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##  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 Sitoddard'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 Les-

 sons 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 3 d . 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 serics of three small volumes, if faithfully studied according to the directions contained in them, will not only render the student a very tolcrable 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.

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

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## NEW SERIES OF LATIN SCHOOL BOOKS.

I hare 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, perLaps 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, bnt 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 itz 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 npon our favor. It must rapidly supersede all others. I can unhesitatingly recommend the New Grammar as the best in use.Lewis 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 canse 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, Melford, 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.-Janes 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 mbre 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 stndent. 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 hare 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 manrier of disenssion, and happily adipted to the wants of both teachers and pupils.-J. W. Simonis, Principal of Nito Enciant ('ir.sition Institute, Andover, N. IL.

## NEW SERIES OF LATIN SCHOOL BOOKS.

We have lately introduced the Revised Edition, and regard it as a great improvement apon former editions. We shall use it explusively in future.-E. Elint, Jr., Principal of Lee High School.

After a dwo examination, I am happy to state that the Author has admirably accomplished the objects which he aimed at in making this last revision. Ife 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 hereaffer direct my classes to use it.-C. L. Cushman, Principal of Peabody FIigh School, South Danvers, Ms.

The Revised Grammar seems to me greatly improved and to be every thing a scholar could wish.-Z. E. Sturgis, Charlestown, Imdiana.

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. Paliner, 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 nost 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, Pittsfield, 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 text-book.-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 reems like parting with a familiar friend to lay aside the old edition, with its many excellencies, and adopt the nev, 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 beeu 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 Latir Grammar the best Grammar of the Latin Language, and shall certainly use my influence in its behalf.-H. E. J. Clute, Edinboro', Pa.

After a thorough examination, I have no hesitation in pronouncing it the best Latin Grammar for the purposes of the recitation room that $\mathbf{I}$ have ever examined. In its 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 ract, what all rules ought to be, reliable guides to the learner.-James W. Audrews, 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 benefartor.-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. Dillaway, 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 Drisler: 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 Pbilologists. No other Grammar is now so well fitted to meet the wants of the conntry as the rapid demand for it will show beyond doubt.-A. S. Hartwell, 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 Schoolmaster.
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, Jefferson 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, Laivrence, 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 infor-mation.-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.

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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 ex-hibited.-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, Princıpal of Ellington School, Conn.

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

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## 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.

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

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 A Harmony of the Four Gospels, in Greek, according to the text of Hahn. Newly arranged, with Explanatory Notes, by Edwaris Robinson, D. D., LL. D., Professor of Biblical Literature in the Union Theological Seminary, New York. Revised Edition.This work of $\Sigma_{2}$. 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 Ilarmony zeed or can be. The original text is printed with accuracy and elegin ee 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 comprebend 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 furnishes in this respect just the facility which is needed; and we trust that among its nther effects, it will serve to direct attention more strongly to the importance of this mode of study.Prof. Hackett, of Newton Theological Seminary.

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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 Instruotor," etc.

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A Harmony of the Four Gospels，in English，accord－ ing to the common rersion；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 nar－ ratives have been so bronght 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 his－ tory．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 im－ part 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．

## 㲅obinson＇s 電ittionaty of tye 解ible．

Robinson＇s Bible Dictionary．A Dictionary for the use of Schools and Young Persons．By Einward 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．

## Elentents of getronomy．

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，Esq．， of the Cambridge Observatory，to whom the author is also indebted for super－ intending its passage through the press．
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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 vere 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 con－ tains an elaborate and compendious view of the evidences that the Holy Scrip－ tures 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 erpions Topical Index．

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## A

## 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:
PUBLISHED BY CROCKER AND BREWSTER, 51 Washington Street.

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Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year 1857, BY CROCKER AND BREWSTER,

In the Clerk's Office of the District Court of Massachusetts.

## 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, perepared 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-áa 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 fould 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 Orthoëpy will now be found some accour.t 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 .he 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 cthers, the treatises of Zumpt were even then regarded as the most valuable en:bodiment of the principles of Latin philology. It was therefore naturul 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 suoh
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 Kahner, 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 favor.

E. A. ANDREWS.

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## LATIN GRAMMAR.

§ 1. The Latin language is the language spoken by the ancent 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.

${ }_{6 f}{ }^{\S}$§ 2. Orthography treats of the letters, and other characters $f$ 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 $\operatorname{are} \mathrm{A}, \mathrm{a} ; \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{b} ; \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{c} ; \mathrm{D}, \mathrm{d} ; \mathrm{E}, \mathrm{e} ; \mathrm{F}, \mathrm{f} ; \mathrm{G}, \mathrm{g} ; \mathrm{H}, \mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{i} ; \mathrm{J}, \mathrm{j}$; $\mathrm{K}, \mathrm{k} ; \mathrm{L}, \mathrm{l} ; \mathrm{M}, \mathrm{m} ; \mathrm{N}, \mathrm{n} ; \mathrm{O}, \mathrm{o} ; \mathrm{P}, \mathrm{p} ; \mathrm{Q}, \mathrm{q} ; \mathrm{R}, \mathrm{r} ; \mathrm{S}, \mathrm{s} ; \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{t} ; \mathrm{U}, \mathrm{u}$; $\mathrm{V}, \mathrm{v} ; \mathrm{X}, \mathrm{x} ; \mathrm{Y}, \mathrm{y} ; \mathbf{Z}, \mathrm{z}$.
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 Kalendee or Calender, 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 rowels and consonants.

1. The vowels are

The consonants are divided into
2. $X$ is equivalent to $c s$ or $g s ; z$ to $t s$ or $d s$; 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 rowels, in immediate succession, in the same syllable, are called a diphthong.

The diphthongs are $a e, a i, a u, e i, e u, o e, o i, u a, u e, u i, u o, u u$, and $y i$. $A e$ and $o e$ are frequently written together, $\propto, \propto$.

## 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 punctnation, in writing and printing Latin, as in their own languages, and assign to them the same power.
Sarks of quantity and of accent are sometimes found in Latin authors, especially in elementary works:-

1. There are three marks of quantity, viz. $\smile,-, \pm$; 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 ( ${ }^{\circ}$ ), and the circumflex ( ${ }^{\wedge}$ ). 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, quòd, because; quod, 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 $a e, a i$, and oe.

## ORTHOËРY.

## § 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,
Short ă, as in hat.
Long $\bar{a}$, as in father.
Long $\bar{o}$, as in no.
Short $\breve{\mathrm{e}}$, as in met.
Long $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$, as in there.
Short 1 , as in sit.
Long $\bar{i}$, as in machine.
Short ob, as in not.
Short u , as in tub.
Long $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$, as in full.
$æ$ or $œ$, as $e$ in there.
au, as ou in our.
eu, as in feudal.
ei, as $i$ in ice.

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

## The Englisi 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.
2. Of the quantities of the penultimate and final syllables.
3. 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,
$p a^{\prime}-t e r, d e^{\prime}-d i t, v i^{\prime}-v u s, t o^{\prime}-t u s, t u^{\prime}-b a, T y^{\prime}-r u s$; in which tile 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 $a h$, but less distinct or prolonged; as, mu'sa, $e-p i s^{\prime}-t o ̄-l a, a-c e r^{\prime}-b u s, P a l-a-m \vec{e}^{\prime}-d e s$; pronounced $m u^{\prime}-z a h$, 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, $r e^{\prime}-t e, v o^{\prime}-l o, u^{\prime}-s u-i$.
3. (a.) I final has always its long sound; as, qui, au'di, le-gáa ${ }^{\prime}-t i$.

Rem. 1. The final $i$ of $t i b i$ 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, $F a^{\prime}-b i-u s$ (fa'-be-us), phi-los'-ŏ-phus (phelos ${ }^{\prime}-0-$ 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 $i-d 0^{\prime}-n e-u s$, or ends a syllable before a vowel, as in $f-e^{-j}-b a m$.
Rem. 2. $Y$ is always pronounced like $i$ in the same situation.
§ 8. 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, finsh, copy, lustre, symbol.

Exception 1. $A$, when it follows $q u$ before $d r$ and $r t$, 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-ť-ceps, ar'ma; except when followed by another $r$, as in par-ri-cí-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, ili'los, dom'-i-nos.

Exc. 4. Post is pronounced like the same word in English; so also are its compounds; as, post $t^{\prime}-q u a m, ~ p o s t^{\prime}-e-a$; but not its derivatives; as, pos-tre $-m u s$.

Exc. 5. $E, i$ and $y$ before final $r$, or before $r$ in a syllable not final,-whon 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, fert, fer'ti-lis; hir, hir's cus, myr-tus.

## II. Of the Diphthongs.

§ 9. $A e$ and $o e$ are always diphthongs unless separated by diæresis. They are pronounced as $e$ would be in the same situation; as, $\boldsymbol{a}^{\prime}$-tas, $\propto s^{\prime}$-tas, $p \propto^{\prime}$-na, $\propto s^{\prime}$-tıum.

1. $A i, e i, o i$, and $y i$, 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 Ma'-ya, Pom-péyus, 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. $A u$, when a diphthong, is pronounced like $a w$; as, laus, au'-rum, pronounced laws, etc.

Rem. 2. In the termination of Greek proper names, the letters $a u$ are pronounced separately; as, Men-e-lā-us.
3. Eu, when a diphthong, is pronounced like long $u$; as, heu, Orpheus (or'-phuse), Eu-phra-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, $u r^{\prime}$-ce-us, $m e^{\prime}-u s, m e^{\prime}-u m, e^{\prime}-u m$. In other situations they form a diphthong; as, Eu-rṑ'-pa, Thē'-seus, $e^{\prime}$-heu.
4. $U a, u e, u i, u o, u u$, when diphthongs, are pronounced like wa, we, etc.; as, lin'-gua, quë゙-ror, sua'-de-o, quŏ'tus, $\breve{e}^{\prime}-q u u s$. They are always diphthongs after $q$, usually also after $g$, and often after $s$.
5. $U i$ in $c u i$ and huic, when monosyllables, is pronounced like $w i$, 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 $\propto, \infty$, and $e u$; as, $c e^{\prime}-d o, c i^{\prime}-b u s, C e^{\prime}-s a r, c c e^{\prime}-l u m, c e u, C y^{\prime}-r u s$. In other situations, it has the sound of $k$; as, $C a^{\prime}-t o$, cru'-dus, lac.

1. Ch has always the sound of $k$; as, charta (kar'-tah), machüna (mak'-ĕ-nah).

Exc. C, following or ending an accented syllable, before $i$ followed by a vowel, and also before $e u$ and yo, has the sound of sh; as, socia (so'-she-ah), caduceus (ca-du'she-us), Sicyon (sish'-e-on).
Remarg. In the pronunciation of the ancient Romans, the hard sound of $c$ and $g$ 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 $\propto$ and $\propto$; as $g e^{\prime}-n u s, a g^{\prime}-\underline{\imath}-l i s, G y^{\prime}-g e s, G c e-t \bar{u}^{\prime}-l i$. 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 ( $\mathrm{aj}^{\prime}$-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 $3 h$; as, Per'si-a (per'she-a).
(b.) But when $s i$ or $z i$ followed by a vorwel is immediately preceded by an accented vowel, the $s$ or $z$ has the sound of $z h$; as, $A s-p a^{\prime}-s i-a$ (as-pa'-zhe-ah), $S a-b a^{\prime}-z i-a$ (sa-ba'-zhe-ah).
Note. In a few proper names, $s$ preceded by a vowel in an accented syllable and followed by $i$ before avother vowel, has the sound, not of $z h$, but of $s h$; as, $A^{\prime}$ si-a $a\left(a^{\prime}-\right.$ she-a $)$ : so Sosia, Theodosia, Lysias.

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

English analogy has also occasioned the sin $C e^{\prime}-s a r$, cco-sǘr$-r a, m i^{\prime}-s e r, m u r^{\prime}-$ $s a$, re-sid ${ }^{\prime}-u-u m$, cau'-sa, ro'sa, and their derivatives, and in some other words, to take the sound of $z$. Coes-a-ré-a, and the oblique cases of Cesar, 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 $\boldsymbol{i}$ followed by a vowel, has the sound of $s h$; 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, SaLlus-ti-us, Brut'-ti-i, Sex'-ti-us: (b) in proper names in tion and tyon; as, Eurryt'-i-on, Am-phic'ty-on; and (c) in old infinitives in er; as, flec'-ti-er, for flec'tal $^{\prime}$ ti.

## K.

2. $X$, at the beginning of a syllable, has the sound of $z$; at the end, that of k.s; as, Xenöphon (zen'-o-phon); axis (ak'sis).
Exc. 1. When $e x$ or $u x$ is followed by a vowel in an accented syllable, $x$ has the sound of $g z$; as, exemplum (eg-zem'-plum), ux-o -ri-us (ug-zo'-re-us), inexhrustus (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 $k s h$; as, noxius (nok'-she-us), pexui (pek'-shu-i).

Remare. Ch and $p h$, before th, in the beginning of a word, are silent; as, Chthonia (tho' - ni-a ). Phthin (thi'-a). Also in the following combinations of consonants, in the beginning of words of Greek origin, the first letter is nct sounded:-mne-mon'-i-ca, gna'eve, tnie'sis, Cte'si-as, Ptole-nná'us, psal'-lo.

## OF THE QUANTITIES OF THE PENULTMMATE 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.

REx. 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 frem the rules of prosody, \$5 282801 ; but for the convenience of the student, the folloving general rules are here in-serted:-
3. A vowel before another vowel or $h$ is short.
4. Diphthongs, not beginning with $u$, are :ong.
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.

I'o 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 enclitics. 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 enclitics 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, bint they modify the accent of the words to which they are annexed, and prepositions lose their accent, when they precede the cases which they goveru.
2. The Latin language has threc accents, the acnte ('), or rising tone, the grave ('), or falling tone, and the circumflex ( ${ }^{\wedge}$ ), 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 atcent; as, pix, ét, párs; dôs, jûs, spद̂s.
4. In words of two syllables, the penult is always accented; as, $p \breve{a}^{\prime}$ ter, $m \bar{a}^{\prime}$-ter, pen'-na.

Rem. 1. Words of two syllables have the circumflex accent, when the vowel of the pe-
 If otherwise, they have the acute; as, $h \check{o}^{\prime}-m \check{\partial}, d \bar{c}^{\prime} \bar{\alpha} s, R \bar{o}^{\prime}-m \bar{\alpha}$ (abl.), and $a r^{\prime}-t \bar{\zeta}$, 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, $a-m i i^{\prime}-c u s$, dom $^{\prime}-\imath$ - $-n u s$.

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 $i e$, from nominatives in ius, and genitives in $i$, instead of $i i$, 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-gil-i; Va-lér-ri, in-gé'ni. So, also, the compomens of facio with words which are not prepositions; as, cal-e-fä́-cit, tep-e-fä́-cit.
§ 15. If the penult is common, the accent, in prose, is upon the antepenult; as, vol'- $\breve{u}$-cris, phar'- $\breve{\bar{e}-t r a, ~} i b^{\prime} \breve{-}$-que: but genitives in ius, in which $i$ is common, accent their penult in prose; as $u-n \bar{\imath}^{\prime}-u s, i s-t t^{\prime}-u s$.

REM. 8. All the syllables of a Latin word, except that on which the acnte or cireumflex 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 $e^{\prime}-c u m, s u b^{\prime}-e-o$. .
2. In accentuation, the enclitics $q u e, n e, v e$, and also those which are annexed to pronouns,* are accounted constituent parts of the words to which they are subjoined; as, $i^{\prime}-t a, ~ i t^{\prime}-\breve{a}-q u e ; ~ v i i^{\prime}-r u m, ~ v i-r u m^{\prime}-q u e$.

## 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;
 por-tu" ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ ni-tā'tes, ex-er ${ }^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}-c i-t a^{\prime \prime \prime}-t i-n^{\prime \prime}-$ - bus $s^{\prime}-q u e$.

1. If only two syllables precede the primary accent, the secondary accent is on the first; as, mod $^{\prime \prime}-e-r \bar{a}^{\prime}-t u s$, tol" ${ }^{\prime \prime}-e-$ rab $^{\prime}-\mathrm{-}$-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-ō-nis, tol"'-e-ra-bil"-i-ó-rem, ex-er"'-ci-ta"-tiió-nis.

## DIVISION OF WORDS INTO SYLLABLES.

## V OWELS.

§ 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 voveel 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, $\S \S 19-23$, 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, $m i^{\prime}-h i$, tra'-hě-re, co'-hors, co ${ }^{\prime \prime}$-hor-ta'-ti-o.

[^2]2. $C h, p h$, and $t h$, 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, $A c h^{\prime \prime}-r a-d i^{\prime}-n a$, Neph $h^{\prime}-e^{-}-l e, T e^{\prime}-t h y s$.
3. $G l, t l$, and $t h l$, when standing alone between any two vowels, unless the first be $u$, and $l l$ after $u$ are always separated.

Thus, E' $^{\prime} y^{\prime}-l e, ~ A g-l a u^{\prime}-r u s, ~ A t^{\prime}-l a s, ~ a t h-l e t^{\prime}-i-c u s ;-P u b^{\prime}-l i-u s, P u b-l i c^{\prime}-\delta-l a$, res$p u b^{\prime}-l i-c a$.
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); $a x-i l^{\prime}-l a\left(a k-s i l^{\prime}-1 a h\right) ; ~ e x-e m^{\prime}-p l u m$ (eg-zem'-plum); $u x-0^{\prime}-r i-u s$ (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.
 $c r$ in $\bar{a}^{\prime}-c r^{\prime} s$ and vol'-lu-cris; chr in $a^{\prime}$-chras; $r$ in tol ${ }^{\prime \prime}-e-r a-b i l^{\prime}-i-u s ; m$ in $e t^{\prime \prime}-y-$ mo- $\omega^{\prime}-y i-a$; $l$ in $a m^{\prime \prime}-b u-l \bar{a}-t o^{\prime}-r i-u s$; and $g r$ in per ${ }^{\prime \prime}-e-g r i-n a^{\prime}-t i-0$. Respecting ch and th cf. § 18, 2.
Exc. $T i b^{\prime}-i$ and $s i b^{\prime}-i$ 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'-ér-ra; $d$ in $v i-d e^{\prime}-t o$; th in $x$-the'-ri-us; cl in Eu-cli' ${ }^{\prime}$-des and Her ${ }^{\prime \prime}-a-c l \bar{e}^{\prime}-a ; g r$ in $a$-gres ${ }^{\prime}-t i s$ and $a-g r i c^{\prime}-o-l a ; ~ p r$ in $c a-p r e^{\prime}-\sigma^{-}-i u s ; q$ in $a-q u a^{\prime}-$ ri-us; and $p h r$ in Eu-phrä'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 ${ }^{\prime}-i-n u s$ and $d o m^{\prime \prime}-i-n \alpha^{\prime}-t i-0$; $t$ in pat $t^{\prime}-\check{e}-r a$; th in $S c y t h^{\prime}-i-a$; and $q$ in $a q^{\prime}-u i-l a\left(\mathrm{ak}^{\prime}-\mathrm{we}-\mathrm{lah}\right)$, and $A q^{\prime \prime}-u i-t a^{\prime}-n i-a\left(\mathrm{ak}^{\prime \prime}-\mathrm{we}-\mathrm{ta}^{\prime}-\mathrm{ne}-\mathrm{ah}\right)$.
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, $c r$ in $a c^{\prime}-r i-t e r, a c^{\prime \prime}-r i-m o^{\prime}-n i-a ;$ tr in det ${ }^{\prime \prime}-r i-m e n^{\prime}-t u m ; p r$ in $c a p^{\prime}-r i-$ pes, cap" ${ }^{\prime \prime}$-ri-mul'-gus, phl in Paph"'la-go'-ni-a; and phr in $A p h^{\prime \prime}$-ro-dis'-i-a. Respecting phl and phr cf. § 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 $r a^{\prime}-d i-u s$, toe $-d i-u m$, $m e^{\prime \prime}-d i-\bar{a}^{\prime}-t o r ; r$ in $h a^{\prime}-r e-o, C a^{\prime \prime}-r y-\bar{a}^{\prime}-t e s ;$ $c h$ in $b r a^{\prime}$-chi-um; $q$ in ré-qui-es, re ${ }^{\prime \prime}$-qui-es ${ }^{\prime}-c o$; $t r$ in $p a^{\prime}-t r i-u s, E$-no ${ }^{\prime}-t r i-a$; and $r$ and $l$ in $c e^{\prime \prime}-r e-a^{\prime}-l i-a$.

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 $l u^{\prime}-r r^{\prime}-d u s, a u^{\prime}-r e-u s ; c r$ in $E u^{\prime}$-cri-tus; gl in $j u^{\prime}$-glans; and $p l$ in Nau'-pli-us, du'-pli-co, and du"-pli-ca'-ti-o. Cf. § 18, 3.

## § 卫2. 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, $r p$ in cor $r^{\prime}-p u s, r m$ in for $r^{\prime}-m a$ and ger-mánus; $r v$ in $c a-t e r^{\prime}-v a$; sc in ad-o-les'-cens; nn in an'-nus; phth in aph'tha; cch in Bać-chus and Bac'-cha$n a^{\prime}-l i-a$; and thl in ath-lé-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, $m p t$ in $e m p^{\prime}-t o r$, ad-emp $p^{\prime}-t i-0$; str in fe-nes $-t r a ; ~ m p l$ in ex-em'-plum; $r t h r$ in $a r-t h r i^{-}-t i s$.
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' ${ }^{\prime}$-pĕr-est, sub ${ }^{\prime}-\bar{i}-t u s, ~ p r c e-~$ ter'-e-a, trans'-ǐ-tur, sub'-stru-o. So, also, if a consonant is inserted to prevent hiatus, it is joined to the preceding vowel ; as, prod $^{\prime}-e-o$, red ${ }^{\prime}$ -$e-o$, sed-it' $-i-0$.
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 ${ }^{\prime}$-e-ro, dil'-i-gens, be-nev'-o-lus, prass'-to, eg'-ŏ-met ;-po'-tes, po-tes'-tis, an"-i-mad-ver'to, ve'-ne-o (from venum, eo), mag-nan'-i-mus, am-bä'-ges, lon-ge's'vus.

## ETYMOLOGY.

§ 24. 1. Etymology treats of the different classes of words, their derivation, and their various infle tions.
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.
Rum. 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.
§ 2ذ. 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; Tibĕris, 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, hŏmo, 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, exercǐtus, an army.
Rem. 1. The following are examples of nouns used as collectives, viz. exercřtus, gens, juventus, multitūdo, nobiľtas, plebs, popǔlus, turba, vis, and vulgus.
5. An abstract noun is the name of a quality, action, or other attribute; as, bonǐtas, 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, Rōma, hठัmo, popŭlus, ferrum.
6. A material noun is the name of a substance considered in the gross; as, lignum, wood; ferrum, iron ; cilbus, 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.

[^3]
## 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.
3. The gender of Latin nouns is either natural or grammatical.

1. Those nouns are naturally masculine or feminine, which are used to designate the sexes; as, vir, a man; mulier, a woman.
2. 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.
3. 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. Nany exceptions to them, on account of termination, occur: these will be specified under the several declensions.
§ 98. Masculines. 1. Names, proper and appellative, of all male beings are masculine; as, Homērus, 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 compreheuded; hence,
4. Names of rivers, winds, and months, are maseuline, because flucius, ventus, and mensis, are masculine; as, Tibĕris, the Tiber; Aquilo, the north wind; Aprilis, April.
Exc. Styx and some names of rivers in $a$ and $e$ are feminine. $§ \oint 62$, and 41, 1.
5. 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, hacc Ida, hoc Soracte.
§ 29. Feminines. 1. Names, proper and appellative, of all female beings are feminine; as, Helĕna, Helen; mäter, a mother; juvenca, a heifer.
6. Names of countries, towns, trees, plants, ships, islands, poems, and gems, are feminine ; because terra, urbs, arbor, planta, nāvis, insūla, fubüla, and gemma, are feminine; as,

Figyptus, Egypt; Corinthus, Corinth; pirus, a pear-tree; nardus, spikenard; Centuurus, the ship Centaur; Sämos, the name of an island; Eunühus, the Eunuch, a comedy of Terence; amethystus, an amethyst.
Fxc. Names of countries and islands in um, $i$, and (plur.) a, ürum, are neuter.-Names of towns in i, örum; four in o, inis, viz. Trusino, Hippo, Narbo, and Sulmo, with Tunes, Turas, and Cunöpus, are masculine. Names of towns in um or on, i, and (plur.) a, inum; those in e and $u$ of the third declension, indeclinable nouns in $i$ aud $y$, and some barbarous names, as Suthul, Hispul and Gadir are neuter.-Names of trees and plants in er of the third declension, ( $\$ 60$ ). with baccar and ribur are neuter. A few rames in $u s, i,(\$ 50)$, with oleaster, pinuster, Styrax and unēdo are masculine.-A few cames of gems in $u s, i$, are also masculine.

[^4]§ 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 părens, a parent; bos, an ox or cow: of the latter, finis, an end.

The following nouns are of the common gender:-

| Adolescens, $a$ youth. | Exsul, an exile. | Palumbes, a wood-p |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Affinis, a relative by mar riage. | Grus, a crane. | Părens, a parent. |
|  | Hospes, a guest, a host. |  |
| $\xrightarrow{\text { Ales, }}$ Antistes, a chief priest. | Index, an informer. | Præsul, a chief priest |
| Auctor, an author. | Infans, an infant. | Princeps, a prince |
| Augur, an augur. | Interpres, an interpreter. |  |
| Bos, an ox or co | Jūdex, a judge. | Serpens, a serpen |
| Canis, a dog. | Juvěnis, a youth. | Sacerdos, a priest |
| Civis, a citizen. | Martyr, a marty | prieste |
| Cömes, a companion. | Miles, $a$ soldier. | Satelles, a life-guard. |
| Conjux, a spouse. | Munǐceps, a burgess. | Sus, a swine. |
| Consors, a consort. | Mus, a mouse. | Testis, a witn |
| Conviva, a guest. | Nēmo, nobody. | Vātes, a prophet. |
| Custos, a keeper. | Obses, a hostag | Verna, a slave. |
| Dux, a leader. | Patruêlis, a cousin. | Vindex, an avenger. |

The following hexameters contain nearly all the above nouns:-
Conjux, atque părens, princeps, pătruêlis, et infans, Affinis, vindex, jūdex, dux, mileles, et hostis, Augŭr, et antistes, juvĕnis, convīva, săcerdōs, Mūn̄i-que-ceps, vātēs, adolescens, cívis, et auctor, Custōs, nēmo, cormes, testis, sus, bōs-que, cănis-que, Pro consorte tori par, presul, verna, sătelles, Mus-que obses, consors, interprěs, et exsŭl, 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. | Fur, a thief. | Lătro, a robber. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Auspex, a soothsayer. | Hëres, an heir. | Liběri, children. |
| Eques, a horseman. | Hơmo, a man or woman. | 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. <br> Custodiæ, guards. | Opěræ, laborers. <br> Excubiæ, sentinels. | $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Pubosles, }\end{array}\right\}$ Vigiliæ, watchmen. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

2. Some nouns, signifying persons, are neuter, both in their termination and construction; as,
$\begin{array}{ll}\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Acroāma, a buffoon. } \\ \text { Auxilia, auxiliaries. }\end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l}\text { Mancipium, } \\ \text { Servitium, }\end{array}\right\} \text { a slave. } & \left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Scortum, } \\ \text { Prostibülum, }\end{array}\right\} \text { a prostitute. }\end{array}$
3. (a.) In some personal appellatives masculines and feminines are distinguished by different terminations affixed to the same root. The masculines end in $u s, e r, o$, tor, etc.; the feminines in $a$ or trix; as, cöquus, cŏqua; magister, magistra; lēno, lēna; inventor, inventrix; tibīcen, tilicǐna; ăvus, avia; rex, regina; poēta, poëtria.
(l.) So also in some names of animals; as, ĕquus, ĕqua; gallus gallina; leo, lea and lecena. 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, colüber and colübra, 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, corrus, 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 se'inm 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, ${ }^{\circ}$ fas, nĕfas, nihil, gummi, pondo.
2. Names of letters; as, o longum, long o. But these are sometimes feminine, litĕra being understood.
3. Words used merely as such, without reference to their meaning; as, pater est dissyllăbum; pater is dissyllabic.
4. All infinitives, imperatives, clauses of sentences, adverbs, and other particles, used substantively; as scire tuum, your knowledge; uitimuum vale, the last farewell; loc diu, this (word) diu.
liemark. 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 heterogenevus nouns. See $\S 92$.

## 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 singulan 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 Cosărris, the life of Cousar, or Ccesar's 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 object 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.
${ }^{\prime}$ 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 $c$, in the second in $i$, in the third in is, in the fourth in $\bar{u} s$, and in the fifth in $c i$
§ 39. The following table exhibits a comparative view of the terminations or case-endings of the five declensions.

## Terminations.

Singular.


Remarks.
§ 40. 1. The terminations of the nominative, in the third decfension, 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 $u s$ 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 2 d declensions, in is; in the 3 d , 4 th, and 5 th, in bus.
7. The accusative plural of masculines and feminines, always ends in $s$.
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 neater gender, and the 4th and 5 th 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 $\breve{a}, \bar{e}, \bar{a} s, \bar{e} s$. 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.

| Nom. mū'-să, | a muse; | Nom. mu'-sæ, | muses; |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gen. mu'-sæ, | of a muse; | Gen. mu-sas'-rŭm, | of muses, |
| Dat. mu'sx, | to a muse; | Dat. mu'sis, | to muses |
| Acc. mu'-săm, | a muse; | Acc. mu'sass, | mus |
| Voc. mu'-să, | O muse; | Voc. mu'-sx, | mus |
| Abl. mu'sā, | with a muse. | Abl. mu'sis, | with mus |

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. | Mach'ī-na, a machine. | Tơ'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; poèta, a poet; nauta, a sailor; and names of rivers, though ending in $a$, are masculine: $\S 28,1$ and 2. But the following names of rivers have been used as feminine: viz. Albüla, Allia, Druentia, Garumna, Himëra, Matröna, Mosella, Trebia Lethe is always feminine.
Ossa and CEta, names of mountains, are masculine or feminine.
2. Hadria, the Adriatic sea, dàma 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 $\bar{a} \bar{a}$; as, aula, gen. aulä̀.
2. Familia, after păter, mäter, filius, or flia, usually forms its genitive in as; as, mater-familias, the mistress of a family; gen. matrisfamilias; nom. plur. matres-familias or familiärum. 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 gěna, and of some names of nations, is. sometimes, especially in poetry, formed in um instead of $\bar{a} r u m$; as, Eneădum, Cœlicŏlum, terrigĕnum, Lap̌̌thum. So amphŏrum, drachmum, for amphorārum, drachmārum.

