr. Gesenius, during an interval of several years, while carrying his Thesaurus through the press, and were transcribed and furnished by him expressly for this edition. They will be found to be very numerous, every page having been materially corrected and enlarged, and a large number of articles having been re-written. It is printed on a new type, the face and cut of which is very beautiful, and has been highly commended and approved.

Dr. Robinson had already been trained to the business of lexicographical labor, when he began the translation of the present work. He is, in an uncommon degree, master of his own native tongue. He has diligence, patience, perseverance—yea, the iron diligence of Gesenius himself. For aught that I have yet been able to discover, all that can reasonably be expected or desired, has been done by the translator; not only as to rendering the work into English, but as to the manner and the accuracy of printing. The work will speak for itself, on the first opening. It does honor, in its appearance, to editor, printers, and publishers. I have only to add my hearty wish, that its beautiful white pages may be consulted and turned over, until they become thoroughly worn with the hands of the purchasers.—Prof. Stuart, in the Biblical Repository.

There is no lexicon in English that can be put on a level with Robinson's. I recommend the present as the best Lexicon of the Hebrew and Biblical Chaldee which an English scholar can have—Rev. Dr. Samuel Davidson, of London.

Gesenius' Lexicon is known wherever Hebrew is studied. On the merits of this work criticism has long ago pronounced its verdict of approval.—London Jewish Chronicle.

This is a very beautiful and complete edition of the best Hebrew Lexicon ever yet produced. Gesenius, as a Hebrew philologist, is unequalled.—London Clerical Journa.

This is decidedly the most complete edition of Gesenius' Manual Hebrew Lexicon.— London Journal of Sacred Literature.

Robinson's Harmony of the Gospels, in Greck.

A Harmony of the Four Gospels, in Greek, according to the text of Hahn. Newly arranged, with Explanatory Notes, by Edward Robinson, D. D., LL. D., Professor of Biblical Literature in the Union Theological Seminary, New York. Revised Edition.

This work of L. Robinson confines itself to the legitimate sphere of a Harmony of the Gospels; and we do not hesitate to say that in this sphere it will be found to be all that a Harmony need or can be. The original text is printed with accuracy and elegance It is a feast to the eyes to look upon a page of so much beauty. Its arrangement is distinguished for simplicity and convenience. No one will ever be able to comprehend the relations of the Gospels to each other, or acquire an exact knowledge of their contents, unless he studies them with the aid of a Harmony. The present work furnises in this respect just the facility which is needed; and we trust that among its other effects, it will serve to direct attention more strongly to the importance of this mode of study.— Prof. Hackett, of Neuton Theological Seminary.

Palmer's Arithmetic.

Arithmetic, Oral and Written, practically applied by means of Suggestive Questions. By Thomas H. Palmer, Author of the Prize Essay on Education, entitled the "Teacher's Manual," "The Moral Instructor," etc."

Robinson's Harmony of the Gospels, in English.

A Harmony of the Four Gospels, in English, according to the common version; newly arranged, with Explanatory Notes. By EDWARD ROBINSON, D. D., LL. D.

The object of this work is to obtain a full and consecutive account of all the facts of our Lord's life and ministry. In order to do this, the four gospel narratives have been so brought together, as to present as nearly as possible the true chronological order, and where the same transaction is described by more than one writer, the different accounts are placed side by side, so as to fill out and supply each other. Such an arrangement affords the only full and perfect survey of all the testimony relating to any and every portion of our Lord's history. The evangelists are thus made their own best interpreters; and it is shown how wonderfully they are supplementary to each other in minute as well as in important particulars, and in this way is brought out fully and clearly the fundamental characteristics of their testimony, unity in diversity. To bible classes, Sabbath schools, and all who love and seek the truth in their closets and in their families, this work will be found a useful assistant.

I have used "Robinson's English Harmony" in teaching a Bible Class. The result, in my own mind, is a conviction of the great merits of this work, and its adaptation to impart the highest life and interest to Bible Class exercises, and generally to the diligent study of the Gospel. It is much to be desired that every one accustomed to searching the Scriptures should have this invaluable aid.—Rev. Dr. Skinner, New York.

Bobinson's Dictionary of the Bible.

Robinson's Bible Dictionary. A Dictionary for the use of Schools and Young Persons. By Edward Robinson, D. D., LL. D. Illustrated with Engravings on wood, and Maps of Canaan, Judea, Asia Minor, and the Peninsula of Mount Sinai. Idumea, etc.

Elements of Astronomy.

The Elements of Astronomy; or The World as it is and as it Appears. By the author of "Theory of Teaching," "Edward's First Lessons in Grammar," etc. Revised in manuscript by George P. Bond, E-q., of the Cambridge Observatory, to whom the author is also indebted for superintending its passage through the press.

Scott's Family Bible.

Scott's Family Bible. Boston Stereotype Edition. 6 vols. royal 8vo., containing all the Notes, Practical Observations, Marginal References, and Critical Remarks, as in the most approved London edition, with a line engraved likeness of the Author, Family Record, etc.

This Edition is the only one that has, or can have, the benefit of the final Additions and Emendations of the Author. The extent of these may be judged from the fact that upwards of Four Hundred Pages of letter-press were added; and as they consist chiefly of Critical Remarks, their importance to the Biblical student is at once apparent. The Preface to the entire work contains an elaborate and compendious view of the evidences that the Holy Scriptures were given by inspiration of God. Prefixed to each Book, both in the Old and New Testament, is an Introduction, or statement of its purport and intent. There are also copious Marginal References, with various Tables, a Chronological Index, and a copious Topical Index.

GRAMMAR

OF THE

LATIN LANGUAGE;

FOR THE

USE OF SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

BY

E. A. ANDREWS AND S. STODDARD.

THE SIXTY-FIFTH EDITION.

REVISED WITH CORRECTIONS AND ADDITIONS,

BY E. A. ANDREWS, LL. D.

BOSTON:

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PREFACE.

As more than twenty years have elapsed, since the first publication of this Grammar, it can scarcely be necessary, in offering to the public a revised edition of the work, to make more than a passing allusion to its original plan or to the circumstances to which it owed its origin.

For some years previous to the date of its publication, the progress of classical learning in Europe, and particularly in Germany, had been such, as plainly to indicate the necessity of a corresponding advance in the manuals of Latin grammar employed in the schools of this country. Their deficiencies had indeed become so apparent, that various attempts had already been made to furnish a remedy by means of translations of German grammars; but none of these, however excellent in many respects, had seemed to be fully adapted to the purpose for which they were intended.

To unite the acknowledged excellencies of the older English manuals and of the more recent German grammars was the special aim of the authors of this work; and to this end their attention was directed, first to the preparation of more extended rules for the pronunciation of the language, secondly to a clearer exposition of its inflectional changes, thirdly to the proper basis of its syntax, and fourthly to greater precision in its rules and definitions.

The system of rules for the division and accentuation of Latin words, prepared in pursuance of the plan which has just been specified, was accordingly more copious than any previously found in the Latin grammars in common use in this country. For the purpose also of preventing the formation of erroneous habits of pronunciation in the early part of the student's course, the penultimate quantities of all Latin words occurring in the Grammar were carefully marked, unless determinable by some general rule, and the paradigms were divided and accented in such a manner as to indicate their true pronunciation.

In their treatment of Latin etymology, the authors aimed to render its study less a mere exercise of memory, and in a greater degree an efficient aid in the general cultivation of the mental powers. The principal means adopted for this purpose consisted in the practical distinction, every where made in treating inflected words, between the root, or ground-form, and the termination.

The third prominent peculiarity of the original work was its direct derivation of the rules of Syntax from the logical analysis of sentences, and its distinct specification of the particular use of each of the several words of which a sentence is composed. This method of treating syntax—a method previously unknown in the schools of this country—has, since that period, been extensively adopted, and in some instances greatly extended, particularly in a portion of the English grammars recently published in this country, and has probably contributed more to the advancement of grammatical science, than any other innovation of modern times.

The errors noticed in the original work have been corrected, as successive editions have issued from the press, but no opportunity has occurred, until the present, of thoroughly revising it in every part. Two years of continuous labor have now been devoted to its revision, and to the purpose of rendering it conformable in all respects to the advanced position which it originally aspired to occupy.

In all the modifications which have now been made, I have aimed to accomplish these two purposes—to preserve, as far as possible, the identity of the work, and at the same time to bring it as near, as should be practicable, to the present state of philological science. Hence, while I have made no changes either in language or arrangement, but such as appeared to me quite necessary. I have omitted none which logical accuracy or requisite fulness of explanation seemed to demand. In doing even this it soon became evident, that the changes and additions must be more númerous, than would well consist with the convenient use of the old and the new editions in the same classes. Though not insensible of the trouble occasioned to the teacher by alterations in a familiar text-book, I could not but suppose, that such modifications as the progress of the last twenty years had rendered necessary, would still be welcomed by him, notwithstanding the personal inconvenience arising from the disturbance of his previous associations. To his pupils, who will have known no other form of the Grammar, than that in which it now appears, the work, it is believed, will not only be as easy of comprehension in its new, as in its old form, but in its practical application far more satisfactory.

Of the minor changes and additions occurring on almost every page, and even of the occasional rearrangement of small portions of the materials, it is unnecessary to speak particularly. The student familiar with former editions will at once detect these slight modifications, and note them in his memory for future use; and though he may fail to find a rule, exception, or remark on the page where he has been wont to see it, he will still meet with it in the same relative position,—in the same section and subdivision of the section in which it formerly appeared.

In the department of Orthoepy will now be found some account of the Continental mode of pronouncing Latin; and, by means of the joint exhibition of

this and of the English methods, the student will be able to use the Grammar with equal facility, whether choosing to adhere to the usual pronunciation of English and American scholars, or preferring that of the continental schools.

In the Etymology of nouns, no other alteration need be specified, except the introduction, in the third declension, of "Rules for forming the nominative singular from the root." These are copied, in a modified form, from the editor's First Latin Book. In themselves they are of considerable utility in showing the mutual relations between the sounds of certain letters, and they are also closely connected with corresponding changes in some of the verbal roots. In the Etymology of adjectives, besides the minor modifications already alluded to, a few changes in arrangement have been made in those sections which relate to Comparison. To pronouns have been added some remarks on Pronominal Adjectives, which seemed to require a more particular notice, than they had heretofore received, both in their relation to each other and to the Adverbial Correlatives. The Etymology of particles has been treated somewhat more fully than in former editions—a fulness especially observable in relation to adverbs and conjunctions, and which was rendered necessary by the more extended treatment of those particles in the revised Syntax.

In almost every section of the Syntax the student will meet with modifications and especially with additions, which, as in other parts of the work, are introduced in such a manner as seldom to interfere with the references made to former editions in the series based upon this Grammar. The principal exception to the latter remark is to be found in sections 247—251, which relate to certain uses of the ablative.

A comparison of the Prosody in the present and former editions will show, that it has been revised with minute care in every part. Similar attention has also been given to the Appendix, in which will be found some additions relating to Roman Money, Weights and Measures. For the greater convenience of the student the Index in this edition has been much enlarged.

In conclusion, I would briefly indicate the principal sources from which have been derived the various additions and corrections, to which allusion has been made. In preparing the original work, the earlier editions of Zumpt's Grammar were consulted at almost every step, and while frequent use was made of the grammars of Scheller, Grant, Adam, Ruddiman, Hickie and others, the treatises of Zumpt were even then regarded as the most valuable embodiment of the principles of Latin philology. It was therefore natural and almost unavoidable, in revising a work which had in so many points received both its form and its substance from the earlier labors of that distinguished grammarian, to look to his maturer works for many of the materials by means of which our original sketch should be made more complete. Accordingly I have constantly consulted the last edition c his Grammar, translated by Dr. Schmitz, and have freely incorporated in this edition such

of its materials, as were suited to my purpose. In most cases his ideas have been either expressed in my own language, or in language so modified as to suit the general plan of my work. In the Etymology, and not unfrequently in the Syntax also, the copious Grammar of Ramshorn has furnished valuable materials; and the Grammars of Key and of Kühner, the latter translated by Prof. Champlin, have been consulted with profit and satisfaction. In the sections comprising conjunctions, and especially in those relating to grammatical analysis. I am happy to acknowledge my indebtedness to Prof. S. S. Greene of Brown University. To the sources already specified I must add the Latin Lexicon of Dr. Freund, in editing a translation of which I had frequent occasion to note such matters as promised to be of utility in the revision of this Grammar. The additions in the Appendix relating to Roman money, etc., are taken principally from Dr. Riddle's translation of Dr. Freund's School Dictionary. To these references I will only add, that such other notes relating to Latin philology, as I have made during the past twenty years, so far as they were adapted to my purpose, have either been used in my former occasional corrections, or are incorporated in the present edition.

In taking a final leave of the earliest of the elementary Latin works with which my name has been associated, and with which, in my own mind, must ever be connected the pleasant memory of my early friend and associate, Prof. Stoddard, I trust I shall be pardoned in commending it once more to the kind indulgence of the teachers of this country, and in expressing the hope that, in its present form, it will be deemed not altogether unworthy of a continuance of the favor which it has so long received. I cannot indeed venture to indulge the hope, that all the imperfections of the work have even now been removed, or that, in my attempts to render it more perfect, I may not sometimes have fallen into new errors; but this I can truly say, that since its first publication I have devoted much time to its revision, and have sought to manifest my sense of the kindness with which it has been received, by doing all in my power to render it less unworthy (f public 'avor.

E. A. ANDREWS.

New Britain, Conn., Oct., 1857.

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LATIN GRAMMAR.

- § 1. The Latin language is the language spoken by the ancient Romans. Latin Grammar teaches the principles of the Latin language. These relate,
 - 1. To its written characters;

2. To its pronunciation;

3. To the classification and derivation of its words;

4. To the construction of its sentences;

5. To the quantity of its syllables, and its versification.

The first part is called Orthography; the second, Orthoëpy; the third, Etymology; the fourth, Syntax; and the fifth, Prosody.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

- § 2. Orthography treats of the letters, and other characters of written language, and the proper mode of spelling words.
 - 1. The Latin alphabet consists of twenty-five letters. They have the same names as the corresponding characters in English. They are A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f; G, g; H, h; I, i; J, j; K, k; L, l; M, m; N, n; O, o; P, p; Q, q; R, r; S, s; T, t; U, u; V, v; X, x; Y, y; Z, z.

2. The Romans used only the capital letters.

3. I and j were anciently but one character, as were likewise u and v.
4. W is not found in Latin words, and k occurs only at the beginning of a few words before a, and even in these c is commonly used, except in their abbreviated form; as, K or Kal. for Kalendæ or Calendæ, the Calends.

5. Y and z are found only in words derived from the Greek.
6. H, though called a letter, only denotes a breathing, or aspiration.

DIVISION OF LETTERS.

§ 3. Letters are divided into vowels and consonants.

1. The vowels are .	\ldots $a, e, i, o, u, y.$
	[Liquids, l, m, n, r .
The consonants are divided into	Mutes, $\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Labials, } \dots p, b, f, v. \\ \text{Palatals, } \dots c, g, k, q, j. \\ \text{Linguals, } \dots t, d. \\ \end{array} \}$
	Sibilant, s. Double consonants, x, z.
	Aspirate, h.

2. X is equivalent to cs or gs; z to ts or ds; and, except in compound words, the double consonant is always written, instead of the letters which it represents. In some Greek words x is equivalent to chs.

DIPHTHONGS.

\$ 4. Two vowels, in immediate succession, in the same syllable, are called a diphthong.

The diphthongs are ae, ai, au, ei, eu, oe, oi, ua, ue, ui, uo, uu, and yi. Ae and oe are frequently written together, a, a.

PUNCTUATION.

§ 5. The only mark of punctuation used by the ancients was a point, which denoted pauses of different length, according as it was placed at the top, the middle, or the bottom of the line. The moderns use the same marks of punctuation, in writing and printing Latin, as in their own languages, and assign to them the same power.

Marks of quantity and of accent are sometimes found in Latin authors, espe-

cially in elementary works:-

- 1. There are three marks of quantity, viz. ~, -, *; the first denotes that the vowel over which it stands is short; the second, that it is long; the third, that it is doubtful, that is, sometimes long and sometimes short.
- 2. There are also three written accents—the acute ('), the grave ('), and the circumflex ('). These were used by the old grammarians to denote the rising and sinking of the voice in the Roman mode of pronouncing words. (See §§ 14 and 15.) In modern elementary Latin works, the acute marks the emphatic syllable of a word, (§ 16), the grave distinguishes certain particles from other words spelled in the same manner; as, qu o d, because; quo d, which; and the sircumflex is placed over certain penultimate and final syllables that are formed by contraction.

The diæresis (") denotes that the vowel over which it stands does not form a diphthong with the preceding vowel; as, aër, the air. It is used principally with ae, ai, and oe.

ОКТНОЁРҮ.

§ 6. Orthoëpy treats of the right pronunciation of words.

The ancient pronunciation of the Latin language being in a great measure lost, the learned, in modern times, have applied to it those principles which regulate the pronunciation of their own languages; and hence has arisen, in

different countries, a great diversity of practice.

The various systems now prevalent in Europe, may, however, be reduced to two—the Continental and the English—the former prevailing, with only slight diversities, in most of the countries of continental Europe, and the latter in England. Their principal difference is found in the pronunciation of the vowels and diphthongs, since, in both methods, the consonants are pronounced in nearly the same manner.

THE CONTINENTAL METHOD.

[According to this system, each of the vowels, when standing at the end of a syllable, is considered as having but one sound, which, however, may be either short or long. Thus,

REMARK. These sounds are sometimes slightly modified when followed by a consonant in the same syllable.]

THE ENGLISH METHOD.

In the following rules for dividing and pronouncing Latin words, regard has been had both to English analogy and to the laws of Latin accentuation. See § 14 and 15. The basis of this system is that which is exhibited by Walker in his "Pronunciation of Greek and Latin Proper Names." To pronounce correctly, according to this method, a knowledge of the following particulars is requisite:—

1. Of the sounds of the letters in all their combinations.

Of the quantities of the penultimate and final syllables.
 Of the place of the accent, both primary and secondary.

4. Of the mode of dividing words into syllables.

OF THE SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

I. OF THE VOWELS.

§ 7. A vowel, when ending an accented syllable, has always its long English sound; as,

pa'-ter, de'-dit, vi'-vus, to'-tus, tu'-ba, Ty'-rus; in which the accented vowels are pronounced as in fatal, metre, vital, total, tutor, tyrant.

- 1. A, at the end of an unaccented syllable, has nearly the sound of a in father or in ah, but less distinct or prolonged; as, mu'-sa, e-pis'-tŏ-la, a-cer'-bus, Pal-a-mē'-des; pronounced mu'-zah, etc.
- 2. E, o, and u, at the end of an unaccented syllable, have nearly the same sound as when accented, but shorter and less distinct; as, re'-te, vo'-lo, u'-su-i.
 - 3. (a.) I final has always its long sound; as, qui, au'-di, le-ga'-ti.

 REM. 1. The final i of tibi and sibi has its short sound.
- (b.) I, at the end of an unaccented syllable not final, has an indistinct sound like short e; as, Fa'-bi-us (fa'-be-us), phi-los'-ŏ-phus (phe-los'-o-phus).
- Exc. I has its long sound in the first syllable of a word the second of which is accented, when it either stands alone before a consonant, as in *i-do'-ne-us*, or ends a syllable before a vowel, as in *fi-ē'-bam*.
 - REM. 2. Y is always pronounced like i in the same situation.
- § S. A vowel has always its *short* English sound, when followed by a consonant in the same syllable; as,

mag'-nus, reg'-num, fin'-go, hoc, fus'-tis, cyg'nus, in which the vowels are pronounced as in magnet, seldom, finish, copy, lustre, symbol.

EXCEPTION 1. A, when it follows qu before dr and rt, has the sounds of a in quadrant and in quart; as, qua'-dro, quad-ra-gin'-ta, quar'-tus. In other connections a before r has the sound of a in part; as, par-ti-ceps, ar'-ma; except when followed by another r, as in par-ri-ci'-da.

- Exc. 2. Es, at the end of a word, is pronounced like the English word ease; as, ig'-nes, au'-des.
- Exc. 3. Os, at the end of plural cases, is pronounced like ose in dose; as, nos, il'-los, dom'-i-nos.
- Exc. 4. Post is pronounced like the same word in English; so also are its compounds; as, post'-quam, post'-e-a; but not its derivatives; as, pos-trē'-mus.
- Exc. 5. E, i and y before final r, or before r in a syllable not final, when followed in the next syllable by any other consonant, except r, have the sound of e and i in the English words her and fir; as, fer, fer ti-lis; hir, hir-cus, myr-lus.

II. OF THE DIPHTHONGS.

- § 9. Ae and oe are always diphthongs unless separated by diæresis. They are pronounced as e would be in the same situation; as, α' -tas, α' -tas, α' -tas, α' -trum.
- 1. Ai, ei, oi, and yi, usually have the vowels pronounced separately. When they are accented, and followed by another vowel, the i is pronounced like initial y, and the vowel before it has its long sound; as, Maia, Pompeius, Troia, Harpyia; pronounced Mx'-ya, Pom-pe'-yus, Tro'-ya, Har-py'-ya.

REMARK 1. Ei, when a diphthong and not followed by another vowel, is pronounced like i; as in hei, om'-neis.

2. Au, when a diphthong, is pronounced like aw; as, laus, au'-rum, pronounced laws, etc.

REM. 2. In the termination of Greek proper names, the letters au are pronounced separately; as, Men-e-lā-us.

3. Eu, when a diphthong, is pronounced like long u; as, heu, Or-pheus (or'-phuse), Eu-phru-tes.

REM. 3. The letters eu are pronounced separately in the terminations eus and eum of Latin nouns, and of all adjectives, whether Greek or Latin, except neuter; as, ur'-ce-us, me'-us, me'-um, e'-um. In other situations they form a diphthong; as, Eu-rō'-pa, Thē'-seus, e'-heu.

4. Ua, ue, ui, uo, uu, when diphthongs, are pronounced like wa, we, etc.; as, lin'-gua, que'-ror, sua'-de-o, quo'-tus, e'-quus. They are always diphthongs after q, usually also after g, and often after s.

5. Ui in cui and huic, when monosyllables, is pronounced like wi, and by some like long i.

III. OF THE CONSONANTS.

§ 10. The consonants have, in general, the same power in Latin as in English words.

The following cases, however, require particular attention.

C.

C has the sound of s before e, i, and y, and the diphthongs a, a, and eu; as, ce'-do, ci'-bus, Ca'-sar, ca'-lum, ceu, Cy'-rus. In other situations, it has the sound of k; as, Ca'-to, cru'-dus, lac.

1. Ch has always the sound of k; as, charta (kar'-tah), machina

(mak'-ĕ-nah).

Exc. C, following or ending an accented syllable, before i followed by a vowel, and also before cu and yo, has the sound of sh; as, socia (so'-she-ah), caduceus (ca-du'she-us), Sicyon (sish'-e-on).

REMARK. In the pronunciation of the ancient Romans, the hard sound of $\mathfrak c$ and $\mathfrak g$ seems to have been retained in all their combinations.

G.

G has its soft sound, like j, before e, i, and y, and the diphthongs α and α ; as ge'-nus, ag'-i-lis, Gy'-ges, $G\alpha$ - $t\ddot{u}$ -li. In other situations, it has its hard sound, as in bag, go.

Exc. When g comes before g soft, it coalesces with it in sound; as, agger (aj'-er), exaggeratio (ex-aj-e-ra'-she-o).

S.

§ 11. S has generally its hissing sound, as in so, thus.

Exc. 1. (a.) When si followed by a vowel is immediately preceded by a consonant in an accented syllable, the s has the sound of sh; as, Per-si-a (per-she-a).

(b.) But when si or zi followed by a vowel is immediately preceded by an accented vowel, the s or z has the sound of zh; as, As-pa'-si-a (as-pa'-zhe-ah), Sa-ba'-zi-a (sa-ba'-zhe-ah).

Note. In a few proper names, s preceded by a vowel in an accented syllable and followed by i before another vowel, has the sound, not of zh, but of sh; as, A'-si-a (a'-sh-a): so Sosia, Theodosia, Lysias.

Exc. 2. S, at the end of a word, after e, α , au, b, m, n, and r, has the sound of z; as, res, as, laus, trabs, hi-oms, lens, Mars.

English analogy has also occasioned the s in Cx'-sar, cx-su'-ra, mi'-ser, ms'-sa, re-su'-u-um, cau'-sa, ro'-sa, and their derivatives, and in some other words, to take the sound of z. Cx-sa-re'-a, and the oblique cases of Cx-sar, retain the hissing sound; so likewise the compounds of trans; as, trans'-e-o.

T.

§ 12. 1. T, following or ending an accented syllable before is followed by a vowel, has the sound of sh; as, ratio (ra'-she-o), Sulpitius (sul-pish'-e-us).

Exc. T, in such case, retains its hard sound (a) after s, t, or x; as, Sal-lus-ti-us, Brut'-ti-i, Sex'-ti-us: (b) in proper names in tion and tyon; as, Eu-ryt'-i-on, Am-phic'-ty-on; and (c) in old infinitives in er; as, flec'-ti-er, for flec'-ti.

X.

2. X, at the beginning of a syllable, has the sound of z; at the end, that of ks; as, Xenophon (zen'-o-phon); axis (ak'-sis).

Exc. 1. When ex or ux is followed by a vowel in an accented syllable, x has the sound of gz; as, exemplum (eg-zem'-plum), ux-o'-ri-us (ug-zo'-re-us), inexhaustus (in-eg-zaus'-tus).

Exc. 2. X, ending an accented syllable before i followed by a vowel, and before u ending a syllable, has the power of ksh; as, noxius (nok'-she-us), pexui (pek'-shu-i).

REMARK. Ch and ph, before th, in the beginning of a word, are silent; as, Chthonia (tho'-ni-a), Phihiu (thi'-a). Also in the following combinations of consonants, in the beginning of words of Greek origin, the first letter is not sounded:—mne-mon'-i-ca, gna'-vus, tnie'-sis, Cte'-si-as, Ptol-e-na'-us, psai'-lo.

OF THE QUANTITIES OF THE PENULTIMATE AND FINAL SYLLABLES.

- § 13. 1. The quantity of a syllable is the relative time occupied in pronouncing it.
- 2. A short syllable requires, in pronunciation, half the time of a long one.

REM. The penultimate syllable, or penult, is the last syllable but one. The antepenult is the last syllable but two.

The quantity of a syllable is generally to be learned from the rules of prosody, §§ 282—801; but for the convenience of the student, the following general rules are here inserted:—

3. A vowel before another vowel or h is short.

4. Diphthongs, not beginning with u, are long.

- 5. A vowel before x, z, j, or any two consonants, except a mute followed by a liquid, is long by position, as it is called.
- 6. A vowel naturally short before a mute followed by a liquid is common, i. e. either long or short.

In this Grammar, when the quantity of a penult is determined by one of the preceding rules, it is not marked; in other cases, except in dissyllables, the proper mark is written over its vowel.

To pronounce Latin words correctly, it is necessary to ascertain the quantities of their last two syllables only; and the rules for the quantities of final syllables would, for this purpose, be unnecessary, but for the occasional addition of enclities. As these are generally monosyllables, and, for the purpose of accentuation, are considered as parts of the words to which they are annexed, they cause the final syllable of the original word to become the penult of the compound. But as the enclities begin with a consonant, the final vowels of all words ending with a consonant, if previously short, are, by the addition of an enclitic, made long by position. It is necessary, therefore, to learn the quantities of those final syllables only which end with a vowel.

OF ACCENTUATION.

I. OF LATIN ACCENTS.

- § 14. 1. Accent, in Latin, signifies the rising and falling of the voice in pronouncing the syllables of a Latin word. It is a general rule of the Latin language, that every word has its accent. The enclitics, however, have no accent of their own, but they modify the accent of the words to which they are annexed, and prepositions lose their accent, when they precede the cases which they govern.
- they govern.

 2. The Latin language has three accents, the acute ('), or rising tone, the grave ('), or falling tone, and the circumflex (^), composed of the acute and the grave, i. e. of the rising and the falling tone.
- 3. A monosyllable, when short by nature, takes the acute, when long by nature, the circumflex accent; as, pix, $\acute{e}t$, $p\acute{a}rs$; $d\mathring{o}s$, $j\acute{b}s$, $sp\acute{e}s$.
- 4. In words of two syllables, the penult is always accented; as, $p\ddot{a}$ /ter, $m\ddot{a}$ -ter, pen-na.
- Rem. 1. Words of two syllables have the circumflex accent, when the vowel of the penult is naturally long and that of the last syllable short; as, $R\bar{o}$ - $m\bar{a}$, $m\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{c}$, $i\bar{u}$ - $r\bar{s}$; if otherwise, they have the acute; as, $h\bar{o}'$ - $m\bar{o}$, $d\bar{e}'\bar{a}s$, $R\bar{o}'$ - $m\bar{a}$ (abl.), and ar'- $t\bar{e}$, in which a is long only by position.
- 5. In words of more than two syllables, if the *penult* is *long*, it is accented; but if it is *short*, the accent is on the *antepenult*; as, *a-mi'-cus*, *dom'-i-nus*.
- Rem. 2. When the accent of a word of more than two syllables falls upon the penult, it may be either the circumflex or the acute according as the last syllable is short or long. The antepenult can take no accent except the acute, and in no case can the accent be drawn farther back than to the antepenult.
- Exc. Vocatives of the second declension in *i*, instead of *ie*, from nominatives in *ius*, and genitives in *i*, instead of *ii*, are accented as they would be, if the rejected letters were annexed, i. e. with the acute upon the penult, even when it is short; as, *Vir-yil-i*; *Vin-le'-ri*, *in-yb'-ni*. So, also, the compounds of *facto* with words which are not prepositions; as, *cal-e-fà'-cit*, *tep-e-fà'-cit*.
- § 15. If the penult is *common*, the accent, in prose, is upon the *antepenult*; as, *vol'-ă-cris*, *phar'-ă-tra*, *ib'-ă-que*: but genitives in *ius*, in which *i* is common, accent their *penult* in prose; as *u-nă'-us*, *is-ti'-us*.

REM. 3. All the syllables of a Latin word, except that on which the acute or circumflex accent falls, are supposed to have the grave accent, and were pronounced with the lower tone.

1. The rules for the accentuation of compound and simple words

are the same; as, se'-cum, sub'-e-o. .

2. In accentuation, the enclitics que, ne, ve, and also those which are annexed to pronouns,* are accounted constituent parts of the words to which they are subjoined; as, i'-ta, i'-a-que; vi'-rum, vi-rum'-que.

II. OF ENGLISH ACCENTS.

§ 16. Accent, in English, is a particular stress of voice upon certain syllables of words. Cf. § 5, 2.

According to the English method of pronouncing Latin, a word may have two, three, or even four accents. That accent which is nearest to the termination of the word, and which always corresponds in position with the Latin accent, is called the primary or principal accent, and the secondary accent is that which next precedes the primary. The third and fourth accents, in like manner, precede the secondary, and are subject in all respects to the same rules as, pa'-ter, mā'-ter, ser-mā'-nes, dom'-i-nis; pe-ric'-i-lum, con''-ju-ra'-ti-o, op'''-por-tu'-ni-tā'-tes, ex-er''''-ci-ta''-ti-on''-i-bus'-que.

1. If only two syllables precede the primary accent, the secondary accent is on the first; as, mod"-e-rā-tus, tol"-e-rab'-ĭ-lis.

2. If three or four syllables stand before the primary accent, the secondary accent is placed, sometimes on the first, and sometimes on the second syllable; as, de-mon"-stra-ban'-tur, ad"-o-les-cen'-ti-a.

3. Some words which have only four syllables before the primary accent, and all which have more than four, have three accents; as, mod"-e-ra"-ti-o-nis, tol"-e-ra-bil"-i-o-rem, ex-er"-ci-ta"-ti-o-nis.

DIVISION OF WORDS INTO SYLLABLES.

VOWELS.

§ 17. Every Latin word is to be divided into as many syllables, as it has separate vowels and diphthongs.

REMARK. In the following rules, the term vowel includes not only single vowels, but diphthongs; and when a particular vowel is mentioned, a diphthong, also, ending with that vowel is intended.

CONSONANTS.

SPECIAL RULES.

- § 18. REMARK. The following special rules, relating to particular letters or to particular combinations of letters, are in all cases to be regarded rather than the general rules, §§ 19—23, when the latter are inconsistent with the former.
- 1. H, when standing alone between two vowels, is always joined to the vowel that follows it.

Thus, mi'-hi, tra'-he-re, co'-hors, co''-hor-ta'-ti-o.

^{*}These are te, met, pte, ce, cine, and dem; as, tute, egomet, meapte, hicce, hiccine, idem.

2. Ch, ph, and th, in the division of words into syllables, are considered, not as separate letters, but as single aspirated mutes, and hence are never separated.

Thus, A-chil'-les, Ach''-ra-dī'-na, Neph'-ĕ-le, Te'-thys.

. 3. Gl, tl, and thl, when standing alone between any two vowels, unless the first be u, and bl after u are always separated.

Thus, Æg'-le, Ag-lau'-rus, At'-las, ath-let'-i-cus; —Pub'-li-us, Pub-lic'-ŏ-la, res-

pub'-li-ca.

4. In writing syllables, x, when standing alone between two vowels, is united to the vowel before it, but, in pronouncing such syllables, its elementary sounds are separated.

Thus, sax'-um (sak'-sum); ax-il'-la (ak-sil'-lah); ex-em'-plum (eg-zem'-plum); ux-o'-ri-us (ug-zo'-re-us).

GENERAL RULES.

I. SIMPLE WORDS.

§ 19. A.—A single Consonant between two Vowels.

1. A single consonant, or a mute with l or r, between the *last two vowels* of a word, or between the vowels of any two *unaccented* syllables, must be joined to the latter vowel.

Thus, t in $p\ddot{a}'$ -ter and au'-tem; th in a'-ther; cl in Hi-er'- δ -cles; q in \ddot{a}' -qua; cr in \ddot{a}' -cris and vol'- \ddot{a} -cris; chr in a'-chras; r in tol''-e-ra-bil'-i-us; m in el''-y-no-b'-y- $|\dot{a}|$ -i (i nam'-bu- $l\ddot{a}$ - $t\ddot{o}'$ -ri-us; and gr in per''-e-gri-na'-ti-o. Respecting ch and dh cf. \S 18, 2.

Exc. Tib'-i and sib'-i are commonly excepted.

§ 20. 2. A single consonant, or a mute with l or r, before the vowel of an accented syllable, must be joined to the accented vowel.

Thus, t in i-tin'- \check{e} -ra; d in $v\check{i}$ -de'-to; th in a-the'-ri-us; cl in Eu-cli'-des and Her"-a- $el\check{e}$ '-a; gr in a-gres'-tis and a-gric'- \check{o} -la; pr in ca-pre'- \check{o} -lus; q in a-qua'-ri-us; and phr in Eu-phr \check{a} 'tes.

§ 21. 3. A single consonant after the vowel of any accented syllable, except a penult, must be joined to the accented vowel.

Thus, m in dom'-i-nus and dom''-i-na'-ti-o; t in pat'-i-ra; th in Scyth'-i-a; and q in aq'-ui-la (ak'-we-lah), and Aq''-ui-ta'-ni-a (ak''-we-ta'-ne-ah).

4. When a mute with l or r follows the vowel of any accented syllable, except the penult, the mute is to be joined to the accented vowel.

Thus, cr in ac'-ri-ter, ac''-ri-mo'-ni-a; tr in det''-ri-men'-tum; pr in cap'-ri-pes, cap''-ri-mu'-gus, phl in Paph''-la-go'-ni-a; and phr in Aph''-ro-dis'-i-a. Respecting phl and phr of. § 18, 2.

EXCEPTIONS TO THE 3D AND 4TH RULES.

 \leftarrow Exc. 1. A single consonant, or a mute with l or r, after an accented a, e, or o, and before two vowels the first of which is e, i, or y, must be joined to the syllable following the accent.

Thus, d in ra'-di-us, ta'-di-um, me'-di-d'-tor; r in ha'-re-o, Ca'-ry-d'-tes; ch in bra'-chi-um; q in re'-qui-es, re''-qui-es'-co; tr in pa'-tri-us, E-no'-tri-a; and r and l in ce''-re-d'-li-a.

Exc. 2. A single consonant or a mute with l or r, after an accented u, must be joined to the vowel following it.

Thus, r in lu'-ri-dus, au'-re-us; cr in Eu'-cri-tus; gl in ju'-glans; and pl in Nau'-pli-us, du'-pli-co, and du''-pli-ca'-ti-o. Cf. § 18, 3.

§ 22. B.—Two Consonants between two Vowels.

Any two consonants, except a mute followed by l or r in the cases before mentioned, when standing between two vowels, must be separated.

Thus, rp in cor'-pus, rm in for'-ma and ger- $m\bar{a}'nus$; rv in ca-ter'-va; sc in ad-o-les'-cens; nn in an'-nus; phth in aph'-tha; cch in Bac'-chus and Bac''-cha-na'-li-a; and thl in ath-li'-ta.

C.—Three or four Consonants between two Vowels.

1. When three consonants stand between any two vowels, the last, or, if that be l or r after a mute, the two last, are joined to the latter vowel.

Thus, mpt in emp'-tor, ad-emp'-ti-o; str in fe-nes'-tra; mpl in ex-em'-plum; rthr in ar-thri'-tis.

2. When four consonants stand between two vowels, two are joined to each vowel; as, nstr in trans-trum.

II. COMPOUND WORDS.

§ 23. 1. In dividing a compound word into syllables the component parts are to be separated, if the former part ends with a consonant; as, ab-es'-se, in'-ers, cir'-cum-er'-ro, su'-pēr-est, sub'-ĭ-tus, prœter'-e-a, trans'-ĭ-tur, sub'-stru-o. So, also, if a consonant is inserted to prevent hiatus, it is joined to the preceding vowel; as, prod'-e-o, red'-e-o, sed-it'-i-o.

2. But if the former part either ends with a vowel, or has dropped its termination, it is to be divided like a simple word; as, def'-ë-ro, dil'-ĕ-gens, be-nev'-o-lus, præs'-to, eg'-ŏ-met;—po'-tes, po-tes'-tis, an"-i-mad-ver'-to, ve'-ne-o (from venum, eo), mag-nan'-ĭ-mus, am-bā'-ges,

lon-gœ'-vus.

ETYMOLOGY.

- § 24. 1. Etymology treats of the different classes of words, their derivation, and their various inflections.
- 2. The classes, into which words are divided in reference to their signification, are called Parts of Speech.

- → 3. The parts of speech in Latin are eight—Substantive or Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection.
- 4. The first four are inflected; the last four, which are sometimes called Particles, are not inflected, except that some adverbs change their termination to express comparison.

Rem. Substantives, pronouns, and adjectives are often included by grammarians under the general term nouns; but, in this Grammar, the word noun is used as synonymous with substantive only.

- § 25. 1. To verbs belong Participles, Gerunds, and Supines, which partake of the meaning of the verb, and the inflection of the noun.
- 2. Inflection, in Latin grammar, signifies a change in the termination of a word. It is of three kinds—declension, conjugation, and comparison.
 - 3. Nouns, adjectives, pronouns, participles, gerunds, and supines, are declined; verbs are conjugated, and adjectives and adverbs are compared.

NOUNS.

- § 26. 1. A substantive or noun is the name of an object.
- 2. A proper noun is the name of an individual object; as, Casar; Rōma, Rome; Tiberis, the Tiber.
- 3. A common or appellative noun is the name of a class of objects, to each of which it is alike applicable; as, homo, man or a man; avis, a bird; quercus, an oak; leo, a lion; mendacium, a falsehood.
- 4. A collective noun is one which, in the singular number, denotes a collection of individuals; as, exercitus, an army.
- REM. 1. The following are examples of nouns used as collectives, viz. exercitus, gens, juventus, multitūdo, nobilitas, plebs, popūlius, turba, vis, and vulgus.
- 5. An abstract noun is the name of a quality, action, or other attribute; as, bonitas, goodness; gaudium, joy; festinatio, haste.
- Rem. 2. A concrete, in distinction from an abstract noun, is one which denotes an object that has an actual and independent existence; as, Roma, homo, populus, ferrum.
- 6. A material noun is the name of a substance considered in the gross; as, lignum, wood; ferrum, iron; cibus, food.
- Rem. 3. Proper, abstract, and material nouns become common, when employed to denote one or more of a class of objects. A verb in the infinitive mood is often used as an abstract noun
 - 7. To nouns belong gender, number, and case.
- Rem. 4. Adjectives and participles have likewise different genders, numbers, and cases, corresponding to those of nouns.

GENDER.

- § 27. 1. The gender of a noun is its distinction in regard to sex.
- 2. Nouns have three genders—the masculine, the feminine, and the neuter.

The gender of Latin nouns is either natural or grammatical.
 Those nouns are naturally masculine or feminine, which are used to de-

signate the sexes; as, vir, a man; mulier, a woman.

5. Those are grammatically masculine or feminine, which, though denoting objects that are neither male nor female, take adjectives of the form appropriated to nouns denoting the sexes.

Thus, dominus, a lord, is naturally masculine, because it denotes a male; but sermo, speech, is grammatically masculine, because, though not indicative of sex, it takes an adjective of that form which is appropriated to nouns denoting males.

- 6. The grammatical gender of Latin nouns depends either on their signification, or on their declension and termination. The following are the general rules of gender, in reference to signification. Many exceptions to them, on account of termination, occur: these will be specified under the several declensions.
- § 28. Masculines. 1. Names, proper and appellative, of all male beings are masculine; as, Homerus, Homer; păter, a father; consul, a consul; ĕquus, a horse.
- As proper names usually follow the gender of the general name under which they are comprehended; hence,
- 2. Names of rivers, winds, and months, are masculine, because fluvius, ventus, and mensis, are masculine; as, Tiběris, the Tiber: Aquilo, the north wind; Aprilis, April.

Exc. Stux and some names of rivers in a and e are feminine. 66 62, and 41. 1.

- 3. Names of mountains are sometimes masculine, because mons is masculine; as, Othrys, a mountain of Thessaly; but they usually follow the gender of their termination; as, hic* Atlas, hec Ida, hoc Soracte.
- § 29. Feminines. 1. Names, proper and appellative, of all female beings are feminine; as, Helen; mater, a mother; juvenca, a heifer.
- 2. Names of countries, towns, trees, plants, ships, islands, poems, and gems, are feminine; because terra, urbs, arbor, planta, nāvis, insŭla, fubŭla, and gemma, are feminine; as,

Ægyptus, Egypt; Corinthus, Corinth; pirus, a pear-tree; nardus, spikenard; Centaurus, the ship Centaur; Samos, the name of an island; Eunuchus, the Eunuch, a comedy of Terence; amethystus, an amethyst.

Exc. Names of countries and islands in um, i, and (plur.) a, $\bar{c}rum$, are neuter.—Names of towns in i, $\bar{c}rum$; four in a, $\bar{c}nis$, viz. Trusino, Hippo, Narbo, and Sulmo, with Tumes, Tumes, and $Can\bar{c}pns$, are masculine. Names of towns in un or on, i, and (plur.) a, $\bar{c}rum$; those in e and ur of the third declension, indeclinable nouns in i and y, and some barbarous names, as Suthul, Hisput and Gadir are neuter.—Names of trees and plants in er of the third declension, (§ 60), with baccar and robur are neuter. A few names in us, i, (§ 50), with oleaster, pinuster, Stigrax and unedo are masculine .- A few names of gems in us, i, are also masculine.

^{*}To distinguish the gender of Latin nouns, grammarians write hie before the mascu-line, hac before the feminine, and hoc before the neuter.

§ 30. COMMON AND DOUBTFUL GENDER. Some words are either masculine or feminine. These, if they denote things animate, are said to be of the common gender; if things inanimate, of the doubtful gender.

Of the former are parens, a parent; bos, an ox or cow: of the latter, finis, an end.

The following nouns are of the common gender:-

Adolescens, a wouth. Aff inis, a relative by marriage. Ales, a bird. Antistes, a chief priest. Auctor, an author. Augur, an augur. Bos, an ox or cow. Cănis, a dog. Cīvis, a citizen. Comes, a companion. Conjux, a spouse. Consors, a consort. Conviva, a guest. Custos, a keeper. Dux, a leader.

Exsul. an exile. Grus, a crane. Hospes, a guest, a host. Hostis, an enemy. Index, an informer. Infans, an infant. Interpres, an interpreter. Jūdex, a judge. Juvěnis, a youth. Martyr, a martyr. Mīles, a soldier. Municeps, a burgess. Mus, a mouse. Nēmo, nobody. Obses, a hostage. Patruelis, a cousin.

Palumbes, a wood-pigeon. Părens, a parent. Par, a mate. Præses, a president. Præsul, a chief priest. Princeps, a prince or princess. Serpens, a serpent. Sacerdos, a priest or priestess. Satelles, a life-guard. Sus, a swine. Testis, a witness. Vātes, a prophet. Verna, a slave. Vindex, an avenger.

The following hexameters contain nearly all the above nouns:-

Conjux, atque părens, princeps, pătruēlis, et infans, Aff înis, vindex, jūdex, dux, mīlēs, et hostis, Augūr, et antistes, juvenis, convīva, săcerdōs, Mūnī-que-ceps, vātēs, adolescens, cīvis, et auctor, Custōs, nēmo, comes, testis, sus, bōs-que, cănis-que, Pro consorte tórī par, præsul, verna, sătelles, Mus-que obses, consors, interpres, et exsūl, et hospes.

- § 31. 1. When nouns of the common gender denote males, they take a masculine adjective; when they denote females, a feminine.
- 2. The following are either masculine or feminine in sense, but masculine only in grammatical construction:—

Artifex, an artist.
Auspex, a soothsayer.
Eques, a horseman.

Fur, a thief. Heres, an heir. Homo, a man or woman. Lătro, a robber. Liběri, children. Pědes, a footman.

To these may be added personal appellatives of the first declension; as, advěna, a stranger; and some gentile nouns; as, Persa, a Persian.

§ 32. 1. The following, though masculine or feminine in sense, are feminine only in construction:—

Copiæ, troops. Custodiæ, guards. Excubiæ, sentinels. Opěræ, laborers. Prōles, Subŏles, offspring. Vigiliæ, watchmen.

2. Some nouns, signifying persons, are neuter, both in their termination and construction; as.

Acroāma, a buffoon.
Auxilia, auxiliaries.

Mancipium, a slave.

Scortum, Prostibūlum, a prostitute.

- 3. (a.) In some personal appellatives masculines and feminines are distinguished by different terminations affixed to the same root. The masculines end in us, er, o, tor, etc.; the feminines in a or trix; as, cŏquus, cŏqua; magister, magistra; lēno, lēna; inventor, inventrix; tibīcen, tibicīna; ăvus, avia; rex, regīna; poēta, poētria.
- (b.) So also in some names of animals; as, ĕquus, ĕqua; gallus gallīna; leo, lea and leæna. Sometimes the words are wholly different; as, taurus, vacca.
- 4. Some names of animals are sometimes masculine and sometimes feminine without regard to difference of sex; as, anguis, serpens, dāma, talpa, tigris, colūber and colūbra, etc.
- § 33. EPICENES. Names of animals which include both sexes, but admit of an adjective of one gender only, are called *epicene*. These commonly follow the gender of their terminations.

Thus, passer, a sparrow, corvus, a raven, are masculine; aquila, an eagle, vulpes, a fox, are feminine; though each of them is used to denote both sexes.

Note. This class includes the names of animals, in which the distinction of sex is section attended to. When it is necessary to mark the sex, mas or femina is usually added.

- § 34. Neuters. Nouns which are neither masculine nor feminine, are said to be of the neuter gender; such are,
 - 1. All indeclinable nouns; as, fas, něfas, nihil, gummi, pondo.
- 2. Names of letters; as, o longum, long o. But these are sometimes feminine, litëra being understood.
- 3. Words used merely as such, without reference to their meaning; as, pater est dissyllabum; pater is dissyllabic.
- 4. All infinitives, imperatives, clauses of sentences, adverbs, and other particles, used substantively; as scire tuum, your knowledge; ultimum vale, the last farewell; hoc diu, this (word) diu.

REMARK. 1. Words derived from the Greek retain the gender which they have in that language.

REM. 2. Some nouns have different genders in the singular and plural, and are called heterogeneous nouns. See § 92.

NUMBER.

- § 35. 1. (a.) Number, in nouns, is the form by which they denote whether they represent one object or more than one.
- (b.) Latin nouns have two numbers,—the singular and the plural,—which are distinguished by their terminations. The singular number denotes one object; the plural, more than one.

PERSON.

2. The person of a noun or pronoun is the character sustained by the object which it represents, as being the speaker, the person addressed, or the person or thing spoken of:

Hence there are three persons. The speaker is of the *first* person, the person addressed is of the *second* person, and the person or thing spoken of is of the *third* person.

CASES.

§ 36. Many of the relations of objects, which, in English, are denoted by prepositions, are, in Latin, expressed by a change of termination.

Cases are those terminations of nouns, which denote their relations to other words. Latin nouns have six cases; viz. Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, Vocative, and Ablative.

REMARK. Though there are six cases in each number, no noun has in each number so many different terminations.

§ 37. 1. The nominative denotes the relation of a subject to a

finite verb; as, ego scribo, I write. Caius dicit, Caius says.

- 2. The genitive denotes origin, possession, and many other relations, which, in English, are expressed by the preposition of or by the possessive case; as, Vita Casaris, the life of Casar, or Casaris life.
- 3. The dative denotes that to or for which any thing is, or is done; as, Ille mihi librum dedit, He gave the book to me.

4. The accusative is either the *object* of an active verb, or of certain prepositions, or the *subject* of an infinitive.

5. The vocative is the form appropriated to the name of any ob-

ject which is addressed.

6. The ablative denotes *privation*, and many other relations, especially those expressed in English by the prepositions with, from, in, or by.

REMARK. The nominative and vocative are sometimes called casus recti, i. e. the uninflected cases; and the others, casus obliqui; i. e. the oblique or inflected cases.

DECLENSIONS.

§ 38. The regular forming of the several cases in both numbers, by annexing the appropriate terminations to the root, is called declension.

The Latin language has five declensions or modes of declining nouns, distinguished by the termination of the genitive singular, which, in the first declension, ends in α , in the second in i, in the third in is, in the fourth in $\bar{u}s$, and in the fifth in $c\bar{c}$

§ 39. The following table exhibits a comparative view of the terminations or case-endings of the five declensions.

TERMINATIONS.

Singular.

	Strig arta. t								
	I.	П		П	I.		IV.		v.
		М.	N.	M.	N.	М.		<i>N</i> .	
Nom. Gen. Dat. Acc. Voc. Abl.	ă, æ, æ, ăm, · ă,	ŭs, ĕr, ī, ō, ŭm ĕ, ĕr,	ŭm, 'ŭm,	ŏr, etc. i ĕm,(ĭm ŏr, etc. ĕ, (s, ,), ĕ, etc.	ŭs, uī, ŭm, ŭs,	ūs, ū.	ū, ū, ū, ū,	ēs, eī, eï, ĕm, ēs,

Plural.

Nom.		ī,	ă,	ēs, ă, (iă),	ūs,	uă,	ēs,
Gen.	ārum,	őrŭm,		ŭm, (iŭm),	u	ŭm,	ērŭm,
Dat.	īs,	īs,		ĭbŭs,	ĭbŭs,	(ŭbŭs),	ēbŭs,
Acc.	ās,	ōs,	ă,	ēs, ă, (iă), ēs, ă, (iă),	ūs,	` uă,	ēs,
Voc.	æ,	ī,	ă,	ēs, ă, (iă),		uă,	ēs,
Abl.	īs.	īs.		ĭbŭs.	ūs, ĭbŭs,	(ŭbŭs).	ēbŭs.

Remarks.

- § 40. 1. The terminations of the nominative, in the third declension, are very numerous. See § 55, 58, 62, 66.
- 2. The accusative singular of masculines and feminines, always ends in m.
- 3. The vocative singular is like the nominative in all Latin nouns, except those in us of the second declension.
 - 4. The nominative and vocative plural always end alike.5. The genitive plural always ends in um.
- 6. The dative and ablative plural always end alike; -in the 1st and 2d declensions, in is; in the 3d, 4th, and 5th, in bus.
- 7. The accusative plural of masculines and feminines, always ends
- 8. Nouns of the neuter gender have the accusative and vocative like the nominative, in both numbers; and these cases, in the plural, always end in a.
- 9. The 1st and 5th declensions contain no nouns of the neuter gender, and the 4th and 5th contain no proper names.
- 10. Every inflected word consists of two parts—a root, and a termination. The root or crude form, is the part which is not changed by inflection. The termination is the part annexed to the root. The root of a declined word may be found by removing the termination of any of its oblique cases. The case commonly selected for this purpose is the genitive singular.
- 11. The preceding table exhibits terminations only. In the fifth declension, the e of the final syllable, though unchanged, is considered as belonging to the termination.

FIRST DECLENSION.

§ 41. Nouns of the first declension end in \tilde{a} , \tilde{e} , $\tilde{a}s$, $\tilde{e}s$. Those in a and e are feminine; those in as and es are masculine.

Latin nouns of the first declension end only in a. They are thus declined:

Singular.			$Plu\dot{r}al.$		
	mū'-să,	a muse;		mu′-sæ,	muses;
	mu′-sæ,	of a muse;		mu-sā'-rŭm,	of muses,
	mu′-sæ,	to a muse;		mu′-sīs,	to muses
Acc.	mu′-săm,	a muse;	Acc.	mu'-sās,	$muses$ \cdot
Voc.	mu′-să,	O muse;	Voc.	mu'-sæ,	O muses;
Abl.	mu′-sā,	with a muse.	Abl.	mu'-sīs,	with muses.

In like manner decline

Au'-la, a hall.	Lit'-ĕ-ra, a letter.	Sa-git'-ta, an arrow.
Cu'-ra, care.	Lus-cin'-i-a, a nightingale.	Stel'-la, a star.
Ga'-le-a, a helmet.		Tŏ'-ga, a gown.
In'-sŭ-la, an island.	Pen'-na, a feather, a quill.	Vi'-a, a way.

NOTE. As the Latin language has no article, appellative nouns may be rendered either with or without the English articles a, an, or the, according to their connection.

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

§ 42. 1. Names proper and appellative of men, as, Sulla, Cinna; poēta, a poet; nauta, a sailor; and names of rivers, though ending in a, are masculine: § 28, 1 and 2. But the following names of rivers have been used as feminine: viz. Albūla, Allīa, Druentia, Garumna, Himēra, Matrona, Mosella, Trebia. Lēthe is always feminine.

Ossa and Œta, names of mountains, are masculine or feminine.

2. Hadria, the Adriatic sea, dāma in Virgil and Statius, and talpa in Virgil, are masculine.

EXCEPTIONS IN DECLENSION.

§ 43. Genitive singular. 1. The poets sometimes formed the

genitive singular in āī; as, aula, gen. aulāī.

2. Familia, after pater, mater, filius, or filia, usually forms its genitive in as; as, mater-familias, the mistress of a family; gen. matrisfamilias; nom. plur. matres-familias or familiarum. Some other words anciently formed their genitive in the same manner.

Genitive plural. The genitive plural of patronymics in es, of several compounds in cŏla and gĕna, and of some names of nations, is sometimes, especially in poetry, formed in um instead of ārum; as, Æneădum, Cœlicŏlum, terrigenum, Lapithum. So amphörum, drach-

mum, for amphorārum, drachmārum.

Dative and Ablative plural. The following nouns have sometimes ābus instead of is; in the dative and ablative plural, especially when it is necessary to distinguish them from the same cases of masculines in us of the second declension having the same root; as, filits et filiābus, to sons and darghters.

Dea, a goddess. Filia, a daughter.

Equa, a mare. Mūla, a she mule.

The use of a similar termination in anima, asina, liberta, nāla, conserva, and some other words, rests on inferior authority.

GREEK NOUNS.

§ 44. Nouns of the first declension in \tilde{e} , $\tilde{a}s$, and $\tilde{e}s$, and some also in \tilde{a} , are Greek. Greek nouns in \tilde{a} are declined like musa, except that they sometimes have $\tilde{a}n$ in the accusative singular; as, Ossa; acc. Ossam, or Ossan.

Greek nouns in e, as, and es, are thus declined in the singular number:-

N. Pe-nel'-ŏ-pē,	N. Æ-nē'-ās,	N. An-chī'-sēs,
G. Pe-nel'-o-pes,	G. Æ-nē'-æ,	G. An-chi'-sæ,
D. Pe-nel'-o-pæ,	D. Æ-nē'-æ,	D. An-chī'-sæ,
Ac. Pe-nel'-o-pen,	Ac. Æ-nē'-am or an.	Ac. An-chi'-sēn,
V. Pe-nel'-ŏ-pē,	V. Æ-nē'-ā,	V. An-chī'-sē or ā,
Ab. Pe-nel'-ŏ-pē.	Ab. Æ-ne'-ā.	Ab. An-chī'-sā or ē.

§ 45. In like manner decline

Al'-o-e, aloes.
E-pit'-o-me, an abridgment.
This'-be.
Bo'-re-as, the north wind.
Mi'-das.

Ti-ā'-ras, a turban.
Co-mē'-tes, a comet.
Dy-nas'-tes, a ruler.
Pri-um'-1-des, a son of Priam.
Py-rī'-tes, a kind of stone.

- 1. Most proper names in es, except patronymics, follow the third declension; but in the accusative they often have both em and en, and in the vocative both es and e. See \S 80, 1v, and 81.
- 2. Greek nouns of the first declension, which admit of a plural, are declined in that number like the plural of musa.
- 2. The Latins frequently change the terminations of Greek nouns in $\bar{\epsilon}s$ and $\bar{\epsilon}$ into $\dot{\alpha}$; as, Atrides, Atrida, a son of Atreus; Perses, Persa, a Persian; geometres, geometra, a geometrician; Gree, Circa; epitôme, epitôma; grammatice, grammatice, grammat; rhetorice, rhetorica, oratory.—So also tiāras, tiāra.

SECOND DECLENSION.

§ 46. Nouns of the second declension end in er, ir, us, um, os, on. Those ending in um and on are neuter; the rest are masculine.

Nouns in er, us, and um, are thus declined:-

SINGULAR.

	A lord.	A son-in-law.	A field.	A kingdom.
N.	dŏm'-ĭ-nŭs,	gĕ'-nĕr,	ă'-gĕr,	reg'-num,
G.	dom'-ĭ-nī,	gen'-ĕ-rī,	a'-grī,	reg'-ni,
	dom´-ĭ-nō,	gen'-ĕ-rŏ,	3'-grō,	reg'-nō,
	dom'-I-nŭm,	gen'-ĕ-rŭm,	a'-grŭm,	reg'-nŭm,
	dom'-ĭ-nĕ,	ge'-nčr,	a'-gĕr,	reg'-nŭm,
Ab	. dom'-i-nō.	gen'-ĕrō.	a´-grō.	reg'-nō.

PLURAL.

	dom'-ĭ-nī,	ger'-ĕ-rī,	a'-grī,	reg'-nă,
G.	dom-i-nô'-rŭm,	gen-e-rō'-rŭm,	·a-grō'-rŭm,	reg-no'-rum,
D.	dom'-ĭ-nīs,	gen'-ĕ-rīs,	a'-grīs,	reg'-nīs,
	dom'-ĭ-nŏs,	gen'-ĕ-rōs,	a'-grōs,	reg'-nă,
V.	dom'-ĭ-nī,	gen'-ĕ-rī,	a´-grī,	reg'-nă,
Ab.	dom'-ĭ-nīs.	gen'-ĕ-rīs.	a'-grīs.	reg'-nīs.

Like dominus decline

An'-i-mus, the mind.	Fŏ'-cus, a hearth.	Nu'-mĕ-rus, a number.
Clip'-e-us, a shield.	Gla'-di-us, a sword.	O-ce'-ă-nus, the ocean.
Cor'-vus, a raven.	Lū'-cus, a grove.	Trŏ'-chus, a trundling-hoop.

Note. Nouns in us of the second declension are the only Latin nouns, whose nominative and vocative singular differ in form. See § 40, R. 3.

§ 47. A few nouns in er, like gener, add the terminations to the nominative singular, as a root. They are the compounds of gero and fëro; as, armiger, -ëri, an armor-bearer; Lucifer, -ëri, the morning star; and the following:-

A-dul'-ter, an adulterer.	Lī'-ber, Bacchus.	Pu'-er, a boy.
Cel'-tĭ-bēr, a Celtiberian.	Lib'-ĕ-ri, (plur.), children.	So'-cer, a father-in-law.
I'-ber, a Spaniard.	Pres'-by-ter, an elder.	Ves'-per, the evening.
, -		• '

Mul'-ct-ber, Vulcan, sometimes has this form.

§ 48. 1. All other nouns in er reject the e in adding the terminations, (§ 322, 4), and are declined like ager; thus,

A'-per, a wild boar.	Li'-ber, a book.	Al-ex-an'-der.
Aus'-ter, the south wind.	Ma-gis'-ter, a master.	Is'-ter.
Fă'-ber, a workman.	On'-a-ger, a wild ass.	Teu'-cer.

2. Vir, a man, with its compounds, and the patrial Trēvir, (the only nouns in ir,) are declined like gener.

Like reanum decline

An'-trum, a cave.	Ex-em'-plum, an example.	Præ-sid'-i-um, a defence.
A'-tri-um, a hall.	Ne-go'-ti-um,* a business.	Sax'-um, a rock.
Bel'-lum, war.	Ni'-trum, natron.	Scep'-trum, a sceptre.

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

3 4 of 1. The folia	owing nouns in us and os ar	e ieminine:—
Abyssus, a bottomless pit. Alvus, the belly. Antidotus, an antidote. Arctos(us), the Northern Bear. Carbissus, a sail.	Diphthongus, a diphthong. Domus, a house, home.	Miltos, vermilion. Phārus(os), a light-house. Plinthus, the base of a column. Vannus, a corn-fan.

2. Greek nouns in ŏdus (ἡ δδος), and mětros, are likewise feminine; as, synodus, an assembly; diameters, a diameter.

^{*} Pronounced ne-go'-she-um. See § 12.

§ 50. Names of countries, towns, trees, plants, etc. are feminine. See ₹ 29, 2.

Yet the following names of plants are masculine:-

Acanthus, bear's-foot. Amarantus, amaranth. Asparagus, asparagus. Calámus, a reed. Carduus, a thistle. Dūmus, a bramble.

Carbunculus, a carbuncle.

Ebŭlus, an elder. Helleborus, hellebore. Intubus, endire. Juneus, a bulrush. Raphanus, a radish. Rhamnos, buck-thorn.

Rŭbus, a blackberry-bush. Tribulus, a caltrops.

And sometimes Amarăcus, marjoram. Cytisus, snail-clover.

Oleaster and pinaster, names of trees, are also masculine.

Opălus, opal.

The following names of gems are also masculine:-

Chrysoprasus, chrysoprase. Beryllus, a beryl.

So also, Pyropus, gold-bronze.

Chrysolithus, chrysolite, and smaragdus, an emerald, are doubtful. Names of females in um are feminine: § 29, 1; as, mea Glycerium, Ter. Names of trees and plants in um are generally neuter; as, apium, parsley; aconitum, wolf's bane.

Canopus, Pontus, Hellespontus, Isthmus, and all plural names in i of countries

and towns are masculine. Abydus(os) is doubtful.

Names of countries and towns ending in um, or, if plural, in a, are neuter; as, Ilium or Ilion; Ecbătăna, ōrum.

\$ 51. The following are doubtful, but more frequently masculine:-

Balanus, a date. Grossus, an unripe fig. Phasēlus, a light vessel. Pampinus, a vine-leaf. Barbitos, a lute.

Atomus, an atom, and colus, a distaff, are doubtful, but more frequently feminine.

Pelăgus, the sea, and vīrus, poison, are neuter. Vulgus, the common people, is neuter, and rarely masculine.

EXCEPTIONS IN DECLENSION.

Genitive singular. When the genitive singular ends in ii, the poets frequently contract it into ī; as, ingenī, for ingenii.

Vocative singular. The vocative of nouns in us is sometimes like the nominative, especially in poetry; as, fluvius, Latinus, in Virgil. So, audi tu, populus Albanus. Liv.

Proper names in *ĭus* omit e in the vocative; as, Horatius, Horāti; Virgilius, Virgili.

Filius, a son, and genius, a guardian angel, make also fili and geni. Other nouns in ius, including patrials and possessives derived from proper names, form their vocative regularly in e; as, Delius, Delie; Tirynthius, Tirynthie; Lacrtius, Lacrtie.

§ 53. Genitive plural. The genitive plural of some nouns of the second declension, especially of those which denote money, weight and measure, is commonly formed in um, instead of orum: § 322, 4.

Such are particularly nummum, sestertium, denarium, medimnum, jugerum, modium, talentum. The same form occurs in other words, especially in poetry; as, deum, liberum, Danaum; etc., and sometimes om is found instead of um; as, Achivom. Virg. Cf. § 322, 8.

Deus, a god, is thus declined:-

Singular.	Plural.
N. de'-us,	N. di'-i, di, or de'-i,
G. de'-i,	G. de-ō'-rum,
D. de'-o,	D. di'-is, dis, or de'-is,
Ac. de'-um,	Ac. de'-os,
V. de'-us,	V. di'-i, dī, $or de'$ -i,
Ab. de'-o.	Ab. di'-is, dīs, or de'-is,

 $J\bar{e}sus$, or $I\bar{e}sus$, the name of the Savior, has um in the accusative, and u in all the z her oblique cases.

GREEK NOUNS.

§ 54. 1. Os and on, in the second declension, are Greek terminations, and are commonly changed, in Latin, into us and um; but sometimes both forms are in use; as, Alphēos, and Alphēus; Ilion and Ilium. Greek names in ros after a consonant commonly change ros into er; as, Alexandros, Alexander; Teucros, Teucer. In a few words ros is changed to rus; as, Codrus, hydrus, and once in Virgil, Teucrus.

Greek nouns are thus declined in the singular number:-

	Singul	ar.	Barbiton, a lyre.
N.	Dē'-lŏs,	. Andrŏ'-ge-ōs,	N. bar'-bi-ton,
G.	De'-lī,	An-dro'-ge-ō, or ī,	G. bar -bi-ti.
	De'-lō,	An-dro'-ge-ō,	D. bar'-bi-to,
Ac.	De'-lon or um,	An-dro'-ge-ō, or ōn,	Ac. bar -bi-ton,
	De'-lĕ,	An-dro'-ge-os,	V. bar'-bi-ton,
Ab.	De'-lō.	An-dro'-ge-ō.	<i>Ab.</i> bar'-bi-tō.

2. The plurals of Greek nouns in os and on are declined like those of dominus and regnum; but the nominative plural of nouns in os sometimes ends in æ, as, canephöræ.

3. In early writers some nouns in os have a genitive in \bar{u} (ov); as, Menandr \bar{u} .

4. A genitive plural in on, instead of orum, occurs in the titles of books and in some names of places: as, Georgicon: Philippin arg., Sall.

in some names of places; as, Georgicon; Philėnon ara. Sall. 5. Greek proper names in eus (see § 9, R. 3), are declined like dominus, except that the vocative ends in eu; but sometimes in the genitive, dative, and accusative also, they retain the Greek form, viz. gen. eos, dat. et (contracted eo, acc. eo or eo, and are of the third declension. See § 86, and 306, (1.) So in Lucretius the neuter pelágus (Greek $\pi i \land 2 \circ \varsigma , e \circ \varsigma$) has an accusative plural peláge for pelagea after the third declension. § 83, 1.—See also respecting a genitive in i of some proper nouns in es, § 73, Rem.—Panthū occurs in Virgil, A. 2, 822, as the vocative of Panthūs. Cf. § 81.

THIRD DECLENSION.

§ 55. The number of final letters, in this declension, is twelve. Five are vowels—a, e, i, o, y; and seven are consonants—c, l, n, r, s, t, x. The number of its final syllables exceeds fifty.

REM. The following terminations belong exclusively to Greek nouns; viz. $ma, i, y, \bar{a}n, in, \bar{o}n, \bar{g}n, \bar{e}r, \bar{g}r, ys, eus, yx, inx, ynx, and plurals in e.$

Mode of declining Nouns of the Third Declension.

To decline a word properly, in this declension, it is necessary to know its bender, its nominative singular, and one of its oblique cases; since the root of the cases is not always found entire and unchanged in the nominative. The case usually selected for this purpose is the genitive singular. The formation of the accusative singular, and of the nominative, accusative, and vocative plural, depends upon the gender: if it is masculine or feminine, these cases have one form; if neuter, another.

The student should first fix well in his memory the terminations of one of these forms. He should next learn the nominative and genitive singular of the word which is to be declined. If is be removed from the genitive, the remainder will always be the root of the oblique cases, and by annexing their terminations to this root, the word is declined; thus, rupes, genitive (found in the dictionary) rupis, root rup, dative rupi, etc.: so ars, gen. artis, root art, dat. arti, etc.; opus, gen. operis, root oper, dat. operi, etc.

Rules for Forming the Nominative Singular of the Third Declension from the Root.

I. Roots ending in c, g; b, m, p; u, t, d, and some in r, add s to form the nominative; as, trābis, trabs; hiemis, hiems; gruis, grus.

REMARK 1. T, d and r before s are dropped; as, nepotis, nepos; laudis, laus; floris, flos. So bovis, bos, drops v.

REM. 2. C and g before s form x; as, vocis, vox; regis, rex. So vs forms x in nivis, nix. Cf. §§ 3, 2, and 171, 1.

REM. 3. Short i in the root before c, b, p, t, is commonly changed to \check{e} ; as, pollicis, pollex; calibis, calebs; principis, princeps; comitis, comes. So \check{u} is changed to \check{e} in aucupis, auceps.

Rem. 4. Short \check{e} or \check{o} before r in neuters is changed to \check{u} ; as, gen \check{e} ris, gen \check{u} s; temp \check{o} ris, temp \check{u} s.

REM. 5. Short è before r is changed to in the masculines cinèris, cinis; cucumèris, cucumis; pulvèris, pulvis; vomèris, vomis.

REM. 6. A few and those mostly monosyllabic roots of masculines and feminines, not increasing in the genitive, add es or is, instead of s alone; as, gen. rūpis, nom. rūpes; gen. auris, nom. auris.

REM. 7. A few neuters add è to the root to form the nominative; as, rētis, rētē; māris, mārē.

II. To roots ending in l and n, to some in r and s, and to those of most neuters in t, no addition is made in forming the nominative; as, animālis, animal; canonis, canon; honoris, honoris, assis, as.

REMARK 1. Final on and in in the roots of masculines and feminines, become o in the nominative; as, sermonis, sermo; arundinis, arundo.

REM. 2. Final in the roots of neuters becomes in the nominative; as, fluminis, flumin. So also in the masculines, oscen, pecten, tibicen and tubicen.

REM. 3. Tr and br at the end of a root, take ℓ between them in the nominative; as, patris, păter; imbris, imber. Cf. §§ 108, 48, and 106.

REM. 4. Short ở is changed to ŭ in ebóris, ěbūr; femởris, fēmūr; jecòris, jěcŭr; and robŏris, rôbūr.

REM. 5. In the roots of neuters at drops t, and it becomes ut in the nominative; as, poēmātis, poēma; capitis, caput.

REM. 6. Roots of this class ending in repeated consonants drop one of them in the nominative; as, fellis, fel; farris, far; assis, as; bessis, bes.

The following are the two forms of termination in this declension:—

	Singular			Plural	
Mas	sc. and Fem.	Neut.	Ma	sc. and Fem.	Neut.
N.	*	*	N.	ēs,	ă, (iă),
G.	ĭs,	ĭs,		ŭm, (iŭm),	ŭm, (iŭm),
D.	ī,	ī,	D.	ĭbŭs,	ĭbŭs,
Ac.	ĕ́m, (ĭm),	*	Ac.	ēs,	ă, (iă),
V.	*	*	V.	ēs,	ă, (iă),
Ab.	ĕ, (ī).	ĕ, (ī).	Ab.	ĭbŭs.	ĭbŭs.

The asterisk stands for the nominative, and for those cases which are like it.

§ 57. The following are examples of the most common forms of nouns of this declension, declined through all their cases.

Turris, a tower; fem.

pat'-ri-bus.

Hŏnor, honor; masc.

Ab. ser-mō'-ne.

masc.			t	Luiis, a to	ver, icm.
S	lingular.	Plural.	S	ingular.	Plural.
N.	ho'-nor,	ho-nō'-res,	N.	tur'-ris,	tur'-res,
	ho-nō'-ris,	ho-nō'-rum,	G.	tur'-ris,	tur'-ri-um,
D.	ho-nō´-ri, ́	ho-nor'-ĭ-bus,	D.	tur'-ri,	tur'-rĭ-bus,
	ho-nō'-rem,	ho-nō'-res,	Ac.		tur'-res,
V.	ho'-nor,	ho-nō'-res,	V.	tur'-ris,	tur'-res,
Ab.	ho-nō'-re.	ho-nor'-ĭ-bus.	Ab.	tur'-ri, or re.	tur'-rĭ-bus.
	Rūpes, a ra	ick; fem.		Nox, nigh	t; fem.
S	lingular.	Plural.	S	ingular.	Plural.
N.	ru'-pes,	ru'-pes,	N.	nox,	noc'-tes,
G.	ru´-pis,	ru'-pi-um,		noc'-tis,	noc'-ti-um,*
D.	ru´-pi,	ru´-pĭ-bus,	D.	noc'-ti,	noc'-tĭ-bus,
Ac.	ru'-pem,	ru'-pes,	Ac.	noc'-tem,	noc'-tes,
V.	ru'-pes,	ru'-pes,	V.	nox,	noc'-tes,
Ab.	ru'-pe.	ru'-pĭ-bus.	Ab.	noc'-te.	noc'-tĭ-bus.
	Ars, art	; fem.	1	Miles, a soldier	; com. gen.
S	'ingular.	Plural.	S		Plural.
N.	ars,	ar'-tes,	N.	mi'-les,	mil'-ĭ-tes,
	ar'-tis,	ar'-ti-um,*	G.	mil'-ĭ-tis,	mil'-ĭ-tum,
D.	ar'-ti,	ar'-tĭ-bus,	D.	mil´-ĭ-ti,	mi-lit'-ĭ-bus,
Ac.	ar'-tem,	ar'-tes,	Ac.	mil'-ĭ-tem,	mil'-ĭ-tes,
V.		ar'-tes,	<i>V</i> .	mi'-les,	mil'-ĭ-tes,
Ab.	ar'-te.	ar'-tĭ-bus.	Ab.	mil'-ĭ-te.	mi-lit'-ĭ-bus.
	Sermo, spee	ch; masc.		Păter, a fath	er; masc.
s	ingular.	Plural.	S	ingular.	Plural.
N.	ser'-mo,	ser-mō'-nes,	N.	pa'-ter,	pa'-tres,
G.	ser-mo'-nis,		G.	pa'-tris,	pa'-trum,
D.	ser-mō'-ni,	ser-mon'-ĭ-bus.	D.	pa'-tri,	pat'ri-bus,
Ac.	ser-mō'-nem,		Ac.	pa'-trem,	pa'-tres,
V.	ser'-mo,	ser-mō'-nes,	V.	pa'-ter,	pa'-tres,

^{*}Pronounced ar'-she-um, noc'-she-um. See § 12.

Sĕdīle, a seat; neut.

S	ingular.	Plural.
N.	se-dī'-le,	se-dil'-i-a,
G.	se-dī'-lis,	se-dil'-i-um,
D.	se-dī'-li,	se-dil'-i-bus,
Ac.	se-di'-le,	se-dil'-i-a,
V.	se-di'-le,	se-dil'-i-a,
Ab.	se-dī'-li.	se-dil'-i-bus.

Carmen, a verse; neut.

Singular.	Plural.
N. car'-men,	car'-mĭ-na,
G. car'-mi-nis,	car'-mĭ-num,
D. car'-mĭ-ni,	car-min'-ĭ-bus,
Ac. car'-men,	car'-mĭ-na,
V. car'-men,	car'-mĭ-na,
Ab. car'-mi-ne.	car-min'-ĭ-bus.

Iter, a journey; neut.

Singular.	Plural.
N. ĭ'-ter,	i-tin'-ĕ-ra,
G. i-tĭn'-ĕ-ris,	i-tin'-ĕ-rum,
D. i-tin'-ĕ-ri,	it-i-ner'-ĭ-bus,
Ac. i'-ter,	i-tin'-ĕ-ra,
V. i'-ter,	i-tin'-ĕ-ra,
Ab. i-tin'-ĕ-re.	it-i-ner´-ĭ-bus.

Lăpis, a stone; masc.

Plural.
lap'-ĭ-des,
lap'-i-dum,
la-pid'-i-bus,
lap'-i-des,
lap'-ĭ-des,
la-pid'i-bus.

Virgo, a virgin; fem.

S	ingular.	Plural.
N.	vir'-go,	vir'-gi-nes,
G.	vir'-gi-nis,	vir'-gi-num,
D.	vir'-gi-ni,	vir-gin'-i-bus,
Ac.	vir -gi-nem,	vir'-gĭ-nes,
V.	vir'-go,	vir'-gi-nes,
Ab.	vir'-gĭ-ne.	vir-gin'-i-bus.

Animal, an animal; neut.

S	ingular.	Plural.
N.	ăn'-ĭ-mal,	an-i-ma'-li-a,
G.	an-i-mā'-lis,	ari-ma'-li-um,
D.	an-i-mā'-li,	an-i-mal'-ĭ-bus.
Ac.	an'-ĭ-mal,	an-i-ma'-li-a,
V.	an'-i-mal,	an-i-ma'-li-a,
47	an-i-mā'-li	an i mal' i hua

Opus, work; neut.

۵	ıngııar.	Plural.
N.	ŏ-pus, ~	op'-ĕ-ra,
G.	op -ĕ-ris,	op'ĕ-rum,
D.	op'-ĕ-ri,	o-per'-i-bus,
Ac.	o'-pus,	op'-č-ra,
V.	o'-pus,	op'-ĕ-ra,
	op'-ĕ-re.	o-per'-i-bus.

Căput, a head; neut.

S	ingular.	Plural.
N.	ca'-put,	cap'-ĭ-ta,
G.	cap'-i-tis,	cap'-i-tum,
D.	cap´-ĭ-ti,	ca-pit'-i-bus,
	ca'-put,	cap´-ĭ-ta,
<i>V</i> .	ca'-put,	cap'-i-ta,
Ab.	cap'-i-te.	ca-pit'-ĭ-bus

Poëma, a poem; neut.

Singular.	Plural.
N. po-ē'-ma,	po-em'-ă-ta,
G. po-em'-ă-tis,	po-em'-ă-tum,
D. po-em'-ă-ti,	po-e-mat'-i-bus, or po-em'-ă-tis,
Ac. po-ē'-ma,	po-em'-ă-ta,
V. po-ē'-11a,	po-em'-ă-ta,
Ab. po-em' \text{\ti}}\\ \text{\tex{\tex	po-e-mat'-i-bus, or po-em'-a-tis.

RULES FOR THE GENDER OF NOUNS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

Nouns whose gender is determined by their signification, according to the general rules, § 28-34, are not included in the following rules and exceptions.

MASCULINES.

Nouns ending in o, er, or, es increasing in the genitive, os, and n, are masculine; as,

sermo, speech; dolor, pain; flos, a flower; carcer, a prison; pes, a foot; cănon, a rule.

Exceptions in O.

§ 59. 1. Abstract and collective nouns in io are feminine; as, ratio, reason; legio, a legion.

REM. 1. But numerals in io; as, binio, trinio, etc., except unio, unity, are masculine.

2. Nouns in do and go, of more than two syllables, are feminine; as, arundo, a reed; imago, an image. So also grando, hail. But comedo, a glutton; unedo, the arbute tree; and harpago, a grapplinghook, are masculine.

REM. 2. Margo, the brink of a river, is doubtful. Cupido, desire, is often masculine in poetry, but in prose is always feminine.

3. Ciro, flesh, and Greek nouns in o, are feminine; as, ēcho, an echo. Būbo,

the owl, is once feminine, Virg. A. 4, 462.

Exceptions in ER.

§ 60. 1. Laver, a water plant, and tüber, the tuber tree, are feminine, but when the latter denotes the fruit, it is masculine. Linter, a boat, is feminine, and once, in Tibullus, masculine. Siser, skirret, is neuter in the singular, but masculine in the plural.

The following, in er, are neuter:—

Acer, a maple-tree. Cadaver, a dead body. Cicer, a vetch. Iter, a journey. Läser, assafætida.

Papāver, a poppy. Pĭper, pepper. Siler, an osier. Spinther, a clasp. Suber, a cork-tree. Tüber, a swelling. Uber, a teat. Ver, the spring. Verber, a scourge. Zingiber, ginger.

Exceptions in OR.

Arbor, a tree, is feminine: ador, spelt; aquor, the sea; marmor, marble; and cor, the heart, are neuter.

Exceptions in ES increasing in the genitive.

The following are feminine:—

Compes, a fetter.

Quies, and Requies, rest. T'ěges, a mat. Inquies, restlessness.

Merces, a reward. Merges, a sheaf of corn. Seges, growing corn.

2. Ales, a bird; comes, a companion; hospes, a guest; interpres, an interpreter; miles, a soldier; obses, a hostage; præses, a president; and satelles, a life-guard, are common, § 30. Æs, brass, is neuter.

Exceptions in OS.

3. Arbos, a tree; cos, a whetstone; dos, a dowry; eos, the morning; and rarely $n\bar{e}pos$, a grandehild, are feminine: sacerdos, custos, and bos are common, \S 30: $\bar{e}s$, the mouth, and $\bar{e}s$, a bone, are neuter; as are also the Greek words $\bar{e}pos$, epic poetry; and $m\bar{e}los$, melody.

Exceptions in N.

4. Nouns in men with four in n are neuter—gluten, glue; inguen, the groin; pollen, fine flour; and unguen, ointment.

5. Four nouns in on are feminine—aēdon, a nightingale; halcyon, a king-fisher; icon, am image; and sindon, muslin.

§ 62. Nouns ending in as, es not increasing in the genitive, is, ys, aus, s preceded by a consonant, and x, are feminine; as,

FEMININES.

ætas, age; nūbes, a cloud; ăvis, a bird; chlămys, a cloak; laus, praise; trabs, a beam; pax, peace.

Exceptions in AS.

1. Mas, a male, vas, a surety, and as, a piece of money, or any unit divisible into twelve parts, are masculine. Greek nouns in as, antis, are also masculine; as, addimas, adamant. So also Mēlas, the name of a river, § 28, 2. Arcas and Nomas are common.—2. Vas, a vessel, the indeclinable nouns, fas and nēfas, and Greek nouns in as, ătis, are neuter; as, artocreas, a meat-pie; bucēras, a species of herb.

Exceptions in ES not increasing in the genitive.

3. Acinăces, a scimitar, and coles or colis, a stalk, are masculine. Antistes, palambes, vates, and vepres, are masculine or feminine. Cacoethes, hippomanes, nepenthes, and panáces, Greek words, are neuter.

Exceptions in IS.

§ 63. 1. Latin nouns in nis are masculine or doubtful.

(1.) Masc. Crīnis, hair; ignis, fire; pānis, bread; mānes, (plur.), departed spirits.—(2.) Masc. or fem. Amnis, a river; cīnis, ashes; fīnis, an end; clūnis, the haunch; cānis, a dog; fūnis, a rope. The plurals, cinēres, the ashes of the dead, and fīnes, boundaries, are always masculine.

2. The following are common or doubtful:-

Anguis, a snake.
Callis, a path.
Canālis, a conduit pipe.
Contubernālis, a comrade.

Corbis, a basket. Pollis, fine flour. Pulvis, dust. Scrobis, a ditch. Tigris, a tiger. Torquis, a chain.

3. The following are masculine:-

Axis, an axle.
Aquālis, a water-pot.
Cassis, a net.
Caulis, or a stalk.
Cölis.

Cenchris, a serpent.
Collis, a hill.
Cucumis, a cucumber.
Ensis, a sword.
Fascis, a bundle.

Follis, a pair of bellows. Fustis, a club. Glis, a dormouse. Läpis, a stone. Lemures, pl., spectres. Mensis, a month. Sanguis, blood. Sentis, a brier. Mugilis, a mullet. Sēmis, or Sodālis, a companion. Orbis, a circle. Torris, a firebrand. Semissis. Bessis, compounds Piscis, a fish. Unguis, a nail. Centussis, Postis, a post. of as. Vectis, a lever. Decussis, Quiris, a Roman. Vermis, a worm. * Samnis, a Samnite. Tressis, Vomis, a ploughshare.

4. Names of male beings, rivers, and months in is are masculine; as, Dis, Pluto; Anūbis, an Egyptian deity; Tigris, the river Tigris; Aprīlis, April. See § 28.

Exceptions in YS.

Names of rivers and mountains in ys are masculine; as, Hallys, Othrys. See § 28, 2 and 3

Exceptions in S preceded by a consonant.

§ 64. °1. Dens, a tooth; fons, a fountain; mons, a mountain; and pons, a bridge, are masculine. So also are auceps, a bird-catcher; challybs, steel; cliens, a client; ellops, a kind of fish; epops, a hoopoe; gryps, a griffin; hydrops, the dropsy; merops, a kind of bird. Kudens, a rope, is masculine and very

rarely feminine.

2. The following nouns also are masculine, viz. (a.) these which are properly adjectives—confluens and torrens, scil. amnis; occidens and oriens, scil. sol; (b.) compounds of dens—tridens, a trident, and bidens, a two-pronged mattock;—but bidens, a sheep, is feminine; (c.) the parts of as ending in ns; as, sextans,

quadrans, triens, dodrans, and dextans.

3. The following are common or doubtful:—

Seps, a kind of serpent. Serpens, a serpent. Adeps, grease. Scrobs, a ditch. Stirps, the trunk of a tree. Forceps, pincers.

Animans an animal, which is properly an adjective, is masculine, feminine, or neuter.

Exceptions in X.

1. AX. Anthrax, cinnabar; corax, a raven; cordax, a kind of dance; dropax, an ointment; styrax, a kind of tree; thorax, a breast-plate; and

dance; $ar\bar{o}pax$, an ointment; $st\bar{y}rax$, a kind of tree; $th\bar{o}rax$, a breast-plate; and Atax, the river Aude, are masculine; limax, a snail, is common.

2. EX. Nouns in ex are masculine, except fex, for fex, lex, nex, prex, (obsolete in nom. and gen. sing.), and supellex, which are feminine; to which add (§ 29) $c\bar{a}rex$, lex, $m\bar{a}rex$, pellex, and vitex. Atriplex is neuter and very arrely masculine or feminine. Alex, a fish-pickle; cortex, bark; imbrex, a gutter-tile; intex, a bolt; and silex, a flint, are doubtful: sinex, an old person; grex, a herd; rimex, sorrel; and pimex, pumice-stone, are masculine and intex and intex, intvery rarely feminine.

3. IX. Cülix, a cup; fornix, an arch; phænix, a kind of bird; and spādix, a palm-branch, are masculine: lärix, the larch-tree; perdix, a partridge; and

vārix, a swollen vein, are masculine or feminine.

 OX. Box and feor, names of fishes, are masculine.
 UX. Trādux, a vine-branch, is masculine.
 YX. Bombyx, a silk-worm; cālyx, the bud of a flower; coccyx, a cuckoo; fryx, a wild goat, and names of mountains in yx, as Eryx, are masculine. Onyx, a box made of the onyx-stone, and sardonyx, a precious stone; also, calx, the heel, and calx, lime; lynx, a lynx, and sandyx, a kind of color, are masculine or feminine.

Bombyx, when it signifies silk, is doubtful.

7. Quincunx, septunx, decunx, deunx, parts of as, are masculine.

NEUTERS.

§ 66. Nouns ending in a, e, i, y, c, l, t, ar, ur, us, and men,are neuter; as,

diadėma, a crown; rēte, a net; hydroměli, mead; lac, milk; vectīgal, revenue; căput, the head; calcar, a spur; guttur, the throat; pectus, the breast; and flumen. a river.

Exceptions in L, C, and E.

Mugil, a mullet, and sol, the sun, are masculine. Sal, salt, is masculine or neuter, in the singular; but, in the plural, it is always masculine. masculine. Praneste is neuter, and once in Virgil feminine. Lac is neuter and rarely

Exceptions in AR and UR.

Furfur, bran; sălar, a trout; turtur, a turtle dove; and vultur, a § 67. vulture, are masculine.

Exceptions in US.

- 1. Lepus, a hare; and Greek nouns in pus (πους), are masculine; as, tripus, a tripod; but lagopus, a kind of bird, is feminine.
- 2. Nouns in us, having ūtis, or ūdis, in the genitive, are feminine; as, juventus, youth; incus, an anvil.
- 3. Pecus, -udis, a brute animal, and tellus, the earth, are feminine. Pessinus, and Selīnus, names of towns, are also feminine. See § 29.
 - Grus, a crane; mus, a mouse; and sus, a swine, are masculine or feminine.
 Rhus, sumach, is masculine, and rarely feminine.

Rules for the Oblique Cases of Nouns of the Third DECLENSION.

GENITIVE SINGULAR.

1. The genitive singular of the third declension of Latin nouns always ends in is, in Greek nouns it sometimes ends in os and us.

2. Nouns in a form their genitive in ătis; as, di-a-de'-ma, di-adem'-ă-tis, a crown; dog'-ma, dog'-mă-tis, an opinion.

E.

3. Nouns in e change e into is; as, re-te, re-tis, a net; se-di-le, se-dī'-lis, a seat.

4. Nouns in i are of Greek origin, and are generally indeclinable; but hydrom'-e-li, mead, has hyd-ro-mel'-t-tis in the genitive.

0.

Nouns in o form their genitive in onis; as, ser'-mo, ser mo'-nis, speech; pā'-vo, pa-vo'-nis, a peacock.

REMARK. Patrials in o have onis; as, Macedo, -onis; but some have onis, as, Eburones, etc. See 3d exception to increments in O, § 287.

Exc. 1. Nouns in do and go form their genitive in *inis*; as, a-run'-do, a-run'-di-nis, a reed; i-mā-go, i-mag'-t-nis, an image.

But four dissyllables—cūdo, ūdo, ligo and mango; and three trisyllables—comēdo, unēdo, and harpāgo, have ōnis.

Exc. 2. The following nouns, also, have inis:—Apollo; homo, a man; nēmo,

nobody; and turbo, a whirlwind.

Căro, flesh, has, by syncope, carnis. Anio, the name of a river, has Aniënis;

Nerio, the wife of Mars, Neriënis; from the old nominatives, Anien, and Neriënes.

Exc. 3. Some Greek nouns in o form their genitive in $\bar{u}s$, and their other cases singular, in o; as, $D\bar{u}do$, gen. $D\bar{u}dus$, dat. $D\bar{u}do$, etc.; Argo, -us; but they are sometimes declined regularly; as, $D\bar{u}do$, $D\bar{u}d\bar{o}nis$.

Y.

Greek nouns in y have their genitive in yos; as, misy, misyos, or, by contraction, misys.

C.

§ 70. The only nouns in c are ā'-lec, a-lē'-cis, fish-brine, and lac, lac'-tis, milk.

L. N. R.

Nouns in l, n, and r, form their genitive by adding is; as, con'-sul, con'-su-lis, a consul; ca'-non, can'-ŏ-nis, a rule; hŏ-nor, ho-nō'-ris, honor.

So, An'-I-mal, an-i-mā'-lis, an animal. Vi'-gil, vig'-I-lis, a watchman. Ti'-tan, Ti-tā'-nis, Titan. Sī'-ren, Si-rē'-nis, a Siren. Del'-phin, del-phi'-nis, a dolphin.

Cal'-car, cal-cā'-ris, a spur. Car'-cer, car'-cĕ-ris, a prison. A'-mor, a-mō'-ris, love. Gut'-tur, gut'-tŭ-ris, the throat. Mar'-tyr, mar'-tȳ-ris, a martyr.

Exceptions in L.

Fel, gall, and mel, honey, double I before is, making fellis and mellis.

Exceptions in N.

§ 71. 1. Neuters in en form their genitive in inis; as, flū'-men, flu'-mi-nis, a river; glū'-ten, glu'-ti-nis, glue.

The following masculines, also, form their genitive in inis:—oscen, a bird which fore-boded by its notes; pecten, a comb; tibicen, a piper; and tubicen, a trumpeter.

Some Greek nouns in on form their genitive in ontis; as, Laomedon, Laomedontis. Some in in and yn add is or os; as, Trachin, or Trachyn, Trachinis or Trachynos.

Exceptions in R.

1. Nouns in ter drop e in the genitive; as, $p\check{a}'$ -ter, $p\check{a}'$ -tris, a father. So also imber, a shower, and names of months in ber; as, October, Octobris.

But crāter, a cup; soter, a savior; and läter, a brick, retain e in the gen-

2. Far, a kind of corn, has farris; hépar, the liver, hepătis; Lar or Lars, Lartis; iter, a journey, has itinëris from the old nominative itiner; Jupiter, Jövis; and cor, the heart, cordis.

3. These four in ur have ŏris in the genitive:—ĕbur, ivory; fĕmur, the thigh; iĕcur, the liver; rōbur, strength.

Femur has also feminis, and jecur, jecinoris, and jocinoris.

AS.

§ 72. Nouns in as form their genitive in ātis; as, α' -tas, α -tā'-tis, age; pi'-ĕ-tas, pi-e-tā'-tis, piety.

Exc. 1. As has assis; mās, a male, mārs; vas, a surety, vādis; and vās, a vessel, vāsis. Anas, a duck, has anātis.

Exc. 2. Greek nouns in as form their genitive according to their gender; the masculines in antis, the feminines in ădis or ădos, and the neuters in ătis; as, adimas, -antis, adamant; lampas, -ădis, a lamp; Pallas, -ădis or -ădos; bucê-ras, -ătis, a species of herb. Arcas, an Arcadian, and Nomas, a Numidian, which are of the common gender, form their genitive in ădis. Mēlas, the name of a river, has Melănis.

ES.

§ 73. 1. Nouns in es form their genitive by changing es into is, itis, etis, or ētis; as, rū'-pes, ru'-pis, a rock; mī'-les, mil'-i-tis, a soldier; sē'-ges, seg'-ĕ-tis, growing corn; qui'-es, qui-ē'-tis, rest.

REMARK. A few Greek proper names in es (gen. is) sometimes form their genitive in ei, or, by contraction, i, after the second declension; as, Achilles, is, ei or -i: and a few in a after the first declension; as, Orestes, is or a.

2. Those which make itis are,

Ales, a bird.
Ames, a fowler's staff.
Antistes, a priest.
Cæspes, a turf.
Cŏmes, a companion.
Eques, a horseman.
Fŏmes, touchwood.

Gurges, a whirlpool.
Hospes, a guest.
Limes, a limit.
Merges, a sheaf of corn.
Miles, a soldier.
Palmes, a vine-branch.
Pèdes, a foot-soldier.

Poples, the ham.
Satelles, a lifeguard.
Stipes, the stock of a tree.
Termes, an olive bough.
Trämes, a by-path.
Vēles, a skirmisher.

- 3. The following have ětis:—abies, a fir-tree; aries, a ram; indiges, a man deified; interpres, an interpreter; paries, a wall; sěges, a corn-field; and tėges, a mat.
- 4. The following have ētis:—Œbes; Cres, a Cretan; lèbes, a caldron; magnes, a loadstone; quies and requies, rest; inquies, restlessness; and tôpes (used only in acc. and abl.), tapestry.—Some Greek proper names have either ētis or is in the genitive; as, Chrèmes, -ētis, or -is. Dûres, -ētis, or -is.
- Exc. 1. Obses, a hostage, and præses, a president, have tdis. Hêres, an heir, and merces, a reward, have édis; pes, a foot, and its compounds, have édis.
 - Exc. 2. Ceres has Cereris; bes, bessis; præs, prædis; and æs, æris.

IS.

§ 74. Nouns in is have their genitive the same as the nominative; as, au'-ris, ar ris, the ear; a'-vis, a'-vis, a bird.

Exc. 1. The following have the genitive in ĕris:—cīnis, ashes; pulvis, dust; võmis or võmer, a ploughshare. Cucumis, a cucumber, has ĕris and rarely is.

Exc. 2. The following have tdis:—capis, a cup; cassis, a helmet; cuspis, a point; läpis, a stone; and promulsis, an antepast.

Exc. 3. Two have inis: -pollis, fine flour, and sanguis or sanguen, blood.

Exc. 4. Four have itis:—Dis, Pluto; lis, strife; Quiris, a Roman; and Samnis. a Samnite.

Exc. 5. Glis, a dormouse, has glīris.

GREEK NOUNS.

Greek nouns in is, whose genitive ends in ios or eos, (ios or εως), form their genitive in Latin in is; as (a.) verbals in sis; as, basis, mathēsis, etc. (b.) compounds of polis (πόλις); as, metropōlis, Neapōlis, ètc.; and (c.) a few other proper names, as Charybdis, Lachēsis, Syrtis, etc. In some nouns of this class the Greek genitive is sometimes found; as, Nemēsis, Nemesios.

2. Greek nouns in is, whose Greek genitive is in idos (dos), form their Latin genitive in idis; as, agis, aspis, ephemēris, pyrāmis, tyrannis, Ænēis, Iris, Nerēis, etc. Tigris has both is and idis; and in some other words of this class later writers use is instead

of idis.

3. Charis has Charitis; Salamis, Salaminis, and Simbis, Simoentis.

OS.

§ 75. Nouns in ōs form their genitive in ōris or ōtis; as, flos, flō'-ris, a flower; nē'-pos, ne-pō'-tis, a grandchild.

The following have oris:-

Flos, a flower. Glos, a husband's sister.

Lăbos or lăbor, labor. Lěpos or lěpor, wit. Os, the mouth. Ros, dew.

Hŏnos or hŏnor, honor. Mos, a custom.

Arbos or arbor, a tree, has oris.

The following have ōtis:-

Cos, a whetstone. Dos, a dowry.

Monocĕros, a unicorn. Rhinocĕros, a rhinoceros.

Něpos, a grandchild. Sacerdos, a priest.

Exc. 1. Custos, a keeper, has custodis; bos, an ox, bovis; and os, a bone, ossis.

Exc. 2. Some Greek nouns in os have ois in the genitive; as, heros, a hero;

Minos; Tros, a Trojan; and some Greek neuters in os are used in the third declension in the nominative and accusative only; as, Argos, cetos, epos, melos.

US.

- § 76. 1. Nouns in us form their genitive in eris or oris; as, genus, gen'-e-ris, a kind; tem'-pus, tem'-po-ris, time.
- 2. Those which make ĕris are, ăcus, (chaff), fœdus, fūnus, gĕnus, glŏmus, lă tus, mūnus, ŏlus, ŏnus, ŏpus, pondus, rūdus, scēlus, sīdus, ulcus, vellus, viscus and vulnus. In early writers pignus has sometimes pignēris.
- 3. Those which make ŏris are, corpus, dĕcus, dedĕcus, facīnus, fēnus, frīgus, lĕpus, lītus, nēmus, pectus, pĕcus, pēnus, pignus, stercus, tempus, and tergus.

Exc. 1. These three in ūs have ūdis:—incūs, an anvil; pālūs, a morass; and subscūs, a dove-tail. Pēcūs, a brute animal, has pecūdis.

Exc. 2. These five have ūtis:—juventūs, youth; sălūs, safety; senectūs, old age; servitūs, slavery; virtūs, virtue.

Exc. 3. Monosyllables in ūs have ūris; as, crus, the leg; jus, right; jus, broth; mus, a mouse; pus, matter; rus, the country; tus, frankincense; except grus, and sus, which have gruis, and suis; and rhus, which has rhois or roris. Tellus, the earth, has tellūris; and Ligus or Ligur, a Ligurian, has Ligūris.

Exc. 4. Fraus, fraud, and laus, praise, have fraudis, laudis.

Exc. 5. Greek nouns in pūs (πεὐς) have ŏdis; as, tripus, tripŏdis, a tripod; Œdipus, -ŏdis; but this is sometimes of the second declension.

Exc. 6. Some Greek names of cities in us have untis; as, Amathus, Amathuntis. So Trapézus, Opus, Pessinus, and Selinus.

Exc. 7. Greek nouns ending in eus are all proper names, and have their genitive in eos; as, Orpheus, -eos. But these nouns are found also in the second declension; as, Orpheus, -éi or-i. Cf. § 64, 5.

YS.

§ 77. 1. Nouns in ys are Greek, and make their genitive in yis (contracted ys), or, as in Greek, yos (vos); as,

Citys, gen. Cotyis or Cotys; Tethys, -yis or yos. So Atys, Capys, Erinnys, Halys, Othrys. A few have ydis; as, chlamys, chlamydis.

S preceded by a consonant.

- 2. Nouns in s, with a consonant before it, form their genitive by changing s into is or tis; as, trabs, trā-bis, a beam; hī-e-mis, winter; pars, par'-tis, a part; frons, fron'-tis, the forehead.
- (1.) Those in bs, ms, and ps; as, scrobs, hiems, stirps, change s into is; except gryps, a griffin, which has gryphis.

REMARK. Compounds in ceps from căpio have tpis; as, princeps, principis, a prince. But auceps has aucupis.

(2.) Those in ls, ns, and rs, as, puls, gens, ars, change s into tis.

Exc. 1. The following in ns change s into dis:—frons, foliage: glans, an acorn; juglans, a walnut; lens, a nit; and libripens, a weigher.

Exc. 2. Tiryns, a town of Argolis, has Tirynthis in the genitive.

T.

§ 78. 1. Nouns in t form their genitive in itis. They are, căput, the head, gen. cap'-i-tis; and its compounds, occiput and sinciput.

X.

- 2. Nouns in x form their genitive by resolving x into cs or gs, and inserting i before s; as, $vox(vocs)v\ddot{v}$ -cis, the voice; $lex(legs)l\ddot{e}$ -gis, a law.
- (1.) Latin nouns in ax have $\bar{a}cis$; as, fornax, $forna\bar{c}is$, except fax, $f\bar{a}cis$. Most Greek nouns in ax have $\bar{a}cis$; as, $th\bar{o}rax$, thoracis; a few have $\bar{a}cis$; as, $cor\bar{a}cis$; and Greek names of men in nax have nactis; as, Astyanax, Astyanactis.
- (2.) Nouns in ex have tcis; as, jūdex, judicis: obex has obicis or objicis; and obbex, vibicis. Nex, prez, (nom. obs.), resex and femisex have écis; ālex, northex, and vervex have écis, and fex, fecis. Lex and rex have égis; aquilex and grex have égis; rêmex has remigis; sénex, sénis; and supellex, supellectilis.

(3.) Nouns in ix have īcis; as, cervix, cervīcis; and less frequently icis; as, călix, calicis. But nix has nivis; strix, foreign names of men, and gentile nouns in rix have igis; as, Biturix, Dumnorix, etc.

(4.) Nouns in ox have ōcis; as, vox, vōcis; but Cappadox has Cappadocis;

Allobrox, Allobrogis; and nox, noctis.

(5.) Of nouns in ux, crux, dux, trādux, and nux have ŭcis; lux and Pollux, ŭcis.—Conjux has conjūgis, frux (nom. obs.) frūgis, and faux, faucis.

(6.) Yx, a Greek termination, has ycis, ycis, or ygis, ygis. Onyx and sardönyx, in which x is equivalent to chs (§ 3, 2) have ychis; as, onyx, onychis.

DATIVE SINGULAR.

The dative singular ends in i; as, sermo, dat. sermoni.

Anciently it also ended in e; as, morte dătus. Varro in Gellius. So ære for æri, Cic. and Liv.; and jure for juri. Liv.

ACCUSATIVE SINGULAR.

- (a.) The accusative singular of all neuter nouns is like the nominative.
 - (b.) The accusative singular of masculines and feminines, ends in em. Yet some Latin nouns in is, which do not increase in the genitive, have im, and some Greek nouns have im, in. or a.
 - 1. Many proper names in is, denoting places, rivers, or gods, have the accusative singular in im; as, Hispalis, Tiberis, Anabis; so also Albis, Athèsis, Bœis, Arar or Araris, Bilbilis, Apis, Osiris, Syrtis, etc. These sometimes, also, make the accusative in in; as, Albin. Scaldis has in and em, and Līris, im, in, and em. Liger has Ligerim.
 - 2. The following also have the accusative in im:—

Amussis, a mason's rule. Būris, a plough-tail. Cannabis, hemp.

Mephītis, foul air. Pelvis, a basin. Rāvis, hoarseness. Cucumis, (gen. -is), a cucumber. Securis, an axe.

Sināpis, mustard. Sitis, thirst. Tussis, a cough. Vis. strength.

3. These have im, and sometimes em:

Febris, a fever. Puppis, the stern. Restis, a rope. Turris, a tower.

But these have em, and rarely im:-

Bipennis, a battle-axe. Clāvis, a key. Messis, a harvest.

Nāvis, a ship. Præsēpis, a stall. Sementis, a sowing. Strigilis, a flesh-brush.

- 4. Lens and pars have rarely lentim and partim; and cratim from crates, is found in Plantus.
 - 5. Early writers formed the accusative of some other nouns in im.

Accusative of Greek Nouns.

- The accusative singular of masculine and feminine Greek nouns sometimes retains the Greek terminations in and a, but often ends, as in Latin, in em or im.
- I. Masculine and feminine Greek nouns, whose genitive increases in is or os, impure, that is, with a consonant going before, have their accusative in em or a; as, lampas, lampădis (Greek - Soc), lampăda; chlamys, chlamydis, chlamydem, or -yda; Helicon, Heliconis, Halicona.

REMARK. In like manner these three, which have is pure in the genitive—Tros, Trois, Trois, Trois, and Troa, a Trojan, heros, a hero; and Minos, a king of Crete.—Arr, the air; ather, the sky; delphin, a dolphin; and pean, a hymn, have usually a; as, aera, athera, delphina, pean. Pan, a god, has only a.

Exc. 1. Masculines in is, whose genitive increases in is or os impure, have their accusative in im or in; sometimes in idem; Păris, Paridis; Parim, or Paridem.

Exc. 2. Feminines in is, increasing impurely in the genitive, though they usually follow the rule, have sometimes im or in; as, Elis, Elidis; Elin or Elidem. So tigris, gen. is or idis; acc. tigrim or tigrin.

II. Masculine and feminine Greek nouns in is not increasing, and in ys, gen. yos, form their accusative by changing the s of the nominative into m or n; as, Charybdis, (gen. Lat. -is, Gr. 1205), acc. Charybdim or -in; Hālys, -yis or -yos, Halym or -ym. So rhus, gen. rhois, has rhun or rhum.

III. Proper names ending in the diphthong eus, gen. éi and éos, have the accusative in ea; as, Thēseus, Thesea; Tydeus, Tydea. See § 54, 5.

IV. Some Greek proper names in es, whose genitive is in is, have in Latin, along with the accusative in em, the termination en, as if of the first duclension; as, Achilles, Achilles; Xerxes, Xerxen; Sophöcles, Sophöclen. Cf. § 45, 1. Some also, which have either ētis or is in the genitive, have, besides ētem, ēta, or em, the termination en; as, Chrēmes, Thāles.

VOCATIVE SINGULAR.

§ S1. The vocative is like the nominative.

REMARK. Many Greek nouns, however, particularly proper names, drop s of the nominative to form the vocative; as, Daphnis, Daphni; Tethys, Tethy; Melampus, Melampu; Orpheus, Orpheu. Proper names in es (gen. is) sometimes have a vocative in e, after the first declension; as, Socrätes, Socräte. § 45, 1.

ABLATIVE SINGULAR.

- $\mathbb{7}$ § **82.** The ablative singular commonly ends in e.
- Exc. 1. (a.) Neuters in e, al, and ar, have the ablative in i; as, sedile, sedili; animal, animāli; calcar, calcāri.
- (b.) But names of towns in e, and the following neuters in ar, have e in the ablative; viz. baccar, an herb; far, corn; $b\bar{e}par$, the liver; $j\bar{u}bar$, a sunbeam; mectar, nectar; par, a pair; sal, salt. $R\bar{e}te$, a net, has either e or i; and $m\bar{a}re$, the sea, has sometimes in poetry mare in the ablative.
- Exc. 2. (a.) Nouns which have im alone, or both im and in in the accusative, and names of months in er or is, have i in the ablative; as, vis, vim, vi; Tiběris, -im, i; December, Decembri; Aprīlis, Aprīli.
- (b.) But Bætis, cannabis, and sinapis, have e or i. Tigris, the tiger, has tigride; as a river it has both Tigride and Tigri.
- Exc. 3. (a.) Nouns which have em or im in the accusative, have their ablative in e or i; as, turris, turre or turri.
- (b.) So Elis, acc. Elidem and Elin, has Elide or Eli. But restis, and most Greek nouns with idis in the genitive, have e only; as, Păris, -idis, -ide.
- Exc. 4. (a.) Adjectives in is, used as nouns, have commonly i in the ablative, but sometimes e; as, familiaris, a friend; natālis, a birthday; sodālis, a companion; trirēmis, a trireme.—Participles in ns, used as nouns, have commonly s in the ablative, bu continent has i.

(b.) When adjectives in is become proper names, they always have e; as, Juvenālis, Juvenāle. Affinis and ædilis have generally e; as have always juvēnis, a youth; rūdis, a rod; and volūcris, a bird.

Exc. 5. (a.) The following, though they have only em in the accusative, have e or i in the ablative, but most of them have oftener e than i:—

	,			_
Amnis,	Collis,	Ignis,	Pars,	Supellex,
. Anguis,	Convallis,	Imber.	Postis,	Tridens.
Avis,	Corbis,	Mugilis,	Pŭgil,	Unguis,
Bīlis,	Fīnis,	Orbis,	Sordes,	Vectis,
Cīvis,	Fustis.	Ovis,	Sors,	Vesper.
Classis.	,	•		•

(b.) Occiput has only i, and rus has either e or i; but rure commonly signifies from the country, and ruri, in the country. Mel has rarely i.

(c.) So also names of towns, when denoting the place where any thing is said to be, or to be done, have the ablative in i; as, Carthagini, at Carthages, so, Anxiri and Lacedamöni, and, in the most ancient writers, many other most occur with this termination in the ablative. Cinālis has i, and very rarely e.

Exc. 6. Nouns in ys, which have ym or yn in the accusative, have their ablative in ye or y; as, Atys, Atye, or Aty.

NOMINATIVE PLURAL.

- § 83. I. The nominative plural of masculines and feminines ends in es; as, sermones, rūpes:—but neuters have a, and those whose ablative singular ends in i only, or in e and i, have ia; as, căput, capita; sedile, sedilia; rēte, retia. Aplustre has both a and ia.
 - 1. Some Greek neuters in os have ē in the nominative plural; as, mělos; nom. plural, mele; (in Greek μέλει, by contraction μέλη). So Tempe.

GENITIVE PLURAL.

- II. The genitive plural commonly ends in um; sometimes in ium.
- 1. Nouns which, in the ablative singular, have i only, or both e and i, make the genitive plural in ium; as, sedule, seduli, sedulium; turris, turre or turri, turrium.
- 2. Nouns in es and is, which do not increase in the genitive singular, have ium; as, nūbes, nubium; hostis, hostium.

Exc. Cănis, juvenis, föris, mugilis, proles, strues, and vātes, have um; so oftener have āpis, strajilis, and volūcris; less frequently mensis, sēdes, and, in the poets only, ambāges, cædes, clādes, vepres, and cælestis.

3. Monosyllables ending in two consonants have ium in the genitive plural; as, urbs, urbium; gens, gentium; arx, arcium.

Exc. Lynx, sphinx, and ops (nom. obsolete) have um.

Most monosyllables in s and x pure have um, but the following have ium; dos, mas, glis, lis, os (ossis), faux, (nom. obs.) nix, nox, strix, vis, generally fraus and mus; so also fur and ren, and sometimes lar.

4. Nouns of two or more syllables, in ns or rs, and names of nations in as, have commonly ium, but sometimes um; as, cliens, clientium or clientum; Arpīnas, Arpinatium.

- (1.) Other nonns in us generally have um, but sometimes ium; as, œtas, œta-tum or œtatium. Pend us and optimates have usually ium.
- 5. The following have ium:—căro, compes, linter imber, üter, venter, Samnis, Quiris, and usually Insuber. Fornax and palus have sometimes ium.
- 6. Greek nouns have generally um; as, gigas, gigantum; Arabs, Arabum; Thrax, Thracum;—but a few, used as titles of books, have sometimes δn ; as, Epigramma, epigramma δin ; $Metamorph \delta sis$, $-e \delta n$. The patrial $Male \delta n$ also is found in Curtius, 4, 13.

REMARK 1. Bos has boum in the genitive plural.

REM. 2. Nouns which want the singular, form the genitive plural as if they were complete; as, mānes, manium; calites, calitum; ilia, ilium; as if from mānis, cales, and ile. So also names of feasts in alia; as, Saturnalia, Saturnalium; but these have sometimes orum after the second declension. Ales has sometimes, by epenthesis, alituum. See § 322, 3.

DATIVE AND ABLATIVE PLURAL.

- § 84. The dative and ablative plural end in Thus.
- Exc. 1. Bos has bobus and bubus, by contraction, for borthus; sus has subus by syncope, for subus. § 322, 5, and 4.
- Exc. 2. Greek nouns in ma have the dative and ablative plural more frequently in is than in ibus; as, poēma, poematis, or poematibus.
- Exc. 3. The poets sometimes form the dative plural of Greek nouns, that increase in the genitive, in si, and, before a vowel, in sin; as, herois, heroidis; heroisi, or heroisin. Ovid. So in Quintilian, Metamorphosesi.

ACCUSATIVE PLURAL.

- § 85. The accusative plural ends, like the nominative, in $\bar{e}s$, \check{a} , $i\check{a}$.
- Exc. 1. The accusative plural of masculines and feminines, whose genitive plural ends in ium, anciently ended in is or \(\tilde{e}is, \) instead of \(\tilde{e}s; \) as, partes, gen. partium, acc. parties or parties.
- Exc. 2. Greek masculines and feminines, whose genitive increases in is or os impure, have their accusative in as; as, lampas, lampādis, lampādas. So also hēros, herōis, herōis, and some barbarian names of nations have a similar form; as, Brigantas, Allobrogas.

Jupiter, and vis, strength, are thus declined:-

+	Singular.	Singular.	Plural.
	N. Ju'-pĭ-ter,	N. vis,	vī'-res.
	G. Jŏ'-vis,	G. vis,	vir'-i-um,
	D. Jŏ'-vi,	D. —	vir'-ĭ-bus,
	Ac. Jŏ'-vem,	Ac. vim,	vī'-res,
	V. Ju'-pi-ter,	V. vis,	vī'-res,
,	Ab. Jŏ'-ve.	Ab. v.	vir'-ĭ-bus.

§ 86. The following table exhibits the principal forms of Greek nouns of the third declension:—

	Nom.	Gen.	Dat.	Acc.	Voc.	Abl.
S.	Lampas,	{ -ădis, } { -ădos, }	-ădi,	{-ădem, } -ăda, }	-as,	-ăde.
Pl.	-ădes,	-ădum,	-adĭbus,	\	-ădes,	-adĭbus.
S.	Hēros,	-ōis,	-ōi,	} -ōem, } { -ōa, }	-os,	-ōe.
Pl.	-ōes,	-ōum,	-oĭbus,	\ \ \ -\parallel{\par	-ōes,	-oĭbus.
	Chĕlys,	{ - ỹis, } } ỹos, }	-ÿi,	{-ym, }	-y,	-ўе <i>от</i> у.
	Poesis,	{ -is, -ĭos, } -ĕos, }	-i,	{-im, -in, }	-i ,	-i.
	Achilles,	{ -is, -ei, -i, } -ĕos, }	-i,	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} -\text{em,} \\ -\text{ea,} \overline{\text{en,}} \end{array} \right\}$	-es, -ē,	-е <i>or -</i> і.
	Orpheus, Aër,	-ĕos, -ĕris,	-ĕi, -ĕri,	-ĕa, -ĕra,	-eu, -er,	See § 54. -ĕre
ı	Dīdō,	-ūs,	-ō,	-ō,	-ō,	-ō.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

§ 87. Nouns of the fourth declension end in us and u. Those in us are masculine; those in u are neuter, and, except in the genitive, are indeclinable in the singular.

Nouns of this declension are thus declined:-

Fruct	us, <i>fruit</i> .	Cornu,	Cornu, a horn.		
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.		
N. fruc'-tus,	fruc'-tūs,	N. cor'-nū,	cor'-nu-ă,		
G. fruc'-tūs,	fruc'-tu-ŭm,	G. cor'-nūs,	cor'-nu-ŭm,		
D. frue'-tu-i,	fruc'-tĭ-bŭs,	D. cor'-nū,	cor'-nĭ-bŭs,		
Ac. fruc'-tum,	fruc'-tūs,	Ac. cor'-nū,	cor'-nu-ă,		
V. fruc'-tus,	fruc'-tūs,	V. cor'-nū,	cor'-nu-ă,		
Ab. fruc'-tū.	fruc'-tĭ-bŭs. "	$Ab. \operatorname{cor'-n\bar{u}}$.	cor'-nĭ-bŭs.		

In like manner decline

Can'-tus, a song.	Fluc'-tus, a wave.	Se-nā'-tus, the senate.
Cur'-rus, a chariot.	Luc'-tus, grief.	Gĕ'-lu, ice. (in sing.)
Ex-er'-ci-tus, an army.	Mō'-tus, motion.	Vě'-ru, a spit.

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

§ 88. 1. The following are feminine:-

Acus, a nædle.	Fīcus, a fig.	Portĭcus, a gallery.
Dŏmus, a •nuse.	Mănus, a hand.	Trĭbus, a tribe.
Domus, a wase.	manus, a manu.	ilibus, a a we.

Colus, a distaff, and the plurals Quinquātrus, a feast of Minerva, and Idus, the Ides, are also feminine. So noctu, by night, found only in the ablative singular Pēnus, a store of provisions, when of the fourth declension, is masculine or feminine. Secus, sex, is neuter; see § 94. Spēcus, a den, is masculine and rarely feminine or neuter.

2. Some personal appellatives, and names of trees, are feminine by signification: as.

Anus, nărus, socrus;—cornus, laurus, and quercus. Myrtus also is feminine and rarely masculine. See § 29, 1 and 2.

EXCEPTIONS IN DECLENSION.

§ 89. Dŏmus, a house, is partly of the fourth declension, and partly of the second. It is thus declined:—

Singular.	Plural.
N. do'-mus,	do'-mūs,
G. do'-mūs, or do'-mī,	dom'-u-ắm, or do-mō'-rŭm,
D. dom'-u-ī, or do'-mō,	dom'-ĭ-bŭs,
Ac. do'-mum,	do'-mūs, or do'-mōs,
V. do'-mŭs,	do'-mūs,
Ab. do'-mō.	dom'-ĭ-bŭs.

- (a.) Domūs, in the genitive, signifies, of a house; domī commonly signifies, at home. The ablative domu is found in Plautus, and in ancient inscriptions. In the genitive and accusative plural the forms of the second declension are more used than those of the fourth.
- (b.) Cornus, a cornel-tree; ficus, a fig, or a fig-tree; laurus, a laurel; and myrtus, a myrtle, are sometimes of the second declension. Pėnus is of the second, third or fourth declension.
- (c.) Some nouns in u have also forms in us and um; as, cornu, cornus, or cornum. Adjectives, compounds of manus, are of the first and second declensions.

REMARK 1. Nouns of this declension anciently belonged to the third, and were formed by contraction, thus:—

Singular.	Plural.
N. fructŭs,	frutuēs, ūs,
G. fructuis, -ūs,	fructuŭm, -ŭm,
D. fructui, -ū,	fructuibus, -ubus, or -ibus,
Ac. fructuem, -um,	fructues, ús,
V. fructŭs,	fructuēs, -ūs,
Ab. fructuĕ, -ū.	fructuĭbŭs, -ŭbŭs, <i>or</i> -ĭbŭs.

- 2. The genitive singular in is is sometimes found in ancient authors; as, anuis, Ter. A genitive in i, after the second declension, also occurs; as, senātus, senāti; tumultus, tumultis. Sall.
- 3. The contracted form of the dative in u is not often used; yet it sometimes occurs, especially in Cæsar, and in the poets.
 - 4. The contracted form of the genitive plural in um rarely occurs.
- 5. The following nouns have $\check{u}bus$ in the dative and ablative plural:—

Acus, a needle.	Artus, <i>a joint.</i>	Partus, <i>a birth</i> .	Spěcus, a den.
Arcus, a bow.	Lăcus, <i>a lake</i> .	Pěcu, <i>a flock</i> .	Tribus, a tribe.

Genu, a knee; portus, a harbor; tonitrus, thunder; and veru, a spit, have ibus or ubus.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

§ 90. Nouns of the fifth declension end in $\bar{e}s$, and are of the feminine gender.

They are thus declined: -

Res, a thing.		Dies, a	Dies, $a day$.	
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.	
N. $f rar es,$	f rar es,	<i>N</i> . di'-ēs,	di'-ēs,	
G. rĕ'-ī,	rē'-rŭm,	$G. \operatorname{di-\bar{e}'-\bar{i}},$	di-ē'-rŭm,	
D. rĕ'-ī,	rē'-bŭs,	$D. \operatorname{di-\bar{e}'-\bar{i}},$	di-ē'-bŭs,	
. $Ac.$ rěm,	rēs,	Ac. di'-em,	di'-ēs,	
V. rēs,	rēs, .	V. di'-ēs,	di'-ēs,	
Ab. rē.	rē'-bŭs.	$Ab.\mathrm{di}'$ -ē.	di-ē'-bŭs.	

REMARK. Nouns of this declension, like those of the fourth, seem to have belonged originally to the third declension.

EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.

1. Dies, a day, is masculine or feminine in the singular, and always masculine in the plural; meridies, mid-day, is masculine only.

Note. Dies is seldom feminine, in good prose writers, except when it denotes duration of time, or a day fixed and determined.

EXCEPTIONS IN DECLENSION.

2. The genitive and dative singular sometimes end in ē or in ī, instead of ei; as, gen. diē for diēi, Virg.; fīde for fidei, Hor.; acie for aciēi, Cæs.—gen. plēbī for plebēi, Liv.—dat. fīde for fidei, Hor., pernicie, Liv., and pernicii, Nep., for perniciēi. The genitive rabiēs contracted for rabieis, after the third declension, is found in Lucretius.

REMARK 1. There are only about eighty nouns of this declension, and of these only two, res and dies, are complete in the plural. Acies, efficies, elwies, facies, glacies, progenies, series, species, spes, want the genitive, dative, and ablative plural, and the rest want the plural altogether.

REM. 2. All nouns of this declension end in ies, except four—fides, faith; res, a thing; spes, hope; and plebes, the common people;—and all nouns in ies are of this declension, except abies, aries, paries, quies, and requies, which are of the third declension.

DECLENSION OF COMPOUND NOUNS.

§ **91.** When a compound noun consists of two nominatives, both parts are declined; but when one part is a nominative, and the other an oblique case, the nominative only is declined. Of the former kind are respublica, a commonwealth, and jusjurandum, an oath; of the latter, mater-familias, a mistress of a family. Cf. § 43, 2.

Singular	r.	Plural.	
N. V. res-pub	'-lĭ-ca,	N. V. res-pub'-li-cæ,	
G. D. re-i-pub	′-lĭ-cæ,	G. re-rum-pub-li-cā'-rum	ì,
	o'-li-ca-n,	D. Ab. re-bus-pub'-li-cis,	Ī
Ab. re-pub'-	li-cā.	Ac. res-pub'-li-cas.	

Singular

N. jus-ju-ran dum, G. ju-ris-ju-ran'-di, D. ju-ri-ju-ran'-do, Ac. jus-ju-ran'-dum, V. jus-ju-ran'-dum,

Ab. ju-re-ju-ran'-do.

Plural.

ju-ra-ju-ran'-da,

ju-ra-ju-ran'-da. ju-ra-ju-ran'-da.

Singular.

N. ma-ter-fa-mil'-i-as. G. ma-tris-fa-mil'-i-as,

D. ma-tri-fa-mil'-i-as,

Ac. ma-trem-fa-mil'-i-as, V. ma-ter-fa-mil'-i-as. Ab. ma-tre-fa-mil'-i-as, etc.

Note. The preceding compounds are divided and pronounced like the simple words of which they are compounded.

IRREGULAR NOUNS.

Irregular nouns are divided into three classes-Variable, Defective, and Redundant.

I. VARIABLE NOUNS.

A noun is variable, which, in some of its parts, changes either its gender or declension or both.

Nouns which vary in gender are called heterogeneous; those which vary in declension are called heteroclites.

Heterogeneous Nouns.

- 1. Masculine in the singular, and neuter in the plural; as, Avernus, Dindýmus, Ismārus, Massicus, Mænālus, Pangæus, Tartārus, Taygetus; plur. Averna, etc.
- 2. Masculine in the singular, and masculine or neuter in the plural; as,

jocus, a jest; plur. joci, or joca; locus, a place; plur. loci, passages in books, topics, places; lbca, places;—sibilus, a hissing; plur. sibila, rarely sibili;—intubus, endive; plur. intubi or intuba.

- 3. Feminine in the singular, and neuter in the plural; as, carbăsus, a species of flax; plur. carbăsa, very rarely carbăsi, sails, etc., made of it; -Hierosolyma, -æ, Jerusalem; plur. Hierosolyma, -ōrum.
- 4. Neuter in the singular, and masculine in the plural; as, calum, heaven; plur. cali; -Elysium; plur. Elysii; -Argos; plur. Argi. So siser, neut., plur. siseres, masc.
- Neuter in the singular, and masculine or neuter in the plural;

frēnum, a bridle; plur. frēni or frēna;—rastrum, a rake; plur. rastri, or, more rarely, rastra;—pugillar, a writing tablet; plur. pugillāres or pugillaria.

- 6. Neuter in the singular, and feminine in the plural; as, epulum, a feast; plur. epulæ; -balneum, a bath; plur. balneæ or balnea; nundinum, a market-day; plur. nundinæ, a fair.
- 7. Feminine or neuter in the singular, and feminine in the plural; as.

delicia or delicium, delight; plur. delicia.

Heteroclites.

§ 93. 1. Second or third declension in the singular, and third in the plural; as,

nom. and acc. jugërum, an acre; gen. jugëri or jugëris; abl. jugëro and jugëre; plur., nom., and acc. jugëra; gen. jugërum; abl. jugëris and jugeribus.

 Third declension in the singular, and second in the plural; as, vās, a vessel; plur. vāsa, ōrum. Ancīle, a shield, has sometimes anciliōrum, in the genitive plural.

Note. Variable nouns seem anciently to have been redundant, and to have retained a part of each of their original forms. Thus. vāsa, -ārum, properly comes from vāsum, -ī, but the latter, together with the plural of vas, vāsis, became obsolete.

II. DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

§ 94. Nouns are defective either in case or in number.

1. Nouns defective in case may want either one or more cases. Some are altogether indeclinable, and are called aptotes.

Such are pondo, a pound; most nouns in i; as, gummi, gum: foreign words; as, Aaron, Jacob: semis, a half; gid, a kind of plant; the singular of mille, a thousand; words put for nouns; as, velle suum, for sua voluntas, his own inclination; and names of the letters of the alphabet.

A noun which is found in one case only, is called a *Monoptote*; if found in two cases, a *Diptote*; if in three, a *Triptote*; if in four, a *Tetraptote*; and if in five, a *Pentaptote*.

The following list contains most nouns defective in case. Those which occur but once in Latin authors are distinguished by an asterisk:—

*Abactus, acc. pl.; a driving away. Accītu, abl.; a calling for.

Admissu, abl.; admission. Admonitu, abl.; admonition.

Es, not used in gen. pl.

Affatu, abl.; an addressing; -pl. affatus, -ibus.

Algus, nom.; algum, acc.; algu, abl.; cold.

Ambage, abl.; a going around;—pl. entire.

*Amissum, acc.; a loss.

Aplustre, nom. and acc.; the flag of a ship;—pl. aplustria, or aplustra.

Arbitrātus, nom.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; judgment.

Arcessītu, abl.; a sending for.

Astu, nom., acc.; a city.
Astus, nom.; astu, abl.; craft;—astus, acc. pl.

Cacoëthes, nom., acc.; an evil custom;—cacoëthe, nom. pl.; -e, and -es, acc. pl.

Canities, nom. -em, acc.; -e, abl.

Cētos, acc.; a whale;—cēte, nom. and acc. pl.; cetis, dat.

Chaos, nom. acc.; chao, abl.; chaos. Cassem, acc.; casse, abl.; a net;—pl.

Circumspectus, nom.; -um; -u; a looking around.

Coactu, abl.; constraint.

Celite, abl.; pl. entire; inhabitants of heaven.

*Commutatum, acc.; an alteration.

Compědis, gen.; compěde, abl.; a fet ter;—pl. compědes, -ium, -ibus. Concessu, abl.; permission.

Condiscipulatu, abl.; companionship at school.

Crātim, or -em, acc.; -e, abl.; a hurdle;—pl. crātes, -ium, -ibus.

Cupressu, abl.; a cypress.
Dans. nom., scarcely used; dăpis, qe

Daps, nom., scarcely used; dăpis, gen. etc. pl. dapes, -Ibus; a feasi. *Dătu, abl.; a giving.

Derisus, -ui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; ridicule.

Despicatui, dat.; contempt. Dica, nom.; dicam, acc.; a legal process; -dicas, acc. pl. Dicis, gen.; as, dicis gratia, for form's Ditionis, gen.; -i, dat.; -em, acc.; -e, abl.; power. Diu, abl.; in the day time. Divisui, dat.; a dividing. Ebur, ivory ;-not used in t.e plural. *Efflagitātu, abl.; importunity. *Ejectus, nom.; a throwing out. Epos, nom. and acc.; an epic poem. Ergo, abl. (or adr.); for the sake. Essedas, acc. pl.; war chariots. Evectus, nom.; a carrying out. Fæx, dregs, wants gen. pl. Fămē, abl.; hunger. Far, corn, not used in the gen., dat., and abl. pl. Fas, nom.; acc.; right. Fauce, abl.; the throat;—pl. entire. Fax, a torch, wants gen. pl. Fel, gall, wants gen. pl. Feminis, gen.; -i, dat.; -e, abl.; the thigh; -pl. femina, -ibus. Flictu, abl.; a striking. Foris, nom. and gen.; -em, acc; -e, abl.; a door; -pl. entire. Fors, nom.; -tis, gen.; -tem, acc.; -te, abl.; chance. *Frustratui, abl.; a deceiving. Frux, fruit, nom. scarcely used :frūgis, gen., etc. Fulgetras, acc. pl.; lightning. Gausape, nom., acc., abl.; a rough garment ;-gausăpa, acc. pl. Glos, nom.; a husband's sister. Grates, acc. pl.; -gratibus, abl.; thanks. Hebdomadam, acc.; a week. Hiems, winter, not used in gen., dat., and abl. pl. Hippomänes, nom. and acc. *Hir, nom.; the palm of the hand. Hortatu, abl.; an exhorting; -pl. hortatĭbus. Impětis, gen.; -e, abl.; a shock;-pl. impetibus. Incitas, or -a, acc. pl.; as, ad incitas redactus, reduced to a strait. *Inconsultu, abl.; without advice. *Indultu, abl.; indulgence. Inferiæ, nom. pl.; -as, acc.; -is, abl.; sacrifices to the dead. Infitias, acc. pl.; a denial; as, ire infitias, to deny. Ingratiis, abl. pl., (used adverbially); against one's will. Injussu, abl.; without command. Inquies, nom.; restlessness.

Instar, nom., acc.: a likeness.

Interdiu, abl. (or adv.); in the day time. *Invitatu, abl.; an invitation. Irrisui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; derision. Jovis, nom., rarely used; -pl. Joves. Jugeris, gen.; -e, abl.; an acre;-pl. jugėra, -um, -ibus. Jussu, abl.; command. Lābes, a spot, wants gen. pl. Lūcu, abl.; day-light. *Ludificatui, dat.; a mockery. Lux, light, wants the gen. pl. Mandatu, abl.; a command. Mane, nom., acc.; mane, or rarely -i. abl.; the morning. Mel, honey, not used in gen., dat., and abl. pl. Mělos, nom., acc.; melo, dat.; melody; —měle, nom., acc. pl. Mětus, fear, not used in gen., dat., and abl. pl. Missu, abl.; a sending; -pl. missus, Monitu, abl.; admonition; - pl. monĭtus. Nātu, abl.; by birth. Nauci, gen., with non; as, homo non nauci, a man of no account. Něfas, nom., acc.; wickedness. Nēmo, nobody, wants the voc. and the pl. Nepenthes, nom., acc.; an herb. Nex, death, wants the voc.;—neces, nom., acc. pl. Nihil, or nihilum, nom. and acc.; -i, gen.; -o, abl.; nothing. Noctu, abl.; by night. Nuptui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abt.; marriage. Obex, nom.; -icem, acc.; -ice, or -jice, abl.; a bolt; -pl. obices, -jicibus. Objectum, acc.; -u, abl.; an interposition; -pl. objectus. Obtentui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; a pretext. Opis, gen.; ŏpem, acc.; ŏpe, abl.; help;—pl. entire. Oppositu, abl.; an opposing; -pl. oppositus, acc. Opus, nom., acc.; need. Os, the mouth, wants the gen. pl. Panaces, nom.; -is, gen.; -e, abl.; an herb. Pax, peace, wants gen. pl. Peccātu, abl.; a fault.

Pecudis, gen.; -i, dat.; -em, acc.; -e,

Piscatus, nom.; -i, gen.; -um, acc.;

Pelăge, acc. pl. of pelăgus; the sea. Permissu, abl.; -um, acc.; permission.

abl. ;-pl. entire.

-u, abl.; a fishing.

Pix, pitch; pices, acc. pl.
Pondo, abl.; in weight. Cf. § 94, 1.
Prèci, dat.; -em, acc.; -e, abl.; prayer;
-pl. entire.

Procer; nom.; -em, acc.; a peer; -pl. entire.

Promptu, abl., readiness.
Pus wants gen. dat. and abl. pl.
Relatum arc : n abl. a recital

Relātum, acc.;—u, abl.; a recital. Repetundārum, gen. pl.; -is, abl.; money taken by extortion.

Rogātu, abl.; a request.

Ros, dew, wants gen. pl.
Rus, the country, wants gen., dat., and

Satias, nom.; -ātem, acc.; āte, abl.; satiety.

Sĕcus, nom., acc.; sex.

Situs, nom.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; situation; --situs, nom. and acc. pl. Situs, nom.; -ūs, gen.; -um, acc.; -u,

abl.; rust;—situs, acc. pl.

Sol, the sun, wants gen. pl.
Sordis, gen.; -em, acc.; -e and -i, abl; filth:—pl. sordes.-ium, etc.

filth;—pl. sordes,-ium, etc.
Spontis, gen.; -e, abl.; of one's own accord.

Subŏles, offspring, wants gen. pl.

Suppetiæ, nom. pl.; -as, acc.; supplies.

Tābum, nom.; -i, gen.; -o, abl.; cor-rupt matter.

Tempe, nom. acc. voc. pl.; a vale in Thessaly.

Tus wants gen., dat., and abl. pl.

Vēnui and -o, dat.; um, acc.; -o, abl.; sale. Veprem, acc.; -e, abl.; a brier;—pl.

entire. Verberis, gen.; -e, abl.; a stripe;-pl.

Verběris, gen.; -e, abl.; a stripe;—pl. verběra, um, ĭbus.

Vesper, nom.; -um, acc-; -e, -i, or -o, abl.; the evening.

Vespera, nom.; -am, acc.; -ā, abl.; the evening.

Vicis, gen.; -i, dat.; -em, acc.; -e, abl.; change; -pl. entire, except gen. Virus, nom.; -i, gen,; -us, acc.; -o, abl.;

poison.
Vis. gen. and dat. rare; strength; pl.

vires, -ium, etc. See § 85. Viscus, nom.; -ĕris, gen.; -ĕre, abl.; an internal organ. pl. viscĕra, etc.

Vocātu, abl.; a calling;—vocātus, acc. pl.

REMARK 1. To these may be added nouns of the fifth declension, which either want the plural, as most of them are abstract nouns, or have in that number only the nominative, accusative, and vocative. Res and dies, however, have the plural entire. Cf. § 90, R. 1.

REM. 2. For the use of the vocative, also, of many nouns, no classical authority can be found.

§ 95. 2. Nouns defective in number, want either the plural or the singular.

(a) Many nouns want the plural from the nature of the things which they express. Such are generally names of persons, most names of places (except those which have only the plural), the names of herbs, of the arts, most material and abstract nouns; but these may have a plural when used as common nouns, (§ 26, R. 3.), and many others.

REM. In Latin the plural of abstract nouns is often used to denote the existence of the quality, attribute, etc. in different objects, or the repetition of an action; and in poetry such plurals are used for the sake of emphasis or metre. See § 98.

The following list contains many of the nouns which want the plural, and also some, marked p, which are included in the above classes, but are sometimes used in the plural.

Aconītum, wolfsbane, p.
Adorea, a military reward.
Aer, the air, p.
Æs, brass, money, p.

Ather, the sky.

Ævum, age, lifetime, p.
Album, an album.
Allium, garlic, p.
Amicitia, friendslip, p.
Argilla, white clay.
Avēna, oats, p.

Balaustium, the flower of the pomegranate. Balsamum, balsam, p. Barathrum, a gulf. Callum, hardened skin, p. Calor, heat, p.

Carduns, a thistle, p. Căro, flesh, p. Cēra, wax, p. Cestus, a girdle. Cicuta, hemlock, p. Cœnum, mud. Contagium, contagion, p. Crocum, saffron. Crocus, saffron, p. Cruor, blood, p. Cutis, the skin, p. Diluculum, the dawn. Ebur, ivory. Electrum, amber, p. Far, corn, p. Fel, gall, p. Fervor, heat, p. Fides, faith. Fimus, dung. Fuga, flight, p. Fumus, smoke, p. Füror, madness, p. Galla, an oak-apple, p. Gelu, frost. Glarea, gravel. Gloria, glory, p. Glastum, woad. Glüten, or Glutinum, glue. Gypsum, white plaster. Hepar, the liver. Hesperus, the evening star. Hīlum, a little thing. Hordeum, barley, p. Humus, the ground. Indoles, native quality, p. Ira, anger, p. Jubar, radiance. Jus, justice, law, p. Justitium, a law vacation.

Lac, milk. Lætitia, joy, p. Languor, faintness, p. Lardum, bacon, p. Latex, liquor, p. Letum, death. Lignum, wood, p. Linus, mud. Liquor, liquor, p. Lues, a plague. Lutum, clay, p. Lux, light, p. Macellum, the shambles. Mane, the morning. Marmor, marble, p. Mel, honey, p. Meridies, mid-day. Mors, death, p. Munditia, neatness, p. Mundus, female ornaments. Museus, moss. Nectar, nectar. Nēmo, no man. Nequitia, wickedness, p. Nihilum, nihil, or nil, nothing. Nitrum, natron. Oblivio, forgetfulness, p. Omāsum, bullock's tripe. Opium, opium. Palea, chaff, p. Pax, peace, p. Pěnum, and Pěnus, provisions, p. Přper, pepper. Pix, pitch, p. Pontus, the sea. Prolubium, desire. Pūbes, the youth. Pulvis, dust, p.

Purpura, purple, p. Quies, rest, p. Ros, dew, p. Rubor, redness, p. Sabulo and Sabŭlum, gravel. Sal, salt. Sălum, the sea. Sălus, safety. Sanguis, blood. Scrupulum, a scruple, p. Senium, old age. Siler, an osier. Sināpi, mustard. Siser, skirret, p Sitis, thirst. Sol, the sun, p. Sŏpor, sleep, p. Specimen, an example. Spuma, foam, p. Sulfur, sulphur, p. Supellex, furniture. Tabes, a consumption. Tābum, corrupt matter. Tellus, the earth. Terror, terror, p. Thymum, thyme, p. Tribulus, a thistle, p. Tristitia, sadness. Ver, spring. Vespěra, the evening. Veternus, lethargy. Vigor, strength, p. Vinum, wine, p. Virus, poison. Viscum, and Viscus, bird-lime. Vitrum, woad. Vulgus, the common peo-Zingiber, ginger.

§ **96.** (b). The names of festivals and games, and several names of places and books, want the singular; as, *Bacchanalia*, a festival of Bacchus; *Olympia*, the Olympic games; *Bucolica*, a book of pastorals; and the following names of places:—

Acroceraunia, Baiæ, Amŷclæ, Ceraunia, Artaxăta, Ecbatăna, Athēnæ, Esquiliæ, Fundi, Gabii, Gādes, Gemoniæ, Locri, Parisii, Philippi, Puteŏli, Sūsa, Syracūsæ, Thermopÿlæ, Veii.

Note. Some of those in i properly signify the people.

The following list contains most other nouns which want the singular, and also some, marked s, which are rarely used in that number:—

Acta, records.
Adversaria, a memorandum-book.
Æstīva, sc. castra, summer quarters.

Alpes, the Alps, s. Annales, annals, s. Antæ, door-posts. Antæ, a forelock.

Apinæ, trifles. Argutiæ, witticisms, s. Arma, arms. Artus, the joints, s. Bellaria, sweetmeats.

Bīgæ, a two-horse charioi, s. Braccæ, breeches. Branchiæ, the gills of Brevia, shallow places. Calendæ, the Calends. Cancelli, balustrades. Cāni, gray hairs. Casses, a hunter's net, s. Caulæ, sheep-folds. Celĕres, the body-guard of the Roman kings. Cibaria, victuals, s. Clitellæ, a pack-saddle. Codicilli, a writing. Collites, the gods, s. Crepundia, a rattle. Cunabŭla, and Cūnæ, a cradle. Cyclades, the Cyclades, s. Decimæ, tithes, s. Diræ, the Furies, s. Divitiæ, riches. Druides, the Druids. Dryades, the Dryads, s. Epŭlæ, a banquet, s. Eumenides, the Furies, s. Excubiæ, watches. Exsequiæ, funeral rites. Exta, entrails. Exuviæ, spoils. Facetiæ, pleasantry, s. Feriæ, holidays, s. Fides, a stringed instrument, s. Flabra, blasts. Fraces, the lees of oil. Frāga, strawberries, s. Gemini, twins, s. Genæ, cheeks, s. Gerræ, trifles. Grātes, thanks. Habēnæ, reins, s. Hiberna, sc. castra, winter quarters. Hyades, the Hyades, s. Idus, the ides of a month. Ilia, the flank. Incunabŭla, a cradle. Indutiæ, a truce. \$ 97.

Induviæ, clothes. Ineptiæ, fooleries, s. Inferi, the dead. Inferiæ, sacrifices in honor of the dead. Insecta, insects. Insidiæ, an ambuscade, s. Justa, funeral rites. Lactes, small entrails, s. Lamenta, lamentations. Lapicidinæ, a stone quar-Lafebræ, a hiding place, Laurices, young rabbits. Lautia, presents to foreign ambassadors. Lemures, hobgoblins. Lendes, nits Liběri, children, s. Luceres, a division of the $Roman\ cavalry.$ Magalia, cottages. Majores, ancestors. Mānes, the shades, s. Manubiæ, spoils of war. Mapalia, huts, s. Minaciæ, and Minæ, threats. Minores, posterity. Moenia, the walls of a city, s. Multitia, garments finely wrought. Munia, official duties. Naiades, water-nymphs, s. Nāres, the nostrils, s. Natāles, parentage. Nătes, the haunches, s. Nomæ, corroding sores or ulcers., s. Nonæ, the nones of a month. § 326, 1. Nūgæ, jests, nonsense. Nundinæ, the weekly market. Nuptiæ, a marriage. Oblivia, forgetfulness, s. Offuciæ, cheats, s. Optimates, the aristocratic party, s.

Palearia, the dewlap, s. Pandectæ, the pandects. Parietinæ, old walls. Partes, a party, s. Pascua, pastures, s. Penātes, household gods. Phalěræ, trappings. Philtra, love potions. Pleiades, the Pleiads or seven stars, s. Postěri, posterity. Præbia, an amulet. Præcordia, thediaphragm, the entrails. Primitiæ, first fruits. Proceres, nobles, s. Pugillaria, or -āres, writing-tablets, s. Quadrigæ, a team of four horses, s. Quirîtes, Roman citizens, Quisquiliæ, refuse. Reliquiæ, the remains, s. Salebræ, rugged roads, s. Salinæ, salt pits. Scālæ, a ladder, s. Scatebræ, a spring, s. Scopæ, a broom. Scruta, old stuff. Sentes, thorns, s. Sponsalia, espousals. Statīva, sc. castra, a stationary camp. Supěri, the gods above. Talaria, winged shoes. Tenebræ, darkness, s. Tesca, rough places. Thermæ, warm baths. Tormina, colic-pains. Transtra, seats for rowers, s. Trīcæ, trifles, toys. Utensilia, utensils. Valvæ, folding doors, s. Vepres, brambles, s. Vergiliæ, the seven stars. Vindiciæ, a legal claim, s. Virgulta, bushes.

§ 97. The following usually differ in meaning in the different numbers.

Edes, -is, a temple.
Edes, -ium, a house.
Aqua, water.
Aqua, medicinal springs.
Auxilium, aid.
Anxilia. availiury troops.

Bŏnum, a good thing.
Bŏna, property.
Carcer, a prison.
Carcĕres, the barriers of a race-course.
Castrum, a castle.

Castra, a camp.
Comitium, a part of the
Roman forum.
Comitia, an assembly for
election.
Copia, plenty.

Copiæ, troops, forces.
Cupedia, -æ, daintiness.
Cupedia, -ārum, and
Cupedia, -ārum, dainties.
Facultas, ability.
Facultātes, property.
Fastus, -ās, pride.
Fastus, -aum, and
Fasti, -ōrum, a calendar.
Fortūna, Fortune.
Fortūna, vealth.
Furfur, bran.
Furfūres, dandruff.
Gratia, favor.
Gratia, thanks.

Impedimentum, a hinderance.
Impedimenta, baggage.
Litera, a letter of the alphabet.
Litera, an epistle.
Lūdis, pastime.
Lūdi, public games.
Lustrum, a morass.
Lustran, a haunt or den of
wild beasts.
Mos, custom.
Mores, manners.
Nāris, a nostril.
Nūres, the nose.

Natālis, a birthday.
Natāles, birth, lineage.
Opera, work, labor.
Opera, workmen.
Opis, gen. power.
Opes, -um, means, wealth.
Plága, a region, tract.
Plága, nets, toils.
Principium, a beginning.
Principia, the general's quarters.
Rostrum, a beak, prow.
Rostra, the Rostra.
Sal, salt.
Săles, witticisms.

§ 98. The following plurals, with a few others, are sometimes used in poetry, especially in the nominative and accusative, instead of the singular, for the sake of emphasis or metre.

Æquŏra, the sea. Alta, the sea. Animi, courage. Anræ, the air. Carīnæ, a keel. Cervices, the neck. Colla, the neck. Comæ, the hair. Connubia, marriage. Corda, the heart. Corpŏra, a body. Crepuscula, twilight. Currūs, a chariot. Exsilia, banishment. Frigora, cold. Gaudia, joy. Gramina, grass. Guttura, the throat.

Hymenæi, marriage. Ignes, love. Inguina, the groin. Iræ, anger. Jejunia, fasting. Jubæ, a mane. Limina, a threshold. Litora, à shore. Mensæ, a service or course of dishes. Neniæ, a funeral dirge. Numina, the divinity. Odia, hatred. Ora, the mouth, the countenance. Oræ, confines. Ortus, a rising, the east. Otia, ease, leisure.

Pectora, the breast. Reditus, a return. Regna, a kingdom. Rictus, the jaws. Robora, strength. Silentia, silence. Sinus, the bosom of a Roman garment. Tædæ, a torch. Tempora, time. Terga, the back. Thalami, marriage or marriage-bed. Tori, a bed, a couch. Tūra, frankincense. Viæ, a journey. Vultus, the countenance.

III. REDUNDANT NOUNS.

- § 99. Nouns are redundant either in termination, in declension, in gender, or in two or more of these respects.
- 1. In termination: (a.) of the nominative; as, arbor, and arbos, a tree: (b.) of the oblique cases; as, tigris,; gen. tigris, or -idis; a tiger.
 - 2. In declension; as, laurus; gen. -i, or -ūs; a laurel.
 - 3. In gender; as, vulgus, masc. or neut.; the common people.
- 4. In termination and declension; as, senecta, -a, and senectus, -ūtis; old age.
 - 5. In termination and gender; as pileus, masc., and pileum, neut.; a hat-
- 6. In declension and gender; as pēnus, i or ūs, masc. or fem., and pēnus, -oris, neut.; a store of provisions. Spēcus, -ūs or -i, masc. fem. or neut.; a cave.
- 7. In termination, declension, and gender; as, menda, -x, fem. and mendum, -i, neut.; a fault.

The following list contains most Redundant Nouns of the above classes:-

Acĭnus, -um, and -a, a berry. Adagium, and -io, a proverb. Admonitio, -um, and -us, ūs, a remind-

tng.

Ethra, and wther, the clear sky.

Affectio, and -us, üs, affection.

Agamemno, and -on, Agamemnon,

Alabaster, tri, and pl. -tra, örum, an

alabaster box.

Alimonia, and -um, aliment.
Alluvio, and -es, a flood.
Alvearium, and -äre, a bee-hive.
Amarăcus, and -um, marjoram.
Amygdăla, and -um, an almond.
Anfractum, and -us, üs, a winding.
Angiportum, and -us, üs, a narrow lane
or alley.

or alley.
Antidotus, and -um, an antidote.
Aranea, and -us, i, a spider.
Arar, and Araris, the river Arar.
Arbor, and -os, a tree.
Architectus, and -on, an architect.
Arcus, -ūs, and i, a bow.
Attagēna, and -gen, a moor-hen.
Avaritia, and -ies, avarice.
Augmentum, and -men, an increase.
Baccar, and -āris, a kind of herb.
Bacülus, and -um, a staff.
Balteus, and -um, a betl.
Barbaria, and -ies, barbarism.
Barbītus, and -on, a harp.
Batillus, and -um, a fire-shovel.
Blanditia, and -ies, flattery.
Buccina, and -um, a trumpet.
Būra, and -is, a plough-tail.
Būra, and -is, a plough-tail.
Buxus, and -um, the box-tree.

Cæpa, and cæpe, an onion.

Calamister, tri, and -trum, a crispingpin. Callus, and -um, hardened skin. Cancer, cri, or ĕris, a crab. Canitia, and -ies, hoariness. Cāpus, and cāpo, a capon. Carrus, and -um, a kind of waggon. Cassida, and -cassis, a helmet. Catīnus, and -um, a bowl, dish. Chirographus, and -um, a hand-writ ng. Cingula, -us, and -um, a girdle. Clipeus, and -um, a shield. Cochlearium, -ar, and -āre, a spoon Colluvio, and -ies, filth. Commentarius, and -um, a journal Compages, and -go, a joining. Conatum, and -us, ūs, an attempt. Concinnitas, and -tūdo, neatness. Consortium, and -io, partnership. Contagium, -io, and -es, contact. Cornum, -us, i, or ūs, a cornel tree. Costos, i, and -um, a kind of shrub.

Cratera, and crater, a bowl. Crocus, and -um, saffron. Crystallus, and -um, crystal. Cubitus, and -um, the elbow. Cupiditas, and -pido, desire. Cupressus, i, or ūs, a cypress-tree. Delicia, and -um, delight. Delphinus, and delphin, a dolphin. Dictamnus, and -um, dittany. Diluvium, -o, and -ies, a deluge. Dŏmus, i, or ūs, a house. Dorsus, and -um, the back. Duritia, and -ies, hardness. Effigia, and -ies, an image. Elegia, and on, i, an elegy. Elephantus, and -phas, an elephant. Epitoma, and -e, an abridgment. Esseda, and -um, a chariot. Evander, dri, and -drus, Evander. Eventum, and -us, ūs, an event. Exemplar, and -are, a pattern. Ficus, i, or ūs, a fig-tree. Fimus, and -um, dung. Fretum, and -us, ūs, a strait. Fulgetra, and -um, lightning. Galerus, and -um, a hat, cap. Ganea, and -um, an eating-house. Gausăpa, -es, -e, and -um, frieze. Gibba, -us, and -er, čri, a hump. Glutinum, and -ten, glue. Gobius, and -io, a gudgeon. Grammatica, and -e, grammar. Grus, gruis, and gruis, is, a crane. Hebdomăda, and -mas, a week. Hellebörus, and -um, hellebore. Hönor, and hönos, honor. Hyssöpus, and -um, hyssop. Ilios, -um, and -on, Troy. Incestum, and -us, us, incest. Intubus, and -um, endive. Jugulus, and -um, the throat. Juventa, -us, ūtis, and -as, youth. Lăbor, and labos, labor. Lacerta, and -us, a lizard. Laurus, i, or us, a laurel. Lepor, and lepos, wit. Ligur, and -us, ŭris, a Ligurian. Lupīnus, and -um, a lupine. Luxuria, and -ies, luxury. Mæander, -dros, and -drus, Mæander. Margarita, and -um, a pearl. Materia, and -ies, materials. Medimnus, and -um, a measure. Menda, and -um, a fault. Modius, and -um, a measure. Mollitia, and -ies, softness. Momentum, and -men, influence. Mūgil, and -ĭlis, a mullet. Mulciber, eri, or eris, Vidoan.

Muletra, and -um, a milk-pail. Munditia, and -ies, neatness. Muria, and -ies, brine or pickle. Myrtus, i or ūs, a myrtle. Nardus, and -um, nard. Nāsus, and -um, the nose. Necessītas, and -ūdo, necessity. Nequitia, and -ies, worthlessness. Notitia, and -ies, knowledge. Oblivium, and -io, forgetfulness. Obsidium, and -io, a siege. Edipus, i, or odis, Edipus. Ostrea, and -um, an oyster. Palātus, and -um, the palate. Palumba, -us, and -es, a pigeon. Papyrus, and -um, papyrus. Paupertas, and -ies, poverty. Pavus, and pavo, a peacock. Pěnus, i, -oris, or ūs, and pěnum, pro-Peplus, and -um, a reil. Perseus, ei, or eos, Perseus. Pileus, and -um, a hat. Pīnus, i, or ūs, a pine-tree. Pistrīna, and -um, a bake-house. Planitia, and -ies, a plain. Plato, and Platon, Plato. Plebs, and plebes, ei, the common people. Porrus, and -um, a leek. Postulatum, and -io, a request. Præsēpia, -ium, -es, or -is, and -e, a stable. Prætextum, and -us, ūs, a pretext. Prosapia, and -ies, lineage. Rāpa, and -um, a turnip. Requies, ētis or ēt, rest. Rēte, and rētis, a net. Reticulus, and -um, a small net.

Rictum, and -us, as, the open mouth. Sævitia, -ūdo and -ies, ferocity. Săgus, and -um, a military cloak. Sanguis, and sanguen, blood.
Satrapes, and satraps, a satrap.
Scabritia, and -ies, roughness.
Scorpius, -os, and -io, a scorpion. Scorpius, -os, and -io, a scorpion Segmentum, and -men, a piece. Seguitia, and -ies, sloth. Senecta, and -us, old age. Sequester, tri, or tris, a trustee. Sesama, and -um, sesame. Sibilus, and -a, ōrum, a hissing. Sinus, and -um, a goblet. Sparus, and -um, a goblet. Sparus, and -ies, fllhiness. Stramentum, and -men, straw. Suffimentum, and -men, fumiga Suffimentum, and -men, fumigation. Suggestus, and -um, a pulpit, stage. Supparus, and -um, a linen garment. Supplicium, -icamentum, and -icatio a public supplication. Tapētum, -ēte, and -es, tapestry. Teneritas, and -tudo, softness. Tergum, and -us, oris, the back. Tiāra, and -as, a turban. Tignus, and -um, a beam, timber. Tigris, is, or idis, a tiger. Titanus, and Titan, Titan. Tonitruum, and -trus, üs, thunder. Torale, and -al, a bed-covering. Trăbes, and trabs, a beam. Tribula, and -um, a threshing sledge. Vespera, -per, eri and eris, the evening. Vinaceus, and -a, orum, a grape-stone. Viscus, and -um, the mistletoe. Vulgus, masc. and neut., the common people.