Dative and Ablative plural. The following nouns have sometimes $\bar{a} b u s$ instead of $i s$; 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, filiis et filiābus, to sons and darghters.

| Dea, a goddess. | Equa, a mare. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Filia, a daughter. | Mūla, a slie mule. |

The use of a similar termination in anama, astna, liberta, näta, conserva, and some other words, rests on inferior authority.

## Greer Nouns.

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

Greek nouns in $e, a s$, and $e s$, are thus declined in the singular number:-

| N. Pe-nel ${ }^{\prime}-0 .-\mathrm{pe}$, |  | N. An-chi'-sēs, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G. Pe-nel ${ }^{\text {cool-pés, }}$ | G. $\mathbb{E}-\mathrm{ne}-$ - | G. An-chi'sæ, |
| D. Pe-nel ${ }^{\prime}$-ó-pæ, |  | D. Ar-chi'-sæ, |
| Ac. Pe-nel ${ }^{\text {coob-pèn, }}$ | Ac. E-ne'-ăm or àn, | Ac. An-chi'-sēn, |
| V. Pe-nel'-ö-pē, | V. E-nē'-a, | $V$. An-chi'-sē or ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| Ab. Pe-nel'-oo-pè. | Ab. $A$-ne ${ }^{\prime}-\overline{\mathrm{a}}$. | Ab. An-chi' ${ }^{\prime}$-sā or |

§ 4.5. In like manner decline
$\mathrm{Al}^{\mathrm{l}}-\mathrm{o}-\mathrm{e}$, aloes.
Ti-ä'-ras, a turban.
E-pit $-0-\mathrm{me}$, an abridgment.
This'-be.
Bo'rè-as, the north wind.
Mi'-das.
Co-me'stes, a comet.
Dy-nas'-tes, a ruler.
Pri-am'-i-des a son of Priam.
Py-ri'-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 $\$ \$ 80, \mathrm{Iv}$, and $\delta 1$.
2. Greek nouns of the first declension, which admit of a plural, are declined in that number like the plural of musa.
3. The Latins frequently change the terminations of Greek nonns in és and $\bar{e}$ into à; as, Atrides, Atrida, a son of Atreus; Perses, Persa, a Persian; geomëtres, gemétra, a geometrician; Circe, Circa; epitome, epitőna; grammutice, grammutica, grammar; rhetorice, rhetorica, oratory.-So also tiäras, tiära.

## SECOND DECLENSION.

§ 46. Nouns of the second declension end in $\breve{e r} r, \breve{\imath} r, \breve{u} s, \breve{u} m$, $o s, o n$. Those ending in $u m$ 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.
$N$. dǒm'-ǐ-nŭs,
G. dom'-i-nī,
D. dom'-i-nō,

Ac. dom'-i-nŭm,
$V$. dom'i-nĕč,
$A b$. dom'-i-nō.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { gě'-něr, } \\
& \text { gen'eč-ri, } \\
& \text { gen'-é-rŏ, } \\
& \text { gen'-ĕ-rŭm, } \\
& \text { ge'-něr, } \\
& \text { gen'-ěrō. }
\end{aligned}
$$

ă'-găr,
$\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-grì,
$3^{\prime}$-grō,
$\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-grŭm,
$\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-gĕr,
$a^{\prime}$-grō.
reg'-nŭm,
reg'-ní,
reg'nō, reg'-nŭm, reg'-nŭm, reg' $^{\prime}$ nō.

## Plural.

| N. dom'-ǐ-nī, | gex'-ě-rī, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-grī, | reg'-nă, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G. dom-i-nō'-rŭm, | gen-e-rō'-rŭm, | - a-grō'-rŭm, | reg-nō'-rŭm, |
| D. dom'-ǐnis, | gen'-ě-ris, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-gris, | reg'-nis, |
| Ac. dom'-ĭ-nŏs, | gen'-ě-rōs, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-grōs, | reg'-nă, |
| $V$. dom'-ĭ-nĭ, | gen'-ě-rī, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-grio | reg'-nă, |
| $A b$. dom'-ǐ-nis. | gen'-ě-ris. | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-gris. | reg'-nis. |

## Like dominns 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. Lǖ'-cus, a grove. Trŏ'-chus, a trundling-hoop.

Note. Nouns in us of the second declension are the only Latin nouns, whose nomina tive and vocative singular differ in form. See $\S 40$, R. 3.
§ 年7. A few nouns in er, like gener, add the terminations to the nominative singular, as a root. They are the compounds of gĕro and fĕro; as, arm亢̆ger, -ëri, an armor-bearer; Lucĭfer, -ěri, the morning star; and the following :-
A-dul'-ter, an adulterer. Li'-ber, Bacchus. Pu'-er, a boy. Cel'tī-bēr, a Celliberian. Lib'-è-ri, (plur.), childrcn. Sö'-cer, a father-in-lav. I'-ber, a Spaniard. $\quad$ Pres'-by̆-ter, an elder. Ves'-per, the evening. ${ }^{\mathrm{M}} \mathrm{H} l^{\prime}-\mathrm{Cl}-\mathrm{ber}$, 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,

| $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$-per, a wild boar. | Li'-ber, a book. | Al-ex-an'-der. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Aus'-ter, the south wind. | Ma-gis'-ter, a master. | Is'- |
| Fă'-ber, a workman. | On'-ă-ger, a wild ass. | Teu'cer. |

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

Like regnum decline

An'trum, a cave. A'-tri-um, a hall. Bel-lum, war.

Ex-em'-plum, an example.
Ne-go'ti-um, * a business. Ni'-trum, natron.

Pre-sid ${ }^{-1} \mathrm{i}$ um, a defence.
Sux'um, a rock.
Scep'trum, a sceptre.

## Exceptions in Gender.

§ 49. 1. The following nouns in us and os are feminine:-
Abysisus, a bottomless pit. Dialectos, a dialect. Miltos, vermilion. Alvus, the belly. Diphthongus, a diphthong. Phărus(os), a light-house. Antidòtus, an antidote. Dömus, a house, home. Plinthus, the base of a Arctos(us), the Northern Erēmus, a desert.

Bear. Hŭmus, the ground. column.

Carbăsus, a sait.
2. Greek nouns in $\delta d u s$ ( $\mathfrak{\eta} \boldsymbol{\delta} \delta o \varsigma$ ), and mëtros, are likewise feminine; as, synðdus, an assembly; diamëtros, a diameter.
§ (1). Names of countries, towns, trees, plants, etc. are feminine. See § $29,2$.

Yet the following names of plants are masculine:-
Acanthns, bear's-foot. Ebŭlus, an elder. Rŭbus, a blackberry-bush.

Amarantus, amaranth.
Asparăgus, asparagus.
Calamus, a reed.
Carduus, a thistle.
Dūmus, a bramble.

Hellebörus, hellebore. Intŭbus, endive.
Juncus, a bulrush. And sometimes
Raphănus, a radish. Amarăcus, marjoram.
Rhamnos, buck-thorn.

Tribǔlus, a caltrops.

Cytisus, snail-clover.

Oleaster and pinaster, names of trees, are also masculine.
The following names of gems are also masculine:-
Beryllus, a beryl. Chrysoprăsus, chrysoprase. So also,
Carbuncŭlus, a carbuncle. Opălus, opal.
Pyrōpus, gold-bronze.

Chrysolithus, chrysolite, and smaragdus, an emerald, are doubtful.
Names of females in um are feminine: $\S 29,1$; as, mea Glycerium, Ter.
Names of trees and plants in $u m$ 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. Aby̆dus(os) is doubtful.

Names of countries and towns ending in um, or, if plaral, in $a$, are neuter; as, Ilium or Ilion; Ecbătăna, ōrum.
§ 51. The following are doubtful, but more frequently masculine:-
Balănus, a date. $\quad$ Grossus, an unripe fig. $\quad$ Phasēlus, a light vessel.
Barbı̂tos, a lute. $\quad$ Pampinus, a vine-leaf.

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

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

## Exceptions in Declension.

§ 52. Genitive singular. When the genitive singular ends in $i i$, the poets frequently contract it into $\bar{\imath}$; as, ing $\bar{n} \bar{\imath}$, 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, popŭlus Albănus. Liv.

Proper names in $\mathfrak{u} u s$ omit $e$ in the vocative ; as, Horatius, Horāt $\boldsymbol{\text { ; }}$ Virgilius, Virgǔli.
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, Laertie.
§ 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 ōrum: §322, 4.

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

Deius, a god, is thus declined :-

Singular.

## $N$. de'-us,

G. de'-i,
D. de'oo,

Ac. de'um,
$V$. de'-us,
$A b$. de'-o.

> Plural.
N. di'i, di, or de'-i,
G. de-ō'rum,
D. di'is, dis, or de'-is,

Ac. de'os,
$V$. di'-i, dī, or de' $^{-} \mathrm{i}$,
$A b$. di'-is, dīs, or de'-is.
$J$ ésus, or Iésus, the name of the Savior, has $u m$ in the accusative, and $u$ in all the $i$ her oblique cases.

## Greek Nouns.

§ 51. 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:-

| Sirgular. | Barbǐton, a lyre. |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | N. bar'-bĭ-ton, |
| G. De'li, An-dro'-ge-ō, or $\overline{1}$, | $G$. |
| D. De ${ }^{\prime}-10$, ${ }^{\text {a }}$ An-dro'-ge- ${ }^{\text {a }}$, | D. bar'-bi-tô, |
|  | Ac. bar'-bir-tŏn, |
| $A b$. De'-lō. , An-dro'-ge-ō. | $A b$ bar -bǐ-tō. |

2. The plarals 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 $\infty$, as, canephorre.
3. In early writers some nouns in os have a genitive in $\bar{u}$ (ov); as, Menandrū. Ter.
4. A genitive plural in $\bar{o} n$, instead of $\bar{o} r u m$, occurs in the titles of books and in some names of places; as, Georgicōn; Philēnōn arce. Sall.
5. Greek proper names in eus (see $\oint 9, \mathrm{R} .3$ ), 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. éoss, dat. èt (contracted $\bar{e}$ ), acc. éă or $\bar{e} \check{a}$, and are of the third declension. See $\oint \oint 86$, and 306 , (1.) So in Lucretius the neuter pelágus (Greek tínajcs, ह\%s) has an accusative plural pelăgé for pelagea after the third declension. $\$ 83,1$.-See also respecting a genitive in $i$ of some proper nouns in es, $\{73$, Rem.-Panthü 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 conso-nants- $c, l, n, r, s, t, x$. The number of its final syllables exceeds fifty.
Rem. The following terminations belong exclusively to Greek nouns; viz.


## Mode of declining Nouns of the Third Declension.

To decline a word properly, in this declension, it is necessary to know its gender, its nominative singular, and one of its oblique cases; since the root of the caste 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 nenter, another.
§ 5 . 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, ront rup, dative rupi, etc.: so ars, gen. artis, root art, dat. arti, etc.; opus, gen. opěris, root opěr, dat. opĕri, 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, trăbis, trabs; hiëmis, hiems; gruis, grus.
Remare 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 $t$ in the root before $c, b, p, t$, is commonly changed to $e$; as, pollicis, pollex; coelibis, colebs; principis, princeps; comitis, comés. So ǔ is changed to ě in aucưpis, auceps.

Rem. 4. Short ě or $\varnothing$ before $r$ in nenters is changed to $\check{u}$; as, geněris, genŭs; temporris, tempŭs.

Rem. 5. Short e e before $r$ is changed to $t$ in the masculines cinëris, cinis; cucuměris, cucŭmis; pulvèris, pulvis; voměris, vömis.

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. rüpis, nom. rūpes ; gen. auris, nom. auris.

Rem. 7. A few neuters add e $e$ to the root to form the nominative; as, rētis, rētě; măris, mărě.
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, animälis, anımal; canŏnis, cănon; honōris, hŏnor; assis, as.

Remark 1. Final $\bar{o} n$ and $i n$ in the roots of masculines and feminines, become 0 in the nominative; as, sermönis, sermo; arundinis, arundo.

Rem. 2. Final $i n$ in the roots of neuters becomes $\ddot{e} \dot{n}$ in the nominative; as, fluminis, flümën. So also in the masculines, oscen, pecten, tibīcen and tubicen.

Rem. 3. Tr and $b r$ at the end of a root, take $e x$ between them in the nominative; as, patris, păter ; imbris, imber. Cf. $\$ \oint 108,48$, and 106.

Rem. 4. Short đ is changed to ŭ in eböris, ébŭr ; femöris, fémŭr ; jecơris, jëcŭr; and roböris, rōbŭr.

Rem. 5. In the roots of neuters at drops $t$, and it becomes $u t$ in the nominative; as, poèmătis, 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.

| Masc. and Fem. | Neut. |
| :---: | :---: |
| $N$. * | * |
| $G$. Ǐs, | IS, |
| D. ì, | I, |
| Ac. ěm, (ĭm), | * |
| $V$. ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | * |
| $A b$. $\check{\text { é, (i) }}$. | é, (i) |

Pluiral
Masc. and Fem. Neut.

| $N$. | $\bar{e} s$, |
| :--- | :--- |
| $G$. | ŭm, (iŭm), |
| ăm, (iă), (iŭm) |  |

$D$. ǐbŭs, ĭbŭs,
Ac. ēs, $\quad$ ă, (iă), $V$. ēs, $\quad$ ă, (iă),
$A b$. ǐbŭs. ǐbŭs.

The asterisk stands for the nominative, and for those cases which are like it.
§ 5\%. The following are examples of the most common forms of nouns of this declension, declined through all their cases.

Hŏnor, honor ; masc.
Singular.
$N$. ho'-nor, ho-nō'-res,
G. ho-nō'-ris,
D. ho-nō'-ri,

Ac. ho-nō'-rem,
V. ho'-nor, $A b$. ho-n $\bar{o}{ }^{\prime}$-re.

Plural. ho-nō'-rum, ho-nor'-i-bus, ho-nō'-res, ho-nō'-res, ho-nor'-1-bus.

Rūpes, a rôck; fem.

Singular.
$N$. ru'-pes,
G. ru'-pis, D. ru'-pi, Ac. ru'-pem, V. ru'-pes, $A b$. ru'-pe.

Plural.
ru'-pes, ru'-pi-um, ru'-pǐ-bus, ru'-pes, ru'-pes, ru'-pil-bus.

Ars, art; fem.
Singular. N. ars, Plural.
G. ar'tis, D. ar'ti, Ac. ar'tem, V. ars, $A b$. ar'te.
ar'-tes,
ar'ti-um,*
ar'tī-bus,
ar'tes, ar'tes, ar'-tì-bus.

Sermo, speech; masc.

Singular.
N. ser'-mo,
G. ser-mō'-nis,
D. ser-mó'-ni,

Ac. ser-mō'-nem,
V. ser'-mo,

Ab. ser-mō'-ne.

Plural. ser-mō'-nes, ser-mō'-num, ser-mon'-i-bus, ser-mō'-nes, ser-mō'nes, ser-mon'-i-bus.

Turris, a tower ; fem.
Singular.
$N$. tur'-ris, tur'-res,
G. tur'-ris, tur'-ri-um,
D. tur'-ri, tur'-rĭ-bus,

Ac. tur'-rim, rem, tur'-res,
$V$. tur'ris, tur'-res, $A b$. tur'-ri, or re. tur'-rí-bus.

> Nox, night; fem.

Singular.
$N$. nox,
G. noc'-tis,
D. noc'-ti,

Ac. noc'-tem,
$V$. nox,
$A b$. noc'-te.

Plural.
noc'-tes, noc'-ti-um,* noc'-tǐ-bus, noc'tes, noc'-tes, noc'-tǐ-bus.

Miles, a soldier ; com.gen.
Singular.
Plural.
$N$. mi'les, mil'-i-tes,
G. mil'-i-tis, mil'-i-tum,
D. mil'-i-ti, mi-lit'-i-bus,

Ac. mil'-i-tem, mil'-i-tes,
V. mi'les,
$A b$. mil'-i-te. mil'-ǐ-tes, mi-lit'-i-bus.

Păter, a father; masc.
Singular. Plural.
$N$. pa'-ter, pa'-tres,
G. pa'-tris, pa'-trum,
D. pa'-tri, pat'rí-bus,

Ac. pa'-trem, pa'-tres,
$V$. pa'-ter, pa'tres,
$A b$. pa'tre. pat'-rí-bus.

[^5]Sědile, a seat; neut.

Sinyular. N. se-dì-le, G. se-di'-lis, D. se-di'-li, Ac. se-di'-le, V. se-di'-le, $A b$. se-di'-li.

Plural. se-dil'-i-a, se-dil'-i-um, se-dil'i-i-bus, se-dili-i-a, se-dil'-i-a, se-dil'-i-bus.

Carmen, a verse; neut.

Singular.
N. car'men, G. car'-mì-nis, D. car'-mĭ-ni, Ac. car'men, $V$. car'men, $A b$. car'-mí-ne.

Plural. car'-mì-na, car'-mǐ-num, car-min'-í-bus, car'-mì-na, car'mì-na, car-min'-i-bus.

Iter, a journey; neut.

Singular. $N$. i'-ter, G. i-tinn'-ě-ris, D. i-tin'-ĕ-ri,

Ac. i'-ter, V. i'-ter, $A b$. i-tin'-ě-re.

Plural.
i-tin'-č-ra, i-tin'-ě-rum, it-i-ner'-i-bus, i-tin'-è-ra, i-tin'è-ra, it-i-ner'-ǐ-bus.

Lăpis, a stone; masc.

Singular. N. la'-pis, G. lap-i-dis, D. lap ${ }^{-1} \mathrm{i}-\mathrm{di}$, Ac. lap'-i-dem, V. la'pis, $A b$. lap-i-ide.

Plural. lap'-i-des, lap ${ }^{\prime}$-i-dum, la-pid'i-i-bus, lap'-i-des, lap'-i-des, la-pidǐi-bus.

Virgo, a virgin; fem.

Singular.
N. vir'-go,
G. vir'-gi-nis,
D. vir'-gi-ni,

Ac. vir'-gi-nem, V. vir'-go, $A b$. vir'-gìne.

Plural.
vir'-gǐ-nes, vir'-gì-num, vir-gin'i-i-bus, vir'-gǐ-nes, vir'-gì-nes, vir-gin'-i.-bus.

Anĭmal, an animal; neut. Singular. N. ăn'-i-mal, G. an-i-mā'lis,
D. an-i-mā'-li, Ac. an'-i-mal, V. an'i-mal, Ab. an-i-mä'-li.

Plural. an-i-ma'-li-a, ar-i-ma'-li-um, an-i-mal'i-i-bus. an-i-ma'-li-a, an-i-ma'-li-a, an-i-mal'-i-bus,

Opus, work; neut.

Singular.
$N$. ö'pus, - op'-e-ra, G. op ${ }^{\prime}$-è-ris, op'ĕ-rum, D. op'-ě-ri, o-per'-i-bus, Ac. o'-pus, op'-ё-ra, $V$. o'-pus, $A b$. op'-ĕ-re.
$\mathrm{op}^{\prime}$ 'ě-ra,

Căput, a head ; neưt.
Singular.
$N$. ca'-put,
Plural.
G. cap-i-tis,
cap-i-tum,
D. cap $-\mathrm{i}-\mathrm{ti}$, ca-pit'i-bus,

Ac. ca'-put, cap'-i-ta,
V. ca'-put, cap'-i-ta,

Ab. cap-i-i-te.

Poëma, a poem; neut.

Singular.
N. po-é'ma,
G. po-em-ă-tis,
D. po-em'-ă-ti,

Ac. po-eं-ma,
$V$. po-é- Laa,
Ab. po-em' àte.

Plural.
po-em'-ă-ta, po-em'-ă-tum, po-e-mat'-i-bus, or po-em'-ă-tis, po-em'-ă-ta, po-em'-ă-ta, po-e-mat'-i-bus, or po-em'-ŭ-tis.

## Rules for the Gender of Nouns of the Third Declension.

§ 58. 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 0.

§ 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 $g o$, of more than two syllables, are feminine; as, arundo, a reed; imägo, an image. So also grando, hail. But comĕdo, a glutton; unĕdo, the arbute tree; and harpăgo, 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. Cüro, flesh, and Greek nouns in o, are feminine; as, ēcho, an echo. Bübo, 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.
2. The following, in $e r$, are neuter:-

| Acer, a maple-tree. | Papāver, a poppy. | Tūber, a swelling. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Cadāver, a dead bo | Piper, pepper. | Uber, a teat. |
| Cǐcer, a vetch. | Siler, an osier. | Ver, |
| Iter, a journey. | her, a clas | Verber, a scourge. |
| Lāser, assafoetida. | Süb | Zingrber, ginge |

Exceptions in OR.
§ 61. Arbor, a tree, is feminine: ădor, spelt; aquor, the sea; marmor, marble; and cor, the heart, are neuter.

Exceptions in ES increasing in the genitive.

1. The following are feminine :-

Compes, a fetter.
Merces, a reward.
Merges, a sheaf of corn.

Quies, and Requies, rest. Tĕges, a mat.

> Inquies, restlessness.

Sěges, growing corn.
2. Ales, a bird; cormes, a companion; hospes, a guest; interpres, an interpreter; miles, a soldier; obses, a hostage; proses, a president; and satelles, a life-guard, are common, $\$ 30$. LEs, brass, is neuter.

## Exceptions in QS.

3. Arbos, a tree; cos, a whetstone; dos, a dowry; eos, the morning; and rarely népos, a grandchild, are feminine: sacerdos, custos, and bos are common, $\$ 30: \delta \mathrm{s}$, the mouth, and $\delta \mathrm{s}$, a bone, are neuter; as are also the Greck words epos, epic poetry; and mělos, melody.

## Exceptions in N.

4. Nouns in men with four in $n$ are neuter-glüten, glue; inguen, the groin; pollen, fine flour; and unguen, ointment.
5. Four nouns in on. are feminine-aēdon, a nightingale; halcyon, a kingfisher; icon, am image; and sindon, muslin.

## FEMININES.

§ 62. Nouns ending in as, es not increasing in the genitive, is, $y s, a u s, s$ preceded by a consonant, and $x$, are feminine ; as,
cetas, age; nübes, 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. Greck nouns in as, antis, are also masculine; as, adimas, adamant. So also Mëlas, the name of a river, § 28, 2. Arcas and Nömas are common.-2. Vas, a vessel, the indeclinable nouns, fas and nëfas, and Greek nouns in as, ătis, are neuter; as, artocreas, a meat-pie; bucëras, a species of herb.

## Exceptions in ES not increasing in the genitive.

3. Acinăces, a scimitar, and cöles or cölis, a stalk, are masculine. Antistes, pulumbes, vätes, and vepres, are masculine or feminine. Cacoēthes, hippomănes, nepenthes, and panäces, 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; mänes, (plur.), departed spirits.-(2.) Masc. or fem. Amnis, a river; cinis, ashes; finnis, an end; clünis,
 dead, and $f$ ines, boundaries, are always masculine.
2. The following are common or doubtful:-

| Anguis, a snake. | Corbis, a basket. | Tigris, a tiger. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Callis, a path. | Pollis, fine flour. | Torquis, a chain. |
| Canālis, a conduit pipe. | Pulvis, dust. |  |
| Contubernālis, a comrade. | Scrơbis, a ditch. |  |

3. The following are masculine :-

| Axis, an axle. | Cenchris, a serpent. | Follis, a pair of bellowos. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Aquālis, a water-pot. | Collis, a hill. | Fustis, a club. |
| Cassis, a net. | Cucümis, a cucumber, | Glis, a dormouse. |
| Caulis, or $\}$ a stalk. | Ensis, a svoord. | Fascis, a bundle. |
| Cōlis, | Lemis, a stone. |  |
|  |  |  |

Mensis, a month.
Mugilis; a mullet.
Orbis, a circle.
Piscis, a fish.
Postis, a post. Quiris, a Reman. Samnis, a Samnite.

Sanguis, blood.
Sēmis, or Semissis, Bessis, Centussis, Decussis, Tressis,
compounds of as.

Sentis, a brier.
Sodālis, a companion.
Torris, a firebrand.
Unguis, a nail.
Vectis, a lerer.
Vermis, a worm. *
Vōmis, a pluaghshare.
4. Names of male beings, rivers, and months in is are masculine; as, Dis, Pluto ; Anübis, an Egyptian deity; Tigris, the river Tigrıs; Aprīlis, April. See § 28.

## Exceptions in YS.

Names of rivers and mountains in ys are masculine; as, Haxlys, 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; chülybs, steel; cliens, a client; ellops, a kind of fish; ëpops, a hoopoe; gryps, a griffin; hydrops, the dropsy; mérops, a kind of bird. Rüdens, 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:-

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { Adeps, grease. } & \text { Seps, a kind of serpent. } & \begin{array}{l}
\text { Serpens, a serpent. } \\
\text { Forceps, pincers. }
\end{array}
\end{array}
$$

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

## Exceptions in X.

§ 65. 1. AX. Anthrax, cinnabar; corrax, a raven; cordax, a kind of dance; drōpax, an ointment; styrrax, a kind of tree; thörax, a breast-plate; and Atax, the river Aude, are masculine; limax, a snail, is common.
2. EX. Nouns in ex are masculine, except fax, forfex, lex, nex, prex, (obsolete in nom. and gen. sing.), and supellex, which are feminine; to which add (\$29) cärex, ūlex, mürex, pellex, and vitex. Atriplex is neuter and very rarely masculine or feminine. Alex, a fish-pickle; cortex, bark; imbrex, a gut-ter-tile; öbex, a bolt; and silex, a flint, are doubtful: sènex, an old person; grex, a herd; rümex, sorrel; and pümex, pumice-stone, are masculine and very rarely feminine.
3. IX. Cülix, a cup; fornix, an arch; phcenix, a kind of bird; and sspädix, a palm-branch, are masculine: lărix, the larch-tree; perdix, a partridge; and värix, a swollen vein, are masculine or feminine.
4. OX. Box and ěsox, names of fishes, are masculine.
5. UX. Trädux, a vine-branch, is masculine.
6. YX. Bombyx, a silk-worm; călyx, the bud of a flower; coccyx, a cuckoo; ठryx, a wild goat, and names of mountains in $y x$, 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.
Note. Bombyx, when it signifies silk, is doubtful.
7. Quincunx, septunx, dëcunx, dєunx, parts of as, are masculine.

## NEUTERS.

§ 66. Nouns ending in $a, e, i, y, c, l, t, a r, u r, u s$, and men, are neuter; as,
diaděma, a crown; rēte, a net; hydroměli, mead; lac, milk; vectigal, revenue; cäput, the head; calcar, a spur; guttur, the throat; pectus, the breast; and flümen, a river.

> Exceptions in L, C, and E.

Mügil, 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. Lac is nenter and rarely masculine. Preneste is neuter, and once in Virgil feminine.

## Exceptions in AR and UR.

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

## Exceptions in US.

1. Lepus, a hare; and Greek nouns in pus (roũs), are masculine; as, tripus, a tripod; but lagöpus, a kind of bird, is feminine.
2. Nouns in us, having $\bar{u} t i s$, or $\bar{u} d i s$, in the genitive, are feminine; as, juventus, youth; incus, an anvil.
3. Pecus, -ǔdis, a brate animal, and tellus, the earth, are feminine. Pessinus, and Selinus, names of towns, are also feminine. See § 29.
4. Grus, a crane; mus, a mouse; and sus, a swine, are masculine or feminine.
5. Rhus, sumach, is masculine, and rarely feminine.

## Rules for the Oblique Cases of Nouns of the Third Declension.

## GENITIVE SINGULAR.

§ 68. 1. The genitive singular of the third declension of Latin nouns always ends in is, in Greek nouns it sometimes ends in os and $u s$.

## A.

2. Nouns in $a$ form their genitive in ătis; as, $d i-a-d e e^{\prime}-m a$, di-a$d e m^{\prime}-\breve{a}-t i s$, a crown; $\operatorname{dog}^{\prime}-m a, d^{\prime} g^{\prime}-m a ̆-t i s$, an opinion.

## E.

3. Nouns in $e$ change $e$ into is; as, re $\vec{e}^{-t e}$, rê-tis, a net ; se-dī-le, se-dì-lis, a seat.

## I.

4. Nonns in $i$ are of Greek origin, and are generally indeclinable; bat hy-drom'-d-li, mead, has hyd-ro-mel'-i-tis in the genitive.
5. 

§ 69. Nouns in o form their genitive in ōnis; as, ser'-mo, ser $m \sigma^{\prime}-n i s$, speech ; $p \vec{a}^{\prime}-v o, p a-v \sigma^{\prime}-n i s$, a peacock.

Remark. Patrials in o have ठnis; as, Macëdo,-önis; but some have onis, as, Eburōnes, etc. See 3d exception to increments in 0, §287.

Exc. 1. Nouns in do and go form their genitive in $\check{\text { rnis }}$; as, $a-r u n^{\prime}$ $d o, a-r u n^{\prime}-d \breve{\imath}-n i s$, a reed; $i-m \bar{a}^{\prime}-g o, i-m a g^{\prime}-\imath-n i s$, an image.

But four dissyllables-cudo, ūdo, ligo and mango; and three trisyllablescomëdo, unědo, and harpăgo, have önis.

Exc. 2. The following nouns, also, have tinis:-Apollo; hठmo, a man; nëmo, nobody; and turbo, a whirlwind.

Cäro, flesh, has, by syncope, carnis. Anio, the name of a river, has Aniënis ; Nerio, the wife of Mars, Neriēnis; from the old nominatives, Anien, and Neriēnes.

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

$$
\mathbf{Y} .
$$

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

## C.

§7(D. The only nouns in cs are $\bar{a}^{\prime}$-lec, a-lé -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'-sŭ-lis, a consul; că'-non, can'-ŏ-nis, a rule; hö'nor, ho-n ${ }_{o}{ }^{\prime}-r i s$, honor.

So, $\mathrm{An}^{\prime}-1$-mal, an-i-max'-lis, an animal.
V1'-gil, vig'-i-lis, a watchman. Tī'-tan, Ti-tä̀-nis, Titan. Si'iren, Si-rē̄'-nis, a Siren. Del'-phin, del-phi'-nis, a dolphin.

Cal'-car, cal-cā'-ris, a spur.
Car'-cer, car -cĕ-ris, a prison.
$\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$-mor, a-mō'ris, love. Gut'-tur, gut'-tŭ-ris, the throat. Mar-tyr, mar-ty̌-ris, a martyr.

Exceptions in L.
Fel, gall, and mel, honey, double $l$ before is, making fellis and mellis.