REMARK 1. To these may be added some other verbals in us and io, and Greek nouns in o and on; as, Dio and Dion; also some Greek nouns in es and e, which have Latin forms in a; as, Atrides and Atrida. See § 45.

REM. 2. Some proper names of places also are redundant in number; as, Argos and Argi; Fidēna and Fidēna; Thēbe and Thēbæ.

Note. The different forms of most words in the above list are not equally common, and some are rarely used, or only in particular cases.

DERIVATION OF NOUNS.

§ 100. Nouns are derived from other nouns, from adjectives, and from verbs.

I. FROM NOUNS.

From nouns are derived the following classes:-

1. A patronymic is the name of a person, derived from that of his father or other ancestor, or of the founder of his nation.

- Note 1. Patronymics are properly Greek nouns, and have been borrowed from that lan guage by the Latin poets.
 - (a.) Masculine patronymics end in ides, ides, ades, and iddes.
- (1.) Nons in us of the second declension, and those nouns of the third declension, whose root ends in a short syllable, form their patronymics in ides; as, Priamus, Priamides; Agamemnon, gen. onis, Agamemnonides.
- (2.) Nouns in eus and cles form their patronymics in ides; as, A-treus, Atrides; Heracles (i. e. Hercules,) Heraclides.
- Rem. 1. Anides, in Virg. A. 9, 653, is formed in like manner, as if from Eneus, instead of Eneas.
- (3.) Nouns in ās and ēs of the first declension form their patronymics in ādes, as Ænēās, Ænēādes; Hippotēs, Hippotādes.
- (4.) Nouns in ius of the second declension, and those nouns of the third declension, whose root ends in a long vowel, form their patronymics in iades; as, Thestius, Thestiades; Amphitryō (gen. ōnis), Amphitryoniades.
- REM 2. A few nouns also of the first declension have patronymics in tades; as, Anchises, Anchistades.
- (b.) Feminine patronymics end in is, ēis, and ias, and correspond in termination to the masculines, viz. is to ĭdes, ēis to īdes, and ias to ĭdes; as, Tyndărus, masc. Tyndarīdes, fem. Tyndāris; Nēreus, masc. Nereīdes, fem. Nerēis; Thestius, masc. Thestĭādes, fem. Thestĭas.
- REM. 3. A few feminines are found in *ine*, or *ione*; as, Nerine, Acrisione, from Nereus and Acrisius.
- Note 2. Patronymics in des and ne are of the first declension; those in is and as, of the third.
- 2. A patrial or gentile noun is derived from the name of a country; and denotes an inhabitant of that country; as,
- $Tr\bar{o}s$, a Trojan man ; $Tr\bar{o}as$, a Trojan woman : $Mac\bar{e}do$, a Macedonian ; Samnis, a Samnite ; from $Tr\bar{o}ja$, Macedonia, and Samnium.
- Note 3. Most patrials are properly adjectives, relating to a noun understood; as, $h \delta m o$, $c \bar{c} v \bar{s}$, etc. See § 128, 6.
- 3. A diminutive signifies a small thing of the kind denoted by the primitive; as, liber, a book; libellus, a little book.

Diminutives generally end in *ĭdus*, *ĭda*, *ĭdum*, or *cĭdus*, *cĭda*, *cĭdum*, according as the primitive is masuline, feminine, or neuter.

A. 1. If the primitive is of the first or second declension, or its root ends in c, g, d, or t after a vowel, the diminutive is formed by annexing ŭlus, a, um to the root; as, arūla, servūlus, puerūlus, scutūlum, cornicūla, regūlus, captūlum, mercedūla; from āra, servus, puer, scūtum, cornix, (-īcis), rex, (rēgis), cāput, (-itis), merces, (-ēdis.)

2. Primitives of the first or second declension whose root ends in e or i, instead of ulus, a, um, add olus, a, um; as, filiolus, gloriola, horreolum; from

filius, gloria, horreum.

- 3. Primitives of the first or second declension whose root ends in l, n, or r, form diminutives by contraction in ellus, a, um, and some in illus, a, um; as, occllus, asellus, likellus, likellum; from oculus, asina, liber, lucrum; and sigillum, tigillum, from signum, tignum.
- B. 1. If the primitive is of the third, fourth, or fifth declension, the diminutive is formed in călus, (or icălus), a, um.
- 2. Primitives of the third declension whose nominative ends in r, or in os or us from roots ending in r, annex culus to the nominative; as, fraterculus, soror-

cŭla, oscŭlum, corpuscŭlum; from j rāter, sŏror, ŏs, (ŏris), corpus, (-ŏris).—So also primitives in es and is, but these drop the s of the nominative; as, ignicŭlus, nūbecūla, diecūla; from ignis, nūbes, dies.

3. Primitives of other terminations of the third declension, and those of the fourth, add iculus to the root; as, ponticulus, coticula, ossiculum, versiculus, corniculum; from pons, cos, es, (ossis, versus, cornu.

4. Primitives in o, (inis or ōnis), in adding călus, a, um, change the final vowel of the root (i or o) into u; as, homunculus, sermunculus; from hōmo and sermo; and a few primitives of other terminations form similar diminutives; as, avunculus, domunculu; from avus and admus.

C. 1. A few diminutives end in uleus, as, equuleus, aculeus; from equus and acus; and a few also in io; as, homuncio, senecio, from homo and senex.

2. Diminutives are sometimes formed from other diminutives; as, asellūlus, from asellus; sometimes two or more diminutives with different terminations are formed from the same primitive, as, homunculus, homulus, and homuncio; from homo; and sometimes the primitive undergoes euphonic changes; as rumusculus, from rūmor.

REM. Some diminutives differ in gender from their primitives; as ranunculus, scamillus, from rana and scamnum.

4. (a.) An amplificative is a personal appellation denoting an ex-

cess of that which is expressed by its primitive; as,

Capito, one who has a large head: so nāso, labeo, bucco, fronto, mento, one who has a large nose, lips, or cheeks, a broad forehead or long chin; from caput, nāsus, labia, bucca, frons, and mentum.

(b.) A few personal appellatives in io denote the trade or profession to which a person belongs; as, ludio, an actor; pellio, a furrier; from lūdus, and pellis.

- 5. The termination ium added to the root of a noun, indicates the office or condition, and often, derivatively, an assemblage of the individuals denoted by the primitive; as, collegium, colleagueship, and thence an assembly of colleagues; servitum, servitude, and collectively the servants; so sacerdotium, and ministerium; from collega, servus, sacerdos, and minister.
- 6. The termination immium is added to the root of a few nouns, denoting something derived from the primitives, or imparting to it its peculiar character; as, testimonium, testimony; so vadimonium, patrimonium, matrimonium; from testis, vās (vādis), pāter, and māter.
- 7. The termination ētum, added to the root of names of plants, denotes a place where they grow in abundance; as, quercētum, laurētum, olivētum, from quercus, laurus, and oliva.

So, also, asculētum, dumētum, myrtētum, and by analogy saxētum. But some drop e; as, carectum, salictum, virgultum, and arbustum.

- 8. The termination arium, added to the root of a noun, denotes a receptacle of the things signified by the primitive; as, aviarium, an aviary; plantarium, a nursery; from avis, a bird, and planta, a plant.
- 9. The termination ile, added to the root of names of animals, marks the place where they are kept; as, borile, a stall for oxen; so caprile, ovile; from bos, an ox, caper, a goat, and oris, a sheep.

Note 1. This class and the preceding are properly neuter adjectives.

NOTE 2. Abstract nouns are derived either from adjectives or from verbs. See § 26, 5.

II. FROM ADJECTIVES.

§ 101. 1. Abstract nouns are formed by adding the termination was, itado, ia, itia or ities, ēdo, and imonia to the root of the primitive.

- 2. Abstracts in *itas*, (equivalent to the English *ty* or *ity*), are formed from adjectives of each declension; as, *cupiditas*, *teneritas*, *celeritas*, *crudelitas*, *fe'icitas*; from *cupidus*, *těner*, *cēler*, *crudēlis*, and *f'ēlix*.
- (1.) When the root ends in i, the abstract is formed in étas; as, piètas, from pius; and when it ends in t, as only is added; as, honestas from honestus.
- (2.) In a few abstracts i before tas is dropped; as, libertas, juventas, from liber, juvenis. In ficultas and difficultas, from facilis, difficilis, there is a change also in the root-wovel from i to u.
- (3.) A few abstracts are formed in itus or tus, instead of itas; as, servitus, juventus, from servus and juvents. See § 76, Exc. 2.
- 3. Abstracts in *itūdo* are formed from adjectives in *us*, and some from adjectives of the third declension of two or three terminations; as, *magnitudo*, *altitūdo*, *fortitūdo*, *acritūdo*, from *magnus*, *altus*, *fortis*, ācer. Polysyllabic adjectives in *tus*, generally form their abstracts by adding ūdo instead of *itūdo* to their root; as, *consuetūdo*, from *consuētus*.
- 4. Abstracts in ia (equivalent to the English ce or cy,) are for the most part formed from adjectives of one termination; as, clementia, constantia, impudentia, from clemens, constants, impudens. But some adjectives in us and er, including verbals in cundus, likewise form their verbals in ia; as, miseria, angustia, facundia, from miser, angustus, facundus.
- 5. Abstracts in *itia* and *ities* are formed from adjectives in *us* and *is*; as, *justitia*, *tristitia*, *duritia*, and *durities*, *segnitia* and *segnities*, from *justus*, *tristis*, *dūrus*, and *segnis*.
- 6. A few abstracts are formed in $\bar{e}do$, and a few in $im\bar{o}nia$; and sometimes two or more abstracts of different terminations are formed from the same adjective; as, acritas, acritado, $acr\bar{e}do$, and acrimonia, from $\bar{a}cer$. In such case those in $it\bar{u}do$ and imonia seem to be more intensive in signification than those in ttas.

REMARK. Adjectives, as distinguished from the abstracts which are formed from them, are called *concretes*.

III. FROM VERBS.

§ 102. Nouns derived from verbs are called verbal nouns.

The following are the principal classes:-

- 1. Abstract nouns expressing the action or condition denoted by a verb, especially by a neuter verb, are formed by annexing or to their first root; as, amor, love; favor, favor; mæror, grief; splendor, brightness; from amo, faveo, mæreo, and splendeo.
- 2. (a.) Abstracts are also formed from many verbs by annexing ium to the first or to the third root; as, colloquium, a conference; gaudium, joy; exordium, a beginning; exitium, destruction; solatium, consolation; from collóquor, gaudeo, exordior, exeo and solor.
- 3. Some verbal abstracts are formed by annexing ēla, imōnia, or imōnium, to the first root of the verb; as, querēla and querimonia, a complaint; suadēla, persuasion; from queror and suadeo.
- 4. (a.) The terminations men and mentum, added to the first root of the verb, generally with a connecting vowel, denote the thing to which the action belongs, both actively and passively, or a means for the performance of the action; as, fulmen from fulgeo, flumen from fluo, agmen from ago, solamen from solor, documentum from doceo, blandimentum from blandior.
- (b.) The final consonant of the root is often dropped, and the preceding and connecting vowels contracted into one syllable; as, ago, (agimen,) agmen; foveo, (formentum,) fomentum.

- (c.) Some words of this class have no primitive verb in use; as, atramentum, ink; but, in this case, the connecting vowel seems to imply its reference to such a verb as atrare, to blacken.
- 5. (a.) The terminations *ūlum*, *būlum*, *cūlum*; *brum*, *crum*, *trum*, annexed to the first root of a verb, denote an instrument for performing the act expressed by the verb, or a place for its performance; as, *cingūlum*, *operaūlum*, *ventūlūbrum*, *fūlcrum*, *spectrum*, from *cingo*, *operio*, *vēnor*, *ventīlo*, *fulco*, *spēcio*.
- (b.) Sometimes culum is contracted into clum; as, vinclum for vinculum. Sometimes, also, s is inserted before trum; as, rostrum, from rodo, and a connecting vowel is placed before this and some of the other terminations; as, aratirum, stabulum, cubiculum, from aro, sto, and cubo.
- (c.) Some words of this kind are formed from nouns; as, acetabulum, a vinegar cruet; turibulum, a censer; from acetum and tus.
- 6. (a.) Nouns formed by adding or and rix to the third root of the verb, denote respectively the male and female agent of the action expressed by the verb; as, adjūtor, adjūtor, an assistant; fautor, fautorix, a favorer; victor, victrix, a conqueror; from adjūto (adjūto), fūveo (fauto), vinco (victo). They are often likewise used as adjectives. The feminine form is less common than the masculine, and when the third root of the verb ends in s, the feminine is sometimes formed in trix; as, tondeo (tons-) tonstrix.
- (b.) Some nouns in tor are formed immediately from other nouns; as, viātor, a traveller; janitor, a door-keeper; from via and janua. In meretrix from mereo, i of the third root becomes e.
- (c.) The agent of a few verbs is denoted by the terminations a and o annexed to the first root; as, conviva, a guest; advena, a stranger; scriba, a scribe; erro, a vagrant; bibo, a drunkard; comedo, a glutton, from convivo, advenio, etc.
- 7. Many abstract nouns are formed by annexing io and us (gen. ūs) to the third root of a verb; as, actio, an action; lectio, reading; from āgo (act-), lego (lect-);—cantus, singing; vīsus, sight; ūsus, use; from căno (cant-), video (vīs-), ūtor (ūs-).
- REMARK 1. Nouns of both forms, and of like signification, are frequently derived from the same verb; as, concursio and concursus, a running together; môtio and mōtus, etc.
- REM. 2. Nouns formed by adding the termination $\bar{u}ra$ to the third root of a verb, sometimes have the same signification as those in io and us, and sometimes denote the result of an action; as, position; vinctūra, a binding together; from $p\bar{v}no$, and vincio; and the termination $\bar{e}la$ has sometimes the same meaning; as, querēla, complaint; loquēla, speech, from quēror and lóquor.

Note. One of these forms is generally used to the exclusion of the others, and when two or more are found, they are usually employed in somewhat different senses.

8. The termination orium, added to the third root of a verb, denotes the place where the action of the verb is performed; as, auditorium, a lecture-room; conditorium, a repository; from audio and condo.

COMPOSITION OF NOUNS.

§ 103. Compound nouns are formed variously:—

- 1. Of two nouns; as, rupicapra, a wild goat, of rupes and capra. In some words, compounded of two nouns, the former is a genitive; as, senatisconsultum, a decree of the senate; jurisconsultus, a lawyer; in others, both parts are declined; as, respublica, jusjurandum. See § 91.
- 2. Of a noun and a verb; as, artifex, an artist, of ars and făcio; fidi-cen, a harper, of fides and căno; agricola, a husbandman, of ager and colo.

- 3. Of an adjective and a noun; as, aquinoctium, the equinox, of aquus and now: millepēda, a millepēde, of mille and pes.
- In duumvir, triumvir, decemvir, centumvir, the numeral adjective is in the genitive plural.

REMARK 1. When the former part of a compound word is a noun or an adjective, it usually ends in i; as, artifex, rupicapra, agricola, etc. If the second word begins with a vowel, an elision takes place; as, quinquennium, of quinque and annus; magnanimus, of magnus and animus.

- 4. Of an adverb and a noun; as, něfas, wickedness; němo, nobody; of ne, fas, and hômo. So biduum, of bis and dies.
- 5. Of a preposition and a noun: as, incuria, want of care, of in and cara. So intervallum, an interval; præcordia, the diaphragm; proverbium, a proverb; subsellium, a low seat; superficies, a surface.
- REM. 2. When the former part is a preposition, its final consonant is sometimes changed, to adapt it to that which follows it: as, ignobilis, illepidus, imprudentia, irrumpo, of in and nobilis, lepidus, etc. See § 196.

ADJECTIVES.

§ 104. An adjective is a word which qualifies or limits the meaning of a substantive.

Adjectives may be divided, according to their signification, into various classes; as denoting,

- 1. Character or quality; as, bonus, good; albus, white; amicus, friendly.
- 2. State or condition; as, felix, happy; dives, rich.
- 3. Possession; as, herilis, a master's; patrius, a father's.
- 4. Quantity; as, magnus, great; tōtus, entire; parvus, small.
- 5. Number; as, unus, one; secundus, second; tot, so many; quot, as many. These are called numerals.
- 6. Time; as, annuus, yearly; hesternus, of yesterday; bimus, of two years; trimestris, of three months.
 - 7. Place; as, altus, high; vicīnus, near; aërius, aërial; terrestris, terrestrial.
 - 8. Material; as, aureus, golden; fagineus, beechen; terrēnus, earthen.
 - 9. Part; as, nullus, no one; aliquis, some one. These are called partitives.
- 10. Country; as, Romanus, Roman; Arpinas of Arpinum. These are called patrials.
- 11. Diminution; as, parvilus, from parvus, small; misellus, from miser, miserable. These are called diminutives.
- 12. Amplification; as, vinosus and vinolentus, much given to wine; aurītus, having long ears. These are called amplificatives.
- 13. Relation; as, ăridus, desirous of; memor, mindful of; insuētus. These are called relatives.
- 14. Interrogation; as, quantus? how great; qualis? of what kind; quot? how many? quotus? of what number? These are called interrogatives; and, when not used interrogatively, they are called correlatives.
- 15. Specification; as, tālis, such; tantus, so great; tot, so many. These are called demonstratives.

DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 105. 1. Adjectives are declined like substantives, and are either of the first and second declensions, or of the third only.

ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DE-CLENSIONS.

2. The masculine of adjectives belonging to the first and second declensions, ends either in us or in er. The feminine and neuter are formed respectively by annexing a and um to the root of the masculine. The masculine in us is declined like dominus; that in er like gener or ager; the feminine always like musa; and the neuter like regnum.

REMARK 1. The masculine of one adjective, sătur, -ŭra, -ŭrum, full, ends in ur, and s declined like géner.

Bŏnŭs, good.

		Singular.	
_	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	bo'-nŭs,	bo'-nă,	bo'-num,
G.	bo'-nī,	bo'-næ,	bo'-nī,
D.	bo'-nō,	bo'-næ,	bo'-nō,
Ac.	bo'-nŭm,	bo'-năm,	bo'-nŭm,
V.	bo'-nĕ,	bo'-nă,	bo'-num,
Ab.	bo'-nō.	bo'-nā.	boʻ-nō.
		Plural.	
N.	bo'-nī,	bo'-næ,	bo'-nă,
G.	bo-nō′-rŭm,	bo-nā'-rŭm,	bo-no'-rum,
D.	bo'-nīs,	bo'-nīs,	bo'-nīs,
Ac.	boʻ-nōs, *	bo'-nās,	bo'-nă,
V.	bo'-nī,	bo'-næ,	bo'-nă,
Ab.	bo'-nïs.	bo'-nīs.	bo'-nīs.

In like manner decline

Al'-tus, high.	Fī'-dus, faithful.	Lon'-gus, long.
A-vā'-rus, covetous.	Im'-pro-bus, wicked.	Plē'-nus, full.
Be-nig'-nus, kind.	In-ī -quus, unjust.	Tac'-i-tus, silent.

REM. 2. Like bonus are also declined all participles in us; as,

A-mā'-tus. Am-a-tū'-rus. A-man'-dus.

Rem. 3. The masculine of the vocative singular of adjectives in us is sometimes like the nominative; as, O vir fortis atque amicus. Hor. Meus has both mi and meus.

REM. 4. The genitive plural of distributive numerals ends commonly in âm instead of brum; as, crassitado binâm digitorum. Plin.

3. Tener, tender.

Singular.

		eng war.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	te'-nĕr,	ten'-ĕ-ră,	ten'-ĕ -rŭm,
G.	ten'-ĕ-rī,	ten'-ĕ-ræ,	ten'-ĕ-rī,
D.	ten'-ĕ-rō,	ten'-ĕ-ræ,	ten'-ĕ-rō,
Ac.	ten'-ĕ-rŭm,	ten'-ĕ-răm,	ten'-ĕ-r ŭm,
<i>V</i> .	te'-nĕr,	ten'-ĕ-ră,	ten'-ĕ-r ŭm,
Ab.	ten'-ĕ-rō.	ten'-ĕ-rā.	ten'-ĕ- rō.
		Plural.	
N.	ten'-ĕ-rī,	ten'-ĕ-ræ,	ten'-ĕ-ră,
G.	ten-e-rō'-rum,	ten-e-rā'-rŭm,	ten-e-rō'-rŭm,
D.	ten'-ĕ-rīs,	ten'-ĕ-rīs,	ten'-ĕ-rīs,
Ac.	ten'-ĕ-rōs,	ten'-ĕ-rās,	ten'-ĕ-ră,
V.	ten'-ĕ-rī,	ten'-ĕ-ræ,	ten'-ĕ-ră,
Ab.	ten'-ĕ-rīs.	ten'-ĕ-rīs.	ten'-ĕ-rīs.

In like manner are declined

As'-per, rough.	Lă'-cer, torn.	Pros'-per, prosperous.
Ex'-ter, foreign.	Lī'-ber, free.	Să'-tur, full.
Gib'-ber, crook-backed.	Mĭ'-ser. wretched.	, 5

So also alter, except in the genitive and dative singular (see § 107), semifer, and the compounds of gero and fero; as, laniger, opifer.

Note. Prosper is less frequent than prosperus, and exter is scarcely used in the nominative singular masculine.

§ 106. The other adjectives in er drop e in declension; as,

Piger, slothful.

		Singula r.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N. G. D. Ac. V. Ab.	pi'-gĕr, pi'-grī, pi'-grō, pi'-grŭm, pi'-gĕr, pi'-grō.	pi'-gră, pi'-græ, pi'-græ, pi'-grăm, pi'-gră, pi'-grā.	pi'-grŭm, pi'-grī, pi'-grō, pi'-grŭm, pi'-grŭm, pi'-grō.
		Plural.	
N. G. D. Ac. V. Ab.	pi'-grī, pi-grō'-rŭn., pi'-grīs, pi'-grōs, pi'-grī, pi'-grīs.	pi'-græ, pi-grā'-rúm, pi'-grīs, pi'-grās, pi'-græ, pi'-grīs.	pi'-gră, pi-grō'-r ŭm, pi'-grīs, pi'-gră, pi'-gră, pi'-grīs.

In like manner decline

E'-ger, sick. A'-ter, black. Crē'-ber, frequent. Clō'-her, smooth.	Má'-cer, lean. Ní'-ger, black. Pul'-cher, fair. Rú'-ber, red.	Scă'-ber, rough. Si-nis'-ter, left. Tē'-ter, foul. Vă'-fer, crafty.
Gla'-ber, smooth.	Să'-cer, sacred.	, a long on the type

Dexter, right, has -tra, -trum, and less frequently -tera, -terum.

§ 107. Six adjectives in us, and three in er, have their genitive singular in ius, and their dative in ī, in all the genders:—

Alius, another.	Tōtus, whole.	Alter, -tĕra, -tĕrum, the other.
Nullus, no one.	Ullus, any.	Uter, -tra, -trum, which of the two.
Sõlus, alone.	Unus, one.	Neuter, -tra, -trum, neither.

To these may be added the other compounds of uter,—namely, uterque, each of two; utercumque, uterlibet, and utervis, which of the two you please; genutriusque, etc.—also, alteruter, one of two; gen. alterutrius, and sometimes alterus utrius; dat. alterutri. So alteruterque, and unusquisque. See § 138, 4.

Nullus, solus, totus, ullus, and unus are thus declined :-

		Singular.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	ū'-nŭs,	ū'-nă,	ū'-nŭm,
G.	u-nĭ'-ŭs,*	u-nĭ'-ŭs,	u-n ĭ -ŭs,
D.	u'-nī,	u'-nī,	u'-nī,
Ac.	u'-nŭm,	u'-năm,	u'-nŭm,
V.	u'-nĕ,	u'-nă,	u'-nŭm,
Ab.	u'-nō.	u'-nā.	u'-nō.

The plural is regular, like that of bonus.

REMARK 1. Alius has aliud in the nominative and accusative singular neuter, and in the genitive alius, contracted for alius.

REM. 2. Except in the genitive and dative singular, alter is declined like tener,

and uter and neuter like piger.

REM. 3. Some of these adjectives, in early writers, and occasionally even in Cicero, Cæsar, and Nepos, form their genitive and dative regularly, like bonus, tiner, or piger.

ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

- § 108. Some adjectives of the third declension have three terminations in the nominative singular; some two; and others only one.
- I. Those of three terminations end in er, masc.; is, fem.; and e, neut.; and are thus declined:—

Acer, sharp.

	S	ingular.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	ā'-cĕr,	ā'-crĭs,	ā'-crĕ,
G.	a'-cris,	a'-crĭs,	a'-cris,
D.	a'-crī,	a'-crī,	a'-crī,
Ac.	a'-crĕm,	a'-crem,	a'-crĕ,
V.	a'-cĕr,	a'-crĭs,	a'-crĕ,
Ab.	a'-crī.	a'-crī.	a'-crī.

Plural.

N.	a'-crēs,	a'-crēs,	a'-cri-ă,
G.	a'-cri-ťm,	a'-cri-um,	a'-cri-ŭm,
D.	ac'-rĭ-bŭs,	ac'-rĭ-bŭs,	ac'-rĭ-bŭs,
Ac.	a'-crēs,	a'-crēs,	a'-cri-ă,
V.	a'-crēs,	a'-crēs,	a'-cri-ă,
Ab.	ac'-rĭ-bŭs.	ac'-rĭ-bŭs.	ac'-rĭ-bŭs.

In like manner are declined the following;-

Al'-acer, cheerful. Cam-pes'-ter, champaign. Cel'-è-ber, famous. E-ques'-ter, equestrian. Pa-lus'-ter, marshy. Pe-des'-ter, on foot. Pŭ'-ter, rotten. Sa-lū'-ber, wholesome.

Sil-ves'-ter, woody. Ter-res'-ter, terrestrial. Vol'-ŭ-cer, winged.

To these add names of months in -ber, used as adjectives; as, October, etc. (cf. § 71), and celer, swift, which has celeris, celere; gen. celeris, etc.

REMARK 1. The termination er was anciently sometimes feminine; as, volucer fama. Petr.: and, on the other hand, the masculine often ends in is; as, collis silvestris, Cæs.

REM. 2. Volucer has um in the genitive plural.

§ 109. II. Adjectives of two terminations end in is for the masculine and feminine, and e for the neuter, except comparatives, which end in or and us.

Those in is, e, are thus declined:-

Mitis mild.

		Singular.		Plural.	
	M. & F.	N.		M. & $F.$	N.
N.	mi'-tĭs,	mi'-tĕ,	N.	mi'-tēs,	mit'-i-ă,*
G.	mi'-tĭs,	mi'-tĭs,	G.	mit'-i-um,*	mit'-i-ŭm,
D.	mi'-tī,	mi'-ti,	D.	mit'-ĭ-bŭs,	mit'-ĭ-bŭs,
Ac.	mi'-těm,	mi'-tĕ,	Ac.	mi'-tēs,	mit'-i-ă,
V.	mi'-tĭs,	mi'-tĕ,	V.	mi'-tēs,	mit'-i-ă,
Ab.	mi′-tī.	mi'-tī.	Ab.	mit'-ĭ-bŭs.	mit'-ĭ-bŭs.

In like manner decline

Ag'-ĭ-lis, active. Brĕ'-vis, short. Cru-dē'-lis, cruel. Dul'-cis, sweet. For'-tis, brave. Gra'-vis, heavy. In-col'-ŭ-mis, safe. Mi-rab'-ĭ-lis, wonderful. Om'-nis, all.

Tres, three, is declined like the plural of mītis.

Note. Several adjectives of this class have forms also in us, a, um. See § 116.

§ 110. (a.) All comparatives, except plus, more, are thus declined:—

^{*} Pronouncet mish'-e-a, etc. See § 12.

Mitior,* milder.

	Singular.	
		N. mit'-i-ŭs,
N.	$M. \notin F.$ mit'-i-or,	mit'-i-ŭs,
G.	mit-i-ō'-rĭs,	mit-i-ō´-rĭs,
D.	mit-i-ō'-rī,	mit-i-ō'-rī,
Ac.	mit-i-ō'-rĕm,	mit'-i-ŭs,
V.	mit'-i-ŏr,	mit'-i-ŭs,
Ab.	mit-i-ō'-rĕ, or -rī.	mit-i-ō'-rĕ, or -rī.
	Plural.	
	$M. \notin F.$	<i>N</i> .
N.	$M. \not \circ F.$ mit-i- \overline{o} '-r \overline{e} s,	mit-i-ō'-ră,
G	mit-i-ō'-rŭm,	mit-i-ō'-rŭm,
D.	mit-i-or'-ĭ-bŭs,	mit-i-or'-ĭ-bús,
Ac.	mit-i-ō'-rēs,	mit-i-ō'-ră,
V.	mit-i-ō'-rēs,	mit-i-ō'-ră,
Ab.	mit-i-or'-ĭ-bŭs.	mit-i-or'-ĭ-bŭs.

In like manner decline

A'-ti-or, higher. A 1-da'-ci-or, bolder. B-5'-vi-or, shorter. Cru-de'-li-or, more cruel.	Dul'-ci-or, sweeter. Fe-lic'-i-or, happier. Fe-ro'-ci-or, fiercer. For'-ti-or, braver.	Gra'-vi-or, heavier. Pru-den'-ti-or, more pru- dent. U-be'-ri-or, more fertile.
--	---	---

Plūs, more, is thus declined :-

Singular.	Plur	al.
N. N. plus, G. plū'-rĭs, D. Ac. plus, V. (plū'-rĕ, obs.)	M. & F. N. plū'-rēs, G. plu'-ri-būs, D. plu'-rī-būs, Ac. plū'-rēs, V. —, Ab. plu'-rī-būs.	N. plū'-ri, rarely plu -ri-š, plu'-ri-būs, plū'-ri-būs, plū'-ri, plu'ri-būs.
	4	-

So, but in the plural number only, complüres, a great many.

§ 111. III. Other adjectives of the third declension have but one termination in the nominative singular for all genders. They all end in l, r, s, or x, and increase in the genitive.

They are thus declined :-

Fēlix, happy.

			Singular.		
	M.	& F.	J	N.	
	N.	fe'-lix,		fe'-lix,	
	G.	fe-lī'-cĭs,		fe-lī'-cĭs,	
	D.	fe-lī'-cī,		fe-lī'-cī,	
	Ac.	fe-li'-cĕm,		fe'-lix,	
	V.	fe'-lix,		fe'-lix,	
1	Ab.	fe-lī'-cĕ, or	-cī.	fe-lī'-cĕ,	or -cī.

^{*} Pronounced mish'-e-or, etc. See § 12.

Plural.

	M. & F.	N.
N.	fe-lī'-cēs,	fe-lic'-i-ă,*
G.	fe-lic'-i-ŭm,*	fe-lic'-i-ŭm,
D.	fe-lic'-ĭ-bŭs,	fe-lic'-ĭ-bŭs,
Ac.	fe-lī'-cēs,	fe-lic'-i-ă,
V.	fe-lī'-cēs,	fe-lic'-i-ă,
Ab.	fe-lic'-ĭ-bŭs.	fe-lic'-ĭ-bŭs.

Præsens, present.

Singular.

	Dungada	•
	M. & F.	N.
N.	præ'-sens,	præ'-sens,
G.	præ-sen'-tĭs,	præ-sen'-tīs,
D.	præ-sen'-tī,	præ-sen'-tī,
Ac.	præ-sen'-tĕm,	præ'-sens,
V.	præ'-sens,	præ'-sens,
Ab.	præ-sen'-te, or-ti.	præ-sen'-tĕ, or -tī.
	Plural.	
N.	præ-sen'-tēs,	præ-sen'-ti-ă,†
G.	præ-sen'-ti-ŭm,	præ-sen'-ti-ŭm,
D.	præ-sen'-tĭ-bŭs,	præ-sen'-ti-bus,
Ac.	præ-sen'-tēs,	præ-sen'-ti-ă,
V.	præ-sen'-tēs,	præ-sen'-tĭ-ă,
Ab.	præ-sen'-tĭ-bŭs.	præ-sen'-tĭ-bŭs.

In like manner decline

Au'-dax, -ācis, bold.	Par'-ti-ceps, -Ipis, par-	Sol'-lers, -tis, shrewd.
Com'-pos, -ŏtis, master of.	ticipant.	Sos'-pes, -ttis, safe.
Fě'-rox, -ōcis, fierce.	Præ'-pes, -etis, swift.	Sup'-plex, -tcis, sup-
In'-gens, -tis, huge.	Prū'-dens, -tis, prudent.	pliant.

REMARK. All present participles are declined like præsens; as, A'-mans. Mö'-nens. Rë'-gens. Ca'-pi-ens. Au'-di-ens.

Note. A few adjectives of one termination have redundant forms in us, a, um; see § 116.

RULES FOR THE OBLIQUE CASES OF ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

GENITIVE SINGULAR.

§ 112. Most adjectives of the third declension form their genitive singular like nouns of the same termination.

The following may here be specified:-

1. Of those in es (cf. § 73) some have -ĕtis; as, hĕbes, perpes, præpes, and tĕres —inquies and locúples have -ētis;—some have -itis; as, dīves, sospes, and superstes;—some have -dīls; as, dēses, and rēses;—bīpes, and trīpes have -pēdis;—pūbes has pubēris, and impūbes, impubēris and impūbis.

^{*} Pronounced fe-lish'-e-um, etc. See § 10, Exc., and § 7., 3, (b.)

[†] Pronounced pre-zen'-she-a, etc

2. Compos and impos have -ŏtis, and exos, exossis.—Exlex has exlēgis, pernox has permoctis (§ 78), præcox, præcocis, and redux, reducis.—Culebs has cabbis, (§ 77); intercus, intercus, intercus, and vetus, veteris. Those in ceps which are compounds of caput, have -cipitis; as, anceps, præceps (§ 78, 1); but the compounds of ceps from capio have -lpis; as, particeps, participis.—Those in cors, compounds of cor, have -cordis; as, concors, concordis (§ 71, Exc. 2).—Mēmor and immēmor have -ŏris.

ABLATIVE SINGULAR.

- § 113. 1. Adjectives which have e in the nominative singular neuter have only i in the ablative.
- Exc. 1. The ablatives bimestre, caleste, and perenne are found in Ovid, and cognomine in Virgil.
- 2. Comparatives and participles in ns, when used as participles, especially in the ablative absolute, have rather e than i; but participial adjectives in ns have rather i than e.
 - 3. Adjectives of one termination have either e or i in the ablative.

Exc. 2. The following adjectives of one termination have only e in the ablative:—

Bicorpor, bipes, cælebs, compos, dēses, discolor, hospes, impos, impūbes, juvenis, locuples, pauper, princeps, pūber or pūbes, senex, sospes, superstes, tricorpor, tricuspis, and tripes.

Exc. 3. The following adjectives of one termination have only i in the ablative:—

Anceps, concors, discors, hebes, immemor, Iners, ingens, Inops, memor, par, præceps, recens, repens, vigil, and most adjectives in x, especially those in plex.

REM. 1. Inerte occurs in Ovid, recente in Ovid and Catullus, and præcipe in Ennius.

Rem. 2. Prasens, when used of things, makes the ablative in i; when used of persons, it has e.

NOMINATIVE, ACCUSATIVE, AND GENITIVE PLURAL.

- § 114. 1. The neuter of the nominative and accusative plural ends in ia, and the genitive plural of all genders in ium; but comparatives in or, with vētus, old, and ūber, fertile, have a, and um.
- 2. The accusative plural of masculine and feminine adjectives, whose genitive plural ends in ium, anciently ended in $\bar{\imath}s$ or $\bar{e}\bar{\imath}s$, instead of $\bar{e}s$. Cf. § 85, Exc. 1.
- Exc. 1. Those adjectives that have only e in the ablative singular, have um in the genitive plural.
- Exc. 2. Compounds of făcio, căpio, and of such nouns as make um in their genitive plural, with celer, compar, cicur, dives, memor, immemor, præpes, supplex, and vigil, make their genitive plural in um.
- Exc. 3. Dis, locuples, sons, and insons have either um or ium. The poets and the later prose writers sometimes form the genitive plural of other adjectives and of participles in ns, by syncope, in um, instead : ium; as, calestum, Virg. Ovid, etc.

IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES.

§ 115. Some adjectives are defective, others redundant.

DEFECTIVE ADJECTIVES.

1. (a.) Many adjectives denoting personal qualities or attributes want the neuter gender, unless when occasionally joined to a neuter substantive used figuratively. Such are the following:—

Bicorpor, bipes, cælebs, compos, consors, degĕner, dīves, impos, impūbes, industrius, Inops, insons, invītus, juvēnis, locuples, mĕmor, pauper, particeps princeps, pūber, or pūbes, rĕdux, sĕnex, sons, sospes, superstes, supplex, tricorpor, vigil.

- (b.) Victrix and ultrix are feminine in the singular, seldom neuter; in the plural, they are feminine and neuter. Such verbals partake of the nature both of substantives and adjectives, and correspond to masculines in tor. See § 102, 6, (a.)
- 2. The following want the genitive plural, and are rarely used in the neuter gender:—

Concolor, deses, hebes, perpes, reses, teres, versicolor.

- 3. The names of months, which are properly adjectives, have only the masculine and feminine genders.
 - 4. Some adjectives are wholly indeclinable.

Such are frūgi, temperate; nēquam, worthless; sắt or sắtis, sufficient; the plurals aliquot, tốt, quốt, totidem, quotquot; and the cardinal numbers from quatuor to centum inclusive, and also mille. Cf. § 118, 1, and 6, (b.)

5. The following adjectives are used only in certain cases: -

Bilicem, acc.; doubly-tissued. Cetera, ceterum, the rest, wants the nom. sing. masc. Decemplicem, acc.: tenfold. Exspes, nom.; hopeless. Inquies, nom.; -tem, acc.; -te, abl.; restless. Mactus, and macte, nom.; macte, acc.; homelessum, nom., acc.; necessary. Plus, nom., acc.; plūris, gen.; more;—pl. plūres, -a, nom. acc.; -ium gen.; ibus, dat., abl. Cf. § 110. Postera, posterum, coming after, wants the nom. sing. masc. Potis, nom. sing. and pl., all genders; able. Pote, nom. sing., for potest; possible. Septemplicis, gen.; -ce, abl.; seven-fold. Siremps, and sirempse, nom. and acc.; alike. Tantundem, nom. acc.; tantidem, gen.; tantandem, acc.; so much. Trilicem, acc.; trebly-tissued; trilices, nom. and acc. pl.

REDUNDANT ADJECTIVES.

 \S 116. The following adjectives are redundant in termination and declension. Those marked r are more rarely used.

Acclivis, and -us, r, ascending.
Auxiliaris, and -ius, auxiliary.
Bijūgis, and -us, yoked two together.
Declivis, and -us, r, descending.
Exanimis, and -us, r, lifeless.
Hiliaris, and -us, cheerful.
Imbecillis, r, and -us, weak.
Impubes, and -is, r, -is or -ĕris, not grown up.
Inermis, and -us, r, unarmed.
Infrenis, and -us, unbridled.

Inquies, and -ētus, restless.
Joculāris, and -ius, r, laughable.
Multijūgis, r, and -us, yoked many together.
Optilens, and -lentus, rich.
Præcox, -cŏquis, and -cŏquus, early
ripe.

ripe.
Proclivis, and -us, r, sloping.
Quadrijŭgis, and -us, yoked four together.
Semianimis, and -us, half alive.

Semiermis, and -us, half armed. Semisomnis, and -us, r, half asleep. Singulāris, and -ius, single. Sublīmis, and -us, r, high. Unanīmis, r, and -us, unanīmous. Viŏlens, r, and -lentus, violent.

To these may be added some adjectives in er and is; as, salüber and -bris, celiber and -bris. Cf. § 108, R. 1.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

\$ 117. Numeral adjectives are divided into three principal classes—Cardinal, Ordinal, and Distributive.

I. Cardinal numbers are those which simply denote the number of things, in answer to the question Quot? 'How many?' They are,

1.	Unus,	one.	I.
2.	Duo,	two.	II.
	Tres,	three.	III.
	Quātuor,	four.	IIII. or IV.
	Quinque,	five.	v.
6.	Sex,	six.	VI.
	Septem,	seven.	VII.
	Octo,	eight .	VIII.
9.	Nŏvem,	nine.	VIIII. or IX.
	Děcem,	ten.	X.
	Unděcim,	eleven.	XI.
12.	Duoděcim,	twelve.	XII.
13.	Treděcim,	thirteen.	XIII.
	Quatuorděcim,	fourteen.	XIIII. or XIV.
15.	Quinděcim,	fifteen.	XV.
16.	Seděcim, or sexděcim,	sixteen.	XVI.
	Septendecim,	seventeen.	XVII.
18.	Octoděcim,	eighteen.	XVIII.
19.	Novenděcim,	nineteen.	XVIII. or XIX.
	Vīginti,	twenty.	XX.
	Viginti unus, or	twenty-one.	XXI.
	unus et viginti,	•	
22.	Viginti duo, or duo et viginti, etc.,	twenty-two.	XXII.
30.	Trīginta,	thirty.	XXX.
40.	Quādrāginta,	forty.	XXXX. or XL.
	Quinquaginta,	fifty.	L.
60.	Sexaginta,	sixty.	LX.
	Septuaginta,	seventy.	LXX.
80.	Octoginta, or octuaginta,	eighty.	LXXX.
90.	Nonaginta,	ninety.	LXXXX. or XC.
100.	Centum,	a hundred.	С.
101.	Centum unus, or)	a hundred and one.	CL.
cen	tum et unus, etc., §		
200.	Ducenti, -æ, a,	two hundred.	CC.
300.	Trěcenti, etc., Quadringenti,	three hundred.	CCC.
400.	Quadringenti,	four hundred.	CCCC, or CD.
500.	Quingenti,	five hundred.	IO, or D.
	Sexcenti,	six hundred.	IOC, or DC.
700.	Septingenti,	seven hundred.	IOCC, or DCC.
800.	Octingenti,	eight hundred.	IDCCC, or DCCC.
900.	Nongenti,	nine hundred.	IDCCCC, or DCCCC
	Mille,	a thousand.	CIO, or M.
2000.	Duo millia, or }	two thousand.	CIOCIO, or MM.
	bis mille,		

5000.	Quinque millia, or } quinquies mille, }	five thousand.	ioo.
10000.	Decem millia, or decies mille,	ten thousand.	ccioo.
Б0000.	Quinquaginta millia, or quinquagies mill	e. Iffty thousand.	iooo.
100000.	Centum millia, or }	a hundred thousand.	ccciooo.

§ 118. 1. The first three cardinal numbers are declined; from four to a hundred inclusive they are indeclinable; those denoting hundreds are declined like the plural of $b\check{o}nus$.

For the declension of unus and tres, see §§ 107 and 109.

Duo is thus declined :-

	Plural.	
М.	F.	N.
N. dū'-o,	du′-æ,	du'-o,
G. du-ō'-rum,	du-ā'-rum,	du-ō'-rum,
D. du-ō'-bus,	du-ā'-bus,	du-ō'-bus,
Ac. du'-os, or du'-o,	du'-as,	du ′-0,
V. du'-o,	du′-æ,	du ′-0,
Ab. du-ō'-bus.	du-ā'-bus.	du-ō'-bus.

REMARK 1. Duōrum, duārum, are often contracted into duûm, especially in compounds; as, duûmvir, and when joined with millium.—Ambo, both, which partakes of the nature of a numeral and of a pronoun, is declined like duo.

- 2. The cardinal numbers, except ūnus and mille, are used in the plural only.
- REM. 2. The plural of unus is used with nouns which have no singular, or whose singular has a different sense from the plural; as, una nuptiae, one marriage; una castra, one camp. It is used also with nouns denoting several things considered as one whole; as, una vestimenta, one suit of clothes. So. also, when it takes the signification of "alone" or "the same"; as, uni Obii, the Ubians alone; unis moribus vivere,—with the same manners.
- 3. (a.) Thirteen, sixteen, seventeen, eighteen, and nineteen, are often expressed by two numbers, the greater of which usually precedes, united by et; thus, decem et tres, decem et novem, or, omitting et, decem novem. Octodecim has no good authority. See infra, 4.
- (b.) From twenty to a hundred, the smaller number with et is put first, or the greater without et; as, unus et viginti, or viginti unus. Above one hundred, the greater precedes, with or without et; as, centum et unus, or centum unus, trecenti sexaginta sex, or trecenti et sexaginta sex. Et is never twice used, but the poets sometimes take ac, atque, or que, instead of et.
- 4. For eighteen, twenty-eight, etc., and for nineteen, twenty-nine, etc. (excepting sixty-eight, sixty-nine, and ninety-eight), a subtractive expression is more frequent than the additive form; as, duodeviginti, two from twenty; undeviginti, one from twenty; duodeviginta, underriginta, etc. Neither un (unus) nor duo can be declined in these combinations. The additive forms for thirty-eight, etc. to ninety-eight, and for forty-nine, etc. to ninety-nine, except those for sixty-nine, seem not to occur.
- 5. (a.) Thousands are generally expressed by prefixing the smaller cardinal numbers to millia; as, dicem millia, ten thousand; ducenta millia, two hundred thousand. As there is in Latin no unit above mille, a thousand, the higher units of modern numeration are expressed by prefixing the numeral adverbs to the

combination centena millia; as, decies centena millia, a million; centies centena millia, ten millions. In such combinations centena millia is sometimes omitted; as, decies, scil. centena millia.

(b.) The poets sometimes make use of numeral adverbs in expressing smaller numbers; as, bis sex for duodécim; bis centum for ducenti, etc.

6. Mille is used either as a substantive or as an adjective.

- (a.) When taken substantively, it is indeclinable in the singular number, and, in the plural, has millia, millium, millibus, etc.; as, mille hominum, a thousand men; duo millia hominum, two thousand men, etc. When mille is a substantive, the things numbered are put in the genitive, as in the preceding examples, unless a declined numeral comes between; as, habuit tria millia trecentos milites.
- (b.) As an adjective, mille is plural only, and indeclinable: as, mille homines, a thousand men; cum bis mille hominibus, with two thousand men.
- 7. Capitals were used by the Romans to mark numbers. The letters employed for this purpose were C. I. L. V. X., which are, therefore, called Numeral Letters. I. denotes one; V. five; X. ten; L. fifty; and C. a hundred. By the various combinations of these five letters, all the different numbers are expressed.

(a.) The repetition of a numeral letter repeats its value. Thus, II. signifies two; III. three; XX. twenty; XXX. thirty; CC. two hundred, etc. But V. and L. are never repeated.

(b.) When a letter of a less value is placed before a letter of a greater value, the less takes away its value from the greater; but being placed after, it adds its value to the greater; thus,

 IV. Four.
 V. Five.
 VI. Six.

 IX. Nine.
 X. Ten.
 XI. Eleven.

 XL. Forty.
 L. Fifty.
 LX. Sixty.

 XC. Ninety.
 C. A hundred.
 CX. A hundred and ten.

(c.) A thousand was marked thus, CIO, which, in later times, was contracted

into M. Five hundred is marked thus, IO, or, by contraction, D.

(d.) The annexing of the apostrophus or inverted C(O) to IO makes its value ten times greater; thus, IOO marks five thousand; and IOOO, fifty thousand.

- (e.) The prefixing of C, together with the annexing of O, to the number CIO makes its value ten times greater; thus, CCIOO denotes ten theusand; and CCCIOOO, a hundred thousand. The Romans, according to Pliny, proceeded no further in this method of notation. If they had occasion to express a larger number, they did it by repetition; thus, CCCIOOO, CCCIOOO, signified two hundred thousand, etc.
- (f.) We sometimes find thousands expressed by a straight line drawn over the top of the numeral letters. Thus, $\overline{\Pi}I$. denotes three thousand; \overline{X} ., ten thousand.
- § 119. II. Ordinal numbers are such as denote order or rank, and answer to the question, Quŏtus? Which of the numbers? They all end in us, and are declined like bŏnus; as, prīmus, first; secundus, second.

III. Distributive numbers are those which indicate an equal division among several persons or things, and answer to the question, Quotēni? How many apiece? as, singūli, one by one, or, one to each; bīni, two by two, or two to each, etc. They are always used in the plural, and are declined like the plural of bōnus, except that they usually have am instead of orum in the genitive plural. Cf. § 105, R. 4.

The following table contains the ordinal and distributive numbers, and the corresponding numeral adverbs, which answer to the question, Quoties? How many times?—

Ordinal Primus, first. Singüli, one by one. Sēmel, once. Sēmil. Quidquies. Sexies. Sedies. Undecies. Undecies. Undecies. Undecies. Undecies. Undecies. Undevicies. Undevicies	n	nanyî	times?—		·
2. Sēcundus, second. 3. Tertius, third. 4. Quartus, fourth. 5. Quintus, fifth. 6. Sextus, sixth. 7. Septimus, seventh. 8. Octāvus, eighth. 9. Nonus, minth. 10. Dēcīmus, tenth, etc. 11. Undecīmus. 12. Duodecīmus. 13. Tertius decīmus. 14. Quartus decīmus. 15. Quintus decīmus. 16. Sextus decīmus. 17. Septimus decīmus. 18. Octāvus decīmus. 19. Nonus decīmus. 10. Vicēsimus prīmus. 10. Vicēsimus prīmus. 11. Vicesimus prīmus. 12. Vicesimus secundus. 13. Octāvus decīmus. 14. Quartus decīmus. 15. Quintus decīmus. 16. Sextus decīmus. 17. Septimus decīmus. 18. Octāvus decīmus. 19. Nonus decīmus. 19. Nonus decīmus. 19. Nonus decīmus. 19. Nonus decīmus. 19. Vicēsimus prīmus. 19. Vicesimus secundus. 19. Vicesimus prīmus. 19. Vicesimus secundus. 19. Vicesimus prīmus. 10. Centesimus. 10. Quadragesimus. 10. Quadragesimus. 10. Quadragesimus. 10. Quadringentesimus. 10. Centesimus. 10. Octongentesimus. 10. Quadringentesimus. 10. Quadringentesimus. 10. Octongentesimus. 10. Octongeni. 10. Quadringentesimus. 10. Quingentesimus. 10. Q				Distributive.	Numeral Adverbs.
2. Sēcundus, second. 3. Tertius, third. 4. Quartus, fourth. 5. Quintus, fifth. 6. Sextus, sixth. 7. Septimus, seventh. 8. Octāvus, eighth. 9. Nonus, minth. 10. Dēcīmus, tenth, etc. 11. Undecīmus. 12. Duodecīmus. 13. Tertius decīmus. 14. Quartus decīmus. 15. Quintus decīmus. 16. Sextus decīmus. 17. Septimus decīmus. 18. Octāvus decīmus. 19. Nonus decīmus. 10. Vicēsimus prīmus. 10. Vicēsimus prīmus. 11. Vicesimus prīmus. 12. Vicesimus secundus. 13. Octāvus decīmus. 14. Quartus decīmus. 15. Quintus decīmus. 16. Sextus decīmus. 17. Septimus decīmus. 18. Octāvus decīmus. 19. Nonus decīmus. 19. Nonus decīmus. 19. Nonus decīmus. 19. Nonus decīmus. 19. Vicēsimus prīmus. 19. Vicesimus secundus. 19. Vicesimus prīmus. 19. Vicesimus secundus. 19. Vicesimus prīmus. 10. Centesimus. 10. Quadragesimus. 10. Quadragesimus. 10. Quadragesimus. 10. Quadringentesimus. 10. Centesimus. 10. Octongentesimus. 10. Quadringentesimus. 10. Quadringentesimus. 10. Octongentesimus. 10. Octongeni. 10. Quadringentesimus. 10. Quingentesimus. 10. Q		1.			
3. Tertius, third. 4. Quartus, fourth. 5. Quintus, fyith. 6. Sextus, sixth. 7. Septimus, seventh. 8. Octāvus, eighth. 9. Nōnus, minth. 10. Dēcīmus, tenth, etc. 11. Undecīmus. 12. Duodecīmus. 13. Tertius decīmus. 14. Quartus decīmus. 15. Quintus decīmus. 16. Sextus decīmus. 17. Septimus decīmus. 18. Octāvus decīmus. 19. Nōnus decīmus. 19. Nōnus decīmus. 20. {Vīcēsīmus, or vigesīmus. 21. Vicesīmus secundus. 22. Vicesīmus secundus. 33. {Trīcesīmus, or trīni. 24. Quaterni. Quaterni. Quater, four times. 25. Quintus, feth. 26. Octāvus, sexth. 27. Septimus decīmus. 28. Octāvus decīmus. 29. Vicēsīmus. 20. {Vīcēsīmus, or vigesīmus. 20. {Vīcēsīmus, or vigesīmus. 21. Vicesīmus secundus. 22. Vicesīmus secundus. 23. {Trīcesīmus, or vigesīmus. 24. Quadragesīmus. 25. Quinquagesīmus. 26. Sexagesīmus. 27. Septuagesīmus. 28. Quinquagesīmus. 29. Nonagesīmus. 29. Nonagesīmus. 29. Vicentesīmus. 290. Dūcentesīmus. 290. Dūcentesīmus. 290. Dūcentesīmus. 290. Quingentesīmus. 290. Quingentesīmus. 290. Quingentesīmus. 290. Quingentesīmus. 290. Octingentesīmus. 290. Nongentesīmus. 290. Nongentesīm			Secundus, second.		Bis. twice.
4. Quartus, fourth. 5. Quintus, fifth. 6. Sextus, sixth. 7. Septimus, seventh. 8. Octāvus, eighth. 10. Döcimus, tenth, etc. 11. Undecimus. 12. Duodecimus. 13. Tertius decimus. 14. Quartus decimus. 15. Quintus decimus. 16. Sextus decimus. 17. Septimus decimus. 18. Octāvus decimus. 19. Nōnus decimus. 19. Nōnus decimus. 19. Vicešimus, or vigesimus. 20. Vicešimus, or trigesimus. 21. Vicesimus secundus. 22. Vicesimus secundus. 23. Oudarāgesimus. 24. Quartagesimus. 25. Quintus gerimus. 26. Sexagesimus. 27. Vicesimus secundus. 28. Octāvus decimus. 29. Vicesimus prīmus. 20. Trīcesimus, or trigesimus. 20. Trīcesimus. 21. Vicesimus prīmus. 22. Vicesimus secundus. 23. Oudarāgesimus. 24. Quadragesimus. 25. Quinquagesimus. 26. Sexagesimus. 27. Septuagesimus. 28. Octogesimus. 29. Nonagesimus. 29. Nonagentesimus. 29. Nonagentesimus. 29. Nonagentesimus. 29. Nonagentesimus. 29. Nonagentesimus. 29. Nonagentesimus. 29. Nongentesimus.					
5. Quintus, fifth. 6. Sextus, sixth. 7. Septimus, seventh. 8. Octāvus, eighth. 9. Nōnus, minth. 10. Děcimus, tenth, etc. 11. Undecimus. 12. Duodecimus. 13. Tertius decimus. 14. Quartus decimus. 15. Quintus decimus. 16. Sextus decimus. 17. Septimus decimus. 18. Octāvus decimus. 19. Nōnus decimus. 19. Nōnus decimus. 19. Nōnus decimus. 19. Nōnus decimus. 19. Vicesimus prīmus. 19. Vicesimus secundus. 19. Quādrāgesimus. 19. Vicesimus prīmus. 19. Vic			Quartus, fourth.		Quater. four times.
6. Sextus, sixth. 7. Septimus, seventh. 8. Octāvus, eighth. 9. Nōnus, minth. 10. Děcímus, tenth, etc. 11. Undecimus. 12. Duodecimus. 13. Tertius decimus. 14. Quartus decimus. 15. Quintus decimus. 16. Sextus decimus. 17. Septimus decimus. 18. Octāvus decimus. 19. Nōnus decimus. 19. Vicesimus prīmus. 20. Vicesimus, or vigesimus. 30. Trīcesimus, or trigesimus. 40. Quadragesimus. 50. Quinquagesimus. 60. Sexagesimus. 60. Octogesimus. 60. Octogentesimus. 600. Octogentesimus.					Quinquies.
7. Septimus, seventh. 8. Octāvus, eighth. 9. Nōnus, minth. 10. Dēcīmus, tenth, etc. 11. Undecīmus. 12. Duodecīmus. 13. Tertius decīmus. 14. Quartus decīmus. 15. Quintus decīmus. 16. Sextus decīmus. 17. Septīmus decīmus. 18. Octāvus decīmus. 19. Nōnus decīmus. 19. Nōnus decīmus. 19. Nōnus decīmus. 19. Vicēsīmus, or vigesīmus. 20. Vicēsīmus prīmus. 21. Vicesīmus secundus. 22. Vicesīmus secundus. 30. Trīcesīmus, or trigesīmus. 40. Quādrāgesīmus. 60. Sexagesīmus. 60. Sexagesīmus. 60. Octogesīmus. 60. Octogentesīmus. 600. Octo		6.	Sextus. sixth.		
8. Octāvus, eighth. 9. Nōnus, mith. 10. Dēcīmus, tenth, etc. 11. Undecīmus. 12. Duodecīmus. 13. Tertius decīmus. 14. Quartus decīmus. 15. Quintus decīmus. 16. Sextus decīmus. 17. Septīmus decīmus. 18. Octāvus decīmus. 19. Nōnus decīmus. 19. Nōnus decīmus. 19. Nōnus decīmus. 19. Vicēsīmus, or vigesīmus. 20. Vicēsīmus secundus. 30. {Trīceslmus, or trigesīmus.} 40. Quādrāgesīmus. 60. Sexagesīmus. 60. Sexagesīmus. 60. Octogesīmus. 90. Nonagesīmus. 80. Octogesīmus. 90. Nonagesīmus. 100. Centesīmus. 100. Quadringentesīmus. 100. Sexeentesīmus. 100. Sexeentesīmus. 100. Sexeentesīmus. 100. Sexeentesīmus. 100. Ouingentesīmus. 100. Ouingentesīmus. 100. Ouingentesīmus. 100. Sexeentesīmus. 100. Sexeentesīmus. 100. Ouingentesīmus. 100. Ouingentesīm				Septēni.	
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11. Undecimus. 12. Duodecimus. 13. Tertius decimus. 14. Quartus decimus. 15. Quintus decimus. 16. Sextus decimus. 17. Septimus decimus. 18. Octāvus decimus. 19. Nonus decimus. 19. Nonus decimus. 19. Vicēsimus, or vigesimus. 20. Vicēsimus secundus. 21. Vicesimus secundus. 22. Vicesimus secundus. 23. Vicesimus. 24. Quadragesimus. 25. Quidragesimus. 26. Quidragesimus. 27. Quadragesimus. 28. Octogesimus. 29. Nonagesimus. 20. Evicesimus. 20. Quadragesimus. 21. Vicesimus secundus. 22. Vicesimus secundus. 23. Vicesimus secundus. 24. Quadragesimus. 25. Quinquagesimus. 26. Quinquagesimus. 27. Quadragesimus. 28. Quadragesimus. 29. Nonagesimus. 29. Nonagesimus. 29. Nonagesimus. 29. Nonagesimus. 29. Quadringentesimus. 29. Quadringentesimus. 29. Quingentesimus. 29. Qui				Dēni.	Děcies.
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14. Quartus decimus. 15. Quintus decimus. 16. Sextus decimus. 17. Septimus decimus. 18. Octāvus decimus. 19. Nonus decimus. 20. {Vicēsimus, or vigesimus.} 21. Vicesimus prīmus. 22. Vicesimus secundus. 30. {Trīcesimus, or trigesimus.} 40. Quādrāgesimus. 60. Sexagesimus. 60. Sexagesimus. 60. Sexagesimus. 60. Centesimus. 90. Nonagesimus. 60. Centesimus. 90. Nonagesimus. 60. Quadragesimus. 60. Octogesimus. 60. Octo		13.			
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16. Sextus decimus. 17. Septimus decimus. 18. Octāvus decimus. 19. Nōnus decimus. 20. {Vīcēsimus, or } vigesimus. 21. Vicesimus prīmus. 22. Vicesimus secundus. 30. {Trīcesimus, or } trigesimus. 40. Quādrāgesimus. 60. Sexagesimus. 60. Sexagesimus. 60. Octogesimus. 600. Octogentesimus. 600.					
17. Septimus decimus. 18. Octāvus decimus. 19. Nonus decimus. 20. {Vicēsimus, or } vigesimus. 21. Vicesimus primus. 22. Vicesimus secundus. 30. {Trīcesimus, or } trigesimus. 40. Quādrāgesimus. 60. Sexagesimus. 60. Sexagesimus. 60. Sexagesimus. 60. Octogesimus.					Sedecies. •
18. Octāvus decimus. 19. Nōnus decimus. 20. {Vicēsimus, or vigesimus.} 21. Vicesimus prīmus. 22. Vicesimus, or trigesimus. 30. {Trīcesimus, or trigesimus. 40. Quādrāgesimus. 50. Quinquagesimus. 60. Sexagesimus. 60. Sexagesimus. 60. Octogesimus. 600. Octogesimus. 600. Octotesimus. 600. Octotesimus. 600. Quadringentesimus. 600. Sexcentesimus. 600. Sexeentesimus. 600. Octogentesimus. 600. Octogen					
19. Nonus decimus, vicešinus, or vigesimus. 20. Vicešimus prīmus. 21. Vicesimus secundus. 22. Vicesimus secundus. 30. Trīcesimus, or trigesimus. 40. Quādrāgesimus. 60. Sexagesimus. 60. Sexagesimus. 60. Octogesimus. 600. Centesimus. 600. Oquadringentesimus. 600. Sexeentesimus. 600. Sexeentesimus. 600. Sexeentesimus. 600. Sexeentesimus. 600. Octingentesimus. 600.					
20. { Vīcēsīmus, or } vigesīmus. } 21. Vicesīmus prīmus. Vicēni singūli. Semel et vicies. 22. Vicesīmus secundus. 30. { Trīcesīmus, or } trīcēni. 40. Quādrāgesīmus. 60. Sexagesīmus. 60. Sexagesīmus. 70. Septuagesīmus. 80. Octogesīmus. 800. Trēcentesīmus. 800. Quadringentesīmus. 800. Quadringentesīmus. 800. Cotingentesīmus. 800. Octogesīmus. 800. Octogentesīmus. 800. Octogentesīm					
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30. { Trīcesimus, or } trigesimus. } 40. Quādrāģesimus. Quadragēni. Quadragies. Quinquagēsimus. Quinquagēni. Quinquagies. Sexageis. Sexageis. Sexagies. Septuagesimus. Septuagēni. Octogēsimus. Octogēni. Octogēs. Nonagesimus. Nonagēmi. Nonagies. Centēni. Centēni. Centēni. Centēni. Centēni. Centēni. Centēni. Centēni. Trecentesimus. Trecēni, or trecentēni. { Trecentes, or } tricenties. } 400. Quadringentesimus. Quadringenteini. Quingenties. } 400. Quadringentesimus. Sexcentēni. Sexcentesimus. Nongēni. Noningenties. Noningenties. Noningenties. Noningenties. Noningenties. Noningenties. Noningenties. Noningenties. Sexcentesimus. Sexcentesimus. Nongēni. Noningenties.				Viceni singuli.	
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				(pina millia.)	

§ 120. 1. In the ordinals, instead of primus, prior is used, if only two are spoken of. Alter is often used for secundus.

2. (a.) From thirteenth to nineteenth, the smaller number is usually put first, without et; as, tertius decimus, but sometimes the greater with or without etc. as, decimus at tanking or decimus, but sometimes.

et; as, decimus et tertius, or decimus tertius.

(b.) Twenty-first, thirty-first, etc., are often expressed by unus et vicesimus, unus et tricesimus, etc., one and twentieth, etc.; and twenty-second, etc., by duo, or alter et vicesimus, etc., in which duo is not changed. In the other compound numbers, the larger precedes without et, or the smaller with et; as, vicesimus quartus, or quartus et vicesimus.

- (c.) For eighteenth, etc., to fifty-eighth, and for nineteenth, etc. to fifty-ninth, the subtractive forms, duodevicesimus, etc., and undevicesimus, etc., are often used.
- 3. In the distributives, eighteen, thirty-eight, forty-eight, and nineteen and twenty-nine, are often expressed by the subtractives duodevicēni, etc., undevicēni, etc.
- 4. (a.) Distributives are sometimes used by the poets for cardinal numbers; as, bina spicula, two darts. Virg. So likewise in prose, with nouns that want the singular; as, bina nuptia, two weddings.
- (b.) The singular of some distributives is used in the sense of multiplicatives; as, binus, twofold. So ternus, quinus, septenus.
- 5. In the numeral adverbs, for the intermediate humbers 21, 22, etc., the larger number also may be put first, either with or without et; and for twenty-eight times and thirty-nine times, duodetricies and undequadragies are found.
 - § 121. To the preceding classes may be added the following:—
- 1. Multiplicatives, which denote how many fold, in answer to the question, quotuplex? They all end in plex, and are declined like $f\bar{e}lix$; as,

Simplex, single.
Düplex, twofold, or double.
Triplex, threefold.
Quadruplex, fourfold.

Quincuplex, fivefold. Septemplex, sevenfold. Decemplex, tenfold. Centuplex, a hundred fold.

- 2. Proportionals, which denote how many times one thing is greater than another; as, dūplus, a, um, twice as great; so triplus, quadrūplus, octūplus, decūplus. They are generally found only in the neuter.
- 3. Temporals, which denote time; as, bimus, a, um, two years old; so trimus, quadrimus, etc. Also, biennis, lasting two years, biennial; so quadriennis, quinquennis, etc. So also, bimestris, of two months' continuance; trimestris, etc., biduus, etc. To these may be added certain nouns, compounds of annus and dies with the cardinal numbers; as, biennium, triennium, etc., a period of two, etc. years; biduum, triduum, etc., a period of two, etc. days.
- 4. Adjectives in arius, derived from the distributives, and denoting of how many equal parts or units a thing consists; as, binarius, of two parts; ternarius, etc.
- 5. Interrogatives; as, quot, how many? quotes, of what number? quoteni, how many each? quoties, how many times? Their correlatives are tot, totiden, so many; aliquot, some; which, with quot, are indeclinable; and the adverbs, toties, so often; aliquoties, several times.
- 6. Fractional expressions, which denote the parts of a thing. These are expressed in Latin by pars with dimidia, tertia, quarta, etc. Thus, \(\frac{1}{2}\), dimidia pars; \(\frac{1}{2}\), tertia pars, etc. When the number of parts into which a thing is divided exceeds by one only the parts mentioned, as in \(\frac{2}{3}\), \(\frac{2}{3}\), etc. the fraction is expressed simply by dux, tres, etc. partes, denoting two out of three, three out of four, etc.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 122. 1. Adjectives may be divided into two classes—those which denote a variable, and those which denote an invariable, quality or limitation.

Thus, bonus, good, altus, high, and opacus, dark, denote variable attributes; but aneus, brazen, triplex, threefold, and diurnus, daily, do not admit of different degrees in their signification.

2. The comparison of an adjective is the expression of its quality in different degrees:

- 3. There are three degrees of comparison—the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.
- 4. The positive simply denotes a quality, without reference to other degrees of the same quality; as, altus, high; mitis, mild.
- 5. The comparative denotes that a quality belongs to one of two objects, or sets of objects, in a greater degree than to the other; as, altior, higher; milior, milder.
- 6. The superlative denotes that a quality belongs to one of several objects, or sets of objects, in a greater degree than to any of the rest; as, altissimus, highest; mitissimus, mildest.
- REM 1. Sometimes also the comparative denotes that a quality, at different times or in other circumstances, belongs in different degrees to the same object; as, est sapientior quam fuit, he is wiser than he was.
- REM. 2. The comparative sometimes expresses the proportion between two qualities of the same object; as, est doctior quam sapientior, he is more learned than wise; that is, his learning is greater than his wisdom.
- REM. 3. The comparative is also used elliptically instead of our 'too' or 'rather'; as, vivit liberius, he lives too freely, or, rather freely. Cf. § 256, R. 9.
- REM. 4. The superlative, like the positive with per, (cf. § 127, 2), often indicates a high degree of a quality without direct comparison with the same quality in other objects; as, amicus carissimus, a very dear friend.
- § 123. 1. Degrees of a quality inferior to the positive may be denoted by the adverbs minus, less; minime, least, prefixed to the positive; as, jucundus, pleasant; minus jucundus, less pleasant; minime jucundus, least pleasant.
 - 2. A small degree of a quality is indicated by sub prefixed to the positive; as, amārus, bitter; subamārus, bitterish, or, somewhat bitter.
 - 3. An equal degree of a quality may be denoted by tam followed by quam, eque followed by ac, sic followed by ut, etc.; as, hêbes, eque ac pēcus, as stupid as a brute.
 - § 124. 1. The comparative and superlative in Latin, as in English, are denoted either by peculiar terminations, or by certain adverbs prefixed to the positive. Cf. § 127, 1.
- Masc. Fem. Neut

 2. The terminational comparative ends in ior, ior, ius;
 the terminational superlative in issimus, issimu, issimum.
 - 3. These terminations are added to the root of the positive; as, altus, altior, altissimus; high, higher, highest.

 mitis, mitior, mitissimus; mild, milder, mildest.

fēlix, (gen. felicis,) felicior, felicissimus; happy, happier, happiest.

Arc'-tus, strait. Cā'-rus, dear. Doc'-tus, learned. In like manner compare Cru-dē'-lis, cruel. Cú'-Fer'-ti-lis, fertile. Clē'-Lē'-vis, light. In'-e

Cá'-pax, capacious. Clē'-mens, (gen.-tis) merciful. In'-ers, (gen.-tis), sluggish.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

§ 125. 1. Adjectives in er form their superlative by adding rimus to that termination; as, ācer, active; gen. acris; comparative, acrior; superlative, acerrimus.

In like manner, pauper, pauperrimus. Vētus has a similar superlative, veterrimus, from the old collateral form vēter.

2. Six adjectives in *lis* form their superlative by adding *limus* to the root:—

Facilis,	facilior,	facillĭmus,	easy.
Difficilis,	difficilior.	difficillĭmus,	difficult
Gracilis.	gracilior.	gracillimus,	slender.
Humilis,	humilior,	humillīmus,	low.
Similis,	similior,	simillĭmus,	like.
Dissimilia	dissimiliar.	dissimillimus.	unlike.

Imbecillus or imbecillis, weak, has two forms, imbecillissimus and imbecillimus.

3. (a.) Five adjectives in ficus (from făcio) derive their comparatives and superlatives from supposed forms in ens:—

Beneficus,	beneficentior,	beneficentissīmus,	beneficent.
Honorificus,	honorificentior,	honorificentissimus,	honorable
Magnificus,	magnificentior,	magnificentissimus,	splendid.
Munificus,	munificentior.	munificentissimus,	liberal.
Maleficus,	 ;	maleficentissimus,	hurtful.
	7- 7 47	C 41	

(b.) Adjectives in dicens and völens form their comparatives and superlatives regularly; but instead of those positives, forms in dicus and völus are more common; as,

Maledīcens or dĭcus, maledicentior, maledicentissīmus, slanderous. Benevolens, or -vŏlus, benevolentior, benevolentissīmus, benevolent.

4. These five have regular comparatives, but irregular superlatives:—

Dexter,	dexterior,	dextimus, or extimus, postrēmus, or postūmus, infimus, or imus, suprēmus, or summus,	right.
Extera, (fem.)	exterior,		outward.
Postera, (fem.)	posterior,		hind.
Inferus,	inferior,		below.
Superus,	superior,		above.

REMARK 1. The nominative singular of postera does not occur in the masculine, and that of extera wants good authority.

5. The following are very irregular in comparison :—

Bŏnus,	melior,	optimus,	good,	better,	best.
Mălus,	pējor,	pessimus,	bad,	worse,	worst.
Magnus,	major,	maximus,	great,	greater,	great est. least.
Parvus,	minor,	minimus,	little,	less,	teust.
Multus, Multa,		plurimus,)	much.	more.	most.
Multum,	plus,*	plurimum,	much,	nore,	110056
Nēguam,	nequior.	nequissimus,	worthles	s. etc.	
Frūgi,	frugalior,	frugalissimus,			

Rem. 2. All these, except magnus, whose regular forms are contracted, either form their comparatives and superlatives from obsolete adjectives, or take them from other words of similar signification.

DEFECTIVE COMPARISON.

§ 126. 1. Seven adjectives want the positive:—

Citerior, citimus, nearer.

Deterior, deterrimus, vorse.
Interior, intimus, inner.
Ocior, ceissimus, vaifer.

Prior, primus, former.
Propior, proximus, nearer.
Ulterior, ultimus, farther.

. 2. Eight want the terminational comparative:-

Consultus, consultissimus, skilful. Inclūtus, inclutissimus, renowned. Invictus, invictissimus, invincible. Invitus, invitissimus, unwilling. Meritus, meritissimus, (very rare,) deserving.

Par, parissimus, (very rare), equal. Persuasus, persuasissimum (neuter), persuaded. Săcer, sacerrimus, sacred.

3. Eight have very rarely the terminational comparative:

Aprīcus, apricissīmus, sunny. Bellus, bellissīmus, fine. Comis, comissīmus, courteous. Diversus, diversissīmus, different. Falsus, falsissimus, false. Fīdus, fidissimus, faithful. Novus, novissimus, new. Vētus, veterrīmus, old.

4. The following want the terminational superlative:-

Adolescens, adolescentior, young. Agrestis, agrestior, rustic. Alacer, alacrior, active. Alacer, alacrior, active. Ater, atrior, black. Cæcus, cæcior, blind. Dēses, desidior, inactive. Diuturnus, diuturnior, lasting. Infinitus, infinitior, unlimited. Ingens, ingentior, great. Jejūnus, jejunior, fasting. Juvēnis, jumior, young. Licens, licentior, unrestrained. Longinquus, longinquior, distant. Opīmus, opimior, rich.

REMARK 1. The superlative of juvenis and adolescens is supplied by minimus nātu, youngest; and that of senex by maximus nātu, oldest. The comparatives minor nātu and mājor nātu sometimes also occur.

REM. 2. Most adjectives also in ilis, ilis, alis, and bilis, have no terminational

superlative.

5. Many variable adjectives have no terminational comparative or superlative. Such are,

(a.) Adjectives in bundus, tmus, tnus (except divīnus), ōrus, most in tvus, and in us pure (except -quus.) Yet arduus, assīduus, egregius, exiguus, industrius, perpetuus, pius, strenuus, and vacuus, have sometimes a terminational comparison. So, dropping i, noxior, innoxior, sobrior.

(b.) The following—almus, calvus, cānus, ctcur, claudus, degener, delīrus, dispar, egenus, impar, impiger, invidus, lacer, memor, mīrus, nūdus, præcox, præditus, rūdis, salvus, sospes, superstes, vulgāris, and some others.

§ 127. 1. The comparative and superlative may also be formed by prefixing to the positive the adverbs magis, more, and maxime, most; as, idoneus, fit; magis idoneus, maxime idoneus.

2. Various degrees of a quality above the positive are expressed by admödum, aliquanto, apprime, bene, imprimis, multum, apprido, perquam, and valde, and also by per compounded with the positive; as, difficilis, difficult; perdifficilis, very difficult. To a few adjectives præ is in like manner prefixed; as, prædūrus, very hard.

3. The force of the comparative is increased by prefixing etiam, even, still, or yet; and that of both comparative and superlative, by

prefixing longe or multo, much, far; as, longe nobilissimus; longe melior, iter multo facilius; multo maxima pars.

- 4. Vel, 'even', and quam, with or without possum, 'as much as possible', before the superlative, render it more emphatic; as, Cicëro vel optimus oratōrum Romanōrum. Quam maximum potest militum numërum colligit; quam doctissimus, extremely learned; quam celerrime, as speedily as possible.
- Note 1. Instead of quam with possum, quantus is sometimes used, in the same case as the superlative; as, Quantis maximis potuit itineribus contendit.
- Note 2. Unus, with or without omnium, is sometimes added to superlatives to increase their force; as, Hoc ego uno omnium plurimum utor. Cic. Urbem unam mihi amicissimam declināvi, Id. It is used in like manner with excello.
- 5. All adjectives whose signification admits of different degrees, if they have no terminational comparison, may be compared by means of adverbs.
- 6. Instead of the comparative and superlative degrees, the positive with the prepositions præ, ante, præter, or supra, is sometimes used; as, præ nobis beātus, happier than we. Cic. Ante alias pulchritudinainsignis, most beautiful. Liv. Sometimes the preposition is used in connection with the superlative; as, Ante alios pulcherrimus omnes. Virg.
- 7. Among adjectives which denote an invariable quality or limitation, and which, therefore, cannot be compared, are those denoting matter, time, number, possession, country, part, interrogation; also compounds of jügum, somnus, gēro, and fēro, and many others.

DERIVATION OF ADJECTIVES.

- § 128. Derivative adjectives are formed chiefly from nouns, from other adjectives, and from verbs.
- I. Those derived from nouns and adjectives are called denominatives. The following are the principal classes:—
- 1. (a.) The termination &ns, added to the root, denotes the material of which a thing is made, and sometimes similarity; as, aureus, golden; argenteus, of silver; ligneus, wooden; vitreus, of glass; virgineus, maidenly; from aurum, argentum, etc. See § 9, Rem. 3.
- (b.) Some adjectives of this kind have a double form in news and nus; as, courneus and cournus, of ivory.
- (c.) The termination inus has the same meaning; as, adamantinus, of adamant; cedrinus, of cedar; from adamas and cedrus. So, also, enus; as, terremus, of earth, from terra.
- (d.) The termination \$\tilde{e}ns\$ or \$\tilde{i}us\$ (Greek \$\varphi acts)\$, and also \$icus\$, belong to adjectives formed from Greek names of men, and denote 'of' or 'pertaining to'; as, \$Achillous, Sophoclius, Aristotelius, Platonicus; Pythagorēus and Pythagoreus; Homerius and Homericus. Names in ins make adjectives in \$icus; as, \$Archias, \$Archiacus\$. Sometimes, though rarely in the purest Latin authors, adjectives in \$isus or \$ivs\$ are formed from Latin names; as, \$Marcellia\$ or \$-\tilde{e}a\$, a festival in honor of the Marcelli.
- 2. (a.) The terminations ālis, āris, ārius, ilis, atilis, icius, icus, ius, ĕūs, and inus, denote 'belonging' 'I rtaining,' or 'relating to'; as, capitālis, relating to the life; from caput.

So comitiālis, regālis; Apollināris, consulāris, populāris; argentarius; civīlis, hostīlis, juvenīlis; aquatīlis, fluviatīlis; tribunicius, patricius; bellīcus, civīcus, Germanicus; accusatorius, imperatorius, regius; Hectoreus; caninus, equinus, ferinus, masculinus; from comitia, rex, Apollo, consul, populus, argentum, civis, etc.

(b.) The termination *ilis* sometimes expresses character; as, hostilis, hostile;

puerilis, boyish; from hostis and puer.

(c.) The termination inus belongs especially to derivatives from names of

animals, and other living beings.

- 3. The termination arius, as a substantive, scil. fuber, etc., generally denotes profession or occupation; as, argentarius, a silversmith; from argentum;coriarius, statuarius; from corium and statua. When added to numeral adjectives, it denotes how many equal parts a thing contains. See § 121, 4.
- 4. The terminations ōsus and lentus denote abundance, fulness; as, animōsus, full of courage; fraudulentus, given to fraud; from animus and fraus. So lapidosus, vinosus, portuosus, turbulentus, sanguinolentus, violentus. Before lentus, a connecting vowel is inserted, which is commonly u, but sometimes o.

Note.—Adjectives of this class are called amplificatives. See § 104, 12.

- 5. From adjectives are formed diminutives in ulus, culus, etc., in the same manner as from nouns; as, dulciculus, sweetish; from dulcis. So lentulus, misellus, parvulus, etc. Sec § 100, 3, and § 104, 11. Diminutives are sometimes formed from comparatives; as, majusculus, duriusculus, somewhat great, somewhat hard, etc. Double diminutives are formed from paucus, viz pauxillus and pauxillulus; and from bonus, (benus) are formed bellus and bellulus.
- 6. (a.) From the names of places, and especially of towns, are derived patrial adjectives in ensis, inus, as, and anus, denoting of or belonging to such

(b.) Thus from Cannæ is formed Cannensis; from Sulmo, Sulmonensis. like manner, from castra and circus come castrensis, circensis. But Athence makes Atheniensis; and some Greek towns in īa and ēa drop i and e in their adjectives; as, Antiochensis, Nicomedensis.

(c.) Those in inus are formed from names of places ending in ia and ium; as, Áricia, Aricīnus; Caudium, Caudīnus; Capitolium, Capitolīnus; Latium, Latinus. Some names of towns, of Greek origin, with other terminations, also form adjectives in inus; as, Tarentum, Tarentinus.

(d.) Most of those in as are formed from nouns in um; some from nouns in

a; as, Arpīnum, Arpīnas; Cupēna, Cupēnas.
(e.) Those in ānus are formed from names of towns of the first declension, or from certain common nouns; as, Alba, Albānus; Roma, Romanus; Cuma, Cumānus; Thēbæ, Thebānus; also from some of the second declension; as, Tusculum, Tusculānus; Fundi, Fundānus:—fons, fontānus; mons, montānus; urbs, urbānus: oppīdum, oppīdānus.

(f.) Adjectives with the terminations ānus, iānus, and īnus are formed from names of men; as, Sulla, Sullānus; Tullius, Tulliūnus; Jugurtha, Jugurthīnus.

(g.) Greek names of towns in pŏlis form patrial adjectives in politānus; as,

Neapŏlis, Neapolitānus.

- (h.) Greek names of towns generally form patrials in ius; as, Rhodus, Rhodius; Lacedamon, Lacedamonius; -but those in a form them in aus; as, Larissa, Larissœus; Smyrna, Smyrnæus.
- (i.) From many patrials; as, Britannus, Gallus, Afer, Persa, Arabs, etc., adjectives are formed in icus and ius; as, Britannicus, Gallicus, Africus, Persicus, Arabicus; so Syrus, Syrius; Thrax, Thracius.
- 7. A large class of derivative adjectives, though formed from nouns, have the terminations of perfect participles. They generally signify wearing or furnished with; as,

alātus, winged; barbātus, bearded; galeātus, helmeted; aurītus, long-eared. turritus, turreted; c-nutus, horned; from ala, barba, galea, auris, etc.

- 8. The termination angus, annexed to the root of an adjective or participle in us, expresses a resemblance to the quality denoted by the primitive; as, supervacaneus, of a superfluous nature.
- § 129. II. Adjectives derived from verbs are called *verbal* adjectives. Such are the following classes:—
 - 1. The termination bundus, added to the first root of the verb, with a connecting vowel, which is commonly that of the verb, (see § 150, 5,) has the general meaning of the present participle; as,

errābundus, moribundus, from erro, morior, equivalent to errans, moriens.

- (a.) In many the meaning is somewhat strengthened; as, gratulābundus, full of congratulations; lacrimābundus, weeping profusely.
- (b.) Most verbals in bundus are from verbs of the first conjugation, a few from those of the third, and but one from the second and fourth respectively, viz. pudibundus and lascivibundus.
- (c.) Some verbal adjectives in cundus have a similar sense; as, rubăcundus, verecundus, from rubeo and vereor.
- 2. The termination *idus*, added to the root, especially of neuter verbs, denotes the quality or state expressed by the verb; as,

algidus, cold; calidus, warm; madidus, moist; rapidus, rapid; from algeo, caleo, madeo, rapio.

3. The termination *uus*, also, denotes the quality expressed by the verb; and adjectives in *uus* derived from active verbs take a passive meaning; as,

congruus, agreeing, from congruo; so, assiduus, nocuus, innocuus:—irriguus, well watered; conspicuus, visible; from irrigo, conspicio.

- 4. (a.) The terminations ilis and bilis, added to the root of a verb, with its connecting vowel, denote passively, capability, or desert; as,
- amabilis, worthy to be loved; credibilis, deserving credit; placabilis, easy to be appeased; agilis, active; ductilis, ductile; from amo, credo, placo; ago, daco. They are rarely active; as, horribilis, terribilis, fertilis; aer per cuncta meabilis. Plin.
- (b.) In adjectives of these forms, derived from verbs of the third conjugation, the connecting vowel is i; sometimes, also, in those from verbs of the second conjugation, in these and other forms, i is used instead of e; as, horribilis, terribilis, from horreo and terreo.
- (c.) These terminations, with the connecting vowel, are sometimes added to the third root; as, flexilis, flexibilis; coctilis, coctibilis, from flecto (flex-), etc.
- 5. The termination icius or itius, added to the third root of the verb, has a passive sense; as, fictitius, feigned; conductitius, to be hired; from fingo (fict-), etc.
- 6. The termination ax, added to the root of a verb, denotes an inclination, often one that is faulty; as,
- audax, audacious; lóquax, talkative; rápax rapacious; from audeo. Lóquor, rápio.
- 7. The termination *īvus*, annexed to the third root of a verb, denotes fitness or ability to produce the action expressed by the verb; as, disjunctivus, disjunctive, from disjungo.

- 8. Verbals in tor and trix, (see § 102, 6, (a.), are often used as adjectives, especially in poetry; as, victor exercitus, victrīces litere. In the plural they become adjectives of three terminations; as, victores, victrīces, victrīcia. So also hospes, especially by the later poets, is used as an adjective, having hospita in the feminie singular and also in the neuter plural.
- § 130. III. Adjectives derived from participles, and retaining their form, are called participial adjectives; as, *ămans*, fond of; doctus, learned.
 - IV. Some adjectives are derived from adverbs; as, crastinus, of to-morrow; hodiernus, of this day; from cras and hodie.
 - V. Some adjectives are derived from prepositions; as, contrarius, contrary, from contra; postërus, subsequent, from post.

COMPOSITION OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 131. Compound adjectives are formed variously:-

1. Of two nouns; as, capripes, goat-footed—of caper and pes; ignicomus, raving fiery hair—of ignis and coma.

Norz.—See, respecting the connecting short i, in case the first part of the compound is a noun or an adjective, § 103, Rem. 1.

- 2. Of a noun and an adjective; as, noctivagus, wandering in the night—of nox and vagus. So lucif ugax, shunning the light—of lux and fugax.
- 3. Of a noun and a verb; as, corniger, bearing horns—of cornu and gero; letifer, bringing death—of letum and fero. So carnivorus, causidicus, ignivomus, lucifugus, particeps.
- 4. Of an adjective and a noun; as, equevus, of the same age—of equus and evum; celeripes, swift-footed—of celer and pes. So centimanus, decennis, magnanimus, misericors, unanimis.
- 5. Of two adjectives; as, centumgeminus, a hundred-fold; multicăvus, having many cavities; quintusdecimus, the fifteenth.
- 6. Of an adjective and a verb; as, breviloquens, speaking briefly—of brevis and loquor; magnificus, magnificent—of magnus and facio.
 - 7. Of an adjective and a termination; as, qualiscumque, quotcumque, uterque.
 - 8. Of an adverb and a noun; as, bicorpor, two-bodied—of bis and corpus.
- 9. Of an adverb and an adjective; as, maledicax, slanderous—of måle and dicax. So antemeridianus, before mid-day.
- 10. Of an adverb and a verb; as, beneficeus, beneficent—of bene and făcio; malevolus, malevolent—of măle and volo.
- 11. Of a preposition and a noun; as, āmens, mad—of a and mens. So consors, decolor, deformis, implūmis, inermis.
- 12. Of a preposition and an adjective; as, concăvus, concave; infīdus, unfaithful. So improvidus, percārus, predīves, subalbīdus.
- · 13. Of a preposition and a verb; as, continuus, uninterrupted—of con and teneo; insciens, ignorant—of in and scio. So præcipuus, promiscuus, substillus, superstes.

REMIRK. When the former part is a preposition, its final consonant is sometimes changed, to adapt it to the consonant which follows it; as, imprüdens—of in and prüdens. See § 196; and cf. § 103, R. 2.

PRONOUNS.

- 1. A pronoun is a word which supplies the place § 132. of a noun.
 - There are eighteen simple pronouns:—

Ego, I.	Hic, this, the latter.	Suus, his, hers, its, etc.
Tu, thou.	Is, that or he.	Cujus? whose?
Sui, of himself, etc.	Quis? who?	Noster, our.
Ille, that, the former.	Qui, who.	Vester, your.
Ipse, himself.	Meus, my .	Nostras, of our country.
Iste, that, that of yours.	Tuus, thy.	Cujas? of what country?

- 3. Ego, tu, and sui, and commonly also quis and its compounds, are substantives: the other pronouns, both simple and compound, are adjectives, but are often by ellipsis used as substantives.
- 4. Ego, tu, and sui are commonly called personal pronouns. They are a species of appellatives (§ 26, 3,) of general application. Ego is used by a speaker to designate himself; tu, to designate the person whom he addresses. Hence ego is of the first person, tu of the second. (§ 35, 2.) Sui is of the third person, and has always a reflexive signification, referring to the subject of the sentence. The oblique cases of ego and tu are also used reflexively, when the subject of the proposition is of the first or second person.
- 5. The remaining pronouns, except quis and its compounds, are adjectives, as they serve to limit the meaning of substantives; and they are pronouns, because, like substantive pronouns, they may designate any object in certain situations or circumstances.
- 6. Meus, tuus, suus, noster, vester, and cujus, have the same extent of signification as the pronouns from which they are derived, and are equivalent to the genitive cases of their primitives.
- 7. Pronouns, like substantives and adjectives, are declined; but most of them want the vocative. Sui, from the nature of its signification, wants also the nominative in both numbers.
- 8. The substantive pronouns take the gender of the objects which they denote. The adjective pronouns, like adjectives, have three genders.

SUBSTANTIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 133. The substantive pronouns are thus declined:—

Singular. N. ĕ'-gŏ, I. tū, thou. su'-i, of himself, her-G. me'-i, of me.tu'-i, of thee. self, itself. D. mi'-hī, to me. tib'-i,* to thee. sib'-i,* to himself, etc. Ac. mē, me. te, thee. sē, himself, etc. tū, O thou. Ab. mē, with me. te, with thee.

sē, with himself, etc.

Plural.

N. nos, we.	vōs, ye or you.	
G. $\begin{cases} \text{nos'-trum} \\ \text{or nos'-tri,} \end{cases}$ of us.	ves'-trum or of you.	su'-ī, of themselves.
D . $\overline{\text{no}}$ - $\overline{\text{bis}}$, to us.	vo'-bis, to you.	sĭb'-i, to themselves.
Ac. nos, us.	vōs, you.	sē, themselves.
Ab. nō'-bīs, with us.	võs, O ye or you. võ'-bīs, with you.	sē, with themselves.

REMARK 1. $M\bar{e}$ and $m\bar{i}$ are ancient forms for mihi. So min' for mihine, Pers. 1, 2.

REM. 2. The syllable met is sometimes annexed to the substantive pronouns, in an intensive sense, either with or without ipse; as, egómet, I myself; minimet ipsi, for myself. It is not annexed, however, to the genitives plural, nor to tu in the nominative or vocative. In these cases of tu, tūtē or tutēmet is used. In the accusative and ablative the reduplicated forms mēmē and tētē in the singular, and sēsē in both numbers, are employed intensively. Mepte, intensive, med and ted, for me and te, and mis and tis for mei and tui, occur in the comic writers.

3. Nostrum and vestrum are contracted from nostrūrūm, nostrūrūm, and vestrūrūm, vestrūrūm. Respecting the difference in the use of nostrum and nostri, vestrum and vestri, see § 212, R. 2, N. 2.

4. The preposition cum is affixed to the ablative of these pronouns in both numbers; as, mēcum, nobiscum, etc. Cf. § 136, R. 1.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 134. Adjective pronouns may be divided into the following classes:—demonstrative, intensive, relative, interrogative, indefinite, possessive, and patrial.

Note. Some pronouns belong to two of these classes.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

Demonstrative pronouns are such as specify what object is meant.

They are ille, iste, hic, and is, and their compounds, and are thus declined:—

	Singular.			Plural.	
<i>M</i> .	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N. il'-lĕ, G. il-lĭ'-us,* D. il'-lī, Ac. il'-lum, V. il'-lĕ, Ab. il'-lō.	il'-lă, il-lī'-us, il'-lī, il'-lam, il'-lā, il'-lā.	il'-lŭd, il-lĭ'-us, il'-lī, il'-lŭd, il'-lŭd, il'-lō.	il'-lī, il-lō'-rum, il'-līs, il'-lōs, il'-lī, il'-līs.	il'-læ, il-lā'-rum, il'-līs, il'-lās, il'-læ, il'-līs.	il'-lă, il-lō'-rum, il'-līs, il'-lă, il'-lă, il'-līs.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS. Iste is declined like ille.

	Singular	r.		Plural.	
M.	\ddot{F} .	N.	$\vdash M$.	F.	N.
N. hie, G. hū'-jŭs, D. huie*, Ac. hune, V. hǐe, Ab. hōc.	hæc, hū'-jŭs, huic, hanc, hæc, hāc.	hốc, whữ-jús, huic, hốc, hốc, hốc.	hī, hō'-rum, hīs, hōs, hī, hīs.	hæ, hā'-rum, hīs, hās, hæ, hæ,	hæc, hō'-rum, hīs, hæc, hæc, hīs.
*	Singular.			Plural.	
M.	F.	N. 1	M.	F.	N.
N. is, G. ē'-jŭs, D. e'-ī, Ac. e'-um,	e'-ă, ē'-jŭs, e'-ī, e'-am,	ĭd, ē'-jŭs, e'-ī, ĭd,	i'-ī, e-ō'-rum, i'-īs or e'-īs, e'-ōs,	e'-æ, e-ā'rum, i'-īs <i>or</i> e'-īs, e'-ās,	e'-ă, e-ō'-rum, i'-īs <i>or</i> e'-īs, e'-ă,
V Ab. e'-ō.	e'-ā.	e'-ō.	i'-īs or e'-īs.	i'-īs or e'-īs.	i'-īs or e'-īs.

REMARK 1. Instead of ille, ollus was anciently used; whence olli masc. plur. in Virgil. Illus fem., for illius and illi, is found in Lucretius and Cato, as also in Cato, has for huic fem.; hice for hi, and has for has in Plantus and Terence. Im for eum, is found in the Twelve Tables; eii for ei, and ibus and ibus for iis, in Plantus; ea, fem., for ei, and eabus for iis, in Cato.

REM. 2. From ecce, lo! with ille, iste, and is, are formed, in colloquial language, nom., ecca; eccilla, eccillad; acc. sing., eccum, eccam; eccillum (by syncope ellum), eccillam; eccistam; acc. plur., eccos, ecca.

REM. 3. Istic and illic are compounded of iste hic, and ille hic; or, as some say, of iste ce, and ille ce. The former sometimes retains the aspirate, as isthic. They are more emphatic than ille and iste.

Istic is thus declined:-

Singular.				Plure	ıl.	
М.	F.	N.		M.	F.	<i>N</i> .
N. is'-tic, Ac. is'-tunc,	is'-tæc, is'-tanc.	is'-tōc, or is'-tūc, is'-tōc, or is'-tūc,	$egin{aligned} N.\ Ac. \end{aligned}$		is'-tæ	is'-tæc.
Ab. is'-toc.	is'-tāc.	is'tōc.				-

Illic is declined in the same manner.

REM. 4. Ce, intensive, is sometimes added to the several cases of hic, and rarely to some cases of the other demonstrative pronouns; as, hujusce, hunce, hance, hocce, hice, hace or hac, horunc, harumee, harunce, or harunc, hosce, hasce, hisce: illusce, illosce, illosce, illusce; istace, istisce; ejusce, iisce. When ne, interrogative, is also annexed, ce becomes ci; as, haceine, hoscine, historie; istuccine, istaccine, istoscine; illiceine, illunctine.

REM. 5. Modi, the genitive of modus, annexed to the genitive singular of aemonstrative and relative pronouns, imparts to them the signification of adjectives of quality; as, hujusmodi or hujuscemodi, like talls, of this sort, such; illiusmodi and istiusmodi, of that sort; cujusmodi, of what sort, like qualis; cu-

juscemodi, cujusquemodi, cujusmodicumque, of what kind soever; cujusdammodi, of some kind. So also istimodi, cuimodi and cuicuimodi, instead of istiusmodi, cujusmodi, etc.

REM. 6. The suffix dem is annexed to is, forming idem, "the same," which is thus declined:—

Singular.

M. V. I'-dem, G. e-jus'-dem, D. e-I'-dem, Ac. e-un'-dem, V Ab. e-O'-dem.	F. e'-ā-dem, e-jus'-dem, e-f'-dem, e-an'-dem, e-ā'-dem.	N. Y-dem, e-jus'-dem, e-j'-dem, Y-dem, e-ō'-dem.
M.	Plural. F.	N.
N. i-ī'-dem,	e-æ'-dem,	e'-ă-dem,
C. e-o-run'-dem,	e-a-run'-dem,	e-o-run'-dem,
D. e-is'-dem, or i-is'-dem, Ac. e-os'-dem,	e-is'-dem, or i-is'-dem, e-as'-dem,	
Ab. e-is'-dem, or i-is'-dem.	e-is'-dem, or i-is'-dem.	e-is'dem, or i-is'-dem.

Note 1. In compound pronouns, m before d is changed into n; as, eundem, eorundem, etc.

Note 2. In Sallust isdem, and in Palladius hisdem occur for iisdem; and Ennius in Cicero has eademmet for eadem.

INTENSIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 135. Intensive pronouns are such as serve to render an object emphatic.

To this class belong *ipse*, and the intensive compounds already mentioned. See §§ 133, R. 2, and 134, R. 4.

Ipse is compounded of is and the suffix pse, and is thus declined:-

	Singular.			Plural.	
M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N_{ullet}
ip'-sĕ,	ip′-să,	ip'-sum,		ip'-sæ,	ip'-să,
ip-sī'-us,	ip-sī'-us,	ip-sī'-us,			
ip'-sī, ip'-sum,	ip'-sī, ip'-sam,	ip'-sī, ip'-sum,	ip'-sīs, ip'-sōs,	ip'-sīs, ip'-sās,	ip'-sīs,
ip'-sum,	ip'-sam,	ip'-sum,		ip'-sas,	ip'-să, ip'-să,
ip'-sō.	ip'-sā.	ip'-sō.	ip'-sīs.	ip'-sīs.	ip'-sīs.

REMARK 1. Ipse is commonly subjoined to nouns or pronouns; as, Jupiter ipse, tu ipse, Jupiter himself, etc.; and hence is sometimes called the adjunctive pronoun.

REM. 2. A nominative *ipsus*, occurs in early writers, and a superlative *ipsis-simus*, his very self, is found in Plautus.

REM. 3. In old writers the is of ipse is declined, while pse remains undeclined; as, eapse, (nom. 1 nd abl.), eampse, and eopse, instead of ipsa, ipsam, and ipso. So also reapse, . e. re eapse, "in fact."

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

- § 136. Relative pronouns are such as relate to a preceding noun or pronoun.
- 1. They are qui, who, and the compounds quicumque and quisquis, whoever. The latter are called general relatives.
- 2. In a general sense, the demonstrative pronouns are often relatives; but the name is commonly appropriated to those above specified. They serve to introduce a proposition, limiting or explaining a preceding noun or pronoun, to which they relate, and which is called the antecedent.

Qui is thus declined :-

	Singular.			Plural.	
M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N. quī, G. cū'-jŭs, D. cui,* Ac. quem, V. —— Ab. quō.	quæ, cū'-jŭs, cui, quam, quā.	quŏd, cū'-jŭs, cui, quŏd, quō.	quī, quō'-rum, qui'-bŭs, quōs, qui'-bŭs.	quæ, quā'-rum, qui'-bŭs, quās, ————————————————————————————————————	quæ, quő'-rum, qui'-bŭs, quæ, ————————————————————————————————————

REMARK 1. Qui is sometimes used for the ablative singular, in all genders and rarely also for the ablative plural. To the ablatives quo, qua, qui, and quibus, cum is commonly annexed, cf. § 133, 4. Cicero uses quicum for quocum, when an indefinite person is meant.

REM. 2. Queis (monosyllabic, § 9, R.1), and quis are sometimes used in the dative and ablative plural for quibus. Cijus and cui were anciently written quojus and quoi: and, instead of the genitive cūjus, a relative adjective cūjus, a, um, very rarely occurs.

3. Quicumque, (or quicunque), is declined like qui.

REM. 3. Qui is sometimes separated from cumque by the interposition of one or more words; as, qua me cumque vocant terra. Virg. A similar separation sometimes occurs in the other compounds of cumque.

4. Quisquis is thus declined :-

	Plural.		
M. N. quis'-quis,	F. quis'-quis,†	N. quid'-quid,	M. N. quī'-q ū,
Ac. quem'-quem, Ab. quō'-quō.	quā'-quā.	quid'-quid, quō'-quō.	D. qui-bis'-qui-bus,

REM. 4. Quicquid is sometimes used for quidquid. Quiqui for quisquis occurs in Plautus; and quidquid is used adjectively in Cato R. R. 48.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 137. Interrogative pronouns are such as serve to inquire which of a number of objects is intended.

They are

1. Quis is commonly used substantively; qui, adjectively. The interrogative qui is declined like qui the relative.

Quis is thus declined :-

		Singular	•	1	Plural.	
	M.	F_{ullet}	N.	M.	F.	N.
G. D. Ac. V.	quis, - cū'-jūs, cui, quem, — quō.	quæ, cū'-jŭs, cui, quam, quam,	quid, cū'-jŭs, cui, quid, quō.	quī, quō'-rum, quĭ'-bŭs, quōs, quī'-bŭs.	quæ, quā'-rum, qui'-bŭs, quās, qui'-bŭs.	quæ, quō'-rum, qui'-bŭs, quæ, ————————————————————————————————————

REMARK (1.) Quis is sometimes used by comic writers in the feminine, and even in the neuter. Quisnam, quisque and quisquam also occur as feminine.

REM. (2.) Quī is used for the ablative of quis in all genders, as it is for that of the relative qui. Cf. § 136, R. 1.

REM. (3.) Quis and qui have sometimes the signification of the indefinite pronoun aliquis (some one, any one), especially after the conjunctions ec (for en), si, ne, neu, nisi, num; and after relatives, as quo, quanto, etc. Sometimes quis and qui are used in the sense of qualis? what sort?

- 2. The compounds quisnam and quinam have respectively the signification and declension of the interrogatives quis and qui. In the poets nam sometimes stands before quis. Virg. G. 4, 445.
- 3. Ecquis and numquis are declined and used like quis; but are sometimes adjectives. Virg. Ecl. 10, 28: Cic. Att. 13, 8.

REM. (4.) Ecqua is sometimes found in the nominative singular feminine; and the neuter plural of numquis is numqua.

REM. (5.) Ecqui and numqui also occur, declined like the interrogative qui, and, like that, used adjectively.

4. Ecquisnam and numquisnam are declined like ecquis; but are found only in the singular;—the former in the nominative in all genders, and in the ablative masculine; the latter in the nominative masculine and accusative neuter. In the nominative feminine and in the ablative, the former is used adjectively.

5. The interrogative cujus is also defective:-

Singular.			Plural.
M.	F.	N	F.
N. cū'-jŭs,	cū'-jă,	cū'-jum,	N. cū'-jæ, Ac. cū'-jās.
Ac. cū'-jum,	cū'-jă, cū'-jam,		Ac. cū'-jās.
45	cū'-iā		

 Cūjās is declined like an adjective of one termination; cūjas, cujātīs. See § 139, 4.

Note. The interrogative pronouns are used not only in direct questions but in such dependent clauses also, as contain only an indirect question; as, e.g. in the direct question, $quis\ est$? who is he? in the indirect, $nescio\ quis\ sit$, I know not who he is. Qui, in this sense, is found for $quis\ si$, as, $qui\ sit\ aperit$, he discloses who he is. Cf. § 265, N.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

§ 138. Indefinite pronouns are such as denote an object in a general manner, without indicating a particular individual. They are

Aliquis, some one.

Siquis, if any.

Viaquis, lest any.

Quisque, every one.

Aliquipiam, any one.

Quidam, a certain one.

Quildam, a certain one.

Note. Siquis and nequis are commonly written separately, siquis and nequis: so also unus quisque.

1. Aliquis is thus declined:-

		Singular.	
	M.	F_{\bullet}	N.
N. G. D. Ac.	al'-ĭ-quis, al-i-cū'-jus, al'-ĭ-cui, al'-ĭ-quem,	al'-ĭ-qua, al-i-cū'-jus, al'-ĭ-cui, al'-ĭ-quam,	al'-ĭ-quod, or -quid, al-i-cū'-jus, al'-ĭ-cui, al'-ĭ-quod, or -quid,
Ab.	al'-ĭ-quo.	al'-ĭ-quã.	al'-ĭ-quo.
		Plural.	
	M.	F.	N.
N. G. D. Ac. V.	al'-ĭ-qui, al-i-quō'-rum, a-liq'-uĭ-bus,* al'-ĭ-quos,	al'-ĭ-quæ, al-i-quā'-rum, a-liq'-uĭ-bus, al'-ĭ-quas,	al'-ĭ-qua, al-i-quō'-rum, a-liq'-uĭ-bus, al'-ĭ-qua,
Ab.	a-liq'-uĭ-bus.	a-liq'-uĭ-bus.	a-liq'-uĭ-bus.

^{*} Pronounced a-lik'-we-bus. See §§ 9, 4, and 21, 8.

- 2. Siquis and $n\bar{e}quis$ are declined in the same manner; but they sometimes have que in the fem. singular and neut. plural.
- (a.) Aliquis, in the nominative singular masculine, is used both as a substantive and as an adjective;—aliqui, as an adjective, but is nearly obsolete. Alique in the fem. sing. occurs as an adjective in Lucretius, 4, 2, 64. Siqui, and nequis, which are properly adjectives, are used also substantively for siquis and nequis, and in the nominative singular masculine these two forms are equivalent. The ablatives aliqui and siqui also occur.
- (b.) Aliquid, siquid, and nequid, like quid, are used substantively; aliquod, etc., like quod, are used adjectively.
 - 3. Quisque, quisquam, and quispiam, are declined like quis.
- (a.) In the neuter singular, however, quisque has quodque, quidque, or quicque; quisquam has quidquam or quicquam; and quispiam has quodpiam, quidpiam, or quippiam. The forms quidque or quicque, quidpiam or quippiam are used substantively.
- (b.) Quisquam wants the feminine (except quamquam, Plaut. Mil. 4, 2, 68), and also the plural, and, with a few exceptions in Plautus, it is always used substantively, its place as an adjective being supplied by ullus. Quispiam is scarcely used in the plural, except in the nominative feminine, quepium.
- 4. Unusquisque is compounded of unus and quisque, which are often written separately, and both words are declined.

Thus unusquisque, uniuscujusque, unicuique, unumquemque, etc. The neuter is unumquodque, or unumquidque. It has no plural. Unumquidquid for unumquidque occurs in Plautus and Lucretius.

5. Quidam, quilibet, and quivis, are declined like qui, except that they have both quod and quid in the neuter, the former used adjectively, the latter substantively.

Note. Quidam has usually n before d in the accusative singular and genitive plural; as, quendam, quorundam, etc. Cf. § 134, Note 1.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

†§ 139. 1. The possessive are derived from the genitives of the substantive pronouns, and of quis, and designate something belonging to their primitives.

They are meus, tuus, suus, noster, vester, and cūjus. Meus, tuus, and suus, are declined like $b\check{o}nus$; but meus has in the vocative singular masculine mi, and very rarely meus. Cf. § 105, R. 3. In late writers mi occurs also in the feminine and neuter.

- 2. Cūjus also is declined like bŏnus; but is defective. See § 137, 5. It occurs only in early Latin and in legal phraseology.
 - 3. Noster and vester are declined like piger. See § 106.

REMARK 1. The terminations pte and met intensive are sometimes annexed to possessive pronouns, especially to the ablative singular; as, suopte pondère, by its own weight; suapte manu, by his own hand. So nostrapte culpā; suumpte amīcum; meāmet culpā. The suffix met is usually followed by ipse; as, Hannibal suāmet ipse fraude captus abiit. Liv.; but Sallust has meamet facta dicère.

REM. 2. Suus, like its primitive sui, has always a reflexive signification, referring to the subject of the sentence. Meus, iuus, noster, and vester, are also haed reflexively, when the subject of the proposition is of the first or second person. See § 182, 4.

PATRIAL PRONOUNS.

- 4. (a.) These are nostras and cūjas. See §§ 100, 2, and 128, 6. They are declined like adjectives of one termination; as, nostras, nostrātis, but both are defective.
- (b.) Nostras is found in the nominative and genitive singular, in the nominative plural, (masc. and fem., nostrātes, neut. nostratia), and in the ablative, (nostratībus). Cūjas or quōjas occurs in the nominative, genitive and accusative (cujūtem masc.) singular, and in the nominative plural, masc. (cujūtes). Cf. § 137, 6.—Nostrātis and cujūtis (or quojūtis) also occur in the nominative.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

- 5. To the adjective pronouns may be added certain adjectives of so general a meaning, that they partake, in some degree, of the character of pronouns. Of this kind are:—
 - (1.) (a.) Alius, ullus, nullus, and nonnullus, which answer to the question, who?
 - (b.) Alter, neuter, alteruter, utervis, and uterlibet, which answer to the question, uter? which of two?
 - (2.) Adjectives denoting quality, size, or number, in a general way. These stand in relation to one another, and are hence called correlatives.

REMARK. The relatives and interrogatives of this class begin with qu, and are alike in form. The indefinites are formed from the relatives by prefixing ali. The demonstratives begin with t, and are sometimes strengthened by dem. A general relative, having a meaning more general than the relative, is formed by doubling the simple relative, or by affixing to it the termination cumque. A general indefinite is formed by annexing libet or vis to the relative.

(3.) Their mutual relation is denoted by the following table, with which may be compared the adverbial correlatives, § 191, R. 1.

Interrog.	Demonstr.	Relat.	Relat. general.	Indefin.	Indef general.
quālis?	tālis,	quālis,	qualis-qualis, qualiscumque,	}	qualislībet,
quantus?	{ tantus, } tantundem, }	quantus,	quantus-quantus, quantuscumque,	aliquantus,	quantuslibet,
quŏt?	tŏt, totīdem,	quŏt,	quot-quot,	alīquot,	quotlibet,
quŏtus?	tŏtus,	quŏtus,	quotuscumque,	(aliquŏtus),	
		1	Diminutives.		
quantulus?	tantŭlus.	——.	quantuluscumque.	aliquantulun	a. ———.

Note 1. The suffix cumque, which is used in forming general relatives, is composed of the relative adverb cum (quum) and the suffix que, expressive of universality, as in quisque and in adverbs, (see § 191). Cumque, therefore, originally signified 'whenever.' When attached to a relative, whether a pronoun, adjective, or adverb, it renders the relative meaning more general; as, qui, who; quicumque, whoever; or, every one who.

NOTE 2. Cujusmodi is sometimes used for qualis, and hujusmodi, istiusmodi, ejusmodi, and ejusdemmodi for talis. Cf. § 134, R. 5.

VERBS.

- § 140. A verb is a word by which something is affirmed of a person or thing.
 - 1. That of which any thing is affirmed is called the *subject* of the verb. (2.) That which is affirmed of the subject is called the *predicate*. Cf. § 201.
 - 3. A verb either expresses an action or state; as, puer legit, the boy reads; aqua calet, the water is warm;—or it connects an attribute with a subject; as, terra est rotunda, the earth is round.
 - 4. All verbs belong to the former of these classes, except sum, I am, the most common use of which is, to connect an attribute with a subject. When so used, it is called the copula.

§ 141. Verbs are either active or neuter.

NOTE. Active and neuter verbs are sometimes called transitive and intransitive; and verbs of motion are by some grammarians divided into active-transitive and active-intransitive, according as they require, or do not require, an object after them.

- I. An active or transitive verb expresses such an action as requires the addition of an object to complete the sense; as, amo te, I love thee; sequitur consulem, he follows the consul.
- II. A neuter or intransitive verb expresses such an action or state, as does not require the addition of an object to complete the sense; as, equus currit, the horse runs; gradior, I walk.

REMARK 1. Many verbs, in Latin, are considered as neuter, which are usually translated into English by active verbs. Thus indulgeo, I indulge, noceo, I hurt, pareo, I obey, are reckoned among neuter verbs. In strictness, such Latin verbs denote rather a state than an action, and their sense would be more exactly expressed by the verb to be with an adjective; as, 'I am indulgent, I am hurtful,' etc. Some verbs in Latin, which do not usually take an object after them, are yet active, since the object is omitted by ellipsis. Thus credo properly signifies to intrust, and, in this sense, takes an object; as, credo tibi salūtem meam, I intrust my safety to you; but by ellipsis it usually means to believe; as, crede mihi, believe me.

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

VOICES.

- (a) Voice, in verbs, is the form by which they denote the relation of the agent to the action of the verb.
- (b.) Most active Latin verbs have, for this purpose, two forms, which are called the active and passive voices.
- 1. A verb in the active voice represents the agent as acting upon some person or thirg, called the object; as, puer legit hibrum, the boy is reading a book.

- 2. A verb in the passive voice represents the object as acted upon by the agent; as, liber legitur a puero, a book is read by the boy.
- Rem. 2. By comparing the two preceding examples, it will be seen that they have the same meaning. The passive voice may thus be substituted at pleasure for the active, by making the object of the active the subject of the passive, and placing the subject of the active in the ablative case, with or without the preposition a or ab, according as it is a voluntary or involuntry agent. The active form is used to direct the attention especially to the agent as acting; the passive, chiefly to exhibit the object as acted upon. In the one case the object, in the other the agent, is frequently omitted, and left indefinite; as, pure legid, the boy is reading, scil. librum, libras, etc., a book, a letter, etc.; virtus laudatur, virtue is praised, scil. ab hominibus, by men.

The two voices are distinguished from each other by peculiar terminations. Cf. § 152.

- § 142. 1. Neuter verbs have, in general, only the form of the active voice. They are, however, sometimes used impersonally in the passive voice. See § 184, 2.
- 2. The neuter verbs audeo, I dare, fido, I trust, gaudeo, I rejoice, and soleo, I am wont, have the passive form in the perfect and its cognate tenses; as, ausus sum, I dared. Hence these verbs are called neuter passives, or semi-deponents.
- 3. The nenter verbs vapălo, I am beaten, and vēneo, I am sold, have an active form, but a passive meaning, and are hence called neutral passives.
- 4. (a.) Deponent verbs have a transitive or intransitive signification with only the passive form. They are called deponent verbs, from depono, to lay aside, as having laid aside their active form, and their passive signification; as, sequor, I follow; morior, I die.
- (b.) Some deponent verbs have both an active and a passive signification, especially in the perfect participle. These are sometimes called *common verbs*. Cf. § 162, 17.

MOODS.

- § 143. (a.) Moods (or modes) are forms of the verb, which denote the relation of the action or state, expressed by the verb, to the mind of the speaker or to some other action.
- (b.) Latin verbs have four moods—the indicative, the subjunctive, the imperative, and the infinitive.
- 1. The *indicative* mood is used in independent and absolute assertions and *inquiries*; as, amo, I love; audisne? dost thou hear?
- 2. The subjunctive mood is used to express an action or state simply as conceived by the mind; as, si me obsecret, redibo; if he entreat me, I will return.
- 3. The imperative mood is used in commanding, exhorting, or entreating; as, ama, love thou; amanto, they shall love.

4. The *infinitive* mood is used to denote an action or state in definitely, without limiting it to any person or thing as its subject; as, virtus est vitium fugere, to shun vice is a virtue.

TENSES.

- § 144. Tenses are forms of the verb, denoting the time of the action or state expressed by the verb.
- 1. Time admits of a threefold division, into present, past, and future; and, in each of these times, an action may be represented either as going on, or as completed. From these two divisions arise the six tenses of a Latin verb, each of which is distinguished by its peculiar terminations.
- 2. They are called the present, imperfect, future, perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect tenses.

Present action amo, I love, or am loving; Present tense.

Past amābam, I was loving; Imperfect tense.

Future pleted; amābo, I shall love, or be loving; Future tense. Present action amavi, I have loved; Perfect tense.

amaveram, I had loved; Pluperfect tense.

amavero, I shall have loved; Future perfect tense.

3. There is the same number of tenses in the passive voice, in which actions not completed are represented by simple forms of the

verb, and those which are completed by compound forms.

Present action amor, I am loved; Present tense.
Past pleted; amābar, I was loved; Imperfect tense.
Future pleted; amābor, I shall be loved; Future tense.

action anātus sum, or fui, I have been loved; Perfect tense. com-Future (pleted;) amatus ero, or fuero, I shall have been loved; Future Perfect.

- § 145. I. The present tense represents an action as now going on, and not completed; as, amo, I love, or am loving.
- 1. Any existing custom, or general truth, may be expressed by this tense; as, apud Parthos, signum datur tympåno; among the Parthians, the signal is given by a drum. A general truth is sometimes also expressed by the perfect.

2. The present tense may also denote an action which has existed for some time, and which still exists; as, tot annos bella gero; for so many years I have

waged, and am still waging war.

- 3. The present tense is often in narration used for the perfect indefinite. It is then called the historical present; as, desiliunt ex equis, provilant in primum; they dismout, they fly forward to the front.
- II. The imperfect tense represents an action as going on at some past time, but not then completed; as, amābam, I was loving.
 - 1. The imperfect sometimes denotes repeated or customary past action; as, legēbam, I was wont to read.
 - 2. It may also denote an action which had existed for some time, and which was still existing at a certain past time; as, audiebat jamdūdum verba; he had long heard, and was still hearing the words.

8. In letters, and with reference not to the time of their being written, but to that of their being read, the imperfect is sometimes used for the present; as, expectabam, I was expecting, (i. e. when I wrote).

4. The imperfect also sometimes denotes the intending, prevaring, or attempting to act at a definite past time.

. III. The future tense denotes that an action will be going on hereafter, but without reference to its completion; as, amābo, I shall love, or shall be loving.

IV. The perfect tense represents an action either as just completed, or as completed in some indefinite past time; as, amāvi, I have loved, or I loved.

REMARK. In the former sense, it is called the perfect definite; in the latter, the perfect indefinite, historical perfect, or agrist.

V. The pluperfect tense represents a past action as completed, at or before the time of some other past action or event; as, litteras scripseram, quum nuncius vēnit; I had written the letter, when the messenger arrived.

VI. The future perfect tense denotes that an action will be completed, at or before the time of some other future action or event; as, quum cœnavero, proficiscar; when I shall have supped, I will go.

Note 1. This tense is often, but improperly, called the *future subjunctive*. It has the signification of the indicative mood, and corresponds to the *second future* in English.

Note 2. The imperfect, historical perfect, and pluperfect tenses are sometimes called *preterites* or the *preterite tenses*.

Note 3. The present, imperfect, and future tenses passive, in English, do not express the exact sense of those tenses in Latin, as denoting an action which is, was, or will be, going on at a certain time. Thus laudor signifies, not 'I am praised,' but 'I am in the act of being praised,' or, if such an expression is admissible, 'I am being praised.'

REMARK 1. The six tenses above enumerated are found only in the indicative mood.

REM. 2. The subjunctive mood, in the regular conjugation, has the present and past, but no future tenses.

Note 4. The tenses of the subjunctive mood have less definiteness of meaning, in regard to time, than those of the indicative. Thus the present and perfect, besides the common signs, may or can, may have or can have, must, in certain connections, be translated by might, could, would, or should; might have, could have, etc. The tenses of this mood must often, also, be translated by the corresponding tenses of the indicative. For a more particular account of the signification of each of the tenses of the subjunctive mood, see § 260.

REM. 3. The imperative mood has two tenses—a present and a future; the former for that which is to be done at once, and the latter for that which is to be done in future.

REM. 4. The infinitive mood has three tenses—the present, the perfect, and the future; the first of which denotes an incomplete, the second a completed action, and the last an action to be performed.

NUMBERS.

§ 146. Number, in verbs, is the form by which the unity or plurality of their subject is denoted. Hence verbs, like nouns, have two numbers—the singular and the plural. Cf. § 35, 1.

PERSONS.

- § 147. Person, in verbs, is the form by which they denote the person of their subject. Hence in each number there are three persons—the *first*, second, and third. Cf. § 35, 2.
- 1. The imperative *present* has only the second person in both numbers. The imperative *future* has in each number the second and third persons, but in the singular they have both the same form, -to in the active, and -tor in the passive voice.
- 2. As the signification of the infinitive mood is not limited to any subject, it admits no change to express either number or person.
- 3. The following are the terminations of the different persons of each number, in the indicative and subjunctive moods, in both voices:—

	- Active.			Passive.			
Person.	1.	2.	3.	1.	2.	3.	
	o, i, <i>or</i> m,		t;	r,	ris,	tur;	
Plural.	mus,	tis, .	nt.	mur,	mĭni,	ntur.	

These may be called personal terminations.

REMARK 1. The perfect indicative active is irregular in the second person singular and plural, which end in sti and stis, and in one of the forms of the third person plural, which ends in re.

Rem. 2. The passive form above given belongs to the simple tenses only.

REM. 3. The pronouns of the first and second persons, ego, nos; tu and ros, are seldom expressed in Latin as subjects of a finite verb, the several persons being sufficiently distinguished by the terminations of the verb.

PARTICIPLES, GERUNDS, AND SUPINES.

- § 148. 1. A participle is a word derived from a verb, and partaking of its meaning, but having the form of an adjective.
- (1.) Like a verb, it has different voices and tenses; like an adjective, it has declension* and gender; and like both, it has two numbers.
- (2.) Active verbs have usually four participles—two in the active voice, a present and a future; as, amans, loving; amatūrus, about to love;—and two in the passive voice, a perfect and a futur; as, amātus, loved, or having been loved; amandus, to be loved.

- (3.) Neuter verbs have usually only the participles of the active voice.
- (4.) Deponent verbs, both active and neuter, may have the participles of both voices.
- 2. (a.) Gerunds are verbal nouns, used only in the oblique cases, and expressing the action or state of the verb; as, amandi, of loving, etc.
- (b.) Like other abstract nouns, they are found only in the singular number, and by their cases supply the place of a declinable present infinitive active.
- 3. Supines also are verbal nouns of the fourth declension in the accusative and ablative singular; as, amātum, to love; amātu, to be loved.

REMARK. These also serve in certain connections to supply the place of the infinitive present both active and passive. The supine in um is called the former supine; that in u, the latter. The former is commonly used in an active, the latter in a passive sense.

CONJUGATION.

- § 149. 1. The conjugation of a verb is the regular formation and arrangement of its several parts, according to their voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons.
- 2. There are four conjugations, which are characterized by the vowel before re in the present of the infinitive active.

In the first conjugation, it is \bar{a} long; In the second, \bar{e} long; In the third, \bar{e} short; In the fourth, $\bar{\imath}$ long.

EXCEPTION. Do, dăre, to give, and such of its compounds as are of the first conjugation, have \ddot{a} short before re.

- § 150. A verb, like a noun, consists of two parts—the root, and the termination. Cf. § 40, R. 10.
- 1. The first or general root of a verb consists of those letters that are found in every part. This root may always be found by removing the termination of the present infinitive.
- 2. There are also two special roots, the first of which is found in the perfect, and is called the *second* root; the other, found in the supine or perfect participle, is called the *third* root.
- 3. In regular verbs of the first, second, and fourth conjugations, the *second* root is formed by adding, respectively, $\tilde{a}v$, u, and $\tilde{i}v$, to the *general* root; and the *third* root by a similar addition of $\tilde{a}t$, $\tilde{i}t$, and $\tilde{i}t$.

REMARK. Many verbs, in each of the conjugations, form their second and third roots irregularly.

4. In the third conjugation, the second root either is the same as the first, or is formed from it by adding s; the third root is formed by adding t. See § 171.

Note. In the second and fourth conjugations, e and i before o are considered as belonging not to the root, but to the termination. In verbs whose second or third roots are formed irregularly, the general root often undergoes some change in the parts derived from them.

- 5. The vowel which unites the general root with the remaining letters of the verb, is called the *connecting* vowel. Each conjugation, except the third, is, in a great degree, distinguished by a peculiar connecting vowel, which is the same as characterizes the infinitives. See § 149, 2.
- (a.) In the third conjugation, the connecting vowel is generally \check{e} or \check{e} . In the second and fourth conjugations, and in verbs in \check{e} 0 of the third, a second connecting vowel is sometimes added to that which characterizes the conjugation; as, a in docant, u in capiunt, etc.
- (b.) In verbs whose second and third roots are formed irregularly, the connecting vowel often disappears, or is changed in the parts derived from those roots; but it is almost always found in the parts derived from the first root.
- § 151. 1. From the first root are derived, in each voice, the present, imperfect, and future indicative; the present and imperfect subjunctive; the imperative, and the present infinitive. From this root are derived also the present participle, the gerund, and the future participle passive.
- 2. From the second root are derived, in the active voice, the perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect indicative; the perfect and pluperfect subjunctive, and the perfect infinitive.
- 3. (a.) From the third root are derived, in the active voice, the supine in um, and the future participle; the latter of which, with the verb esse, constitutes the future infinitive active.
- (b.) From this root are derived, in the passive voice, the supine in u, and the perfect participle; from the latter of which, with the verb sum, are formed all the tenses which in the active are derived from the second root. The future infinitive passive is formed from the supine in um, and $\bar{v}ri$, the present infinitive passive of the verb eo, to go.
- 4. The present and perfect indicative, the supine in um, and the present infinitive, are called the principal parts of the verb, because from the first three the several roots are ascertained, and from the last, the characteristic vowel of the conjugation. In the passive voice, the principal parts are the present indicative and infinitive, and the perfect participle.

NOTE. As the supine in um is wanting in most verbs, the third root must often be determined from the perfect participle, or the future participle active.

§ 152. The following table exhibits a connected view of the verbal terminations, in all the conjugations. By annexing these to the several roots, all the parts of a verb may be formed.

Terminations added to the First Root.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	PLURAL. Persons.	œ	-antŭr. -entŭr.	-untür. -iuntür.		-abantŭr.	-ebantŭr.	-abuntŭr. -ebuntŭr. -entŭr. -ientŭr.
		ci	-amini,	-imini, -imini,		-abamini,	-ebamînî, -iebamînî,	-abimini, -ebimini, -emini, -iomini,
		1.	-āmŭr, -ēmŭr,	-lmŭr, -lmŭr,		-abamŭr,	-ebānnūr, -iebāmūr,	-abímür, -ebímür, -ēmūr, -iēmūr,
		ಣೆ	-ātŭr; -ētŭr;	-Itūr; -Itūr;		-abūtŭr;	-ebātūr; -iebātūr;	-abítůr; -ebítůr; -ētůr; -iētůr;
	LAR.		-ārīs or -ārē, -ērīs or -ērē,	or -ere, or -īrě,		2 2	or -ebārĕ, or -iebārĕ,	or -abčrě, or -eběrě, or -ērě, or -iērě,
	SINGULAR. Persons.	61	-ārīs -ērīs	-eris -Iris	Ę.	-abaris c		-aberīs -eberīs -ērīs -ierīs
		i,		4iŏr,	IMPERFE	1ābăr, 2ēbăr,	8ēbār, 4iēbār,	Future 1abŏr, 2ebŏr, 3ăr, 4iŭr,
		တ်	-ant.	-unt. -iunt.		-abant.	-ebant.	-fbunt. -ebunt. -ent.
	PLURAL. Persons.		etts,			-abatis,	-ebūtīs,	-abitis, -ebitis, -ētis, -iētis,
			-āmŭs, -ēmŭs,			-abāmŭs, -ebāmŭs,	-ebūmŭs, -iebāmŭs	-abimŭs, -ebimŭs, -ēmŭs, -iēmŭs,
	.A.R. 28.	က်	-ĕt;	it;		-abăt; -ebăt;	-ēbāt; -iēbāt;	-abit; -ebit; -et; -iët;
	SINGULAR Persons.	l. 2.	10, -iis, -ii 2eo, -ēs, -ĕt	o, -Is, io, -īs,		-ābās, -ēbūs,	-chās,	-ābis, -ēbis, -ēs, -ies,
			שלים בי פין בי פין בי פין	ing ing			 -ēbam, -iēbam, 	1ābo, 2ēbo, 8am, 4iam,

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

	entŭr. eantür. -antŭr.	
	-ēmini, -eāmini, -āmini, -iāmini,	
	-ēmŭr, -ēāmŭr, -āmŭr, -iāmŭr,	
	eatur; eatur; atur; iatur;	
	or ērč, or eārš, or ārč, or iārš,	
TENSE.	-ērīs -ērīs -ārīs -iārīs	
PRESENT T	2err, 2eur, -iŭr,	
	ent. eant. eant.	
	entis, entis, entis, entis,	
	-emus, -amus, -iamus,	
	et;	
	-ēs, -ēis, -iās,	
	1em, 2eam, 8am, 4iam,	

PART. Perf. ds. INF. Fut. -um iri.

	_				
	-arentŭr. -erentŭr. -erentŭr.		-antŏr.	-untor.	lŭs, lŭs, ŭs,
	-aremini, -eremini, -eremini,		(-abamini,)	(-emini,) (-iemini.)	ART. 2endŭs, Fut. 3endŭs,
	arēmŭr, erēmŭr, erēmŭr, irēmŭr,	-		-Itŏr, -Itŏr,	$_{Fw}^{ m PAR}$
	arētūr; erētūr; erētūr; irētūr;		ure. -ator,	Fut Litor,	2
	r arērě, r erērě, r erērě, r irērě,		-amini.	-imínī. -imínī.	INFIN. Pres.
H	erēris o erēris o erēris o	MOOD.	1ark,	3erë, 4īrĕ,	
IMPERFEC	1ārĕr, 2ērĕr, 3ĕrĕr, 4īrĕr,	RATIVE	·məsə	⊸ P•d	1andi, 2endi, 3endi, 4iendi,
	-ārent. -ērent. -īrent.	IMPE	anto.	iunto.	GER. 2. 8. 8.
	-arētis, -erētis, -erētis, -irētis,		etötě,	itote,	1ans, 2ens, 3ens, 4iens.
	-arēmŭs, -erēmŭs, -erēmŭs, -irēmŭs,		-āto, -āto; -ēto, -ēto;		$\begin{array}{c} \text{PART.} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1. \\ 2. \\ \end{array} \right. \\ Pres. \end{array} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 4. \\ 4. \end{array} \right.$
	ārĕt, ērĕt; ĕrĕt; īrĕt;		·ə.inp	·H	arê Frê Frê Îrê
	-ārēs, -ērēs, ·črēs, -īrēs,		ette Hette	-itě.	$\begin{bmatrix} \text{NFIN.}^* \begin{cases} 1. \\ 2. \\ 4. \end{cases}$
	1. årem, 2. årem, 8. ěrem, 4. frem,		1119891 i ci ci ici ci	4.	IN A

Nors. Verbs in to of the third conjugation have two connecting rowels in all the parts in which they occur in verbs of the fourth conjugation, and these vowels are the same in both. (4. -iendŭs.

Terminations added to the Second and Third Roots.

The terminations of the tenses which are formed from the second and third roots, are the same in all the conjugations. Thus:--PASSIVE VOICE.-THIRD ROOF. ACTIVE VOICE -- SECOND ROOT. INDICATIVE MOOD.

		•	
	or fuisti, etc. or fuërüs, etc. or fuëris, etc.	-ds sim or fuërim, -ds sis or fuëris, etcds essem or fuïssemits esses or fuïsses or	INFIN. Perfus esse or fuisse. Perfūs. INF. Futnm iri I. SIIP. 55
	-ŭs ĕs -ŭs ĕrās -ŭs ĕrās	-ŭs sīs -ŭs essēs	or fuisse.
0.0	or fui, or fuëram, or fuëro,	or fuërim, or fuëssem.	erfus esse INF. Fut
	-ŭs sum -ŭs ëram ? -ŭs ëro	-tis sim -tis essem	INFIN. P.
TOOD.	$egin{array}{ll} Perf. & - ext{is sum} & o \ Plup. & - ext{is eram} & o \ Fut. perf. & - ext{is ero} & o \ \end{array}$	HOOD. Perf. Plup.	Ĕ.
TOOM WATEROUTE	-ērunt or -ērē. -ĕrant. -ĕrint.	SUBJUNCTIVE -ërint. -issent.	INF. Fudūrūs osse. PART. Fudūrūs. F. SUPum.
Plural.	ists, -erātis, -eritis,	iritis, ssētis,	se. . Futūr
	-Imŭs, -ĕrāmŭs, -ĕrimŭs,	-ĕrimŭs, -issēmŭs,	INFIN. Perfisseūrūs csse. PART. F
ular.	-istī, -ĭt; -ĕrās, -ĕrǔt; -ĕrīs, -ĕrĭt;	-ĕrfs, -ĕrft; -ĕ , -issēs, -issĕt; -i	INFIN 'utūrŭs e
Singe	ram, -èr ro, -èr	-črim, -čr -issem, -iss	INF. F
	Perf1, Pluperam, Fut. perfero,	Perf&	THIRD ROOT.

REMARK 1. In analyzing a verb, the voice, person, and number, are ascertained by the personal terminations. See § 147, 3. The conjugation, mood, and tense, are, in general, determined by the letter or letters which intervene between the root of the verb and the personal terminations. Thus in anabamus, mus denotes that the verb is of the active voice, plural number, and first person; be denotes that it is of the indicative mood, imperfect tense; and the connecting vowel a determines it to be of the first conjugation. So in amuremini, mini denotes the passive voice, plural number, and second person; re, the subjunctive mood, imperfect tense; and a, as before, the first conjugation.

Rem. 2. Sometimes, the part between the root of the verb and the personal termination, does not precisely determine the conjugation, mood, and tense, but only within certain limits. In such cases, the conjugation may be learned, by finding the present tense in the dictionary, and if two forms are alike in the same conjugation, they can only be distinguished by the sense. Thus amemus and docemus have the same termination; but, as amo is of the first, and doceo of the second conjugation, the former is determined to be the subjunctive, the latter the indicative, present. Regar may be either the future indicative, or the present subjunctive—bibimus either the present or the perfect indicative.

§ 153. Sum, I am, is called an auxiliary verb, because it is used, in conjunction with participles, to supply the want of simple forms in other verbs. From its denoting existence, it is sometimes called the substantive verb.

REMARK. Sum is very irregular in those parts which, in other verbs, are formed from the first root. Its imperfect and future tenses, except in the third person plural of the latter, have the form of a pluperfect and future perfect. It is thus conjugated:—

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic. Fut. Part. Sum, es'-sĕ, fu'-ī, fū'-tū'-rŭs.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
BINGULAR.	PLURAL

Imperfect.

ě'-ram, I was,
 ë'-rās, thou wast,
 ë'-rāt, he was;
 ë'-rant, they were.

Future. shall, or will.

1. ĕ'-rŏ, I shall be, 2. ĕ'-rĭs, thou wilt be, 3. ĕ'-rĭt, he will be; ĕ'-runt, they will be.

^{*}In the second person singular in English, the plural form you is commonly used except in solemn discourse; as, tu es, you are.
† The plural pronoun of the second person is either ye or you.

Perfect. have been, or was.

1. fu'-ī, I have been,

2. fu-is'-tī, thou hast been,

3. fu'-ĭt, he has been;

fu'-i-mus, we have been, fu-is'-tis, ye have been,

fu-ē'-runt or re, they have been.

Pluperfect.

1. fu'-ĕ-ram, I had been,

2. fu'-ĕ-rās, thou hadst been,

3. fu'-ĕ-răt, he had been;

fu-e-rā'-mŭs, we had been,

fu-e-rā'-tĭs, ye had been, fu'-ĕ-rant, they had been.

Future Perfect. shall or will have.

1. fu'-ĕ-rŏ, I shall have been,

2. fu'-ĕ-rĭs, thou wilt have been, 3. fu'-ĕ-rĭt, he will have been;

fu-er'-ĭ-mus, we shall have been,

fu-er'-ī-tis, ye will have been, fu'-ĕ-rint, they will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present. may, or can.

1. \sin , I may be,

2. sīs, thou mayst be,

3. sit, he may be;

sī'-mŭs, we may be, sī'-tĭs, ye may be, sint, they may be.

Imperfect. might, could, would, or should.

1. es'-sem, I would be,

2. es'-ses, thou wouldst be,

3. es'-set, he would be;

es-sē'-mus, we would be, es-sē'-tĭs, ye would be, es'-sent, they would be.

Perfect.

1. fu'-ĕ-rim, I may have been,

2. fu'-ĕ-ris, thou mayst have been, 3. fu'-ĕ-rĭt, he may have been;

fu-ĕr'-Ĭ-mus, we may have been, fu-ĕr'-Ĭ-tĭs, ye may have been, fu'-ĕ-rint, they may have been.

Pluperfect. might, could, would, or should have.

1. fu-is'-sem, I would have been,

fu-is-sē'-mus, we would have been, 2. fu-is'-ses, thou wouldst have been, fu-is-se'-tis, ye would have been,

3. fu-is'-set, he would have been;

fu-is'-sent, they would have been.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. 1. ĕs, be thou, Fut.

2. es'-to, thou shalt be, 3. es'-tŏ, let him be;

es'-tĕ, be ye. es-tō'-tĕ, ye shall be,

sun'-tŏ, let them be.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. es'-sĕ, to be.

Perfect. fu-is'-se, to have been.

Future. fu-tu-rus (ă, um), es'-se, or fo'-re, to be about to be.

PARTICIPLE.

Future. fu-tu'-rus, a, um, about to be.

§ 154. REMARK 1. A present participle ens seems to have been auciently in use, and is still found in the compounds absens, præsens, and potens.

Rem. 2. The perfect fui, and its derivative tenses, are formed from an obsolete fuo, whence come also the participle fulurus, an old subjunctive present fuam, fuas, fuat; —, —, fuant, and the forms furimus, perf. ind., furtint, perf. subj., and furisset, plup. subj.

REM. 3. From fuo appear also to be derived the following:-

Subj. imperf. fő'-rem, fő'-rēs, fő'-rět; ———, fő'-rent. Inf. pres. fő'-rě.

These forms seem to have been contracted from fuerem, etc., and fuere. Forem is equivalent in meaning to essem, but the infinitive fore has, in most cases, acquired a future signification, equivalent to futurus esse.

REM. 4. Siem, sies, siet, sient, for sim, sis, sit, sint, are found in ancient writers, as are also escit for erit, escunt for erunt, ese, esētis, and esent, for esse, essētis, and essent.

REM. 5. Like sum are conjugated its compounds, absum, adsum, dēsum, insum, intersum, obsum, præsum, subsum, and supersum.

REM. 6. PROSUM, from the old form $pr\bar{o}d$ for $pr\bar{o}$, and sum, has d after pro, when the simple verb begins with e; as,

Ind. pres. prō'-sum, prōd'-es, prōd'-est, etc. prod'-ĕ-ram, prod'-ĕ-rās, etc.

- REM. 7. (a.) Possum is compounded of pŏtis, able, and sum. They are sometimes written separately, and then pŏtis is the same in all genders and numbers.
- (b.) In composition, is is omitted in potis, and t, as in other cases, coming before s, is changed into s. In the infinitive, and imperfect subjunctive, so of the simple verb is dropped, as is also f at the beginning of the second root. In every other respect possum is conjugated like sum, wherever it is found; but the imperative, and the parts derived from the third root, are wanting.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic.
Pos'-sum, pos'-se, pŏt'-u-ī, I can, or I am able.

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

pos'-sum, pŏ'-tĕs, pŏ'-test; pos'-sunt. pos'-sunt.

pos'-sim, pos'-sīs, pos'-sīt; pos-sī'-mūs, pos-sī'-tīs, pos'-sint.

Imperfect.

pŏt'-ĕ-ram, pot'-ĕ-rās, pot'-ĕ-răt; pŏt-ĕ-rā'-mŭs, -ĕ-rā'-tĭs, -ĕ-rant.

pos'-sem, pos'-sēs, pos'-sēt; pos-sē'-mus, -sē'-tis, pos'-sent.

Future.

pŏt'-ĕ-rŏ, pŏt'-ĕ-rĭs, pŏt'-ĕ-rĭt; pŏ-tĕr'-I-mŭs, po-tĕr'-I-tIs, pot'-ĕ-runt.

Perfect.

pŏt'-u-ī, pŏt-u-is'tī, pŏt'-u-īt; pŏ-tu'-ī-mūs, -is'-tīs, -ē'-runt or -ē'rĕ. pŏ-tu'-ĕ-rim, -ĕ-r̄s, -ĕ-rīt; pŏt-u-ĕr'-j̄-mūs, -f-tīs, -ĕ-rīnt.

Pluperfect.

pŏ-tu'-ĕ-ram, -ĕ-rās, -ĕ-răt; pŏt-u-ĕ-rā'-mŭs, -ĕ-rā'-tīs, -ĕ-rant.

pŏt-u-is'-sem, -is'-sēs, -is'-sēt; pŏt-u-is-sē'-mŭs, -is-sē'-tīs, -is'-sent.

Future Perfect.

pŏ-tu'-ĕ-rǯ, pŏ-tu'-ĕ-rǯs, pŏ-tu'-ĕ-rĭt; pŏt-u-ĕr'-ǯ-mŭs, pŏt-u-ĕr'-ǯ-tis, pŏ-tu'-ĕ-rint.

(No Imperative.)

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPIAL ADJECTIVE.

Pres. pos'-sě. Perf. pot-u-is'-sě.

po'-tens, able.

Note. The following forms are also found; potissum for possum, potessunt for possunt, potessim and possiem for possim, possies, possies and potessit for possie and possit, potessem for possen, potesse for posse, and before a passive infinitive the passive forms potestur for potest, poteratur for poterat, and possetur for posset.—Potis and pote without est are sometimes used for potest.

§ 155. FIRST CONJUGATION.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.
A'-mŏ,

Pres. Inf. ă-mā'-rĕ,

Perf. Ind. ă-mā'-vī.

Supine. ă-mā'-tum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present. love, do love, am loving.

Sing. ă'-mō, ă'-mās, I love, thou lovest, he loves;

ă'-măt,
Plur. ă-mā'-mŭs,
ă-mā'-tĭs,
ă'-mant,

we love, ye love, they love.

Imperfect. was loving, loved, did love.

Sing. ă-mā'-bam, ă-mā'-bās. I was loving, thou wast loving, he was loving; we were loving,

Plur. ăm-ā-bā'-mŭs, ăm-ā-bā'-tĭs, ă-mā'-bant,

ă-mā'-băt,

ye were loving, they were loving.

Future. shall, or will.

Sing. ă-mā'-bŏ, ă-mā'-bĭs.

I shall love, thou wilt love, he will love; we shall love,

Plur. ă-māb'-i-mŭs, ă-māb'-i-tis, ă-mā'-bunt,

ă-mā'-bĭt,

ye will love, they will love.

Perfect. loved, or have loved.

Sing. ă-mā'-vī, I have loved, thou hast loved, ā-mā'-vīt, he has loved; he has loved; we have loved, ām-ā-vis'-tīs, am-ā-vis'-tīs, ām-ā-vē'-rīnt or -rĕ, they have loved.

Pluperfect. had.

Sing. ă-māv'-ĕ-ram, I had loved, ă-māv'-ĕ-rās, thou hadst loved, ă-māv'-ĕ-rāt, he had loved; Plur. ă-māv-ĕ-rā'-mŭs, we had loved, ă-māv-ĕ-rā'-tīs, ye had loved, ă-māv'-ĕ-rant, they had loved.

Future Perfect. shall, or will have.

Sing. ă-māv'-ĕ-rō, I shall have loved, ă-māv'-ĕ-rīs, thou wilt have loved, ā-māv'-ĕ-rīt, he will have loved; Plur. ăm-ā-vĕr'-ī-rūs, we shall have loved, ăm-ā-vĕr'-ī-tīs, ye will have loved, ă-māv'-ĕ-rint, they will have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD,

Present. may, or can.

Sing. ă'-mem,
ă'-mēs,
ă'-mēs,
thou mayst love,
ă'-mēt,
he may love;
Plur. ă-mē'-mis,
ă-mē'-tis,
ă'-ment,
they may love.

Imperfect. might, could, would, or should.

Sing. ă-mā'-rem, I would love, ă-mā'-rēs, thou wouldst love, ă-mā'-rēt, he would love; Plur. ăm-ā-rē'-mŭs, we would love, ăm-ā-rē'-tīs, ye would love, ă-mā'-rent, they would l-ve.

Perfect. may, or can have.

Sing. ă-māv'-ĕ-rim, I may have loved, ă-māv'-ĕ-rīs, thou mayst have loved, ă-māv'-ē-rīt, he may have loved; Plur. ăm-ā-vĕr'-ī-tis, we may have loved, ăm-ā-vĕr-ī-tis, ye may have loved, begins here. I may have loved, they may have loved Pluperfect. might, could, would, or should have.

Sing. ăm-ā-vis'-sem, ăm-ā-vis'-sēs, ăm-ā-vis'-sĕt,

Plur. ăm-ā-vis-sē'-mus, ăm-ā-vis-sē'-tis, ăm-ā-vis'-sent, I would have loved, thou wouldst have loved, he would have loved; we would have loved, ye would have loved, they would have loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. Sing. ă'-mā, love thou;
Plur. ă-mā'-tĕ, love ye.
Fut. Sing. ă-mā'-tŏ, thou shalt love;
m-mā'-tŏ'-tĕ, ye shall love,
a-man'-tŏ, they shall love,
they shall love,

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. ă-mā'-rĕ, to love.
Perfect. ăm-ā-vis'-sĕ, to have loved.
Future. ăm-ā-tū'-rŭs, (ă, um,) es'-sĕ, to be about to love.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. ă'-mans, loving. Future. ăm-ā-tū'-rūs, ă, um, about to love.

GERUND.

G. ă-man'-dī, of loving,
D. ă-man'-dō, for loving,
Ac. ă-man'-dum, loving,
Ab. ă-man'-dō, by loving.

SUPINE.

Former. a-ma'-tum, to love.

§ 156. PASSIVE VOICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Part.

A'-mor, ă-mā'-rī, ă-mā'-tŭs.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present. am.

I am loved, Sing. a'-mor, thou art loved, ă-mā'-ris or -re, ă-mā'-túr, he is loved; we are loved, Plur. ă-mā'-mūr. ă-mām'-i-nī, ye are loved, they are loved. ă-man'-tur,

Imperfect. was.

Sing. ă-mā'-băr, I was loved, thou wast loved. ăm-ā-bā'-ris or -re. ăm-ā-bā'-tur. he was loved: Plur. ăm-ā-bā'-mŭr, we were loved, ăm-ā-bām'-i-nī, ye were loved, ăm-ā-ban'-tur, they were loved.

Future. shall, or will be.

Sing. a-ma'-bor, I shall be loved, ă-māb'-ĕ-ris or -rĕ, thou wilt be loved. ă-māb'-i-tur, he will be loved; Plur. ă-māb'-i-mur, we shall be loved, ăm-ā-bim'-i-nī, ye will be loved, ăm-ā-bun'-tur, they will be loved.

Perfect. have been, or was.

Sing. a-ma'-tus sum or fu'-ī, I have been loved, ă-mā'-tus es or fu-is'-tī, thou hast been loved, ă-mā'-tus est or fu'-it, he has been loved; Plur. a-ma'-ti su'-mus or fu'-i-mus, we have been loved, ă-mā'-tū es'-tĭs or fu-is'-tĭs. ye have been loved, ă-mā'-ti sunt, fu'ē'-runt or -re, they have been loved.

Pluperfect. had been.

Sing. a-ma'-tus e'-ram or fu'-e-ram, I had been loved, ă-mā'-tus ĕ'-rās or fu'-ĕ-rās, thou hadst been loved, ă-mā'-tus ĕ'-răt or fu'-ĕ-răt, he had been loved; Plur. ŭ-mā-tī ĕ-rā'-mŭs or fu-ĕ-rā'-mŭs, we had been loved, ă-mā'-tī ĕ-rā'-tĭs or fu-ĕ-rā'-tĭs, ye had bren loved, ă-mā'-tī ĕ'-rant or fu'-ĕ-rant. they had been loved.

Future Perfect. shall have been.

Sing. ă-mā'-tus ĕ'-rō or fu'-ĕ-rō. ă-mā'-tus ĕ'-ris or fu'-ĕ-rīs. ă-mā'-tus ë'-rit or fu'-ĕ-rit, Plur. ă-mā'-ti ĕr-i-mus or fu-ĕr'-ī-mus,

ă-mā'-tī ĕr'-ĭ-tĭs or fu-ĕr'-Ĭ-tĭs, ă-mā'-tī ĕ'-runt or fu'-ĕ-rint.

I shall have been loved, thou wilt have been loved. he will have been loved; we shall have been loved, ye will have been loved, they will have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present. may, or can be.

Sing. a'-mer, ă-mē'-ris or -rĕ, ă-mē'-tŭr,

Plur. ă-mē'-mŭr. ă-mēm'-ĭ-nī, ă-men'-tur.

I may be loved, thou mayst be loved, he may be loved; we may be loved, ye may be loved, they may be loved.

Imperfect. might, could, would, or should be.

Sing. ă-mā'-rĕr, ăm-ā-rē'-ris or -re. ăm-ā-rē'-tŭr,

Plur. ăm-ā-rē'-mŭr, ăm-ā-rēm'-ĭ-nī, ăm-ā-ren'-tur.

I would be loved, thou wouldst be loved, he would be loved; we would be loved, ye would be loved, they would be loved.

Perfect. may have been.

Sirg a-ma'-tus sim or fu'-e-rim, ă-mā'-tŭs sīs or fu'-ĕ-rīs, ă-mā'-tus sit or fu'-ĕ-rit,

Plur. ă-mā'-tī sī'-mŭs or fu-er'-Ĭ-mŭs, ă-mā'-tī sī'-tĭs or fu-er'-ī-tĭs, ă-mā'-tī sint or fu'-ĕ-rint,

I may have been loved, thou mayst have been loved, he may have been loved; we may have been loved, ye may have been loved, they may have been loved.

Pluperfect. might, could, would, or should have been.

Sing. ă-mā'-tus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem, ă-mā'-tus es'-sēs or fu-is'-sēs, ă-mā'-tus es'-set or fu-is'-set,

Plur. ă-mā'-tī es-sē'-mus or fu-is-sē'-mus, we would have been loved, ă-mā'-tī es-sē'-tĭs or fu-is-sē'-tĭs, ă-mā'-tī es'-sent or fu-is'-sent,

I would have been loved, thou wouldst have been loved. he would have been loved; ye would have been loved, they would have been loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. Sing. a-ma'-re,

Plur. ă-mām'-ĭ-nī, Fut. Sing. ă-mā'-tŏr,

> ă-mā'-tŏr, Plur. (ăm-ā-bim-i-nī, ă-man'-tŏr.

be thou loved; be ye loved. thou shalt be loved. he shall be loved; ye shall be loved), they shall be loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. ă-mā'-rī, Perfect. a-ma'-tus es'-se or fu-is'-se, to have been loved. Future. ă-mā'-tum î'-rī,

to be loved. to be about to be loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Perfect. a-ma'-tus, Future. ă-man'-dus,

loved, or having been loved. to be loved.

SUPINE.

Latter. ă-mā'-tū, to be loved.

FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

From the firs		m, are de-	From the	second ro re derived
	rived		amav, a	re derived
	Active.	Passive.		Active.
Ind. pres.	amo,	amor.	Ind. perf.	amāvi.
- imperf.		amābar.	- plup.	amavě
— fut.	amābo,	amābor.	- fut. pe	<i>rf.</i> amavě
fut. Subj. pres.	amem,	amer.	Subj. perf.	amavě
- imperf.	amārem,		plup.	amavi
Imperat. pres.	amā,	amāre.	Inf. perf.	amavi
fut.	amāto,	amātor.	From the	third root
Inf. pres.	amāre,	amāri.	Inf. fut.	
Part. pres.	amans,		Part. fut.	
fut.		amandus.	- perf.	
Gerund.	am <i>andi</i> .	•	Form, su	n. amātum

oot, From the third root, amat, are derived Passive. amātus sum, etc. ěram, amātus eram, etc. ero, amātus ero, etc. issem, amātus essem, etc. isse, *amātus esse, etc. esse, amātum iri.

amātus.

Form. sup. amātum.

§ 157. SECOND CONJUGATION.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Lat. sup. amātu.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.	mŏ'-ne-ō.
Pres. Inf.	mŏ-nē'-rĕ.
Perf. Ind.	mŏn'-u-ī.
Supine.	mŏn'-i-tum.

Pres. Ind. mo'-ne-or. Pres. Inf. mŏ-nē'-rī. Perf. Part. mon'-i-tus.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

7	~ 1	vise.
	uu	uwc.

Sing. mo'-ne-o, mŏ'-nēs, mo'-net;

Plur. mo-nē'-mus, mŏ-nē'-tĭs, mo'-nent.

I am advised.

Sing. mo'-ne-or, mo-nē'-ris or -re. mŏ-nē'-tŭr: Plur. mo-ne'-mur, mŏ-nēm'-ĭ-nī, mö-nen'-tur.

Imperfect.

I was advising.

S. mŏ-nē'-bam, mŏ-nē'-bās, mŏ-nē'-băt;

P. mon-ē-bā'-mus, mŏn-ē-bā'-tis. mŏ-nē'-bant.

I was advised.

S. mö-nē'-băr, mŏn-ē-bā'-ris or -rĕ, mŏn-ē-bā'-tŭr; P. mon-ē-bā'-mur. mon-e-bam'-i-ni,

mŏn-ē-ban'-tŭr.

AUTIVE.

I shall or will advise.

S. mŏ-nē'-bō, mŏ-nē'-bĭs, mŏ-nē'-bĭt:

P. mŏ-nēb'-ĭ-mŭs, mŏ-nēb'-ĭ-tĭs, mŏ-nē'-bunt.

PASSIVE.

Future.

I shall or will be advised.

S. mŏ-nē'-bŏr, mŏ-nēb'-ĕ-rĭs or -rĕ, mŏ-nēb'-ĭ-tŭr;

P. mŏ-nēb'-i-mŭr, mŏn-ē-bim'-i-nī, mŏn-ē-bun'-tŭr.

Perfect.

I advised or have advised.

S. mŏn'-u-ī, mŏn-u-is'-tī, mŏn'-u-ĭt;

P. mŏ-nu'-ĭ-mŭs, mŏn-u-is'-tĭs, mŏn-u-ē'-runt or -rĕ.

I was or have been advised.

S. mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs sum or fu'-ī, mŏn'-ĭ-tūs ĕs or fu-is'-tī, mŏn'-ĭ-tūs est or fu'-ĭt;

P. mon'-i-ti su'-mus or fu'-i-mus, mon'-i-ti su'-mus or fu'-i-mus, mon'-i-ti sunt, fu-\(\tilde{e}\)-runt or -r\(\tilde{e}\)-

Pluperfect.

. .

I had been advised.

S. mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs ĕ'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram, mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs ĕ'-rās or fu'-ĕ-rās, mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs ĕ'-rāt or fu'-ĕ-rāt;

P. mŏn'i-tī ĕ-rā'-mŭs or fu-e-rā'-mŭs, mŏn'-ĭ-tī ĕ-rā'-tĭs or fu-e-rā'-tīs, mŏn'-ĭ-tī ĕ'-rant or fu'-ĕ-rant.

I had advised.