## Exceptions in N.

§ 171. 1. Neuters in en form their genitive in $\check{\imath}$ nis; as, $f l \vec{u}{ }^{\prime}-m e n$, $f l u^{\prime}-m \check{\imath}-n i s$, a river; glū'-ten, glu'-tı$-n i s$, glue.
The following masculines, also, form their genitive in Inis:-oscen, a bird which foreboded by its notes; pecten, a comb; tibicen, a piper; and tubicen, a trumpeter.
2. Some Greek nouns in ōn form their genitive in ontis; as, Laomédon, Lavmedontis. Some in $\bar{i} n$ and $\bar{y} n$ add is or os; as, Trächin, or Trächym, Trachinis or Trachÿnos.

## Exceptions in R.

1. Nouns in ter drop $e$ in the genitive ; as, $p \breve{a}^{\prime}$-ter, $p a^{\prime}$-tris, a father. So also imber, a shower, and names of months in ber; as, Octōber, Octōbris.

But crāter, a cup; sōter, a savior; and lăter, a brick, retain $e$ in the genitive.
2. Far, a kind of corn, has farris; häpar, the liver, hepătis; Lar or Lars, Lartis; iter, a journey, has itinëris from the old nominative itiner; Jupiter, Jovis; and cor, the heart, cordis.
3. These four in $u r$ have $\delta$ ris in the genitive:-ébur, ivory; fëmur, the thigh; jeccur, the liver; röbur, strength.

Fëmur has also feminis, and jěcur, jecinorris, and jocinðris.

## AS.

§ 172. Nouns in as form their genitive in ātis; as, $e^{\prime}-t a s, ~ e x-t a^{\prime}=$ tis, age ; $p i^{\prime}-\breve{-}-t a s, p i-e-t \bar{a}^{\prime}-t i s$, piety.

Exc. 1. As has assis; mäs, a male, mărıs; vas, a surety, vădis; and väs, a vessel, väsis. Anas, a duck, has anătis.

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, adămas, -antis, adamant; lampas, -ădis, a lamp; Pallas, -ădis or -ădos; bucésras, -ătis, a species of herb. Arcas, an Arcadian, and Nomas, a Numidian, which are of the common gender, form their genitive in ädis. Mélas, the name of a river, has Melänis.

## ES.

§ 173. 1. Nouns in es form their genitive by changing es into is,
 $s \breve{e}-$-ges, seg'-$-\breve{-}-t i s$, growing corn ; qui'-es, qui- $\vec{e}^{\prime}-t i s$, 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, $\boldsymbol{e}$ or $-i$ : and a few in $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ after the first declension; as, Orestes, is or $\boldsymbol{a}$.

## 2. Those which make titis are,

Ales, a bird.
Ames, a forver's staff.
Antistes, a priest. Cæspes, a turf. Cömes, a companion. Eques, a horseman. Fomes, touchwood.

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

Poples, the ham. Satelles, a lifequard. Stipes, the stock of a tree. Termes, an olive bough.
Trāmes, a by-path. Vēles, a skivmisher.
3. The following have ètis:-abies, a fir-tree; aries, a ram; indluges, a man deified; interpres, an interpreter; paries, a wall; sěges, a corn-field; and tëges, a mat.
4. The following have ētis:-Cebes; Cres, a Cretan; lëbes, a caldron; magnes, a loadstone; quies and requies, rest; inquies, restlessness; and täpes (used only in acc. and abl.), tapestry.-Some Greek proper names have either étis or is in the genitive; as, Chreemes, -etis, or -is. Däres, -etis, or -is.

Exc. 1. Obses, a hostage, and proses, a president, have ìdis. Hëres, an heir, and merces, a reward, have édis; pes, a foot, and its compounds, have édis.

Exc. 2. CĚres has Cerěris; bes, bessis ; praes, praedis; and ass, cris.

## IS.

§ 74. Nouns in is have their genitive the same as the nominative; as, au'-ris, al ris, the ear; $\breve{a}^{\prime}-v i s, \breve{a}^{\prime}-v i s$, a bird.

Exc. 1. The following have the genitive in erris:-ctnis, ashes; pulvis, dust; vōmis or vōmer, a ploughshare. Cucŭmis, a cucumber, has êris and rarely is.

Exc. 2. The following have tdis:-cápis, a cnp; cassis, a helmet; cuspis, a point; lăpis, 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 gliris.

## GREEK NOUNS.

1. Greek nouns in is, whose genitive ends in ios or cos, (bos or scos), form their genitive in Latin in is; as (a.) verbals in sis; as, basis, mathēsis, etc. (b.) compounds of polis ( Tóness) $^{\prime}$; as, metropolis, Neapolis, ètc.; and (c.) a few other proper names, as Charybdis, Lachěsis, Syrtis, etc. In some nouns of this class the Greek genitive is sometimes found; as, Nemèsis, Nemesios.
2. Greek nouns in is, whose Greek genitive is in $x$ dos (usos), form their Latin genitive in $\begin{aligned} \text { dis ; as, agis, aspis, ephemèris, pyrămis, tyrannis, Enēis, Iris, Nerēis, etc. Tigris }\end{aligned}$ has both is and rdis; and in some other words of this class later writers use is instead of z dis.
3. Chăris has Charztis; Salămis, Salamïnis, and Simðis, Simoentis.

## OS.

§ 175. Nouns in $\bar{o} s$ form their genitive in ōris or ōtis; as, flos, $f \bar{o}^{\prime}-r i s$, a flower ; në̈-pos, ne-p $\bar{o}^{\prime}-t i s$, a grandchild.

The following have oris:-

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { Flos, a flower. } & \text { Lăbos or lăbor, labor. } & \text { Os, the mouth. } \\
\text { Glos, a husband's sister. } & \text { Lěpos or lěpor, vit. } & \text { Ros, dew. }
\end{array}
$$

Arbos or arbor, a tree, has dris.
The following have otis:-
Cos, a whetstone. Monocěros, a unicorn. Něpos, a grandchild.
Dos, a dowry. Rhinocěros, a rhinoceros. Sacerdos, a priest.
Exc. 1. Custos, a keeper, has custödis; bos, an ox, bovis; and ǒs, a bone, ossis.
Exc. 2. Some Greek nouns in os have ois in the genitive; as, hēros, 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, cētos, ëpos, mélos.

## US.



2. Those which make ĕris are, ăc̉us, (chaff), fcedus, fünus, gĕnus, glŏmus, lă tus, münus, ǒlus, бnus, ơpus, pondus, rūdus, scělus, sīdus, ulcus, vellus, viscus and vulnus. In early writers pignus has sometimes pignéris.
3. Those which make ơris are, corpus, dëcus, dedĕcus, facinus, fënus, frïgus, lĕpus, lìtus, nëmus, pectus, pĕcus, pĕnus, pignus, stercus, tempus, and tergus.
Exc. 1. These three in $\bar{u} s$ have $\bar{u} d i s:-i n c u ̄ s, ~ a n ~ a n v i l ; ~ p a ̆ l u ̄ s, ~ a ~ m o r a s s ; ~ a n d ~$ subscūs, a dove-tail. Pĕcŭs, a brute animal, has pecüdis.

Exc.2. These five have ütis:-juventüs, youth; şălūs, safety; senectüs, old age; servitūs, slavery; virtüs, virłue.

Exc. 3. Monosyllables in üs have üris; 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 telluris; and Ligus or Ligur, a Ligurian, has Ligüris.

Exc. 4. Fraus, fraud, and laus, praise, have fraudis, laudis.
Exc. 5. Greek nouns in pūs ( $\pi<\iota_{s}$ ) have odis; as, tripus, tripodis, a tripod; EEdipus, -odis; but this is sometimes of the second declension.

Exc. 6. Some Greek names of cities in us have untis; as, Amăthus, Amathuntis. So Trapëzus, 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, -èi or-i. Cf. §64,5.

## YS.

§ 77. 1. Nouns in $y s$ are Greek, and make their genitive in y̆is (contracted $\overline{y s}$ ), or, as in Greek, yos (vos); as,

Cotys, gen. Cotyis or Cotys; Tēthys, -yis or y̆os. So Atys, Cüpys, Erinnys, Hälys, Othrys. A few have y̌dis; as, chlämys, chlamÿdis.

## S preceded by a consonant.

2. Nouns in $s$, with a consonant before it, formetheir genitive by changing $s$ into is or tis; as, trabs, tră'-bis, a beam; $h i^{\prime}-e m s, h i^{\prime}-\check{-}-m i s$, winter; pars, par'-tis, a part; frons, fron'tis, the forehead.
(1.) Those in $b s, m s$, and $p s$; as, scrobs, hiems, stirps, charge $s$ into is; except gryps, a griffin, which has gryphis.
Remark. Compounds in ceps from căpio have tpis; as, princeps, princtpis, a prince. But auceps has aucuipis.
(2.) Those in $l s, n s$, and $r s$, as, puls, gens, ars, change $s$ into tis.

Exc. 1. The following in $n s$ change $s$ imto dis:-frons, foliage: glans, an acorn; juglans, a walnut; lens, a nit; and libripens, a weigher.
Exc. 2. Tiryns, a town of Argolis, has Tirgnthis in the genitive.

## T.

§ 78. 1. Nouns in $t$ form their genitive in uttis. They are, căput, the head, gen. cap $-i-$-tis; and its compounds, occtput and sinctput.

## X.

2. Nouns in $x$ form their genitive by resolving $x$ into $c s$ or $g s$, and inserting $i$ before $s$; as, vox (vocs) vō'cis, the voice; lex (legs) lée ${ }^{-}$-gis, a law.
(1.) Latin nouns in $a x$ hav̄e ācis; as, fornax, fornācis, except fax, fäcis. Most Greek nouns in ax have ācis; as, thōrax, thorācis; a few have ácis; as, corrax, corăcis; and Greek names of men in nax have nactis; as, Astyănax, Astyanactis.
(2.) Nouns in ex have rcis; as, $j u \bar{d} d e x$, judicis: $\quad$ bbex has obicis or objicis; and nibex, vibicis. Nex, prex, (nom. obs.), rèsex and fenisex have écis; ālex, narthex, and vervex have écis, and fax, facis. Lex and rex have égis; aquilex and grex have ĕgis; rēmex has remigis; sénex, sënis; and supellex, supellectilis.
(3.) Nouns in $i x$ have $\bar{i} c i s$; as, cervix, cervicis; and less frequently $i c i s$; as, călix, calicis. But nix has nevis; strix, foreign names of men, and gentile nouns in fix have $\check{\text { gig is ; as, Bitŭrix, Dumnørix, etc. }}$
(4.) Nouns in ox have öcis; as, vow, vöcis; but Cappădox has Cappadorcis; Allöbrox, Allobrógis; and now, noctis.
(5.) Of nouns in $u x$, crux, dux, trädux, and $n u x$ have $\check{u c i s ; ~ l u x ~ a n d ~ P o l l u x, ~}$ ücis.- Conjux has conjügis, flux (nom. obs.) frūgis, and faux, faucis.
(6.) $Y x$, a Greek termination, has $\check{y} c i s, \bar{y} c i s$, or $\check{y} g i s, \bar{y} g i s . \quad O n y x$ and sur$d \delta n y x$, in which $x$ is equivalent to chs $(\S 3,2)$ have $\bar{y} c h i s$

## DATIVE SINGULAR.

§ 79. The dative singular ends in $i$; as, sermon, dat. sermōni.
Anciently it also ended in e; as, porte dătus. Varro in Gellius. So are for art, Cis. and Riv.; and jüre for jüri. 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 $e m$. Yet some Latin nouns in is, which do not increase in the genifive, have $i m$, and some Greek nouns have $i m$, in, or $a$.

1. Many proper names in is, denoting places, rivers, or gods, have the accusative singular in in; as, Hispălis, Tiberis, Anübis; so also Albs, Athësis, Boetis, Arar or Arăris, Bilbillis, Apis, Osiris, Syrits, etc. These sometimes, also; make the accusative in in; as, Albin. Scaldis has in and em, and Liris, in, in, and em. Liger has Ligĕrim.
2. The following also have the accusative in am:-

| Amussis, a mason's rule. | Mephītis, foul air. | Sināpis, mustard. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Būris, a plough-tail. | Pelvis, a basin. | Sĩtis, thirst. |
| Cannabis, hemp. | Rāvis, hoarseness. | Tussis, a cough. |
| Cucŭmis, (gen. -is), a cucumber. Secūris, an axe. | Sis, strength. |  |

8. These have $i m$, and sometimes em :-

Febris, a fever. Puppis, the stern. Restis, a rope. Turris, a tower.
But these have em, and rarely in:-
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { Bipennis, a battleaxe. } & \text { Nāvis, a ship. } & \text { Sementis, a sowing. } \\ \text { Cāvis, a key. } & \text { Præsēpis, a stall. } & \text { Strigilis, a flesh -brush. }\end{array}$
Missis, a harvest.
4. Lens and pars have rarely lentim and partim; and crätim from crates, is found in Plautus.
5. Early writers formed the accusative of some other nouns in tm.

## Accusative of Greek Nouns.

§ 80. 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 $i m$.
I. Masculine and feminine Greek nouns, whose genitive increases in is or 08, impure, that is, with a consonant going before, have their accusative in em or $a$; as, lampas, lampădis (Greek - Sos), lampăda; chlămys, chlamy̆dis, sulanoy̆dem, or -y ̆da; Helicon, Helicōnis, H\& H cöna.

Remark. In like manner these three, which have is pure in the genitiveTrös, Tröis, Tröem, and Tröa, a Trojan; hēros, a hero; and Minos, a king of Crete.-A"r, the air; ather, the sky; delphin, a dolphin; and pean, a hymn, have usually $a$; as, aëra, cethëra, dèlphina, pceäna. 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 $y s$, gen. yos, form their accusative by changing the $s$ of the nominative into $m$ or $n$; as, Charybdis, (gen. Lat. -is, Gr. sacs), acc. Charybdim or -in ; Hălys, -yis or -yos, Halym or $-y n$. So rhus, gen. rhois, has rhun or rhum.
III. Proper names ending in the diphthong eus, gen. ëi and ëos, have the accusative in ea; as, Thēseus, Thesea; Tÿdeus, 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 dsclension; as, Achilles, Achillen; Xerxes, Xerxen; Sophöcles, Sophöclen. Cf. $\$ 45,1$. Some also, which have either étis or is in the genitive, have, besides étem, ēta, or em, the termination en; as, Chrëmes, Thäles.

## VOCATIVE SINGULAR.

§ 81. The vocative is like the nominative.
Remars. 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 é, after the first declension; as, Socrătes, Socrăte. $\$ 45,1$.

## ABLATIVE SINGULAR.

§ ST. The ablative singular commonly ends in $e$.
Exc. 1. (a.) Neuters in $e, a l$, and $a r$, have the ablative in $i$; as, sedīle, sedūli; anĭmal, animāli; calcar, calcāri.
(b.) But names of towns in $e$, and the following neuters in $a r$, have $e$ in the ablative; viz. baccar, an herb; far, corn; heppar, the liver; jübar, a sunbeam; nectar, nectar; par, a pair; sal, salt. Rëte, a net, has either e or $i$; and măre, the sea, has sometimes in poetry mare in the ablative.

Exc. 2. (a.) Nouns which have $i m$ alone, or both $i m$ and in in the accusative, and names of months in er or $i s$, have $i$ in the ablative; as, vis, vim, vi; Tïbĕris, -im, i; December, Decembri; Aprīlis, Aprīli.
(b.) But Bcetis, cannábis, and sinäpis, have e or i. Tigris, the tiger, has tigrtde; as a river it has both $\cdot$ Tigride and Tigri.

Exc. 3. (a.) Nouns which have em or $i m$ 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, Păvis,-idis,-ide.

Exc. 4. (a.) Adjectives in is, nsed as nouns, have commonly $i$ in the ablative, but sometimes $e$; as, fumiliūris, a friend; natälis, a birthday; solālis, a companion; trirēmis, a trireme.-Participles in $n s$, used as nouns, have conmonly $e$ in the ablative, bu zontinens has i.
(b.) When adjectives in is become proper names, they always have $e$; as, Juvenälis, Juvenäle. Affinis and adilis have generally $e$; as have always juvénis, a youth; rüdis, a rod; and volücris, a bird.

Exc. 5. (a.) The following, though they have only $e m$ 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, |
| Bilis, | Finis, | Orbis, | Sordes, | Vectis, |
| Civis, | Fustis, | Ovis, | Sors, | Vesper. |
| Classis, |  |  |  |  |

(b.) Occïput has only $i$, and $r u s$ 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 Carthage; so, Anxüri and Lacedomơni, and, in the most ancient writers, many other nouns occur with this termination in the ablative. Canälis has $i$, and very rarely $e$.

Exc. 6. Nouns in $y s$, which have $y m$ or $y n$ in the accusative, have their ablative in $y e$ or $y$; as, Atys, Atye, or Aty.

## NOMINATIVE PLURAL.

§ 88. I. The nominative plural of masculines and feminines ends in es; as, sermōnes, rūpes:-but neuters have $a$, and those whose ablative singular ends in $i$ only, or in $e$ and $i$, have $i a$; as, căput, cap̌̌ta; sedīle, sedilia; rēte, retia. Aplustre has both $a$ and ia.

1. Some Greek neuters in os have $\bar{e}$ in the nominative plural; as, mélos; nom. plural, mele; (in Greek $\mu_{\varepsilon} \lambda_{\varepsilon} \varepsilon$, by oontraction $\mu_{\varepsilon}^{\prime} \lambda n$ ). 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, sedile, sedili, sedilium; turris, turre or turri, turrium.
2. Nouns in es and is, which do not increase in the genitive singular, have ium; as, nübes, nubium ; hostis, hostium.

Exc. Cänis, juvěnis, föris, mugillis, prōles, strues, and rätes, have um; so oftener have ăpis, strigilis, and volücris; less frequently mensis, sēdes, and, in the poets only, ambäges, caedes, clädes, vepres, and coelestis.
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 $n s$ or $r s$, and names of nations in as, have commonly ium, but sometimes um; as, cliens, clientiven or clientum; Arpīnas, Arpinatium.
(1.) Other nonns in $\tau s$ generally have $u m$, but sometimes ium; as, cetas, atatum or cetatium. Penc is and optimätes have usually ium.
5. The following have ium:-căro, compes, linter, imber, üter, venter, Samnis, Quiris, and usually Insüber. Fornax and pälus have sometimes ium.
6. Greek nouns have generally um; as, grgas, gigantum; Arabs, Arăbum; Thrax, Thrācum; -but a few, used as titles of books, have sometimes $\bar{o} n$; as, Epigramma, epigrammátôn; Metamorphōsis, -eōn. The patrial Maleōn 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, mänes, manium; colites, colitum; ilia, ilium; as if from mänis, coeles, and ile. So also names of feasts in alia; as, Saturnalia, Saturnalium; but these have sometimes ōrum 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 ibus.
Exc.1. Bos has bōbus and būbus, by contraction, for bovibus; sus has sübus by syncope, for suzbus. $\{322,5$, and 4.
Exc. 2. Greek nouns in $m a$ have the dative and ablative plural more frequently in is than in ibus; as, poèma, poemătis, 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, heröis, herotdis; heroisi; or heroisin. Ovid. So in Quintilian, Metamorphosěsi.

## ACCUSATIVE PLURAL.

§ 85. The accusative plural ends, like the nominative, in ēs, $\breve{a}, i \breve{a}$.

Exc. 1. The accusative plural of masculines and feminines, whose genitive plural ends in ium, anciently ended in $\overline{i s}$ or $\overline{e s}$, instead of $\bar{e} s ;$ as, partes, gen. partium, acc. partēts or partēs.
Exc. 2. Greek masculines and feminines, whose genitive increases in is or as impure, have their accusative in as; as, lampas, lampädis, lampädas. So also héros, heröis, heröas, and some barbarian names of nations have a similar form; as, Brigantas, Allobrögas.

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

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

|  | Nom. | Gen. | Dat. | Acc. | Voc. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| S. | Lampas, | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text {-ădis, } \\ \text {-ădos, } \end{array}\right\}$ | -ădi, | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text {-ădem, } \\ \text {-ăda, } \end{array}\right\}$ | -as, | -ăde |
| Pl. | l. -ădes, | -ădum, | -adĭbus, | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text {-ădes, } \\ \text {-ădas, }\end{array}\right.$ | ădes, | -adíbus. |
| S. | Hēros, | -ōis, | -öi, | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text {-ōem, } \\ \text {-ōa, } \\ \text { - }\end{array}\right.$ |  | -ōe. |
| Pl. | -ōes, | -ōum, | -oĭbus, | $\{$-ōes, | -ōes, | -oĭbu |
|  | Chělys, | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} - \text { - } \mathrm{ys}, \\ \text { y̆os, }, \end{array}\right\}$ | -yi, | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { - }-\mathrm{lm}, \\ -\mathrm{yn},\end{array}\right.$ | -y, | er or y . |
|  | Poēsis, | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text {-is, -ios, } \\ \text {-ěos, }\end{array}\right\}$ | -i, | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text {-im, } \\ \text {-in, }\end{array}\right\}$ |  |  |
|  | Achilles, | $\{-\mathrm{is},-\mathrm{ei},-\mathrm{i}$, | -i, | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text {-em, } \\ \text {-èa, ēn, }\end{array}\right\}$ | , -è, | -e or |
|  | Orpheus, Aër, Dìdō, | -ěos, -ĕris, -ūs, | $\begin{aligned} & -\check{-\mathrm{c} i,} \\ & \text {-ĕri, } \\ & -\bar{o}, \end{aligned}$ | -ӗa, <br> -ĕra, <br> -ō, | $\begin{aligned} & \text {-eu, } \\ & \text {-er, } \\ & -\bar{o}, \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { See § } 54 . \\ & \text {-ěre. } \\ & -\bar{o} . \end{aligned}$ |

## FOURTH DECLENSION.

§ 87. Nouns of the fourth declension end in us and $u$. Those in $u s$ are masculine ; those in $u$ are neuter, and, except in the genitive, are indeclinable in the singular.
Nouns of this declension are thus declined :-

Fructus, fruit.
Singular.
$N$. fruc'-tŭs,
G. fruc'-tūs,
D. fruc'-tu-ī,

Ac. fruc'tŭm,
$V$. fruc'-tŭs, $A b$. fruc'-tū.

Plural. fruc'tūs, fruc'tu-ŭm, fruc'tǐi-bŭs, fruc'-tūs, fruc'-tūs, fruc'titi-bŭs.

Cornu, a horn.
Singular. Plural. N. cor'-n $\bar{u}, \quad$ cor'-nu-ă, G. cor'-nūs, cor'nu-ŭm, D. cor'-nū, cor'-nĭ-bŭs, Ac. cor'-nū, cor'-nu-ă, $V$. cor'-nū, cor'-nu-ă, $A b$. cor'-nū. cor'-nǐ-bŭs.

In like manner decline

Can'-tus, a song.
Cur'-rus, a chariot.
Ex-er-ci-tus, an army.

Fluc'-tus, a wave. Luc'-tus, grief. Mō'tus, motion.

Se-nā'tus, the senate. Gé'-lu, ice. (in sing.)
Vé'ru, a spit.

Exceptions in Gender.
§ 88. 1. The following are feminine :-
Acus, a nsedle.
Dŏmus, a enuse.
Fīcus, a fig.
Mănus, a hand.
Porticus, a gallery. Tribus, a tribe.

COlus, a distaff, and the plurals Quinquätrus, a feast of Minerva, and Idus, the Ides, are also feminine. So noctu, by night, found only in the ablative singular

Pénus, a store of provisions, when of the fourth declension, is masculine or feminine. Sécus, sex, is nenter; see $\oint 94$. Spěcus, a den, is masculine and rarely feminine or neuter.
2. Some personal appellatives, and names of trees, are feminine by signification ; as,
Anus, nürus, socrus;-cornus, laurus, and quercus. Myrtus also is feminine and rarely masculine. See $\S 29,1$ and 2.

## Exceptions in Declension.

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

(a.) Domüs, in the genitive, signifies, of a house; domi 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. Pënus 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. | Plaral. |
| :---: | :---: |
| $N$. fructŭs, | frutuēs, ūs, |
| G. fructuis, -ūs, | fructuŭm, -ŭm, |
| D. fructui, - $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$, | fructuibŭs, -ŭbŭs, or -ĭbŭs, |
| Ac. fructuêm, -ŭm, | fructuès, uns, |
| $V$. fructŭs, | fructuēs, -ūs, |
| $A b$. fructuè, -ū. | fructuřbŭs, -ŭbŭs, $o r$-ǐbŭs. |

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, senäti; tumultus, tumulti. 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 $u m$ rarely occurs.
5. The following nouns have $\breve{u} b u s$ in the dative and ablative plural:-
Acus, a needle. Artus, a joint.
Partus, a birth. Spěcus, a den.
Arcus, a bow. Lăcus, a lake. Pěcu, a flock. Tríbus, a tribe.

Gënu, a knee; portus, a havizor; tonitrus, thunder; and verru, \& spit, have ibus or übus.

## FIFTH DECLENSION.

§ 9(1. Nouns of the fifth declension end in $\bar{e} s$, and are of the feminine gender.

They aze thus declined:-

Res, a thing.

| Singu'ar. | Plural. |
| :---: | :---: |
| $N$. ress, |  |
| G. rě'-i, | rē'-rŭm, |
| D. rě̌-i, | rē'-bŭs, |
| Ac. rĕm, | rēs, |
| $V . r e \bar{s}{ }^{\text {b }}$, rē, | $\stackrel{\text { ress, }}{\text { ré'-bis }}$ |

Dies, a day.
Singular. Plural.
$N$. di'-ēs, di'-ēs, G. di-ē'-ī die è'rüm, D. di-ē'ī, $A c$. di'-ěm, V. di'-ēs, $A b$. di'è.
di-ē'-bŭs,
di'ès, di'-ēs, di-é'-bŭs.

Remark. Noins 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 $\bar{e}$ or in $\overline{\bar{c}}$, instead of $e i$; as, gen. diē for diēi, Virg.; fide for fidei, Hor.; acie for aciēi, Cæs.-Gen. plēbi for plebë, Liv.-dat. fide 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, effigies, eluvies, 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 plēbes, 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 respublŭca, a commonwealth, and jusjurandum, an oath; of the latter, mater-familias, a mistress of a family. Cf. § 43, 2.

## Singular.

N. V. res-pŭb'lí-ca, G. D. re-i-pub ${ }^{-1 \mathrm{li}-\mathrm{c} æ,}$ Ac. rem-pub'-lif-ca-n, Ab. re-pub'lī-cā.

Plural.
N. V. res-pub'lĭ-cæ,
G. re-rum-pub-li-cā'-rum,
$D$. $A b$. re-bus-pub'-lĭ-cis,
Ac. res-pub'-li-cas.

| Singulan | Plural. | Singular. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N. jus-ju-ran -dum, | ju-ra-ju-ran'-da, | N. ma-ter-fa-mil'i |
| G. ju-ris-ju-ran'-di, |  | G. ma-tris-fa-mil ${ }^{\text {coi-a }}$ |
| D. ju-ri-ju-ran'-do, |  | D. ma-tri-fa-mil'i-a <br> Ac. ma-trem-fa-mil'-i |
| Ac. jus-ju-ran-dum, | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ju-ra-jucran'da, } \\ & \text { ju-ra-ju-ran'-da. } \end{aligned}$ | V. ma-ter-fa-mil'-i-as, |
| $A b$. ju-re-ju-ran'-do. |  | $A b$. ma-tre-fa-mil'-i-as, etc. |

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

## IRREGULAR NOUNS.

§ 92. Irregular nouns are divided into three classesVariable, 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, Dindy̆mus, Ismărus, Massicus, Møenălus, Pangæeus, Tartărus, Taygètus; plur. Averna, etc.
2. Masculine in the singular, and masculine or neuter in the plural; as,
 topics, places; löca, places;-sibilus, a hissing; plur. sibila, rarely sibilli;-intübus, endive; plur. intübr or intüba.
3. Feminine in the singular, and neuter in the plural; as,
carbăsus, a species of flax; plur. carbăsa, very rarely carbăsi, sails, etc., madd of it;-Hierosolyma, $-\infty$, Jerusalem; plur. Hierosoly̆ma, $-\bar{r} r u m$.
4. Neuter in the singular, and masculine in the plural ; as,
ccelum, heaven; plur. coli;-Elysium; plur. Elysii;-Argos; plur. Argi So siser, neut., plur. sisèrees, masc.
5. Neuter in the singular, and masculine or neuter in the plural ; as,
frēnum, a bridle; plur. frēni or frēna;-rastrum, a rake; plur. rastri, or, more rarely, rastra;-pugillar, a writing tablet; plur. pugilläres or pugillaria.
6. Neuter in the singular, and feminine in the plural; as, epŭlum, a feast; plur. epŭle; -balneum, a bath; plur. balnere or balnea; nundinum, a market-day; plur. nundince, a fair.
7. Feminine or neuter in the singular, and feminine in the plural; as,
delicia or delicium, delight; plur. delicice.

## Heteroclites.

§ 98. 1. Second or taird declension in the singular, and third in the plural; as,
nom. and acc. jugĕrum, an acre; gen. jugĕri or jugĕris; abl. jugĕro and jugëre; plur., nom., and acc. jugĕra; gen. juyĕrum; abl. jugĕris and jugeribus.
2. Third declension in the singular, and second in the plural; as,
rās, a vessel; plur. rāsa, ōrum. Ancile, a shield, has sometimes anciliörum, 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, -ūrum, properly comes from vāsum, $-i$, but the latter, together with the plural of $v a s, v a \bar{a} i s$, 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: sèmis, a half; git, 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 as-terisk:-
*Abactus, acc. pl.; a driving away.
Accitu, abl.; a calling for.
Admissu, abl.; admission.
Admonitu, abl.; admonition.
Es, not used in gen. pl.
Aff $\bar{t}+\mathrm{u}$, abl.; an addressing ;-pl. affātus, -rbus.
Algus, nom.; algum, acc.; algu, abl.; cold.
Ambāge, 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.
Cacoēthes, nom., acc.; an evil cus-tom;-cacoē!ıe, nom. pl.; -e, and -es, acc. pl.
Canities, nom. -em, acc.; -e, abl.

Cētos, acc.; a whale;-cēte, nom. and acc. pl.; cetis, dat.
Chăos, nom. acc.; chao, abl.; chaos.
Cassem, acc.; casse, abl.; a net;-pl. entire.
Circumspectus, nom.; -um; -u; a looking around.
Conctu, abl.; constraint.
Cœlīte, abl.; pl. entire; inhabitants of heaven.
*Commutātum, acc.; an alteration.
Compědis, gen.; compěde, abl.; a fet ter;-pl. compĕdes, -ium, -ibus.
Concessu, abl.; permission.
Condiscipulātu, abl.; companionship at school.
Crätim, or -em, acc.; -e, abl.; a hurdle ;-pl. crātes, -ium, -ǐbus.
Cupressu, abl.; a cypress.
Daps, nom., scarcely used; dăpis, gen. etc. pl. dapes, -lbus; a feast.
*Dăty, abl.; a giving.
Derisus, -ui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; ridícule.

Despicatui, dat.; contempt.
Dǐca, nom.; dicam, acc.; a legal pro-cess;-dicas, acc. pl.
Dicis, gen.; as, dicis gratiā, for form's sake.
Ditiōnis, gen.; -i, dat.; -em, acc.; -e, abl.; power.
Diu, abl.; in the day time.
Divisui, lat.; a dieuling.
Ebur, irory;-not used in ti.e plural.
*Efflagitãtu, call.; 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.
Frex, dregs, wants gen. pl.
Fămé, abl.; hunger.
Far, corm, 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.; $-\infty$, abl.; the thigh;-pl. femĭna, -ibus.
Flictu, abl.; a striking.
Föris, 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, firuit, none. scarcely used;frūgis, gen., etc.
Fulgetras, acc. pl.; lightning.
Gausăpe, nom., acc., abl.; a rough gar-ment;-gausăpa, acc. pl.
Glos, nom.; a husband's sister.
Grātes, acc. pl.;-gratibus, abl.; thanks.
Hebdomădam, acc.; a week.
Hiems, vinter, not used in gen., dat., and abl. pl.
Hippomănes, nom. and acc.
*Hir, nom.; the palm of the hand.
Hortâtu, abl.; an exhorting;-pl. hortatibus.
Impètis, gen.; -e, abl.; a shock;-pl. impetibus.
Incitas, or -a, acc. pl.; as, ad incitas redactus, reduced to a strait.
*Inconsultu, abl.; without adrice.
*Indultu, cill.; indulgence.
Inferie, nom. pl.; -is, 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 $a d v$. ); in the day time.
*Invitātu, abl.; an invitation.
Irrisui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; derision.
Jövis, nom., rarely used;-pl. Joves.
Jngěris, gen.; -e, abl.; an acre;-pl. jugěra, -um, -iluus.
Jussu, all.; command.
Lābes, a spot, wants gen. pl.
Lūcu, abl.; day-light.
*Ludificatui, dat.; a mockery.
Lux, light, wants the gen. pl.
Maindātu, abl ; a command.
Māne, nom., acc.; mane, or rarely -i, abl.; the morning.
Mel, honey, not used in gen., dat., and abl. pl.
Mèlos, 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, -ïbus.
Monǐtu, abl.; admonition;-pl. monitus.
Nātu, abl.; by birth.
Nauci, gen., with non; as, homo non nauci, a man of no account.
Něfas, nom., acc.; wickedness.
Nèmo, nobody, wants the voc. and the pl.
Nepenthes, nom., acc.; an herb.
Nex, death, wants the voc.;-něces, nom., acc. pl.
Nihil, or nihinlum, nom. and acc.; -i, gen.; -o, abl.; nothing.
Noctu, abl. ; by night.
Nuptui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abt.; marriage.
Obex, nom. ; -ǐcem, acc. ; -ice, or -jǐce, abl.; a bolt;-pl. öbǐces, -jicǐbus.
Objectum, acc.; -u, abl.; an interposi-tion;-pl. objectus.
Obtentui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; a pretext.
Opis, gen.; ŏpem, acc.; ŏpe, abl.; help; $-p l$. entire.
Oppositu, abl.; an opposing;-pl. oppositus, acc.
Opus, nom., acc.; need.
Os , the mouth, wants the gen. pl.
Panăces, nom.; -is, gen.; -e, abl.; an herb.
Pax, peace, wants gen. pl.
Peccātu, cul.; a fault.
Pecūdis, gen.; -i, dat.; -em, acc.; -e, $a b l . ;-p l$. entire.
Pelăge, acc. pl. of pelăgus; the sea.
Permissu, abl.; -um, acc.; permission.
Piscātus, nom.; -i, gєn.; -um, acco ! -ll, abl.; a fishing.

Pix, pitch ; prices, acc. pl.
Pondo, abl.; in weight. Cf. § 94, 1.
Prĕci, dat.; -em, acc.; -e, abl. ; prayer ; $-p l$. entire.
Prŏcer; nom.; -em, acc.; a peer;-pl. entire.
Promptu, abl., readiness.
Pus wants gen. dat. and abl. pl.
Relātum, ucc.;-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 abl. pl.
Satias, nom.; -ātem, acc.; āte, abl.; satiety.
Sĕcus, nom., acc.; sex.
Situs, nom.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; situa-tion;-situs, nom. and acc. pl.
Situs, nom.; - $\overline{\mathrm{u}} \mathrm{s}$, 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.
Spontis, gen.; -e, abl.; of one's own accord.
Subőles, offspring, wants gen. pl.
Remari 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.
§ 9.5. 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, ( $\$ 26, \mathrm{R} .3$. ), 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.

Aconitum, wolfsbane, p.
Adorea, a military reward.
Aer, the air, p.
Es, brass, money, p.
Ether, the sky.

Ævum, age, lifetime, p . Album, an album. Allinm, garlic, p. Amicitia, friendship, p. Argilla, white clay. Avèna, oats, p .

Balaustium, the flover of the pomegranate.
Balsŭmum, bals sm, p.
Barathrum, a gulf.
Callum, hardened skin, p. Călor, heat, p.

Carduns, a thistle, p.
Căro, flesh, p.
Cēra, wax, p.
Cestus, a girdle.
Cicūta, hemlock, p.
Cœnmm, mud.
Contagium, contajion, p.
Cröcum, saffiron.
Cröcus, suffiron, p.
Cruor, blood, p.
Cŭtis, the skin, p.
Dilucŭlum, the dawn.
Ebur, ivory.
Electrum, amber, p.
Far, corn, p.
Fel, gall, p.
Fervor, heat, p.
Fides, faith.
Fimus, dung.
Fŭga, flight, p.
Fümus, smoke, p.
Füror, madness, p.
Galla, an oak-apple, p.
Gëlu, frost.
Glarea, gravel.
Gloria, glory, p.
Glastum, woad.
Glūten, or
Glutinum, glue.
Gypsum, white plaster.
Hepar, the liver.
Hesperrus, the evening star.
Hilum, a little thing.
Hordeum, barley, p.
Hŭmus, the ground.
Indǒles, native quality, p .
Ira, anger, p .
Jŭbar, radiance.
Jus, justice, law, p.
Justitium, a law vacation.

Lac, mill:
Lætitia, joy, p.
Languor, faintness, p.
Lardum, bacon, p.
Lătex, liquor, p.
Lētum, death.
Lignum, wood, p.
Linnus, mud.
Líquor, liquor, p.
Lues, a plague.
Lŭtum, clay, p.
Lux, liglit, p.
Macellum, the shambles.
Mäne, the morning.
Marmor, marble, p.
Mel, honey, p.
Meridies, mid-day.
Mors, death, p.
Munditia, neatness, p.
Mundus, female ornaments.
Muscus, moss.
Nectar, nectar.
Nèmo, no man.
Nequitia, vickedness, p .
Nihilum, nihil, or nil, no thing.
Nitrum, natron.
Oblivio, forgetfulness, p.
Omāsum, bullock's tripe.
Opium, opium.
Palea, chaff, p.
Pax, peace, p.
Pěnum, and
Pěnus, prorisions, p .
Pĭper, pepper.
Pix, pitch, p.
Pontus, the sea.
Prolubium, desire.
Pūbes, the youth.
Pulvis, dust, p.

Purpŭra, purple, p.
Quies, rest, p.
Ros, dew, p.
Rŭbor, redness, p .
Sabŭlo and
Sabūlum, gravel.
Sal, salt.
Salum, the sea.
Sălus, safety.
Sanguis, blood.
Scrupŭlum, a scruple, p.
Senium, old age.
Siler, an osier.
Sināpi, mustard.
Siser, skirret, p
Sirtis, thirst.
Sol, the sun, p.
Söpor, sleep, p.
Specinen, an example.
Spūma, foam, p.
Sulfur, sulphur, p.
Supellex, furniture.
Tābes, a consumption.
Tābum, corrupt matter.
Tellus, the earth.
Terror, terror, p.
Thy̆mum, thyme, p .
Tribŭlus, 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. ple.
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, | Fundi, | Locri, | Sūsa, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Amỹclæ, | Ceraunia, | Gabii, | Parisii, | Syracūsæ, |
| Artax̌üta, | Ecbatäna, | Gādes, | Philippi, | Thermopy̆læ, |
| Athēnæ, | Esquiliæ, | Gemoniæ, | Puteöli, | 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 memoran-dum-book.
Estiva, sc. castra, summer quarters.

Alpes, the Alps, s.
Annāles, annals, s.
Antæ, door-posts.
Antes, roos.
Antix, a foreloc:

Apinææ, trifles.
Argutiæ, vitticisms, s.
Arma, arms.
Artus, the joints, s.
Bellaria, sveetmeats.

Bïgæ, a two-horse chariot, s.
Bracce, breeches.
Branchiæ, the gills of fishes.
Brevia, shallow places.
Calendæ, the Calends.
Cancelli, balustrades.
Cāni, gray hairs.
Casses, a huuter's net, s.
Caule, sheep-folds.
Celĕres, the body-guard of the Roman kings.
Cibaria, victuals, s.
Clitellæ, a pack-saddle.
Codicilli, a writing.
Cœlites, the gods, s.
Crepundia, a rattle.
Cunabŭla, and
Cūnæ, a cradle.
Cyclădes, the Cyclades, s.
Decìmæ, tithes, s.
Diræ, the Furies, s.
Divitiæ, riches.
Druildes, the Druids.
Dryădes, the Dryads, s.
Epŭlæ, a banquet, s.
Eumenildes, the Furies, s.
Excubiæ, watches.
Exsequiæ, funeral rites.
Exta, entrails.
Exuviæ, spoils.
Facetix, pleasantry, s.
Ferix, holidays, s.
Fǐdes, a stringed instrument, s.
Flabra, blasts.
Frăces, the lees of oil.
Frāga, strawberries, s.
Gemini, twins, s.
Gěnæ, cheeks, s.
Gerræ, trifles.
Grätes, thanks.
Habēnæ, reins, s.
Hiberna, sc. castra, winter quarters.
Hy ${ }^{\text {addes, the Hyades, }}$ s.
Idus, the ides of a month.
lia, the flank.
Incunabŭla, a cradle.
Indutiæ, a truce.

Induviæ, clothes.
Ineptix, fooleries, s.
Infêri, the dead.
Inferiæ, sacrifices in honor of the dead.
Insecta, insects.
Insidix, an ambuscade, s.
Justa, funeral rites.
Lactes, small entrails, s.
Lamenta, lamentations.
Lapicidinæ, a stone quar$r y$.
Latebræ, a hiding place, s.

Laurices, young rabbits.
Lautia, presents to for eign ambassadors.
Lemŭres, hobgoblins.
Lendes, nits
Liběri, children, s.
Lucěres, a division of the Roman cavalry.
Magalia, cottages.
Majüres, ancestors.
Mānes, the shades, s.
Manubiæ, spoils of war.
Mapalia, huts, s.
Minaciæ, and
Mǐnæ, threats.
Minūres, posterity.
Mœnia, the walls of a city, s.
Multitia, garments finely wrought.
Munia, official duties.
Naiädes, water-nymphs, s.
Nāres, the nostrils, s .
Natāles, parentage.
Nătes, the haunches, s.
Nŏmæ, corroding sores or ulcers., s.
Nōnæ, the nones of a month. § 326, 1.
Nūgæ, jests, nonsense.
Nundinæ, the weekly market.
Nuptiæ, a marriage.
Oblivia, forgetfulness, s.
Offuciæ, cheats, s.
Optimãtes, the aristo-

Palearia, the dewlap, s.
Pandectæ, the pandects.
Parietinæ, old ualls.
Partes, a party, s.
Pascua, pastures, s.
Penātes, household gods, s.

Phalěræ, trappinigs.
Philtra, love potions.
Pleiaddes, the Pleiuds or seven stars, s.
Postĕri, posterity.
Præbia, an amulet.
Præcordia, the diaphragm, the entrails.
Primitiæ, first fruits.
Procēres, nobles, s.
Pugillaria, or -äres, writing-tablets, s.
Quadrigæ, a team of four horses, s.
Quirites, Roman citizens, s.

Quisquiliæ, refuse.
Reliquiæ, the remains, s.
Salebre, rugged roads, s.
Salinæ, salt pits.
Scālæ, a ladder, s.
Scatebræ, a spring, s.
Scōpæ, a broom.
Scrūta, old stuff.
Sentes, thorns, s.
Sponsalia, espousals.
Stativa, sc. castra, a stationary camp.
Superri, the gods above.
Talaria, winged shoes.
Tenebræ, darkness, s.
Tesca, rough places.
Thermæ, warm baths.
Torminna, colic-pains.
Transtra, seats for rowers, s.
Tricæ, trifles, toys.
Utensilia, utensils.
Valvæ, folding doors, s.
Vepres, brambles, s.
Vergiliæ, the seven stars.
Vindiciæ, a legal claim, s.
Virgulta, bushes.
§ 9\%. The following usually differ in meaning in the different numbers.

Wdes, -is, a temple.
庣des, -ium, a house.
Aqua, water.
Iquæ, medicinal springs.
Auxilium, aid.
Anxilian auartitary troges.

Bŏnum, a good thing.
Bŏna; property.
Carcer, a prison.
Carcēres, the barriers of a race-course.
Oastrum, a castle.

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

Copiæ, troops, forces.
Cupedia, - $x$, daintiness.
Cupedix, -arum, and
Cupedia, -irum, dainties.
Factilas, ability.
Facultātes, property.
Fastus, -ins, pride.
Fastus, -uum, and
Fasti, -ōrum, a calendar.
Fortūna, Fortune.
Fortūnæ, weulth.
Furfur, bran.
Furfüres, dandruff.
Gratia, favor.
Gratiæ, thanks.

Impedimentum, a hinder- Natālis, a birthday. ance. Natāles, birth, lineage.
Impedimenta, baggage. Opëra, work, labor.
Litëra, a letter of the al- Opěræ, workmen. phabet.
Litěræ, an epistle.
Lūdus, pastime.
$\mathrm{L} \mathrm{u} d i$, public games.
Lustrum, a morass.
Lustra, a haunt or den of wild beasts.
Mos, custom.
Mōres, manners.
Näris, a nostril.
Näres, the nose.

Opis, gen. power.
Opes, -um, means, wealth.
Plága, a region, tract.
Plăgæ, nets, toils.
Principinm, a beginning.
Principia, the generabs quarters.
Rostrum, a beak, proso.
Rostra, the Rostra.
Sal, salt.
Süles, vitticisms.
§ 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.

Equorra, the sea.
Alta, the sea.
Anǐmi, courage.
Anre, the air.
Carinæ, a keel.
Cervices, the neck.
Colla, the neck.
Cōmæ, the hair.
Connubia, marriage.
Corda, the heart.
Corpöra, a body.
Crepuscŭla, twilighı。
Currūs, a chariot.
Exsilia, banishment.
Frigorra, cold.
Gaudia, joy.
Gramina, grass.
Guttưra, the throat.

Hymenæi, marriage.
Ignes, love.
Inguina, the groin.
Iræ, anger.
Jejunia, fasting.
Jŭbæ, a mane.
Limina, a threshold.
Litŏra, 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.

Pectŏra, the breast.
Redǐtūs, a return.
Regna, a kingdom.
Rictūs, the jaws.
Robŏra, strength.
Silentia, silence.
Sinūs, the bosom of a Roman garment.
Tædæ, a torch.
Temporra, time.
Terga, the back.
Thalami, marriage or marriage-bed.
Tŏri, a bed, a couch.
Tūra, firankincense.
Vix, 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 $-\bar{u} s$; a laurel.
3. In gender; as, vulgus, masc. or neut.; the common people.
4. In termination and declension; as, senecta, $-\infty$, and senectus, -ütis; old rge.
5. In termination and gender; as pileus, masc., and pileum, neut.; a hat.
6. In declension and gender; as pěnus, $-i$ or $\bar{u} s$, masc. or fem., and pernus, $-\delta r i s$, neut.; a store of provisions. S'pěcus, $-\bar{u} s$ or $-i$, masc. fem. or neut. ; a cave.
7. In termination, declension, and gender; as, menda, $-\infty$, fem. and mendum, $-i$, neut. ; s fault.

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

Achuns, -um, and -a, a berry.
Adagium, and -io, a proverb.
Admonitio, -um, and -us, uss, a reminding.
※thra, and æther, the clear sky.
Affectio, and -us, uss, affection.
Agamemno, and -on, Agamemnon.
Alabaster, tri, and pl. -tra, öruin, an alabaster box.
Alimonia, and -um, aliment.
Alluvio, and -es, a flood.
Alvearinm, and -āre, a bee-hive.
Amarăcus, and-um, marjoram.
Amygdăla, and-um, an alnond.
Anfractum, and-us, ūs, a winding.
Angiportum, and -us, $\bar{u} s$, a narrow lane or alley.
Antidŏtus, and -um, an antidote.
Aranea, and -us, $i$, a spider.
Arar, and Arăris. the river Arar.
Arbor, and -os, a tree.
Architectus, and -on, an architect.
Arcus, $-\bar{u} s$, and $i, a b o w$.
Attagēna, and -gen, a moor-hen.
Avaritia, and -ies, avarice.
Augmentum, and -men, an increase.
Baccar, and-ăris, a kind of herb.
Baculus, and-um, a staff.
Balteus, and-um, a belt.
Barbaria, and-ies, barbarism.
Barbitus, and -on, a harp.
Batillus, and -um, a fire-shovel.
Blanditia, and -ies, flattery.
Buccĭna, and -um, a trumpet.
Būra, and-is, a plough-tail.
Buxus, and -um, the box-tree.
Cæpa, and сæре, an onion.
Calamister, tri, and -trum, a crispingpin.
Callus, and -um, hardened skin.
Cancer, cri, or è éris, a crab.
Canitia, and -ies, houriness.
Cāpus, and cāpo, a capon.
Carrus, and-um, a kind of waggon.
Cassǐda, and -cassis, a helmet.
Catinus, and -um, a bowl, dish.
Chirogräphus, and -um, a hand-writ ng.
Cingŭla, -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
Compāges, and -go, a joining.
Conātum, and-us, $\bar{u} s$, an attempt.
Concinnitas, and -tūdo, neatness.
Consortium, and -io, partnership.
Contagium, -io, and -es, contact.
Cornum, -us, $i$, or $\bar{u}$ s, a cornel tree.
Costos, $i$, and -um, a kind of shrub.

Cratēra, and cräter, a bowl.
Cröcus, and -um, saffron.
Crystallus, and -um, crystal.
Cubitus, and -um, the elbon.
Cupiď̌tas, and-pīdo, desire.
Cupressus, $i$, or $\bar{u} s$, a cypress-tree.
Delicia, and -um, delight.
Delphinus, and delphin, a dolphin.
Dictamnus, and -um, dittany.
Diluvium, -0, and-ies, a deluye.
Dŏmus, $i$, or $\bar{u} s, a$ house.
Dorsus, and -um, the back.
Duritia, and-ies, hardness.
Effigia, and-ies, an image.
Elegia, and -on, $i$, an elegy.
Elěphantus, and -phas, an elephant.
Epitŏma, and -e, an abridgment.
Essĕda, and -um, a chariot.
Evander, dri, and-drus, Evander.
Eventum, and -us, ūs, an event.
Exemplar, and -äre, a pattern.
Fīcus, $i$, or $\bar{u} s, a$ fig-tree.
Fimus, and-um, dung.
Frètum, and -us, ūs, a strait.
Fulgetra, and -um, lightning.
Galèrus, and -um, a hat, cap.
Ganea, and -um, an eating-house.
Gausăpa, -es, -e, and -um, frieze.
Gibba, -us, and -er, ěri, a hump.
Glutinum, and -ten, glue.
Gobius, and -io, a gudgeon.
Grammatĭca, and -e, grammar.
Grus, gruis, and gruis, is, a crane.
Hebdomăda, and -mas, a week.
Hellebŏrus, and-um, hellebore.
Hŏnor, and hŏnos, honor.
Hyssöpus, and -um, hyssop.
Ilios, -um, and -on, Troy.
Incestum, and -us, üs, incest.
Intŭbus, and-um, endive.
Jugŭlus, and -um, the throat.
Juventa, -us, ütis, and -as, youth.
Lăbor, and lăbos, labor.
Lacerta, and -us, a lizard.
Laurus, $i$, or $\bar{s}$ s, a laurel.
Lĕpor, and lěpos, wit.
Liggur, and -us, ưris, a Ligurian.
Lupīnus, and -um, a lupine.
Luxuria, and-ies, luxury.
Mæander, -dros, and-drus, Mrander.
Margarita, and -um, a pearl.
Materiat 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-ilis, a mullet.
Mulorber, ěri, or ëris, Vidoan.

Mulctra, and-um, a milh-pail.
Munditia, and-ies, neatness.
Muria, and -ies, brine or pickle.
Myrtus, $i$ or $\bar{u} s$, a myrtle.
Nardus, and -um, rard.
Näsus, and -um, the nose.
Necessitas, and-ūdo, necessity.
Nequitia, and -ies, worthlesslizss.
Notitia, and-ies, knowledge.
Oblivium, and -io, for yetfulness.
Obsidium, and-io, a siege.
Edipus, $i$, or $\delta d i s$, Edipus.
Ostrea, and -um, an oyster.
Palatus, and -um, the palate.
Palumba, -us, and -es, a pigeon.
Papȳrus, and -um, papyrus.
Paupertas, and -ies, poverty.
Pāvus, and pāro, a peacock.
Pènus, $i,-\gamma_{r i} i s$, or $\bar{u} s$, and pěnum, pro visions.
Peplus, and -um, a reil.
Perseus, ei, or eos, Perseus.
Pileas, and -um, a hat.
Pinus, $i$, or $\bar{u} s$, a pine-tree.
Pistrina, and -um, a bake-house.
Planitia, and -ies, a plain.
Plăto, and Plăton, Plato.
Plebs, and plēbes, $e i$, the common people.
Porrus, and -um, a leek.
Postulātum, and -io, a request.
Presēpia, -ium, -es, or -is, and -e, a stable.
Prætextum, and -us, uss, a pretext.
Prosapia, and-ies, lineage.
Rāpa, and -um, a turnip.
Requies, étis or è è, rest.
Rēte, and rētis, a net.
Reticŭlus, and -um, a small net.

Rictum, and-us, ūs, the open mouth.
Sævitia, -ūdo and -ies, ferocity.
Sagus, and-um, a military cloak.
Sanguis, and sanguen, blood.
Satrïpes, and satraps, a satrap.
Scabritia, and-ies, roughness.
Scorpius, -os, and-io, a scorpion.
Segmentum, and-men, a piece.
Segnitia, and-ies, sloth.
Senecta, and -us, old age.
Sequester, tri, or tris, a trustes.
Sesăma, and -um, sesame.
Sibrlus, and -a, ōrum, a hissing.
Sināpi, and -is, mustard.
Sinus, and -um, a goblet.
Spărus, and -a, örum, a spear.
Spurcitia, and -ies, filthiness.
Stramentum, and -men, straw.
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.
Teněritas, and -tudo, softness.
Tergum, and -us, orris, the back.
Tiāra, and -as, a turban.
Tignus, and -um, a beam, timber.
Tigris, is, or idis, a tiger.
Titānus, and Tìtan, Titan.
Tonitruum, and -trus, $\bar{s} s$, thunder.
Torāle, and -al, a bed-covering.
Trăbes, and trabs, a beam.
Tribŭla, and -um, a threshing sledge.
Vespěra, -per, éri and ëris, the evening. Vinacěus, and -a, ōrum, 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 0 and on; as, Dio and Dion; also some Greek nouns in es and $e$, which have Latin forms in a; as, Atrides and Atrìda. See $\$ 45$.

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

Nore. 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.

## t §100. Nouns are derived from other nouns, from adjectives, and from verbs. <br> 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 properiy Greek nouns, and have been borrowed from that lan guage by the Latin poets.
(a.) Masculine patronymics end in $\check{d} d e s, ~ \bar{\imath} d e s, \breve{a} d e s$, and $\breve{\imath} \breve{a} d e s$.
(1.) Ne ans in $u s$ of the second declension, and those nouns of the third declension, whose roit ends in a short syllable, form their patronymics in ides; as, Priùmus, Priamides; Aganemnōn, gen. ŏnis, Agamemnöndes.
(2.) Nouns in $\overline{e u s}$ and cles form their patronymics in $\bar{d} d e s ;$ as, A-trēus, Atrides; Heräcles (i. e. Hercules,) Hercaclīdes.

Rems. 1. Annides, in Virg. A. 9, 653, is formed in like manner, as if from REneus, instead of Anéas.
(3.) Nouns in $\bar{a} s$ and $\bar{e} s$ of the first declension form their patronymics in ădes, as Enēūs, Enĕădes; Hippötēs, Hippötădes.
(4.) Nouns in ius of the second declension, and those nouns of the third decleusion, whose root ends in a long vowel, form their patronymics in iădes; as, Thestius, Thestüădes; Amphitryō (gen. ōnis), Amphitryoniădes.

Rem 2. A few nouns also of the first declension have patronymics in ĭădes; as, Anchīses. Anchisiădes.
(b.) Feminine patronymics end in $i s, \bar{e} i s$, and $i a s$, and correspond in termination to the masculines, viz. is to $\breve{\imath} d e s, \bar{e} i s$ to $\bar{\imath} d e s$, and $i a s$ to そ̆ădes ; as, Tyndărus, masc. Tyndarı̆des, fem. Tyndăris; Nëreus, masc. Nereīdes, fem. Nerēì; Thestius, masc. Thestı̆̆ldes, fem. Thestăas.

Rem. 3. A few feminines are found in ine, or iōne; as, Nerīne, Acrisiōne, 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,

Trōs, a Trojan man ; Tröas, a Trojan woman : Macèlo, a Macedonian; Samnis, a Samnite ; from Tröja, Macelonia, and Samnium.
Note 3. Most patrials are properly adjectives, relating to a noun understood; as, hömo, civis, 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 $\breve{u} l u s, ~ \breve{u} l a, ~ \breve{u} l u m$, or cŭlus, cŭla, cŭlum, 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 yowel, the diminutive is formed by annexing $\tilde{u} l u s, a$, unn to the root; as, arüla, servülus, puerülus, scutülum, corniciula, reyülus, capitülum, mercedüla, from ära, servus, puer, scütum, cornix, (-icis), rex, (régis), cŏput, (-itisis), merces, (-èdis.)
2. Primitives of the first or second declension whose root ends in $e$ or $i$, instead of ǐlus, $a, u m$, add ölus, a, un ; as, fliölus, gloriola, horreolum; from filius, gloria, horreum.
3. Primitives of the first or second declension whose root euds in $l, n$, or $r$, form diminutives by contraction in ellus, $a$, um, and some in illus, $a, u m ;$ as, ocellus, asellus, libellus, lucellun; from oculus, asina, liber, lucrum; and sigillum,
tigllum, from tigillum, from signum, tignum.
B. 1. If the prinitive is of the third, fourth, or fifth declension, the diminutive is forned in cülus, (or icülus), a, um.
2. Primitives of the third declension whose nominative ends in $r$, or in os or $\boldsymbol{u}$ from roots ending in $r$, annex cullus to the nominative ; as, fratercullus, soror-
cǔla, oscŭlun, corpuscǔlum ; from J äter, sơror, ঠs, (ơris), corpus, (-ठris).-So also primitives in es and is, but these drop the $s$ of the nominative ; as, igniculus, nübecŭla, diecüla; from ignis, nübes, dies.
3. Primitives of other terminations of the third declension, and those of the fourth. add icŭlus to the root; as, ponticülus, coticüla, ossicŭlum, versicülus, cornicŭlum ; from pons, cos, ěs, (ossił, versus, cornu.
4. Primitives in $o$, (inis or ōris), in adding cŭlus, $a$, um, change the final vowel of the root ( $i$ or $o$ ) into $u$; as, homuncūlus, sermuncülus; from homo and sermo; and a few primitives of other terminations form similar diminutives; as, atuncŭlus, domuncŭla; from ăvus and domus.
C. 1. A few diminutives end in uleus, as, equuleus, aculeus; from ĕquus and ăcus; and a few also in io; as, homuncio, senecio, from hŏmo and sĕnex.
2. Diminutives are sometimes formed from other diminutives ; as, asellülus, from asellus; sometimes two or more diminutives with different terminations are formed from the same primitive, as, homuncŭlus, homullus, and homuncio; from homo; and sometimes the primitive undergoes euphonic changes; as rum muscülus, from rūmor.
Rem. Some diminutives differ in gender from their primitives; as ranun. cülus, scamillus, from rāna and scamnum.
4. (a.) An amplificative is a personal appellation denoting an excess of that which is expressed by its primitive; as,

Capito, one who has a large head: so näso, labeo, bucco, fronto, mento, one who has a large nose, lips, or cheeks, a broad forehead or long chin; from căput, rūsus, labia, bucca, frons, and mentum.
(b.) A few personal appellatives in io denote the trade or profession to which a person belongs ; as, ludio, sn actor ; pellio, a furrier; from lülus, and peliis.
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; servitium, servitude, and collectively the servants ; so sacerdotium, and ministerium; from colléga, servus, sacerdos, and minister.
6. The termination imonium 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, väs (vädis), päter, and mäter.
7. The termination étum, added to the root of names of plants, denotes a place where they grow in abundance ; as, quercétum, 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 arrium, added to the root of a noun, denotes a receptacle of the things signified by the primitive; as, aviärium, an aviary; plantārium, a nursery ; from üvis, 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 bōs, an ox, cüper, a goat, and óris, 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 rtas, itüdo, ia, itia or ities, édo, and imōnia to the root of the primitive.
2. Abstracts in tas, (equivalent to the English ty or ity), are formed from adjectives of each declension ; as, cupiditas, teneritas, celeritas, crudelitas, fe'icttas; from cupǐdus, tëner, cěler, crudētis, and f゙élix.
(1.) When the root ends in $i$, the abstract is formed in ětas; as, piĕtas, 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, juventos, from liber, jurĕnis. In fucultas and difficultas, from facilis, difficilis, there is a change also in the root-vowel from $i$ to $u$.
(3.) A few abstracts are formed in itus or tus, instead of itas; as, servitus, juventus, from servus and juvënis. See § 76 , Exc. 2.
3. Abstracts in itūdo are formed from adjectives in $u s$, and some from adjectives of the third declension of two or three terminations; as, magnitūdo, altitūdo, fortitūdo, acritūūo, from magnus, altus, fortis, äcer. Polysyllabic adjectives in tus, generally form their abstracts by adding $\bar{u} d o$ instead of $i t u \bar{d} d o$ to their root; as, consuetūdo, from consuētus.
4. Abstracts in $i a$ (equivalent to the English ce or $c y$,) are for the most part formed from adjectives of one termination; as, clementia, constantia, impudentia, from clemens, constans, impüdens. But some adjectives in $u s$ and er, including verbals in cundus, likewise form their verbals in ia; as, miseria, angustia, facundia, from mĭser, angustus, facundus.
5. Abstracts in itia and ities are formed from adjectives in $u s$ and is; as, $j u s t i t i a$, tristitia, duritia, and durities, segnitia and segnities, from justus, tristis, dürus, and segnis.
6. A few abstracts are formed in edo, and a few in imönia; and sometimes two or more abstracts of different terminations are formed from the same adjective ; as, acritas, acritüdo, acrēdo, and acrimonia, from äcer. In such case those in itüdo 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.