S. mŏ-nu'-ĕ-ram, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rās, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-răt;

P. mŏn-u-ĕ-rā'-mŭs, nıŏn-u-ĕ-rā'-tĭs, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rant.

Future Perfect.

I shall have advised.

S. mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rŏ, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rĭs, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rĭt;

P. mon-u-er'-ī-mus, mon-u-er'-ī-tis, mo-nu'-e-rint.

I shall have been advised.

S. mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs ĕ'-rŏ or fu'-ĕ-rō, mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs ĕ'-rĭs or fu'-ĕ-rīs, mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs ĕ'-rĭt or fu'-ĕ-rīt;

P. mŏn'-ĭ-tī ĕr'-ĭ-mŭs or fu-ĕr'-Ĭ-mŭs, mŏn'-ĭ-tī ĕr'-ĭ-tĭs or fu-ĕr'-Ĭ-tis, mŏn'-ĭ-tī ĕ'-runt or fu'-ĕ-rint.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.

I may or can advise.

S. mŏ'-ne-am, mŏ'-ne-ās, mŏ'-ne-ăt:

P. mŏ-ne-ā'-mŭs, mŏ-ne-ā'-tĭs, mŏ'-ne-ant.

I may or can be advised.

S. mŏ'-ne-ăr, mŏ-ne-ā'-rĭs or -rĕ, mŏ-ne-ā'-tŭr;

P. mö-ne-ā'-mŭr, mŏ-ne-ām'-ĭ-nī, mŏ-ne-an'-tŭr.

PASSIVE.

Imperfect.

I might, could, would, or should advise.

> S. mŏ-nē'-rem, mŏ-nē'-rēs, mŏ-nē'-rĕt;

P. mon-ē-rē'-mus, mŏn-ē-rē'-tis. mŏ-nē'-rent.

I might, could, would, or should be advised.

S. mŏ-nē'-rěr, niŏn-ē-rē'-ríq or -ré, mon-e-re'-tur; P. mon-ē-rē'-mur, mŏn-ē-rēm'-i-ni,

mön-ē-ren'-tŭr.

Perfect.

I may have advised.

S. mo-nu'-ĕ-rim, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rīs, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rit;

P. mon-u-er'-t-mus, mon-u-er'-Ĭ-tis, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rint.

I may have been advised.

S. mon'-i-tus sim or fu -e-rim. mŏn'-i-tŭs sis or fu'-ĕ-rīs. mŏn'-i-tŭs sit or fu'-ë rit;

P. mon'-i-ti si'-mus or fu-er'-i-mus, mon'-i-ti si'-tis or fu-er'-i-tis, mon'-i-ti sint or fu'-ë-rint.

I might, could, would, or

should have advised. S. mon-u-is'-sem.

mon-u-is'-ses. mon-u-is'-set:

P. mon-u-is-se'-mus, mŏn-u-is-sē'-tís, mon-u-is'-sent.

Pluperfect.

I might, could, would, or should have been advised.

S. mon'-i-tus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem, mŏn'-ĭ-tŭs es'-sēs or fu-is'-sēs. mon'-i-tus es'-set or fu-is'-set;

P. mon'-i-ti es-se'-mus or fu-is-se'-mus, mon'-i-ti es-se'-tis or fu-is-se'-tis, mon'-i-ti es'-sent or fu-is'-sent.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. S. mo'-ne, advise thou; P. mŏ-nē'-tě, advise ye.

Fut. S. mo-ne'-to, thou shalt ad-

mŏ-nē'-tŏ, he shall advise; P. mon-ē-to'-te, ye shall ad-

mo-nen'-to, they shall ad-

vise.

Pres. S. mo-ne'-re, be thou advised; P. mo-nēm'-i-nī, be ye advised.

Fut. S. mo-ne'-tor, thou shalt be advised,

mŏ-nē'-tŏr, he shall be advised:

P. (mon-ē-bim'-i-nī, ye shall be advised,) mo-nen'-tor, they shall be

advised.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. mo-ne'-re, to advise. Fut. mon-i-tū'-rūs es'-se, to be about to advise.

Pres. mŏ-nē'-rī, to be advised. Perf. mon-u-is'-se, to have advised. | Perf. mon'-i-tus es'-se or fu-is'-se, to have been advised.

Fut.mon'-i-tum i'-ri, to be about to be advised.

PASSIVE.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. mo'-nens, advising.
Fut. mon-i-tū'-rūs, about to advise.

Perf. mon'-i-tūs, advised.
Fut. mo-nen'-dūs, to be advised.

GERUND.

G. mö-nen'-dī, of advising,

D. mŏ-nen'-dŏ, etc.

Ac. mo-nen'-dum,

Ab. mŏ-nen'-dŏ.

SUPINES.

Former. mon'-i-tum, to advise. | Latter. mon'-i-tu, to be advised.

FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

From the firs		m, are de-	From the se		From the third root,
	rived,		monu, are	derived,	monit, are derived,
	Active.	Passive.		Active.	Passive.
	moneo,	moneor.	Ind. perf.	monu <i>i</i> ,	monitus sum, etc.
- imperf.	monebam.	,mon <i>ëbar</i> .	- plup.	monu <i>ěram</i> ,	monitus eram, etc.
	monêbo,	monēbor.	- fut. perf.	. monu <i>ěro</i> ,	monitus ero, etc.
Subj. pres.	moneam,	monear.	Subj. perf.	monu <i>ĕrim</i> ,	monitus sim, etc.
- imperf.	monērem,	monērer.	plup.	monuissem,	monitus essem, etc.
Imperat. pres.	mone,	monēre.	Inf. perf.	monuisse,	monitus esse, etc.
	mon <i>ēto</i> ,	monētor.	From the t	hird root.	
	monēre,	monēri.	Inf. fut.	monit <i>ūrus</i> e	sse, monitum iri.
Part. pres.	monens,		Part. fut.	monitūrus,	
— fut.		monendus.	perf.	,	monitus.
Gerund.	monendi.			nonĭtum. L	at. Sup. monitu.

§ 158. THIRD CONJUGATION.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. rĕ'-gŏ.	Pres. Ind.	rĕ'-gŏr.
Pres. Inf. reg-e-re.		rĕ'-gī.
Perf. Ind. rex'-ī.	Perf. Part.	rec'-tŭs.
Sunine, rec'-tum.	1	

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

I $rule$.	I am ruled.
Sing. rĕ'-gŏ,	Sing. rĕ'-gŏr,
rĕ´-gĭs,	rĕg -ĕ-rĭs or -rĕ,
rĕ'-git; Plur. rĕg'-i-mŭs,	rĕg'-ĭ-tŭr; Plur. rĕg'-ĭ-mŭr,
rĕg´-ĭ-tĭs,	rĕ-gim'-i-nī,
rĕ'-gunt.	rĕ-gun'-tŭr.

PASSIVE.

Imperfect.

I was ruling.

S. rĕ-gē'-bam, rĕ-gē'-bās, rĕ-gē'-bāt;

P. reg-ē-bā'-mus, reg-ē-bā'-tis, re-gē'-bant. I was ruled.

S. rĕ-gē'-băr, rĕg-ē-bā'-rĭs or -rĕ, rĕg-ē-bā'-tŭr;

P. rěg-ē-bā'-mŭr, rěg-ē-bām'-ĭ-nī, rěg-ē-ban'-tŭr.

Future.

I shall or will rule.

S. rĕ'-gam, rĕ'-gēs, rĕ'-gĕt;

P. re-ge'-mus, re-ge'-tis, re'-gent. I shall or will be ruled.

S. rĕ'-găr, rĕ-gē'-rĭs or -rĕ, rĕ-gē'-tŭr;

P. re-ge'-mur, re-gem'-i-ni, re-gen'-tur.

Perfect.

I ruled or have ruled.

S. rex'-ī, rex-is'-tī, rex'-ĭt;

P. rex'-ĭ-mŭs, rex-is'-tīs, rex-ē'-runt or -rĕ. I was or have been ruled.

S. rec'-tŭs sum or fu'-ī, rec'-tŭs es or fu-is'-tī, rec'-tŭs est or fu'-īt;

P. rec'-tī sŭ'-mŭs or fu'-ĭ-mŭs, rec'-tī es'-tīs or fu-is'-tīs, rec'-tī sunt, fu-ē'-runt or -rĕ

Pluperfect.

I had ruled.

S. rex'-ĕ-ram, rex'-ĕ-rās, rex'-ĕ-răt;

P. rex-ĕ-rā'-mŭs, rex-ĕ-rā'-tis, rex'-ĕ-rant.

I had been ruled.

S. rec'-tŭs ë'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram, rec'-tŭs ë'-rās or fu'-ĕ-rās, rec'-tŭs ë'-răt or fu'-ĕ-răt;

P. rec'-tī ĕ-rā'-mŭs or fu-ĕ-rā'-mŭs, rec'-tī ĕ-rā'-tĭs or fu-ĕ-rā'-tĭs, rec'-tī ĕ'-rant or fu'-ĕ-rant.

Future Perfect.

I shall have ruled.

S. rex'-ĕ-rŏ, rex'-ĕ-rĭs, rex'-ĕ-rit;

P. rex-ĕr'-ī-mŭs, rex-ĕr'-ĭ-tĭs, rex'-ĕ-rint. I shall have been ruled.

S. rec'-tŭs ĕ'-rŏ or fu'-ĕ-rŏ, rec'-tŭs ĕ'-rĭs or fu'-ĕ-rĭs, rec'-tŭs ĕ'-rĭt or fu' ĕ-rĭt;

P. rec'-ti ĕr'-ĭ-mus or fu-ĕr'-ĭ-mus, rec'-ti ĕr'-ĭ-tis or fu-ĕr'-ĭ-tis, pec'-ti ĕ'-runt or fu'-ĕ-rint.

PASSIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.

I may or can rule.

S. re'-gam, re'-gas, rě'-găt;

P. rĕ-gā' mŭs, rĕ-gā'-tĭs, re'-gant.

I may or can be ruled.

S. rě'-găr, rĕ-gā'-rĭs or -rĕ, rĕ-gā'-tŭr; P. rĕ-gā'-mŭr, rě-gām'-i-nī, rĕ-gan'-tŭr.

Imperfect.

I might, could, would, or should rule.

> S. rĕg'·ĕ-rem, rĕg'-ĕ-rēs, rĕg'-ĕ-rĕt;

P. reg-e-re'-mus, reg-e-re'-tis, reg'-e-rent.

I might, could, would, or should be ruled.

> S. rĕg'-ĕ-rĕr, reg-e-re'-ris or -re. rĕg-ĕ-rē'-tŭr; P. reg-e-re'-mur,

reg-e-rem'-i-ni, rĕg-ĕ-ren'-tŭr.

Perfect.

I may have ruled.

S. rex'-ĕ-rim, rex'-è-rīs, rex'-ĕ-rit;

P. rex-ĕr'-Ĭ-mŭs, rex-er'-i-tis, rex'-ĕ-rint.

I may have been ruled.

S. rec'-tus sim or fu'-ë-rim. rec'-tus sis or fu'-ĕ-ris, rec'-tus sit or fu'-e-rit;

P. rec'-ti si'-mus or fu-er'-i-mus, rec'-tī sī'-tis or fu-er'-ī-tis, rec'-tī sint or fu'-ĕ-rint.

Pluperfect.

I might, could, would, or should have ruled.

> S. rex-is'-sem. rex-is'-scs. rex-is'-set:

P. rex-is-sē'-mus, rex-is-sē'-tĭs, rex-is'-sent.

I might, could, would, or should have been ruled.

S. rec'-tus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem, rec'-tus es'-ses or fu-is'-ses, rec'-tus es'-set or fu-is'-set;

P. rec'-tī es-sē'-mus or fu-is-sē'-mus. rec'-tī es-sē'-tĭs or fu-is-sē'-tĭs. rec'-tī es'-sent or fu-is'-sent.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. S. re'-ge, rule thou, P. reg'-I-te, rule ye.

Fut. S. reg'-i-to, thou shalt rule, reg'-i-to, he shall rule;

P. reg-i-to-te, ye shall rule, re-gun'-to, they shall rule. 1/14 -

| Pres. S. reg'-e-re, be thou ruled; P. re-gim'-i-ni, be ye ruled.

Fut. S. reg'-i-tor, thou shalt be ruled, reg'-i-tor, he shall be ruled;

P. (re-gim'-i-ni, ye shall, etc.) re-gun'-tor, they shall, etc.

PASSIVE.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. reg'-e-re, to rule.

Perf. rex-is'-se, to have ruled.

Fut. rec-tu'-rus es'-se, to be about to rule.

Pres. rĕ'-gī, to be ruled.
Perf. rec'-tūs es'-sĕ or fu-is'-sĕ, to
have been ruled.
Fut. rec'-tum ī'-rī, to be about to
be ruled.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. rĕ'-gens, ruling. Fut. rec-tū'-rūs, about to rule. Perf. rec'-tŭs, ruled. Fut. rĕ-gen'-dŭs, to be ruled.

GERUND.

G. rĕ-gen'-dī, of ruling.
D. rĕ-gen'-dō, etc.
Ac. rĕ-gen'-dum,
Ab. rĕ-gen'-dō.

SUPINES.

Former. rec'-tum, to rule. | Latter. rec'-tu, to be ruled.

FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

From the first root, reg, are de-From the second root, From the third root, rived, rex, are derived, rect. are derived. Passive. Active. Passive. Active. Ind. pres. Ind. perf. rego, regor. rexi, rectus sum, etc. - imperf. regebam, regebar. — plup. rexéram, — fut. perf. rexéro, rexeram, rectus eram, etc. - fut. regam, regar. rectus ero, etc. Subj. pres. regam, regar.
imperf. regerem, regerer. Subj. perf. rexerim, rectus sim, etc. plup. rexissem, rectus essem, etc. Inf. perf. Imperat. pres. rege, regere. rexisse. rectus esse, etc. regitor. - fut. regito, From the third root, Inf. pres. regere; regi. Inf. fut. rectūrus esse, rectum iri. Part. pres. regens, Part. fut. rectūrus. - fut. regendus. perf. rectus. Gerund. regendi. Form. Sup. rectum. Lat. Sup. rectu.

§ 159. Verbs in IO of the Third Conjugation.

Verbs in io of the third conjugation, in tenses formed from the first root, have, as connecting vowels, ia, ie, io, or iu, wherever the same occur in the fourth conjugation; but where they have only a single connecting vowel, it is the same which characterizes other verbs of the third conjugation. They are all conjugated like căpio.

PASSIVE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. că'-pi-ŏ, to take. Pres. Inf. căp'-ĕ-rĕ. Perf. Ind. cē'-pī. Supine. cap'-tum.

Pres. Ind. eă'-pi-ŏr, to be taken. Pres. Inf. eă'-pi. Perf. Part. cap'-tŭs.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

S. că'-pi-ō, că'-pis, că'-pit;

P. căp'-i-mus, căp'-i-tis, că'-pi-unt. S. că'-pi-ŏr,
căp'-ĕ-ris or -rĕ,
căp'-i-tŭr;
P. căp'-i-mŭr,
că-pim'-i-nī,
că-pi-un-tŭr.

Imperfect.

S. că-pi-ē'-bam, că-pi-ē'-bās, că-pi-ē'-băt;

P. că-pi-ē-bā'-mŭs, că-pi-ē-bā'-tis, că-pi-ē'-bant. S. că-pi-ē'-băr, că-pi-ē-bā'-ris or -re, că-pi-ē-bā'-tŭr; P. că-pi-ē-bā'-mŭr,

P. că-pi-ē-bā'-mŭr, că-pi-ē-bām'-I-nī, că-pi-ē-ban'-tŭr.

Future.

S. că'-pi-am, că'-pi-ēs, că'-pi-ĕt;

P. că-pi-ē'-mŭs, că-pi-ē'-tĭs, că'-pi-ent. S. că'-pi-ăr,
că-pi-ē'-ris or -re,
că-pi-ē'-tūr;
P. că-pi-ē'-mūr,
că-pi-ēm'-i-ni,

că-pi-en'-tur.

The parts formed from the second and third roots being entirely regular, only a synopsis of them is given.

Perf. cē'-pī. Plup. cēp'-ĕ-ram. Fut. perf. cēp'-ĕ-rŏ.

Perf. Plup.

cap'-tŭs sum *or* f**u'-ī.** cap'-tŭs ĕ'-ram *or* f**u'-ĕ-ram.**

Fut. perf. cap'-tus e'-ram or fu'-e-ra Fut. perf. cap'-tus e'-ro or fu'-e-ro.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.

S. că'-pi-am, că'-pi-ās, că'-pi-ăt; P. că-pi-ā'-m

P. că-pi-ā'-mus, că-pi-ā'-tis, că'-pi-ant. S. că'-pi-ăr, că-pi-ā'-ris or -rĕ, că-pi-ā'-tŭr;

P. că-pi-ā'-mur, că-pi-ām'-i-nī, că-pi-am'-tur.

PASSIVE.

Imperfect.

5. căp'-ĕ-rem, căp'-ĕ-rēs, căp'-ĕ-rĕt;

P. căp-ĕ-rē'-mŭs, căp-ĕ-rē'-tis, căp'-ĕ-rent. S. căp'-ĕ-rĕr, căp-ĕ-rĕ'-rĭs or -rĕ, căp-ĕ-rē'-tŭr; P. căp-ĕ-rē'-mŭr.

P. căp-ĕ-rē'-múr, căp-ĕ-rēm'-ĭ-nī, căp-ĕ-ren'-tŭr.

Perf. cēp'-ĕ-rim. Plup. cē-pis'-sem. Perf. cap'-tŭs sim or fu'-ĕ-rim. Plup. cap'-tŭs es'-sem or fu-is'-sem.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

 Pres. 2. S. că'-pĕ;
 P. 2. căp'-Ĭ-tĕ.
 S. căp'-ĕ-rĕ;
 P. că-pĭm'-Ĭ-nī.

 Fut. 2. căp'-Ĭ-tŏ;
 căp-ĭ-tō-tĕ, căp'-Ĭ-tŏr, căp'-Ĭ-tŏr, căp'-Ĭ-tŏr;
 că-pi-em'-Ĭ-nī.

 3. căp'-Ĭ-tŏ;
 că-pi-un'-tŏr.
 că-pi-un'-tŏr.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. căp'-ĕ-rĕ. Perf. cē-pis'-sĕ. Fut. cap-tū'-rŭs es'-sĕ.

Pres. că'-pī.
Perf. cap'-tŭs es'-sĕ or fu-is'-sĕ.
Fut. cap'-tum ī'-rī.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. că'-pi-ens. Fut. cap-tū'-rŭs. Perf. cap'-tŭs. Fut. că-pi-en'-dŭs.

GERUND.

G. că-pi-en'-dī, etc.

SUPINES.

Former. cap'-tum.

Latter. cap'-tū.

§ 160. FOURTH CONJUGATION.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. au'-di-ŏ. Pres. Inf. au-dī'-rĕ. Perf. Ind. au-dī'-vī. Supine. au-dī'-tum. Pres. Ind. au'-di-ŏr. Pres. Inf. au-di'-rī. Perf. Part. au-di'-tŭs.

PASSIVE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

I hear.

S. au'-di-ŏ, au'-dīs, au'dīt;

P. au-dī'-mus, au'-dī'-tīs, au'-di-unt. •

I am heard. S. au'-di-ŏr,

au-dī'-rĭs or -rĕ, au-dī'-tŭr;

P. au-dī'-mŭr, au-dīm'-ĭ-nī, au-di-un'-tŭr.

Imperfect.

I was hearing.

 au-di-ē'-bās, au-di-ē'-bāt;

P. au-di-ē-bā'-mŭs, au-di-ē-bā'-tīs, au-di-ē'-bant. I was heard.

S. au-di-ē'-băr, au-di-ē-bā'-rĭs or -rĕ, au-di-ē-bā'-tŭr;

P. au-di-ē-bā'-mŭr, au-di-ē-bām'-ĭ-nī, au-di-ē-ban'-tŭr.

Future.

I shall or will hear.

S. au'-di-am, au'-di-es, au'-di-et;

P. au-di-ē'-mŭs, au-di-ē'-tĭs, au'-di-ent. I shall or will be heard.

S. au'-di-ăr, au-di-ē'-rĭs or -rē, au-di-ē'-tŭr:

P. au-di-ē'-mūr, au-di-ēm'-ĭ-nī, au-di-en'-tūr.

I heard or have heard.

S. au-dī'-vī, au-dī-vis'-tī, au-dī'-vīt;

P. au-dīv'-ĭ-mŭs, au-dī-vis'-tĭs, au-dī-vē'-runt or -rĕ.

Perfect.

. I have been or was heard.

S. au-dī'-tūs sum or fu'-ī, au-dī'-tūs ës or fu-is'-tī, au-dī'-tūs est or fu'-ĭt;

P. au-dī'-tī sŭ'-mŭs or fu'-I-mŭs, au-dī'-tī es'-tīs or fu-is'-tīs, au-dī'-tī sunt, fu-ē'-runt or -rĕ.

Pluperfect.

I had heard.

S. au-dīv'-ĕ-ram, au-dīv'-ĕ-rās, au-dīv'-ĕ-rāt;

P. au-dīv-ĕ-rā'-mŭs, au-dīv-ĕ-rā'-tĭs, au-dīv'-ĕ-rant. I had been heard.

S. au-dī'-tŭs ĕ'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram, au-dī'-tŭs ĕ'-rās or fu'-ĕ-rās, au-dī'-tŭs ĕ'-răt or fu'-ĕ-răt;

P. au-di'-tī ĕ-rā'-mus or fu-ĕ-rā'-mus, au-di'-tī ĕ-rā'-tīs or fu-ĕ-rā'-tīs, au-di'-tī ĕ'-rant or fu'-ĕ-rant.

PASSIVE.

I shall have heard. S. au-dīv'-ĕ-rŏ.

au-div'-ĕ-rīs. au-dīv'-č-rit;

P. au-di-věr'-i-mus, au-dī-vĕr'-Ĭ-tis, au-dīv'-ĕ-rint.

Future Perfect.

I shall have been heard.

S. au-dī'-tus ĕ'-rō or fu'-ĕ-rō, au-dī'-tus ĕ'-ris or fu'-ĕ-ris, au-di'-tus ë'-rit or fu'-ë-rit;

P. au-dī'-tī ĕr'-ĭ-mŭs or fu-ĕr'-Ĭ-mŭs, au-di'-ti ĕr'-i-tis or fu-ĕr'-I-tis, au-di'-ti e'-runt or fu'-e-rint.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.

I may or can hear.

S. au'-di-am. au'-di-ās, au'-di-ăt;

P. au-di-ā'-mus, au-di-ā'-tis, au'-di-ant.

I may or can be heard.

S. au'-di-ăr. au-di-ā'-ris or -re, au-di-ā'-tŭr;

P. au-di-ā'-mur, au-di-ām'-I-nī, au-di-an'-tur.

Imperfect.

I might, could, would, or should hear.

> S. au-di'-rem. au-di'-res. au-dī'-rět:

P. au-di-rē'-mus. au-di-re'-tis. au-di'-rent.

I might, could, would, or should be heard.

S. au-dī'-rĕr. au-di-rē'-ris or -rē, au-di-rē'-tur:

P. au-dī-rē'-mŭr. au-di-rēm'-i-ni. au-dī-ren'-tŭr.

I may have heard.

S. au-div'-ĕ-rim. au-dīv'-ĕ-rīs. au-div'-ĕ-rit:

P. au-di-ver'-I-mus, au-dī-věr'-ī-tis. au-div'-ĕ-rint.

Perfect.

I may have been heard.

S. au-dī'-tus sim or fu'-ĕ-rim, au-di'-tus sīs or fu'-ĕ-rīs, au-dī'-tūs sĭt or fu'-ĕ-rīt;

P. au-dī'-tī sī'-mus or fu-er'-ī-mus, au-dī'-tī sī'-tĭs or fu-ĕr'-ĭ-tĭs. au-dī'-tī sint or fu'-ĕ-rint.

I might, could, would, or should have heard.

S. au-dī-vis'-sem, au-di-vis'-sēs. au-dī-vis'-sēt;

P. au-di-vis-sē'-mŭs, au-di-vis-se'-tis. au-di-vis'-sent.

Pluperfect.

I might, could, would, or should have been heard.

S. au-dī'-tūs es'-sem or fu-is'-sem. au-dī'-tūs es'-sēs or fu-is'-sēs, au-dī'-tūs es'-sēt or fu-is'-sēt;

P. au-dī'-tī es-sē'-mus or fu-is-sē'-mus, au-dī'-tī es-sē'-tīs or fu-is-sē'-tīs, au-dī'-tī es'-sent or fu-is'-sent.

PASSIVE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. S. au'-dī, hear thou; P. au-dī'-tĕ, hear ye.

Fut. S. au-dī'-tō, thou shalt hear,

au-dī'-to, he shall hear; P. au-dī-tō'-tĕ, ye shall hear,

au-di-un'-to, they shall hear.

Pres. S. au-dī'-rĕ, be thou heard; P. au-dīm'-ĭ-nī, be ye heard.

Fut. S. au-dī'-tŏr, thou shalt be heard.

au-dī'-tŏr, he shall be heard;

P. (au-di-ēm'-ĭ-nī, ye shall be heard,) au-dī-un'-tor, they shall

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. au-dī'-rĕ, to hear. Perf. au-di-vis'-se, to have heard. Fut. au-di-tū'-rus es-se, to be about to hear.

Pres. au-dī'-rī, to be heard. Perf. au-dī'-tus es'-sĕ or fu-is'se, to have been heard. Fut.au-dī'-tum ī'-rī, to be about to be heard.

be heard.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. au'-di-ens, hearing.

Perf. au-dī'-tŭs, heard. Fut. au-di-tū'-rus, about to hear. | Fut. au-di-en'-dus, to be heard.

GERUND.

G. au-di-en'-dī, of hearing.

D. au-di-en'-do, etc.

Ac. au-di-en'-dum, Ab. au-di-en'-dŏ.

SUPINES.

Former. au-di'-tum, to hear. Latter. au-dī'-tū, to be heard.

FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

rived

Active. Passive. audio, Ind. pres. audior. - imperf. andiebam, andiebar. fut. audiam, audiar. Subj. pres. audiam, audiar. - imperf. audirem, audirer. Imperat. pres. audi, audire. - fut. audīto, auditor. Inf. pres. audire. audīri. Part. pres. audiens,

- fut. audiendus. Gerund. audiendi.

From the first root, and, are de- | From the second root, From the third root, audiv, are derived, audit, are derived,

> Active. Passive. Ind. perf. audīvi, audītus sum, etc. — plup. audivēram, audītus eram, etc - fut. perf. audivero, auditus ero, etc. Subj. perf. audiverim, audītus sim, etc. - plup. audivissem, audītus essem, etc. Inf. perf. audivisse, audītus esse, etc. From the third root,

Inf. fut. auditūrus esse, audītum iri.

Part. fut. auditūrus. andītus. perf. Form. sup. auditum. Lat. sup. auditu.

DEPONENT VERBS.

§ 161. Deponent verbs are conjugated like the passive voice, and have also all the participles and participial formations of the active voice. Neuter deponent verbs, however, want the future passive participle, except that the neuter in dum is sometimes used impersonally. See § 184, 3.

The following is an example of an active deponent verb of the first conjugation:—

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Mī'-ror, mī-rā'-rī, mī-rā'-tus, to admire.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres.	mī'-rŏr, mī-rā'-rĭs, etc.	I admire, etc.
Imperf.	mī-rā'-băr, etc.	I was admiring.
Fut.	mī-rā'-bŏr,	I shall admire.
Perf.	mī-rā'-tŭs sum or fu'-ī,	I have admired.
Plup.	mī-rā'-tus ĕ'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram,	I had admired.
Fut. Perf.	mī-rā'-tŭs ĕ'-ro or fu'-ĕ-ro,	I shall have admired.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Pres.	mī'-rĕr, mī-rē'-rĭs, etc.	I may admire, etc.
Imperf.	mī-rā'-rĕr,	I would admire.
Perf.	mī-rā'-tus sim or fu'-ĕ-rim,	I may have admired.
Plup.	mī-rā'-tus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem,	I would have admired.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. S. mī-rā'-rĕ, admire thou;	P. mī-rām'-ĭ-nī, admire ye.
Fut. S. mī-rā'-tŏr, thou shalt admire,	
mī-rā'-tŏr, he shall admire;	mī-ran'-tŏr, they shall, etc.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. mī-rā'-rī,	to admire.
Perf. mī-rā'-tus es'-se or fu-is'-se,	to have admired.
Fut. Act. mir-ā-tū'-rus es'-se,	to be about to admire.
Fut. Pass. mī-rā'-tum ī'-rī,	to be about to be admired.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres.	mī'-rans,	admiring.
Perf.	mī-rā'-tŭs,	having admired.
Fut. Act.		about to admire.
Fut. Pass.		to be admired.

GERUND.

G. mi-ran'-di, of admiring, etc.

SUPINES.

Former mi-rā'-tum, to admire. | Latter. mi-rā'-tū, to be admired.

REMARKS ON THE CONJUGATIONS.

Of the Tenses formed from the First Root.

- § 162. 1. A few words in the present subjunctive of the first and third conjugations, in the earlier writers and in the poets, end in im, is, it, etc.; as, êdim, êdis, êdis, edimus; comêdim, comêdin; for edam, etc. comêdin, etc.; duim, duis, duit, duint; and perduim, perduit, perduit, perduint; for dem, etc. perdam, etc. from old forms duo and perduo, for do and perdo: so creduis, creduit, and also creduam, creduas, creduat, for credum, etc. from the old form creduo, for credo. The form in im, etc. was retained as the regular form in sim and velim, from sum and volo, and in their compounds.
- 2. The imperfect indicative in the fourth conjugation, sometimes, especially in the more ancient writers, ends in *ibam* and *ibar*, for *ibbam* and *ibar*, and the future in *ibo* and *ibor*, for *iam* and *iar*; as, vestibat, Virg., largibar, Propert., for vestibat, largibar; scibo, opperibor, for sciam, opperiar. Ibam and ibo were retained as the regular forms of eo, queo, and nequeo. Cf. § 182.

3. The termination re, in the second person singular of the passive voice, is rare in the present, but common in the other simple tenses.

- 4. The imperatives of dico, dūco, făcio, and fēro, are usually written dic, duc, fac, and fer; in like manner their compounds, except those compounds of făcio which change a into i; as, effice, confice; but calfüce also is found in Cicero; and in old writers dice, edice, addice, indice, dūce, abdūce, redūce, tradūce, and fūce. Inger for ingēre is rare. Scio has not sci, but its place is supplied by scilo, and scilote is preferred to scile.
- 5. In the imperative future of the passive voice, but especially of deponents, early writers and their imitators sometimes used the active instead of the passive form; as, arbitrāto, amplexāto, utito, nitito; for arbitrātor, etc.; and censento, utunto, tuento, etc. for censentor, etc.—In the second and third persons singular occur, also, forms in -mino; as, hortamino, veremino, fruimino; for hortātor, etc.
- 6. The syllable er was often added to the present infinitive passive by early writers and especially by the poets; as, amarier for amari, dicier for dici.

Of the Tenses formed from the Second Root.

- 7. (a.) When the second root ends in v, a syncopation and contraction often occur in the tenses formed from it, by omitting v, and sinking the first vowel of the termination in the final vowel of the root, when followed, in the fourth conjugation, by s, and in the other conjugations, by s or r; as, audissem for audivissem, amast for amavisti, implement for impleverunt, noram and noise for noverum and novisse.
- (b.) When the second root ends in iv, v is often omitted without contraction; as, audièro for audivèro; audiisse for audivisse.
- (c.) When this root ends in s or x, especially in the third conjugation, the syllables is, iss, and sis, are sometimes omitted in the termination of tenses derived from it; as, evasti for evaisiti, extinxi for extinxisti, divisse for divisisse; extinxem for extinxissem, surrexe for surrexisse; accestis for accessistis, justi for jussisti; dixti for dixisti. So faxem for (facsissem, i. e.) fecissem.
- (d.) In the perfect of the first, second, and fourth conjugations, a syncope sometimes occurs in the last syllable of the root and the following syllable of the termination, especially in the third person singular; as, fămāt, audit, cūpīt; for fumāvit, audivit, cupīvit. So, also, but rarely, in the first person; as, sepēti, enarrāwimus; for sepelivi, enarrāwimus.
- 8. In the third person plural of the perfect indicative active, the form in *ĕre* is less common than that in *ĕrunt*, especially in prose.

9. Ancient forms of a future perfect in so, a perfect and pluperfect subjunctive in sim and sem, and a perfect infinitive in se sometimes occur. They may, in general, be formed by adding these terminations to the second root of the verb: as, recepso, emissim, ausim from the obsolete perfect, ausi, from audeo, confexim and promissem: divisse and promisse. But when the root ends in x, and frequently when it ends in s, only o, im, em, and e, etc. are added; as, jusso, dixis; intellexes, percepset; surrexe, sumse. V, at the end of the root, in the first conjugation, is changed into s; as, levasso, locasim. U, at the end of the root, in the second conjugation, is changed into es; as, habesso, licessit. Sometimes the vowel of the present is retained in these forms, though changed in the other parts derived from the second root; as, capso, fuxo (facso), fuxim (facsim).

Note. Faxo expresses determination, 'I will,' or, 'I am resolved, to make, cause,' etc. The subjunctive faxil, etc., expresses a solemn wish; as, dis immortales faxil. Ausim, etc. express doubt or hesitation, 'I might venture,' etc. The perfect in sim is used also in connection with the present subjunctive; as, quees utitue calamitates prohibesis, defendas, averruncesque. Cato.

10. In the ancient Latin a few examples occur of a future passive of similar form; as, turbassitur, jussitur, instead of turbātum fuērit, and jussus fuērit.—A future infinitive active in sēre is also found, in the first conjugation, which is formed by adding that termination to the second root, changing, as before, v into s; as, explignassēre, impetrassēre, for expugnatūrum esse, etc.

Of the Tenses formed from the Third Root.

- 11. The supine in um, though called one of the principal parts of the verb, belongs in fact to very few verbs, the whole number which have this supine not amounting to three hundred. The part called in dictionaries the supine in um must therefore, in most cases, be considered as the neuter gender of the perfect participle.
- 12. In the compound tenses of the indicative and subjunctive moods, the participle is always in the nominative case, but it is used in both numbers, and in all genders, to correspond with the number and gender of the subject of the verb; as, amātus, -a, -um, est; amāti, -a, -a, sunt, etc.
- (1.) Fui, fuĕram, fuĕrim, fuissem, and fuisse, are seldom used in the compound tenses of deponent verbs, and not so often as sum, etc., in those of other verbs, but when used they have generally the same sense. It is to be remarked, however, that fui with the perfect participle usually denotes that which has been, but which no longer exists. In the pluperfect subjunctive, forem, etc., for essem, etc., are sometimes found.
- (2.) But as the perfect participle may be used in the sense of an adjective, expressing a permanent state, (see § 162, 22), if then connected with the tenses of sum its meaning is different from that of the participle in the same connection; epistôla scripta est, when scripta is a participle, signifies, the letter has been written, but if scripta is an adjective, the meaning of the expression is, the letter is written, and epistôla scripta fuit, in this case, would signify, the letter has been written, or, has existed as a written one, implying that it no longer exists.
- 13. The participles in the perfect and future infinitive, are used only in the nominative and accusative, but in all genders and in both numbers; as, amātus, -a, -um, esse or fuisse; amātus, -a, -a, esse or fuisse; amātos, -a, -a, esse or fuisse; amātos, -a, -a, esse or fuisse; amātos, -a, -a, esse or fuisse; amātos of the others. With the infinitive fuisse, amātus, etc. are generally to be considered as participial adjectives.
- (1.) These participles in combination with esse are sometimes used as indeclinable; as, cohortes ad me missum facias. Cic. Ad me, mea Terentia, scribis, to vicum venditurum. Id.

Periphrastic Conjugations.

14. The participle in rus, joined to the tenses of the verb sum, denotes either intention, or being upon the point of doing something. This form of the verb is called the active periphrastic conjugation.

REMARK 1. As the performance of the act depends either on the will of the subject, on that of others, or upon circumstances, we may say, in English, in the first case, 'I intend,' and in the others, 'I am to,' or 'I am about to' (be or do any thing).

INDICATIVE.

Pres.	amatūrus s	um,	I am about to love.
Imperf.	amatūrus e	eram,	I was about to love.
Fut.	amatūrus e	ero, l	shall be about to love.
Perf.	amatūrus fi	ui, I	was or have been about to love.
Plup.	amatūrus f	uéram. <i>I</i>	had been about to love.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres.	amatūrus	sim,	I may be about to love.
Imperf.	amatūrus	essem,	I would be about to love.
Perf.	amatūrus	fuĕrim,	I may have been about to love.
Plup.	\mathbf{a} matūrus	fuissem,	I would have been about to love.

INFINITIVE.

Pres.	amatūrus	esse,	to be about to love.
Perf.	amatūrus	fuisse,	to have been about to love.

REM. 2. Fuero is scarcely used in connection with the participle in rus.

REM. 3. Amaturus sim and amaturus essem serve also as subjunctives to the future amābo. The infinitive amaturus fuisse answers to the English, 'I should have loved,' so that in hypothetical sentences it supplies the place of an infinitive of the pluperfect subjunctive.

REM. 4. In the passive, the fact that an act is about to be performed is expressed by a longer circumlocution: as, in eo est, or futurum est, ut epistola scribatur, a letter is about to be written. So in eo erat, etc., through all the tenses.

15. The participle in dus, with the verb sum, expresses necessity or propriety; as, amandus sum, I must be loved, or deserve to be loved. With the various moods and tenses of sum, it forms a passive periphrastic conjugation;—thus:

INDICATIVE.

Pres.	amandus	sum,
Imperf.	amandus	ĕram,
Fut.	amandus	ĕro,
Perf.	amandus	fui,
Plup.	amandus	
Fut. Perf.	amandus	fuĕro.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres.	amandus	sim,
Imperf.	amandus	essem,
Perf.	a mandus	fuerim,
Plup.	a mandus	fuissem.

INFINITIVE.

Pres.	amandus	esse,
Perf.	amandus	fuisse.

REM. 5. The neuter of the participle in dus with est and the dative of a person, expresses the necessity of performing the action on the part of that person; as, mili scribendum est, I must write, etc., and so through all the tenses.

Participles.

16. The following perfect participles of neuter verbs, like those of active deponents, are translated by active participles:—cœndius, having supped; pôlus, having drunk; pransus, having dined; and sometimes jurātus, having sworn. So also adultus, coalitus, conspiratus, interitus, occāsus, obsolitus, and crētus.

For the active meaning of osus and its compounds, see § 183, 1.

17. (a.) The perfect participles of some deponent verbs have both an active and a passive sense; as, adeptus libertātem, having obtained liberty, or adeptâ libertāte, liberty having been obtained. Cf. § 142, 4, (b.)

So abominātus, comitātus, commentātus, complexus, confessus, contestātus, detestātus, dignātus, dimensus, eff ātus, emensus, ementītus, emeritus, expertus, exsecrātus, interpretātus, targītus, machinātus, meditātus, mercātus, meţātus, oblītus, opinātus, orsus, pactus, partītus, perfunctus, periclitātus, pollicitus, populātus, depopulātus, stipūlātus, testātus, ultus, venerātus.

- (b.) The participle in dus, of deponent verbs, is commonly passive.
- 18. The perfect participles of neuter passive verbs have the signification of the active voice; as, gavīsus, having rejoiced. But ausus is used both in an active and a passive sense.
- 19. The genitive plural of participles in rus is seldom used, except that of futurus. Venturorum is found in Ovid, exiturarum, transiturarum and periturorum in Seneca, and moriturorum in Augustine.
- 20. In the third and fourth conjugations, the gerund and future passive participle (including deponents) sometimes end in undum and undus, instead of endum and endus, especially when i precedes; as, faciundum, audiundum, scribundus. Potior has usually potiundus.
- 21. Many present and perfect participles are compounded with in, signifying not, whose verbs do not admit of such composition; they thus become adjectives; as, inscience, ignorant; imparātus, unprepared.
- 22. Participles, when they do not express distinctions of time, become adjectives, and as such are compared; as, amans, loving; amantior, amantissimus. They sometimes also become substantives; as, prafectus, a commander; ausum, an attempt; commissum, an offence.

Note. Many words derived from substantives, with the terminations of participles, ātus, itus, and ūtus, are yet adjectives; as, alātus, winged; turrītus, turreted, etc. See § 128, 7.

GENERAL RULES OF CONJUGATION.

§ 163. 1. Verbs which have a in the first root have it also in the third, even when it is changed in the second; as, $f\tilde{a}cio$, factum; $h\tilde{a}beo$, habitum.

2. The connecting vowel is often omitted in the second root, and in such cases, if v follows, it is changed into u. This happens in most verbs of the second conjugation.

REMARK. Some verbs of the first, second, and third conjugations prefix to the second root their initial consonant with the vowel which follows it, or with ĕ; as, curro, cŭcurri; fallo, fĕfelli. This prefix is called a reduplication.

Note 1. Spondeo and sto lose s in the second syllable, making spopondi and stoti. For the verbs that take a reduplication, see §§ 165, R. 2; 168, N. 2; 171, Exc. 1,(b.)

- 3. Verbs which want the second root commonly want the third root also.
- 4. Compound verbs form their second and third roots like the simple verbs of which they are compounded; as, audio, audivi, auditum; exaudio, exaudivi, exauditum.
- NOTE 2. Some compound verbs, however, are defective, whose simples are complete, and some are complete, whose simples are defective.
- Exc. 1. Compound verbs omit the reduplication; but the compounds of do, sto, disco, posco, and some of those of curro, retain it.
- Exc. 2. Verbs which, in composition, change a into e in the first root, (see § 189, 1,) retain e in the second and third roots of the compound; as, scando, scandi, scansum; descendo, descendi, descensum.
- Exc. 3. (a.) When a, α , or e, in the first root of the simple verb, is changed in the compound into i, (see § 189, 2,) the same is retained in the second and third roots, in case the third root of the simple verb is a dissyllable; as, $h\breve{a}beo$, $h\breve{a}bui$, $h\breve{a}b\breve{i}tum$; $proh\breve{i}beo$, $proh\breve{i}bui$, $proh\breve{i}bui$, $proh\breve{i}bui$.
- (b.) But if the third root is a monosyllable, the second root of the compound has usually the same vowel as that of the simple, but sometimes changes a or e into i, and the third root has e; as, făcio, fēci, factum; conficio, confēci, confectum; tēneo, tēnui, tentum; rettneo, retīnui, retentum; rāpio, rāpui, raptum; abrīpio, abrīpui, abreptum.

Note 3. The compounds of cado, ago, frango, pango, and tango, retain a in the third root. See § 172.

Exc. 4. The compounds of părio, (ĕre), and some of the compounds of do and cibo, are of different conjugations from their simple verbs. See do, cibo and părio in §§ 165 and 172.

A few other exceptions will be noticed in the following lists.

FORMATION OF SECOND AND THIRD ROOTS.

FIRST CONJUGATION.

§ 164. In regular verbs of this conjugation, the second root ends in $\bar{a}v$, and the third in $\bar{a}t$; as, amo, amāvi, amātum.

The following list contains such regular verbs of this conjugation as are of most frequent occurrence.

Norg. In this and subsequent lists, those verbs which are marked * are said to have no perfect participle; those marked † to have no present participle. A dash(-) after the present, denotes that there is no second root. The participles in rus and dus, and the supines in um and u which are in use, are indicated respectively by the letters r., d., m., and u. Abundo, for example, has no perfect participle, no supine, no participle in dus; but it has a present participle, and a participle in rus.

In the lists of irregular verbs, those compounds only are given, whose conjugation dif-

fers from that of their simples.

When p. is subjoined to a deponent verb, it denotes that some of the parts which have commonly an active meaning, are used either actively and passively, or passively alone. Such verbs are by some grammarians called common. Cf. § 142, 4, (b.)

*Abundo, r. to overflow. Accuso, m.r.d. to accuse. † Adumbro, to delineate. Ædifico, r. d. to build. Æquo, r. d. to level. Æstimo, r. d. to value. *Ambūlo, m. d. to walk. Amo, r. d. to love. †Amplio, d. to enlarge. Appello, d. to call. Apto, d. to fit. Aro, r. d. to plough. *† Ausculto, to listen. *†Autumo, to assert. †Bāsio, -, d. to kiss. *Bello, m. r. d. to wage war. † Beo, to bless. *Boo, to bellow. † Brevio, to shorten. †Cæco, to blind. † Cælo, to carve. † Calceo, d. to shoe. *† Calcitro, to kick. Canto, m. to sing. Capto, m. r. d. to seize. † Castigo, m. d. to chastise. Celebro, d. to celebrate. Celo, d. to conceal. Cesso, d. to cease. Certo, r. d. to strive. Clamo, to shout. Cogito, d. to think. Concilio, r. d. to conciliate. Considero, r. d. to consider. Cremo, d. to burn .- concremo, r. †Creo, r. d. to create. Crucio, d. to torment. Culno. r. d. to blame. i Caneo, d. te wedge in. Curo, r. d. to care for. Danne, m. r. d. to con-Decoro, d. to adorn.

* Definec. to delineate Desidero, r. d. to desire

Destino, d. to design. Dico, m. r. d. to dedicate. Dicto, to dictate. †Dolo, to hew. Dono, r. d. to bestow. Duplico, r. d. to double. Dūro, r. to harden. †Effigio, to portray. †Enucleo, to explain. Equito, to ride. Erro, to wander. Existimo, u.r.d. to think. Exploro, m. d. to search. Exsulo, m. r. to be banished. Fabrico, d. to frame. †Fatigo, r. d. to weary. Festino, r. to hasten. Firmo, r. d. to strengthen. Flagito, m. d. to demand. *Flagro, r. to be on fire .conflagro, r.-deflagro. Flo, d. to blow. Formo, r. d. to form. Foro, d. to bore. †Fraudo, d. to defraud. † Freno, to bridle. †Frio, -, to crumble. Fugo, r. d. to put to flight. †Fundo, r. to found. †Fŭrio, —, to madden. Galeo, -, to put on a helmet. Gesto, d. to bear. Glácio, —, to congeal. Grávo, d. to weigh down. Gusto, d. to taste. Habito, m. d. to dwell. *Hālo, -, to breathe. Hiemo, m. to winter. *Hio, d. to gape. Humo, i. d. to bury. Ignoro, r. d. to be ignorant of. Impero, r. d. to command. †Impetro, r. d. to obtain. Incheo, " to begin

Indago, r. d. to trace out.

Indico, m. r. d. to show. †Inēbrio,—, to inebriate. Initio, to initiate. Inquino, to pollute. Instauro, d. to renew. Intro, r. d. to enter. Invito, d. to invite. Irrito, r. d. to irritate. Itero, u. d. to do again. Jacto, r. d. to throw. Judico, r. d. w judge. Jugo, d. to couple. Jugulo, m. d. to butcher Jūro, d. to swear. Laboro, r. d. to labor. Lacero, d. to tear. *Lacto, to suckle. † Lanio, d. to tear in pieces. Latro, to bark. Laudo, r. d. to praise. Laxo, d. to loose. †Lēgo, to depute. Levo, r. d. to lighten. Libero, r. d. to free. Libo, d. to pour out. Ligo, to bind. †Liquo, d. to melt. Lito, to appease. Loco, r. d. to place. Lustro, d. to survey. Luxurio, to be luxuriant. Macto, d. to sacrifice. Maculo, to spot, stain. Mando, r. d. to command. Mandūco, to chew. *Mano, to flow. Maturo, d. to ripen. Memoro, u. d. to tell. *Meo, to go. *Migro, u. r. d. to denart *Milito, m. 1. w serve as n schlier †Minio, d. to paint red. Ministro, d. to serve. Mitigo, d. w pucyy.

demonstro, d Mato, r. d. to change Narro, r. d. to tell. Nato, m. r. to swim. *Nauseo, to be sea-sick. † Navigo, r. d. to sail. Nāvo, r. d. to perform. Něgo, m. r. d. to deny. *No, to swim. Nomino, r. d. to name. Noto, d. to mark. Novo, r. d. to renew. Nūdo, d. to make bare. Nuncupo, r. d. to name. Nuntio, m. r. to tell .renuutio, d. *Nūto, r. to nod. Obsecro, m. r. d. to beseech. Obtrunco, r. to kill. Onero, r. d. to load. Opto, d. to wish. †Orbo, r. to bereave. Orno, r. d. to adorn. Oro, m. r. d. to beg. Pāco, d. to subdue. Păro, r. d. to prepare. compăro, d. to compare. Patro, r. d. to perform. *Pecco, r. d. to sin. †Pio, d. to propitiate. Placo, r. d. to appease. Ploro, m. d. to bewail. Porto, u. r. d. to carry. Postulo, m. r. d. to demand. Privo, d. to deprive. Probo, m. u. r. d. to approve.--comprobo, m. Profligo, d. to rout. Propero, d. to hasten. *†Propino, to drink to. Propitio, d. to appease. Pugno, r. d. to fight. Pulso, d. to beat. Purgo, u. r. d. to cleanse.

Pŭto, d. to reckon. Quasso, d. to shake. Rădio, to emit rays. Rapto, d. to drag away. Recupero, m. r. d. to recover. Recūso, r. d. to refuse. Redundo, to overflow. Regno, r. d. to rule. †Repudio, r. d. to reject. Resero, d. to unlock. *†Retalio, ---, to retaliate. Rigo, to water. Rogo, m. r. d. to ask. Roto, to whirl around. Sacrifico, m. to sacrifice. Sacro, d. to consecrate. †Sagino, d. to fatten. Salto, r. to dance. Saluto, m. r. d. to salute. Sāno, r. d. to heal. Sătio, to satiate. †Satúro, *to fill*. Saucio, d. to wound. *Secundo, to prosper. Sēdo, m. d. to allay. Servo, r. d. to keep. *†Sibilo, to hiss. Sicco, d. to dry. Signo, r. d. to mark out. assigno, m. Simulo, r. d. to pretend. Sŏcio, d. to associate. *Somnio, to dream. Specto, m. r. d. to behold. Spēro, r. d. to hope. *Spiro, to breathe.—conspīro. — exspīro, r.suspīro, d. Spělio, m. d. to rob. Spūmo, to foam. Stillo, to drop. Stimulo, to goad. Stipo, to stuff.

Sūdo, to sweat. Suffoco, to strangle. Sugillo, d. to taunt. Supero, r. d. to overcome. Suppedito, to afford. *Supplico, m. to suppli-*Susurro, to whisper. Tardo, to delay. Taxo, d. to rate. Temero, d. to defile. Tempero, r. d. to temper. -obtempěro, r. to obey. Tento, m. r. d. to try. Terebro, to bore. Termino, r. d. to limit. Titubo, to stagger. Tolero, u. r. d. to bear. Tracto, u. d. to handle. *†Tripŭdio, to dance. Triumpho, r. to triumph. Trucido, r. d. to kill. Turbo, d. to disturb. *Văco, to be at leisure. *Vapŭlo, m. d. to be beaten. Cf. § 142, 3. Vărio, to diversify. Vasto, d. to lay waste. Vellico, to pluck. Verběro, r. d. to beat. *Vestigo, to search for. Vexo, d. to tease. Vibro, d. to brandish. Vigilo, to watch. Viŏlo, m. r. d. to violate. Vitio, d. to vitiate. Vito, u. d. to shun. Ulŭlo, to howl. Umbro, r. to shade. Voco, r. d. to call. *Volo, to fly. Vŏro, r. to devour. Vulgo, r. d. to publish. Vulněro, d. to wound.

§ 165. The following verbs of the first conjugation are either irregular or defective.

*Crěpo, crepui, to make a noise. *discrépo, -ui, or -āvi. incrépo, -ui or -āvi, -itum or -ātum. *†percrépo, -...

*frecrèpo, —.

*Cubo, cubui, (perf. subj. cubaris; inf. cubasse), cubitum (sup.), to recline. incubo, -ui or avi, d. Those compounds of cubo which take un before b, are of the third conjugation.

Do, dědi, dátum, m. r. d. to give.— So circumdo, pessumdo, satisdo, and venumdo; the other compounds of do are of the third conjugation. See § 163, Exc. 1.

y 103, Exe. 1.
Domo, domui, dom'tum, r. d. to tame.
Frico, fricui, frictum or fricatum, d.
to rub. confrico, —, -atum. So infrico. defrico, —, -atum or -ctum.

co. derrico, —, -atum or -ctum. Jŭvo, jūvi, jūtum, r. d., also juvatūrus, to help. ādjūvo, -jūvi, -jūtum, m. r. d. also adjuvatūrus.

*Labo, labasse, to totter.

Lăvo, lāvi, rar. lăvāvi, lavātum, lautum or lōtum; (sup.) lautum or lavātum, lavatūrus, d. to wash. Lāvo is also sometimes of the third conjugation.

*Mico, micui, d. to glitter. dimico, -āvi or -ui, -atūrus. *emico, -ui, -atūrus. *promico, -.. *promico, -., *d.

Neco, necāvi or necui, necātum, r. d. to kill. eneco, -āvi or -ui, -ātum, or -ctum, d. tinterneco, -, -ātum.

*† Nexo, -, to tie.

Plico, —, plicătum, to fold. duplico, -āvi, -ātum, r. d. multiplico and replico have -āvi, -ātum. *supplico, -āvi or -ui, -ātum or -itum, -itūrus. So implico. —complico, -ui, -ītum or ātum. explico, -āvi or -ui, -ātum or -ītum, -atūrus or -itūrus.

Poto, potāvi, potātum or potum, r. r. m. m. d. to drink. †epoto, -āvi, -um.

-*perpoto, -āvi.

Seco, secui, sectum, secatūrus, d. to

cut.—*circumseco, —. *interseco, —, d. *perseco, -ui. præseco, -ui, -tum or -ātum. So reseco, d.

*Sōno, sonui, -atūrus, d. lo sound. *consōno, -ui. So ex-, in-, per-, præ-sōno. *resōno, -āvi. *nssōno, -.. So circumsōno and dissōno.

*Sto, stěti, státūrus, to stand. *antesto, -stěti. So circumsto, intersto, supersto.—Its compounds with monosyllubic prepositions have stíti, as, *consto, -stíti, -státūrus. So exsto, insto, obsto, persto. *præsto, -stíti, -státūrus, d. *adsto or asto, -stíti, -státūrus. *prosto, -stíti. So resto, restíti: but subj. perf. restāvērit, Propert, 2, 34, 53. *disto, —. So substo and supersto.

*Tono, tonui, to thunder. So circumtono. attono, -ui, -Itum. intono,

-ui, -ātum. *retono, -

Věto, vetui, rarely āvi, vetītum, to forbid.

REMARK 1. The principal irregularity, in verbs of the first and second conjugations, consists in the omission of the connecting vowel in the second root, and the change of the long vowels \bar{a} and \bar{e} in the third root into t. The v remaining at the end of the second root, when it follows a consonant, is pronounced as u; as, cubo, $(cub\bar{a}vi$, by syncope cubvi), i. e. cubui; $(cub\bar{a}tum$, by change of the connecting rowel, cubitum. Sometimes in the first conjugation, and very frequently in the second, the connecting vowel is omitted in the third root also; as, juvo, $(\bar{a}re)$ $j\bar{u}vi$, $j\bar{u}tum$; $t\bar{e}neo$, $(\bar{e}re)$ $t\bar{e}nui$, tentum. In the second conjugation several verbs whose general root ends in d and g, and a few others of different terminations, form either their second or third root or both, like verbs of the third conjugation, by adding s; as, rideo, risi, risum.

REM. 2. The verbs of the first conjugation whose perfects take a redu-

plication are do, sto, and their compounds.

REM. 3. The following verbs in eo are of the first conjugation, viz. beo, calceo, creo, cineo, enucleo, illáqueo, collineo, delineo, meo, nauseo, screo; eo and its compounds are of the fourth.

§ 166. All deponent verbs, of the first conjugation, are regular, and are conjugated like miror, § 161; as,

Causor, to allege.

Abominor, d. to abhor.
Adülor, d. to flatter.
Æmilor, d. to rival.
Ancillor, to be a handmaid.
*Apricor, to bask in the
sun.
Arbitror, r. d. to think.
Aspernor, d. p. to despise.
Aucūpor, r. p. to hunt
after.
Auxilior, p. to help.
Aversor, d. to dislike.
Bacchor, p. to revel.
Calumnior, to censure unfnirku.

*Comisor, m. to revel.
Comitor, p. to accompany.
Concionor, to harangue.
*Confabulor, m. to converse together.
Conor, d. to endeavor.
†Conspicor, to see.
Contemplor, d. p. to view attentively.
Criminor, m. p. to complain of.
Cunetor, d. p. to delay.
Deprécor, m. r. d. p. to deprecate.

*†Diglădior, to fence.
Dignor, d. p. to deem worthy.
Dominor, p. to rule.
Epülor, r. d. to feast.
*Fimülor, m. to wait on.
Fâtur, (defect.) u. d. p.
to speak. See § 183, 6.
*Fērior, r. to keep holiday.
*Frumentor, m. to forage.
Füror, m. to steal.
Gièrior, r. d. to boast.
Gratulor, m. d. to congratulate.

Hariolor, to practise soothsaying. Hortor, d. to encourage. Imitor, u. r. d. to imitate. Indignor, d. to disdain. Infitior, d. to deny. Insector, to pursue. Insidior, r. d. to lie in wait for. Interpretor, p. to explain. Jaculor, p. to hurl. Jocor, to jest. Lætor, r. d. p. to rejoice. Lamentor, d. p. to bewail. *†Lignor, m. to gather wood. Luctor, d. to wrestle. Medicor, r. d. p. to heal. Meditor, p. to meditate. Mercor, m. r. d. p. to buy. Minor, to threaten. Miror, u. r. d. to admire. Miseror, d. to pity. Moderor, u. d. to govern.

Modulor, d. p. to modulate. Mŏror, r. d. to delay. † Mutuor, p. to borrow. Negotior, r. to traffic. *† Nūgor, to trifle. Obsonor, in. to cater. Obtestor, p. to beseech. Operor, to work. Opinor, u. r. d. to think. Opitulor, m. to help. †Otior, to be at leisure. Pabulor, m. d. to graze. Palor, to wander about. Percentor, m. to inquire. Periclitor, d. p. to try. †Piscor, m. to fish. Populor, r. d. p. to lay waste. Prædor, m. p. to plunder. Prěcor, m. u. r. d. to pray. Prœlior, to fight. Recordor, d. to recollect. Rīmor, d. to search, Rixor, to quarrel.

country. Sciscitor, m. p. to inquire. *Scitor, in. to ask. Scrutor, p. to search. Solor, d. to comfort. Spatior, to walk about. Speculor, m. r. d. to spy †Stipŭlor, p. to bargain, stipulate. †Suāvior, d. to kiss. Suspicor, to suspect. Testificor, p. to testify. Testor, d. p. to testify. So detestor. Tutor, to defend. Văgor, to wander. Veneror, d. p. to venerate, worship. Vēnor, m. p. to hunt. Versor, to be employed. Vociferor, to bawl.

*Rusticor, to live in the

Some deponents of the first conjugation are derived from nouns, and signify being or practising that which the nonn denotes; as, ancillari, to be a handmaid; hariolari, to practise soothsaying; from ancilla and harif'us.

SECOND CONJUGATION.

§ 167. Verbs of the second conjugation end in eo, and form their second and third roots in u and it; as, moneo, monui, monřtum.

The following list contains most of the regular verbs of this conjugation, and many also which want the second and third roots:-

- *Aceo, to be sour.
- *Ægreo, -, to be sick.
- *Albeo, —, to be white. *Arceo, d. to drive away;
- part. adj. arctus or artus. The compounds change a into e; as, coerceo, d. to restrain. exerceo, r. d. to exercise.
- *Areo, to be dry.
- *Aveo, -, to covet.
- *Caleo, r. to be warm. *Calleo, -, to be harden-
- ed. *percalleo, to know
- *Calveo, -, to be bald.
- *Candeo, to be white. *Caneo, to be houry.
- *Careo, r. d. to want.
- *Ceveo, -, to fawn.

- *Clareo, -, to be bright.
- *Cineo, —, to be famous.
 *Denseo, —, to thicken.
 *Diribeo, —, to sort the
 voting tablets.
- *Doleo, r. d. to grieve.
- *Egeo, r. to want.
- *Emineo, to rise above.
- *Flacceo, to droop.
- *Flaveo, —, to be yellow. *Floreo, to blossom.
- *Freteo, —, to be fetid. *Frigeo, —, to be cold. *Frondeo, —, to bear
- leaves. Hăbco, r. d. to have. The compounds, except posthăbeo, change ă into 1;
 - as. ad-, ex-, pro-hibeo. cohibeo, d. to restrain. inhibeo, d. to hinder.

- *tperhibeo,d. to report. †posthábeo, to postpone. præbeo, (for præliib-eo), r. d. to afford. *præhibeo, -. debeo, (for dehabeo), r. d. to owe.
- *Hēbeo, —, to be dull.
- *Horreo, d. to be rough.
- *Hūmeo. —. to be moist.
- *Jaceo, r. to lie.
- *Lacteo, —, to suck. *Langueo, —, to be faint.
- *Lăteo, to he hid. *Lenteo, —, to be slow.
- *Liceo, to be vulued.
- *Liveo, -, to be livid.
- *Maceo, —, to be lean. *Madeo, to be wet. *Mæreo, -, to grieve.
- Měreo, r. to deserve.

tcommereo, to fully deserve. †doméreo, d. to eurn. †eméreo, to serve out one's time. *†permèreo, —, to go through service. promèreo, to deserve.

Moneo, r. d. to advise. admoneo, m. r. d. to remind. commoneo, to impress upon. præmoneo, to furewarn.

neo, to forewarn.
*Muceo, —, to be mouldy.

*Nigreo, —, to be black.

*Niteo, to shine.

Noceo m r to hurt.

Noceo, m. r. to hurt. *Oleo, to smell.

*Palleo, to be pale.

*Pāreo, m. r. d. to obey. *Pāteo, to be open.

Placeo, to please. *Polleo, —, to be able.

*Putreo, to stink.

*Putreo, to be putrid.

*Renideo, —. to glitter.

*Rigeo, to be stiff.
*Ribeo, to be red.
*Scateo, —, to gush forth.

*Sileo, d. to be old.

*Sordeo, —, to be filthy. *Splendeo, —, to shine.

*Squāleo, —, to be foul. *Strideo, —, to creak. *Studeo, d. to study.

*Stupeo, to be amazed.

*Sueo, —, to be w nt. Tăceo, r. d. to be s lent. *Těpeo, to be warn.

Terreo, d. to terrify. So deterreo, to deter. †absterreo, to deter. †conterreo, †exterreo, †perterreo, to frighten.

*Timeo, d. to fear. *Torpeo, —, to be stiff. *Tumeo, to swell.

*Văleo, r. to be able. *Võgeo, —, to arouse. *Vieo, —, to plait. Pa.

vietus, shriveled.

*Vigeo, to flourish.

*Vireo, to be green.

*Uveo, —, to be moist.

§ 168. The following verbs of the second conjugation are irregular in their second or third roots or in both.

Note 1. As the proper form of verbs of the first conjugation is, o, $\bar{a}vi$, $\bar{a}tum$, of the fourth io, $\bar{i}vi$, $\bar{i}tum$, so that of the second would be eo, $\bar{e}vi$, $\bar{e}tum$. Very few of the latter conjugation, however, retain this form, but most of them, as noticed in § 165, Rem. 1, drop in the second root the connecting vowel, \bar{e} , and those in rco drop $r\bar{e}$; as, $c\bar{a}rco$, $(c\bar{a}v\bar{e}vi)$ $c\bar{a}vi$, $(c\bar{a}o\bar{e}tum$ or $c\bar{a}vitum$) cautum. Others, initating the form of those verbs of the third conjugation whose general root ends in a consonant, add s to form the second and third roots. Cf. § 165, Rem. 1, and §171.

Note 2. Four verbs of the second conjugation take a reduplication in the parts formed from the second root, viz. mordeo, pendeo, spondeo, and tondeo. See § 163, Rem.

Abŏleo, -ēvi, -ĭtum, r. d. to efface.

*Algeo, alsi, to be cold.

Ardeo, arsi, arsum, r. to burn.

Audeo, ausus sum, (rarely ausi, whence ausim, § 183, R. 1,) r. d. to dare.

Augeo, auxi, auctum, r. d. to increase.

Caveo, cāvi, cautum, m. d. to beware.

Censeo, censui, censum, d. to think.

Censeo, censui, censum, d. to bewire.
Censeo, censui, censum, d. to think.
recenseo, -ui, -um or -ītum. *percenseo, -ui. *succenseo, -ui, d.

Cieo, cīvi, cītum, to excite. There is a cognete form, cio, of the fourth conjugation, but of the simple verb and of its compounds. The penult of the participles excitus and concitus is common, and that of accitus is always long.

*Conniveo, -nīvi, to wink at.

Dēleo, -ēvi, -ētum, d. to blot out. Dōceo, docui, doctum, d. to teach.

*Faveo, favi, fautūrus, to favor. *Ferveo, ferbui, to buil. Sometimes fervo, vi, of the third conjugation. Fleo, flevi, fletum, r. d. to weep.

Foveo, fovi, fotum, d. to cherish.

*Fulgeo, fulsi, to shine. Fulgo, of the third conjugation, is also in use.

Gaudeo, gavīsus sum, r. to rejoice. § 142, 2.

*Hereo, hæsi, hæsūrus, to stick. So ad-, co-, in-, ob- hæreo; but *subhæreo. —.

Indulgeo, indulsi, indultum, r. d. to indulge.

Jubeo, jussi, jussum, r. d. to order.
*Luceo, luxi, to shine. polluceo, -luxi,
-luctum.

*Lūgeo, luxi, d. to mourn.

*Maneo, mansi, mansum, m. r. d. to remain.

Misceo, miscui, mistum or mixtum, mistūrus, d. to mix.

Mordeo, momordi, morsum, d. to bite. remordeo, -di, -morsum, r.

remordeo, -di, -morsum, r. Moveo, movi, motum, r. d. to move.

Mulceo, mulsi, mulsum, d. to soothe. permulceo, permulsi, permulsum and permulctum, to rub gently.

*Mulgeo, mulsi or mulxi, to milk. emulgeo, —, emulsum, to milk out.

Neo, nēvi, nētum, to spin. *Pāveo, pāvi, d. to fear.

*Pendeo, pependi, to hang. *impendeo, —. propendeo, —, propensum. Pleo, (obsolete). compleo, -ēvi, -ētum, to fill. So the other compounds.

Prandeo, prandi, pransum, r. to dine. Rīdeo, rīsi, rīsum, m. r. d. to laugh.

*Sēdeo, sēdi, sessum, m. r. to sit. The compounds with monosyllabic prepositions change è into i, in the first root; as, insideo, insēdi, insessum. *dissīdeo, sēdi. So præsīdeo, and rarely circumsideo.

Suleo, solitus sum and rarely solui, to

be accustomed. § 142, 2.
*Sorbeo, sorbui, to suck in. So *exsorbeo: but *resorbeo, —. *absorbeo, -sorbui or -sorpsi.

Spondeo, spopondi, sponsure ... promise. See § 163, Rem.

*Strideo, idi, to whiz.

Suadeo, suasi, suasum, r. d. to advise
Těneo, těnui, tentum, r. d. to hold. The
compounds change é into i in the first
and second roots; as, detineo, detinui, detentum. **attineo,-tinui. So
pertineo.

Tergo, tersi, tersum, to wipe. Tergo, af the third conjugation, is also in use. Tondeo, totondi, tonsum, to shear. The compounds have the perfect tondi. Torreo, torsi, tortum, to roust. Torreo, torrui, tostum, to roust.

Torreo, torrui, tostum, to roast. *Turgeo, tursi, to swell.

*Urgeo or urgueo, ursi, d. to urge. Video, vidi, visum, m. u. r. d. to see. Vŏveo, vōvi, vōtum, d. to vow.

§ 169. Impersonal Verbs of the Second Conjugation.

Decet, decuit, it becomes.

Libet, libuit or libitum est, it pleases, is agreeable.

Licet, licuit or licitum est, it is lawful, or permitted.

Liquet, liquit, it is clear, evident.

Miscret, miscruit or miscritum est,

it moves to pity; miseret me, I pity. Oportet, oportuit, it behooves.

Piget, piguit or pigitum est, d. it troubles, grieves.

Pœnitet, pœnituit, pœniturus, d. it repents; pœnitet me, I regret. Pudet, puduit or puditum est, d.; it

shames; pudet me, I am ashamed. Tædet, tæduit or tæsum est, it disgusts or wearies. pertædet, pertæsum est.

Note. Lubet is sometimes written for libet, especially in the comic writers.

§ 170. Deponent Verbs of the Second Conjugation.

Făteor, fassus, r. d. p. to confess. The compounds change à into i in the first root, and into e in the third; as, confiteor, confessus, d. p. to acknowledge. *fdiffiteor, to deny. profiteor, professus, d. p. to declare.

Liceor, licitus, to bid a price.

*Medeor, d. to cure.
Mereor, meritus, to deserve.
Miscreor, miseritus or misertus, to pity.
Polliceor, pollicitus, p. to promise.
Reor, rătus, to think, suppose.
Tueor, tuitus, d. p. to prutect.
Vereor, veritus, d. p. to fear.

THIRD CONJUGATION.

§.171. In the third conjugation, when the first root ends with a consonant, the second root is regularly formed by adding s; when it ends with a vowel, the first and second roots are the same: the third root is formed by adding t; as, carpo, carpsi, carptum; arguo, argui, argūtum.

In annexing s and t, certain changes occur in the final consonant of the root:—

1. The palatals c, g, gu, and also h, at the end of the first root, form with s the double letter x in the second root; in the third root, c remains, and the others are changed into c before t; as, dico, (dicsi, i. e.), dixi, dictum; rego, (regsi, i. e.), rexi, rectum; viho, vexi, vectum; ciquo, cxo, coctum.

Note. I'luo and struo form their second and third roots after the analogy of verbs whose first root ends in a palatal or h.

2. B is changed into p before s and t; as, scribo, scripsi, scriptum.

3. D and t, before s, are either dropped, or changed into s; as, claudo, clausi; $c\bar{c}do$, cessi; mitto, $m\bar{s}si$. Cf. § 56, I, Rem. 1. After m, p is sometimes inserted before s and t; as, $s\bar{u}mo$, sumpsi, sumptum. R is changed to s before s and t in $g\bar{c}ro$ and $\bar{u}ro$.

4. Some other consonants are dropped, or changed into s, in certain verbs.

Exc. 1. Many verbs whose first root ends in a consonant, do not add s to form the second root.

(a.) Of these, some have the second root the same as the first, but the vowel of the second root, if a monosyllable, is long; as,

Solvo, Bibo, Ico, Mando, Scabo, Verro, Excudo, Prehendo, Verto, Lambo, Scando, Strido, Edo, Fodio, Lěgo, Psallo, Sīdo. Tollo, Volvo: Emo, Fügio, to which add the compounds of the obsolete cando, fendo, and nuo.

(b.) Some make a change in the first root. Of these, some change a vowel, some drop a consonant, some prefix a reduplication, others admit two or more of these changes; as,

Ago, ēgi. Căpio, cēpi. Făcio, fēci. Findo, fīdi. Frango, frēgi. Fundo, fūdi. Jācio, jēci. Linquo, līqui. Rumpo, rūpi. Scindo, scīdi. Sisto, stiti. Vinco, vīci.

Those which have a reduplication are

 Cădo, cěcidi.
 Cædo, cěcidi.
 Căno, cěcini.

 Curro, cůcurri.
 Disco, didici.
 Fallo, féfelli.

 Păgo, (obs.) pěpřigi and pēgi.
 Parco, pěperci.
 Pário, pěpěri.

 Pedo, pěpedi.
 Pello, pěpůli.

 Pendo, pěpendi.
 Posco, pôposci.
 Pungo, přpůgi.

 Tango, tětigi.
 Tendo, tětendi.
 Tundo, tůtůdi.

Exc. 2. Some, after the analogy of the second conjugation, add u to the first root of the verb; as,

Alo, alui, etc. Consŭlo, Gěmo, Răpio, Trěmo, Colo, Compesco, Frèmo, Mölo, Texo, Vömo.

Měto, messui; and pōno, pŏsui; add su, with a change in the root.

Exc. 3. The following, after the analogy of the fourth conjugation, add $\bar{\imath}v$ to the first root:—

Arcesso, Cŭpio, Lŭcesso, Rŭdo, Tero, dropping e. Cŭpesso, Incesso, Peto, Quæro, with a change of r into s.

Exc. 4. The following add v, with a change in the root; those in no and sco dropping n and sc, and those having er before n changing it to $r\bar{e}$ or $r\bar{a}:$ —

Cresco, Pasco, Scisco, Sperno, Lino, Sero, Nosco, Quiesco, Cerno, Sterno, Sino, to sow.

Exc. 5. (a.) The third root of verbs whose first root ends in d or t, and some in g, add s, instead of t, to the root, either dropping the d, t, and g, or changing them into s; as, claudo, clausum; dēfendo, dēfensum; cēdo, cessum; flecto, flexum; figo, fixum. But the compounds of lo add t; as, perdo, perduum.

(b.) The following, also, add s, with a change of the root:— Fallo, Pello, Excello, Spargo, Percello, Mergo, Premo, Vello,

Exc. 6. The following add t, with a change of the root; those having n, nc, ng, ngu, or mp at the end of the first root dropping n and m in the third:

Cerno, Gĕro, Sěro. Sperno, Stringo, Fingo, Uro. Rumpo, Sisto, Frango, Sterno, Těro, Vinco: to which add the compounds of linquo, and verbs in sco with the second root in v; the latter drop sc before t; as, nosco, novi, notum; except pasco, which drops c only.

Exc. 7. (a.) The following have $\mathcal{U}:$ —

Elicio, Mŏlo, Pono, with a change of on into os. Geno, (obs. form of gigno,) Vomo, Sino, dropping n.

(b.) The following, like verbs of the fourth conjugation, add it to the first root:-

Cŭpio, Pěto, Arcesso, Těro, dropping ě. Quæro, with a change of r into s. Fácesso, Lăcesso.

For other irregularities occurring in this conjugation, see § 172-174.

§ 172. The following list contains most of the simple verbs, both regular and irregular, in the third conjugation, with such of their compounds as require particular notice:—

Acuo, ăcui, ăcūtum, d. to sharpen.
Ago, ēgi, actum, r. d. to drive. So circumago, cēgo, and pěrágo. *ambigo, —, to doubt. So sătăgo. The other compounds change a into i, in the first root; as, exigo, exegi, exactum, to drive out. *prodigo, -egi, to squander. See § 189, 2.

Alo, alui, altum, and later alitum, d. to nourish.

*Ango, anxi, to strangle.

Arguo, argui, argūtum, d. to convict. Arcesso, -cessīvi, -cessītum, r. d. to call for. Pass. inf. arcessiri or ar-

*Bătuo, bătui, d. to beat.

Bibo, bibi, bibitum, d. to drink.

*Cădo, cécidi, casurus, to fall. The compounds change à into i, in the first root, and drop the reduplication; as, · occido, -cidi, -cāsum, r. to set.

Cordo, cecidi, casum, r. d. to cut. compounds change a into i, and drop the reduplication; as, occido, -cidi, -cīsum

Cando, (obsolete,) synonymous with candeo of the second conjugation. Hence accendo, -cendi, -censum, d. to kindle. So incendo, succendo.

*Cano, cecini, d. to sing. The compounds change a into 1; as, *concino, -cinui. So occino, præcino. *accino, -. So incluo, intercino, succino, recino.

*Capesso, -īvi, r. d. to undertake.

Căpio, cepi, captum, r. d. to take. So antecăpio. The other compounds change a into I, in the first root, and into e in the third; as, decipio, decepi, deceptum.

Carpo, carpsi, carptum, d. to pluck. The compounds change a into e; as, dēcerpo, dēcerpsi, dēcerptum.

Cedo, cessi, cessum, r. to yield. Cello, (obsolete.) excello, -cellui, -cel-sum, to excel. *antecello, -. So præcello, recello. percello, -culi, -culsum, to strike.

Cerno, crēvi, crētum, d. to decree.

*Cerno, -, to see.

Cingo, cinxi, cinctum, d. to gird.

*Clango, -, to clang.

Claudo, clausi, clausum, r. d. to shut. The compounds change au into u; as, occlūdo, occlūsi, occlūsum, to shut

*†Ĉlaudo, -, to limp.

*†Clepo, clepsi, rarely clepi, to steal. Colo, colui, cultum, d. to till. -cūlui, -cultum, -d. to hide.

Como, compsi, comptum, to deck. *Compesco, -pescui, to restrain.

Consŭlo, -sŭlui, -sultum, m. r. d. to consult.

Cōquo, coxi, coctum, m. d. to cook.
Crēdo, crēdidi, crēditum, r. d. to beliere.

*Cresco, crēvi, to grow. concresco, -crēvi, -crētum.

Cūbo is of the first conjugation. Cf. § 165. *accumbo, -cūbui, to lie down. So the other compounds which insert m. *Cūdo, —, to forge. excūdo, -cūdi, -cūsum, d. to stamp.

Cupio, cupivi, cupitum, d. to desire. Sabj. imperf. cupiret. Lucr. 1, 72.

*Curro, cucurri, cursurus, to run. concurro, succurro, and transcurro, drop the reduplication; the other compounds sometimes drop, and sometimes retain it; as, decurro, decurri, and decucuri, decurrin. *antécurro, ... So circumcurro.

*Dēgo, dēgi, d. to live.

Dēmo, dempsi, demptum, r. d. to take away.

†Depso, depsui, depstum; to knead. Dico, dixi, dictum, u. r. d. to say. *Disco, didici, discitūrus, d. to learn.

*Dispesco, —, to separate.

Dīvido, dīvīsi, dīvīsum, r. d. to divide.
Do is of the first conjugation. abdo,
-dīdī, -dītum, d. to hide. So condo,
indo. addo, -dīdi, -dītum, r. d. to
add. So dēdo, ēdo, prēdo, reddo,
trādo, vendo. †dīdo, -dīdi, -dītum,
to distribute. So abdo, subdo. perdo,
-dīdi, -dītum, m. r. d. abscondo, -dī
or -dīdi, -dītum or -sum.

Dūco, duxi, ductum, m. r. d. to lead. Edo, ēdi, ēsum, m. u. r. d. to eat. Exno, exui, exūtum, d. to strip off.

Exilo, exul, exutum, d. to strip off.
Emo, ēmi, emptum, r. d. to buy. So
coēmo. The other compounds change
ě to I; as, eximo, -ëmi, -emptum.

Făcesso, -cessi, -cessitum, to execute. Făcio, fēci, factum, m. u. r. d. to do. Compounded with a preposition, it changes ă into I in the first root, and into e in the third, makes -fice in the imperatire, and has a regular passive. Compounded with other words, it retains à when of this conjugation, makes fic in the imperatice, and has the passive, (To, factum. See § 180.

Fallo, fefelli, falsum, d. to deceive. *refello, -felli, d. to refute.

Fendo, (vbsolete.) defendo, -fendo, -fendo, un. u. r. d. to defend. offendo, -tendi, -fensum, d. to offend.

Fěro, tůli, lātum, r. d. to bear. See § 179. A perfect tětůli is rare. Its compounds are affero, attůli, allātum; aufero, abstăli, ablātum; differo, distăli, dilātum; confezo, contăli, collātum; infero, intūli, illātum; offero, obtūli, oblātum; effero, extūli, elātum; suffero, sustūli, sublātum; and circum-, per-, trans-, dē-, prō-, antō-, præfero, -tūli, -lātum.
*Fervo, vi, to boil. Cf. ferveo, 2d conj.

Fido, —, fisus, to trust. See § 162, 18. confido, confisus sum or confidi, to rely on. diffido, diffius sum, to

distrust.

Figo, fixi, fixum, r. rarely fictum, to fix. Findo, fidi, fissum, d. to cleave. Fingo, finxi, fictum, d. to feign. Flecto, flexi, flexum, r. d. to bend. *Fligo, flixi, to dash. So confligo.

affligo, -flixi, -flictum, to afflict. So infligo. profiligo is of the first conjugation.

Eluo fluxi fluxum (fluctum obs.) r

Fluo, fluxi, fluxum, (fluctum, obs.) r. to flow.

Födio, födi, fossum, d. to dig. Old pres. inf. pass. födiri: so also effödiri.

Frango, frēgi, fractum, r. d. to break The compounds change a into i, in the first root; as, infringo, infrēgi, infractum, to break in upon.

*Frèmo, frèmui, d. to roar, howl. Frendo, —, frèsum or fressum, to gnash. Frigo, frixi, frictum, rarely frixum, to roast.

*Fngio, fūgi, fŭgitūrus, d. to flee. *Fulgo, —, to flash.

Fundo, fūdi, fūsum, r. d. to pour.

*Fūro, —, to rage. *Gēmo, gēmui, d. to groan. Gēro gessi gestum c. d. to

Gëro, gessi, gestum, r. d. to bear. Gigno, (obsolete gëno,) gënui, gënitum, r. d. to beyet.

*Glisco, —, to grow.

*Glūbo, —, to peel. deglūbo, —,-gluptum.

Gruo, (obsolete.) *congruo, -grui, to agree. So ingruo.

Ico, īci, ictum, r. to strike.

Imbuo, imbui, imbūtum, d. to imbue. *Incesso, -cessīvi or -cessi, to attack. †Induo, indui, indūtum, to put on.

Jăcio, jēci, jactum, d. to cast. The compounds change à into 1 in the first root, and into e in the third. (§ 163, Exc. 3); as, rejicio, rejeci, rejectum. Jungo, junxi, junctum, r. d. to join.

Lăcesso, -cessivi, -cessitum, r. d. to pon. Lăcesso, -cessivi, -cessitum, r. d. to pronoke.

Lăcio, (obsolete.) The compounds change ă into I; as, allicio, -lexi, -lectum, d. to allure. So illicio, pellicio. Elicio, -licui, -licitum, to drawout. Lædo, læsi, læsum, m. r. to hurt. The compounds change a into i; as, illido, illisi, illisum, to dash against.

*Lambo, lambi, to lick.

Lěgo, lēgi, lectum, r. d. to read. Soallego, perlego, prælego, relego, sublego, and translego; the other compounds change è into I; as, colligo, collegi, collectum, to collect. following add s to form the second root; § 171, 1; diligo, -lexi, -lectum. to love. intelligo, -lexi, -lectum, u. r. d. to understand. negligo, -lexi, -lectum, r. d. to neglect.

Lingo, —, linctum, d. to lick. *delingo, —, to lick up.

Lino, livi or levi, litum, d. to daub. *Linquo, liqui, d. to leave. relinquo, -līqui, -lictum, r. d. delinquo, -līqui, -lictum. So derelinquo. Lūdo, lūsi, lūsum, m. r. to play.

*Luo, lui, luitūrus, d. to atone. abluo, -lui, -lūtum, r. d. diluo, -lui, -lū-

So eluo.

tum, d. Mando, mandi, mansum, d. to chew. Mergo, mersi, mersum, r. d. to dip. So immergo; but pres. inf. pass. immergeri, Col. 5, 9, 3.

Měto, messui, messum, d. to reop. Mětuo, metui, metūtum, d. to fear. *Mingo, minxi, mictum, (sup.) to make

Minuo, minui, minutum, d. to lessen. Mitto, misi, missum, r. d. to send. Molo, molui, molitum, to grind.

Mungo, (obsolete.) emungo, -munxi, -munctum, to wipe the nose.

Necto, nexi, nexum, d. to knit. innecto, -nexui, -nexum. So annecto, connecto.

*Ningo or -guo, ninxi, to snow.

Nosco, novi, notum, d. to learn. nosco, -novi, -nitum, d. to recognize. cognosco, -novi, -nitum, u. r. d. to know. So recognosco. *internosco, novi, to distinguish between. præcognosco, -, præcognitum, to fore-know. *dignosco, -. So prænosco. ignosco, -novi, -notum, d. to pardon.

Nubo, nupsi, or nupta sum, nuptum,

m. r. to marry.

Nuo, (obsolete,) to nod. *abnuo, -nui, -nuitūrus, d. to refuse. *annuo, -nui. So innno, renuo.

*Olo, ŏlui, to smell.

Pando, -, passum or pansum, to open. So expando. dispando, -, -pansum. Pago, (obs. the same as paco whence paciscor,) pepigi, pactum, to bargain:

Pango, panxi or pēgi, pactum, panctū-

rus, d. to drive in. compingo, -pēgi, -pactum. So impingo. *oppango, *depango, -. So repango, -pēgi. suppingo.

*Parco, peperci rarely parsi, parsūrus, to spare. Some of the compounds change a to e; as, *comparco or comperco. *imperco, -.

Pario, peperi, partum, pariturus, d. to bring forth. The compounds are of

the fourth conjugation.

Pasco, pāvi, pastum, m. r. d. to feed. Pecto, -, pexum, and pectitum, d. to comb. So depecto. repecto.

*Pēdo, pěpēdi. *oppēdo, -

Pello, pepuli, pulsum, d. to drive. compounds are not reduplicated.

Pendo, pěpendi, pensum, r. to weigh. The compounds drop the reduplication. See § 163, Exc. 1.

Pěto, pětīvi, pětītum, m. u. r. d. to ask. Pingo, pinxi, pictum, to paint.

Pinso, pinsi, pinsitum, pinsum or pis-

tum, to pound.

*Plango, planxi, planctūrus, to lament. Plaudo, plausi, plausum, d. to clap, applaud. So applaudo. *tercumplaudo, —. The other compounds change au into ō.

Plecto, -, plexum, d. to twine.

*Pluo, plui or plūvi, to rain.
Pono, posui, (anciently posivi), positum, r. d. to place.

*† Porricio, -, to offer sacrifice. *Posco, poposci, d. to demand.

Prehendo, { -di, -sum, r. d. to seize.

Premo, pressi, pressum, r. d. to press. The compounds change & into i, in the first root; as, imprimo, impressi, impressum, to impress.

Promo, prompsi, promptum, r. d. to bring out.

*Psallo, psalli, to play on a stringed instrument.

Pungo, pupugi, punctum, to prick. compungo, -punxi, -punctum. So dispungo, expungo. interpungo, -, -punctum. *repungo, -

Quæro, quæsīvi, quæsītum, m. r. d. to The compounds change a into seek.ī; as, requiro, requisīvi, requisītum,

to seek again.

Quatio, -, quassum, to shake. compounds change quă into cu; as, concătio, -cussi, -cussum, d. cŭtio, -cussi, -cussum, r. d.

Quiesco, quiëvi, quiëtum, r. d. *to rest.*

Rādo, rāsi, rāsum, d. to shave.

Răpio, răpui, reptum, r. d. to snatch. The compounds change a into 1 in the first and second roots, and into e in the third; as, diripio, -ripui, -reptum, m. r. So eripio and præripio.

Rego, rexi, rectum, r. d. to rule. The compounds change è into I, in the first root; as, dirigo, direxi, directum. *pergo, (for perrigo), perrexi, r. to go forward. surgo (for surrigo), surrexi, surrectum, r. d. to rise. So porrigo (for prorigo), to stretch out. *lièpo, repsi, to creep.

Rodo, rosi, rosum, r. to gnaw. ab-, ar-, e-, ob-, præ-rodo, want the perfect.

*Rudo, rudīvi, to bray.

Rumpo, rūpi, ruptum, r. d. to break. Ruo, rui, rūtum, ruitūrus, to fall. dīruo, -rui, -rūtum, d. So obruo. *corruo, -rui. So irruo.

*Sāpio, sapīvi, to be wise. The compounds change ă into i; as, *resīpio, -sipīvi or -sīpui. *desīpio, —, to be

stlly.

*† Scabo, scabi, to scratch.

Scalpo, scalpsi, scalptum, to engrave. Salo or sallo. — salsum, to salt.

Salo or sallo, — salsum, to sall.

*Scando, —, d. to climb. The compounds change a into e; as, ascendo, ascendi, ascensum, r. d. descendo, descendi, (anciently descendid), descensum.

Scindo, scidi, (anciently sciscidi), scis-

sum, d. to cut.

Scisco, scīvi, scītum, d. to ordain. Scrībo, scripsi, scriptum, r. d. to write. Sculpo, sculpsi, sculptum, d. to carve. Sēro, sēvi, sātum, r. d. to sow. consē-

ro, -sēvi, -sītum. So insēro, r., and obsēro. Sēro, -, sertum, to entwine. Its compounds have -sērui; as, assēro, -sērui,

-sertum, r. d. *Serpo, serpsi, to creep.

*Sido, sidi, to settle. Its compounds have generally sedi, sessum, from sedeo.

*Šino, sīvi, sītūrus, to permit. desino, desīvi desītum r \$284 R 3 Fyz 2

desivi, desitum, r. § 284, R. 3, Exc. 2. Sisto, stiti, statum, to stop. *absisto, -stiti. So the other compounds; but circumsisto wints the perfect.

Solvo, solvi, sölütum, r. d. to loose.

Spargo, sparsi, sparsum, r. d. to spread. The compounds change a into e: as, respergo, -spersi, -spersum; but with circum and in, a sometimes remains.

Spēcio, (obsolete.) The compounds change è into i, in the first root; as, aspicio, aspexi, aspectum, d. to look at. inspicio, inspexi, inspectum. r. d.

Sperno, sprł vi, sprētum, d. to despise.
*†Spuo, spi i, to spit. *respuo, respui, d.

Stătuo, stătui, stătūtum, d. to place. The compounds thange ă into I; as, instituo, institui, institutum, to institute.

Sterno, strāvi, strātum, d. to strew.

*Sternuo, sternui, to sneeze.

*Sterto, -, to snore. *†desterto, destertui.

*Stinguo, —, to extinguish. distinguo, distinxi, distinctum. So exstinguo, r. d.

*Strepo, strepui, to make a noise.

*Strido, stridi, to creak.

Stringo, strinxi, strictum, r. d. to bind or tie tight.

Struo, struxi, structum, d. to build. Sūgo, suxi, suctum, to suck.

Sūno, sumpsi, sumptum, r. d. to take. Sūo, —, sūtum, d. to sew. So consuo, dissuo. insuo, -sui, sūtum. *as-

siio, —.

Tago, (very rare), to touch. Hence Tango, tetigi, tactum, r. d. to touch. The compounds change a into i in the first root, and drop the reduplication; as, contingo, contigi, contactum, r. Tego, texi, tectum, r. d. to cover.

*Tenno, —, d. to despise. contemno,

-tempsi, -temptum, d.

Tendo, tetendi, tentum or tensum, to stretch. The compounds drop the reduplication; as, extendo, tendi, tentum or tensum. So in, os, and retendo. detendo has tensum. The other compounds have tentum.

*†Tergo, tersi, tersum, to wipe. Tergeo, of the second conjugation has the same second and third roots.

Tero, trīvi, trītum, d. to rub.

Texo, texui, textum, d. to weave. Tingo or tinguo, tinxi, tinctum, r. d.

to moisten, tinge.

*Tollo, anciently tetuli, rarely tolli, d. to raise. The perfect and supine sustuli and sublatum from suffero take the place of the perfect and supine of tollo and sustollo. *sustollo, —, r. to raise up, to take away. *attollo, —. So extollo.

Trăho, traxi, tractum, r. d. to draw. *Trěmo, trěmui, d. to tremble.

*Iremo, tremui, d. lo tremble. Tribuo, tribui, tributum, r. d. to as-

cribe. Trūdo, trūsi, trūsum, to thrust.

Tundo, tūtūdi, tunsum or tūsum, to beat. The compounds drop the reduplication, and have tūsum. Yet continsum, detunsum, obtunsum, and retunsum, are also found.

Ungo, (or -guo), unxi, unctum, d. to

anoint.

Uro, ussi, ustum, d. to burn.

*Vado, —, to go. So supervado. other compounds have vāsi; as, *evādo, evāsi, r. So pervādo; also invādo, r. d.

Věho, vexi, vectum, r. to carry.

Vello, velli or vulsi, vulsum, d. to pluck. So avello, d., divello, evello, d., revello, revelli, revulsum. The other compounds have velli only, except intervello, which has vulsi.

*Vergo, versi, to incline.

Verro, —, versum, d. to brush.

Verto, verti, versum, r. d. to turn. See § 174, Note.

Vinco, vici, victum, r. d. to conquer. *Vīso, —, d. to visit.

*Vīvo, vixi, victūrus, d. to live. *Volo, volui, velle (for volere), to be willing. See § 178.

Volvo, volvi, võlūtum, d. to roll. Vomo, vomui, vomitum, r. d. to vomit.

REMARK. Those verbs in io (and deponents in ior), of the third conjugation, which are conjugated like capio (page 115) are, cápio, cúpio, fácio, fódio, fúgio, jácio, pário, quatio, rápio, sápio, compounds of lácio and spécio, and grádior, molior, pátior, and morior: but compare morior in § 174, and orior, and potior in § 177.

Inceptive Verbs.

§ 173. Inceptive verbs in general either want the third root, or adopt that of their primitives: (see § 187, II, 2). Of those derived from nouns and adjectives, some want the second root, and some form it by adding u to the root of the primitive.

In the following list, those verbs to which s is added, have a simple verb in use from which they are formed:-

- *Acesco, ăcui, s. to grow sour.
- *Agresco, to grow sick.
- *Albesco, -, s. to grow white.
- *Alesco, -, s. to grow. coalesco, -alui, -alitum, to grow together.
- *Ardesco, arsi, s. to take fire.
- *Aresco, -, s. to grow dry. *exaresco, -arui. So inaresco, peraresco.
- *Augesco, auxi, s. to increase.
- *Călesco, călui, s. to grow warm.
- *Calvesco, —, s. to become bald.
- *Candesco, candui, s. to grow white.
- *Canesco, canui, s. to become hoary.
- *Clāresco, clārui, s. to become bright.
- *Condormisco, -dormivi, s. to go to
- *Conficesco, -ticui, to become silent. *Crebresco, crēbui and crebrui, to in-
- *Crūdesco, crūdui, to become violent.

- *Ditesco, —, to grow rich.
 *Dulcesco, —, to grow sweet.
 *Düresco, dürui, to grow hard.
 *Evilesco, evilui, to become worthless.
- *Extimesco, -timui, to fear greatly.
- *Fatisco, —, to gape. *Flaccesco, flaccui, s. to wilt.
- *Fervesco, ferbui, s. to grow hot.
- *Floresco, florui, s. to begin to flourish.
 - *Frăcesco, frăcui, to grow rancid.
 - *Frigesco, -, s. to grow cold. frigesco, -frixi. So refrigesco.

- *Frondesco, —, s. to put forth leaves. *Fruticesco, —, to put forth shoots.
- *Gelasco, -, s. to freeze. So *congelasco, s. to congeal.
- *Gemisco, -, s. to begin to sigh.
- *Genmasco, —, to begin to bud. *Generasco, —, s. to be produced. *Grandesco, —, to grow large. *Gravesco, —, to grow heavy.

- *Hæresco, —, s to adhere. *Hěbesco, —, s. w grow dull.
- *Horresco, horrui, s. to grow rough.
- *Hūmesco, -, s. to grow moist.
- *Ignesco, -, to become inflamed.
- *Indolesco, -dolui, d. to be grieved.

- *Insŏlesco, —, to become haughty. *Integrasco, to be renewed. *Jūvēnesco, —, to grow young. *I.anguesco, langui, s. to grow languid.

- *Lăpidesco, to become stone.
 *Lātesco, —, to grow broad.
 *Lătesco, to he concealed. s. *delitesco, -lĭtui; *oblitesco, -lĭtui.
- *Lentesco, —, to become soft.
 *Liquesco, —, s. to become liquid.
 *dēliquesco, -līcuj.
- *Lūcesco, —. s. to grow light, to dawn.
- *Lutesco, -, s. to become muddy.
- *Macesco, -, s. } to grow lean.
- *remacresco, -macrui.
- *Madesco, m.dui, s. to grow moist.

- *Marcesco, -, s. to pine away. *Maturesco, maturui, to ripen.
- *Miseresco, miserni, s. to pity.
- *Mitesco, -, to grow mibl.
- *Mollesco, —, to grow soft. *Mutesco, —, to become dumb. *obmūtesco, obmūtui.
- *Nigresco, nigrui, s. to grow black.
- *Nitesco, nitui, s. to grow bright.
- *Notesco, notui, to become known.
- *Obbrūtesco, —, to become brutish. *Obdornisco, —, s. to fall asleep.
- *Obsurdesco, -surdui, to grow deaf. *Occallesco, -callui, to become callous.
- *Olesco, (scarcely used.) *abolesco, -ŏlēvi, s. to cease. ădolesco, -ŏlēvi, -ultum, s. to grow up. exolesco, -olevi, -oletum, to grow out of date. So obsolesco. Inolesco, -olevi, -olitum, d. to grow in or on.
- *Pallesco, pallui, s. to grow pale.
- *Patesco, patui, s. to be opened.
- *Pavesco, pāvi, s. to grow fearful. *Pertimesco, -timui, d. to fear greatly.
- *Pinguesco, —, to grow fat.
 *Pūbesco, —, to come to maturity.
- *Puerasco, -, to become a boy.
- *Putesco, —, s. } to become putrid.
- *Raresco, -, to become thin.
- *Rėsipisco, -sipui, s. to recover one's senses.
- *Rigesco, rigui, s. to grow cold.
- *Rubesco, rubui, s. to grow red. *erubesco, -rubui, d.

*Sānesco, -, to become sound. *consānesco, -sānui.

- *Senesco, senui, s. d. to grow old. So consenesco.
- *Sentisco, —, s. to perceive. *Siccesco, —, to become dry. *Silesco, silui, s. to grow silent.
- *Solidesco, -, to become solid.
- *Sordesco, sordui, s. to become filthy. *Splendesco, splendui, s. to become
- bright.
- *Spumesco, —, to begin to foam. *Sterilesco, —, to become barren.
- *Stupesco, stupui, s. to become aston
- Suesco, suēvi, suētum, s. to become accustomed.
- *Tābesco, tābui, s. to waste away. *Těněresco and -asco, -, to become
- tender. *Těpesco, těpui, s. to grow warm.
- *Torpesco, torpui, s. to grow torpid.
- *Tremisco, -, s. to begin to tremble. *Tunesco, tumui, s. \ to begin to swell.

- *Vānesco, -, to vanish. *evānesco,
 - ēvānui. *Větěrasco, větěrāvi, to grow old.
- *Viresco, virui, s. to grow green.
- *Vivesco, vixi, s. to come to life. *revīvisco, -vixi.

§ 174. Deponent Verbs of the Third Conjugation.

Apiscor, aptus, to get. The compounds change a into I in the first root, and into e in the third; as, adipiscor, adeptus. So indipiscor.

Expergiscor, experrectus, to awake. *Fatiscor, to gape or crack open. compounds change à into e; as, defetiscor, -fessus.

Fruor, fruītus or fructus, fruĭtūrus, d. to enjoy.

Fungor, functus, r.d. to perform. Gradior, gressus, to walk. The com-pounds change a into e; as, aggredior, The comaggressus, r. d. Inf. pres. aggredi and aggrediri; so, progredi and progrédirt; and pres. ind. egreditur, Plaut. *Irascor. to be angry.

Lābor, lapsus, r. to fall. *Liquor, to melt, flow.

Loquer, locutus, r. d. to speak.

Miniscor, (obsolete.) comminiscor, commentus, p. to invent. *reminiscor, to renember.

Mŏrior, (mŏri, rarely mŏrīri,) mortuus, moriturus, d. to die. So emoriri, Plant. for emori.

Nanciscor, nactus or nanctus to obtain. Nascor, nātus, nascītūrus, u. to be born. Nītor, nixus or nīsus, nīsūrus, to lean

Obliviscor, oblitus, d. p. to forget. Paciscor, pactus, d. to bargain. So depaciscor.

Pătior, passus, r. d. to suffer. perpetior,

-pessus.

From plecto, to twine, come, amplector, amplexus, d. p. complector, complexus, p. So circumplector.

Proficiscor, profectus, r. to depart. Queror, questus, m. u.d. to complain.

*Ringor, to snarl. Sequor, secutus, r. d. to follow.

Tuor, tūtus, to protect. *Vescor, d. to eat.

Ulciscor, ultus, m. d. p. to avenge. Utor, ūsus, r. d. to use.

Note. Devertor, prævertor, revertor, compounds of verto, are used as deponents in the present and imperfect tenses; revertor also, sometimes, in the perfect.

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

§ 175. Verbs of the fourth conjugation regularly form their second root in iv, and their third in it; as, audio, audivi, auditum.

The following list contains most regular verbs of this conjuga-

Audio, -īvi or -ii, m. u. r. d. to hear. *Cio, civi, to excite. Ct. cieo, § 168. Condio, -īvi or -ii, to season. Custodio, -īvi or -ii, d. to guard: *Dormio, -īvi or -ii, m. r. d. to sleep. Erūdio, -īvi or -ii, d. to instruct. Expedio, -īvi or -ii, d. to disentangle. Finio, -ivi or -ii, r. d. to finish. *Gestio, -Ivi or -ii, to exult; desire. Impědio, -īvi or -ii, r. d. to entangle. Insanio, -ivi or -ii, to be mad. Irretio, -wi or ii, to ensnare. Lēnio, -īvi or ii, d. to mitigate. Mollio, -īvi or -ii, d. to soften.

*Mūgio, -īvi or -ii, to bellow. Mūnio, -īvi or -ii, r. d. to fortify. Mūtio, -īvi, to mutter. Nūtrio, -īvi or -ii, d. to nourish. Partio, -īvi or -ii, r. to divide. Polio, -īvi, d. to polish. Pūnio, -īvi or -ii, d. to punish. Redimio, -īvi, to crown. Scio, -īvi, u. r. to know. Servio, -īvi or -ii, m. r. d. to serve. Sopio, -īvi or -ii, to lull asleen. Stabilio, -ivi or -ii, to establish. Tinnio, -īvi or -ii, r. to tinkle. Vestio, -īvi or -ii, to clothe.

§ 176. The following list contains those verbs of the fourth conjugation which form their second and third roots irregularly, and those which want either or both of them.

REMARK. The principal irregularity in verbs of the fourth conjugation arises from following the analogy of those verbs of the third conjugation whose first root ends in a consonant; as, sepio, sepsi, septum. A few become irregular by syncope; as, věnio, vēni, ventum.

Amicio, -ui or -xi, amictum, d. to clothe. *Balbūtio, —, to stammer. Bullio, ii, Itum, to bubble.

*Camtio, ..., to the dim-sighted.
*Cambio, ..., to be mad.
*Cambio, ..., to be mad.
Effutio, ..., to be mad.
Effutio, ..., to babble.
Eo, Ivi or ii, Itum, r. d. to go. The compounds have only ii in the perfect, except obeo, præeo, and subeo, which have Ivi or ii. All the compounds want the supine and perfect participles, except adeo, ambio, inco, obeo, prætereo, subeo, circumeo or circueo, rědeo, transeo, and *†vēneo, věnii, r. (from vēnum eo), to be sold.

Farcio, farsi, fartum or farctum, to crum. The compounds generally change a to e; as, refercio, -fersi, -fertum, but con- and ef-, -farcio and -fercio.

Fastidio, -ii, -ītum, d. to loathe.

*Fērio, -, d. to strike.

*Fĕrōcio, —, to be fierce. Fulcio, fulsi, fultum, d. to prop up.

*Gannio, —, to yelp, bark.

*Glocio, —, to cluck as a hen.

*Glūtio, īvi, or glūtii, to swallow.

Grandio, —, to make great. *Grunnio, grunnii, to grunt. Haurio, hausi, rar. haurii, haustum. rar. hausītum, haustūrus, hausūrus,

u. d. to draw.

*Hinnio, —, to neigh.
*Ineptio, —, to trifle.
*Lascīvio, lascīvii, to be wanton.

*Ligūrio, ligūrii, to feed delicately.

*Lippio, —, r. to be blear-eyed. *Obëdio, obëdii, r. to obey. Părio is of the third conjugation, but its compounds are of the fourth, changing ă to e; as, aperio, aperui, apertum, r. d. to open. So operio, d. comperio, comperi, compertum, rarely dep. comperior, to find out. So reperio, r. d.

Păvio, —, păvītum, to beat. *Prūrio, —, to itch. Queo, quīvi or quii, quĭtum, to be able.

So *nequeo. *Raucio, -, r. to be hoarse. *Rugio, -, to roar as a lion.

Sævio, sævii, ītum, r. to rage.

*Sāgio, —, to perceire keenly. *Sālio, sālui or sălii, to leap. compounds change a into I; as, *absIlio, -. So circumsilio. *assilio, -ui. So dissilio, insilio. *desilio, -ui or -ii. So exsilio, resilio, subsilio. *transilio, -ui or -īvi, d. So prosilio.

Sălio, -, îtum, r. d. to salt. Sancio, sanxi, sancītum or sanctum, d.

to ratify, sanction.

Sarcio, sarsi, sartum, d. to patch. Sarrio, -īvi or -ui, sarrītum, d. to weed,

*Scatūrio, —, to gush out. Sentio, sensi, sensum, r. to feel.

Sepelio, sepelīvi or -ii, rar. sepeli, sepultum, r. d. to bury.

Sepio, sepsi, septum, d. to hedge in. *Singultio, -, to sob, hiccup.

*Sitio, sitii, to thirst.

Suffio, -ii, -itum, d. to fumigate. *Tussio, -, to cough.

*Vāgio, vāgii, to cry. Věnio, vēni, ventum, r. to come. Vincio, vinxi, vinctum, r. d. to bind.

Note. Desiderative verbs want both the second and third roots, except these three; -**esūrio, -, ēsūrius, r. to desire to eat; *nuptūrio, -īvī, to desire to marry; *parturio, -ivi, to be in travail. See § 187, II. 3.

§ 177. Deponent Verbs of the Fourth Conjugation.

Assentior, assensus, r. d. p. to assent. Blandior, blanditus, to flatter. Largior, largitus, p. to give, bestow. Mentior, mentitus, r. p. to lie. Mētior, mensus or mētītus, d. p. to measure.

Molior, molitus, d. to strive, toil. Ordior, orsus, d. p. to begin. Orior, ortus, oriturus, d. to spring up.

Except in the present infinitive, this verb seems to be of the third conjugation.

Perior, (obs. whence peritus.) experior, expertus, r. d. to try. rior, oppertus or opperitus, d. to wait for.

Partior, partītus, d. to divide. Potior, potitus, r. d. to obtain, enjoy. In the poets the present indicative and imperfect subjunctive are sometimes of the third conjugation.

Sortior, sortitus, r. to cast lots.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

§ 178. Irregular verbs are such as deviate from the common forms in some of the parts derived from the first root.

They are sum, volo, fero, edo, foo, eo, queo, and their compounds.

Sum and its compounds have already been conjugated. See § 153. In the conjugation of the rest, the parts which are irregular are fully exhibited, but a synopsis only, of the other parts is, in general, given. Some parts of volo and of its compounds are wanting.

1. Volo is irregular only in the present of the indicative and infinitive, and in the present and imperfect of the subjunctive.

REMARK. It is made irregular partly by syncope, and partly by a change in the vowel of the root. In the present infinitive also and in the imperfect subjunctive, after è was dropped, r following l was changed into l; as, velère (velre) velle; velerem (velrem) vellem.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic.

vŏ'-lŏ. vel'-lĕ, vol'-u-i, to be willing, to wish.

INDICATIVE.

Pres. S. vo'-lo, vis, vult;

P. vŏl'-ŭ-mŭs, vul'-tĭs, vŏ'-lunt. Imperf. vŏ-lē'-bam, vŏ-lē'-bās, etc.

Fut. vŏ'-lam, vŏ'-lēs, etc. Perf. vŏl'-u-ī. Plup. vŏ-lu'-ĕ-ram. Fut. perf. vŏ-lu'-ĕ-rð.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

S. vě'-lim, vě'-līs, vě'-lĭt;

P. vě-lī'-mus, vě-lī'-tis, vě'-lint.

Imperf. S. vel'-lem, vel'-les, vel'-let; P. vel-lē'-mus, vel-lē'-tis, vel'-lent.

Perf. vŏ-lu'-ĕ-rim. Plup. vŏl-u-is'-sem.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. vel'-lĕ. .

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. vo'-lens.

Perf. vŏl-u-is'-sĕ.

NOTE. Volt and voltis, for vult and vultis, and vin', for visne are found in Plautus and other ancient authors.

2. Nolo is compounded of the obsolete $n\bar{e}$ (for non) and volo. The v of $v\breve{o}lo$ after $n\bar{e}$ is dropped, and the vowels $(\bar{e}\ \breve{o})$ are contracted into \bar{o} .

Pres. Indic. nō'-lŏ.

Pres. Infin. nol'-lĕ,

Perf. Indic. nōl'-u-ī,

to be unwilling.

INDICATIVE.

Pres. S. no'-lo, non'-vis, non'-vult;

P. nol'-ŭ-mus, non-vul'-tis, no'-lunt.

Imperf. nö-lē'-bam, -bās, -băt, etc. nō'-lam, -lēs, -lět, etc.

Perf. nōl'-u-ī. Plup. nō-lu'-ĕ-ram.

Fut. perf. nō-lu'-ĕ-rŏ.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

S. nō'-lim, nō'-līs, nō'-līt;

P. nō-lī'-mus, nō-lī'-tis, nō'-lint. Imperf. S. nol'-lem, nol'-les, nol'-let; P. nol-lē'-mus, nol-lē'-tis, nol'-lent.

Perf. nō-lu'-ĕ-rim. Plup. nol-u-is'-sem.

IMPERATIVE.

Present.

Future.

Sing. 2. no-lī-tē; Plur. no-lī-tě. Sing. 2. no-lī-tō, Plur. nol-ī-to-tě, 3. nō-lí'-tŏ; nō-lun'-tŏ.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. nol'-lĕ.

Pres. no'-lens.

Perf. nol-u-is'-sĕ.

Note. In non-vis, non-vult, etc. of the present, non takes the place of ne, but nēvis and nēvolt also occur in Plautus.

3. $M \bar{a}lo$ is compounded of $m\check{a}gis$ and $v\check{o}lo$. In composition $m\check{a}gis$ drops its final syllable, and $v\check{o}lo$ its v. The vowels $(\check{a}\ \check{o})$ are then contracted into \bar{a} .

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic.
mā'-lŏ, mal'-lĕ, māl'-u-ī, to prefer.

INDICATIVE.

 Pres. S. mā'-lò, mā'-vīs, mā'-vult;
 Perf. māl'-u-ī.

 P. māl'-ŭ-mŭs, mā-vul'-tĭs, mā'-lunt.
 Plup. mā-lu'-ĕ-ram.

 Imperf. mā-lē'-bam, -bās, etc.
 Fut. perf. mā-lu'-ĕ-rō.

 Fut.
 ram-lu'-ĕ-rō.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

P. mal-lē'-mus, mal-lē'-tis, mal'-lert.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. mal'-lĕ. Perf. māl-u-is'-sĕ.

NOTE. Māvõlo, māvõlunt; māvõlet; māvělim, māvělis, māvělit; and māvellem; for mālo, mālunt, etc., occur in Plautus.

§ 179. Fero is irregular in two respects:—1. Its second and third roots are not derived from the first, but from otherwise obsolete verbs, viz. tillo for tollo, and tlao, sup. tlatum, by aphæresis, latum:—2. In the present infinitive active, in the imperfect subjunctive, and in certain parts of the present indicative and imperative, of both voices, the connecting vowel is omitted. In the present infinitive passive, r is doubled.

ACTIVE VOICE.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Pres. Indic. fĕ'-rŏ, (to bear.)
Pres. Indic. fĕ'-rŏr, (to be borne.)
Pres. Infin. fer'-rĕ,
Perf. Indic. tŭ'-lī,
Supine. lā'-tum.
Pres. Indic. fĕ'-rŏr, (to be borne.)

INDICATIVE.

Present.

S. fĕ'-rŏ, fers, fert; fĕ'-rŏr, fer'-rīs or -rĕ, fer'-tŭr; P. fĕr'-i-mŭs, fer'-tšs, fĕ'-runt. fĕ-rim'-i-nī, fĕ-run'-tŭr.

Imperf. fĕ-rē'-bam. fĕ-rē'-băr. Imperf. Fut. fe'-ram, -res, etc. Fut. fě'-răr, -rē'-ris or -rē'-re, etc. Perf. tŭ'-lī. Perf. lā'-tus sum or fu'-ī. tŭ'lĕ-ram. lā'-tus ĕ'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram. Plup. Plup. Fut. perf. tŭ'-lĕ-rŏ Fut. perf. la'-tus e'-ro or fu'-e-ro.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. fé'-ram, -rās, etc. Imperf. fer'-rem, -rēs, etc. Perf. ti'-lē-rim

Perf. tŭ'-lĕ-rim. Plup. tŭ-lis'-sem. *Pres. fě'-răr, -ra'-ris or -r.'-rĕ, etc.
Imperf. fer'-rĕr, -rē'-ris, etc.
Perf. la'-tŭs sim or fu'-ĕ-rim

Perf. lā'-tŭs sim or fu'-ĕ-rim. Plup. lā'-tŭs es'-sem or fu-is'-sem.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. S. fĕr, P. fer'-tĕ. Pres. S. fer'-rĕ, P. fĕ-rĭm'-ĭ-nī. Fut. S. fer'-tō, P. fer-tō'-tĕ,

fer'-tŏ'; fĕ-run'-tᢐ. Fut. S. fer'-tŏr, P. (fĕ-rēm'-ĭ-nī.) fer'-tŏr. fĕ-run'-tŏr.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. fer'-rĕ. Perf. tŭ-lis'-sĕ. Pres. fer'-rī.

Perf. lā'-tus es'-sĕ or fu-is'-sĕ.

Fut. lā-tū'-rus es'-se. Fut. lā'-tum ī'-rī.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. fĕ'-rens. Fut. lā-tū'-rŭs.

Perf. lā'-tŭs. Fut. fĕ-ren'-dŭs.

GERUND.

fĕ-ren'-dī, etc.

SUPINES.

Former. lā'-tum.

Latter. lā'-tū.

Note. In the comic writers the following reduplicated forms are found in parts derived from the second root, viz. tetüli, tetülit, tetülit, tetülerunt; tetülero, tetülerit; tetülissem, and tetülisse.

§ 180. Fio, 'to become,' is properly a'neuter verb of the third conjugation, having only the parts derived from the first root; but it is used also as a passive of făcio, from which it takes those parts of the passive which are derived from the third root, together with the participle in dus. The infinitive present has been changed from the regular form fiĕrĕ to fiĕrĭ.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Part.

fī'-ŏ, fī'-ĕ-rī, fac'-tŭs, to be made or to become.

INDICATIVE.

Pres. S. fī'-ō, fīs, fĭt; Perf. fac'-tŭs sum or fu'-ī.

P. fī-mŭs, fī'-tĭs, fī'-unt. Plup. fac'-tŭs ĕ'-ram or fu'-ē-ram.

Imperf. fī-ē'-bam, fī-ē'-bās, etc. Fut. perf. fac'-tŭs ĕ'-rō or fu'-ĕ-rō.

Fut. fī'-am, fī'-ēs, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. fī'-am, fī'-ās, etc. Imp. fĭ'-ĕ-rem, -ĕ'-rēs, etc.

Perf. fac'-tŭs sim or fu'-ĕ-rim. Plup. fac'-tŭs es'-sem or fu-is'-sem.

IMPERATIVE.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. Sing. fī; Plur. fī'-te.

Pres. fĭ'-ĕ-rī.
Perf. fac'-tŭs es'-sĕ or fu-is'-sĕ.
Fut. fac'-tum ī'-rī.

PARTICIPLES.

SUPINE.

Latter. fac'-tū.

Perf. fac'-tŭs. Fut. fă-ci-en'-dŭs.

Note. The compounds of $f\bar{a}cio$ which retain a, have also $f\bar{i}o$ in the passive; as, cale $f\bar{a}cio$, to warm; passive, cale $f\bar{i}o$; but those which change a into i form the passive regularly. (Cf. facio in the list, § 172.) Yet confit, $d\bar{e}fit$, and infit, occur. See § 183, 12, 13, 14.

§ 181. Edo, to eat, is conjugated regularly as a verb of the third conjugation; but in the present of the indicative, imperative, and infinitive moods, and in the imperfect of the subjunctive, it has also forms similar to those of the corresponding tenses of sum:—Thus.

INDICATIVE.

Present.

S. ĕ'-dŏ', ĕ'-dis, ĕ'-dit, (or ēs, est); P. ĕd'-i-mūs, ĕd'-i-tis, ĕ'-dunt.

(or es'-tis),

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Imperfect.

S. ĕd'-ĕ-rem, ĕd'-ĕ-rēs, ĕd'-ĕ-rēt, (or es'-sem, es'-sēs, es'-sēt); P. ĕd-ĕ-rē'-mŭs, ĕd-ĕ-rē'-tĭs, ĕd'-ĕ-rent, (or es-sē'-mŭs, es-sē'-tĭs, es'-sent).

IMPERATIVE.

Pres, S. ĕ'-dĕ, P. ĕd'-ī-tĕ, (or ēs; es'-tĕ).

Fut. S. ěď-ĭ-tŏ, P. ěď-ĭ-tō'-tĕ, ĕ-dun'-tŏ. (or es'-tŏ, es-tō'-tĕ).

INFINITIVE.

Pres. ĕd'-ĕ-rĕ, (or es'-sĕ).

PASSIVE.

Pres. ĕd'-ĭ-tŭr, (or es'-tŭr). Imperf. ĕd-ĕ-rē'-tŭr, (or es-sē'-tŭr).

NOTE. (a.) In the present subjunctive, edim, edis, etc., are found, for edam, edas, etc.

(b.) In the compounds of êdo, also, forms resembling those of sum occur. Ambêdo has the participles ambens and ambēsus; comêdo has comêsus, comesurus, and rarely comestus; and adêdo and exêdo have adêsus and exesus. § 182. Eo is irregular in the parts which, in other verbs are formed from the first root, except the imperfect subjunctive and the present infinitive. In these, and in the parts formed from the second and third roots, it is a regular verb of the fourth conjugation.

Note. Eo has no first root, and the parts usually derived from that root, consist, in this verb, of terminations only.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic. Perf. Part. e'-ŏ, ī'-rĕ, ī'-vī, ĭ'-tum, to go.

INDICATIVE.

 Pres.
 S. e'-ō, īs, ǐt;
 Fut.
 ī'-bō, ī'-bĭs, ī'-bĭs, ī'-bĭs, etc.

 P. ī'-mūs, ī'-tis, e'-unt.
 Perf.
 ī'-vī, ī-vis'-tī, ī'-vĭt, etc.

 Imperf. S. ī'-bam, ī'-bās, ī'-bāt;
 Plup.
 īv'-ĕ-rān, īv'-ĕ-rās, etc.

 P. ī-bā'-mūs, etc.
 Fut. perf. īv'-ĕ-rō, īv'-ĕ-rīs, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. e'-am, e'-ās, e'-ăt, etc. Perf. īv'-ĕ-rim, īv'-ĕ-rīs, etc. Imperf. ī'-rem, ī'-rēs, ī'-rĕt, etc. Plup. ī-vis'-sem, ī-vis'-sēs, etc.

IMPERATIVE.

INFINITIVE. Pres. ī'-rĕ.

Perf. ī-vis'-sĕ.
Fut. ĭ-tū'-rŭs es'-sĕ.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. i'-ens, (gen. e-un'-tĭs.) Fut. ĭ-tū'-rŭs, a, um.

GERUND.

e-un'-dī, e-un'-dō, etc.

REMARK 1. In some of the compounds the forms eam, ies, iet occur, though rarely, in the future; as, redeam, redies, abiet, exiet, prodient. Istis, issem, and isse, are formed by contraction for ivistis, ivissem, and ivisse. See § 162, 7.

REM. 2. In the passive voice are found the infinitive iri, and the third persons singular itur, ibatur, ibitur, itum est, etc.; $e\bar{a}tur$, $ir\bar{e}tur$, eundum est, etc., which are used impersonally. See § 184, 2, (a)

REM. 3. The compounds of eo, including vēneo, are conjugated like the simple verb, but most of them have it in the perfect rather than ivi. See under eo in § 176. Adeo, anteeo, tneo, prætēreo, subeo, and transeo, being used actively are found in the passive voice. Intetur occurs as a future passive of ineo. Ambio is regular, like audio, but has either ambibat or ambiebat.

NOTE. Queo, I can, and nequeo, I cannot, are conjugated like eo, but they want the imperative mood and the gerund, and their participles rarely occur. They are sometimes found in the passive voice, before an infinitive passive.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

§ 183. (1.) Defective verbs are those which are not used in certain tenses, numbers, or persons.

REMARK. There are many verbs which are not found in all the tenses, numbers, and persons, exhibited in the paradigms. Some, not originally defective, are accounted so, because they do not occur in the classics now extant. Others are in their nature defective. Thus, the first and second persons of the passive voice must be wanting in many verbs, from the nature of their signification.

(2.) The following list contains such verbs as are remarkable for wanting many of their parts:—

Odi, I hate.
 Cœpi, I have begun.
 Mëmini, I remember.
 Aio, Jisay.
 Inquam, I say.
 Apage, begone.
 Cëdo, tell, or give me.
 Confit, it is done.
 Defit, it is vanting.
 Infit, he begins.
 Ovat, he rejoices.

1. Odi, capi, and memini are used chiefly in the perfect and in the other parts formed from the second root, and are thence called preteritive verbs. Odi has also a deponent form in the perfect:—Thus.

Ind. perf. ō'-di or ō'-sus sum; plup. ōd'-ĕ-ram; fut. perf. ōd'-ĕ-ro. Subj. perf. ōd'-ĕ-rim; plup. ō-dis'-sem.

Inf. perf. ō-dis'-se; fut. ō-sū'-rum es'-se.

PART. fut. ō-sū'-rus; perf. ō'-sus.

NOTE 1. Exōsus and pērōsus, like ōsus, are used actively. Odīvit, for ōdit, oo curs, M. Anton. in Cic. Phil. 13, 19: and odiendi in Appuleius.

2. Ind. perf. cœ'-pi; plup. cœp'-ĕ-ram; fut. perf. cœp'-ĕ-ro. Subj. perf. cœp'-ĕ-rim; plup. cœ-pis'-sem.

INF. perf. cœ-pis'-se; fut. cœp-tū'-rum es'-se.

PART. fut. cop-tū'-rus; perf. cop'-tus.

Note 2. In Plautus are found a present, capio, present subjunctive, capiam, and infinitive, capère. Before an infinitive passive, captus est, etc., rather than capi, etc., are commonly used.

Ind. perf. měm'-i-ni; plup. mě-min'-ĕ-ram; fut. perf. mě-min'-ĕ-ro.
 Subj. perf. mě-min'-ĕ-rim; plup. měm-i-nis'-sem.
 Inf. perf. měm-i-nis'-sě.

IMPERAT. 2 pers. S. mě-men'-to; P. měm-en-tō'-tě.

Note 3. Odi and memini have, in the perfect, the sense of the present, and, in the pluperfect and future perfect, the sense of the imperfect and future; as, fugiet aque odirit. Cic. In this respect, novi, I know, the perfect of nosco, to learn, and consulvi, I am wont, the perfect of consuesco, I accustom myself, agree with odi and memini.

4. Ind. pres. ai'-0,* a'-īs, a'-īt; —, —, ai'-unt.* — imp. ai-ē'-bam, ai-ē'-bās, ai-ē'-bāt; ai-ē-bā'-mŭs, ai-ē-bā'-tīs, ai-ē'-bant. Subj. pres. —, ai'-ās, ai'-āt; —, —, ai'-ant. Imperat. pres. a'-ī. Part. pres. ai'-ens.

Note 4. Ais with ne is contracted to ain' like viden', abin': for videsne, abisne. The comic writers use the imperfect aibas, aibat and aibant, which are dissyllabic.

5. Ind. pres. in'-quam, in'-quǐs, in'-quǐt; in'-quǐ-mūs, in'-quǐ-tīs, in'-qui-unt.

— imp. —, —, in-qui-ē'-bāt, and in-quǐ-bāt; —, —, in-qui-ē'-bant.
— fut. —, in'-qui-ēs, in'-qui-ēt; —, —, —.
perf. —, in-quis'-tī, in-quit; —, —, —.
Subl. pres. —, in'-qui-ās, in'-qui-āt; —, in-qui-ā'-tīs, in'-qui-ant.
IMPERAT. in'-quē, in'-quī-to.

6. Ind. pres. —, fā'-tŭr; fut. fā'-bŏr, —, fāb'-ĭ-tŭr. — perf. fātus est; plup. fātus ĕram.
IMPERAT. fā'-rē. l'Art. pres. fans; perf. fā'-tŭs; fut. fan'-dŭs.
INFIN. pres. fā'-rī or fā'-rī-ĕr. GERUND. gen. fan'-dī; abl. fan'-dō.
Supine, fā'-tū.

[•] Pronounced a'-yo, a'-yunt, etc., wherever the diphthong ai is followed by a vowel. See § 9, 1.

- Interfāri has the forms interfātur, interfāta est, interfāri, interfuns, and interfātus.—Effāri has effābor, effābēre, effātus est, effāti sunt; imperat. effāre; effāri, effātus, effāndus, effāndo; effātu.—Prefāri occurs in the following forms, prefātur, præfāmur; præfabantur; præfārer præfarentur; præfātus sunus; præfātus fuero; imperat. præfāto, præfāmino; præfans, prefātus, præfandus; præfando.—Profāri has profātur, profāta est, profāta sunt, profātus and profans.
- 7. Ind. pres. quæ'-so, —, quæ'-sit; quæs'-ŭ-műs, —, —.
 Inf. pres. quæs'-ĕ-rĕ.
- IMPERAT. ă'-vē, ă-vē'-të; ă-vē'-to. INF. ă-vē'-rē.
 NOTE. Avēre and salvēre are often used with jübeo.
- Ind. pres. sal'-ve-o; fut. sal-vē'-bis. Inf. pres. sal-vē'-rē. Imperat. sal'-vē, sal-vē'-të; sal-vē'-to.
- 10. IMPERAT. ap'-a-ge. So age with a subject either singular or plural.
- 11. IMPERAT. sing. ce'-do; pl. cet'-te for ced'-i-te. Hence cedodum.
- IND. pres. con'-fit; fut. con-fi'-et.
 Subj. pres. con-fi'-ăt; imperf. con-fi'-ĕ-rĕt. INF. pres. con-fi'-ĕ-rɨ.
- 13. Ind. pres. dē-fit; pl. dē-fi'-unt; fut. dē-fi'-ĕt. Subj. pres. dē-fi'-ăt. Inf. pres. dē-fi'-ĕ-rī. So ef-fi'-ĕ-rī, and in-ter-fi'-ĕ-rī. Plaut.; and in-ter-fi'-at. Lucr.
- 14. Ind. pres. in'-fit; pl. in-fi'-unt.
- 15. Ind. pres. ŏ'-văt. Subj. pres. ŏ'-vět; imperf. ŏ-vā'-rět. Part. pres. ŏ'-vans; perf. ŏ-vā'-tūs; fut. ŏv-ā-tū'-rūs. Gerund, ŏ-van'-dl.
- REMARK 1. Among defective verbs are sometimes, also, included the following:—Förem, föres, etc., f're, (see § 154, R. 3.) Ausim, ausis, ausit; ausint. Faxo and faxim, faxis, faxit; faximus, faxitis, faxint. Faxem. The form in o is an old future perfect; that in im a perfect, and that in em a pluperfect subjunctive. See § 162, 7, (c.), and 9.
- REM. 2. In the present tense, the first person singular, füro, to be mad, and dor and der, from do, to give, are not used. So in the imperative scī, cupe and polle, from scio, cupio, and polleo, do not occur.
- REM. 3. A few words, sometimes classed with defectives, are formed by contraction from a verb and the conjunction si; as, sis for si vis, sullis for si vultis, sodes for si audes (for audies.)

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

- § 184. (a.) Impersonal verbs are those which are used only in the third person singular, and do not admit of a *personal* subject.
- (b.) The subject of an impersonal verb in the active voice is, for the most part, either an infinitive, or an infinitive or subjunctive clause; but in English the neuter pronoun, it, commonly stands before the verb, and represents such clause; as, me delectat scribère, it delights me to write. Sometimes an accusative depending on an impersonal verb takes, in English, the place of a subject; as, me misĕret tui, I pity thee.
- 1. Impersonal verbs in the active voice are conjugated in the several conjugations like *delectat*, it delights; *dĕcet*, it becomes; *contingit*, it happens; *evĕnit*, it happens; thus:—

	1st Conj.	2d Conj.	3d Conj.	4th Conj.
IND. Pres.	delectat,	děcet,	contingit,	svěnit,
Imp. Fut.	delectābat, delectābit,	decēbat, decēbit.	contingebat,	oveniebat,
Perf.	delectavit,	decuit,	contigit,	evēnit.
Plup.	delectaverat,	decuĕrat,	contigerat,	eveněrat.
	delectavèrit.	decuĕrit.	contigerit.	eveněrit.
SUB. Pres.	delectet,	deceat,	contingat,	eveniat,
Imp.	delectaret,	decēret,	contingeret,	evenīret,
Perf.	delectavěrit,	decuĕrit,	contigerit,	eveněrit,
Plup.	delectavisset.	decuisset.	contigisset.	evenisset.
INF. Pres.	delectare,	decēre,	contingĕre,	evenīre,
Perf.	delectavisse.	decuisse.	contigisse.	evenisse.

2. (a.) Most neuter and many active verbs may be used impersonally in the passive voice, by changing the personal subject of the active voice into an ablative with the preposition a or ab; as,

Illi pugnant; or pugnatur ab illis, they fight. Illi quærunt, or quæritur ab illis, they ask. Cf. § 141, Rem. 2.

(b.) In the passive form, the subject in English is, commonly, either the agent, expressed or understood, or an abstract noun formed from the verb; as,

Pugnātum est, we, they, etc. fought; or, the battle was fought. Concurritur, the people run together; or, there is a concourse.

(c.) Sometimes the English subject in the passive form is, in Latin, an oblique case dependent on the verb; as, favētur tibi, thou art favored.

The following are the forms of impersonal verbs in the several conjugations of the passive voice:—

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Fut.		favētur, favebātur, favebītur,	curritur, currebātur, currētur,	venītur, veniebātur, veniētur,
	pugnātum est or fuit,	fuit,	cursum est or fuit,	ventum est on fuit,
•	pugnātum ĕrat or fuĕrat,	fuĕrat,	cursum ĕrat or fuĕrat,	ventum ěrat or fuěrat,
Fut. p.	pugnātum ērit or fuērit.	fautum ĕrit <i>or</i> fuĕrit.	cursum erit or fuerit.	ventum ĕrit or fuĕrit.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Imp.	pugnētur,	faveātur,	currātur,	veniātur,
	pugnarētur,	faverētur,	currerētur,	venirētur,
	pugnātum sit <i>or</i>	fautum sit or	cursum sit or	ventum sit or
	fuērit,	fuĕrit.	fuērit,	fuērit,
Plup.	pugnātum esset or fuisset.	fautum esset or fuisset.	cursum esset or fuisset.	ventum esset or fuisset.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

	pugnātum esse or			
Fut.	fuisse,	fuisse, fautum īri.	fuisse, cursum īri.	fuisse,

3. In like manner, in the periphrastic conjugation, the neuter gender of the participle in dus, both of active and neuter verbs, is used impersonally with est, etc., and the dative of the person; as, mihi scribendum fuit, I have been obliged to write: moriendum est omnibus. all must die. See § 162, 15, R. 5.

REMARK 1. Grammarians usually reckon only ten real impersonal verbs, all of which are of the second conjugation, viz. decet, libet, licet, liquet, miseret, oportet, piget, panitet, pudet, and teedet. (See § 169.) Four of these, decet, libet, licet, and liquet occur also in the third person plural, but without personal subjects. There seems, however, to be no good reason for distinguishing the verbs above enumerated from other impersonal verbs. The following are such other verbs as are most commonly used impersonally:-

(a.) In the first conjugation:—

Constat, it is evident. Juvat, it delights. Præstat, it is better. Restat, it remains. Stat, it is resolved.

Văcat, there is leisure. Certatur, there is a contention. Peccatur, a fault is committed.

Pugnātur, a battle is fought. Statur, they stand firm.

(b.) In the second conjugation:—

Apparet, it appears. Attinet, it belongs to. Displicet, it displeases. Dolet, it grieves. Miserētur, it distresses. Pătet, it is plain.

Pertinet, it pertains. Placet, it pleases. Fletur, we, etc. weep, or, there is weeping. Nocētur, injury is inflicted.

Persuadētur, he, they, etc. are persuaded. Pertæsum est, he, they, etc. are disgusted with. Siletur, silence is maintained.

(c.) In the third conjugation:—

Accidit, it happens. Conducit, it is useful. Contingit, it happens.
Fallit, or it escapes me;
Fugit me, I do not know.

Miserescit, it distresses. Sufficit, it suffices. Creditur, it is believed. Curritur, people run.

Desinitur, there is an end. Scribitur, it is written. Vivitur, we, etc. live.

(d.) In the fourth conjugation:—

upon; it is fit. Evenit, it happens.

Convenit, it is agreed Expedit, it is expedient. Dormitur, we, they, etc. sleep.

Scitur, it is known. Itur, they, etc. go. Venitur, they, etc. come.

(e.) Among irregular verbs:—

Fit, it happens. Interest, it concerns. Obest, it is hurtful.

Prætěrit me, it is unknown to me. Prodest, it avails.

Refert, it concerns. Sŭbit, it occurs. Superest, it remains.

(f.) To these may be added verbs signifying the state of the weather, or the operations of nature. The subject of these may be Jupiter, deus, or cælum, which are sometimes expressed. Of this kind are the following:-

Fulget, Fulgurat, it lightens. Gělat, it freezes. Grandinat it hails.

Lapidat, it rains stones. Lucescit, } it grows light. Ningit, it snows. Pluit, it rains.

Tonat, it thunders. Vesperascit, evening Advesperascit, livesperascit, proaches.

Lapidat, ningit, and pluit are also used impersonally in the passive voice.

REM. 2. Impersonal verbs, not being used in the imperative, take the subjunctive in its stead; as, *delectet*, let it delight. In the passive voice, their perfect participles are used only in the neuter.

REM. 3. Most of the impersonal verbs want participles, gerunds, and supines; but panitet has a present participle, futures in rus and dus, and the gerund. Pudet and piget have also the gerund and future passive participle.

REM. 4. Most of the above verbs are also used personally, but frequently in a somewhat different sense; as, ut Tibëris inter eos et pons interesset, so that the Tiber and bridge were between them.

REDUNDANT VERBS.

> § 185. Redundant verbs are those which have different forms to express the same meaning.

Verbs may be redundant in termination; as, fabrico and fabricor, to frame;—in conjugation; as, lǎvo, -āre, and lǎvo, -ěre, to wash;—or in certain tenses; as, ōdi and ōsus sum, I hate.

1. The following deponent verbs, besides their passive form, have an active form in o, of the same meaning, but which is, in general, rarely used. A few, however, which are marked r., occur more rarely than the corresponding forms in o.

Abominor, to abhor. Adillor, to flatter. Altercor, to dispute. Amplexor, to embrace. Arbitror, to suppose. Argutor, to prate. Assentior, to assent. Auchpor, to hunt after. Auguror. to foretell. Aurigor, to drive a chariot. Auspicor, to take the auspices. Cachinnor, r. to laugh aloud. Comitor, to accompany. Commentor, to deliberate. Convivor, to feast together. Cunctor, (cont.), to delay. Dignor, to deem worthy.

Fabricor, to frame. Feneror, to lend on interest. Fluctuor, to fluctuate. Frustror, to disappoint. Fruticor, to sprout. Impertior, r. to impart. Jurgor, to quarrel. Lacrimor, r. to weep. Ludificor, to ridicule. Luxurior, r, to be rank. Medicor, to heal. Mereor, to deserve. Mētor, to measure. Misereor, to commiserate. Moderor, to moderate. Muneror, r. to bestow. Nictor, r. to wink. Nutrior, r. to nourish. Obsonor, to cater. Opinor, to suppose.

Oscitor, to gape. Pacificor, r. to make a peace. Palpor, to caress. Partior, to divide. Populor, to lay waste. Punior, to punish. Ruminor, to ruminate. Sciscitor, to inquire. Sortior, to cast lots. Stabulor, to stable. Tueor, to defend. Tumultuor, to be in confusion. Tutor, to defend. Utor, to use. Urinor, to dive. Velificor, to set sail. Veneror, to reverence. Vocif eror, to bawl.

2. The following verbs are redundant in conjugation:-

Boo, -ēre, r. to roar.
Boullo, -ēre, r. to boil.
Bullio, -īre, to boil.
Cieo, -ēre, to excite.
Cieo, -ēre, to excite.
Denseo, -ēre, to thicken.
Ferveo, -ēre, to boil.
Fervo, -ēre, fodio, -ēre, fodio, -ēre, fodio, -ēre, fodio, -ēre, fodio, -īre, r. to dig.

Depascor, to feed upon.

Elucubror, to elaborate.

Fulgeo, -ēre, r. to shine. Fulgo, -ēre, r. to wash. Lāvo, -ēre, r. to wash. Lino, -ēre, r. to anoint. Nicto, -ēre, r. to wink. Nicto, -ēre, to wink. Sālo, -ēre, to salt. Scateo, -ēre, cate, -ēre, cate, -ēre, cate, -ēre, scato, -ēre, r. to abound.

Sŏno, -āre, } to sound.
Sŏno, -ēre, } to sound.
Strīdeo, -ēre, } to creak.
Tergeo, -ēre, } to wipe.
Tueor, -ēri, } to protect.
Tuor, -i, r. } to protect.

Those marked r. are varely used. Mörior, örior, and pötior, also, are redundant in conjugation in certain parts See in lists §§ 174 and 177.

§ 186. 1. Some verbs are spelled alike, or nearly alike, but differ in conjugation, quantity, pronunciation, or signification, or in two or more of these respects.

Such are the following:

Abdico, -āre, to abdicate. Abdīco, -ere, to refuse. Accido, -ere, to full upon. Accido, -ere, to cut down. Addo, -ĕre, to add. Adeo, -ire, to go to. Aggero, -are, to heap up. Aggero, -ere, to heap upon. Allego, -are, to depute. Allego, -ere, to choose. Appello, -āre, to call. Appello, -ere, to drive to. Cado, -ere, to fall. Cædo, -ěre, to cut. Cēdo, -ere, to yield. Căleo, -ēre, to be hot. Calleo, -ēre, to be hard. Căno, -ĕre, to sing. Caneo, -ere. to be gray. Căreo, -ēre, to want. Cāro, -ĕre, to card wool. Celo, -are, to conceal. Cælo, -āre, to carve. Censeo, -ēre, to think. Sentio, -īre, to feel. Claudo, -ere, to shut. Claudo, -ĕre, to be lame. Colligo, -are, to bind to-

gelher.
Colligo, -ĕre, to collect.
Collo, -ăre, to strain.
Cölo, -ĕre, to cultivate.
Compello, āre, to accost.
Compello, -ĕre, to force.
Concido, -ĕre, to cut to
pieces.
Concido, -ĕre, to fall.

Concendo, -ere, to fall.
Concendo, -ere, to embark.

Conscindo, -ĕre, to tear to pieces.
Consterno, -āre, to terrify.
Consterno, -ĕre, to strew

over.

Decido, -ĕre, to fall down.
Decido, -ĕre, to cut off.
Decipio, -ĕre, to deceive.
Desipio, -ĕre, to dote.
Deligo, -āre, to tie up.
Deligo, -ĕre, to love.
Diligo, -ĕre, to love.
Dico, -ĕre, to say.
Dico, -āre, to dedicate.

Edo, -ĕre, to eat. Edo, -ĕre, to publish. Educo, -are, to educate. Edūco, -ĕre, to draw out. Eff ĕro, -āre, to make wild. Effero, -re, to carry out. Excido, -ere, to fall out. Excido, -ere, to cut off. Fěrio, -īre, to strike. Fèro, -re, to bear. Fērior,-āri, to keep holiday. Frīgeo, -ēre, to be cold. Frigo, -ere, to fry. Fugo, -are, to put to flight. Fugio, ere, to fly. Fundo, -are, to found. Fundo, -ere, to pour out. Incido, -ĕre, to fall into. Incido, ere, to cut into. Indico, -āre, to show. Indīco, ĕre, to proclaim. Inficio, -ĕre, to stain. Infitior, -āri, to deny. Intercido, -ere, to happen. Intercido, -ĕre, asunder.

Jăceo, -ēre, to lie.
Jācio, -ëre, to throw.
Lăbo, -āre, to totter.
Lābor, -i, to glide.
Lacto, -āre, to suckle.
Lacto, -āre, to suckle.
Lēgo, -āre, to deceive.
Lēgo, -ēre, to read.
Liceo, -ēre, to be lawful.
Liceor, -ēri, to bid for.
Liquo, -āre, to mell.
Liquo, -ēre, to be mani-

fest.

Līquor, -i, to melt.

Māno, -āre, to flow.

Māneo, -ēre, to stay.

Mando, -āre, to command.

Māto, -ēre, to reap.

Mētor, -āri, to measure.

Mētior, -āri, to measure.

Mētior, -ēre, to fear.

Misēror, -āri, to pity.

Misēror, -āri, to pity.

Misōror, -āri, to delay.

Mōrior, -āri, to delay.

Mōrior, -ā, to dē.

Nitēo, -ēre, to fitter.

Nītor, -i, to strive. Obsero, -āre, to lock up. Obsěro, -ěre, to sow. Occido, -ĕre, to fall. Occido, -ĕre, to kill. Opĕrio, -īre, to cover. Opĕror, -āri, to work. Opperior, -īri, to wait for. Pando, -are, to bend. Pando, -ĕre, to extend. Păro, -āre, to prepare. Pāreo, -ēre, to appear. Părio, -ĕre, to bring forth. Pario, -are, to balance. Pendeo, -ēre, to hang. Pendo, -ĕre, to weigh. Percolo, -are, to filter. Percolo, -ere, to adorn. Permaneo, -ēre, to remain. Permano, -are, to flow

through. Prædico, -āre, to publish. Prædīco, -ere, to foretell. Prodo, -ere, to betray. Prodeo, -ire, to come forth. Recedo, -ere, to retire. Recido, -ere, to fall back Recido, -ere, to cut off. Reddo, -ĕre, to restore. Redeo, -īre, to return. Refero, -re, to bring back Referio, -ire, to strike back Relego, -āre, to remove. Relego, -ĕre, to read over Sēdo, -āre, to allay. Sĕdeo, -ēre, to sit. Sido, -ère, to sink. Sero, -ere, to sow. Sero, -ere, to entwine. Succido, -ere, to fall un-Succido, -ĕre, to cut down.

Vădor, -āri, to bind over by bail.
Vēneo, -īre, to be sold.
Vēnio, -īre, to come.
Vēnor, -āri, to hunt.
Vincio, -īre, to conquer.
Vio, -āre, to fyu.
Völo, -āre, to fyu.
Völo, velle, to be wilting.

Vādo, -ĕre, to go.

2. Different verbs have sometimes the same perfect; as,

Aceo, acui, to be sour. Acuo, acui, to sharpen. Cresco, crevi, to grow. Cerno, crevi, to decree. Fulgeo, fulsi, to shine.

Fulcio, fulsi, to prop. Luceo, luxi, to shine. Lugeo, luxi, to mourn. Mulceo, mulsi, to soothe. Mulgeo, mulsi, to milk.

Păveo, pāvi, to fear. Pasco, pāvi, to feed. Pendeo, pependi, to hang. Pendo, pependi, to weigh.

To these add some of the compounds of sto and sisto.

3. Different verbs have sometimes, also, the same supine or perfect participle; as,

Frico, frictum, to rub. Frigo, frictum, to roast. Măneo, mansum, to re-

Pango, pactum, to drive Paciscor, pactus, to bar-

Pătior, passus, to suffer. Těneo, tentum, to hold. Tendo, tentum, to stretch. Verro, versum, to brush. Verto, versum, to turn.

main.

gain. Mando, mansum, to chew. Pando, passum, to extend.

DERIVATION OF VERBS.

§ 187. Verbs are derived either from nouns, from adjectives, or from other verbs.

- L Verbs derived from nouns or adjectives are called denominatives.
- 1. (a.) Active denominatives are generally of the first conjugation; those which are neuter, of the second. They are usually formed by adding respectively o and eo to the root; as,

FROM NOUNS.

· Actives.

Armo, to arm, (arma.) Fraudo, to defraud, (fraus.) Nomino, to name, (nomen.) Numero, to number, (numerus.) Neuters.

Floreo, to bloom, (flos.) Frondeo, to produce leaves, (frons.) Luceo, to shine, (lux.) Vireo, to flourish, (vis.)

FROM ADJECTIVES.

Albo, to whiten, (albus.) Celebro, to frequent, (celeber.) Libero, to free, (liber.) Albeo, to be white, (albus.) Calveo, to be bald, (calvus.) Flaveo, to be yellow, (flavus.)

(b.) Sometimes a preposition is prefixed in forming the derivative; as,

Coacervo, to heap together, (acervus.) Exstirpo, to extirpate, (stirps.) Excavo, to excavate, (cavus.) Illaqueo, to insnare, (laqueus.)

- 2. Many deponents of the first conjugation, derived from nouns, express the exercise of the character, office, etc., denoted by the primitive; as, architector, to build; comitor, to accompany; furor, to steal; from architectus, comes, and fur.
- 3. Such as denote resemblance or imitation are called imitatives; as, cornicor, to imitate a crow, from cornix; Græcor, to imitate the Greeks. Some of these end in isso; as, patrisso, to imitate a father.
- Verbs derived from other verbs are either frequentatives, inceptives, desider tives, diminutives, or intensives.

- 1. Frequentatives express a repetition, or an increase of the action expressed by the primitive.
- (a.) They are all of the first conjugation, and are formed by adding o to the third root; as, dŏmo, (dŏmūt-) dŏmũto. So adjūvo, adjūvo; dīco, dicto; gĕro, gesto. In verbs of the first conjugation, āt of the root is often changed into ĭt; as, clāmo, to cry, (clamāt-) clamīto, to cry frequently.
- (b.) A few frequentatives are formed by adding to to the first root of the primitive; as, \(\alpha g \) (\(\alpha g \)) \(\alpha g \) to. So \(\lambda t \) in the o, \(\lambda t \) its o, \(\lambda s \) cosolio; \(\alpha u \) arrito.
- (c.) Frequentatives, from primitives of the second, third, and fourth conjugations, sometimes serve again as primitives, from which new frequentatives are formed; as, dico, dicto, dictio; curro, curso, cursito; vēnio, vento, ventito. Sometimes the second or intermediate form is not in use.
- (d.) Some frequentatives are deponent; as, minitor, from minor (mināt-); versor, from verto (vers-). So amplexor, sector, loquitor, from amplector, sequor, and loquor.
- (e.) When verbs of this class express simply an increase of the action denoted by the primitive, they are, by some grammarians, called intensives.
- 2. Inceptives, or inchoatives mark the beginning of the action or state expressed by the primitive.
 - (a.) They all end in sco, and are formed by adding that termination to the root of the primitive, with its connecting vowel, which, in the third conjugation, is i; as, căleo, to be hot; călesco, to grow hot.

So låbo, (āre), låbasco: ingëmo, (ëre), ingëmisco; obdormio, (īre), obdormisco. Hisco is contracted for hiasco, from hio, (āre).

(b.) Most inceptives are formed from verbs of the second conjugation.
(c.) Some inceptives are formed from nouns and adjectives by adding asco

or esco to the root; as, puërasco, from puer; juvenësco, from juvenis.

Note. Inceptives are all neuter, and of the third conjugation. See § 173.

Some verbs in sco, which are not inceptives, are active; as, disco, posco.

3. Desideratives express a desire of doing the act denoted by the

- primitive.

 (a.) They are formed from the third root, by adding *wrio*; as, cono, to sup, (conāt,) conātwio, to desire to sup.
 - (b.) Desideratives are all of the fourth conjugation. See § 176, Note.
- (c.) Verbs in ūrio, having u long, are not desideratives; as, prūrio, līgūrio.
- 4. Diminutives denote a feeble or trifling action. They are formed by adding illo to the root of the primitive; as, conscribillo, to scribble, from conscribo.

They are few in number, and are all of the first conjugation.

5. Intensives denote eager action. They are usually formed by adding so, esso, or isso to the root of the primitive; as, făcesso, to act earnestly—from făcio.

So căpesso, incesso, from căpio and incēdo. Concăpisco, to desire greatly, though in form an inceptive, is, in its signification, an intensive.

Note. Verbs of all these classes have sometimes simply the meaning of their primitives.

COMPOSITION OF VERBS.

§ 188. Verbs are compounded variously:—

- 1. Of a noun and a verb; as, ælifico, belligero, lucrifăcio. See § 103, R. 1.
- 2. Of an adjective and a verb; as, amplifico, multiplico.
- 3. Of two verbs; as, caléfácio, madefácio, patefácio.

REM. In verbs of this class, the first part, which is a verb of the second conjugation, loses its final o; the second part is always the verb facio.

- 4. Of an adverb and a verb; as, běněf ácio, málědico, sátágo, nôlo, negligo.
- 5. Of a preposition and a verb; as, adduco, excolo, prodo, subrepo, discerno, sējungo.
 - 6. Of a preposition and a noun, as, pernocto, irretio.

§ 189. In composition with particles, the vowels a and e and the diphthong a in the radical syllable of the simple verb are often changed in the compound.

1. The following simple verbs in composition change a into e:—

Farcio, Patro, Carpo, Jacto, Părio, Spargo, Damno. Fătiscor. Partio, Tracto. Candeo. Lacto. Sacro. Fallo, Gradior. Mando. Capto, Pătior. Scando.

Exc. A is retained in amando, præmando, desacro, and retracto; prædamno, and pertracto sometimes also occur. A is also changed into e in occento from canto, and anhelo from halo; comperco also is found.

- 2. The following, in the first root, change \check{a} and \check{e} into $\check{\iota}$; viz. ăgo, cădo, ĕgeo, ĕmo, frango, pango, prĕmo, rĕgo, sĕdeo, spĕcio, tango.
- 3. These change \check{a} and \check{e} , in the first and second roots, into \check{i} ; viz. sălio, to leap, săpio, tăceo, and těneo.
- 4. These change \check{a} into \check{i} , and α into \bar{i} , in all the roots; viz. habeo, lacio, lateo, placeo, statuo; cædo, lædo, and quæro.
- 5. The following change \check{a} , in the first root, into $\check{\iota}$, and in the third root into e; viz.

căno, căpio, făteor, jăcio, răpio, and ăpiscor.

Exc. (a.) A is retained in circumago, perago, satago; antehabeo, posthabeo, depango, repango, compláceo, and perpláceo. Occano and recano also sometimes occur. E is retained in coemo, circumsedeo, and supersedeo. Antecapio and anticipo are both used; so also are superjacio and superjicio.

(b.) Côgo and dēgo are formed, by contraction, from con, de, and ágo; dēmo, prômo and sūmo, from de, pro, sub, and émo; præbeo, and perhaps debeo, from præ, de, and habeo; pergo and surgo, from per, sub, and régo.

Note 1. Fácio, compounded with a preposition, changes á into i in the first root, and into e in the third; as, afficio, affeci, affectum. Some compounds of facto with nouns and adjectives, change a into i, and also drop i before o, and are of the first conjugation; as, significo, lætifico, magnifico. Specio forms some compounds in the same manner; as, conspicor and suspicor.

Note 2. Lego, compounded with con, de, di, e, inter, nec, and se, changes & into i, in the first root; as, colligo, negligo, etc.; but with ad, præ, per, re, sub,

and trans, it retains ě; as, allěgo.

Note 3. Calco and salto, in composition, change a into u; as, inculco, insulto. Plaudo changes au into 6; as, explodo; except applaudo. Audio changes au into ê in obêdio. Causo, claudo, and quatio, drop a; as, accuso, récludo, percutio. Vuro changes û into ê in déjèro and pêjèro, but déjūro, also, is in use: Note 4. In the compounds of caveo, maneo, and traho, a remains unchanged, and so also does α in the compounds of hareo.

NOTE 5. The simple verbs with which the following are compounded are not used:—

Dēfendo, Instīgo, Conniveo, Impědio, Confuto, Offendo, Imbuo, Rĕfūto, Impleo, Percello, Compello, (-āre,) Experior, Ingruo, Compleo, Induo, and some Exuo, Appello, (-are,) Congruo, Rěnideo, others. Expědio,

For the changes produced in prepositions by composition with verbs see § 196.

PARTICLES.

§ 190. 1. Particles are those parts of speech which are neither declined nor conjugated. They are divided into four classes—adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.

Note. A word may sometimes belong to two or more of these classes, according to its connection.

ADVERBS.

2. An adverb is a particle used to modify or limit the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as,

Běne et sapienter dixit, he spoke well and wisely; Cinis ēgrēgie fidēlis, a remarkably faithful dog; Nimis valde laudāre, to praise too much. Compare § 277, R. 1.

3. Adverbs, in regard to their signification, are divided into various classes; as, adverbs of place, time, manner, etc., and some belong to either class according to their connection.

4. In regard to their etymology, adverbs are either primitive or

derivative.

REMARK. Among primitive adverbs are here classed not only such as cannot be traced to any more remote root, but also all which are not included in the regular classes of derivative adverbs hereafter mentioned.

PRIMITIVE ADVERBS.

\$ 191. The primitive adverbs are few in number, when compared with the derivatives, and most of them are contained in the following lists marked I, II, and III.

I. Adverbs of Place and Order.

adeo, so far, as far. ălicăbi, somewhere. ăliquoversum, toward adhuc, to this place. ălicunde, from some some place. place. ăliundě, from another adversus.) opposite, over against, alio, to another place. adversum, place. exadversus,-um,) toward. ăliquă, in some way. circum, around. ăliā, by another way. aliorsum, toward anothălias, in another place. er place. circiter, on every side. alibi, elsewhere. ăliquo, to some place. circumcirce illaround.

citra, on this side. citro, hither. contrā, over against. coram, before. dehine, henceforth. deinceps, successively. deinde, after that. dēnique, finally. dēnuo, again. deorsum, downward. dextrorsum, toward the

right. ea, that way. eadem, the same way. eo, to that place, thither. eodem, to the same place. exinde, after that. extra, without. extrinsecus, from without. f oras, out of doors. f oris, without. hāc, this way. hactenus, thus far. hic, here. hinc, hence. hūc, hither. hūcusque, thus far. horsum, hitherward. Ibi, there. Ibidem, in the same place. illac, that way. illic, there. illine, thence. illorsum, thitherward. illūc, thither. inde, thence. indidem, from the same quoquoversus, toward place

infrā, below, beneath. inibi, in that place. intrinsecus, from within intrā, intro, introrsum, within. intus, istac, that way. istic, there. istinc, thence. isto, istuc, thither. juxtā, near, alike. nēcubi, lest any where. neutro, to neither side. neutrubi, to neither place,

to neither side. nusquam, no where. penītus, within. poně, post, behind, back. porro, onward. procul, far. prope, propter, near. prorsum, forward. protinus, onward. qua? in which way? quāquā,) what way quacumque, soever. quaque, wheresoever. quālibēt, } in every way. quāvīs, quo? whither? quoad, quousque, \ how far. quoquam, to some place. quoquo, whitherquocumque, soever. every side.

quorsum? whitherward? quovis, quolibet, to every place. retro, backward. retrorsum, back. rursum, sīcubi, if any where. sīcundē, if from any place. sinistrorsum, toward the left. subter, beneath. super, supra, above, on top. sursum, upward. tum, then, in the next place. ŭbi? where? ŭbicumque,) wherever, wheresoever. ŭbiŭbi,

ŭbilibet, any where, ŭbīquě, (every where. ŭbīvīs, ultrā, ultro, beyond. unde? whence? undělibět,) from every unděvīs, where. undĭquě, undeunde, whence-undecumque, soever. uspiam, somewhere, usquam, any where. usque, all the way. usquequaque, in all ways. utrimque, on both sides. utro? which way? utrobi? in which place? utrobique, in both places. utroque, to both sides. utroqueversum, toward both sides.