§ 112. 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, ămor, love ; făvor, favor ; marror, grief ; splendor, brightness; from ămo, füveo, mereo, 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 collơquor, gaudeo, exordior, exeo and sōlor.
3. Some verbal abstracts are formed by annexing ēla, imōnia, or imōnium, to the first root of the yerb; as, querēla and querimonia, a complaint; suadéla, persuasion; from quĕror 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 fuo, agmen from ägo, solämen from sôlor, documentum from döceo, blandimentum from blandior.
(b.) The final consonant of the root is often dropped, and the preceding and connecting vowels contracted into one syllable; as, ăgo, (ăgĭmen,) agmen; föveo, (footmentum,) fömentum.
(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 aträre, to blacken.
5. (a.) The terminationt ǔlum, bŭlum, cŭlum; 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, cingǔlum, opercŭlum, venabülum, ventil̄̈brum, fulcrum, spectrum, from cingo, opërio, vēnor, ventilo, fulcio, spĕcio.
(b.) Sometimes cǔlum is contracted into clum; as, rinclum for vincưlum. Sometimes, also, $s$ is inserted before trum; as, rostrum, from rōdo, and a connecting vowel is placed before this and some of the other terminations; as, arātrum, stabülum, cubicŭlum, from ăro, sto, and cŭbo.
(c.) Some words of this kind are formed from nouns; as, acetabülum, a vinegar cruet; turibülum, a censer; from acētum 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, adjütor, adjütrix, an assistant; faütor, fautrix, a favorer; victor, victrix, a conqueror; from adjǔvo (adjut-), fäveo ( faut-), vinco (vict-). 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, viätor, 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 ; advēna, a stranger ; scriba, a scribe; erro, a vagrant ; bibo, a drunkard; comédo, a glutton, from convǐv, advěnio, etc.
7. Many abstract nouns are formed by annexing io and $u s$ (gen. uss) to the third root of a verb; as, actio, an action ; lectio, reading; from ägo (act-), lĕgo (lect-);-cantus, singing ; vīsus, sight; ūsus, use; from cäno (cant-), video (vīs-), $\bar{u} t o r$ ( $\bar{u} s$-).

Remark 1. Nouns of both forms, and of like signification, are frequently derived from the same verb; as, concursio and concursus, a running together; motio and mōtus, etc.

Rem. 2. Nouns formed by adding the termination ura to the third root of a verb, sometimes have the same signification as those in io and $u s$, and sometimes denote the result of an action; as, positüra, position; vinctūra, a binding together; from pōno, and vincio; and the termination ēla has sometimes the same meaning; as, querēla, complaint; loquēla, speech, from quëror and lơquor.

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; conditörium, 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 rūpes and capra. In some words, compounded of two nouns, the former is a genitive; as, senatüsconsultum, a decree of the senate; jurisconsultus, a lawyer; in others, both parts are declined; as, respublica, jusjurandum. See $\oint 91$.
2. Of a noun and a verb; as, artǐfex, an artist, of ars and fäcio; fidicen, a harper, of fides and căno; agricolla, a husbandman, of ăger and collo.
3. Of an adjective and a noun; as, coquinoctium, the equinox, of ceqwus and nox; millepèda, a millepede, 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 adjeotive, it usually ends in $i$; as, artffex, rupicapra, agricolla, 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, nĕfas, wickedness; nëmo, nobody; of ne, fas, and homo. So biduum, of bis and dies.
5. Of a preposition and a noun: as, incuria, want of care, of in and cïra. So intervallum, an interval; pracordia, 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, bornus, good; albus, white; amicus, friendly.
2. State or condition; as, félix, 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, $\bar{u} n u s$, one; secundus, second; tot, so many; quot, as many. These are called numerals.
6. Time; as, annuus, yearly; hesternus, of yesterday; bìmus, of two years; trimestris, of three months.
7. Place; as, altus, high; vicīnus, near; aetrius, aërial; terrestris, terrestrial.
8. Material; as, aureus, golden; fagineus, beechen; terrënus, earthen.
9. Part; as, nullus, no one; aliquis, some one. These are called partitives.
10. Country; as, Romänus, Roman; Arpinnas of Arpīnum. These are called patrials.
11. Diminution; as, parvǔlus, from parvus, small; misellus, from miser, miserable. These are called diminutives.
12. Amplification; as, vinösus and vinolentus, much given to wine; auritus, having long ears. These are called amplificatives.
13. Relation; as, ăridus, desirous of ; měmor, mindful of ; insuëtus. These are called relatives.
14. Interrogation; as, quantus? how great; qualis? of what kind; quot? how manc? quotus? of what number? These are called interrogatives; and, when not use interrogatively, they are called correlatives.
15. Specification; as, tâlis, 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 irst and second declensions, or of the third only.

## ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS.

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 $u m$ to the root of the masculine. The masculine in $u s$ is declined like dominus; that in er like gĕner or $\check{a} g e r$; the feminine always like $m \bar{s} a$; and the neuter like regnùm.

Remark 1. The masculine of one adjective, sătur, -ŭra, -ürum, full, ends in $u r$, and os declined like gėner.

Bŏnŭs, good.
Singular.

| $\checkmark$ | Masc. | Fem. | Neut. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $N$. | bo'-nŭs, | $\mathrm{bo}^{\prime}-\mathrm{nă}$, | bo'-nŭm, |
| G. | bo'ní, | bo'næ, | $\mathrm{bo}^{\prime}-\mathrm{ni}$, |
| D. | bo'-nō, | $\mathrm{bo}^{\prime}-\mathrm{n} æ$, | bo'-nō, |
| Ac. | bo'-nŭm, | bo'-năm, | bo'-nŭm, |
| $V$. | bo'-nĕ, | bo'-nă, | bo'-nŭm, |
| $A b$. | $\mathrm{bo}^{\prime}-\mathrm{no}$. | $\mathrm{bo}^{\prime}-\mathrm{na}$ à | bo'-nō. |


| $N$. | bo'-nī, | bo | bo |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $G$. | bo-nō'-rŭm, | bo-nā'-rŭm, | -ru |
| D. | bo'-nis, | bo'-nis, | is, |
| Ac. | bo'-nōs, | bo'-nās, | $\mathrm{bo}^{\prime}-\mathrm{n}$, ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| $V$. | bo'-ní, | bo'-næ, |  |
| $A b$. | bo'-nis. | bo'-nis. | bo'-nīs. |

In like manner decline
Al'-tus, high. $\quad$ Fi'-dus, faithful. Lon'-gus, long.
A-và'rus, covetous. Im'-prơ-bus, wicked. Plè'-nus, full.
Be-nig'-nus, kind. In-i'-quus, unjust. Tac'-ǐ-tus, silent.
Rem. 2. Like bönus are also declined all participles in us; as, A-mã'tus. Am-a-tīi'rus. A-man'dus.
Rem. 3. The masculine of the vocative singular of adjectives in $u s$ is sometimes like the nominative; as, $O$ vir fortis atque amicus. Hor. Meus has both $m i$ and meus.
Res. 4. The genitive plural of distributive numerals ends commonly in âm instead of órum; as, crassitū̃o binîm digitorum. Plin.
3. Tĕner, tender.

Singular.

|  | Masc. | Fem. | Neut. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $N$ | te'-něr, | ten'-ĕ-ră, | ten'-e-r-rŭm, |
| G. | ten'-ě-rī, | ten'-ĕ-ræ, | ten'-ë-rí, |
| D. | ten'-ĕ-rō, | ten'--̈-ræ, |  |
| Ac. | ten'-ĕ-rŭm, | ten'-ĕ-răm, | n'-ĕ-rŭm, |
| $V$. | te'-nĕr, | ten'-ĕ-ră, | $\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ - c -rŭm, |
| $A b$. | ten'-è-rō. | ten'-ě-rā. | ten'-ĕ-rō. |

Plural.

| $N$. | ten'-ě-rix, | te | ten |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G. | ten-e-rō'-rŭm, | ten-e-ra' ${ }^{\text {a }}$ - ${ }^{\text {arma }}$ | ten-e-rō'-rŭm, |
| D. | ten'-ĕ-ris, | ten'-ě-ris, | is, |
| Ac. | ten'-ĕ-rōs, | ten'-ĕ-rass, | , |
| $V$. | ten' -è-rio | ten'-ĕ-rx, | ten'-ě--ră, |
| $\boldsymbol{A b}$. | ten'-ě-ris. | ten'è-ris. | ten'-ĕ-ris. |

In like manner are declined
As'-per, rough.
Ex'ter, foreign.
Gib'-ber, crook-backed. Mr'-ser, wretched.
Lă'-cer, torn.
$\mathrm{Li}^{\prime}-$ ber, free.
So also alter, except in the genitive and dative singular (see § 107), semtfer, and the compounds of gëro and fëro; as, laniger, opifer.
Note. Prosper is less frequent than prosperrus, and exter is scaroely used in the nominative singular masculine.
§ 106. The other adjectives in er drop $e$ in declension; as,
Pĭger, slothful.
Singular.

|  | Masc. | Fem. | Neut. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $N$. | pi',-gěr, | pi',-gră, | pi'-grŭm, |
| $G$. | pi'-gri, | pi'-græ, | pi'-gri, |
| $D$. | pi'-grō, | pi'-græ, | pi'-grō, |
| $A c$. | pì'-grumm, | pi',-grăm, | pi', grum, |
| $V$. | pi'-gĕr, | pi'-gră, | pii', grŭm, |
| $A b$. | pi'-grō. | pi'-grà. | pi'-grō. |

## Plural.

| $N$. | pi'-grī, | p. ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | pi'-gră, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $G$. | pi.grơ'-rŭm, | pi-grā'-rím, | pi,groi'r |
| D. | pi ${ }^{\text {- }}$-gris, | pi ${ }^{\text {- }}$-gris, | pi'-gris, |
| Ac. | pi'-grōs, | pi'-grās, | pi'-gră, |
| Ab. | pi'-grī, | pi'-græ, | pi'-gră, |
| b. | pi'-gris. | pi'-gris. | pi'-gri |

In like manner decline

| k. | Mă'cer, lean. | Scă'-ber, rough. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$-ter, blaik. | N1'-ger, black: | Si-nis'-ter, left. |
| Cré'ber, frequent. | Pul'-cher, fair. | Te'-ter, foul. |
| Gla'-ber, smooth. | Rư'-ber, red. | Vă'fer, crafty. |
| $\mathrm{In}^{\prime}$-tě-ger, entire. | Sa'-cer, sacred. |  |
| Dexter, right, has -tra, -trum, and less frequently -tëra, -tërum. |  |  |

§ 107. Six adjectives in us, and three in er, have their genitive singular in ius, and their dative in $\bar{i}$, in all the genders:-

| Alius, another. | Tōtus, whole. | Alt |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nullus, no one. | Ullus, any. | Uter, -tra, -trum, which of the |
| Solus, alone. | Unus, one. | Neuter, -tra, -trum, neither. |

To these may be added the other compounds of üter,-namely, uterque, each of two; utercumque, uterlibet, and utervis, which of the two you please; gen. utriusque, etc.-also, alterüter, one of two; gen. alterutrius, and sometimes alterius utrius; dat. alterutri. • So alteruterque, and unusquisque. See § 138, 4.

Nullus, sölus, tōtus, ullus, and $\bar{u} n u s$ are thus declined :-

|  | Masc. | Singular. Fem. | Neut. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $N$. | $\bar{u}^{\prime}-$-nus ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $\overline{u^{\prime}}$-nă, | $\bar{u}^{\prime}$-nŭm, |
| G. | u-nıı'-ŭs,* | $\mathrm{u}-\mathrm{n} \mathrm{I}^{\prime}$-ŭs, | $\mathrm{u}-\mathrm{n}$-̆-ŭs, |
| D. | $\mathrm{u}^{\prime}-\mathrm{ni}$, | $\mathrm{u}^{\prime}-\mathrm{ni}$, | $\mathrm{u}^{\prime}-\mathrm{ni}$, |
| Ac. | $\mathrm{u}^{\prime}$-nŭm, | $\mathrm{u}^{\prime}$-năm, | $\mathrm{u}^{\prime}$-nŭm, |
| $V$. | $\mathrm{u}^{\prime}$-ně, | $\mathrm{u}^{\prime}-\mathrm{nă}$, | u'-nŭm, |
| Ab. | $\mathrm{u}^{\prime}-\mathrm{n}$ o. | $u^{\prime}-\mathrm{na}$. | $\mathrm{u}^{\prime}-\mathrm{no}$. |

The plural is regular, like that of bŏnus.
Remare 1. Alius has aliud in the nominative and accusative singular neuter, and in the genitive alius, contracted for aliius.
Rem. 2. Except in the genitive and dative singular, alter is declined like tĕner, and üter 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 bönus, liner, 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. |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Singular. |  |
| Fem. | Neut. |
| $\overline{\mathrm{a}}^{\prime}$-cris, | $\overline{\mathrm{a}}^{\prime}$-crĕ, |
| $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-crı̆s, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-crĭs, |
| $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-crī, | $\mathbf{a}^{\prime}$-crī, |
| $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$ 'crĕm, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$ 'crĕ, |
| $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-crīs, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-crĕ, |
| $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-crī. | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-crī. |

## Plural.

| $N$. | $\mathrm{a}^{\text {a }}$-crēs, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-crēs, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-c |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $G$. | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cri-ŭm, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cri-um, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cri-ŭm, |
| D. | ac'-rĭ-bŭs, | ac'-rĭ-bŭs, | ac'rich-bŭs, |
| Ac. | $a^{\prime}$-crēs, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-crēs, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cri-ă, |
| $V$. | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-crēs, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-crēs, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cri-ă, |
| $A b$. | $a c^{\prime}$-rĭ-bŭs. | ac'rí-bŭs. | ac'-rĭ-bŭs |

In like manner are declined the following;-
$\mathrm{Al}^{\prime}$-ăcer, 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, eto. (cf. § 71), and cěler, swift, which has celëris, celĕre ; gen. celëris, etc.

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

Rem. 2. Volücer 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 $u s$.

Those in is, $e$, are thus declined :-
Mitis mild.

Singular.

|  | M. fr F. | $N$. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $N$. | mi'-tǐs, | mi'tě, |
| $G$. | mi'-tis, | mi'this, |
| D. | mi'-ti, | mi'-ti, |
| Ac. | c. mi'těm, | mi'tě, |
| $V$. | mi'tiss, | mi'těe, |
|  | b. mi'tī. | mi'tī. |

Plural.

|  | M. fif. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $N$. | mit |  |
| $G$. | mit'-i-ŭm,* | mit'-i-ŭm, |
| D. | mit'-i゙-bŭs, | mit'-i-bus, |
| Ac. | mi'-tēs, | mit'i-ă, |
| $V$. | mi'-tees, | mit |
|  | mit'-1- |  |

In like manner decline

| Ag'-ǐlis, active. | Dul'-cis, sweet. | In-col'-ŭ-mis, safe. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Bré'vis, short. | For'-tis, brave. | Mi-rab'-i-lis, wonderful. |
| Cru-dé'lis, cruel. | Gră'-vis, heavy. | Om'-nis, all. |

Tres, three, is declined like the plural of mitis.
Norr. Several adjectives of this class have forms also in us, $a, u m$. See $\mathbf{g} 116$.
§ 110. (a.) All comparatives, except plus, more, are thus de-clined:-

[^6]Mitior,* milder.
Singular.
M. $f$. $F$.
N. mit'-i-ŏr,
G. mit-i-ō'-ris,
D. mit-i- $0^{\prime}-r i \overline{1}$,

Ac. mit-i-ṑ-rěm,
$V$. mit'-i-ŏr,
Ab. mit-i-ō'-rĕ, or -rī.
${ }_{\text {mit }}{ }^{N}-\mathrm{i}-\mathrm{u}$, mit-i- $\mathrm{o}^{\prime}$-rıs mit-i- ${ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}-\mathrm{ri}$, mit'-i-ŭs, mit'-i-ŭs, mit-i- $\mathbf{o}^{\prime}-\mathrm{r}$ ĕ, or -rī. Plural.
M. $q$. $F$.
N. mit-i- ${ }^{-}{ }^{\prime}$-rēs, G. . mit-i-0.-'rŭm, D. mit-i-or'-i-bŭs, Ac. mit-i-i-o'-rēs, V. mit-i-ō'-rēs, $A b$. mit-i-or'-ǐ-bŭs.
$N$.
mit-i- ${ }^{\prime}$ '-ră, mit-i-i-ó-rŭm, mit-i-or'-ī-bŭs, mit-i- ${ }^{\prime}$ '-ră, mit-i-ō'-ră, mit-i-or'-í-bŭs.

In like manner decline

A'-ti-or, higher.
A 1-da'-ci-or, bolder. $\mathrm{B}=\varepsilon^{\prime}-\mathrm{vi}$-or, shorter.

Dul'-ci-or, sweeter.
Fe-lic'-i-or, happier.
Fe-ro'-ci-or, fiercer.
Cra-de'-li-or, more cruel. For'ti-or, braver.

Gra'-vi-or, heavier.
Pru-den'ti-or, more prudent.
U-be'-ri-or, more fertile.

Plūs, more, is thus declined :-

Singular.

| $N$. | M. \& $F$. |
| :---: | :---: |
| $N$. plus, | N. plū'-rēs, |
| G. plū'rr's, | G. plu'-ri-ŭm, |
| D. | D. plu'-rí-bŭs, |
| Ac. plus, | Ac. plu' ${ }^{\text {rees }}$, |
|  | A $A$ b. plu'-ri'-bŭs. |

Plural.
$N$. $F$.
G. plu'-ri-ŭm,
D. plu-ri-bŭs, V. ph-rs,
$A b$. plu'-rǐ-bŭs.

## $N$.

plū'ră, rarely plu -ri-ă,
plu'-ri-ŭm,
plu'-rǐ-bŭs, plū'ră,
plu'rǐ-bŭs.

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.
N. fe'lix,
G. fe-li'-cǐs,
D. fe-li'cí, Ac. fe-li'-cê̆m, V. fe'lix,

* Ab. fe-lì'-cě, or -cī.

$$
N
$$

fe' ${ }^{\prime}$ lix,
fe-li'-ciss,
fe-li'-cī,
fe'-lix,
fe'-lix,
fe-lī'cé, or -cì.

## Plural.



$$
\begin{aligned}
& \quad \text { Præsens, present. } \\
& \text { M. \&.F. } \stackrel{\text { Singular. }}{ } N .
\end{aligned}
$$

N. pre'sens, G. præ-sen'-tǐs, D. præ-sen'-tī, Ac. præ-sen'-těm, V. pre'sens, $A b$. præ-sen'-tě, or-tī.

Plural.
præ'-sens
pre-sen'-tīs,
pre-sen'-tī, pre'-sens, pre'sens, pro-sen'-tě, or -ti. pra-sen'ti-ă, $\dagger$
præ-sen'-ti-ŭm,
præ-sen'-tī-bŭs,
præ-sen'-ti-ă,
præ-sen'-tĭ-ă,
præ-sen'-tĭ-bŭs.
N. præ-sen'-tēs, G. præ-sen'-ti-ŭm, D. præ-sen'-tī-bŭs, Ac. præ-sen'-tēs, V. præ-sen'-tēs, Ab. præ-sen'-tì-bŭs.
fe-lic'-i- ${ }^{-a ̆}$,* fe-lic'-i-üm, fe-lic'-1-1-bŭs, fe-lic'-i-ă, fe-lic'-i-ă, fe-lic'-ī-bŭs.

## In like manner decline

| Au'-dax, -ācis, bold. | Par'-tǐ-ceps, -ípis, par- | Sol'-lers, -tis, shrewd. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Cos'-pes, -itis, safe |  |  |

Remark. All present participles are declined like prcesens; as, $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$-mans. Mŏ'-nens. Rě'-gens. Ca'-pi-ens. Au ${ }^{\prime}$-di-ens.
Note. A few adjectives of one termination have redundant forms in $\boldsymbol{u s}, \boldsymbol{a}$, $\boldsymbol{u m}$; 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, hëbes, perpes, prapes, and tëres -inquies and locüples have -ëtis;-some have -itis; as, dives, sospes, and super-stes;-some have-ǐdis; as, dëses, and rëses;-bïpes, and trïpes have -pëdis ;-pübes nas pubëris, and impübes, impubëris and impübis.

[^7]2. Compos and impos have -otis, and exos, exossis.-Exlex has exlēgis, pernox has pernoctis (§ 78), prcecox, pracócis, and rèdux, redücis. - Colebs has calibis, ( $\$ 7 \%$ ); intercus, intercŭtis, and vétus, veterris. Those in ceps which are compounds of căput, have-cipitis; as, anceps, proceps ( $\$ 78,1$ ); bnt the compounds of ceps from cüpio have tpis; as, particeps, participis.-Those in cors, compounds of cor, have -cordis; as, concors, concordis (§71, Exc. 2).-Mëmor and immémor have orris.

## ABLATIVE SINGULAR.

§ 118. 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. Compratives and participles in $n s$, when used as participles, especially in the ablative absolute, have rather $e$ than $i$; but participial adjectives in $n s$ 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 abla-tive:-
Bicorpor, bipes, cælebs, compos, dēses, discǒlor, hospes, impos, impūbes, juvĕnis, locưples, panper, princeps, pūber or-pübes, sênez, sospes, superstes, tricorpor, tricuspis, and tripes.
Exc. 3. The following adjectives of one termination have only $i$ in the abla-tive:-
Anceps, concors, discors, hěbes, imměmor, ǐners, ingens, inops, měmor, par, preceps, rěcens, rěpens, rigil, and most adjectives in $x$, especially those in plex.
Rem. 1. Inerte occurs in Ovid, recente in Ovid and Catullus, and procipe 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 vetus, old, and $\bar{u} b e r$, fertile, have $a$, and $u m$.
2. The accusative plural of masculine and feminine adjectives, whose genitive plural ends in ium, anciently ended in is or èts, instead of és. Cf. § 85, Exc. 1.
Exc. 1. Those adjectives that have only $e$ in the ablative singular, have $u m$ in the genitive plural.

Exc. 2. Compounds of făcio, căpio, and of sach nouns as make um in their genitive plural, with cèler, compar, cicur, dives, mëmor, immëmor, proppes, supplex, and vigil, make their genitive plural in um.

Exc. 8. 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 $n s$, by syncope, in um, instead $=\boldsymbol{f}$ ium; as, culestum, 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, bǐpes, cælebs, compos, consors, degěner, dīves, impos, impūbes, industrius, inops, insons, invitus, juvěnis, locuples, měmor, pauper, partǐeeps princeps, pūber, or pūbes, rědux, sěnex, 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:-

Concơlor, dēses, hěbes, perpes, rěses, těres, versicǒlor.
3. The names of months, which are properly adjectives, have only the masculine and feminine genders.
4. Some adjectives are wholly indeclinable.

Such are frügi, temperate; nēquam, worthless; săt or sătis, sufficient; the plurals aliquot, tot, quot, 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. Cetěra, cetĕrum, the rest, wants the nom. sing. masc. Decemplĭcem, acc.: tenfold. Exspes, nom.; hopeless. Inquies, nom.; -ētem, acc.; -ēte, abl.; restless. Mactus, and macte, nom.; macte, acc.; honored; -macti, nom. plur. Necesse, and necessum, nom., acc.; necessary. Plas, nom., acc. ; plūris, gen.; more;-pl. plūres, -a, nom. acc. ; -ium gen.; ̌bus, dat., abl. Cf. §110. Postěra, postěrum, coming after, wants the nom. sing. masc. Pŏtis, nom. sing. and pl., all genders; able. Pŏte, nom. sing., for potest; possible. Septemplĭcis, 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.

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

[^8]Inquies, and -ētus, restless.
Joculăris, and -ius, r, laughable.
Multijŭgis, $r$, and -us, yoked many together.
Opŭlens, and -lentus, rich.
Præcox, -cŏquis, and -cŏquus, early ripe.
Proclīvis, and-us, r, sloping.
Quadrijŭgis, and -us, yoked four together.
Semianimis, and-ns, half alive.

| Semiermis, and -us, half armed. | Sublimes, and -us, $r$, high. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Semisomnis, and -us, $r$, half asleep. | Unanimis,, , and - us, unanimous. |
| Singularise, and -jus, single. | Viölens, $r$, and -lentus, violent. |

To these may be added some adjectives in er and is; as, salüber and -bris, celēber 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,

5000. Quinque millia, or quinquies mille,
10000. Decem millia, or decies mille,
five thousand.
IDD.
ten thousand.
CCIDD.
IDDO.
50000. Quinquaginta millia, or quinquagies mille, $\}$
100000. Centum millia, or centies mille, $\}$
\} fifty thousand.
a hundred thousand.

сCCIDD.
§ 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 bŏnus.

For the declension of $\bar{u} n u s$ and tres, see $\S \S 107$ and 109.
$D u o$ is thus declined:-

| Plural. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $M$. | $F$. | $N$. |
| $N$. dư' ${ }^{\prime}$, | $\mathrm{du}^{\prime}-æ$, | $\mathrm{du}^{\prime}-\mathrm{o}$, |
| G. dn- ${ }^{\prime}$-rum, | du-a't-rum, | du-ö'-rum, |
| D. du-ơ-bus, | du-ä'-bus, | du-o'-bus, |
| Ac. $\mathrm{du}^{\prime}-\mathrm{os}$, or $\mathrm{du}^{\prime}-0$, | du'-as, | $\mathrm{du}^{\prime}-0$, |
| $V$. du' ${ }^{\text {a }}$, | du'-x, | $\mathrm{du}^{\prime}-0$, |
| $A b$. du-ö'-bus. | du-à'-bus. | du-ơ'-bus. |

Remark 1. Duōrum, duärum, are often contracted into dû̀m, especially in compounds; as, duamvir, 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 unnus 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, unce nuptice, 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 vivère,-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. dëcem et tres, dĕcem et növem, or, omitting et, dĕcem növem. Octodëcim 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; duodetriginta, undetriginta, etc. Neither un (unus) nor duo can be declined in these combinations. The additive forms for thirtyeight, 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, dëcem 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 centèna millia; as, decies centēna millia, a million; centies centēna millia, ten millions. In such combinations centēna millia is sometimes omitted; 2s, decies, scil. centēna millia.
(b.) The poets sometimes make use of numeral adverbs in expressing smaller numbers; as, bis sex for duoděcim; 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 exrmples, 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 $N \mathbf{N}-$ meral 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 twoo ; 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, CID, which, in later times, was contracted into M. Five hundred is marked thas, ID, or, by contraction, D.
(d.) The annexing of the apostrophus or inverted C(O) to ID makes its value ten times greater; thus, IDD marks five thousand; and IDDD, fifty thousand.
(e.) The prefixing of C , together with the annexing of O , to the number CID, makes its value ten times greater; thas, CCIDD denotes ten theivsand; and CCCIDDD, a hundred thousand. The Romans, according to Pliny, proceeded no further in this method of notation. If they had occasion to express a largel number, they did it by repetition; thus, CCCIDDD, CCCIDDD, signified two hundred thousand, etc.
(f.) We sometimes find thousands expressed by a straight line drawn over the top of the numeral letters. Thus, III. denotes three thousand; $\overline{\mathbf{X}}$., 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 $u s$, and are declined like bŏnus ; as, primus, 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, singüli, 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 bönus, except that they usually have am instead of ōrum in the genitive plural. Cf. $\S 105$, 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.

1. Primus, first.
2. Sěvundus, second.
3. Tertius, third.
4. Quartus, fourth.
5. Quintus, fifth.
6. Sextus, sixth.
7. Septimus, seventh.
8. Octāvus, eighth.
9. Nōnus, ninth.
10. Děcĭmus, tenth, etc.
11. Undecǐmus.
12. Duodecĭmus.
13. Tertius decirmus.
14. Quartus decimus.
15. Quintas decímus.
16. Sextus decimus.
17. Septĭmus decĭmus.
18. Octāvus decĭmus.
19. Nōnus decǐmus.
20. $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { Vícēsĭmus, or } \\ \text { vigesimus. }\end{array}\right\}$
21. Vicesimus prīmus.
22. Vicesimus secundus.
23. $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { Trïcesimus, or } \\ \text { trigesimus. }\end{array}\right\}$
24. Quādrāgesĭmus.
25. Quinquagesimus.
26. Sexagesimus.
27. Septuagesǐmus.
28. Octogesimus.
29. Nonagesǐmus.
30. Centesimus.
31. Dŭcenteš̌mus.
32. Trěcentesímis.
33. Quadringentesǐmus.
34. Quingentesimus.
35. Sexcentesĭmus.
36. .Septingentesimus.
37. Octingentesimus.
38. Nongentesimus.
39. Millesimus.
40. Bis millesimus,

Distributive.
Singŭli, one by one. Bīni, two by two.
Terni, or trīni.
Quaterni.
Quini. Sēni.
Septēni. Octōni.
Novēni.
Dēni.
Undēni.
Duodēni.
Terni dēni.
Quaterni dēni.
Quīni dēni.
Sēni dēni.
Septēni dēni.
Octōni dēni.
Novēni dēni.
Vícēni.
Vicēni singŭli.
Vicēni bini, etc.
Trīcēni.
Quadragēni.
Quinquagēni.
Sexagēni.
Septuagēni.
Octogēni.
Nonagēni.
Centēni.
Ducēni.
Trecēni, or trecentēni.
$\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { Quadringēni; or } \\ \text { quadringentēni. }\end{array}\right\}$
Quingēni.
Sexcēni, or sexcentēni.
Septingēni.
Octingēni.
Nongēni.
$\{$ Millèni, or Ingŭla millia.
$\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { Bis millēni, or } \\ \text { bina millia. }\end{array}\right\}$

Numeral Adverbs.
Sěmel, once.
Bis, twice.
Ter, thrice.
Quăter, four times.
Quinquies.
Sexies.
Septies.
Octies.
Novies.
Děcies.
Undecies.
Duodecies.
Terdecies.
Quatuordecies.
Quindecies.
Sedecies.
Decies et septies.
Duodevicies.
Undevicies.
Vícies.
Semel et vicies.
Bis et vicies, etc.
Trīcies.
Quadragies.
Quinquagies.
Sexagies.
Septuagies.
Octogies.
Nonagies.
Centies.
Ducenties.
$\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { Trecenties, or } \\ \text { tricenties. }\end{array}\right\}$
Quadringenties.
Quingenties.
Sexcenties.
Septingenties.
Octingenties.
Noningenties.
Millies.
Bis millies.
§ 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 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 vicestmus.
(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-cight, forty-eight, and nineteen and twenty-nine, are often expressed by the subtractives duodevicëni, etc., undevicèni, etc.
4. (a.) Distributives are sometimes used by the poets for cardinal numbers; as, bina spicüla, two darts. Virg. So likewise in prose, with nouns that want the singular; as, bine nuptice, two weddings.
(b.) The singular of some distributives is used in the sense of multiplicatives; as, binus, twofold. So ternus, quinus, septënus.
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. Multiplicatices, which denote how many fold, in answer to the question, quotüplex? They all end in plex, and are declined like félix; as,
Simplex, single.
Quincŭplex, fivefold.
Dŭplex, twofold, or double.
Septemplex, serenfold. Triplex, threefold.
Decemplex, tenfold.
Centŭplex, a hundred fold.
2. Proportionals, which denote how many times one thing is greater than another; as, düplus, a, um, twice as great; so triplus, quadrüplus, octüplus, decuplus. 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. Interrogatices; as, quot, how many? quotus, of what number? quotēni, how many each? quoties, how many times? Their correlatives are tot, totidem, 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; $\frac{1}{}$, tertia pars, etc. When the number of parts into which a thing is divided exceeds by one only the parts mentioned, as in $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, etc. the fraction is expressed simply by duc, 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, bomus, good, altus, high, and opācus, dark, denote variable attributes; but ceneus, brazen, triplex, thricefold, 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; mittis, 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; mitior, 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, altissǐmus, 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, amīcus 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, jucumus, 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, amärus, bitter; subamärus, bitterish, or, somewhat bitter.
3.. An equal degree of a quality may be denoted by tam followed by quam, aque followed by ac, sic followed by $u t$, etc.; as, hëbes, ceque ac pëcus, 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 issĭmus, issĭma, issĭmum.
3. These terminations are added to the root of the positive; as, altus, altior, altissimus; high, higher, highest. mītis, mitior, mitissimus; mild, milder, mildest. félix, (gen. felīcis,) felicior, felicissimus; happy, happier, happiest.

Arc'-tus, strait.
$\mathrm{Ca}^{-1}$-rus, dear.
Doc'-tus, learned.

In like manner compare
Cru-dē'lis, cruel. Că'-pax, capacious.
Fer'-tì-lis, fertile. $\quad$ Cle ${ }^{-1}$-mens, (gen. -tis) merciful.
Lé̀-vis, light. In'-ers, (gen.-tis), sluggish.

## IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

§ 12\$. 1. Adjectives in er form their superlative by adding rimus to that termination; as, äcer, active; gen. acris; comparative, acrior; superlative, acerrimus.

In like manner, pauper, pauperrimus. Vëtus has a similar superlative, veterrimus, from the old collateral form vèter.
2. Six adjectives in lis form their superlative by adding limus to the root:-

| Facilis, | facilior, | facillimus, | easy. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Difficilis, | dificilior, | difficillimus, <br> Gracilis, | difficult. |
| gracilior, | gracillimus, | slender. |  |
| Humilis, | humilior, | humillmus, | low. |
| Similis, | similior, | simillimus, | like. |
| Dissimilis, | dissimilior, | dissimillimus, | unlike. |

Imbecillus or imbecillis, weak, has two forms, imbecillissimus and imbecillimus.
3. (a.) Five adjectives in fücus (from făcio) derive their comparatives and superlatives from supposed forms in ens:-

| Benefǐcus, | beneficentior, | beneficentissimus, | beneficent. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Honorificus, | honorificentior, | honorificentissimus, | honorable. |
| Magnificus, | magnificentior, | magnificentissimus, | splendid. |
| Munificus, | munificentior, | munificentissimus, | liberal. |
| Maleficus, |  | maleficentissimus, | hurtful. |

(b.) Adjectives in dicens and wolens form their comparatives and superlatives regularly; but instead of those positives, forms in dicus and volus are more common; as,

Maledicens or dǐcus, maledicentior, maledicentissǐmus, slanderous.
Benevölens, or-vǒlus, benevolentior, benevolentissimus, benevolent.
4. These five have regular comparatives, but irregular super-latives:-

| Dexter, | dexterior, <br> Extēra, (fem.) <br> exterior, | dextĭmus, <br> extrēmus, or extĭmus, | right. <br> outward. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Postěra, (fem.) | posterior, | postrēmus, or postŭmus, | hind. |
| Infěrus, | inferior, | infimus, or imus, | below. |
| Supêrus, | superior, | suprēmus, or summus, | above. |

Remark 1. The nominative singular of postëra does not occur in the masculine, and that of exterra wants good authority.
5. The following are very irregular in comparison :-

| nu | melior | opti | go | bett | best |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Mălus, | pējor, | ssimus, |  | wor | wor |
| lagnus, | mājor, | maximus, | great, | greater, | reatest. |
| arvus, | minor, | minimus, | little, | less, | ast. |
| ultus, |  | plurimus, |  |  |  |
| Multam, | plus,* | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { plurima, } \\ \text { plurimum } \end{array}\right\}$ | much, | more, | most. |
| Nēquam, | nequior, | nequissimus, | worth |  |  |
| Frūgi, | frugalior, | frugalissimus | rug |  |  |

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, worse. Interior, intimus, inner.
Ocior, ceissimus, swifter.

Prior, prīmus, former.
Propior, proximus, nearer.
Ulterior, ultimus, farther.

## 2. Eight want the terminational comparative:-

Consultus, consultissimus, shilful. Inclĭtus, inclutissimus, renowned. Invictus, invictissimus, invincible. Invitus, invitissĭnus, unuilling. Meritus, meritissimus, (very rare, deserving.

Par, parissimus, (very rare), equal. Persuāsus, persuasissimum (neuter), persuaded.
Săcer, sacerrimus, sacred.
3. Eight have very rarely the terminational comparative :-

| Apricus, apricissimus, sunny. | Falsus, falsissimus, false. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Bellus, bellissimus, fine. | Fidus, fidissimus, faithful. |
| Cömis, comissimus, courteous. | Nóvus, novissimus, new. |
| Diversus, diversissimus, different. | Vẽtus, veterrimus, old. |

4. The following want the terminational superlative :-

Adolescens, adolescentior, young. Agrestis, agrestior, rustic.
Alăcer, alacrior, active.
Ater, atrior, black.
Cæcus, cæcior, blind.
Dēses, desidior, inactive.
Diuturnus, diuturnior, lasting. Infinītus, infinitior, unlimited. Ingens, ingentior, great.
Jejūnus, jejunior, fasting.
Juvènis, junior, young.
Lǐcens, licentior, unrestrained.
Longinquus, longinquior, distant.
Opìmus, opimior, rich.

Proclīvis, proclivior, sloping.
Prōnus, pronior, bending down.
Protervus, protervior, violent.
——sequior, worse.
Propinquus, propinquior, near.
Salutāris, salutarior, salutary.
Sătis, sufficient ; satius, preferable.
Sătur, saturior, full.
Sěnex, senior, old.
Silvestris, silvestrior, woody.
Sinister, sinisterior, left.
Supinus, supinior, lying on the back.
Surdus, surdior, deaf.
Těres, teretior, round.

Remark 1. The superlative of jurënis and adolescens is supplied by mintmus $n \bar{a} t u$, youngest; and that of sĕnex by maximus nātu, oldest. The comparatives minor nätu and mäjor nätu sometimes also occur.

Rem. 2. Mostadjectives also in ilis, ilis, älis, and belis, have no terminational superlative.
5. Many variable adjectives have no terminational comparative or superlative. Such are,
(a.) Adjectives in bundus, ǐmus, ìnus (except divīnus), ōrus, most in ìvus, and in us pure (except-quus.) Yet arduus, assiduus, egregius, exiguus, industrius, perpetuus, pius, strenuus, and vacuus, have sometimes a terminational comparison. So, dropping $i$, noxior, innoxior, sobrior.
(b.) The following-almus, calvus, cänus, č̌cur, claudus, degĕner, delīrus, dispar, egēnus, impar, impiger, invïdus, läcer, mëmor, mïrus, nūdus, præcox, prceditus, rüdis, salvus, sospes, superstes, vulgäris, and some others.
§ 127. 1. The comparative and superlative may also be formed by prefixing to the positive the adverbs măgis, more, and maxime, most ; as, idoneus, fit ; magis idoneus, maxime idoneus.
2. Various degrees of a quality above the positive are expressed by admŏdum, aliquanto, apprïme, bĕne, imprī̀is, multum, ?pp̌do, perquam, and valde, and also by per compounded with the 1 ositive; as, difficillis, difficult ; perdifficilis, very difficult. To a few adjæctives pree is in like manner prefixed; as, proedürus, 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 lonǵe or multo, much, far; as, longe nobilissinnus; longe melior, titer multo facilius; multo maxima pars.
4. Vel, 'even', and quam, with or without possum, 'as much as possiblu', before the superlative, render it more emphatic; as, Cicëro vel optǐnus oratōrum Romanōrum. Quam maximum potest militum numĕrum colligit; quam doctissimus, extremely learned; quam celerrĭme, 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 ūno omnium plurimum ūtor. Cic. Urbem ūnam mihi amicissimam declinäri, 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 prae, ante, prater, or supra, is sometimes used; as, pree nobis beätus, 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 jŭgum, somnus, gëro, and fëro, 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 eills, added to the root, denotes the material of which a thing is made, and sometimes similarity; as, aureus, golden; argenteus, of silver; ligneus, wooden; ritreus, of glass; virgineus, maidenly; from aurum, argentum, etc. See § 9, Rem. 3.
(b.) Some adjectives of this kind have a double form in neus and nus; as, eburneus and eburnus, of ivory.
(c.) The termination žnus has the same meaning; as, adamantinus, of adamant; cedrinus, of cedar; from adămas and cedrus. So, also, ènus; as, terrērus, of earth, from terra.
(d.) The termination ēas or ius (Greek stcs), and also ìcus, belong to adjectives formed from Greek names of men, and denote ' of' or 'pertaining to '; as, Achillius, Sophoclīus, Aristotelīus, Platonicus; Pythayorēus and Pythagoricus; Homerius and Homericus. Names in ins make adjectives in iăcus; as, Archias, Archiücus. Sometimes, though rarely in the purest Latin authors, adjectives in $\bar{e} u s$ or ins are formed from Latin names; as, Marcellia or $-\bar{c} a$, a festival in honor of the Marcelli.
2. (a.) The terminations ālis, āris, ārius, ilis, atilis, ícius, īcus, ius, ěŭs, and inus, denote 'belonging' 'I rtaining,' or 'relating to '; as, capitalis, relating
to the life; from caput.

So comitiälis, regälis; Apollināris, consuläris, populāris; argè̄tarius; civīlis, hostilis, juvenilis; aquatilis, fluviatilis; tribunicius, patricius; bellicus, civicus, Germanicus; accusatorius, imperatorius, regius; Hectorèus ; canīnus, equīnus, ferinus, masculinnus; from comitia, rex, Apollo, consul, popǔlus, argentum, civis, etc.
(b.) The termination îlis 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. fäber, etc., generally denotes profession or occupation; as, argentarius, a silversmith; from argentzm; 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 ösus and lentus denote abundance, fulness; as, animösus, full of courage; fraudulentus, given to frand; from animus and fraus. So lapidōsus, vinōsus, portū̄sus, turbulentus, sanguinolentus, violentus. Before lentus, a connecting vowel is inserted, which is commonly $\check{u}$, but sometimes $\delta$.

Note.-Adjectives of this class are called amplificatives. See § 104, 12.
5. From adjectives are formed diminutives in ǔlus, cŭlus, etc., in the same manner as from nouns; as, dulcicǔlus, sweetish; from dulcis. So lentülus, misellus, parvǔlus, etc. See $\S 100,3$, and $\S 104,11$. Diminutives are sometimes formed from comparatives; as, majuscưlus, duriuscǔlus, somewhat great, somewhat hard, etc. Double diminutives are formed from paucus, viz pauxillus and pauxillŭlus; and from bŏnus, (bënus) are formed bellus and bellŭlus.
6. (a.) From the names of places, and especially of towns, are derived patrial adjectives in ensis, inus, as, and anns, denoting of or belonging to such places.
(b.) Thus from Cannce is formed Cannensis; from Sulmo, Sulmonensis. In Jike manner, from castra and circus come castrensis, circensis. But Athënce makes Atheniensis; and some Greek towns in $\bar{i} a$ and $\bar{e} a$ 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, Avicia, Aricinus ; Caudium, Caudinus ; Capitolium, Capitolinus; Latium, La tinus. Some names of towns, of Greek origin, with other terminations, also form adjectives in inns; as, Tarentum, Tarentinus.
(d.) Most of those in as are formed from nouns in um; some from nouns in a; as, Arpīnum, Arpīnas; Capēna, Capēnas.
(e.) Those in annus are formed from names of towns of the first declension, or from certain common nouns; as, Alba, Albānus; Rōma, Romānus; Cümae, Cumänus; Thēbce, Thebänus; also from some of the second declension; as, Tuscǔlum, Tusculānus; Fundi, Fundānus:-fons, fontānus; mons, montānus; urbs, urbānus : oppidum, oppidānus.
(f.) Adjectives with the terminations änus, iänus, and inus are formed from names of men; as, Sulla, Sullänus; Tullius, Tulliänus; Jugurtha, Jugurthinus.
(g.) Greek names of towns in pölis form patrial adjectives in politänus; as, Neapülis, Neapolitānus.
(h.) Greek names of towns generally form patrials in ius; as, Rhodus, Rhodius; Lacedcmon, Lacedemonius;-but those in a form them in aus; as, Larissa, Larissceus ; Smyrna, Smyrnœus.
(i.) From many patrials; as, $B^{- \text {itannus, }}$ Gallus, Afer, Persa, Arabs, etc., adjectives are formed in ìcus and ius; as, Britannǐcus, Gallícus, Africus, Persǐcus, Arabicus; so Syrrus, 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; galeätus, helmeted; aurītus, long-eared• turritus, turreted; $\boldsymbol{c}^{-}$nütus, horned; from ala, barba, galea, auris, etc.
8. The termination angus, annexed to the root of an adjective or. participle in $u s$, 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 $\S 150,5$, ) has the general meaning of the present participle; as,
erräbundus, moribundus, from erro, morior, equivalent to errans, moriens.
(a.) In many the meaning is somewhat strengthened; as, gratulābundus, full of congratulations; lacrimäbundus, weeping profusely.
(b.) Must 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 lasciribundus.
(c.) Some verbal adjectives in cundus have a similar sense; as, rubicundus, * verēcundus, from rubeo and vercor.
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 :-irrigurs, well watered; conspicuus, visible; from irrigo, conspicio.
4. (a.) The terminations illis and bliks, added to the root of a verb, with its connecting vowel, denote passively, capability, or desert; as,
amablis, worthy to be loved; credibilis, deserving credit; placabilis, easy to be appeased; agilis, active; ductillis, ductile; from ămo, crēdo, plāco; ăgo, dūco. They are rarely active; as, horribilis, terribilis, fertilis; aër 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 rowel, 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 $a x$, added to the root of a verb, denotes an inclination, often one that is faulty; as,
audax, audacious; lŏquıx, talkative; răpax rapacious; from audeo. loquor, räpio.
7. The termination $\bar{v} v u s$, 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 $\$ 102,6,(a$.$) , ar often nsed as adjectives, espe-$ cially in poetry; as, victor exercitus, victrices literce. In the plural they become adjectives of three terminations; as, victöres, victrices, victricia. So also hospes, especially by the later poets, is used as an adjective, having hospita in the feminine singular and also in the neuter plural.
\& § 180. III. Adjectives derived from participles, and retaining their form, are called participial adjectives; as, ămans, fond of; loc$t u s$, learned.
IV. Some adjectives are derived from adverbs; as, crastinnus, 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 căper and pes; ignicömus, saving fiery hair-of ignis and corma.

Nork.-See, respecting the connecting short $\gamma$, in case the first part of the compound is a noun or an adjective, $\S 103$, Rem. 1 .
2. Of a noun and an adjective; as, noctivăgus, wandering in the nightof nox and văgus. So lucifügax, shunning the light-of lux and fugax.
3. Of a noun and a verb; as, cornigger, bearing horns-of cornu and gĕro; letĭfer, bringing death-of lētum and fëro. Só carnivorrus, causidicus, ignivơmus, lucifŭgus, particeps.
4. Of an adjective and a noun; as, cequcevus, of the same age-of cequus and covm ; celeripes, swift-footed-of cěler and pes. So centimănus, decennis, magnanimus, miscricors, unanimis.
5. Of two adjectives; as, centumgeminnus, a hundred-fold; multicăvus, hiving many cavities; quintusdecimus, the fifteenth.
6. Of an adjective and a verb; as, breviloquens, speaking briefly-of brëvis and lơquor; magnifǐcus, magnificent-of magnus and fäcio.
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 măle and dìcax. So antemeridiänus, before mid-day.
10. Of an adverb and a verb; as, benefĭcus, beneficent-of bëne and făcio; malevolus, malevolent-of măle and voblo.
11. Of a preposition and a noun; as, ämens, mad-of $a$ and mens. So consors, decolor, deformis, implümis, inermis.
12. Of a preposition and an adjective; as, concărus, concave; infidus, unfaithful. So improvidus, percārus, preedives, subalbìdus.
13. Of a preposition and a verb; as, continuus, uninterrupted-of con and teneo ; insciens, ignorant-of in and scio. So procipuus, promiscuus, substillus, superstes.
Remıre. When the former part is a preposition, its final consonant is sometimes changed, to adapt it to the consonant which follows it; as, imprūdens-of in and prütens. See § 196; and cf. § 103 , R. 2.

## PRONOUNS.

§ 132. 1. A pronoun is a word which supplies the place of a noun.
2. There are eighteen simple pronouns:-

Eqo, I.
Tu, thou.
Sui, of himself, etc.
Ille, that, the former.
Ipse, limself.
Iste, that, that of yours. Tuus, thy.

Suus, his, hers, its, etc.
Is, that or he. Cujus? whose?
Quis? who? Noster, our.
Qui, who. Vester, your.
Nostras, of our country.
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, $t u$ of the second. ( $\$ 35,2$. ) $S u i$ is of the third person, and has always areflexive signification, referring to the subject of the sentence. The oblique cases of ego and $t u$ 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, rester, 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. ě-ḡ̃) $I$. | tū, thou. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G. me'-i, of me. | tu'-i, of thee. | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { su'i-1, of himself, her- } \\ \text { self, itself. } \end{array}\right.$ |
| D. mǐ'hĭ, to me. | tiob-i, \% to thee. | sib'-i,* to himself, etc. |
| $A c . \mathrm{me}$, me. | tē, thee. | sē, himself, etc. |
| Ab. mē, with me. | tū, $O$ thou. te, with thee. | sē, weitl. himself, et |

[^9]Plural.
$N$. nōs, we.
G. $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { nos'-trum } \\ \text { or nos'-trí, }\end{array}\right\}$ of us.
D. nơ'-bis, to us.

Ac. nōs, us.
$V$.
Ab. nō'-bis, with us.
vōs, ye or you.
$\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { ves'-trum } \\ \text { ves'-trī } \\ \text { or }\end{array}\right\}$
ves'-trī, $\}$
vō'-bīs, to you.
vōs, you.
vōs, $O$ ye or you.
vō'-bis, with you.
su'-i , of themselves. sib'- i , to themselves. sē, themselves.
sē, with themselves.

Remark 1. Mē and $m \bar{\imath}$ 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 $i p s e$; as, egömet, I myself; mihimet ipsi, for myself. It is not annexed, however, to the genitives plural, nor to $t u$ in the nominative or vocative. In these cases of $t u$, tûté or tutemet is used. In the accusative and ablative the reduplicated forms mémé and tēté in the singular, and sēsē in both numbers, are employed intensively. Mepte, intensive, $m e d$ and $t e d$, for $m e$ and $t e$, and mis and tis for $m e i$ and $t u i$, occur in the comic writers.
3. Nostrum and vestrum are contracted from noströrüm, nostrārüm, and vestrō̃ŭm, vestrārŭm. Respecting the difference in the use of nostrum and nostri, vestrum and vestri, see $\S 212$, R. 2, N. 2.
4. The preposition cum is affixed to the ablative of these pronouns in both numbers; as, mécum, 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, $\imath s t e, h i c$, and $i s$, and their compounds, and are thus declined :-

Singular.

| M. | $F$. | $N$. | M. | $F$. | $N$. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $N$. il'lĕ, | il'-lă, | il'-lŭd, | ir'lī, | i' ${ }^{\prime}$ læ, | il'-lă, |
| G. il-li' ${ }^{\text {cos,* }}$ | il-li'-us, | il-li'-us, | il-lo'-rum, | il-la'-rum, | il-lo''rum, |
| D. il'-lī, | il'-li, | il'-li, | il'-lis, | i1'-lis, | lis, |
| Ac. $\mathrm{il}^{\prime}$-lum, | i1'-lam | il'-lŭd, | il'-lōs, | $\mathrm{il}^{\prime}$ 'lass, | il'la, |
| V. il'-lĕ, Ab. il | il'-lă, | il'-lŭd, il'-lō. | il'-li, il'-lis. | il'lx, | il'-lă, il'-lis. |

Iste is declined like ille.

| Singular. |  |  | Plural. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| M. | $F$. | $N$. | M. | $F$. | $N$ |
| N. hic, | hæc, | hōc, " | hī, | hæ, | hæc, |
| G. hū'-jŭs, | hū'-jŭs, | hū'-jŭs, | hō'-rum, | 'hā'rium, | hō'rum, |
| D. huic*, | huic, | huic, | his, | his, | his, |
| Ac. hunc, | hanc, | hṑc, | hōs, | hās, | hæc, |
| $V$. hĭc, | hæc, | hōc, | hì, | hæ, | hæc, |
| $A b$. hōc. | hāc. | hōc. | his. | his. | his. |
|  | Singular. |  |  | Plural. |  |
| M. | $F$. | $N$. | M. | $F$. | $N$. |
| $N$. ǐs, | $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}$-ă, | id, | $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}-\overline{1}$, | $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}$-æ, | $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}-\mathrm{a}$, |
| G. ${ }^{\text {e' }}$-jŭs, | e' ${ }^{\prime}$-jŭs, | $\bar{e}^{\prime}-\mathrm{j}$ jus, | e-0'-rum, | e-ā'rum, | e-o'-rum, |
| D. $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}-\overline{\mathrm{l}}$, | $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}-\overline{1}$, | $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}-\overline{1}$, | $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-is or $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}-\mathrm{is}$, | $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-is or $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}-\mathrm{is}$, | i'is or $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}-\mathrm{is}$, |
| Ac. $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}$-um, | $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}-\mathrm{am}$, | Id, | $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}-\overline{\mathrm{o}}$, | $e^{\prime}$-ās, | $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}-\mathrm{a}$, |
| 4b. $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}$ - o . | $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}$-à. | $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}-\overline{0}$. | $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-is or $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}-\mathrm{is}$. | $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}-\mathrm{is}$ or $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}$-is. | -is or $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}$-is. |

Remark 1. Instead of ille, ollus was anciently used; whence olli masc. plur. in Virgil. Illoe fem., for illius and illi, is found in Lucretius and Cato, as also in Cato, hae for huic fem.; hice for hi, and hac for hoe in Plautus and Terence. Im for eum, is found in the Twelve Tables; eii for ei, and ibus and iibus for $u ̈ s$, in Plautus; $\epsilon \in$, fem., for $e i$, and eūbus for $i i s$, in Cato.

Rem. 2. From ecce, lo! with ille, iste, and is, are formed, in colloquial language, nom., ecca; eccilla, eccillud; 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. |  |  | Plural. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| M. | $F$. | $N$. |  | M. | $F$. | $N$. |
| N. is'-tic, Ac. is'-tunc, | is'-tæc, is'-tanc, | is'-tōc, or is $s^{\prime}-t \bar{c}$, is'-tōc, or is'-tūc, | $N$. Ac. |  | is'-tæc, |  | Ab. is'-tüc. is'tāe. is'tūc.

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, huncce, hancce, hocce, hice, hacce or hœc, horunc, harumce, harunce, or harunc, hosce, hasce, hisce; illiusce, illäce, illosce, illasce, illisce; istāce, istisce; ejusce, iisce. When ne, interrogative, is also anmexed, ce becomes ci; as, hoccine, hoscine, hiscine ; istuccine, istaccine, istoscine; illiccine, illanccine.

Rem. 5. Mödi, the genitive of mödus, annexed to the genitive singular of aemonstrative and relative pronouns, imparts to them the signification of adjectives of quality: as, hujusmöli or mijuscemödi, like talis, of this sort, such; illiusmodi and istiusnodi, of that sort ; cujusmodi, of what sort, like qualis; cu-
juscemordi, cujusquemðdi, cujusmodicumque, of what kind soever; cujusdammoddi, of some kind. So also istimodi, cuimodi and cuicuimŏdi, instead of istiusmodi, cujusmơd., etc.

Rem. 6. The suffix dem is annexed to is, forming idem, "the same," which is thus declined:-


Note 1. In compound pronouns, $m$ before $d$ is changed into $n$; as, eundem, corundem, etc.
Note 2. In Sallust isdem, and in Palladius hisdem occur for iisdem ; and Ennius in Cicero has eademmet for eădem.

## INTENSIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 185. Intensive pronouns are such as serve to render an object emphatic.

To this elass belong ipse, and the intensive compounds already mentioned. See $\S \S 133$, R. 2, and 134, R. 4.

Ipse is compounded of is and the suffix pse, and is thus declined:-
Singular.

| M. | $F$. | $N$. | M. | $F$. | $N$. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $N . \mathrm{ip}$ '-š̌, | $\mathrm{ip}^{\prime}$-să, | ip'sum, | ip ${ }^{\prime}$-sil, | ip-s | ip's-să, |
| G. ip-sǐ'-us, | ip-si'-us, | ip-sì'-us, | ip-so'-rum, | ip-sa' ${ }^{\text {a }}$-rum, | ip-sos'-rum, |
| D. ip ${ }^{\prime}$-sio, | ip ${ }^{\prime}$-sī, | ip'-sì, | ip'-sis, | ip'-sis, | ip ${ }^{\prime}$-sis |
| Ac. ip 'sum, | ip' ${ }^{\prime}$-sam, | ip'-sum, | ip ${ }^{\prime}$-sōs, | ip's-sass, | ip ${ }^{\prime}$-să, |
| $V$. ip'-sĕ, | ip ${ }^{\prime}$-să, | ip'sum, | ip ${ }^{\prime}$ 'sī, | ip'sw, | ip's-să, |
| $A b$. ip'sos. | ' ${ }^{\prime}$ '-sà. | ip'-sō. | ip ${ }^{\prime}$-sis. | ip'sis. | ip'-sis. |

Remark 1. Ipse is commonly subjoined to nouns or pronouns; as, Juptter ipse, tu ipse, Jupiter himself, etc.; and hence is sometimes called the adjunctive pronoun.
Rem. 2. A nominative ipsus, oćcurs in early writers, and a superlative ipsissimus, 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 preceling 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, | quæ, | quŏd, | quī, | quæ, | qua |
| G. cū'jŭs, <br> D. cui,* | cū'j-jŭs, | cū'-jŭs, | quō'-rum, | quà' ${ }^{\text {a }}$-rum, | quou'-rum, |
| Ac. quem, | quam, | quŏd, | quōs, | quās, | quæ, |
| $A b$. quō. | quà. | quō. | quî'bŭs. | quǐ'-bŭs. | quì'bŭs. |

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 quöcum, 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. Cujus and cui were anciently written $q u \bar{j} u s$ and $q u o i$ : and, instead of the genitive cūjus, a relative adjective cujus, $a, u m$, 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, ques me cumque vocant terre. Virg. A similar separation sometimes occurs in the other compounds of cumque.
4. Quisquis is thus declined:-

Singular.

$$
M . \quad F . \quad N .
$$

Plural.
N. quī'-qū
D. qui-bis'-quǐ-bus,

## M.

$N$. quis'-quis, quis'-quis, $\dagger$ quid'-quĭd, Ac. quem' ${ }^{\prime}$ quem, $\overline{{ }^{\prime}}$ quid'-qǔid, $A b$. quō'-quō. quà'-quā. quō'-quō.

Ress. 4. Quicquid is sometimes used for quidquid. Quiqqui for q-aisquis 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
$\left.\begin{array}{ll}\text { Quis? } \\
\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Quisnam ? }\end{array}\right\} \text { who? what? } & \begin{array}{l}\text { Ecquis? } \\
\text { Qui? } \\
\text { Ecquisnam ? }\end{array} \\
\text { Quinam? }\end{array}\right\}$ which? what? \(\left.\begin{array}{l}Numquis? <br>

Numquisnam,\end{array}\right\}\) is any one? | Cüjus? whose? |
| :---: |
| Cūas? of what |
| country? |

1. Quis is commonly used substantively; qui, adjectively. The interrogative $q u i$ is declined like $q u i$ the relative.

Quis is thus declined :-

Singular.

| M. | $F$. | $N$. | M. | $F$. | $N$. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N. quis, - | qux, | quăd, | quī, | quæ, |  |
| G. cū'joŭs, | cü'-jŭs, | cū'-jŭs, | quō'-rum, | quà'-rum, | quō'-rum |
| D. cui, | cui, quam | cui, quĭd, | quĭ'-bŭs, | quì'-bŭs, quās, | quǐ'-bŭs, |
| V. |  |  |  | quas, |  |
| $A b$. quō. | quā. | quō. | quĭ-bŭs. | quĭ'-bŭ | quĭ' |

Rtmark (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.) Qui 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 quälis? what sort?
2. The compounds quisnam and quīnam 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:-

| M | Singula | N. | Plural. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | cū'jum, |  |
| Ac. cū-jum, | cū-ja, | cu'jum, | Ac. cū'jojas. |
| Ab. | cū'jija. | - |  |

6. $C \bar{u} j \bar{a} s$ is declined like an adjective of one termination; $c \bar{u} j a s$, cujatťs. 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; as, qui sit aperrit, he discloses who he is. Cf. $\S 265, \mathrm{~N}$.

## INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

§ 188. Indefinite pronouns are such as denote an object in a general manner, without indicating a particular individual. They are

Alíquis, some one.
Siquis, if any.
Nēquis, lest any.
Quisque, erery one.

Quisquam, any one. Quispiam, some one.
Unusquisque, each.
Aliquipiam, any, some.

Quīdam, a certain one. Quilibet, \} any one you Quivis, please. Quis and qui, § 137, R. (3.)