REMARK 1. (a.) The interrogative adverbs of place, ubi? where? unde? whence? quo? whither? and quo? in what way? have relation to other adverbs formed in a similar manner, thus constituting a system of adverbial correlatives similar to that of the pronominal adjectives. See § 139, 5, (3.)

(b.) As in the case of the pronominal correlatives, the interrogative and relative forms are alike, beginning with u or qu. The demonstratives are formed from is, which is strengthened by dem, and the indefinite from aliquis. general relatives and the general indefinites or universals, like those of the pronominal adjectives, are made, the former by doubling the simple relatives or by appending to them the termination cumque, 'soever,' and the latter by adding que, ris, or libet. Thus :

	, 01 1100011 111	.			
Interrog. ŭbi?	Demonstr. Ibi, Ibīdem,	Relat. ŭbi,	Gen. Relat. ŭbiŭbi, ŭbicumquë,	Indefin. ălicubi,	Gen. Indefin ŭbiquë, ŭbivis,
undě?	indĕ, indidem,	undě,	undeundě, unděcumquě,	ălicundě,	ŭbilibët. undiquë, undëvis,
quō?	eō, eōdem,	quō,	quōquō, quōcumquě,	ălīquō,	undėlibėt, quōvīs, quōlibė t.
quā?	eā, eādem.	quā.	quāquā, quācumquè.	ālīquā.	quāvīs,

(c.) To those answering to ubi? may be added alibi, nullibi, and inibi, the latter being a strengthened form of ibi. In like manner aliunde, utrimque, intrinsecus, and extrinsecus may be added to those answering to under and alio to those answering to quo? So also to utro? answer utroque and neutro.

(d.) The demonstratives ibi, inde, and eo are used only in reference to relative sentences which precede; but more definite demonstratives are formed from the pronouns hie, iste, and ille, answering in like manner to ubi? unde? and quo? These together with the preceding correlatives are, in the following table, arranged respectively under their several interrogatives under under quo?

va? and quorsum ?-Thus :

ŭbi?	undě?	quō?	quā?	quorsum?
bīc,	hinc,	hūc,	hāc,	horsum,
istīc,	istinc,	istūc,	istāc,	istorsum,
illīc.	illinc,	illūc,	illāc,	illorsum,
ibi, ibīdem, ālībi, ālīcūbi.	indě, indidem, äliundě, älicundě.	eō, eōdem, "ăliō, ăliquō.	eā, eādem, ăliā, ălīquā.	ăliorsum, ăliquoversum.

(e.) Hīc, hinc, hūc, refer to the place of the speaker; istīc, istinc, istūc, to the place of the second person or person addressed; and illic, illinc, illic, to that of the third person or the person or thing spoken of. Cf. § 207, R. 23, (a.) and (d.)

(f.) The interrogative adverbs ŭbi, undě, quō, quā, etc. are often used without a question, simply as adverbs of place; as, In eam partem ituros, atque ibi

futuros Helvetios, ubi eos Cæsar constituisset.

(g.) In consequence of a transfer of their meaning, some of the adverbs of place, as, hīc, ibi, ŭbi, hinc, inde, hactenŭs, etc., become also adverbs of time, and some of them are used also as conjunctions.

Π. Adverbs of Time. illico, immediately.

actūtum, immediately. abhine, from this time. ădeo, so long (as). ădhūc, until now, still. ăliās, at another time ăliquamdiū, for awhile. ăliquando, at some time. ăliquoties, several times. ante, before, antea, previously. antěhāc, formerly. bis, twice. (see § 119). circiter, about, near. crās, tomorrow. cum or quum, when. deinceps, in succession. deinde or dein, thereupon, exinde or exin, afterward. dehine, from this time. dēmum, at length. denique, lastly. diū, long. dudum, previously. eousquè, so long. here or heri, yesterday. hīc, here, hereupon. hinc, from this time, since. hŏdiē, to-day. Ibi, then, thereupon. identidem, now and then, repeatedly. 14

inde, after that, then. interdum, sometimes. intěrim, meanwhile. ĭtĕrum, again. jam, now, already. jamdūdum, } long ago. jamjam, *presently*. jampridem, long since. modo, just now. mox, soon after. nondum, not yet. nonnumquam, sometimes. sæpe, often. nūdius tertius, three days semel, once. ago. nunc, now. numquam, never. nuper, lately. ölim, formerly. părumper, for a short paulisper, time. perendie, two days hence. porro, hereafter, in fupost, posteā, afterwards. posthac, hereafter. postridie, the day after. pridem, long since. pridie, the day before. protinus, instantly.

quandocumque, whenquandoque, at some time. quater, four times. quousque? } how long ? quondam, formerly. quotidie, daily. quoties? how often? quum or cum, when. rursus, again. semper, always. statim, immediately.

quamdiū? how long?

quando? when?

subinde, immediately, now and then. tamdiū, so long. tandem, at length. tantisper, for so long. ter, thrice. toties, so often. tum, tunc, then. ŭbi, when, as soon as. umquam, ever. usquě, until, ever. ŭt or ŭti, as, as soon as, when.

III. Adverbs of Manner, Quality, Degree, etc,

adeo, so, to that degree. admödum, very much. ăliter, otherwise. ceu, ás, like as. cur? why? duntaxăt, only, at least. etiam, also, tru'y, yes. ětiamnunc, } also, besides. ferme, almost, nearly. fortasse, perhaps. frustrā, in vain. grātīs, freely. haud, not. haudquāquam, by no means. hūcusquě, so far. identidem, constantly. immo, nay, on the contrary. Ită, so. Item, just so, also. Itidem, in like manner. juxtā, equally, alike. magis, more. modo, only. næ or nē, truly, verily. nē, not. nēdum, much less. nempě, truly, forsooth. nēquāquam, by no neutiquam, means. nimirum, certainly, to be sure.

nimis, too much. non, not. omnino, altogether, only. pæně, almost. palam, openly. păriter, equally. părum, too little. paulātim, by degrees. pěnitůs, wholly. pěrindě, i just as, proindě, as though. perquam, very much. plerumque, for the most part, commonly. potius, rather. porro, moreover, then. præter, beyond, except. præsertim, particularly. profecto, truly. prope, almost, near. propemodum, almost. prorsus, wholly. quam, how much, as. quamobrem, wherefore. quare? why? wherefore? quăsi, as if, as it were. quemadmodum, as. quidem, indeed. quomodo? how? in what manner? quoque, also. ritě, duly. saltem, at least.

sane, truly. sătis, } enough. sătiŭs, rather. scilicet, truly, to wit. secus, otherwise. seorsum, } separately. seorsŭs, sīc, so. sīcŭt, sīcut, so as, as. sīcuti, so as, as. sīmul, together. singillatim, one by one. solum, only, alone. tam, so, so much. tamquam, like, as if. tantopere, so greatly. tantum, so much, only. tantummŏdŏ, only. těměrě, at random. ūnā, together. usquequaque, in all points, in all ways. ŭtī, { as. ŭtique, at any rate, certainly. utpŏtě, as, inasmuch as. valdē, very much. věl, even. vělůt, as, like as, for vělůtí, example. example. vicissim, in turn, again. videlicet, clearly, to wit. vix, scarcely.

Rem. 2. Adverbs denoting quality, manner, etc., are sometimes divided into those of, 1. Quality; as, běně, málě. 2. Certainty; as, certē, plānē. 3. Contingence; as, fortě. 4. Negation; as, haud, nôn, ně, immő. 5. Affirmation; as, næ, quidem, útiquě, nempě. 6. Swearing; as, herclě. 7. Explaining; as, viděticěi, utpôtě. 8. Separation· as, seoreum. 9. Joining together; as, simil, ūnā. 10. Interrogation; as, cūr? quārē? 11. Quantity or degree; as, sătīs, ādeō. 12. Excess; as, perquam, mazīmē. 13. Defect; as, pārum, pæně. 14. Preference; as, pôtiūs, sătūs. 15. Likeness; as, itā, sīc. 16. Unlikeness; as, ālītēr. 17. Exclusion; as, tantum, sōlum.

REM. 3. Non is the ordinary Latin negation. Haud signifies either 'not at all,' or 'not exactly.' It is used by the comic and later writers in all combinations, but in the authors of the best age its use is more especially limited to its connection with adjectives and adverbs denoting a measure; as, haud multum, haud magnum, haud parvus, haud mediocris, haud paulo, haud proved, haud sane ficile, reselvand sane in connection with other words; as, haud sane ficile, reselvand sane difficilis, haud sane intelligo; also haud quisquam, haud umquam, haud quaquam. With verbs haud is scarcely used until Livy and Tacitus, except in the common phrase haud scio an, which is equivalent to nescio an.—Nê, (or n i) is the primitive Latin negative particle, signifying no or not. It is used in this sense and as an adverb, (a) with quidem to make an emphatic negation of the word standing between them: as, ne in oppidis quidem, not even in the towns; (b) in composition as in nes io, ne fas, neuter, etc.; (c) with imperatives and

subjunctives used as imperatives; as, $N\bar{e}$ pueri, $n\bar{e}$ tanta animic usuescite bella. Virg. So, also, in wishes and asseverations; as, $N\bar{e}$ id Jupiter smeret, may Jupiter forbid it. Liv. Ne vivam, si scio, may I die, if I know. Cic.; and in concessive and restrictive clauses; as, Ne fuerit, suppose there was not. Cic. Sint misericordes in furibus erarii, ne illis sanguinem nostram largiantur, only let them not, etc. Cic. So dum ne, dummodo ne, modo ne, dum quidem ne; and in intentional clauses with ut-Immo, as a negative, substitutes something stronger in the place of the preceding statement, which is denied; as, Causa igitur non bona est? Immo optima, sed, etc. Cic. It may often be translated by 'nay,' or 'nay even.'

- REM. 4. Quidem gives particular emphasis to a word or an idea, and then answers to our 'certainly' or 'indeed,' but frequently, especially with a pronoun, it merely adds emphasis. Equidem, which is considered as a compound of ego and quidem, is used exclusively in this sense by Cicero, Virgil, and Horace, but by other and particularly by later writers it is used like quidem.—
 Nempe, 'surely,' is often used ironically, when we refute a person by concessions which he is obliged to make, or by deductions. In other connections it may be translated 'namely.'
- Rem. 5. Sic, $it\ddot{a}$, tam, as also $tant\breve{o}p\breve{e}re$, and $\breve{a}de\breve{o}$ signify 'so.' Sic is more particularly the demonstrative 'so,' or 'thus'; as, sic se $res h \breve{a}bet$. Ita defines or limits more accurately, and is equivalent to our 'in such a manner,' or 'only in so far'; as, ita defendito, ut neminem leedas. Frequently, however, ita has the signification of sic, but sic has not the limiting sense of ita.—Tam, 'so much,' generally stands before adjectives and adverbs, and in creases the degree; before vowels $tantop\breve{e}re$ is generally used instead of tam.—Adeo, 'to that degree' or 'point,' increases the expression to a certain end or result. Hence it forms the transition to the conclusion of an argument or to the essential part of a thing; and Cicero employs it to introduce the proofs of what he has previously alleged; as, Id adeo ex ipso $sen\~atus$ consulto cognoscite, and always in such case puts adeo after a pronoun.
- REM. 6. Umquam, 'ever,' and 'usquam, 'somewhere,' like quisquam, require a negation in the sentence, and thus become equivalent to numquam and nusquam. A negative question, however, may supply the place of a negative proposition; as, num tu eum unquam vidisti?—Uspiam, like quispiam, is not negative, but is the same as ālicābi, but strengthened, just as quispiam is the same as aliquis. So, also, quōpiam is used affirmatively, and quōquam negatively.—Jam, with a negative, answers to our 'longer'; as, Nihi jam spēro, I no longer hope for any thing. When used to connect sentences it signifies 'further,' or 'now.—Usque is commonly accompanied by the prepositions ud, in, ab, or ex. It rarely signifies 'ever and anon'; as, Natūram expellas furcā, tāmen usque recurret. Hor.—Nūper, mōdo, and mox are relative and indefinite.—Dūdum, 'previously,' or 'before,' in relation to a time which has just passed away, may often be translated 'just before.—Jam dūdum signifies 'long before,' or 'long since.' With the poets jamdūdum contains the idea of impatience, and signifies 'without delay,' 'forthwith'; as, Jamdūdum sumtte pænas. Virg.—Tandem, 'at length,' also expresses the impatience with which a question is put.
- REM. 7. Tunc is 'then,' 'at that time,' in opposition to nunc, 'now': Tum is 'then,' as the correlative of quum, 'when;' as, quum omnes adessent, tum ille exorsus est dicer, when all were present, then he began to speak. Without a relative sentence tum signifies 'hereupon,' or 'thereupon'; but a relative sentence may always be supplied. The same difference exists between etiam nunc and etiam tum, 'still,' or 'yet'; and between nunc ipsum and um ipsum; quummaxime and tummaxime, 'just,' or 'even then'; for etiam nunc, nunc ipsum and quum maxime refer to the present; but etiamtum, tum ipsum, and tummaxime, to the past.

DERIVATION OF ADVERBS.

- § 192. Adverbs are derived from nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and participles.
 - I. From Nouns.
- 1. Of these a few end in im (generally ātim), and denote manner; as,
- grēgātim, in herds; membrātim, limb by limb; vīcissātim, or more frequently, vīcissim, by turns; from grex, membrum, and vīcis.
- 2. Some end in *itus*, and denote origin or manner; as, calitus, from heaven; funditus, from the bottom; radicitus, by the roots; from calum, fundus, and radix.
- 3. Some are merely the different cases of nouns used adverbially; as,

(a.) Some adverbs of time; as, mānē, noctū, diū, tempörē or tempörī, initiō, princīpiō, modo.—(b.) Adverbs of place; as, fórīs, fórās.—(c.) Adverbs of manner; as, spontē, fortē, grātīs or grātīs, ingrātīs, vulgō, partim.

II. From Adjectives and Participles.

By far the greater number of derivative adverbs come from adjectives and participles (present and perfect), and end in \bar{e} and $t\bar{e}r$.

1. Adverbs derived from adjectives and participles of the second declension, are formed by adding \tilde{e} to the root; as,

ægrē, scarcely; altē, high; lībērē, freely; longē, far; mīsērē, miserably; plēnē, fully; doctē, learnedly; ornātē, elegantly; from ægēr, altus, lībēr, longūs, mīsēr, plēnūs, doctūs, and ornātūs. Bēnē, well, is from bōnūs, or an older form bēnūs.

REMARK. A few adverbs in e differ in meaning from their adjectives; as, sānē, certainly; valdē, very; from sānús, sound, well; and vālidūs, strong.

Exc. 1. A few adverbs derived from adjectives and participles of the second declension, add *tter*, *ttus*, *im*, or *ātim* to the root; as,

nāvitēr, actively; antiquitūs, anciently; divinitūs, divinely; prīvātīm, privately; tuātīm, after vour manner; singūlātīm, singūlātīm, singūlātīm, or singultīm, severally; cæsim, carptīm, sensim, stātīm, etc. from nāvūs, antiquūs, divinūs, prīvātūs, tuūs, singūli cæsūs, carptūs, etc.

- Exc. 2. Some adverbs are formed with two or more of the above terminations with the same meaning; as, dürê, dürîtêr; firmê, firmîtêr; nāvê, nāvītêr; hurgē, lurgītêr; lūcūlentē, lūcūlentēr; turbūlentē, turbūlentēr: so cautē and cautim; hūmānē, hūmānītēr, and hūmānītās; publicē and publictūs.
- 2. Adverbs derived from adjectives and participles of the third declension, are formed by adding $\check{u}\check{e}r$ to the root, except when it ends in t, in which case $\check{e}r$ only is added; as,

ācritēr, sharply; fēlīcitēr, happily; turpītēr, basely;—ēlēgantēr, elegantly; prūdentér, prūdently; āmantēr, lovingly; propērantēr, hastily; from ācēr, fēlīz, turpīs, ēlēgans, prūdens, āmans, and propērans. So also from the obsolete ālīs for ālūs, and propēs, (neuter propē), come ālītēr and propēr for propitēr.

Exc. From audax comes by syncope audacter; from firits comes fortiter; from omnis, omnino; from uber, ubertim; and from nequam, nequiter.

3. From the cardinal numerals are formed numeral adverbs in ies; as,

quinquiës, děciës, from quinquë and děcem. So tötiës and quôtiës, from töt and quôt. See § 119.

- 4. Some adverbs are merely certain cases of adjectives. Such are,
- (a.) Ablatives in δ, from adjectives and participles of the second declension; as, citô, quickly; continuô, immediately; falsē, falsely; crēbrô, frequentis, mērītô, deservedly; něcŏpīnāto, unexpectedly; fortuitô, by chance; auspicato, auspiciously; consultô, designedly; and a few in ā from adjectives of the first declension; as, rectā, straight on; ūnā, together. In like manner, rěpěntě, suddenly, from rèpens; and pèregre or pěregri, from pěrèger.
- (b.) Nominatives or accusatives of the third declension in the newter singular; as, $facili, difficili, recens, sublime, and impune; and some also of the second declension; as, <math>c\bar{c}t\bar{c}runque, multum, plurmum, points mum, paulum, nimium, parum, and the numeral adverbs, primum, iterum, tertium, quartum, etc. which have also the termination in <math>\bar{c}_i$ and so also postremum (\bar{c}_i), and ultimum (\bar{c}_i). The neuter plural sometimes occurs also, especially in poetry; as, multa gemère; tristia ululare; crebra ferire.
- (c.) Accusatives of the first declension; as, bifariam, trifariam, multifariam, omnifariam, etc. scil. partem.

Note 1. The forms in \bar{e} and \bar{o} from adjectives of the second declension have generally the same meaning, but $v\bar{v}r\bar{v}$ and $v\bar{v}ro$ have a somewhat different sense. $V\bar{e}r\bar{v}$, truly, is the regular adverb of $v\bar{v}r\bar{u}$ s, true; but $v\bar{v}r\bar{v}$ is used in answers, in the sense of 'in truth,' or 'certainly.' In this use it is added to the verb used in the question; as, $adfustin\bar{v}$ $h\bar{v}r\bar{v}$ in convivio? The affirmative answer is ego $v\bar{v}r\bar{v}$ adfui, or without the verb, ego $v\bar{v}r\bar{v}$, and negatively, minime $v\bar{v}r\bar{v}$; and as $v\bar{v}r\bar{v}$ thus merely indicates a reply, it is often untranslatable into English.— $C\bar{v}r\bar{v}$, on the other hand, usually takes the meaning of the adjective certus, while cert \bar{v} often signifies 'at least'; as, victī sūmus, aut, si dignitus vinci non potest, fracti cert \bar{v} ; but $cert\bar{v}$ is frequently used in the sense of 'certainly,' especially in the phrase $cert\bar{v}$ scio.

Note 2. Some adjectives, from the nature of their signification, have no corresponding adverbs. Of some others, also, none occur in the classics. Such are āmens, dīrūs, dīscors, gnārūs, rūdis, trux, imbellīs, immbīlīs, and similar compounds. In place of the adverbs formed from vētūs and fīdūs, vētustē and antiquē are used for the former, and fīdēlītēr for the latter, from vētustūs, antīquūs, and fīdēlīts.

III. From the adjective pronouns are derived adverbs of place, etc. (See § 191, Rem. 1.)

REMARK. The terminations \bar{o} and $\bar{u}c$ denote the place whither, instead of the accusative of the pronoun with a preposition; as, $e\bar{o}$ for ad eum locum; $h\bar{u}c$ for ad hunc locum; the terminations $d\bar{e}$ and inc denote the place from which; $\bar{\imath}$ and $\bar{\imath}c$, the place in which; and \bar{a} and $\bar{a}c$, the place by or through which; as, $e\bar{a}$; $vi\bar{a}$ or parte being understood.

IV. (a.) A few adverbs are derived from prepositions; as, subtŭs, beneath; from sub; proptër, near; from prope. (b.) Mordicus and versus are derived from the verbs mordeo and verto.

REMARK. Diminatives are formed from a few adverbs; as, clam, clancălum; primum, primulum; celerius, celeriuscule; sapius, sapiuscule; bene, belle, bellissame,

COMPOSITION OF ADVERBS.

§ 193. Adverbs are compounded variously:-

- 1. Of an adjective and a noun; as, postridie, quotidie, magnopere, maximopere, summopere, quantopere, tantopere, tantummodo, solummodo, multimodis, quotannis—of postero die, magno opere, etc.
 - 2. Of a pronoun and a noun; as, hodie, quare, quomodo-of hoc die, qua re, etc.
 - 3. Of an adverb and a noun; as, nūdiūs, sæpēnumēro-of nunc dies, etc.
- 4. Of a preposition and a noun; as, comminus, eminus, illico, obiter, extemplo, obitam, postmódó, admódum, propédiem—of con, e, and mánus; in and lócus; etc.
- Of an adjective and a pronoun; as, áliōqui or áliōquin, cétérōqui or cétérōquin—of áliús and qui, i. e. áliō quō (mòdo), etc.
- 6. Of a pronoun and an adverb; as, ăliquamdiū, ălicūbi—of ăliquis, diū, and ŭbi; nēquāquam and nēquicquam—of nē and quisquam.
 - 7. Of two verbs; as, ilicet, scilicet videlicet of ire, scire, videre, and licet.
- 8. Of an adverb and a verb; as, quôlibět, übivīs, undělibět. So deinceps—from dein and cópio; duntaxat—from dum and taxo.
- 9. Of a participle with various parts of speech; as, deorsum, dextrorsum, horzum, retrorsum, sursum—of dē, dexter, hīc, retro, super, and vorsus or versus.
- Of two adverbs; as, jamdūdum, quamdiū, tamdiū, cummazimē, tummazimē, quousquē, sīcūt.
- 11. Of a preposition and an adjective; as, dēnuo, imprimīs, cumprimīs, apprimē, incassum—of dē novō, in primis, etc.
- 12. Of a preposition and a pronoun; as, quapropter, posteā, intereā, prætereā, hactenus, quatenus, aliquatenus, eatenus—ot propter que, post ea or eam, etc.
- 13. Of a preposition and an adverb; as, ăbhinc, ădhāc, dērēpentē, intēribi, interdiū, interdum, persapē.
- 14. Of two or three prepositions; as, insuper, protinus, inde, dein, deinde,
- 15. Of a conjunction and an adverb; as, nēcubi, sīcubi—of nē, sī, and aŭcubi.
- 16. Of an adverb and a termination scarcely used except in composition; as, ibidem, părumpër, quandocumqué, ubiqué, utcumqué.
- 17. Of three different parts of speech; as, forsitán—of fors, sit, an, quemad-modum, quamobrem, etc.
 - 18. Of an adverb and an adjective; as, nimirum, utpôtě.
 - 19. Of an adjective and a verb; as, quantumvis, quantumlibët.

Signification of certain Compound and Derivative Adverbs.

- 1. The adverbs continuo, prōtinus, stātim, confestim, sūbito, rēpente and dērēpente, actūtum, illico, ilicet, extemplo, signify in general 'directly' or 'immediately'; but, strictly, continuo means, 'immediately after'; stātim, 'without delay'; confestim, 'directly'; subito, 'suddenly, unexpectedly'; prōtinus, 'farther,' viz. in the same direction, and hence, 'without interruption'; rēpente and dērēpente, 'at once,' opposed to sensim, 'gradually,' (see Cic. Off. 1, 33); actūtum, 'instantaneously,' i. q. eōdem actū; illico, and more rarely tūce,' forthwith, the instant,' (Virg. Æn 2, 424, Cic. Mur. 10); so also extemplo, (Liv. 41, 1).
- 2. Prasertim, practive, imprimis, cumprimis, apprime, are generally translated 'principally,' but, properly, prasertim is 'particularly,' and sets forth a particular circumstance with emphasis; practive, from pracapio, has reference to privilege, and signifies 'especially'; imprimis and cumprimis, signify 'principally,' or 'in preference to others'; and apprime, 'before all,' 'very,' is used

In pure Latin to qualify and strengthen only adjectives. Admodum properly signifies 'according to measure,' that is, 'in as great a measure as can be,' 'very, exceedingly.' With numerals it denotes approximation, 'about.' Admodum milil and admodum nullus signify 'nothing at all' and 'no one at all.'

3. Modo is the usual equivalent for only.' Solum, 'alone,' 'merely,' points to something ligher or greater. Tantum, 'only,' 'merely,' intimates that something else was expected. The significations of solum and tantum are strengthened by modo, forming solummodo and tantummodo. Dantacat, 'only, solely,' is not joined with verbs. It also signifies 'at least,' denoting a limitation to a particular point. Saltem also signifies 'at least,' but denotes the reduction of a demand to a minimum; as, Eripe mili hunc dolorem, aut minue saltem.

4. Frustrā implies a disappointed expectation; as in frustra suscipère labores. Nequicquam denotes the absence of success, as in Hor. Carm. 1, 3, 21. Incassum, composed of in and cassum, 'hollow' or 'empty,' signifies 'to no purpose';

as, tela incassum jacere.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

§ 194. 1. Adverbs derived from adjectives with the terminations \bar{e} and $t\bar{e}r$, and most of those in o, are compared like their primitives.

2. The comparative, like the neuter comparative of the adjective, ends in iŭs; the superlative is formed from the superlative of the adjective by changing ŭs into e; as,

dūrē, dūriūs, dūrisstmē; fācilē, fācīliās, fācillīmē; ācrītēr, ācrītās, ācerrīmē; rārō, rāriūs, rārisstme; mātūrē, mātūriūs, mātūrissīme or māturrīme.

3. Some adverbs have superlatives in ō or um; as, měritissimō, plūrimum, primō or primum, potissimum.

4. If the comparison of the adjective is irregular or defective, (see §§ 125, 126), that of the adverb is so likewise; as,

běně, mělius, optimě; málě, pějus, pessimě; párum, minus, minimé; mutum, plūs, plūrimum; —, priūs, primō or primum; —, ōciús, ōcissime; —, dētěriūs, dēterrime; —, pôtiús, pôtissime or pôtissimum; měritō, —, měritissimo; sátis, sătiús, —. Mágis, maximē, (from magnūs,) has no positive; nūpēr, nūperrime, has no comparative. Propē, propiūs, proxime: the adjective propiūr has no positive in use. The regular adverb in the positive degree from ūběr is wanting, its place being supplied by ūbertim, but ūběriūs and ūberrimē are used. So instead of tristitěr, tristě, the neuter of tristis, is used, but the comparative tristiūs is regular; and from sōcors only sōcordiūs, the comparative, is in use.

5. Diù and sæpë, though not derived from adjectives, are yet compared;—diù, diùtius, diùtissime; sæpë, sæpius, sæpissime. A comparative tempërius, from tempëri or tempöri, also sometimes occurs. So secus, secus.

6. Adverbs, like adjectives, are sometimes compared by prefixing magis and maximē; as, magis apertē, maximē accommodatē.

PREPOSITIONS.

- § 195. 1. A preposition is a particle which expresses the relation between a noun or pronoun and some preceding word.
 - 2. Prepositions express the relations of persons or things, either to one another, or to actions and conditions; as, amor meus erga te, my love toward thee; eo ad te, I go to thes.

- 3. Some prepositions have the noun or pronoun which follows them in the accusative, some, in the ablative, and some, in either the accusative or the ablative.
- 4. Twenty-six prepositions have an accusative after them:—

ăd, to, towards, at, for. adversus, against, adversum, towards. antě, before. ăpud, at, with, near, before, in presence of. circum, around, about. circiter, about, near. cis, citra, on this side, within. contra, against, opposite. ergā, towards, opposite.

extra, without, beyond. infrā, under, beneath. inter, between, amona. during. intrā, within. juxta, near to, next to. ob, for, on account of, before. penes, in the power of, with. per, through, throughout, by, during. poně, behind.

post, after, since, behind. præter, past, before, against, beyond, besides. prope, near by, nigh. propter, near, on account of. secundum, after, behind, along, next to, accord-

suprā, above, over. trans, over, beyond. ultra, beyond.

5. Eleven prepositions have after them an ablative:

ab, from, after, by. absquě, without, but for. coram, before, in presence of. cum, with.

dē, from, down from, after, of, concerning. out of, from, of, by, after. pălam, before, in presence of.

præ, before, for, on account of, in comparison with. prō, before, for, instead of, according to. sĭně, without. těnus, as far as, up to.

6. Five prepositions take after them sometimes an accusative, and sometimes an ablative:

edge of. in, in, on; to, into, against.

clam. without the knowl- sub, under, about, near. subter, under, beneath.

super, above, over; upon, concerning.

REMARK 1. Prepositions are so called, because they are generally placed before the noun or pronoun whose relation they express. They sometimes, however, stand after it. Cf. § 279, 10.

REM. 2. A is used only before consonants; ab before vowels, and frequently before consonants, though rarely before labials: abs is obsolete, except in the phrase abs te.

E is used only before consonants, ex before both vowels and consonants.

REM. 3. Versus, which follows its noun, (cf. § 235, R. 3), usque, and exadversus (-um), sometimes take an accusative, simul and procul, an ablative, and are then by some called prepositions. Secus, with an accusative, occurs in

REM. 4. Many of the prepositions, especially those which denote place, are also used as adverbs. Cf. § 191.

Signification and Use of certain Prepositions.

REM. 5. (a.) Ad denotes direction, and answers to the questions Whither? and Till when? as, Venio ad te. Sophocles ad summam senectutem tragadias fēcit. Cic. It also denotes a fixed time; as, ad horam, at the hour; ad tempus aliquid facere,-at the right time. But sometimes ad tempus denotes 'for a time.' Sometimes, also, ad denotes the approach of time; as, ad lucem, ad vesperam, ad extremum, towards day-break, etc.; and also the actual arrival of a time; as, ad prima signa vēris profectue at the first sign of Spring.

- (b.) In answer to the question Where? ăd signifies 'rear' a place; as, ăd urbem esse; ăd portas urbis; pugna navălis ăd Tenădum. It is used like in, 'at,' in such phrases as ăd ædem Bellone, or, without ædem, ād Opis; neyotium habêre ăd portum.—With numeruls it may be rendered 'to the amount of' or 'nearly'; as, ăd ducentes. It is also used like circtier without any case; as, Occisis ăd hominum millibus quatuor.—The phrase omnes ăd unum signifies, 'all without exception,' 'every one.'
- (c.) Ad often denotes an object or purpose, and hence comes its signification of 'in respect to'; as, homo âd labores belli impiger. It is also used in figurative relutions to denote a model, standard, or object of comparison, where we say 'according to,' or 'in comparison with'; as, âd modum, âd efficiem, âd similitudinem, âd speciem alicipus rei; âd normam, etc. âd voluntatem alicipus facère aliquid. Ad verbum signifies, 'word for word'; nihil âd hanc rem, 'nothing in comparison with this thing.'
- Rem. 6. Apūd expresses nearness to, and was primarily used of persons as ād was applied to things. Apūd also denotes rest, and ād direction, motion, etc. Hence it signifies 'with,' both literally and figuratively. With names of places it signifies 'near,' like ād; as, Māle pugnātum est āpūd Caudium. But in early writers, āpūd is used for in; as, Augustus āpūd urbem Nālum extinctus est,—at Nola.—With me, te, se, or the name of a person, it signifies 'at the house' or 'dwelling of'; as, fuisti āpūd Læcam illā nocte.—Before appellatives of persons having authority in regard to any matter, it is translated 'before,' 'in the presence of'; as, āpūd judices, āpūd prætōrem, āpūd popūlum.—It is also used with names of authors, instead of in with the name of their works; as, Apūd Xenophontem, but we cannot say in Xenophonte.
- REM. 7. Adversüs, contrā, and ergā signify 'opposite to.' Contrā denotes hostility, like our 'against'; ergā, a friendly disposition, 'towards'; and adversüs is used in either sense. But $erg\bar{a}$ sometimes occurs in a hostile sense.
- REM. 8. Intrā signifies 'within,' in regard both to time and place. In regard to place it is used in answer to both questions Where? and Whither? It denotes time either as an entire period, when it is equivalent to 'during,' or as 'unfinished,' when it corresponds with 'under,' or 'before the expiration of.'
- REM. 9. Pér, denoting place, signifies, 'through,' and also 'in,' in the sense of 'throughout.'—With the accusative of persons it signifies 'through,' by the instrumentality of.' It often expresses the manner; as, pêr litêrus, by letter; pêr injurium, pêr scêlus, with injustice, criminally; pêr îram, from or in anger; pêr simulationem, pêr speciem, pêr causam, under the pretext; pêr occasionem, on the occasion; pêr ridiculum, in a ridiculous manner.—It sometimes signifies 'on account of'; as, pêr valetudinem, on account of illness.—Pêr me licet,—so far as I am concerned.
- Rem. 10. A or āb, denoting time, is used with nouns, both abstract and concrete, with the same general meaning; as, ā primā ætāte, āb intenute ætātā, āb intino ætātis, āb infantā, ā pueritā, āb adolescentā; and, ā puēro, ā puēris, āb adolescentālo, āb infante, all of which signify 'from an early age.' So also, ā parvis, ā parvūlo, ā tenēro, ā tenēris unguicūlis, which expressions are of Greek origin.—Ab initio, ā principio, ā prīmo, properly denote the space of time from the beginning down to a certain point; as, Urbem Rōmam ā principio rēges habuēre, i. e. for a certain period after its foundation. But frequently āb initio is equivalent to initio, in the beginning.—The adherents or followers of a school are often named from its head; as, ā Platōne, āb Aristotēle, etc.—In comic writers āb is sometimes used instead of the genitive; as, ancilla āb Andriā.—In a figurative sense it signifies 'with regard to'; as, āb equitātu frame.—With names of persons it also denotes relationship, and signifies 'on the side of'; as, Augustus ā matre Magnum Pompeium artissimo contingebat grādu,—on his mother's side.—Stātim, confestim, rēcens āb aliquā re, 'immediately after.'—Ab itinēre aliquid facēre, to do a thing while on a journey.
- REM. 11. Cum is used not only to designate accompanying persons but also accompanying circumstances; as, cum aliquo ire; hostes cum detrimento sunt

depulsi. It signifies also 'in,' i. e. 'dressed in'; as, cum tunicā pullā sedēre. With verbs implying hostility, it signifies with,' in the sense of 'against'; as, cum aliquo bellum gerēre; cum aliquo quēri to complain of or against.

Rem. 12. $D\bar{e}$ commonly signifies 'concerning,' about.' Hence traditur $d\bar{e}$ Homēro is very different from traditur $d\bar{b}$ Homēro; in the former, Homer is the object, in the latter the agent.—In the epistolary style, when a new subject is touched upon, $d\bar{e}$ signifies 'in regard to,' 'as respects'; as, $d\bar{e}$ frātre, con'ido tia esse, ut semper volui.—It often signifies 'down from'; and also 'of,' in a partitive sense; as, hōmo dē plēbe, ūnus dē popūlo.—From its partitive signification arises its use in denoting time; as, in comitium dē nocte ventre, i. e. even by night, or spending a part of the night in coming; hence multā de nocte, mediā dē nocte, 'in the depth of night,' 'in the middle of the night."—In other cases, also, it is used for ex or āb; as, Audivi hoc dē parente meo puer. Cic.; especially in connection with emēre, mercāri, conducēre. Triumphum agēre dē Gallis and ex Gallis are used indiscriminately—Sometimes, like sēcundum, it signifies 'in accordance with,' 'after'; as, dē consilio meo:—sometimes it denotes the manner of an action; as, dēnuo, dē integro, afresh; dē improvīso, unexpectedly; dē industriā, purposely:—quā dē re, quā dē causā, quibus dē causīs, for which reason or reasons.

Rem. 13. Ex, 'from,' 'out of.' Ex ěquo pugnāre, to fight on horseback; so ex itiněre scriběre: ex adverso, ě regiõne, opposite; ex omni parte, in or from all parts.—Ex vino or ex àquā coquêre or bibère, i. e. 'with wine,' etc. are medical expressions.—It sometimes denotes manner; as, ex animo laudāre, to praise heartily; ex sententiā and ex voluntāte, according to one's wish.—It is also, like $d\bar{e}$, used in a partitive sense; as, ūnus \bar{e} plēbe, ūnus \bar{e} multis.

Rem. 14. In, with the accusative, signifying 'to' or 'into,' denotes the point towards which motion proceeds; as, in ædem īre; or the direction in which a thing extends; as, dêcem pêdes in altitudinem, in height; so, also, it denotes figuratively the object towards which an action is directed, either with a friendly or a hostile design; as, āmor in patriam, odium in malos cires, in milites liberālis; oratio in aliquem, a speech against some one.—It also denotes a purpose; as, pecunia data est in rem militarem. Pax data Philippo in has lēges est, on these conditions.—With words denoting time, it expresses a predetermination of that time, like 'for'; as, invitāre aliquem in postērum diem, for the following day. In diem vivēre, to live only for the day; in futūrum, in postērum, in reliquum, for the future; in æternum, in perpetuum, forever; in præsens, for the present: with all these adjectives tempus may be supplied. In with singūli, expressed or understood, denotes a distribution, and may be translated 'to,' 'for,' 'on,' 'over.'—In singūlos dies, or simply in dies, with comparatives and verbs denoting increase, signifies 'from day to day.'—In some phrases it denotes the manner of an action; as, servilem in modum, mīrum in modum; so in universum, in general; in commūne, in common; in vicem, alternately, or, instead of; in alicūjus lócum aliquid petēre, in the place, or, instead of.

Rem. 15. In, with the ablative, signifies 'in,' 'on,' 'upon,' and answers to the question, Where? When a number or quantity is indicated, it signifies 'among,' and is equivalent to inter. It may sometimes be translated 'with,' or 'notwithstanding'; as, In summā copiā oratōrum, nēmo tāmen Cicerōnis laudem æquāvit.—With nouns which by themselves denote time, such as secūlum, annus, mensis, dies, nox, vesper, etc., the time, in answer to the question When? is expressed by the simple ablative; but in is used with words which acquire the signification of time only by such connection; as, in consulātu in principio, in bello; but even with these in is sometimes omitted, but is uswally retained in connection with the gerund or gerundive; as, in legendo, in legendis libris. In præsenti, or in præsentiā, signifies 'at the present moment,' for the present.—Est in eo, ut aliquid fiat signifies that scmething is on the point of happening.

PREPOSITIONS IN COMPOSITION.

- § 196. Most of the prepositions are used also in forming compound words. In composition, they may be considered either in reference to their form, or their force.
- I. (a.) Prepositions in composition sometimes retain their final consonants, and sometimes change them, to adapt them to the sounds of the initial consonants of the words with which they are compounded. In some words, both forms are in use; in others, the final consonant or consonants are omitted.
- 1. A, in composition, is used before m and v; as, $\bar{a}m\bar{o}veo$, $\bar{a}vello$, and sometimes before f in $\bar{a}fui$ and $\bar{a}f\bar{o}re$, for abfui and abfore. Ab is used before vowels, and before d, f, h, j, l, n, r, and s; as, $abj\bar{u}ro$, abrogo, etc. Abs occurs only before c, q, and t; as, abscondo, absque, abstineo. In aspello, aspernor, and asporto, the b of abs is dropped; in auf ero and aufugio, it is changed into u.
- 2. Ad remains unchanged before vowels and before b, d, h, m, v. It often changes d into c, f, g, l, n, p, r, s, t, before those letters respectively; as, accēdo, afféro, aggrédior, allego, annitor, appōno, arrigo, asséquor, atollo. Its d is usually omitted before s followed by a consonant, and before gn; as aspergo, aspicio, agnosco, agnātus. Before g, the d is changed into c; as, acquiro.
- 3. Ante remains unchanged, except in anticipo and antisto, where it changes e to i: but antesto also occurs.
- 4. Circum in composition remains unchanged, only in circumeo and its derivatives the m is often dropped; as, circueo, circuitus, etc.
- 5. Cum (in composition, com), retains m before b, m, p; as, combibo, committo, compōno: before l, m, r, its m is changed into those letters respectively; as, colligo, connitor, corripio: before other consonants, it becomes n; as, condūco, conjungo. Before a vowel, gn or h, m is commonly omitted; as, coeq, coopto, cognosco, cohabito; but it is sometimes retained; as, comedo, comes, comitor. In cōgo and cōgito a contraction also takes place; as, còágo, cōgo, etc. In combūro, b is inserted.
- 7. In remains unchanged before a vowel. Before b, m, p, it changes n into m; as, imbuo, immitto, impōno: before l and r, n is assimilated; as, illigo, irrētio: before gn, n is omitted; as, ignārus. Before the other consonants in is unchanged. In some compounds, in retains d before a vowel, from an ancient form indu; as, indigèna, indigeo, indolesco. So anciently induperator, for imperator.
- 8. Inter remains unchanged, except in intelligo and its derivatives, in which r before l is assimilated.
- 9. Ob remains unchanged before vowels and generally before consonants. Its b is assimilated before c, f, g, p; as, occurro, officio, oggannio, oppėto. In omitto, b is dropped. An ancient form obs, analagous to abs for ab, is implied in obsolesco, from the simple verb oleo, and in ostendo, for obstendo.
- 10. Per is unchanged in composition, except in pellicio and sometimes in pelliceo, in which r is assimilated before l. In $p\bar{e}j\bar{e}ro$, r is dropped.
- 11. Post remains unchanged, except in pōmarium and pōmerīdiānus, in which st is dropped.

12. Pro and proter in composition remain unchanged, except that pro is shortened before a vowel. Cf. § 283, II Exc. 1.

13. $Pr\bar{o}$ has sometimes its vowel short-and, (cf. § 285, 2, Exc. 5) and, to avoid hiatus, it sometimes takes d before a vowel; as, $pr\bar{o}deo$, $pr\bar{o}dese$, $pr\bar{o}digo$. Before verbs beginning with r and l, pro sometimes becomes por and pol; as,

porrigo, polliceor.

- 14. Sūb in composition remains unchanged before a vowel and before b, d, j, l, n, s, t, c. Before c, f, g, m, p, r, its b is regularly assimilated; as, succedo, suffero, suggéro, sumoveo, supplico, surripio. Before c, p, and l, l it sometimes takes the form subs, analogous to abs and obs; as, suscipio, suspendo, sustollo: b is omitted before s, followed by a consonant; as, suspicio.
 - 15. Subter and super in composition remain unchanged.
- 16. Trans remains unchanged before a vowel. It omits s before s; as, transcendo: in trado, tradaco, trajicio, and trano, ns is commonly omitted.
- (b.) The following words are called inseparable prepositions, because they are found only in composition:—

Ambī or amb, (Greek ἀμφί), around, about. Rĕd or rĕ, again, back. Vē, not. Dīs or dī, asunder. Sē, apart, aside.

- 1. Amb is always used before a vowel; as, ambāges, ambarvālis, ambēdo, ambigo, ambiro: except ampulla, āmicio, and ānhēlo. Before consonants it has the forms ambi; as, ambīdens, ambifariam, ambivium: am; as, amplector, ampito: or an; as, anceps, anfractus, anquiro.
- 2. Dis is prefixed to words beginning with c, p, q, s before a vowel, t, and h; as, discutio, dispono, disquiro, distendo, dishiasco: but discrtus is formed from discro; before <math>f, s is clianged into f; as, différo: in dirimo, and diribeo (from dishabeo), s becomes r. Di is prefixed to the other consonants, and to s when followed by a consonant; as, diduco, dimitto, distinguo, dispicio. But both dis and di are used before j; as, disjungo, dijūdico, and before r in rumpo.
- 3. Rėd is used before a vowel or h; rė before a consonant; as, rėdāmo, rėdeo, rėdhibeo, rėdigo, rėdoleo, rėdundo;—rėjicio, rėpono, rėvertor. But rėd is used before do; as, reddo. The connecting vowel i is found in rėdirīrus; and in the poetical forms relligio, relliquiæ, and sometimes in reccido the d is assimilated. In later writers re is sometimes found before a vowel or h.
- 4. Sē and vē are prefixed without change; as, sēcēdo, sēcūrus; vēgrandis, vēcors.
- § 197. II. Prepositions in composition usually add their own signification to that of the word with which they are united; but sometimes they give to the compound a meaning different from that of its simples. The following are their most common significations:—
- 1. A, or ab, away, from, down; entirely; un-. With verbs it denotes removal, disappearance, absence; as, auf evo, abutor, absum. With adjectives it denotes absence, privation; as, amens, absonus.
- 2. Ad, to, toward; at, by. In composition with verbs ăd denotes (a) motion to, (not into), as, accēdo; (b) addition, as, ascrībo; (c) nearness, as, assideo; (d) assent, favor, as, annuo, arrīdeo; (e) repetition and hence intensity, as, accīdo; (f) at, in consequence of, as, arrīgo. It is sometimes augmentative, rarely inchoative.
 - 3. Ambi, around, about, on both sides.
 - 4. Circum, around, about, on all sides.
- 5. Com or con, together, entirely. In composition with verbs it denotes (a) union, as, concurro, consulo; (b) completeness, as, combūro, conficio; (c) with effort, as, conjicio, conclamo; (d) in harmony, as, consono, consentio; (e) on or over, like the English be-, as, collino, to be mear.

- 6. Contra, against, opposite.
- 7. $D^{\bar{c}}$, off, away, through, over, down; entirely; very, extremely. With verbs $d\bar{c}$ denotes (a) down; as, $d\bar{e}$ mitto; (b) removal; as, $d\bar{c}$ tondeo; (c) absence; as, $d\bar{c}$ sum, $d\bar{c}$ hábeo; (d) prevention; as, $d\bar{c}$ hortor; (e) unfriendly feeling; as, $d\bar{c}$ spicio, $d\bar{c}$ rideo.—With adjectives $d\bar{c}$ denotes (a) down; as, $d\bar{c}$ clivis; (b) uithout; as, $d\bar{c}$ mens.
- 8. Dis, asunder, apart, in pieces, in two; dis-, un-; very greatly. With verbs dis denotes (a) division; as, divido, dilabor; (b) difference; as, discrepo, dissentio; (c) the reverse of the simple notion: as, displiceo, diffido; (d) intensity; as, dilando.—With adjectives dis denotes difference; as, discolor, discors.
- 9. E, or ex, out, forth, away, upward, without, -less, um-; utterly, completely, very. With verbs it denotes (a) out; as, exeo, eximo, ēlābōro; (b) removal of something; as, ēdormio; (c) publicity; as, ēdīco; (d) ascent; as, exsisto; (e) completeness; as, ēdisco, exūro; (f) with denominative verbs, change of character; as, expio, effèro (āre); (g) removal of what is expressed by the noun whence the verb is derived; as ēnodo; (h) the reversal of the fundamental idea; as, explico; (i) distance; as, exaudio.—With adjectives formed from substantives it denotes absence; as, exsomnis.
- 10. In, with verbs, signifies in, on, at; into, against; as, inhabito, induo, ingêmo, ineo, illido. With adjectives, un-, in-, in-, il-, ir-, not; as, ignôtus, inhospitālis, immortālis. Some of its compounds have contrary significations, according as they are participles or adjectives; as, intectus, part., covered, adj., uncovered.
 - 11. Inter, between, among, at intervals.
- 12. Ob, with verbs, signifies to, towards; as, obeo, ostendo; against; as, obluctor, obnuntio; at, before; as, obambulo, obversor; upon; as, occutco; over; as, obduco.
- 13. Per, with verbs, denotes, through, thoroughly, perfectly, quite; as, perduo, perficio, perdo: with adjectives, through, very; as, pernox, perlevis.
 - 14. Post, after, behind.
- 15. Præ in composition with verbs denotes (a) before in place; as, præmitto; (b) by or past; as, præfluo; (c) in command; as, præsum, præficio; (d) superiority; as, præstio; (e) before in time; as, prædico, præcerpo; at the extremity; as, præfico.—With adjectives, (a) before in place or time; as, præceps, præscius; (b) very; as, præaltus, præciarus.
 - 16. Præter, past, by, beyond, besides.
- 17. Prō, before, forward, forth away, down; for; openly; as, prōlūdo, porrīgo, prōterreo, prōtēro, prōcūro, prōfiteor.
- 18. Rē, again, against, back, re-, un-, away; greatly; as, rēfloresco, rēpendo, rēfērio, rēfīgo, rēcondo.
 - 19. Sē, without, aside, apart; as, sēcūro, sēpōno, sēcēdo, sēcūrus.
- 20. Sūb, up, from below upwards, under. With verbs sūb also signifies (a) assīstance; as, subvenio; (b) succession; as, succīno; (c) in place of; as, sufficio; (d) near; as, subsum; (e) secretly, clandestinely; as, surrīpio, subdūco; (f) somewhat, a little; as, subrīdeo, sūbaccūso.—With adjectives it signifies, slightly, rather; as, sūbobscūrus, sūbabsurdus, sūbācīdus.
 - 21. Subter, beneath, under, from under, secretly, privately.
- 22. Super, above, over, left over, remaining, super-; as, supersédco, supersum, superstes, supervacaneus.
- 23. Trans, over, across, through; beyond; as, $tr\bar{a}do$, transeo, transfigo, transelpinus.
 - 24. Vē, not, without; very; as, vēgrandis, vēcors; vēpallīdus.

REMARK. In composition the preposition seems often to add nothing to the signification of the word with which it is compounded.

CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 198. A conjunction is a particle which connects words or propositions.

The most usual conjunctions are,

atque, and, as; than. āc si, as if. ădeo, so that, so. anne, } whether. annon, whether or not. antequam, before. ăt, ast, but. ăt ĕnim, but indeed. atqui, but. attamen, but yet. aut, either, or. aut...aut, either ... or. autem, but. cēterum, but, however ceu, as, like as, as if. cum or quum, since. doněc, as long as, until dum, provided, while, as long as, until. dummodo, if but, if only. ĕnimvēro, in very deed. ěnim, ětěnim, for. eo, therefore. equidem, indeed. ergo, therefore. ět, and.) both ... and; ět...ět ět...quě, j as well...as. ět...něque or něc, on the one hand, but not on the other. ětiam, also. ětiamsi, \ although, though. etsī, iccirco, Ideo. therefore. igitur, Itaque, licet, though, although. modo, provided. nam, namque, for.

nē, lest, that not. -ně, whether. něque or něc, neither, nor. něque...něque, neither, něc...něc, něque...něc, ...nor. něc...něque, necně, or not. něquě, neither, nor. něquě or něc...ět, něquě or něc...quě,) on the one hand, but on the neve or neu, nor, and not. neve...neve, | neither ... neu...neu, nornī, nīsī, unless. num, whether. præut, in comparison with. prout, according as, just as, as. proinde, hence, therefore. propterea, therefore, for that reason. postquam, after, since. priusquam, before. quam, as, than. quamvis, although. quando, quandoquidem, whereas, since. quamquam, although. quāpropter, quārē, wherefore. quamobrem, quōcircā, quantumvis, although, quamlibet, however. quamlibet, \ \ hower quasi, as if, just as. -quě, and. -quě...ět,) both...and; -quĕ...-quĕ, ∫ as well...as. quià, because.

quò, in order that. quoad, as long as, until. quod, because, but. quodsī, but if. quominus, that not. quoniam, since, because. quoque, also. quum or cum, when, since. because. quum...tum, both ... and. sěd, but. sīcŭt, so as, just as, as. sīcŭtī, sī, if. sī modo, if only. simŭl, as 500% sĭmŭlāc (-atquĕ) 🕽 sin, but if, if however. sīvě or seu, or if. sīvě...sīvě, | whether ... or. seu...seu, siquidem, if indeed, since. tămen, however, still. tămetsī, although. tamquam, as if. tum...tum, both ... and. undě, whence. ŭt, | that, as that, so that, ŭtī, | to the end that. ŭt sī, as if. utrum, whether. -vě, either, or. věl...věl, either...or. vělůt, | even as, just as, vělůtí, | like as. vēro, truly, but indeed. vērum, būt. vēruntăměn, yet, notwithstanding. vērum-čnim vēro, but indeed.

Conjunctions, according to their different uses, are divided into two general classes,—coördinate and subordinate.

quin, but that, that not.

quippě, because.

 ✓ I. Coördinate conjunctions, are such as join coördinate or similar constructions; as,

Luna et stellæ fulgēbant, The moon and the stars were shining. Concidunt venti, fugiuntque nubes, The winds subside, and the clouds disperse. Difficile cutu est, sed conabor tamen, It is difficult to accomplish, but still I will try.

Coordinate conjunctions include the following subdivisions, viz. copulative disjunctive, adversative, illative, and most of the causal conjunctions.

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II. Subordinate conjunctions are such as join dissimilar constructions; as,

Edo, ut vivam, I eat that I may live. Pyrrhus rex in itinëre incidit in canem, qui interfecti hominis corpus custodiëbat. Mergi pullos in aquam jussit, ut bibërent, quoniam esse nollent.

Subordinate conjunctions include all those connectives which unite subordinate or dependent clauses. These are the concessive, illative, final, conditional, interrogative, and temporal conjunctions, and the causals quod, quam, quoniam, etc. To these may be added also the relatives whether pronouns, adjectives, or adverbs.

The following paragraphs contain a specification of the several conjunctions comprised in each of the preceding subdivisions, and remarks respecting their particular import and use as connectives:

1. COPULATIVE conjunctions connect things that are to be considered jointly; as, δt , δc , $a t q u \delta$, the enclitic $q u \delta$, which, combined with the negation belonging to the verb, becomes $n \delta q u \delta o$ $n \delta c$, and, the negation being doubled, $n \delta c$ $n \delta n$ or $n \delta q u \delta$ $n \delta n$, it becomes again affirmative and equivalent to δt . To these are to be added $\delta t i a m$ and $q u \delta q u \delta$, with the adverbials $\delta t \delta c m$ and $\delta t \delta c \delta c$ δc δ

REMARK. (a.) Et and que differ in this, et connects things which are conceived as different, and que adds what belongs to, or naturally flows from them. Et, therefore, is copulative and que adjunctive. Hence, in an enumeration of words, que frequently connects the last of the series, and by its means the preceding idea is extended without the addition of any thing which is generically different. In connecting propositions que denotes a consequence, and is equiv-

alent to 'and therefore.'

(b.) Ac never stands before vowels, atque chiefly before vowels, but also before consonants.—Atque, being formed of ad and que, properly signifies 'and also,' 'and in addition,' thus putting things on an equality, but giving emphasis to the latter. In the beginning of a proposition, which is explanatory of that which precedes, atque or āc introduces a thing with great weight, and may be rendered 'now'; and in answers; as, Cognostine hos versus? Ac memoriter, it is rendered 'yes, and that.' Ac being an abridged form of atque loses somewhat of its power in connecting single words, and its use alternates with that of it; it is preferred in subdivisions, whereas the main propositions are connected by êt.

(c.) Neque, compounded of the ancient $n\bar{e}$ for $n\bar{o}n$ and $qu\bar{e}$, is used for $\bar{e}t$ $n\bar{o}n$. Et $n\bar{o}n$ itself is used, when only one idea or one word of a proposition is to be negatived; as, patior et non moleste fero; and also when our 'and not' used for 'and not rather' to correct an improper supposition; as, Si quam Ru-brius injurium suo nomine ac non impulsa tuo fecisset. Cic. Et $n\bar{o}n$ is commonly found also in the second clause of a sentence when $\bar{e}t$ precedes, but $n\bar{e}qu\bar{e}$, also, is often used in this case. Ne $n\bar{o}n$ or $n\bar{e}qu\bar{e}$ $n\bar{o}n$, in classical prose, is not used like $\bar{e}t$ to connect nouns, but only to join propositions, and the two words are separated. In later writers, however, they are not separated and are

equivalent to et.

'(d) Etiam has a wider extent than quōquē, for it contains the idea of our even,' and it also adds a new circumstance, whereas quōquē denotes the addition of a thing of a similar kind. Hence ētiam is properly used to connect sentences, while quōquē refers to a single word. Etiam signifies 'and further,' quōquē, 'and so,' 'also.' Quōquē always follows the word to which it refers, ètiam in similar cases is usually placed before it, but when it connects propositions its place is arbitrary. Et, too, in classical prose, is sometimes used in the sense of 'also.' So often is non modo—sèd ēt, 'not only—but also,' or 'but even.'

(e.) Copulative conjunctions are often repeated in the sen : of 'both-and,' 'as well—as,' 'not only—but also' $Et-\tilde{e}t$ is of common occurrence; so in later writers, but rarely in Cicero, $\tilde{e}t$ — $qu\tilde{e}$; $qu\tilde{e}$ — $\tilde{e}t$ connect single words, but not in Cicero; $qu\dot{\epsilon}-qu\dot{\epsilon}$, occur for the most part only in poetry, or in connection with the relative.—Negative propositions are connected in English by 'neither—nor,' and in Latin by nequé—neque, nec—nec, nequé—nec, and rarely by nec—nequé. Propositions, one of which is negative and the other affirmative 'on the one hand—but not on the other,' or, 'not on the one hand—but on the other, are connected by et-neque or nec, neque or nec-et, and occasionally by něc or něquě-quě.

2. DISJUNCTIVE conjunctions connect things that are to be considered sepa-

rately; as, aut, vēl, the enclitic vē, and sīvē or seu.

REMARK. (a.) Aut and vel differ in this; aut indicates a difference of the object, vel, a difference of expression, i. e. aut is objective, vel, subjective. Vel is connected with the verb velle, and is generally repeated, vel—vel, choose this or choose this,' and the single vel is used by Cicero only to correct a preceding expression, and commonly combined with dicam, polius, or étiam.— Hence by ellipsis vel has acquired the signification of the adverb, 'even,' and so enhances the signification of the word modified by it; as, Quum Sophocles vel optime scripserit Electram, where bene is to be supplied before vel, and the latter is used for the purpose of correcting the preceding expression. Cf. § 127, 4. By means of its derivation from relle it has, also, the signification of 'for example 'or 'to take a case,' for which velut is more frequently used.—(b.) Ve, the apocopated rel, leaves the choice free between two or more things, and in

later but good prose vel is used in the same manner.

(c.) Sive commonly retains the meaning of si, and is then the same as vel si, but sometimes loses it, and is then equivalent to vel, denoting a difference of name; as, Vocabulum sive appellatio. Quint. The form seu is rarely used by Cicero except in the combination seu potius.—(d.) Aut and ce serve to continue the negation in negative sentences, where we use 'nor'; as, non—aut, where non-neque also may be used. They are used also in negative questions; as, Num leges nostras moresvé novil? Cic.; and after comparatives; as, Dudrina paulo aspérior, quam veritas aut natūra patiātur. Cic. It is only when both ideas are to be united into one that a copulative is used instead of aut and ré.— (e.) 'Either-or' is expressed in Latin by aut-aut, denoting an opposition between two things, one of which excludes the other, or by vel-vel, denoting that the opposition is immaterial in respect to the result, so that the one need not exclude the other; as, Vei imperatore vel milite me utimini. Sall .- Sivesire is the same as vel si-vel si, and retains the meaning of vel-vel. If nouns only are opposed to each other, an uncertainty is expressed as to how a thing is to be called; as, Cretum leges, quas sive Jupiter sive Minos sanxit; i. e. I do not know whether I am to say Jupiter or Minos.

3. Comparative conjunctions express a comparison. These are, ŭ t or ŭ t i, sīcut, vēlut, prout, prœut, the poetical ceu, quam, tamquam, (with and without si, quasi, ut si, ac si, with ac and atque, when they sig-

nifv 'as.

REMARK. Ac and atque signify 'as' or 'than' after adverbs and adjectives which denote similarity or dissimilarity; as, æque, juxta, par and parter, pērindē and proindē, pro eo, similis and similiter, dissimilis, tālis, totidem, alius and aliter, contrā, sēcus, contrārius.— Quam is rarely used after these words, except when a negative particle is joined with alius; as, Virtus nihil aliud est, quam, etc.; and et and que do not occur in this connection.—Ac is used for quam, after comparatives, in poetry and occasionally by late prose writers; as, Artius atque hedera. Hor. Insanius ac si. Id.

4. Concessive conjunctions express a concession, with the general signification 'although.' These are etsī, ētiamsī, tāmetsī, or tāmēnetsī, quamquam, quamvis, quantumvis, quamlibet, licet, ut in the sense of even it or although, and quum when it signifies 'although.'

REMARK. Tamen and other particles signifying 'yet,' 'still,' are the correlatives of the concessive conjunctions; as, Ut desint vires, tamen est laudanda

voluntas. Ovid. The adverb quidem becomes a concessive conjunc on, when it is used to connect propositions and is followed by sed .— Quanquam in absolute sentences, sometimes refers to something preceding, which it limits and partly nullifies; as, Quamquam quid loquor? Yet why do I speak?

5. CONDITIONAL conjunctions express a condition, their fundamental signification being 'if.' These are $s\bar{\imath}$, $s\bar{\imath}n$, $n\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}$ or $n\bar{\imath}$, $s\bar{\imath}$ $m\bar{\sigma}d\bar{\sigma}$, $dumm\bar{\sigma}d\bar{\sigma}$, 'if only,' 'if but,' (for which dum and $m\bar{\sigma}d\bar{\sigma}$ are also used alone), dummodo nē, or simply modo nē or dumnē.

REMARK. (a.) In order to indicate the connection with a preceding proposition, the relative quied, which in such case loses its signification as a pronoun, and may be rendered, 'nay,' 'now,' 'and,' or 'then,' is frequently put before st and sometimes before nist and etst, so that quedst may be regarded as one word, signifying 'now if,' 'but if,' or 'if then.' It serves especially to introduce something assumed as true, from which further inferences may be drawn. It sometimes signifies 'although.' Quednist signifies 'if then—not,' and quednist signification as a proposed in the etsī, 'nay, even if.' Quốd is found also before quum, ŭbī, quiă, quoniam, ne, ŭtinam, and even before the relative pronoun.

(b.) Nī and nīsī limit a statement by introducing an exception, and thus differ from sī non, which introduces a negative case. It is often immaterial whether nist or si nom is used, but the difference is still essential. Si nom is used when single words are opposed to one another, and in this case si minus may be used instead of si non.—If after an affirmative proposition its negative opposite is added without a verb, our 'but if not' is commonly expressed in prose by sī minus or sīn minus or sīn aliter; as, Educ tecum etiam omnes tuos;

si minus, quam plurimos. Cic.; rarely by sī non.

6. Illative conjunctions express an inference or conclusion, with the gen. eral signification of 'therefore,' 'consequently.' These are ergo, igitar, itaque, eo, ideo, iccirco, proinde, propterea, and the relative conjunctions, quapropter, quare, quamobrem, quocirca, unde, where-

fore.

REMARK. Ergo and igitur denote a logical inference.—Itaque, 'and thus,' expresses the relation of cause in facts.—Ideo, icerro, and proptèreā, 'on this account,' express the agreement between intention and action.—Eō, 'on this account,' or 'for this purpose,' is more frequently an adverb of place.—Proindē, 'consequently,' implies an exhortation.—Lūdē, 'whence,' is properly an adverb of place.—Adeo, 'so that,' or simply 'so,' is also properly an adverb.

Hinc, 'hence,' and indē, 'thence,' continue to be adverbs.

7. CAUSAL conjunctions express a cause or reason, with the general signification of 'for' and 'because.' These are nam, namque, enim, etenim, quid, quod, quoniam, quippe, quum, quando, quandoquidem, siquidem; and the adverbs nimirum, nempe, scilicet, and videlicet.

Remark. (a.) Nam is used at the beginning of a proposition, enim, after the

first or second word. Nam introduces an objective reason, and enim merely a subjective one. There is the same difference between namque and etenim. Namque, however, though constantly standing at the beginning of a proposition in Cicero, Cæsar, and Nepos, is in later writers often put after the beginning. Enim in the sense of at enim or sed enim is sometimes, by comic writers, put at the beginning of a proposition.—Nam, enim, and etenim are often used in the sense of 'namely,' or 'to wit,' to introduce an explanation of something going before. Nimīrum, vidēlicēt, and scīlicēt likewise answer to our 'namely' or 'viz.' Nīmīrum, compounded of nī and mīrum, and signifying 'a wonder if not,' is used as a connective in the sense of 'undoubtedly' or 'surely,' and implies strong confidence in the truth of the proposition with which it is connected. - Videlicet and scilicet introduce an explanation, with this difference that videlicet generally indicates the true, and scilicet a wrong explanation. Sometimes, however, nam, enim, etenim, nimirum, and videlicet are used in an ironical sense, and scilicet introduces a true reason.—Nempe, 'surely,' often assumes a sarcastic meaning when another person's concession is taken for the purpose of refuting him.—(b.) Quia and quod indicate a definite and conclusive reason, quoniam, (i. e. quum jam), a motive. - Ideo, iccirco, propterea quod, and quia, are used without any essential difference, except that quià introduces a more strict and logical reason, whereas quoniam, signifying now as, introduces important circumstances.—Quando, quandoquidem, and siquidem approach nearer to quoniam than to quià, as they introduce only sub-Quandoquidem denotes 'a reason implied in a circumstance jective reasons. previously mentioned; siquidem, a reason implied in a concession. In siquidem the meaning of si is generally dropped, but it sometimes remains, and then si and quidem should be written as separate words; as, O fortunatam rempublican, si quidem hanc sentinam ejecerit. Cic.— Quippe, with the relative pronoun or with quum, introduces a subjective reason. When used elliptically without a verb it signifies 'forsooth' or 'indeed.' Sometimes it is followed by a sentence with enim, and in this way gradually acquires the signification of nam.

8. Final conjunctions express a purpose, object, or result, with the signification of 'in order that,' or 'in order that not.' These are ŭt or ŭtī, quō,

 $n\tilde{e}$ or $\tilde{u}t$ $n\tilde{e}$, $n\tilde{e}v\tilde{e}$ or neu, $qu\tilde{i}n$ and $qu\tilde{o}m\tilde{i}n\tilde{u}s$.

REMARK. U_i as a conjunction, indicates either a result or a purpose, 'so that,' and 'in order that.' When indicating a result, if a negative is added to it, it becomes $\tilde{u}t$ $n\tilde{o}n$; when indicating a purpose, if the negative is added, it, becomes $n\bar{e}$ or ut $n\bar{e}$, but ut non also is very rarely used for $n\bar{e}$.— $N\bar{e}v\bar{e}$ (i. e. $v\bar{e}l$ $n\bar{e}$) signifies either 'or in order that not,' or 'and in order that not.' Ut $n\bar{e}$ is a pleonasm, not differing perceptibly from $n\bar{e}$. It is used more frequently by Cicero than by other writers. Quố nẽ for nẽ occurs once in Horace.

9. Adversative conjunctions, express opposition, with the signification of 'but.' These are sed, autem, verum, vero, at (poetical ast), at enim, atqui, tamen, attamen, sedtamen, veruntamen, at vero,

(ĕnimvēro), vērumēnim, vērum, vēro, cētērum.

REMARK. (a.) Sed denotes a direct opposition, and interrupts the narrative or argument; autem marks a transition, and denotes at once a connection and an opposition. Porro, 'further,' denotes progression and transition but not opposition, except in later authors. - Vērum has a similar relation to vēro as sed to autem. Vērum, while it denotes opposition, contains also an explanation. Vēro connects things which are different, but denotes the point in favor of which the decision should be. It thus forms the transition to something more important, as in the phrase, Illud vero plane non est ferendum, i. e. that which I am about to mention. In affirmative answers vero is often added to the verb; as, Dasne? Do vēro. Hence, when the protasis supplies the place of a question, it is sometimes introduced into the apodosis merely to show that it contains an answer. Hence als vero alone signifies 'yes,' like sane, ita, and etiam.—Enimeëro, 'yes, truly,' 'in truth,' does not denote opposition. It sometimes, like vero, forms the transition to that which is most important. The compound verum enim-

(b.) At denotes that that which is opposed is equivalent to that which precedes. It frequently follows si, in the sense of 'yet,' or 'at least'; as, etsi non sapientissimus, at anucissimus. It is especially used to denote objections whether of the speaker himself or of others. At enim introduces a reason for the objection implied in at.—By atqui, 'but still,' 'but yet,' or 'nevertheless,' we admit what precedes, but oppose something else to it; as, Magnum narras, vix credi-Atqui sic habet. Hor. So, also, when that which is admitted, is made use of to prove the contrary. Finally, atqui is used in syllogisms, when a thing is assumed which had before been left undecided; in this case it does not denote a direct opposition of facts, and may be translated by 'now,' 'but,' 'but now.'—Ceterum, properly 'as for the rest,' is often used by later writers for sed.—Contra ea, in the sense of 'on the other hand,' is used as a conjunction. So adeo with a pronoun, when it may be translated 'just,' 'precisely,' 'even,'

'indeed,' or an intensive 'and.'

10. TEMPORAL conjunctions, express time. These are quum, quum primum, út, út prīmum, úbī, postquam, antēquam, and priusquam, quando, simūlāc or simūlaique, or simūl alone, i em, ušquē dum, donēc, quoad. REMARK. Ut and ubi, as particles of time, signify 'when.' Dum, dönec, and quoud signify either 'as long as,' or 'until.' Dum often precedes interea or interim, and both dum and donec are often preceded by the adverbs usque, usque eo or usque ddeo.

11. Interrogative conjunctions indicate a question. These are, num, utrum, $\tilde{\alpha}u$, and the enclitic $n\tilde{\epsilon}$. This, when attached to the three preceding particles, forming $numn\tilde{\epsilon}$, $utrumn\tilde{\epsilon}$, and $ann\tilde{\epsilon}$, does not affect their meaning. With $n\tilde{\epsilon}n$ it forms a special interrogative particle $nonn\tilde{\epsilon}$. To these add ϵc and $\tilde{\epsilon}n$, as they appear in ecquis, ecquando, and $\tilde{\epsilon}num-quan$, and numquid and ecquid, when used simply as interrogative particles.

KEMARK. (a.) The interrogative particles have no distinct meaning by themselves in direct questions, but only serve to give to a proposition the form of a question. In direct speech the interrogative particles are sometimes omitted, but in indirect questions they are indispensable, except in the case of a double question, where the first particle is sometimes omitted.—Ecquid and numquid, as interrogative particles, have the meaning of num, quid in this case having no meaning, but they must be carefully distinguished from the interrogative pronouns ecquid and numquid. En, or when followed by a q, ec is, like num, ne, and an, an interrogative particle, but is always prefixed to some other interrogative word.

(b.) In direct questions, num and its compounds numné, numnum, numquid, numquidnam, and the compounds with ên or ec suppose that the answer will be 'no'; as, Num putas me tam dementem fuisse? But ecquid is sometimes used in an affirmative sense. In general the negative sense of these particles does not appear in indirect questions.

(c.) Në properly denotes simply a question, but it is used sometimes affirmatively and sometimes negatively. When në is attached, not to the principal verb but to some other word, a negative sense is produced; as, mene istud potuisse fueëre putas? Do you believe that I would have done that? The answer expected is 'no.' When attached to the principal verb në often gives the affirmative meaning, and the answer expected is 'yes.'—Nonnë is the sign of an affirmative question; as, Cunis nonne lupo similis est?—Urum, in accordance with its derivation from ûter, which of two, is used only in double questions whether consisting of two or more. It is sometimes accompanied by në, which is usually separated from it by one or more words; as, Utrum, incacamne an prædicen? In later writers, however, utrumnë is united into one word. Në is rarely appended to interrogative adjectives, but examples of such use are sometimes found in poetry; as, uternë; quōnë malo; quantanë. In a few passages it is even attached to the relative pronoun.

(d.) An is not used as a sign of an indirect question before the silver ago; when so used it answers to 'whether.' It is used by Cicero exclusively in a second or opposite question, where we use 'or'; as, Si sitis, ninil interest utrum aqua sit, an vinum; nec refert, utrum sit aureum poculum, an vitreum, an manus concăva. Sen. In direct interrogations, when no interrogative clause precedes, ăn, anné, ân vêro are likewise used in the sense of 'or,' that is in such a manur that a preceding interrogation is supplied by the mind; as, Invitus te offendi, an putos me delectari leedendis hominibus? Here we may supply before an putos, etc. the sentence, 'Do you believe this?'—An, after a preceding question, is rendered by 'not,' and it then indicates that the answer cannot be doubtful; as, A rebus gerendis senectus abstrāhit. Quibus? An his, que geruntur juventūte ac viribus? Is it not from those kinds of business, which? etc. Here we may suppose aliisne? to be supplied before an his? Is it from other kinds of business, or from those? etc. Such questions may be introduced by nonnē, but without allusion to an opposite question, which is implied in ān.

(e.) To the rule that an, in indirect questions, is used exclusively to indicate a second or opposite question, there is one great exception, for it is employed in single indirect questions after such expressions as dubito, dubium est, in errlum est; delibino, hasito, and especially after nescio or hand soio, all of which denote uncertainty, but with an inclination to the affirmative; as, Si per se virtus sine

fortuna ponderanda sit dubito an hunc primum omnium ponam, If virtue is to be estimated without reference to its success, I am not certain whether I should not prefer this man to all others. Nep. It is not Latin to say dubito annon for dubito an.—Nescio an, or hand scio an are used quite in the sense of 'perhaps,' so that they are followed by the negatives nullus, nëmo, numquam, instead of ullus, quisquam and umquam. When the principal verb is omitted, an is often used in the sense of aut; as, Themistocles, quum et Simonides, an quis alius, artem memoriae pollicerëtur, etc. In such cases incertum est is understood, and in Tacitus is often supplied.—The conjunction si is sometimes used in indirect interrogations instead of num, like the Greek ei, and it is so used by Cicero after the verb expérior.

Note 1. The conjunctions -ne, -que, -ve, are not used alone, but are always

affixed to some other word, and are hence called enclitics.

NOTE 2. Some words here classed with conjunctions are also used as adverbs, and many classed as adverbs are likewise conjunctions; that is, they at the same time qualify verbs, etc., and connect propositions; as, Ceteris in rebus, quum venit calamitas, tum detrimentum accipitur, In other concerns, when mis-

fortune comes, then damage is received.

NOTE 3. Conjunctions, like adverbs, are variously compounded with other parts of speech, and with each other; as, atque, (i. e. adque), iccirco or ideirco, (i. e. id-circa), ideo, namque, etc. In some, compounded of an adverb and a conjunction, each of the simple words retains its meaning, and properly belongs to its own class; as, etiam (et jam) and now; itāque, and so; neque or nec, and not.

INTERJECTIONS.

§ 199. An interjection is a particle used in exclamation, and expressing some emotion of the mind.

The most usual interjections are,

āh! ah! alas! hem! oho! indeed! well! hah! alas! alack! ăha! aha! ah! haha! heu! oh! ah! alas! ăpăgě! away! begone! heus! ho! ho there! hark! halloa! hui! hah! ho! oh! ătăt! or atatte! oh! ah! alas! lo! au! or hau! oh! ah! io! ho! hurrah! huzzah! eccě! lo! see! behold! ō! o! oh! ah! ěhem! ha! what! oh! oh! o! ah! ŏhē! ho! halloa! ho there! ēheu! ah! alas! ěho! ehodum! ho! soho! ŏho! oho! aha! eiă! or heiă! ah! ah ha! indeed! oi! hoy! alas! ēn! lo! see! behold! păpæ! strange! wonderful! phui! foh! fugh! phy! pish! tush! pro! or proh! oh! ah! st! hist! whist! hush! eu! well done! bravo! eugë! well done! good! enax! | huzzah! hurrah! ha! hold! ho! ha! ha! he! ha! ha! hei! ah! wo! alas! tatæ! so! strange! væ! ah! alas! woe! vah! vaha! ah! alas! oh!

Remark 1. An interjection sometimes denotes several different emotions. Thus vah is used to express wonder, grief, joy, and anger.

Rem. 2. Other parts of speech may sometimes be regarded as interjections; as, pax! be still! So indignum, infundum, midum, miserum, miserabile, nēfas, when used as expressions of astonishment, grief, or horror; and macte and macti, as expressions of approbation. In like manner the adverbs ne, profecto, cito, bene, belle; the verbs quaso, precor, oro, obsecro, amābo, age, agite, cedo, sodes, (for si audes), sis, sultis, (for si vīs and si vultis), āyēsis, agedum, and āgite dum, and the interrogative quid? what? used as exclamations.

Rem. 3. With the interjections may also be classed the following invocations of the gods: hercüles, hercüle, hercle; or mehercüles, mehercüle, mehrecle; medius fidius, mecastor, ecastor, ecere, pol, edepol, equirine, per deum, per deum immortālem, per deos, per Jōvem, prō (or prōh) Jūpiter, prō dii immortāles, prō deum fidem, prō deum atque hominum fidem, prō deum immortālium (soil. fidem), eto.

SYNTAX.

- § 200. 1. Syntax treats of the construction of sentences.
- 2. A sentence is a thought expressed in words; as, Cănes latrant, The dogs bark.
 - 3. All sentences are either
 - (1.) DECLARATIVE; as, Venti spirant, The winds blow:-
 - (2.) INTERROGATIVE; as, Spirantne venti? Do the winds blow?—
- (3.) EXCLAMATORY; as, Quam vehementer spirant venti! How fiercely the winds blow!—or
 - (4.) IMPERATIVE; as, Venti, spīrāte, Blow, winds.
- 4. The mood of the verb in the first three classes of sentences is either the indicative or the subjunctive; in imperative sentences it is either the imperative or the subjunctive.
- 5. A sentence may consist either of one proposition or of two or more propositions connected together.

PROPOSITIONS.

- § 201. 1. A proposition consists of a subject and a predicate.
- 2. The subject of a proposition is that of which something is affirmed.
 - 3. The predicate is that which is affirmed of the subject.

Thus, in the proposition, Equus currit, The horse runs, equus is the subject and currit is the predicate.

Note. The word affirm, as here used, includes all the various significations of the verb, as expressed in the several moods.

- 4. Propositions are either principal or subordinate.
- 5. A principal proposition is one which makes complete sense by itself; as,

Phōcion fuit perpětuo pauper, quum ditissimus esse posset, Phocion was always poor, though he might have been very rich.

6. A subordinate proposition is one which, by means of a subordinate conjunction, is made to depend upon or limit some part of another proposition; as,

Phōcion fuit perpétuo pauper, quum ditissimus esse posset, Phocion was always poor, though he might have been very rich.

- 7. Subordinate propositions are used either as substantives, adjectives, or adverbs, and are accordingly called substantive, adjective or adverbial propositions or clauses.
- 8. Substantive clauses are connected with the propositions on which they depend by means of the final conjunctions ut, ne, quo, quin, etc., sometimes by quod, and, in clauses containing an indirect question, by interrogative pronouns, adjectives, adverbs and conjunctions. See §§ 262 and 265.

REMARK. A dependent substantive clause often takes the form of the accusative with the infinitive, and in that case has no connective; as, Gaudeo te valere.

- 9. Adjective clauses are connected by means of relatives, both pronouns and pronominal adjectives; as, qui, qualis, quantus, etc. Adverbial clauses are connected either by relative adverbs of place and time, (§ 191, R. 1, (b.), or by temporal, conditional, concessive, comparative, and sometimes by causal conjunctions.
- 10. A sentence consisting of one proposition is called a simple sentence; as,

Cădunt fŏlia, The leaves fall. Semirămis Babylonem condidit.

11. A sentence consisting of a principal and one or more subordinate propositions is called a *complex* sentence; as,

Qui fit, ut nēmo contentus vīvat? How happens it, that no one lives content? Quis ego sim, me rogitas, You ask me, who I am.

12. A sentence consisting of two or more principal propositions, either alone or in connection with one or more subordinate propositions, is called a *compound* sentence; as,

Spīrant venti et cădunt fŏlia, The winds blow, and the leaves fall.

13. The propositions composing a complex or a compound sentence are called its *members* or *clauses*; the principal proposition is called the *leading clause*, its subject, the *leading subject*, and its verb, the *leading verb*.

SUBJECT.

- § 202. 1. The subject also is either simple, complex, or compound.
- 2. The simple subject, which is also called the *grammatical* subject, is either a noun or some word standing for a noun; as,

Aves rölant, Birds fly. Tu lėgis, Thou readest. A est vöcālis, A is a vowel. Mentīri est turpe, To lie is base.

3. The complex subject, called also the *logical* subject, consists of the simple subject with its modifications; as,

Conscientia bene actæ vitæ est jūcundissima, The consciousness of a well spent life is very pleasant. Here conscientia is the grammatical, and conscientia bene actæ vitæ the complex, subject.

SYNTAX .- SUBJECT.

4. The compound subject consists of two or more simple or complex subjects to which a single predicate belongs; as,

Lūna et stellæ fulgēbant, The moon and stars were shining. Grammatice ac mūsīcæ junctæ fuērunt, Grammar and music were united. Semper honos nomenque tuum laudesque mānēbunt.

REMARK. Words are said to modify or limit other words, when hey serve to explain, describe, define, enlarge, restrict, or otherwise qualify their meaning.

5. Every sentence must contain a subject and a predicate, called its *principal* or *essential* parts: any sentence may also receive additions to these, called its *subordinate* parts.

Complex or Modified Subject.

- 6. The complex subject is formed by adding other words to the simple subject. All additions to the subject, like the subject itself, are either simple, complex, or compound.
 - I. Simple additions. The subject may be modified by adding:—
 - 1. A single word:-
 - (1.) A noun in the same case; as,

Nos consules desumus, We consuls are remiss. Mūcius augur multa narrāvit, Mucius the augur related many things.

(2.) A noun or pronoun in an oblique case, modifying or limiting the subject; as,

Amor multitudinis commovetur, The love of the multitude is excited. Cura mei, Care for me. Viribus usus, Need of strength.

(3.) An adjective, adjective pronoun, or participle; as,

Fügit invida ætas, Envious time flies. Men māter est bēnigna. Dūcit agmina Penthēstlēa fūrens: Litēra scripta mānet.

- 2. A phrase consisting of a preposition and its case; as,
- Sopor in grāmine. Oppida sine præsidio. Receptio ad te.

3. A dependent adjective clause introduced by qui, quālis, quantus, etc.; as,

Lêve fit, quod bene fertur, onus, The burden, which is borne well, becomes light. Lîtêræ, quas scripsisti, acceptæ sunt. Ut, quālis (ille) habēri vellet, tālis esset. Tanta est inter eos, quanta maxima esse potest, morum distantia.

- II. Complex additions. The subject may be modified:—
- 1. By a word to which other words are added.
- (1.) When the word to which other words are added is a noun or pronoun, it may be modified in any of the ways above mentioned.
 - (2.) When it is an adjective it may be modified:-
 - (a.) By an adverb either simple or modified; as, Erat exspectatio valde magna. Presidium non nimis firmum.
 - (b.) By a noun in an oblique case; as,

Major pietāte, Superior in piety. Contentionis căptdus, Fond of contention. Patri similis, Like his father. Nadus membra. Jăvenes patre digni.

(c.) By an infinitive, a gerund, or a supine; as,

Insuētus vinci, Not accustomed to be conquered. Vēnandi studiosus. Fond of hunting. Mīrābile dictu, Wonderful to tell.

(d.) By a phrase consisting of a preposition and its case; as, Rūdis in rēpublicā, Unskilled in civil affairs. Ab equitātu firmus. Cēler in pugnam. Prēnus ad fidem.

(e.) By a subordinate clause; as,

Mělior est certa pax, quam spērāta victūria, A certain peace is better than an expected victory. Dūbius sum, quid făciam.

(3.) When it is a participle, it may be modified like a verb. See § 203.

2. By a phrase consisting of a preposition and its case to which other words are added; as,

De victoria Cæsaris fāma perfertur, A report concerning Cæsar's victory is brought.

REMARK 1. As the case following the preposition is that of a noun or pronoun, it may be modified like the subject in any of the foregoing ways.

REM. 2. The preposition itself may be modified by an adverb, or by a noun or adjective in an oblique case; as,

Longe ultra, Far beyond. Multo ante noctem, Long before night. Sexennio post Veios captos, Six years after the capture of Veii.

3. By a subordinate clause, to whose subject or predicate other words are added.

REMARK. These additions may be of the same form as those added to the principal subject or predicate of the sentence.

III. Compound additions. The subject may be modified:—

1. By two or more nouns in the same case as the subject, connected by a coordinate conjunction; as,

Consules, Brutus et Collatinus, The consuls, Brutus and Collatinus.

2. By two or more oblique cases of a noun or pronoun connected coördinately; as,

Vītæque něcisque potestas. Pěrīculorum et laborum incitamentum.

3. By two or more adjectives, adjective pronouns, or participles, connected coordinately; as,

Grave bellum perdiuturnumque. Animi teneri atque molles.

4. By two or more adjective clauses connected coördinately; as, Et qui fēcēre, et qui facta ăliōrum scripsēre, multi laudantur. Sall.

5. By two or more of the preceding modifications connected $\mathbf{co\ddot{o}r}$ -dinately; as,

Genus hominum agreste, sine legibus, sine imperio, liberum, atque solutum.

Rem. 1. A modified grammatical subject, considered as one complex idea, may itself be modified; as,

Omnia tua consilia, All thy counsels. Here omnia modifies, not consilia, but the complex idea expressed by tua consilia. So Triginta naves longa. Præpotens finitimus rex.

REM. 2. An infinitive, with the words connected with it, may be the logical subject of a proposition; as,

Virtus est vitium fügere, To shun vice is a virtue.

REM. 3. A clause, or any member consisting of two or more clauses. may be the logical subject of a proposition; as,

E calo descendit' Nosce te ipsum.' Æquum est, ut hoc făcias.

REM. 4. The noun or pronoun which is the subject of a proposi-tion is put in the nominative, when the verb of the predicate is a finite verb; but when the verb is in the infinitive, the subject is put in the accusative.

Note 1. A verb in any mood, except the infinitive, is called a finite verb.

Note 2. In the following pages, when the term subject or predicate is used alone, the grammatical subject or predicate is intended.

PREDICATE.

- § 203. 1. The predicate, like the subject, is either simple, complex, or compound.
- 2. The simple predicate, which is also called the grammatical predicate, is either a single finite verb, or the copula sum with a noun, adjective, and rarely with an adverb; as,

Sol lucet, The sun shines. Multa ănimālia rēpunt, Many animals creep Brēvis est roluptas, Pleasure is brief Europa est pēninsula, Europe is a peninsula. Rectissime sunt apud te omnia.

3. The complex predicate, called also the logical predicate, consists of the simple predicate with its modifications; as,

Scipio fūdit Annibālis cōpias, Scipio routed the forces of Hannibal. Here fūdit is the grammatical, and fūdit Annibālis cōpias the logical predicate.—So, Rōmūlus Rōmānæ conditor urbis fuit.

4. The compound predicate consists of two or more simple or complex predicates belonging to the same subject; as,

Probitas laudātur et alget, Honesty is praised and neglected. Lēti vis răpuit, răpietque gentes. Lucius Catilina fuit magnā vi et apimi et corporis, sed ingenio malo pravoque.

Complex or Modified Prearcate.

- 5. The complex predicate is formed by adding other words to the simple predicate. All additions to the predicate, like the predicate itself, are either simple, complex, or compound.
 - I. Simple additions. The predicate may be modified by adding:—

A single word;—

(1.) A noun or adjective in the same case as the subject. occurs after certain neuter verbs and passive verbs of naming, calling, etc. (See § 210, R. 3.); as,

Servus fit lībertīnus. The slave becomes a freedman. Servius Tullius eex est dēclārātus. Aristides justus est appellātus. Incēdo regina.

(2.) A noun or pronoun in an oblique case; as,

Spe vīvimus, We live by hope Deus regit mundum, God rules the world.

(3.) An adverb either simple or modified; as,

Sæpe vēnit, He came often. Festina lente, Hasten slowly. Litëræ făcile discuntur. Chrëmes nimis graviter crăciat ădôlescentălum.

(4.) An infinitive mood; as,

Cupit discere, He desires to learn. Audeo dicere. Ver esse caperat.

- 2. A phrase consisting of a preposition and its case; as, Vēnit ad urbem, He came to the city.
 - 3. A dependent substantive or adverbial clause; as,

Véreor ne repréhendar, I fear that I shall be blamed. Zenonem, quum Athènis essen, audiébam fréquenter. Fác cogites.

- II. Complex additions. The predicate may be modified:—
- 1. By a word to which other words are added.

REMARK. These words are the same as in the corresponding cases of complex additions to the subject. See § 202, II.

- 2. By a phrase consisting of a preposition and its case, to which other words are added. See complex additions to the subject, § 202.
- 3. By a subordinate clause, to whose subject or predicate other words are added. See complex subject, § 202, II, 3.
- Rem. 2. Each of the words constituting a proposition may be modified by two or more additions not dependent on, nor connected with each other, and consisting either of single words, phrases, or dependent clauses; as, Agamemnonis belli gloria. Paternum odium erga Romanos. Mens sibi conscia recti. Men maxime interest, te välere. Ago tibi gratias. Meipsum inertiae condemno. Eos hoc moneo. In quo te accuso. Monet eum, ut suspiciones vitet.
- III. Compound additions. 1. The predicate may be modified by two or more words, phrases, or clauses, joined together by a coordinate conjunction. See Compound additions to the subject, § 202, III.
 - 2. The leading verb is usually either in the indicative or imperative mood, but sometimes in the subjunctive or the historical infinitive.
 - 3. The members of a compound sentence are connected by coördinate conjunctions; those of a complex sentence by some relative word, or by a subordinate conjunction.
 - 4. Instead of a dependent clause connected by a conjunction, a noun and participle, or two nouns, sometimes stand as an abridged proposition; as,

Bello confecto discessit, i. e. quum bellum confectum esset, discessit, The war being finished, or when the war was finished, he departed. Nil desperandum, Teucro duce.

- 5. An infinitive may be modified like the verb of a predicate.
- 6. Agreement is the correspondence of one word with another in gender, number, case, or person.
- 7. A word is said to govern another, when it requires it to be put in a certain case or mood.
- 8. A word is said to depend on another, when its case, gender number, mood, tense, or person, is determined by that word.
- 9. A word is said to *follow* another, when it depends upon it in construction, whatever may be its position in the sentence.

APPOSITION.

§ 204. A noun, annexed to another noun or to a pronoun, and denoting the same person or thing, is put in the same case;

Urbs Roma, The city Rome. Nos consules, We consuls. So Apud Herodotum, patrem historiæ, sunt innumerabiles fabulæ, In Herodotus, the father of history, etc. Cic. Lapides silices, flint stones. Liv. Ante me consulem, Before I was consul. Fons cui nomen Arethusa est. Cic.

REMARK 1. (a.) A noun, thus annexed to another, is said to be in apposition to it. It is generally added for the sake of explanation, identification, or description; sometimes it denotes character or purpose; as, Ejus fugæ carnitem me adjunzi, I added myself, as a companion of his flight; and sometimes the time, cause, reason, etc., of an action; as, Alexander puer, Alexander when a Căto senex scribere historiam instituit. Suet.

(b.) A noun in apposition, like an adjective used as an epithet, (§ 205, N. 2,) assumes the attribute denoted by it as belonging to the noun which it limits, while the predicate-nominative affirms it. Hence both nouns belong to the same part of the sentence, whether subject or predicate. In cases of apposition, there seems to be an ellipsis of the ancient participle ens, being; qui est,

who is; qui vocātur, who is called; or the like.

REM. 2. If the annexed noun has a form of the same gender as the other noun, it takes that form; as, Usus magister egregius. Plin. Philosophia magistra vitæ. Cic. If the annexed noun is of the common gender, the adjective qualifying it takes the gender of the preceding noun; as, Laurus fidissima custos.

REM. 3. The annexed noun sometimes differs from the other in gender or in number; as, Duo fulmina belli, Scipiadas, clādem Libyæ. Virg. Mitylėnæ, urbs nobilis. Cic. Tulliola, deliciæ nostræ. Id.;—and sometimes in both; as, Nate, nobilis. Cic. Tulliola, deliciæ nostræ. Id.;—and sometimes in bo meæ vīres. Virg. Nos, animæ vīles, inhumāta infletăque turba. Id.

REM. 4. The substantive pronoun is sometimes omitted before the word in apposition to it; as, Consul dixi, scil. ego; (I) the consul said. And instead of the substantive pronoun, a possessive adjective pronoun is sometimes used; as, Tua domus, tālis viri. Cic. See § 211, R. 3, (b.)

REM. 5. A noun may be in apposition to two or more nouns, and, in such case, is usually put in the plural; as, M. Antonius, C. Cassius, tribūni plēbis, M. Antonius, C. Cassius, tribūnis of the people. Cæs. Publius et Servius Sullæ, Servi filii. Sall. Tib. et Gaius Gracchi. Cic. Orationes L. et C. Aureliorum Orestarum. Id. But sometimes in the singular; as, Cn. et L. Domitius. Cic.

(1.) So when the nouns are connected by cum, the annexed noun taking the case of the former; as, Dicarchum vero cum Aristoxeno, doctos sane hom-Ines. omittāmus. Cic.

(2.) If the nouns are proper names of different genders, a masculine noun is annexed rather than a feminine, when both forms exist; as, Ad Ptolemæum Cleopatramque reges legāti missi sunt. Liv.

REM. 6. The annexed noun is sometimes in the genitive; as, Urbem Patavi locāvit, The city of Patavium. Virg. Plurimus Eridani amnis. Id. Arborem fīci numquam viderat. Cic. In oppido Antiochīæ. Id. Rupilî et Persî par. Hor.

REM. 7. The name of a town in the genitive occurs with an ablative in apposition to it; as, Corinthi Achaiæ urbe; At Corinth, a city of Achaia. Tac. Antiochia, celebri urbe. Cic. See § 221, Note, and § 254, Rem. 3.

REM. 8. (a.) A proper name, after nomen or cognomen, with a verb followed by a dative, is put in apposition either to nomen, etc., or to the dative, the latter by a species of attraction; as, Fons, cui nomen Arethusa est. Cic. Stirps virilis, cui Ascanium parentes dixere nomen. Liv. Nomen Arcturo est mihi, I have the name Arcturus. Plant. Cui nunc cognomen Iūlo additur. Virg. Cui Egerio inditum nomen. Liv.—(b.) The name may also be put in the genitive; as, Nomen Mercūrii est mihi. Plant. Q. Metellus, cui Macedonici nomen inditum erat. Vell. Cf. R. 6.—(c.) In Illa atas, cui fecimus Aurea nomen, Ov. Met. 15, 96, Aurea is used as an indeclinable noun, instead of Auream (scil. atātem); or Aurea, dat. (scil. atāte.)

REM. 9. A clause may supply the place of one of the nouns; as, Cogitet oratorem institui—rem arduam, Let him reflect that an orator is training—a difficult thing. Quint.—So also a neuter adjective used substantively; as, Triste liqus stabilis, The wolf, a sad thing to the folds. Virg. Vărium et mutabile semper femina. Id.

REM. 10. Sometimes the former noun denotes a whole, and its parts are expressed by nouns in apposition to it; as, Onerāria, pars maxima ad Æginārum,—aliæ adversus urbem ipsam delātæ sunt. The ships of burden were carried, the greatest part, to Ægimurus,—others opposite to the city itself. Liv. Pictōres et poētæ suum quisque ōpus a vulgo considerāri vult. Cic. In the construction of the ablative absolute, quisque remains in the nominative, though the word to which it is in apposition is in the ablative; as, Multis sibi quisque impērium petentibus. Sall. J. 18. So also, in Liv. 26, 29, quisque remains in the nominative although the word to which it is in apposition is in the accusative with the infinitive.

To this rule may be subjoined that which relates to the agreement of interrogative and responsive words.

REM. 11. The principal noun or pronoun in the answer to a question, must be in the same case as the corresponding interrogative word; as,

Quis hērus est tibi? Amphitruo, scil. est. Who is your master? Amphitruo (is.) Plaut. Quid quæris? Librum, scil. quæro. What are you looking for? A book. Quötā hōrā venisti? Sextā. At what hour did you come? At the sixth.

NOTE 1. Instead of the genitive of a substantive pronoun, the corresponding possessive pronoun is often used, agreeing with its noun; as, Cūjus est liber? Meus, (not Mei.) (See § 211, Rem. 3, (b.) So cūjum for genitive cūjus? Cūjum pēcus? an Melibai? Non; vērum Ægōnis. Virg.

Note 2. Sometimes the rules of syntax require the responsive to be in a different case from that of the interrogative; as, Quanti emisti? Viginti minis. Damnatusne ës furti? Imo ălio crimine. See §§ 214, R. 1, and 217, R. 2.

ADJECTIVES.

§ 205. Adjectives, adjective pronouns, and participles, agree with their nouns, in gender, number, and case; as,

Bonus vir, A good man. Benigna mäter, A kind mother. Triste bellum, A sad war. Spe amissä, Hope being lost. Bonos viros, Good men. Vānæ lēges, Useless laws. Minācia verba, Threatening words. Hæc res, This thing.

So, Mea mater est benigna. Hæc leges vanæ sunt.

Note 1. Adjectives, according to their meaning, (§ 104), are divided into two classes—qualifying and limiting—the former denoting some property or quality of a noun; as, a wise man, lead is heavy; the latter defining or restricting its meaning; as, this man, ten cities. To the former class belong such adjectives as denote a property or quality, including all participles and participial adjectives; to the latter, the adjective pronouns, pronominal adjectives, and numerals.

Note 2. An adjective, participle, or pronoun, may either be used as an epithet to modify a noun, or, with the copula sum, may constitute a predicate. In the former case the quality is assumed, in the latter it is asserted. In both cases, the rule for their agreement is, in general, the same. See § 210, R. 1.

NOTE 3. Any word or combination of words added to a noun to modify or limit its meaning is of the nature of an adjective.

Note 4. In the following remarks, the word adjective is to be considered as including participles, either alone or combined with the auxiliary sum, and also adjective pronouns, unless the contrary is intimated.

REMARK 1. An adjective agrees also with a substantive pronoun, taking its gender from that of the noun for which the pronoun stands; as, Ipse capellas eger āyo, scil. ēyo, Melibaus; Virg. Fortunāte puer, tu nunc eris alter ab illo. Id. Ul se totum ei trādēret. Nep. O me misērum (spoken by a man), misēram me (spoken by a woman). So salvi sūmus, salvæ sūmus, scil. nos, masculine or feminine.—In general propositions which include both sexes, the pronouns are considered masculine; as, Nos frūges consūmēre nāti. Hor.

Rem. 2. An adjective may belong to each of two or more nouns, and in such case is put in the plural. If the nouns are of the same gender, the adjective agrees with them in gender, as well as in number; as,

Lupus et agnus siti compulsi, A wolf and a lamb, constrained by thirst. Phæd. Sicilia Sardiniaque amissæ. Liv.

When the nouns are of different genders,

(1.) If they denote living things, the adjective is masculine rather than feminine; as,

Păter mihi et măter mortui sunt, My father and mother are dead. Ter. So also uterque in the singular. Procumbit uterque, scil. Deucălion et Pyrrha. Ovid.

(2.) If they denote things without life, the adjective is generally neuter; as,

His genus, œtas, eloquentia prope æquālia fuere, Their family, age, and eloquence, were nearly equal. Sall. Regna, imperia, nobilitātes, honores, divitiæ in cāsu sīta sunt. Cic. Huic bella, rapīnæ, discordia civīlis, grāta fuere. Sall. Anīma atque anīmus, quamvīs integra recens in corpus eunt. Lucr.

Note. When nouns denoting things without life are of the same gender (either masculine or feminine), but of different numbers, the adjective is sometimes neuter; as, Craso et vita et patrimōnii partes, et urbs Barce concessa sunt. Just.; sometimes also when both nouns are in the singular number; as, Plerosque velocitas et regio hostibus ignāra tutāta sunt. Sall. Nox atque præda remorāta sunt. Id.

(3.) If one of the nouns denotes an animate, and another an inalimate thing, the adjective is sometimes neuter, and sometimes takes the gender of that which has life; as,

Numidæ atque signa militāria obscurāti sunt, The Numidians and the military standards were concealed. Sall. Romāni rēgem regnumque Macedoniæ sua futūra sciunt. Liv. Jāne; făc æternos pācem pacisque ministros. Ovid.

EXC. to REM. 2. The adjective often agrees with the nearest noun, and is understood with the rest; as,

Sociis et rege recepto. Our companions and king having been recovered. Virg. Agri omnes et maria. Cic. Cognitum est salutem, liberos, famam, fortunas esse carissamas. Cic.

- NOTE. A noun in the singular, followed by an ablative with cum, has sometimes a plural adjective, the gender being the same as if the nouns were connected by et; as, Filiam cum filio accitos. Liv. Ilia cum Lauso de Namitore sati. Oyid. Filium Alexandri cum mattre in arcem custodiendos mittit. Just.
- REM. 3. (1.) An adjective qualifying a collective noun is often put in the plural, taking the gender of the individuals which the noun denotes; as,

Pars certare părăti, A part, prepared to contend. Virg. Pars per agros dilapsi. ... suam quisque spem exsequentes. Liv. Supplex turba erant sine judice tuti. Ovid. This construction always occurs when the collective noun is the subject of a plural verb. See § 209, R. 11.

- (2.) Sometimes, though rarely, an adjective in the singular takes the gender of the individuals; as, Pars arduus altis pulvērūlentus ēquis fūrit. Virg. Pars ūna dūcum—fractus morbo. Ovid.
- (3.) Sometimes other nouns, which only in a figurative sense denote human beings, have by symésis an adjective of a different gender from their own, referring to the words which they include; as, Lätium Cüpuáque agro mulcitit, Latium and Capua were deprived of their land. Liv. Cüpita conjūrātionis virgis cæsi ac sécūri percussi sunt. 1d. Auxīlia īrāti. Id. So after millia; as, Duo millia Týriōrum, crūcibus affixi. Curt. Cf. § 323, 3, (4.)
- REM. 4. Two adjectives in the singular are sometimes joined to a plural noun; as, Māria Tyrrhēnum atque Adriāticum, The Tuscan and Adriatic seas. Liv. Cun légioinbus sécundā et tertiā. Liv. Circa portas Collinam Esquilinamque. Id. But sometimes the noun is in the singular; as, Inter Esquilinam Collinamque portam. Id. Lēgio Martia et quarta. In comic writers, an adjective or participle in the singular is sometimes used with a plural pronoun; as, Nobis præsente. Plaut. Absente nobis. Ter.
- Rem. 5. A participle which should regularly agree with the subject of a proposition, when placed after the noun of the predicate, (a) sometimes takes the gender and number of the latter; as, Non ownis error stullitia est dicenda, Not every error is to be called folly. Cic. Gens universa Vénéti appellati. Liv. (b.) Sometimes also it agrees with a noun following the subject and in apposition to it; as, Corinhum, patres vestri, tötius Gracia lümen, exstinctum esse volučrunt. Cic.; or (c) with the noun of a subordinate sentence; as, Illõrum urbem ut propugnāculum oppositum esse barbāris. Nep.
- REM. 6. When the subject of an infinitive is omitted after a dative of the same signification, (§ 239, R. 1,) an adjective in the predicate, belonging to that subject, is sometimes put in the dative; as, Mihi negligenti esse non kenit, i. e. ne negligentie esse mihi non kenit. Cic. Da mihi justo sanctone videri. Hor. A noun is sometimes expressed with the adjective; as, Vobis necesse est fortibus esse viris. Liv. But the adjective often agrees with the omitted subject; as, Expédit bonas esse vöbis, seil. vos. Ter. Si cīvi Rōmāno licet esse Gaditānum. Cic.
- REM. 7. (1.) An adjective is often used alone, especially in the plural, the noun, with which it agrees, being understood; as,

Boni sunt rāri, scil. hōmines, Good (men) are rare. Cæsar suos mīsil, scil. mīlites, Cæsar scnt his (soldiers). Dextra, scil. mānus, The right (hand). Implentur pinguis fērīnæ, scil. carnis. Virg. Hiberna, scil. castra. Allum, scil. mare. Quartāna, scil. febrīs. Immordiles, scil. Dīi. Lucr. Amentium, scil. hōmininum. Ter. Illum indignanti similem, similemque minanti aspicēres, scil. hōmininum. Titi primas drīfēro, scil. partes. Cic. Kespice prætērītum, scil. tempus, which is often onitted, as in ex quo, ex eo, and ex illo, scil. tempus. Cognām ex meōrum omnium lītēris, scil. āmicōrum. Cic. So patrial adjectives; as, Missi ad Parthum Armēniumque lēgāt. scil. rēgem. In Tuscūlāno, scil. prædio.

Note 1. The noun to be supplied with masculine adjectives is commonly homines, but when they are posessives, it is oftener amīci, mīlites, cīves, or pro-

Note 2. The noun to be supplied is often contained in a preceding clause.

(2.) An adjective in the neuter gender, without a noun, is often used substantively, where, in English, the word thing or things is to be supplied; as,

Bönum, a good thing; mălum, a bad thing, or, an evil. So honestum, vērum, turpe; and in the plural, bona, mala, turpia, lévia, cælestia, etc. Labor omnia vincit, Labor overcomes all things. Virg.

Note 1. The Latins generally preferred adding res to an adjective, to using its neuter as a substantive. But sometimes, when res is used, an adjective or pronoun referring to it is put in the neuter instead of the feminine; as, Edrum rerum utrumque. Cic. Humanarum rerum fortuna pleraque regit. Sall. Illud te rogo, sumptui ne parcas ullă în re, quod ad văletudinem opus sit. Cic. Omnium rērum mors est extrēmum. Cic.

NOTE 2: Instead of thing or things, other words may sometimes be supplied, as the sense requires. With a preposition, neuter adjectives form adverbial phrases; as, A primo, At first. Plant. Per mutua, Mutually. Virg. In primis, In the first place. Ad hoc, or Ad hoc, Moreover, besides.

(3.) Adjectives used substantively often have other adjectives agreeing with them; as, Alia omnia, All other (things.) Plin. Iniquissumi mei, My greatest enemies. Fămiliāris meus. Cic. Iniquus noster. Id. Justa funebria. Liv. Jövis omnia plēna. scil. sunt. Virg.

REM. 8. (a.) Imperatives, infinitives, adverbs, clauses, and words considered merely as such, may be used substantively, and take a neuter adjective in the singular number; as, Suprēmum vale dizvi, He pronounced a last farewell. Ovid. Dulce et děcörum est pro patriā möri. Hor. Velle suum cuique est. Pers. Cras istud quando vēnit? Mart. J. Rědibo actūtum. A. Id actūtum diu est. Plant. Excepto quod non simul esses, cetera lectus. Hor. (b.) In the poets and later prose writers the adjective, as in Greek, is sometimes in the neuter plural; as, Ut Eneas pelago jactetur-nota tibi. Virg.

REM. 9. (a.) Adjectives and adjective pronouns, instead of agreeing with their nouns, are sometimes put in the neuter gender, with a partitive signification, and their nouns in the genitive; as, Multum temporis, for multum tempors; much time. Id rei, for ea res; that thing. So, plus ēlōquentiæ, the other form not being admissible with plus. (See § 110, (b.) Neuter adjectives are used in like manner in the plural; as, Vāṇa rērum, for vānæ res. Hor. Plērāque hāmānārum rērum. Sall. Cf. § 212, R. 3, N. 4. But in some such examples, the adjective seems to be used substantively, according to Rem. 7, (2); as, Acūta belli. Hor. Tellūris ŏperta. Virg. Sunma pectoris.

Note. The adjectives thus used partitively in the singular, for the most

part, signify quantity. See § 212, Rem. 3, Note 1.

REM. 10. A neuter adjective is sometimes used adverbially in the nominative or accusative, both singular and plural; as, Dulce ridentem Lälägen ämäbo, dulce loquentem. Hor. Magnum stridens. Virg. Arma horrendum conuere. Id. Multa deos věněrati sunt. Cic. Hodie aut summum cras. Id. See § 192, II. 4, (b.)

REM. 11. (a.) A noun is sometimes used as an adjective; as, Nēmo miles Rōmānus, No Roman soldier. Liv. Nēmo fére ădŏlescens. Cic. Vir nēmo bŏnus. Id. Cf. § 207, R. 31, (c.) Tibérim accòlis flăviis orbātum. Tac. Incôla turba. Ovid. The poets use in this manner the Greek patronymics in as and is; The poets use in this manner the Greek patronymics in as and is; as, Pelias hasta. Ovid. Laurus Parnāsis. Id. Ursa Libystis. Virg. Cf. also 129, 8.

(b.) An adverb is also sometimes used as an adjective; as, Neque čnim ignāri sumus ante mālorum; i.e. antiquorum or præteritorum. Virg. Nunc hominum mores Plaut.

REM. 12. (a.) An adjective or adjective pronoun, used partitively, stands alone, and commonly takes the gender of the genitive plural, which depends upon it; but when it is preceded by a noun of a different gender, to which it refers, it usually takes that gender, but sometimes that of the genitive; as, Elephanto belluarum nulla est prudentior, No beast is wiser than the elephant. Indus, qui est omnium flaminum maximus. Cic. Velocissimum omnium animalium est delphinus. Plin. See § 212, Rem. 2 .- (b.) So also with de, ex, in, apud, inter, etc., with the ablative or accusative instead of the partitive genitive. See § 212, R. 2, N. 4.

(c.) When a collective noun follows in the genitive singular, (§ 212, R. 2.) the adjective takes the gender of the individuals which compose it; as, Vir fortissimus nostræ civitātis, The bravest man of our state. Cic. Maximus stirpis.

REM. 13. (a.) When a possessive pronoun or adjective is used instead of the genifive of its primitive or of its corresponding noun (see § 211, R. 3, (b.) and (c.) and R. 4), an adjective agreeing with that genitive is sometimes joined with such possessive; as, Solius meum peccatum corrigi non potest, The fault of me alone cannot be corrected. Cic. Noster duorum eventus. Liv. Tuum ipsius studium. Cic. Pugna Romāna stabilis suo pondere incumbentium in hos-

(b.) Sometimes a noun in the genitive is expressed, in apposition to the substantive pronoun for which the possessive stands; as, Pectus tuum, hominis

simplicis. Cic.

REM. 14. An adjective, properly belonging to the genitive, is sometimes made to agree with the noun on which the genitive depends, and vice versa; as, Edificationis tuæ consilium for tuum, Your design of building. Cic. Accisantes violati hospitii fædus, for violatum. Liv. Ad majora initia rerum ducentibus fātis, for mājorum. Id. lis nominibus cīvitātum, quibus ex cīvitātibus, etc., for earum civitatum. Cæs.

REM. 15. (a.) An adjective agreeing with a noun is sometimes used, instead of an adverb qualifying a verb, especially in poetry; as, Ecce venit Telúmon properus, Lo, Telamon comes in haste. Ovid. Læti pācem āgitābāmus, for læte. Sall. Ænāas se mātūtīnus āgēbat, for māne. Virg. Nec lūpus grēgībus noctur-

nus öbambülat, i. e. by night. Id.

(b.) So nullus is used for non; as, Měmini tămetsi nullus moneas, Though you do not suggest it. Ter. Sextus ab armis nullus discēdit. Cic. Prior, primus, princeps, propior, proximus, solus, unus, ultimus, multus, totus, and some others, are used instead of their neuters, adverbially; as, Priori Remo augurium vēnisse fertur. Liv. Hispānia postrēma omnium provinciārum perdomita est. Scærola solos novem menses Asiæ præfuit, Only nine months. Cic. Unum hoc dico, This only I say. Id. This is sometimes done, for want of an adverb of appropriate meaning; as, Pronus cecidit. Ovid. Frequentes convene-

(c.) In such expressions, tu, in the nominative, sometimes takes an adjective in the vocative, and vice versā; as, Sic vēnias hodierne. Tibull. Salve, prīmus omnium pāreus patriæ appellāte. Plin.

REM. 16. (a.) A noun is often qualified by two or more adjectives; and sometimes the complex idea, formed by a noun with one or more adjectives, is itself qualified by other adjectives, which agree in gender, etc. with the noun.

- When several adjectives, each independently of the other, qualify a noun, if they precede it, they are almost always connected by one or more conjunctions; as, Multā et rāriā et copiosā orātione. Cic. If they follow it, the conjunction is sometimes expressed, and sometimes omitted; as, Vir altus et excellens. Cic. Actio, varia, vehemens, plena veritatis. Id.
- (c.) But when one of the adjectives qualifies the noun, and another the complex idea formed by the first with the noun, the conjunction is always omitted; as, Periculosissimum civile bellum, A most dangerous civil war. Cic. Malam domesticam disciplinam. Id. So with three or more adjectives; Externos multos claros viros nominarem. Cic. Cf. § 202, III., R. 1.

REM. 17. The first part, last part, middle part, etc., of any place or time are generally expressed in Latin by the adjectives prīmus, mědius, ultīmus, extrēmus, intīmus, infīmus, īmus, summus, suprēmus, rělīquus, and cētěra; as,

Mědia nox, The middle of the night. Summa arbor, The top of a tree. Suprēmos montes, The summits of the mountains. But these adjectives frequently occur without this signification; as, Ab extrēmo complexu, From the last embrace. Cic. Infimo loco nātus, Of the lowest rank. Id.

REM. 18. The participle of the compound tenses of verbs, used impersonally in the passive voice, is neuter; as, Ventum est. Cic. Itum est in viscera terræ. Ovid. Scribendum est mihi. See § 184, 2 and 3.

RELATIVES.

§ 206. Rem. 19. (a.) Relatives agree with their antece dents in gender, number, and person, but their case depends on the construction of the clause to which they belong; as,

Puer qui légit, The boy who reads. Ædificium quod exstruxit, The house which he built. Litëre quas dédi, The letter which I gave. Non sum qualis éram, I am not such as I was. Hor. So Deus cūjus mūnėre vivimus, cui nullus est similis, quem colimus, a quo facta sunt omnia, est veternus. Addictus Hermippo, et ab hoc ductus est. Aquilo, quantus frangit ilices. Hor.

Note 1. This rule includes all adjectives and adjective pronouns which relate to a noun in a preceding clause. Its more common application, however, is to the construction of the demonstrative pronouns and the relative qui.

Note 2. When a pronoun refers to the mere words of a sentence, it is said to be used logically. Qui and is are so used, and sometimes also hic and ille.

(b.) The relative may be considered as placed between two cases of the same noun, either expressed or understood, with the former of which it agrees in gender, number, and person, and with the latter in gender, number, and case.

(1.) Sometimes both nouns are expressed; as,

Erant omnino duo itinera, quibus itineribus domo exire possent, There were only two routes, by which routes they could leave home. Cas. Crūdēlissima bello, quāle bellum nulla umquam barbāria gessit. Cic. But it is most frequent with the word dies; as, Fore in armis certo die, qui dies fūtūrus ĕrat, etc. Cic. The repetition of the substantive is necessary, when, for any reason, it becomes doubtful to which of two or more preceding substantives the relative refers.

(2.) Usually the antecedent noun only is expressed; as,

Animum rēge, qui, nīsi pāret, impērat, Govern your passions, which rule nuless they obey. Hor. Tantæ multitūdinis, quantam cāpit urbs nostra, concursus est ad me factus. Cic. Quot cāpitum vīvunt, tötidem stūdiārum millia. Hor.

(3.) Sometimes the *latter* noun only is expressed, especially when the relative clause, as is frequently the case, precedes that of the antecedent; as,

Quibus de rēbus ad me scripsisti, cōram vidēbimus; scil. de rēbus, In regard to the things of which you wrote to me, we will consider when we meet. Cic. In quem primum ēgressi sunt lŏcum, Trōja vŏcātur; scil, lŏcus. Liv. Quantā vi expētunt, tantā dēfindunt. Quālesque vīsus ēram vīdisse vīros, ex ordine tāles aspīcio. Ovid.

- (a.) The place of the antecedent is sometimes supplied by a demonstrative pronoun; as, Ad quas res aptissīmi ērīmus, in iis potitssīmum ēlābīrābīmus. Cita But the demonstrative is often omitted when its case is the same as that of the relative, and not unfrequently, also, when the cases are different. When the relative clause precedes that of the antecedent, is is expressed only for the sake of emphasis. Hence we find such sentences as, Maximum ornāmentum āmīctive tollut, qui ex eā tollut vērēcundiam. Cic. Terra quod accēpit, nunquam sine ūsārā reddit. Id.—The demonstrative adjectives and adverbs are in like manner often omitted before their corresponding relatives; tālis before quālis, tantus before quantus, inde before unde, tōt before ūbi, etc.
- (b.) Sometimes the latter nonn only is expressed, even when the relative clause does not precede; as, Quis non malarum quas amor cūras habet, hac interobliviscitur? Hor.
- (4.) Sometimes neither noun is expressed; this happens especially when the antecedent is designedly left indefinite, or when it is a substantive pronoun; as,

Qui běne látuit, běne vixit, scil. hômo, (He) who has well escaped notice, has lived well. Ovid. Sunt quos curriculo puterem Olympicum collégisse júvat, scil. hômines, There are whom it delights, i. e. Some delight. Hor. Non hâbeo quod te accüsem, scil. id propter quod. Cic. Non sôlum sépiens vidéris, qui hinc absis, sed étiam beātus, scil. tu. Cic.

(5.) The relative is sometimes either entirely omitted; as, Urbs antiqua fuit; Tyrii tinuëre coloni, soil. quam or eam, There was an ancient city (which) Tyrian colonists possessed, Virg.; or, if once expressed, is afterwards omitted, even when, if supplied, its case would be different; as, Bocchus cum pēditibus, quos filius ējus adduzērat, nēque in priore pugnā adfuērant, Romānos invādunt, for et qui non in priore, etc. Sall.

(6.) (a.) The relative sometimes takes the case of the antecedent, instead of its own proper case; as, Quum scribas et aliquid agas evrum, quorum consuesti, for quæ. Cic. Raptim quibus quisque potérat élatis, exibant, for iis, quæ quisque

efferre poterat, elatis. Liv.

(b.) The antecedent likewise sometimes takes the case of the relative, the substantive either preceding or following the pronoun; as, Urbem quam stâtue restra est, for urbs. Virg. Eunüchum quem dēdisti nobis, quas turbas dēdit! for Eunüchus. Ter. Naucrātem quem convēnīre volui, in nāvi non ērat. Plaut. Atque dlii, quorum comædia prisca virorum est, for atque dlii viri, quorum est. Hor. Illi, scripta quibus comædia prisca viris est, for illi viri, quibus. Id. Quos pueros misēram, ēpistolum mihi attūlērunt. Cic.

These constructions are said to occur by attraction.

- (7.) (a.) An adjective, which properly belongs to the antecedent, is sometimes placed in the relative clause, and agrees with the relative; as, *Inter jócos*, quos inconditos *jáciunt*, for *jócos inconditos*, *quos*, etc. Amidst the rude jests which they utter. Liv. *Verbis*, quæ magna *völant*. Virg. *Cálore*, quem multum *hábet*, Čic.
- (b.) This is the common position of the adjective, when it is a numeral, a comparative, or a superlative; as, Nocte quam in terris ultimam ēgit, The has night which he spent upon earth. Escālāpius, qui prīmus vulnus obligāvisse dicitur. Cic. Consiliis pāre, quæ nunc pulcherrīma Nautes dat sēnior, Listen to the excellent advice, which, etc. Virg. Some instances occur in which an adjective belonging to the relative clause, is placed in that of the antecedent; as, Quam vēnissent ad vāda Volaterrāna, quæ nōmīnantur, Which are called Volaterran. Cic.
- (8.) When to the relative or demonstrative is joined a noun explanatory of its antecedent, but of a different gender or number, the relative or demonstrative usually agrees with that noun; as,

Santones non longe a Tolosātium finibus absunt, quæ cīvītas est in provinciā, The Santones are not far distant from the borders of the Tolosates, which state is in the province. Cæs. Ante comitia, quod tempus haud longe âbërat. Sall. Rōmæ fānum Diānæ pŏpūli Lātīni cum pŏpūlo Rōmāno fēcērumt: ea érat confessio cāput rērum Rōmam esse; i. e. that thing or that act. Liv. Si omnia faciendu sunt, que amici velint, non amicitiæ tales, sed conjūrationes patande sunt; i. e. such things or such connections. Cic. So, Ista quidem vis, Surely this is force. Ea ipsu causa belli fuit, for id ipsum. Hither also may be referred such explanatory sentences as, Qui meus amor in te est, Such is my love for you. Cic.

(9.) If the relative refers to one of two nouns, denoting the same A

object, but of different genders, it agrees with either; as,

Flümen est Arar quod in Rhödanum influit. Cæs. Ad flümen Oxum perventum est, qui turbidus semper est. Curt.

(10.) When, in a relative clause containing the verb sum or a verb of naming, esteeming, etc., a predicate-noun occurs of a different gender from the antecedent, the relative commonly agrees with the latter; but when the preceding noun is to be explained and distinguished from another, the relative agrees with the former; as,

Nature vultus quem dixere Chaos, The appearance of nature which they called chaos. Ovid. Genus hominum quod Helotes vocatur. Nep. Animal, quem vocāmus hominem, The animal whom we call man. Cic. Locus in carcere, quod Tullianum appellatur. Sall. Pecuniarum conquisitio; cos esse bells

cīvīlis nervos dictitans Muciānus. Tac.

(11.) The relative sometimes agrees with a noun, either equivalent in sense to the antecedent, or only implied in the preceding clause; as,

Abundantia eārum rērum, quæ mortāles prīma pătant, An abundance of those things, which mortals esteem most important. Sall. Cf. § 205, R. 7, (2.) N. 1. But sometimes when a neuter adjective used substantively has preceded, res with a relative follows; as, Permulta sunt, quæ dīci possunt, quā re intellīgātur. Cic. Fātāle monstrum, quæ, etc., scil. Cleopātra. Hor. Cf. § 323, 3, (4.)

(a.) A relative or demonstrative pronoun, referring to a collective noun, or to a noun which only in a figurative sense denotes a human being, sometimes takes the gender and number of the individuals which the noun implies; as,

Equitatum, quos. Sall. Genus, qui premuntur. Cic. Senatus-ii. Sall.

(b.) A pronoun in the plural often follows a noun in the singular, referring not only to the noun but to the class of persons or things to which it belongs; as, Dēmocrītum omittāmus; nīhil est enim āpud istos, quod, etc. i. e. with Democritus and his followers. Cic. Dionysius nēgāvit se jūre illo nigro quod cænæ cāput ērat, dēlectātum. Tum is, qui illa coxērat, etc. Id.

(12.) The antecedent is sometimes implied in a possessive pronoun; as, Omnes laudāre fortūnas meas, qui nātum tāli ingenio prædītum haberem; scil. mei, All were extolling my fortune, who, etc. Ter. Id mea minime refert, qui sum natu maximus. Id. Nostrum consilium laudandum est, qui noluërim, etc. Cic.; or in a possessive adjective; as, Servili tumultu, quos, etc. Cæs.

(13.) (a.) Sometimes the antecedent is a proposition; the relative then is commonly neuter; as, Postrēmo, quod difficillinum inter mortāles, glöriā invidiam vicisti, Finally, you have overcome envy with glory, which, among men, is most difficult. Sall. Equidem exspectabam jum tuas literas, idque cum multis.

(b.) In such instances, id is generally placed before the relative pronoun, referring to the idea in the antecedent clause; as, Sive, id quod constat, Platonis stădiosus audiendi fuit. Cic. Diem consumi volebant, id quod fecerunt. Id.

(c.) Sometimes is, referring to a clause, agrees with a noun following; as,

Idem velle atque idem nolle, ea demum firma amīcitia est. Sall.

- (14.) Quod, relating to a preceding statement, and serving the purpose of transition, is often placed at the beginning of a sentence after a period, where it may be translated by 'nay,' now,' or 'and.' It is thus used especially before si, etsi, and nsi; as, Quodsi illinc inanis profugisses, tamen ista tua fuga neffaria judicaretur, i. e. and even if you had fled without taking any thing with you, still, etc. Cic. Verr. 1, 14. Quodsi, 'if then,' is especially used in introducing something assumed as true, from which further inferences may be drawn. Sometimes also it is equivalent to 'although.' Quodnis' signifies 'finem—not'; as, Quodnisi ego meo adventu illius conatus allowantulum repressissem, tam mulos, etc. Quodetsi is 'nay, even if'; as, Quodetsi ingènis magnis prealiti quidam dicendi copiam sine ràtione conséquentur, ars timen est dux certior.—Quod is found also before quum, ibi, quia, quoniam, nê and útinam, where the conjunction alone would seem to be sufficient; as, Quod ütinam illum, cūjus impio factaore in has misèrins projectus sum, eadem hec simulantem videam. Sall. It is so used even before a relative in Cic. l'hil. 10, 4, fin.—Quod, in such examples, seems to be an accusative, with propter or ad understood.
- (15.) (a.) A relative is always plural, when referring to two or more nouns in the singular. If the nouns are of different genders, the gender of the relative is determined by Rem. 2, page 185; as, Ninus et Semiramis, qui Băbilona condiderant, Ninus and Semiramis, who had founded Babylon. Vell. Crebro funāli et tibicine, quæ sibi sumpsērat. Cic. Ex summā lætitia atque lasciviā, quæ diaturna quies pēpērērat. Sall. Nāces et captīvos quæ ad Chium capta ērant. Liv.

(b.) If the antecedents are of different persons, the relative follows the first person rather than the second or third, and the second rather than the third; as, Tu et pater, qui in contrio érâtis. Ego et tu, qui êrâmus. Cf. § 209, R. 12, (7.)

- (16.) The relative adjectives quot, quantus, qualis, are construed like the relative qui. They have generally, in the antecedent clause, the corresponding demonstrative words, tot, tantus, talis; but these are also often omitted. Frequently also the order of the clauses is reversed, so that the relative clause precedes the demonstrative.
- (17.) Qui, at the beginning of a sentence, is often translated like a demonstrative; as, Quæ quum ita sint, Since these (things) are so. Cic.
- (18.) The relative qui with sum and either a nominative or the ablative of quality, is used in explanatory clauses, instead of pro, 'in accordance with,' or 'according to'; thus, instead of Tū, pro tuā prūdentiā, quid optīmum factusit, ridēbis. Cic., we may say, quæ tua est prūdentia, or, quā prūdentiā ēs. So, Vēlis tantummödo, quæ tua virtus, expugnābis. Hor. Quā prūdentiā es, nihil te fūgiet. Cic.
- (19.) A relative clause is sometimes used for the purpose of denoting by circumlocution the person of the agent in a definite but not permanent condition; as, Ii, qui audiunt, or qui adsunt, i. e. the hearers, the persons present. So, also, a relative clause is used for the English expression 'above mentioned'; as, Ex libris quos dixi or quos ante (supra) laudāvi: and the English 'so called,' or 'what is called,' is expressed by quem, quam, quod vocant, or by qui, que, quod vocatur, dictur, etc.; as, Nec Hermas hos, quos vocant, imponi (Athēnis) licēbat. Cic. Vestra, quæ dictur, vīta, mors est. 16.
- (20.) Relative and demonstrative adverbs (see § 191, R. 1), are frequently used instead of relative and demonstrative pronouns with prepositions; as, Is, unde te a utisse dicis, i. e. a quo. Cic. Dictive apud illos sunt, aut ubi illi volunt, i. e. apuc quos. Sall. Huic ab adolescentia bella intestina, cædes, rāpīnæ, discordia civilis, grāta fuere, lbique jūventūtem exercuit, i. e. in iis, in these things. Sall.
- (21.) With quam qui and the superlative after tam the verb of the relative clause is sometimes omitted; as, Tam mihi grātum id ērit, quam quod grātissīmum. Cic. Tam ēnim sum āmīcus reipūblice, quam qui maxīme. Id. Tam sum mītis, quam qui lēnissīmus. Id. So also with ut qui without tam; as, Te semper sic colum et tuēbor, ut quem ditigentissīme. Id.

DEMONSTRATIVES.

§ 207. Rem. 20. The oblique cases of the personal pronoun of the third person (him, her, etc.) are commonly expressed in prose by the oblique cases of is, ea, id. Hic and ille, however, being more emphatic, take the place of is, ea, id, in lyric poetry, and occasionally in prose also, when particular emphasis is intended. The cases of ipse, ipsa, ipsam, also, are employed for this purpose, when the individuality of the person is to be distinctly expressed. In reflexive sentences, the oblique cases of the pronoun of the third person, are regularly supplied by sai, sibi, se; and it is only when the person of the leading subject is to be referred to with particular emphasis, that ipse is used instead of sai.

REM. 21. The demonstrative pronouns, is and ille, are sometimes used, especially with quidem, where a corresponding word in English is unnecessary as, Săpientiæ stădium vētus id quidem in nostris, sed tămen, etc. Cic. O höminem semper illum quiden mihi aptum, nunc vēro ētium suāvem. Id. Quem nēque fides, nēque jusjūrandum, nēque illum mīsēricordia, rēpressit, Whom neither fidelity, nor an oath, nor pity, has restrained. Ter. Is when used for the sake of emphasis seems sometimes in English to be superfluous; as, Māle se res hābet, quum, quod virtūte effici dēbet, id tentātur pēcāniā. Cic.

REM. 22. Sīc, ita, id, hoc, illūd, are often used redundantly as a preliminary announcement of a subsequent proposition, and are added to the verb on which this proposition depends; as, Sīc a mājōrībus suis accīpērant, tanta pōpūli Rōmāni esse bēnēficia, ut, etc. Cic. Te illud admöneo, ut quotīdie mēdītēre, rēsistendum esse īrācundias. Id. Hoc tībi persuādeas vēlim, me nihil ōnīsisse, I wish you to be persuaded of this—that I have omitted nothing. These pleonastic additions have generally no influence on the construction of propositions, but in a few instances they are followed by ut; as, De cūjus dīcendi cōpiā sīc accēptīmus, ut, etc. Cic. Ita ēnim dēf īnit, ut perturbātio sit, etc. Id. In the phrase hoc, illud, or id āgēre ut, the pronoun is established by custom and is necessary. See § 273, 1, (a.)

REM. 23. (a.) Hic 'this' refers to what is near to the speaker either in place or time, ille 'that' to what is more remote. Hence hic sometimes refers to the speaker himself, and hic hōmo is then the same as ēgo. On this account hic is sometimes called the demonstrative of the first person. When reference is made to two things previously mentioned, hic commonly refers to the latter, ille to the former, and the pronouns are arranged in the same order, as the objects to which they relate; as, Ignāvia corpus hēbētat, lābor firmāt; illa mātūram sēnectūtem, hic longam ādolescentiam reddīt, Sloth enervates the body, labor strengthens it; the former produces premature old age, the latter protracted youth. Cels.

(b.) But the order is often reversed, so that hie refers to the object first mentioned, and ille to the one mentioned last; as, Sic deus et virgo est; hie spe cèler, illa timòre. Ovid. So when alter...alter, 'the one...the other,' refer to two things mentioned before, the previous order is sometimes observed and sometimes reversed; but wherever there is ambiguity the order is reversed, so that the first alter refers to the last object. Sometimes hic...hic are used instead of hic...ille. So ille...ille sometimes denote 'the one...the other.'

(c.) Hic and ille have the same relation to time present and past as nunc and tunc, see § 277; and hence whatever, in speaking of present time, is expressed by hic and its derivative adverbs, hic, hinc, huc, and adhuc, is expressed by ille and its derivatives, when it is spoken of as belonging to past time.

REM. 24. Ille, when not in opposition to hic, is often used to denote that which is of general notoriety; as, Magno illi Alexandro similimus, Verylike Alexander the Great. Vell. Mēdēa illa, The celebrated Medea. Cic. Hence ille is sometimes added to other pronouns, to refer to something discussed before; as, Avēbant vīsére, quis ille tot per annos opes nostras sprēvisset. Tac. Ille is sometimes translated this; as, Unum illud dīco, This only I say. Cic. Ille

sometimes marks a change of persons, and may then be translated 'the other'; as, Vercingetőrix obviam Casári próficiscitur. Ille (scil. Casar) oppidum Noviodūnum oppugnāre instituerat. Cæs.

REM. 25. Iste properly refers to the person addressed, and for this reason is called the demonstrative of the second person.—Ille refers to the person spoken of, and is hence called the demonstrative of the third person. Thus iste liber is thy book, but ille liber is the book of which we are speaking. Hence, in letters, hic and its derivatives are used of the writer; iste and its derivatives of the person addressed; ille, etc., of some other person or thing. See § 191. R. 1, (e.) Iste from its frequent forensic use, and its application to the opponent often denotes contempt.

REM. 26. (a.) Is does not, like hic, ille, and iste, denote the place or order of the object to which it relates, but either refers without particular emphasis to something already mentioned or to something which is to be defined by the relative qui. Hic, is, or ille, may be used in this way before the relative, but only hic or is after it; as, Qui docet, is discit, or hic discit, but not ille discit, un-

less some individual is referred to.

(b.) Is before a relative or ut has sometimes the sense of tālis, such, denoting a class; as, Neque enim tu is es, qui quid sis nescias, Nor are you such a person, as not to know what you are. Cic.; sometimes it has the force of idem; as, vos

—ii. Cic. Manil. 12.

(c) If the noun to which is refers is to receive some additional predicate, we must use et is, atque is, isque, et is quidem, and with a negative nec is; as, Vincula vēro, et ea sempiterna, etc. Cic. Unā in domo, et ea quidem angusta, etc. Id. Adolescentes âliquot, nec ii tēnui loco orti, etc. Liv. Sed is is used when the additional predicate is opposed to the preceding; as, Severitātem in sēnectūte probo, sed eam, sicut ālia, modicam. Cic. The neuter et id, or idque, serves to introduce an addition to the preceding convention. serves to introduce an addition to the preceding proposition; as, Quanquan te, Marce fili, annum jam audientem Crătippum, idque Athenis, etc.

(d.) Is is not expressed when it would be in the same oblique case as the preceding noun to which it refers; as, Păter ămat liberos et tămen castigat.

Multos illustrat fortuna, dum vexat.

(e.) When in English 'that' or 'those' is used instead of the repetition of the preceding substantive, is is never used in Latin, and ille only in later authors. In such cases the noun is commonly not repeated in Latin, and no pronoun is used in its place; as, Philippus hostium manus sæpe vitavit, suorum eff ugère non văluit, those of his own subjects. Curt. Sometimes the substantive is repeated; as, Jūdicia cīvilātis cum jūdiciis principis certant. Vell. Sometimes a possessive adjective is used instead of the genitive depending on the omitted substantive; as, Térentii fābulas studiose lego, Plautīnis minus delector: and sometimes instead of the genitive or a possessive adjective the name of the person itself is put in the case which the verb governs; as, Si cum Lycurgo et Dracone et Solone nostras leges conferre volucritis. Cic.—In Cicero hic and ille, when the preceding substantive is understood, retain their demonstrative signification, and therefore do not merely supply the place of the omitted substantive; as, Nullam ěnim virtus ăliam mercēdem desiderat, præter hanc, i. e. the one of which I am speaking. Cic.

REM. 27. (a.) Ide m, as denoting a subject which stands in equal relations to two different predicates, often supplies the place of item or čtiam, 'also,' 'at the same time,' or of tămen, 'yet,' if the things are apparently inconsistent; as, Mūsici, qui črant quondam iidem počtæ, Musicians, who formerly were poets also. Cic. Empirates et Tigris magno aquarum divortio iter percurrunt; iidem junt pat pagitation production in a production in a

(and yet) paulātim in arctius coeunt.

(b.) Et ipse, on the other hand, denotes that the same predicate belongs to two subjects. It is rendered by 'too' or 'also'; as, Antoninus Commodus nihil păternum hăbuit, nisi quod contra Germanos feliciter et ipse pugnavit, for item or ipse quoque. Eutr. - So, also, nec ipse is used in the sense of 'neither'; as, Primis repulsis Maharbal cum mājore robore virorum missus nec ipse eruptionum cohortium sustinuit. Liv.

(c.) Idem is sometimes repeated in the sense of 'at once,' denoting the union of qualities which might be thought incompatible; as, Fuere quidam qui iidem ornāte iīdem versūte dicerent, There have been some who could speak at once

elegantly and artfully. Cic.
(d.) 'The same as' is variously expressed in Latin, by idem with qui, ac or (d.) 'The same as' is variously expressed in Lucius, at a same as' is variously expressed in Lucius, as a same as a same as a same as a same as same a same as he has always been. Cic. Vita est eadem ac fuit. Liv. exponimus iisdem fere verbis ut actum est. Cic. Eandem constituit potestatem quam si, etc. Cic. Eōdem loco res est, quăsi ea pecănia legăta non esset. Id. Hunc ego eōdem mecum patre genitum, etc. So also poetically with the dative; as, Eādem ăliis sopitu' quiete est. Lucr. Cf. § 222, R. 7.

IPSE, INTENSIVE OR ADJUNCTIVE.

REM. 28. (a.) Ip se, when used with a substantive pronoun taken reflexively, agrees either with such pronoun or with the subject of the proposition, accordagrees ethici with star in graef the star in graef in gra eum, a cūjus crūdēlitāte vosmet ipsi armis vindicastis. Liv.— Cn. Pompeium omnībus, Lentulum mihi ipsi antepono. Cic. Fac ut te ipsum custodias. Id. Deforme est de se ipsum prædicare. Id.—But Cicero often construes ipse as the subject, even where the emphasis belongs to the object; as, Quid est něgôtii continêré

eos, quibus præsis, si te ipse contineas?

(b.) When ipse is joined with a possessive pronoun used reflexively, it usually takes the case of the subject; as, Meam ipse legem negligo; not meam ipsius, according to § 211, R. 3, (a). So, Si ex scriptis cognosci ipsi suis potuissent. Cic. Eam fraudem vestrā ipsi virtūte vītastis. Liv. But the genitive is necessary when the possessive does not refer to the subject; as, Tuā ipsius causā hoc fēci. And it is sometimes found where the case of the subject should be used; as, Conjectūram de tuo ipsius studio ceperis, instead of ipse.—(c.) Ipse is sometimes used as reflexive without sui; as, Omnes boni, quantum in ipsis fuit, Casarem occide-

(d.) Ipse, with nouns denoting time or number, expresses exactness, and may be rendered, 'just,' 'precisely'; or 'very,' 'only'; as, Dyrrhachio sum profectus ipso illo die, quo lex est data de nobis, on the very day. Cic. Triginta dies érant ipsi, quum has dábam litéras, per quos nullas a vobis accepéram, just thirty days. Id. Et quisquam dábitábit—quam fácile império atque exercitu socios et vectīgālia conservātūrus sit, qui ipso nomine ac rūmore defenderit, by his

very name, or, by his name only. Id.

GENERAL RELATIVES.

REM. 29. Quicumque, quisquis, and the other general relatives (see § 139,5, R., are, in classical prose, always connected with a verb, and form the protasis. Quicumque is commonly used as an adjective, and quisquis as a substantive; but the neuter quodcumque is used as a substantive with a following genitive; as, Quodcumque militum; and, on the other hand, quisquis is rarely an adjective; as, Quisquis erit vitæ color. Hor.; and even the neuter quidquid is used in tive; as, Quesquis era tue coor. Inc., and puidquid soldmen humandi est. Virg. Quicumque seems sometimes even in Cicero equivalent to omnis or quivis; as, Que sănări pôtêrunt, quăcumque rătione sănăbo, What can be cured, I will cure by every possible means. Cic. Yet possum is rather to be supplied;—in whatever way I can.' But in later writers quicumque is frequently used in the absolute sense for quivis or quilibet; as, Ciceronen cuicunque eorum fortiter opposuërim. Quint. Qualiscumque and quantuscumque are likewise used in an absolute sense by ellipsis; as, Tu non concupisces quanticumque ad libertatem pervenire? At any price, be it ever so high. Sen. So quisquis is occasionally used, not as a relative, but as an indefinite pronoun.—Siquis often seems to stand as a relative, like the Greek its for sets, 'whoever'; but it always contains the idea of 'perhaps'; as, Nuda fere Alpium căcumina sunt, et si quid est pābuli, obruunt nīves. Liv.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

REM. 30. (a.) Aliquis and quispiam are particular and affirmative, corresponding to the English some one; as, Hereditas est pecunia, quæ morte alicujus ad quempiam pervenit jure, An inheritance is property which, at the death of some one, falls to some tother) one by law. Cic. Multi sine doctrina aliquid

omnium generum et artium consequuntur. Id.

(b.) Aliquis is more emphatic than the indefinite pronoun quis. (See § 137, (3.) Hence aliquis stands by itself, but quis is commonly connected with certain conjunctions or relative words, but these are sometimes separated from it by one or more words. Sometimes, however, quis is used without such conjunctions or relatives; as, Morbus aut egestas aut quid ejusmodi. Cic. quid de ăliquo. Id. Injuriam cui făcere. Id. So Dixerit quis, Some one might say. But even after those conjunctions which usually require quis, aliquis is used when employed antithetically and of course emphatically; as, Timebat Pompeius omnid, ne aliquid vos timeretis. Cic. In English the emphasis of aliquis is sometimes expressed by 'really'; as, Sensus moriendi, si aliquis esse potest, is ad exiquum tempus durat. Cic.— Quispiam, also, is sometimes used like quis after si, etc., and sometimes stands alone; as, Quæret fortasse quispiam.

REM. 31. (a.) Qui squam, 'any one,' and ullus, 'any,' are universal. Like um-

quam and usquam they are used in propositions which involve a universal negative, or which express an interrogation with a negative force, or a condition (usually with si or quasi); also, after comparatives, after the adverb vix, and the preposition sine; as. Neque ex castris Catilina quisquam omnium discesserat, Nor had any one departed from the camp of Catiline. Sall. Nec ullo casu potest contingère, ut ulla intermissio fiat officii. Cic. An quisquam potest sine perturbātione mentis īrasci? Id. Tetrior hic tyrannus Syrācūsānis fuit, quam quisquam supëriorum. Id. Vix quidquam spei est. Sen. But after the dependent negative particles ne, neve, and the negative interrogative particle num, quis and

not quisquam is used.

(b.) But quisquam and ullus after si are often used not in a negative sense, but instead of aliquis or quis, serving only to increase the indefiniteness which would be implied in the latter pronouns; as, Aut enim nemo, quod quidem magis credo, aut, si quisquam, ille sopiens fuit, if any man. Cic. Hence, ultimately, even without si, where the indefiniteness is to be made emphatic, quisquam, ullus, umquam and usquam were used; as, Quamdiu quisquam erit, qui te defendere audeat, vives. Cic. Bellum maxime omnium membrabile, que umquam gesta sunt, scripturus sum. Tac.

(c.) Ullus is properly an adjective, but quisquam is commonly used without a noun, except it is a word denoting a person; as, Cuiquam civi, To any citizen. Cujusquam orātoris eloquentiam. Hence quisquam corresponds to the substantive nemo and ullus to the adjective nullus. Nemo is often used with other substantives denoting male persons so as to become equivalent to the adjective nullus; as, nemo pictor, nemo adolescens, and even homo nemo. Cic. Quisquam is sometimes used in a similar manner: as, quisquam homo, quisquam cīvis. the other hand nullus and ullus are used as substantives instead of nemo and

quisquam, especially the genitive nullius and the ablative nullo.

REM. 32. (a.) Alius, like ullus, though properly an adjective, is sometimes used like a pronoun. It is often repeated, or joined with an adverb derived from it, in the same proposition, which may be translated by two separate propositions, commencing respectively with 'one...another'; as, Aliud aliis videtur optimum, One thing seems best to one, another to another. Cic. Aliis alliande periculum est, Danger threatens one from one source, another from another; or, Danger threatens different persons from different sources. Ter. Dionysium aliter cum aliis de nobis locutum audicham. Cic.-Alter is used in the same manner when only two persons are spoken of, but there are no adverbs derived from it; as, Alter in alterum causam conferunt, They accuse each other.

(b.) Alius, repeated in different propositions, is also translated 'one... another'; as, Aliud ăgitur, aliud simulătur, One thing is done, another pretended. Cic. Aliter loquitur, aliter scribit, like ăliter ac or atque, He speaks otherwise than

he writes. So Aliud loquitur, aliud scribit.

(c.) Uterque, 'each of two,' is always used by Cicero in the singular number, when only two individuals are spoken of. Its plural, utrique, is used only when each of two parties consists of several individuals; as, Mācēdônes—Tŷrū, utrique. But in other good prose writers the plural utrique is occasionally used in speaking of only two; as, Utrique Diŏnŷsii. Nep. Cf. § 209, R. 11, (4.)

REM. 33. (a.) Quīdam differs from ăliquis by implying that a person or thing, though indefinitely described, is definitely known; as, Quīdam de collēgis nostris, A certain one of our colleagues. Cic. Scis me quīdam tempore Mět-

apontum vēnisse tēcum. Id.

(b.) Quidam is sometimes used for some, as opposed to the whole, or to others; as, Excesserunt urbe quidam, alii mortem sibi consciverunt. Some departed from the city, others destroyed themselves. Liv. Hence it is used to soften an expression, where in English we say 'so to speak; etc.; as, Milvo est quoddam bellum nātūrāle cum corvo, A kind of natural warfare. Cic. Fuit ēnim illud quoddam cœcum tempus servitūtis. Id. Etēnim omnes artes quæ ad hūmānitātem pertient, hābent quoddam commūne vincūlum et quāsi cognātione quādam inter se continentur. Id.— Tamquam is used for the same purpose, and also ut ita dīcam.

REM. 34. Quīvis and quīlibet, 'any one,' and ūnusquisque, 'each,' are universal and absolute; as, Omnia sunt ejusmodi quīvis ut perspīcēre possit, All are of such a nature that any one can perceive. Cic. Hic öpud mājores nostros adlībēbātur pērītus, nunc quīlibet. Id. Nātūra ūnumquemque trāhit ad discendum. A negative joined with them denies only the universality which they imply; as, Non cuivis homini contingit adire Corinthum, i. e. not to every man without

distinction. Hor. Cuiquam would have made the negation universal.

REM. 35. (a.) Qu's que signifies each, every one, distributively or relatively, and generally stands without a noun; as, Quod cuique obligit, id quisque téneat, Let each one keep what has fallen to each. Cic. Hence it is used particularly after relative and interrogative pronouns and adverbs; as, Scipio pollicétur sibi magnae cûrae fôre, ut omnia civitâtibus, quae cūjusque fuissent, restituèrentur. Cic. Ul pradici posset, quid cuique éventūrum, et quo quisque fato nātus esset. Id. Cur fiut quidque guæris: recte omnino. Id. Quo quisque est sollertior, hoc docet laboriosius. Id. Ut quisque optime dicit, ita maxime dicendi difficultaem timet. Id. And hence the expression quotusquisque in the sense of 'how few among all.' It is also used distributively after numerals; as, Déctimus quisque sorte lectus, Every tenth man. Quinto quōque anno, In every fifth year. So also after suus; as, Sui cuique liberi cārissimi: suum cuique plācet. (Respecting the order of the words, cf. § 279, 14: and respecting quisque in the nominative in apposition to a noun or pronoun in the ablative absolute or in the accusative with the infinitive, see § 204, R. 10.)

(b.) Quisque with a superlative, either in the singular or the plural, denotes universality, and is generally equivalent to omnes with the positive; as, doctssimus quisque, Every learned man, i. e. all the learned; but often, also, in connection with the verb, it retains the idea of a reciprocal comparison, and is to be rendered by the superlative; as, In omni arte optimum quidque rārissimum, The best is the rarest. Cic. Altissima quæque flāmina minimo sōno lābuntur, The deepest rivers flow with the least sound. Curt. With primus, it denotes

the first possible; as, Primo quoque tempore, As soon as possible. Cic.

Possessives.

REM. 36. (a.) The possessive pronouns meus, tuus, suus, noster, and vester, are joined to nouns, to indicate an action or possession of the persons denoted by their primitives; as, Tutus amor meus est tibi, My love is secure to you. Ovid. Tuam vicem dölere sõleo. Cic.—These pronouns, as in English, when belonging to two substantives, are generally expressed but once, even when the substantives are of different genders; as, amor tuus ac jūdicium de me.

(b.) But these pronouns are sometimes used when the persons to which they refer are the objects of an action, feeling, etc.; as, Nam něque tuā nēgligentiā, něque ŏdio id fecit tuo, For he did it neither through neglect nor hatred of you.

Ter. See § 211, R. 3.

- (c.) The possessive pronouns, especially when used as reflexives, are often omitted; as, Quo revertar? in patriam? scil. meam, Whither shall I return? to (my) country? Ovid. Dextrā mānēra porrezit, scil. suā. Id. But they are expressed when emphasis or contrast is intended, where in English 'own' might be added to the pronoun; as, Ego non dicam, tumen id poterius cum animis vestris cogitare. Cic.
- (d.) When besides the person of the subject, that of a remote object also occurs in the proposition, the possessive pronoun will refer to the latter; as, Patris animum mihi reconciliasti, i. e. patris mei animum rather than tui.
- (e.) As reflexives, meus, etc., are translated my, thy, his, her, its, our, your their; or my own, thy own, his own, etc.

THE REFLEXIVES SUI AND SUUS.

§ 208. Rem. 37. (a.) Sui and suus properly refer to the subject of the proposition in which they stand; as,

Oppidāni făcinus in se ac suos fædum consciscunt, The citizens decide on a

foul crime against themselves and their friends. Liv.

(b.) They continue to be used in successive clauses, if the subject remains the same; as,

Ipse se quisque diligit, non ut ăliquam a se ipse mercedem exigat căritătis suæ,

sed quod per se sibi quisque carus est. Cic.

(1.) In dependent clauses, in which the subject does not remain the same, the reflexives are commonly used in references to the leading subject, when the thoughts, language, purposes, etc., of that subject are stated; as.

Ariovistus prædicāvit, non sēse Gallis, sed Gallos sībi bellum intūlisse, Ariovistus declared that he had not made war upon the Gauls, but the Gauls upon him. Cæs. Hönērum Cölophonia cīvem esse dīcunt suum, The Colophonians say that Homer is their citizen. Cic. Tyrannus pēlīvit ut se ad āmīcītiam tertium ascrībērent. Id. But sometimes, to avoid ambiguity, the cases of is or ille are used in such clauses in references to the leading subject; as, Helvētii sēse Allobroges ir coactūros existimābant, ut per suos fīnes eos ire pālērentur. Cæs. Here suos refers to the subject of the dependent clause, and eos to Helvētii, the subject of the leading clause. And sometimes, even in the same dependent clause, two reflexive pronouns are used, referring to different persons; as, Seythæ pēlēbant, ut rēgis sui filiam mālrīmānio sībi jungēret. Curt.

(2.) If, however, the leading subject, whose thoughts, etc., are expressed, is indefinite, the reflexives relate to the subject of a dependent clause; as,

Mēdēam prædicant (scil. hömines) in fugā frātris sui membra in iis löcis, quā se parens persēquērētur, dissīpāvisse. Cic. Ipsum rēgem trādunt opērātum his sacris se abdīdisse. Liv.

- (3.) (a.) When the leading verb is in the passive voice, the reflexive often refers not to its subject, but to that which would be its subject in the active voice; as,
- A Casare invitor ut sim sibi lēgātus, i. e. Casar me invitat, I am invited by Casar to become his lieutenant. Cic.
- (b.) So when the subject is a thing without life, the reflexive may relate to some other word in the sentence, which denotes a thing having life; as,

Cănum tam fida custodia quid significat ăliud, nisi se ad hominum commoditates esse generatos? Cic.

(4.) Instead of sui and suus, whether referring to a leading or a subordinate subject, ipse is sometimes used, to avoid ambiguity from the similarity of both numbers of sui, and also to mark more emphatically than suus, the person to whom it relates; as,

Jugurtha lēgātos mīsit, qui ipsi līberisque vītam pētērent, Jugurtha sent ambassadors to ask life for himself and his children. Sall. Ea mõlestissime ferre

homines debent, quæ ipsorum culpā contracta sunt.

(5.) In the plural number, with *inter*, se only is used, if the person or thing referred to is in the nominative or accusative; se or *ipse*, if in any other case; as,

Fratres inter se quum formā, tum mōrībus simīles, Brothers resembling each other both in person and character. Cic. Fĕras inter sēse conciliat nātūra. Cic. Incidunt āliqua a doctis ĕtiam inter ipsos mūtuo reprehensa. Quint.

(6.) (a.) When reference is made not to the subject of the proposition, but to some other person or thing, hic, is, or ille, is generally

used, except in the cases above specified; as,

Thémistocles servum ad Xerxem mīsit, ut ei nuntiāret, suis verbis, adversārios ējus in fūgā esse, Themistocles sent his servant to Xerxes, to inform him (Xerxes), in his (Themistocles') name, that his (Xerxes') enemies were upon the point of flight. Nep.

(i.) But when no ambiguity would arise, and especially when the verb is of the first or second person, sui and suus sometimes take the

place of the demonstrative pronouns; as,

Suam rem sibi salvam sistam, I will restore his property entire to him. Plaut.

(c.) On the contrary, the demonstratives are sometimes used for the reflexives; as,

Helvētii persuādent Raurācis, ut ūnā cum iis pröficiscantur, The Helvetii persuade the Rauraci to go with them. Cæs.—In some instances, a reflexive and a demonstrative are used in reference to the same person; as, Ita se gessit (soil. Līgārius) ut ei pācem esse expēdīret. Cic. C. Claudii ōrantis per sui frātris pārentisque ējus mānes. Liv.—Sometimes the reflexives refer to different subjects in the same sentence; as, Ariōvistus respondit, nēminem sēcum sine suā pernīcie contendisse (Cæs.); where se refers to Ariovistus, and suā to nēminem.

(7.) (a.) Suus often refers to a word in the predicate of a sentence,

and is then usually placed after it; as,

Hunc cīves sui ex urbe ējēcērunt, Him his fellow-citizens banished from the city. Cic. Titūrius quum procul Ambiorigem, suos cohortantem, conspexisset. Cæs. (b.) Suus, and not hūjus, is used when a noun is omitted; as,

Octāvius quem sui (scil. ămīci) Cæsărem sălūtābant, Octavius, whom his fol-

lowers saluted as Cæsar.

(c.) Suus is also commonly used when two nouns are coupled by cum but not when they are connected by a conjunction; as,

Ptůlémæus ămīcos Demetrii cum suis rēbus dīmīsit, Ptolemy dismissed the friends of Demetrius with their effects. Just.

(8.) Suus sometimes denotes fit, favorable; as,

Sunt et sua dona părenti, There are likewise for my father suitable presents. Virg. Ut liberator ille populi Români opperiretur tempora sua. Liv. Alphenus ütebătur populo săne suo. Cic. Sometimes it signifies peculiar; as, Molles sua tura Sâbzi, scil. mittunt, i. e. the frankincense for which their country was famous. Virg. Fessosque sopor suus occupat artus. Id.

NOMINATIVE.

SUBJECT-NOMINATIVE AND VERB.

\$ **209.** (a.) The noun or pronoun which is the subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative.

Note 1. (a.) A verb in any mood except the infinitive is called a finite verb. (b.) In historical writing the nominative is sometimes joined with the present infinitive instead of the imperfect indicative. Cf. R. 5.

(b.) A verb agrees with its subject-nominative, in number and person; as,

Ego légo, I read.
Tu scribis, Thou writest.
Eguus currit, The horse runs.

Nos lėgimus, We read. Vos scribitis, You write. Equi currunt, Horses run.

Note 2. The imperative singular is sometimes used in addressing several persons; as, Huc nātas adjīce septem, scil. vos, Thēbaides. Ovid. Met. 6, 182. So Adde dēfectionem Itālia, scil. vos, mīlites. Liv. 26, 41.

REMARK 1. (a.) The nominatives ĕgo, tu, nos, vos, are seldom expressed, the termination of the verb sufficiently marking the person; as.

Căpio, I desire; vīvis, thou livest; hăbēmus, we have. See § 147, 3.