Note. Siquis and nequis are commonly written separately, si quis and ne quis: so also unus quisque.

1. Aliquis is thus declined :-

Singular.

|  | M. | $F$. | $N$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $N$. | al'-i-quis, | al'-i-qua, | al'-i-quod, or -quid, |
| $G$. | al-i-cū'-jus, | al-i-cū'jus, | al-i-cū'-jus, |
| $D$. | al'i-cui, | al'-i-cui, | al'-i-cui, |
| Ac. | al'-i-quem, | al'-i-quam, | al'-i-quod, or -quid, |
| $A b$. | al'-i-quo. | al'-i-quā. | al'-i-quo. |
|  |  | Plural. |  |
|  | M. | $F$. | $N$. |
| $N$. | al'-i-qui, | al'-i-quæ, | al'-i-qua, |
| $G$. | al-i-quo ${ }^{-}$-rum, | al-i-quà'rum, | al-i-quō'-rum, |
| $D$. | a-liq'-uĭ-bus,* | a-liq'-ǔ̌-bus, | a-liq -uĭ-bus, |
| Ac. | al-i-quos, | al'-i-quas, | al'i-qua, |
| $A b$. | a-liq'-uĭ-bus. | a-liq'-uĭ-bus. | a-liq'-uĭ-bus. |

[^10]2. Siquis and nēquis are declined in the same manner; but they sometimes have ques in the fem. singular and neut. plural.
(a.) Allquis, in the nominative singular masculine, is used both as a substantive and as an adjective;-aliqui, as an adjective, but is nearly obsolete. Clique in the fem. sing. occurs as an adjective in Lucretius, 4, 2, 64. Siqui, and nēqui, 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, siquil, and nëquid, 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, Plat. 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, quapiam.
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 netter is unumquodque, or unumquidque. It has no plural. Unumquidquid for unumquidque occurs in Plautus and Lucretius.
5. Quīdam, quilìbet, and quīris, 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 gentlive plural; as, quendam, quorundam, etc. Cf. $\S 134$, 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, tuns, suus, noster, vester, and cūjus. Menus, tuns, and suns, are declined like bonus; but meas has in the vocative singuar masculine $m i$, and very rarely meus. Cf. § $105, \mathrm{R} .3$. In late writers $m i$ occurs also in the feminine and neuter.
2. Cūjus also is declined like bonus; but is defective. See $\S 137,5$. It occurs only in early Latin and in legal phraseology.
3. Noster and wester are declined like pŭger. See § 106.

Remark 1. The terminations pate and met intensive are sometimes annexed to possessive pronouns, especially to the ablative singular; as, suopte pondëre, by its own weight; suapte manu, by his own hand. So nostrapte culpa $\bar{a}$; sumumpte amīcum; meāmet culpā. The suffix met is usually followed by ipse; as, Hannibal suämet ipse froude captus abiit. Liv.; but Sallust has meamet facta dicëre.

REM. 2. Suns, like its primitive sui, has always a reflexive signification, repong to the subject of the sentence. Menus, iulus, nosier, and vester, are also used redexively, when the subject of the proposition is of the first or second person. See § 132, 4.

## PATRIAL PRONOUNS.

4. (a.) These are nostras and cūjas. See $\S \S(100,2$, 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., nosträtes, neut. nostratia), and in the ablative, (nostratibus). Cūjas or quōjas occurs in the nominative, genitive and accusative (cujātem masc.) singular, and in the nominative plural, masc. (cujätes). Cf. § 137, 6.-Nosträtis and cujātis (or quojātis) 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, alterŭter, utervis, and uterlibet, which answer to the question, üter? 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 $q u$, 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. quālis? | Demonstr. tälis, | Relat. quālis, | $\begin{gathered} \text { Relat. generrl. } \\ \left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { qualis-qualis, } \\ \text { qualiscumque. } \end{array}\right. \end{gathered}$ | Indefin. | Indef gener |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| quantus? | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { tantus, } \\ \text { tantundem } \end{array}\right.$ | quantu | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { quantus-quantus, } \\ \text { quantuscumque, }\end{array}\right.$ | aliquantus, | uantuslibet, |
| quŏtus? | tŏt, totidem, tǒtus, | quŏt, quŏtus, | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { quot-quot, } \\ \text { quotcumque, } \\ \text { quotuscumque, } \end{array}\right.$ | \} alíquot, (aliquootus), | uotirbet, |
| quantŭlus? | tantŭlus. |  | iminutives. quantuluscum |  |  |

Note 1. The suffir 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, $q u i$, who; quicumque, whoever; or, every one who.
Note 2. Cujusmédi is sometimes used for qualis, and hujusmodi, istiusmठdi, ejusmờli, and ejusde minư̌li for tâlis. 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 ary thing is affirmed is called the subject of the verb. (2.) That whicд is affirmed of the subject is called the predicate. Cf. § 201.
2. 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.
3. 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 copŭla.

## § 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; sequĭtur consŭlem, 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; bnt 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 lĕgit librum, 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 puĕro, 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 $a b$, according as it is a voluntary or involuntary 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, puer legit, the boy is reading, scil. librum, litzras, etc., a book, a letter, etc.; virtus laudütur, 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, fīdo, 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 semideponents.
3. The nenter verbs vapülo, I am beaten, and veineo, 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 depōno, to lay aside, as having laid aside their active form, and their passive signification; as, sĕquor, I follow; morrior, 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 obsěcret, 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 fugĕre, to shun vice is a virtue.

## TENSES.

‘s
§ 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.

| Presen | - | amo, I love, or am loving; Present tense. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Future | not completed; | $\}_{\text {amäd }}^{a m a}$ |
| Present <br> Past | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { acti } \\ \text { con }\end{array}\right.$ | anāvi, I have loved; Perfect tense. amavéram, I had loved; Pluperfect |
|  | plet | mavero, I shall have loved; Future perfe |

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 $\{$ | tion | amor, I am loved; Present tense. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Past ${ }_{\text {Puture }}\{$ | not com- pleted; | amäbar, I was loved; Inpperfect tense. |  |
| Present | action | amätus sum, or fui, I have been loved |  |
| Past | com- | auātus eram, or fuĕram, I had be | erfect. |
| Future | pleted; | amãtus ero, or fuèro, I shall have been | Perfect. |

§ 145. I. The present tense represents an action as now going on, and not completed; as, ămo, I love, or am loving.

1. Any existing custom, or general truth, may be expressed by this tense; as, apud Parthos, signum dutur tympăno; 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 anacition 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, proovlant 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.
4. The imperfect sometimes denotes repeated or customary past action; as, legēbam, I was wont to read.
5. It may also denote an action which had existed for some time, and which was still existing at a certain past time; as, audiēbat jamdüdum verba; he had long heard, and was still hearing the words.
6. 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, expectübam, I was expecting, (i. e. when I wrote).
7. The imperfect also sometimes denotes the intending, prexaring, or attempting to act af a definite past time.
III. The future tense denotes that an action will be going on hereafter, but without reference to its completion; as, amäbo, 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, ama $\bar{\alpha} v i$, 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 aorist.
V. The pluperfect tense represents a past action as completed, at or before the time of some other past action or event; as, littěras scripsĕram, 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 cœnarěro, 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, ' $I$ an 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. -
Notr 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 their common signs, may or can, may have or can have, must, in certain conneetions, 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 tro 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 inco:nplete, the second a completed action, and the last an action to be performed.

## NUMBERS.

§ 146. Number, in verbs, is the form by which tle 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. |
| Singutar. | o i, or m, | s, | $\mathrm{t} ;$ | r, | ris, | tur; |
| Plural. | mus, | tis, | nt. | mur, | mini, | 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.

Ress. 2. The passive form above given belongs to the simple tenses only.
Rem. 3. The pronouns of the first and second persons, ego, nos; $t u$ and $n o$, are seldom expressed in Latin as subjects of a finite verb, the several persona 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; amatürus, about to love;-and two in the passive voice, a perfect and a futur $;$; as, $a m \bar{a}$ tus, loved, or having been loved; amandus, to be loved.

[^11](3.) Neuter verbs have usually only the participles of the active voice.
(4.) Deponent verbs, toth 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 rerbal nouns of the fourth declension in the accusative and ablative singular; as, amätum, to love; amátu, 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 $u m$ is called the former supine; that in $u$, the latter. The former is commonly used in an active, the latter in a passive sense.

## CONJUGATIOŃ.

§ 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.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { In the first conjugation, it is } \bar{a} \text { long; } \\
& \text { In the second, . . . . . è long; } \\
& \text { In the third, . . . . . }{ }^{\text {es short }} \\
& \text { In the fourth, . . . . . } \imath \text { long. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Excerpron. $D_{0, \text { durre, to give, and such of its compounds as are of the first }}$ conjugation, have à 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 remoring 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 $i v$, to the general root; and the third root by a similar addition of $\bar{a} t$, $\grave{t}$, and $\bar{i} t$.

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 er or $i$. In the second and fourth conjugations, and in verbs in io of the third, a second connecting vowel is sometimes added to that which characterizes the conjugation; as, $a$ in doceant, $u$ 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 intinitive. From this root are derived also the present participle, the gerúnd, 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 $u m$, 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 $u m$, and $\bar{\imath} r i$, the present infinitive passive of the verb $e 0$, to go.
4. The present and perfect indicative, the supine in $u m$, 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 $u m$ 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 terninations, in all the coniugations. By annexing these to the several roots, all the parts of a verb may be formed.
ACTIVE VOICE.

- yvinonis


-abantŭr.
- ebantŭr.
-ebantur.
L
untur -ebuntŭr.
-ientŭr.
-ientŭr.


Imperfect．
－arentŭr． －xnұиә．ぇの －erentŭr． －antŏr．起边发 －iuntŏr． PART．$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { 1．－andŭs，} \\ \text { 2．－endŭs，} \\ \text { 3．}- \text { endŭs，} \\ \text { 4．－iendŭs．}\end{array}\right.$
 －arērĕ，
－ēēré，
－erērê，
－irēré，
－amiñi．
－emini．
－imini．
－imini．
INFIN．
Pres．
 mood． $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { 1．－äré，} \\ \text { 2．－ēré，}\end{array}\right.$ IMPERATIVE

## －ärent． －ērent． －ërent． －irent．



| ¢¢¢ ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | Sision |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | $\underbrace{}_{\cdot \text { OLnPn，}}$ |
|  <br>  |  |
| สี ถี gi |  |
|  |  |
| － $\boldsymbol{\text {－}}$ | ${ }^{\text {？upasåd }}$ d | these vowels are the same in both．

## Terminations added to the Second and Third Roots．

vowels are the same in both．
－anto．
－ento．
－unto．
－iunto．

$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { 3．}-\overline{1}, \\ \text { 4．}- \text { ini．}\end{array}\right.$

| 定 ． |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | 宜 |
|  |  |
|  | xivins．ns等管 |
|  | ヘi icim サi |

$\underbrace{i \text { ヘiが }}$
2ubsa»d
The terminations of the tenses which are formed from the second and third roots，are the PASSIVE VOICE．－THIRD Root INDICATIVE MOOD．
or fuistī，etc．辰

or fuĕris，etc． $o r$ fuissēs，etc． 18
0
0
0
0
0 INFIN．Perf．－us esse or fuisse． PART．Perf．－ŭs．INF．Fut．－um iri．

Remafk 1. In analyzing a verb, the roice, person, and number, are ascertained by the personal terminations. See $\S 147,3$. The conjugation, mood, and tense, are, in general, determined by the letter or letters which intervene between the root of the verb and the persoral terminations. Thus in amaba $m u s$, mus denotes that the verb is of the act.ve voice, plural number, and first person; $b a$ 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 roice, 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 rerb 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 amëmus and docèmus 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, orthe 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:-

## PRNNCIPAL PARTS.

| Pres. Indic. | Pres. Infin. | Perf. Indic. | Fut. Part. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sum, | es'-sě, | fu' $\mathbf{i}, \cdot$ | fứ-tū'-rŭs. |

INDICATIVE MOOD.

- Present Tense.
sINGULAR.


PLURAL.
sŭ'-mŭs, we are, es'-tiss, ye $\dagger$ are, sunt, they are.

Imperfect.

1. е̌'-ram, I was,
2. ě'rās, thou wast,
3. ě'-răt, he was;
ě-rā'-mŭs, we uere,
è-rā'-tis, ye wcre, é'rant, they were.

Future. shall, or will.

1. е̌'-rō, I shall be,
2. е゙'-rĭs, thou wilt be,
3. ĕ'rirt, he will be;
ĕr'-ǐ-mŭs, we shall be, èr'-ì-tĭs, ye will be. é-runt, they will be.
[^12]Perfect. have been, or was.

1. fu'-i, I have been,
2. fu-is'-ti, thou hast leen,
3. fu'-it, he has been;
fu'-1-mŭs, we have been,
fu-is'-tìs, ye have been,
fu-è'runt or rĕ, 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'tǐs, ye had been,
fu'-ĕ-rant, they had been.

Future Perfect. shall or will have.

1. fu'-ĕ-rŏ, $I$ shall have been, fu-er'-І̆-mŭs, we shall have been,
2. fu'-ĕ-rı̌s, thou wilt have been,
3. fu'-ĕ-ritt, he will have been;
fu-er'-i-tis, ye will have been,
fu'-ĕ-rint, they will have been.

## SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

## Present. may; or can.

1. sim, I may be,
2. sis, thou mayst be,
3. sit, he may be;
si'-mŭs, we may be,
sì-tǐs, ye may be, sint, they may be.

Imperfect. might, could, would, or should.

1. es'-sem, I would be,
2. es'-sēs, thou wouldst be,
3. es'-sět, he would be ;
es-sē'-mŭs, we would be,
es-ses'-tis, ye would be,
es'sent, they would be.

Perfect.

1. fu'-ĕ-rim, I may have been,
2. fu'-ĕ-rǐs, thou mayst have been,
3. fu'-ĕ-rit, he may have been;
fu-ěr'-Ï-mus, we may have been,
fu-ěr'-Ї-tis, 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'-mŭs, we would have been,
2. fu-is'-sēs, thou wouldst have been, fu-is-sē'tist, ye would have been,
3. fu-is'sět, he would have been; fu-is'-sent, they would have been.
imperative mood.

Pres. 1. ěs, be thou,
Fut. 2. es'-tō, thou shalt be,
3. es'-tö́, let him be ;
es'-tě, be ye.
es-tō'-tě, ye shall be, sun'-tō, let them be.

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. es'-sĕ, to be.
Perfect. fu-is'-sě, to have been.
Fiuture. fü-tū'rư̆s (ă, um), es'-sĕ, or fơ'-rě, to be about to be.

## PARTICIPLE.

Future. fư-tū'-rus, a, um, about to be.
§ 154. Remark 1. A present participle ers seems t: bave been anciently in use, and is still found in the compounds absens, prcesens, and pötens.

Rem. 2. The perfect fui, and its derivative tenses, are formed from an obsolete $f u 0$, whence come also the participle futurrus, an old subjunctive present fuam, fuas, fuat ; ,-, fuant, and the forms furimus, perf. ind., fuvërint, perf. subj., and furisset, plup. subj.

Rem. 3. From fuo appear also to be derived the following:-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Inf. pres. fǒ'-rè. }
\end{aligned}
$$

These forms seem to have been contracted from fuěrem, etc., and fuěre. Forem is equivalent in meaning to essem, but the infinitive fore has, in most cases, acquired a future signification, equivalent to futürus 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, esëtis, and esent, for esse, essētis, and essent.

Rem. 5. Like sum are conjugated its compounds, absum, adsum, dēsum, insum, intersum, obsum, prasum, subsum, and supersum.

Rem. 6. Prosum, from the old form prōd for prō, and sum, has d after pro, when the simple verb begins with $e$; as,

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Ind. pres. } & \text { prṑ-sum, prōd'-es, prō̄}{ }^{\prime}-e s t, \text { etc. } \\
\text { imperf. } \\
\text { prod'eè-ram, prod'ee-rās, etc. }
\end{array}
$$

Rem. 7. (a.). Possum is compounded of pottis, able, and sum. They are sometimes written separately, and then potis is the same in all genders and numbers.
(b.) In composition, is is omitted in potis, and $t$, as in other cases, coming beforc $s$, is changed into $s$. In the infinitive, and imperfect subjunctive, es 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. <br> Pos'sum,Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic. <br> pos'sé, <br> pót'-u-i, | I can, or I am able. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| indicative. |  | subjunctive. |

Present.
pos'sim, pos $^{\prime}$-sis, pos $^{\prime}$-sit; pos-si'-mŭs, pos-sī'tis, pos'-sint.
Imperfect.

| -răt; | pos'-sem, $\mathrm{pos}^{\prime}$-sēs, $\mathrm{pos}^{\prime}$-sět; |
| :---: | :---: |
| t-ě-rā'-mŭs, -ĕ-rā'-tīs, -ě-rant. | pos-sē'mŭs, -sē'tirs, pos'sent. |

Future.

pŏ-tèr'-ǐ-mŭs, po-ter ${ }^{\prime}-1$ I-tIs, pot'-ě-runt.
Perfect.
pǒt'-u-i, pǒt-u-is'ti, pǒt'-u-rt; pǒ-ta'-1-mŭs, -is'-tis, - $\bar{e}^{\prime}$-runt or -ब'rě.



Pluperfect.

```
pŏ-tu'-ě-ram, -ě-rās, -ě-răt; pŏt-u-is'-sem, -is'-sēs, -is'-sět;
```



Future Perfect.
pŏ-tu'-ě-rơ, pǒ-tu' ě-rı̌s, pŏ-tu'-ĕ-řt;
pŏt-u-ěr
(No Imperative.)

INFINITIVE.
Pres. pos'-se. Perf: pǒt-u-is'-sě.

PARTICIPLAL ADJECTIVE.
pó'tens, able.

Note. The following forms are also found; potissum for possum, potessunt for possunt, potessim and possiem for possim, possies, possiet and potessit for possis and possit, potessem for possem, potesse for posse, and before a passive infinitive the passive forms potestur for potest, poterätur for potërat, and possētur for posset.-Potis and pote without est are sometimes used for potest.

## § 155. FIRST CONJUGATION.

## ACTIVE VOICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

| Pres. Ind. $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}-\mathrm{m} \overline{\mathrm{O}}$, | Pres. Inf. <br> ă-mä'-rě, | Perf. Ind. ă-ma' ${ }^{\prime}$-vi, | Supine. ă-māa'-tum. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| INDICATIVE MOOD. |  |  |  |
| Present. love, do love, am loving. |  |  |  |
| Sing. | ă'mồ, |  |  |
|  | ă'mās, | thou lovest, |  |
|  | ă'măt, | he loves; |  |
| Plur. | ă-mā'-mŭs, | we love, |  |
|  | ă-mā'-tǐs, | ye love, |  |
|  | a-mant, | they love. |  |

Imperfect. was loving, loved, did love.

Sing. ă-mā'-bam, ă-mā'-bās, ă-mä'-băt,
Plur. ăm-ā-bā'-mŭs, ăm-ā-bā'-tiss, ă-ma'-bant,

I was loving, thou wast loving, he was loving; we were loving, ye were loving, they were loving.

Future. shall, or will.

Sing. ă-mā'-bō,
ă-mā'-bis, ă-mā'-bĭt,
Plur. ă-māb'-ǐ-mŭs, ă-māb'-ī-tĭs, ă-ma'-bunt,

I shall love, thou wilt love, he will love; we shall love, ye will love, they will love.

## Perfect. loved, or have loved.

Sing. ă-mà ${ }^{\prime}$ vī, ăm-ā-vis'-tī, ă-mā'-vit,
Plur. ă-māv'i-i-mŭs, ăm-ā-vis'-tís, ăm-à-vē'runt or -rě,

I have loved, thou hast loved, he has loved; we have loved, ye have loved, they have loved. Pluperfect. had.
Sing. ă-māv'-ĕ-ram, I had loved, ă-mā $\nabla^{-\mathrm{e}}$-rās, $\quad$ thou hadst loved, ă-māv'-ĕ-răt, he had loved;
Plur. ă-mā $\nabla-\mathrm{e}-\mathrm{ra} \overline{\mathrm{a}}-\mathrm{mŭs} ,\mathrm{we} \mathrm{had} \mathrm{loved}$, ă-māv-ĕ-rā̄-tǐs, ye had loved, ă-māv'-č-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, ă-mā $\mathrm{v}^{-\mathrm{e}}$-ritt, $\quad$ he will have loved;
Plur. ăm-ā-vĕr'-1̌-mŭs, ăm-ā-věr'-ІІ-tis, ă-māv'-ě-rint, we shall have loved, ye will have loved, they will have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD,
Present. may, or can.

Sing. ă'-mem, ă-mēs, ă-mĕt,
Plur. ă-mē'-mŭs, ă-mē'-tiss, ă'ment,

I may love, thou mayst love, he may love; we may love, ye may love, they may love.

Imperfect. might, could, voould, or should.

Sing. $\mathfrak{a}$-mā'-rem, ă-mā'-rēs, ă-mā'-rět,
Plur. ăm-ā-rē'-mŭs, ăm-ā-rē'tits, ă-mā'rent,

I would love, thou wouldst love, he would love; we would love, ye would love, they would l've.

Perfect. may, or can have.
Sing. ă-mā $v^{\prime}$-ĕ-rim, I may have loved, ă-mā $v^{\prime}-$ ĕ-rı̌s, ă-mā $\mathrm{v}^{\prime}-\check{\mathrm{e}}$-rit ,
Plur. ăm-ā-věr'-İ-mŭs, ăm-ā-věr'-İ-tı̌s, a-mā $\boldsymbol{v}^{\prime}-\mathrm{e}-\mathrm{rint}$,
thou mayst have loved, he may have loved; we may have loved, ye may have loved, they may have loved

Pluperfect. might, could, would, or should have.

# Sing. $\breve{a} m-\bar{a}-v i s '-s e m$, ăm-ā-vis'-sēs, ăm-ā-vis'-sest, <br> Plur. ăm-ā-vis-ses'-mŭs, ăm-a-vis-sē"-tı̌s, 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. ̆̆-mā'tồ, thou shalt love, ă-mā'-tō, he shall love;
Plur. ăm-à-tōo'-tě, ye shall love, ă-man'toto, they shall love.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. ă-mā'-rě,
Perfect. ăm-ā-vis'-sě,
Future. ăm-ā-tū'-rŭs, (ă, um,) es'-sĕ, to be about to love.

## PARTICIPLES.

Present. ă-mans,
Future. ăm-ā-tū̀-rǔs, ă, um,
loving. about to love.

GERUND.
G. ă-man'-dī,
D. ă-man'-dō, Ac. ă-man'-dum, Ab. ă-man' d ŏ,
of loving,
for loving,
loving, by loving.

SUPINE.
Former. ă-mă'-tum, to love.
§156. PASSIVE VOICE.
PRINCIPAL PARTS.
Pres. Indic.- Pres. Infin. Perf. Part.
$\mathbf{A}^{\prime}$-mor, $\quad$ ă-mā'rī $\quad \quad \breve{a}$-mā'tŭs.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present. am.

Sing. à'mŏr, ă-mā'-ris or -rě, à-mā'tür,
Plur. ă-mā'-mŭr, ă-mām ${ }^{\prime}-\mathrm{i}-\mathrm{n} \overline{1}$, ă-man'-tưr,

I am loved, thou art loved, he is loved; we are loved, ye are loved, they are loved.

Imperfect. was.

Sing. ă-mā-băr, ăm-ā-bā'-ris or -rĕ, ăm-ā-bă'-tŭr,
Plur. ăm-ā-bā'-mŭr, ăm-ā-bām'-ī-nī, ăm-ā-ban'-tưr,

I was loved, thou wast loved, he was loved; we were loved, ye were loved, they were loved.

Future. shall, or will be.

> Sing. ă-mā'-bŏr, ă-māb'eč-ris or -rě, ă-māb'-i-tŭr,
> Plur. ă-māb'-i-mŭr, ăm-ā-bim'-ī-nī, ăm-ā-bun'-tŭr,

I shall be loved, thou wilt be loved, he will be loved; we shall be loved, ye will be loved, they will be loved.

Perfect. have been, or was.

Sing. ă-mā'tŭs sum or fu' $\bar{i}$, ă-mā'-tŭs ěs or $f u-{ }^{\prime} s^{\prime}-t \overline{1}$, à-mā'-tŭs est or fu'-it,
Plur. ă-mà'-tī sŭ'-mŭs or fu'-i-mŭs, ă-mā'-tī es'-tis or fu-is'-tis's, à-mā'tii sunt, fu'é'runt or -rě,

I have been loved, thou hast been loved, he has been loved; we have been loved, ye have been loved, they have been loved.

Pluperfect. had been.
 ă-mā'-tŭs ĕ'-rās or fu'- ${ }^{\prime}$-rās, ă-māa'tŭs ě'-răt or fu'-ě-răt,
Plur. ă-mā-tī č-rā-mŭs or fu-ĕ-rā'-mŭs, à-mā'-tī ě-rā'tīs or fu-ĕ-rāa'tiss, ă-mā'-tī ě'-rant or fu'-ĕ-rant,

I had been loved, thou hadst been loved, he had been loved; we had been loved, ye had bien loved, they had been loved.

Future Perfect. shall have been.

Sing. ă-mà'-tŭs ě'rơ or fu'-ĕ-rō, ă-mā'-tŭs ě"rís ōr fu'-ě-rı̆s, ă-mā'tŭs é'rít or fu'-ĕ-rít,
Plur. ă-mā'-ti èr-ī-mŭs or fu-ě' ${ }^{\prime}$ İ-mŭs, à-mā'tī ěr'-i-tǐs or fu-ěr-ī-tǐs, à-ma'-tī é'runt or fu'coc-rint,

I shall hase 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. ă'-měr, ă-mē'-rǐs or -rě, ă-mē'-tŭr,
Plur. ă-mē'mŭr, ă-mē $m^{\prime}-1-1-n \bar{i}$, ă-men'-tŭr,

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'-rǐs or -rě, ăm-ā-rē'-tŭr,
Plur. ăm-ā-rē'-mŭr, ăm-ā-rēm'-ī-nī, ăm-ā-ren'-tŭr,
$I$ 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 ă-mã'-tŭs sim or fu'-ĕ-rim, ă-mä'tŭs sis or fu'-ĕ-rǐs, ă-mā'-tŭs sitt or fu'-è-rit,
Plur. ă-mā ${ }^{\prime}$-tī si' - mŭs or fu-er'-ī-mŭs,
 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'-tŭs es'sem or fü-is'-sem, ă-mā'-tŭs es'-sēs or fu-is'-sēs, ă-mā'-tŭs es'-sčt or fu-is'-sět,

I would have been loved, thou wouldst have been loved, he would have been loved;
Plur. ă-mā'-tī es-sē'-mŭs or fu-is-sē'-mŭs, we would have been loved, ă-mā'-ti es-sē'-tǐs or fu-is-sē'-tǐs, ă-mā'tī es'-sent or fu-is'-sent,
ye would have been loved, they would have been loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. Sing. ă-mà'-rě,
Plur. ă-mām'-īnī,
Fut. Sing. ă-mā'-tŏr, ă-mā'-tŏr,
Plur. (ăm-ā-bĭm-ī-nī, ă-man'-tör,
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. $\mathfrak{a}-\mathrm{m} \bar{a}^{\prime}-\mathrm{r} \overline{\mathrm{I}}$,
Perfect. ðّ-mā'-tŭs es'-sě or fu-is'-sĕ, Future. ă-mā'-tum $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}-\mathrm{ri}$,
to be loved.
to have been loved. to be about to be loved.

PARTICIPLES.
Perfect. ă-mā'tŭs, loved, or heving been loved. Future. ă-man'-dŭs, to be lowed.

SUPINE.
Latter. ă-mā'tū, to be loved.

## Formation of the Tenses.



## § 157. SECOND CONJUGATION.

## ACTIVE VOICE. <br> PASSIVE VOICE. <br> PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. mŏ'ne-ō.
Pres. Inf. mŏ-nē'-rĕ. Perf. Ind. mŏn' $-\mathrm{u}-\mathrm{i}$. Supine. mŏn'-i-tum.

Pres. Ind. mŏ'-ne-ŏr.
Pres. Inf. mŏ-nē'-ri.
Perf. Part. mŏn'-i-tŭs.

INDICATIVE MOOD.
Present.

I advise.
Sing. mŏ'-ne-ō, mó'-nēs, mŏ'-nĕt;
Plur. mŏ-né'-mŭs, mō-nē'-tis, mŏ'-nent.

I was advising.
S. mŏ-nē'-bam, mŏ-nē'-bās, mŏ-nē'băt;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. mŏn- $\mathrm{c}-\mathrm{b} \bar{a}^{\prime}-\mathrm{mǔs}$, mŏn- $\overline{-}$-bā'-tǐs, mŏ-nē'-bant.

I am advised.
Sing. mŏ'-ne-ŏr, mŏ-né'ris or -rĕ, mŏ-né'tŭr ;
Plur. mŏ-nē'-mŭr, mŏ-nēm'-ī-nī, mŏ-nen'tưr.

Imperfec:
I was advised.
S. mŏ-nē'-băr, mŏn-c̄-bā'rǐs or -rĕ, mŏn-è-bā'-tŭr ;
P. mŏn-ē-bā'-mŭr, mŏn-ē-bām'-ī-nĩ, mŏn-ē-ban'-tŭr.

## ACTIVE.

I shall or will advise.
S. mŏ-nē'bū, mŏ-nē'-bĭs, mŏ-nē'-bit ;
$P$. mǒ-nc̄eb'il-mŭs, mŏ-nēb'-i-tits, mŏ-nē' ${ }^{\prime}$ bunt.

PASSIVE.
Future.
I shall or will be advised.
S. mŏ-nē'-bŏr, mŏ-nēb'-ĕ-řis or -rĕ, mŏ-nēb'-ī-tŭr ;
$P$. mŏ-nc̄b'-i-mŭr, mŏn-ē-bĭm'-ī-nī, mŏn-ē-bun'-tŭr.

Perfect.

I advised or have advised.
S. mŏn'-u-i, mŏn-u-is'-tī, mŏn'-u-it ;
P. mŏ-nu'-ǐ-mŭs, mŏn-u-is'tis, mŏn-u-ē'-runt or -rě.

I was or have been advised.
S. mŏn'-i-tŭs sum or fu'-ī, mŏn'-i-tŭs ěs or fu-is'-tī, mŏn'-i-tŭs est or fu'-itt; $P$. mŏn'-i-tī sŭ'-mŭs or fu'-ī-mŭs, mŏn'-i-tī es'tiss or fu-is'tits, mŏn'-i-itì sunt, fu-é'-runt or -rě-

Pluperfect.

I had advised.
S. mŏ-nu'-č-ram, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rās, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-răt;
$P$. mŏn-u-ě-rā'-mŭs, mŏn-u-ě-rā"-tǐs, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rant.