(b.) But when emphasis or opposition is intended, the nominatives of the first and second persons are expressed; as, Ego rēges ējēci, vos tirannos introducitis, I banished kings, vou introduce tyrants. Auct. ad Her. Nos, nos, dīco aperte, consūles dēsūmus. Cic. Tu es patrēnus, tu pāter. Ter. In indignant questions and addresses tu is expressed; as, Tu in förum prōdīre, tu lūcem conspicēre, tu in hōrum conspectum vēnīre cōnāris? Auct. ad Her.

REM. 2. The nominative of the third person is often omitted:—

(1.) When it has been expressed in a preceding proposition:—

(a.) As nominative; as, Mosa profluit ex monte Vosego, et in Oceanum influit. Cass.; or (b) in an oblique case; as, Cursorem miserunt, ut id nuntiaret, scil. cursor. Nep.: or (c) in a possessive adjective; as, Et vereor quo se Jūnonia vertant Hospitia; haud tanto cessābit cardine rerum, scil. illa, i. e. Jūno. Virg En. I. 672.

(2.) When it is a general word for person or thing:-

Thus homines is often omitted before aiunt, dicunt, férunt, etc.; as, Ut aiunt. As they say. Cic. Maxime admirantur eum, qui pécunia non movétur. Id— So béne est, bene habet or béne agitur, It is well; as, Si vales, béne est, ego vateo. Cic. Quum mèlius est, grâtulor dis. Afran. Optume habet, Nothing can be better. Plaut. Bène habet: jacta sunt fundamenta défensionis. Cic. Bène agitur pro noxia. Plaut.

Note 3. This omission of the nominative is common in the clause preceding a relative; as, Qui Băvium non ôdit, âmet tua carmina, Mævi, scil. hômo, Let him who hates not Bavius, love your verses, Mævius. Virg. Vustâtur agri quod inter urbem ac Fidênas est, scil. id spătium. Liv. Sunt quos juvat...scil. hômênes, There are (those) whom it delights. Hor. Est qui nec vêtêris pôcula Massis spermit, scil. hôme. Hor. Here sunt quos and est qui are equivalent to quidam, âliquis, or âliqui. So, Est quod gaudeas, There is (reason) will you should rejoice. Cic. Nêque êrat cur fallêre vellent. Ovid. Est ubi id vâleat. Cic. Est, quum non est sâtus, etc. Auct. ad Her. In the latter cases the adverbs are equivalent to in quo, scil. Eco, tempôre.

REM. 3. (1.) The nominative is wanting before verbs denoting the state of the weather, or the operations of nature; as,

Fulgūrat, It lightens. Plin. Ningit, It snows. Virg. Lǔcescēbat, It was growing light. Liv. Jam advesperascit. Cic.

(2.) The nominative is also wanting before the third person singular of the passive of neuter verbs, and of active verbs used impersonally; as,

Făvētur tibi a me, Thou art favored by me. Ejus ōrātiōni vēhēmenter ab omntbus reclāmātum est. Cic. Proinde ut bene vērtlur, diu vērtlur. Plaut. Ad extrum ventum est. Sen. Actum est de impērio. See § 184, 2: and cf. § 229, R. 5, (b.)

Note 4. A nominative, however, is expressed before the passive of some neuter verbs, which, in the active voice, are followed by an accusative; as, Pugna pugnāta est. Cic. See § 232, (1.)

(3.) It is wanting also before the neuter of the future passive participle with est; as,

Si vis me flère dölendum est prīmum ipsi tibi, If you wish me to weep, you yourself must first grieve. Hor. Orandum est, ut sit mens sāna in corpòre sāno. Juv. Ad villam revertendum est. Cic.

(4.) The nominative is also wanting before the impersonal verbs miseret, panitet, padet, tadet, and piget; as,

Eos ineptiārum pænitet, They repent of their follies. Cic. Mīseret te āliārum, tui te nec mīseret nec pūdet. Plaut. Me cēvitātis mārum pīget twdetque. Sall.— In such examples, the sense will sometimes permit us to supply fortūna, conditio, mēmāria, etc. So in the expression, Vēnit in mentem, It came into mind; as, In mentem vēnit de spēcūlo, scil. cōgitātio, etc. Plaut.—An infinitive or a subjunctive clause sometimes forms the subject of these verbs; as, Te id nullo mūdo pūduit fūcre, To do that by no means shained you. Ter. Non pænitet me, quantum profecerim. Cic.

(5.) The subject of the verb is sometimes an infinitive or a neuter participle (either alone or with other words), one or more propositions, or an adverb. (Cf. § 202, R. 2 and 3: and § 274, R. 5, (b.) The verb is then in the third person singular; as,

Văcāre culpă magnum est solătium, To be free from fault is a great consolation. Năque est te fallere quidquam, To deceive you in any thing is not (possible.) Virg. Mentīri non est meum. Plaut. Te non istud audivisse mīrum est, That you have not heard that is wonderful. Cic. 'Summum jus, summa injūria,' factum est jam trītum sermone proverbium. Id. Ni dēgēnērātum in ăliis huic quoque dēcori offēcisset. Liv. (Cf. § 274, R. 5, (b.) Sin est ut vēlis mānēre illam apud te. Ter. Nec profuit Hydræ crescere per damnum, gēmīnasque rēsūmēre vīres. Ovid. Dic mihi, cras istud, Postūme, quando vēnit? Tell me, Postumus, when does that to-morrow come? Mart. Pārumne campis atque Neptūno sūper fūsum est Lātīni sanguinis? Hor.

(a.) This construction is especially common with impersonal verbs; as, Orative in the common of the common rected facers. Cit. The pedibus delected chandlers verba, Hor. Interest omnium rected facers. Cit. Casu actilit, ut, id quod Röme audierat primus nuntiaret. Id. Somet mes a neuter pront un is interposed between a proposition and its verb; as, Impane facers que libet, id est regem case. Sall.

Cf. § 206, (13,) (a.)

(6.) The nominative is also wanting before potest, compit or comptumest, incipit, destrit, debet, solet, and videtur, when followed by the infinitive of an impersonal verb; as,

Pigëre eum facti cæpit, It began to repent him (i. e. he segan to repent) of his conduct. Just. Sapientia est una, qua præceptrice, in tranquillitate vivi potest. Cic. Tædere solet avaros impendii. Quint.

REM. 4. The rerb is sometimes omitted; as,

Di meliāra piis, scil. dent or vētint. May the gods grant better things to the pious. Virg. Vērum hæc hactēnus, scil. dixīmus. Cic. Pertīneo is understood in such expressions as nīhil ad me, nihil ad rem; Quid hoc ad Epīcūrum? What does this concern Epicurus? Quorsus hæc? i. e. quorsus hæc pertīnent? What is that for?—Pārābo is to be supplied, in Quo mīhi hanc rem? Of what use is this to me? and, Unde mīhi āliquam rem? Whence am I to get any thing? as, Quo mīhi bībliothēcas? Sen. Unde mīhi lāpīdem? Hor. A tense of fācio is often to be supplied, as in Recte ille, mēlius hi; Bēne Chrīgsippus, qui dōcet. Cic. Nihil per vim unquam Clōdius, omnia per vim Mīlo. Id. Qua quum dīxisset, Cotta fīnem. Id. So, also in the phrases nihil āliud quam; quid āliud quam; nihil praterquam, which signify 'merely'; as, Tisaphernes nihil āliud quam bellum compārāvit. Nep. This verb is in like manner omitted with nīhil amplius quam; nīhil mīnus quam, and in the phrase si nīhil āliud.—Aīt or inquīt is sometīmes omitted in introducing the direct words of another, and more frequently in relating a connected conversation; as, Tum ille; hīc ēgo; huic ēgo. Dīcit is sometīmes omitted in quoting a person's words; as, Scīte Chrīgsippus: ut glādīt causā rāgīnam, sīc preter mundum cētēra omnia ālībīrum causā esse gēnērāta. Cic.—After per in adjurations ōro, rōgo or prēcor is often omitted; as, Per ēgo vos deos patrios, vindicāte ab ultīmo dedēcore nomen gentemque Persārum; i. e. per deos patrios vos ōro, vindicāte. Curt. This omission is most common with the copula sum; as, Nam Pōlyādīrus ēgo, scil. sum, For I am Polydorus. Virg. And so est and sunt are often omitted with predicate adjectives, and especially in proverbial phrases; as, Quot hōmines tot sententiæ. Ter. Omnia præclāra rāra, scil. sunt. Cic. So also est and sunt are often omitted in the compound tenses of the passive voice; as, Agro mulcātī, scil. sunt. Liv. Cf. § 270, R. 3.

Note 5. In Latin, as in English, a verb is often joined to one of two connected nominatives and understood with the other, and that even when the persons are different; as, māgis ēgo te āmo, quam tu me, scil āmas. After a negative verb a corresponding positive verb is sometimes to be supplied; as, after nēgo, dīco, after vēto, jūbeo, and in this case et takes the signification of

sed. Cf. § 323, 1, (2.), (b.)

Note 6. Sometimes, when the verb of an appended proposition is omitted, its subject is attracted to the case of a noun in the leading proposition with which is joined a participle of the omitted verb; as, Hannibal Minūcium, māgistrum ēquitum, pāri ac dictātorem dolo productum in pralium, fūgāvit, i. e. pāri ac dictātor dolo productus fuerat. Nep. Hann. 5. So Liv. 34, 32.

REM. 5. In the historic style the nominative is sometimes found with the present infinitive; as,

Intérim quotidie Casar Æduos frumentum flagitare, Meanwhile Cæsar was daily demanding corn of the Ædui. Cæs. Nos păridi trepidare mētu. Virg. Id horrendum ferri. Id.

NOTE 7. The infinitive in this construction is called the *historical infinitive*, and is used instead of the imperfect indicative to express in a lively manner a continued or repeated action or condition.

REM. 6. The relative qui may refer to an antecedent either of the first, second, or third person; and its verb takes the person of the antecedent; as,

Egc qui lego, I who read. Tu qui scribis, Thou who writest. Equus qui currit, The horse which runs. Vos qui quæritis, You who ask.

Rem. 7. (a.). Verbs in the first person plural, and the second person singular, are sometimes used to express general truths; as,

Quam multa făcimus causă ămicorum! How many things we do (i. e. men do) for the sake of friends! Cic. Si vis me flere, dölendum est primum ipsi tibi, Whoever wishes me, etc. Hor.

(b.) Nos is often used for ego, and noster for meus; and even when the pronoun is not expressed, the verb is frequently put in the first person plural instead of the first person singular. The genitive nostri is used for mei, but nostrim always expresses a real plurality.

REM. 8. The accusative is sometimes used for the nominative by attraction. See § 206, (6.) (b.)

REM. 9. The verb sometimes agrees with the predicate-nominative, especially if it precedes the verb; as, Amantium trae ămoris integratio est, The quarrels of lovers are a renewal of love. Ter. Löca, que proxima Carthäginem, Nümidia appellātur. Sall. And sometimes it agrees with the nearest subject of a subordinate sentence; as, Sed ei cāriōra semper omnia, quam dēcus atque pădictita fuit. Sall. Cat. 25.

Rem. 10. In cases of apposition, the verb commonly agrees with the noun which is to be explained; as, Tulliola, deliciæ nostræ, flägitat. Cic. But sometimes the verb agrees, not with the principal nominative, but with a nearer noun in apposition to it; as, Tungri, cīvītas Galliæ, fonten habet insignem, The Tungri, a state of Gaul, has a remarkable fountain. Plin. Córióli oppidum captum (est). Liv.

REM. 11. A collective noun has sometimes, especially in poetry, a plural verb; as,

Pars ěpůlis ŏněrant mensas, Part load the tables with food. Virg. Turba ruunt. Ovid. Atria turba těnent; věniunt léve vulgus euntque. Id.

(1.) (a.) A plural verb, joined to a collective noun, usually expresses the action, etc., of the individuals which that noun denotes. In Cicero, Sallust, and Cæsar, this construction scarcely occurs in simple sentences; but it is often used, when the subject of the verb is expressed not in its own, but in a preceding clause; as, Hoc idem generi hāmāno ēvēnit, quad in terrā collicati sint, because they (scil. hōmines) live on earth. Cic. In Livy it occurs more frequently; as, Locros omnis multitūdo ābeunt.

(b.) Abstract nouns are sometimes used collectively, instead of their conoretes; as, nobilitus for nobiles, jūventus for jūvenes, vicinia for vicini, servitium for servi, lēvis armātāra for lēviter armāti, etc. (c.) Mīles, ēques, pēdes, and similar words are sometimes used collectively for the soldiery, the cirvalry, etc.

(2.) When two or more clauses have the same collective noun as their subject, the verb is frequently singular in the former, and plural in the latter; as, Jam ne nocte quidem turba ex eo loco dilābēbātur, refractūrosque carcĕrem minābantur. Liv. Gens eādem, quæ te crūdēli Daunia bello insēquītur, nos si pellant, nīkil abföre crēdunt. Virg.

(3.) Tantum, followed by a genitive plural, has sometimes a plural verb, like a collective noun; as, Quid huc tantum höminum incedunt? Why are so many men coming hither? Plant.

(4.) A plural verb is sometimes used, though not by Cicero, after *iterque* and *quisque*, *pars...pars*, *ălius...ălium*, and *alter...altērum*, on account of the idea of plurality which they involve; as, *Uterque eōrum ex castris exercitum ēdūcunt*, Each of them leads his army from the camp. Cæs. *Intimus quisque libertōrum* vincti abreptīque (sunt.) Tac. *Alius ălium*, *ut prælium* incīpiant, circumspectant. Liv. Cf. § 207, R. 32, (c.)

Note 8. This construction may be explained by passages like the following, in which the plural is placed first, and ther' the singular, denoting its parts; Ceteri, suo quisque tempore, aderunt. Liv. Decembri perturbati alius in aliam partem castrorum discurrunt. Id. See § 204, R. 10.

REM. 12. Two or more nominatives singular, not in apposition, generally have a plural verb; as,

Furor iraque mentem præcipitant, Fury and rage hurry on (my) mind. Virg.

Dum ætas, mětus, mägister, prohiběbant. Ter.

- (1.) If the predicate belongs to the several nominatives jointly, the verb is always plural; as, Grammatice quondam ac musice junctæ fuerunt. Quint.
- (2.) A verb in the singular is often used after several nominatives singular, especially if they denote things without life; as,

Mens enim, et ratio et consilium in senibus est. Cic. Beneficentia, liberalitas, bonitas, justitia funditus tollitur. Id.

Note 9. This construction is most common when the several nominatives, as in the preceding examples, constitute, as it were, but one idea. So also the compound subject Sēnātus pōpūlusque Rōmānus has always a predicate in the singular. The same construction sometimes, especially in the poets, occurs with names of persons; as, Gorgias, Thrāsymāchus, Prōlāgōras, Prōdīcus, Hippias in hōnōre fuit. Cic. Quin et Prōmētheus et Pēlopis pārens dukci labbrum dēcīpītur/sōno. Hor. When the nominatives denote both persons and things, the verb is commonly plural; as, Cōtto consulum et Pompeius obsunt. Liv.

(3.) When one of the nouns is plural, the verb is generally so; but sometimes it is singular, when the plural noun does not immediately precede it; as, Dii te pënātes patrique, et patris imāgo, et domus rēgia, et in domo rēgāle so-

lium, et nomen Tarquinium creat vocatque regem. Liv.

- (4.) When each of the nominatives is preceded by et or tum, the verb agrees with the last; as, Hoc et ratio doctis, et necessitas barbāris, et mos gentibus, et fêris natūra ipsa præscripsit. This, reason has dictated to the learned, and necessity to barbarians, and custom to nations, and nature itself to wild beasts. Cic. Et êgo, et Cicero meus flagitabit. Id. Tum ætas varesque, tum āvita gloria ânimum stimulābat. Liv. So when the subject consists of two infinitives; as, Et facere, et pati fortia, Rōmānum est. Cic. Unus et alter always takes a singular verb; as, Dicit ūnus et alter brēviter. Cic. Unus et alter assultur pannus. Hor.
- (5.) When the nominatives are connected by aut, sometimes the plural, but commonly the singular, is used; as,

Si Sperates aut Antisthènes dicèret, If Socrates or Antisthenes should say. Cic. Ut quosque studium privatim aut gratia occupaverunt. Liv.

- (a.) The plural is necessary with disjunctives, if the subject includes the first or second person; as, Quod in Decemviris neque ego neque Casar habiti essemus. Cic.—(b.) With aut...aut and nec...nec the singular is preferred, but with seu...seu and tam...quam the verb is in the plural.
- (6.) A nominative singular, joined to an ablative by the preposition cum, sometimes has a singular but more frequently a plural verb; as, Dömltius cum Messälä certus esse vidēbātur. Cic. Bocchus, cum pěditibus, postrēmam Românōrum āciem invadunt, Bocchus, with his foot-soldiers, attacks the rear of the Roman army. Sall. Ipse dux, cum āliquot principībus, cāpiuntur. Liv.
- (7.) If the nominatives are of different persons, the verb is of the first person rather than the second or third, and of the second rather than the third; as,

Si tu et Tullia vălētis, ego et Cicero vălēmus, If vou and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well. Cic. Hac neque ego neque tu fecimus. Ter. Ego populusque Românus bellum jūdico facioque. Liv.

(a.) Yet sometimes the verb agrees in number and person with the nearest nominative, and is understood with the other; as, Vos ipsi et sënëtus frequens restitit. This is always the case when the action of the verb is qualified with reference to each nominative separately; as, Ego misëre tu feliciter vivis.

REM. 13. The interjections en, ecce, and O, are sometimes followed by the nominative; as,

En Priămus! Lo Priam! Virg. En ego, vester Ascănius. Id. Ecce homo Catienus! Cio. Ecce tuœ literæ. Id. O vir fortis atque ămīcus! Ter.

PREDICATE-NOMINATIVE.

§ 210. A noun in the predicate, after a verb neuter or passive, is put in the same case as the subject, when it denotes the same person or thing; as,

(a.) When the subject is in the nominative; Ira f ŭror brevis est, Anger is a short madness. Hor. Ego vocor Lyconides, I am called Lyconides. Plant. Ego incēdo regīna, I walk a queen. Virg. Caius et Lūcius fratres fuērunt. Cic.— So (b.) when the subject is in the accusative with the infinitive; Jūdicem me esse volo. Cic.

(c.) Sometimes also a dative, denoting the same object, both precedes and follows a vero neuter or passive. See § 227, N.—And (d.) a predicate ablative sometimes follows passive participles of choosing, naming, etc.; as, Consultbus certioribus factis. Liv. See § 257, R. 11.

(e.) If the predicate noun has a form of the same gender as the subject, it takes that form; as, Licentia corruptrix est morum. Cf. § 204, R. 2.—(f.) But if the subject is neuter, the noun of the predicate, if it has both a masculine and a feminine form, takes the former; as, Tempus vitæ mägister est.

(g.) An infinitive may supply the place of a predicate nominative. See § 269.

REMARK 1. (a.) Adjectives, adjective pronouns, and participles, standing in the predicate, after verbs neuter or passive, and relating to the subject, agree with it in gender, number, and case.

(b.) When the subject consists of two or more nouns, the gender and number of such predicate adjectives are determined by § 205, R. 2.

REM. 2. (a.) The noun in the predicate sometimes differs in gender and number from the subject; as, Sanguis erant lacrimae, Her tears were blood. Ovid. Captīvi mīlītum præda fuērunt. Liv.

(b.) So when a subject in the singular is followed by an ablative with cum, the predicate is plural; as, Exsules esse jubet L. Tarquinium cum conjuge et lībēris. Liv.

REM. 3. The verbs which most frequently have a noun, etc., in the predicate agreeing in case, etc., with their subject, are:-

- (1.) The copula sum; as, Ego Jövis sum filius. Plaut. Disce esse pater. Ter. The predicate with sum may be an adverb of place, manner, etc.; as, Quod est longe alter. Cic. Rectissime sunt apud to omnia, Every thing with you is in a very good condition. Id.; or a noun in an oblique case; as, Numen sine ture est. Ovid. Sunt nobis mitia poma. Virg.
- (2.) Certain neuter verbs denoting existence, position, motion, etc.; as, vivo, exsisto, appāreo, cădo, eo, evado, făgio, incedo, jāceo, maneo, sedeo, sto, venio, etc. Thus, Rex circuibat pedes, The king went round on foot. Plin. Quos jādīcābat non posse orātores ēvādēre. Cic. Ego huic causæ patronus exstiti. Cic. Qui fit, ut nemo contentus vivat?
 - (3.) The passive of verbs denoting,
- (a.) To name or call; as, appellor, dicor, nominor, nuncupor, perhibeor, sălūtor, scribor, inscribor, vocor. Thus, Cognomine Justus est appellatus, He was called by the surname Just. Nep. Aristœus olivæ dicitur inventor. Cic.

(b.) To choose, render, appoint, or constitute; as, constituor, creor, de laror, designor, eligor, fio, reddor, renuncior. Thus, Dux a Romanis electus est Q. Fábius. Postquam ephébus factus est. Nep. Certior factus sum.

(c.) To esteem or rêckon; as, censeor, cognoscor, credor, deprehendor, existimor, ducor, féror, hûbeor, fidicor, mêmóror, núméror, pútor, répérior, videor. Thus, Crédébar sanguinis auctor égo. Ovid. Malim vidéri timidus quam parum prüdens. Cic.

Note 1. With several passives of the last class, when followed by a predicate-nominative, etc., an infinitive of sum is expressed or understood; as, Amens mihi fuisse videor, I think I was beside myself. Cic. But the dative of the first person is sometimes omitted after videor; as, Kätis döcuisse videor. Id.—Atīlius prūdens esse pātābātur. Id. So with dīcor (to be said), and perhibeor; as, Vērus patriæ dīcēris esse pāter. Mart. Hoc ne löcūtus sine mercēde existimer. Phæd.

Note 2. Audio is sometimes used by the poets like appellor; as, Tu rexque păterque audisti coram. Hor.

REM. 4. A predicate-nominative is used after many other verbs to denote a purpose, time, or circumstance of the action; as, Comes additus Edites, Eolides was added as a companion. Virg. Lūpus obambūlat nocturnus. Id. Appāret liquīdo sublīmis in æthēre Nīsus. Id. So with an active verb; Audivi hoc puer. Cic. Sāpiens nil Jācit invītus. Id. Rempūblicam dēfendi ādolescens. Id. Cf. § 204, R. 1.

Note 3. Instead of the predicate-nominative, a dative of the end or purpose sometimes occurs (see § 227); sometimes an ablative with pro; as, audācia pro mūro est; and sometimes the ablatives loco or in nūmēro with a genitive; as, ille est mihi pārentis loco; in hostium nūmēro hābētur.

REM. 5. The noun opus, signifying 'need,' is often used as a predicate after sum. It is, in such cases, translated by the adjectives needful, necessary, etc.; as, Dux nobis et auctor opus est. Cic. Multi opus sunt boves. Varr. (Dixit) aurum et ancillas opus esse. Ter. Usus also is occasionally so construed.

REM. 6. When the pronoun, which is the subject of an infinitive, is omitted, the case of the predicate is sometimes, in the poets, attracted into that of the subject of the verb on which the infinitive depends; as, Uxor invicti Jövis esse nescis, i. e. te esse uxōrem. Hor. Rētūlit Ajax esse Jūvis pronepos. Ovid.

GENITIVE.

GENITIVE AFTER NOUNS.

§ 211. A noun which limits the meaning of another noun, denoting a different person or thing, is put in the genitive; as,

Amor glòriæ, Love of glory; Arma Achillis, The arms of Achilles; Păter patriæ, The father of the country; Vitium iræ, The vice of anger; Němŏrum custos, The guardian of the groves; Amor hábendi, Love of possessing.

Note 1. In the first example, \(\tilde{a}mor\) denotes love in general; \(gl\) \(l\tilde{o}ri\) limits the affection to the particular object, glory. Such universally is the effect of the genitive, depending upon a noun. Hence the limitation of a noun by a genitive resembles that which is effected by an adjective. In each the noun limited constitutes with its limitation only a single idea.

REMARK 1. The genitive denotes various relations, the most common of which are those of Source; as, $R\ddot{a}d\ddot{a}i$ solis, The rays of the sun;—Cause; as, $D\delta lor$ $p\delta dagre$, The pain of the gout;—Effect; as, Artifex mundi, The Creator of the world;—Connection: as, $P\ddot{a}der$ consulis, The father of the consul;—Possession; as, $D\ddot{o}mus$ Cresaris, The house of C xsar;—Object; as, $C\ddot{o}gil\ddot{a}tio$ $\ddot{a}l\ddot{c}ajus$ rei, A thought of something;—Pur; ose; as, $App\ddot{a}r\ddot{a}tus$ triumphi, Preparation for a triumph;—A whole; as, $\ddot{P}ars$ $h\ddot{o}minum$, \ddot{A} part

of men; this is called the partitive genitive; - Character or Quality; as, Adolescens summa audācia, A youth of the greatest boldness; -Material or Component Parts; as, Montes auri, Mountains of gold; Acervus scutorum, A heap of shields: Time; as, Frümentum dierum decem, Corn for ten days.

Rem. 2. The genitive is called *subjective* or *active*, when it denotes either that to which a thing belongs, or the subject of the action, feeling, etc., implied in the noun which it limits. It is called objective or passive, when it denotes the object affected by such action, or towards which such feeling is directed; as,

Subjective.

Objective. Odium vitii, Hatred of vice. Amor virtūtis, Love of virtue. Dēsīdērium ōtii, Desire of leisure.

Facta virorum, Deeds of men. Dolor ănimi, Grief of mind. Jūnonis īra, The anger of Juno.

(a.) Whether a genitive is subjective or objective, is to be determined by the meaning of the words, and by their connection Thus, providentia Dei signifies God's providence, or that exercised by him timor Dei, the fear of God, or that exercised towards him. The same or similar words, in different connections, may express both significations. Thus, metus hostium, fear of the enemy, may mean, either the fear felt by the enemy, or that felt by their opponents. So vulnus Ulixis (Virg. En. 2, 436.) denotes the wound which Ulysses had given; vulnus £nēe, (Id. En. 12, 323.) that which £neas had received.

(b.) The relation expressed by the English possessive case is subjective, while that denoted by of with its case is either subjective or objective.

(c.) The objective genitive is of very extensive use in Latin in the limitation of works hours and edictives whetever may be the construction of the verbs.

of verbal nouns and adjectives, whatever may be the construction of the verbs from which such nouns and adjectives are derived, whether they take an ac-

cusative or some other case or even a preposition.

(d.) When ambiguity would arise from the use of the objective genitive, a preposition with an accusative or ablative is commonly used; as, Amor in rempüblicam, for reipüblica, Love to the state. Cic. Odium erga Römános, Römánorum. Nep. Cüra de sálüle patriæ, for sólütis. Cic. Præddor es sócis, for sóciorum. Sall. Sometimes both constructions are combined; as, Révérentia adversus homines et optimi cujusque et reliquorum. Cic. Off. 1, 28.

Note. A limiting genitive is sometimes used instead of a noun in apposition, especially with vox, nomen, verbum, etc.; as, vox voluptatis, the word pleasure; nomen amietie, the word amietia; domini appellatio. This is usual when the genus is defined by the species; as, arbor fice, a fig-tree; flos viole, a violet; virtus continentiæ, the virtue of abstinence: and in geographical names; as, oppidum Antiochiæ. Cf. § 204, R. 6.—Cicero frequently uses a genitive in this manner with genus and causa; as, Unum genus est eorum, qui, etc. Duar sunt causæ, ūna pudoris, altera sceleris.—So, also, the genitive of gerunds; as, Triste est nomen ipsum carendi, The very word to want is sad. Cic.

REM. 3. (a.) A substantive pronoun in the genitive, limiting the meaning of a noun, is commonly objective; as,

Cūra mei, Care for me. Ovid. Pars tui, Part of thee. Id. Vestri cūram ágite. Curt. This genitive is used especially with verbal substantives in or, ix and io; as, Accūsātor mei. Cic. Nīmia æstīmātio sui. Id. Rātiōnem et sui et ăliōrum habere. Id.

(b.) Instead of the subjective or possessive genitive of a substantive pronoun, the corresponding adjective pronoun is commonly used; as.

Liber meus, not liber mei, my book. Cūra mea, My care, i. e. the care exercised by me. Cic. Tuas literas exspecto. Id. Yet the subjective genitive of a substantive pronoun sometimes occurs; as, Tui ūnīus stūdio, By the zeal of yourself alone. Cic.

(c.) And not unfrequently, also, an adjective pronoun occurs instead of the objective genitive; as, Mea injūra, Injury to me. Sall. So, Invidia tua, Envy of thee. Fidūcia tua, Confidence in thee. Plaut. Spes mea, The hope placed in me. With causā the adjective pronoun, and never the genitive, is used; as, Meā causā, For my sake. Plaut.

REM. 4. (a.) Instead, also, of the subjective genitive of a noun, a possessive adjective is often used; as, Causa regia, for causa regis. Cic. Herilis fillus, for heri filius. Id. Evandrius ensis, for Evandri. Virg. Hercüleus hibor, for Hercülis. Hor. Civilis füror, for civium. Hor. So, also, for the objective genitive, Métus hostilis, Fear of the enemy. Sall.

(b.) The genitive of the person implied in the adjective pronoun or possessive adjective, or an adjective agreeing with such genitive, is sometimes added as an apposition; as, Vestra ipsorum causa hoc fēci. In the poets and later prose writers a participle also is found agreeing with such implied genitive; as, Mea scripta vulgo rēcitāre timentis. Hor. Cf. § 204, R. 4, and § 205, R. 13.

REM. 5. In the predicate after sum, and sometimes after other verbs, the dative is used like the objective genitive; as,

Idem amor extium pecòri (est), pecòrisque magistro. Virg. Vitis ut arbòribus decòri est, ut vitibus ure—Tu decus omne tuis. Virg. In this passage the dative decori est, ut vitibus ure—Tu decus omne tuis. Virg. In this passage the dative decori and the nominative decus are used with no difference of meaning. Cf. § 227, R. 4. Auctor fui senatui. Cic. Murena legătus Lūcullo fuit. Id. Erii ille mini semper deus. Virg. Huic cause patrònus exstiti. Cic. Huic ègo me bello ducem profiteor. Id. Se tertium (esse) cui fatum foret urbis petgo me bello ducem profiteor. Id. Se tertium (esse) cui fatum foret urbis petgo me bello ducem profiteor. Id. Se tertium (esse) cui fatum foret urbis petgo me bello ducem profiteor. Id. Casar lègèmenta galeis milites ex viminibus facere jubet. Cæs. Trinobantibus Cæsar imperat—frümentum exercitui. Id. Quod neque insidiæ consuli procedebant. Sall. Quem exitum tantis malis spērarent? Id. Sanctus vir et ex sententia ambōbus, scil. qui fuit. Id. See § 227, R. 4.

Note. The dative in the preceding examples has been thought by some grammarians to depend on the nouns connected with it; as, extitum, dēcus, auctor, lēgātus, deus, patrōnus, etc.; by others it has been held to depend on these nouns in connection with the verbs, and not upon either separately; but the better opinion seems to be that, which makes such datives grammatically dependent upon the verbs only, though logically connected also with the nouns.

(1.) Instead, also, of the *possessive* genitive, a dative of the person may follow a verb, when its act has relation to the body or possessions of such person; as,

Sēse omnes flentes Cæsări ad pēdes projēcērunt, They all, weeping, cast themselves at the feet of Cæsar. Cæs. Cui corpus porrigitur, For whom the body, i. e. whose body, is extended. Virg. Tunvēro exarsit jūvěni dölor ossibus ingens. Id. Transfigitur scütum Pulfiōni. Cæs.

REM. 6. When the limiting noun denotes a property, character, or quality, it has an adjective agreeing with it, and is put either in the genitive or the ablative; as,

Vir exempli recti, A man of correct example. Liv. Adölescens summa audācia, A youth of the greatest boldness. Sall. Fossa pēdum riginti, A ditch of twenty feet, (i. e. in width). Cæs. Hamilcar sēcum duxit filium Hamibalem annōrum novem. Nep. Athēnienses dēligunt Pēriclem, spectātæ virtūtis virum. Just. Quinquāginta annōrum vrpērium. Id. Iter unius diēi. Cic. Pulchritūdine eximiā fēmina, A womar of exquisite beauty. Cic. Maxīmo nātv filius, The eldest son. Nep. L. Cātilina fuit magnā vi et ānimi et corporis, sed ingēnio mālo prāvōque. Sall. Spēlunca infinītā altitūdine. Cic.—Sometimes both constructions occur in the same proposition; as, Lentūlum nostrum, eximiā spe, summæ virtūtis ādôlescentem. Cic.

- (1.) A genitive sometimes supplies the place of the adjective; and the noun denoting the property, etc., is then always put in the ablative; as, Est boservi figura,...of the form of a stag. Cass. Uri specie et colore tauri. Id. Frites palmi altitudine. Plin. Clavi digiti pollicis crassitudine. Cass.
- (2.) All the qualities and attributes of persons and things, whether inherent or accidental, may be thus expressed by the genitive and ablative of quality, provided the substantives are immediately connected; as, fossa quindecim pedum; homo antiqua viritite. It hence follows that such genitives and ablatives, when used to express duration of time or extent of space, are distinguished from the cases in which the accusative is required, since the latter case always follows adjectives or verbs; as, fossa quindecim pedes lata: puer decem annos natus. Cf. 4236.
- (3.) Whether the genitive or the ablative of quality is preferable in particular cases, can frequently be determined only by reference to classical authority, but, in general, the genitive is used more frequently to express inherent qualities than such as are merely accidental, while the ablative is used indifferently for either purpose. In speaking of transitory qualities or conditions the ablative is always used; as, Magno timore sum, I am in great fear. Cic. Bono animo sum. Id. Quanto fuerim dölöre mēministi. Id. Maximo hönöre Servius Tullius ērat. Liv. With plural substantives the genitive is rare; while in expressions of measure it is used rather than the ablative.
- (4.) An accusative instead of a genitive of quality is used with secus (sex), genus and pondo; as, Liberorum captum virile secus ad decem millia capta, i. e. of the male sex, instead of sexūs sēvilis. Liv. So genus, when joined with a pronoun, as hoc, id, illud, quod, or with omne, is used for hūjus, ējus, omnis, etc., generis; as, Orātiones aut ālīquid id genus scrībēre,—of that kind. Cic. Concrēdere nūgas hoc genus. Hor. So pondo is joined as an indeclinable word to accusatives libram and libras; as, Dictitor coronam auream libram pondo in Cūpticlio Jovi dōnum posui,...a pound in weight. Liv. Cf. § 236, R. 7.
- (5.) The genitive *modi* with an adjective pronoun supplies the place of a pronoun of quality; as, *cūjusmodi libri*, the same as *quāles libri*, what kind of books; *hūjusmodi libri*, i. e. *tāles libri*, such books. So, also, *gēnēris* is used, but less frequently.
- (6.) With the genitive of measure are often connected such ablatives as longitudine, lätitudine, etc., or in longitudinem, etc.; as, fossa decem pedum lätitudine; but the genitive does not depend on these words.
- (7.) Sum may be followed by either the genitive or the ablative of quality with an ellipsis of the word limited, which, with the genitive, is homo, res, wegotium, proprium or proprius, etc., and with the ablative, præditus, instructus, ornātus, etc. Cf. Rem. 8, and §§ 244, and 249, I.
- Rem. 7. (1.) The limited noun is sometimes omitted; as, *O misĕræ sortis!* scil. homines; O (men) of wretched fortune! Lucan. Ad Diānæ, scil. ædem. Ter. Hectöris Andrŏmáche, scil. uxor. Virg. Suspiciōnis vītandæ, scil. causā. Tac. So filius or fīlia; as, Hannībal Gisgōnis.
- (2.) The omitted noun may sometimes be supplied from the preceding words; as, Cājum pēcus? an Mēlībei? Non; vērum Ægōnis, scil. pēcus. Virg. An adjective is often expressed referring to the noun omitted; as, Nullam virtus āliam mercēdem dēsīdērat, præter hanc (scil. mercēdem) laudis. Cic.
- REM. 8. The limited noun is often wanting in the predicate of a sentence after sum. This usually happens,

(1.) When it has been previously expressed; as,

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Hæc dómus est Cæsáris, This house is Cæsar's. Nomen auræ tam sæpe vöcātum esse pūtans Nymphæ. Ovid. Nāves ŏnĕrārias, quār ım mīnor nulla ĕrat duum millium amphörum, i. e. quārum mīnor nulla ĕrat quam 1 āvis duum, etc. Cic.

(2.) When it is a general word denoting a person, an animal, etc.; as,

Thūcydīdes, qui ejusdem ætātis fuit, scil. hōmo, Thucydides, who was of the same age. Nep. Multum ei dētruzīt, quod ālieme ērat cīrtīdīts, scil. hōmo or cīris. Id. Prīmum stīpendium mēruit annōrum diem septemque, scil. doleseens. Id. Summi ut sint lābōris efficiunt, scil. ānimālia. Cæs. (Claudius) somni brēvissīmi ērat. Suet. Mīrā sum ālacrītāte. Cic. Vulgus ingēnio mobili ērat. Sall. Non est jūrīs sui, He is not his own master. Lucan. Pōtestātis suz esse. Liv. Suārumque rērum ērant. Id. Cf. Rem. 6, (7.)

(3.) When it is a general word denoting thing, for which, in English, the words part, property, duty, office, business, characteristic, etc., are commonly supplied; as,

Tēmēritas est flörentis ætātis, prūdentia sēnectūtis, Rashness is (the characteristic) of youth, prudence of old age. Cic. Est hoc Gallicæ consuētūdinis. Cæs. So, stultitiæ est; est lēvītātis, etc., which are equivalent to stultitia est, lēvītas est. Omnia hostium ērant. A paucis ēmi, quod multūrum esset. Sall.

- (a.) This happens especially when the subject of the verb is an infinitive, or an entire clause, in which case, instead of the genitive of the personal pronouns, mei, tui, etc., the neuters of the possessives, meum, tuum, etc., are used; as, Adolescentis est mājōres nātu rēvērēri, It is (the duty) of a youth to reverence the aged. Ovid. Cājusvis hōmīnis est errāre, nullius nīsi insipientis in errōre persvēvērāre. Cic. Paupēris est nūmērāre pēcus. Ovid. So especially mībris est; as, Nēgāvit mōris esse Græcōrum, ut in convīvio vīrōrum accumbērent mūliēres, the same as mōrem esse Græcōrum: Cic. Nīhil tam æquandæ lībertātis esse. Līv. So when the verb is omitted; Tāmen officii duxit, exōrāre patrem, scil, esse. Suct. Non est mentīri meum. Ter. Tuum est, M. Cāto, vidēre quid āgātur.
- (b.) Instead of the genitive of a substantive, also, the neuter of a possessive adjective derived from it is sometimes used; as, Hūmānum est errāre, To err is human. Ter. Et făcere et păti fortia Romānum est. Liv.
- (4.) The same construction sometimes occurs after fácio, and some other verbs mentioned in § 230, esse being understood; as, Asia Römänörum facta est, Asia became (a possession) of the Romans. Just. Agrum suce ditionis fécisse. Liv.
- (5.) The limited noun is sometimes wanting, when it is a general word, though not in the predicate after sum; as, Mayai formica libbiris, scil. ānimal, The ant (an animal) of great labor. Hor. So Li venit in mentem potestātis tuæ, scil. mēmoria, or the like. Cic.
- Note. When the noun which is wanting denotes a thing, grammarians sometimes supply $n\bar{s}g\bar{s}tium$, officium, $m\bar{u}nus$, δpus , res, causa, etc. It is an instance of a construction common in Latin, to omit a noun when a general idea is intended. See § 205, Rem. 7, (2.)
 - REM. 9. The limiting noun also is sometimes omitted; as,
- Tria millia, scil. passuum. In most cases of this kind, an adjective, adjective pronoun, or participle, is expressed in the genitive.
- REM. 10. Two genitives sometimes limit the same noun, one of which is commonly subjective, and the other objective; as,

Agamemnonis belli glōria, Agamemnon's glory in war. Nep. Illius administrātio provincies. Cic. Evrum diērum consuctādine itinēris nostri exercitās perspectā. Cæs. Orbitas reipāblicæ tālium vīrōrum. Cic. Pro vētērībus Helvētiōrum injūriis pōpūli Rōmāni. Cæs.

REM. 11. Opus and ūsus are rarely limited by a genitive or accusative, but generally by an ablative, of the thing needed; as,

Argenti öpus fuit, There was need of money. Liv. Ad consilium pensandum tempöris opus esse. Id. Procemii non semper üsus est. Quint. Si quo öperæ eðrum üsus est. Liv. Puëro opus est cibum. Plaut. Usus est höminem astutum. Id. See § 243.

REM. 12. The relation denoted by the genitive in Latin, is generally expressed, in English, by of, or by the possessive case. Cf. R. 2, (b.) The objective genitive may often be rendered by some other preposition; as,

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Remëdium dölöris, A remedy for pain. Injuria patris, Injury to a father. Descensus Averui, The descent to Avernus. Ira belli, Anger on account of the war. Pötestas rei, Power in or over a thing.

Note. Certain limitations of nouns are made by the accusative with a preposition, and by the ablative, either with or without a preposition. Cf. § 202, 6, I. and II.

GENITIVE AFTER PARTITIVES.

§ 212. Nouns, adjectives, adjective pronouns, and adverbs, denoting a part, are followed by a genitive denoting the whole; as,

Pars civitātis, A part of the state. Nulla sŏrōrum, No one of the sisters. Alīquis philosophōrum, Some one of the philosophers. Quis mortālium? Who of mortals? Mājor jūvēnum, The elder of the youths. Doctissīmus Rōmānōrum, The most learned of the Romans. Multum pēcūniæ, Much (of) money. Sātis elõquentiæ, Enough of eloquence. Ubinam gentium sūmus? Where on earth are we?

Note. The genitive thus governed denotes either a number, of which the partitive designates one or more individuals; or a whole, of which the partitive designates a portion. In the latter sense, the genitive of common and abstract nouns commonly follows either neuter of adjectives and adjective pronouns, or adverbs; and that of material nouns depends on substantives signifying quantity, weight or measure; as, mēdimnum truici, a bushel of wheat; libra farris; jūgērum agri; magna vis auri.

REMARK 1. Nouns denoting a part are pars, nēmo, nīhil, etc., and also nouns denoting measure, weight, etc.; as, modius, medimnum, and libra; as,

Nēmo nostrum, No one of us. Maxima pars hominum. Nihil hūmānārun rērum. Cic. Dīmidium mīlitum. Liv. Mēdimnum trītīci. Cic.

REM. 2. Adjectives and adjective pronouns, denoting a part of a number, including partitives and words used partitively, comparatives, superlatives, and numerals, are followed by the genitive plural, or by the genitive singular of a collective noun.

(1.) Partitives (§104, 9,); as, ullus, nullus, sõlus, ülius, üter, üterque, ütercumque, ütercis, üterlibet, neuter, alter, alter alter, altiquis, quidam, quispam, quisquis, quisque, voi deorum, whoever of the gods. Ovid. Consilum alter, One of the consuls. Liv. Multihominum, Many men. Plin. Et mědius jüvěnum ibat; i. e. between. Ovid. For the gender of adjectives used partitively, see § 205, R. 12.

(2.) Words used partitively; as, Expēdēti mīlitum, The light-armed (of the) soldiers. Liv. Dēlecti ēquitum. Id. Vētēres Romānārum dūcum. Vell. Sūpēri deōrum, The gods above. Hor. Sancte deōrum. Virg. Dēgēnēres cānum. Plin. Piscium fēminæ. Id.

(3.) Comparatives and superlatives; as, Doctior jūvēnum. Orātōrum præstantissīmus. Elòquentissīmus Rōmōnōrum. Optimus omnium.

(4.) Numerals, both cardinal and ordinal; also the distributive singüli; as, Equitum centum quinquāginta interfecti, A hundred and fifty of the horsemen were killed. Curt. Săpientum octăvus. Hor. Singülos vestrum. Curt.

(5.) The meaning is often nearly the same, whether the partitive adjective agrees in case and number with a noun, or takes such noun after it in the genitive; as, Doctissimus Romanorum, or, doctissimus Romanus: Alter consulum, or alter consul. But the genitive cannot be used, when the adjective includes the same number of things as that of which the whole consists; as, Věniāmus ad vivos, qui duo supersunt; not quorum duo, since these are all, though we say in English, 'of whom two survive.'

Note 1. (a.) The comparative with the genitive denotes one of two individuals or classes; the superlative denotes a part of a number greater than two; as, Major fratrum, The elder of two brothers. Maximus fratrum. The eldest of three or more.

(b.) In like manner, uter, alter, and neuter, generally refer to two; quiz, alius, and nullus, to a whole consisting of more than two; as, Uter nostrum? Which of us (two?) Quis vestrum? Which of you (three or more?)

Note 2. Nostrum and vestrum are used as partitive genitives, in preference to nostri and vestri, and are always joined with omnium even when the genitive is a subjective one; as, Patria, que communis est omnium nostrum parens. Cic. But vestrum sometimes occurs in other connections also without a partitive meaning; as, Quis ĕrit tam căpidus vestrum. Cic.

Note 3. The partitive word is sometimes omitted; as, Fies nobilium tu quo-

que fontium, scil. ūnus. Hor. Centies sestertium, scil. centena millia.

Note 4. The noun denoting the whole, after a partitive word, is often put in the ablative, with the prepositions de, e, ex, or in, or in the accusative, with apid or inter; as, Nemo de iis. Alter ex censoribus. Liv. Unus ex multis. Cic. Acerrimus ex sensibus. Id. Thales, qui sapientissimus in septem fuit. Id. Primus inter omnes. Virg Crasus inter reges opulentissimus. Sen. Apud Helvētios nōbilissīmus.

Note 5. The whole and its parts are frequently placed in apposition, distributively; as, Interfectores, pars in forum, pars Syrācūsas pergunt. Liv. See § 204, R. 10.

Note 6. Cuncti and omnes, like partitives, are sometimes followed by a genitive plural; as, Attălus Măcedonum fere omnibus persuasit, Attălus persuaded almost all the Macedonians. Liv. Cunctos hominum. Ovid. Cunetas provinciārum. Plin.

- Note 7. In the following passage, the genitive singular seems to be used like that of a collective noun: Totius autem injustitie nulla capitalior est, etc. Cic. Off. 1, 13. The phrase Rem nullo modo probabilem omnium (Cic. Nat. Deor. 1, 27.) seems to be used for Rem nullo omnium modorum probabilem.
- Rem. 3. The genitive denoting a whole, may depend on a neuter adjective or adjective pronoun. With these the genitive singular is commonly used; as,

Plus ěloquentiæ, More (of) eloquence. Tantum fidei, So much fidelity. temporis, That time. Ad hoc ætātis. Sometimes the genitive plural; as, Id Armorum quantum. Cæs. misčriārum. Ter.

- Note 1. (a.) Most neuter adjectives used partitively denote quantity; as, tantum, quantum, aliquantum, plus, minus, minimum, dimidium, multum, nimium, paulum, plurimum, reliquum; with the compounds and diminutives, tantulum, iantundem, quantulum, quantulumcumque, etc.; to which add medium, summan, ultimum, aliud, etc. The pronouns thus used are hoc, id, illud, istud, idem, quod, and quid, with their compounds, a iquid, quidquid, quippiam, quidquam, quodcumque.
- (b.) Most of these adjectives and pronouns may either agree with their nouns, or take a genitive; but the latter is more common. Tantum, quantum, aliquantum, and plus, when they denote quantity, are used with a genitive only, as are also quid and its compounds, when they denote a part, sort, etc., and quod in the sense of quantum. Thus, Quantum crevit Nilus, tantum spei in annum est. Sen. Quid mulièris uxorem hābes? What kind of a woman... Ter

Allquid formæ. Cic. Quia hoc rei est? What does this mean? Ter. Quod auri, quod argenti, quod ornāmentōrum fuit, id Verres abstūlit.

Note 2. Neuter adjectives and pronouns, when followed by a genitive, are to be accounted substantives, and in this construction are found only in the nominative and accusative.

Note 3. Sometimes the genitive after these adjectives and pronouns is a neuter adjective, of the second declension, without a noun; as, Tantum boni, So much good. Si quid habes novi, if you have any thing new. Cic. Quid reliqui est? Ter. Nihil is also used with such a genitive; as, Nihil sincēri, No sincerity. Cic. This construction occurs very rarely with neuter adjectives in e of the third declension, and only in connection with neuters of the second declension; as, Si quidquam non dico civilis sed hāmāmi esset. Liv.

Note 4. In the poets and in the prose writers later than Cicero, neuter adjectives in the plural number are sometimes followed by a genitive, either singular or plural, with a partitive signification; as, Extrêma impérii. The frontiers of the empire. Tac. Pontes et viārum angusta, The bridges and the narrow parts of the roads. Id. Opāca Vicōrum. Virg. Antīqua fadērum. Liv. Cuncta campōrum. Tac. Exercent colles, atque hōrum asperrima pascunt. Virg. Cf. § 205, R. 9.

REM. 4. The adverbs săt, sătis, părum, nĭmis, ăbunde, largiter, affătim, and partim, used partitively, are often followed by a genitive; as,

Sat rătionis, Enough of reason. Virg. Sătis ēloquentiæ, părum săpientiæ, Enough of eloquence, (yet) but little wisdom. Sall. Nimis insidiărum. Cic. Terroris et fraudis âbunde est. Virg. Auri et argenti largiter. Plaut. Côpiārum affătim. Liv. Quum partim illorum mihi fămiliărissimi essent. Cic.

NOTE 1. The above words, though generally adverbs, seem, in this use, rather to be nouns or adjectives.

NOTE 2. (a.) The genitives gentium, terrārum, loci, and locōrum, with certain adverbs of place, strengthen their meaning; as, Loquam terrārum. Just. Usquam gentium, Any where whatever. Plant. Ubi terrārum sūmus? Where in the world are we? Cic. Abīre quo terrārum possent. Liv. Ubi sit loci. Plin. Eo loci, equivalent to eo loco, In that place. Tac. Eōdem loci res est. Cic. Nescire quo loci esset. Id. But the last three examples might perhaps more properly be referred to Rem. 3.

(b.) The adverbs of place thus used are ŭbi, ŭbinam, ŭbicumque, ŭbiŭbi, ŭbivis, ubique, unde, usquam, nusquam, quo, quốcumque, quốvis, quốquo, ditquo, hīc, hūc, eo, eōdem. Lớci also occurs after ibi and ibidem; gentium after longe; sa, lc, bčci, In that place. Plin. Abes longe gentium. Cic. So, minime gentium, By no means. Ter. Viciniæ in the gentitive is used by the comic writers after hic and huc; as, Hie proximæ viciniæ. Plaut. Huc viciniæ. Ter. Cf. § 221, R. 3, (4.)

Note 3. Huc, eo, quo, when used figuratively to express a degree, are joined also with other genitives; as, Eo insolentiae f ūrōrisque prōcessit, He advanced to such a degree of insolence and madness. Plin. Huc ènim malorum ventum est. Curt. Huccine rōrum vēnimus? Have we come to this? Pers. Eo misōriārum vēnīre, To such a pitch of misery. Sall. Quo āmentiæ prōgressi sītis. Liv.

Note 4. The genitives lòci, lòcōrum, and tempòris, appear to be redundant after the adverbs adhuc, inde, intèrea, postea, tum, and tunc, in expressions denoting time; as, Adhuc lòcōrum, Till now. Plant. Inde lòci, After that. Lucr Intèrea lòci, In the mean time. Ter. Postea lòci, Afterwards. Sall. Tum tempòris, and tunc tempòris, At that time. Just. Lòcōrum also occurs after id, denoting time; as, Ad id locōrum, Up to that time. Sall. Cf. R. 3.

Note 5. When the genitive ējus occurs after quoad, in such connections as the following: Quoad ējus făcēre pōtēris. Cic.; or passively, Quoad ējus fiēri possit, As far as may be. Cic.; the ējus refers to the preceding clause; literally as much of it as possible.

NOTE 6. Pridie and postridie, though reckoned adverbs, are followed by a genitive, depending on the noun dies contained in them; as, Pridie ējus diēi, lit. On the day before that day, i. e. The day before. Cic. Pridie insidiārum, The day before the ambush. Tac. Postridie ējus diēi, The next day. Cæs. When they are followed by an accusative, ante or post is understood. Cf. § 238 1. (b.)

NOTE 7. Adverbs in the superlative degree, like their adjectives, are followed by a genitive; as, Optime omnium, Best of all. Cic.

GENITIVE AFTER ADJECTIVES.

§ 213. A noun, limiting the meaning of an adjective, is put in the objective genitive, to denote the relation expressed in English by of, in, or in respect to; as,

Avidus laudis, Desirous of praise.

Appētens glūriæ, Eager for glory.

Měmor virtūtis, Mindful of virtue.

Plēna timūris, Full of fear.

Egēnus ňauæ, Destitute of water.

Doctus fandi, Skilful in speaking.

So, Nescia mens fāti, The mind ignorant in regard to fate. Virg. Impôtens træ, lit: Powerless in respect to anger, i. e. unable to control it. Liv. Hômines expertes vērītātis, Men destitute of truth. Cic. Lactis ābundans, Abounding in milk. Virg. Terra férax arbōrum, Land productive of trees. Plin. Tênax prōpōsīti vir, A man tenacious of his purpose. Hor. Æger ānīmi, Sick in mind. Liv. Lōcus mēdius jūgūli summīque lācerti, i. e. between. Ovid. Mōrum diversus. Tac. Opērum solūtus. Hor. Līber lābōrum. Id. Intēger vītæ scēlērisque pūrus, Upright in life, and free from wickedness. Hor. Vīni pollens Līber. Plaut.

From the above examples, it will be seen that the genitive after an adjective is sometimes translated by other words besides of, in, or in respect to, though the relation which it denotes remains the same. Cf. 211, R. 12.

REMARK 1. The following classes of adjectives, which, as denoting a relation to a thing, are called relative adjectives (§ 104, 13), are frequently limited by a genitive; viz. (1.) Verbals in ax; as, cápax, édax, férax, fúgax, pervicax, ténax, etc.—(2.) Participials in ns, and a few in tus, with their compounds; as, ámans, appètens, cúpiens, efficiens, pátiens, impátiens, stitens;—consultus, doctus, sólútus.—(3.) Adjectives denoting desire or aversion; as, araus, ávidus, cúpidus, stúdiôsus; fastidiôsus:—participation; as, particeps, affinis, consors, exsors, expers, inops:—knowledge, experience, capacity, and their contraries; as, callidus, compos, conscius, grârus, ignārus, pēritus, impēritus, impos, pôtens, impôtens, prūdens, impradens, expertus, inexpertus, conscius, inscius, nescius, insolens, insolitus, insultus, rūdis, sollers:—me mor y and for getfulness; as, mémor, immémor, etc.:—certainty and doubt; as, certus, incertus, ambiguus, dūbius, suspensus:—care and negligence; as, anxius, sollicitus, providus, improvidus, fieurus:—fear and confidence; as, pávidus, timidus, trēpidus, impovidus, fidens, interritus:—guilt and inno-cence; as, noxius, reus, suspectus, compertus, mānifestus, innocius, innocens, insons:—plenty and want; as, ábundans, plēnus, dāves, sātus, largus, inops, ēgēnus, inānis, pauper, parcus, sôlūtus, vācuus.

(a.) In the poets and later prose writers, many other adjectives, particularly those which express mental emotions, are in like manner limited by a genitive, especially by ănimi, ingēnii, mentis, īræ, mīlitiæ, belli, lābōris, rērum, æri, f ūtūri,

morum, and fidei.

REM. 2. The limiting genitive, by a Greek construction, sometimes denotes a cause or source, especially in the poets; as, Lassus māris, et viārum, mīlītiæque. Hor. Fessus viæ. Stat. Fessus māris. Hor. Attonītus serpentis. Sil. Mens interrita lēti. Ovid.

REM. 3. Participles in ns, when used as such, take after them the same case as the verbs from which they are derived; as, Se amans, Loving himself. Cic. Mare terram appètens. Id.

- REM. 4. Instead of the genitive, denoting of, in, or in respect to, a different construction is sometimes used after many of these adjectives; as,
- (1.) An infinitive or a subjunctive clause; as, Certus ire, Determined to ga Ovid. Cantāre pērīti. Virg. Fēlicior unguere tēla. Id. Anxius quid facto opus sit. Sall. Vive mēmor quam sis ævi brevis. Hor.—So ālienus, āvidas, callīdus, ciipīdus, firmus, frequens, gnārus, impôtens, inops, lætus, largus, liber, pollens, mēmor, dūbius, etc.
- (2.) An accusative with a preposition; as, Adrem ăvidior. Ter. Avidus in direptiones. Liv. Animus căpax ad præcepta. Ovid. Ad cāsum fortūnamque fēlix. Cic. Ad fraudem caltidus. Id. Dīligens ad custodiendum. Id. Negligentior in patrem. Just. Vir ad disciplinam pēritus. Cic. Ad bella rūdis. Liv. Põtens in res bellīcas. Id. Alūcer ad mālēfīcia. Cic. Inter bellum et pācem nihil mēdium est. Id.—So with rd, fērtilis, firmus, infirmus, pōtens, stērilis, etc.—with in, cūpīdus, parcus, potens, prodūgus, etc.

(3.) An accusative without a preposition, chiefly in the poets; as, Nūdus membra, Bare as to his limbs. Virg. Os, hŭměrosque deo similis Id. Cētěra fulvus. Hor. Cuncta pollens. Sen. Ag. See § 234, II.

- (4.) An ablative with a preposition; as, Avidus in pēcūniis, Eager in regard to money. Cio. Anxius de fāmā. Quint. Rūdis in jūre civili. Cic. Pēritus de agricultūrā Varr. Prūdens in jūre cīvili. Cic. Reus de vi. Id. Pūrus ab cultu hūmāno. Liv. Certior factus de re. Cic. Sollicitus de re. Id. Sūper scēlēre suspectus. Sall. Inops ab amīcis. Cic. Pauper in ære. Hor. Modicus in cultu. Plin. Ab āquis stērilis. Apul. Cōpiōsus a frūmento. Cic. Ab ĕquitātu firmus. Id. So with in, immodicus, parcus, ūber:—with ab, āliēnus, beātus, extorris, immūnis, inops, liber, rūdus, orbus, vācuus.
- (5.) An ablative without a preposition; as, Arte rūdis, Rude in art. Ovid. Regni crīmīne insons. Liv. Compos mente. Virg. Prūdens consilio. Just. Æger pĕdībus. Sall. Præstans ingĕnio. Cic. Mŏdīcus sĕvērītāte. Tac. Nīhil insīdiis vācuum. Cic. Amor et melle et felle est fēcundissīmus. Plaut. Mĕdīus Pollūce et Castŏre. Ovid. Cf. Rem. 5.

In many instances, the signification of the accusative and ablative after adjectives differs, in a greater or less degree, from that of the genitive.

- REM. 5. As many of the adjectives, which are followed by a genitive, admit of other constructions, the most common use of each, with particular nouns, can, in general, be determined only by recourse to the dictionary, or to the classics. Some have
- (1.) The genitive only; as, běnignus, căpax, exsors, impos, impôtens, insătiābilis, irrītus, lībērālis, modīcus, mūnificus, prælargus, and many others.
- (2.) The genitive more frequently; as, compos, consors, egenus, exheres, expers, fertilis, indigus, tnops, parcus, particeps, pauper, prodigus, prosper, stérilis.
- (3.) The genitive or ablative indifferently; as, dives, fēcundus, fērax, immūnis, inānis, immòdicus, jējūnus, largus, nimius, opūlentus, pērītus, plēnus, potens, pūrus, rēfertus, sātur, ūber, vācuus.
- (4.) The ablative more frequently; as, abundans, alienus, cassus, copiosus, extorris, firmus, fētus, frequens, grāvidus, grāvis, infirmus, līber, locuples, lætus, mactus, nūdus, onustus, orbus, pollens, sătiātus, truncus, vālidus, vīduus.
 - (5.) The ablative only; as, beātus, crēber, densus, mutilus, tumidus, turgidus.

For the ablative after many of the preceding adjectives, see § 250.

REM. 6. Some adjectives usually limited by a dative, sometimes take a genitive instead of the dative; as, similis, dissimilis, etc. See § 222, R. 2.

REM. 7. Many adjectives in addition to the genitive or ablative denoting of or in respect to, take also another case to express a different relation; as, Mens sibi conscia recti. Cf. § 222, R. 3. Conscius has also sometimes the dative instrad of the genitive of the thing; as, conscius huic factnori. Cic.

GENITIVE AFTER VERBS

§ 214. Sum, and verbs of valuing, are followed by a genitive, denoting degree of estimation; as,

A me argentum, quanti est, sūmīto, Take of me so much money as (he) is worth. Ter. Magni æstimābat pēcūniam, He valued money greatly. Cic. Ager nunc plūris est, quam tunc fuit. Id. Tanti est, It is worth so much; and, absolutely, It is worth while. Cic. Hūjus non fācio, I don't care that for it.

REMARK 1. (a.) Verbs of valuing are joined with the genitive, when the value is expressed in a general or indefinite manner by:—

(1.) A neuter adjective of quantity; as, tanti, quanti, plūris, minōris, magni, permagni, plūrimi, maxīmi, minimi, parvi, tantidem, quantīcumque, quantīcis, quantītībet, but only very rarely multi and mājōris.

(2.) The nouns assis, flocci, nauci, nihili, pili, těruncii, and also pensi and hūjus.

(b.) But if the price or value of a thing is a definite sum, or is expressed by a substantive, other than assis, flocci, etc., it is put in the ablative. Cf. § 252.

REM. 2. The verbs of valuing are æstimo, existimo, dūco, făcio, fio, hābeo, pendo, pūto, depŭto, taxo. Thus, Ut quanti quisque se ipse făciat, tanti fīut ab âmīcis, That as much as each one values hinself, so much he should be valued by his friends. Cic. Sed quia parvi il dūcēret. Id. Hönöres si magni non pūtēmus. Id. Non assis fâcis? Catull. Něque quod dixi, flocci existimat. Plaut.

Note 1. (a.) The phrase æqui bŏni, or æqui bŏnique fácio, or consulo, I take a thing in good part, am satisfied with it, may be classed with genitives of value; as, Nos æqui bōnique fácimus. Liv. So, Bŏni consuluit Plin.—(b.) A genitive of price is joined also to cæno, hābito, dóceo, etc.; as, quanti hābitas? what rent do you pay for your house or lodging? quanti dócet? what are his terms in teaching?

Note 2. After astimo, the ablatives magno, permagno, parvo, nihilo, are sometimes used instead of the genitive; as, Dita magno astimas, accepta parvo. Sen. Pro nihilo, also, occurs after duco, habeo, and puto; and nihil with astimo and morror. Cf. § 231, R. 5.

Note 3. The neuter adjectives above enumerated, and hūjus, may be referred to a noun understood, as prētii, æris, pondēris, mōmenti; and may be considered as limiting a preceding noun, also understood, and denoting some person or thing; as, Æstimo te magni, i. e. hōminem magni prētii. Scio ējus ordinis auctōrītātem semper āpud te magni fuisse, i. e. rem magni mōmenti. The words assis, etc., may also be considered as depending on an omitted noun; as, prētio, rem, etc.

REM. 3. Statements of price, also, when general or indefinite, are put in the genitive after verbs of buying, selling, letting, and hiring; as,

Mercātöres non tantīdem vendunt, quanti ēmērunt. Cic. Nulla pestis hūmāno gēnēri plūris stētit, quam īra. Sen.

Note 1. Verbs of buying, selling, etc., are emo, vendo, the neutral passive, veneo, consto, prosto, and liceo, to be exposed for sale.

Note 2. With verbs of buying, selling, etc., the ablatives magno, permagno, plurimo, parvo, minimo, and nihilo are often used instead of the genitive: as, Non pôlest parvo res magna constâre. Sen. Quanti emere possum minimo? What is the lowest price I can buy at? Plaut. Sometimes also the adverbs care, bêne, and male take the place of the genitive or ablative of price.

§ 215. (1.) Misĕreor, misĕresco, and the impersonals misĕret, pænitet, püdet, tædet, and piget, are followed by a genitive of the object in respect to which the feeling is exercised; as,

Miseremini söciörum, Pity the allies. Cic. Miserescite rēgis, Pity the king. Virg. Mea māter, tui me miseret, mei pēget, I pity you, and am dissatisfied with myself. Acc. Eos ineptiārum pænitet. Cic. Frātris nie pūdet pēgetque. Ter. Me cēvītātis mōrum pēget tædetque. Sall. So the compound distædet; Haud quod tui me, nēque domi distædeat. Plant.; and the passive; Nunquam suscepti nēgotii eum pertæsum est. Nep. Lentītūdīnis eōrum pertæsa. Tac. Miseritum est me tuārum fortūnārum. Ter. Cāve te frātrum misereātur. Cic. Pādet (me) deōrum hōmīnumque, I am filled with shame in reference both to gods and men. Liv.

Note 1. Misërescit is sometimes used in the same manner as misëret; as, Nunc te misërescat mei. Ter. Misëreo, as a personal verb, also, occurs with a genitive; as, Ipse sui misëret. Lucr.

REMARK. The genitive after the above impersonals seems to depend on some general word constituting the grammatical subject of such verbs, and signifying, matter, business, fact, case, circumstances, conduct, character, etc., cf § 211, R. 8, (3); and § 209, R. 3, (4.) Instead of the genitive with its omitted noun, an infinitive or clause with quod or with an interrogative particle is sometimes used as a subject; as, Non me hoc jam dicere pūdēbit. Cic. Non pænitet me quantum profecerim, I am not dissatisfied with my progress. Id. These verbs have also sometimes a nominative; as, Me quidem has conditio non pænitet. Plaut. Non te has pūdent? Ter.

Note 2. Misĕret occurs with an accusative of the object, instead of a genitive; as, Měnědēmi vicem misĕret me. Ter. So, also, Pertæsus iguāviam suam. Suet.

Note 3. (a.) These impersonals, as active verbs, take also an accusative of the person exercising the feeling which they express. See § 229, R. 6.—(b.) And sometimes also the accusative of the neuter pronouns and of nthil, denoting to what degree the feelings are exercised; as, Sequitur ut nihil (sapientem,) paniteat. Cic. Cf. § 232, (3.)

(2.) Sătăgo is sometimes followed by a genitive denoting in what respect; as,

Is sătăgit rērum suārum, He is busily occupied with his own affairs. Ter. This compound is often written separately, and in either case the genitive seems to depend upon sat. See § 212, R. 4. Agito, with săt, in like manner, is followed by a genitive; as, Nunç ägitas sat tüte tuārum rērum. Plaut.

§ 216. Rěcordor, měmĭni, rěmĭniscor, and obliviscor, are followed by a genitive or accusative of the object remembered or forgotten; as,

Flägitiörum suörum rěcordábitur. Cic. Omnes grădus ctâtis récordor tuc, I call to mind all the periods of your life. Id. Měmini vīvõrum, I am mindful of the living. Id. Nüměros měmini, I remember the measure. Virg. Rěminisci vičtřis fămæ. Nep. Dulces möriens rěminiscitur Argos. Virg. Rēminisci amicos. Ovid. Oblitus sui. Virg. Injūriārum obliviscitur. Nep. Obliviscor injūrias. Cic. Obliviscère Graios. Virg.

REMARK 1. (a.) When the thing remembered or forgotten is expressed by a neuter pronoun or adjective, it is always put in the accusative. An accusative of the person with these verbs is unusual, except that mēmīnī, when referring to a contemporary, always takes an accusative of the person; as, Cinnam mēmīnī. Cic.

(b.) An infinitive or a dependent clause sometimes follows these verbs; as, Mêmento mihi suppétias ferre. Plaut. Esse quóque in fôtis réminiscitur, affore tempus, quo mare, etc. Ovid. Obliti quid déceat Hor. Mêmini te scribère. Cic. Que sum passura récordor. Ovid.

REM. 2. Récordor and momini, to remember, and sometimes followed by an ablative with de; as, Petimus ut de suis liberis récordentur. Cic. De palla mê-

mento. Plaut.

- REM. 3. Měmini, signifying to make mention of, has a genitive, or an ablative with de; as, Něque hūjus rei měminit. pota. Quint. Měministi de exsilibus. Cic. With věnit mihi in mentem, the person or thing may be made the subject of věnit; as, Misère ūbi věnit in mentem mortis mětus. Plant. Věnit hoc mihi in mentem; or an infinitive or subjunctive clause may supply the place of the subject:—for the genitive with this phrase, as in Solet mihi in mentem věnīre illius tempöris, see § 211, R. 8, (5.) The genitive with récordor is very rare.
- § 217. Verbs of accusing, convicting, condemning, and acquitting, with the accusative of the person, are followed by a genitive denoting the crime; as,

Arguit me furti, He charges me with theft. Alterum accusat probri, He accuses another of villany. Meipsum inertiæ condemno. Cic.

REMARK 1. (a.) To this rule belong the verbs of

Accusing; accuso, ago, arcesso, arguo, cito, deféro, increpo, incuso, insimulo, postulo, and more rurely altigo, anguiro, astringo, capto, increpito, urgeo, interego, reum ago or facio, alicui diem dico, cum aliquo ago.—Convicting; convinco, coarguo, prehendo, teneor, obstringor, obligor.—Con de mning; dammo, condemno, infamo, and more rarely judico, noto, plector.—Acquitting; absolvo, libero, purgo, and rarely solvo. To the verbs of accusing, etc., may be added the adjectives denoting guilt and innocence, which likewise take a genitive. Cf. § 213, R. 1, (3.)

(b.) The genitives which follow these verbs are, audāciæ, ărāritiæ, cædis, falsi, furti, ignāviæ, impietātis, injūriārum, lēritātis, mājestātis, mālēfīcii, mendācii, parricīdii, peccāti, pēcūlātūs, probri, proditionis, rei capitālis, repetundārum,

scéléris, stultitia, temérilatis, timoris, vanitatis, veneficii, etc.

REM. 2. (a.) Instead of the genitive, an ablative with de is often used after acciso, defèro, anquiro, arguo, postulo, damno, condemno, absolvo, and purgo; as, Accisine de negligentia. Cic. De vi condemnati sunt. Id. De répétundis est postulutus. Id. Sometimes with in, after accuso, coarguo, convinco, têneor, and dépréhendor; as, In quo te accuso (Cic.); and after libèro, with a or ab; as, A scèlire libérati sumus. Cic. Accuso and damno with inter occur in the phruses inter sicarios accusare, etc., to charge with assassination.

- (b.) With some of the above verbs, an ablative without a preposition is often used; as, Libèrāre culpā. Cic. Crimen quo argui posset. Nep. Prōconsūlem postālārērat rēpētundis. Tac. This happens especially with general words denoting crime; as, scēlus, mālēficium, peccātum, etc.; as, Me peccāto sodro. Liv. The ablatives crimine and nōmine, without a preposition, are often inserted before the genitive; as, Arcessere āliquem crīmine ambitās. Liv. Nōmine scēlēris conjūrātionisque damnāti. Cic.; and when not so inserted they are to be understood.
- (c.) Sometimes a clause takes the place of the genitive; as, Eum accusabant quod societatem fecisset. Nep. So the infinitive with the accusative. Quid! quod me—arguit sorum accessisse! Ovid.
- REM. 3. (a.) The punishment is commonly expressed by the genitive; as, căpitis, mortis, multa, pêcunia, quadrupli, octupli; but sometimes by the ablative; as, căpite, morte, multa, pêcunia: and always by this case when a definite sum is mentioned; us, quindêcim millibus æris: or the at-unsative with ad or in,

as, ad pænam, ad bestias, ad mětalla, in mětallum, in expensas;—sometimes, though rarely, in the poets, by the dative; as, Damnātus morti. Lucr.—(b.) Võti or võtõrum, and less frequently võto or võtis damnāri, signifies 'to be condenned to fulfil one's vow,' and is consequently equivalent to 'to obtain what one wishes.' So also in the active voice, Damnābis tu quōque võtis. Virg. Perdo is used by Plautus as a verb of accusing, with cāptis; Quem ēgo cāptis perdam, will charge with a capital offence. So cāptie or cāptis pērīclītāri, Plaut, signifies 'to be in peril of one's life.' With plecto and plector, cāpti is used in the ablative only—(c.) Damni infecti is put in the genitive (depending upon nōmine understood) after sătisdo, prōmitto, stipūlāri, rēprōmitto, and cāveo; as, Si quis in pāriēte dēmōliendo damni infecti prōmīsērit. Cic.

REM. 4. Accuso, incuso, and insimulo, instead of the genitive, sometimes take the accusative, especially of a neuter pronoun; as, Si id me non accusas. Plaut. Quæ me incusaveras. Ter. Sic me insimulāre falsum facīnus. Plaut. See § 231,

Rem. 5.

Rem. 5. (a.) The following verbs of accusing, etc., are not followed by a genitive of the crime, but, as active verbs, by an accusative:—cálumnior, carpo, corripio, criminor, culpo, excūso, multo, pūnio, rēprēhendo, sūgillo, taxo, trādūco, vitipēro; as, Culpāre infēcunditātem agrōrum. Colum. Excūsāre errorem et ādolescentiam. Liv.

- (b.) This construction also sometimes occurs with accuso, incuso, arguo, and tarryoo; as, Fjus arartiam perfuliamque accusarat. Nep. Culpan arguo. Liv. With multo, the punishment is put in the ablative only, without a preposition; as, Extilis, morte multantur. Cic.
- § 218. Verbs of admonishing, with the accusative of the person, are followed by a genitive of the person or thing respecting which the admonition is given; as,

Milites temporis monet, He admonishes the soldiers of the occasion. Tac. Admonebat álium egestátis, álium cúpiditátis suæ. Sall.

Note. The verbs of admonishing are moneo, admoneo, commoneo, and commone facio.

REMARK 1. Instead of the genitive, verbs of admonishing sometimes have an ablative with de_i as, De æde Tellaris me admones. Cic.—sometimes an accusative of a pronoun or adjective in the neuter gender; as, Eos hoc moneo Cic. Illud me admoneo. Id.; and in the passive, Multa admonentur. Id.—rarely also a noun in the accusative; as, Eam rem nos locus admonuit. Sall.

Rem. 2. Instead of the genitive, verbs of admonishing are also often followed by an infinitive or clause; as, Soror alma monet succedere Lauso Turnum, His sister admonishes Turnus to take the place of Lausus. Virg. Monet, ut suspiciones vitet. Cas. Sed eos hoc moneo, desinant furere. Cic. Monet rationem fruenti esse habendam. Hirt. Immortalia ne speres monet annus. Hor. Discipilos id unum moneo, ut, etc. Quint. Moneo quid facto opus sit. Ter. See § 273, 2.

§ 219. Refert and interest are followed by a genitive of the person or thing whose concern or interest they denote; as,

Hūmānitātis rēfert, It concerns human nature. Plin. Rēfert omnium antmadverti in mālos. Tac. Intērest omnium recte fācēre, It concerns all to do right. Cic.

REMARK 1. Instead of the genitive of the substantive pronouns, the adjective pronouns mea, tua, sua, nostra, and vestra, are used; as,

Mea nihil refert, It does not concern me. Ter. Illud mea magni intérest, that greatly concerns me. Cic. Tua et mea maxime intérest, te vulère. Cic. Magni reipublicæ intérest quam mea. Id. Magni intérest Ciceronis, vel mea poitus, vel mehercule utriusque, me intervenire dicenti. Id.

Note. Refert rarely occurs with the genitive, but often with the pronouns mea, tua, etc., and most frequently without either such pronoun or a genitive; as, quid refert? magni or magnopère refert.

REM. 2. In regard to the case of these adjective pronouns, grammarians differ. Some suppose that they are in the accusative plural neuter, agreeing with commoda or the like understood; as, Interest mea, i. e. est inter mea, It is among my concerns. Refert tua, i. e. refert se ad tua, It refers itself to your concerns. Others think that they are in the ablative singular feminine, agreeing with re, causā, etc., understood, or in the dative. The better opinion seems to be, that they are in the accusative feminine for meam, tuam, suam, etc., that refert was originally rem fert, and that hence the e of refert is long.

REM. 3. Instead of the genitive, an accusative with ad is sometimes used; as, Ad hönörem meum interest quam primum urbem me venire. Cic. Quid id ad me aut ad meam rem refert. Plant.—sometimes, though rarely, an accusative without a preposition; as, Quid te igitur retulit? Plant—or a dative; as, Die quid referat intra nātūræ fines viventi. Hor.

REM. 4. The subject of these verbs, or the thing which is of interest or importance, is sometimes expressed by a neuter pronoun; as, Id mea minime refert. Ter. Hoc véhémenter intérest reipüblica. Cic.; and sometimes by an infinitive with its accusative, or ut, or an interrogative particle with a subjunctive clause; as, multum mea intérest te esse diligentem, or ut diligens sis, or utrum diligens sis nec ne. When the infinitive alone is used with refert or intérest, the preceding subject is understood; as, omnium intérest recte fárère, scil. se.

Rem. 5. The degree of interest or importance is expressed by adverbs or by neuter adjectives, etc., in the accusative or genitive; as, mágis, magnôpêre, vêhèmenter, pārum, minime, etc.; multum, plūs, plūrimum, nihil, āliquid, etc.; tanti, quanti, magni, permagni, plūris. But minimo discrimine refert is found in Juv. 5, 123.

§ 220. Many verbs which are usually otherwise construed, are sometimes followed by a genitive. This rule includes

- 1. Certain verbs denoting an affection of the mind; ango, discrücior, excrücio, fallo, pendeo, which are followed by ănimi; dēcipior, dēsipio, fallor, fastīdio, incideo, mīror, vēreor; as, Absurde fācis, qui angas te ānimi. Plaut. Me ānimi fallit. Lucr. Dēcipitur lābōrum. Hor. Dēsipiēbam mentis. Plaut. Justītiæne prius mīrer bēlline lābōrum. Virg.
- 2. The following, in imitation of the Greek idiom; abstineo, dēsino, purgo. Hor.; dēsisto. Virg.; laudo, prohibeo. Sil.; lēvo, partic∳o. Plaut.; libēro. Liv.; dissolvo. Tibull.: compare liber lābōrum; opērum vācuus; pūrus scēlēris. § 213.
- 3. Some verbs denoting to fill, to abound, to want or need, to free, which are commonly followed by an ablative. Such are abundo, careo, compleo, expleo, impleo, eyeo, indigeo, saturo, obsaturo, scateo; as, Adolescentem suce temeritatis implet, He fills the youth with his own rashness. Liv. Animum explesse flammer. Virg. Eyeo consilii. Cic. Non tam artis indigent quam laboris. Id. See §§ 249 and 250, (2.)
- 4. Pótior, which also is usually followed by an ablative; as, Urbis pótiri, To make oneself master of the city. Sall. Pótiri regni (Cic.), hostium (Sall.) rerum, To make oneself master of the world. Cic. Pótic (active) occurs in Plautus; as, Eum nunc pótirit servitūtis, He has made him partaker of slavery. In the same writer, pótitus est hostium signifies, 'he fell into the hands of the enemy.' So, also, Aliquem compótire prædæ or vöti. App. So, Rērum ádeptus est. Tac. Dómlnātionis ápisci. Id. Regnāvit pôpūlorum. Hor.

GENITIVE OF PLACE.

§ **221.** 1. The name of a town in which any thing is said to be, or to be done, if of the first or second declension and singular number, is put in the genitive; as,

Häbitat Mületi, He lives at Miletus. Ter. Quid Römæ făciam? What can I do at Rome? Juv. Hercüles Týri maxime cölitur. Cic.

Note. For the construction of nouns of the third declension or plural number, see § 254. The following appears to be the best explanation that has been given of this diversity of construction, depending solely on the number or declension of the noun. The name of the town 'where' or 'in which' is probably neither in the genitive nor the ablative, but always, as in Greek, in the dative. Since the genitive and dative are alike in the singular of the first declension and the dative and ablative plural are the same in all declensions, such examples as Römæ and Athénis present no difficulty. In the third declension the dative and ablative singular were anciently alike, and in such ablatives as Anwīri, Carthāgini, Lācēdæmöni, the old form remains, see § 82, Exc. 5, (c.) In the second declension there was an old dative in ci, as in Greek, which was commonly changed to o, but's sometimes to i: and the latter is still found in nulli, uni, etc., see § 107, and in the adjective pronouns; as, illi, etc.

REMARK 1. Names of islands and countries are sometimes put in the genitive, like names of towns; as, Ithácæ vīvěre, To live in Ithaca. Cic. Corcipratums. Id. Cönon plürimum Cypri vixit, Timötheus Lesbi. Nep. Quum Militiades dömum. Chersönesi hābuit. Id. Öretæ jussit considère Apollo. Virg. Römæ Nümid-

iæque făcinora ējus mēmorat. Sall.

REM. 2. (a.) Instead of the genitive, the ablative of names of towns of the first and second declension and singular number, is sometimes, though rarely, used; as, Rex Tyro décēdit, The king dies at Tyre. Just. Et Côrintho et Athènis et Lăcēdœmône nunciāta est victôria. Id. Pons quem ille Abydo fēcērat. Id. Hujus exemplar Rōmā nullum hābēmus. Vitruv. Non Lībyæ, non ante Tyro Virg. For the explanation of this apparent anomaly, see the preceding note; in accordance with which it may be remarked, that the adverbs of place, ābi, ibi, ibidem, dībi, ālicūbi, hic, illic, istīc, etc., appear from their form to be ancient datives.—(b.) When the noun is qualified by an adjective, it is put, not in the genitive, but in the ablative with in; as, In ipsā Alexandrā. Cic. And poetically without in, Gēnus Longā nostrum döminābītur Albā. Virg.—(c.) When urbs, oppīdum, lūcus; etc., follow the genitive of place as appositions, they are put in the ablative either with, or, more rarely, without, in; as, Archias Antibeberrimo oppīdo sepe vādīmus. Id. But when in urbe, etc., precede-the name of a town, the latter also is put in the ablative; as, In oppīdo Citio. Nep.; and but very rarely in the genitive; as, Cassius in oppīdo Antiŏchīæ est,—in the town of Antiŏch. Cic., where the genitive depends on oppīdo

REM. 3. The genitives domi, militia, belli, and humi, are construed like names of towns; as,

Tënuit se domi, He staid at home. Cic. Vir domi clārus. Liv. Spargit hūmi jussos dentes,—on the ground. Ovid. Mīlitiæ and belli are thus used, especially when opposed to domi; as, Una semper militiæ et domi futmus,—both at home and in the camp. Ter. So Domi militiæque. Cic. Et domi et militiæ. Id. Mīlitiæ domīque. Liv. Mīlitiæ et domi. Ter. Belli domīque, in war and in peace. Hor.

(1.) Domi is thus used with the possessives meæ, tuæ, suæ, nostræ, vestræ, and dilenæ; as, Domi nostræ vixit. He lived at my house. Cic. Apud eum sic fui tamquam meæ domi. Id. Sacrificium, quod alienæ domi fièret invisère. Id. But with other adjectives, an ablative, generally with a preposition, is used; as, In vidua domo. Ovid. Paternā domo. Id. Sometimes also with the possessives; as, Meā in domo. Hor. In domo suā. Nep. So, instead of hūmi, 'upon the ground,'

humo is sometimes used; with or without a preposition; as, In humo arenosa. Ovid. Sédere humo nuda. Id.

(2.) When a genitive denoting the possessor follows, either dömi or in dömo is used; as, Dēprehensus dömi Cæsáris. Cic. Dŏmi illius fuisti. Id. In dŏmo Cæsáris. Id. In dŏmo ejus. Nep.

(3.) The ablative domo for domi also occurs, but not in Cicero; as, Ego id nunc expérior domo. Plaut. Domo se ténère. Nep. Domo abditus. Suet. Bello for belli is found in Livy—Domi belloque. So, also, humo for humi; Stratus humo. Stat. Figit humo plantas. Virg.: and in humo lumen figit. Ovid.

(4.) Terræ is sometimes used like hůmi; as, Sacra terræ cēlāvimus. Liv. Projectus terræ. Virg. Ignes terræ condit. Luc. So, also, árēnæ; Truncum

reliquit arenæ. Virg.: and viciniæ; Proximæ viciniæ habitat. Plaut.

(5.) The genitive of names of towns, domi, militiæ, etc., is supposed by some to depend on a noun understood; as, urbe, oppido, ædibus, solo, lóco, tempore, etc., but see a different explanation above in Note.

GENITIVE AFTER PARTICLES.

II. Certain adverbs are followed by the genitive. See § 212, R. 4.

III. The genitive plural sometimes depends on the preposition tenus: as.

Cumarum tenus, As far as Cumæ. Coel. Crurum tenus. Virg. Laterum tenus. Id. Urbium Corcyra tenus. Liv .- For the ablative after tenus, and for the place of the preposition, see § 241, and R. 1.

DATIVE.

§ 222. 1. The dative is the case of reference, as it denotes the object with reference to which the subject acts, or in reference to which it possesses any specified quality; or, in other words, the object for which, to the benefit or loss of which, any thing is or is done. Hence, in distinction from the dative of the end (§ 227) the dative of reference is called datīvus commodi et incommodi, the dative of advantage and disadvantage; as,

Scribo vobis hunc librum, I write this book for you. Prosum tibi, or Tibi

ūtilis sum, I am useful to you.

2. Hence the dative of advantage and disadvantage may be used (a) with adjectives and particles whose meaning is incomplete unless the object is mentioned in reference to which the quality exists. (b) With verbs both transitive and intransitive. If transitive they take an accusative of the nearer and a dative of the remoter object, if intransitive they take a dative only. (c) With certain verbs compounded with prepositions, after which the dative is used instead of the case which the preposition, if separate, would govern. (d) After a few verbal substantives derived from verbs which govern a dative.

DATIVE AFTER ADJECTIVES.

3. A noun limiting the meaning of an adjective, is put in the dative, t denote the object to which the quality is directed; as,

Utilis agris, Useful to the fields Juv. Jūcundus āmīcis, Agreeable to his friends. Mart. Intmīcus quiêti, Unfriendly to rest. Id. Charta inūtilis scrībendo, Paper not useful for writing. Plin.

Nore. The dative is commonly translated by the prepositions to or for; but sometimes by other prepositions, or without a preposition.

REMARK 1. Adjectives signifying useful, pleasant, friendly, fit, like, inclined, ready, easy, clear, equal, and their opposites, also those signifying near, many compounded with con, and verbals in bilis, are followed by the dative; as,

Fēlix tuis, Propitious to your friends. Virg. Orâtio ingrâta Gallis, A speech displeasing to the Gauls. Cæs. Amīcus týrannidi, Friendly to tyranny. Nep. Läböri inhābilis, Unsuited to labor. Colum. Patri similis, Like his father. Cic. Nihil tam est Lýsiæ diversum, quam Isocrâtes. Aptum tempôri. Id. Mǎlo prōnus. Sen. Promptus sēdītioni. Tac. Cuivis fācile est. Ter. Mhli certum est. Cic. Par frātri tuo. Id. Falsa vēris finitima sunt. Id. Ocūli concolòres corpôri. Colum. Multis bōnis flēbīlis. Hor. Mors est terribilis iis, quōrum, etc. Cic.

- (a.) The following are some of the adjectives included in Rem. 1, viz. grātus, acceptus, dulcis, jūcundus, kelus, suāvis; ingrātus, insuāvis, injūcundus, molestus, grātis, deerbus, dolšaus, tristis;—ūtlis, intatils, bōnus, sālūber, sūlūtāris, fructušus; cālāmitōsus, damnōsus, funestus, noxius, pestifer, pernīciōsus, exitiōsus:—āmīcus, bēnērolus, cārus, fāmiliāris, œquus, fīdus, fīdelis, própitius, sēcundus; intimcus, adversus, œmālus, diēnus, contrārius, infestus, injā dus, injouus, irātus—aptus, accommodātus, appošitus, hābilis, idōneus, opportānus; ineptus, inhābilis, importānus, inconvēniens;—œquālis, par, impar, dispar, similis, dissimilis, absimilis, discolor:—prōnus, prōcīvis, prōpensus, promptus, pārātus—fācilis, difficilis:—āpertus, conspicuus, mānīfestus, perspicuus, obscūrus, certus, compertus, nōtus, ambiquus, dūbius, ignātus, incertus, insolītus;—vīcīnus, finitīmus, confinis, contermīnus, prōpior, proxīmus, cognātus, concolor, concors, congruus, consanguineus, consentāneus, consōnus, conreniens, contiguus, continuus, continens.
- (b.) Many adjectives of other significations, including some compounds of ob, sub, and super, as obnoxius, obvius, subjectus, supplex, and superstes, are also followed by a dative of the object.
- (c.) After verbals in bilis, the dative is usually rendered by the preposition by; as, Tibi crēdibilis sermo, A speech credible to you, i. e. worthy to be believed by you. Ovid.
- (d.) The expression dicto audiens, signifying obedient, is followed by the dative; as, Syrācūsāni nōbis dicto audientes sunt. Cic. Audiens dicto fuit jussis māgistrātuum. Nep. In this phrase, dicto is a dative limiting audiens, and the words dicto audiens seem to form a compound equivalent to bbēdiens, and, like that, followed by a dative; thus, Nee plebs nōbis dicto audiens atque bbēdiens sit. Liv. So dicto bbēdiens; as, Futūra es dicto bbēdiens, annon, patri? Plaut.
- Rem. 2. (a.) The adjectives æquālis, affinis, ăliēnus, cognōminis, commūnis, contrarius, fidus, insuētus, pur, dispar, pēcāliāris, proprius, propinquus, sācer, stutlis, assimilis, consimilis, dissimilis, sōcius, vīcīnus, sūperstes, supplex, and some others, instead of a dative of the object, are sometimes followed by a genitive; as, Par hujus, Equal to him. Lucan. Proprium est Grātōris ornāte dicēre. Cic. But most of these words, when thus used, seem rather to be taken substantively; as, Æquālis ejus, His contemporary. Cic.
- (b.) Similis, assimilis, consimilis, dissimilis, par and dispar, take the genitive, when an internal resemblance, or a resemblance in character or disposition, is to be expressed, and hence we always find mei, tui, sui, nostri, vestri, similis; as, Plūres rēges Rōmūli quam Nūmæ similes. Liv.
- (c.) Amīcus, inimicus, and fāmiliāris, owing to their character as substantives, take a genitive even in the superlative; as, Homo āmicissimus nostrorum,—very friendly to our countrymen. Cic. On the other hand, hostis, though a substantive, is sometimes "sed like an adjective, being modified by

an adverb, and taking an object in the dative; as, Exspectantibus omnibus quisnam esset tam impius, tam demens, tam diis hominibusque hostis, qui, etc. Cf. § 277, R. 1.

- REM. 3. Some adjectives with the dative are followed by another case denoting a different relation; as, *Mens sibi conscia* recti, A mind conscious to itself of rectitude. Virg. See § 213, R. 7.
- REM. 4. Many adjectives, instead of the dative of the object, are often followed by an accusative with a preposition.
- (1.) Adjectives signifying useful, fit, and the opposite, take an accusative of the thing with ad, but only a dative of the person; as, Hŏmo ad nullam rem ūtilis. Cic. Lŏcus aptus ad insīdias. Id.
- (2.) Adjectives denoting motion or tendency, take an accusative with ad more frequently than a dative; as, Piger ad poenas, ad præmia vēlox, Ovid; Ad āliquem morbum prōcliror, Cic.; Ad omne făcinus părâtus, Id.; Prônus ad fidem, Liv.;—sometimes with in; as, Ciler in pugnam. Sil.
- (3.) Many adjectives, signifying an affection of the mind, may have an accusative of the object with in, erga, or adversus, instead of the dative; as, Fidelis in filios. Just. Māter ācerba in suos partus. Ovid. Grātus erga me. Cic. Grātum adversus te. Id. So Distmitis in döminum. Tac.
- (4.) Adjectives signifying like, equal, common, etc., when plural, are often followed by the accusative with inter; as, Inter se similes. Cic. Here sunt inter eos communia. Id. Inter se diversi. Id.
- REM. 5. Propior and proximus, instead of the dative, have sometimes, like their primitive prope, an accusative; as, Quod vitium propius virtutem erat. Sall. P. Crassus proximus mare Oceanum hiémārat. Cæs. Ager, qui proximus finem Mēgālopolitārum est. Liv. Cf. § 238, 1.
- REM. 6. (a.) Some adjectives, instead of the dative, have at times an ablative with a preposition. Thus, par, commūnis, consentāneus, discors, with cum; as, Quem pārem cum lībēris fēcisti. Sall. Consentāneum cum iis lītēris. Cic. Cīvītas sēcum discors. Liv. So āliēnus and diversus with a or ab; as, Aliēnus a me, Ter.; A rātiōne dīversus, Cic.; or without a preposition; as, Aliēnum nostrā āmīcitīā. Id.—(b.) Frētus, which regularly takes the ablative, is in Livy construed with the dative; as, fortūnæ frētus; nulli rei frētus, etc. Cf. § 244.—(c.) The participial adjectives junctus and conjunctus, instead of the dative take sometimes the ablative either with or without cum.
- REM. 7. Idem is sometimes followed by the dative, chiefly in the poets; as Jūpiter omnibus idem. Virg. Invitum qui servat, idem fācit occidenti. Hor In the first example. omnibus is a dative of the object; in the second, the dative follows idem, in imitation of the Greek construction with autofs, and is equivalent to quod occidens, or quod fācit is, qui occidit. Similis is construed in the same manner in Hor. Sat. 1, 3, 122. Idem is generally followed not by a case, but by qui, ac, atque, ut, quási, or quam; sometimes by the preposition cum. Cf. § 207, R. 27, (d.). Similis and par are sometimes, like idem, followed by ac and atque.
- REM. 8. Some verbal substantives are followed by the dative, when derived from verbs governing the dative; as, Justitia est obtempératio scriptis légibus institutisque pôpalôrum. Cic. Traditio alicajus rei altéri. Id. Exprobratio cuiquam vétéris fortance. Liv.

Note. A dative of the object often follows esse and other verbs, in connection with a predicate nominative or accusative, but such dative is dependent, not on the noun, but on the verb. Cf. § 227, R. 4

DATIVE AFTER VERBS.

§ 223. A noun limiting the meaning of a verb, is put in the dative, to denote the *object to* or *for* which any thing is, or is done; as,

Mea dómus tibi pătet, My house is open to you. Cic. Pars optāre lócum tecto, A part choose a site for a building. Virg. Tibi sēris, tibi mētis, You sow for yourself, you reap for yourself. Plaut. (Licet nēmini contra patriam dūcēre exercitum, It is not lawful for any one to lead an army against his country. Cic. Hoc tibi prōmitto, I promise you this. Id. Hæret lateri lētālis ārundo. Virg. Surdo fābūlam næras. Hor. Mihi responsum dēdīt. Virg. Sic vos non vōbis fertis ārātra, bōves. Id. Omnībus bōnis expēdīt salvam esse rempūblīcam. Cic. Aplat hābendo ensem. Virg.

Note. The dative is thus used after all verbs, whether transitive or intransitive, personal or impersonal, and in both voices, provided their signification admits a reference to a remoter object, for whom or to whose benefit or injury any thing is done. In the passive voice, from their nature, neuter verbs can only be so construed impersonally. Cf. § 142, 1, and § 222, 2.

REMARK 1. The dative after many verbs is rendered not by to or for, but by other prepositions, or without a preposition. Many intransitive Latin verbs are translated into English by verbs transitive, and the dative after them is usually rendered like the object of a transitive verb.—Most verbs after which the signs to and for are not used with the dative, are enumerated in this and the following sections.

REM. 2. Many verbs signifying to favor, please, trust, assist, and their contraries, also to command, obey, serve, resist, threaten, and be angry, take a dative of the object.

Note. The neuter verbs comprehended in this rule generally express in the verbal form the meaning of those adjectives, which are followed by the dative, (cf. § 222, R. 1,) Thus, (a.) Illa fibi fåvet, She favors you, or is favorable to you. Ovid. Mihi pläcebat Pompōnius, minime displicebat. Cic. Qui sibi fidit. Hor. Non livet sui commòdi causa nocere alteri. Cic. Non invidetur illi ataised ctiam fåvetur. Id. Desperat salati sue. Id. Neque mihi vestra decreta auxiliantur. Sall. Imperat aut servit collecta pecunia cuique. Hor. Obedire et parère voluntati. Cic. Quoniam factioni inimicorum resistère nequiverit. Sall. Mihi minabatur Cic. Iracci nimicis. Caes.

- (b.) So Adūlor, assentior, blandior, commõdo, făveo, grātificor, grātor, grātilor, and its verbal grātilābundus, ignosco, indukgeo, lēnūcinor, palpor, parco, plaudo, respondeo, stūdeo, suppārāstior; amīlor, incommõdo, invideo, nōceo, obsum, officio;—arrideo, placeo; displaceo;—crēdo, fido, confido; despēro, diffido;—adminicitlor, auxilior, mādeor, mēdicor, potitilor, parcientor, prosum, subrētio, succuro; dēsum, nacilior, impēro, mando, mūdēror, præcipio, tempēro; ausculto, morigēror, öbēdio, obsēcundo, obsēguro, obtempēro, pāreo, dicto audiens sum,—ancillor, famidor, ministro, servio, inservio, præsilor,—adversor, refagor, obsto, obtrecto, rēluctor, rēnītor, rēpugno, rēsisto, and, chiefly in the poets, bello, certo, luctor, pugno;—minor, comminor, inversion;—rascor, succenseo, stōmāchor.—To these may be added æquo, dūæquo, convictor, dēgēnēro, excello, nūbo, suppēdīto, prævāricor, rēcipio (to promise), rōmucio, suādeo, persuādeo, dissaādeo, supplico, vāco, videor, and sometimes misceo and lāteo—also the impersonals accidit, convēnit, condūcit, sontingit, dēcet, dölet, expēdit, līcet, lībet, or lībet, līquet, placet, etc.—(c.) Intransitive verbs governing a dative are often used impersonally in the passive with the same case; as, mībi incidētur, I am envied. Mībi matēdicitur, I am revied. Mībi parcitur, I am spared. Hor. Hoc persuādētur mībi, I am persuādēd of this.
- (1,) (a.) Many of the above verbs, which, as intransitive, take the dative, sometimes become transitive and are followed by an accusative; as, oddlor, ausculto, blandior, degenero, espero, indulgeo, lateo, médeor, médeor, modéror, obtrecto, præstfor, provideo, etc.; as, Addlari allquem. Cic. Hanc cave degenerem frümentariam. Id.—Sometimes also by a preposition and the ablative or accusative; as, A Stoicis degenerative Pánætius. Cic. De republica desperare. Id. Obtrectarunt inter se. Nep.—or by a dependent clause; as, Quæ desperat tractata nitescère posse, rélinquit. Hor.

- (b.) Others, as transitive verbs, have, with the dative, an accusative, expressed or understood; as, impēro, mando, ministro, minor, comminor, interminor, præcipio, rēcipio, rēnuncio, etc.; as, Equites impērat cīvitātībus; where cōgendos is perhaps to be supplied, He enjoins upon the states the providing of cavalry. Cas. See § 274, R. 5. Ministrāre victum ālīcui. Varr. Dēflagrātionem urbi et lāliu tāti minābātur. Cic.
- (c.) Equo and adaquo are construed with the accusative and either the dative or cum with the ablative.—Invideo takes either a single dative of the person and an accusative of the thing; as, Honorem mini invident. Hor.; or, when invider is used in the sense of privare, a dative of the person and an ablative of the thing; as, Non inviderunt laude sua mulieribus. Liv. In Horace, by a Greek construction, the genitive is once used instead of the accusative or ablative of the thing; as, Neque ille sépósiti ciceris nec longe invidet áveive.
- (d.) Cido, used transitively, takes a dative of the person and an accusative of the thing; but sometimes the thing is expressed by the ablative; as, cēdēre alicui possessione hortorum. So, also, concēdo tibi locum, or concēdo tibi loco.
- (2.) Many verbs which, from their significations, might be included in the above classes, are, as transitive verbs, only followed by an accusative; as, delecto, jūvo, adjūvo, adjūto, ledo, offendo, etc.—Jūbo is followed by the accusative with an infinitive, and sometimes by the accusative alone, or the dative with the infinitive or subjunctive; as, Jūbo te bēne spērāre. Cic. Lex jūbo te a que fācienda sunt. Id. Ubi Britannico jussit exsurgère. Tac. Quibus jussērat, ut instantibus resistērent. Id.—Fido and confīdo are often followed by the ablative, with or without a preposition; as, Fūdere cursu. Ovid. Cf. § 245.
- § **224.** Many verbs compounded with these eleven prepositions, \check{ad} , $ant\check{e}$, $c\check{on}$, \check{in} , $int\check{er}$, \check{ob} , post, $prac{a}$, pro, $s\check{ub}$, and $s\check{up}\check{er}$, are followed by the dative; as,

Annue cceptis, Be favorable to our undertakings. Virg. Römänis ěquitibus litéræ afféruntur, Letters are brought to the Roman knights. Cic. Antécellère omnibus, To excel all. Id. Antétuli træ réligionem. Nep. Andetque viris concurrère virgo. Virg. Exercitum exercitui, duces ducibus comparare. Liv. Imminet his aer. Ovid. Pècori signum impressit. Virg. Nox prælio intervênit. Liv. Interdixit histriönībus scēnam. Suet. Meis commõdis officis et obstas. Cic. Cum se hostium tēlis objēcissent. Id. Posthábui mea sēria lūdo. Virg. Certāmini præsēdit. Suet. Hībernis Labienum præpōsuit. Cæs. Gēnībus prōcumbère. Ovid. Mīsēris succurrère disco. Virg. Iis subsidia submittēbat. Cæs. Timīdis sūpervēnit Æyle. Virg.

- NOTE 1. This rule implies that the compound retains the meaning of the preposition; and the dative following such compound is then used instead of the case governed by the preposition. When such compounds are transitive they have with the dative an accusative also, like other transitive verbs.
- 1. Accēdo, accresco, accumbo, acquiesco, ădequito, adhareo, adjaceo, adno, adnăto, adsto, adstipulor, adsum, adversor, affulgeo, allabor, alludo, annuo, appareo, applaudo, appropinquo, arrepo, arrideo, aspiro, assentior, assideo, assisto, assuesco, assurgo;—addo, adhibeo, adjicio, adjungo, admoveo, adverto, advelvo, affero, affigo, alligo, appono, applico, aspergo.
- 2. Antecedo, antecello, anteco, antesto, antevenio, anteverto; -antefero, antehabeo, anterioro.
- 3. Cöhtreo, colludo, concino, congruo, consentio, consuo, consuesco, conviro, and, chiefly in the poets, coéo, concumbo, concurro, contendo;—confero, conjungo, comparo, compono.
- 4. Inclido, incubo, incumbo, indormio, ingémisco, inhæreo, inhio, innascor, innlior, insido, insido, insido, insulto, invado, invigilo, illarimo, illido, immineo, immorior, immorior, impendeo, insum;—immisceo, impertio, impono, imprimo, inclido, inclido, induo, infero, ingero, injicio, insero, inspergo, insuesco, inuro.
- 5. Intercedo, intercido, intercludo, interjaceo, intermico intersum, intervenio; -interdico, interjacio, interpono

- 6. Obambūlo, oberro, obšequito, obluctor, obmurmūro, obrēpo, obsto, obsisto, obstrēpo, obsum, ottreto, obvērio, obversor, occumbo, occurro, occurso, officio;—ob. uco, objicio, offero, offindo, oppāno.
 - 7 Postfero, posthabeo, postpono, postputo, postscribo.
- 8. Præcedo, præcurro, præeo, præliceo, præmineo, præniteo, præsideo, præsum, præveleo, præverlor;—væfero, præficio, præpino.
 - 9. Procumbo, proficio, propugno, prospicio, provideo.
- 10. Succēdo, succresco, succumbo, succurro, sufficio, suffragor, subideo, subjaceo, subrepo, subsum, subvenio; -subdo, subjicio, subjugo, submitto, suppono, substerno.
 - 11. Supercurro, supersto, supersum, supervenio, supervivo.
- Note 2. In some verbs compounded with prepositions the meaning of the preposition is lost. Such compounds are either not followed by a dative, or the case depends, not on the preposition, but on the signification of the verb, according to § 223.
- REMARK 1. (a.) Some verbs, compounded with āb, dē, ex, circum, and contrā, are occasionally followed by the dative; as, absum, dēsum, dēlābor, despēro, excēdo, circumdo, circumfundo, circumfueco, circumfundo, circumfaco, as, Serta cāpīti dēlapsa, The garlands having fallen from his head. Virg. Numqua nummi excidērunt tibi? Plaut. Tigris urbi circumfundutur. Plin. Sībi despērans. Cass.—(b.) Circumdo and circumfundo take either an accusative of the thing with a dative of the person; or an ablative of the thing with an accusative of the person; as, circumdo ālicui custūdias, or circumdo āliquem custūdiis. Aspergo, impergo, dōno, impertio, exuo, and induo, are construed in the same manner. Cf. § 251, R. 2.
- REM. 2. Some verbs of repelling and taking away (most of which are compounds of āb, dē, or ex), are sometimes followed by the dative, though more commonly by the ablative; as, ābigo, abrōgo, absciado, aufēro, ādīmo, arceo, dēfendo, dēmo, dēpello, dērōgo, detrāho, ēripio, ēruo, excūtio, eximo, extorqueo, extrāho, exuo, prohibeo, surripio. Thus, Nec milni te ēripient, Nor shall they take you from me. Ovid. Solstītium pēcori dēfendite. Virg. Hunc arcēbis pēcori. Id. So rarely abrumpo, āliēno, fūror, and rūpio.
- REM. 3. Some verbs of differing (compounds of di or dis) likewise occur with the dative, instead of the ablative with the preposition dis, or poetically with the ablative alone; as, différo, discrépo, discordo, dissentio, dissideo, disto; as, Quantum simplex hildrisque n'epôti discrépet, et quantum discordet, parcus avano. Hor. Distabit infido scurræ ámicus. Hor. Græcis Tuscanicæ státuæ différunt. Quint. Comædia differt sermoni. Hor. So likewise misceo; as, Mista modestiæ grávitus. Cic.
- REM. 4. Many verbs compounded with prepositions, especially with ad, con, and in, instead of the dative, either constantly or occasionally take the case of the preposition, which is frequently repeated. Sometimes, also, a preposition of similar signification is used; as, Ad primam vocem timidas advertitis aures. Ovid. Nimo eum anticessit. Nop. Saxa vides sold codlescère calce. Luct. Inférant nomaia in ignem. Case. Silex incumbébat ad ammem. Virg. Innixus modèramine navis. Ovid. In Pansam fratrem innixus. Plin. Conferte hane pacem cum illo bello. Cic. In this substitution of one preposition for another, ad is used for in, and in for ad; ab for ex; ad, ante, contra, and in, for ob; ad and ante, for pro.
- REM. 5. Neuter verbs of motion or of rest in a place, when compourded with the prepositions, åd, anté, con, in, etc., either take the dative, or, acquiring an active signification, are followed by the accusative; as, Helvētii rēliquos Gallos virtāte præcēdunt, The Helvetii surpass the other Gauls in valor. Cass. Uterque, Isocratem ætāte præcurrit. Cic. So præco, præsto, præverto, præcello. See § 233, (3.)
- § 225. I. Verbs compounded with sătis, běne, and măle, are followed by the dative; as,

Et nātūræ et lēgībus sătisfēcit, He satisfied both nature and the laws. Cic. Tibi dii běněfāci.ut omnes, May all the gods bless you. Plaut. But also, Amicum erga bēne fēci. Id. Mālēdīcit utrūque. Hor. So sātisdo, běnědīco, mālēfācic

Note. These compounds are often written separately; and the dative always depends on satis, bene, and male, but on the simple verb. So, also, bene and male alicut valo: as, Tibl bene ex animo volo. Ter. Illi ego ex animo volo. Plant. Non eibi malé vult. Petron. In like manner valere dico, and vale dico; as, Augustus discedens (e curia) sedentibus singulis valere dicebat. Suet. Tibi valedicere non licet gratis. Sen.—In late writers benedico and maledico sometimes take the accusative.

II. Verbs in the passive voice are sometimes followed by a dative of the agent, chiefly in the poets and the later prose writers; as, Quidquid in hac causā mihi susceptum est. Cic. Neque cernitur ulli, Nor is he seen by any one. Virg. Nulla tuārum audita mihi neque visu sororum. Id. Barbārus hic ego sundin santalisan ulli. Orid. But the agent of for passive is marily in the quia non intelligor ulli. Ovid. But the agent after passives is usually in the ablative with a or ab. See § 248, I.

The participle in dus is followed by a dative of the agent; as,

Unda omnībus ēnāviganda, The wave over which (we) all must pass. Hor. Nobis, cum sēmel occidit brēvis lux, Nox est perpētua ūna dormienda. Catull. Adhibenda est nobis diligentia, We must use diligence. Cic. Vestīgia summōrum hōmīnum sībi tuenda esse dīcil. Id. Si vis me ţlēre, dolendum est prīmum ipsi tībi. Hor. Fāciendum mīhi pūtāvi, ut respondērem. Id.

REMARK 1. The dative is sometimes wanting when the agent is indefinite; as, Orandum est, ut sit mens sana in corpore sano. Juv. Hic vincendum aut moriendum, milites, est. Liv. In such examples, tibi, vobis, nobis, hominibus, etc., may be supplied. Cf. § 141, R. 2.

REM. 2. The participle in dus sometimes, though rarely, has, instead of the dative of the agent, an ablative with ā or ăb; as, Non eos in deōrum immortālium nămēro rēnērandos a vobis et colendos pătātos? Cic. Hac a me in dicendo pratereunda non sunt. Id.—The dative after participles in dus is by some referred to § 226.

IV. Verbs signifying motion or tendency are followed by an accusative with ad or in; as,

Ad templum Palladis ībant. Virg. Ad prætörem hominem traxit. Cic. Vergit

ad septemtriones. Cæs. In conspectum vénire. Nep.
So curro, dūco, féro, festino, fúgio, inclino, lēgo, mitto, pergo, porto, præcipito, propèro, tendo, tollo, vādo, verto.

REMARK 1. So likewise verbs of calling, exciting, etc.; as, Eurum ad se vocat. Virg. Provocasse ad pugnam. Cic. So animo, hortor, incito, invito, lacesso, stimulo, suscito; to which may be added attineo, conformo, pertineo, and specto.

REM. 2. But the dative is sometimes used after these verbs; as, Clāmor it cœlo. Virg. Dum tibi litëræ meæ věniant. Cic. Gregem viridi compellère hibisco. Virg. Sedibus hunc refer ante suis. Id. After vénio both constructions are used at the same time; as, Vénit nihi in mentem. Cic. Venit nihi in suspicionem. Nep. Eum vénisse Germānis in amicitiam cognöverat. Cæs. Propinquo (to approach) takes the dative only.

REM. 3. Sometimes also verbs signifying motion are followed by an accusative of place without a preposition, a supine in um, an infinitive, or an adverb of place; as, Rōmam profectus est. Ite dŏmum. Rus ībam. Lāvīnia vēnit lītora. Virg. Nēque ēgo te dērīsum vēnio. Plaut. Non nos Libýcos pŏpūlāre pēnātes vēnimus. Virg. Huc vēnit. Plaut. See §§ 237, 276, II. 271, N. 2.

REM. 4.. After do, scribo, or mitto literas, the person for whom they are written or to whom they are sent, is put either in the dative or in the accusative with ad; as, Ex eo loco tibi literas ante dederamus. Cic. Vulturcius literas sibi ad Catilinam dătas esse, dicēbat. Id. Cesar scribit Labieno cum, etc. Cæs. Ad me Cürius de te scripsit. Cic. But to give one a letter to deliver is also expressed by dăre lītēras ălicui, and also the delivery of the letter by the bearer.

§ **226**. Est is followed by a dative denoting a possessor;—the thing possessed being the subject of the verb.

Est thus used may generally be translated by the verb to have with the dative as its subject; as, Est milii dömi pāter, I have a father at home. Ving Sunt nōbis mītia pōma, We have mellow apples. Id. Grātiā nōbis opus est tuā, We have need of your favor. Cic. Innocentiæ plus pēricāli quam honoris est. Sall. An nescis longus rēgībus esse mānus? Ovid. So with an infinitive as the subject, Nec tībi sit dūros ācuisse in prelia dentes. Tīb. 4, 3, 3. The first and second persons of sum are not thus construed.

REMARK 1. Hence mihi est nömen signifies, I have the name, my name is, or I am called. The proper name is put either in the nominative, the dative, or the genitive. See § 204, R. 8. So also cognömen, cognömentum, and, in Tacitacy vöcābūlum, est mihi.—Sometimes, also, a possessive adjective agreeing with nömen, etc., supplies the place of the proper name; as, Est mihi nömen Tarquīnium. Gell. Mercūriāle impösuēre mihi cognōmen. Hor.

Rem. 2. The dative is used with a similar signification after före, suppētit, abest, deest, and dēfit; as, Pauper ēnim non est, cui rērum suppētit ūsus. Hor. Sī mihi cauda föret, cercopīthēcus ĕram. Mart. Dēfuit ars vobis. Ovid. Non dēfore Arsācldis virtūtem. Tac. Lac mihi non dēfit. Virg. Hoc ūnum illi abfuit. Cic.

REM. 3. With the dative of the person after est Sallust and Tacitus sometimes join, by a Greek idiom, võlens, cüpiens, and invitus; as, Quia nõque plēbi militia võlenti (esse) pätäbātur, Because the common people were not thought to like the war. Sall. Ut quibusque bellum invitis aut cüpientibus ērat, According as each liked or disliked the war. Tac.

DATIVE OF THE END OR PURPOSE.

§ 227. Sum, and several other verbs, are followed by two datives, one of which denotes the *object to which*, the other the end for which, any thing is, or is done; as,

Mihi maxima est cūræ, It is a very great care to me. Cic. Spēro nöbis hanc conjunctionem võluptāti före, I hope this union will afford us pleasure. Id. Mātri puellam döno dēdit. Ter. Fābio laudi dātum est. Cic. Vitio id tibi vertunt. Plaut. Id tibi hönöri hābētur. Cic. Mātirāvit collēgæ vēnīre auxīlio. Liv. Cui böno fuit? To whom was it an advantage? Cic.

REMARK 1. The verbs after which two datives occur, are sum, fore, fio, do, dono, daco, habeo, relinquo, tribuo, verto; also curro, eo, mitto, proficiscor, vento, appono, assigno, cedo, comparo, pateo, suppedito, emo, and some others.

REM. 2. The dative of the *end* or *purpose* is often used after these verbs, without the dative of the object; as,

Exemplo est formīca, The ant is (serves for) an example. Hor. Absentium bōna divīsui fuēre. Liv. Rēliquit pignōri pātāmīna. Plaut. Que ēsui et pōtui sunt. Gell. Esse dērīsui, To be a subject of ridicule. Tac. Rēceptui cānēre, To sound a retreat. Cæs. Aliquid dōti dīcāre, To set out as dowry. Cic.

REM. 3. (a.) The verb sum, with a dative of the end, may be variously rendered; as by the words brings, affords, serves, does, etc. The sign for is often omitted with this dative, especially after sum; instead of it, as, or some other particle, may at times be used; as,

Ignāvia ērit tībi magno dēděcŏri, Cowardice will bring great disgrace to you. Cic. Heec res est argumento, This thing is an argument, or serves as an argument. Id. Hoc vītio mihi dant, This they set down as a fault in me. Universos cūre hābuit. Suet. Una res ērat magno ūsui. was of great use. Lucil. Quod tībi magnopēre cordi est, mihi vēhēmenter displicet, What is a great pleasure, an object of peculiar interest to you, etc. Id.

(b.) Sometimes the words fit, able, ready, etc., must be supplied, especially before a gerund or a gerundive; as, Quum solvendo ciritates non essent, ... not able to pay. Cic. Divites, qui öwer ferendo essent. Liv. Quæ restinguendo igni förent. Liv. Rādix ejus est vescendo. Plin.

Rem. 4. Instead of the dative of the end, a predicate nominative or accusative is sometimes used; as, Nātūrā tu illi pāter es, By nature you are his father. Amor est exitium pēcōri: or the purpose is expressed by the accusative with ad or in; as, Alicui cómes est ad belium. Cic. Se Rēmis in clientēlam dicābant. Cæs: or by the ablative with pro; as, Innōcentia pro mălivōlentiā dūci cœpit. Sall. Alcibus sunt arbōres pro cūbilibus. Cæs.

REM. 5. Instead, also, of the dative of the end or purpose, quo? to what end? for what purpose? why? sometimes occurs, with an accusative, which generally depends on a verb understood, or with an infinitive or a clause; as, Quo mihi fortunam, si non concēditur ūti? Hor. Quo tibi, Pasiphae, prētiosas sūmēre vestes? Ovid.

REM. 6. After do and other similar active verbs an accusative of the purpose is found in apposition; as, Lātini cŏrōnam auream Jōri dōnum in Cāpītōlium mittunt. Liv. Alīcui cōmītem esse dātum. Cic. Cf. § 204, R. 1; and § 230, R. 2.

Note. The dative, instead of the accusative, is sometimes used after the infinitive, when a dative precedes, and the subject of the infinitive is omitted; as, Vibis necesse est fortibus esse viris. Liv. Maximo tibi et civi et duci evadere contigit. Val. Max. See §§ 205, R. 6, and 239, R. 1.

DATIVE AFTER PARTICLES.

§ 228. Some particles are followed by the dative of the object; as,

1. Some adverbs derived from adjectives; as,

Propius Tiberi quam Thermöpÿlis. Nep. Proxime castris, Very near to the camp. Cæs. Propius stābūlis armenta tēnērent. Virg. Congruenter nātīrē, convenienterque vīvēre, Agreeably to nature. Cic. Epīcūrus quam sibi constanter convenenterque dīcat, non lātōrat. Id. Nēmlini nīnium bēne est. Afran. Mihi numquam in vītā fuit mēlius. Hor. Vīvēre vitæ homīnum amīce. Cic. Bēne mihi, bēnē vūbis. Plaut. So, Mihi obviam vēnisti. Cic. In certāmina sævo communs ire viro. Sil. Quæstōres prōvinciæ mihi præsto fuērunt. Cic. Sāmos est exadversum Mīlēto. App.

REMAIK. Propius and proxime, like their primitive prope, are sometimes construed with a and the ablative; as, Prope a meis ædibus. Cic. Stella errantes propius a terris. Id. A Surā proxime est Philiscum, oppdum Parthōrum. Plin.

- 2. Certain prepositions, especially in comic writers; as, Mihi clam est, It is unknown to me. Plaut. Contra nobis. Id. But in such instances they seem rather to be used like adjectives.
- 3. Certain interjections; as, Hei mthi! Ah me! Virg. Væ mihi! Wo is me! Ter. Væ victis esse! Liv. Væ misëro mihi. Plaut. Hem tibi. Id. Ecce tibi. Cic.

Note. (a.) The dative of the substantive pronouns seems sometimes nearly redundant, but it always conveys the expression of a lively feeling, and is therefore termed dativus ethicus; as,

Fur mihi es in my opinion. Plaut. An ille mihi liber, cui mülier impërat? Cic. Tongilium mihi ëduxit. Id. Ubi nunc nöbis deus ille mägister? Virg. Ecce tibi Sebsus! Cic. Hem tibi tülentum argenti! Philippicum est. Plaut. Sibi is sometimes subjoined quite pleonastically to suus; as, Suo sibi glädio hunc jägülo. Plaut. Ignörans suo sibi servit pairi. Id. Sibi suo tempõre.

is sometimes subjoined quite pleonastically to suns; as, Suo sibi gladio hunc jūgūlo. Plant. Ignorans suo sibi servit patri. Id. Sibi suo tempore.

(b.) The following phrases also occur with rólo and a reflexive pronoun: quid tibi vis? what do you want? quid sibi iste vult? what does he want? quid vult sibi hec orāto? what does this speech mean? quid hec sibi dona rolunt?

what is the meaning of these presents? or, what is their object?

ACCUSATIVE.

ACCUSATIVE AFTER VERBS.

§ 229. The object of a transitive verb is put in the accusative; as,

Lēgātos mittunt, They send ambassadors. Cæs. Animus mövet corpus, The mind moves the body. Cic. Da věniam hanc, Grant this favor. Ter. Eum imitāti sunt, They imitated him. Cic. Piscem Sýri věněrantur. Id.

REMARK 1. A transitive verb, with the accusative, often takes a genitive, dative, or ablative, to express some additional relation; as,

Te convinco amentiæ, I convict you of madness. Cic. Da löcum měliöribus, Give place to your betters. Ter. Solvit se Teucria luctu, Troy frees herself from grief. Virg. See those cases respectively.

REM. 2. Such is the difference of idiom between the Latin and English languages, that many verbs considered transitive in one, are used as intransitive in the other. Hence, in translating transitive Latin verbs, a preposition must often be supplied in English; as, Ut me caveret. That he should beware of me. Cic. On the other hand, many verbs, which in Latin are intransitive, and do not take an accusative, are rendered into English by transitive verbs; as, Ille mthi favet, He favors me: and many verbs originally intransitive acquire a transitive signification.

Rem. 3. The verb is sometimes omitted:—

1. To avoid its repetition; as, Eventum senātus, quem (scil. dăre) vidēbītur, dābīt. Liv.

2. The interrogative interjection quid? what? depends on ais or censes. So also quid vero? quid 'iquitur' quid ergo? quid enim? which are always followed by another question, and both questions may be united into one proposition, the first serving merely to introduce the interrogation. With quid posteat quid tum? supply sequitur. With quid quod, occurring in transitions, dicam de eo is omitted, but it may be rendered 'nay,' 'nay even,' 'but now,' 'moreover,' etc., without an interrogation.—Dicam is also to be supplied with quid multa? quid plūra? ne multa; ne multis; ne plūra. The infinitive diere is also sometimes omitted; as, Nimis multa videor de me. Cic. Perge reliqua. 1d.

Rem. 4. The accusative is often omitted:—

1. When it is a reflexive pronoun; as, Nox præctpitat, scil. se. Virg. Tum prora avertit. Id. Eo låvatum, scil. me. Hor.

The reflexives are usually wanting after ăböleo, abstineo, accingo, ădæquo, æquo, ag-glömbro, augeo, celero, congêmino, continuo, declino, decoquo, destino, differo, dino, rumpo, feeto, deflecto, facesso, incipio, inclino, instinuo, irrumpo, jungo, lavo, lavo, lenio, maturo, mollio, moveo, muto, pino, pracipio, provumpo, quatio, remitto, retracto, sedo, sisto, stabilo, suppedito, tardo, teneo, tendo, trajeto, transmitto, turbo, vario, vergo, verto, deverto, reveto, vestio, vibro; and more rarely after many others.

2. When it is something indefinite, has been previously expressed in any case, or is easily supplied; as, Ego, ad quos scribam, nescio, scil. literas. Cic. De quo et têcum êgi diligenter, et scripsi ad te. Id. Bêne fêcit Silius. Id. Dūcit in hostem, scil. exercitum. Liv.

REM. 5. An infinitive, or one or more substantive chauses, may supply the place of the accusative after an active verb; as,

Da mihi fallère. Hor. Reddes dulce lòqui, reddes rīdēre děcōrum. Id. Căpio me esse clèmentem. Cic. Athēnienses statuerunt ut nāves conscendèrent. Id. Vēreor ne a doctis rēprēhendar. Id. Euce, Bacche, sonat. Ovid. Sometimes both constructions are united; as, Di īram misērantur inānem ambōrum, et tantos mortālībus esse lābōres. Virg.—Respecting the infinitive with and without a subject-accusative after an active verb, see § 270-273; and for the subjunctive after such verbs, see § 273.

(a.) In such constructions, the subject of the dependent clause is sometimes put in the accusative as the object of the leading verb; as, Nosti Marcellum, quam tardus sit, for Nosti quam tardus sit Marcellus. Cic. Illum, ut vīvat, cptant. Ter. At te égo fáciam, ut minus váleas. Plant.

(b.) An ablative with de may also supply the place of the accusative, by the ellipsis of some general word denoting things, facts, etc., modified by such ablative; as, De républic vestrā paucis accipe. Sall. Compare a similar omission of a subject modified by de and the ablative, § 209, R. 3, (2.)

REM. 6. The impersonal verbs of feeling, miseret, panitet, pudet, tadet, piget, miserecut, miseretur, and pertasum est, are followed by an accusative of the person exercising the feeling, and a genitive of the object in respect to which it is exercised. Cf. § 215, (1.); as,

Eōrum nos miséret, We pity them. Cic. The impersonal Věritum est also occurs with such an accusative; Quos non est věritum pōněre, etc. Cic.

REM. 7. Jūvat, dēlectat, fallit, fūgit, prætĕrit, and dĕcet, with their compounds, take an accusative of the person; as,

Te hilári ănimo esse valde me jūvat, That you are in good spirits greatly delights me. Cic. Fūgit me ad te scrib re. Cic. Illud altērum quam sit difficile, te non fūgit. Id. Nec vero Cæsarem fēfellit. Cæs. Fūcis, ut te dēcet. Ter. So also when used personally; as, Parvum parva dēcent. Hor.; but dēcet often takes the accusative of the person with the infinitive; as, Hanc mācūlam nos dēcet effūgēre. Ter.; and in comic writers a dative; as, Vöbis dēcet. Ter.

For mea, tua, sua, nostra, vestra, after $r\bar{e}fert$ and $int\bar{e}rest$, see § 219, R. 1: and for the accusative by attraction, instead of the nominative, see § 206, (6,) (b.)

§ 230. Verbs signifying to name or call; to choose, render or constitute; to esteem or reckon, which in the passive voice have two nominatives, are followed in the active voice by two accusatives, one of the *object* and the other of the *predicate*. Cf. § 210, R. 3, (3.); as,

Urbem ex Antiöchi patris nömine Antiöchīam röcāvit. He called the city Antioch, etc. Just. Lūdos fācis me, You make game of me. Plaut. Me consūlem fēcistis. Cic. Iram bēne Ennius Inītium dixit insāniæ. Id. Ancum Marcium rēgem populus creāvit. Liv. Sulpīcium accūsātōrem suum nūmērābat, non compētītorem. Cic. Quum vos testes hābeam. Nep.

Nors 1. The following are among the verbs included in this rule, viz. appello, die., nominion, nuncipo, përhiveo, saluto, seribo and inscribo, võco; căpio, censtituo, creo, declaro, deligo, designo, dreo, eligo, facio, efficio, instituo, lego, prodo, reddo, renuncio; duco, dignor, existimo, habeo, jūdico, numero, puto, reperio, intelligo, invenio, se præbere or praestare, etc.

Note 2. An ablative with ex occurs, though rarely, instead of the accusative of the object; as, Fortāna me, qui liber fuĕram, servum fēcit, e summo infimum. Plaut. Cf. Qui recta prāva fāciunt. Ter.

Note 3. An infinitive may supply the place of the objective accusative; as, Si simulasse vocat crimen. Ovid.:—and sometimes of the predicate accusative

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also; as, Si reperire vocas amittere certius; aut si soire ubi sit reperire vocas. Id. So also an adjective may supply the place of the predicate accusative; as, Prabuit se dignum suis mājārībus. Cic. Casarem certiorem faciunt. Cas.

REMARK 1. After verbs signifying to esteem or reckon, one of the accusatives is often the subject, and the other the predicate, of esse expressed or understood; as,

Eum avarum possumus existimare. Cic. Tālem se impēratorem præbuit. Nep. Præsta te eum, qui mihi es cognitus. Cic. Mercurium omnium inventorem artium fēruut; hunc viārum atque itinērum ducem arbitrantur. Cæs.; or an adjective supplies the place of the predicate accusative; as, Ne me existimāris ad mānendum esse propensiorem. Cic.

Note 4. Instead of the predicate accusative, (1) pro with the ablative sometimes follows puto, due to, and habeo, but denotes only an approximation; as, Aliquid pro certo habere or putare. Ea pro fulsis ducit. Sall. Aliquem pro hoste habere. Cas.—So also in with the ablative; as, Nihil prater virtulem in bonis habere. Cic.—And the ablative without in; as, Uti vos affinium loco ducerem. Sall.—So also e or ex with the ablative; as, (Ut) faceret quod e republica fideque sua duceret. Liv.—Sometimes (2) the genitive; as, Officii duxit exorare filix patrem. Suet. (See § 211, R. 8, (3.) So with a genitive or an ablative of price or value; as, Pitare aliquem nihilo. Cic. Non habeo nauci Marsum augurem. Enn—and sometimes (3) a dative; as, Quando tu me habes despicatui. Plaut.:—or an adverb; as, Ægre habuit, filium id pro patente ausum. Liv. And (4) ad or in with the accusative; as, Loca ad hibernācūla legère. Liv. Aliquem in Patres legère. Id.: or (5) the genitive depending on the ablative of cause, manner, etc.; as, Qui servitūtem deditionis nomine appellant. Cass.

REM. 2. Many other verbs, besides their proper accusative, take a second, denoting a purpose, time, character, etc.

Such are do, tribuo, sūmo, pēto, pōno, adjungo, ascribo, cognosco, accio, fingo, significo, etc.; as,

Quare ējus fügæ comitem me adjungērem. Cic. Hominum opinio socium me ascrībit tuis laudībus. Id. Quos ēgo sim toties jam dēdignāta mārītos. Virg. Hunc tigtur rēgem agnoscīmus, qui Phīlippum dēdignātur patrem? Curt. Filiam tuam mihi uxorem posco. Plaut. Pētit hanc Sāturnia mūnus. Ovid. Such constructions may often be referred to apposition, or to an ellipsis of esse.

§ 231. Verbs of asking, demanding, and teaching, and $c\bar{e}lo$ (to conceal), are followed by two accusatives, one of the person, the other of the thing; as,

Hoc te věhěmenter rögo. Cic. Illud te ōro, ut; etc. Id. Rögo te nummos, I ask you for money. Mart. Posce deos věniam, Ask favor of the gods. Virg. Quum lögent quis mūšicam döcuěrit Epāmīnondam, When they shall read who taught Epamīnondas music. Nep. Antigónus Iter omnes cēlat, Antigónus con ceals his goute from all. Id. Dēprēcāri deos māla. Sen. Quotidie Cæsar Æduos frūmentum flūgūtāre. Cæs. Multa deos ōrans. Virg.

REMARK 1. This rule includes the verbs of asking and demanding, flagtto, efflagtto, obsecro, fro, exfro, contendo, percontor, posco, réposco, consillo, précor, déprécor, régo, and intervogo, which, with the accusative of the person, take the accusative of the neuter pronouns hoc, id, illud, quod, quid, more frequently than that of a substantive; of teaching, déceo, dédéceo, and ériddio, which last has two accusatives only in the poets. Admöneo and consilo are rarely found with two accusatives; as, Consulam hanc rem amicos. Plaut. Eam rem nos löcus admönuit. Sall.

REM. 2. Instead of the accusative of the person, verbs of asking and demanding often take the ablative with ab or ex; as, Non debūbam abs to has literas poscēre. Cic. Vēniam ōrēmus ab ipso. Virg. Istud völēbam ex te percontāri. Plant.

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REM. 3. (a.) Instead of the accusative of the thing, the ablative with de is sometimes used; as, Sic égo te eisdem de rebus interrógem. Cic. De Ithère hostium sénātum édőcet. Sall. Bassus noster me de hoc libro célāvit. Cic. Cf. § 229, R. 5, (b.)—(b.) Sometimes also instead of the accusative of the thing an infinitive, or an infinitive or subjunctive clause is used; as, Deos précāri débřits, ut urbem défendant. Cic. Ut dóceam Rullum posthac tàcēre. Id. Dócui id non fièri posse. Id. Dóceant eum qui vir Sex. Roscius fuërit. Id.—(c.) With verbs of teaching, the instrument by means of which the art is practised is put in the ablative; as, Aliquem fidibus dócère. Cic. Dócère âliquem armis. Liv. Lutéræ may be used either in the accusative or in the ablative; as, Te litéras dóceo. Cic. Doctus Græcis litéris. Id.

Rem. 4. Some verbs of asking, demanding, and teaching, are not followed by two accusatives; as, exigo, pēto, postulo, quaro, scitor, sciscitor, which, with the accusative of the thing, take an ablative of the person with the preposition ab, de, or ex; imbuo, instituo, instruo, etc., which are sometimes used with the ablative of the thing, generally without a preposition, and are sometimes otherwise construed; as, Instituere aliquem ad dicendum. Cic.

REM. 5. (a.) Many active verbs with the accusative of the person, take also an accusative denoting in what respect or to what degree the action of the verb is exerted.

(b.) The accusative of degree, etc., is commonly nihil, a neuter pronoun, or a neuter adjective of quantity; as, Non quo me aliquid jūvāre posses. Cic. Pauca pro tempore milites hortātus. Sall. Id adjūta me. Ter. Nēque est te fal-lēre quidquam. Virg. Cf. § 232, (3.)

REM. 6. By a similar construction, genus and secus, 'sex,' are sometimes used in the accusative, instead of the genitive of quality; as, Nullas hoc genus vigiliarunt. Gell. So, Omnes müliebre secus. Suet. Cf. 211, R. 6, (4.)

§ **232.** (1.) Some *neuter* verbs are followed by an accusative of kindred signification to their own; as,

Vitam jūcundam vīvēre, To live a pleasant life. Plaut. Mīrum somniāvi somnium, I have dreamed a wonderful dream. Id. Fūrēre hunc fūrōrem. Virg. Istam pugnam pugnābo. Plaut. Pugnāre dūcenda Mūsis prœlia. Hor. Lūsum insolentem lūdēre. Id. Sī non servitūtem serviat. Plaut. Quēror haud fūciles questus. Stat. Jūrāvi vērissimum jusjūrandum. Cic. Ignātus jūbet īre vias. Val. Flacc. So, also, Ire exsēquias, To go to a funeral. Ter. Ire suppētias, To go to cae's assistance. Ire infitias, To deny. This expression is equivalent to infitior, and may like that take an accusative; as, Sī hoc ūnum adjunxēro, quod nēmo eat infitias. Nep.: or the accusative with the infinitive; as, Nēque infitias īnus Sīciliam nostram prōvinciam esse. Liv. Ut suum gaudium gaudērēmus. Cœl. ad Cic. Proficisci magnum Iter. Cic. Pollux ūque rēditque viam. Virg. This accusative is usually qualified by an adjective.

(2.) Verbs commonly neuter are sometimes used transitively, and are then followed by an accusative.

Accusatives are thus used with oleo and săpio, and their compounds, rēdoleo, respio; as, Olet unguenta, He smells of perfumes. Ter. Olere peregrinum, To have a foreign smell. Cic. Orătiones redolentes antiquitătem. Id. Mella herbam eam săpiunt, The honev tastes of that herb. Plin. Ura picem respiens. Id. So, Sitio honores. Cic. Carnem pluit. Liv. Claudius aleam studiosissme lisit. Suet. Erumpère diu coercitam tram in hostes. Liv. Libros cetigliare. Ovid. Pravire verba. Liv. Nec von hominem sonat. Virg. Sūdāre mella. Id. Mörientem nomine clāmat. 1d. Quis post vina grăvem militam aut pauperiem crépat f. Hor. Omnes ūna mânet non. Id. Ingrâti ânimi crimen horreo. Cic. Ego meas queror fortūnas. Plaut. Vivere Bacchānālia. Juv. Pastōrem saltāret ūti Cyclopa, rogādat. Hor. So the passive; Nunc agrestem Cyclopa movētur. Id. Kerzes guum māre amhālārisset, terram nārigasset. Cic. Quā stādium currit. Id. Commānia jūra migrāv: Id. Te volo colkiqui. Plaut. Ea dissērēre mātui. Cic.

Cörğdon ardēbat Alexin. Virg. Stÿgias jūrāvimus undas. Ovid. Nāvīgat æquor. Virg. Currimus æquor. Id. Pascuntur sylvas. Id.

Nore 1. Accusatives are found in like manner after ambălo, calleo, d'ôleo, equ'îto, fleo, gaudeo, g'èmo, glorior, horreo, lætor, lâtro, nâto, palleo, păveo, pereo, depereo, procedo, queror, rideo, sileo, sibilo, tâceo, trêmo, trepido, vâdo, vênio, etc.

(3.) Neuter verbs and sometimes adjectives also may be followed by an accusative denoting in what respect, or to what degree, the feeling, condition, etc., is manifested; as,

Nihil lăbōro. Cic. Num id lacrimat virgo? Does the maid weep on that account? Ter. Multa ălia peccat. Cic. Quicquid dēlirant rēges, plectuntur Achivi. Hor. Nec tu id indignāri posses. Liv. Illud mihi ketandum video. Cic. Illud valde tibi assentior. Id. Idem gloriāri. Id. Hæc gloriant. Liv. Hoc stüdet ūnum. Hor.—So, Id ŏpĕram do, I strive for this. Ter. Consilium pētis, quid tibi sim auctor. Cic. Quod guidam auctores sunt, Which is attested by some authors. Liv. Nil nostri misērēre? Virg.—Nihil Rōmānæ plēbis similis. Liv. Sēnātus nihil sāne intentus. Sall. These limiting accusatives have commonly the force of adverbs, particularly nihil, which is used like an emphatic non in the sense of 'in no way,' 'in no respect.' So non nihil, 'to some extent,' in some measure.'

Note 2. In the above and similar examples, the prepositions ob, propter, per, ad, etc., may often be supplied. This construction of neuter verbs is most common with the neuter accusatives id, quid, quidquam, ālfquid, quicquid, quod, nhil, nomnhil, tdem, illud, tantum, quantum, ūnum, multa, pauca, ālia, cētēra, omnia, etc. Cf. § 256, R. 16, N.

§ 233. Many verbs are followed by an accusative depending upon a preposition with which they are compounded.

(1.) Active verbs compounded with trans, ad, and circum, have sometimes two accusatives, one depending upon the verb, the other upon the preposition; as,

Omnem ěquitātum pontem transdūcit, He leads all the cavalry over the bridge. Cæs. Agēsilāus Hellespontum cēpias trājēcit. Nep. Petrēius jusjūrandum ādtgit Afrānium. Cæs. Roscillum Pompēius omnia sua præsīdia circumduwit. So, Pontus scopūlos sŭperjācit undam. Virg. So, also, adverto and indūco with ānimum; as, Id ānimum advertit. Cæs. Id quod ānimum induxērat paulisper non tēnuit. Cic. So, also, injicio in Plautus—Ego te mānum injiciam.

(2.) Some other active verbs take an accusative in the passive voice depending upon their prepositions; as,

Măgicas accingier artes, To prepare oneself for magic arts. Virg. In prose writers the ad is in such cases repeated; as, accingi ad consulatum. Liv. Classis circumvehitur arcem. Id. Quod anguis dómi vectem circumjectus fuisset. Cic. Lòcum prætervectus sum. Id.

(3.) Many neuter verbs, especially verbs of motion, or of rest in a place, when compounded with prepositions which govern an accusative, become transitive, and accordingly take an accusative; as,

Gentes quæ măre illud adjăcent, The nations which border upon that sea. Nep. Oběquităre agmen. Curt. Incēdunt mæstos lõcos. Tac. Transilui flammas. Ovid. Succēdêre tecta. Cic. Lūdōrum diēbus, qui cognītīonem intervēnērant. Tac. Adīre provinciam. Suet. Cáveat ne prœlium ineat. Cic. Ingrēdi iter pēdībus. Cic. Epicāri horti quos mödo prætērībāmus. Id.

Note. To this rule belong many of the compounds of ambülo, cēdo, curro, eo, equito, fuo, grádior, labor, no and nāto, rēpo, sālio, scando, vādo, vēhor, vēnio, vālo;—cūbo, jāco, sēdeo, sisto, sto, etc., with the prepositions included in § 224, and with expensions.

REMARK 1. Some neuter verbs compounded with propositions which govern an ablative, in like manner become transitive, and are followed by an accusative; as,

Nēminem convēni, I met with no one. Cic. Qui sŏciĕtātem coiĕris. Id. Aversāri hōnōres. Ovid. Ursi arbōrem āversi dērēpunt. Plin. Edormi crāpūlam. Cic. Egressus exsilium. Tac. Erāditque cĕler rīpam. Virg. Excēdēre nūmērum. Tac. Exīre līmen. Ter. Tībur āquæ ferāle præfluunt. Hor.

REM. 2. After verbs both active and neuter, compounded with prepositions which take an accusative, the preposition is often repeated, or one of similar signification is used; as,

Cæsar se ad nēmīnem adjunxit. Cic. Multitūdīnem trans Rhēnum in Galliam transdūcēre. Cæs.—In Galliam invāsit Antōnius. Cic. Ad me ădīre quosdam mēmīni. Id. Orātor pēragrat per āntīmos homīnum. Id. Ne in sēnātum aceēdērem. Id. Rēgīna ad templum incessit. Virg. Juxta gĕntīvēm adstat Lāvīnia. Id. Fines extra quos ēgrēdi non possim. Cic. A dative instead of the accusative often follows such compounds, according to § 224. Circum is not repeated.

Note. Some verbal nouns and verbal adjectives in bundus are followed by an accusative, like the transitive verbs from which they are derived; as,

Quid tibi huc rèceptio ad te est meum virum? Wherefore do you receive my husband hither to you? Plaut. Quid tibi, mdum, me, aut quid go ăgam, cărătio 'st? Id. Quid tibi hanc aditio est? Id. Quid tibi hanc notio est, inquam, ămīcam meam? Quid tibi hanc digito tactio 'st? Id. Hanno vitābundus castra hostium consūlesque. Liv. Mithrīdātes Rōmānum mēdītābundus bellum. Just. Mirābundu vānam spēciem. Liv. Pōpūlābundus agros. Sisenn. Carnīfīcem imāgīnābundus. App.

- § 234. A verb in the passive voice has the same government as in the active, except that the accusative of the active voice becomes the nominative of the passive.
- Note 1. The accusative of the person with the infinitive, after verbs of saying and commanding, may become the subject of the passive voice; as, Active, Dico regeme esse justime:—Passive, Rex dictur justus esse. Act. Libeo to reduce:—Pass. Jüberis redire: the construction in the passive being the same as though regem and to had depended immediately upon dico and jübeo.—So, also, when the accusative of the person is the object of the verb and the infinitive stands as the accusative of the thing. Cf. § 270, N.
- I. When a verb, which in the active voice takes an accusative both of the person and of the thing, is changed to the passive form, the accusative of the person becomes the nominative, and the accusative of the thing is retained; as,

Rögātus est sententiam, He was asked his opinion. Liv. Interrögātus causam. Tac. Sēgētes ālimentique dēbīta dīres poscēbātur hūmus. Ovid. Motus döcēri gaudet Iōnicos mātūra virgo. Hor. Omnes belli artes ēdoctus. Liv. Nosne hoc cēlētos tam diu? Ter. Multa in extis monēmur. Cic.

Note 2. The accusative of the thing after doctus and \$\tilde{e}doctus\$ is rare; and after \$cl\tilde{l}iri\$ it is generally a neuter pronoun; as \$hoc or id \$cel\tilde{l}abar\$; of this I was kept in ignorance; but it is found also with the person in the dative; as, Id Alcibi\tilde{a}diditios \$cel\tilde{l}airi non \$potuit\$. Nep. Alcib. 5. \$C\tilde{e}lo\$, and especially its passive, generally takes \$de\$ with the ablative.

REMARK 1. (a.) Induo and exuo, though they do not take two accusatives in the active voice, are sometimes followed by an accusative of the thing in

the passive; as, *Induitur ātras* vestes, She puts on sable garments. Ovid. Thōrāca indūtus. Virg. Exūta est Rōma sĕnectam. Mart. So indūcor and cingor; as, Ferrum cingitur. Virg. So rĕcingitur anguem. Ovid.

(b.) When two accusatives follow an active verb compounded with trans, the passive retains that which depends upon the preposition; as, Belg x Rhēnum

antīquitus transducti. Cæs.

REM. 2. The future passive participle in the neuter gender with est, is sometimes, though rarely, followed by an accusative; as, Multa novis rebus quum sit agendum. Lucr. Quam (viam) nobis ingrédiendum est. Cic.

II. Adjectives, verbs, and perfect participles, are sometimes followed by an accusative denoting the *part* to which their signification relates; as,

Nūdus membra, Bare as to his limbs. Virg. Os humerosque deo similis. Id. Clāri genus. Tac. Tribūni suam vicem anxii. Liv. Tremit artus. Virg. Cetera parce puer bello. Id. Sibila colla tumentem. Id. Expleri mentem nequit. Id. Gryneus eruitur oculos. Ovid. Picti scūta Libici. Virg. Collis frontem leniter fastūgātus. Cæs. Animum incensus. Liv. Oblitus faciem suo cruōre. Tac.

REMARK 1. In this construction an ablative is often joined with the perfect participle; as, *Miles fractus* membra läböre. Hor. Dexterum genu läpide ictus. Suet. Adversum femur trägülä *gräviter ictus*. Liv.

REM. 2. This is a Greek construction, and is usually called the *limiting* or *Greek accusative*. It is used instead of an ablative of limitation, (§ 250,) and

occurs most frequently in poetry.

REM. 3. A limiting accusative instead of the ablative is found also in a few ordinary expressions, as in partim (for partem), vicem, magnam and maximam partem, instead of magnā or maximā ex parte, or the adverb fēre; as, Maximam partem lacte vīvunt. Cæs. Magnam partem ex iambis nostra constat ōrātio. Cic. Livy has magna pars, viz. Nūmidæ, magna pars agrestes.—So cētēra antēliqua are joined to adjectives in the sense of cētēris, 'for the rest,' in other respects'; as, Proximum regnum, cētēra ēgrēgium, ab ūnā parte haud sātis prospērum fuit. Liv. So cētēra similis, cētēra bōnus. A te bis terve summum titēras accēpi. Ciç.—So, also, in the expressions id tempŏris; id, hoc or idem ætātis, illud hōræ, for co tempŏre, eā ætāte, etc.; id gēnus, omne gēnus, quod gēnus.

III. Some neuter verbs which are followed by an accusative, are used in the passive voice, the accusative becoming the subject, according to the general rule of active verbs; as,

Tertia vīvītur ætas. Ovid. Bellum mīlitābītur. Hor. Dormītur hiems. Mart. Multa peccantur. Cic. Adītur Gnossius Minos. Sen. Ne ab omnībus circumsistērētur. Cæs. Hostes invādi posse. Sall. Campus öbītur ăquā. Ovid. Plūres ineuntur grātiæ. Cic. Ea res silētur. Id.

ACCUSATIVE AFTER PREPOSITIONS.

§ 235. (1.) Twenty-six prepositions are followed by the accusative.

These are žd, adversus or adversum, antě, žpřid, circã or circum, circiter, cis or cirta, contra, ergā, extra, infra, inter, intra, jucta, 50, pěněs, pěr, post, pôně, pratěr, propěř, žecundum, supra, trans, ultrā, as,

Ad templum non æquæ Pallådis ībant,—to the temple. Virg. Adversus hostes, Against the enemy. Liv. Germāni qui cis Rhēnum incolunt,—this side the Rhine. Cæs. Quum tantum rēsīdent intra mīros māli. Cic. Principio rērum impērium pēnes rēges ērat. Just. Templum pōnam propter āquam. Virg. Inter āgendum. Id. Ante dōmandum. Id. Respecting the signification of some of the preceding prepositions see § 195, R. 5, etc.

REMARK 1. Cis is generally used with names of places; citra with other words also; as, Cis Taurum. Cic. Cis Pādum. Liv. Paucos cis menses. Plaut. Citra Vēliam. Cic. Citra sătietâtem, Not to satiety. Col. Citra fătīgātionem. Cels. Citra Trōjāna tempora. Ovid.

Rem. 2. Inter, signifying between, applies to two accusatives jointly, and sometimes to a single plural accusative; as, Inter me et Scipionem. Cic. Inter nātos et pārentes. Id. Inter nos, Among ourselves. Id. Inter falcārios, Among the scythe-makers. Cic. When it denotes time it signifies during, and more rarely at; as, Inter ipsum pugnæ tempus. Liv. Inter cænam. Cic.

REM. 3. Ante and post are commonly joined with concrete official titles, when used to indicate time, rather than with the corresponding abstract nouns; as, ante or post Cicĕrōnem consulem, rather than ante or post consulatum Cicerōnis.

(2.) In and sub, denoting motion or tendency, are followed by the accusative; denoting situation, they are followed by the ablative; as,

Via dūcit in urbem, The way conducts into the city. Virg. Noster in te ămor. Cic. Callimăchi ēpigramma in Cleombrotum est—on or concerning Cleombrotus. Id. Exercitus sub jūgum missus est, The army was sent under the yoke. Cæs. Magna mei sub terrus ībit imāgo. Virg. Mēdiā in urbe, In the midst of the city. Ovid. In his fuit Ariovistus. Cæs. Bella sub Ilūcis menībus gērēre, To wage war under the Trojan walls. Ovid. Sub nocte silenti. Virg.

Rem. 4. The most common significations of in, with the accusative, are, into, to, towards, until, for, against, about, concerning,—with the ablative, in, on, upon, among. In some instances, in and sub, denoting tendency, are followed by the ablative, and, denoting situation, by the accusative; as, In conspectu meo audet vénire. Phaed. Nătiones quæ in ămicitiam pôpuli Rômâni, ditionemque essent. Id. Sub jūgo dictātor hostes misit. Liv. Hostes sub montem consētiese. Cæs.

REM. 5. In and sub, in different significations, denoting neither tendency nor situation, are followed sometimes by the accusative, and sometimes by the ablative; as, Amor crescit in höras. Ovid. Hostilem in mödum. Cic. Quod in böno servo dici posset. Id. Sub eā conditione. Ter. Sub pænā mortis. Suet.

REM. 6. In expressions relating to time, sub, denoting at or in, usually takes the ablative; as, Sub adventu Romanorum. Liv. Sub lice. Ovid. Sub tempore. Lucan. Denoting near, about, just before or just after, it takes the active; as, Sub lücem. Virg. Sub lümina prima. Hor. Sub hoc hērus inquit. Id.

REM. 7. In is used with neuter adjectives in the accusative in forming adverbial phrases; as, In universum, In general. In totum, Wholly. So, in plenum; in incertum; in tantum; in quantum; in majus; in mělius; in omnia, in all respects, etc.

(3.) Săpēr, when denoting place or time, is followed by the accusative, and sometimes poetically by the ablative; but when it signifies on, about, or concerning, it takes the ablative. With the accusative săper signifies over, above, besides or in addition to; with numerals, more than; as,

Săper lăbentem culmina tecti, Gliding over the top of the house. Virg. Săper tres modios. Liv. Săper morbum etiam fămes affecit exercitum. Id. Săper tenero prosternit grămine corpus, He stretches his body on the tender grass. Virg. Multa săper Priămo rogitans săper Hectore multa, concerning Priam, etc. Id.

REM. 8. The compound desaper is found with the accusative, and insuper with the accusative and the ablative.

(4.) Subter generally takes the accusative, but sometimes, in poetry, the ablative; as,

Subter terras, Under the earth. Liv. Subter densā testūdīne. Virg.

(5.) Clam is followed by either the accusative or the ablative; as,

Clam vos, Without your knowledge. Cic. Clam patrem. Ter. Clam matrem suam. Plaut. Clam vobis. Cas. Neque potest clum me esse. Plaut. Clam uxore meā. Id. Its diminutive clanculum is once followed by the accusative,

clanculum patres. Ter.

Rem. 9. The adverbs versus or versum and usque are sometimes annexed to an accusative, principally of place, which depends on ad or in, and sometimes the preposition is omitted; as, Ad Oceanum versus próficiasi. Cas. Fügam ad se versum. Sall. In Galliam versus castra môvêve. Id.—Usque ad Nūnantiam. Cic. Usque in Pamphyliam. Id. Ad noctem usque. Plaut.—Brundūsium versus. Cic. Terminos usque Libyæ. Just. Usque Ennam profecti. Cic. Versus is always placed after the accusative.—Usque occurs more rarely with sub and trans with the accusative; as, Trans Alpes usque transfertur. Cic. Usque sub extrēmum brūmæ imbrem.—Versus also rarely follows ab, and usque either ab or ex with the ablative; as, Ab septemtriöne versus. Varr. A fundāmento usque mōvisti māre. Plaut. Usque ex ultīmā Sýriā. Cic. Usque a puērītiā. Ter. Usque a Römūlo. Cic. Usque a māne ad vesperum. Plaut.

REM. 10. Prepositions are often used without a noun depending upon them, but such noun may usually be supplied by the mind; as, Multis post annis,

i. e. post id tempus. Cic. Circum Concordia, scil. adem. Sall.

REM. 11. The accusative, in many constructions, is supposed to depend on a preposition understood; as, Quid opus est plura? i. e. propter quid? why? i. q. cur? or quare? Cic. So, Quid me ostentem? Id. But it is not easy, in every case, to say what preposition should be supplied. For the accusative without a preposition after neuter verbs, see § 232. For the accusative of limitation, see § 234, II.

ACCUSATIVE OF TIME AND SPACE.

§ 236. Nouns denoting duration of time, or extent of space, are put, after adjectives and verbs, in the accusative, and sometimes after verbs in the ablative; as,

ACC. Appius cœcus multos annos fuit, Appius was blind many years. Cic. Bīduum Lābātīcēa fui. Id. Dies tötos de virtūte dissērunt. Id. Te jam annum audientem Crātippum. Id.—Dēcrēvērunt intercalārium quinque et quādrāginta dies longum. Id.—Quum ābessem ab Amāno tter ūnius diei. Id. Tres pātent cœlī spātium non amplius ulnas. Virg. (Cf. § 256, R. 6.) A portu stādia centum et viginti prōcessīmus. Cic.—Duas fossas quindēcim pēdes lātas pērtuaki,—two ditches fifteen feet broad. Cæs. Fossæ quīnos pēdes altæ. Id. Forāmīna longa pēdes tres sēmis. Cato. Orbem oleārium crassum dīgītos sex fácito. Id. Abl. Vizīt annis undētrīginta. Suet. Quātuordēcim annis ezsīlum tolērāvīt. Tac. Trīginta annis vizīt Panaetius. Cic.—Exercitus Rōmānus trādui Itīnēre abfuit ab amne Tānai. Tac. Æscālāpii templum quinque millībus passuum distans. Liv.

Note 1. The ablative denoting extent of time and space is rarely used by Cicero, and less frequently than the accusative by other writers.

NOTE 2. The accusative denoting extent of space sometimes follows the abverbs longe, alte, etc.; as, Campestris locus alte duos pèdes et sēmissem infodiendus est. Colum. Vercingětórix locum castris deligit ab Avarico longe millia passuum sēdécim. Cæs.

Note 3. (a.) Old, in reference to the time which a person has lived, is expressed in Latin by nātus, with an accusative of the time; as, Dēcessi Alexander mensem munn, annos tres et trīgnita nātus. Just. (b.) A person's age may also be expressed without nātus by a genitive of the time closely connected with his name, according to § 211, R. 6; as, Alexander annörum trium et trīgnita dēcessit. (c.) Older or younger than a certain age is expressed by prefixing to the accusative or genitive of the definite age the ad-

verbs plus or minus, or the adjectives mājor or minor, either with or without quam. See § 256, R. 6 and 7.—Sometimes, also, the ablative depends on the comparative; as, Minor viginti quinque annis nātus. Nep. Minor trīginta annis nātu. Cic. Biennio quam nos mujor. Id. Cf. § 256, R. 16. (1.)

REMARK 1. Nouns denoting time or space, used to limit other nouns, are put in the genitive or ablative. See § 211, R. 6.

REM 2. A term of time not yet completed may be expressed by an ordinal number; as, Nos vicesimum jam diem pātīmur hēbescēre āciem hōrum auctūrītātis. Cic. Pānico bello duodecimum annum Itālia ūrēbātur. Liv. Hence in the passive, Nunc tertia virtlur ætas. Ovid.

REM. 3. The accusative or ablative of space is sometimes omitted, while a genitive depending on it remains; as, Castra quæ åběrant bīdui, scil. spătium or

spătio. Cic.

REM. 4. To denote a place by its distance from another, the ablative is commonly used; as, Millibus passuum sex a Cæsáris castris consédit. Cæs.; but sometimes the accusative; as, Tria passuum millia ab ipsā urbe castra pestic. Liv. The only words used for this purpose in the ablative alone are spátio and intervallo; as, Quinděcim ferme millium spátio castra ab Tárento pósuit. Id.

Note 4. For abhine and a cardinal number, with the accusative or ablative of past time, see § 253, R. 2. For the ablative denoting difference of time or space, see § 256, R. 16.

REM. 5. A preposition is sometimes expressed before an accusative of time or space, but it generally modifies the meaning; as, Quem per decem annos alumus, during ten years. Cic.

Rem. 6. When the place from which the distance is reckoned is not mentioned, ab is sometimes placed before the ablative of distance, as if this depended on the preposition; as, A millibus passuum dubus castra posuērunt, Two miles from the place, or, Two miles off. Cas.

REM. 7. An accusative of weight also occurs when expressed by libram or libras in connection with pondo. Cf. § 211, R. 6. (4.)

ACCUSATIVE OF PLACE.

§ 237. After verbs expressing or implying motion, the name of the town in which the motion ends is put in the accusative without a preposition; as,

Rēgālus Carthāginem rēdiit, Regulus returned to Carthage. Cic. Căpuam flectit iter, He turns his course to Capua. Liv. Calpurnius Romam proficiscitur. Sall. Romam erat nunciātum. Cic.

REMARK 1. The accusative, in like manner, is used after iter with sum, habeo, etc.; as, Iter est mihi Lānuvium. Cic. Cæsdrem iter habere Capuam. Id And even after sum alone; as, Omnia illa municipia, quæ sunt a Vibone Brundsium. Cic. So with a verbal noun; as, Adventus Romam. Liv. Rēditus Romam. Cic.

Rem. 2. (a.) The preposition to be supplied is in, denoting to or into, which is sometimes expressed; as, In Ephësum äbii. Plaut. Ad, before the name of a town, denotes direction towards it; as, Iter dirigëre ad Mütinam. Cic.; and also its vicinity; as, Adölescentülus miles profectus sum ad Căpuam; i. e. in castra ad Căpuam. Id. So, Lælius cum classe ad Brundisium vênit. Cæs. Cæsar ad Gěněvi. n pervěnit. Id. Quum égo ad Heracleam accéděrem. Cic.

(b.) When urbs, oppidum, lócus, etc., follow the names of towns as appositions, they generally take a preposition; as, Dēmārātus se contūlit Tarquinos, in urbem Ētrūvia ylōrentissimam. Cic. Ad Cirtam oppidum iter constituum. Sall.—So also when the name of the town is qualified by an adjective; as, Magnum.

iter ad doctas proficisci cogor Athenas. Prop. But the poets and later prose writers sometimes omit the preposition; as, Ovid, Her. 2, 83.

REM. 3. Instead of the accusative, a dative is sometimes, though rarely, used; as, Carthagini nuncios mittam. Hor. Cf. § 225, IV. and R. 2.

REM. 4. Domus in both numbers, and rus in the singular, are put in the accusative, like names of towns; as,

Ite domum, Go home. Virg. Galli domos abierant,—had gone home. Liv. Rus ibo, I will go into the country. Ter.

- Note. (a.) When domus is limited by a genitive or a possessive adjective pronoun, it sometimes takes a preposition: with other adjectives, the preposition is generally expressed; as, Non introvo in nostram domum. Plaut. Vēnisse in domum Leccæ. Cic. Ad eam domum projecti sunt. Id. In domos superas scandere cūra fuit. Ovid. Rarely, also, when not limited; as, Sōcrātes philosophiam in domos intrōduxit. Cic. So, lūrem suum. App., or ad lūrem suum. Cic. Cūrīcas in Albense rus inferre. Plin. Quum in sua rūra vēnērunt. Cic. With the possessor's name in the genitive, either dūmum or in dōmum is used; as, Pompōnii dōmum vēnisse. Cic. In dōmum Mælii tēla infēruntur. Liv.
- (b.) Dömus is sometimes used in the accusative after a verbal noun; as, Dömum réditionis spe sublâtā. Cæs. So, Itio dömum. Cic. Concursus dömum. Cæs. Cf. R. 1.
- Rem. 5. (a.) Before the names of countries and of all other places in which the motion ends, except those of towns, and dimus and rus, the preposition is commonly used; as, £x Asiā transis in Eurōpam. Curt. Te in Epīrum vēnisse gaudeo. Čic. But it is sometimes omitted; as, Dēvēniunt spēluncam. Virg. Dēvēnēre locos. Id. Tūmūlum antīquæ Cērēris sēdemque sacrātam vēnīmus. Id. Ibis Cēcropios portus. Ovid. So, also, before names of countries, especially those ending in us; as, £gyptus, Bospōrus, Chersōnēsus, £pīrus, Pēlūponnēsus, etc. So, also, Illýrīcum profectus. Cæs. Mācēdoniam pervēnit. Liv. Afrīcam transītūrus. Id. So, Tacitus construes even names of nations, when used, as they often are, for those of countries; as, Ductus inde Cangos exercitus. Ibēros ad patrium regnum pervādīt. So, Virgil, Nos ibīmus Afros.—Pliny has, Insūlas Rubri Māris nāvigant.
- (b.) Before the names of small islands the preposition is frequently omitted; as, Pausăniam cum classe Cyprum misērunt. Nep.: but rarely before the names of the larger islands; as, Sardinia, Britannia, Crēta, Eubæa, Sicilia.
- (c.) Before accusatives of any words denoting locality after verbs of motion, the poets omit the preposition; as, Italiam—Laviniaque vēnit lītora. Virg.—The old accusative foras is used, like names of towns, to denote the place whither, while foris denotes the place where; as, Vade foras. Mart. Exit foras. Plaut.

ACCUSATIVE AFTER ADJECTIVES, ADVERBS, AND INTERJECTIONS.

§ 238. 1. (a.) The adjectives propior and proximus, with their adverbs propius and proxime, like their primitive prope, are often joined with the accusative; as,

Ipse propior montem suos collocat. Sall. Crassus proximus mare Oceanum hièmarat. Cas.—Libyes propius mare Africum agitabant. Sall. - Proxime His-

pāniam Mauri sunt. Id.

(b.) The adverbs pridle and postridle are also often followed by the accusative; as, Pridle eum diem. Cic. Pridle idus. Id. Postridle lados. Id.—(c.) An accusative somet mes follows intus and cominus; as, Intus domum. Plaut, Agrestes cominus: "e sues, scil. in. Prop.

REMARK 1. The accusative with pridie and postridie is by some referred to ante and post understood. For the genitive after these words, see § 212, R. 4, N. 6.—Respecting versus, usque, exadversus (-um) and secus with the accusative, see § 195, R. 3: and § 235, R. 3.

REM. 2. The adverb bene, by the elipsis of välere jäbeo, is sometimes followed by the accusative in forms of drinking health; as, Bene vos, bene nos, bene te, bene nostram etiam Stephanium! Plaut. Bene Messalam, a health to Messala. Tibull. It is also construed with the dative. See § 228, 1.

2. In exclamations, the noun or pronoun which marks the object of the feeling is put in the accusative either with or without the interjections, O! ah! heu! eheu! ecce! en! hem! pro! or væ!as,

En quatuor aras! ecce duas tibi Daphni! Behold four altars! lo, two for thee, Daphnis! Virg. Eccum! eccos! eccillum! for ecce eum! ecce eos! eccillum! Plaut. O præclarum custodem! Cic. Heu me infēlicem! Ter. Pro Deûm höminumque fîdem! Cic. Ah me, me! Catull. Eheu me misērum! Ter. Hem astūtias! Id. Væ te! Plaut. Væ me! Sen. Mīsēram me! Ter. Höminem grávem et civem ēgrēgium! Cic. Cf. § 228, 3.

Note. The accusative after interjections is supposed to depend on some verb of emotion to be supplied.

SUBJECT-ACCUSATIVE.

§ 239. The subject of the infinitive mood is put in the accusative; as,

Möleste Pompeium id ferre constābat, That Pompey took that ill, was evident. Cic. Eos hoc nōmine appellāri fas est. Id. Mīror te ad me nihil scrībēre, I wonder that you do not write to me. Cn. Mag. in Cic. Campos jūbet esse pātentes. Virg.

Note 1. In historical writing the present infinitive has sometimes its subject in the nominative. Cf. § 209, R. 5.

REMARK 1. The subject of the infinitive is omitted when it precedes in the genitive or dative case; as, Est addlescentis mājores nātu vērēri, scil. eum. Cic. Expédit bōnas esse vōbis, scil. vos. Ter.; and rarely when it precedes in the accusative; as, Ea pōpūlus letāri et mērito divêre fiēri; and also when its place is supplied by a possessive pronoun expressed or understood; as, Non fuit constitum (meum)—servilibus off iciis intentum ætātem āgēre (scil. me). Sall.

REM. 2. A substantive pronoun is also sometimes omitted before the infinitive, when it is the subject of the preceding verb; as, *Pollicitus sum susceptūrum* (esse), scil. me, I promised (that I) would undertake. Ter. Sed reddēre posse nēgābat, scil. se. Virg.

REM. 3. The subject of the infinitive is often omitted, when it is a general word for person or thing; as, Est âliud îrâcundum esse, âliud īrātum, scil. hōmīnem. Cic. See § 269, R. 1.

REM. 4. The subject-accusative, like the nominative, is often wanting. See § 209, R. 3. The subject of the infinitive may be an infinitive or a clause. See § 269, R. 3.

Nore 2. For the verbs after which the subject-accusative with the infinitive is used, see § 272. For the accusative in the predicate after infinitives neuter and passive, see § 210.

VOCATIVE.

§ 240. The vocative is used, either with or without an interjection, in addressing a person or thing.

REMARK 1. The interjections O, heu, and pro (proh), also ah, au (hau), ëhem, ëho, ehodum, eia (heia), hem, heus, hui, io, and ohe, are followed by the vocative; as,

O formõse puer! O beautiful boy! Virg. Heu virgo! Id. Pro sancte Jūpiter! Cic. Ah stutte! Ter. Heus Sýre! Id. Ohe libelle! Mart. Ehodum bŏue vir. Ter.—Urbem, mi Rūfe, cöle. Cic. Quinctili Vare, lĕgiŏnes redde. Suet. Quo moriture ruis? Hor. Macte virtûte esto. Cic.

REM. 2. The vocative is sometimes omitted, while a genitive depending upon it remains; as, O měsěræ sortis! scil. hómines. Lucan.

Note. The vocative forms no part of a proposition, but serves to designate the person to whom the proposition is addressed.

ABLATIVE.

The ablative denotes certain relations of nouns and pronouns, all of which are expressed in English by means of prepositions. In Latin this case is sometimes accompanied by a preposition, and sometimes stands alone. Cf. § 37, 6.

ABLATIVE AFTER PREPOSITIONS.

§ 241. Eleven prepositions are followed by the ablative.

These are ā, (or ŭb, abs), absquĕ, dē; cōram, pălam, cum, ex, (ē); sĭnĕ, tĕnŭs, prō, and præ; as,

Ab illo tempore, From that time. Liv. A scrībendo, From writing. Cic. Cum exercitu, With the army. Sall. Certis de causis, For certain reasons. Cic. Ex făyā, From flight. Id. Pălam populo. Liv. Sine läbōre. Cic. Căpălo tēnus. Virg. Cantābit vácuus coram lătrone viator. Juv. cf. § 195, 5.

Note. Of the prepositions followed by the ablative, five signify removal or separation, viz. \bar{a} ($\check{a}b$ or abs), $d\check{e}$, \check{e} (or ex), $absqu\check{e}$ and $s\check{s}n\check{e}$.

REMARK 1. Tēnus is always placed after its case. It sometimes takes the genitive plural. See § 221, III.—Cum is always appended to the ablative of the personal pronouns me, te, se, nōbis, and vōbis, and commonly to the ablatives of the relative pronoun, quo, quā, quibus, and qui. Cf. § 133, 4, and § 136, R. 1.

REM. 2. The adverbs procul and simul are sometimes used with an ablative, which depends on the prepositions a or ab, and cum understood; as, Procul mari, Far from the sea. Liv. Simul nobis habitat. Ovid. Procul dubio. Suet. The prepositions are frequently expressed; as, Frocul a terrā. Cic. Procul a patrā. Virg. Tēcum simul. Plaut. Vöbiscum simul. Cic.—So, rarely, eque. Qui me in terrā æque fortūnātus ērit. Plaut. Cf. Novi æque omnia tēcum. Id.

REM. 3. Some of the above prepositions, like those followed by the accusative, are occasionally used without a noun expressed; as, Quum coram samus. Cic. Cum fratre an sine. Id. Cf. § 235, R. 10.

REM. 4. The ablative follows also the prepositions in and sub, when they answer to the question 'where?' super, when it signifies 'on' or 'concerning'; and sometimes clam and subter. Cf. § 235, (2.)—(5.)

REM. 5. In is generally joined with the ablative after verbs of placing, as, pono, loco, colloco, statuo, constituo, and consido; as, Et sale tabentes artus in litore ponunt. Virg.—So, also, after verbs signifying to have, hold, or regard.

as, habeo, duco, numero, etc.—After verbs of assembling, concealing, and including, in is followed by either the accusative or the ablative.—After defigo, inscribo, insculpo, incido, and insero, in is usually joined with the ablative.

§ **242.** Many verbs compounded with \check{ab} , $d\tilde{e}$, ex, and $s\check{u}per$, are followed by an ablative depending upon the preposition; as,

Abesse urbe, To be absent from the city. Cic. Abire sēdibus, To depart from their habitations. Tac. Ut se mālēdictis non abstineant. Cic. Dētrādant nāves scopālo, They push the ships from the rock. Virg. Nāvi ēgressus est. Nep. Excēdēre fīnibus. Liv. Cæsar prælio sūpersēdēre stātuit. Cæs. Tribūto ac dēlectu sūpersessum est. Cic. So the adjective extorris; as, Extorris patriā, dómo. Sall. And so the verbal ēruptio, as, Mūtinā ēruptio. Cic.

REMARK 1. The preposition is often repeated, or one of similar signification is used; as, Dētrāhēre de tuā fāmā numquam cōgitāvi. Cic. Ex ŏcūlis ābiērunt. Liv. Exīre a patriā. Cic. Exīre de vītā. Id. Cf. § 224, R. 4.

REM. 2. These compound verbs are often used without a noun; but, in many cases, it may be supplied by the mind; as, Equites degressi ad pedes, scil. equis. Liv. Abire ad Deos, scil. vitā. Cic.

REM. 3. Some verbs compounded with ab, de, and ex, instead of the ablative, are sometimes followed by the dative. See § 224, R. 1 and 2. Some compounds, also, of neuter verbs, occur with the accusative. See § 233, R. 1.

ABLATIVE AFTER CERTAIN NOUNS, ADJECTIVES, AND VERBS.

§ **243.** Opus and $\bar{u}sus$, signifying need, usually take the ablative of the thing needed; as,

Auctoritāte tuā nobis opus est, We need your authority. Cic. Nunc animis opus, nunc pectore firmo. Virg. Nāves, quibus consali ūsus non esset, Ships, for which the consul had no occasion. Liv. Nunc vīrībus ūsus, nunc manībus rāpīdis. Virg.

REMARK 1. (a.) Opus and ūsus are sometimes followed by the ablative of a perfect participle; as, Mātūrāto opus est, There is need of haste. Liv. Usus facto est mihi. Ter. Ubi summus impērātor non ādest ad exercitum, citius, quod non facto est ūsus, fit, quam quod facto est ōpus. Plaut. After ŏpus, a noun is sometimes expressed with the participle; as, Opus fuit Hirtio convento,—of meeting, r, to meet, § 274, R. 5. Cic. Opus sibi esse domlno ējus invento. Liv.—or a supine is used; as, Ita dictu ōpus est, It is necessary to say, I must say. Ter.—Instead of the ablative with opus est, an infinitive, either alone or with a subject accusative, or ut with a subjunctive clause, sometimes occurs; as, Opus est te ānīmo vālēre. Cic. Mihi opus est, ut lāvem. Id.

(b.) Opus and ūsus, though nouns, are seldom limited by the genitive. In a few passages they are construed with the accusative. See § 211, R. 11.

REM. 2. Opus is sometimes the subject and sometimes the predicate of est; usus, which seldom occurs except in ante-classic poets, is, with only rare exceptions, the subject only. The person to whom the thing is needful is put in the dative; (§ 226.) With opus the thing needed may either be the subject of the verb in the nominative or accusative, or follow it in the ablative: as, Dux nöbis opus est. Cic. Verres multa sibi opus esse aiebat. Id.; or, Duce nöbis opus est. The former construction is most common with neuter adjectives and pronouns; as, Quod non opus est, asse cārum est. Cato apud Sen.—In the predicate opus and ūsus are commonly translated 'needful' or 'necessary.' Cf. § 210, R. 5.

Note. For the abiative of character, quality, etc., limiting a noun, see § 211, R. 6.

§ **244.** Dignus, indignus, contentus, præditus, and frētus, are followed by the ablative of the object; as,

Dignus laude, Worthy of praise. Hor. Vox populi mājestāte indigna, A speech unbecoming the dignity of the people. Cæs. Bestiæ eo contentæ non quarrunt amplius. Cic. Homo scelere præditus. Id. Plērīque ingēnio frēti. Id.—So, Æquum est me atque illo. Plaut.

REMARK 1. The adverb digne, in one passage, takes the ablative; Peccat üter nostrum cruce dignius. Hor.—Dignor, also, both as the passive of the obsolete digno, and as a deponent verb, is followed by an ablative of the thing. As a deponent it takes also an accusative of the person; as, Haud equidem tali me honore dignor. Virg.—Pass. Qui tali honore dignati sunt. Cic. Conjugo, Anchisa, Veneris dignate superbo. Virg.—Sometimes as a deponent, instead of the ablative of the thing, it is followed by an infinitive clause; as, Non ego grammaticas ambire tribus et pulpita dignor. Hor. And both dignor and dedignor are followed by two accusatives, one of the object the other of the predicate. See § 230, R. 2.

REM. 2. (a.) Dignus and indignus are sometimes followed by the genitive; as, Suscipe cognitationem dignussimant two virtuits. Cic. Indignus avorum. Virg.; and dignus sometimes takes a neuter pronoun or adjective in the accusative; as, Non me censes scire quid dignus siem? Plaut. Frētus is in Livy construed with the dative. Cf. § 222, R. 6, (b.)

(b.) Instead of an ablative, dignus and indignus often take an infinitive, especially in the passive; as, Exat dignus anaï. Virg.; or a subjunctive clause, with qui or ut; as, Dignus qui impèret. Cic. Non sum dignus, ut figam pālum in păriètem. Plaut.; or the supine in u; as, Digna atque indigna relatu vēcifèrans. Virg. Contentus is likewise joined with the infinitive; as, Non has artes contenta păternas ēdīdīcisse fuit. Ovid.—So, Nāves pontum irrumpère frète. Stat.

§ 245. I. Utor, fruor, fungor, pŏtior, vescor, and their oppounds, are followed by the ablative; as,

Ad quem tum Jūno supplex his võcībus ūsa est,—addressed these words. Virg. Frui võluptāte, To enjoy pleasure. Cic. Fungitur officio, He performs hiduty. Id. Oppīdo põtiti sunt. Liv. Vescttur aurā. Virg. His rēbus perfruor. Cic. Lēgībus ābūti. Id. Dēfuncti impērio. Liv. Gravi opēre perfungimur. Cic. O tandem magnis pēlāgi dēfuncte pērīclis. Virg.

The compounds are abūtor, deūtor, perfruor, defungor, and perfungor.

Note. Utor may take a second ablative, as an apposition or a predicate, like the predicate accusative, (§ 230, R. 2), and may then be translated by the verb to have; as, Ille facili me ālētur patre, He shall have in me an indulgent father. Ter.

REMARK. In early writers these verbs sometimes take an accusative; as, Quam rem mědici ūtuntur. Varr. Ingénium frui. Ter. Datămes militâre mīnus fungens. Nep. Gentem ăliquam urbem nostram põittūram pūtem. Cic. Sacras lauros vescar. Tibull. In prològis scribendis öperam ābūttur. Ter.—Pŏtior is, also, found with the genitive. See § 220, 4.

II. 1. Nitor, innitor, fido and confido, may be followed by the ablative without a preposition; as, Hastā innixus. Liv. Fidere cursu. Ovid. Nātūrā lŏci confidebant. Cæs.

2. Misceo with its compounds takes, with the accusative of the object, the ablative of the thing mingled with; as, Miscēre pābūla săle. Coll. Aquas nectăre. Ovid. Aër multo călore admixtus. Cic.

3. Assuesco, assuefácio, consuesco, insuesco, and sometimes acquiesco, take either the dative or the ablative of the thing; as, Aves sanguine et prædā assuētæ. Hor. Nullo officio aut disciplīnā assuefactus. Cæs. Cf. § 224.

4. Viv: and epulor, 'to live or feast upon,' are followed by the ablative; as, Dapibus epulāmur opimis. Virg. Lacte atque pecore vivunt. Cass.

5. Sto signifying 'to be filled or covered with,' and also when signifying 'to cost,' is followed by the ablative without a preposition; when signifying 'to persevere in, stick to, abide by,' 'to rest or be fixed on,' it is followed by the ablative either with or without in; as, Jam pulvere calum stare viden. Virg.—Multo sanguine ac vulnëribus ea Panis victoria stětit. Liv. Stare conditionibus. Cic. Omnis in Ascanio stat cara parentis. Virg.—Consto, 'to consist of' or 'to rest upon,' is followed by the ablative either alone or with ex, de, or in; as Constat matèries solido corpore. Lucr. Hómo ex animo constat et corpore. Cic.

REMARK 1. Fido, confido, misceo, admisceo, permisceo, and assuesco often take the dative.

- REM. 2. When a preposition is expressed after the above verbs, sto, fido, confido, nitor, innitor, and assuesco take in or ad; acquiesco, in; and misceo with its compounds, cum.
- § **246.** Perfect participles denoting *origin* are often followed by the ablative of the *source*, without a preposition.

Such are nātus, prognātus, sātus, creātus, crētus, ēdītus, gēnītus, gēnērātus, ortus; to which may be added öriundus, descended from.

Thus, Nāte deā! O son of a goddess! Virg. Tantālo prōgnātus, Descended from Tantālus. Cic. Sātus Nēreide, Sprung from a Nereid. Ovid. Crātus rēge. Id. Alcānore crēti. Virg. Edite rēgībus. Hor. Düs gēnīte. Virg. Argolico gēnērātus Alēmone. Ovid. Ortus nullis mājorībus. Hor. Cælesti sēmine oriāndi. Lucr.

REMARK 1. The preposition is also rarely omitted after the verbs creo, genero, and nascor; as, Ut patre certo nascerere. Cic. Fortes creantur fortibus. Hor.

REM. 2. After participles denoting origin, the preposition ex or de is usually joined to the name of the mother; and in a few passages ex or ab is joined to the name of the father; as, $Pr\bar{o}gn\bar{a}t$ ab Dite patre. Cas. In speaking of one's ancestors ab is frequently used; as, $Pl\bar{e}rosque$ Belyas esse ortos a Germanis. Id.

Rem. 3. Origin from a place or country is generally expressed by a patrial adjective; as, Thrāsybūlus Athēniensis, Thrasybūlus of Athēns. Livy often uses ab; as, Turnus Herdonius ab Arīciā. Cæsar prefers the ablative alone; as, Cn. Magius Crēmōnā; and in this manner is expressed the tribe to which a person belongs; as, Q. Verres Rŏmīliā,—of the Romilian tribe.

ABLATIVE OF CAUSE, ETC.

§ **247.** Nouns denoting the cause, manner, means, and instrument, after adjectives and verbs, are put in the ablative without a preposition.

Note. The English prepositions with the ablative of cause, manner, means, and instrument are by, with, in, etc.

1. The cause. (1.) Adjectives which have a passive signification, as denoting a state or condition produced by some external cause, may take such cause in the ablative; as,

Campāni fuērunt săperbi bŏnītāte agrōrum. Cic. Animal pābūlo lætum. Sen Prælio fessi lassique, Weary and faint with the battle. Sall. Hōmines ægri grāvi morbo. Cic.

(2.) Neuter verbs expressing an action, state of feeling of the subject originating in some external cause, may take that cause in the ablative; as,

Intěriit făme, He perished with hu ger. Laude ălienā dölet. Cic. Lætor tuā dignītāte. Id. Gawle tuo bŏno. Id. Suā vietūriā glūriāri. Cæs. Aquilūnībus laborant querceta. Hor.—So with bene est and the dative, as, Milli bene erat non piscibus urbe petitis, sed pullo atque hædo. Hor. Ubi illi bene sit ligno, ăqua călida, cibo, vestimentis, etc. Plaut.

NOTE 1. After such adjectives and neuter verbs, a preposition with its case often supplies the place of the simple ablative.

Note 2. In exclamations of encouragement or approbation, the defective adjective macte, macti, either with or without the imperative of esse (esto, este, estote,) is joined with an ablative of cause, especially with virtute.

Note 3. After neuter verbs and adjectives denoting emotions, especially those of care, grief, and sorrow, the accusative vicem, with a genitive or a possessive pronoun, is used, instead of the ablative vicem, with a gentive or a possessive pronoun, is used, instead of the ablative vice, to signify 'for' or 'on account of'; as, Rémittimus hoc tibi, ne nostram vicem irascaris, That you may not be angry on our account. Liv. Tuam vicem sæpe dôleo, quod, etc. Cic. Suam vicem mágis anxius, quam ejus, cui auxilium ab se pélébatur. Liv.

REMARK 1. When the cause is a voluntary agent, it is put in the accusative with the preposition ob, propter, or per; as, Non est æquum me propter vos decipi. Ter. These prepositions, and a, or ab, de, e or ex, and præ, are also sometimes used when the cause is not a voluntary agent; as, Ob adulterium cæsi. Virg. Nec lŏqui præ mærōre pŏtuit. Cic.

REM. 2. (a.) After active verbs, the cause, unless expressed by an ablative in u from substantives having no other case; as, Jussu, rogātu and admonitu, is seldom expressed by the simple ablative, but either by a preposition, or by is sentom expressed by the simple abilitive, but either by a preposition, r by causă, argaia, ergo, etc., with a genitive; as, $L\bar{e}gibus$ propter metum pāret. Cic. Ne ob eam rem ipsos despiceret. Id. Dōnāri virtūtis ergo. Id. Si hoc honoris mei causă suscepēris. Id. But with causă, etc., the adjective pronoun is commonly used for the corresponding substantive pronoun; as, Te ābesse meā causā, moleste fēro. Cic. Cf. § 211, R. 3, (b.)

(b.) When the cause is a state of feeling, a circumlocution is often used with a perfect participle of some verb signifying 'to induce'; as, Cūndātātē ducus, inducus, includes increases in agrantation arguments under the state of the consequence of the proposed state of the consequence of the proposed state of the consequence of the consequence of the proposed state of the consequence of the consequenc

inductus, incitatus, incensus, inflammatus, impulsus, motus, captus, etc. Mihi benevolentia ductus tribuebat omnia. Cic. Livy frequently uses ab in this sense;

as, Ab īrā, a spe, ab ŏdio, from anger, hope, hatred.

2. The manner. Cum is regularly joined with the ablative of manner, when expressed simply by a noun, not modified by any other word; and also when an adjective is joined with the noun, provided an additional circumstance, and not merely an essential character of the action, is to be expressed.

Cum voluptāte aliquem audīre. Verres Lampsacum vēnit cum magnā călămītate civitatis. Cic. Hence also when the connection between the subject and the noun denoting the attribute is only external; as, Procedere cum veste purpurea: in distinction from Nudis pedibus incedere; Aperto capite sedere, etc.,

which express circumstances or attributes essential to the subject.

But modus, rătio, mos, ritus, etc., signifying manner, never take cum, and it is omitted in some expressions with other substantives; as, Hoc modo scripsi; Constituriut qui rătione depertur; More bestiarum văgări; Latronum ritu vieire; Equo animo fero; Maximā fide ămicitias coluit. Summā æquitate res constituit; Viam incredibili celeritate confecit; Librum magna cura diligentiaque scripsit; the action of the verb being intimately connected with the circumstance expressed by the ablative. So in some expressions with substantives alone; as, Silentio preterire or facere aliquid; Lege agere; Jūre and injūriā făcere; Magistratus vitio creatus; Recte et ordine fit.

REM. 3. The manner is also sometimes denoted by de or ex with the ablative; as, De or ex industria, On purpose. Liv. Ex integro, Anew. Quint.

3. The means and instrument. An ablative is joined with verbs of every kind, and also with adjectives of a passive signification, to express the means or instrument; as,

Amicos observantia, rem parsimonia retinuit, He retained his friends by attention, his property by frugality. Cic. Auro ostroque decori. Virg. Egrescit medendo. Id. Cornibus tauri, apri dentibus, morsu leones se tatantur. Cic. Casus est virgis. Id. Trabs saucia securi. Ovid. For the ablative of the means after verbs of filling, etc., see § 249, I.

- Rem. 4. When the means is a person, it is seldom expressed by the simple ablative, but either by per, or by the ablative ôpêrā with a genitive or a possessive pronoun; as, meā, tuā, suā, ôpêrā, which are equivalent to per me, per te, per se, and denote both good and bad services. Beneficio meo, etc., is used of good results only; as, Beneficio meo patres sunt. Sall. But persons are sometimes considered as involuntary agents, and as such expressed by the ablative without a preposition; as, Servos, quibus silvas publicas depôpuloius érat. Cic.—When per is used to express the means, it is connected with external concurring circumstances, rather than with the real means or instrument. Hence we always say vi oppidum cépit, but per vim ei bôna ērīpuit.
- REM. 5. The material instrument is always expressed by the ablative without a preposition; as, Conficere cervum săgittis; glădio âliquem vulnerāre; trājicere pectus ferro.
- § 248. The ablative is used with passive verbs to denote the *means* or *agent* by which any thing is effected, and which in the active voice is expressed by the nominative. This ablative is used either with *ab* or without it, according as it is a person or a thing.
- I. The voluntary agent of a verb in the passive voice is put in the ablative with a or ab; as,
- (In the active voice,) Clodius me diligit, Clodius loves me (Cic.); (in the passive,) A Clodio diligor, I am loved by Clodius. Laudātur ab his, culpātur ab illis. Hor.
- REMARK 1. (1.) The general word for persons, after verbs in the passive voice, is often understood; as, Probitas laudātur, scil. ab hōmīnībus. Juv. So after the passive of neuter verbs; as, Discurritur. Virg. Tōto certātum est corpore regni. Id. Cf. § 141, R. 2.
- (2.) The agent is likewise often understood, when it is the same as the subject of the verb, and the expression is then equivalent to the active voice with a reflexive pronoun, or to the middle voice in Greek; as, Quum omnes in omni génère scélèrum volutentur, scil. a se. Cic.
- REM. 2. Neuter verbs, also, are sometimes followed by an ablative of the voluntary agent with a or ab; as,
- M. Marcellus pěriit ab Annibăle, M. Marcellus was killed by Hannibal. Plin. Ne vir ab hoste cădat. Ovid.
- Rem. 3. The preposition is sometimes omitted; as, Nec conjuge captus. Ovid. Colitur linigërā turbā. Id. Pēreat meis excīsus Argīvis. Hor.
- For the dative of the agent after verbs in the passive voice, and participles in dus, see § 225, II. and III.
- II. The involuntary agent of a verb in the passive voice, or of a neuter verb, is put in the ablative without a preposition, as the cause, means, or instrument; as, Maximo dölöre conficior. Cic. Frangi căpidităte. Id. Ædcidæ tēlo jācet Hector. Virg.

NOTE. The involuntary agent is sometimes personified, and takes a or ab; as, A voluptatibus deseri. Cic. A natūra datum homini vivendi curriculum. Id. Vinci a voluptāte. Id. Victus a lăbore. Id.

§ 249. I. A noun denoting the means, by which the action of a verb is performed, is put in the ablative after verbs signifying to affect in any way, to fill, furnish, load, array, equip, endow, adorn, reward, enrich, and many others.

REMARK 1. This rule includes such verbs as afficio, aspergo, conspergo, inspergo, respergo, compleo, expleo, impleo, oppleo, repleo, suppleo, cumulo, farcio, refercio, satio, exsatio, saturo, stipo, constipo, obruo, onero, augeo, induo, vestio, armo, orno, circumdo, circumfundo, macto, locupleto, instruo, imbuo, dono, impertio, remuneror, honesto,

honoro, etc.; as,

Terrore implētur Afrīca, Africa is filled with terror. Sil. Instruxēre epūlis mensas, They furnished the tables with food. Ovid. Ut ējus anīmum his opīnionībus imbuas, That you should imbue his mind with these sentiments. Cic. Nāves ŏnērant auro, They load the ships with gold. Virg. Camūlat altāria dōnis He heaps the altars with gifts. Id. Terra se grāmine vestit, The earth clothes itself with grass. Id. Mollibus ornābat cornua sertis. Id. Multo cibo et potione completi. Cic. Libros puērlibus fābūlis rēfercīre. Id. Sătiāri dēlectātion non possum. Id. Hōmines sātiārāt hōnōrībus. Id. Senectus stīpāta stīpāta stūdiis jūventūtis. Id. Me tanto hōnōre hōnestas. Plaut. Equis Africam locuplētāvit. Colum. Stūdium tuum nullā me novā voluptāte affēcit. Cic. Terram nox obruit umbris. Lucr.

REM. 2. Several verbs denoting to fill, instead of the ablative, sometimes

take a genitive. See § 220, 3.

REM. 3. The active verbs induo, dono, impertio, aspergo, inspergo, circumdo, and circumfundo, instead of the ablative of the thing with the accusative of the person, sometimes take an accusative of the thing, and a dative of the person; as, Cui quum Dēiānīra tinicam indusset. Cic. Dönāre mūnēra cīvībus. In the earliest writers döno, like condōno, has sometimes two accusatives or an accusative of the person with the infinitive.

II. A noun denoting that in accordance with which any thing is, or is done, is often put in the ablative without a preposition; as,

Nostro mōre, According to our custom. Cic. Institūto suo Cæsar cōpias suas ēduxit, According to his practice. Cæs. Id factum consilio meo,—by my advice. Ter. Pācem fēcit his conditionibus,—on these conditions. Nep.

Note. The prepositions de, ex, pro, and secundum are often expressed with such nouns; as, Neque est facturus quidquam nisi de meo consilio. Cic. Ex consuëtudine aliquid făcere. Plin. Ep. Decet quidquid ăgas, ăgere pro viribus. Cic. Secundum natūram vīvere. Id.

III. The ablative denoting accompaniment, is usually joined with cum; as,

Văgāmur egentes cum conjugibus et līberis, Needy, we wander with our wives and children. Cic. Sæpe admīrāri sõleo cum hoc C. Lælio. Id. Jālium cum his ad te lītēris mīsi. Id. Ingressus est cum glădio. Id. Rōmam vēni cum febri. Cum occāsu sōlis cōpias ēdūcēre,—as soon as the sun set.

REMARK. But cum is sometimes omitted before words denoting military and naval forces, when limited by an adjective; as, Ad castra Cæsáris omnibus copiis contenderunt. Cæs. Inde tōto exercitu profectus. Liv. Eōdem decem nāvibus C. Furius vēnit. Liv. And sometimes in military language cum is omitted, when accompanying circumstances are mentioned, and not persons; as, Castra clāmore invadunt.

§ 250. 1. A noun, adjective, or verb, may be followed by the ablative, denoting in what respect their signification is taken;

Piètâte f îlius, consiliis pârens, În affection a son, în counsel a parent. Cic. Rêges nômine màgis quam impèrio, Kirgs în name rather than în authority. Nep. Oppidum nômine Bibrax. Cæs.—Jūre pērītus, Skilled în law. Cic. Anxius ânimo, Anxious în mind. Tac. Pêdâbus æger, Lame în his feet. Sall. Crine rūber, niger ôre. Mart. Fronte letus. Tac. Mājor nātu. Cic. Prādentiā non înférior, ūsu vēro êtiam sūpērior. Id. Maximus nātu. Liv.—Antmo angi, To be troubled in mind. Cic. Contrêmisco tôtā mente et omnībus artūbus, I am agitated în my whole mind and în every limb. Id. Captus mente, Affected în mind, i. e. deprived of reason. Id. Altêro ôcūlo cāpītur. Liv. Ingēnii laude flôruit. Cic. Pollère nobilitāte. Tac. Animōque et corpôre torpet. Hor.

REMARK. This may be called the ablative of limitation, and denotes the relation expressed in English by 'in respect of,' 'in regard to,' 'as to,' or 'in.'—Respecting the genitive of limitation after adjectives, see § 213;—after verbs, § 220, 1: and respecting the accusative of limitation, see § 231, R. 5; § 232, (3.); and § 234, II.

2. (1.) Adjectives of plenty or want are sometimes limited by the ablative; as,

Domus plina servis, A house full of servants. Juv. Dives agris, Rich in land. Hor. Férax sæcúlum bönis artibus. Plin.—Inops rerbis, Deficient in words. Cic. Orba frātrībus, Destitute of brothers. Ovid. Viduum arbörībus sölum. Colum. Nūdus agris. Hor. For the genitive after adjectives of plenty and want, see § 213, R. 3-5.

(2.) Verbs signifying to abound, and to be destitute, are followed by the ablative; as,

Scătentem belluis pontum, The sea abounding in monsters. Hor. Urbs redundat militibus, The city is full of soldiers. Auct. ad Her. Villa ābundat porco, hædo, agno, gallinā, lacte, cāseo, melle. Cic.—Virum qui pēcūniā ēgeat, A man who is in want of money. Id. Cārēre culpā, To be free from fault. Id. Mea ādólescentia indiget illörum bonā existimātione. Id. Abundat audāciā, consilio et rătione deficitur. Id.

REMARK 1. To this rule belong ăbundo, exūbero, redundo, scăteo, affluo, circumfluo, diffluo, superfluo, suppedito, valeo, vigeo;—căreo, eseo, indigeo, vaco, deficior, destituor, etc.

REM. 2. The *genitive*, instead of the ablative, sometimes follows certain verbs signifying to abound or to want. See § 220, 3.

REM. 3. To do any thing with a person or thing, is expressed in Latin by facere with de; as, Quid de Tulliolà meā fiet? Cic; and more frequently by the simple ablative, or the dative; as, Quid hoe homine or huic homini faciatis? What can you do with this man? Cic. Nescit quid faciat auro,—what he shall do with the gold. Plaut. Quid me fiat parvi pendis, You care little what becomes of me. Ter.—Sum is occasionally used in the same manner; as, Mětum cépérunt quidnam se futurum esset,—what would become of them. Liv.

§ 251. As noun denoting that of which any thing is deprived, or from which it is freed, removed, or separated, is often put in the ablative without a preposition.

This construction occurs after verbs signifying to deprive, free, debar, drive away, remove, depart, and others which imply separation. Note. The principal verbs of this class are arceo, pello, dēpello, expello, abdico, interdīco, dēfendo, dēturbo, dējicio, ējicio, absterreo, dēterreo, mōveo, āmōveo, dēmōveo, rēmōveo, sēcerno, prohibeo, sēpāro, exclūdo, interclūdo, ábeo, exeo, cēdo, dēcēdo, discēdo, dēsisto, ēvādo, abstineo, spolio, prīvo, orbo, libēro, expēdio, laxo, nūdo, solvo, exsolvo, exōnēro, lēvo, purgo, to which may be added the adjectives liber, immūnis, pūrus, văcuus, and āliēnus; as,

Nūdantur arböres föliis, The trees are stripped of leaves. Plin. Hoc me libēra mētu, Free me from this fear. Ter. Tūne eam philosophiam sēquēre, quæ spoliat nos jūdicio, prīvat approbātione, orbat sensībus? Cic. Solvit se Teucria luctu. Virg. Te illis sēdībus arcēbit. Cic. Q. Varium pellēre possessionins conātus est. Id. Omnes trību rēmōti. Liv. Lēvāre se ære āliēno. Cic. Me lēres chōri sēcernunt pōpūlo. Hor. Anīmus omni līber cūrā et angōre. Cic. Utruaque homine āliēnussīmum. Id. When āliēnus signifies 'averse' or 'hostile to,' it takes the ablative with ab, or rarely the dative; as, Id dīcit, quod illi causæ mazīme est āliēnum. Id. In the sense of 'unsuited,' it may also be joined with the genitive; as, Quis āliēnum pūtet ējus esse dignitātis? Id.—Alius too, in analogy with adjectives and verbs of separation, sometimes takes an ablative; as, Nēve pūtes ālium sāpiente bōnōque beātum. Hor.; but this may also be referred to the ablative after comparatives. Cf. § 266, R.14.

REMARK 1. Most verbs of depriving and separating are more or less frequently followed by ab, de, or ex, with the ablative of the thing, and always by ab with the ablative of the person; as, Tu Jūpiter, hunc a this āris arcēbis. Cip. Præsidium ex arce pēpūlērunt. Nep. Aquam de agro pellēre. Plin. Ex ingrātā cīvītāte cēdēre. Cic. Arcem ab incendio libērāvit. Id. Solvēre belluam ex cātēnis. Auct. ad Her.—Sēdes rēmōtas a Germānis. Cæs. Se ab Etruscis sēcernēre. Liv.

Rem. 2. Arceo, in the poets, sometimes takes the dative, see § 224, R. 2., and sometimes an infinitive; as, Plāgamque sēdēre cēdendo arcēbat. Ovid.—Problibeo and dēfendo take either the accusative of the person or thing to be defended, with the ablative of the thing to be warded off—or the reverse—äliquem or âliquid a pēricūlo, or pēricūlum ab āliquo. They are also sometimes construed with the dative, see § 224, R. 2, and sometimes with infinitive or subjunctive clauses. Prôhībeo has rarely two accusatives; as, Id te Jūpīter prôhībessit. Plaut.; or poetically the accusative and genitive; as, Captæ prôhībere Pænos āquilæ. Sil.—Interdīco takes the person either in the accusative or the dative, and the thing in the ablative, āliquem or ālicui alīquā re; as, Quibus quum āquā et igni interdīcissent. Cæs.—Instead of the ablative, a subjunctive clause with ne, and mor rarely with at, sometimes follows interdīco.—Absum, in like manner, takes the ablative with ab, and sometimes the dative: as, Curtæ nescio quid semper ābest rei. Hor. Cf. § 224, R. 1.—Abdīco takes sometimes an ablative, and sometimes an accusative of the thing renounce; as, Abdīcāre se māgistrātu. Cic. Abdīcāre māgistrātum. Sall. In Plautus, circumdūco, to cheat, takes the ablative of the thing. Interclūdo, instead of an ablative of the thing with an accusative of the person, sometimes takes an accusative of the thing and a dative of the person, sometimes takes an accusative of the thing and a dative of the person, sometimes takes an accusative of the thing and a dative of the person, sometimes takes an accusative of the thing and a dative of the person, sometimes takes an accusative of the thing and a dative of the person, sometimes takes an accusative of the thing and a dative of the person, sometimes takes an accusative of the thing and a dative of the person, quēmīnus ad te plāra scrībam. Cic.

REM. 3. Verbs which signify to distinguish, to differ, and to disagree, are generally construed with ab, but sometimes, especially in the poets, with the ablative alone.

Note. Verbs signifying to distinguish, etc., are distinguo, discerno, sēcerno, différo, discrépo, dissideo, disto, dissentio, discordo, abhorreo, alieno, and aballêno.—Dissentio, dissideo, discrépo, and discordo are construed also with cum.—The verbs which signify to differ are sometimes construed with the dative; as, Distat infido scurræ dmēcus. Hor., and in like manner the adjective diversus; as, Nthil est tam Lysiæ diversum, quam Isocrátes. Quint.

ABLATIVE OF PRICE.

§ 252. The *price* or *value* of a thing is put in the ablative, when it is a definite sum, or is expressed by a substantive; as,

Quum te trècentis tàlentis règi Cotto vendidisses, When you had sold yourself to king Cottus for three hundred talents. Cic. Vendidit hic auro patriam, This one sold his country for gold. Virg. Cibus ūno asse véndis. Plin. Constitit quādringentis millibus. Varr. Dénis in diem assībus ăntimum et corpus (mīlitum) æstimāri. Tac. Lèvi mōmento æstimāre. Cæs. Istuc verbum vile est vēginti mīnis. Plaut. Asse cārum est. Sen. Ep.

REMARK 1. The verbs which take an ablative of price or value are (1) æstimo, dūco, fūcio, fīo, hābeo, pendo, pūto, dēpūto, tazo: (2) ēmo, mercor, vendo, do, vēneo, sto, consto, prosto, condūco, loco, vāleo, luo, and līceo.—To these must be added others, which express some act or enjoyment for which a certain price is paid; as, Lāvor quādrante. Trīginta millībus Celius hābītat. Cic. Vīx drachmis est obsōnātus dēcem. Ter. Dōceo tălento, etc. So esse in the sense 'to be worth'; as, Sextante sal in Itāliā ērat.

REM. 2. Respecting the genitive of price or value, when expressed in a general or indefinite manner, see § 214.

REM. 3. The price of a thing, contrary to the general rule, is often expressed indefinitely by a neuter adjective; as, magno, permagno, parvo, tantilo, plāre, minimo, plūrimo, vili, viliōri, vilissimo, nimio, etc.; as, Plūre vēnit. Cic. Conduxit non magno domum. Id. These adjectives refer to some noun understood, as prētio, ære, and the like, which are sometimes expressed; as, Parvo prētio ea vendidisse. Cic.—The adverbs bēne, pulchre, recte, māle, cāre, etc., sometimes take the place of the genitive or ablative of price; as, Bēne ēmēre; recte vendēre; optime vendēre, etc.

REM. 4. Varro has used văleo with the accusative; as, Dēnārii dicti, quod dēnos æris vālēbant.

REM. 5. Mūto and its compounds, commūto and permūto, are commonly construed like verbs of selling, the thing parted with being put in the accusative, and the thing received in exchange for it, in the ablative; as, Chāōniam glandem pingui mūtāvit āristā. Virg. But these cases are often reversed, so that the thing received is put in the accusative and the thing given for it in the ablative; as, Cur valle permūtem Sābīnā dīvītias opērosiores? Why should I exchange my Sabine valley for more wearisome riches? Hor.—Sometimes in this construction cum is joined with the ablative.

ABLATIVE OF TIME.

§ 253. A noun denoting the *time at* or *within* which any thing is said to be, or to be done, is put in the ablative without a preposition; as,

Die quinto dēcessit, He died on the fifth day. Nep. Hoc tempŏre, At this time. Cic. Tertiā vigiliā ēruptiōnem fēcērunt, They made a sally at the third watch. Cas. Ut hième nāxīges, That you should sail in the winter. Cic. Proximo triennio omnes gentes sūbēgit. Nep. Agāmemnon cum ūniversā Græciā vix dēcem annis ūnam cēpit urbem. Nep.

NOTE 1. The English expression 'by day' is rendered in Latin either by interdiu or die; 'by night,' by noctu or nocte; and 'in the evening,' by respēre or vespēri; see § 82, Exc. 5, (a.) Lūdis is used for in tempõre lūdorum; and Sāturnālībus, Latīnis, glādiātōrībus, for lūdis Sāturnālībus, etc. Other nouns not properly expressing time are used in that sense in the ablative either with or without in, as initio, principio, adventu and discessu ālīcājus, comītiis, tūmultu, bello, pāce, etc.; or in initio, etc. But bello is more common without in, if it is

joined with an adjective or a genitive; as, Bello Pūnīco sēcundo, bello Lātīnō-rum; and so, also, pugnā Cunnensī. So we say in puēritā, but omit in with an adjective; as, extrēmā puēritiā. In is very rarely used with nouns expressing a certain space of time; as, annus, dies, hūra, etc., for the purpose of denoting the time of an event. In tempore signifies either 'in distress,' or 'in time,' i. e. 'at the right time'; but in both cases tempore alone is used, and tempore in the sense of 'early' has even become an adverb, an earlier form of which was tempor or tempēri, whose comparative is tempērus.

REMARK 1. When a period is marked by its distance before or after another fixed time, it may be expressed by ante or post with either the accusative or the ablative.—(a) The preposition is regularly placed before the accusative, but after the ablative. If an adjective is used, the preposition is often placed between the adjective and the noun. In this connection the ordinal as well as the cardinal numbers may be used. Hence the English phrase 'after three years,' or 'three years after,' may be expressed in these eight ways; post tres annos, tribus annis post; post tertium annum, tertio anno post; tres post annos, tribus post annis; tertium post annum, tertio post anno.

(b.) When ante or post stands last, an accusative may be added to denote the time before or after which any thing took place; as, Multis annis post decenviros. Cic. So Consul factus est annis post Römum conditam trécentis duc-

dēnonāginta.

NOTE 2. Post and ante sometimes precede the ablatives, as ante annis octo; post paucis diēbus; and also before such ablatives as are used adverbially, as post aliquanto; ante paulo.

Note 3. Quam and a verb are sometimes added to post and ante in all the forms above specified; e. g. tribus annis postquam vēnērat; post tres annos quam vēnērat; tertio anno postquam vēnērat; post annum tertium quam vēnērat, etc.; all of which expressions signify 'three years after he had come.' Sometimes post is omitted; as, tertio anno quam vēnērat.

Note 4. Instead of postquam, 'after,' we may use ex quo, quum, or a relative agreeing with the preceding ablative; as, Ipse octo diebus, quibus has literas dabam, cua Lépidi côpias me conjungam; i. e. in eight days after the date of this letter. Planc. in Cic. Fam. Mors Sex. Roscii quatriduo, quo is occisus est, Chrysogono nuntiatur,—four days after he had been killed. Cic. Quem triduo, quum has dibam literas, exspectibam,—three days after the date of this letter. Planc. in Cic. In such cases in is sometimes joined with the ablative; as, In diebus paucis, quibus hee acta sunt, moritur. Ter.

Rem. 2. The length of time before the present moment may be expressed by abline with the accusative, and, less frequently, the ablative; as, Quastor fuisit abbline annos quatuordecim. Cic. Comitiis jam abbline triginta diebus habitis. Id. The same is also expressed by ante with the pronoun hie; as, ante hos sex menses maledixisti mihi,—six months ago. Phæd. Ante is sometimes used instead of abbline: and the length of time before is sometimes expressed by the ablative joined with hic or ille; as, Paucis his diebus, or paucis illis diebus,—a few days ago.

REM. 3. The time at which any thing is done, is sometimes expressed by the neuter accusative *id*, with a genitive; as, *Vēnit id tempŏris*. Cic. So with a preposition; *Ad id diēi*. Gell. See § 212, R. 3.

REM. 4. (a.) The time at or within which any thing is done, is sometimes, with personal subjects, expressed by de, with the ablative; as, De tertia vigilia ad hostes contendit,—in the third watch. Cæs. Ut jugilent hömines surgunt de nocte latrones. Hor. So, also, with sub; as, Ne sub ipsa profectione milites opptaum irrumpèrent,—at the very time of his departure. Cæs. Sub adventu Römän-örum, While the Romans were arriving. Id.

örum, While the Romans were arriving. Id.

(b.) The time within which any thing occurs, is also sometimes expressed by intra with the accusative; as, Dimidiam partem nationum subegit intra viginti dies. Plant. Intra decimum diem, quam Phèras vēnerat, In less than ten days

after... Liv.

REM. 5. The time within which a thing happens, is often expressed by the ablative with in; especially (a) in connection with numerals; as, *Bis* in die softwum fièri; rix ter in auno nuntium audive; and (b), as in the use of intra, to denote that the event happened before the time specified had fully expired.

REM. 6. Instead of in pueritia adolescentia, juventute, senectite, etc., in stating the age at which a person performed any action, the concretes puer, addelescens, juvenis, senex, etc., are commonly joined to the verb; as, Ch. Pompeius, addlescens se et patrem consilio servavit.—So, also, adjectives ending in enarius are sometimes used in stating the number of years a person has lived; as, Cicéro sexagenarius.

For the ablative denoting duration of time, see § 236.

ABLATIVE OF PLACE.

§ 254. The name of a town in which any thing is said to be, or to be done, if of the third declension or plural number, is put in the ablative without a preposition; as,

Alexander Babylone est mortuus, Alexander died at Babylon. Cic. Intereria multum—Thebis nätritus an Argis,—whether brought up at Thebes or at Argos. Hor. Nätus Thure vel Gabils. Id.

REMARK 1. 'In the country' is expressed by rūre, or more commonly by rūri, without a preposition; as, Pater filium rūri hābitāre jussit. Cic. With an adjective only rūre is used; as, Interdum nūgāris rūre pāterno. Hor. Cf. § 221, N.

REM. 2. (a.) The preposition in is sometimes expressed with names of

towns; as, În Philippis quidam nunciavit. Suet.

- (b.) Names of towns of the first and second declension, and singular number, and also domus and hūmus, are in like manner sometimes put in the ablative without in. See § 221, R. 2 and R. 3.—So, also, terrā mārique, by land, and by sea. In is also frequently omitted with lòco and lòcis, especially when joined with an adjective and having the meaning of 'occasion'; as, Hoc lòco, multis bicis, etc.—Libro joined with an adjective, as hoc, prīmo, etc., is used without in when the whole book is meant, and with in when only a portion is referred to. An ablative of place joined with tōto, tōtā, tōtis, is generally used without in; as, Urbe tōtā gēmitus fit. Cic. Tōtā Asiā rāgātur. Id. Tōto māri. Id. But in such cases in is sometimes used. So cunctā Asiā. Liv.
- Rem. 3. Before the names of countries, of nations used for those of countries, and of all other places in which any thing is said to be or to be done, except those of towns, and excepting also the phrases specified in the first and second remarks, the preposition in is commonly used; as, Iphicrates in Thrāciā vixit, Chares in Sigēo. Nep. Rūre šgo viventem, tu dīcis in urbe beātum. Hor. Ai hoc fēri in Græciā. Plaut. In Bactrianis Sogdiānisque urbes condidit. Lūcus in urbe fuit. Virg. But it is sometimes omitted by writers of every class and period; as, Milites stātīris castris hābēbut. Sall. Magnis in laudibus fuit tōtā Græciā. Nep. Popūli sensus maxīme theātro et spectācūlis perspectus est. Cic. Pompeius se oppido tēnet. Id. In the poets and later prose writers this omission is of very frequent occurrence not only with names of towns but with ablatives of all nouns answering to the question, where? as, Nāvita puppe sēdens. Ovid. Ibam forte Viā Sacrā. Hor. Silvisque agrisque viis, ae corpora fieda jācent. Ovid. Mēdio alveo concursum est. Liv.—Fōris, oùt at the door, abroad, is properly an ablative of place; as, Fōris cænat. Cic. Cf. § 237, R. 5, (c.)
 - § 255. 1. After verbs expressing or implying motion, the name of a town *whence* the motion proceeds, is p t in the ablative, without a preposition; as,

Brundisio pröfecti sămus, We departed from Brundisium. Cic. Dionysius tyrannus Syrācūsis expulsus Corinthi pueros docebat. Id. Demaratus Tarquanios Corintho jūgit. Id. Accepi tuas literas datas Plācentiā. Id. Interim Rūmā per literas certior fit; scil. datas or missas. Sall. J. 82. So, also, after a verbal noun; as, Narbone reditus. Cic.

REMARK 1. The ablatives domo, humo, and rure or ruri, are used, like names of towns, to denote the place whence motion proceeds; as,

Domo profectus, Having set out from home. Nep. Surgit humo jūrėnis, The youth rises from the ground. Ovid. Rure huc advēnit. Ter. Si rūri rěniet. Id. Virgil uses domo with unde; as, Qui gēnus? unde dɔrɔ? and Livy, instead of domo abesse, has esse ab domo. With an adjective, rūre, and not rūri, must be used.

REM. 2. With names of towns and domus and humus, when answering the question 'whence?' ab, ex, or de, is sometimes used; as, Ab Alexandriā profectus. Cic. Ex domo. Id. De vūtifērā vēnisse Viennā. Mart. Ab humo. Virg.

REM. 3. (a.) With other names of places whence motion proceeds, ab, ex, or de, is commonly expressed; as, Me a portu præmisit. Plaut. Ex Asiā transis in Europam. Curt. Ex castris proficiscuntur. Cæs. De Pomptino, scil. prædio. Cic.—So, also, before names of nations used for those of countries; as, Ex Mēdis ad adversāriōrum hībernācūla pervēnit. Nep.

(b.) But the preposition is sometimes omitted; as, Litera Macadonia allata. Liv. Classis Cypro advēnit. Curt. Cessissent loco. Liv. Ni cite vicis et castella proximis subventum foret. Id. He sacris, propërate sacris, laurumque capillis ponte. Ovid. Finibus omnes prosiluëre suis. Virg. Advolvunt ingentes montibus ornos. Id. This omission of the preposition is most common in the poets and lateral reason sinis.

and later prose writers.

2. The place by, through, or over which, after verbs of motion, commonly follows per; but frequently also it is put in the ablative without a preposition; as,

Per Thēbas iter fēcit. Nep. Exercitum vădo transdācit. Cæs. His pontībus pābūlātum mittēbat. Id. Tribāni mīlitum portā Collīnā urbem intrāvēre sub signis, mēdiāque urbe agmine in Aventīnum pergunt. Liv. Lēgiones Pennīnis Cottiānisque Alpībus, pars monte Graio, trādācuntur. Tac. Equites viā breviōre præmisi. Cic.

ABLATIVE AFTER COMPARATIVES.

- § 256. 1. When two objects are compared by means of the comparative degree, a conjunction, as quam, atque, etc., is sometimes expressed, and sometimes omitted.
- 2. The comparative degree, when quam is omitted, is followed by the ablative of that with which the comparison is made; as,

Nihil est virtute formōsius, Nothing is more beautiful than virtue. Cic. Quis C. Lælio cōmior? Who is more courteous than C. Lælius? Id.

REMARK 1. The person or thing with which the subject of a proposition is compared, is usually put in the ablative; as,

Sidere pulchrior ille est, tu lévior cortice. Hor. Vilius argentum est auro, virtutibus aurum. Id. Tullus Hostitius férôcior Rômulo fuit. Liv. Lacrimā nthil citius ārescit. Cic. Quid māgis est dūrum saxo, quid mollius undā? Ovid. Hoc nēmo fuit mīnus ineptus. Ter. Albānum, Mæcēnas, sīve Fülernum te māgis appösītis delectat. Hor.

REM. 2. An object with which a person or thing addressed is compared, is also put in the ablative; as, O fons Bandúsiæ splendidior vitro! Hor.

REM. 3. Sometimes the person or thing with which the subject of a proposition is compared, instead of following it in the ablative, is connected with it by quam, and it is then put in the same case as the subject, whether in the nominative or the accusative; as, Oratio quam häbitus fuit misërabilior. Cic. Affirmo nullam esse laudem ampliorem quam eam. Id. So, also, when an ablative in the case absolute takes the place of the subject; as, Eddem (scil. duce) plūra, quam gregārio mīlīte, tolerante. Tac.

REM. 4. If the person or thing which is compared with any object is neither the subject of the sentence nor the person addressed, quam is commonly used, and the object which follows it is then put in the nominative with sum, and and the object which follows it is then put in the normative with \$mm, and sometimes in an oblique case to agree with the object with which it is compared; as, Méliòrem, quam ego sum, suppòno tibi. Plaut. Ego hóminem callidiòrem vidi néminem quam Phormionem. Ter. Adventus hostium fuit agris, quam urbi terribilior. Liv. Omnes fontes æstäte, quam hième, sum yélidiòres. Plin. Themistoclis nômen, quam Sölönis, est illustrius. Cic.—The following example illustrates both the preceding constructions:—Ut tibi multo majora puna Arisima following that the normality and the procession of the constructions.—Ut tibi multo majora puna Arisima following the constructions.—Ut tibi multo majora puna Arisima following the constructions.—Ut tibi multo majora puna Arisima following the constructions. quam Africanus fuit, me non multo minorem quam Lælium făcile et în republică et in ămicitia adjunctum esse pătiare. Cic.

REM. 5. (a.) The person or thing with which the object of an active verb is compared, though usually connected with it by quam, (R. 4,) is sometimes put in the ablative, especially in the poets, and frequently also even in prose, if the object is a pronoun, particularly a relative pronoun; as, Attālo, quo grāviōrem tnimīcum non hābui, sōrōrem dēdit, He gave his sister to Attalus, than whom, etc. Curt. Hoc nihil grātius fācēre pōtes. Cic. Causam čnim suscēpisti antiquiōrem memoriā tuā. Id. Exēqi monūmentum ære pērennius. Hor. Cur olīvum sanguine vīperīno cautius vītat? Id. Quid prius dīcam sŏlītis pārentis laudībus? Id. Mājōra vīrībus audes. Virg. Nullam sacrā vīte prius sēvēris arbŏrem. Hor. Nullos his mallem lūdos spectasse. Id. § 178, 3.

(b.) The ablative instead of quam is never used with any other oblique case except the accusative, but quam is sometimes found, even where the ablative might have been used; as, Mělior tūtiorque est certa pax quam spērāta victoria. Liv. After quam, if the verb cannot be supplied from the preceding sentence, est, fuit, etc., must be added; as, Hac verba sunt M. Varrônis, quam fuit Claudius, doctioris. Gell. Drusum Germanicum minorem natu, quam ipse erat,

frātrem āmīsit. Sen.,

REM. 6. (a.) Minus, plus, and amplius with numerals, and with other words Jenoting a certain measure or a certain portion of a thing, are used either with or without quam, generally as indeclinable words, without influence upon the construction, but merely to modify the number; as, Non plus quam quatuor millia effugerunt, not effugit. Liv. Pictores antiqui non sunt usi plus quam quatuor coloribus, not pluribus. Cic.

(b.) Quam is frequently omitted with all cases; as, Minus duo millia hominum ex tanto exercitu effügerunt. Liv. Milites Romani sape plus dimidiati mensis abāria ferebant. Cic. Quum plus annum æger fuisset. Liv. Sēdecim non

amplius eo anno legionibus defensum imperium est. Id.

- (c.) These comparatives, as in the preceding example, are sometimes inserted between the numeral and its substantive, and sometimes, when joined with a negative, they follow both, as a sort of apposition; as, Quinque millia armātorum, non amplius, relictum erat præsidium,—a garrison of five thousand soldiers, not more. Liv. So, also, longius; Casar certior est factus, magnan of the contractive of the contract Gallorum copias non longius millia passuum octo ab hibernis suis abfuisse. Cæs. See § 236.
- (d.) The ablative is sometimes used with these as with other comparatives; as, Dies triginta aut plus eo in navi fui. Ter. Triennio amplius. Cic. amplius moliebantur. Id. Ne longius tridno ab castris absit. Cas. Apud Suevos non longius anno remanere uno in loco incolendi causa licet. Id. Quum initio non amplius duobus millibus habuisset. Sall.

REM. 7. Quam is in like manner sometimes omitted, without a change of case, after major, minor, and some other comparatives; as, Obsides ne minores octonum denum annorum, neu mājores quinum quadragenum,.... of not less than eighteen, nor more than forty-five years of age. Liv. Ex urbano exercitu, qui minores quinque et triginta annis erant, in naves impositi sunt. The genitive and ablative, in these and similar examples, are to be referred to § 211, R. 6. Longius ab urbe mille passuum. Liv. Annos nātas māgis quādrāginta. Cic.

Rem. 8. When the second member of a comparison is an infinitive or a clause, quam is always expressed; as, Nihil est in dicendo mājus quam ut fāveat

oratori auditor. Cic.

Rem. 9. Certain nouns, participles, and adjectives,—as *ŏpīniōne*, spe, exspectātione, fide,—dicto, solito,—æquo, crēdibīli, nēcessārio, vēro, and justo,—are used in a peculiar manner in the ablative after comparatives; as, Opīniōne cělěrius ventūrus esse dīcitur, -- sooner than is expected. Cæs. Dicto citius tumida æquora placat, Quicker than the word was spoken. Virg. Injūrias grāvius æquo hubere. Sall.

(a.) These ablatives supply the place of a clause; thus, grāvius æquo is equivalent to grāvius quam quod æquum est. They are often omitted; as, Thēmistocles liberius vivēbut, scil. æquo. Nep. In such cases, the comparative may be translated by the positive degree, with too, quite, or rather, as in the above example—'He lived too freely,' or 'rather freely.' Voluptas quum mājor est atque longior, onne ānīmi limen exstinguit,—when it is too great, and of too long continuance. Cic. So tristive scil. scilip. rather sad. continuance. Cic. So tristior, scil. solito, rather sad.

(b.) The English word 'still,' joined with comparatives, is expressed by etiam or vel, and only in later prose writers by adhuc; as, Ut in corporibus magnæ dissimilitudines sunt, sic in animis exsistunt mājores etiam varietātes. Cic.

REM. 10. (a.) With inferior, the dative is sometimes used, instead of the ablative; as, Vir nullă arte cuiquam inférior. Sall. The ablative is also found; as, Ut hūmānos cāsus virtūte infériores pūtes. Cic. But usually inférior is followed by quam; as, Timotheus belli laude non inférior fuit, quam pater. Cic. Grātiā non inférior, quam qui umquam fuērunt amplissimi. Id.

(b.) Qualis, 'such as,' with a comparative, occurs poetically instead of the relative pronoun in the ablative; as, Nardo pěrunctum, quale non perfectius meæ láborārint mănus; instead of quo. Hor. Epod. 5, 59. Animæ quales něque candidiores terra tülit; for quibus. Id. Sat. 1, 5, 41.

REM. 11. Quam pro is used after comparatives, to express disproportion; as, Pralium atrocius quam pro numero pugnantium, The battle was more severe than was proportionate to the number of the combatants. Liv. Minor, quam pro tămultu, eædes. Tac.

Rem. 12. When two adjectives or adverbs are compared with each other, both are put in the comparative; as, Triumphus clarior quam gratior, A triumph more famous than acceptable. Liv. Fortius quam felicius bellum gesserunt. So, also, when the comparative is formed by means of magis; as, Magis audacter quam parate ad dicendum veniebat. Cic.—Tacitus uses the positive in one part of the proposition; as, Spēciem excelsæ glöriæ věhěmentius quam caute appētēbat; or even in both; as, Clāris mājöribus quam větustis.

REM. 13. (a.) Potius and magis are sometimes joined pleonastically with malle and præstare, and also with comparatives; as, Ab omnibus se desertos potius quam abs te defensos esse malunt. Cic. Qui magis vere vincere quam diu impérare malit. Liv. Ut êmôri potius quam servire præstaret. Cic. Mihi quævis f uya potius quam ulla provincia esset optatior. Id. Quis magis queat esse beatior? Virg.

(b.) So, also, the prepositions præ, ante, præter, and supra, are sometimes used with a comparative; as, *Unus* præceteris fortior exsurgit, Apul. Scelere ante alios immanior omnes. Virg. They also occur with a superlative; as, Ante alios cărissimus. Nep. As these prepositions, when joined with the positive, denote comparison, they seem in such examples to be redundant. See § 127. REM. 14. Alius is sometimes in poetry treated as a comparative, and construed with the ablative instead of atque with the nominative or accusative; as, Nive putes alium sapiente bonoque beatum. Hor. Alius Lysippo. Id. But compare § 251, N.

REM. 15. By the poets ac and atque are sometimes used instead of quam after comparatives; as, Quanto constantior idem in vitis, tanto lévius miser ac prior ille, qui, etc. Hor. Arctius atque hédérā procèra adstringitur ilex. Id.

REM. 16. The degree of difference between objects compared is expressed by the ablative:—

(1.) Of substantives; as, Minor ūno mense, Younger by one month. Hor. Sesquipēde quam tu longior, Taller than you by a foot and a half. Plant Hibernia dimīdio minor quam Britania. Cæs. Dimīdio minoris constābit, It will cost less by half. Cic. Quam mölestum est ūno digito plus hābēre!....to have one finger more, i. e. than we have, to have six fingers. Id.—but the expression is ambiguous, as it might mean 'to have more than one finger.' Sūpěrat căpīte et cervicibus altis. Virg.

(2.) Of neuter adjectives of quantity and neuter pronouns, in the singular number. Such are tanto, quanto, quo, eo, hoc, multo, parvo, paulo, nimio, diquanto, tantūlo, altēro tanto (twice as much); as, Multo doctor es patre, Thou art (by) much more learned than thy father. The relative and demonstrative words, quanto—tanto, quo—eo, or quo—hoc, signifying 'by how much—by so much,' are often to be translated by an emphatic the; as, Quanto simus superiores, tanto nos submissius gērāmus, The more eminent we are, the more humbly let us conduct ourselves: lit. by how much—by so much—. Cic. Eo grāvior est dòlor, quo culpa est mājor. Id. But the relative word generally precedes the demonstrative; as, Quo difficilius, hoc præctārius. Id. Poetically, also, quam māgis—tam māgis are used instead of quanto māgis—tanto māgis. Virg. En. 7, 787: and quam māgis—tanto māgis. Lucr. 6, 459.—Iter multo fācilius,—much easier. Cæs. Parvo brēvius, A little shorter. Plin. Eo māgis, The more. Cic. Eo mīnus. Id. Istoc māgis vipūlibis, So much the more. Plaut. Via altēro tanto longior,—as long again. Nep. Multo id maxīmum fuit. Liv.

(3.) The ablative of degree is joined not only with comparatives but with verbs which contain the idea of comparison; as, mālo, præsto, sūpēro, excello, antēcēllo, antēcēdo, and others compounded with ante; and also with ante and post, in the sense of 'earlier' and 'later'; as, Multo præstat. Sall. Post paulo, A little after. Id. Multo ante lūcis adventum, Long before— Id. Multis partibus is equivalent to multo; as, Nūmēro multis partibus esset inférior. Cæs.

Note. The accusatives multum, tantum, quantum, and ăliquantum, are sometimes used instead of the corresponding ablatives; as, Aliquantum est ad rem ărtidior. Ter. Multum improbiõres sunt. Plaut. Quantum domo inférior, tantum glūriā sūpērior ēvāsit. Val. Max. Cf. § 232, (3.)—So longe, 'far,' is frequently used for multo; as, Longe mělior. Virg. Longe et multum antécellère. Cic. So, pars pēdis sesqui mājor,—longer by one half. Id.

ABLATIVE ABSOLUTE.

§ 257. A noun and a participle are put in the ablative, called *absolute*, to denote the time, cause, means, or concomitant of an action, or the condition on which it depends; as,

Pỹthágóras, Tarquinio regnante, in Itáliam vēnit, Pythagoras came into Italy, in the reign of Tarquin. Cic. Lăpus, stimulante făme, captat ŏvīle, Hunger inciting, the wolf seeks the fold. Ovid. Milites, pēcore e longinquioribus vicis ādacto, extrēmam fămem sustentiabant. Cass. Hac orătione hābītā, concilium dimīsit. Id. Galli, re cognītā, obsidionem rēlinquunt. Id. Virtūte exceptā, nihil āmactitā pressābilius pūtētis. Cic.

Note 1. The Latin ablative absolute may be expressed in English by a similar construction, but it is commonly better to translate it by a clause connected by when, since, while, although, after, as, etc., or by a verbal substantive; as, Te adjūvante, With thy assistance. Non—nisi te adjūvante, Only with thy assistance, or not without thy assistance. Te non adjūvante, Without thy assistance. Cf. § 274, R. 5, (c.)

REMARK 1. This construction is an abridged form of expression, equivalent to a dependent clause connected by quum, si, etsi, quamquam, quamvis, etc.

Thus, for Tarquinio regnante, the expression dum Tarquinius regnābat might be used; for hac ōrātiōne hābitā;—quum hanc ōrātiōnem hābuisset, or quum hac ōrātio hābita esset,—concilium dimīsit. The ablative absolute may always be resolved into a proposition, by making the noun or pronoun the subject, and the participle the predicate.

Rem. 2. This construction is common only with present and perfect participles. Instances of its use with participles in *rus* and *dus* are comparatively rare; as,

Cæsăre ventūro, Phosphöre, redde diem. Mart. Irruptūris tam infestis nātiōnībus. Liv. Quum concio plausum, meo nōmīne rēcītaudo, dēdisset,—when my name was pronounced. Cic. Quum immölandā Iphīgēnīā tristis Calchas esset. Id. Quis est ĕnim, qui, nullis officii præceptis trādendis, philösöphum se audeat dīcēre—without propounding any rules of duty. Cic. § 274, R. 5, (c.) and R. 9.

- REM. 3. (a.) A noun is put in the ablative absolute, only when it denotes a different person or thing from any in the leading clause. Cf. § 274, 3, (a.)
- (b.) Yet a few examples occur of a deviation from this principle, especially with a substantive pronoun referring to some word in the leading clause; as, Se audiente, scribit Thūcyūlūdes. Cic. Lēgio ex castris Varrōnis, adstante et inspectante ipso, signa sustalit. Cæs. Me dūce, ad hunc võti finem, me mīlīte, vēni. Ovid. So M. Porcius Cato, vīvo quoque Scīpione, allātrāre ējus magnītūdinem solitus ērat. Liv.
- NOTE 2. Two participles must not be put together in the ablative absolute agreeing with the same noun. Thus, we may say Porcia sæpe maritum cogitantem invenerat, but not, Porcia marito cogitante invento.
- Note 3. Instead of the ablative absolute denoting a cause, an accusative with δb or propter occurs in Livy and in later writers; as, $\tilde{Cinopum}$ condidère Spartani, ob sépultum illic rectorem navis Canopum. Tac. Décemviri libros Sibyllimos inspicère jussi sunt propter territos hômines novis prodiquis. Liv.
- REM. 4. The ablative absolute serves to mark the time of an action, by reference to that of another action. If the present participle is used, the time of the action expressed by the participle, is the same as that of the principal verb. The perfect participle and the future in rus, denote respectively an action as prior or subsequent to that expressed by the principal verb.

Thus in the preceding examples—Pythägöras, Tarquinio regnante, in Itāliam vēnit, Pythagoras came into Italy during the reign of Tarquinius. Galli, re cognitā, obsidiönem rēlinquunt, The Gauls, having learned the fact, abandon the siege. So, Rex āpum non nīsi migrātūro exāmine föras prōcēdit, The king-bee does not go abroad, except when a swarm is about to emigrate. Plin.

- Note 4. Non prius quam, non nīsi, ut, vēlut, and tamquam, are sometimes joined with the participle; as. Tibērius excessum Augusti non prius pālam fēcit, quam Agrippā jūrēne interempto, —not until. Suet. Galli leti, ut explorāta victoriā, ad castra Rōmānōrum pergunt. Cæs. Antiochus, tamquam non transitūris in Asiam Rōmānis, etc. Liv.
- Rem. 5. (a.) The construction of the ablative absolute with the perfect passive participle, arises frequently from the want of a participle of that tense in the active voice.

Thus, for Cæsar, having sent forward the cavalry, was following with all his forces,' we find, 'Cæsar, ĕquǐtātu præmisso, subsēquēbātur omnībus cōpiis.'

- (b.) As the perfect participle in Latin may be used for both the perfect active and the perfect passive participles in English, its meaning can, in many instances, be determined only by the connection, since the agent with a or ab is generally not expressed with this participle in the ablative absolute, as it is with other parts of the passive voice. Thus, Casar, his dictis, contilum dimisit, might be rendered, 'Cæsar, having said this, or this having been said (by some other person), dismissed the assembly.'
- (c.) As the perfect participles of deponent verbs correspond to perfect active participles in English, no such necessity exists for the use of the ablative absolute with them; as, Cesar, hee locatus, concilium dimisit. In the following example, both constructions are united: Itáque...agros Remõrum dēpŏpūlāti, omnibus vīcis, ædificiisque incensis. Cæs.
- Rem. 6. The perfect participles of neuter deponent verbs, and some also of active deponents, which admit of both an active and a passive sense, are used in the ablative absolute; ås, Ortā lūce. Çæs. Vel exstincto rel ēlapso animo, nullum rēsīdēre sensum. Cic. Tam multis gloriam ējus adeptis. Plin. Lūtēras ad exercītus, tamquam adepto principātu, mīsīt. Tac.
- REM. 7. (a.) As the verb sum has no present participle, two nouns, or a noun and an adjective, which might be the subject and predicate of a dependent clause, are put in the ablative absolute without a participle; as,
- Quid, adolescentulo duce, efficere possent, What they could do under the guidance of a youth. Cas. Me suäsore atque impulsore, hoc factum, By my advice and instigation. Plant. Hannibāle vīvo, While Hannibāle vīse herīdā Minervā, in opposition to one's genius. Cic. Cælo sērēno, when the weather is clear. Virg. Me ignāro, without my knowledge. Cic. With names of office, the concrete noun is commonly used in the ablative absolute, rather than the corresponding abstract with in to denote the time of an event; as, Romam vēnīt Mārio consule, He came to Rome in the consulship of Marius. Cic.
- (b.) The nouns so used as predicates are by some grammarians considered as supplying the place of participles by expressing in themselves the action of a verb. Such are dux, comes, adjutor and adjutrix, auctor, testis, jūdex, interpres, magister and magistra, praceptor and praceptrix; as, due nātūrā, in the sense of dūcente nātūrā, under the guidance of nature; jūdice Polybio, according to the judgment of Polybius.
- Rim. 8. A clause sometimes supplies the place of the noun; as, Nondum comperto quam in règionem venisset rex. Liv. Audito venisse nuncium. Tac Väle dicto. Ovid. This construction, however, is confined to a few participles; as, audito, cognito, comperto, explorato, desperato, nunciato, dicto, édicto. But the place of such participle is sometimes supplied by a neuter adjective in the place of such participle is sometimes supplied by a neuter adjective in the place; as, Incerto pra ténebris quid pétérent. Liv. Cf. R. 7, (a.) Haud cuiquam dubio quin hostium essent. Id. Juata périculoso vera an ficta pronèret. Tac.
- REM. 9. (1.) The noun in the ablative, like the subject nominative, is sometimes wanting; (a) when it is contained in a preceding clause; as, Atticus Servilian, Brūti mātrem, non minus post mortem ējus, quam florente, coluit, scil. eo,

i. e Brūto. Nep. (b) When it is the general word for person or persons followed by a descriptive relative clause; as, Hannibal Ibērum cōpias trājēcit, præmissis, qui Alpium transitus spēcūlārentur. Liv. (c) When the participle in the neuter singular corresponds to the impersonal construction of neuter verbs in the passive voice; as, În annis transgressu, multum certato, Bardesanes vicit. Tac. Mihi, errato, nulla venia, recte facto, exigua laus proponitur. Cic. Quum, nondum pălam facto, vivi mortuique promiscue complorarentur. Liv. Nam jam ætāte eā sum, ut non siet, peccāto, mi ignosci æquum; i. e. si peccātum fuerit. Ter. Cf. § 274, R. 5, (b.)

(2.) So in descriptions of the weather; as, Tranquillo, scil. måri, the sca being tranquil. Liv. Sereno, scil. cælo, the sky being clear. Id. Aranei sereno texunt, nubilo texunt,-in clear and in cloudy weather. Plin. Substantives when used thus are to be considered as ablatives of time; as, Comitiis, lūdis, Circensibus. Suetonius has used proscriptione in the sense of 'during the proscription.' So pace et Principe. Tac. Império populi Romani. Cæs.

REM. 10. This ablative is sometimes connected to the preceding clause by a conjunction; as, Cæsar, quamquam obsidione Massiliæ retardante, brevi tamen omnia subēgit. Suet. Decemviri non ante, quam perlātis lēgibus, dēpositūros impērium esse aiēbant. Liv.

Rem. 11. A predicate ablative is sometimes added to passive participles of naming, choosing, etc. § 210, (3.); as, Hasdrubale imperatore suffecto. Liv.

CONNECTION OF TENSES.

Tenses, in regard to their connection, are divided into two classes—principal and historical.

A. The principal tenses are, the present, the perfect definite,

and the two futures.

- B. The historical, which are likewise called the preterite tenses (§ 145, N. 2.), are the imperfect, the historical perfect, and the pluperfect.
- I. In the connection of leading and dependent clauses, only tenses of the same class can, in general, be united with each other. Hence :-
- 1. A principal tense is followed by the present and perfect definite, and by the periphrastic form with sim. And:
- 2. A preterite tense is followed by the imperfect and pluperfect, and by the periphrastic form with essem.

Note. The periphrastic forms in each class supply the want of subjunctive futures in the regular conjugation.

The following examples will illustrate the preceding rules:-

(a.) In the first class. Scio quid agas. Scio quid egeris. Scio quid acturus sis.—Audiri quid agas, I have heard what you are doing. Audiri quid egeris. Audiri quid acturus sis.—Audiam quid agas, etc.—Audirero quid agas, etc.

(b.) In the second class. Sciēbam quid ageres. Sciēbam quid egisses. Sciēbam quid actūrus esses.—Audīvi quid ageres, I heard what you were doing. Audīvi quid ēgisses. Audīvi quid actūrus esses.—Audīveram quid ageres, etc.

The following may serve as additional examples in the first class; viz. of principal tenses depending on,

(1.) The Present; as, Non sum ita hebes, ut istuc dicam. Cic. Quantum dölörem acceperim, tu existimāre potes. Id. Nec dubito quin reditus ejus rezpublicæ sălūtāris futūrus sit. Id.

- (2) The Perfect Definite; as, Sitis provisum est, ut ne quid agère possint. Id. Quis musteis, quis huic stadio litérarum se dédidit, quin omnem illarum artium rim compréhenderit. Id. Défectiones solis prædictæ sunt, quæ, quantæ, quanta, tit. Id.
- (3.) The Futures; as, Sic făcillime, quanta ōrātōrum sit, semperque fuĕrit paucitas, jūdicābit. Id. Ad quos dies reditūrus sin, scrībam ad te. Id. Si sciēris aspūdem lūtēre uspiam, et velle āliquem imprūdentem sūper cam assidēre, cūjus mors tibi ēmālūmentum factūra sit, improbe fēcēris, nīsi monuēris, ne assident. Id.

The following, also, are additional examples in the second class, viz. of preterite tenses depending on,

- (1.) The Imperfect; as, Unum illud extimescēbam, ne quid turpiter facerem, vel jam effecissem. Cic. Non enim dubitābam, quin eas libenter lectūrus esses. Id.
- (2.) The Historical Perfect; as, Vēni in ējus villam ut libros inde promerem. Id. Hac quum essent nuntiāta, Vālērius classem extemplo ad ostium flūmīnis duxit. Liv.
- (3.) The Pluperfect; as, Păvor cēpērat milites, ne mortiferum esset vulnus. Liv. Eyo ex ipso audieram, quam a te liberăliter esset tractătus. Cic. Non sătis mihi constiterat, cum ăliquăne ănimi mei molestiă, an pôtius libenter te Athēnis vivirus essem. Id.
- REMARK 1. (a.) When the present is used in narration for the historical perfect, it may, like the latter, be followed by the imperfect; as, *Lēgātos* mittunt, *ut pācem* impetrārent. Cæs.
- (b.) The present is also sometimes followed by the perfect subjunctive in its historical sense; as, Pandite nunc Hélicona, dece, cantusque movete, Qui bello exciti rêges, que quemque séculæ Complerint campos acies. Virg.
- REM. 2. The perfect definite is often followed by the imperfect, even when a present action or state is spoken of, if it is possible to conceive of it in its progress, and not merely in its conclusion or result; and especially when the agent had an intention accompanying him from the beginning to the end of the action; as, Fēci hoc, ut intelligères, I have done this that you might understand; i. e. such was my intention from the beginning. Sunt philosophi et such return, qui omnino nullam habère censerent humanarum rerum procurationem deos. Cic.
- REM. 3. (a.) The historical perfect is not regularly followed by the perfect subjunctive, as the latter is not, in general, used in reference to past action indefinite.
- (b.) These tenses are, however, sometimes used in connection, in the narrative of a past event, especially in Livy and Cornelius Nepos; as, Factum est, ut plus quam collègæ Miltiādes văluĕrit. Nep.
- (c.) The imperfect and perfect are even found together after the historical perfect, when one action is represented as permanent or repeated, and the other simply as a fact; as, Adeo nthil miseriti sunt, ut incursiones facerent et Veios in animo habuerint oppugnare. Liv.
- (d.) The historical perfect may even be followed by the present, when a general truth is to be expressed, and not merely one which is valid for the time indicated by the leading verb; as, Antiócho pācem pětenti ad priòres conditiones nihil additum, Africāno prædicante, nēque Romānis, si vincantur, animos minui, nēque, si vincant, sécundis rēbus insólescère. Just.
- REM. 4. (a.) As present infinitives and present participles depend for their time upon the verbs with which they are connected, they are followed by such tenses as those verbs may require; as, Apelles pictores quoque eos peccare dicebat, qui non sentirent, quid esset sátis. Cic. Ad te scripsi, te léviter accūsans in eo, quod de me cito crēdidisses. Id.

(b.) In like manner the tense of the subjunctive following the infinitive future is determined by the verb on which such infinitive depends; as, Sol Phaethouti f'ilio facturum se esse dixit quicquid optasset. Cic.

REM. 5. (a.) The perfect infinitive follows the general rule, and takes after it a principal or a preterite teuse, according as it is used in the definite or in the historical sense; as, Arbitrāmur nos ea præstitisse, que rătio et doctrīna præscripserit. Cic. Est quod gaudeas te in ista loca venisse, ubi aliquid sapere vidērēre. Id.

(b.) But it may sometimes take a different tense, according to Rem. 2; as, Ita mihi videor et esse Deos, et quales essent satis ostendisse. Cic.

II. Tenses belonging to different classes may be made dependent on each other, when the sense requires it.

(a.) Hence a present or perfect definite may follow a preterite, when the result of a past action extends to the present time; as, Ardebat autem Hortensius suit of a past action extends to the present time; as, Aracona autem Hortensius capiditate dicendi sic, ut in nullo unquam flagrantius stadium viderim; i.e. that up to this time I have never seen. Cic. And, on the other hand, a pretrite may follow a present to express a continuing action in the past; as, Scitōte oppidum esse in Sicitā nullum, quo in oppido non isti delecta miller ad libidinem esset: (esset here alludes to the whole period of Verres' prætorship.) Cic.

(b.) But without violating the rule which requires similar tenses to depend upon each other, the hypothetical imperfect subjunctive, may be followed by the present or perfect subjunctive, since the imperfect subjunctive refers to the execut time.

present time; as, Mēmōrāre possem quibus in locis maximas hostium copias populus Romānus parvā mānu fūdērit. Sall. Possem here differs from possum only by the hypothetical form of the expression.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

§ 259. The indicative is used in every proposition in which the thing asserted is represented as a reality.

NOTE. Hence it is used even in the expression of conditions and suppositions with si, nisi, etsi, and étiamsi, when the writer, without intimating his own opinion, supposes a thing as actual, or, with nisi, makes an exception, which, only for the sake of the inference, he regards as actual; as, Mors aut plane negligenda est, si omnino exstinguit ănimum, aut étiam optanda, si ăliquo eum dēdīncit, übi sit f ŭtūrus æternus. Cic. Adhuc certe, nisi ego insānio, stutte omnia et incaute f īunt. Id.—It is likewise used in interrogations.

REMARK 1. The several tenses have already been defined, and their usual significations have been given in the paradigms. They are, however, sometimes otherwise rendered, one tense being apparently used with the meaning of another, either in the same or in a different mood. Thus,

- (1.) (a.) The present is often used for the historical perfect in narration, see § 145, I. 3.—(b.) It is sometimes used also for the future to denote the certainty of an event, or to indicate passionate emotion. So, also, when the leading sentence contains the present imperative, si is often joined with the present instead of the future; as, difende si pôtes.—(c.) The present is also used for the imperfect or perfect, when it is joined with dum 'while'; as, Dum èyo in Sictlià sum, nulla stâtua dējecta est. Cic. It is even so used by Livy in transitions from one event to another; as, Dum in Asiā bellum geritur, ne in Ætölis quidem quiëta res fuerant. But the pretentes are sometimes used with dum 'while'; and dum 'as long as' is regularly joined with the imperfect.
- (2.) (a.) The perfect, in its proper signification, i. e. as a perfect definite, denotes an act or state terminated at the present time. Thus Horace, at the close of a work, says, Exēgi mönümentum ære pērenuins; and Ovid, in like circumstances, Jamque opus oxēgi. So, also, Panthus in Virgil, in order to de-

note the utter rain of Troy, exclaims, Fuinus Trões, fuit Ilium, 1. e. we are no longer Trojans, Ilium is no more.—(b.) The perfect indefinite or historical perfect is used in relating past events, when no reference is to be made to the time of other events; as, Casar Radicōnem transiit, Casar crossed the Rubicon. (c.) As in the epistolary style the imperfect is used instead of the present, when an incomplete action is spoken of (§ 145, II. 3), so the historical perfect is in like circumstances employed instead of the present, when speaking of a completed action. With both the imperfect and perfect, when so used, however, the adverbs nunc and eliamunne may be used instead of tune and eliamunn.

(d.) The historical perfect is sometimes used for the pluperfect in narration; as, Sed postquam aspexi, illico cognòri, But after I (had) looked at it, I recognized it immediately. Ter.—This is the usual construction after postquam cr posteāquam, ūbi, ūbi prīmum, ut, ut prīmum, quum prīmum, simul, simul ut, simul ac, or simul atque, all of which have the signification of 'as soon as,' and sortetimes after priusquam. But when several conditions are to be expressed in past time, the pluperfect is retained after these particles; as, Idem simulue se rēmīsērat, nēque causa subērat, quāre ānīmi lābōrem perferret, luxīrīsus rēpēriēbātur. Nep. So, also, postquam is joined with the pluperfect, when a definite time intervenes between events, so that there is no connection between them; as, Hannibal anno tertio, postquam dōmo profūgērat, cum quinque nārībus Africam accessit. Id.—In a very few passages the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive are joined with postquam.

(3.) The pluperfect sometimes occurs, where in English we use the historical perfect; as, Dixerat, et spissis noctis se condidit umbris, She (had) said, and hid herself in the thick shades of night. Virg. Sometimes, also, it is used for the historical perfect to express the rapidity with which events succeed each other; so, also, for the imperfect, to denote what had been and still was.

(4.) The future indicative is sometimes used for the imperative; as, Vălēbis, Farewell. Cic. And:—

(5.) The future perfect for the future; as, Alio loco de ōrātōrum ănimo et injūriis vidēro, I shall see (have seen).... Cic. This use seems to result from viewing a future action as if already done, and intimates the rapidity with which it will be completed.

REM. 2. When a future action is spoken of either in the future, or in the imperative, or the subjunctive used imperatively, and another future action is connected with it, the latter is expressed by the future tense, if the actions relate to the same time; as, Nātūram si sequemur dūcem, numquam aberrābēmus. Cic.; but by the future perfect, if the one must be completed before the other is performed; as, De Carthāgine vērēri non ante dēsinam, quam illam excisam esse cognovero. Cic. In English the present is often used instead of the future perfect; as, Fāciam si potero, I will do it, if I can. Ut sēmentem fēcēris, ita mētes, As you sow, so you will reap. Cic.

REM. 3. In expressions denoting the propriety, practicability or advantage of an action not performed, the indicative of the preterites (§ 145, N. 2.) is used, where the English idiom would have led us to expect the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive.

(a.) This construction ocears with the verbs oportet, necesse est, debeo, convenit, possum, decet, licet, reor, puto; and with par, fas, copia, equum, justum, consentaneum, satis, satius, equius, melius, utilius, optabilius, and optimum—est, erat, etc.

(b.) In this connection the imperfect indicative expresses things which are not, but the time for which is not yet past; the historical perfect and the pluperfect indicative, things which have not been, but the time for which is past; as, Ad mortem te dūci jam prūlem ŏportēbat, i. e. the execution was necessary and is still so; hence it ought to take place. Cic.—Longe ūtilius fuit angustios ādtūs occipāre, It would have been much better to occupy the pass. Curt. Cātilīna ērūpit e sēnātu triumphans gaudio, quem omnīno vīvum illine exire non ŏportuērat. Cic.

- (c.) In both the periphrastic conjugations, also, the preteries of the indicative have frequently the meaning of the subjunctive; as, Tum bina constanter præda tënenda fuit,—onglit to have been kept. Ovid. This is more common in hypothetical sentences than in such as are independent.
- (d.) The indicative in such connections is retained, even when a hypothetical clause with the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive is added, and it is here in particular that the indicative preterites of the periphrastic conjugations are employed; as, Quæ si dūbia aut procul essent, tāmen omnes bonos reipāblica consūlēre dēcēbat. Sall. Quodsi Čn. Pompeius prīvātus esset hoc tempore, tāmen erat mittendus. Cic.—Dēlēri tōtus exercitus potnit, si fūgientes persēcūti victūres essent. Liv. Quas nīsi mānūmīsisset, tormentis ētiam dedendi fuērunt. Cic. Si te non invēnissem, pēritūrus per practipitā fui. Petr. But the subjunctive also is admissible in such cases in the periphrastic conjugations.

REM. 4. (1.) The preterites of the indicative are often used for the pluperfect subjunctive, in the conclusion of a conditional clause, in order to render a description more animated. They are so used,

- (a.) When the inference has already partly come to pass, and would have been completely realized, if something else had or had not occurred, whence the adverb jam is frequently added; as, Jam fāmes quam pestilentia tristior erat; ni annone foret subventum,—would have been worse. Liv. The same is expressed by the verb capi instead of jam; as, Britanni circumire terga vincentum coperant, ni, etc. Tac. And without jam; Effigies Pisonis traverant in Gemonias ac divellebant (would have entirely destroyed them) ni, etc. Id.
- (b.) The perfect and pluperfect are likewise used in this sense, and a thing which was never accomplished is thus, in a lively manner, described as completed; as, Et përactum ërat bellum sine sanguine, si Pompeium opprimëre Brundisii (Cæsar) pôtuisset. Hor.—The imperfect indicative is rarely used, also, for the imperfect subjunctive, when this tense is found in the hypothetical clause; as, Stultum ërat mönëre, nisi fièret. Quint.—Sometimes, also, the preterites of the indicative are thus used in the condition; as, At fuërat mělius, si te puer iste těněbat. Ovid. See § 261, R. 1.
- (2.) 'I ought' or 'I should,' is expressed by the indicative of döbeo, and possum is in like manner often used for possem; as, Possum persequi multa oblectamenta rērum rusticārum, sed, etc., I might speak of the many pleasures of husbandry, but, etc.; and it is usual in like manner to say, difficile est, longum est, infimilum est, e. g. narrāre, etc., for, 'it would be difficult,' 'it would lead too far,' 'there would be no end,' etc.
- (3.) The indicative is used in like manner after many general and relative expressions, especially after the pronouns and relative adverbs which are either doubled or have the suffix cumque; as, quisquis, quotquot, quicumque, utut, utcumque, etc., see §§ 139, 5, (3.) and 191, I. R. 1, (b.); as, Quidquid id est, timeo Dinaos et dona ferentes. Virg. Quem sors cumque dibit, lucro appone. Hor. Sed quoquo modo sese illud habet. But however that may be. Cic.—In like manner sentences connected by sive—sive commonly have the verb in the indicative, unless there is a special reason for using the subjunctive; as, Sive vērum est, sive falsum, mihi quidem ita rēnunciātum est. Later writers however use the subjunctive both with general relatives, etc., and with sive—sive.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

§ 260. The subjunctive mood is used to express an action or state simply as conceived by the mind.

Note. The subjunctive character of a proposition depends, not upon its substance, but upon its form. 'I believe,' 'I suppose,' are only conceptions, but my believing and supposing are stated as facts, and, of course, are expressed by means of the indicative. When, on the other hand, I say, 'I should be-

- lieve,' 'I should suppose,' the acts of believing and supposing are represented not as facts, but as mere conceptions. Hence the verb that expresses the purpose or intention for which another act is performed, is put in the subjunctive, since it expresses only a conception; as, Edo ut vivam, I eat that I may live. This mood takes its name from its being commonly used in subjoined or dependent clauses attached to the main clause of a sentence by a subordinate connective. In some cases, however, it is found in independent clauses, or in such, at least, as have no obvious dependence.
- The subjunctive, in some of its connections, is to be translated by the indicative, particularly in indirect questions, in clauses expressing a result, and after adverbs of time; as,

Rogas me quid tristis sim,-why I am sad. Tac. Stellarum tanta est multitudo, ut numerari non possint, -that they cannot be counted. Quum Cesar esset in Gallia, When Cæsar was in Gaul. Cæs.

The subjunctive is used to express what is contingent or hypothetical, including possibility, power, liberty, will, duty, and desire.

REMARK 1. The tenses of the subjunctive, thus used, have the significations which have been given in the paradigms, and are, in general, not limited, in regard to time, like the corresponding tenses of the indicative. Thus,

(1.) The present may refer either to present or future time; as, Mědiocribus et quis ignoscas vitiis teneor, I am subject to moderate faults, and such as you may excuse. Hor. Orat a Cæsăre ut det sibi veniam, He begs of Cæsar that he would give him leave. Cæs.

(2.) The imperfect may relate either to past, present, or future time; as, Si fatta fuissent ut caderem, If it had been my fate that I should fall. Virg. Si possem, sānior essem, I would be wiser, if I could. Ovid. Cētēros rāpērem et prosternerem, The rest I would seize and prostrate. Ter.

(3.) The perfect subjunctive has always a reference to present time, and i. equivalent to the indicative present or perfect definite; as, Errarim fortasse Perhaps I may have erred. Plin.—When it has a future signification it is not to be accounted a perfect, but the subjunctive of the future perfect. See Rem-

4 and 7, (1.) But compare § 258, R. 1, (b.) and R. 3, (b.)

(4.) The pluperfect subjunctive relates to past time, expressing a contingency, which is usually future with respect to some past time mentioned in connection with it; as, ld responderunt se factures esse, quam ille vento Aquilone

vēnisset Lemnum.... when he should have come Nep.

- REM. 2. The imperfects rellem, nollem, and mallem, in the first person, express a wish, the non-reality and impossibility of which are known; as, vellem, I should have wished.—In the second person, where it implies an indefinite person, and also in the third when the subject is an indefinite person, the imperfect subjunctive is used in the sense of the pluperfect, and the condition is to be supplied by the mind. This is the case especially with the verbs, dico, puto, arbitror, credo; also with video, cerno, and discerno; as, Mastique (crederes victos) redeunt in castra, one might have thought that they were defeated. Liv. Pecunice an fame minus parceret, haud facile discerneres. Sall. Qui videret equum Trojanum introductum, urbem captam diceret. Cic. Quis umquam crederet? Id. Quis putaret? Id.—The imperfect subjunctive is frequently used, also, for the pluperfect in interrogative expressions; as, Socrates quum rogaretur cujatem se esse diceret, Mundanum, inquit. Id. Quod si quis deus diceret, numquam pătārem me in Acădēmiā tamquam philosophum disputātūrum, If any god had said I never should have supposed. Cic.
- Rem. 3. The subjunctive in all its tenses may denote a supposition of concession; as, Vendat ædes vir būnus, Suppose an honest man is selling a house. Cic. Dixerit Epicarus, Grant that Epicurus could have said. Id. Vērum anceps pugnæ fuerat fortūna.-Fnisset, Grant that it might have been. Virg. Malus civis Cn. Curbo fuit. Fuerit aliis, He may have been to others. Cic .- This concessive subjunctive is equivalent to esto ut.

REM. 4. The present and perfect subjunctive are used in independent propositions to soften an assertion. When so used, they do not differ essentially from the present and future indicative; as, Forsitan quaratis, You may perhaps ask. Velim sic existinces, I would wish you to think so. Nēmo istud tibi concedat, or concesserit, No one will grant you that. Hoc sine ulla dabitatione confirmaverim, eloquentiam rem esse omnium difficillimam, This I will unhesitatingly affirm. Cic. Nil ego contulerim jūcundo sānus amīco. Hor. The form which is called the perfect subjunctive, when thus used for the future, seems to be rather the subjunctive of the future perfect: see Rem. 7, (1.) Volo and its compounds are often so used in the present; as, Velim obvias mili literas crebro milias, I wish that you would frequently send, etc. Cic. The perfect subjunctive is also rarely used in the sense of a softened perfect indicative; as, Forsitan těměre fecerim, I may have acted inconsiderately.

REM. 5. The subjunctive is used in all its tenses, in independent sentences, to express a doubtful question implying a negative answer; as, Quo eam? Whither shall I go? Quo irem? Whither should I go? Quo iverim? Whither should I have gone? The answer was I to have gone? Quo ivisem? Whither should I have gone? The answer implied in all these cases is, 'nowhere.' So, Quis dibitet quin in virtue divitice sint? Who can doubt that riches consist in virtue? Cic. Quisquam numen Jānōnis adoret prækèrea? Virg. Quidni, inquit, měminěrim? Cic. Quis vellet tanti

nuntius esse măli? Ovid.

REM. 6. The present subjunctive is often used to express a wish, an exhortation, asseveration, request, command, or permission; as,

Möriar, si, etc. May I die, if, etc. Cic. Pěream, si non, etc. May I perish, if, etc. Ovid. So, Ne sim salvus. Cic. In mědia arma ruāmus, Let us rush.... Virg. Ne me attingas, scěleste! Do not touch me, villain! Ter. Făciat quod lăbet, Let him do what he pleases. Id. The perfect is often so used; as, Inserviderit, Let him see to it himself. Cic. Quam id recte făciam, viděrint săpientes. Id. Mēminērimus, étiam adversus inf imos justitiam esse servandam. Id. Nihil incommôdo vălētūdinis tuæ fēcēris. Id. Emas, non quod opus est, sed quod něcesse est. Sen. Donis impli ne placāre audeant deos; Plātonem audiant. Cic. Nātāram expellas furca timen usea excurvet. Hor. ram expellas furca, tămen usque recurret. Hor.

(a.) The examples show that the present subjunctive, in the first person singular, is used in asseverations; in the first person plural, in requests and exhortations; in the second and third persons of the present and sometimes of the perfect, in commands and permissions, thus supplying the place of the imperative, especially when the person is indefinite.

(b.) With these subjunctives, as with the imperative, the negative is usually not non but ne; as, ne dicas; ne dicat; ne dixeris. So, also, ne fuerit, for licet

(c.) The subjunctive for the imperative occurs most frequently in the third person. In the second person it is used principally with ne; as, ne dicas. In the latter case the perfect very frequently takes the place of the present; as, ne dixeris. The subjunctive is also used in the second person, instead of the imperative, when the person is indefinite.

(d.) In precepts relating to past time, the imperfect and pluperfect, also, are used for the imperative; as, Forsitan non nemo vir fortis dixerit, restitisses,

mortem pugnans oppetisses, -you should have resisted. Cic.

REM. 7. In the regular paradigms of the verb, no future subjunctive was exhibited either in the active or passive voice.

(1.) When the expression of futurity is contained in another part of the sentence, the future of the subjunctive is supplied by the other tenses of that mood, viz. the future subjunctive by the present and imperfect, and the future perfect by the perfect and pluperfect. Which of these four tenses is to be used depends on the leading verb and on the completeness or incompleteness of the action to be expressed. The perfect subjunctive appears to be also the sub-ymetive of the future perfect, and might not improperly be so called; as,

Tantum moneo, hoc tempus si āmīsēris, te esse nullum umquam māgis idoneum rēpertūrum, I only warn you, that, if you should lose this opportunity, you will never find one more convenient. Cic.

- (2.) If no other future is contained in the sentence, the place of the future subjunctive active is supplied by the participle in rus, with sim and essem; as Non dåbitat quin brêvî Trôja sit pöritüra, He does not doubt that Troy will soon be destroyed. Cic. In hypothetical sentences the form with fuērim takes the place of a pluperfect subjunctive; as, Quis ênim dubitat, quin, si Săguntinis impigre tălissēmus öpem, tolum in Hispāniam āversūri bellum fuērimus. Liv. The form in fuissem occurs also, but more rarely; as, Appāruit, quantam excitătūra mōlem vēra fuisset clādes, quum, etc. See Periphrastic Conjugation, § 162, 14.
- (3.) The future subjunctive passive is supplied, not by the participle in dus, but by fütürum sit or esset, with ut and the present or imperiect of the subjunctive; as, Non dübito quin fütürum sit, ut laudētur, I do not doubt that he will be praised.

PROTASIS AND APODOSIS.

- § 261. In a sentence containing a condition and a conclusion, the former is called the protăsis, the latter the apodosis.
- 1. In the protasis of conditional clauses with si and its compounds, the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive imply the non-existence of the action or state supposed, the imperfect, as in English, implying present time. In the apodosis the same tenses of the subjunctive denote what the result would be, or would have been, had the supposition in the protasis been a valid one; as

Nisi te sătis incitătum esse confiderem, scriberem plūra, Did I not believe that you have been sufficiently incited, I would write more (Cic.); which implies that he does believe, and therefore will not write. Si Neptūnus, quod Thēseo promisēral, non fēcisset, Thēseus filio Hippolijo non esset orbātus. Id.

2. The present and perfect subjunctive in the protasis, imply the real or possible existence of the action or state supposed; as,

Si velit, if he wishes, or, should wish, implying that he either does wish, or, at least, may wish. In the apodosis the present or perfect either of the subjunctive or of the indicative may be used.

REMARK 1. The tenses of the indicative may also be used in the protasis of a conditional sentence with si, etc.; as, Si vales, böne est. Cic. Si quis antea mīrābātur quid esset, ex hoc tempore mīrētur potius.... Id.—The conjunction si in the protasis is often omitted; as, Libet agros ēmi. Prīmum quero quos agros If you will buy lands, I will first ask, etc. But the protasis may be rendered without if, and either with or without an interrogation, as, You will buy lands, or, Will you buy lands? The future perfect often occurs in the protasis of such sentences; as, Cāsus mēdīcusre lēvārit ægrum ex præcipti, māter dēlīra nēcābīt, (Hor.) Should chance or the physician have saved him, the silly mother will destroy him. Si is in like manner omitted with the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive, in supposing a case which is known not to be a real one; as, Absque te esset, hödie numquam ad sōlem occāsum rīvērem. Plaut.

REM. 2. The present and perfect subjunctive differ but slightly from the indicative, the latter giving to a sentence the form of reality, while the subjunctive represents it as a conception, which, however, may at the same time be a reality. The second person singular of the present and perfect subjunctive often occurs in addressing an indefinite person, where, if the person were definite, the indicative would be used; as, Mēmória minutur, nisi eam exerceas. Cic. When the imperfect or pluperfect is required to denote a past action,

the indicative must be used, if its existence is uncertain, as those tenses in the subjunctive would imply its non-existence. In the $\tilde{v}r\tilde{a}tio$ obliqua, when the leading verb is a present or a future, the same difference is observed between the tenses of the subjunctive as in hypothetical sentences; but when the leading verb is a preterite the difference between possibility and impossibility is not expressed.

REM. 3. The present and perfect subjunctive are sometimes used, both in the protasis and apodosis of a conditional sentence, in the sense of the imperfect and pluperfect; as, Tu, si hic sis, ällter sentias, If you were here, you would think otherwise. Ter. Quos, ni mea cūra resistat, jam flammæ tülérint. Virg.

Rem. 4. The protasis of a conditional sentence is frequently not expressed, but implied; as, Magno mercentur Atrīdæ, i. e. si possint. Virg.; or is contained in a participial clause; as, Aqis, etsi a multītādīne victus, glōriā tāmen omnes vīcit. Just. So, also, when the participle is in the ablative absolute; as, Dōnārem tripōdas—dīvīte me scilicet artium, quas āut Parrihāsius prōtālit, aut Scōpas. Hor. C. Mūcius Porsēnam interficēre, prōpōsītā sibi morte, cōnātus est. Cic. It is only in later writers that the concessive conjunctions etsi, quamquam, and quamvis are expressed with the participle, but tāmen is often found in the apodosis, even in the classic period, when a participial clause precedes as a protasis.

REM. 5. In hypothetical sentences relating to past time, the actions seem often to be transferred in a measure to the present by using the imperfect, either in the protasis or the apodosis, instead of the pluperfect; as, Quod certe non fēcisset, si suum nămērum (nautārum) nāves hābērent. Cic. Cimbri si stătim infesto agmine urbem pētissent, grande discrimen esset. Flor. Sometimes the imperfect, although the actions are completed, appears both in the protasis and the apodosis.

REM. 6. Nisi, nisi vēro, and nisi forte are joined with the indicative, when they introduce a correction. Nisi then signifies 'except'; as, Nescio; nisi hoc video. Cic. Nisi vēro, and nisi forte, 'unless perhaps,' introduce an exception, and imply its improbability; as, Nëmo fëre saltat söbrius, nisi forte insänit. Cic. Nisi forte in the sense of 'unless you suppose,' is commonly used ironically to introduce a case which is in reality inadmissible.

SUBJUNCTIVE AFTER PARTICLES.

A. SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

* § 262. A clause denoting the purpose, object, or result of a preceding proposition, takes the subjunctive after ut, ne, quo, quin, and quominus; as,

Ea non, ut te instituérem, scripsi, I did not write that in order to instruct you. Cic. Irritant ad pugnandum, quo fiant acriores, They stimulate them to fight, that they may become fiercer. Varr.

REMARK 1. Ut or ŭti, signifying 'that,' 'in order that,' or simply 'to' with the infinitive, relates either to a purpose or to a result. In the latter case it often refers to sic, ĭta, ŭdeo, tam, tālis, tantus, is, ējusmŏdi, etc., in the preceding clause; as,

Id mihi sic ĕrit grātum, ut grātius esse nihil possit, That will be so agreeable to me, that nothing can be more so. Cic. Non sum Ita hēbes, ut istuc dicam. Id. Nēque tam ērāmus āmentes, ut explorāta nōbis esset victōria. Id. Tantum indusit dölöri, ut eum piētas vincēret. Nep. Ita and tam are sometimes omitted; as, Epāmīnondas fuit ētiam dīsertus, ut nēmo Thēbānus ei par esset ēlōquentiā, instead vī tam dīsertus. Id. Esse ŏportet ut vīvas, non vīvēre ut ĕdas. Auct. ad Her. bol efficit ut omnia floreant. Cic.

REM. 2. Ut, signifying 'even if' or 'although,' expresses a supposition merely as a conception, and accordingly takes the subjunctive;

Ut dësint vires, tămen est laudanda voluntas, Though strength be wanting, yet 'the will is to be praised. Ovid. Ut, in this sense, takes the negative non; as, Exercitus si pācis nomen audiērit, ut non referat pēdem (even if it does not withdraw) insistet certe. Cic.

REM. 3. Ut, with the subjunctive denoting a result, is used with impersonal verbs signifying it happens, it remains, it follows, etc.; as,

Qui fit, ut nëmo contentus vivat? How does it happen that no one lives contented? Hor. Huic contigit, ut patriam ex servitute in libertatem vindicaret. Nep. Sequitur igitur, ut ètiam vitia sint parca. Cic. Rëliquum est, ut egomet mihi consulam. Nep. Restat igitur, ut mõtus astrõrum sit võluntārius. Cic. Extrēmum illud est, ut te örem et obsecrem. Id.

Note 1. To this principle may be referred the following verbs and phrases signifying 'it happens,' viz. fit, fièri non pôtest, accidit, incidit, contingit, ēvēnit, ūsu vēnit, occurrit and est (it is the case, or it happens, and hence esto, be it that):—and the following, signifying 'it remains,' or 'it follows,' viz. fūtūrum, extrēmum, prope, proxīmum, and rēliquum—est, rēlinquitur, sēquitur, restat, and sūpērest; and sometimes accēdit.

Note 2. Contingit with the dative of the person is often joined with the infinitive, instead of the subjunctive with ut; as, Non cuivis hömini contingit ädire Corinthum. Hor. And with esse also and other verbs of similar meaning, the predicate (as in the case of licet) is often found in the dative.—Sequitur and efficitur, 'it follows,' have sometimes the accusative with the infinitive and sometimes the subjunctive; and nascitur, in the same sense, the subjunctive only.

Note 3. Mos or mõris est, consuctudo or consuctudinis est, and nātūra or consuctudo fert, are often followed by ut instead of the infinitive.— Ut also occurs occasionally after many such phrases as nõvum est, rārum, nātūrāle, nēcesse, ušitātum, mīrum, singūlāre—est, etc., and after æquum, rectum, vērum, ūtīle, vēristmile, and integrum—est.

For other uses of ut, with the subjunctive, see § 273.

REM. 4. Ut is often omitted before the subjunctive, after verbs denoting willingness and permission; also after verbs of asking, advising, reminding, etc., and the imperatives dic and fac; as,

Quid vis fáciam? What do you wish (that) I should do? Ter. Insani fériant sine litora fluctus. Virg. Tentes dissimilare rógat. Ovid. Id sinas oro. Id. Se suādēre, dixit, Pharnabāzo id nēgotii dáret. Nep. Accēdat óportet actio vária. Cic. Fac côgites. Sall. So, Vide ex nāvi efferantur, que, etc. Plaut

Verbs of willingness, etc., are völo, mālo, permitto, concēdo, pătior, sīno, līcet, vēto, etc.; those of asking, etc., are rögo, ōro, quæso, moneo, admoneo, jūbeo, mando, pēto, prēcor, censeo, suādeo, oportet, nēcesse est, postūlo, hortor, cūro, dēcerno, opto, impēro.

REM. 5. $N\bar{e}$, 'that not,' in order that not,' or 'lest,' expresses a purpose negatively; as,

Civa ne quid ei desit. Take care that nothing be wanting to him. Cic. Nëmo prüdens pünit, ut ait Pläto, quia peccătum est, sed ne peccetur. Id. Ut ne is frequently used for ne, especially in solemn discourse, and hence in laws; as, Opēra dētur, ut jūdicia ne fiant. Id. Quo ne is used in the same manner in one passage of Horace. Missus ad hoc—quo ne per răcuum Rōmāno incurreret hostis.—On the other hand ut non is used when a simple result or consequence is to be expressed, in which case ita, sic, tam are either expressed or understood; as, Tum forte ægrōtābam, ut ad nuptias tuas rēnīre non possem. In a few cases, however, ut non is used for ne.—Ut non is further used, when the negation re-

fers to a particular word or to a part only of the sentence, as in similar cases si non must be used, and not nisi; as, Confer te ad Manlium, ut a me non ējectus ad ălienos, sed invitātus ad tuos isse videāris. Cic.

REM. 6. Ne is often omitted after cave; as,

Căve pătes, Take care not to suppose. Cic. Compare § 267, R. 3.

REM. 7. After mětuo, timeo, věreor, and other expressions denoting fear or caution, nē must be rendered by that or lest, and ut by that not.

Note 3. To the verbs mētuo, timeo, and vēreor are to be added the substantives expressing fear, apprehension or danger, and the verbs terreo, conterreo, dēterreo, cáveo, to be on one's guard, video and observo in requests (as, vide, vidēte and videndum est), in the sense of 'to consider'; as,

Milo mětuěbat, ne a servis indicārētur, Milo feared that he should be betrayed by his servants. Cic. Věreor, ne, dum minuére vělim lábörem, augeam. Li Pávor ěrat, ne castra hostis aggrēdērētur. Liv. Illa duo věreor, ut tībi possim concēdēre, I fear that I cannot grant.... Cic. Civendum est ne assentatoribus păt-éfăciāmus aures, neu adalāri nos sināmus. Cic. Vide ne hoc tībi obsit. Terruit gentes, grāve ne rědīret sēcūlum Pyrrhæ. Multitūdinem dēterrent, ne frūmentum confērant. Cæs. Me mīsērum! ne prōna cūdas. Ovid.

Note 4. Nëve or neu is used as a continuative after ut and ne. It is properly equivalent to aut ne, but is also used for et ne after a preceding ut; as, on the other hand, et ne is used after a negation instead of aut ne; as, Leigen talit, ne quis ante actūrum rērum accūsārctur, nēve multārētur. Nep. Casar mīlites non longiore orātione cohortātus, quam ūti suae pristīnae virtūtis mēmoriam rētīnērent, neu perturbārentur āntmo—prælii committendi signum dēdit. Cass. Nēque, also, is sometimes used for et ne after ut and ne; as, Ut ea pratermittam, nēque eos appellem. Cic. Cur non sanctits ne vicīnus patricio sit plibeius, nec eōdem tītnēre eat. Liv.—Ne non is sometimes used for ut after verbs of fearing; as, Timeo ne non impētrem, I fear I shall not obtain it.

REM. 8. The proposition on which the subjunctive with ut and $n\bar{e}$ depends, is sometimes omitted; as, Ut ita dicam. Cic. Ne singulos nominem. Liv.

Note 5. Nědum, like ne, takes the subjunctive; as, Optimis tempöribus clārissimi viri vim tribūniciam sustinēre non pôtuērunt: nēdum, his tempöribus sine jūdiciōrum rěmědiis salvi esse possīmus,—still less, etc. Cic. Ne is sometimes used in the sense of nēdum; as, Nõvam eam põtestātem (scil. tribūnorum plēbis) ēripēre patribus nostris, ne nunc dulcēdine sēmel capti férant dēsīdērium. Liv.—Nēdum without a verb has the meaning of an adverb, and commonly follows a negative; as, Ægre inermis tanta multitūdo, nēdum armāta, sustinēri põtest. Liv. Ne, also, is used in the same manner in Cic. Fam. 9, 26.

REM. 9. Quō, 'that,' 'in order that,' or, 'that by this means,' especially with a comparative; non quō, or non quod, 'not that,' 'not as if'; non quin, 'not as if not'; which are followed in the apodŏsis by sed quod, sed quia, or sed alone; and quōmīnus, 'that not,' after clauses denoting hinderance, take the subjunctive; as,

Adjūta me, quo id fiat făcilius, Aid me, that that may be done more easily. Ter. Non quo rēpūblicā sit mihi quicquam cārius, sed despērātis čtiam Hippócrātes čtiat ādhībēre mēdīcīnam. Cic. Non quod sola ornent, sed quod excellant. Id. Nēque rēcūsāvit, quo mīnus lēgis pænam sūbīret. Nep. Ego me dūcem in cīvīli bello nēgāvi esse, non quin rectum esset, sed quia, etc. Cic. And instead of non quin we may say non quo non, non quod non, or non qria non; and for non quod, non eo quod, or non tdeo quod.

REM. 10. Quin, after negative propositions and questions with quis and quid implying a negative, takes the subjunctive. Quin is used,

- 1. For a relative with non, after nēmo, nullus, nihil....est, rēpērīkar, invēnītur etc., vix est, agre rēpērītur, etc.; as, Messānam nēmo vēnit, quin vīdērīt, i. e. qui non vidērīt, No one came to Messana who did not see. Cic. Nēgo ullum pictūram fuisse....quin conquīsiērīt, i. e. quam non, etc. Id. Nihil est quin māle narrando possit dēprāvāri. Ter. Quis est, quin cernat, quanta vis sit in sensibus ? Cic.
- Note 6. When quin is used for the relative it is commonly equivalent to the nominative qui, quæ, quod, but it is sometimes used in prose instead of the accusative, and sometimes after dies for quo, as the ablative of time; as, Dies fere nullus est, quin hic Satrius dömum meam ventitet, i. e. quo—non ventitet. Cic.—Qui non is often used for quin; as, Quis ĕimi èrat, qui non sciret. Id.; and when quin stands for qui non or quod non, is and id are sometimes added for the sake of emphasis; as. Cleanthes negat ullum cibum esse tam gravem, quin is die et nocte concoquatur. Cic. Nihil est quod sensum habeat, quin id intereat. Id.—So, also, the place of quin is supplied by ut non; as, Augustus numquam filios swos populo commendavit ut non adjiceret (without adding) si merebuntur. Suet. And if no negation precedes, or if non belongs to a particular word, and not to the verb, qui non and ut non must of course be used and not quin.
- 2. For ut non, 'that not,' or 'without' with a participle, especially after fácére non possum, fiéri non pôtest, nulla causa est, quid causæ est? nihil causæ est; as, Fácére non possum quin ad te mittam, i. e. ut non, etc. Cic. Numquam tam mále est Sicülis, quin àliquid fácéte et commôde dicant. Cic. Numquam accēdo, quin abs te abeam doctior,—without going from you wiser. Ter.
- NOTE 7. Quin takes the subjunctive also after the negative expressions mod dibito, non est dibium, non ambigo, I doubt not; non äbest; nihil, paulum, non procul, haud multum übest; non, viz, ægre alstineo; tenere me, or tempérare milis non possum; non impédio, non récüso, nihil prætermitto, and the like. In these cases, however, the negation in quin is superfluous, and it is generally translated into English by 'that,' 'but that,' or 'to' with an infinitive; as, Non dübito quin dömi sit, that he is at home. Non multum übest, quin miserrimus sim, Not much is wanting to make me most wretched. Cic. Hence, as quin is not in such cases regarded as a negative, non is superadded when a negative sense is required; as, In quibus non dübito quin offensionem negligentiæ vitare atque effügére non possum. Cic. Dübitandum non est quin numquam possit ütilitas cum hönestäte contendere. Id.
- Note 8. In Nepos, non dübito, in the sense of 'I do not doubt,' is always followed by the infinitive with the accusative, and the same construction often occurs in later writers but not in Cicero: in the sense of to scruple or hesitate, when the verb following has the same subject, dübito and non dübito are generally followed by the infinitive; as, Cicèro non dübitābat conjūrātos supplicio afficere.—It may be added that 'I doubt whether' is expressed in Latin by dübito sitne, dübito utrum—an, dübito sitne—an, or dübito num, numquid, for dübito an, and dübium est an are used, like nescio an with an affirmative meaning.
- Note 9. Quin signifies also 'why not?' being compounded of the old ablative qui and $n\bar{e}$, i. e. non, and in this sense is joined with the indicative in questions implying an exhortation; as, Quin conscendinus $\bar{e}quos$? Why not mount our horses? In this sense it is also joined with the imperative; as, Quin die statim, Well, tell me: or with the first person of the subjunctive. Hence without being joined to any verb it signifies 'even' or 'rather.'
- REM. 11. The principal verbs of hinderance, after which quominus occurs, and after which ne, and, if a negative precedes, quin also may be used, are deterreo, impédio, intercedo, obsisto, obsto, officio, prohibeo, récüso, and répugno. It occurs also after stat or fit per me, I am the cause, non pugno, nihil moror, non contineo me, etc.
- Note. Impēdio, dēterreo, and rēcūso are sometimes, and prôhibeo frequently followed by the infinitive. Instead of quōminus, quo sēcius is sometimes used.

- § 263. The particles specified in this section always introduce a sentence containing only a conception of the mind, and are hence joined with the subjunctive.
- 1. The subjunctive is used after particles of wishing, as *ŭtĭnam*, *ŭti*, O! and O! si; as,

Utinam minus vitæ cúpidi fuissēmus! O that we had been less attached to life! Cic. O si sölitæ quicquam virtūtis ädesset! Virg.

REMARK. The present and perfect tenses, after these particles, are used in reference to those wishes which are conceived as possible; the imperfect and pluperfect are employed in expressing those wishes which are conceived as wanting in reality. Cf. § 261, 1 and 2.—'Would that not' is expressed in Latin both by attaum ne and attaum non. Utinam is sometimes omitted; as, Tēcum lādēre sīcut ipsa possem! Catull.

B. Adverbial Clauses.

2. (1.) Quamvis, however; licet, although; tamquam, tamquam si, quāsi, ac si, ut si, vēlut, vēlut si, vēlūti, sīcūti, and ceu, as if; mŏdo, dum, and dummŏdo, provided,—take the subjunctive; as,

Quamvis ille fēlix sit, tāmen, etc. However happy he may be, still, etc. Cic. Vērītas licet nullum dīfensōrem obtineat, Though truth should obtain no defender. Id. Tanquam clausa sit Asia, sic nīhil perfertur ad nos. Id. Sed quid ēgo his testībus ūtor, quāsi res dūbia aut obscūra sīt? Id. Me omnībus rēbus, juxta ac sī meus frāter esset, sustentāvii, He supported me in every thing, just as though he were my brother. Id. Similter fūčere eos,—ut sī nuute certārent, ūter, etc. Id. Absentis Arivisti crūdēlitātem, vēlut sī cōram ādesset, horrērent. Cæs. Inque sīnus cāros, vēlūti cognoscēret, ibat. Ovid. Sīcūti jurgo lācessītus foret, in sēnātum vēnit. Sall. Hīc vēro ingentem pugnam, ceu cēlēra nusquam bella forent. Virg. Odērint dum mētuant. Att. in Cic. Mānent ingēnia sēnībus, modo permāneat stādium et industria. Cic. Omnia honesta negligunt dummodo potentum consēquantur, They disregard every honorable principle, provided they can obtain power. Id.

Note. Modo, dum, and dummódo, when joined with a negation, become modo ne, dum ne, and dummódo ne.

- (2.) Quamris (although) is in Cicero joined with a principal tense of the subjunctive; as, Quamvis non fueris suasor, approbator certe fuist. Cic. In later writers it is often used with the indicative; as, Felicem Nioben, quamvis tot fuera vidit. Ovid. So also once in Cicero, Quamvis patrem suum numquam viderat. Rab. Post. 2.
- (3.) Quamvis, as a conjunction, in the sense of 'however much,' is joined with the subjunctive. So also when its component parts are separated; as, C. Gracchus dixit, sibi in somnis Ti. frātrem vīsum esse dīcēre, quam vellet cunctārētur, timen, etc.—Quamvis 'however much,' as an adverb, governs no particular mood.
- (4.) Etsi, tămetsi, even if, although, and quamquam, although, commonly introduce an indicative clause:—ētiamsi is more frequently followed by the subjunctive. In later prose writers, and sometimes in Cicero and Sallust as well as in the poets, quamquam is joined with the subjunctive; as, Quamquam præsente Lūcullo lõquar. Cic. Vi rēgēre pririam quamquam possis. Sall. Jug. 3. Filius quamquam Thětidos mărinæ Dardânas turres quăteret. Hor.

REMARK. The imperfect subjunctive with ac si, etc., is used after the present, to denote that in reality the thing is not so, but in that case a hypothetical subjunctive must be supplied; as, Egnātii rem ut tueāre æque a te pēto, ac si mea nēgōtia essent, i. e. ac pētērem, si mea nēgōtia essent, as I would pray if, etc. Cic.

3. After antequam and priusquam, the imperfect and pluperfect tenses are usually in the subjunctive; the present and perfect may be either in the indicative or subjunctive. The present indicative is commonly used when the action is to be represented as certain, near at hand, or already begun; the subjunctive is used when the thing is still doubtful, and also in general propositions; as,

Ea causa ante mortua est, quam tu nātus esses, That cause was dead before you were born. Cic. Avertit equos, priusquam pābūla gustassent Trojæ, Xanthumque bibissent. Virg. Priusquam incipias, consulto opus est, Before you be-

gin there is need of counsel. Sall.

4. (1.) Dum, donec, and quoad, signifying until, are followed by the subjunctive, if they refer to the attainment of an object; as,

Dum hic věnīret, locum rělinquěre noluit, He was unwilling to leave the place until he (Milo) should come. Cic. Nihil puto tibi esse ūtilius quam oppěrīri quoad scīre possis, quid tibi āgendum sit. Id. Cornu tětendit, et duxit longe, donec currāta coīrent inter se căpita. Virg.—In the sense of 'as long as,' these particles take the indicative, but Tacitus joins donec with the subjunctive even when a simple fact is to be expressed.

- (2.) Dum, while, is commonly used with the indicative present, whatever may be the tense of the principal sentence. Cf. § 259, R. 1, (1.), (a.)
- 5. Quum (cum), when it signifies a relation of time, takes the indicative; when it denotes a connection of thought, the subjunctive; as,

Qui non defendit injūriam, něque rěpulsat a suis, quum pŏtest, injuste fácit. Cic. Quum recte nárigāri pŏterit, tum nāriges. Id. Crēdo tum, quum Sictlia florebat ophins et côpiis, magna artificia fuisse in eā insilā. Id. Quum tot sustineas et tanta nēgōtia, peccem, si mórer tua tempóra, Since you are burdened with so many and so important affairs, I should do wrong, if I should occupy your time. Hor. Quum vīta sīne āmīcis mētus plēna sit, rātio ipsa mŏnet āmīcītias compārāre. Cic.

REMARK 1. (a.) The rule for the use of quum may be thus expressed: Quum temporal takes the indicative, quum causal the subjunctive. Hence, when quum is mèrely a particle of time, with no reference to cause and effect, and not occurring in a historical narrative (see Rem. 2), it may be joined with any tense of the indicative. But when it is employed to express the relation of cause and effect, or has the meaning of 'though' or 'although,' it is joined with the subjunctive (b.) Quum, relating to time, is commonly translated when, while, or after; referring to a train of thought, it signifies as, since, though or although, because; but may often be translated when.

REM. 2. In narration, quum, even when it relates to time, is joined with the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive, when a historical perfect stands in the principal clause; as,

Gracchus, quum rem illam in religionem populo venisse sentiret, ad senatum retuili. Cic. Alexander, quum interemisset Clitum, vix manus a se abstinuit. Id.

Note. Quum temporal, when it expresses an action frequently repeated, may be joined with the pluperfect indicative, and the apodosis then contains the imperfect; as, Quum autem vir esse corpèrat, däbat se lubōri. Cic. Quum rōsam vidērat, tum incipēre ver arbitrābātur. Id. Cf. § 264, 12.

REM. 3. Quum in the sense of 'while' is joined with the perfect and imperfect indicative, often with the addition of interea or interim, to express simultaneous occurrences; as, Cătâlus cēpit magnum suæ virţātis fructum, quum omnes prope ūnā võce, in eo ipso vos spem hābītūros esse, dixistis. Cic. Cœdebātur virgis

in médio fóro Messānæ cīvis Rōmānus, jūdices, quum intěrea nulla vox ălia istius misēri audiēbātur, nisi hæc: cīvis Rōmānus sum. Id.

REM. 4. Quum, for the most part preceded by an adverb, as, jam, nondum, vix, agre, or joined with repents or subito is followed by the indicative, especially by the present indicative, to express the beginning of an action. In the cases mentioned in this and the preceding remark, the historians also use quum with the historical infinitive.

For the subjunctive after si and its compounds, see § 261.

C. ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

SUBJUNCTIVE AFTER QUI.

- § **264.** Relatives require the subjunctive, when the clauses connected by them express merely a conception; as, for example, a consequence, an innate quality, a cause, motive, or purpose.
- 1. (a.) When the relative qui, in a clause denoting a result of the character or quality of something specified in the antecedent clause, follows a demonstrative, and is equivalent to ut with a personal or demonstrative pronoun, it takes the subjunctive.

Note. The demonstratives after which qui takes the subjunctive, are taken with an adjective, tantus, talis, ejusmödi, hajusmödi, and is, ille, iste, and hic in the sense of talis; as,

Quis est tam Lyncēus, qui în tantis těnebris nīhil offendat? i. e. ut ille în tantis, etc. Who is so quick-sighted, that he would not stumble, (or, as not to stumble,) in such darkness. Ĉic. Tülem te esse propret, qui ab impiorum civium societăte sējungas; i. e. ut tu, etc. Id. At ea fuit legătio Octāvii, in quā pērīcūli suspīcio non sūbesset, i. e. ut in eā. Id. Nec tāmen ēgo sum ille ferreus, qui frātris cārissīmi mærōre non mŏvear, i. e. ut ēgo non mŏvear. Id. Non sūmus il quibus nihil vērum esse videātur, i. e. ut nobis nihil, etc. Id. Nulla gens tam fera est, cūjus mentem non imbuerit deōrum opinio, i. e. ut ējus mentem, etc. Id.

(b.) Sometimes the demonstrative word is only implied; as,

Res parva dictu, sed quæ stúdiis in magnum certāmen excessērit, i. e. tālis quæ....of such a kind that it issued in a violent contest. Cic. Nunc dīcis āliquid, quod ad rem pertineat, i. e. tāle ut id, etc. Id. So quis sum, for num tālis sum; as, Quis sum, cūjus aures lædi nēfas sit? Sen.—In like manner, also, a demonstrative denoting a character or quality, is implied in the examples included in the following rule:—

2. When the relative is equivalent to quamquam is, etsi is, or dummodo is, it takes the subjunctive; as,

Laco, consilii quamvis ēgrēgii, quod non ipse afferret, inimīcus, Laco, an opponent of any measure, however excellent, provided he did not himself propose it. Tac. Tu āquam a pāmāce postālas, qui ipsus sītiat. Plaut. Nikil molestum, quod non dēsīdēres, i. e. dummódo id. Cic.

3. Quod, in restrictive clauses, takes the subjunctive; as,

Quod sciam, as far as I know; quod měminěrim, as far as I recollect; quod ěgo intelligam; quod intelligi possit; quod conjectūrā providēri possit; quod salvā fide possim; quod commodo tuo fiat, etc.— Quidem is sometimes added to the relative in such sentences. Quod sine mõlestiā tuā fiat, So far as it can be done without troubling you. Cic. In the phrases quantum possum, cuantum ègo perspicio, on the other hand, the indicative is used.

4. A relative clause, after the comparative followed by quam, takes the subjunctive; as,

Mējor sum, quam cui possit fortūna nocēre, i. e. quam ut mihi, etc., I am too great for fortune to be able to injure me. Ovid. Audītā võce præcōnis mājus gaudīum fuit, quam quod ūnicersum hōmines capērent, Upon the herald's voice being heard, the joy was too great for the people to contain. Liv.

REMARK 1. The clause annexed by quam qui implies an inherent quality, or a consequence; so that quam qui is equivalent to quam ut, which also sometimes occurs. Sometimes the subjunctive follows quam even without a relative pronoun; as, In his literis longior fui, quam aut vellem, aut quam me pūtāvi fore:—and so frequently with the verbs velle and posse.

5. A relative clause expressing a purpose, aim, or motive, and equivalent to ut with a personal or demonstrative pronoun, takes the subjunctive; as,

Lácēdæmōnii lēgātos Athēnas mīsērunt, qui eum absentem accūsārent: i. e. ut illi eum accūsārent, The Lacedæmonians sent ambassadors to Athens to accuse him in his absence. Nep. Cæsar ēquītātum omnem præmitit, qui videant, quas in partes iter fāciant. Cæs. Sunt autem multi, qui ēripiunt āliis, quod āliis largiantur. Cic. Assidue rēpētant, quas perdant, Bilides undas. Ovid.

REM. 2. So also with relative adverbs; as, Lampsácum ei (Thěmistocli) rex dönārat, unde vīnum sūmēret, i. e. ex quā or ut inde, etc. Nep. Sūper tābernāculum rēgis, unde ab omnībus conspīci posset, imāgo sōlis crystallo inclūsa fulgēbat. Curt.

6. A relative clause with the subjunctive after certain indefinite general expressions, specifies the circumstances which characterize the individual or class indefinitely referred to in the leading clause; as.

Fuērunt eā tempestāte, qui dīcērent, There were at that time some who said. Sall. Erant, quibus appētentior fāmæ, vidērētur, There were those to whom he appeared too desirous of fame. Tac. Sunt, qui censeant, āna ānīmum et corpus o cidēre. Cic. Erunt, qui existimāri vēlint. Id. Sī quis ērit, qui perpētaum örātionem dēsīdēret, altērā actione audiet. Id. Vēnient lēgiones, quæ nēque me inultum nēque te impūnītum pātiantur. Tac. So after est followed by quod, in the sense of 'there is reason why'; as, Est quod gaudeus, You have cause to rejoice. Plaut. Est quod vīsam dōmum. Id. Si est quod dēsit, ne beātus quidem est. Cic.

Note 1. The expressions included in the rule are est, sunt, adest, prasto sunt, exsistunt, exoriuntur, inveniuntur, reperiuntur, (scil. homines); si quis est, tempus fuit, tempus venite, etc.

REM. 3. The same construction occurs with relative particles used indefinitely; as, Est unde hac fiant. Si est culpum ut Antipho in se admiserit, If it chance that, etc. Ter. Est übi id isto modo väleat. Cic. So est cur and est ut in the sense of est cur; as, Ille èrat, ut ödisset dèfensorem solutis meæ, i. e. he had reason to hate. Cic. Non est igitur ut mirandum sit, There is no occasion for wondering. Id.

REM. 4. The above and similar expressions are followed by the subjunctive only when they are indefinite. Hence, after sunt quidam, sunt nonnulli, sunt multi, etc., when referring to definite persons, the relative takes the indicative; as, Sunt örātiones quædam, quas Menocrito dabo. Cic.

REM. 5. The indicative is sometimes, though rarely, used after sunt qui, even when taken indefinitely, especially in the poets; as, Sunt, quos jūvat. Hor. Sunt qui ita dicunt. Sall.

7. A relative clause after a general negative, or an interrogative expression implying a negative, takes the subjunctive; as,

Nëmo est, qui haud intelligat, There is no one who does not understand. Cic. Nulla res est, quæ perferre possit continuum kibërem, There is nothing which can endure perpetual labor. Quint. Nulla pars est corpôris, quæ non sit minor. Id. Nihil est, quod tam miséros fàciat, quam impiétas et scélus. Cic. In föro vix dècimus quisque est, qui ipsus sèse noscat. Plaut. Quis est, qui ūtilia fūgiat? Who is there that shuns what is useful? Cic. Que lâtebra est, in quam non intret mètus mortis? Sen. Quid dulcius quam hābēre, quīcum omnia audeus sic liqui ticum? Cic. (See respecting this use of the indefinite quicum rather than the definite quicum, § 136, R. 1.) An est quisquam, qui hoc ignoret? Is there any one who is ignorant of this? Id. Numquid est māli, quod non dixeris? Ter.

Note 2. General negatives are nemo, nullus, nthil, anus non, alius non, non quisquam, vix ullus. nec ullus, etc., with est; vix with an ordinal and quisque; nego esse quemquam, etc. Interrogative expressions implying a negative, are quis, quid; qui, que, quod; quantus, üter. ecquis, numquis, an quisquam, an aliquis, quotus quisque, quotus, etc., with sunt?

NOTE 3. The same construction is used after non est, nthil est, quid est, numquid est, etc., followed by quod, cur, quāre, or quamobrem, and denoting 'there is no reason why,' 'what cause is there?' 'is there any reason?' as, Quod timeas, non est, 'There is no reason why you should fear. Ovid. Nihi est quod adventum nostrum pertimescas. Cic. Quid est, quod de ējus cīvitāte dūbītes? Id. Quæris a me, quid ēgo Cātlīnam mētuum. Nihil, et cūrāvi ne quis mētuēret. Quid est, cur virtus ipsa per se non eff leiat bēātos? Id.—So after non hābeo, or nihil hābeo; as, Non hābeo, quod te accūsem. Cic. Nil hābeo, quod ūgam, I have nothing to do. Hor. Nihil hābeo, quod ad te scrībam. Cic. So without a negative, De quībus hābeo ipse, quid sentiam. Id. Causa or, with quid and nihil, causa, is sometimes added; as, Non fuit causa, cur postūlāres. Id. Quid ĕrat causæ, cur mētuēret. Id.

Note 4. (a.) The relative clause takes the subjunctive after the expressions included in this and the last rule, only when it expresses the character or quality of the subject of the antecedent clause; and the relative, as in the preceding cases of the relative with the subjunctive, is equivalent to a personal or demonstrative pronoun with ut_i as, $N\bar{e}mo$ est, qui nesciat, There is no one who is ignorant. Cic. So, Sunt, qui hoc carpant, There are some who blame this, i. e. some blame this. Vell.

(b.) If the relative clause is to be construed as a part of the logical subject it does not require the subjunctive; as, Nihil stäbile est, quod infidum est Nothing which is faithless is firm. Cic.

8. (1.) A relative clause expressing the reason of what goes before, takes the subjunctive; as,

Peccāvisse mihi videor, qui a te discessĕrim, I think I did wrong in leaving you. Cic. Inertiam accūsas ădòlescentium, qui istam artem non ēdiscant, You blame the idleness of the young men, because they do not learn that art. Id. O fortūnāte ădòlescens, qui tuw virtūtis Hömērum præcōnem invēnĕris!—in having found. Id. Cānīnius fuit mīrifīcā vigilantiā, qui suo tōto consūlātu sonnum non vīdērit,—since, etc. Id.

(2.) Sometimes, instead of qui alone, ut qui, quippe qui, or utpŏte qui, is used, generally with the subjunctive; as,

Conviria cum patre non inībat, quippe qui ne in oppīdum quidem nīsi perrāro vēnisset. Cic. Nēque Antōnius procul ābērat, utpote qui magno exercitu sēquērētur. Sall. But sometimes with the indicative in Sallust and Livy; as, Quippe qui omnia vīcērat. Sall.

9. After dignus, indignus, aptus, and ĭdōneus, a relative clause takes the subjunctive; as,

Vidētur, qui áliquando impèret, dignus esse, He seems to be worthy at some time to command. Cic. Rustici nostri quum fidem álicūjus bŏnitātemque laudant, dignum esse dicunt, quicum in těnebris mices. Id. Nulla vidēbātur aptior per-

sōna, quæ de ætāte lŏquĕrētur. Id. Pompeius īdōneus non est, qui impetret. Id. Et rem īdōneam, de quā quærātur, et hŏmines dignos, quībuscum dissĕrātur, pŭtant. Id.

Note 5. If the relative clause does not express that of which the person or thing denoted by the antecedent is worthy, its construction is not influenced by this rule. Thus, Quis servus libertate dignus fuit, cui nostra salus cara non esset? The subjunctive is here used according to No. 7 of this section.

Note 6. The infinitive frequently follows these adjectives in poetry, though rarely in prose; as, Et puer ipse fuit cantari dignus. Virg.:—and sometimes ut; as, Eras dignus, ut haberes integram manum. Quint.

10. A relative clause, after ūnus, sōlus, prīmus, etc., restricting the affirmation to a particular subject, takes the subjunctive; as,

Hec est una contentio, quæ adhuc permanserit, This is the only dispute which has remained till this time. Cic. Voluptas est sola, quæ nos vocet ad se, et allicent suapte naturā, Pleasure is the only thing that, by its own nature, invites and allures us to itself. Id.

- 11. When the relative refers to a dependent clause, it often takes the subjunctive. See § 266.
- 12. The imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive are used in narration after relative pronouns and adverbs, when a repeated action is spoken of; as,

Semper hābīti sunt fortissīmi, qui summam impērii pŏtīrentur, Those were always accounted the bravest, who obtained the supreme dominion. Nequemcumque lictor jussu consilis prêhendisset, tribūnus mitis jūbēbat. Liv. Ut quisque maxime lăbōrāret locus, aut ipse occurrebat, aut ăliquos mittēbat. So after si quis or qui; as, Si qui rem māltitōsius gessisset, dēdēcus existimābant. Cic. Quotiens sūper tāli negotio consultāret, editā domūs parte ūtēbātur. Tac. Nec quisquam Pyrrhum, quā tūlisset impētum, sustinēre vāluit.—It is sometimes found in like manner after quum, ūbi, ut, and sī when used in the sense of quum, when repeated actions are spoken of; as, Id ūbi dixisset, hastam in fīnes eorum ēmittēbat. Liv. Sin Nūmūde propius accessissent, tībi vēro virtūtem ostendēre. Sall. Sometimes even the present subjunctive is so used when employed as an aorist to express things which have happened repeatedly, and still happen (see § 145, I. 2.); as, Ubi de magnā virtūte et glōriā bōnōrum mēmōres, quæ sibi quisque, etc. Sall.

Nors 7. This is called the indefinite subjunctive, or subjunctive of generality, inasmuch as the action is not referred to a distinct, individual case. The indicative, however, is used in such cases more frequently than the subjunctive.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN INDIRECT QUESTIONS.

§ 265. Dependent clauses, containing an indirect question, take the subjunctive.

NOTE 1. A question is indirect when its substance is stated in a dependent clause without the interrogative form. Indirect questions generally depend upon those verbs and expressions which commonly take after them the accusa-

tive with the infinitive. Cf. § 272. Thus:-

Quālis sit ānīmus, ipse ānīmus nescit, The mind itself knows not what the mind is. Cic. Crādbile non est, quantum scrībam, It is incredible how much I write. Id. Quis 400 sim, me rūgitus? Do you ask me who I am? Plaut. Ad te quid scrībam nescio. Cic. Nec quid scrībam hābeo, Nor have I any thing to write. Id. Dūce me, ūbi sint dii, Inform me where the gods are. Id. Incertum est, quo te löco more exspectet. Sen. Ep. Quam prīdem sibi hērēditas vēnisset, dūcet. Id. Nunc acctpe, quāre dēsīpiant omnes. Hor. Id utrum illi sentiant, an

vēro sīmŭlent, tu intellīges. Cic. Quæro, num tu sēnātui causam tuam permittas. Id. Vides, ut altā stet nīve candīdum Sōracte. Hor. Nescit, vītāne fruātur, an sit ăpud mānes. Ovid.

Note 2. All interrogatives whether adjectives, pronouns, or particles, may serve as connectives of clauses containing indirect questions: as.

Quantus, quālis, quōt, quōtus, quōtuplex, ūter; quis, qui, cūjas; ŭbi, quō, unde, quā, quorsum, quamdiu, quamdadum, quamprīdem, quōties, cur, quāre, quamborem, quemadmodum, quòmodo, ut, quam, quantōpre, an, ne, num, utrum, anne, annon.

REMARK 1. The indicative is frequently used in dependent questions, especially in Terence and Plautus and occasionally in later poets; as, Vide arārītā quid făcit. Ter. So Virg. Ecl. 5, 7. In the best prose writers the indicative generally indicates that the question is direct, or that the sentence is not a question; as, Quærāmus übi mālēfīcium est, Let us seek there, where the crime actually is. Cic. Nihil est admīrābīlius, quam quōmōdo ille mortem fīlii tālīt.

REM. 2. In double questions, 'whether—or,' the first may be introduced by utrum, or the enclitic ne, or without an interrogative particle. Hence there are four forms of double questions,—1. utrum (or utrum ne),—an. 2. utrum,—an (anne). 3. -ne,—an. 4. -ne,——-ne; as, Multum interest, utrum laus imminuatur, an sálus dēserātur. Cic. The interrogative particle utrum is not used in a single question; and num—an is used only in direct questions. The English 'or not' in the second part, which is used without a verb, is expressed in Latin by annon or necne, either with or without a verb; but necne occurs only in indirect questions; as, Dii utrum sint, necne sint, queritur. Cic.—Ne—ne, an—an, or num—num scarcely occur except in poetical or unclassical language.

REM. 3. Dubito, dubium est, or incertum est an, delibero or hæsito an, and especially haud scio an, nescio an, though implying some doubt, have generally

a sense almost affirmative. Compare § 198, 11, R. (e.)

REM. 4. Nescio quis, used nearly in the sense of ăliquis, does not influence the mood of the following verb; as, Sed cāsu nescio quo in ea tempôra ætus nostra incidit. Cic. Lūcus, nescio quo cāsu, nocturno tempôre incensus est. Nep. So, also, nescio quòmodo, 'somehow' or 'in some way'; as, Sed nescio quòmodo, inhæret in mentibus quasi augūrium. Cic. In like manner mīrum quam, mīrum quantum, nīmium quantum, and the like, when united to express only one idea, do not affect the mood of the verb; as, Sāles in dīcendo nīmium quantum vālent,—very much. Cic.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN INSERTED CLAUSES.

§ **266.** 1. When a dependent proposition containing either an accusative with the infinitive, or a verb in the subjunctive, has a clause connected with it, as an *essential part*, either by a relative, a relative adverb, or a conjunction, the verb of the latter clause is put in the subjunctive; as,

Quid enim pôtest esse tam perspicuum, quam esse ăliquod numen, quo hac regantur? For what can be so clear as, that there is some divinity by whom these things are governed? Cic. Here the thing which is stated to be clear is, not merely esse aliquod numen, that there is a god, but also that the world is governed by him. Hence the latter clause, quo hac regantur is an essential part of the general proposition. Illud sic fère definir solte, décorum id esse, quod consentâneum sit hôminis excellentie. Id. Audiam quid sit, quod Epicurum non probes, I shall hear why it is that you do not approve cf Epicurus Id Jussit ut, que vênissent, naves Eulocam pêterent. Liv.

REMARK 1. Hence the subjunctive is used in general sentences, in which the class of things mentioned exists only as a conception or idea, while the individual thing has a real existence; as, Est ënim ulciscendi et pimendi modus, atque hand soio an satis sit eum qui lacessierit injuriæ suæ pænitëre, i. e. each individual offender of the class.

Rem. 2. When the principal proposition contains a subjunctive denoting a result, after ita, tam, tālis, etc., the inserted clause has the indicative; as, Asia viro tam ôpima est et fertilis, ut—multitūdine eārum rirum, quae exportantur, fatle omnibus terris anticellut. Cic. The same is the case in definitions; as, Vidire igitur ôportet, quae sint convénientia cum ipso négātio, loc est, quae ab re sépārāre non possunt. Cic.—So also explanatory clauses, especially circumlocutions introduced by a relative pronoun, are sometimes found with the indicative; as, Itâque ille Mārius item eximie L. Plātium dilexit, cūjus ingēnio pūtūbat ea, quae gessērat, posse cēlebrāri. Cic.

Note. To this rule belongs the construction of the \(\tilde{v}\)ratio \(\tilde{o}\)liqua, 'indirect discourse,' or 'reported speech,' in which the language of another is presented, not as it was conceived or expressed by him, but in the third person. Thus, C\(\tilde{e}\)sar and, 'I came, I saw, I conquered,' is direct,—C\(\tilde{e}\)casar said, that 'he came,

saw, and conquered,' is indirect discourse.

2. In the *ōrātio oblīqua*, the main proposition is expressed by the accusative with the infinitive; and dependent clauses connected with it by relatives and particles, take the subjunctive.

Thus, Cicero and Quintilian, in quoting the language of Marcus Antonius, make use, the former of the örātio directa, the latter of the örātio oblīqua;—Antōnius inquit, 'Ars eārum rērum est, quæ sciuntur', Antonius says, 'Art belongs to those things which are known.' Cic. Antōnius inquit, artem eārum rērum esse, quæ sciuntur, Antonius says, that 'art belongs to those things

which are known.' Quint.

So, Socrates dicère solèbat, omnes, in eo quod scirent, sătis esse eloquentes, Socrates was accustomed to say, that 'all were sufficiently eloquent in that which they understood? Cic. Otto mīrāri se aiebat, quod non rideret hāruspez, hāruspicem quum vidisset. Id. Nēgat jus esse, qui miles non sit, pugnāre cum hoste. Id. Indignābantur thi esse impērum, ūbi non esset libertas. Liv. Itāque Athēnienses, quod honestum non esset, id ne ūtile quīdem (esse) pūtāvērunt. Cic.

- REMARK 1. (a.) When the subjunctive would be necessary in the ōrātic directa, to denote liberty, power, etc., the same remains in the ōrātic obliqua, and is not changed into the infinitive with an accusative; as, Ad hæc Ariōristus respondit, quum rellet, congrēdērētur, To this Ariovistus replied, that 'he might meet him when he pleased.' Cæs. In the ōrātic directa, this would be congrēdiaris.
- (b.) The imperative in the örātio dīrecta is, in the örātio oblīqua, changed into the subjunctive; as, hoc mihi dīcīte, which in the ōrātio oblīqua is, hoc sibi dīcant, or hoc sibi dīcērent, according to the tense of the leading verb.
- (c.) So also direct questions addressed to the second person, when changed from direct to indirect speach, become subjunctives. Liv. 6, 37.—But such questions when not addressed to the second person are expressed in the ordio obliqua by the accusative with the infinitive; as when in direct speech we say, Etiamsi vėtěris contămēlia oblivisci vėlim, num possum ėtiam recentium injūriārum mėmoriam dēponēre? The orātio obliqua will be, Cesar respondit (histor. perf.)—si vėlėris contămēlia oblivisci vėllet, num ētiam recentium injūriārum—mēmoriam dēponēre posse? Cas. Very rarely the accusative with the infinitive is found in a question of the second person, as in Liv. 6, 17: but the subjunctive in questions of the third person is less uncommon in Casar; as, Quis pāti posset? for quem pāti posse? Quis hoc sibi persuādēret? for quem sibi persuāsūrum? See § 273, 3.
- REM. 2. A writer may state his own past words or thoughts in ōrātio oblīqua, either preserving the first person, or adopting the third.

- REM. 3. When the inserted clause contains the words or sentiments of the subject of the leading clause, all references to him are regularly expressed by the reflexives sui and suus; as, Hac něcessitāte coactus dômino nāvis qui sit àpēru, multa politiens, si se conservasset. Nep. And this is equally true when the word to which the pronoun refers is not in reality the grammatical subject, provided it may still be conceived as such; as, Quum ei in suspicionem vinisset, aliquid in ēpistolā de se esse scriptum. Nep.; for the words, quum ei in suspicionem vinisset, are equivalent to quum suspicārētur. See § 208, (1.)
- Rem. 4. The tenses to be used in changing the $\delta r \tilde{a} tio \ d\tilde{c} recta$ into the obliqua, depend on the tense of the verb which introduces the quotation, according to the rule, § 258. But when the future perfect would be used in the direct, the pluperfect is necessary in the oblique form; but the perfect is used after the present, perfect definite, or future.
- REM. 5. When the connected clause contains merely a descriptive circumstance, or expresses what is independent of the sentiment of the preceding clause, it takes the indicative; as, Impëravit Alexander Lysippo, ut eõrum eğultum, qui ăpud Grānīcum cēcīdērant, fūcēret stātuas, Alexander ordered Lysippus to make statues of those horsemen who had fallen at the Granicus. Sometimes, in other cases, when it is evident from the sense, that the connected clause is an essential part of the proposition, the indicative is used, to avoid giving the appearance of contingency to the sentence.
- 3. A clause connected to another by a relative or causal conjunction, takes the subjunctive, (whatever be the mood of the preceding verb,) when it contains not the sentiment or allegation of the writer, but that of some other person alluded to; as,

Sōcrătes accūsātus est, quod corrumpĕret jūventūtem, Socrates was accused of corrupting the youth, lit., because (as was alleged) he corrupted the youth. Deum invocābant, cujus ad sōlenne vēnissent, They invoked the god, to whose solemnities they had come. Liv. Quos vīcēris āmīcos tibi esse cive crēdas, Do not believe that those whom you have conquered are your friends. Here, in the first example, the charge of corrupting the youth is not made by the writer, but by the accusers of Socrates. So, in the second example, the worshippers allege that they have come to attend upon the solemnities of the god. In the last, it is implied by the use of the subjunctive mood, that the belief spoken of is that of the person addressed:—quos vīcisti would have been merely an addition of the speaker, by means of which he would have designated the persons whose friendship he was speaking of; and, in general, the indicative, in such sentences, is employed in those statements which are independent of the sentiments of the person, to whose thoughts or words allusion is made. Cf. supra 2, R. 5.

REMARK. In the preceding cases, it is not directly said that the sentiments are those of another than the writer. In Cicero, however, the words dico, pùto, arbitror, and the like, are often construed in a similar manner, although, properly speaking, not these verbs, but those in the clauses dependent on them, should be in the subjunctive; as, Quum enim, Hannibalis permissu, exisset de custris, rédiit paulo post, quod se voltium nescio quod diceret,...because (as) he said, he had forgotten something. Cic. Ab Alheniensibus, locum sépulture intra urbem ut dărent, impetrăre non potui, quod religione se impédiri dicerent. Id.

• IMPERATIVE MOOD.

§ 267. The imperative mood is used to express a command, wish, advice, or exhortation; as,

Nosce te, Know thyself. Cic. Æquam měmento servīre mentem, Remember to preserve an unruffled mind. Hor. Huc ades, Come hither. Virg. Pasce căpellas, et põtum pastas age, et inter agendum occursare capro caveto. Id.

- (1.) The imperative present denotes that an action is to be performed directly or at once; as, lege, read; morere, die; or that a state or condition is to continue; as, vive, live.
- (2.) The imperative future denotes that something is to be done, as soon as something else has taken place; as, Quum valētūdīm tuw consilueris, tum consultro valētūdīm tuw consilueris, tum consultro valētūdīm. Cic. Prius audīte paucis; quod quum dizero, si pilicuerit, factīcīte. Ter. The precedent event is often to be supplied by the mind. Sometimes, especially in poetry, the imperative present is used for the imperative future, and, on the other hand, scilo and scilote, from scio, are used instead of the imperative present, which is wanting.
- (3.) Hence the imperative future is properly used in contracts, laws, and wills; and also in precepts and rules of conduct; as, Regio império duo sunto, tique consules appellantor, militive summum jus habento, nemini parento, illis salus populi suprema lex esto. Cic. Non satis est pulchra esse poemáta, dulcia sunto. Hor. Ignoseito sepe altéri, numquam tibi. Syr.

REMARK 1. With the imperative, not is expressed by $n\bar{e}$, and nor by $p\bar{e}ve$; as,

Ne tanta ănimis assuescite bella. Virg. Ne crēde cölöri. Id. Höminem mortuum in urbe ne sepelīto, neve ūrīto. Cic.

Note. Non and néque occur, though rarely, with the imperative; as, Vos quòque non căris aures onerote làpillis, nec prodite gràves insulvestibus auro Ovid. But with the subjunctive used for the imperative non and especially nèque are found more frequently. Cf. § 260, R. 6, (b.)—In Plautus and Terence ne is of common occurrence both with the imperative and with the present subjunctive, and with no difference of meaning; but later poets chiefy use ne with the present subjunctive, and ne with the imperative only when they speak emphatically. In classical prose writers the periphrastic noli with the infinitive is preferred.

REM. 2. The present and perfect subjunctive are often used instead of both tenses of the imperative, to express a command in a milder form, an exhortation, or an entreaty; as, Qui ádipisci vēram glöriam völet, justitia fungātur officis. Cic. Quod dūbitas, ne fēcēris. Plin. Ep. See § 260, II., R. 6. An imperative of the perfect passive is very rarely found; as, At vos admoniti mostris quóque cāsībus este. Ovid. Jacta ālea esto. Cæs. in Suet. But the subjunctive is more common; as, Jacta sit ālea. Sometimes also the future indicative; as, Sed vālēbis, meāque nēgōtia vīdēbis, mēque dūis jūvantībus ante brūmam exspectābis, instead of vāle, vide, exspecta. Cic. Ubi sententiam meam vobis pērēgēro, tum quibus eādem plūcēbunt, in dextram partem tācīti transībītis, instead of transībītis. Liv. With the future the negative is non. See § 259, R. 1, (4.)

Rem. 3. Sometimes, for the simple affirmative imperative, cūra or cūrāto ut, fac ut, or fac alone is used with the subjunctive; as, Cūra ut quam prīmum věnias, Come as soon as possible. Fac ērūdias, Instruct, or Take care to instruct. Cic. For the negative imperative fuc ne, cāve ne or cāve alone, with the present or perfect subjunctive is used; but especially nōli with the infinitive; as, Nōli pūtāre, Do not suppose. Cic. Cāve existīmes, Do not think. Id. Nolite id velle quod non fiēri pōtest, et cāvēte ne spe præsentis pācis perpētuam pācem omittātis. Id.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

OF THE TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE.

§ 268. 1. The infinitive partakes of the properties of the noun and verb, just as the participle combines the properties of the adjective and verb. It expresses simply the action or state implied in the verb in an abstract maner, without specifying either person, number, or time, and thus merely indicates whether an action is in progress or completed.

2. The tenses of the infinitive denote respectively an action as present, past, or future, in reference to the time of the verbs with which they are connected; as,

Hoc făcere possum, I am able to do this. Cic. Vidi nostros inimīcos căpere bellum, I saw that our enemies were desiring war. Id. Nec genere apria ces abit turtur ab ulno, Nor shall the turtle dove cease to coo from the lofty elm. Virg.—Victōrem victæ succūbuisse quēror, I complain that the victor has yielded to the vanquished. Ovid. Se a sēnābus audisse dīcēbant, They said that they had heard (it) from the old men. Cic. Audiet cires ācuisse ferrum jūventus, The youth will hear that the citizens have whetted the sword. Hor.—Negat sīse rerbum esse factūrum, He declares that he is not about to speak. Cic. Postquam audierat non dātum īri filio uxōrem suo, After he had heard that a wife would not be given to his son. Ter. Semper existimābitis nībit hōrum ros vīsūros fore, You will always suppose that you are to see none of these things. Cic.

REMARK 1. (a.) The present and perfect infinitives are sometimes called respectively the infinitives of incomplete and of completed action. The present infinitive, however, is sometimes used to denote a completed action. This is the usual construction with měmini; but in such case the speaker transfers himself to the past, and the expression denotes rather a recollection of the progress than of the completion of the action; as, Hoe me měmini dicēre, I remember my sayiny this. Cic. Teucrum měmini Sidona věnīre, I remember Teucer's coming to Sidon. Virg. So with měmoria tideo. Cic. Phil. 8, 10. Scribit also is construed like měmini; as, Cic. Off. 3, 2: and after the same analogy, and for the sake of vivid expression Cicero says, M. Mazimum accēptimus fácile cēlāre, tācēre, dissīmūlare, etc., though speaking of things which he had not witnessed himself. So, also, with récordor;—Récordor longe omnibus žimum antiterer Dēmosthēnem. Cic. When the action is spoken of simply as a fact, the perfect infinitive is used with měmini; as, Měministis me ita distribuisse causam. Cic.

(b.) The passive voice having no simple form for expressing the completed sets of suffering makes use of the combination of the perfect participle with esse; as, āmātus esse, to have been loved. When thus combined esse loses its own signification of a continued state, and when this state is to be expressed, another infinitive must be chosen; as, Constrictam jam hörum conscientiā teneri conjūrātiōnem tuam non rides? Cic. Sometimes, however, when no ambiguity can arise, esse in the usual combination retains its original meaning; as, Apud Plātūnem est, omnem mōrem Lācēdemōniōrum inflammātum esse cūptātāte vincendi. Id. Here inflammātum esse expresses a continued or habitual state—Fuisse with the perfect participle denotes a state completed previous to a certain past time; as, Jūbet bōno ānīmo esse; sōpītum fuisse rēgem sūbīto ictu. Liv.

REM. 2. To express the result of an action rather than its progress, the perfect infinitive is sometimes used instead of the present, especially after satishabeo, satis mihi est, padet, contentus sum, mélius érit, võlo or a verb of equivalent meaning; as, Bacchātur vātes, magnum si pectore possit excussisse deum. Virg. Quum illum nēmo vėlit attīqisse. Plin. The poets use the infinitive perfect where we should expect a present; as, Tendentes Pēlion imposuisse Olympo. Hor.

REM. 3. The present infinitive is also sometimes used for the future, especially when the verb has no future; as, Dēsine fāta deûm flecti spērāre, Cease to hope that the fates of the gods will be changed. Virg. Prōgēniem Trōjāno a sanguine dūci audiērat. Id. Cras mihi argentum dăre dxit, i. e. se dătūrum esse. Ter. Cāto affirmat se vīvo illum non triumphāre. Cic.

REM. 4. (a.) The infinitive future active is formed by a combination of the participle future active with esse; as, amaturus esse; the infinitive future passive by a combination of the supine in um with iri; as, amatum īri. These future infinitives denote an action or state as continuing. The participle in rus, which properly expresses intention (see § 162, 14), takes also the infinitive fuisse to express a past intention; as, Scio te scriptirum fuisse, I know that

you have had the intention to write, whence it was an easy transition to the sense, 'you would have written,' in conditional sentences, when the condition is not fulfilled This infinitive is used especially in the apodosis of hypothetical sentences, where in direct speech the pluperfect subjunctive would be used (cf. § 162, 14, R. 3.); as, Etiamsi obtemperasset auspiciis, idem eventurum fuisse pāto. Cic. In like manner the infinitive future with esse is used in the apodosis of hypothetical sentences instead of the imperfect subjunctive; as, Libertus, nisi jūrasset, scēlus se factūrum (esse) arbitrābātur. Id.

(b.) Instead of the future infinitive, in both voices, futurum esse or före, followed by ut and the subjunctive, is often used; the present and imperfect subjunctive, in such cases, denoting an unfinished, the perfect and pluperfect a finished, future action; as, Numquam putari fore, ut supplex ad te venirem, I never supposed (that it would happen) that I should come a suppliant to you. Cic. Suspicer fore, ut infringatur höminum improbitus. Id. Crēdebum fore, ut spistolam scripsistoses.—So, also, in the passive for a continued state of future suffering the present and imperfect are used; as, Crēdo fore, ut spistolam scribatur, and, Crēdebum fore, ut spistola scriberatur. But to express a complete state in future time the perfect participle is employed; as, Quos spēro brēvi tempore tecum copulatos fore. Cic. Quod videret nomine pācis bellum involutum fore. Id. This construction is necessarily used, when the verb has either no nuture active participle, or no supine; as, in such case, the regular future infinitive cannot be formed; as, Spēro fore ut sapias.—Fôre is found in two passages pleonastically joined with the future participle active, viz. Te ad me fore ventūrum. Cic. Att. 5, 21: and Quum sēnātus censēret—libenter factūros fore. Liv. 6, 42.

REM. 5. (a.) The periphrastic infinitive formed by the future active participle with fuisse, denotes a future action contingent upon a condition which was not fulfilled; and, in the apodosis of a conditional sentence, corresponds to the pluperfect subjunctive; as, An censes me tantos libbres suscepturum fuisse, st issdem finibus gloriam meam quibus vitam essem terminatūrus? Do you think that I should have undertaken so great labors if, etc. Cic. Ut perspīcuum sit omnībus, nīsi tanta ācerbītas injūriæ fuisset, numquam illos in eum locum progressūros fuisse,....that they never would have come into that place. Id.

(b) Fütürum fuisse with ut and the imperfect subjunctive passive, corresponds to the infinitive fuisse with the future participle active in a conditional proposition; as, Nisi nuncii essent allāti, existimābant plērīque fūtūrum fuisse, ut oppīdum āmittērētur,...that the town would have been lost. Cas.

(c.) The participle future passive cannot be used to form an infinitive future passive, since it always retains the meaning of necessity, and in this sense has three regular infinitives, amandum esse, amandum fuisse, and amandum fore; as, Instire hiemem, aut sub pellibus habendos milites fore, aut differendum esse in estatem bellum. Liv.

REM. 6. In the apodosis of a conditional sentence, the perfect infinitive, like the past tenses of the indicative, (see § 259, R. 4.), sometimes corresponds to the pluperfect subjunctive: as, (Dixit) sibi vitam filies sui căriorem inisse, il libère ac pădica virêre licitum fuisset, (He said) that the life of his daughter had been dearer to him than his own, if it had been permitted.... Liv. This use of the perfect infinitive is necessary, when the verb has no future participle; as, Equidem Platônem existimo, si gênus forense dicendi tractăre vitaisset, gravissime et côpiosissime potuisse dicêre,—would have been able to speak. Cic.

§ **269.** The infinitive may be regarded either as a verb or as an abstract noun. (a.) As a verb it is used either indefinitely (§ 143, 4), or with a subject of its own, which is put in the accusative, (§ 239). But the infinitive passive of neuter and sometimes of active verbs, like the third person singular of that voice, may be used impersonally or without a subject; as, Vides toto properari litter, You see a stir is made all along the shore. Virg. See §§ 209, R. 3, (2.), and 239, R. 4. The present infinitive has sometimes, in narration, a subject in the nominative. See § 209, R. 5.

(b.) As a noun, the infinitive, either alone or with a subject-accusative, has two cases, the nominative and the accusative, and is accordingly used either as the subject or the object of a verb.

THE INFINITIVE AS THE SUBJECT OF A VERB.

The infinitive, either with or without a subject-accusative, may be the *subject* of a verb; as,

Ad rempüblicam pertinet me conservāri, It concerns the state that I should be preserved. Cic. Numquam est ūtile peccāre, To do wrong is never useful. Id. Mājus dēdēcus est parta āmittēre quam omnīno non pārāvisse. Sall. In the first example conservāri with its subject accusative me is the subject of pertinet, and is equivalent to 'my preservation': in the second, 'peccāre is the subject of est ūtile. See § 202, 2, and III. R. 2.

REMARK 1. A general truth may be expressed by the infinitive without a subject; as, Fātīnus est vincīre civem Rōmānum, To bind a Roman citizen, or that one should bind a Roman citizen, is a crime. But in such case the verb esse and verbs denoting to appear, to be considered or called (§ 210, R. 3.), require the noun or adjective of the predicate to agree with the implied subject in the accusative; as, £quum est peccātis vēnium poscentem reddēre rursus. Hor. Atticus maximum æstimācit questum, mēmorem grātumque cognosci. Nep.

Note. The indefinite pronoun aliquem or aliquos may in such cases be supplied, and the same indefiniteness may be expressed by te or nos, cf. § 209, R. 7; but it is still more frequently expressed by the infinitive passive. Hence the sentence Facinus est vincire cirem Romanum, may also be expressed by Facinus est vinciri cirem Romanum. So, Quum viderent de evrum virtue non desperint. Nep.—The impersonal verbs heet, diect, oportet, opostet, opus est, and nécesse est, when there is no definite subject, are joined with the infinitive active alone; but when there is a subject-accusative, they are connected with the passive construction; as, a ct. Liet hoe face; décet spécimen capére ex hac re; pass. licet hoe fièri; dècet spécimen capi.

Rem. 2. The infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, is often the subject of a proposition, when the substantive verb with a noun, a neuter adjective, or an impersonal verb forms the predicate. Of this kind are justum, arguum, vērtsimile, consentāneum, apertum—est, ērat, etc., nēcesse est, opus est;—appāret, constat, convēnit, dēcet, licet, oportet; intelligitur, perspicitur, etc.; as, Cui verba dāre difficile est. Ter. Mendācem mēmorem esse oportet. Quint. Lēgem brevem esse oportet. Sen. Constat profecto ad sālūtem cīvium inventas esse lēges. Cic. Non ēnim me hoc jam dīcēre pūdēbit. Id. See § 209, R. 3, (5.), (a.)

REM. 3. The infinitive may itself be the subject of an infinitive; as, Audio non licere cuiquam in nave capillos deponère. Ter.

REM. 4. The infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, may also be the predicate nominative; as, Impūne qualibet făcëre id est rēgem esse. Sall. In this sentence făcëre is the subject, and rēgem esse is the predicate; for id, which only represents by a kind of apposition the clause impūne qualibet fācēre, can be omitted.

REM. 5. When the infinitive esse, (or others of similar meaning, as, fièri, vivère, vitam dègère, cēdère, dbīre, etc.), with a predicate adjective (or noun), is joined with licet, such predicate is put in the accusative, if the subject-accusative of the infinitive is expressed, and sometimes, also, when it is omitted, but more frequently, in the latter case, the predicate adjective or noun is attracted to the dative following licet; as, Ut eum liceat ante tempus consulem fiéri. Auct. ad Her. Mēdios esse jam non licebit. Cic. Si civi Rōmāno licet esse Gādītānum. Id.—Līcuit ēnim esse ötioso Thēmistocli. Id. Mīhi nēglīgenti esse non licet. Id. Sibi vitum filice suā cāriōrem fuisse, si libēra ac pūdīca vivēre līcitum fuisset (scil. ei). Liv. So also nēcesse est with the predicate in the

dative. Võõis nõcesse est fortibus viris esse. Liv.—But licet, õportet, and nõcesse est are also joined with the subjunctive mood, and hence is derived the construction of licet as a conjunction. See § 263, 2.

THE INFINITIVE AS THE OBJECT OF A VERB.

§ **270.** The infinitive, either with or without a subject-accusative, may be the *object* of a verb; as,

Hæc vītāre cūpīmus, We desire to avoid this. Cic. Poētas omnīno non cōnor attingēre, I do not at all attempt to read the poets. Id. Sententiam vālēre cūpiērunt, They desired that the opinion should prevail. Id. Spēro te vālēre, I hope that you are well. Id.

Note. The infinitive as the object of a verb supplies the place of the accusative of the thing, and hence many active verbs besides the infinitive take in the active voice an accusative of the person, cf. § 231, R. 3, (b.), and in the passive retain the infinitive; as, Consules jubentur scribère exercitum. Mūros adīre vētīti sunt. Cf. § 234, I.

REMARK 1. The infinitive alone may also depend upon an adjective, and sometimes upon a noun.

(a.) It may depend upon relative adjectives, (see § 213, R. 1), which, by the poets, are joined with the infinitive instead of their usual construction with the genitive of the gerund, etc.; as, Cēdēre nescius. Hor. Avidi committere pagnam. Ovid. Cūpīdus möriri. Id. Cantāre pērīti Arcādes. Virg. Callīdus condēre furto. Hor. Quidlibet impōtens spērāre. Id. Sutrīnas fācēre inscius. Varr. Insuētus vēra audīre. Liv. Certa mōri. Virg. Fēlicior unguēre tēla. Virg. So, Audax omnia perpēti, Resolute to endure every thing. Hor. Sollers ornāre Cýpassis, Skilful to adorn. Ovid. Segnes solvēre nōdum. Hor. Indōcllis paupēriem pāti. Id. Non lēnis fāta rēclādēre. Id. See § 213, R. 4, (1.)

(b.) It may also depend upon adjectives signifying usefulness, fitness, etc., which are sometimes by the poets construed with the infinitive instead of the dative; as, (Tibia) aspīrāre et ădesse chóris erat ūtilis. Hor. Ætas mollis et apta regi. Ovid. Fons etiam rīvo dāre nomen īdoneus. Hor. Frāges consūmēre nāti. Id. And after dignus and contentus; as, Dignus āmāri. Virg. Cf. § 244,

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(c.) Úpon a noun; as, Tempus est hūjus libri făcĕre finem, It is time to finish this book. Nep. Iniit consilia rēges tollĕre, He devised a plan to destroy the kings. Id. Ea ĕrat confessio căput rērum Rōmam esse. Liv. Cũpido incessĕrat Æthiópiam invisĕre. Curt. Quibus in ōtio vīvĕre cūpia ĕrat. Sall. So, Nec mīhi sunt vīres inimīcos pellĕre tectis, instead of pellendis inimīcis, or ad pellendos inimīcos. Ovid.

(d.) If for the infinitives depending on nouns or adjectives other nouns were substituted, these last would be put in the genitive, dative, or ablative; and hence such infinitives may perhaps be properly regarded as exceptions to the rule, that the infinitive has but two cases, the nominative and the accusative.

REM. 2. (a.) The infinitive with the accusative sometimes stands unconnected, especially in exclamations and indignant interrogations, where crédibile est? or vérunne est? may be supplied; as, Mêne incepto désistère victam? That I, vanquished, should desist from my undertaking? Virg. Me misérum! te in tantas ærunnas propter me incidisse! Cic.—But ut, also, with the subjunctive, either with or without an interrogative particle, may be used to express a question with indignation; as, Eine (scil. patri) égo ut adverser? Liv. Tu ut umquam te corrigas? Cic. Jūdicio ut àrâtor décămānum persequātur? Id.; where fièri pôtest? may be supplied.

(b.) So, in the oratio obliqua, the words signifying said, saying, etc., are often omitted, or implied in a preceding verb or phrase; as, Id facile effici posse.

scil. dixit. Nep. Quem signum dăturum fugientibus? Curt.

REM. 3. The infinitive is sometimes to be supplied; and esse and fuisse with a predicate adjective, and also in the compound forms of the infinitive, both active and passive, are commonly omitted, especially after verbs of saying, thinking, knowing, and perceiving; as, Vos cognôvi fortes. Sall. Quem pulsum mēmôrāvi. Tac.—So, also, with the infinitive perfect passive when depending on völo, nölo, cūpio, and oportet; as, Adôlescenti mōrem gestum oportuit. Ter. Quod jam pridem factum oportuit. Cic.—Sometimes in a relative clause an infinitive is to be supplied from the finite verb of the main proposition; as, Quos vôluit omnes interfēcit, scil. interficēre. Ne illam quitam consēquuntur, quum pūtant, grātiam; i. e. quam se consēcūtūros pūtant. Cic.

THE INFINITIVE WITHOUT A SUBJECT-ACCUSATIVE.

§ 271. The infinitive, without a subject-accusative, is used after verbs denoting ability, obligation, intention or endeavor; after verbs signifying to begin, continue, cease, abstain, dare, fear, hesitate, or be wont; and after the passive of verbs of saying, believing, reckoning, etc.

Note 1. To these classes belong possum, queo, nequeo, video, debeo; cūro, cogito, decemo, státuo, constituo, instituo, páro; conor, nitor, tendo, contendo, tento, mainimo, propero, aggredior, persevero,—cogni, inclino, pergo, desino, desisto, intermitto, parco, recūso; soleo, assuesco, consuesco, insuesco; audeo, vereor, metuo, reformido, timeo, horreo, dibito;—audior, credor, existimor, feror, negor, nuntior, perhibeor, pūtor, trador, jibeor, videor, audeor, and cogor.

Note 2. When the preceding verbs are joined with esse, hābēri, jūdīcāri, vidēri, etc., the predicate noun or adjective is put in the nominative; as, Solet tristis vīdēri; aude săpiens esse; cæpit mihi mõlestus esse; debes esse dīlīgens; potest liber esse: and so also mérêtur, scit, dīdīcīt liber esse:

Note 3. The poets, in imitation of the Greeks, use the infinitive after fuge, aufer, cave, parce, memento; paveo, refujo, quero, urgeo, laboro, amo, gaudeo, furo, calleo, sumo, mitto, remitto, patior, juro, conjuro, pugno, natus, and some other verbs, especially to denote a wish or purpose; as, Introit videre. Ter. Non te frangere persequer. Hor. Non populare penates venimus. Virg. In this construction, the poets are sometimes imitated by the later prose writers.

REMARK 1. Many of the verbs above enumerated, instead of the infinitive, may be followed by the subjunctive with ut, ne, etc.; and with some of them this is the regular construction; as, Sententiam ne diceret, recusavit. Cic.

REM. 2. The passives dicor, trādor, fēror, narror, rēpērior, existimor, videor, etc., may either be used personally, with the infinitive alone, or impersonally, followed by the accusative with the infinitive. Thus we may say, Māter Pausāniæ eo tempöre vixisse dīcītur, or, Dīcītur eo tempöre mātrem Pausāniæ vixisse, The mother of Pausanias is said to have been living....or, It is said that the mother of Pausanias was living.... Nep. The former construction is more common especially with videor, see § 272, R. 6; but the latter is frequent with nuntiātur, and very common with the compound tenses, trādītum est, prādītum est, etc., and with the participle future passive; as, crēdendum est, intelligendum est, etc.; as, Quōrum nēmīmem tālem fuisse crēdendum, etc. Cic.

REM. 3. The infinitive without a subject is used after a verb, only when it denotes an action or state of the subject of that verb.

Rem. 4. The verbs to wish or desire, vôlo, nōlo, mālo; cúpio, opto, stúdeo, have a twofold construction:—the infinitive without a subject-accusative is used after them; when the subject remains the same; and when followed by esse, hābēri, etc., the predicate-noun or adjective is in the nominative;—but the accusative with the infinitive is used when the subject is changed, or when a reflexive pronoun of the same person follows. We say, therefore, vôlo ērūdītus fiêri, and on the other hand, vôlo te ērūdītus fiêri, and vôlo me ērūdītus fiêri. So, Völo is esse, quem tu me esse vôluisti. Cic. Cúpio me esse clēmentem, cūpio—

me non dissolūtum vidēri. Id.; or, omitting the pronoun, cūpio esse clēmens nec dissolūtus vidēri.—Omnis homines qui sese stūdent præstāre cētērus ānimālībus, etc. Sall.

Note 4. Volo is used with the present infinitive passive; as, Me ámārī volo, I wish to be beloved; hoc velim intellivi. I wish this to be understood; and also with the infinitive perfect passive to denote the eager desire that something should be instantly accomplished; as, Lēgāti quod ĕrant appellāti sūperbius, Corinthum prives vestri—exstinctum esse voluērunt. Cic.; but it occurs most frequently with the omission of esse; as, hoc factum volo; nunc illos commonitos vēlīm: so, patriam exstinctam cipil.

Note 5. The nominative with the infinitive after verbs of saying, perceiving, etc. (§ 272), is rare even in poetry, and is an imitation of the Greek idiom, which requires the nominative with the infinitive when the same subject remains; as, Phūsēlus ille, quem vidētis, hospītes, ait fuisse nāvium cēlerrīmus. Catull. Quia rētūlit Ajax esse Jūvis nēpos, instead of se esse Jūvis nēpōtem. Ovid. Sensit mēdios dēlapsus in hostes, instead of se dēlapsum esse. Virg.

THE INFINITIVE WITH A SUBJECT-ACCUSATIVE.

§ 272. The infinitive with a subject-accusative follows verbs of saying, thinking, knowing, perceiving, and the like; as,

Vidēbat, id non posse fiēri, He saw that that could not be done. Nep. Sentit ănimus, se suā vi, non ālienā, movēri. Cic. Andīvi te vēnīre. Me in ējus potestāte dixi fore. Id. Affirmant mīlitum jācēre ānīmos. Liv. Sæpe vēnīt ad aures meas, te istud nimis crēbro dīcēre. Cic. Eam pugnam ad Pērūsiam pugnātam (esse), guīdam auctores sunt. Liv.

Note 1. This rule includes all such verbs and phrases as denote the exercise of the external senses and intellectual faculties, or the communication of thought to others; as, audio, video, sentio, animadverto, cognosco, intelligo, percipio, disco, scio, nescio, censos, spēro, despēro, cōgito, jūdico, crēdo, arbitror, pūto, ūpinor, dūco, statuo, mēmini, rēcordor, obliriscor, opinio est, spes est, etv.;—dīco, trādo, prodo, scrēdo, rēfero, narro, nuntio, confirmo, nēgo, ostendo, indico, dūceo, certiorem facio, dēmonstro, pērhībeo, promitto, polireco, spondeo, etc.; but with most of these a different construction often occurs. See § 273

Note 2. The propositions, whose subjects are thus put in the accusative and their verbs in the infinitive, are those which are *directly* dependent on the verbs of saying and perceiving. Respecting the clauses inserted in such dependent propositions, see § 266, 1.

Note 3. (a.) When a relative clause inserted in a proposition containing the accusative with the infinitive, has the same verb as the proposition in which it is inserted, but such verb is not repeated, the noun which is the subject of the relative clause is also put by attraction in the accusative; as, Te suspicor eisdem ribus, quibus me ipsum, commoveri. If the verb is expressed we must say, eisdem ribus commoveri, quibus (ego) ipse commoveor. So, also, in inserted relative clauses where the verb, if expressed, would be in the subjunctive, (see § 266, 2.); as, (Verres) aicbat se tantidem æstimasse, quanti Sacerdos æstimasset. Cic. Confitetur se in eā parte fuisse quā te, quā virum omni laude dignum patrem tuum. Id.

(b.) The same is the case with the particle quam after a comparative, see § 256, R. 5, (a.) But sometimes when quam connects a clause to a preceding proposition containing the accusative with the infinitive, the same construction follows that precedes quam, even when the verb of the latter clause is expressed; as, Nonne tibi affirmāri quidris me pôtius perpessūrum, quam ex Itāliā ad bellum cīvīle me exītūrum instead of quam exīrem or quam ut exīrem. Cic.

(c.) In long speeches in the *ōrātio obliqua*, relative clauses, having a verb of their own which should properly be in the subjunctive, are put in the accusative with the infinitive, if the relative clause is not subordinate to the one with the infinitive, and which is governed by a verb of saying or perceiving,

but is rather coordinate with it; in which case the relative is equivalent to the demonstrative with et; as, Nam illorum urbem ut propagacilum oppositum esse barbāris, ŏpud quam jam bis classes rēgias fēcisse naufrāgium; for et ŏpud eam jam bis, etc.—In Livy and Tacitus the same construction sometimes occurs even after conjunctions; as after quam in the sense of 'while,' see § 263,5, R. 3; after quamquam on account of its absolute signification, see § 198, 4, and after quia.

Note 4. The personal pronouns, which, with the other moods, are expressed only when they are emphatic, must be always expressed in the accusative with the infinitive. The verbs 'to promise' and 'to hope' are in English usually joined with the infinitive present without a pronoun, but in Latin not only is the pronoun expressed, but the infinitive which follows is in the future; as, 'He promised to come,' is in Latin, Prōmīsit se ventūrum (scil. esse, see § 270, R. 3). But the infinitive present sometimes occurs after these verbs; as, Pollicentur obsides dūre, Cæs. B. G. 4, 21; and the pronoun is occasionally omitted, see § 239, R. 2 and 3.

REMARK 1. When ambiguity would arise from the subject and the object of the verb being both in the accusative, the passive infinitive is substituted for the active, by which means the subject is put in the ablative, or in the accusative with per; as, Ne fando quidem auditum est, crōcōdilum viòlatum esse ab Ægyptio; instead of Ægyptium crōcōdilum viòlasse. Cic.

REM. 2. After verbs of saying, thinking, etc., the conjunction that is omitted m translating from English into Latin, and the subject of the dependent clause is put in the accusative, and its verb in the infinitive.

REM. 3. The accusative with the infinitive is sometimes rendered into English by a similar form; as, Si vis me flere, If you wish me to weep. Hor.; but the dependent clause is more frequently connected to the verb of saying, etc., by the conjunction that, and the infinitive translated by the indicative or potential mood; as, Sentimus nivem esse albam, We perceive that snow is white. Cic. Sometimes the dependent clause is annexed to the other without the conjunction; as, Orēdunt se negligi, They think they are neglected. Ter.

REM. 4. A present infinitive corresponds to the imperfect indicative, when with an accusative it follows a preterite tense; as, Dixit Cesărem věnīre, He said that Cæsar vas coming. Cæs. In like manner the perfect infinitive with an accusative after a preterite tense corresponds to the pluperfect indicative; as, Dixit Cesărem vēnisse, He said that Cæsar had come. See § 268, 2.

Rem. 5. The present infinitive, after verbs of sense, is often equivalent to the present participle; as, Surgere videt länam, He sees the moon (to rise) rising. Virg. Arma rütiläre vident. Id. Videbis collücere fäces. Id. Nec Zephyros audis spīrāre? Do you not hear the zephyrs blowing? Id. Sæpe hoc mājores nātu dīcere audīvi. Cic. The two constructions are sometimes united; as, Mēdium video discēdère cælum, pālantesque pölo stellas. Virg.

REM. 6. The subject-accusative after verbs of saying, showing, and believing; as, dico, nėgo, trādo, fėro, mėmoro, narro, nuntio, perhibeo, prodo, scrībo, demonstro, ostendo, arguo, crēdo, prito, existimo, and the like, and also after jūdeo, vēto, and prohibeo, is regarded also as the accusative of the object after these verbs; and hence such verbs are used also in the passive, the accusative of the active voice becoming, as usual, the nominative of the passive. This is especially the case when their subject is indefinite; as, Dicunt (they or people say) me virum probum esse, or dicor vir probus esse. So, Vētāmur hoc fācēre, instead of, Nos hoc fācēre extant. Instead also of the impersonal vidētur (it appears) followed by the infinitive with its subject-accusative, it is common to say personally, videor, vidēris, etc., with the infinitive; as, videor errasse, it appears that I have erred.

INFINITIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES ..

- § 273. When the particle that, in English, introduces a clause denoting a purpose, object, or result, it is a sign of the subjunctive in Latin, and is to be expressed by ut, etc.; but otherwise it is usually the sign of the accusative with the infinitive. Cf. §§ 262 and 272.
- 1. (a.) Verbs of endeavoring and resolving take after them the infinitive and more rarely the subjunctive, when the subject remains the same; but when the subject is changed, they take the subjunctive only.
- Note 1. Such are statuo, constituo, decerno, tento, laboro, paro, meditor, curo, nitor, contendo, constitum capio, animum or in animum induco. Cf. § 271, N. 1. After operam do, I exert myself, id. hoc, or illud ago, I endeavor, nitil antiquius habeo or duco quam, nothing is of more importance to me, and video for curo, the subjunctive is almost exclusively used.
- (b.) Verbs of effecting are construed with ut or ne and the subjunctive.
- Note 2. Such are facio, efficio, perficio, evinco, pervinco, impetro, assequor, consequor, etc. But facere to effect occurs in Cic. Brut. 38, in connection with the accusative and infinitive passive.
- Note 3. Facio with ut is also used as a periphrasis for the indicative; as, Institus quidem feci, ut L. Fläminium e sēnātu ējicērem, for invitus ējēci. Cic. Fac, 'suppose' or 'granting,' and efficēre, 'to prove,' take the accusative with the infinitive; but the passive efficitur, 'it follows,' takes also the subjunctive. —Fācēre, 'to introduce' or 'represent,' is joined with a present or perfect participle; as, Lælium et Scīpiōnem facimus admīrantes. Cic. In the passive the accusative also with the infinitive is found, there being no present participle; as, Isocrātem Plāto laudāri fācit a Sōcrāte. Cic.
- 2. Verbs signifying to request, to demand, to admonish, to advise, to encourage, to command, and the like, both when the subject remains the same and when it is changed, are followed by the subjunctive with ut or ne, and only rarely by the infinitive.
- Note 4. (a.) Such are rogo, oro, precor, peto; posco, postulo, flagito; moneo, admoneo, commoneo, hortor, cuhortor, exhortor, suadeo, persuadeo, instituo. (I instruct), impello, cogo, mando, praescribo, edico, decerno, legem do, censeo, perpello, excito, infeto, impero, etc.; as, Te non hortor solum, sed etiam oro, ut tota mente in rempublicam incumbas. Cic.
- (b.) In the poets and later prose writers the infinitive more frequently follows those verbs without any difference of meaning. The poets even use the infinitive to express a purpose; as, Proteus pecus egit allos visere montes. Hor.
- (c.) Nuntio, scribo, mitto, and even dico, are followed by the subjunctive, when they imply an injunction or intention that something should be done; as, Hac ut facias, scribo. Cic.
- (d.) Jubeo and vēto commonly take the accusative with the infinitive, but sometimes the subjunctive with or rarely without ut. Sometimes, with the infinitive, the person to whom the command is given is omitted, especially when it is either obvious from the nature of the command or indefinite: as, Castra mūnīre jūbet, scil. mūlites. Cass. Lex recte fūcere jūbet, scil. lodnines. Cic. With the subjunctive the dative of the person sometimes follows jūbeo; as, Brūtanīteo jūssit, exsurgēret. Tac.—Impēro is sometimes followed by the accusative with the infinitive passive; and so also is censeo, I vote, or, I ordain. The latter is often construed with the participle in dus with esse expressed or understood; as, Carthāginem dēlendam censeo.

- (e.) Möneo and admöneo, 'I remind,' and persuādeo, 'I convince,' take the accusative with the infinitive.
- 3. (a.) In the oratio obliqua, the construction of the accusative with the infinitive, is exchanged for that of the subjunctive, to denote possibility, liberty, duty, etc.; as,

Virginius ūnum Ap. Claudium lēgum expertem esse aiēbat: respīcerent trībūnal homines castellum omnium scēlērum. Liv.

- (b.) On the contrary, when the subjunctive has been used after a verb of requesting, commanding, etc., the construction often passes into that of the accusative with the infinitive; the verb of saying being considered as implied in the verb of requesting, etc.; as, Orābat ne se ut parricūlam tūbērām āversārentur: sībi vītam fūliæ suā cāriōrem fuisse, sī... Liv. Cf. § 270, R. 2, (b.)
- 4. (a.) Verbs which denote willingness, unwillingness, permission, and necessity, commonly take the infinitive, or the accusative with the infinitive, but sometimes the subjunctive.

Note 5. Such are völo, nōlo, mālo, opto, permitto, pătior, sino, concēdo, licet, prohibeo, ŏportet, and něcesse est. Cf. § 271, R. 4. Völo ut is used to express a strong emphasis. Nōlo is not construed with the subjunctive.

- (b.) An infinitive passive without a subject is sometimes used with oportet; as, Non oportuit relictas, soil. esse ancillas. Ter. Ut ut erat, mansum timen oportuit, soil. esse. Id. Non pătăbant de tāli viro suspicionibus oportere jūdicāri. Nep.
- (c.) Some other verbs which regularly take the accusative with the infinitive after them, are occasionally followed by the subjunctive.
- 5. Quod, 'that,' commonly with the indicative, introduces a substantive clause containing the explanation or ground of the predicate or of some other word in the principal clause.

REMARK. The subjunctive follows quod in those cases only in which the clause expresses the view or sentiment of some other person than the writer or speaker. Cf. § 266, 3.

Quod is used:-

- (1.) After such expressions as bene, male, prudenter facio; bene, male fit; evenit, accidit, and the like; pratereo, mitto; and generally adde, accedit, etc.; as, Bene facis, quod me adjuvas.
- (2.) To introduce the explanation of a noun, pronoun, or pronominal adverb in the principal clause; as, Magnum beneficium est naturæ, quod necesse est móri.
- (3.) After verbs signifying an affection of the mind, and the outward expression of such feeling; and also after verbs of praising, censuring, accusing, and thanking.
- Note 6. Such are gaudeo, dēlector, grātum, or jūcundum est mihi, angor, döleo, ægre, möleste. or grāviler fēro, succenseo, pænitet, mīror, admīror, glōrior, grātūlor, grātūdor, grātūdor, grātūdor, grātūdor, indignor, and others of similar meaning; as, Scīpio sæpe quērēbātur, quod omnībus in rēbus hūmines dilīgentūres essent, ut, etc. Cic. Gaudeo quod te interpellāvi. Id. Quod spīrātīs, quod vōcem mititis, quod formas hōmīnum habētis, indignantur. Liv. Cato mīrāri se aiēbat, quod non rīdēret hāruspex, hāruspīcem quum vidēret. Cic.
- Note 7. After those verbs which express the feeling of joy, grief, etc.; as, gaudeo, döleo, mīror, the accusative with the infinitive is more commonly found, but those which denote the outward expression of such feeling are more commonly construed with quod; but sometimes this distinction is reversed. Grātilor is commonly joined with quod.

- NOTE 8. A purely objective proposition is expressed by quod only when it depends upon addo, (generally in the imperative adde), or upon fácio joined with an adverb; as, Adde quod pubes tibi crescit omnes. Hor. Adde huc quod mercem sine fácis gestat. Id. Fécit humaniter Licinius, quod ad me respêri venit. Cic. In all other cases the infinitive is employed in purely objective propositions.
- By the infinitive, with or without a subject-accusative, a proposition is expressed as a thought, so that it resembles an abstract noun; by quod, with the indicative or the subjunctive, it is represented simply as a fact. To the latter is frequently joined hoc, id, illud, istud, or huc, etc.; as, Illud quoque nobis accēdit incommodum, quod M. Janius abest. Cic. Huc accēdibat, quod, etc. Sall. Quod generally refers to past time, and hence it is preferable to say, Grātissinuum aihi est, quod ad me tua mānu scripsisti; but with the infinitive, Grātissinuum aihi est, quod adme tua mānu scripsisti; but with the infinitive, mum mihi est te bene valere.
- (a.) Quod, with the indicative, in the sense of as to, or with regard to, is used at the beginning of a sentence, especially in letters, in repeating an expression of a person for the purpose of answering it; as, Quod autem me Agamemnonem æmulāri pūtas, fallēris. Nep. Quod scrībis te velle scīre, qui sit reipūblicæ státus: summa dissensio est. Cic. Sentences thus introduced by quod are in no grammatical connection with the verb that follows them. See § 206, (14.)
- (b.) Quod is used in explanatory or periphrastic propositions which refer to a preceding demostrative pronoun, as hoc, id, etc., unless such pronoun be added pleonastically, in the nominative or accusative, to verbs governing the accusative with the infinitive; as, Mihi quidem videntur homines had re maxime bellais præstare, quod loqui possunt. Cic.
- Note 9. The construction of the infinitive resembles, in the following particulars, that of a noun in the singular number and neuter gender:-
- (a.) Like a noun, it may have an adjective or pronoun agreeing with it; as Totum hoc philosophari displicet. Cic. Quum vivere ipsum turpe sit nobis. Id. Me hoc ipsum nihil agere delectat. Id. Meum intelligere nulla pecunia vendo. Petr. See § 205, R. 8.

(6.) It may be followed by a limiting genitive; as, Cūjus non dimicāre fuit ncēre. Val. Max.

vincere.

(c.) It may be either the subject or object of a verb. See §§ 209, R. 3, (5,) and 229, R. 5. It may also be used after neuter verbs, like an accusative, depending on a preposition understood; as, Te accepisse meas literas gaudeo. Ter. See §§ 232, (2,) and 273, 5.

(d.) It is also used like a predicate-nominative; as, Vidère est perspicère aliquid. Cic. See § 210.

(e.) It may, like a genitive, limit the signification of an adjective or nonn.

See § 270, R. 1.

(f.) It may, like an accusative, depend on a preposition; as, Aristo et Pyrrho inter optime valere et gravissime ægrotare, nihil prorsus dicebant interesse. Cic. Quod crimen dicis præter amasse meum? Ovid. Inveniet nil sibi legatum, præter plörare. Hor.

(g.) It is used also like an ablative; as, Audito regem in Siciliam tendere. Sall.

(h.) Sometimes, also, especially in the poets, it denotes a purpose, like a participle in dus, (see § 274, R. 7.); as, Loricam donat habere viro. Virg.; or like a dative of the end, (see § 227.)

PARTICIPLES.

§ 274. 1. Participles are followed by the same cases and constructions as their verbs; as.

Quidam, poēta nominātus, A certain one, called a poet. Cic. Cătălorum oblita leana, The lioness forgetful of her whelps. Virg. Faventes robus Curthāginiensium, Favoring the interests of the Carthaginians. Liv. Tendens ad sīdēra palmas. Virg. Accūsātus rei copitātis. Cic. Primā dicte milni summā dicende Cămēnā. Hor. Omina doctus. Stat. Cāsus ābies vīsūra mārīnos. Id. Cāritūri arbore montes. Ovid. Parcendum est teneris. Juv. Utendum est ætate. Ovid. L. Brūtus arcens reditu tyrannum, in prælio concidit. Cic.

2. The present, perfect, and future active participles, denote respectively an action which is present, past, or future, in reference to the time of the verb with which they are connected; as,

Tum ad Thraseam in hortis agentem mis-Simul hoc dicens attollit se. Virg. sus est. Tac. Turnum fügientem hæc terra vidēbit? Virg. Qui missus ab Argis Itălā consederat urbe. Id. Lămia munere adilitatis perfunctus, petit praturam. Cic. Jussus cum fide pænas luam. Hor. Juvenis medios moriturus in hostes irruit. Virg. Pěritūrus injecit sese in agmen. Id. Illa tibi ventūra bella expediet. Id.

Note. The participle expresses the action or state of the verb, and also marks its complete or incomplete state or condition. Cf. § 144, 1-3. Except, however, in deponent verbs, the Latin language has no active participle denoting a completed action, equivalent to the English 'having written,' nor any passive participle denoting a state of suffering still going on, equivalent to the English present participle 'being loved.'

REMARK 1. The present participle, particularly that of the verb eo, sometimes denotes that which is about to be done; as, Interclusit hiems, et terruit Auster euntes, ... as they were on the point of going. Virg. Nec nos via fallit euntes. Id.

REM. 2. (a.) The present participle, also, sometimes denotes a purpose; as, Ibant, ōrantes vēniam,...to sue for favor.... Virg. Europojlum scītantem ōrācūla Phabi mittimus. Id. (b.) It is also used to express a state or condition, where, in English, a substantive is employed with a preposition; as, ignorans, from ignorance; mětuens, from fear; consulatum pětens, in his suit for the consulship; omne malum nascens facile opprimitur, -in its origin.

REM. 3. (a.) The perfect participle passive, especially in the poets, often denotes the result of a past action, and thus supplies the place of a present participle passive; as, Notus ēxolat piceā tectus cāligine....covered with pitch darkness. Ovid. Cf. Virg. En. 1, 480; 2, 277; 4, 72, 559; 5, 113, 708; 6, 335: Georg. 1, 204. It is often to be translated by a present active participle; as, Mánu pectus percussa děcôrum, flaventesque abscissa comas, i. e. percutiens, abscindens. Virg. Tunsæ pectora palmis. Id. So, also, solitus, ausus, fīsus, and the perfect participles of deponent verbs; as, Longum cantu söläta lübörem. Id. Vox audītur fractos sonītus imitāta tübārum. Id. Divitiācus Cæsarem complexus, obsecrăre cœpit. Cæs. Concrētos sanguine crines gerens. Virg. Tonsis în vallibus, i. e. quæ tondentur. Id.

(b.) The perfect participle of a preceding verb is often used in a succeeding clause, to express the completion of an action; as, Exercitum fundit fugatque, fusum persequitur. Liv. This idiom frequently occurs in Ovid.

REM. 4. Habeo, with perfect participles denoting knowledge and determination; as, cognitum, perspectum, perceptum, comprehensum, exploratum, statistum, constitutum, deliberatum, persuasum mihi habeo, etc., forms a periphrasis, like the passive verb in English, and equivalent to cognora, perspexi, percepi, etc., instead of the verb of the participle; as, Clodic arimum perspectum or cognitum habeo; for perspexi, etc., I perceive, know. rersuasum mihi habeo and persuasissimum habeo are used only in the neuter gender and with an accusative with the infinitive in the sense of mihi persuasi or persuasum mihi est. When habeo with any other participle than those above indicated is used, it expresses more. than the ordinary perfect active; as, Quod me hortāris ut absolvam; habeo absolūtam suāve spos ad Casarem; i.e. I have it ready. Cic. Do, reddo, caro,

téneo, possideo, and missum făcio, are sometimes so construed with participles; as, Missam iram făciet, for mittet. Ter. Hostes victos dăre, for vincere. Sall.

- Rem. 5. (a.) The passive participles may supply the place of a verbal noun in io or us, the perfect being employed to represent an action as completed, and the future when it is conceived as still incomplete; as, Ante Rōmam conditam, Before the building of Rome. Cic. Consilia urbis delendæ, Plaus for the destruction of the city. Id. See § 275, II. With the limitations about to be made in regard to the nominative, this construction is used in all the cases, and even when they are governed by the prepositions, ad, ante, ob, post, propter; ab and ex; as, Hae libræ recitaiæ magnum luctum fecerunt. The reading of this letter. Liv. Tarentum captum, The taking of Tarentum. Ob receptum Hannibalem, On account of the reception of Hannibal. Sibi quisque cæsi regis expélibat décus, The glory of killing, or, of having killed the king. Propter Africam domitam. Eutrop. Ante Epāminondam nātum. Nep. Post Christum nātum. Ab conditā urbe ad liberātam. Liv. The oblique cases only of participles in dus are used in this manner as the nominative denotes necessity, (see Rem. 8,) and even the perfect participle is not thus used in the nominative by Cicero.
- (b.) The neuter of the perfect passive participle without a noun is used by Livy, as the subject of a proposition; as, Tentātum per dictātōrem, ut ambo patrīcii consūles creārentur, rem ad interregnum perduxit: i. e. the attempt, or the fact of the attempt being made by the dictator. Compare a similar use of this participle in the ablative, § 257, R. 9, (1.) (c.)
- (c.) The English 'without' with a verbal substantive; as, 'without writing, without having waited,' etc., is expressed in Latin by means of a negative noun, adjective or particle connected with a participle; as, Cesar exercitum numquam per institus itinėra duxit, nīsi perspēcūlātus bicōrum situs, without having examined the localities. This form occurs often with the ablative absolute; as, Athēnienses non exspectāto auxilio adversus ingentem Persārum exercitum in pralium egrēdiuntur, without waiting for assistance. So, nullā præstītūtā die, Without fixing any time. Cic. Misērum est nīhil perficientem angi. Id.
- REM. 6. (a.) The participle in rus, especially with verbs of motion, often denotes intention or purpose; as, Ad Jövem Ammönem pergit consultūrus de örigine suā, He goes to Jupiter Ammon, to consult respecting his origin. Just.
- (b.) It is also used where in English a clause connected by since, when, although, etc., is employed; as, Plūra lŏcūtūros dbīre nos jussit, When or although we intended to say more. Hercūlem Germāni, itūri in prælium cănunt. Tac. Hence it is sometimes used, though not by Cicero, to express the inference from a hypothetical proposition; as, Egrēditur castris Rōmānus, vallum invāsūrus, ni cōpia pugnæ fiĕret. And with the repetition of the preceding verb; as, Dēdit mihi quantum maxime potuit, dātūrus amplius, si potuisset, i. e. ac dēdisset amplius. Plin. Ep.
- REM. 7. (a.) The participle in dus, also, denotes a purpose passively, when joined with verbs signifying to give, to deliver, to agree for, to have, to receive, to undertake, etc. Such are do, trādo, tribuo, attribuo, mando, mitto, permitto, concēdo, redmo, condūco, loco, hābeo, accipio, suscipio, rellinquo, cūro, dēposto, rōgo; as, Testāmentum tibi trādit lēgendum, He delivers his will to you to read. Hor. Attribut nos trūcīdandos Cēthēgo. Cic. Quod ūtendum accēpēris, reddīto. Id. Cūron mūros dīrūtos a Lýsandro reficiendos cūrāvit,—ordered them to be restored. Nep.
- (b.) But the same meaning may be expressed actively by means of ad and the gerund; as, Casar oppidum ad diripiendum militibus concessit.—The poets sometimes use the infinitive active for the same purpose; as, Tristitiam et mëtus trädam protervis in mare Caspium portare ventis. Hor. In prose such use of the infinitive is of exceedingly rare occurrence; as, Eibère dare. Cic.

REM. 8. (a.) The participle in dus, when agreeing with the subject of a sentence, has the signification of necessity or propriety; sometimes, though rarely, except in later writers, that of possibility; as,

Is věněrandus a nôbis et cŏlendus est, He should be worshipped and honored by us. Cic. Dělenda est Carthago, Carthage must be destroyed. Cato. Hee spēranda fuērunt. Virg. So with est used impersonally; as, Utrum pāce nôbis an bello esset ūtendum. Cic.

(b.) Sometimes, also, when not agreeing with the subject of a sentence, it has this signification; as, Facta-narrābas dissimulanda tībi, You were relating facts which you should have concealed: Ovid. A. L. Brūto principe hūjus maxime conservandi gēnēris et nōminis. Cic.

REM. 9. The participle in dus, in its oblique cases, supplies the place of a present participle of the passive voice, to denote a continued or incomplete action; as, Occupatus sum in literis scribendis, in writing letters; literally, in letters which are being written. See § 275, II.—So, also, in the poets both in the nominative and oblique cases; as, Triginta magnos volvendis mensibus orbes império explébit. Virg. Volvenda dies. Id. Cf. Volventibus annis. Id.

REM. 10. After participles in dus, the person by whom a thing must be done, is put in the dative, but in a few passages even of Cicero it is found in

the ablative with ab. See § 225, III.

REM. 11. The neuter of the participle in dus, joined with a tense of esse in the periphrastic conjugation (see § 184, 3,) retains the signification of necessity; as, Audendum est, We must venture. In early writers and sometimes also in the poets, an accusative of the object is joined with this neuter, if the verb is transitive; as, Nunc pacem ōrandum, nunc—arma répônendum, et bellum exitiale căvendum. Sil. But in classical Latin such accusative is generally changed to the nominative, and the participle is made to agree with it in gender and number. Thus, instead of virtūtem laudandum est, we usually find virtus laudandu est. The accusative in this connection is used by Cicero in only two passages. Utendum est with the ablative occurs more than once in Cicero; as, Quum suo cuique jūdīcio sit ūtendum.

REM. 12. In classical prose the participle in dus never has the signification of possibility, except when joined with viz; as, Vix optandum nöbis vidēbātur. Cic. Vix ĕrat crēdendum, i. e. vix crēdi pötērat. Later writers use it in this sense with negative particles, and at a later period it was used with still more frequency in the sense of possibility as well as in that of necessity.

3. (a.) A participle is often employed, instead of a verb, in a conditional, explanatory, adversative, relative, or other dependent clause; as,

Cūrio, ad focum sedenti (as he was sitting) magnum auri pondus Samnītes attūlērunt. Cic. Trīdui viam progressi, rursus reverterunt; for, quum progressi essenl. Cæs. Dionysius tyrannus, Syrācūsis expulsus, Corinthi pueros docebat, Cic. Dionysius, cultros metuens tonsorios, candenti carbone sibi ădūrēbat căpillum. Id. Risus interdum ita repente erumpit, ut cum cupientis tenere nequeāmus. Id. Ciconia abitūrae congregantur in loco certo. Plin.

Note 1. If the participle refers to a noun not contained in the leading proposition, it is put with that noun in the ablative absolute. See § 257, R. 3.

Note 2. (a.) The English clauses most frequently expressed in Latin by means of participles are such as are connected by relatives or by as, when, after, although, since, because, etc.; as, Nëmo observat linam nisi labbrantem. Sen. Ui boilus, sic animus, se non videns, alia cernit,—though not perceiving itself. Cic. Servilius Ahâla Spüriuns, se non videns, alia cernit,—though not perceiving itself. Cic. Servilius Ahâla Spüriuns, Cic.—(b.) When a participle is connected with a relative or interrogative it can only be translated by a circumlocution; as, Non sunt ea bina dicenda, quibus abundantem licet esse miserrimum,—which one may possess in abundance, and still be very miserable. Cio. Sendus aburdum esse dicebat, ignorare rêgem, quid spērans aut pēlens vēnērit,—with what hope or request he had come. Liv.

- (b.) When two verbs are in English connected by and, and the actions denoted by them are regarded as simultaneous, one of them may be expressed in Latin by the present participle; as, He sits and holds his lute, Ille (Arion) sedens cithéram tènet. Ovid. Simul hoc dicens attollit in agrum se fémur. Virg. i. e. hoc dicit et attollit. But if one of the actions precede the other, the perfect participle must be used; as, Cæsar attacked and defeated the enemy, Cæsar hostes aggressus fügävit. Submersas obrue puppes, i. e. Submerge et obrue. Virg.—When the English clause would be connected by although, the participle is often followed by timen. Later writers in such case join the particles quamquam, quamvis, étiam and vel with the participle itself; as, Cæsārem mūlites, quamvis rēcūsantem ultro in Africam sunt sécūti. Suet.; and these are sometimes retained in the ablative absolute.—It is only in late Latin that participles are sometimes used in describing persons as possessing certain attributes, e. g. adstantes, audientes, for ii qui adstant, audiunt, i. e. the bystanders, hearers.
- (c.) A participle is used with verbs signifying to represent and perceive, especially to see and hear, when the object is described or perceived in a particular state; as, Apelles pinxit Alexandrum Magnum fulmen tenentem. Plin. It English the infinitive is often joined with verbs of seeing and hearing; as, Audiri te canentem, I heard you sing. Audiri te canere, would be, I heard that you sung. Videmus Polyphemum vastā se mõle mõventem. Virg.

Nore 3. In many cases, for want of a perfect participle active, and a present participle passive, this construction cannot be used. Thus, quam ämävisset cannot be exchanged for a participle corresponding with the English having loved. As the perfect participles of deponent verbs, however, have an active signification, they admit of the participles construction. The want of a perfect active participle may also be supplied by the perfect passive participle in the ablative absolute. See § 257, R. 5.

GERUNDS AND GERUNDIVES.

§ 275. I. Gerunds are governed like nouns, and are followed by the same cases as their verbs; as,

Mětus pārendi sībi, Fear of obeying him. Sall. Parcendo victis, By sparing the vanquished. Liv. Efféror stúdio patres vestros videndi, I am transported with a desire of seeing your fathers. Cic. Pětendi consūlātum grātiā. Sall. Vēnit ad rēcīpiendum pēcūnias. Varr.

- REMARK 1. The gerund is the same in form as the oblique cases of the neuter singular of participles in dus, but it has the meaning of the active voice. It is sometimes translated by the present participle with a preposition, and sometimes by a present infinitive active; as, Consilium Lacedamonem occupandi, A design of occupying, or to occupy, Lacedamon. Liv.
- Rem. 2. The gerund is sometimes, though rarely, used in a passive sense; as, Spes restituendi nulla ērai,—of being restored. Nep. Athenas ērūdiendi quātiā quissus,—for the purpose of being instructed. Just. Ante domandum. Virg. Ades ad impērandum. Cic.
- REM. 3. The gerund is in its nature a verbal noun, having only the genitive, dative, ablative, and, after a preposition, the accusative. In its signification it corresponds with the English present participle when used as a verbal noun. Hence, in the oblique cases, it supplies the place of a declinable present infinitive active; but in the accusative there is this difference between the infinitive used as an accusative and the gerund, that the infinitive has simply the power of an abstract noun, whereas the gerund expresses a real action; as, Multun interest inter dare et accipére. Sen. Non solum ad discendum propensi simus, sed étiam ad discendum. Cic.

II. When the *object* of an active verb is to be expressed, the participle in *dus* is commonly used in preference to the gerund; the object taking the case in which the gerund, if used, would have been put, and the participle agreeing with it.

Thus, to express 'the design of writing a letter,' which, with the aid of the gerund, would be represented in Latin by Consilium scribendi ėpistolum, the participle in dus is commonly substituted for the gerund: and since, in this example, the gerund. (scribendi) is in the genitive, the rule requires that, in substituting the participle for the gerund, the object of the gerund (ėpistolum) should also be put in the genitive, and that the participle (scribendus) should agree with it in gender, number, and case. Hence with the participle the expression is, Consilium scribendus ėpistolus. Between the two forms of construction there is no difference of signification. So, Consiliu urbis delendus (Cic.), for urbem delendi, Plans for destroying the city. Repärandärum classium causā (Suet.), for repärandi classes. Perpetiendo läbēri idöneus. Colum. Ad defendendam Romam ab oppugnandā Cipuā düces Romānos abstrūkēre. Liv.

REMARK 1. The same construction is used with the future passive participles of ātor, fruor, fungor, pŏtior, and rarely of mědeor, as these verbs were originally followed by the accusative; as, Ætas ad hæc ūtendā tābnea. Ter. Justitiæ fruendæ causā. Cic. In mūněre fungendo. Id. Hostes in spem pŏtiundorum castrorum věněrant. Cæs. Aquæ sālābritāte mědendisque corpŏribus nōbites. Vell.

REM. 2. When a participle is thus used for a gerund, it is called a gerundive, and is usually translated like a gerund. The gerundive cannot be substituted for the gerund, where ambiguity would arise from the gender not being distinguishable. It should therefore not be used when the object of the gerund is a neuter pronoun or adjective; as, Alfquid fáciendi rátio (Cic.), not àlicūjus. Artem et vēra et falsa dijūdicandi (Id.), not vērōrum dijūdicandorum: because it would not be known whether ālicūjus and vērōrum were masculine or neuter. It is to be remarked, also, that the change of the gerund into the gerundive is less frequent in some writers than in others.

III. Examples of the construction of gerunds, in each of their cases, have been already given, among other nouns, under the heads Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative. The following remarks specify in what connections they are used: and when it is said that the gerundive is governed in any of the cases like the gerund, it will of course be understood of the noun which is limited by a gerundive.

REMARK 1. The genitive of gerunds and gerundives may follow either nouns or relative adjectives; as,

Amor hăbendi. Cic. Patriam spes videndi. Virg. Nam hăbet nātūra, ut ăliārum omnium rērum, sic vivendi modum. Cic. Barbāra consuētūdo hōminum immolandorum. Id. Postrēmo Căttlina dissimulandi causā aut sui expurgandi, in sēnātum vēnit. Sall. Inīta sunt constlia urbis dēlendæ, cīvium trūcīdandōrum, nōminis Rōmāni exstinguendi. Id. Vēnandi stūdiosi. Cic. Certus eundi. Virg. Insuētus nāvīgandi. Cæs. Pērītus cīvītātis rēgendæ. Nep.

(1.) The nouns after which these genitives most frequently occur are amor, ars, causa, consilium, consultado, copia, capiditas, desidérium, difficultas, finis, facultas, forma, grátia, illécebra, libido, locus, licentia, modus, matéria, mos, occasio, otium, potestas, rátio, spátium, spes, studium, tempus, úsus, vénia, vis, voluntas.

Note 1. With these and other substantives the infinitive also may be used, when with a tense of sum they form a periphrasis for a verb which is followed by the infinitive, or supply the place of an adjective of which the infinitive ithe subject; as, Quibus ömnia hönesta atque inhönesta vendere mos ĕrat, With whom it was a custom, or, who were accustomed. Sall. Tempus est äbbre, It is time, i.e. tempestivum est, it is proper to go.

- (2.) The relative adjectives, which most frequently take after them these genitives, are such as denote desire, knowledge, remembrance, and their contraries; as, ăridus, căpidus, stădiosus, pērītus, impērītus, insuētus, certus, conscius, ignārus, rūdīs, etc. See § 213, R. 1, (3.)
 - Note 2. With the relative adjectives the infinitive is also joined poetically.
- (3.) Instead of an accusative after the gerund, or a genitive plural with a gerundive, a noun or pronoun in the genitive plural is sometimes joined with the gerund; as, Exemplorum éligendi pôtestas, instead of exempla éligendi, or, exemplorum éligendirum. Cic. Earum rerum infitiandi ratio. Id. Fácultas agrorum condonandi. Cic. Nominandi istorum érit copia. Plaut.
- (4.) The pronoun tui and also the plurals vestri and sui, even when feminine, are joined with the masculine or neuter form of the gerundive in di; as, Quōniam tui videndi est cōpia. Plaut. Non vēreor, ne quis hoc me vestri adhortandi causā magnif tee lōqui existimet. Liv. In castra vēnērunt sui purgandi causā.—With the demonstrative pronouns, ējus, hūjus, illius, the participle usually agrees, but in two passages of Terence ējus, though referring to a woman, has the participle in di, not in dæ; as, Ego ējus videndi cūpidus rectā consēquor. Ter. Tui in the first example and ējus in the last are feminine.
- (5.) By a Greek idiom the gerund and gerundive, after the verb sum, are sometimes found in the genitive denoting a tendency or purpose, with no noun or adjective on which they can depend; as, Rēgium impērium intio conservandæ libertātis fuērat. Sall. Sometimes esse in some form is to be supplied; as, Que postquam glöriōsa mōdo, nēque belli patrandi cognōzit, scil. esse. Id. Causā or grātiā may sometimes be supplied. In some other cases, also, the word on which the gerund in di depends is not expressed, and the gerund seems to be used instead of the infinitive; as, Māneat prōvinciālībus pōtentiam suam tāli mōdo ostentandi, scil. fācultas. Tac. Quum hābērem in ānimo nāvīgandi, scil. propōsitum. Cic.
- REM. 2. The dative of gerunds and gerundives is used after adjectives which govern a dative (§ 222), especially after those which signify usefulness or fitness; and also after certain verbs and phrases, to denote a purpose; as,

Charta empörètica est inūtilis scribendo. Plin. Căpessendæ reīpūblicæ hăbilis. Tac. Ut nec triumviri accīpiundo, nec scribæ referundo sufficerent. Liv. Locum oppido condendo căpere. Id. Non fuit consilium agrum colendo aut vēnando intentum ætātem ăgere. Sall. Tiberius quăsi firmandæ văletūdini in Campāniam concessit. Tac. Quum solvendo ære ālieno respūblica non esset. Liv. Quum solvendo cīvitātes non essent,—were insolvent. Cic.

- (1.) The verbs and phrases upon which this dative most frequently depends are, Stādēre, intentum esse, tempus impendēre, tempus consūmēre or insūmēre, õpēram dāre, sufficère, sātis esse, deesse, esse, signifying to serve for, to be odequate to, and, in later writers, on verbs of motion.—The dative of the gerund after sum is usually supposed to depend on idōneus understood; but see § 227, R. 3.
- (2.) The dative of the gerundive, denoting a purpose, is also used after names of office; as, Décemirir légibus scribendis, i. e. the ten commissioners for drawing up a code of laws. Liv. So, Cómitia creandis décemviris. Id. Triumtives agro dando creat. Id.
- (3.) A purpose is more commonly expressed by ad and the accusative of the gerund, or by a clause with ut, than by the dative; as, Pēcus ad vescendum hominibus apta. Cic.
- REM. 3. The accusative of gerunds and gerundives follows the prepositions ad, to, or inter, during or amid, and sometimes ante, circa, or ob; as,

Ad pænítendum propérat, qui cito jūdicat. Pub. Syr. Inter bibendum, While drinking. Just. Ad tölérandos fücilius läböres. Quint. Ad castra fücienda. Cic. Ob absolvendum. Id.

Note. The construction of the gerundive instead of the gerund almost invariably occurs here when the object of the gerund is to be expressed.

Rem. 4. The ablative of gerunds and gerundives follows the prepositions a, (ab), de, e, (ex), or in; or it is used without a preposition, as the ablative of cause, manner, or means; as,

Aristotélem non déterruit a scribendo. Cic. Ex assentando. Ter. Non videor a défendendis hōminibus discédère. Cic. Crescit eundo. Virg. Rem quarrunt mercătūris făciendis. Cic. Orătionem Lătinam lègendis nostris efficies pléniôrem. Id.

Note 1. This ablative also occurs, though rarely, after pro and cum; as, Pro vāpūlando. Plaut. Cum lóquendo. Quint.

Note 2. Generally with the ablative of the means, and always with the ablative after a preposition, the gerund, when its object is to be expressed, is changed to the gerundive. In a few passages the ablative of the gerundive is differently construed; as, Nullum officium referenda gratia magis necessarium est, instead of relatione gratice. § 256. Cic. Nec jam possidendis publicis agris contentos esse. § 244. Liv. Is finis fuit ulciscenda Germanici morte,—in avenging the death of Germanicus. Tac.; where the ablative seems to imply time. § 258.

SUPINES.

§ 276. Supines, like gerunds, are verbal nouns, having no other cases except the accusative and ablative singular. In certain connections they supply the place of the present infinitive; the supine in um having an active and the supine in u a passive signification. As in the case of gerunds, we are to regard their construction both as verbs and as nouns. As verbs we are to notice their government, as nouns, their dependence.

I. Supines in um are followed by the same cases as their verbs; as,

Non Grāiis servītum mātrībus ibo, I shall not go to serve Grecian matrons. Virg. $Te\ id\ admonstant venic.$ Plaut.

II. Supines in *um* follow verbs of motion, and serve to denote the *purpose* of the motion; as,

Cũbītum discessimus. Cic. Ire dējectum monumenta rēgis. Hor. Lēgāti vēnērunt questum injūrias, et res rēpētītum. Liv. Quum spectātum lūdos īret. Nep. So after participles; as, Patriam dēfensum rēvocātus. Nep. Spectātum admissi. Hor.

Note. The construction of the supine in um, considered as a noun, is analogous to that of names of places in answer to the question 'whither?' (§ 237), the notion of purpose arising from its verbal character.

REMARK 1. Supines in um sometimes follow verbs which do not express motion; as, Do filiam nuptum. Ter. Vos ultum injūrias hortor. Sall.

REM. 2. The supine in um with eo literally signifies 'I go to do a thing,' and hence 'I intend,' or, 'am going to.' Instances of this use are found in Plautus and Terence and in the prose writers later than Cicero; as, Mea Glycrium, quid ägis? cur te is perditum? Why are you going to destroy yourself? Plaut. Bönörum præmia ereptum eunt. Sall. With eo the supine in um often forms a periphrasis equivalent to the same mood and teuse of the verb from which the

supine is formed; as, Ne bonos omnes perditum eant (Sall.), for perdant. Ereptum eunt (Id.), for éripiunt. Ultum ivit (Tac.), for ultus est. Ultum ire injurias festinat, i. e. ulcisci. Sall.

REM. 3. The supine in um most frequently occurs with the infinitive iri, with which it forms the future infinitive passive; as, Brütum visum iri a me pūto. Cic. In this construction the accusative properly depends upon the supine, and iri is used impersonally; 'I suppose that I am going to see Brutus.' § 184, 2, (a.) Its notion of futurity is derived from the proper signification of the active voice, as perditum iri, to go to destroy, the idea of intending passing easily into that of futurity.

REM. 4. But to express a purpose Latin writers in general prefer using a gerund or gerundive in the accusative with ad or in the genitive with causa or $gr\bar{a}ti\bar{a}$, a subjunctive clause with ut or qui, a present or future active participle, and sometimes poetically an infinitive. See § 275, R. 1, 7 2: §§ 262, 264, 274, and 271.

III. The supine in u is used to limit the meaning of adjectives signifying wonderful, agreeable, easy or difficult, worthy or unworthy, honorable or base, and a few others; as,

Mīrābīle dictu! Wonderful to tell, or to be told! Virg. Jūcundum cognītu atque audītu, Pleasant to be known and heard. Cic. Res factu fācīlis, A thing easy to be done. Ter. Fācīlia inventu. Gell. Incrēdībīle mēmbrātu. Sall. Turpia dictu. Cic. Optimum factu. Id.

Note. The principal supines in u in common use are auditu, cognitu, dictu, factu, intentu, měmorātu and nātu, which occurs in the expressions, grandis, mājor, minor, maximus, and minimus nātu. In magno nātu, of an advanced age, and maximo nātu filius, the eldest son, nātu is the ablative of a verbal substantive, since neither gerunds nor supines are joined with adjectives.

REMARK 1. The principal adjectives, after which the supine in u occurs, are affābilis, arduus, asper, būnus, deformis, dignus, indignus, dulcis, dūrus, fācilis, diffīcilis, fadus, grāvis, hūnestus, horrendus, incrādībīlis, jūcundus, injūcundus, magnus, mēmorābīlis, mollis, proclīvis, putcher, rārus, turpis, and ātīlis.

REM. 2. The supine in u is used also after the nouns fas, nefas, and opus; as, Hoc fas est dictu. Cic. Nefas dictu. Ovid. Dictu opus est. Ter.—In the following examples it follows a verb: Pudet dictu. Tac. Agr. 32. Dictu fastidienda sunt. Val. Max. 9, 13, 2.

Rem. 3. As the supine in u is commonly translated by a passive form, it is placed under the passive voice; but, in many cases, it may with equal or greater propriety be translated actively. As a noun, its construction may be referred to the ablative of limitation. § 250.

REM. 4. (a.) Instead of the supine in u, an infinitive, a gerund or gerundive with ad, or a verbal noun in the ablative, and sometimes in the dative or accusative, may be used; as, $Ardua\ imitatu,\ celerum\ cognosci\ utilia.\ Val.\ Max.$ Illud autem facile ad credendum est. Cic. Opus proscriptione dignum. Plin. Aqua potni jucunda. Id. Facilior ad intellectum atque initationem. Quint. With opus est the perfect passive participle is often used instead of the supine in u; as, Opus est mātūrāto, There is need of haste. Cf. § 243, R. 1.

(b.) The construction with ad and the gerund; as, res fácilis ad intelligendum; or with sum and the infinitive active; as, fácile est invênīre, is used by the best writers after fácilis, difficilis, and jūcundus. The most common construction of dignus is with gui and the subjunctive, (§ 264, 9), but the poets and later prose writers have joined it with the infinitive passive.

ADVERBS.

§ 277. I. Adverbs modify or limit the meaning of verbs, adjectives, and sometimes of other adverbs; as,

Bene mones, You advise well. Ter. Fortissime urgentes, Most vigorously pressing on. Plin. Male narrando. Ter. Longe dissimilis. Cic. Valde bene. Id.

REMARK 1. Adverbs may also modify nouns, when they are used as adjectives or participles, and accordingly denote a quality, or when a participle is understood. They are also joined to adjective pronouns, when their adjective character predominates; and sometimes limit the meaning of a preposition; as, Pópūlus lāte rex, for lāte regnans,—ruling far and wide. Virg. Nihil admódum, Nothing at all. Cic. Hōmo plāne noster,—entirely ours, that is, devoted to us. Id. Homērus plāne ōrātor. Id. Admódum puella. Liv. Lāte týrannus. Hor. Grātībus sūperne ictībus conflictābantur, i. e. sūperne accidentībus. Tac. Multārum circa civitātum, i. e. neighboring cities. Liv.

REM. 2. (a.) Most of the modifications made by adverbs may also be made by means of the various cases of nouns and adjectives, and many modifications may be made by these, for expressing which no adverbs are in use. In general those limitations which are most common can be expressed by adverbs; as, sometime for cum sometime, hic for in hoc loco; bone for in bone mode; nume for hoc tempore.—(b.) The following are examples of other parts of speech used adverbially, viz. Nhil, 'in no way'; nonnthil, 'in some measure'; quidquam, 'at all'; aliquid, 'somewhat'; quid?' why?'

Rem. 3. A negative adverb, modifying another negative word, destroys the negation; as,

Non pārēre noluit, He was not unwilling to obey. Nep. Haud ignāra māli, Not ignorant of evil. Virg. Haud nihil est, It is something. Ter. Nec hoc ille non vidit, And this he clearly perceived. Cic. So, nonnulli, some; nonnumquam, sometimes. Non, before a negative word, commonly heightens the afirmative sense, while it softens the expression; as, Hōmo non indoctus, i. e. hōmo sāne doctus. Non sānel, i. e. sæpius; non ignāro, non nescio, non sum nescius, I know very well. Qui mortem in mālis pōnit, non pōtest eam non timēre,—must needs fear it. Cic.

REM. 4. When the subject and predicate of a proposition are both modified by negative words, and also when the predicate contains two negatives, the proposition is affirmative; as,

Nēmo non videt, Every one sees. Cic. Něque hæc non ēvēnērunt, And this indeed took place. So, if both the antecedent and the predicate of a relative clause are negative, the proposition is affirmative; as, Nēmo est, qui nesciat, Every body knows. Cic.

REM. 5. (a.) But in the case of non followed by ne—quidem, the two negatives do not destroy each other; as, Non fūgio ne hos quidem mōres: and when the negative leading proposition has subordinate subdivisions with nēque—nēque, nēve—nēve, or non—non, these negative particles are equivalent to aut—aut; as, Non me carminibus vincet, nec Orpheus, nec Līnus. Virg. Nēmīnem, non re, non verbo, non vultu dēnque offendi. Cic. Nullius rei nēque præs, nēque manceps factus est. Nep.

(b.) In a few passages, however, two negatives in Latin, as in Greek, strengthen the negation, and this exception appears to have been derived from the language of common life; as, Jūra te non nöcttūram hömīni nēmīni. Plaut.

(c.) Nemo, nullus, nihil, and numquam have a different sense according as the non is placed before or after them; as, Non nemo, some one; nemo non, every one; non nulli, some; nullus non, every non nihil, something; nihil non, every thing; non numquam, sometimes; numquam non, at all times. So, nusquam non, every where, but instead of nonnusquam, alicabi is used.

REM. 6. (a.) Non is sometimes omitted after non modo or non solum, when followed, in a subsequent clause, by ne quidem, if both clauses have the same verb, and if the verb is contained in the second clause; as,

Mihi non modo irasci, sed ne dölere quidem impūne licet, which is equivalent to Mihi non modo non irasci, sed ne dölere quidem impūne licet, or Mihi non modo irasci, sed dölere quidem impūne non licet, Not only am I not permitted to be angry, but not even to grieve with impunity. Cic. Quum senātui non solum jūvāre rempūblicum, sed ne lūgēre quidem licēret. 1d.

(b.) Non is also rarely omitted after non modo when followed by sed or vērum with étiam, and also after vix; as, Qui non modo ea fütüra tinet, vērum étiam fert, sustinetque præsentia, Who not only does not fear.... Cic. Hæc gēnēra virtūtum non solum in moribus nostris, sed vix jam in libris rēpēriuntur, These virtues are not only not found in life, but scarcely in books. Id.

REM. 7. Făcile, in the sense of undoubtedly, clearly, is joined to superlatives, and words of similar import; as, Vir ūnus tōtius Græciæ facile doctissimus. Cic. Hōmo rēgiōnis illius virtūte facile princeps. Id.

Rem. 8. Sentences are often united by means of an adverb which is repeated before each of the connected clauses; as, modo—modo, and nunc—nunc, (sometimes—sometimes); as, Modo hoc, modo illuc dicit; modo huc, modo illuc volat Instead of the second modo other particles of time are sometimes used; as, allquando, nonnunquam, interdum, sepius, tum or deinde.—Partim—partim, 'part-ly—partly,' is sometimes used with a genitive or the preposition ex, in the sense of alii—alii, as a nominative in all the genders; as, Quum partim e nobis ita timidi sunt, ut, etc., partim ita republică āversi, ut, etc.—Simul—simul, 'as well—as,' like nunc—nunc, is not found in Ciero.—Quā—quā is equivalent to et—et.—Tum—tum is used sometimes like modo—modo, sometimes like partim—partim; as Erumpunt sepe vitia âmicorum tum in ipsos âmicos, tum in āliēnos. Cic. Hec (bēnēficia) tum in ūniversam rempūblicam, tum in singūlos cives conféruntur. Id.

Rem. 9. Quum—tum is equivalent to et—et, except in assigning a greater importance to the second part: hence it must be translated by 'both—and especially,' 'not only—but also,' or 'but more particularly.' Sometimes additional weight is given to the second part by means of vēro, certe, ētiam, quōque, præcīpue, imprīmis or maxīme. This use of quum—tum seems to have had its origin in the use of quum with the subjunctive and often with the indicative in the protasis, followed by tum in the apodosis. When quum followed by tum serves to express the opposition between single words which have the same verb, it is to be regarded as a complete adverb; as, Fortūna quum in rētīquis rēbus, tum præcīpue in bello plūrīmum pōtest. Sometimes the verb stants in the first part of the sentence; as, Quum omnis arrōqantia odiosa est, tum illā ingēnii atque ēlōquentiæ multo molestissīma. Tum is sometimes repeated in the second part of the sentence; as, Quem pāter moriens quum tūtorībus et propinquis, tum līgībus, tum æquitāti māgistrātuum, tum jūdīciis vestris commendātum pūtāvit. Cic. Sometimes the gradation is, quum—tum—tum vēro.

REM. 10. Non módo—sed étiam (or non sōlum, or non tantum—vērum étiam) generally expresses the transition from less important to more important things, like the English 'not only—but (also)'. The transition from greater to smaller things is expressed by non módo—sed, without the étiam, which we render in English by 'I will not say—but only,' and in Latin, too, we may say non dīcam or non dīco—sed; as, Quid est ēnim mūnus non dīco ōrātōris, sed hŏmīnis.

REM. 11. Tam-quam expresses a comparison in degree; as, $N\bar{e}mo$ tam multa scripsit, quam multa sunt nostra. With superlatives they are rendered into English by the—the' and comparatives; as, $V\bar{e}tern\bar{o}sus$ quam plūrīmum bibit, tam maxīme sitit. The more he drinks, the more he thirsts. Cato. Quam quisque pessīme fēcit, tam maxīme tūtus est. Sall.—Tam—quam quod maxīme signifies, 'as much as possible.'—Non tam—quam signifies, 'not so much—as,' or 'less—tham'; as, $Pr\bar{v}vincia$ non tam $gr\bar{u}ti\bar{o}sa$ et illustris, quam negotiosa ac molesta. Cic.

REM. 12. Non minus—quam and non magis—quam are equivalent to eque—ac, 'as much as,' but in non magis—quam the greater weight is attached to the affirmative clause beginning with quam; as, Alexander non ducis magis quam

mīlitis mūnia exsēquēbātur, Alexander performed as much the service of a soldier as that of a commander. In this connection plus frequently supplies the place of māqus.

(a.) Sic and tta are demonstrative adverbs corresponding to the relative ut. The restrictive meaning of tta (see § 191, R. 5.), is sometimes made more emphatic by the addition of tamen. Tantus is used in a like restrictive sense; as, Præsidii tantum est, ut ne mūrus quidem cingi possit, i. e. 'only so much.' Cass.

(b.) Ut—ita or sic places sentences on an equality. They may sometimes be translated 'although—still,' or 'indeed—but.'—The adverb ut, 'as,' sometimes takes the signification of the conjunction quod, 'because.'; as, Atque ille, ut semper fut apertissimus, non se purgavit. Cic.

REM. 13. In an enumeration, prīmum, deinde, tum, dēnique are commonly preferred to the numerals, prīmum, sēcundo, (for sēcundum is not often used), tertium, quartum, etc., unless the strict succession of the numbers is required. Sometimes tum is used once or twice instead of deinde, or the series is extended by accēdit, huc adde, etc. Sometimes dēnique is followed by postrēmo to form the conclusion of a series, but often dēnique without the other adverbs concludes a series, and is then equivalent to 'in short' or 'in fine.' See Cic. Cat. 1. 5.

REM. 14. Minus is often used for non; as, Nonnumquam ea, quee prædicta sunt, minus ēvēniunt. Cic.—So, si nūnus—at, 'if not—yet;' and sin nūnus, 'but if not,' without a verb, after a preceding si; but with si non the verb is repeated.—The English 'how little' is in Latin quam non; and 'so little,' ita non or ădeo non; as, ādeo non cūrābat, quid homīnes de se löquĕrentur.

REM. 15. Nunc always expresses the time actually present, or the time to which a narrator transfers himself for the purpose of making his description livelier. Thus in speaking of the present time we may say, Nunc primum somnia me ēlādunt or ēlāsērunt; but in a narrative we must say, Sonmia tunc primum se dīcēbat ēlāsisse. Compare the use of hic and ille. See § 207, R. 23, (c.)

REM. 16. The conjunction dum, 'while,' when added to negatives, becomes an advert, signifying 'yet'; as, nondum, 'not yet'; needum, 'and not yet'; null susdum, 'no one yet'; nihildum, 'nothing yet.' Hence vixdum signifies 'searcely yet'; as, Vixdum épistôlam tuam légèram, quum ad me Curtius vénit. Cic.—So, also, the conjunction nisi, by omitting its verb or uniting it with the leading verb, acquires, after negatives and negative questions, the sense of the adverb 'except,' which is generally expressed by præterquam or the preposition præter, and must be so expressed when no negative precedes. But the expression 'except that' may be rendered either by nisi quod or præterquam quod.—After nihil āliud we may use either nisi or quam, nisi referring to nihil and quam to āliud. Hence nihil āliud nisi signifies 'nothing further,' or 'nothing more,' and nihil āliud quam, 'nothing else,' or 'no other thing but this.'

REM. 17. Ut, 'as,' in interposed clauses, such as ut ŏpinor, ut pūto, ut censeo, ut crēdo, is frequently omitted. Crēdo, used in this manner often takes an ironical sense.

PREPOSITIONS.

- II. 1. See respecting the construction of prepositions with the accusative, § 235; and with the ablative, § 241. See, also, for the different meanings of prepositions, § 195, and for their arrangement, § 279, 10.
- 2. Two prepositions must not be joined in Latin, as they sometimes are in English, with the same noun; as, to speak for and against a law; or, I have learned this with, and, to some extent, from him. These sentences may be thus expressed in Latin; pro lige et contra ligen dicère; hac cum eo, protim ètium ab eo dulici. Those dissyllabic prepositions only, which are sometimes used as adverbs, may follow another, without being joined with a case; as, Quod aut sécundum nâtăram esset, aut contra. Cic. Cis Pâdum ultrâque. Liv Cæsar reverses the order, Intra extrāque mūnitiones. B. Civ. 3, 72.

3. When nouns mutually dependent upon a preposition are in apposition, when they constitute an enumeration without a connective, and when connected by copulative, disjunctive, adversative, or comparative conjunctions, the preposition is not repeated, unless such nouns are to be distinguished from each other, or are emphatic; as,

Quid dicam de thēsauro omnium rērum, měmŏriā? Hoc appāret in bestiis, võluerībus, nantībus, agrestībus, cleūrībus, fēris, ut se ipsæ dīligant. Cis Sæpissīme inter me et Scipionem de āmūctītā dissērēbātur. Id. Quid fūcēres si n álīquam domnm villamve vēnisses? Id. Nihil per īram aut cipidītātem actum est. Id. Thēmistocles non mīnus in rēbus gerendis promptus quam excē-

gitandis erat. Nep.

- 4. The monosyllabic prepositions ab, ad, de, ex, and in are often used before each of two nouns connected by et, etc., especially if the qualities denoted by such nouns are to be considered separately. If the nouns are separated by et—et, nec—nec, etc., the prepositions must be repeated; as, Ut ebrum et in bellicis et in civilibus officiis vigeat industria. Cic.—Inter is frequently repeated by Ciccro after interesse, and other writers repeat it after other verbs also; as, Quid intersit inter philalizem—Civem, et inter constantem, sévérum et grávem. Cic. Certátum inter Ap. Claudium maxime f ev frunt et inter P. Décium. Liv.
- 5. (a.) In poerry a preposition is occasionally omitted with the first of two nouns, and put with the second only; as, Que nembra, aut quos agor in specus, (Hor.) for, in que nembra aut in quos specus agor. So, Hor. Ep. 2, 1, 25.—(b.) An ellipsis of a preposition with the relative pronoun sometimes occurs, together with that of the verb belonging to the preceding demonstrative; as, In eadem opinione fui, qua reliqui omnes, (Cic.), properly in qua reliqui omnes fuerum.

CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 278. Copulative, disjunctive, and other coördinate conjunctions, connect similar constructions.

NOTE 1. Clauses are similarly constructed, which are mutually independent, whose subjects and verbs are in the same case and mood, and which have either no dependence or a similar dependence on another clause.

NOTE 2. (a.) Words have a similar construction, when they stand in the same relation to some other word or words in the sentence. Hence,

(b.) Conjunctions connect the same cases of nouns and pronouns, dependent, if the cases are oblique, upon the same government; the same number, case, and gender of adjectives, belonging to the same noun; the same mood of verbs, either independent, or alike dependent; adverbs qualifying the same verbs, adjectives, etc.; and prepositions on which depends the same noun or pronoun; as, Concidunt venti, fugiunque nābes, The winds subside, and the clouds disperse. Hor. Lōcum, quem et non cōquit sol, et tangit ros. Varr. Lādī dēcem per dies, facti sunt, nēque res ulla prætermissa est. Cic. Vides, ut altā stet nīve candidum Sōracte, nec jam sustīneant ōnus silvæ lābōrantes, gēlaque flūmina constitērint ācūto. Hor. Intelligitis et ānimam ei præsto fuisse, nec constilum dēfuisse. Cic. Gēnēri ānimantium omni est a nātūrā tribūtum, ut se tueātur, dēclinetque en, quæ nōctitūra videantur. Id. Aut nēmo, aut Cāto sāpiens fuit. Id. Pulvis et umbra sāmus. Hor. Sī tu et Tullia vālētis, ēgo et Ciccro vālēms. Cic. Aggère jacto turrībusque constitūtis. Cæs. Clārus et hōnōrātus vir, An illustrious and honorable man. Id. Cæsar Rēmos cōhortātus, libērāliterque ōrātībus prošecātus. Cæs. Pāter tuus, quem cōhi et diexi. Cic. Belgæ spectant in septentriōnem et ōrientem sōlem. Cæs. Nāvībus junctis, rātībusque complūrībus factis. Id. Lēge, vel tābellas redde. Plaut. Allobroges trans Rhōdānum vīcos possessionesque hābēbant. Cæs. Quum triumphum ēgērīs, censorque fūrēris, et ōbieris lēgātus. Id. Quum ad oppīdum accessisset, castrāque tbī pōnēret. Cæs.

Ades animo, et omitte tindrem. Cic. Ea videre ac perspicere potestis. Id. Graviter et copiose dixisse dicitur. Id. Cum fratre an sine. Id. Cf. § 277, II. 2. Cui carmina cordi, nămerosque intendere nervis. Virg. Nec census, nec clărum nomen avorum, sed probitas magnos ingeniumque facit. Ovid. Philosophi negant quemquam virum bonum esse, nisi săpientem. Cie. Gloria virtutem tamquam umbra sequitur. Id.

REMARK 1. Copulative conjunctions may connect either single words and phrases or entire clauses; the other conjunctions, whether coördinate or subordinate, connect clauses only.

REM. 2. Words thus connected are sometimes in different cases, though in the same construction; as, Meā et reīpūblicæ interest. Cic. (See § 219.) Sive es Rome, sive in Epiro. Id. (See §§ 221 and 254. But see also § 221, Note.) In Mettii descendat judicis aures, et patris et nostras. Hor. See § 211, R. 3. In like manner, Hannibal non aliter vinci potuit, quam mora.

REM. 3. As the subjunctive is often used for the imperative, they may be connected by coordinate conjunctions; as, Disce nec invideas. Pers.

REM. 4. Where the purpose of the writer requires it, coordinate conjunctions sometimes connect independent propositions, whose verbs are in different moods; as, Stuporem hominis, vel dicam pecudis, videte. Cic. Nec satis scio, nec, si sciam, dicere ausim. Liv.

REM. 5. Et is used after multi followed by another adjective, where in English 'and' is usually omitted; as, Multa et magna arbores, Many large trees. In such cases et supplies the place of et is, introducing a more accurate description. See § 207, R. 26, (c.)

REM. 6. The conjunction is often omitted; as, (a.) When two single words, as comprehending the whole idea, are opposed to each other, as, vėlim, nolim, whether I would or not; maxima minima, the greatest as well as the least; prima postrēma, from the first to the last; dignos indignos adire; ire redire, to go to and fro. Ædīficiis omnībus pūblicis privātis, sacris profānis sic pēpercit. Cic. Nam gloriam, honorem, impērium bonus ignāvus æque sibi exoptant. Sall. C. 11.

(b.) Et is very frequently omitted between the names of two colleagues; as, Consules declarati sunt Cn. Pompeius M. Crassus. P. Lentulo L. Triario, quastoribus urbanis. Cic. Sometimes, also, when the two persons are not colleagues. It is also occasionally omitted between two words in the oratorical style; as, Adèrant ămici, propinqui. Id.; also with verbs; as, Adsunt, queruntur Sículi. Id. In good prose, if three or more substantives are joined, it is usual either wholly to omit the conjunction or to insert it between each. The following may serve as an example of both cases: Qui non modo Căriis, Cătonibus, Pompeiis, antiquis illis, sed his recentibus, Măriis et Dīdiis et Cæliis commemorandis jăcebant. is also the common practice with adjectives and verbs, and hence when et has not previously occurred in an enumeration of persons or things, we should not conclude the enumeration with et ălii, et reliqui, et cetera, etc., but should make use of the adjectives alone, ălii, reliqui, cetera, etc. But though et, ac and atque are not used alone in the third or fourth place, yet the enclitic que frequently occurs in this position; as, Precor ut ea res vobis pacem, tranquillitatem, ölium, concordiamque afférat. Cic. Et may be supplied also when two protases introduced by si are joined together; where we say 'if—and if,' or 'if—and.' See an example in Cic. Off. 3, 9.

(c.) An ellipsis of ut is supposed when ne precedes and et, atque, or que is used to continue the sentence, those copulative conjunctions in such case obtaining the meaning of the adversative sed; as, Mönere cæpit Porum, ne ultima experiri perseveraret, dederetque se victori. Curt.

Rem. 7. Copulative conjunctions are often used, before each of two or more connected words or clauses, in order to mark the connection more forcibly; as, Et pecunia persuadet, et gratia, et auctoritas dicentis, et dignitas, et postremo aspectus. Quint. Hoc et turpe, nec tamen tutum. Cic. Neque nata est, et aterna est. Id." Et tibi et miki voluptati fore. Id. Before clauses the disjunctive conjunctions are used in a similar manner; as, Res ipsa aut invitābit aut dēhortābitur. Id. So, also, nunc...nunc, simul...simul, partim...partim, quā...quā, tum... tum, quum...tum, are used before successive clauses.

REM. 8. To connect different names of the same person or thing, sive or seu, rather than aut or vel, is employed: as, Mars sive Māvors. Cf. § 198, 2, (c.)

REM. 9. Instead of et and ut with the negatives nëmo, nihil, nullus, and numquam, nëque (or nec), and ne are used with the corresponding affirmative word guisquam, ullus, unaquam, and usquam. But 'in order that no one' is rendered in Latin by ne quis and not by ne quisquam, see § 207, R. 31, (a.); as, Hōra quidem cēdunt, et dies, et menses, et anni: nec prætëritum tempus umquam rëvertitur. Cic. Sënătus dēcrēvit, dărent ôpëram consules, ne quid respublica dētrimenti cāpēret. Cæs.

REM. 10. The conjunctions *igitur*, *vērum*, *vērumtămen*, *sed*, and *sed tămen*, indicate a return to the construction of the leading clause, when it has been disturbed by the insertion of another clause. These conjunctions, in such connection, are usually rendered by 'I say,' and sometimes in Latin *inquam* is so used. *Nam* also is occasionally employed in this way and very rarely *itâque*.

REM 11. Vēro and autem are frequently omitted in adversative clauses, especially in short ones; as, Vincēre scit Hannibul, victōriā ūti nescit. Liv. This omission often occurs in describing a progress from smaller to greater things, as in Cic. Cat. 1, 1. And it is to be remarked that non in the second member of such adversative sentences is used without et or vēro; as, ăliëna vitia videt, *sua non videt. But in unreal suppositions or ironical sentences, where the second member contains the truth, et non or ac non must be used, where we may supply 'rather'; see § 198, 1, (c.); as, Quāsi nunc id āgātur,—ac non hoc quærātur. Cic.

INTERJECTIONS.

Respecting the construction of interjections with the nominative, see § 209, R. 13:—with the dative, § 228, 3:—with the accusative, § 238, 2:—and with the vocative, § 240.

ARRANGEMENT.

I. OF THE WORDS OF A PROPOSITION.

- § 279. 1. In arranging the parts of a proposition in English, after connectives, are placed, first, the subject and the words which modify or limit it; next, the verb and its modifiers; then, the object of the verb; and finally, prepositions and the words depending upon them. This is called the logical or natural order.
- 2. (a.) In Latin, either of the four principal parts of a sentence may be placed first, and there is great freedom in the arrangement of the rest, but with this general restriction in prose, that words which are necessary for the complete expression of a thought should not be separated by the intervention of other words. In ordinary discourse, especially in historical writing, the following general rule for the arrangement of the parts of a sentence is for the most part observed.
- (b.) In a Latin sentence, after connectives, are placed, first, the subject and its modifiers; then, the oblique cases and other words which depend upon or modify the verb; and last of all, the verb.

- (c.) Hence a Latin sentence regularly begins with the subject and ends with the principal verb of its predicate; as, Dumnörix grātiā et largītiöne āpud Sēquānos plārimum pötērat. Cæs. But the verb is often not placed at the end of a sentence, especially if the sentence is long, or if two many verbs would be thus brought together at the end. In the familiar style, also, the verb is often placed earlier in the sentence, and in explanatory clauses it is sometimes placed at the very beginning of the proposition, in which case a conjunction is generally added.
- (d.) It is also to be remarked, as a further modification of the general rule of arrangement, that, in sentences containing the expression of emotion, the word whose emphasis characterizes it as especially affecting the feelings, or as forming a contrast, is placed at the beginning; as, Cito ārescit lacrīma, prossertim in āliēnis mālis, Quickly dries the tear, especially when shed for others' woes. Cic. Sua vitia insipientes et suam culpam in sēnectūtem confērunt. Id.
- (e.) If there be no emotive or pathetic word requiring prominence, the place at the end of the proposition is reserved for the significant word, that is, the word which is to be most strongly impressed upon the understanding or memory; as, Gallia est omnis divisa in partes tres. Cæs. Quod ante id tempus acciderat nunquam. Id. Quod altud iter håberent nullum. Id. Quæ virtus ex providendo est appellāta prūdentia. Cic.
- 3. (a.) Connectives generally stand at the beginning of the clause which they introduce, and with the following this is their only position; viz. et, ĕtĕnim, ac, at, atque, atqui, nĕque or nec, aut, vel, sīve, sīn, sed, nam, vērum, and the relatives quāre, quōcirca, and quamobrem.
- (b.) Most other connectives generally stand in the first place, but when a particular word is peculiarly emphatic, this word with all that belongs to it stands first, and the conjunction follows it. Ut, even when there is no particular emphasis, is commonly placed after vix, pene, and prope, and also after the negatives nullus, nēmo, nihil, and the word tuntum. In Cicero, tuque stands first and igitur is commonly placed after the first, and sometimes after several words.
- (c.) Autem, ěnim, and vēro (but), are placed after the first word of the clause, or after the second, when the first two belong together, or when one of them is the auxiliary verb sum; as, Ille ěnim rěvočatus rěsistěre cæpit. Cæs. Ego vēro vellem, affuisses. Cic. Incrēdibile est ěnim, quam sit, etc. Id. They rarely occur after several words; as, Cur non de integro autem dătum. Id. The enclitics que, ne, ve, are usually subjoined to the first word in a clause; but when a monosyllabic preposition stands at the beginning, they are often attached to its case; as, Rōmum Cito dēmigrāvit, in förōque esse cæpit; and this is always the case with a, ad and ob. So, also, for the sake of euphony, Apud quosque. Cic.
- (d.) Quiden and quòque, when belonging to single words, are always subjoined to the emphatic word in a clause; as, Verbo ille reus èrat, re quiden
 vero Oppianicus. Cic. Me sciücet maxime, sed proxime illum quòque féfellissem. Id. In negative sentences, ne precedes, and quidem follows, the emphatic
 word; as, Ne ad Cătônem quidem prôvôcābo. Cic.— Quidem is sometimes attracted from the word to which it properly belongs to a neighboring pronoun;
 as, Tibique persuade, esse te quidem mihi carissimum, sed multo fôre cariôrem,
 si, etc., instead of, te carissimum quidem mihi esse.—Prepositions and conjunctions belonging to the word on which the emphasis rests are placed with it between ne and quidem; as, Ne in fanis quidem. Cic. Ne si dubuétur quidem. Id.
 Ne quum in Sictlia quidem fuit. Id.; and even Ne cūjus rei arguerētur quidem.—
 So, also, in Cicero, non nīsī, 'only,' are separated; and the negative may even
 be contained in a verb.
- (e.) The preceding rules respecting the position of connectives are often violated by the poets, who place even the prepositive conjunctions after one or more words of a proposition; as, Et tu, potes nam, etc.. Hor. Vivos et rödéret

- ungues. Id. They even separate et from the word belonging to it; as, Audire et videor pios errāre per lūcos. Id. So, Auctius atque dii mēlius fēcēre. Id. And they sometimes append que and re neither to the first word, nor to their proper words in other connections; as, Messallam terrā dum sēquiturque māri, instead of terrā mārīque. Tib. In such arbitrary positions, however, these conjunctions are almost invariably joined to verbs only.
- 4. When a word is repeated in the same clause, so that one is opposed to, or distinguished from, the other, they must stand together; as, Hömines höminibus maxime ütles esse possunt. Cic. Equites älii alio dilapsi sunt. Liv. Lēgitque vīrum vir. Virg. Mānus mānum lāvat. Petr. So, also, the personal and possessive pronouns; as, Sēquēre quo tua te nātūra dūcit. Suum se nēgōtium āgēre dīcunt.
- 5. Words used antithetically are also placed near each other; as, Dum tăcent, clămant. Cic. Frăgile corpus ănimus sempiternus môvet. Id.
- 6. Inquam and often aio, introducing a quotation, follow one or more of the words quoted; as, 'Non nosti quid pater,' inquit, 'Chrysippus dical.' Hor. 'Quid,' aio, 'tua crimina prodis?' Ovid. When a nominative is added to inquit, it usually follows this verb; as, Mihi vero, inquit Cotta, videtur. Cic.—Dicit and dixit are used like inquit only by the poets.
- 7. (a.) The adjective may be placed before or after its noun according as one or the other is emphatic, the more emphatic word being placed before the other. When any thing is dependent on the adjective, it usually follows it noun. When a noun is limited by another noun, as well as by an adjective, the adjective usually precedes both; as, Ulla officii pracepta. Cic. Tuum erga dignitatem meam sidium. Id.
- (b.) Demonstratives, and the adjectives primus, médius, etc., when signifying the first part, the middle part, etc., (see § 205, R. 17), usually precede their nouns; as, Ea res. Cæs His ipsis verbis. Cic. Média nox. Cæs. Réliqua Ægyptus. Cic.
- Monosyllables are usually prefixed to longer words with which they are connected; as, Vir clārissīmus. Cic. Di immortāles. Res innumērābiles. Vis tempestātis. Cæs.
- 9. (a.) When nouns are put in apposition, the one which explains or defines to other is generally put last, unless it is to be made emphatic; as, Opes irritamenta mālūrum. Ovid. Hence names of honors or dignities, and every thing of the nature of a title, are commonly placed after the proper name, as explanatory additions. Thus, especially, the names of changeable Roman dignities; as, Cicéro consul; C. Cūriūni tribūno plēbis; but also permanent appellations; as, Ennius poēta; Plūto phīlosophus; Dionysius tyrannus; and such epithets as vir hōnestissīmus; hōno doctissīmus. But the hereditary title rex is frequently placed before the name; as, rex Dēiōtārus; and so the title Impērātor after it became permanent.
- (b.) In the arrangement of the Roman names of persons, the prenomen stands first, next the nomen or name of the gens, third the cognomen or name of the fămilia, and last the agnomen; as, Publius Cornelius Scipio Africanus. The prænomen is usually denoted by a letter. In the imperial times the nomen is often either omitted or follows as something subordinate.
- 10. (a.) Oblique cases precede the words on which they depend, but they follow prepositions; as,

Populi Romani laus est. Cic. Laudis avīdī, pēcūniæ libērāles. Sall. Cunctis esto bēnignus, nulli blandus, paucis fāmiliāris, omnibus æquus. Sen. Monūmentum ære pērennius. Hor. Hanc tibi dono do. Ter.—Ad mērūliem spectans. Cic. Extra pērīcūlum. Id.

(b.) Genitives depending upon neuter adjectives are commonly placed last; as, Incerta fortune. Liv. Nec tibi plus cordis, sed minus oris inest. Ovid.

REMARK. This rule, so far especially as it relates to genitives, is in a great degree arbitrary, as the position of the governed and governing words depends on the idea to be expressed; thus, mors patris tui, contrasts the death with the preceding life; but, fratris tui mors distinguishes this case of death from others. Hence we say, animi motus, animi norbus, corporis partes, terre notus.—An objective genitive usually follows the word on which it depends; as, una significations literarum, by means of a single notice by letters.—When several genitives are dependent on one noun, the subjective genitive commonly precedes and the objective genitive may either precede or follow the governing noun.—The genitive dependent on causa or grativ, 'on account of,' regularly precedes these ablatives; as, glorie causa mortem obre; emolument sui gratia.

- (c.) When a noun which is governed by a preposition, is modified by other words which precede it, the preposition usually stands before the words by which the noun is modified; as, A primā lūce ad sextam hōram. Liv. Ad ānimi mei letitiam. Cic. Ad bēne beātēque vivendum. Id.
- (d.) Sometimes, however, the preposition comes between its noun and an adjective or a genitive, by which the noun is modified; as, Nullā in re. Cio. Justis de causis. Id. Suos inter æquāles. Id. Hanc ob causam. Id. Magno cum mētu. Id. Quā in urbe. Id. Eā in re. Id. Ætātis suæ cum prīmis. Nep.—So, also, a conjunction may follow the preposition; as, Post vero Sullæ victorium.
- (e.) Per, in adjurations, is often separated from its case by other words; as, Per êgo te deos ôro. Ter.—In the poets, other prepositions are sometimes separated in the same manner; as, Vulnera, quæ circum plurima mūros accēpit patrios. Virg.
- (f.) Thus and versus, and sometimes other prepositions, (cf. § 241, R. 1.) follow their cases, especially when joined with qui or hic. This occurs most frequently with the prepositions ante, contra, inter, and propter; more rarely with circa, circum, pènes, ultra and adversus; and with still less frequency with post, per, ad, and de; as, quam ante, quem contra, quos inter, quem propert, quos ad, quem ultra, hunc adversus, hunc post, quam circa.—The preceding prepositions, and more rarely others also, sometimes, especially in the poets and later prose writers, follow nouns and personal pronouns. In such case, if the noun be modified by an adjective or a genitive, the preposition sometimes stands between them, and sometimes follows both; as, Postes sub ipsos. Virg. Ripam apud Euphrätis. Tac. Maria omnia circum. Virg. And more rarely other words intervene; as, His accensa super. Id. Vittis nēmo sine nascitur Hor.

11. Infinitives precede the verbs on which they depend; as,

Jügurtha, übi eos Africā dēcessisse rătus est, nēque propter löci nātūram Cirtam armis expugnāre possit, mænia circumdat. Sall. Servīre māgis quam impērāre pārāti estis. Id.

- 12. A word which has the same relation to several words, either precedes or follows them all; as, Vir grävis et säpiens. Cic. Clärus et hönörätus vir. Id. In scriptoribus lěgendis et imitandis, or In légendis imitandisque scriptoribus tout not In légendis scriptoribus et imitandis. Quum respondère nêque vellet nêque posset. Häbentur et dicuntur týranni. Amicitiam nec üsu nec ratione häbent cognitam.
- 13. Relatives are commonly placed after their antecedents, and as near to them as possible; as,

Qui sim, ex eo, quem ad te mīsi, cognosces. Sall. Līteras ad te mīsi, per quas grātias tibi ēgi. Cic.

14. Quisque is generally placed after se, suus, qui, ordinals and superlatives; as, Suos quisque debet tueri. Cic. Sătis superque est stbi suarum cuique rerum cura. Id. Severitas animadversionis infimo cuique gratissima. Id. Maxime decet, quod est cujusque maxime suum. Id. Quisque very rarely begins a roposition.

15. (a.) An adverb is usually placed immediately before the word which it qualifies; but if the same word is modified by the oblique case of a noun, the latter commonly follows the adverb; as, Male parta male dilabuntur. Cic. Nihil tam aspērum neque tam difficile esse, quod non cupidissime factūri essent. Sall.—Impérium făcile iis artibus retinetur, quibus intiio partum est. Id. Sed maxime adolescentium fămiliăritătes appetebat. Id. Non tam in bellis et in præliis, quam in promissis et fide firmiorem. Cic.—(b.) When non belongs to a single word of the proposition, it always stands immediately before it; as, non te reprehendo, sed fortunam. But if it belongs to the proposition generally, it stands before the verb, and particularly before the finite verb, if an infinitive depends on it; as, Cur tantopère te angas, intelligère sane non possum. Instead of non dico, nego is generally used; as, negative um adesse.—The negatives non, neque, nemo, nullus, when joined to general negative pronouns or adverbs, such as quisquam, ullus, umquam, always precede them though not always immediately; as, nemini quidquam negavit; non memini me umquam te vidisse. § 207, R. 31.

Note 1. In some phrases, custom has established a certain order, which must be observed and imitated; as, Civis Romānus, populus Romānus, jus civile, æs ălienum, terrā mărique, Pontifex maximus, măgister equitum, tribunus militum, tribunu militum consulari potestate, Jupiter optimus maximus, via Appia; ne quid respublica detrimenti căpiat. Cic. The ablatives opinione, spe, justo, solito, (see § 256, R. 9), generally precede the comparative.

Nors 2. Exceptions to the foregoing principles are very numerous. These may arise (a) from emphasis; (b) from poetic license; and (c) from regard to the harmony of the sentence. The following general rule sometimes modifies nearly all the preceding.

16. The emphatic word is placed before the word or words connected with it which are not emphatic.

Note 3. The last place is often an emphatic one, except for the verb. When the verb is neither first nor last in a proposition the word before it is emphatic. An adjective, when emphatic, commonly precedes its substantive; when not emphatic, it commonly follows it. But with the demonstrative pronouns the rule is reversed.

Note 4. The principal poetical variation in the arrangement of words consists in the separation of the adjective from its noun, and in putting together words from different parts of a proposition.

17. A sentence should not close like a hexameter verse, with a dactyl and spondee; as, Esse videtur; nor, in general, with a monosyllable.

18. Hiātus should be avoided; that is, a word beginning with a vowel should not follow a word ending with a vowel.

19. A concurrence of long words or long measures,—of short words or short measures,-of words beginning alike or ending alike,-should be avoided.

II. OF THE ARRANGEMENT OF CLAUSES.

- § 280. A compound sentence, whose clauses are united as protasis and apodosis, or in which the leading clause is divided by the insertion of one or more subordinate clauses, is called a period.
- 1. (a.) In the former kind of period the protasis must precede the apodosis; us, Quum Pausănias sēmianīmis de templo ēlātus esset, confestim animam efilavit, When Pausanias had been carried out of the temple but just alive, he immediately expired. In a period of the latter kind the verb of the principal proposition is placed at the end, and the subordinate clauses between the parts of the leading clause; as, Pausanias, quum semianimis de templo elatus esset, confestim animam efflavit, Pausanias, when he had been carried out of the temple but just alive, immediately expired. Nep.
- (b.) A sentence, snch as Scipio exercitum in Africam trājēcit, ut Hannibalem ex Itălia deduceret, is not periodic in its structure, but it becomes so when we

- say, Scipio, ut Hannibålem ex Rāliā dēdūcēret, exercitum in Africam trājēcit. Periods in which the subordinate clause precedes with two conjunctions; as, Quum tyitur Römam vēnisset, stātim impērātūrem āditi, are made still more strictly periodic by placing first the conjunction which belongs to the whole, and then inserting the subordinate proposition; as, Itāque, quum Römam vēnisset, stātim impērātūrem āditi.
- 2. (a.) If the verbs of the leading and dependent clauses have the same subject, or the same noun depending on them, they are commonly formed into a period; as, Antigonus, quum adversus Sēleucum Lījsīmāchumque dīmīcāret, in prœlio occīsus est. Nep. Quem, ut barbāri incendium eff ūgisse ēmīnus vīdērunt, tēlis missis interfēcērunt. Id.
- (b.) So, also, when the noun which depends on the verb of the leading clause is the subject of the dependent clause; as, L. Manlio, quum dictātor fuisset, M. Pompōnius, trībūnus plēbis, diem dixit. Cic.
- 3. When obscurity would arise from separating the leading subject and verb by dependent words or clauses, they are often placed together at the beginning or end of the sentence; as, Lātæ (sunt) deinde lēges, non sõlum quæ regni suspicione consülem absolverent, sed quæ adeo in contrarium vertërent, ut põpülärem čitarı fäcërent. Liv. The position of the leading verb is also often otherwise varied, from regard to emphasis, to avoid monotony, or to prevent its meeting with the verb of the last dependent clause; but clauses, when so arranged, do not constitute a period.
- 4. When one clause is interrupted by the introduction of another, the latter should be finished before the first is resumed.
- 5. Clauses expressing a cause, a condition, a time, or a comparison, usually precede the clauses to which they relate.
 - 6. A short clause usually stands before, rather than after, a long one.

III. OF THE CONNECTION OF CLAUSES.

- (1.) In connecting propositions, relatives, whether pronouns, pronominal adjectives, or adverbs, are often employed in order to avoid the too frequent recurrence of et, autem, and certain other conjunctions. Every relative may be used for this purpose instead of its corresponding demonstrative with et; as, qui for et is, qualis for et tālis, quo for et eo, etc. They are used also before those conjunctions which are joined with et or autem at the beginning of a proposition; as, si, nisi, ut, quum, etc. (see § 206, (14.); as, quod quum audivissem, quod si fécissem, quod quamvis non ignorassem, for et quum hoc, et si hoc, et quamvib hoc; or quum autem hoc, etc.; and, often, also, where in English no conjunction is used, and even before other relatives; as, quod qui facit, eum égo impium jūdico, i. e. et qui hoc fácit, or, qui autem hoc fácit. In the ablative with comparatives the relative is often used as a connective; as, Cāto, quo nēmo tum érat prūdentior, i. e. Cato, who was more prudent than all others.
- (2.) In propositions consisting of two members, the relative pronoun is joined grammatically either to the apodosis or to the protasis; with the former in Qui, quum ex eo quærërētur, cur tam diu vellet esse in vītā, Nihil hābeo, inquit, quod accūsem sēnectītem. Cic. de Sen. 6. But is more frequent with the protasis or secondary clause; as, A quo quum quærërētur, quid maxime expédiret, respondit. Cic. Off. 2, 25. When it is thus joined with the protasis, the nominative of the demonstrative is supplied with the apodosis from another case of the relative in the protasis, as, in the preceding passage, from the ablative. But for the sake of emphasis the demonstrative may be expressed, and frequently, also, for the sake of clearness; as, Qui mos quum a postirioribus non esset rētentus, Arcēsīlas eum rēvōcārit. Cic. de Fin. 2, 1. The accusative is sometimes to be supplied; as, Qui (Hērācītus) quōniam intellīgi nīduit, omitāmus. Cic. N. D. 3, 14. When the demonstrative precedes, and is followed by a proposition consisting of two members, the relative is attached to the prota-

- sis, which is placed first, and not to the leading clause or apodosis; as, Ea suāsi Pompeio, quibus ille si pāruisset, Cæsar tantas ôpes, quantas nuac hābet, non hābēret. Cic. Fam. 6, 6. Nōli adversus eos me velle dūcēre, cum quibus ne contra te arma ferrem, Itāliam rētīgui. Nep. Att. 4.
- (3.) Where in English we use 'however' with the relative; as, He promised me many things, which, however, he did not perform, the Latins made use of the demonstrative with sed or vērum, or the relative alone implying the adversative conjunction; as, multa mihi prōmīsit, sed ea non præstītit, or, quæ non præstītit, but not quæ autem or quæ vēro. Qui autem and qui vēro are used however in protases, where the relative retains its relative meaning, and there is a corresponding demonstrative in the apodosis; as, Qui autem omnia bôna a se ipsis pētant, iis nihil mālum vidēri pōtest, quod nātūræ nēcessītas affērat. Cic. de Sen. 2.
- (4.) In double relative clauses, especially where the cases are different, Cicero frequently for the second relative clause substitutes the demonstratives, as, Sed ipsius in mente insidebat species pulchritudinis eximia quaedam, quam intuens, in caque defixus, ad, etc. for et in quā. Cic. Orat. 2. And sometimes even when the cases are the same; as, Quem Phliuntem vēnisse fērunt, eumque tum Leonte dissēruisse quædam. Cic. Tusc. 5, 3; where et alone would have been sufficient.
- (5.) From this tendency to connect sentences by relatives arose the use of quod before certain conjunctions merely as a copulative. See § 206, (14.)
- (6.) Noque or nec is much used by Latin writers instead of et and a negation, and may be so used in all cases except when the negative belongs to one particular word; see § 278, R. 9. Neque or nec is added to enim, vero, and timen, where we cannot use 'and.' To these negative expressions a second negative is often joined, in which case neque enim non is equivalent to nam; non vero non, to atque etiam, a stronger et; nec timen non, to attimen.

ANALYSIS.

- § 281. I. 1. The analysis of a complex or a compound sentence consists in dividing it into its several component propositions, and pointing out their relation to each other.
- 2. In resolving a sentence into its component clauses, the participial constructions equivalent to clauses should be mentioned, and ellipses be supplied. See § 203, 4; § 274, 3; and § 257.
- 3. In a continued discourse the connection and relation of the successive sentences also should be specified.

Rules for the Analysis of Complex and Compound Sentences.

- (1.) State whether the sentence is complex or compound. § 201, 11, 12.
- (2.) If complex, (1) specify the principal and subordinate clauses. (2) Specify the class to which the subordinate proposition belongs, (§ 201, 7), and (3), its connective, and the class to which such connective belongs, (§ 201, 8 and 9.)
- (3.) If compound, specify the principal propositions, with their subordinates, if any they have, as in the case of complex sentences.
- II. The analysis of a proposition or simple sentence consists in distinguishing the subject from the predicate, and, in case either of them be compound, in pointing out the simple subjects or predicates of which it is composed, and, if complex, in specifying the several modifiers, whether of the essential or subordinate parts.

Rules for the Analysis of a Simple Sentence.

- 1. Divi'le it into two parts—the subject and the predicate, § 201, 1--3. If these are simple, the analysis is complete, but if either is compound:—
- 2. Specify the simple subjects or predicates of which the compound consists.—If either is complex:—
- 3. Point out the grammatical subject, and the words, phrases, etc. directly modifying it.
- 4. Point out the words, phrases, etc., which modify the direct modifiers of the grammatical subject, and those which modify them, and so on successively, until the relation of each of the words composing the logical subject is specified.
- 5. Point out the grammatical predicate, and the words, phrases, etc., directly modifying it.
- 6. Point out the words, phrases, etc., which modify the direct modifiers of the grammatical predicate, and those which modify them, and so on successively, until the relation of each of the words composing the logical predicate is specified.

PARSING.

III. Parsing consists in resolving a proposition into the parts of speech of which it is composed, tracing the derivation of each word, and giving the rules of formation and construction applicable to it.

Rules for Parsing.

- 1. Name the part of speech to which each word belongs, including the sub-division in which it is found.
 - 2. If it is an inflected word:-
 - (1.) Name its root or crude form, and decline, compare, or conjugate it.
- (2.) If it is a noun or pronoun, tell its gender, number and case:—if in the nominative or in the accusative with the infinitive, tell its verb:—if in an oblique case depending on some other word, tell the word on which its case depends.
- (3.) If it is an adjective, adjective-pronoun, or participle, tell the word which it modifies.
- (4.) If it is a finite verb or an infinitive with the accusative, tell its voice, mood, tense, number, person, and subject.
 - 3. If it is a conjunction, tell its class and what it connects.
 - 4. If it is a preposition, tell the words whose relation is expressed by it.
 - 5. If it is an adverb, tell its class and what it qualifies.
- Prove the correctness of each step of the process by quoting the definition or rule of formation or construction on which it depends.

NOTE. The words constituting a proposition are most conveniently parsed in that order in which they are arranged in analysis.

Examples of Analysis and Parsing.

1. Equus currit, The horse runs.

Analysis. This is a simple sentence: its subject is equus, its predicate is currit, both of which are simple. See § 201, 1-8; § 202, 2; and § 203, 2.

Parsing. Equus is a common noun, § 26, 1 and 3; of the 2d decl., § 38; rass. gender, § 28, 1; third person, § 35, 2; its root is $\tilde{e}qu$ -, § 40, 10; decline it, § 46; it is in the nominative case, singular number, § 35, 1, (b.); the subject of currit, § 209, (a.)—Currit is a neuter verb, § 141, II.; of the 3d conjugation, § 149, 2, from curro; its principal parts are curro, cucurri, cursum, currére, § 151, 4; it is from the first root curr-; give the formations of that root, § 151, 1; it is in the active voice, § 142, 1; indicative mood, § 143, 1; present tense, § 145, I.; third person, § 147; singular number, § 146; agreeing with its subject-nominative $\tilde{e}quus$, § 209, (b.)

Note. The questions to be asked in parsing equus are such as these, Why is equus a noun? Why a common noun? Why of the second declension? Why musculine? etc.—In parsing currit, the questions are, Why is currit a verb? Why a neuter verb? Why of the third conjugation? Which are the principal parts of a verb? Of what does the first root of a verb consist? What parts of a verb are derived from the first root? etc. The answer in each case may be found by consulting the etymological rules and definitions.

2. Sævius ventis ăgitātur ingens pīnus, The great pine is more violently shaken by the winds. Hor.

Analysis. This also is a simple sentence:—its subject is ingens pinus, its predicate serius ventis ăgitātur; both of which are complex, § 201, 10, § 202, 6, and § 203, 5.

The grammatical subject is pinus, the pine; this is modified by ingens, great,

§ 201, 2, § 202, 2, and § 202, 6, (3.)

The grammatical predicate is *ágitātur*, is shaken; this is modified by two independent modifiers, *sævius*, more violently, and *ventis*, by the winds, § 203, II. 3, Rem., § 203, I. 1, (2), and (3.)

Parsing. Pinus is a common noun, § 26, 1 and 3; of the 2d and 4th declensions, § 38 and § 99; feminine gender, § 29, 2; 3d person, § 35, 2; from the root pin, § 40, 10; (decline it both in the 2d and 4th declensions);—it is found in the singular number, § 35, 1, and the nominative case, the subject of agita-tur, § 209, (a.)

Ingens is a qualifying adjective of quantity, § 104, 4, and § 205, N. 1; of the 3d decl., § 105, 1, and § 38; of one termination, § 108, and § 111; from the root ingent, § 40, 10; (decline it like prosens, § 111, but with only i in the ablative, § 113, Exc. 3,);—it is found in the singular number, feminine gender, § 26. R. 4;

and nominative case, agreeing with its noun pinus, § 205.

Agitātur is an active frequentative verb, § 141, I., and § 187, II. 1; of the 1st conjugation, § 149, 2; from the first root of its primitive āgo, § 187, II. 1, (b.); (name its principal parts in both voices, see § 151, 4; and give the conjugation of the passive voice, indicative mood, present tense, see § 156,);—it is found in the singular number, § 146; third person, § 147; agreeing with its subject-nominative pīnus, § 209, (b.)

Serius is a derivative adverb of 'manner, § 190, 2-4; in the comparative degree, from the positive sære or særiter, which is derived from the adjective særus, § 194, 1 and 2, and § 192, II. 1, and Exc. 1 and 2; modifying the verb

ăgitātur, by expressing its degree, § 277.

Ventis is a common noun, § 20, 1 and 3; of the 2d declension, § 38; masculine gender, § 46; from the root vent-, § 40, 10; (decline it);—it is found in the plural number, § 35, 1; ablative case, modifying ägitātur by denoting its means or instrument, § 247.

3. Mithridātes, duārum et vīginti gentium rex, tötidem linguis jūra dixit, Mithridates, king of twenty-two nations, pronounced judicial decisions in as many languages. Plin.

Analysis. This also is a simple sentence; its subject is Mithridātes, duārum et viginti gentium rex, its predicate is tötidem linguis jūra dixit, both of which are complex, § 201, 10, § 202, 6, and § 203, 5.

The grammatical subject is Mithridates; this is modified directly by rex. § 202, I. (1.)

Rex is limited by gentium, § 202, I. 1, (2.)

Gentium is limited by the compound addition duārum and viginti connected

coordinately by et, § 202, III. 3.

The grammatical predicate is dixit; this is limited by jūra and linguis, the former a simple, the latter a complex addition, as it is modified by totidem § 203, I. 1, (2.) and II. 1.

Parsing. Mithridates is a proper noun, § 26, 2; of the third declension, § 38; masculine gender, § 28, 1; from the root Mithridat-, § 40, 10; genitive Mithridatis, § 73, 1; (decline it in the singular number only, § 95, (a.);—it is found in the nominative case, the subject of dixit, § 209, (a.)

Rex is a common noun—third declension, § 38; masculine gender, § 28, 1; from the root $r\bar{e}g$ -, § 40, 10; genitive $r\bar{e}g$ is, § 78, 2; (decline it);—it is found in the singular number—the nominative case, in apposition to Mithridates, § 204.

Gentium is a common noun from gens—third declension—feminine gender, § 62; from the root gent—, § 56, I, R. 1; genitive gentis, § 77, 2 and (2.); (decline it);—it is found in the plural number—genitive case, § 83, II. 3; limiting rex subjectively, § 211 and R. 2.

Duarum is a numeral adjective, § 104, 5; of the cardinal kind, § 117; from duo, duo, duo, duo, duo, i from the root du, (decline it, § 118, 1,);—it is found in the plural number, § 118, 2; feminine gender, genitive case, § 26, R. 4; agreeing

with its noun gentium, § 205.

Et is a copulative conjunction, § 198, 1, connecting duarum and viginti, § 278. Viginti is a numeral adjective of the cardinal kind, indeclinable, § 118, 1;

limiting gentium, § 205.

Dixit is an active verb, § 141, I.; of the third conjugation, § 149, 2; from dico, (give the principal parts in the active voice, and its first, second, and third roots, § 150, 4, and § 171, 1;) it is formed from the second root dix-, (give the formations of the second root);—it is found in the active voice, § 141, 1; indicative mood, § 143, 1; perfect indefinite tense, § 145, IV. and Rem.; singular number, third person, agreeing with Mithridates, § 209, (b.)

Jūra is a common noun, of the third declension, from jus, root jūr-, § 56, I. R. 1. genitive jūris, § 76, Exc. 3; neuter gender, § 66; (decline it);—it is found in the plural number, accusative case, § 40, 8; the object of dixit, § 229.

Linquis is a common noun, of the first declension, feminine gender, from lingua, root lingu-, (decline it);—found in the plural number, ablative case, after dixit. § 247.

Tötidem is a demonstrative pronominal adjective, § 139, 5, (2.) and (3.); indeclinable, § 115, 4; it is in the ablative plural, feminine gender, limiting lin-

guis, § 205.

4. Pausănus, quum semiănimis de templo elatus esset, confestim ănimam efflāvit. Nep. Paus. 4.

Analysis. This is a complex sentence, § 201, 11; consisting of two members, which are so arranged as to constitute a period, § 280, 1.

The principal proposition is, Pausanias confestim animam efflavit, § 201, 5. The subordinate proposition is, quum (is) semianimis de templo élatus esset,

§ 201, 6.

The leading proposition has a simple subject, Pausanias, § 202, 2, and a complex predicate, confestim animam efflavit, § 203, 3; in which efflavit is the grammatical predicate, § 203, 2; which is modified by confestim and animum, § 203, I. 1, (2.) and (3.), and H. R. 2., and also by the adverbial clause quum sēmiānimis, etc. § 201, 6 and 7, and § 203, I. 3.

The subordinate proposition, which is connected to the leading clause by the subordinate conjunction quum, § 201, 9, has a simple subject, viz. is understood, and a complex predicate, semidinimis, de templo élatus esset, § 203, 3.— The grammatical predicate is élatus esset, § 203, 2; which is modified by sémidinimis, § 203, I. 1, (1.), and de templo, § 203, I. 2, and II. Rem. 2.

Parsing. Pausanias, a Greek proper noun, § 26, 2;—1st decl., §§ 41 and 44; masc. gender, § 28, 1; root Pausani-; found in sing. num., nom. case, the subject of efflavit, § 209, (a.)

Confestim, an adv. of time § 190, 3; limiting efflavit, § 277.

Animam is a com. noun of 1st decl., fem. gender, § 41; from anima, roct dnim-; (decline it);-it is found in the sing. num., acc. case, the object of

Efflavit, an act. verb, 1st conj., from efflo, comport nded of ex and flo, § 196, 6; (give the principal parts in the act. voice and the three roots); -- it is formed from the second root; (give the formations of that root); in the active voice, ind. mood, perfect indefinite tense, sing. num., 3d pers., agreeing with Pausanias, § 209, (b.)

Quum is a temporal conjunction, § 198, 10; connecting the dependent to the

principal clause, § 278.

Semidatimis is a predicate adj., of the 3d decl., of two terminations, § 109; (decline it); -it is in the sing. num., masc. gend., nom. case, agreeing with is understood, § 210, R. 1, (a.)

De is a preposition, expressing the relation between ēlātus esset and templo.

§ 195.

Templo is a com. noun, 2d decl., neut. gend., from templum, root templ-; (decline it);—in the sing. num., abl. case, after de, § 241.

Elūtus esset is an irregular active verb, of the third conjugation, § 179; from effero, compounded of ex and fero, § 196, 6; (see fero and compounds, § 172); (give the principal parts in both voices, and the 1st and 3d roots);—it is formed from the third root, elat-, (give the formations of that root in the passive voice); in the subjunctive mood, pluperfect tense, § 145, V.; sing. num., third person, agreeing with is understood referring to Pausanias, § 209, (b.)

5. Romāna pūbes, sēdāto tandem păvore, postquam ex tam turbīdo die serena et tranquilla lux rediit, übi văcuam sedem regiam vidit, etsi sătis crēdēbat patrībus, qui proximi stětěrant, sublimem raptum procellā; tamen, vēlut orbitātis mētu icta, mæstum alīguamdiu silentium obtinuit. Liv. 1, 16.

Analysis. This is a complex sentence, whose clauses constitute a period, § 280. It is composed of the following members or clauses:-

1. Romana pubes [tamen] mastum aliquamdiu stlentium obtinuit. This is the eading clause. The following are dependent clauses.

2. vělut orbitātis mětu icta,

- 3. sēdāto tandem pāvore,
- 4. postquam ex tam turbido die serena et tranquilla lux rediit,
- 5. ubi vacuam sēdem rēgiam vidit, 6. etsi sătis credebat patribus,
- 7. qui proximi stětěrant,
- sublimem raptum procellā.

Note 1. In the preceding clauses the predicates are printed in Italics.

Note 2. The connective of the 1st clause, is the adversative tamen, which is inserted on account of etsi intervening between the principal subject and predicate. The connective of the 2d clause is vělut, of the 4th postquam, of the 5th ubi, of the 6th etsi, followed by a clause constituting the protasis, and of the 7th qui. The 3d and 8th clauses have no connectives.

(1.) The grammatical subject of the leading clause is pubes, which is limited by Romana.—The grammatical predicate is obtinuit, which is limited by aliquamdiu and silentium, and also either directly or indirectly by all the dependent clauses. Silentium is itself modified by mæstum.

The second, third, fourth, fifth, and sixth clauses are used adverbially to denote the time and other circumstances modifying the principal predicate

silentium obtinuit, § 201, 7.

(2.) The second is a participial clause, equivalent to vělut (ea scil. pūbes)

prbitātis mētu icta esset, § 274, 3, (a.)

(3.) The third clause is also participial, and is equivalent to quam tandem pavor sēdātus esset, § 257, R. 1; and hence pavore represents the subject, and sedato tandem the predicate—the former being simple, the latter complex.

(4.) The grammatical subject of the 4th clause, which is connected to the leading clause by postquam, § 201, 9, is lux, which is modified by sêrêna and tranquilla.—The grammatical predicate is rédit, which is modified by postquam and ex tam turbido die, § 203, I. 1, (3.), and II: 1.

(5.) The grammatical subject of the fifth clause is ea understood.—The

grammatical predicate is vidit, which is modified by ubi and vacuum sedem regiam, § 203, I. 1, (3.) and II. 1.

(6.) The grammatical subject of the sixth clause also is ea. Its grammatical subject of the sixth clause also is ea.

cal predicate is crēdēbat, which is modified by sătis and patribus, § 203, I. (2.) and (3.), and by the 8th clause, II. 3.

(7.) The grammatical subject of the seventh clause is qui. Its grammatical

predicate is sititirant, which is modified by proximi, § 203, I. (1.) It is an adjective clause, modifying patribus, § 201, 7 and 9.

(8.) The grammatical subject of the eighth clause, which has no connective, § 202, Rem., is eum, i. e. Römülum, understood. Its grammatical predicate is raptum (esse), which is modified by sublimem and procella.

Parsing. Romana is a patrial adjective, § 104, 10, derived from Roma, § 128, 6, (a.) and (e.); of the 1st and 2d declensions, § 105, 2; fem. gender, sing. number, nom. case, agreeing with pubes, § 205.

Fabes, a collective noun, § 26, 4; 3d decl., fem. gender, § 62; from the root $p\bar{u}b$., § 56, I. R. 6; genitive $p\bar{u}b$ is, § 73, 1; (decline it);—found in the nomsing., the subject of obtinuit, § 209, (a.)

Timen, an adversative conjunction, § 198, 9, relating to etsi in the 6th clause.

Massium, a qualifying adj., § 205, N. 1; of the 1st and 2d declensions, neut. gender, sing. num., acc. case, agreeing with silentium.

Aliquandiu, an adverb of time, § 191, II.; compounded of aliquis and diu,

§ 193, 6; and limiting obtinuit, § 277.

Silentium, a com. noun, 2d decl., neut. gender, § 46; sing. number, acc. case,

the object of obtinuit, § 229.

Obtinuit, an active verb, of the 2d conj., § 149, 2; from obtineo, compounded of ob and teneo, see § 168; (give the principal parts in the act. voice, and the formations of the 2d root, § 157 at the end);—found in the active voice, ind. mood, perf. indef. tense, sing. num., 3d person, agreeing with pubes, § 209, (b.)

Vělut for vělut si, an adverb, compounded of vel and ut, §193, 10; modifying

ictu, and obtinuisset understood, (as they would have done if, etc.)

Orbitātis, an abstract noun, § 26, 5; from the primitive orbus, § 101, 1 and 2;

3d decl., fem. gender, § 62; from the root orbitāt-, § 56, I., and R. I.; (decline it);—found in the sing. num., subjective gen. case, limiting mētu, § 21; Mětu, an abstract noun, 4th decl., masc. gen., § 87; sing. num., abl. case,

Icta, a perf. part. pass., from the active verb ico, of the 3d conj. (give the principal parts in both voices, and decline the participle);—found in the fem. gen., sing. num., nom. case, agreeing with pubes, § 205.

Sedāto, a perfect pass. part. from the active verb sedo, of the 1st conj., § 149, 2; (give the principal parts in both voices, § 151, 4; and decline it, R. 2.);—found in the masc. gender, sing. num., abl. case, agreeing with pavore, § 205.

Tindem, an adverb of time, § 191, II.; modifying sēdāto, § 277.

Püröre, an abstract noun, § 26, 5, and § 102, 1; (from pāveo), 3d decl., masc. gen., § 58; root pāvor, § 56, II., and § 70, (decline it);—found in the sing number, abl. case, absolute with sēdāto, § 257.

Postquam, an adverb of time, compounded of post and quam, § 193, 10; mod-

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ifying rediil, and connecting the 1st and 4th clauses, § 201, 9.

Ex, a preposition, § 195, R. 2.

Tum, an adverb of degree, § 191, R. 2; modifying turbido, § 277.

Turbido, an adjective, agreeing with die.

Die, a common noun, 5th decl., masc. gender, \ 90, Exc. 1.; sing. number,

abl. case, after the prep. ex, § 241.

Serena, an adj., 1st and 2d decls., fem. gen., sing. num., nom. case, agreeing with lux, \ 205.

Et, a copulative conjunction, § 198, 1; connecting serena and tranquilla, 6 278.

Tranquilla, like sĕrēna.

Lux, a common noun, 3d decl., fem. gen., § 62; from the root luc-, § 56, I.,

and R. 2; genitive lūcis, § 78, 2.

Rédiit, an irregular neuter verb, of the 4th conj., § 176; from rédeo, compounded of eo, § 182, and the inseparable prep. red, § 196, (b.), 3; (give its principal parts);—found in the ind. mood., perf. indef. tense, sing. num., 3d pers., agreeing with lux, § 209, (b.)
Ubi, an adverb of time, and like postquam, a connective, § 201, 9; and modi-

fying vidit, § 277.

Vācuam, an adj., qualifying sēdem.

Sedem, a common noun, 3d decl., fem. gen., § 62; from the root sed-, § 56, I., R. 6; genitive sedis, § 73, 1; (decline it);—found in the sing. num., acc. case, the object of the transitive verb vidit, § 229.

Regiam, a denominative adj., § 128, I., 2, (a.); from the primitive rex, agree-

ing with sedem.

Vidit, an active verb, of the 2d conj., (give its principal parts in the active voice, and the formations of the 2d root); found in the active voice, ind. mood, perf. indef. tense, sing. num., 3d pers., agreeing with ea, i. e. pubes, under-

Etsi, a concessive conjunction, § 198, 4; corresponding to the correlative ad-

versative conj. tamen, § 198, 4, R. and 9.

Sătis, an adverb of degree, § 191, III., and R. 2; modifying crēdēbat, § 277. Crēdēbat, an act. verb, § 141, I.; 3d conj., (give the principal parts in the active voice and the formations of the 1st root); -found in the act. voice, ind. mood, imperfect tense, sing. num., 3d person, agreeing with ea, scil. pubes, understood.

Patribus, a common noun, § 26, 3; 3d decl., from the root patr-, § 56, II., R. 3; gen. patris, § 71; masc. gender, § 28, 1; plur. num., dat. case, depending on crēdēbat, § 223, R. 2.

Qui, the subject of the 7th clause, is a relative pronoun, § 136; masc. gender, plur. num., agreeing with its antecedent patribus, § 206, R. 19, (a.); and is nominative to stětěrant, § 209, (a.)

Proximi, an adj. of the superlative degree, § 126, 1, (compare it); of the 1st and 2d decis., masc. gen., plur. num., nom. case, agreeing with qui, § 205, § 210, R. 1, (a.) and R. 3, (2.)

Stětěrant, a neuter verb, 1st conj., irregular in its 2d root, § 165; (give its principal parts, and the formations of the 2d root);—found in the act. voice, ind. mood, plup. tense, § 145, V.; 3d person plural, agreeing with its subject qui, § 209, (b.)

Sublimem, an adj., of the 3d decl., and two terminations, § 139; masc. gen. sing. num., acc. case, agreeing with eum, (i. e. Romalum,) understood, and

modifying also raptum esse, § 205, R. 15.

Raptum (esse), an act. verb, 3d conj.; (give the principal parts in both voices and the formations of the 3d root in the passive voice)—found in the pass. voice, inf. mood, perf. tense; but, following the imperfect, it has the meaning of a pluperfect, § 268, 2, and § 145, V.; depending on crēdēbat, § 272. Procellā, a com. noun, 1st decl., fem. gen., sing. num., abl. case, § 247.

PROSODY.

§ 282. Prosody treats of the quantity of syllables, and the laws of versification.

QUANTITY.

- 1. The quantity of a syllable is the relative time occupied in pronouncing it. Cf. § 13.
 - 2. A syllable is either short, long, or common.
- (a.) The time occupied in pronouncing a short syllable is called a mora or time.
- (b.) A long syllable requires two more or double the time occupied in pronouncing a short one; as, amare.
- (c.) A common syllable is one which, in poetry, may be made either long or short; as the middle syllable of tenebræ.
- 3. The quantity of a syllable is either natural or accidental; natural, when it depends on the nature of its vowel; accidental, when it depends on its position.

Thus the e in resisto is short by nature; while in restiti it is long by its position, since it is followed by two consonants: § 283, IV. On the contrary, the e in deduco is naturally long, but in deerro it is made short by being placed before a vowel: § 283, I.

4. The quantity of syllables is determined either by certain established rules, or by the authority of the poets.

Thus it is poetic usage alone that determines the quantity of the first syllables of the following words, viz. māter, frāter, prāvus, dico, dūco; pāter, āvus, cādo, māneo, grāvis, etc.; and hence the quantity of such syllables can be ascertained by practice only or by consulting the gradus or lexicon.

5. The rules of quantity are either general or special. The former apply alike to all the syllables of a word, the latter to particular syllables.

GENERAL RULES.

§ 283. I. (a.) A vowel before another vowel, or a diphthong, is short; as, e in meus, i in patriæ. Thus,

> Conscia mens recti famme mendācia rīdet. Ovid. F. 4, 311. Ipse ětiam eximiæ laudis succensus amôre. Virg. A. 7, 496.

(b.) So also when h comes between the vowels, since h is accounted only a breathing; as, nihil: (see § 2, 6.) Thus,

De nihilo nihil, in nihilum nil posse reverti. Pers. 4, 84.

Exc. 1. (a.) Fio has the i long, except in $f\bar{u}$ and when followed by er; as fiunt, fiblam. Thus,

Omnia jam fāant, fīēri quæ posse negābam. Ovid. Tr. 1, 8, 7.

- (b.) It is sometimes found long even before er; as, fi'eret. Ter.; fi'eri. Plaut: and, on the contrary, Prudentius has fi'o with i short.
- Exc. 2. (a.) E is long in the termination of the genitive and dative of the fifth declension, when preceded and followed by i; as, făciēi. Thus,

Non rădii solis, neque lucida tela diei. Lucr. 1, 148.

(b.) In spei, rei, and fidei, e is short.

NOTE. In Lucretius, the e of rei is, in a few cases, long, and that of fides is lengthened once in Lucretius and once in a line of Ennius.

Exc. 3. (a.) A is long in the penult of old genitives in $a\bar{\imath}$ of the first declension; as, $aul\bar{\alpha}\bar{\imath}$, $pict\bar{\alpha}\bar{\imath}$. Cf. § 43, 1.

(b.) A and e are also long in proper names in āτus, ēτus, or ēτa; as, Cāτus, Pompēτus, Aquilēτa; and in the adjectives Grāτus and Vēτus. Thus,

Ætherium sensum, atque aurāi simplīcis ignem. Virg. A. 6, 747. Accīpe, Pompēi, deductum carmen ab illo. Ovid. Pont. 4, 1, 1. Necnon cum Vēnētis Aguilēia perfūrit armis. Sil. 8, 606.

Exc. 4. (a.) I is common in genitives in ius; as, $\bar{u}n\bar{t}us$, $ill\bar{t}us$. Thus,

Illius et nitido stillent unguenta căpillo. Tibull, 1, 7, 51. Illius puro destillent tempora nardo. Id. 2, 2, 7.

- (b.) But i in the genitive of alter is commonly short; and in that of alius it is always long.
- Exc. 5. The first vowel of $\bar{e}heu$ is long; that of $D\bar{t}\bar{a}na$, $\bar{t}o$, and $\bar{o}he$, is common.

Exc. 6. Greek words retain their original quantities, and hence, in many *Greek* words, a vowel is long, though immediately followed by another vowel; as,

āēr, Achāta, Achēlōās, dīa, ēos, Lāertes, and Greek words having in the original a long e or o (n or a.) See also § 293, 3.

(1.) Words which, in Greek, are written with ei(u) before a vowel, and in Latin with a single e or i, have the e or i long; as, $\pounds neas$, Alexandria, Cussio-pea, Clio, Dārius, elegia, Galdida, Medes, Maussbleum, Pēnelbopa, Thálin, Atrides. Hence, most adjectives in eus, formed from Greek proper names, have the e

Hence, most adjectives in eus, formed from Greek proper names, have the e long; as, Cýthěrčus, Pělópčus; and the e remains long when et is restored; as, Pělópčia.

Exc. Académia, chorea, Malea, platea, and some patronymics and patrials in ets; as, Nérets, have the penult common.

- (2.) Greek genitives in eos, and accusatives in ea, from nominatives in eus, generally shorten the e; as, Orphéos, Orphéa;—but the e is sometimes lengthened by the Ionic dialect; as, Céphéos, Iliónéa.
- (3.) Greek words in ais, ois, aius, eius, oius, aon, and ion, generally lengthen the first rowel; as, Nāis, Minōis, Grātus, Nērētus, Mīnōius, Máchāon, Ixion. But Thēbāis, Simōis, Phāon, Deucālion, Pygmālion, and many others, shorten the former rowel.
- NOTE 1. Greek words in aon and ion, with o short in the genitive, have the penult long; but with o long in the genitive, they have it short; as, Amythāon, -āonis; Deucition, -ōnis.

NOTE 2. In Greek proper names in eus (gen. eos), as Orpheus, the eu in the nominative is always a diphthong in the original, and, with very few exceptions, in the Latin poets.

II. A diphthong is long; as, $\overline{au}rum$, $f\overline{w}nus$, $\overline{Eub}\overline{w}a$, $Pom-p\overline{v}us$, $Orph\overline{v}u$. Thus,

Infernīque lăcus, Ēvāque insūla Circæ. Virg. A. 3, 386. Thēsāuros ignātum argenti pondus et āuri. Id. A. 1, 359. Harpyiāque cölunt āliē, Phīnēja postquam. Id. A. 3, 212.

Exc. 1. Præ, in composition, is short before a vowel; as, prœustus, prœucus. Thus,

Nec tôtā tămen ille prior prœeunte carīnā. Virg. A. 5, 186.

In Statius, and Sidonius Apollinaris, it is found long.

Exc. 2. A diphthong at the end of a word, when the next word begins with a vowel, is sometimes made short; as,

Instité Ionio in magno, quas dira Célæno. Virg. A. 3, 211.

Exc. 3. The diphthongs consisting of u followed by a vowel are either long or short; the two vowels thus combined being subject to the same rules of quantity, as their final vowel would be if standing alone; as, quā, qui, quōrum, quia, quibus, quátio, quēror, æquōr, linguā, sanguīs.

III. A syllable formed by contraction is long; as, ălius for aliius; cōgo for còōgo; nil for nihil; jūnior for jūvēnior. Thus, Titšre cōge pēcus, tu post cārecta lātēbas. Virg. E. 3, 20.

IV. A vowel naturally short, before two consonants, a double consonant, or the letter j, is long by position; as, ārma, bēllum, āxis, gāza, mājor. Thus,

Pāscēre öpūrtet öves dēdūctum dicēre cārmen. Virg. E. 6, 5. Nēc myrtūs vincet cörjios ; nēc laurea Phoebi. Id. E. 7, 64. At nobis, Paz alma, vēni, spīcamque tēnēto. Tibuli. 1, 10, 67. Răra jūvant: prīmis sic mājor grātia pōmis. Mart. 4, 29, 3.

NOTE 1. A vowel (other than i) before j is in reality lengthened by forming a diphthong with it, since i and j are in fact but one letter. Thus major is equivalent to mai-or, which would be pronounced $m\tilde{\alpha}$ -yor. See § 9, 1.

Exc. 1. The compounds of $j\ddot{u}gum$ have i short before j; as, $b\ddot{u}j\ddot{u}gus$, $qu\ddot{u}dr\ddot{u}j\ddot{u}gus$. Thus,

Interea bijugis infert se Lucagus albis. Virg. A. 10, 575.

REMARK. The vowel is long by position, when either one or both of the consonants is in the same word with it; but when both stand at the beginning of the following word, the vowel is either long or short; as,

Tolle mŏras; sempēr nŏcuīt differre părātis. Lucan. 1, 281. Ferte cīti ferrūm; dăte tēlā; scandite mūros. Virg. A. 9, 37. Ne tămen ignōrēt, quæ sīt sententiā scripto. Ovid.

Note 2. A short vowel at the end of a word, before an initial double consonant or j in the following word, is not lengthened.

NOTE 3. In the comic poets a vowel frequently remains short though followed by two consonants, especially if only one of them is in the same word.

Exc. 2. A vowel naturally short, before a mute followed by a liquid, is common; as, ăgris, phăretra, vòlucris, poplites, cochlea. Thus,

Et prīmo sīmīlis völücri, mox vēra völücris. Ovid. M. 13. 607. Nātum ante öra pūtris, pūtrem qui obtruncat ad āras. Virg. A. 2, 663. Nox tēnēbras profert. Phoebus fügat inde tēnēbras. Ovid.

REM. 1. If the vowel before a mute and liquid is naturally long, it continues so; as, sălūbris, ambūlācrum.

REM. 2. In compound words, of which the former part ends with a mute, and the latter begins with a liquid, a short vowel before the mute is made long by position; as, ābluo, ōbruo, sūblēvo, quamōbrem.

REM. 3. A mute and liquid at the beginning of a word seldom lengthen the short vowel of the preceding word, except in the arsis of a foot; as,

Terrasque tractusque maris cœlumque profundum. Virg. E. 4, 51.

REM. 4. In Latin words, only the liquids l and r following a mute render the preceding short vowel common; but, in words of Greek origin, m and n after a mute have the same effect, as in Tecmessa, Procne, Cycnus.

SPECIAL RULES.

FIRST AND MIDDLE SYLLABLES.

I. DERIVATIVE WORDS.

§ 284. Derivative words retain the quantity of their primitives; as,

by conjugation, amo, amat, amābat, amāvi, amātus, etc.; by declension, amor, amōris, amōri, amōribus, etc.; so, anīmal, anīmātus, from anīma; gemebundus, from gemere; familia, from famūlus; maternus, from mater; própinquus, from pròpe.

Note 1. Lār, pār, sāl, and pēs in declension shorten the vowel of the nominative; as, sālis, pēdīs, etc.

NOTE 2. The vowel of the primitive is sometimes lengthened or shortened in the derivative by the addition or removal of a consonant.

Rem. 1. Derivatives from increasing nouns of the second or third declension agree in quantity with the increment of their primitives; as.

pueritia, from pueri; virgineus, from virginis; sălūber, from sălūtis.

REM. 2. In verbs, the vowels of the derived tenses and of derivative words agree in quantity with the verbal root from which they are formed; as,

movēbam, movēbo, moveam, movērem, move, movēre, movens, movendus, from mov, the root of the present, with o short;—movēram, movērim, movissem, movēro, movisse, from mov, the root of the perfect, with o long; moturus and motus;—moto, motio, motor, and motus,—ūs, from mot, the root of the supine, with o also long.

REM. 3. (a.) Sölütum and völütum from solvo and volvo have the first syllable short, as if from söluo, völuo. So, from gigno come genui, genitum, as if from geno; and pötui, from pötis sum (possum).

- (b.) The a in da, imperative of do, is long, though short in other parts of the verb. See § 294, 2.
 - (c.) The o in posui and positum is short, though long in pono.
- Exc. 1. Perfects and supines of two syllables have the first syllable long, even when that of the present is short; as,

vēni, vidi, fēci, from věnio, video, făcio; cāsum, mõtum, vīsum, from cădo, mõveo, video.

Note 3. Such perfects are supposed to have been formed either by the contraction of reduplicated syllables, as věnio, perf. věvěni, by syncope věčni, by crasis vēni, or by the omission of a consonant, as video, perf. vidsi, by syncope vidi, the vowel retaining the quantity which it had by position.

Note 4. The long vowel of dissyllabic supines probably arose in like manner from syncope and contraction; as, video, vidsum, by syncope vīsum; moreo,

mövitum, by syncope möitum, by contraction mōtum.

- (1.) (a.) These seven perfects have the first syllable short:—bībi, dĕdi, fĭdi, (from findo), scĭdi, stĕti, stĭti, tĭdi. So also percĭdi, from percello.
 - (b.) The first syllable is also short before a vowel (§ 283, I.); as, rui.
- (2.) (a.) These ten supines have the first syllable short:—cītum, trom cieo), dătum, ttum, lītum, quitum, rātum, rūtum, sātum, sītum, and stātum.

(b.) So, also, had the obsolete fătum, from făŏ, whence comes fătūrus.

Exc. 2. (a.) Reduplicated polysyllabic perfects have the first two syllables short; as,

cēcidi, cěcini, tětigi, didici, from cădo, căno, tango, and disco.

(b.) The second syllable of reduplicated perfects is sometimes made long by position; as, momordi, tētēndi.—Cēcīdi from cædo, and pēpēdi from pēdo, retaining the quantity of their first root also have the second syllable long.

Exc. 3. Desiderative verbs in urio have the u short, though, in the third root of the verbs from which they are formed, it is long; as, canātūrio from canātū, the third root of cano. So partūrio, ēsūrio, nuptūrio.

Exc. 4. Frequentative verbs, formed from the third root of verbs of the first conjugation, have the i short; as, clāmito, völito. See § 187, II. 1.

Exc. 5. A few other derivatives deviate from the quantity of their primitives.

1. Some have a long vowel from a short one in the primitive. Such are,

Dēni, from děcem.
Fōmes and } from
Fōmentum, f föveo.
Hūmānus, from hŏmo.
Lāterna, from lateo,
Lītera from lino.
Lex (lēgis), from lēgo.

Möbilis, from möveo. Persöna, from persöno. Rēgŭla and \ from Rex (rēgis), \ règo. Sēcius, from sēcus. Sēdes, from sēdeo. Sēmen, from sèro. Stīpendium, from stips (stīpis). Suspīcio, ōnis, from suspicor. Tēgūla, from tĕgo.

2. Some have a short vowel from a long one in the primitive. Such are,

Dicax, from dico.
Dux (ducis), from duco.
Fides, from fido.
Lubo, from labor, dep. v.
Lucerna, from luceo.

Mölestus, from möles. Näto, from nätu. sup. Nöto, from nötu. sup. ödium, from ödi. Quăsillus, from quālus. Săgax, from sāgio. Sŏpor, from sōpio. Vădum, from vādo. Vŏco, from vox (vōcis.) NOTE 1. Discrtus comes regularly (by syncope) from dissertus, the prefix disbeing short, § 299, 1. Cf. dirimo and diribeo, where s is changed to r. See § 196, (b.) 2.

NOTE 2. Some other words might, perhaps, with propriety be added to these lists; but, in regard to the derivation of most of them, grammarians are not entirely agreed.

REMARK 1. Some of these irregularities seem to have arisen from the influence of syncope and crasis. Thus mobilis may have been movibilis; motum, movitum, etc.

REM. 2. Sometimes the vowel in the derived word being naturally short, is restored to its proper quantity by removing one of the consonants which, in the primitive, made it long by position; as, nūx, nūcis. So, when the vowel of the primitive is naturally long, but has been made short before another vowel, it is sometimes restored to its original quantity by the insertion of a consonant; as, hibernus, from hiems.

REM. 3. The first syllable in liquidus is supposed to be common, as coming either from liquior or liquieo; as,

Crassaque conveniant liquidis, et liquida crassis. Lucr. 4, 1255.

II. COMPOUND WORDS.

§ 285. 1. Compound words retain the quantity of the words which compose them; as,

dēfēro, of dē and fēro; ădōro, of ăd and ōro. So ăbŏrior, āmŏvēo, circumēo, comēdo, enītor, produco, subōrno.

2. The change of a vowel or a diphthong in forming the compound does not alter its quantity; as,

concido, from cádo; concido, from cado; ērigo, from rēgo; reclūdo, from claudo; iniquus, from æquus.

Exc. 1. A long syllable in the simple word becomes short in the following compounds:—aynitus and cognitus, from notus; difero and pejero, from jūro; holie, from hōc die: nihium and nihil, from hilum; causidicus, and other compounds ending in dicus, from dico.

Exc. 2. Imbēcillus, from bācillum, has the second syllable long. The participle ambītus has the penult long from itum, but the nouns ambītus and ambītio follow the rule.

Exc. 3. Innüba, prōnüba, and subnüba, from nübo, have u short; but in connubium, it is common.

Exc. 4. O final, in the compounds of do and sto, is common, though long in the simple verbs. $\frac{1}{2}$ 294, (a.)

Note 1. Prepositions of one syllable, which end in a vowel, are long (§ 294, (a.); those which end in a single consonant are short (§ 299, 1.)— $Tr\bar{a}$ from trans is long; as, $tr\bar{a}do$, $tr\bar{a}d\bar{u}co$.

Exc. 5. Pro, in the following compounds, is short:—prôf ānus, prôf āri, próf ecto, prôf estus, próf iciscor, prôf iteor, prôf ăgus, prôc ella, prôf fundus, prônepos, prôneptis, and prôlercus. It is common in procuro, profunda, propago, propello, and propino.—Respecting præ in composition before a vowel see § 283, II. Exc. 1.

REM. 1. The Greek preposition pro (before) is short; as, prophēta. In prologus, propôla, and propino, it is common.

REM. 2. The inseparable prepositions di (for dis) and se are long; as,

diduco, separo. Respecting discrtus, see § 284, Exc. 5, 2, N. 1.

REM. 3. (a) The inseparable preposition re or red is short; as, rěmitto, rěféro, rědămo.

(b.) Re is sometimes lengthened in religio, reliquiæ, reliquiæ, repërit, retülit, repülit, rectúlit, redücëre, where some editors double the consonant following re. Cf. § 307, 2. In the impersonal verb refert, re is long, as coming from res.

REM. 4. A ending the former part of a compound word, is long; the other vowels are short; as,

mālo, quāpropier, trādo, (trans do); nēfas, valědīco, hujuscēmodi; bīceps, trīdens, omnīpotens, signīfico; hodie, quandoquidem, philosophus; ducenti, locaples, Trojugēna; Polýdorus, Eurýpylus, Thrāsybūlus.

Exc. 1. A. A is snort in quasi, eadem, when not an ablative, and in some Greek compounds; as, catapulta, hexameter.

Exc. 2. E. E is long in crēdo, $n\bar{e}mo$, $n\bar{e}quam$, $n\bar{e}quaq$ uam, $n\bar{e}quidquam$, $n\bar{e}quis$, $n\bar{e}quits$, $n\bar{e}qu$

Note 2. (a.) The first e in videlicet, as in vide, is sometimes made short. See § 295, Exc. 3.

(b.) E is common in some verbs compounded with făcio; as, liquefăcio, pătefăcio, rārefăcio, tābefăcio, těpefăcio.

Exc. 3. 1. (1.) I is long in those compounds in which the first part is declined, (§ 296;) as, quidam, quivis, quilibet, quantivis, quanticumque, tantidem, unicuique, eidem, reipublica, utrique.

(2.) I is also long in those compounds which may be separated without altering the sense, (§296;) as, lūdīmāgister, sīquis, agrīcultūra.

(3.) I, ending the former part of a compound word, is sometimes made long by contraction; as, tibicen for tibitcen, from tibia and cano. See § 283, III.

(4.) I is long in bīgæ, quadrīgæ, īlicet, scīlicet.

(5.) In idem, when masculine, i is long; but when neuter, it is short. The i of ibique and utribique, the second in ibidem, and the first in nimirum, are long. In ibicumque, as in ibi, i is common.

(6.) Compounds of dies have the final i of the former part long; as, biduum, trīduum, mērīdies, quotīdie, quotīdiānus, prīdie, postrīdie.

Note 3. In Greek words, i, ending the former part of a compound, is short; as, Callimachus; unless it comes from the diphthong ei (u), or is made long or common by position.

Exc. 4. O. (1.) In compounds, the final o of contro, intro, retro, and guando (except quandoquidem,) is long; as, controversia, introduco, retrocedo, quandoque. O is long also in ălioqui (-quin), and utroque.

(2.) O is long in the compounds of quo and eo; as, quomodo, quocumque, quonam, quolibet, quominus, quocirca, quovis, quoque (i. e. et quo); eodem, eone; but in the conjunction quoque, it is short.

(3.) Greek words which are written with an omega (a) have the o long; as, geometra, Minotaurus, lágopus.

Exc. 5. U. Uis long in Jupiter (Jövis păter), and judico (jus dico).

III. INCREMENT OF NOUNS.

§ 286. 1. A noun is said to increase, when, in any of its cases, it has more syllables than in the nominative singular; as, pax, pācis; sermo, sermōnis. The number of increments in any case of a noun is equal to that of its additional syllables.

2. Nouns in general have but one increment in the singular, but tter, supellex, compounds of caput ending in ps, and sometimes jecur, have two increments; as,

iter, i-tīn-ē-ris; supellex, su-pel-lec-ti-lis; anceps, an-cīp-i-tis; jēcur, jē-cīn-

REMARK. The double increase of *iter*, etc., in the singular number arises from their coming from obsolete nominatives, containing a syllable more than those now in use; as, *itiner*, etc.

3. The dative and ablative plural of the third declension have one increment more than the genitive singular; as,

rex, Gen. rē-gis, D. and Ab. rēg-i-bus.
sermo, — ser-mō-nis, — ser-mōn-i-bus.
iter, — i-tin-ē-ris, — it-i-nēr-i-bus.

4. The last syllable of a word is never considered as the increment. If a word has but one increment, it is the penult; if two, the antepenult is called the first, and the penult the second; and if three, the syllable before the antepenult is called the first, the antepenult the second, and the penult the third increment; as,

1 1 2 1 2 1 2 3 ser-mo, ser-mō-nis, ser-mōn-i-bus; i-ter, i-tin-ĕ-ris, it-i-nĕr-i-bus.

5. In the third declension, the quantity of the first increment is the same in all the other cases as in the genitive singular; as,

sermōnis, sermōni, sermōnem, sermōne, sermōnes, sermōnum, sermōnibus. Bōbus, or būbus, from bos, bovis, is lengthened by contraction from bovibus.

NOTE. As adjectives and participles are declined like nouns, the same rules of increment apply to all of them; and so also to pronouns.

INCREMENTS OF THE SINGULAR NUMBER.

OF THE FIRST, FOURTH, AND FIFTH DECLENSIONS.

§ 287. 1. When nouns of the first, fourth, and fifth declensions increase in the singular number, the increment consists of a vowel before the final vowel, and its quantity is determined by the first general rule with its exceptions, § 283, I.

Thus, aura, gen. aurāi, § 283, I. Exc. 3, (a.): fructus, dat. fructŭi, § 283, L. (a.): dies, gen. aiei, § 283, I. Exc. 2, (a.)

INCREMENTS OF THE SECOND DECLENSION.

2. The increments of the second declension in the singular number are short; as.

gěner, gěněri; satur, saturi; těněr, těněri; vir, viri. Thus,

Ne, pučri, ne tanta animis assuescite bella. Virg. A. 6, 833. Monstra sinunt; gčněros externis afföre ab öris. Id. A. 7, 270.

Exc. The increment of *Iber* and *Celüber* is long. For that of genitives in ius, see § 283, Exc. 4.

INCREMENTS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

3. The increments of the third declension and singular number in a and o are long; those in e, i, u, and y, are short; as,

ănimal, ănimālis; audax, audācis; sermo, sermonis; ferox, ferocis; opus, operis; celer, celeris; mīles, mīltis; supplex, supplīcis; murmur, murmūris; dux, ducis; chlāmys, chlāmydis; Styx, Styyis. Thus,

Pronăque cum spectent ănimălia cătăra terram. Orid. M. 1, 84. Hec tum multiplici pojulos sermone replăbat. Virg. A. 4, 189. Incumbent gănăris lapsi sarcire ruinas. Id. G. 4, 249. Qualem virgineo dămessum politee fibrem. Id. A. 11, 68. Adspice, ventăși căedărunt murmăris aure. Id. E. 9, 58.

Exceptions in Increments in A.

1: (a.) Masculines in al and ar (except Car and Nar) increase short; as, Annibal, Annibălis; Amilear, Amileăris.

(b.) Par and its compounds, and the following—anas, mas, vas (vadis), baccar, hēpar, jabar, lar, nectar, and sal—also increase short.

2. A, in the increment of nouns in s with a consonant before it, is short; as, daps, dăpis; Arabs, Arābis.

3. Greek nouns in a and as (ădis, ănis, or ătis) increase short; as, lampas, lampădis; Mělas, Mělánis, poēma, poëmătis.

4. The following in ax increase short:—ābax, anthrax, Arctöphylax, Atax, Atrax, climax, còlax, còrax, and nycticòrax, drōpax, fax, harpax, pănax, smilax, and styrax.—The increment of Sýphax is doubtful.

Exceptions in Increments in O.

1. O, in the increment of neuter nouns, is short; as,

marmor, marmorus; corpus, corporis; ĕbur, ĕbŏris. But os (the mouth), and the neuter of comparatives, like their masculine and feminine, increase long. The increment of ådor is common.

2. O is short in the increment of Greek nouns in o or on, which, in the oblique cases, have omicron, but long in those which have omega; as,

Aēdon, Aēdonis; Agamemnon, Agamemnonis:—Plato, Platonis; Sinon, Sinonis; Sicyon, Sicyonis. Sīdon, Orion, and Ægæon, have the increment common.

3. (a.) In the increment of gentile nouns in o or on, whether Greek or barbaric, o is generally short; as,

Mācēdo, Mācedonis. So, Amazones, Aones, Myrmidones, Santones, Saxones, Senones, Teutones, etc.

- (b.) But the following have o long:—Eburenes, Lacenes, Iones, Nasamones, Suessones (or -iones), Vettones, Burgundiones. Britones has the o common.
- 4. Greek nouns in or increase short; as, Hector, Hectöris; rhētor, rhētoris; Agēnor, Agēnoris.
- 5. Compounds of pus, $(\pi v \tilde{v} s)$, as tripus, $p\bar{o}l \tilde{y} pus$, Edipus, and also arbor, mėmor, bos, compos, impos, and lėpus, increase short.
- 6. O, in the increment of nouns in s with a consonant before it, is short; as,

scrobs, scröbis; tnops, inopis; Dölöpes. But it is long in the increment of cercops, Cyclops, and hydrops.

7. The increment of Allobrox, Cappadox, and pracox, is also short. .

Exceptions in Increments in E.

- 1. Nouns in en, enis (except Hymen), lengthen their increment; as, Sīren. Sīrēnis. So, Aniēnis, Nēriēnis, from Anio and Nērio, or rather from the obsolete Anien and Nēriēnes.
- 2. Hares, lòcúples, mansues, merces, and quies—also Iber, ver, lex, rex, ālec or ālex (hāl-) narthex and vervex—plebs and seps—increase long.
- 3. Greek nouns in es and er (except aër and æther) increase long; as, magnes, magnētis; crāter, crātēris.

Exceptions in Increments in I.

1. Nouns and adjectives in ix, increase long; as, victrix, victricis; $f\bar{e}lix$, $f\bar{e}l\bar{c}is$.

Exc. Cilix, Cilix, coxendix, filix, fornix, hystrix, lárix, nix, pix, sálix, strix, and rarely sandix or sandyx, increase short.

- 2. Vibex and the following nouns in is increase long:—dis, glis, lis, vis, Nēsis, Quiris, and Samnis. The increment of Psōphis is common.
- Greek nouns, whose genitive is in inis increase long; as, delphin, delphīnis; Sălămis, Sălămīnis.

Exceptions in Increments in U.

1. Genitives in udis, uris, and utis, from nominatives in us, have the penult long; as,

pālus, pālūdis; tellus, tellūrus; virtus, virtūtis. But intercus, Ligus and pēcus pēcūdis, increase short.

2. Fur, frux, (obs.), lux, and Pollux, increase long.

Exceptions in Increments in Y.

- 1. Greek nouns whose genitive is in *ynis*, increase long; as, *Trāchyn*, *Trāchynis*.
- 2. The increment of bombyx, Ceyx, gryps, and mormyr, is long; that of Bebrux and sandyx is common.

INCREMENTS OF THE PLURAL NUMBER.

§ 288. 1. A noun in the plural number is said to increase, when, in any case, it has more syllables than in the ablative singular.

REMARK. When the ablative singular is wanting, or its place is supplied by a form derived from a different root, an ablative may, for this purpose, be assumed, by annexing the proper termination to the root of the plural.

2. When a noun increases in the plural number, its perult is called the plural increment; as, sa in mūsārum, no in dŏminōrum, n in rūpium and rūpibus.

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3. In plural increments, a, e, and o, are long, i and u are short; as,

bonārum, animābus, rērum, rēbus, gēnērorum, ambobus; sermonībus, lācubus. Thus,

Appia, longārum, tērītur, rēgīna viārum. Stat. S. 2, 2, 12. Sunt laerjmæ rērum, et mentem mortālia tanguut. Virg. A. 1, 462. Atque ālii, quērum cōmedia prisca virōrum est. Hor. S. 1, 4, 2. Portūbus ēgrēdior, ventisque fērentībus ūsus. Ovid.

IV. INCREMENT OF VERBS.

- § 289. 1. A verb is said to increase, when, in any of its parts, it has more syllables than in the second person singular of the present indicative active; as, das, dă-tis; dŏces, dŏ-cē-mus.
- 2. The number of increments in any part of a verb is equal to that of its additional syllables. In verbs, as in nouns, the last syllable is never considered the increment. If a verb has but one increment, it is the penult; and this first increment, through all the variations of the verb, except in reduplicated tenses, continues equally distant from the first syllable. The remaining increments are numbered successively from the first; as,

ă-mas,	mŏ-nes,	au-dis,
1	1	1
ă-mā-mus,	mŏ-nē-tur,	au-dī-tis,
1 2	1 2	12
ăm-ā-bā-mus,	mŏn-ē-rē-tur,	au-di-ē-bas,
1 2 3	1 2 3	1234
ăm-ā-vě-rā-mus.	mŏn-ē-bĭm-ĭ-ni.	au-di-ē-bām- I-ni.

- 3. A verb in the active voice may have three increments; in the passive, it may have four.
- 4. In determining the increments of deponent verbs, an active voice, formed from the same root, may be supposed.

Thus the increments of ke-tā-tur, ket-ā-bā-tur, etc., are reckoned from the supposed verb keto, ketas.

§ 290. In the increments of verbs, a, e, and o, are long; i and u are short; as,

ămāre, monēre, fūcitote, volumus, regebamini. Thus,

Et cantāre păres, et respondēre părāti. Virg. E. 7, 5. Sie ăquidem dūcēbam ănimo, rēbarque fütūrum. Id. A. 6, 690. Cumque lõqui pötērit, mātrem fāctiōte sālūtet. Ovid, M. 9. 378. Sciudītu incertum stūdia in contrāria vulgus. Virg. A. 2, 39. Nos nūmērus sūmus, et frūges consūmēre nāti. Hor. Ep. 1, 2, 27.

(a.) Exceptions in Increments in A.

The first increment of do is short; as, dămus, dăbāmus, dăret, dătūrus, circumdăre, circumdābāmus.

(b.) Exceptions in Increments in E.

i. E before r is short in the first increment of all the present and imperfect tenses of the third conjugation, and in the second increment in beris and bere; as,

rėgėre (infin. and imperat.), rėgėris or rėgėre (pres. ind. pass.), rėgėrem and rėgėrer (imp. subj.); amābėris, amābėre; monebėris, monebėre.

NOTE 1. In $v \in lim$, $v \in lis$, etc., from $v \in lis$, (second person, regularly $v \in lis$, by syncope and contraction $v \in lis$, $e \in lis$ is not an increment, but represents the root vowel $e \in lis$, and is therefore short; § 284, and § 178, 1.

2. E is short before ram, rim, ro, and the persons formed from them; as,

ămāvēram, ămāvērat, ămāvērim, monuērimus, rexero, audīvēritis.

NOTE 2. In verbs which have been shortened by syncope or otherwise, e before r retains its original quantity; as, $fl\bar{e}ram$, for $fl\bar{e}v\bar{e}ram$.

For the short e before runt, in the perfect indicative, as, stëtërunt, see Systole, § 307.

(c.) Exceptions in Increments in I.

1. I before v or s, in tenses formed from the second root, is long; as,

pětīvi, audīvi, quæsīvit, divīsit, audivimus, divisimus, audiveram.

2. I is long, after the analogy of the fourth conjugation, in the final syllable of the third root of gaudeo, arcesso, divido, făcesso, lăcesso, peto, quæro, recenseo and obliviscor; as,

gāvīsus, arcessītus, dīvīsus, fácessītus, lăcessītus, pētītus, quæsītus, recensītus, oblitus; gāvīsūrus, etc.

3. I in the first increment of the fourth conjugation, except in *imus of the perfect indicative, is long; as,

audire, audirem, auditus, auditurus, pres. vēnīmus, but in the perfect vēnīmus. So in the ancient forms in ibam, ibo, of the fourth conjugation; as, nutrībat, lēnībunt; and also in ibam and ibo, from eo.

NOTE 3. When a vowel follows, the i is short, by § 283; as, audiunt, audie-bum.

- 4. I is long in the first and second persons plural of subjunctives in sim, sis, sit, etc., (§ 162, 1,); as, simus, sitis, vėlimus, vėlitis, and their compounds; as, possimus, adsīmus, mālīmus, nolimus. So also in nolito, nolite, nolitote, after the analogy of the fourth conjugation.

5. I in ris, rimus and ritis, in the future perfect and perfect subjunctive, is common; as,

vīdēris, Mart., occidērīs, Hor.; vīdēritis (Ovid), dēdēritis (Id.); fēcērīmus (Catull.), ēgērīmus (Virg.)

(d.) Exceptions in Increments in U.

U is long in the increment of supines, and of participles formed from the third root of the verb; as,

secūtus, solatus, secūtarus s lūtūrus.

RULES FOR THE QUANTITY OF PENULTIMATE AND ANTEPENULTIMATE SYLLABLES.

I. PENULTS.

§ 291. 1. Words ending in acus, icus, and icum, shorten the penult; as,

ămārācus, Ægyptiācus, rustīcus, trītīcum, viātīcum.

Except Dācus, mērācus, ŏpācus; ămīcus, aprīcus, ficus, mendīcus, pīcus, postīcus, pūdīcus, spīcus, umbilīcus, vīcus.

2. Words ending in abrum, ubrum, acrum, and atrum, lengthen the penult; as,

candēlābrum, dēlūbrum, lāvācrum, vērātrum.

3. Nouns in ca lengthen the penult; as,

ăpŏthēca, cloāca, lactūca, lorīca, phoca.

Except álica, brassica, dica, fúlica, mantica, pédica, pertica, scuttca, phálarica, túnica, vómica; and also some nouns in ica derived from adjectives in icus; as, fabrica, grammática, etc. So mánica.

4. Patronymics in ades and ides shorten the penult; as, Atlantiades, Priamides.

Except those in ides which are formed from nouns in eus or és (nc); as, Atrīdes, from Atrēus; Neoclīdes, from Neoclēs; except, also, Amphiārāīdes, Bēlīdes, Amÿclīdes, Lýcurgīdes.

5. Patronymics and similar words in ais, eis, and ois, lengthen the penult; as,

Achāis, Chrysēis, Mīnōis. Except Phōcăis and Thēbāis. The penult of Nēreis is common.

6. Words in do lengthen the penult; as,

vādo, cēdo, dulcēdo, formīdo, rōdo, testūdo. Except cǎdo, divido, ědo (to eat), comědo, Macědo, modo, solido, spādo, trēpido. Rudo is common.

7. Words in idus shorten the penult; those in udus lengthen it; as,

callidus, herbīdus, limpīdus, līvīdus, perfīdus; crūdus, lūdus, nūdus, sūdus, ūdus. Except Idus, fīdus, infīdus, nīdus, sīdus.

8. Nouns in ga and go lengthen the penult; as,

sāga, collēga, aurīga, rūga; imāgo, cālīgo, ærūgo. Except cālīga, ossifrāga, tōga, plāga, (a region, or a net), fūga and its compounds, stēga, eclóga, ego, harpūgo, līgo.

9. Words in le, les, and lis, lengthen the penult; as,

crīnāle, mantēle, ancīle; āles, mīles, proles; annālis, crūdēlis, civilis, cūrūlis.— Except māle;—verbals in ilis and bilis; as, ăgilis, āmābilis;—adjectives in atilis; as, umbrātīlis,;—and also, indoles, soboles; pēriscēlis, dapstlis, grācīlis, hūmīlis, pārīlis, simīlis, stērīlis, mūgilis, strīgilis.

10. Words in elus, ela, elum, lengthen the penult; as, phăsēlus, quērēla, prēlum. Except gēlus, gēlum, scēlus.

11. Diminutives in olus, ola, o.um, ulus, ula, ulum, also words in

ilus, and those in ulus, ula, and ulum, of more than two syllables, shorten the penult; as,

urceŏlus, fīlióla, lectülus, rătiuncula, corculum, pābulum; rutilus, garrulus, fābula. Except āsīlus.

12. Words in ma lengthen the penult; as,

fāma, poēma, rīma, plūma. Except ănima, coma, dēcuma, lacrima, victima, hāma.

13. A vowel before final men or mentum is long; as,

lèvamen, gramen, crimen, flumen, jumentum, atramentum. Except timen, cò-limen, Hijmen, élémentum, and a few verbal nouns derived from verbs of the second and third conjugations; as, alimentum, dòcumen or dòcumentum, émolumentum, mônumentum, régimen, spēcimen, tégimen, etc.

14. Words ending in imus shorten the penult; as,

ānīmus, dēcīmus, finītīmus, fortissīmus, maxīmus. Except bīmus, līmus, mīmus opīmus, quādrīmus, sīmus, trīmus, and two superlatives, īmus and prīmus.

Note. When an adjective ends in umus for imus, the quantity remains the same; as, decumus, optumus, maxumus, for decimus, etc.

15. A, e, o, and u, before final mus and mum, are long; as,

rāmus, rēmus, extrēmus, promus, dāmus, pomum, volēmum. Except ātomus, balsāmum, cinnāmum, domus, glomus, hūmus, postūmus, thālāmus, tomus, cālāmus, nēmus.

16. (a.) Words in na, ne, ni, and nis, lengthen the penult; as,

lāna, ārēna, cārīna, mātrōna, lūna, māne, septēni, octēni, tnānis, fīnis, immūnis. Except advēna, cottāna, pitsāna, mina, gēna, bēne, sine, cānis, cīnis, jūvēnis; and the following in ina,—buccīna, dōmina, fiscīna, fēmīna, fuscīna, lāmina, māchīna, pāgīna, pātīna, sarcīna, tibicīna, trātīna: and in plur. āpīnæ, minæ, nundīnæ. So compounds of gēno; as, indigēna.

(b.) Verbs in ino and inor shorten the penult; as,

destino, fascino, inquino, sino, criminor. Except festino, propino, săgino, opinor, and the compounds of clino; as, inclino, etc.

17. (a.) Adjectives in inus, when they express time, or indicate a material or an inanimate substance, shorten the penult; as,

crastinus, diūtinus, pristīnus, pērendinus: fāgīnus, crocīnus, hyöcinlūtnus, adāmantīnus, crystallīnus, oleāgīnus, bombýcīnus. Except mātūtīnus, repentīnus, vespertīnus.

· (b.) Other adjectives and words in inus and in inum lengthen the penult; as,

caninus, binus, pēregrīnus, mārīnus, clandestīnus, sūpīnus: līnum. Except ācinus, ásinus, coccinus, cominus, ēminus, cophinus, dominus, fāticīnus, protinus, sinus, terminus, gēmīnus, circīnus, mīnus, vāticīnus, succinum, fascīnum.

18. A, e, o, and u, before final nus and num, are long; as,

urbānus, sērēnus, patronus, pronus, mūnus, tribūnus, fānum, vēnēnum, donum. Except ānus, an old woman, galbānus, mānus, oceānus, plātānus, ēbēnus, gēnus, timtgēnus, pēnus, tēnus, Vēnus, onus, bonus, sonus, thronus; lagānum, peucēdānum, popānum, timpānum, abrotonum.

19. Words ending in ba, bo, pa, and po, shorten the penult; as,

fúba, júba, syllába; bibo, cúbo, probo; álúpa, lúpa, scápha; crēpo, participo. Except gléba, scríba, būbo, glübo, libo, nūbo, scribo, sipho, cēpa, cūpa, pūpa, rīpa, scópa, stūpa; cāpo, rēpo, stīpo.

20. Words in al, ar, are, and aris, lengthen the penult; as,

tribūnal, vectīgal: lupānar, pulvīnar; altāre, laqueāre; nāris, Except animal, căpital, cubital, torăl, jubar, sălar, măre, bimăris, hilaris, canthăris, cappăris, Ivăris.

21. Before final ro or ror, a and e are short; i, o, and u, are long; as,

ăro, păro, fëro, gero, sero, celero, tempero, queror; mīror, spīro, tīro; auctoro, ignōro, ōro; cūro, dūro, figūro; lūror. Except dēclāro, pēro, spēro; foro, moror, soror, voro, furo, săturo; and derivatives from genitives increasing short; as, auguror, decoro, memoro, murmuro, etc.; from augur, auguris; decus, decoris, etc.

22. Before final rus, ra, rum, e is short; the other vowels are long; as,

měrum, měrus, hěděra, sěrum, cētěrum; cārus, mīrus, mōrus, mūrus, gýrus; āra, spīra, ōra, nātūra, lorum.

Except, 1. austērus, gălērus, plērus, procērus, sincērus, sērus, sēvērus, vērus,

crātēra, cēra, pēra, panthēra, stātēra. Exc. 2. barbārus, cammārus, cāmmūrus, canthārus, chŏrus, fōrus, hellēbŏrus, nŭrus, opipărus, ovipărus, phosphorus, pirus, sătyrus, scărus, spărus, tartărus, torus, zephyrus; amphora, ancora, cithăra, hăra, lyra, mora, purpăra, philyra, pyra, satīra; forum, garum, parum, supparum.

- 23. Adjectives in osus lengthen the penult; as,
- f ūmōsus, vīnosus.
- 24. Nouns in etas and itas shorten the penult; as, pietas, cīvitas, bonitas.
- 25. Adverbs in tim lengthen the penult, those in iter and itus shorten it; as,

stātim, (constantly), virītim, tribūtim; acriter, funditus. Except stātim, (immediately), affătim.

26. (a.) Words in ates, itis, otis, and in ata, eta, ota, uta, lengthen the penult, as,

vātes, pēnātes, vītis, mītis, căryōtis, Icăriōtis, pīrāta, mēta, poēta, ălūta, cicūta. Except sitis, potis, drāpēta, nota, rota.

- (b.) Nouns in ita shorten the penult; as, ămita, nāvita, orbita, sēmita. Except pituīta.
- 27. Nouns in atum, itum, utum, lengthen the penult; as,

lăpātum, ăconītum, vērūtum. Except defrutum, pulpitum, petoritum, lătum (mud), compitum.

28. Nouns and adjectives ending in tus lengthen the penult; as,

barbātus, grātus, bolētus, făcētus, crīnītus, pērītus, ægrotus, totus, argūtus, hirsūtus. Except cătus, lătus, (-eris), impetus, metus, vegetus, vetus; anhelitus, digitus, grāt utus, hālitus, hospitus, servitus, spīritus; antidotus, notus, quotus, totus (so great); arbūtus, pūtus; inclūtus; and derivatives from perfect participles having a short penult; as, exercitus, hābītus.

29. A penultimate vowel before v is long; as,

clāva, olīva, dīves, nāvis, cīvis, pāpāver, pāvo, prīvo, ovum, prāvus, æstīvus, fūgītīves. Except avis, brevis, grāvis, levis, ovis; cavo, gravo, jūvo, lavo, levo, žvo; avus, cavus, favus, novus, favor, pavor, novem.

30. Words ending in dex, dix, mex, nix, lex, rex, lengthen the result; as,

cōdex, jūdex; lōdix, rādix; cīmex, pūmex; jūnix; īlex; cārex, mūrex. Except cūlex, sīlex, rūmex.

II. ANTEPENULTS

§ 292. 1. I is short in diminutives in iculus and icellus (a, um), whether nouns or adjectives; as,

colliculus, dulciculus, crăticula, pellicula, mollicellus. Except words in which the preceding vowel is short; as, căticula, cănicula: or in which i is long in the primitive; as, cornicula, from cornix, -īcis.

2. Numerals in ginti, ginta, ēni, and esimus, lengthen the antepenult; as,

vīginti, quādrāginta, trīcēni, quinquāgēsīmus.

- 3. O and u before final lentus are short; as, vinolentus, fraudulentus, pulvērulentus, trūcūlentus.
- 4. A vowel before final nea, neo, nia, nio, nius, nium, is long; as, ărănea, linea, căneo, mūnia, pūnio, Fărōnius, patrimōnium. Except castănea, tinea, măneo, mineo, moneo, seneo, teneo, ignominia, luscinia, venia, lânio, venio, ingónium, genius, senio, scinium; words in cinium, as, lenoctnium; and derivatives in onius, when o in the root of the primitive is short; as, Agamemnonius, from Agamemnon, Jonis.
- 5. Words ending in areo, arius, arium, erium, orius, orium, lengthen the antepenult; as,

āreo, cibārius, plantārium, dictērium, censērius, tentērium. Except căreo, vă-rius, dēstdērium, impērium, māgistērium, ministērium.

- 6. Adjectives in aiïcus, aiïlis, lengthen the antepenult; as, ăquāticus, plumātilis. Except some Greek words in áticus; as, grammáticus
- I before final tūdo is short; as, altītūdo, longītūdo.
- 8. Verbals in bilis lengthen a but shorten i in the antepenult; as, āmābilis, mīrābilis; crēdibilis, terribilis. In hābilis, b belongs to the root.
- 9. U before v is short, (except in Jūverna); as, jūvenis, jūvenālis, jūvenālitas, flūvius, dīlūvium.

III. PENULT OF PROPER NAMES.

§ **293.** 1. Patrials and proper names of more than two syllables, found in the poets with the following terminations, shorten the penult:—

ba, ca,1	de, le,4	0,6 011,7	ges, les,	dus,13 eus,14	ena, ¹⁹ anes,	arus, erus, ²¹	atus,22 itus,23
$la,^2$	pe,5	08,8	lis,10	gus,15	enes,	yrus,	otus.24
be,	re,	er,9	bus,	lus,16	aris,	asus,	
ce,3	al,	mas,	cus, 11	mus,17	yris,	osus,	
che,	il,	ras,	chus,12	phus, 18	asis,20	usus,	

Exceptions.

11Marīca, Nāsīca.—²Erīphýla, Messāla, Phīlomēla, Suādēla.—²Berēnīce.— 4Erīphýle, Neobūle, Pērīmēle.—Ērurope, Smōpe.—6Carthāgo, Cūpāvo, Cūpīdo, Orīgo, Theāno.—7Alēmon, Anthēdon, Chalcēdon, Iāson, Phīlēmon, Polýpēmon, Sarpēdon, Thermodon.—8Cercyros, Pēpārēthos, Pharsālos, Sčrīphos.—9Mēleāger.—10Bessālis, Eumēlis, Jūvēnālis, Marītālis, Phāršēlis, Styrmphālis.—11Bēnācus, Caīcus, Grānīcus, Nūmīcus, Trivīcus.—12Ophiūchus.—13Abydus.—14Cāphāreus, Enīpeus, Promētheus, Phōrōneus, Salmōneus, Oīleus.—15Cētlēgus.—16Names in -clus, in -olus (except Æölus, Naubölus), in -bulus, (except Bībūlus) Eumēlus, Gætīlus, Iūlus, Massylus, Orbēlus, Pharsālus, Sardānāpālus, Stymphālus.—17Some in -dēmus and -phēmus; as, Acādēmus, Pölýphēmus.—18Serīphus.—19Alcmēna, Athēnæ, Cāmēna, Fīdēna, Messēna, Mūrēna, Mycēnæ.—20Amāsis.—21Homērus, Ibērus.—22Arātus, Cærātus, Torquātus.—22Hērāclītus, Hermāphrödītus.—24Būthrōtus.

2. Proper names of more than two syllables, found in the poets with the following terminations, lengthen the penult:—

ana,¹ ina,²	sa, ta,4	num, ⁷ tum.	tas, des, ⁹	nus, ¹² pus, ¹⁸	urus, esus, ¹⁵	etus,16 utus.
ona,8	tæ,5	or,8	tes,10	irus,	isus,	ytus,17
yna,	ene.6	nas.	tis.11	orus.14	ysus.	vus.

Exceptions.

¹Sēquana.—²Mūtīna, Proserpīna, Ruspīna, Sarsīna.—³Axona, Matrona.-⁴Dalmāta, Prochỳta, Sarmāta, Lāpītha.—⁵Gālātæ, Jaxamētæ, Massāgētæ, Mācētæ, Sauromātæ.—⁵Clýmēne, Hēlēne, Melpomēne, Nyctīmēne.—¬Ārīmīnum, Drēpānum.—⁵Nūmītor.—³Mīltiādes, Pýlādes, Sotādes, Thūcýdīdes; patronymics in -des, (§ 291, 4,) and plurals in -ades.—¹¹Antīphātes, Chārītes, Eurybātes, Ichnöbātes, Euergētes, Massāgētes, and all names in -crates.—¹¹Dercētis.—¹²Apīdānus, Apōnus, Cārānus, Chrysōgōnus, Cīmīnus, Clýmēnus, Concānus, Dardānus, Diādūmēnus, Eārīnus, Erīdānus, Fūcīnus, Hēlēnus, Lībānus, Mofrīni, Mycōnus, Nebrōphōnus, Olēnus, Pēriclýmēnus, Rhōdānus, Santōnus, Sēquāni, Štēphānus, Tēlēgōnus, Termīnus, and names in -gonus and -xenus.—¹³Cdīpus.—¹⁴Pācōrus, Bospōrus, and names in -chorus and -phorus; as, Stēsf-chōrus, Phosphōrus.—¹⁵Ephēsus, Vogēsus, Volēsus.—¹⁵lāpētus, Tāýgētus, Vēnētus.—¹²Āpytus, Anýtus, Eurytus, Hippōlýtus.

3. The penultimate vowel of the following proper names, and adjectives derived from proper names, though followed by a vowel, is long. See § 283, I. Exc. 6.

Enēas, Ethīon, Achēlõus, Achillēus, Aleyŏnēus, Alexandrīa, Alōeus, Alphēus, Amīnēus, Amphiārāus, Amphiārāus, Amphiārāus, Amphiārāus, Amphiārāus, Amphiārāus, Amphiārāus, Amphiārāus, Amphiārāus, Atlantēus, Antiōchīa, Biōnēus, Cæsūrēa, Cālaurēa, Calliōpēa, Cassiōpēa, Cleanthēas, Cýdōnēus, Cýmōdōcēa, Cýthèrēa, Dārīus (-ēus), Dējdāumīa, Dīdymāon, Diōmēdēus, Dolichāon, Echion, Elēus, Endymiōnēus, Enyo, Eous, Erēbēus, Erecthēus, Gālātēa, Gīgantēus, Hērāclēa (-ēus), Hippōdāmīa, Hýpērīon, Ilīthÿīa, Imāon, Iōlāus, Iphīgēnīa, Ixion, Lādōdāmīa, Lātōus, Lesbōus, Lýcāon, Māchāon, Mausōlēum, Mēdēa, Mēnēlāus, Methīon, Myrtōus, Ophīon, Orīthÿīa, Orphēus, Pallantēum (-us), Pandion, Paphagēa, Pēnēus, Penthesīlēa, Phoebēus, Poppēa, Protesilāus, Pyrēnēus, Sardcus, Thālīa.

Note. Eus in the termination of Greek proper names, is commonly a diphthong; as, Alceus, Caneus, Orpheus, Peleus, Perseus, Proteus, Thiseus, Tydeus, which are dissyllables; Bridreus, Enipheus, Macăreus, Typhōeus, which are trisyllables, Idômēneus, etc. Cf. § 283, Exc. 6, Note 2. But in those which in Greek are written suc (eios), eus forms two syllables; as, Alphēns. So also in adjectives in eus, whether of Greek or Latin origin; as, Erēbēns, Erechēns, Orphēns; aurēns, kiynēns.

QUANTITY OF FINAL SYLLABLES.

I. VOWELS.

MONOSYLLABLES.

§ 294. (a.) All monosyllables, except enclitics, ending in a vowel, are long; as,

ã, ãh, đã, stã, ễ, để, mễ, tế, sẽ, nẽ, rẽ, ĩ, fĩ, hĩ, quĩ, nĩ, sĩ, O or ởh, dỡ, prỡ, prõh, quỡ, stổ, tũ.

POLYSYLLABLES.

A final.

1. A final, in words declined, is short; as, $m\bar{u}s\ddot{a}$, $templ\ddot{a}$, $c\check{a}p\check{t}-t\check{a}$, $T\bar{y}de\check{a}$. Thus,

Mūsă mihi causas memora; quo numine læso Virg. A. 1, 8.

Exc. A final is long in the ablative of the first declension, and in the vocative of Greek nouns in as and es; as,

Mūsā, fundā; O Ænēā, O Pallā, O Anchisā.

2. A final, in words not declined, is long; as, ămā, frustrā, anteā, ergā, intrā. Thus,

Extrā fortūnam est quidquid donātur amīcis. Mart. Epig. 5, 42, 7.

Exc. A final is short in $ei\ddot{a}$, $it\ddot{a}$, $qui\ddot{a}$, and in $p\ddot{u}t\ddot{a}$, when used adverbially, in the sense of 'for example.' It is sometimes short, in the preposition contra, and in numerals ending in ginta; as, $tr\ddot{c}ginta$, etc. In postea, it is common. A final is also short in the names of Greek letters; as, $alph\ddot{a}$, $b\ddot{c}t\ddot{a}$, etc., and

A final is also short in the names of Greek letters; as, alpha, bēta, etc., and in tārātantārā, the imitated sound of the trumpet.

E final.

§ **295.** E final, in words of two or more syllables, is short; as, nātě, patrě, ipsě, currě, rěgěrě, nempě, antě. Thus,

Incipe, parve puer, rīsu cognoscere matrem. Virg. E. 4, 60.

REMARK. The enclitics -que, -ne, -ve, -ve, -te, -pte, etc., as they are not used alone, have e short, according to the rule; as, něquě, hūjuscě, suaptě. Cf. § 294, (a.)

Exc. 1. E final is long in nouns of the first and fifth declensions; as,

Calliŏpē, $T\bar{y}d\bar{t}d\bar{e}$, $f\bar{t}d\bar{e}$. So also in the compounds of $r\bar{e}$ and $d\bar{e}$; as, $qu\bar{a}r\bar{e}$, $h\bar{b}d\bar{e}$, $pridi\bar{e}$, $postridi\bar{e}$, $qu\bar{b}t\bar{t}d\bar{e}$, and in the ablative $f\bar{a}m\bar{e}$, originally of the fifth declension.

Exc. 2. E final is long in Greek vocatives from nouns in -es, of the third declension; as, Achillē, Hippómēnē; and in Greek neuters plural; as, cētē, mēlē, pēlágē, Tempē.

Exc. 3. In the second conjugation, e final is long in the second person singular of the imperative active; as, $d\check{o}c\bar{e}$, $m\check{o}n\bar{e}$;—but it is sometimes short in $c\check{a}ve$, $v\check{a}l\epsilon$ and $v\check{i}de$.

Exc. 4. E final is long in adverbs formed from adjectives of the second declension; as,

plăcidē, pulchrē, valdē for vălidē, maximē; but it is short in běně, mălě, inferně, and superně.

Exc. 5. Fĕrē, fermē, and ŏhē, have the final e long.

I final.

§ **296.** I final is long; as, $d\check{o}m\check{i}n\bar{i}$, $f\bar{\imath}l\bar{i}$, $class\bar{\imath}$, $d\check{o}c\bar{e}r\bar{\imath}$, $s\bar{\imath}$. Thus,

Quid domini făcient, audent cum talia fures. Virg. E. 3, 16.

Exc. 1. (a.) I final is common in mihi, tibi, sibi, ibi, and ibi.

(b.) In *ubique* and commonly in *ibidem* it is long, but in *ubivis* and *ubinam* it is short.—(c.) In *nisi*, quasi, and cui, when a dissyllable, i final is common, but usually short. In utinam and utique, and rarely, also, in uti, it is short.

Exc. 2. I final is short in the dative singular of Greek nouns of the third declension, which increase in the genitive; as, Pallădi, Mînôtdi, Têthŷi.

Exc. 3. I final is short in the vocative of Greek nouns in -is; as, Alexi, Daphni, Pări. But it is long in vocatives from Greek nouns in -is, (uc) -entos; as, Simöi, Pyröi.

Exc. 4. I final is short in Greek datives and ablatives plural in -si, or, before a vowel, -sin: as, Dryasi, hēroisi, Troasin.

O final.

§ 297. O final, in words of two or more syllables, is common; as, virgō, ămō, quandō. Thus,

Ergő mětu cápíta Scylla est înimica păterno. Virg. Cir. 886. Ergő sollicitæ tu causa, pěcūnia, vītæ es! Prop. 3, 5, 1.

Exc. 1. O final is long in the dative and ablative singular; as, dŏminō, regnō, bonō, suō, illō, eō.

Exc. 2. O final is long in ablatives used as adverbs; as, certō, falsō, měritō, vulgō, eō, quō; and also in omnīnō, in ergō, 'for the sake of,' and in the interjection iō.

REMARK 1. The final o of verbs is almost always long in poets of the Augustan age.

REM. 2. In poets subsequent to the Augustan age, final o in verbs, in gerunds, and in the adverbs adeo, ideo, ergo, sero, vero, porro, retro, immo, idcirco, subito, and postremo, is sometimes short.

Exc. 8. O final is short in cito, illico, profecto, and the compounds of modo; as, dummodo, postmodo, etc.; and in ego and homo it is more frequently short than long.

Exc. 4. O final in Greek nouns written with an omega (ω) is long; as, Cliō, Dīdō, Athō, and Androgeō, (gen.)

U final.

§ 298. 1. U final is long; as, vultū, cornū, Panthū, dictū, diū. Thus,

Vultū, quo ocelum tempestātesque sĕrēnat. Virg. A. 1, 255.

Exc. Indű and něnů, ancient forms of in and non, have u short. U is also short in terminations in us short, when s is removed by elision; as, contentů, for contentůs. See § 305, 2.

Y final.

 Y final is short; as, Moly, Tiphy. Thus, Moly vocant superi: nigrā rādice tenetur. Ovid. M. 14, 292.

Exc. Y in the dative Tēthy, being formed by contraction, is long. § 283, IIL.

II. CONSONANTS.

MONOSYLLABLES.

§ 299 1. Monosyllables substantives ending in a consonant are long; all other monosyllables ending in a consonant are short; as,

sõl, vīr, fūr, jūs, splēn, vēr, fār, lār, Nār, pār, Sēr, fūr, fās, mās, rēs, pēs, Dīs, glis, lis, vīs, flōs, mōs, rōs, Trōs, ōs, (ōris), dōs, grūs, rūs, tūs;—nēc, in, ăn, ăb, ăd, quid, quis, quōt, ēt; as,

Ipse döcet quid ăgam. Fās est čt äb hoste döcēri. Ovid. M. 4, 428. Vēr ādeo frondi nemorum, vēr ūtīle silvis. Virg. G. 2, 323.

Note. The rules for the quantity of final syllables ending in a consonant imply that the consonant is single, and that it is preceded by a single vowel. If otherwise the syllable will be long by § 283, IV. and II.

Exc. 1. Cór, fel, mél, pól, vir, ós (gen. ossis), and probably vas (vădis), are short.

Exc. 2. En, non, quin, sin, crās, plūs, cūr, and pār, are long: so also are particles and pronouns ending in c, except nec, which is short, and the pronouns hic and hoc, in the nominative and accusative, which are common.

Exc. 3. Monosyllabic plural cases of pronouns and forms of verbs in as, es, and is, are long; as, hās, quās, hōs, nōs, vōs, quōs, hīs, quās;—dās, flēs, stēs, is, fīs, sīs, vīs; except ēs from sum which is short.

Exc. 4. The abridged imperatives retain the quantity of their root; as, dia dac, from dico, daco; fác, fér, from fácio, féro.

POLYSYLLABLES.

D, L, N, R, T, final.

2. Final syllables ending in d, l, n, r, and t, are short; as, illud, consul, carmen, păter, căput. Thus,

Obstipuit šimūl ipse, šīmul perculsus Achātes. Virg. A. 1, 513. Nomēn Ariónium Sīcūlas implēvērāt urbes. Ovid. F. 2, 93. Dum löyuor, korrör, habet; parsque est mēminisse doloris. Id. M. 9, 291.

Exc. 1. E in $li\bar{e}n$ is long.

Exc. 2. In Greek nouns, nominatives in *n* (except those in *on*, written with an *omicron*), masculine or feminine accusatives in *an* or *en*, and genitives plural in *on*, lengthen the final syllable; as,

Titan, Orion, Enedn, Anchisen, Calliopen; epigrammaton.

Exc. 3. $A\bar{e}r$, $ath\bar{e}r$, and nouns in $\bar{e}r$ which form their genitive in $\bar{e}ris$, lengthen the final syllable; as,

crater, soter. So also Iber; but the compound Celtiber has sometimes in

Martial its last syllable short.

REMARK. A final syllable ending in t, may be rendered long by a diphthong, by contraction, by syncopation, or by position; as, aut, äbit for ăbiit, fümāt, for fumāvit, āmānt. See § 283, II. III. IV., and § 162, 7, (d.)

M final.

Note. Final m with the preceding vowel is almost always cut off, when the next word begins with a vowel. See *Ecthlipsis*, § 305, 2.

3. Final syllables ending in m, when it is not cut off, are short; as,

Quam laudas, plūmā? cocto num adest honor idem. Hor. S. 2, 2, 28.

REMARK. Hence in composition the final syllables of cum and circum are short; as, comedo, circumago.

C final.

4. Final syllables ending in c are long; as, ālēc, illīc, istāc, illūc. Thus,

Illīc indocto prīmum se exērcuit arcu. Tib. 2, 1, 69.

Exc. The final syllable of donec is short; as,

Donec eris felix, multos numerabis amīcos. Ovid. Trist. 1, 9, 5.

AS, ES, and OS, final.

§ 300. Final syllables in as, es, and os, are long; as,

mūsās, pietās, ămās, Ænēās, quies, sermōnēs, dies, Penelopes, dūcenties, monēs, honos, viros, dominos. Thus,

Hās autem terrās, Italīque hanc lītoris oram. Virg. A. 3, 396. Si modo dēs illis cultus, simūlēsque parātus. Ovid. M. 6, 454.

Exc. 1. (a.) AS. As is short in ănăs, in Greek nouns whose genitive ends in ădis or ădos; as, Arcăs, Pallăs; and in Greek accusatives plural of the third declension; as, ħērōās, lampādās.

(b.) As is short also in Latin nouns in as, ados, formed like Greek patronymics; as, Appias.

Exc. 2. ES. (a.) Final es is short in nouns and adjectives of the third declension which increase short in the genitive; as, hospĕs, līmĕs, hĕbĕs; gen. hospĭtis, etc.

(b.) But it is long in ăbies, ăries, păries, Ceres, and pes, with its compounds cornipes, sompes, etc.

(c.) Es, in the present tense of sum and its compounds, and in the preposition pěnés, is short.

(d.) Es is short in Greek neuters in es; as, căcoethes, and in Greek nominatives and vocatives plural from nouns of the third declension, which increase in the genitive; as, Arcades, Trōes, Amazones; from Arcas, Arcades, etc.

Exc. 3. OS. (a.) Os is short in compos, impos, and os (ossis), with its compound exos.

(b.) Os is short in Greek nouns and cases written in the original with omicron; as (1) in all neuters; as, chaos, ēpos, Argōs; (2) in all nouns of the second declension; as, Ilios, Tÿros, Dēlos; except those whose genitive is in ō, (Greek \(\alpha\)); as, Alhōs, gen. Alhō; (3) in genitives singular of the third declension; as, Pallādos, Tēthyōs, from Pallās and Tēthys.

IS, US, and YS, final.

§ 301. Final syllables in is, us, and ys, are short; as,

turris, mīlītis, mītis, āmātis, āmābis, mágis; pectūs, bonus, ējūs, āmāmus, rursus, tēnus; Cāpys, lijs. Thus,

Non ăpis inde tülit collectos sēdula flöres. Ovid. M. 13, 928. Sēriŭs aut citius sēdem properāmus ad ūnam. Id. M. 10, 33. At Capys, et quōrum melior sententia menti. Virg. A. 2, 35.

Exc. 1. IS. (a.) Is is long in plural cases; as,

 $m\bar{u}s\bar{i}s$, $n\bar{o}b\bar{i}s$; $omn\bar{i}s$, $urb\bar{i}s$, (for $omn\bar{e}s$, $urb\bar{e}s$); $qu\bar{i}s$, (for $qu\bar{e}is$ or $qu\bar{i}bus$). So also in the adverbs $gr\bar{u}t\bar{i}s$, $ingr\bar{u}t\bar{i}s$, and $f\bar{v}r\bar{i}s$, which are in reality datives or ablatives plural.

Et liquidi simül ignis; ut his exordia primis. Virg. A. 6, 33. Quis ante öra patrum Tröjæ sub mænibus altis. Id. A. 1, 95. Non omnis arbusta jüvant, hümilesque myricæ. Id. E. 4, 2. Adde töt ēgrēgias urbīs, öpērumque labörem. Id. G. 2, 155.

- (b.) Is is long in the nominative of nouns whose genitive ends in itis, inis, or entis; as, Samnis, Sălămis, Simois.
- (c.) Is is long in the second person singular of the present indicative active of the fourth conjugation; as,

audis, nescis. So also in the second persons, fis, is, sis, vis, vėlis, and their compounds; as, adsis, possis, quamvis, mālis, nolis, etc. Cf. § 299, 1, Exc. 3.

(d.) Ris, in the future perfect and perfect subjunctive, is common; as, videris.

Exc. 2. US. (a.) Us is long in nouns of the third declension which increase long, and in the genitive singular, and the nominative, accusative, and vocative plural of the fourth declension, (§ 89, Rem., and § 283, III.); as,

tellūs, virtūs, incūs;—fructūs. But pălūs, with the us short, occurs in Horace, Art. Poet. 65.

(b) Us is long in Greek nouns written in the original with the diphthong ous $(\tilde{v}v)$ whether in the nominative or genitive; as, nom. Amāthūs, Opūs, Œdipūs, trīpūs, Panthūs; gen. Didūs, Sapphūs. But compounds of pus (πvvs) , when of the second declension, have us short; as, $p\tilde{v}$ bypūs.

Note. The last syllable of every verse, (except the anapæstic and the Ionic a $min\bar{o}re$), may be either long or short at the option of the poet.

REMARK. By this is meant, that, although the measure require a long syllable, a short one may be used in its stead; and a long syllable may be used where a short one is required; as in the following verses, where the short syllable na stands instead of a long one, and the long syllable cu instead of a short one:—

Sanguineāque mānu crēpitantia concūtit armā. Ovid. M. 1, 143. Non ēget Mauri jācūlīs, nec arcū. Hor. Od. 1, 22, 2.

VERSIFICATION.

FEET.

§ 302. A foot is a combination of two or more syllables of a certain quantity.

Feet are either simple or compound. Simple feet consist of two or three syllables; compound feet of four.

I. SIMPLE FEET.

1. Of two Syllables.

Spondee,two long,; as,	.f ündünt.
Purrhictwo short : as	Děŭs.
Trochee, or choreea long and a short. — : as	.ārmā.
lambus,a short and a long, -; as,	.ĕrānt.

2. Of three Syllables.

Dactyl,	a long and two short, — — ; as,cōrpŏrā.
Anapæst	two short and a long,; as,domini.
Tribrach,	three short,; as,făcĕrĕ.
Molossus,	.three long, ———; as,
Amphibrach,	.a short, a long, and a short, $-$ -; as,amārē.
Amphimăcrus, or Cretic	c, a long, a short, and a long, — —; as, cāstitās.
Bacchīus,	. a short and two long, - ; as, Cătones.
Antibacchīus,	two long and a short,; as, Romānus.

II. COMPOUND FEET.

Dispondee, a double spondee, ———; as, conflixerunt.
Proceleusmatic,a double Pyrrhic,; as,hominibus.
Ditrochee, a double trochee, : ascomprobavit.
Diiambus,a double iambus, ; as,ămāvērānt.
Greater Ionic,a spondee and a Pyrrhic, — — ; as,correximus.
Smaller Ionic, Pyrrhic and a spondee, ; as, properabant.
Choriambus,a choree and an iambus,; as,terrificant.
Antispast, an iambus and a choree,; as, adhæsīssē.
First epitrit, an iambus and a spondee,; as, amāvērūnt.
Second epitrit, a trochee and a spondee, — - ; as, conditores.
Third epitrit, a spondee and an iambus, — — ; as, dīscordiās.
Fourth epitrit, a spondee and a trochee, — — —; as,āddūxīstīs.
First pæon, a trochee and a Pyrrhic, — ; as,tēmporībūs.
Second pæon,an iambus and a Pyrrhic, ; as, potentia.
Third paon,a Pyrrhic and a trochee,; as,animātis.
Fourth pæon,a Pyrrhic and an iambus, ; as,celeritas.

REMARK. Those feet are called *isochronous*, which consist of equal times, as the spondee, the dactyl, the anapæst, and the proceleusmatic, one long time being considered equal to two short.

METRE.

- § 303. 1. Metre is an arrangement of syllables and feet according to certain rules.
- 2. In this general sense, it comprehends either an entire verse, a part of a verse, or any number of verses.
- 3. Metre is divided into dactylic, anapæstic, iambic, trochaic, chori ambic, and Ionic. These names are derived from the original or fundamental foot employed in each.
- 4. A metre or measure, in a specific sense, is either a single foot or a combination of two feet. In the dactylic, choriambic, and Ionic metres, a measure consists of one foot; in the other metres, of two feet. Two feet constituting a measure are sometimes called a syzygy

VERSES.

- § 304. A verse is a certain number of feet, arranged in a regular order, and constituting a line of poetry.
 - Two verses are called a distich; a half verse, a hemistich.
- 2. Verses are of different kinds, denominated sometimes, like the different species of metre, from the foot which chiefly predominates in them; as, dactylic, iambic, etc.;—sometimes from the number of feet or metres which they contain; as, sēnārius, consisting of six feet; ectönārius, of eight feet; mönömēter, consisting of one measure; dimeter, of two; trimēter, tetramēter, pentamēter, hexamēter;—sometimes from a celebrated author who used a particular species; as, Sapphic, Anacreontic, Alcaic, Asclepiadic, Glyconic, Phalæcian, Sotadic, Archilochian, Alcmanian, Pherecratic, Aristophanic, etc., from Sappho, Anacreon, Alcæus, Asclepiādes, Glycon, Phalæcus, Sotādes, Archilochus, Alcman, Pherecrātes, Aristophānes, etc.—and sometimes from the particular uses to which they were applied; as, the prosodiac, from its use in solemn processions, the paræmiac, from its frequent use in proverbs.
- 3. A verse, with respect to the metres which it contains, may be complete, deficient, or redundant.
 - (1.) A verse which is complete is called acatalectic.
- (2.) A verse which is deficient, if it wants one syllable at the end, is called *catalectic*; if it wants a whole foot or half a metre, it is called *brachycatalectic*.
- (3.) A verse which wants a syllable at the beginning, is called acephalous.
- (4.) A verse which has a redundant syllable or foot, is called hypercatalectic or hyperměter
- 4. Hence, the complete name of every verse consists of three terms—the first referring to the species, the second to the number of metres, and the third to the ending; as, the dactylic trimeter catalectic.

5. A verse or portion of a verse of any kind (measured from the beginning) which contains three half feet, or a foot and a half, is called a trihēmimēris; if it contains five half feet, or two feet and a half, it is called a penthēmimēris; if seven half feet, or three feet and a half, a hepthēmimēris; if nine half feet, or four feet and a half, an ennehēmimēris. A portion of a verse consisting of one whole metre and a half, is called a hēmiölius, as being the half of a trimeter.

Note. The respective situation of each foot in a verse is called its place.

6. SCANNING is the dividing of a verse into the feet of which it is composed.

REMARK. In order to scan correctly, it is necessary to know the quantity of each syllable, and also to understand the following poetic usages, which are sometimes called

FIGURES OF PROSODY.

SYNALCEPHA.

§ 305. 1. Synalapha is the elision of a final vowel or diphthong in scanning, when the following word begins with a vowel.

Thus, terra antiqua is read terr' antiqua; Dardănida infensi, Dardănid infensi; vento huc, vent' huc. So,

Quidve moror? si omnes uno ordine habetis Achivos. Virg. A. 2, 102.

Which is scanned thus-

Quidve moror? s' omnes un' ordin' habetis Achivos.

(1.) The interjections O, heu, ah, proh, væ, vah, are not elided; as,

O et de Lătia, O et de gente Săbīnā. Ovid. M. 14, 832.

REMARK. But O, though not elided, is sometimes made short; as, Te Cŏrÿdon O Alexi; trăhit sua quemque vŏluptas. Virg. E. 2, 65.

(2.) Other long vowels and diphthongs sometimes remain unelided, in which case, when in the thesis of a foot, they are commonly made short; as,

Victor apud rapidum Simoënta süb Iliö alto. Virg. A. 5, 261. Anni tempöre eo qui Elesiæ esse féruntur. Lucr. 6, 717. Ter sunt conali impõnere Pēliö Ossam. Virg. G. 1, 231. Glauco et Panopēæ, et Indo Mělicertæ. Id. G. 1, 436.

- (3.) Rarely a short vowel, also, remains without elision; as, Et vēra incessu pātuit deā. Ille übi mātrem... Virg. A. 1, 405.
- (4.) Synalæpha in a monosyllable occasionally occurs; as, Si ad vitulam spectas, nihil est, quod pocula laudes. Virg. E. 3, 48.

For synaloepha at the end of a line, see Synapheia, § 307, 3.

ECTHLIPSIS.

2. Ecthlipsis is the elision of a final m with the preceding vowel, when the following word begins with a vowel. Thus,

O cares hominum, O quantum est in rebus mane! Pers. 1, 1.

Which is thus scanned-

O cūras hŏmin' O quant' est in rēbus īnāne.

Monstrum horrendum, informe, ingens, cui lümen ädemptim. Virg. A. 3, 658.

(1.) This elision was sometimes omitted by the early poets; as, Corpŏrŭm officium est quōniam prēmēre omnia deorsum. Lucr. 1, 363.

See § 299, 2.

(2.) Final s, also, with the preceding vowel, is sometimes elide I by the early poets before a vowel, and sometimes s alone before a consonant; as, content atque (Enn.), for contentus atque; omnthu rēbus. (Lucr.) So,

Tum lăterali' dolor, certissimu' nunciu' mortis. Lucil.

REMARK. This elision took place principally in short syllables.

For ecthlipsis at the end of a line, see Synapheia, § 307, 3.

SYNERESIS.

§ 306. 1. Synæresis is the contraction into one syllable of two vowels which are usually pronounced separately. Thus,

Aureā percussum virgā, versumque vēnēnis. Virg. A. 7, 190. Eosdem hābuit sēcum, quībus est ēlāta, capillos. Prop. 4, 7, 7. Tītyre, pascentes a flūmīne reice capellas. Virg. E. 3, 96.

REMARK 1. So Phaethon is pronounced Phæthon; alveo, alvo; Orphea, Orpha; deorsum, dorsum.

(1.) Synæresis is frequent in ii, ildem, iisdem, dii, diis, dein, deinceps, deinde, deest, deerat, deero, deerit, deesse; as,

Præcīpītātur aquis, et aquis nox surgit ab îsdem. Ovid. M. 4, 92. Sint Mæcēnātes; non deerunt, Flacce, Marones. Mart. 8, 56, 5.

REM. 2. Cui and huic are usually monosyllables.

- (2.) When two vowels in compound words are read as one syllable, the former may rather be considered as elided than as united with the latter; as, e in anteambulo, anteire, antihac, dehinc, mehercule, etc., and a in contraire.
- (3.) The syllable formed by the union of i or u followed by another vowel retains the quantity of the latter vowel, whether long or short; as, ābiēte, āriēte, ābiēgnæ, pāriētibus, consiliūm, fortuitus, Nāsidiēnus, vindēmiātor, omniā; gēnuā, tēnuis, pītuitā, flāviōrum, etc. In such examples, the i and u are pronounced like initial y and w; as, ābyēte, pāryētibus, consilyum, fortwītus, Nāsīdyēnus, omn-yā, tenuis, pitwita, etc.; and, like consonants, they have, with another consonant, the power of lengthening a preceding short vowel, as in the above examples.

Note. In Statius, the word *tënuiōre* occurs as a trisyllable, in which the three vowels, *uio*, are united in pronunciation; thus, *tēn-wiō-re*.

(4.) Sometimes, after a synalopha or echthlipsis, two vowels suffer synæresis; as, stellio et, pronounced stell-yet: consilium et,—consil-yet.

(5.) If only one of the vowels is written, the contraction is called crasis; as, di, consili, for dii, consilii.

DIÆRESIS.

2. Diæresis is the division of one syllable into two; as,

aulāt, Tröia, silūa, sūādent; for aulæ, Troia or Troja, silva, suādent. So, sūesco for suesco; rēliquus for rēliquus; ecqūis for ecquis; milūus for milvus, etc., as

Æthěreum sensum, atque aurāi simplicis ignem. Virg. A. 6. 747. Atque älios älii irrīdent, Vēněremque siūdent. Lucr. 4, 1158. Grammátici certant; et šdhue sub iūdice lis est. Hor. A. P. 78. Aurārum et silūæ mětu. Id. O. 1, 23, 4.

(1.) So in Greek words originally written with a diphthong (4 or n); as, élégéia for élégia, Bacchèiá for Bacchéa, Rhætétás for Rhætéus, Plētás for Pliás. and also in words of Latin origin; as, Vētás for Veius, Aquilétá for Aquiletá.

REMARK. This figure is sometimes called dialysis.

SYSTOLE.

§ 307. 1. Systŏle is the shortening of a syllable which is long by nature or by position; as,

vidë'n for videsne, in which e is naturally long; săti'n for sătisne, in which i is long by position;—hödie for hōc die; multimodis for multis modis. So,

Dūcere multimodis voces, et flectere cantus. Lucr. 5, 1405.

(1.) By the omission of j after ab, ad, ab, ab, ab, and ab, in compound words, those prepositions retain their naturally short quantity, which would otherwise be made long by position; as, abici, adicit, abicis, etc. Thus,

Si quid nostra tuis ădicit vexătio rebus. Mart. 10, 82, 1.

REMARK. In some compounds the short quantity of $\check{a}d$ and $\check{o}b$ is preserved before a consonant by the elision of the d or b of the preposition, as in $\check{a}p\check{e}rio$, $\check{o}p\check{e}rio$, $\check{o}mitto$, etc.

(2.) The penult of the third person plural of certain perfects is said by some to be shortened by systole; as, stětěrunt, tůlěrunt, etc.; but others ascribe these irregularities to the errors of transcribers, or the carelessness of writers.

DIASTOLE.

- 2. Diastŏle is the lengthening of a syllable which is naturally short.
- (1.) It occurs most frequently in proper names and in compounds of re; as, Priàmides, rēligio, etc. Thus,

Hanc tibi Priămides mitto, Ledæa, sălutem. Ovid. H. 16, 1. Religione patrum multos servata per annos. Virg. A. 2, 715.

- (2.) Some editors double the consonant after the lengthened re; as, relligio.
- (3.) Diastole is sometimes called ectăsis.

SYNAPHEIA.

- 3. Synapheia is such a connection of two consecutive verses, that the first syllable of the latter verse has an influence on the final syllable of that which precedes, either by position, synalopha, or eethlipsis. See §§ 283 and 305.
- (1.) This figure is most frequent in anapæstic verse, and in the Ionic a minore.

The following lines will illustrate its effect:-

Præceps silvas montesque fugit Citus Actæon. Sen.

Here the i in the final syllable of fugit, which is naturally short, is made long by position before the following consonants, tc.

Omnia Mercărio simīlis, vēcemque coloremque Et crīnes flāvos.... Virg. A. 4, 558. Dissīdens plābi nūmēro beātārum Eximit virtus. Hor. O. 2, 2, 18.

In the former of these examples, synapheia and synalæpha are combined, que being elided before et in the following line; in the latter there is a similar combination of synapheia and exhlipsis.

(2.) By synapheia, the parts of a compound word are sometimes divided between two verses; as,

.... si non offendëret ūnum-Quemque poëtārum līmæ lábor et mŏra... Hor. A. P 290

(3.) In hexameter verse a redundant syllable at the end of a line elided before a vowel at the beginning of the next line, by causing the accent to fall on the second syllable of the concluding spondee, and connecting the two verses by synapheia, excites the expectation of something which is to follow, and often tends to magnify the object; as,

Quōs sūpēr- | -ātră sī- | -lēx, jām- | -jām lāp- | -sūrā că- | -dēntī- | -que Immīnet assīmīlis. Virg. A. 6, 602.

REMARK. The poets often make use of other figures, also, which, however, are not peculiar to them. Such are prosthesis, aphæresis, syncope, epenthesis, apocope, paragoge, tmesis, antithesis, and metathesis. See § 322.

ARSIS AND THESIS.

- § **308.** (1.) *Rhythm* is the alternate elevating and depressing of the voice at regular intervals in pronouncing the syllables of verse.
- (2.) The elevation of the voice is called *arsis*, its depression *thesis* These terms designate, also, the parts of a foot on which the elevation or depression falls.
- 1. The natural arsis is on the long syllable of a foot; and hence, in a foot composed wholly of long, or wholly of short syllables, when considered in itself, the place of the arsis is undetermined; but when such foot is substituted for the fundamental foot of a metre, its arsis is determined by that of the latter.

REMARK. Hence, a spondee, in trochaic or dactylic metre, has the arsis on the first syllable; but in iambic or anapæstic metre, it has it on the last.

2. The arsis is either equal in duration to the thesis, or twice as long.

Thus, in the dactyl, — —, and anapæst, — —, it is equal; in the trochee, — —, and iambus, — —, it is twice as long. This difference in the proportionate duration of the arsis and thesis constitutes the difference of rhythm. A foot is said to have the descending rhythm, when its arsis is at the beginning, and the ascending, when the thesis is at the beginning.

- 3. The stress of voice which falls upon the arsis of a foot, is called the *ictus*. When a long syllable in the arsis of a foot is resolved into two short ones, the ictus falls upon the former.
- Note 1. Some suppose that the terms arsis and thesis, as used by the ancients, denoted respectively the rising and falling of the hand in beating time, and that the place of the thesis was the syllable which received the icrus

§ 309, 310. PROSODY.—VERSIFICATION—DACTYLIC METRE. 347

NOTE 2. As the ancient pronunciation of Latin is not now understood, writers differ in regard to the mode of reading verse. According to some, the accent of each word should always be preserved; while others direct that the stress of voice should be laid on the arsis of the foot, and that no regard should be paid to the accent.

It is generally supposed that the final letters clided by synalorpha and ecthlipsis, though omitted in scanning, were pronounced in reading verse.

CÆSURA.

§ 309. Casura is the separation, by the ending of a word, of syllables rhythmically or metrically connected.

Cæsura is of three kinds:—1, of the foot; 2, of the rhythm; and 3, of the verse.

1. Cæsura of the foot occurs when a word ends before a foot is completed; as,

Silves- | -trem tenu- | -i Mu- | -sam medi- | -taris a- | -vena. Virg. E. 1, 2.

2. Cæsura of the rhythm is the separation of the arsis from the thesis by the ending of a word, as in the second, third, and fourth feet of the preceding verse.

REM 1. It hence appears that the cæsura of the rhythm is always a cæsura of the foot, as e. g. in the 2d, 3d, and 4th feet of the preceding verse; but, on the contrary, that the cæsura of the foot is not always a cæsura of the rhythm, as e. g. in the fifth foot of the same verse.

(1.) Casura of the rhythm allows a final syllable naturally short, to stand in the arsis of the foot instead of a long one, it being lengthened by the *ictus*; as,

Pēctori- | -bus inhi- | -ans spi- | -rantia | consulit | exta. Virg. A. 4, 64.

This occurs chiefly in hexameter verse.

REM. 2. Casura of the foot and of the verse do not of themselves lengthen a short syllable, but they often coincide with that of the rhythm.

3. Cæsura of the verse is such a division of a line into two parts, as affords to the voice a convenient pause or rest, without injury to the sense or harmony.

REM. 3. The cæsura of the verse is often called the cæsural pause. In several kinds of verse, its place is fixed; in others, it may full in more than one place, and the choice is left to the poet. Of the former kind is the pentameter, of the latter the hexameter.

The proper place of the cæsural pause will be treated of, so far as shall be necessary, under each species of verse.

REM. 4. The effect of the cæsura is to connect the different words harmoniously together, and thus to give smoothness, grace, and sweetness, to the verse.

DIFFERENT KINDS OF METRE.

DACTYLIC METRE.

§ 310. I. A hexameter or heroic verse consists of six feet. Of these the fifth is a dactyl, the sixth a spondee, and each of the other four either a dactyl or a spondee; as,

Āt tăbă | tērrībī- | -lēm sŏnī- | -tūm prŏcūl | ērē cā- | -nōrō. Virg. A. 9, 508. Intōn- | -sī crī- | -nēs lōn- | -gā cēr- | -vīcē fiū- | ēbānt. Tibull. 3, 4, 27. Lūdērē | quæ vēl- | -lēm călā- | -mō pēr- | -mīsīt ā- | -grēstī. Virg. E. 1, 10.

1. The fifth foot is sometimes a spondee, and the verse in such case is called *spondaic*; as,

Cară de- | -um sobo- | -les mag- | -num Jovis | încre- | -mentum. Virg. E. 4, 49.

REMARK 1. In such verses, the fourth foot is commonly a dactyl, and the fifth should not close with the end of a word. Spondaic lines are thought to be especially adapted to the expression of grave and solemn subjects.

2. A light and rapid movement is produced by the frequent recurrence of dactyls; a slow and heavy one by that of spondees; as,

Quādrupē- | -dāntē pu- | -trēm sŏnī- | -tū quatīt | ūngula | cāmpum. Virg. A. 8, 596. Illi īn- | -tēr sē- | -sē māg- | -nā vī | brāchīa töllunt. Id. A. 8, 452.

REM. 2. Variety in the use of dactyls and spondees in successive lines, has an agreeable effect. Hexameter verse commonly ends in a word of two or three syllables, and a monosyllable at the end of a line is generally ungraceful, but sometimes produces a good effect; as,

Stërnitur, | ēxāni- | -mīsquē, trē- | -mēns prō- | -cūmbīt hu- | -mī bōs. Virg. A. 5, 481. Pārturi- | -unt mōn- | -tēs: nās- | -cētur | rīdīcu- | -lūs mūs. Hor. A. P. 139.

3. The beauty and harmony of hexameter verse depend much on due attention to the casura. (See § 309.) A line in which it is neglected is destitute of poetic beauty, and can hardly be distinguished from prose; as,

Römæ | mænia | terruit | împiger | Hannibal | armis. Enn.

4. The cæsural pause most approved in heroic poetry is that which occurs after the *penthemimĕris*, i. e. after the arsis in the third foot. This is particularly distinguished as the heroic cæsura. Thus,

Āt domus | interi- | -or | re- | -gali | splendida | luxu. Virg. A. 1, 637.

5. Instead of the preceding, a cæsura in the thesis of the third foot, or after the arsis of the fourth, was also approved as heroic; as,

Īnfān- | -dūm rē- | -gīnă $\|$ jū- | -bēs rĕnŏ- | -vārĕ dŏ- | -lōrem. Virg. A. 2, 8. Īndē tŏ- | -rō pătĕr | Ænē- | -ās $\|$ sīc | ōrsūs āb | āltō. Id. A. 2, 2.

REM. 3. When the cæsural pause occurs, as in the latter example, after the hephthemimeris, i. e. after the arsis of the fourth foot, another but slighter one is often found in the second foot; as,

Prīmă tĕ- | -nēt, || plau- | -sūque vŏ- | -lāt || fremī- | -tūque sĕ- | -cūndo. Virg. A. 5, 338.

6. The cæsura after the third foot, dividing the verse into exactly equal parts, was least approved; as,

Cuī non | dīctus Hỹ- | -lās puer | et Lā- | -tonia | Delos. Virg. G. 3, 6.

REM. 4. The casural pause between the fourth and fifth feet was considered as peculiarly adapted to pastoral poetry, particularly when the fourth foot was a dactyl, and was hence termed the bucolic casura; as,

Stant vitu- | -li ēt tene- | -rīs mū- | -gītībus | āera | complent. Nemes.

Note 1. The casura after the arsis is sometimes called the *masculine* or *syllabic* casura; that in the thesis, the *feminine* or *trochaic*, as a trochee immediately precedes. When a casura occurs in the fifth foot it is usually the trochaic casura, unless the foot is a spondee; as,

Fraxīnus | în sīl- | -vīs pūl- | -chērrīmă, | pīnus in | hortîs. Virg. E. 7, 65.

(a.) It is to be remarked that two successive trochaic cæsuras in the second and third feet are, in general, to be avoided, but they are sometimes employed to express irregular or impetuous motion; as, Una Eu- | -rūsque No- | -tūsque rū- | -ūnt crē- | -bērque pro- | -cēllīs. Virg. A. 1, 85.

(b.) Successive trochaic cæsuras are, in like manner, to be avoided in the third and fourth feet, but are approved in the first and second, in the fourth and fifth, and in the first, third and fifth. See Virg. A. 6, 651: 1, 94: and 6, 522.

Note 2. In the principal casura of the verse poets frequently introduce a pause in the sense, which must be attended to in order to determine the place of the cassural pause. For in the common place for the cassura in the third foot there is often a cassura of the foot; while, in the fourth foot, a still more marked division occurs. In this case, the latter is to be considered as the principal cassura, and distinguished accordingly; as,

Bellī | ferrā- | -tōs pōs- | -tes, || pōr- | -tāsque re- | -frēgit. Hor. S. 1, 4, 61.

II. The *Priapēan* is usually accounted a species of hexameter. It is so constructed as to be divisible into two portions of three feet each, having generally a trochee in the first and fourth place, but often a spondee and rarely a dactyl; in the second, usually a dactyl; and an amphimacer and more rarely a dactyl in the third; as,

Õ co- | -lonia | quæ cupis | ponte | ludere | longo. Catull, 17, 1.

It is, however, more properly considered as choriambic metre, consisting of alternate Glyconics and Pherecratics. See § 316, IV. V. Thus,

Ō cŏ- | -lōnĭā, quæ | cŭpis Pōntĕ | lūdĕrĕ lōn- | -go.

NOTE. A regular hexameter verse is termed Priapēan, when it is so constructed as to be divisable into two portions of three feet each; as,

Tērtiā | pārs pā- | -trī dātā || pārs dātā | tērtiā | mātrī. Catull. 62, 64. See above. 6.

§ 311. III. A pentameter verse consists of five feet.

REMARK 1. It is generally, however, divided, in scanning, into two hemistichs, the first consisting of two feet, either dactyls or spondees, followed by a long syllable; the last, of two dactyls, also followed by a long syllable; as,

Nătū- | -ræ sĕquī- | -tūr || sēmīnă | qūisquĕ sŭ- | -æ. Prop. 3, 7, 20. Cārmīnī- | -būs vī- | -vēs || tēmpŭs in | ōmnĕ mĕ- | -īs. Ovid.

1. According to the more ancient and correct mode of scanning pentameter verse, it consists of five feet, of which the first and second may each be a dactyl or a spondee; the third is always a spondee; and the fourth and fifth are anapæsts; as,

Nātū- | -ræ sēqui- | -tūr || sēm- | -īnă quīs- | -quē sŭæ. Cārmĭnī- | -būs vī- | -vēs || tēm- | -pūs in ōm- | -nĕ mĕīs.

- 2. The cæsura, in pentameter verse, always occurs after the penthemimeris, i. e. at the close of the first hemistich. It very rarely lengthens a short syllable.
- 3. The pentameter rarely ends with a word of three syllables. In Ovid, it usually ends with a dissyllable.
- REM. 2. This species of verse is seldom used, except in connection with hexameter, a line of each recurring alternately. This combination is called *elegiac* verse. Thus,

Flēbilis îndīgnōs, Ělēgēiā, sōlvē căpīllos. Ah nīmīs ēx vērō nīnc tībī nōmēn ĕrit! Ovid. Am. 3, 9, 3. § 312. IV. The tetrameter a priore, or Alemanian dactylic tetrameter, consists of the first four feet of a hexameter, of which the fourth is always a dactyl; as,

Garrula | pēr ra- | -mos, avis | obstrepit. Sen. Œd. 454.

V. The tetrameter a posteriore, or spondaic tetrameter, consists of the last four feet of a hexameter; as,

Îbimus, | O soci- | -ī, comi- | -tesque. Hor. Od. 1, 7, 26.

REMARK. The penultimate foot in this, as in hexameter verse, may be a spondee, but in this case the preceding foot should be a dactyl; as,

Mēnsō-|-rēm cŏhī-|-bēnt Ar-|-chytā. Hor. Od. 1, 28, 2.

VI. The dactylic trimeter consists of the last three feet of a hexameter; as,

Grātō | Pyrrha sub | antro. Hor. Od. 1, 5, 3.

REMARK. But this kind of verse is more properly included in choriambic metre. See § 316, V.

VII. The trimeter catalectic Archilochian consists of the first five half feet of a hexameter, but the first and second feet are commonly dactyls; as,

Pūlvīs et | ūmbra su- | -mus. Hor. Od. 4, 7, 16.

VIII. The dactylic dimeter, or Adonic, consists of two feet, a dactyl and a spondee; as,

Rīsīt Ā- | -pollo. Hor. Od. 1, 10, 12.

IX. The *Æolic pentameter* consists of four dactyls preceded by a spondee, a trochee, or an iambus. Thus

X. The Phalacian pentameter consists of a dactylic penthimimeris and a dactylic dimeter; as,

Visē | -bāt gěli - | -dæ | sīděra | brumæ. Boëthius.

REMARK. A trochee is sometimes found in the first place and an iambus in the first and second places.

XI. The Tetrameter Meiurus, or Faliscan consists of the last four feet of a hexameter, except that the last foot is an iambus instead of a spondee; as,

Ut novă | fruge gra- | -vis Ceres | eat. Boethius.

XII. The Tetrameter Catalectic consists of the tetrameter a priore wanting the latter half of the concluding dactyl; as,

Omne homi- | -num genus | în ter- | -ris. Boëthius.

ANAPÆSTIC METRE.

§ 313. I. The anapæstic monoměter consists of two anapæsts; as,

Ululas- | -se canes. Sen.

II. The anapæstic dimeter consists of two measures, or four anapæsts; as,

Pharetræ- | -que graves | date sæ- | -va fero Sen.

REMARK 1. The first foot in each measure of anapastic metre was very often changed to a dactyl or a spondee, and the second foot often to a spondee, and, in a few instances, to a dactyl.

REM. 2. Anapæstic verses are generally so constructed that each measure ends with a word, so that they may be written and read in lines of one, two, or more measures.

IAMBIC METRE.

§ 314. I. 1. The *iambic trimeter*, or *senarius*, consists of three iambic measures, or six iambic feet; as,

Phase- | -lus il- | -le, | quem | vide- | -tis hos- | -pites.... Catull. 4. 1.

- 2. The cæsura commonly occurs in the third but sometimes in the fourth foot.
- 3. The pure iambic measure was seldom used by the Latin poets, but to vary the rhythm spondees were introduced into the first, third, and fifth places. In every foot, also, except the last, which was always an iambus, a long syllable was often changed into two short ones, so that an anapæst or a dactyl was used for a spondee, and a tribrach for an iambus, but the use of the dactyl in the fifth place was very rare; as,

Quō, quō | scělēs- | -tī rŭī- | -tīs? āūt | cūr dēx- | -tĕrīs.... Hor. Epod. 7, 1. Ālītī- | -bŭs āt- | -quĕ cănĭ- | -bŭs hŏmĭ- | -cīdam Hēc- | -tŏrēm.... Id. Epod. 17, 12.

- 4. Sometimes, also, a proceleusmatic, or double pyrrhic, was used in the first place for a spondee. The writers of comedy, satire, and fable, admitted the spondee and its equivalents (the dactyl and anapæst) into the second and fourth places, as well as the first, third, and fifth.
 - 5. The following, therefore, is the scale of the Iambic Trimeter:-

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6. In the construction of the Iambic Trimeter an accent should fall on the second syllable of either the third foot or both the second and fourth feet; as,

Ibīs | Lībūr- | -nīs in- | tĕr āl- | -tă nā- | -vĭum | . Utrūm- | -nĕ jus- | -sī pēr- | -sĕ $qu\bar{e}'$ - | -mūr ō- | -tIum. |

II. The scazon, or choliambus (lame iambic), is the iambic trimeter, with a spondee in the sixth foot, and generally an iambus in the fifth; as,

Cŭr în | thëā- | -trūm, Cătö | sĕvē- | -rē, vē- | -nīstī? An ĭdĕ- | ŏ tān- | -tūm vēn- | -ĕrās, | ŭt ēx- | -īrēs? Mart. Ep. 1, 1, 3.

This species of verse is also called *Hipponactic* trimeter, from its inventor Hipponax.

III. The iambic tetrameter or quadratus, called also from the number of its feet octonarius, a measure used by the comic poets, consists of four iambic measures, subject to the same variations as the iambic trimeter (I.); as,

Nunc hie | dies | aliam | vitam af- | -fert, ali- | -os mo- | -res pos- | -tulat. Ter. A. 1,2, 18.

REMARK. The cæsura regularly follows the second measure.

IV. The iambic tetrameter catalectic or Hipponactic, is the iambic tetrameter, wanting the last syllable, and having always an iambus in the seventh place, but admitting in the other places the same variations as the trimeter and tetrameter; as,

Dēprēn- | -să nā- | -vis īn | mărī, | vēsā- | -nien- | -te ven- | -to. Catull. 25, 13.

V. The iambic trimeter catalectic or Archilochian, is the iambic trimeter (I.), wanting the final syllable. Like the common iambic trimeter, it admits a spondee into the first and third places, but not into the fifth; as,

Voca- | -tus at- | -que non | voca- | -tus au- | -dit. Hor. Od. 2, 18, 40. Trahunt- | -que sic- | -cas mach- | -ine | cari- | -nas. Id. Od. 1, 4, 2.

VI. The *iambic dimeter* consists of two iambic measures, with the same variations as the iambic trimeter (I.); as,

Förtī | sĕquē- | -mūr pēc- | -tŏre. Hor. Epod. 1, 14. Cānīdī- | -ā trāc- | -tāvīt | dăpēs. Id. Epod. 3, 8. Vīdē- | -rē prŏpē- | -rāntēs | dŏmum. Id. Epod. 3, 62.

REMARK. The iambic dimeter is also called the Archilochian dimeter.

The following is its scale:-

VII. The iambic dimeter hypermeter, called also Archilochian, is the iambic dimeter, with an additional syllable at the end; as,

Rědě- | -git în | vērōs | timō- | -rēs. Hor. Od. 1, 37, 15.

REMARK. Horace always makes the third foot a spondee.

VIII. The *iambic dimeter acephalous* is the iambic dimeter, wanting the first syllable; as,

Non | ĕbūr | nĕque au- | -rĕum.... Hor. Od. 2, 18, 1.

REMARK. This kind of verse is sometimes scanned as a catalectic trochaic dimeter. See § 315, IV.

IX. The iambic dimeter catalectic, or Anacreontic, is the iambic dimeter, wanting the final syllable, and having always an iambus in the third foot; as,

Ut tī- | grīs or- | -bă gnā- | -tīs. Sen. Med. 863.

X. The Galliambus consists of two iambic dimeters catalectic, the last of which wants the final syllable.

REMARK 1. It was so denominated from the Galli or priests of Cybele, by whom it was used.

REM. 2. In the first foot of each dimeter the anapæst was generally preferred to the spondee. The catalectic syllable at the end of the first dimeter is long, and the second foot of the second dimeter is commonly a tribrach; as,

Super al- | -ta vec- | -tus A- | -tys || celeri | rate ma- | -ria. Catull, 63, 1.

REM. 3. The cæsura uniformly occurs at the end of the first dimeter.

TROCHAIC METRE.

- \$ 315. 1. Trochaic verses bear a near affinity to ismbies. The addition or retrenchment of a syllable at the beginning of a pure iambic verse, renders it pure trochaic, and the addition or retrenchment of a syllable at the beginning of a pure trochaic line, renders it pure iambic, with the deficiency or redundancy of a syllable in each case at the end of the verse.
- I. The trochaic tetrameter catalectic consists of seven feet, followed by a catalectic syllable. In the first five places and very rarely in the sixth, it admits a tribrach, but in the seventh a trochee only. In the even places, besides the tribrach, it admits also a spondee, a dactyl, an anapæst, and sometimes a proceleusmatic; as,

Jūssūs | ēst in | ērmis | īrē : || pūrūs | īrē | jūssūs | ēst. Auct. P. Vēn. Rōmū | læās | īpsā | fēcīt || cūm Sā- | -bīnīs | nūptī- | -ās. Id. Dānāi | dēs, cē- | -ītē ; | vēstrās || hīc dī- | -ēs quæ- | -rīt mā- | -n**ūs.** Sen.

The following is its scale:-

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REMARK 1. The pure trochaic verse was rarely used, and the dactyl very rarely occurs in the fourth place. The exsural pause uniformly occurs after the fourth foot, thus dividing the verse into a complete dimeter and a catalectic dimeter. The comic writers introduced the spondee and its equivalent feet into the odd places.

REM. 2. The complete trochaic tetrameter or octonarius properly consists of eight feet, all trochees, subject, however, to the same variations as the catalectic tetrameter; as,

Īpsē | sūmmīs | sāxīs | fīxŭs | āspē- | -rīs, ē- | -vīscē- | -rātŭs. Enn.

II. The Sapphic verse, invented by the poetess Sappho, consists of five foot—the first a trochee, the second a spondee, the third a dactyl, and the fourth and fifth trochees; as,

Intě- | -gēr vī- | -tæ, || scělě- | -rīsquě | pūrŭs. Hor. Od. 1, 22, 1.

- 1. Sappho, and, after her example, Catullus, sometimes made the second foot a trochee.
- 2. Those Sapphics are most harmonious which have the cæsura after the fifth semi-foot.

NOTE 1. In the composition of the Sapphic stanza, a word is sometimes divided between the end of the third Sapphic, and the beginning of the Adonic which follows; as,

Lābi- | -tūr rī- | -pā Jövě | non pro- | -bānte uxoriŭs | āmnis. Hor. Od. 1, 2, 19. It has been thought by some that such lines should be considered as one Sapphic verse of seven feet, the fifth foot being either a spondee or a troches.

Note 2. This verse is sometimes scanned as epichoriambic, having an epitrite in the first place, a choriambus in the second, and ending with an iambic sizygy caralectic; thus,

Integer vi- | -tæ, sceleris- | -que purus.

III. The Phalecian verse consists of five feet—a spondee, a dactyl, and three trochees; as,

Non est | vīvere, | sed va- | -lere | vīta. Mart.

REMARK 1. Instead of a spondee as the first foot, Catullus sometimes uses a trochee or an iambus. This writer also sometimes uses a spondee in the second place.

REM. 2. The *Phalæcian* verse is sometimes called *hendecasyllabic*, as consisting of eleven syllables; but that name does not belong to it exclusively.

IV. The trochaic dimeter catalectic consists of three feet, properly all trochees, and a catalectic syllable, but admitting also in the second place a spondee or a dactyl; as,

Non č | -būr ně- | -que āūrě- | -um. Hor. Od. 2, 18, 1. Lēnĭs | āc mŏdī- | -cūm flŭ- | -ēns Aūră, | nēc vēr- | -gēns lǎ- | -tus. Sen. Œd. 887.

Note. This measure is the same as the acephalous iambic dimeter (see § 314, VIII.), and it is not important whether it be regarded as iambic or trochaic.

CHORIAMBIC METRE.

§ 316. (a.) In a pure choriambic verse each metre except the last is a choriambus, and the last an Iambic syzygy.

Note. A spondee and iambus, i. e. a third epitrite, are sometimes used in place of the Iambic syzygy.

- (b.) An epichoriambic verse is composed of one or more choriambi with some other foot, especially a ditrochee or a second epitrite, joined with it.
- I. The choriambic pentameter consists of a spondee, three choriambi, and an iambus; as,

Tū nē | quæsierīs, | scīre nefās, | quem mihi, quem tibī., Hor. Od. 1, 11, 1.

II. The choriambic tetrameter consists of three choriambi, or feet of eqnal length, and a Bacchius; as,

Omně němůs | cům fluviis, | omně cănāt | profuudum. Claud.

2. In this verse Horace substituted a spondee for the iambus contained in the first choriambus; as,

Tē deos o- | -ro, Sybarīn | cur properes | amando. Hor. Od. 1, 8, 2.

- 3. Some scan this verse as an epichoriambic tetrameter catalectic, beginning with the second epitrite.
- III. 1. The Asclepiadic tetrameter (invented by the poet Asclepiades) consists of a spondee, two choriambi, and an iambus; as,

Mæce- | -nas, atavis | edite reg- | -ibus. Hor. Od. 1, 1. 1.

- 2. This form is invariably observed by Horace; but other poets sometimes. though rarely, make the first foot a dactyl.
 - 3. The cæsural pause occurs at the end of the first choriambus.
- 4. This measure is sometimes scanned as a dactylic pentameter catalectic. See § 311, III. Thus,

Mæcē- | -nās, ătă- | vīs | ēdītē | rēgībus.

- IV. 1. The choriambic trimeter, or Glyconic (invented by the poet Glyco), consists of a spondee, a choriambus, and an iambus; as, Sīc tē | dīvă pŏtēns | Cypri... Hor. Od. 1, 3, 1.
 - 2. The first foot is sometimes an iambus or a trochee.
- 3. When the first foot is a spondee, the verse might be scanned as a dactylic trimeter. Thus, Sīc tē | dīvă pŏ- | -tēns Cypri.
- V. 1. The choriambic trimeter catalectic, or Pherecratic (so called from the poet Pherecrates), is the Glyconic deprived of its final syllable, and consists of a spondee, a choriambus, and a catalectic syllable; as,
 - Grăto, | Pyrrha, sub an- | -tro. Hor. Od. 1, 5, 3.
 - 2. The first foot was sometimes a trochee or an anapest, rarely an iambus.
- 3. When the first foot is a spondee, this measure might be scanned as a dactylic trimeter. See § 312, VI.
- 4. The Pherecratic subjoined to the Glyconic produces the Priapean verse. See § 310, II.
- VI. 1. The choriambic dimeter consists of a choriambus and a Bacchius: as.

Lýdřá die | pěr ömněs. Hor. Od. 1, 8, 1.

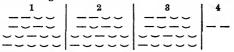
2. This verse is by some called the choriambic dimeter catalectic. Cf. § 316. (a.)

IONIC METRE.

- § 317. I. The Ionic a majore, or Sotadic, (from the poet Sotădes), consists of three greater Ionics and a spondee.
- 1. The Ionic feet, however, are often changed into ditrochees, and either of the two long syllables in those feet into two short ones; as,

Hās, cūm gĕmī- | -nā cōmpĕdĕ, | dēdīcāt cā- | -tēnās, Sātūrnĕ, tī- | -bī Zōīlŭs, | ānnūlōs prī- | -ōrēs. *Mart*.

2. Hence the following is its scale:-



Note. The final syllable, by § 301, note, may be short.

II. 1. The *Ionic a minore* consists generally of verses of three or four feet, which are all smaller Ionics; as,

Puer ales, | tibi telas, | operose- | -que Minerve... Hor. Od. 3, 12, 4.

2. In this verse, as in the anapæstic, no place is assigned to the pause; because, since the metres, if rightly constructed, end with a word, the effect of a pause will be produced at the end of each metre.

COMPOUND METRES.

- § 318. Compound metre is the union of two species of metre in the same verse.
- I. The dactylico-iambic metre or Elegiambus consists of a dactylic penthemimeris (312, VII.), followed by an iambic dimeter (§ 314, VI.); as,

Scrībērē | vērsīcu- | -los | amo- | -re pēr- | -culsum | gravī. Hor. Epod. 11, 2.

II. The iambico-dactylic metre or Iambelegus consists of the same members as the preceding, but in a reversed order; as,

Nīvēs- | -quě dē- | -dūcūnt | Jŏvēm: || nūnc mărĕ, | nūnc sīlū- | -æ. Hor. Epod. 13, 2.

Note. The members composing this and the preceding species of verse are often written in separate verses.

III. The greater Alcaic consists of an iambic penthemimeris, i. e. of two iambic feet and a long catalectic syllable, followed by a choriambus, and an iambus; as,

Vides | ŭt al- | -ta | stet nive can- | -didum. Her. Od. 1, 9, 1.

REMARK 1. The first foot is often a spondee.

REM. 2. The cæsura uniformly occurs after the catalectic syllable.

 $\ensuremath{\mathtt{Rem.\,3.}}$ This verse is sometimes so scanned as to make the last two feet dactyls.

IV. The dactylico-trochaic or Archilochian heptameter, consists of the dactylic tetrameter a priore (§ 312), followed by three trochees; as,

Solvitur | acris hi- | -ems gra- | -ta vice | veris | et Fa- | -vont. Hor. Od. 1, 4, 1.

REMARK. The cæsura occurs between the two members.

V. The dactylico-trochaic tetrameter or lesser Alcaic, consists of two dactyls, followed by two trochees, i. e. of a dactylic dimeter followed by a trochaic monometer; as,

Lēvīa | pērsonu- | -ērē | sāxa. Hor. Od. 1, 17, 12.

COMBINATION OF VERSES IN POEMS.

- § 319. 1. A poem may consist either of one kind of verse only or of a combination of two or more kinds.
- 2. A poem in which only one kind of verse is employed, is called *carmen monocōlon*; that which has two kinds, *dicōlon*; that which has three kinds, *tricōlon*.
- 3. When the poem returns, after the second line, to the same verse with which it began, it is called distrophon; when after the third line, tristrophon; and when after the fourth, tetrastrophon.
- 4. The several verses which occur before the poem returns to the kind of verse with which it began, constitute a stanza or strophe.
- 5. A poem consisting of two kinds of verse, when the stanza contains two verses, is called dicolon distrophon, (see § 320, 3); when it contains three, dico-

lon tristrophon, (Auson. Profess. 21); when four, dicolon tetrastrophon, (§ 320, 2); and when five, dicolon pentastrophon.

6. A poem consisting of three kinds of verse, when the stanza contains three verses, is called *tricolon tristrophon*, (§ 320, 15); when four, *tricolon tetrastrophon*, (§ 320, 1).

HORATIAN METRES.

§ 320. The different species of metre used by Horace in his lyric compositions are twenty. The various forms in which he has employed them, either separate or in conjunction, are nineteen, arranged, according to the order of preference given to them by the poet, in the following

SYNOPSIS.

1. Two greater Alcaics (§ 318, III.), one Archilochian iambic dimeter hypermeter (§ 314, VII.), and one lesser Alcaic (§ 318, V.); as.

Vidēs, ŭt āltā stēt nīve candidum Sōrāctě, nēc jām sūstīneānt ŏnŭs Sīlvæ läbōrāntēs, gelūque Flūmina constiterint acūto.

(Lib. 1, 9.)

REMARK. This is called the Horatian stanza, because it seems to have been a favorite with Horace, being used in thirty-seven of his odes.

2. Three Sapplies (§ 315, II.) and one Adonic (§ 312, VIII.); as,

Jām sătīs tērrīs nīvīs ātque dīræ Grandinis misit pater, et, rubente Dēxtērā sācrās jāculātus ārces, Tērruit urbem.

(Lib. 1, 2.)

3. One Glyconic (§ 316, IV.) and one Asclepiadic (§ 316, III.); as, Sīc tē Dīvā pŏtēns Cypri, Sīc frātrēs Hělénæ, lūcidā sīdēra...

4. One iambic trimeter (§ 314, I.) and one iambic dimeter (§ 314, vı.); as,

> Ibīs Lībūrnīs īnter āltā nāvīum, Amīce, propūgnācula.

(Epod. 1.)

5. Three Asclepiadics (§ 316, III.) and one Glyconic (§ 316, IV.); as,

Scrībērīs Văriō fortīs, et hostium 🐃 Vīctōr, Mæōnīī cārmīnīs ālīti, Quām rēm cūmquĕ fĕrōx nāvīb**ŭs āut ĕquis** Mīlēs, tē duce, gesserit.

(Lib. 1, 6.)

6. Two Asclepiadics (§ 316, III.), one Pherecratic (§ 316, v.), and one Glyconic (§ 316, IV.); as,

> Dīānām, těněræ, dīcītě vīrgīnes: Intonsum, pueri, dicite Cynthium, Latonamque supremo Dīlēctām penītūs Jovi.

(Lib. 1, 21)

7. The Asclepiadic (§ 316, III.) alone; as,

Mæcenās atavīs edīte regibus. (Lib. 1, 1.) 8. One dactylic hexameter (§ 310, 1.) and one dactylic tetrameter a posteriore (§ 312, v.); as,

Laudabunt alii claram Rhodon, aut Mitylenen,
Aut Ephesum, bimarisve Corinthi... (Lib. 1, 7.)

9. The choriambic pentameter (§ 316, 1.) alone; as,
Tū nē quæsiēris, scirē nēfās, quēm mihī, quēm tībi... (Lib. 1, 11.)

10. One dactylic hexameter (§ 310, I.) and one iambic dimeter (§ 314, VI.); as,

Nox erat, et cœlo fulgebat luna sereno Inter minora sidera.

Inter minora sidera. (Epod 15.)

11. The iambic trimeter (§ 314, I.) containing spondees; as,

Jām, jam efficāci do mānūs scientīss. (Epod. 17.)

12. One choriambic dimeter (§ 316, vi.) and one choriambic tetrameter (§ 316, ii.) with a variation; as,

Lydíá, dīc, pēr omnes Tē Dēos oro, Sybarīn cūr propērās amando... (Lib. 1, 8.)

13. One dactylic hexameter (§ 310, I.) and one iambic trimeter without spondees (§ 314, I.); as,

Āltērā jām tērītūr bēllīs cīvīlībūs zētas; Sūīs ēt īpsā Rōmā vīrībūs rūit.

(Epōd. 16.)

14. One dactylic hexameter (§ 310, 1.) and one dactylic penthemimeris (§ 312, VII.); as,

Dīff ügērē nīvēs: rēdēunt jām grāmīnā cāmpīs,

Ārbörībūsquē comæ. (Lib. 4, 7.)

15. One iambic trimeter (§ 314, I.), one dactylic trimeter catalectic (§ 312, VII.), and one iambic dimeter (§ 314, VI.); as,

Pēttī, nīhīl mē, sīcūt āntēā, jūvat Scrībērē vērsīcūlos, Amōrē pērcūlsūm grāvi.

(Epoa. 11.)

NOTE. The second and third lines are often written as one verse. See § 318, 1.

16. One dactylic hexameter (§ 310, I.), one iambic dimeter (§ 314, VI.), and one dactylic penthemimeris (§ 312, VII.); as,

Hörrīdā tēmpēstās cēlūm contrāxit; et imbres

Nīvēsque dēdūcūnt Jōvem: Nūnc măre, nūnc sīlūæ...

(Epod. 13.)

Note. The second and third lines of this stanza, also, are often written as one verse. See § 318, π

17. One Archilochian heptameter (§ 318, IV.) and one iambic trimeter catalectic (§ 314, V.); as,

Sölvītur ācrīs hīdms grātā vīcē vērīs ēt Pāvonī, Trahūntquē sīccās māchīnæ carīnas. (Lib. 1, 4.)

18. One iambic dimeter acephalous (§ 314, VIII.) and one iambic trimeter catalectic (§ 314, V.); as,

Non ebūr neque aureum Mea renidet în domo lacunar. (Lib. 2, 18.)

The Ionic a minore (§ 317, II.) alone; as,
 Misōrārum ēst nēque amorī darē lūdum, nēquē dulet... (Lib. 8, 12.)

§ 321. A METRICAL KEY TO THE ODES OF HORACE.

Containing, in alphabetic order, the first words of each, with a reference to the numbers in the preceding Synopsis, where the metre is explained.

Æli, vetusto	Mollis inertia	0.10
Æquam memento 1	Montium custos	
Albi, ne doleas 5	Motum ex Metello	. 1
Altèra jam teritur13	Musis amīcus	
Angustam, amīce 1	Natis in usum	. 1
At, O deōrum 4	Ne forte credas	. 1
Audivēre, Lyce 6	Ne sit ancillæ	. 2
Bacchum in remotis 1	Nolis longa feræ	
Beātus ille 4	Nondum subacta	. 1
Cœlo supīnas 1	Non ebur neque aureum	.18
Cœlo tonantem 1	Non semper imbres	
Cur me querēlis 1	Non usitātâ	. 1
Delicta majōrum 1	Non vides, quanto	. 2
Descende cœlo 1	Nox erat.	
Diānam, teněræ 6	Nullam, Vare, sacrâ	
Diffugēre nives14	Nullus argento	
Dive, quem proles 2	Nunc est bibendum	
Divis orte bonis 5	O crudēlis adhuc	. 9
Donārem patěras 7	O diva, gratum	
Donec gratus eram tibi 3	O fons Bandusiæ	. 6
Ehen! fugāces 1	O matre pulchrā	. 1
Est mihi nonum 2	O nata mecum	
Et ture et fidibus 3	O navis, referent	
Exēgi monumentum 7	O sæpe mecum	. 1
Extrēmum Tanaim 5	O Venus, regina	
Faune, nymphārum 2	Odi prof anum	. 1
Festo quid potius die 3	Otium Divos	. 2
Hercŭlîs ritu 2	Parcius junctas	. 2
Horrida tempestas	Parcus Ďeŏrum	. 1
Ibis Liburnis 4	Parentis olim	
Icci, beātis 1	Pastor quum trahĕret	
Ille et nefasto 1	Percicos odi, puer	. 2
Impios parræ 2	Petti, nihil me	
Inclūsam Danăën 5	Phœbe, silvarumque	
Intactis opulentior	Phœbus volentem	
Intěger vitæ 2	Pindărum quisquis	. 2
Intermissa, Venus, diu 3	Poscimur: si quid	
Jam jam efficāci11	Quæ cura Patrum	
Jam pauca arātro 1	Qualem ministrum	
Jam satis terris 2	Quando repostum	. 4
Jam veris comites 5	Quantum distet ab Inacho	
Justum et tenäcem 1	Quem tu, Melpoměne	
Laudābunt alii	Quem virum aut herōa	
Lupis et agnis 4	Quid bellicosus	
Lydia, dic, per omnes12	Quid dedicatum	. 1
Mæcēnas atāvis 7	Quid fles, Asterie	
Malā solūta 4	Quid immerentes	
Martiis cælebs	Quid obserātis	. 11
Mater sæva Cupidĭnum 8	Quid tibi vis	. 0
Mercuri, facunde 2	Quis desiderio	. 0
Mercuri, nam te 2	Quis multa gracilis	. 6
Miserarum est19	Quo me, Bacche	. 0

360 § 321. PROSODY .- VERSIFICATION-HORATIAN METRES.

Quo, quo, scelesti ruïtisNo. 4 Quum tu, Lydia3 Rectius vives2	Tyrrhēna regum 1
Rogare longo 4	Uxor paupėris Ibyci 3
Scribēris Vario	
Sic te Diva potens	Vile potābis 2
Te maris et terræ 8	Vixi puellis

The following are the single metres used by Horace in his lyric compositions, viz :--

- 1. Dactylic Hexameter.
- Dactylic Tetrameter a posteriòri.
 Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic.

- Adonic.
 Trimeter Iambic.
 Iambic Trimeter Catalectic.
- 7. Iambic Dimeter.
- 8. Archilochian Iambic Dimeter Hypermeter.
- 9. Iambic Dimeter Acephalous.
- 10. Sapphic.

- 11. Choriambic Pentameter.
- 12. Choriambic Tetrameter.
- 13. Asclepiadic Tetrameter.
- 14. Glyconic.
- 15. Pherecratic. 16. Choriambic Dimeter.
- 17. Ionic a minore.
- Greater Alcaic.
 Archilochian Heptameter.
- 20. Lesser Alcaic.

APPENDIX.

GRAMMATICAL FIGURES.

§ **322.** Certain deviations from the regular form and construction of words, are called *grammatical figures*. These may relate either to Orthography and Etymology, or to Syntax.

I. FIGURES OF ORTHOGRAPHY AND ETYMOLOGY.

These are distinguished by the general name of metaplasm.

- 1. Prosthësis is the prefixing of a letter or syllable to a word; as, gnātus, for nātus; tētūli, for tūli. These, however, are rather the ancient customary forms, from which those now in use were formed by aphærësis.
- 2. Aphærësis is the taking of a letter or syllable from the beginning of a word; as, 'st, for est; rābōnem, for arrābōnem.
- 3. Epenthësis is the insertion of a letter or syllable in the middle of a word; as, ālitāum, for ālitum; Māvors, for Mars.
- 4. Syncope is the omission of a letter or syllable in the middle of a word; as, deûm, for deōrum; meûm factûm, for meōrum factōrum; sæcla, for sæcūla; flesti, for flevisti; repostus, for repositus; aspris, for asperis.
- 5. Crasis is the contraction of two vowels into one; as, cōgo, for cŏăgo; nīl, for nihil.
- 6. Paragōge is the addition of a letter or syllable to the end of a word; as, med, for me; claudier, for claudi.
- 7. Apocope is the omission of the final letter or syllable of a word; as, men', for mene; Antoni, for Antonii.
- 8. Antithesis is the substitution of one letter for another; as, olli, for illi, optimus, for optimus; afficio, for adficio. O is often thus used for u, especially after v; as, voltus, for vultus; servom, for servum. So after qu; as, æquom, for æquum.
- 9. Metathésis is the changing of the order of letters in a word; as, pistris, for pristis.

II. FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

- 323. The figures of Syntax are ellipsis, pleonasm, enalläge, and hyperbaton.
- 1. (a.) Ellipsis is the omission of some word or words in a sentence; as,

Aiunt, seil. homines. Dārīus Hystaspis, seil. fīlius. Căno, seil. ego. Quid multa? seil. dīcam. Ex quo, seil. tempore. Ferina, seil. caro.

- (b.) Ellipsis includes asyndeton, zeugma, syllepsis, and prolepsis.
- (1.) Asyndéton is the omission of the copulative conjunction; as, ábiit, excessit, ēvāsit, ērūpit scil. et. Cic. This is called in pure Latin dissolūtio.

- (2.) (a.) Zeugma is the uniting of two nouns or two infinitives to a verb, which, as to its meaning, is applicable to only one of them; as, Pācem an belum gērens: (Sall.) where gērens is applicable to belum only, while pācem requires āgēre. Semperne in sanguine, ferro, fūgā versābīmur? (Id.) where the verb does not properly apply to ferro.
- (b.) Nogo is often thus used with two propositions, one of which is affirmative; as, Negant Casarem mansūrum, postulātāque interposita esse, for dicuntque postukāta... Cic. See § 209, Note 4.
- (c.) When an adjective or verb, referring to two or more nouns, agrees with one, and is understood with the rest, the construction is also sometimes called zeugma, but more commonly syllepsis; as, Et gĕnus, et virtus, nisi cum re, vilior algā est. Hor. Cāper tibi salvus et hædi. Virg. Quamvis ille niger, quamvis tu candida esses. Id.
- (3.) Syllepsis is when an adjective or verb, belonging to two or more nouns of different genders, persons, or numbers, agrees with one rather than another; as, Attönit nöritäte pävent Baucis, timidusque Philēmon. Ovid. Prōcumbit iterque prōnus hūmi, i. e. Deucălion et Pyrrha. Id. Sustulimus mānus et ego et Balbus. Cic. So, Ipse cum frātre ādesse jussi sūmus. Id. Prōjectisque āmtcūlo et litēris. Curt. See §§ 205, R. 2, and 209, R. 12, (3.) and (7.)
- (4.) Prölepsis is when the parts, differing in number or person from the whole, are placed after it, the verb or adjective not being repeated; as, Principes utrinque pugnam cicbant, ab Sābinis Mettius Curtius, ab Rōmānis Hostus Hostilus. Liv. Bōni quŏniam conventmus ambo, tu cālāmos inflāre, ĕgo dīcēre versus. Virg.
- 2. (a.) Pleonasm is using a greater number of words than is necessary to express the meaning; as,
- Sic cre löcüta est. Virg. Qui măgis vêre vincere quam diu imperare malit. Liv. Nemo unus. Cic. Forte fortuna. Id. Prudens sciens. Ter.
- (b.) Under pleonasm are included parelcon, polysynděton, hendiădys, and periphrăsis.
- (1.) Părelcon is the addition of an unnecessary syllable or particle to pronouns, verbs, or adverbs; as, *ĕgŏmet*, *ăgĕdum*, *fortassean*. Such additions, however, usually modify the meaning in some degree.
- (2.) Polysyndeton is a redundancy of conjunctions; as, Una Eurusque Notusque ruunt créberque procellis Africus. Virg.
- (3.) Hendiādys is the expression of an idea by two nouns connected by et, -que, or adque, instead of a noun and a limiting adjective or genitive; as, Păteris libāmus et auro, for aureis pātēris. Virg. Libro et silvestri sūběre clausam, for libro sībēris. Id. Cristis et auro. Ovid. Met. 3, 32.
- (4.) Pěriphrăsis or circumbocitio is a circuitous mode of expression; as, Těněri fætus övium, i. e. agni. Virg.
- 3. (a.) Enallage is a change of words, or a substitution of one gender, number, case, person, tense, mood, or voice of the same word for another.
- (b.) Enallăge includes antimeria, heterosis, antiptosis, synesis, and anacolūthon.
- (1.) Antimeria is the use of one part of speech for another, or the abstract for the concrete; as, Nostrum istud vivere triste, for nostra vita. Pers. Aliud cras. Id. Conjugium vidēbit? for conjūgem. Virg.
- (2.) Heterosis is the use of one form of noun, pronoun, verb, etc., for another; as, Eqo quoque una pereo, quod mihi est carius, for qui mihi sum carior. Ter.

Rōmānus prælio victor, for Rōmāni victōres. Liv. Many words are used by the poets in the plural instead of the singular; as, colla, corda, ōra, etc. See § 98. Me truncus illapsus cerebro sustălerat, for sustălisset. Hor. See § 259, R. 4.

(3.) Antiptōsis is the use of one case for another; as, Cui nunc cognōmen Iūlo, for Iūlus. Virg. § 204, R. 8. Uxor invicti Jŏvis esse nescis, for te esse uxōrem. Hor. § 210, R. 6.

(4.) Syněsis, or synthěsis, is adapting the construction to the sense of a word, rather than to its gender or number; as, Sūbeunt Tēgæa jūventus auxilio tardi. Stat. Concursus pōpūli mīrantium quid rei est. Liv. Pars in crūcem acti. Sall. Ubi illic est scēlus, qui me perdtdit? Ter. Id mea minime rēfert, qui sum nātu maximus. Id. See § 205, R. 3, (1.) and (3.), and § 206, (12.)

(5.) Anăcolūthon is a disagreement in construction between the latter and former part of a sentence; as, Nam nos omnes, quibus est ălicunde ăliquis objectus lâbos, omne quod est intêrea tempus, priusquam id rescitum est, lucro est. Ter. In this example, the writer began as if he intended to say lucro hâbêmus, and ended as if he had said nobis omnibus, leaving nos omnes without its verb.

4. (a.) Hÿperbăton is a transgression of the usual order of words or clauses.

(b.) Hyperbaton includes anastrophe, hysteron proteron, hypallage, synchysis, tmēsis, and parenthesis.

(1.) Anastrophe is an inversion of the order of two words; as, Transtra per et rēmos, for per transtra. Virg. Collo dăre brāchia circum, for circumdăre. Id. Nox ĕrit ūna super, for supĕrĕrit. Ovid. Et făcit āre, for ārĕfăcit. Lucr.

(2.) Hysteron proteron is reversing the natural order of the sense; as, Möriämur, et in media arma ruāmus. Virg. Vālet atque vīvit. Ter.

(3.) Hỹpallăge is an interchange of constructions; as, In növa fert ănimus mūtātas dicēre formas corpŏra, for corpŏra mūtāta in növas formas. Ovid. Dăre classibus Austros, for dăre classes Austris. Virg.

(4.) Synchysis is a confused position of words; as, Saxa vocant Itāli, mēdiis quæ in fluctībus, āras, for quæ saxa in mēdiis fluctībus, ītāli vocant āras. Virg.

(5.) Tmēsis or diacope is the separation of the parts of a compound word; as, Septem subjecta trioni gens, for septentrioni. Virg. Quæ me cumque vocant terræ. Id. Per mihi, per, inquam, grātum fēcēris. Cic.

(6.) Părenthěsis or dialýsis is the insertion of a word or words in a sentence interrupting the natural connection; as, Tityre dum rědeo, (brěvis est via,) pasce căpellas. Virg.

REMARK. To the above may be added archaism and Hellenism, which belong both to the figures of etymology and to those of syntax.

(1.) Archaism is the use of ancient forms or constructions; as, aulāt, for aulæ; sēnāti, for sēnātūs; fual, for sit; prolitbesso, for prolitbuēro; impetrassēre, for impetrātūrum esse; fārler, for fāri; nēnu, for non; endo, for in;—Opēram ābūtitur, for opērā. Ter. Quid tibi hanc cūrātio est rem? Plaut.

(2.) Hellenism is the use of Greek forms or constructions; as, Hělène, for Hělèna; Antiphon, for Antipho; aurās (gen.), for auræ; Palládos, Palláda, for Palládis, Palládem; Trōādis, Trōādbus, Trōādes;—Abstinēto īrārum. Hor. Tempus dēsistēre pugmæ. Virg.

 \S 324. (1.) To the grammatical figures may not improperly be subjoined certain others, which are often referred to in philological works, and which are called

TROPES AND FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

(2.) A rhetorical figure is a mode of expression different from the direct and simple way of expressing the same sense. The turning of a word from its original and customary meaning, is called a trope.

- 1. (a.) A metaphor is the transferring of a word from the object to which it properly belongs, and applying it to another, to which that object has some analogy; as, Rīdet åger, The field smiles. Virg. Etas aurea, The golden age. Ovid. Naufrāgia fortāwa, The wreck of fortune. Cic. Mentis oculi, The eyes of the mind. Id. Virtus ānīmum glōriæ stīmūlis concītat. The harshness of a metaphor is often softened by means of quāsi, tamquam, quādam, or ut ita dīcam; as, In ūnā philosophiā quāsi tabernāculum vītæ suæ coliócārunt. Id. Opīmum quoddam et tanquam ādīpātæ dictionis gēnus. Id.
- (b.) Cătachrēsis or ăbūsio is a bold or harsh metaphor; as, Vir grēgis ipse caper. Virg. Eurus per Siculas equitavit undas. Hor.
- 2. Metonymy is substituting the name of an object for that of another to which it has a certain relation; as the cause for the effect, the container for what is contained, the property for the substance, the sign for the thing signified, and their contraries; the parts of the body for certain affections; the possessor for the thing possessed; place and time for the persons or things which they comprise, etc.; as, Mortāles, for hömines: Virg. Amor dāri Martis, i. e. belli. Id. Frūges Cèrèrem appellāmus, vīnum autem Lībèrum. Cic. Cūpio vigiliam meam tibi trādēre, i. e. meam cāram. Id. Pallīda mors. Hor. Hausti pātèram, i. e. vīnum. Virg. Vīna cörōnant, i. e. pātēram. Id. Necte ternos cölōres, i. e. tria fila diversi cölōris. Id. Cēdant arma tögæ, i. e. bellum pāci. Cic. Sæcūla mītescent, i. e. hömīnes in sæcūlis. Virg. Vīvat Pācūvius vel Nestōra tūtum. Juv. Doctrīnā Græcia nos sūpērābat, for Græci sūpērābant. Cic. Pāgi centum Suevūrum ad rīpas Rhēni consēdērant, for pāgōrum incolke. Cæs. Tempōra āmīcōrum, for res adversæ. Cic. Claudius lēge prædiātōriā vēnālis pēpendit, for Claudii prædium. Suet. Vīci ad Jānum mēdium sēdentes, for Jāni vicum. Cic.
- 3. Synecdoche is putting a whole for a part, a genus for a species, a singular for a plural, and their contraries; also the material for the thing made of it; a definite for an indefinite number, etc.; as, Fontem förebant. Id. Tectum, for dömus. Id. Armāto milite complent, for armātis militibus. Id. Ferrum, for glādius. Id. Qui Corinthiis öpērībus abundant, i. e. vāsis. Cic. Urbem, urbem, mi Rūfe, cole, i. e. Rōmam. Cic. Centum puer artium, i. e. multārum.
- 4. Irony is the intentional use of words which express a sense contrary to that which the writer or speaker means to convey; as, Salve bone vir, curastiprobe. Ter. Egrégiam véro laudem, et spolia ampla réfertis, tuque, puerque tuus. Virg.
- 5. Hỹperbôle is the magnifying or diminishing of a thing beyond the truth; as, Ipse arduus, altaque pulsat sidera. Virg. Ocior Euro. Id.
- 6. Métálepsis is the including of several tropes in one word; as, Post ăliquot ăristas. Virg. Here aristas is put for messes, and this for annos.
- 7. (a.) Allegory is a consistent series of metaphors, designed to illustrate one subject by another; as, O nāris, rēfērent in mare te novi fluctus. Hor.
- (b.) An obscure allegory or riddle is called an anigma; as, Dic, quibus in terris tres patent cali spatium non amplius ulnas. Virg.
- 8. Antónômásia is using a proper noun for a common one, and the contrary; as, Irus et est subito, qui modo Crossus érat, for pauper and dires. Ovid. So, by periphrasis, pôtor Rhôdâni, for Gallus. Hor. Eversor Cartháginis, for Scipio. Quint. Elôquentiæ princeps, for Cicero. Id. Tydides, for Diòmèdes. Virg.
- 9. Littles is a mode of expressing something by denying the contrary; as, Non laudo, I blame. Ter. Non innoxia verba. Virg.
- 10. Antiphrasis is using a word in a sense opposite to its proper meaning; as, Auri sacra fames. Virg.
- 11. Euphemism is the use of softened language to express what is offensive or distressing; as, Si quid accidisset Casári, i. e. si mortuus esset. Vell.
- 12. Antănaclăsis or punning is the use of the same word in different senses; as, Quis neget £nēæ nātum de stirpe Nerōnem? Sustulit hic mātrem, sustulit ille patrem. Epigr. Amāri jucundum est, si cūrētur ne quid insit ămāri. Cic.

- 13. Anāphöra or ēpānāphöra is the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clauses; as, Nihilne te nocturnum presidium pālātii, nihil urbis vigilive, nihil timor pēpāli, etc. Cic. Te, dulcis conjux, te, sölo in lītore sēcum, te, vēniente die, te, dēcēdente, cānēbat. Virg.
- 14. Epiströphe is the repetition of a word at the end of successive clauses; as, Panos populus Römānus justitiā vieit, armis vieit, libērālitāte vieit. Gic. In pure Latin this figure is called conversio.
- 15. Symplöce is the repetition of a word at the beginning, and of another at the end, of successive clauses, and hence it includes the anaphora and the epistrophe; as, Quis legem talit! Rullus: Quis majorem populi partem suffragiis privavit! Rullus: Quis comittiis prefuit! Idem Rullus. Cic.
- 16. Epănálepsis is a repetition of the same word or sentence after intervening words or clauses. See Virg. Geor. II. 4—7.
- 17. Anādiplosis is the use of the same word at the end of one clause, and the beginning of another; as, Sēquitur pulcherrimus Astur, Astur ēquo fidens. Virg. A. 10, 180. Nunc ētiam audes in hōrum conspectum vēnīre, vēnīre audes in hōrum conspectum? Cic. This is sometimes called ēpānastrophe.
- 18. Epănădiplosis is the use of the same word both at the beginning and end of a sentence; as, Crescit ămor nummi, quantum ipsa pecunia crescit. Juv.
- 19. Epănădos or regressio is the repetition of the same words in an inverted order; as, Crūdēlis māter māgis, an puer improbus ille? Improbus ille puer, crūdēlis tu quoque, māter. Virg.
- 20. Epizeuxis is a repetition of the same word for the sake of emphasis; as, Excitate, excitate eum ab inféris. Cic. Ah Cörydon, Cörydon, que te démentia cépit? Virg. Ilimus, ibimus, utcumque præcédes. Hor.
- 21. Climax is a gradual amplification by means of a continued anadiplosis, each successive clause beginning with the conclusion of that which precedes it; as, Quæ reliqua spes manet libertātis, si illis et quod libet, licet; et quod licet, possunt; et quod possunt, audent; et quod audent, vobis molestum non est? Cic. This, in pure Latin, is called gradātio.
- 22. Incrēmentum is an amplification without a strict climax; as, Făcinus est, vincīri cīvem Rōmānum; scēlus, verbērāri; prope parrīcīdium, nēcāri; quid dicam in crūcem tolli? Cic.
- 23. Pŏlyptōton is the repetition of a word in different cases, genders, numbers, tenses, etc.; as, Jam clipeus clipeis, umbōne rēpellītur umbo; ense minax ensis, pēde pes, et cuspīde cuspīs. Stat.
- 24. Paregměnon is the use of several words of the same origin, in one sentence; as, Abesse non potest, quin ějusdem hominis sit, qui improbas probet, probos improbare. Cic. Istam pugnam pugnabo. Plaut.
- 25. Păronomăsia is the use of words which resemble each other in sound; as, Amor et melle et felle est fecundissimus. Plaut. Civem bonărum artium, bonărum partium. Cic. Amantes sunt amentes. Ter. This figure is sometimes called agnôminatio.
- 26. Hömæopröphëron or alliteration is the use in the same sentence of several words beginning with the same letter; as, O Tite, tüte Tüti, tibi tanta, tyranne, tülisti. Enn. Neu patriæ välidas in viscēra vertite vīres. Virg.
- 27. Antithėsis is the placing of different or opposite words or sentiments in contrast; as, Hūjus brātionis difficilius est exitum quam principium inventre. Cic. Cæsar beneficiis ac mūnificentiā magnus hābēbātur; integritāte vitæ Cato. Sall.
- 28. Oxymoron unites words of contrary significations, thus producing a seeming contradiction; as, Concordia discors. Hor. Quum tăcent, clāmant. Cic.
- 29. Sỹnônỳmia is the use of different words or expressions having the same inport; as, Non fĕram, non pătiar, non stnam. Cic. Prōmiţto, rēctpio, spondeo. Id.

- 30. Părâbola or Simile is the comparison of one thing with another; as, Repente te, tanquam serpens e lătibulis, oculis eminentibus, inflăto collo, tâmidis cervicibus, intălisti. Cic.
- 31. Erōtēsis is an earnest question, and often implies a strong affirmation of the contrary; as, Crēdītis āvectos hostes? Virg. Heu! quæ me æquōra possunt accipēre? Id.
- 32. Epănorthōsis or Correctio is the recalling of a word, in order to place a stronger or more significant one in its stead; as, Filium ûntcum ădôlescentulum hăbeo: ah! quid dixi? me hăbēre? Imo hābui. Ter.
- 33. Apŏsiōpēsis, Rěticentia, or Interruptio, is leaving a sentence unfinished in consequence of some emotion of the mind; as, Quos ĕgo—sed mōtos præstat compōnère fluctus. Virg.
- 34. Prosopopæia or personification represents inanimate things as acting or speaking, and persons dead or absent as alive and present; as, Quæ (patria) tēcum, Cutlina, sic ăgit. Cic. Virtus sumit aut ponit secures. Hor.
- 35. Apostrophe is a turning off from the regular course of the subject, to address some person or thing; as, Vi pottur; quid non mortalia pectora cogis, auri sacra fames! Virg.
- 36. Părăleipsis is a pretended omission of something, in order to render it more observed. See Cic. Cat. 1, 6, 14.
- 37. Epiphönēma or Acclāmātio is an exclamation or grave reflection on something said before; as, Tanta mölis črat Rōmānam condère gentem. Virg.
- 38. Ecphōnēsis or Exclāmātio shows some violent emotion of the mind; as, O tempōra! O mōres!
- 39. Aporia, Diaporesis, or Dubitatio, expresses a doubt in regard to what is to be said or done; as, Quos accedam, aut quos appellem? Sall.
- 40. Prölepsis is the anticipation of an objection before it is made, or of an event before it occurs; as, Vērum anceps pugnæ fuërat fortūna. Fuisset: Quem mētui morītūra? Virg.
- § 325. To the figures of rhetoric may be subjoined the following terms, used to designate defects or blemishes in style:—
- 1. Barbarism is either the use of a foreign word, or a violation of the rules of orthography, etymology, or prosody; as, rigōrōsus, for rigidus or sévērus; domninus, for dominus; davi, for dēdi.
- 2. Solecism is a violation of the rules of syntax; as, Vėnus pulcher; vos invidėmus.
- 3. Neoterism is the use of words or phrases introduced by authors living subsequently to the best ages of Latinity; as, murdrum, a murder; constable.
- 4. Tautology is a repetition of the same meaning in different words; as, Jam vos aciem, et prælia, et hostem poscitis. Sil.
- 5. Amphibolia is the use of equivocal words or constructions; as, Gallus, a Gaul, or a cock. Aio te, Æacida, Romanos vincere posse. Quint.
- 6. Idiotism is a construction peculiar to one or more languages: thus, the ablative after comparatives is a Latinism. When a peculiarity of one language is imitated in another, this is also called idiotism. Thus, Mitte mith verbum, instead of Fac me certifierm, is an Anglicism.

ROMAN MODE OF RECKONING.

I. OF TIME.

1. The Roman Day.

§ **326.** (1.) With the Romans, as with us, the day was either civil or natural. Their civil day, like ours, extended from midnight to midnight. The natural day continued from sunsite to sunset, as, on the other hand, the night extended from sunset to sunsite. The natural day and night were each divided into twelve equal parts or hours, which were consequently of different length, according to the varying length of the days and nights in the successive seasons of the year. It was only at the equinox that the diurnal and nocturnal hours of the Romans were equal to each other, as each was then equal to the twenty-fourth part of the civil day.

(2.) In the Roman camp the night was further divided into four watches (vigiliæ), consisting each of three Roman hours, the second and fourth watches ending respectively at midnight and at sunrise.

2. The Roman Month and Year.

(1.) The calendar of the Romans, as rectified by Julius Casar, agreed with our own in the number of months, and of the days in each, according to the following table:—

 Jānuārius . 31 days.
 Maius . 31 days.
 September 30 days.

 Februārius 28 or 29.
 Jūnius . 30 "
 Octōber . 31 "

 Martius . . 31 days.
 Quintīlis 31 "
 Nŏvember 30 "

 Aprilis . . . 30 "
 Sextīlis . 31 "
 Dēcember 31 "

In early times the Roman year began with March, and the names $Quint\bar{\imath}lis$, $Sext\bar{\imath}lis$, September, etc., indicated the distance of those months from the commencement of the year. $Quint\bar{\imath}lis$ and $Sext\bar{\imath}lis$ were afterwards called $J\bar{\imath}lius$ and Augustus in honor of the first two emperors. The Romans, instead of reckoning in an uninterrupted series from the first to the last day of a month, had in each month three points or periods from which their days were counted—the Calends, the Nones, and the Ides. The Calends ($C\bar{\imath}lende$), were always the first day of the month. The Nones ($N\bar{\imath}ne$), were the fifth, and the Ides (Idus), the thirteenth; except in March, May, July, and October, when the Nones occurred on the seventh day, and the Ides on the fifteenth.

(2.) They always counted forward, from the day whose date was to be determined, to the next Calends, Nones, or Ides, and designated the day by its distance before such point. After the first day of the month, therefore, they began to reckon so many days before the Nones; after the Nones, so many days before the Ides; and after the Ides, so many before the Calends, of the next month.

Thus, the second of January was denoted by quarto Nonas Januarias, or Januarii, scil. die ante: the third, tertio Nonas; the fourth, pridie Nonas; and the fifth, Nonis. The sixth was denoted by octavo Idus; the seventh,

septimo Idus; and so on to the thirteenth, on which the Ides fell. The four-teenth was denoted by undēvīgēsimo Călendas Februārias, or Februārii; and so on to the end of the month.

- (3.) The day preceding the Calends, Nones, and Ides, was termed pridie Calendas, etc., scil. ante: in designating the other days, both the day of the Calends, etc., and that whose date was to be determined, were reckoned; hence the second day before the Calends, etc., was called tertio, the third quarto, etc.
- (4.) To reduce the Roman calendar to our own, therefore, when the day is between the Calends and the Nones or between the Nones and the Ides, it is necessary to take one from the number denoting the distance of the given day from the Nones or the Ides, and to subtract the remainder from the number of the day on which the Nones or Ides fell in the given month.

Thus, to determine the day equivalent to *IV. Nonas Jānuārias*, we take 1 from 4, and subtract the remainder, 3, from 5, the day on which the Nones of January fell (i. e. 4—1=3, and 5—3=2): this gives 2, or the second of January, for the day in question. So *VI. Idus Aprīlis*: the Ides of April falling upon the 13th, we take (6—1, i. e.) 5 from 13, which leaves 8 (i. e. 6—1=5, and 13—5=8): the expression, therefore, denotes the 8th of Aprīl.

(a.) In reckoning the days before the Calends, as they are not the last day of the current month, but the first of the following, it is necessary to subtract two from the number denoting the distance of the given day from the Calends of the following month, and to take the remainder from the number of days in the month.

Thus, XV. Cal. Quintiles is 15—2=13, and 30—13=17, i. e. the Roman date XV. Cal. Quint. is equivalent to the 17th of June.

(b.) To reduce our calendar to the Roman, the preceding method is to be reversed. Thus when the given day is between the Calends and the Nones or between the Nones and the Ides, (unless it be the day before the Nones or the Ides), we are to add one to the number denoting the day of the month, according to our reckoning, on which the Nones or Ides fell. But if the day is after the Ides, (unless it be the last day of the month), we must add two to the number of days in the month, and then subtract the number denoting the day of the month as expressed in our reckoning. The remainder will be the day before the Nones, Ides or Calends.

Thus to find the Roman date corresponding to the third of April, we have 5+1-3=3; the required date, therefore, is III. Non. Apr.—To find the proper Roman expression for our tenth of December we have 13+1-10=4; the date, therefore, is IV. Id. Dec.—The Roman expression for the 22d of August, in pursuance of the above rule, is found thus, 31+2-22=11, and the date is XI. Cal. Sept.

- (5.) In leap year, both the 24th and 25th of February were called the sixth before the Calends of March. The 24th was called dies bisextus, and the year itself annus bisextus, bissextile or leap year.
- (a.) The day after the Calends, etc., was sometimes called postrīdie călendas, etc.
- (b.) The names of the months are properly adjectives, though often used as nouns, mensis being understood.

(6.) The correspondence of our calendar with that of the Romans is exhibited in the following

TABLE.

Days of our months.	Mar. Mai. Jul. Oct.	Jan. Aug. Dec.	APR. JUN. SEPT. NOV.	FEBR.
1	Calendæ.	Calendæ.	Calendæ.	Calendæ.
2	VI. Nonas.	IV. Nonas.	IV. Nonas.	IV. Nonas.
8	V. "	III. "	III. "	III. "
4	IV. "	Pridie "	Pridie "	Pridie "
5	III. "	Nonæ.	Nonæ.	Nonæ.
2 3 4 5 6 7 8	Pridie Non.	VIII. Idus.	VIII. Idus.	VIII. Idus.
7	Nonæ.	VII. "	VII. "	VII. "
8	VIII. Idus.	VI. "	VI. "	VI. "
9	VII. "	V. "	V. "	V. "
10	VI. "	IV. "	.IV. "	IV. "
11	V. "	III. "	III. "	III. "
12	IV. "	Pridie "	Pridie "	Pridie "
13	III. "	Idus.	Idus.	Idus.
14	Pridie Id.	XIX. Cal.	XVIII. Cal.	XVI. Cal.
15	Idus.	XVIII. "	XVII. "	XV. "
16	XVII. Cal.	XVII. "	XVI. "	XIV. "
17	XVI. "	XVI. "	XV. "	XIII. "
18	XV. "	XV. "	XIV. "	XII. "
19	XIV. "	XIV. "	XIII. "	XI. "
20	XIII. "	XIII. "	XII. "	X. "
21	XII. "	XII. "	XI. "	IX. "
22	XI. "	XI. "	X. 4	VIII. "
23	X. "	X. "	IX. "	VII. "
24	IX. "	IX. "	VIII. "	VI. "
25	VIII. "	VIII. "	VII. "	V. "
26	VII. "	VII. "	VI. "	IV. "
27	VI. "	VI. "	V. "	·III. "
28	v. "	V. "	IV. "	Pridie "Mar
29	IV. "	IV. "	III. "	
30	III. "	III. "	Pridie Cal.	
31	Pridie Cal.	Pridie Cal.		

(7.) In leap-year the last seven days of February were reckoned thus:-

VII. Călendas Martias.

IV. Cal. Mart. 27.

bisexto Cal. Mart. 24.

III. · "

28.

25. VI. Cal. Mart. 26.

pridie Cal. Mart. 29.

(a.) Hence in reducing a date of February in leap-year to the Roman date, for the first 23 days we proceed according to the preceding rule in 4, (b.), as if the month had only 28 days. The 24th is marked as bisexto Cal. Mart., and to obtain the proper expression for the remaining five days we regard the month as having 29 days. Thus the 27th of February in leap-year is 29+2-27=4, and the proper Roman expression is IV. Cul. Mart.

(b.) On the other hand, to reduce a Roman date of February in leap-year to our date we reverse the above process, and during the Nones and Ides and until the VII. Călendas Martias we reckon the month to have only 28 days: bisexto Cul. Mart. is set down as the 24th, and for the remaining days designated as VI. V. IV. III. and pridie Cal. Mart. we reckon the month to have 29 days. Thus III. Cal. Mart. is 3—2=1, and 29—1=28, and the given day is equivalent to the 28th of February.

- (8.) The Latins not only said tertio, pridie, etc., Calendas, etc., but also ante diem tertium, etc., Calendas, etc.; and the latter form in Cicero and Livy is far more common than the former, and is usually written thus, a. d. III. Cal., etc.
- (9.) The expression ante diem was used as an indeclinable noun, and is joined with in and ex; as, Consul Látinas férias in ante diem tertium Idus Sextilis édixit, The consul appointed the Latin festival for the third day before the Ides of Angust. Liv. Supplicatio indicta est ex ante diem quintum Idus Octobres. Id. So, Ad pridie Nonas Maios. Cic.
- (10.) The week of seven days (hebdômas), was not in use among the Romans under the republic, but was introduced under the emperors. The days of the week were then named from the planets; dies Sōlis, Sunday; dies Lūne, Monday; dies Martis, Tuesday; dies Mercūrii, Wednesday; dies Jōvis, Thursday; dies Vēnēris, Friday; dies Sāturni, Saturday.
- (11.) The term nundinæ (from novem—dies) denotes the regular market day at Rome when the country people came into the city; but it is not used for the purpose of denoting the period of eight days intervening between two successive market days.
- (12.) The year at Rome was designated by the names of the consuls for that year. Thus Virgil was born, M. Licinio Crasso et Cn. Pompeio Magno consulibus, i. e. in the year of the consulship of Crassus and Pompey. But in Roman authors events are often dated from the year in which Rome was founded, which, according to Varro, was in the 753d year before the birth of Christ. This period was designated as anno urbis condite, and by abbreviation; a. u. c., or simply u. c., and sometimes by a. alone, before the numerals.

Thus the birth of Virgil was a.u.c. 634. To reduce such dates to our reckoning, if the given number is less than 754, we subtract it from the latter number, and the difference is the required year before Christ. The birth of Virgil therefore is 754-634=70 before Christ.—But if the number of the Roman year exceeds 753, we deduct 753 from the given number, and the remainder is the year after Christ. For example, the emperor Augustus died a.u.c. 767, and the corresponding year of our era is 767-758=14.

II. TABLES OF MONEY, WEIGHT, AND MEASURE.

§ 327. The Romans used this word (As) to denote, I. The copper coin, whose value (in the time of Cicero) was about one cent and a half of our money. II. The unit of weight (libra), or of measure (jūgěrum). III. Any unit or integer considered as divisible; as, of inheritances, interest, houses, etc.; whence ex asse hēres, one who inherits the whole. The multiples of the As are, Dipondius (duo pondo; for the As originally weighed a pound), i. e. 2 Asses; Esstertius (sesqui tertius), i. e. 2 Asses; Tressis, i. e. 3 Asses; Quatrussis, i. e. 4 Asses; and so on to Centussis, i. e. 100 Asses. The As, whatever unit it represented, was divided into twelve parts or uncive, and the different fractions received different names, as follows:

As. Uncia. As. 12 Deunx 11 Dextans 10 Dodrans 9 Bes 8 Septunx 7 Sēmis 6	Triens. 4 Quādrans, or Tēruncius. 3 Sextans. 2 Uncia. 1
Sēmis 6	Sescuncia

Cts. M.

The Uncia was divided in the following manner:-

1 Uncia	contained	2	Sēmunciæ.
"	44		Duellæ.
44	46 -		Sīcilici.
46	44		Sextŭlæ.
46	"		Drachmæ.
66	44		Scrūpŭla.
46	"	48	Obŏli.

ROMAN COINS.

These were the Teruncius, Sembella, and As or Labella, of copper; the Sestertius, Quinārius (or Victoriātus), and Dēnārius, of silver; and the Aureus, of gold.

		\$	Cts.	M.
The	Těruncius	. 0	0	3.9
2	Těruncii make 1 Sembella		0	7.8
	Sembellæ " 1 As or Lībella		1	5.6
	Asses* " 1 Sestertius	. 0	3	9
2	Sestertii " 1 Quinārius	. 0	7	8
2	Quīnārii " 1 Dēnārius	. 0	15	6
25	Dēnārii " 1 Aureus		90	0

^{*} Sometimes also (in copper) the triens, sextans, uncia, sextula, and dupondius.

ROMAN COMPUTATION OF MONEY.

Sestertii Nummi.

Sestertius (or nummus)	0	3	9	
Centum sestertii	_ 3	90	0	
Mille sestertii (equal to a sestertium)	89	0	0	
. Sestertia.				
Sestertium (equal to mille sestertii)	39	0	0	
Decem sestertia	890	0		
Centum, centum sestertia, or centum millia sestertiam Děcies sestertiam, or děcies centēna millia nummam	3900		0	
Centies, or centies H. S	39000 390000	•	0	
Millies H. S	3900000	0	0	
Millies centies H. S	429000 0	0	0	

N. B.—The marks denoting a Sestertius nummus are IIS., LLS., HS., which are properly abbreviations for 2 1-2 asses. Observe, also, that when a line is placed over the numbers, centena millia is understood, as in the case of the numeral adverbs; thus, H. S. MC. is millies centies HS.; whereas HS. MC. is only 1100 Sestertii.

ROMAN CALCULATION OF INTEREST.

The Romans received interest on their loans monthly, their highest rate being one per cent. (centesima), a month, i.e. 12 per sent a year. As this was the highest rate, it was reckoned as the as or unit in reference to the lower rates, which were denominated, according to the usual division of the as, sēmisses, trientes, quādrantes, etc., i.e. the half, third, fourth, etc., of the as or of 12 per cent. according to the following table:—

16 Sextārii

Asses ūsūræ or centēsīmæ		ent. a year.
Sēmisses ūsūræ		6
Trientes ūsūræ		4
Quadrantes ūsūræ		3
Sextantes ūsūræ		
Unciæ ūsūræ		1
Quincunces ūsūræ	• • • • •	5
Septunces ūsūræ	• • • • •	
Besses ūsūræ		8
Dodrantes ūsūræ		9
Dextantes ūsūræ		10
Deunces ūsūræ	• • • • •	11

ROMAN WEIGHTS.

				Oz.	Dwts	. Gr.
	Siliqua			0	0	3.036
8	Siliquæ n	nake	1 Obŏlus	0	0	9.107
2		66	1 Scrūpŭlum	0	0	18.214
8	Scrūpŭla	"	1 Drachma	0	2	6.643
1}	Drachma	"	1 Sextŭla	0	8	0.857
1	Sextula	"	1 Sīcilicus	0	4	13.286
11	Sīcīlīcus	"	1 Duella	0	6	1.714
3	Duellæ	"	1 Uncia	0	18	5.143
12	Unciæ	44	1 Libra* (As)	10	18 -	13.714

^{*}The Libra was also divided, according to the fractions of the As, into Deunx, etc.

ROMAN MEASURES FOR THINGS DRY.

English Corn Measure. Peck. Gal. Pint. Sol. in. Lĭgŭla..... 0 0 1-48 0.01 Ligulæ make 1 Cyathus 0 0 0 1-12 0.04 11 Cyathus " 1 Acētābŭlum... 0 0 0 1-8 0.06 Acētābŭla" 4 1 Hēmīna..... 0 0 0 1-2 0.24 Hēmīnæ " 1 Sextārius 1 0.48 0

ROMAN MEASURES FOR THINGS LIQUID.

0

7.68

1 Modius.....

			Englis	sh Wine	Measure.
			Galls.	Pints.	Sol. in.
	Lĭgŭla		0	0 1-48	0.117
4	Ligulæ mak		0	0 1-12	0.469
11	Cvathus "	1 Acētābŭlum	0	0 1-8	0.704
2	Acētābŭla "	1 Quartārius	0	01-4	1.409
2	Quartārii "	1 Hemina	0	0 1-2	2.876
2	Hēmīnæ "	1 Sextārius*	0	1	5.636
6	Sextārii "	1 Congius	0	7	4.942
4	Congii "	1 Urna	3	4 1-2	5.33
2	Urnæ "	1 Amphora (or Quadrantal).	7	1	10.66
20	Amphoræ "	1 Cūleus	143	ã	11.095

^{*} The Sextārius was also divided into twelve equal parts, called cyāthi, and therefore the calites were denominated sextantes, quadrantes, trientes, according to the number of cyāthi which they contained.

N. B.—Cădus, congiârius, and dölium, are the names of certain vessels, not measures, of capacity.

ROMAN MEASURES OF LENGTH.

					English paces.	Feet.	Inch. Dec.	
		Digitus transv	ersus.		0	0	0.725 1-4	
	1 1-5	Digitus		1 Uncia	0	. 0	0.967	
	3	Unciæ	44	1 Palmus minor	0	0	2.901	
	4	Palmi minores	46	1 Pes	. 0	0	11.604	
•	1 1-4	Pes	"	1 Palmipes	0	1	2.505	
	1 1-5	Palmipes	"	1 Cŭbĭtus	0	1	5.406	
		Cŭbĭtus	44	1 Grădus	0	2	5.01	
	2	Grădus	"	1 Passus	0	4	10.02	
12	15	Passus	"	1 Stădium	120	4	4.5	
	8	Stădia	"	1 Milliārium	967	Ō	0	

ROMAN SQUARE MEASURES.

	Roman	English rods.	Ca mia	G. C.
~_ v	sq. feet.		Sq. pls.	Sq. feet.
Jūgĕrum (As)	28,800	2	18	250.05
Deunx	26,400	2	10	183.85
Dextans	24,000	2	02	117.64
Dodrans	21,600	1	84	51.42
Bes	19,200	1	25	257.46
Septunx	16,800	1	17	191.25
	14,400	1	09	125.03
Quincunx	12,000	1	01 ·	58.82
Triens	9,600	0	82	264.85
Quādrans	7,200	0	24	198.64
Sextans	4,800	0	16	132.43
Uncia	2,400	0	08	66.21

REMARK 1. The Romans reckoned their copper money by asses, their silver money by sestertii, and their gold money by aurei and sometimes by Attic talents.

REM. 2. The as, as the unit of money, was originally a pound of copper, but its weight was gradually diminished, until, in the later days of the republic, it amounted to only 1-24th of a pound.

REM. 3. (a.) The denārius was a silver coin, originally equal in value to ten asses, whence its name; but, after the weight of the as was reduced, the denarius was equal to eighteen asses.

(b.) The sestertius, or sesterce, was one fourth of the denarius, or two asses and a half (sēmistertius). The sestertius was called emphatically nummus, as in it all large sums were reckoned after the coining of silver money.

(c.) The aureus (a gold coin), in the time of the emperors, was equal to 25 dēnārii, or 100 sesterces.

REM. 4. In reckoning money, the Romans called any sum under 2000 sesterces so many sestertii; as, decem sestertii, ten sesterces; centum sestertii, a hundred sesterces.

REM. 5. Sums from 2000 sesterces (inclusive) to 1,000,000, they denoted either by mille, millia, with sestertiam (gen. plur.), or by the plural of the neuter noun sestertium, which itself signified a thousand sesterces. Thus they said quadrāginta millia sestertiûm, or quadraginta sestertia, to denote 40,000 sesterces. With the gentive sestertiam, millia was sometimes omitted; as, sestertiûm centum, scil. millia, 100,000 sesterces.

REM. 6. To denote a million, or more, they used a combination; thus, decies centena millia sestertium, 1,000,000 sesterces. The words centena millia, however, were generally omitted; thus, decies sestertium, and sometimes merely decies. See § 118, 5. So, centies, 10 millions; millies, 100 millions.

A., Aulus.

dicat. Des., dēsignātus. D. M., diis mānībus.

Cn., Cnēns. D., Dēcimus.

C., Caius, or Gaius.

REM. 7. Some suppose that sestertium, when thus joined with the numeral adverbs, is always the neuter noun in the nominative or accusative singular. The genitive and ablative of that noun are thus used; as, Decies sestertii dote, With a dowry of 1.000,000 sesterces. Tac. Quinquāgies sestertio, 5,000,000 sesterces. Id. But this usage does not occur in Cicero.

ABBREVIATIONS.

The following are the most common abbreviations of Latin words:-M. T. C., Marcus Tullius

Cicero.

M., Manius. Mam., Māmercus. N., Numērius.

L., Lūcius. M., Marcus. A. d., ante diem. A. U. C., anno urbis con-Cal., or Kal., Călendæ. Cos., Consul. Coss., Consules. D., Dīvus.
D. D., dōno dēdit.
D. D. D., dat, dīcat, dēdīcat, or dono dicat, de-

Eq. Rom., eques Romanus.

P., Publius. F., Filius; as, M. F., Marci filius. Ictus, jūrisconsultus. Id., Idus. Imp., imperātor. J. O. M., Jovi, optimo maximo.

N., něpos. Non., Nonæ. P. C., patres conscripti. Pl., plēbis. Pop., populus. P. R., populus Romānus.

Q., or Qu., Quintus. Ser., Servius. S., or Sex., Sextus. Sp., Spurius. T., Titus. Ti., or Tib., Tiberius. Pont. Max., pontifex

maximus. Pr., prætor. Proc., proconsul. Resp., respublica. S., salūtem, sacrum, or sēnātus. S. D. P., sălūtem dicit plūrimam. S. P. Q. R., Senātus populusque Romānus. S. C., senātûs consultum. Tr., tribūnus.

To these may be added terms of reference; as, c., căput, chapter; cf., confer, compare; l. c., loco citâto; l. l., loco laudâto, in the place quoted; v., versus, verse.

DIFFERENT AGES OF ROMAN LITERATURE.

- 1. Of the Roman literature for the first five centuries after the foundation of the city, but few vestiges remain. The writers of the succeeding centuries have been arranged in four ages, in reference to the purity of the language in the period in which they flourished. These are called the golden, silver, brazen, and iron ages.
- 2. The golden age is reckoned from the time of Livius Andronicus, about A. U. C. 514, to the death of Augustus, A. U. C. 767, or A. D. 14, a period of a little more than 250 years. The writers of the early part of this age are valued rather on account of their antiquity, and in connection with the history of the language, than as models of style. It was not till the age of Cicco, that Roman literature reached its highest elevation. The era comprehending the generation immediately preceding, and that immediately succeeding, that of Cicero, as well as his own, is the period in which the most distinguished writers of Rome flourished; and their works are the standard of purity in the Latin language.

- 3. The silver age extended from the death of Augustus to the death of Trajan, A. D. 118, a period of 104 years. The writers of this age were inferior to those who had preceded them; yet several of them are worthy of commendation.
- 4. The brazen age comprised the interval from the death of Trajan to the time when Rome was taken by the Goths, A. D. 410. From the latter epoch commenced the iron age, during which the Latin language was much adulterated with foreign words, and its style and spirit essentially injured.
- 5. The body of Latin writings has been otherwise arranged by Dr. Freund, so as to be comprised in three main periods,—the Ante-classical, Classical, and Post-classical. The ante-classical extends from the oldest fragments of the language to Lucretius and Varro; the classical from Cicero and Cæsar to Tacitus, Suetonius, and the younger Pliny inclusive; the post-classical from that time to the fifth century of our era. The classical Latinity is subdivided into (a.) Ciceronian, (b.) Augustan, (c.) post-Augustan, and to the language of the fourth and fifth centuries he has given the title of late Latin.

LATIN WRITERS IN THE DIFFERENT AGES.

(From the Lexicon of Facciolatus.)

WRITERS OF THE GOLDEN AGE.

Livius Andronīcus. L. Cornelius Sisenna. P. Nigidius Figulus. Lævius. C. Nævius. C. Decius Laberius. Statius Cæcilius. M. Verrius Flaccus. Q. Ennius. Varro Attacīnus. M. Pacuvius. Titinius. L. Accius. C. Lucilius. L. Pomponius. C. Sempronius Asellio. Sex. Turpilius. L. Afranius. Cn. Matius.

Q. Novius. C. Q. Atta. L. Cassius Hemīna. Fenestella.

Q. Claud. Quadrigarius. Cœlius Antipater. Fabius Pictor. Cn. Gellius.

L. Piso, and others.

Of the works of the preceding writers, only a few fragments remain.

M. Porcius Cato.

M. Accius Plautus.
M. Terentius Afer.
T. Lucretius Carus.

C. Valerius Catullus. P. Syrus. C. Julius Cæsar.

C. Cornelius Nepos. M. Tullius Cicero.

Sex. Aurelius Propertius. C. Sallustius Crispus. M. Terentius Varro.

Albius Tibullus. P. Virgilius Maro. T. Livius.

M. Manilius.

M. Vitruvius.

P. Ovidius Naso. Q. Horatius Flaccus.

Č. Pedo Albinovānus. Gratius Faliscus.

Phædrus. C. Cornificius.

A. Hurtius, or Oppius. P. Cornelius Sevērus.

To these may be added the following names of lawyers, whose opinions are found in the digests:-

Q. Mutius Scævŏla. Alfenus Varus.

M. Antistius Labeo.

Masurius Sabīnus.

Of the writers of the golden age, the most distinguished are Terence, Catullus, Cæsar, Nepos, Cicero, Virgil, Horace, Ovid, T. Livy, and Sallust.

WRITERS OF THE SILVER AGE.

A. Cornelius Celsus. P. Velleius Paterculus. L. Junius Moderātus

Columella. Pomponius Mela.

A. Persius Flaceus. Q. Asconius Pediānus.

M. Annæus Seněca. L. Annæus Seněca.

M. Annæus Lucanus. T. Petronius Arbiter.

C. Plinius Secundus. C. Silius Italicus. C. Valerius Flaccus.C. Julius Solīnus.

D. Junius Juvenālis. P. Papinius Statius.

M. Valerius Martiālis.

M. Fabius Quintiliānus. Sex. Julius Frontinus.

C. Cornelius Tacitus. C. Plinius Cæcilius Secundus.

L. Annæus Florus. C. Suetonius Tranquil

The age to which the following writers should be assigned is somewhat uncertain:-

Q. Curtius Rūfus. Valerius Probus.

Scribonius Largus. Sulpitia.

L. Fenestella. Atteius Capito.

Of the writers of the silver age, the most distinguished are Celsus, Velleius, Columella, the Senecas, the Plinies, Juvenal, Quintilian, Tacitus, Suetonius, and Curtius.

WRITERS OF THE BRAZEN AGE.

A. Gellius. L. Apuleius.

Q. Septimius Tertulliānus.

Q. Serēnus Sammonicus. Censorīnus. Thascius Cæcilius

Cypriānus. T. Julius Calpurnius. M. Aurelius Nemesiānus. Ælius Spartiānus. Julius Capitolīnus. Ælius Lampridius.

Vulcatius Gallicanus. Trebellius Pollio. Flavius Vopiscus. Cœlius Aureliānus. Flavius Eutropius. Rhemnius Fannius. Arnobius Afer.

L. Cœlius Lactantius. Ælius Donātus. C. Vettus Juvencus.

Julius Firmīcus. Fab. Marius Victorinus. Sex. Rūfus, or Rūfus Festus.

Ammiānus Marcellīnus.

Vegetius Renātus. Aurel. Theodorus Macro-Q. Aurelius Symmächus.

D. Magnus Ausonius. Paulinus Nolānus. Sex. Aurelius Victor.

Aurel. Prudentius Clemens. Cl. Claudiānus.

Marcellus Empiricus. Falconia Proba.

Of an Age not entirely certain.

Valerius Maximus. Justīnus.

Terentiānus Maurus. Minutius Fēlix.

Sosipăter Charisius. Flavius Avianus.

The opinions of the following lawyers are found in the digests:-

Licinius Proculus. Neratius Priscus. P. Juventius Celsus. Priscus Jabolēnus.

Herennius Modestinus. Salvius Juliānus. Cains. Callistrătus. Domitius Ulpianus. Æmilius Papiniānus.

Julius Paulus. Sex. Pomponius. Venuleius Saturnīnus. Ælius Marciānus. Ælius Gallus, and others.

Of the writers of the brazen age, Justin, Terentianus, Victor, Lactantius, and Claudian, are most distinguished.

The age to which the following writers belong is uncertain. The style of some of them would entitle them to be ranked with the writers of the preceding ages, while that of others would place them even below those of the iron age.

Palladius Rutilius Taurus Æmilianus.

Æmilius Mācer.

Messāla Corvinus.

Vibius Sequester.

Julius Obsēquens.

L. Ampelius.

Apicius Cœlius.

Sex. Pompeius Festus.

Pröbus (auctor Notārum.)

Fulgentius Planciădes. Hyginus. C. Cæsar Germanĭcus. P. Victor.

P. Victor. P. Vegetius. Auctores Priapeiorum. Catalecta Virgilii et Ovidii.

Auctor orationis Sallustii in Cic. et Ciceronis in Sall.; item illius Astěquam īret in exsilium.

Auctor Epistŏlæ ad Octavium. Auctor Panegyrĭci ad

Pisonem.

Declamationes quæ tribuuntur Quintiliano,
Porcio Latroni, Calpurnio Flacco.

Interpres Darētis Phrygii, et Dictyos Cretensis.

Scholiastæ Vetěres. Grammatici Antiqui. Rhetŏres Antiqui. Medici Antiqui. Catalecta Petroniāna. Pervigilium Veněris. Poematia et Epigrammăta vetěra a Pithæo col-

lecta.

Monumentum Ancyrānum.
Fasti Consulāres.
Inscriptiones Veteres.

WRITERS OF THE IRON AGE.

Cl. Rutilius Numatiānus.
Servius Honorātus.
D. Hieronýmus.
D. Augustīnus.
Sulpicius Sevērus.
Paulus Orosius.
Coelius Sedulius.
Codex Theodosiānus.
Martiānus Capella.
Claudiānus Mamertus.
Sidonius Apollināris.

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Latīnus Pacātus.
Claudius Mamertīnus, et alii, quorum sunt Panegyrīci vetēres.
Alcīnus Avītus.
Manl. Severīnus Boēthius.
Prisciānus.
Nonius Marcellus.
Justiniāni Institutiones et Codex.

Ruf. Festus Aviēnus.
Arātor.
M. Aurelius Cassidōrus.
Fl. Cresconius Corippus.
Venantius Fortunātus.
Isidōrus Hispalensis.
Anonýmus Ravennas.
Aldhelmus or Althelmus.
Paulus Diacŏnus.





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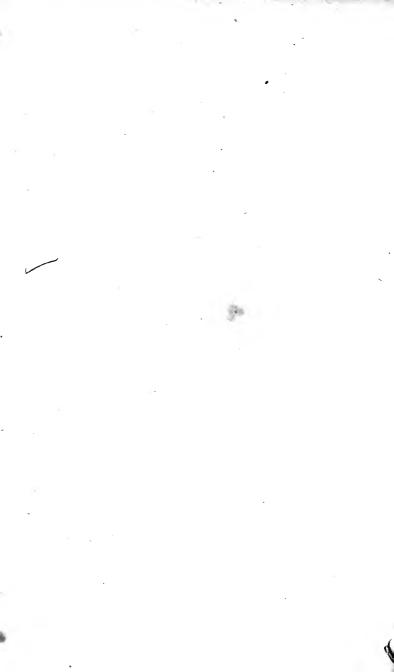
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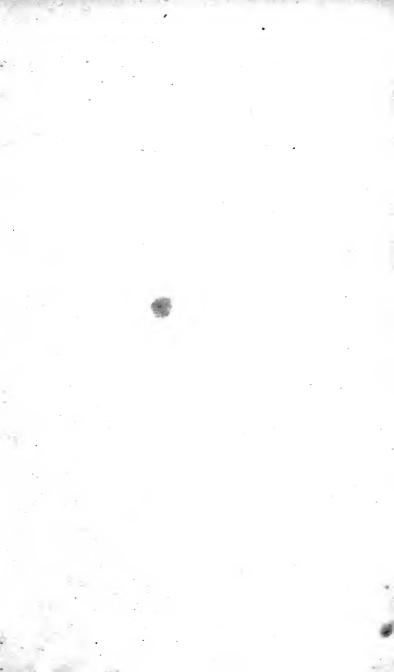
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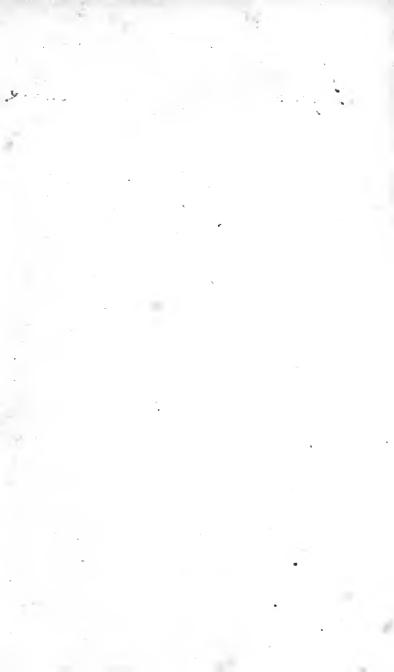












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