I had been advised.
S. mŏn'-ī-tŭs ě'-ram or fu'-č-ram, mŏn'-i-tŭs ě'rās or fu'-ĕ-rās, mŏn'-i-tŭs é-răt or fu'-ě-răt;
P. mŏn î̀tī ě-rā'-mŭs or fu-e-rā-mŭs, mŏn'i-i-tī ĕ-rā'-tiss or fu-e-rā'-tís, mŏn'-i-tī ĕ'-rant or fu'eč-rant.

Future Perfect.

I shall have advised.
S. mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rŏ,
mŏ-nu'-ĕ-riss, mŏ-nu'-ĕ-rit;
P. mŏn-u-ĕr'ī-mŭs, mŏn-u-ecr'-ī-tiss, mŏ-nu' ${ }^{\prime}$ ecr-rint.

I shall have been advised. S. mŏn'-i-tŭs č'-rō or fu'-ĕ-rō, mŏn'-i-tŭs é'rǐs or fu'-ĕ-riss, mŏn'-ǐ-tŭs ě'-rit or fu'-ĕ-rit;
P. mŏn'-ǐ-ti ěr'-i-mŭs or fu-čr'-ī-mŭs,
 mŏn'-i-tic écrunt or fu'-č-rint.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.
Present.

I may or can advise.
S. mơ'-ne-am, mơ'-ne-ās, mơ'-ne-ăt;
$P$. mŏ-ne- $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ '-mŭs, mŏ-ne-à'-tís, mŏ'ne-ant.

I may or can be advised.
S. mŏ'ne-ăr, mŏ-ne-ā'-rǐs or -rě, mŏ-ne-ā"-tŭr ;
$P$. mŏ-ne--̄̄'-mŭr, mŏ-ne-ām'-ī-nī, mŏ-ne-an'tŭr.
ACTIVE.
PASSIVE.

Imperfect.

I might, could, would, or should
advise.
S. mŏ-nē'rem, mǒ-nē'rēs, mŏ-nē'-rět;
P. mŏn-ē-rē'-mŭs, mŏn-ē-rē'-tĭs, mŏ-nē'rent.

I might, could, would, or should be adeised.
S. mŏ-nē'-rĕr, mŏn-ē-rēéría or -ré, mōn-ē-rē'tūr ;
P. mŏn-è-rē'-mŭr, mŏn-ē-rēm'-i-nĩ, mǒn-ē-ren'-tŭr.

## Perfect.

I may have been advised.
S. mŏn'-i-tŭs sim or fu ee-rim, mŏn'-ī-tŭs sis or fu'-ĕ-rìs, mŏn'-i-tŭs sit or fu'-è ritt;
$P$. mǒn'-ī-tì si'-mŭs or fu-ěr'-ī-mŭs, mŏn'-1-tit si'-tǐs or fu-ěr'-ī-tis, mŏn'-ī-tī sint or fu'-ě-rint.

## Pluperfect.

I might, could, would, or should have advised.
S. mŏn-u-is'-sem, mŏn-u-is'-sēs, mŏn-u-is'-sĕt ;
$P$. mŏn-u-is-sḕ'-mŭs, mŏn-u-is-sē̄-tis, mŏn-u-is'-sent.

I might, could, would, or should have been advised.
S. mŏn'-i-tŭs es'-sem or fu-is'-sem, mŏn'-i-tŭs es'-sēs or fu-is'-sēs, mŏn'-i-tǔs es'-sět or fu-is'-sĕt;
$P$. mŏn'-ī-tī es-sé'-mŭs or fu-is-sé'-mùs, mŏn'-ī-tì es-sē'tis or fu-is-sē'tis, mŏn'-i-tio es'-sent or fu-is'sent.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. S. mŏ'-ně, advise thou;
$P$. mŏ-nē'-tě, advise ye.
Fut. S. mŏ-nè'tṑ, thou shalt advise,
mǒ-nē'tō̆, he shall advise;
P. mŏn- $\overline{\text {-to }}$ 'těe, ye shall advise,
mŏ-nen'-tō, they shall advise.

Pres. S. mŏ-nē'-rĕ, be thou advised; P. mŏ-nēm'-í-nī, be ye advised.
Fut. S. mŏ-nē'-tŏr, thou shalt be advised, mŏ-nē'totor, he shall be advised:
P. (mŏn- $\mathrm{e}-\mathrm{bim}^{\prime}-\mathrm{i}-\mathrm{n} \mathrm{i}$, ye shall be adcised,)
mŏ-nēn'-tŏr, they shall be advised.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. mŏ-nē'-rč, to advise.
Perf. mōn-u-is'-sě, to have advised.
Fut. mōn-i-tū'rŭs es'-sé, to be about to adeise.

Pres. mŏ-nē'rī̀, to be advised. Perf. mǒn'-i-tŭs es'-sě or fu-is'-sě, to lave been advised.
Fut. mŏn'-i-tum i'-rì, to be about to be advised.

ACTIVE. PASSIVE.
PARTICIPLES.
Pres. mŏ'nens, advising.
Perf. mŏn'-i-tŭs, advised. Fut. mŏn-i-tū'-rŭs, about to advise. Fut. mŏ-nen'-dŭs, to be advised.

GERUND.
G. mŏ-nen'dī, of advising,
D. mŏ-nen'-d 0 , etc.

Ac. mŏ-nen'-dum, $A b$. mŏ-nen'dŏ.

## SUPINES.

Former. mŏn'-ir-tum, to advise. | Latter. mǒn'-ītū, to be advised.

## Formation of the Tenses.

| From the first | root, mon, are derived, | From the second root, From the third root, monu, are derived, monit, are derived, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Active. Passive. | Active. Passive. |
| 1nd. pres. | moneo, mone monibam moniba | Ind. perf. monui, monittus sum, etc. |
|  |  | ut. perf. monuěro, monitus ero, etc. |
| Subj. pres. | monen, monear | perf. monuerrm, monitus sim, etc. |
| pery. | mnnërem, monërer. | plup. monuissem, monitus essem, etc. |
| Imperat. pres. | mone, monēre. | Inf. perf. monuisse, monitus esse, etc. |
| Trf pres | monēto, monētor. | From the third root, |
|  | $\underset{\text { moneere, }}{\text { mons, }}$ | Inf. fut. monitürus esse, monltum iri. |
|  |  | Part. fut. monitū |
| Gerund. | monendi. |  |

## § 158. THIRD CONJUGATION.

## PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. rĕ'-gŏ.
Pres. Inf. rěg'è-rě. Perf. Ind. rex'-i. Supine. rec'tum.

Pres. Ind. rĕ̀-rǒr. Pres. Inf. rĕ'-gī.
Perf. Part. rec'tŭs.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

## Present.

Irule.
Sing. rĕ'-gŏ,
rě'-gis,
rě'-git ;
Plur. rěg'i-mŭs, rěg'-i-tils, rè'gunt.

I am ruled.
Sing. rĕ'-gŏr, rĕg'è-rǐs or -rĕ, rěg'-ītŭr ;
Plur. rěg'-1-mür,
rĕ-gim'-i-nī,
rĕ-gun'tưr.

## ACTIVE. <br> PASSIVE.

Imperfect.

I was ruling.
S. rě-gē'-bam, rè-gē' ${ }^{\prime}$ bās, rè-qē'-băt;
P. rěg-ē-bā'-mŭs, rěr $r$ - $\mathrm{e}-\mathrm{bā}{ }^{\prime}$-tǐs, rě-gē'-bant.

I was ruled.
S. rě-gée ${ }^{\prime}-b a ̆ r$, rěg-ē-bā'-rís or -rě, rěg-ē-bā'-tŭr ;
$P$. rĕg- $\bar{e}-b \bar{a}^{\prime}-m u ̆ r$, rěg-c̄-bām'-ī-nī, rĕg-è-ban'-tŭr.

Future.

I shall or will rule.
S. rĕ'gam, rě'-gès, rě-gět;
P. rě-gē'-mǔs,
rè-gec'-tǐs, rě-gent.

I shall or will be ruled.
S. rě'-găr,
rě-gē'-rǐs or -rě, rě-gē'-tŭr ;
$P$. rě-gè $-\mathrm{mǔr}$,
rè-gēm'i-i-nī, rè-gen'tŭr.

## Perfect.

I ruled or have ruled.
S. rex'-i, rex-is'tí, rex'it
P. rex'-i-mŭs, rex-is'tis, rex-é'runt or -rě.

I was or have been ruled.
S. rec'-tŭs sum or fu'-ī, rec'-tŭs ěs or fu-is'tī, rec'-tŭs est or fu'-it;
P. rec'-tī sŭ'-mŭs or fu'-ĭ-mŭs, rec- - tī es'-tis or fu-is'-tis's, rec'-tī sunt, fu-ē'-runt or -rĕ

Pluperfect.

I had ruled.
S. rex'-ĕ-ram, rex'ě̌-rās, rex'-ě-răt;
P. rex-ĕ-rā'-mŭs, rex-è-rā'-tis, rex'-è-rant.

## I had been ruled.

S. rec'-tǔs ě'-ram or fu'-ě-ram, rec'-tŭs č'-rās or fu'-ĕ-rās, rec'-tŭs é'-răt or fu'ee-răt ;
$P$. rec'-tī ĕ-rä'-mŭs or fu-ĕ-rā'-mŭs, rec'-tī ĕ-rä'-tǐs or fu-ĕ-rā'tīs, - rec'-tī ĕ'-rant or fu'eè-rant.

Future Perfect.

I shall have ruled.
S. rex'-ĕ-rō, rex'è-ris, rex'-è-rit ;
P. rex-ĕr'-i-mŭs, rex-ēr'-ī-tis, rex'ée-rint.

I shall have been ruled.
S. rec'-tŭs ě'-rŏ or fu' eè-rō, rec'-tŭs é'riss or fu'-ě-rǐs, rec'-tŭs ě'-rit or fu' èrit ;
$P$. rec'tī ěr'-i-mŭs or fu-er'-ī-mŭs, rec'tī ĕr'-i-tǐs or fu-ěr'ī-tiss, 'ec'-tī ĕ'-runt or fu'-ĕ-rint.
ACTIVE. PASSIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE: MOOD.
Present.

I may or can rule.
S. rě'gam, rě'-gas, rě'-găt;
P. rě̀-gã' $\cdot$ mŭs, rě-gā'-tǐs, ré-gant.

I may or can be ruled.
S. rĕ'-găr, rĕ-gã'-rǐs or -rě, rě-gā'-tŭr;
P. rec-rgā'-mŭr, rě-gām'-ī-nī, rè-gan'-tür.

Imperfect.


Perfect.

I may have ruled.
$S$. rex'-ĕ-rim, rex'ee-ris, rex'eè-rit;
$P$. rex-èr'i-i-mŭs, rex-ër'-ī-tis, rex'è-rint.

I may have been ruled.
S. rec'-tŭs sim or fu'-ě-rim, rec'-tŭs sis or fu'-è-rǐs, rec'-tŭs sit or fu'-è-rit;
$P$. rec'-tì si'-mŭs or fu-èr'-ī-mŭs, rec'-tii si'-tis or fu-èr'i-1-tís, rec'-tī sint or fu'ee-rint.

Pluperfect.

I might, could, would, or should have ruled.
S. rex-is'-sem, rex-is'-sc̄s, rex-is'-sĕt;
P. rex-is-sēe'-mŭs, rex-is-see"-tis, rex-is'sent.

I might, could, would, or should have been ruled.
S. rec'-tŭs es'-sem or fu-is'-sem, rec'-tŭs es'-sēs $\delta r$ fu-is'seses, rec'-tŭs es'-sĕt or ful-is'-sĕt;
$P$. rec'-tī es-ses'-mŭs or fu-is-sese'-mŭs, rec'-tī es-sē'-tǐs or fu-is-sē'-tǐs, rec'-tī es'-sent or fu-is'-sent.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. S. rě'-gĕ, rule thou,
$P$. rĕg i- i-tĕ, rule ye.
Fut. S. rěg'i-i-tơ, thou shalt rule,
règ'i-itō, he shall rule ;
P. rěg-i-tṑ'tě, ye shall rule,
rë-gun'tō, they shall rule.

Pres. S. rěg'-č-rě, be thou ruled;
$P$. rě-gim'드-nī, be ye ruled.
Fut. S. rěg' rěg'-i-tŏr, he shall be ruled;
P. (rè-gim'i-nī, ye shall, etc.)
rěgun'tör, they shall, etc.

## LNFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. rěg'-ě-rě, to rule.
Perf. rex-is'sé, to have ruled.
Fut. rec-tū'-rŭs es'-se, to be about to rule.

Pres. rè'gī, to be ruled.
Perf. rec'-tüs es'-sě or fu-is'-sĕ, to have been ruled.
Fut. rec'-tum i'rī, to be about to be ruled.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. rě'-gens, ruling.
Fut. rec-tū'-rǔs, about to rule.

Perf. rec'-tŭs, ruled.
Fut. rě-gen'-dŭs, to be ruled.

GERUND.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { G. rě-gen'-dī, of ruling. } \\
& \text { D. rè-gen'-dō, etc. } \\
& \text { Ac. rè-gen'dum, } \\
& A b \text {. rè-gen'-dō. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## SUPINES.

Former. rec'-tum, to rule. | Latter. rec'-tū, to be ruled.

## Formation of the Tenses.



From the second root, From the third root, rex, are derived, rect. are derived, Actice. Passive. Ind. perf. rexi, rectus sum, etc. - plup. rexēram, rectus eram, etc. - fut. perf. rexëro, rectus ero, etc. Subj. perf. rexèrim, rectus sim, etc. If plup. rexissem, rectus essem, etc. Inf. perf. rexisse. rectus esse, etc. From the third root, Inf. fut. rectūrus esse, rectum iri. Part. fut. rectūrus.
For perf. rectus.
Form. Sup. rectum. Lat. Sup. rectu.

## §159. Verbs in 10 of the Third Conjugation.

Verbs in $i o$ of the third conjugation, in tenses formed from the first root, have, as connecting vowels, $i a, i e, i o$, or $i u$, 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 căpı.

ACTIVE. PASSIVE.
PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. că'-pi-ō, to take.
Pres. Inf. căp'-ĕ-rě.
Perf. Ind. cé'pī.
Supine. cap'tum.

Pres. Ind. că'-pi-ŏr, to be taken. Pres. Inf. că'-pī.
Perf. Part. cap'-tŭs.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.


Future.
S. că'pi-am,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { cǎ-pi-ēs, } \\
& \text { că'-pi-čt; } \\
& \text { P. că-pi-è'-mŭs, } \\
& \text { că-pi- } \mathrm{p}-\mathrm{e} \text { 'titis, } \\
& \text { că'-pi-ent. } \\
& \text { cä-pi-ēs, }
\end{aligned}
$$

The parts formed from the second and third roots being entirely regular, only a synopsis of them is given.

| Perf. | $c{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | Perf. | cap |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Plup. | cēp ${ }^{\prime}$-è-ram. | Plup. | cap'-tŭs é'ram or fu'-ě |
| Fut. perf. | cēp'ěe-rŏ. | Fut. | cap'-tŭs ě'rơo or fu'-ě-rơ. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.
Present.

ACTIVE.
PASSIVE.

Imperfect.
S. čap'-e-rem, căp'èe-rēs, căp'-ĕ-rĕt;
P. căp-ě-rḕ-mŭs, căp-ĕ-rē'-tı̌s, căp'-ě-rent.

> S. căp'-ĕ-rĕr, căp-ě-rē'-rǐs or -rě, căp-ě-rē'-tŭr;
> P. căp-ě-rēe-mŭr, căp-ě-rēm'-ī-nī, căp-ě-ren'tŭr.

Perf. cēp ${ }^{\prime}$-è-rim. | Perf. cap'-tŭs sim or fu'-ĕ-rim.
Plup. cē̄-pis'-sem.
IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. 2. S. că'-pé; P.2. căp'-ǐ-tě.
Fut. 2. căp-i-tō, căp-īitō-tĕ,
3. căp'-i-tǒ; că-pi-un'-tō.
$S$. căp'-ĕ-rě ; $P$. că-pı̌m'-ì-nī.
căp'-ī-tơr, (că-pi-ēm'-i-nī,) căp'-i-tŏr; că-pi-un'totor.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. căp'-è-rě.
Perf. cē-pis'-sě.
Fut. cap-tū'-rŭs es'-sě.

Pres: că'-pi.
Perf. cap ${ }^{\prime}$-tŭs es'-sĕ or fu-is'-sĕ. Fut. cap'-tum i'ri.

PARTICIPLES.

| Pres. că | Perf. c |
| :---: | :---: |
| Fut. cap-tū'r-rŭs. | Fut. că-pi-en' |

GERUND.
G. că-pi-en'-dī, etc.

## SUPINES.

Former. cap'-tum. | Latter. cap'tū.

## § 160. FOURTH CONJUGATION.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. au'-di-ō.
Pres. Inf. au-di'-rě. Perf. Ind. au-di'-vì.
Supine. au-di'-tum.

Pres. Ind. au'-di-ŏr. Pres. Inf. au-dì-rī. Perf. Part. au-di'-tŭs.

## ACTIVE. <br> PASSIVE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.
Present.

> I hear.
> S. au'-di-ö, au'dis, au'dit;
> P. au-dī'-mŭs, au'-di't-tis, au'di-unt.

I am heard.
S. au'di-ŏr, au-dī'-riss or -rĕ, au-dī̀-tŭr;
$P$. au-di'-mŭr, au-dim'-ī-nī, au-di-un'-tưr.

Imperfect.

I was hearing.
S. au-di-é-bam, au-di-ē'bās, au-di-ē'-băt;
P. au-di-ē-bā'-mŭs, au-di-ē-bā́-tīs, au-di-e'-bant.

I shall or will hear.
S. au'-di-am, au ${ }^{\prime}-\mathrm{di}$-ès, au'di-ět;
$P$. au-di-ē'-mŭs, au-di-ē-tis, au'-di-ent.

## I was heard.

S. au-di-éc -băr, au-di- $\overline{-}$-bā'riris or -rě, au-di-ē-bā'tŭr ;
$P$. au-di-ē-bā'-mŭr, au-di-ē-bām ${ }^{\prime}-i=1-n i ̄$, au-di-ē-ban'-tŭr.

Future.
I shall or will be heard.
S. au'di-ăr, au-di-ē'-riss or -rě, au-di-ē-tŭr ;
$P$. au-di-ē'-mŭr, au-di-ēm' $\bar{i}-\mathrm{ni}$, au-di-en'-tư̆.

Perfect.

I heard or have heard.
S. au-di'vi, au-di-vis'tiz, au-di'-vit;
P. au-div'i-mŭs, au-di-vis'-tiss, au-di-vé'runt or -rě.
. I have לeen or was heard.
S. au-di'-tŭs sum or fu'-i, au-di'-tŭs ěs or fu-is'-tī, au-dī-tŭs est or fu'-it;
$P$. au-dī'tī sǔ'-mŭs or fu'-i-mŭs, au-di'-tì es'-tìs or fu-is'-tìs, au-di'-ti sunt, fu-é'-runt or -rě.

Pluperfect.
I had heard.
S. au-div'-č-ram, au-div'-č-rās, au-div'-é-răt;
P. au-div-ě-rā́-mŭs, au-div-è-rā'-tıss, au-div'-ë-rant.

I had been heard.
S. au-di'-tŭs é'ram or fu'-ĕ-ram,
au-di'-tŭs é'-rās or fu'ece-rās, au-dī-tŭs ě-răt or fứce-răt;
P. au-di'-tī ĕ-rā'-mŭs or fu-ĕ-rā̄-mŭs,
 au-di'-tī ě'-rant or fu'-ĕ-rant.

ACTIVE.

I shall have heard.
S. au-div'-č-rǒ, au-div'-č-rı̆s, au-dīv'-č-rĭt;
$P$. au-di-věr'-ī-mŭs, au-di-vĕr'-ī-tǐs, au-div'-č-rint.

## Future Perfect.

PASSIVE.

I shall have been heard.
S. au-di'tŭs 厄̌'rō̆ or fu'-č-rō, au-dì'tŭs ě'-ris or fu'-ě-rǐs, au-di'-tŭs ě'-rĭt or fu'-ě-rĭt;
$P$. au-dī'tī čr'-i-mŭs or fu-ěr'-1̄-mŭs, au-di'-tī ecr'-ī-tǐs or fu-ěr'-1̌-tis, au-di'-tī ě'-runt or fu'-ě-rint.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

## Present.

I may or can hear.
S. au'-di-am, au'-di-ās, au'di-ăt;
P. au-di- $\bar{a}^{\prime}-\mathrm{mu} s$, au-di-a $a^{2}-$ ti's, au'-di-ant.

I may or can be heard.
S. au'di-ăr, au-di-à'-řs or -rě, au-di-à'-tŭr;
$P$. au-di-à'-mür, au-di-ām'-i-nī, au-di-an'-tŭr.

Imperfect.

I might, could, would, or should hear.
S. au-di'-rem, au-dì-rēs, au-dī'-rět;
P. au-di-rē'-mŭs, au-di-ré-tis's, au-di'-rent.

I might, could, would, or should le heard.
S. au-di'-rěr, au-dī-rē'rǐs or -re au-dī-rē'-tŭr ;
$P$. au-dī-rē'-mŭr, au-dī-rēm'-i-nī, au-dī-ren'-tưr.
Perfect.

I may have heard.
S. au-div'-è-rim, au-div'-ě-riss, au-div'ě-rit;
P. au-di-věr'-i-mŭs, au-di-věr'-i-tiss, au-div'è-rint.

## I may have been heard.

S. au-dì'-tŭs sim or fu'cec-rim, au-di'-tŭs sīs or fu'ce-rīs, au-di'-tŭs sit or fu'ce-ritt;
$P$. au-di'-tī si'-mŭs or fu-ěr'-ǐ-mŭs, au-di'-ti si'-tǐs or fu-ēr-ī-tiss, au-di'-tī sint or fu'-ĕ-rint.
Pluperfect.
I might, could, would, or should have heard.
S. au-di-vis'-sem, au-di-vis'-sēs, au-dī-vis'-sēt;
$P$. au-di-vis-sē'-mŭs, au-di-vis-sē-tis, au-di-vis'sent.

I might, could, vould, or should have been heard.
S. au-di'-tŭs es'-sem or fu-is'-sem, au-dī'-tŭs es'-sēs or fu-is'-sēs, au-dī'-tŭs es'-sět or fu-is'-sět;
$P$. au-dì'tì es-sē'-mŭs or fu-is-sē'-mŭs, au-dī'tī es-ses'-tis or fu-is-sē'tis, au-dī'tī es'sent or fu-is'-sent.

## ACTIVE. <br> PASSIVE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. S. au'-dī, hear thou;
$P$. 'au-di''tĕ, hear ye.
Fut. S. au-di'-tṓ, thou shalt hear, au-di'-tō, he shall hear;
P. au-dī-tō'-tě, ye shall hear, au-di-un'-tō, they shall hear.

Pres. S. au-di'-rĕ, be thou heard;
$P$. au-dim'-i-ni, be ye heard.
Fut. S. au-dī'-tŏr, thou shalt be heard,
au-di'-tŏr, he shall be heard;
P. (au-di-ēm'-i-nī, ye shall be heard,)
au-di-un'-torr, they shall be heard.

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. au-di'-rě, to hear.
Perf. au-di-vis'-sě, to have heard. Fut. au-dī-tū'-rŭs es-sĕ, to be about to hear.

Pres. au-di'-rī, to be heard.
Serf. au-di'-tŭs es'-sĕ or fu-is'sec, to have been heard.
Fut. au-di'-tum i'-rí, to be about to be heard.

## PARTICIPLES.

Pres. au'-di-ēns, hearing.
Perf. au-dì'tŭs, heard.
Fut. au-di-tṻ-rŭs, about to hear. $\mid$ Fut. au-di-en'-dŭs, to be heard.
GERUND.
G. au-di-en'-dī, of hearing.
D. au-di-en'-d̄̄, etc.

Ac. au-di-en'-dum, $A b$. au-di-en'-dō.

## SUPINE.

Former. au-di'-tum, to hear. | Latter. au-dī'tū, to be heard.

## Formation of the Tenses.

From the first root, aud, are derived Active. Passive. Ind. pres. - imperf. Sc fut. Subj. pres. - - imperf. Imperat. pres. audi rem, - fut. audit, Inf. pres. Part. pres. audient, - fut.
audio, audion. audiëbam, audiēbar. audiam, audial. audial, audial. audirer. audire. auditor. audīri. audiendus.

From the second root, From the third root, audit, are derived, audit, are derived, Active. Passive. Ind. nerf. audivi, auditus sum, etc. - plop. audivêram, auditus ram, etc - fut. perf. audivèro, audītus cero, etc. Subj. pelf. audivèrim, audìtus sim, etc. plus. audivissem, audit us essen, etc. Inf. peri. audivisse, auditus esse, etc. From the third root,
Inf. fut. auditūrus esse, audìtum inri. Part. fut. auditurrus. audìtus. 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.
Mi'-rǒr, mī-rā'-rī, mī-rā'-tŭs, to admire.
INDICATIVE MOOD.

| Pres. | mi'-rǒr, mī-rā ${ }^{\prime}$-rís, etc. | I admire, etc. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Imperf. | mī-rā'băr, etc. | I was admiring. |
| Fut. | mī-rā'-bŏr, | $I$ shall admire. |
| Perf. | mī-rã'-tŭs sum or fu'-i, | I have admired. |
| Plup. | mi-rā'-tŭs é'ram or fu'-ě-ram, | I had admired. |
| Fut. Perf. | mī-rā'tŭs ě'-ro or fu'-ĕ-ro, | I shall have admired. |

Pres. mi'rerer, mī-récris, etc. I may admire, etc. Imperf. mī-rā'-rĕr, I would admire. Perf. mī-rā'-tŭs sim or fu'-ĕ-rim, I may have admired. Plup. mī-rā'-tŭs es'-sem or fu-is'-sem, I would have admired.

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Pres. S. mī-rä'-rě, admire thou;
Fut. S. mī-rā̀-tǒr, thou shalt admire, $\mathrm{mi}-\mathrm{rä}^{\prime}$-tŏr, he shall admire; mī-ran'tŏr, they shall, etc.

INFLNITIVE MOOD.

| Pres. | mī-rä'-rí, | to admire. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perf. | mì-rā'-tŭs es'-sě or fu-is'-sě, | to have admired. |
| Fut. Act. | mīr-ā-tū'rŭs es'-sě, | to be about to admire. |
| Fut. Pass | mī-ra' ${ }^{\prime}$-tum $\bar{i}^{\prime}-\mathrm{ri}$, | to be about to be admired. |

PARTICIPLES.
Pres. mi'rans, admiring.
Perf. mī-rā'-tŭs, having admired.
Fut. Act. mir-ā-tū'-rŭs, about to admire.
Fut. Pass. mī-ran'-dŭs, to be admired.
GERUND.
G. mī-ran'-dī, of admiring, etc.

SUPINES.
Former mī-rā'-tum, to admire. | Latter. mī-rā'-tū, to be admired.

## Remarks on the Conjugations.

## Of the Tenses formed from the First Root.

§ 163. 1. A few words in the present subjunctive of the first and third conjugations, in the earlier writers and in the poets, end in $i m$, is, it, etc.; as, èdinn, édis, ëdit, edìmus; comědim, comëdis, comédint; for eddam, etc. comédan, etc.; duim, duis, duit, duint ; and perduim, perduis, perduit, perduint; for dem, etc. perdam, etc. from old forms duo and perduo, for $i o$ and perdo: so crednis, creduit, and also crecluam, creduas, creduat, for credam, etc. from the old form creduo, for credo. The form in im, etc. was retained as the regular form in sime 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 ìbam and ibar, for iēbam and iebar, and the future in ībo and ibor, for iam and iar; as, vestibat, Virg., largibar, Propert., for vestiēbat, largiēbar; scībo, opperibor, for sciam, opperiar. Ilam 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 dīco, dūco, $f$ ăcio, and $f$ ëro, are usually written dic, duc, fac, and fer; in like manner their compounds, except those compounds of fäcio which change a into $i$; as, effice, confice; but calfäce also is found in Cicero; and in old writers dice, edīce, addīce, indïce, düce, abdüce, redüce, tradüce, and füce. Inyer for ingëre is rare. Scio has not sci, but its place is supplied by scito, and scitōte is preferred to scite.
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, arbiträto, amplexāto, utïto, nitīto; for arbiträtor, 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 amäri, 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, amasti for amavisti, implērunt for implevērrunt, nōram and nosse for novĕram and novisse.
(b.) When the second root ends in $i v, v$ is often omitted without contraction; as, audiëro for audivěro; 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 evasisti, extinxti for extinxisti, divisse for divisisse; extinxem for extinxissem, surrexe for surrexisse; accestis for accessistis, justi for $j u s s i s t i$; 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, fümãt, audit, cüpit ; for fumärit, audivit, cupivit. So, also, but rarely, in the first person; as, sepéli, enarràmus; for sepelìvi, enarrā̃imus.
8. In the third person plural of the perfect indicative active, the form in ëre is lers common than that in érunt, especially in prose.
9. Ansient 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 promissen: divisse and promisse. But when the root ends in $x$, and frequently when it ends in $s$, only $o$, $i m, e m$, and $e$, etc. are added; as, jusso, dicis; intellexes, percepset; surrexe, sumse. V, at the end of the root, in the first conjugation, is changed into $s$; as, levasso, locassim. $U$, 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 fuxit, etc., expresses a solemn wish; as, dit immortātes fuxint. Ausim, etc. express doubt or hesitation, 'I might venture, etc. The perfect in sim is used also in connection with the present subjunctive; as, queso uti tu calamitātes prohibessis, 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 fuérit, and jussus fuē-rit.- A future infinitive active in sěre 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, expı̆gnassëre, impetrassëre, for expugnatürum esse, etc.

## Of the Tenses formed from the Third Root.

11. The supine in $u m$, 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 $u m$ 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, $-a,-u m$, est ; amāti, $-\infty,-a$, sunt, etc.
(1.) Fui, fuëram, fuërim, 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, forrem, 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; epistöla 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 epistöla 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 mfinitive, are used only in the nominative and accusative, but in all genders and in both numbers; as, amātus, $-a,-u m$, esse or fuisse; amãtum, $-a m,-u m$, esse or fuisse; amüti, $-a,-a$, esse or fuisse; amatos, $-a s,-a$, esse or fuisse; and so of the others. With the infinitive fuisse, amätus, etc. are generally to be considered as participial adjectives.
(1.) These participles in combination with esse are sometimes used as indeclingble; as, cohortes ad me missum facias. Cic. Adme, mea Terentia, scribis, to ricum venditurum. Id.

## Periphrastic Conjugations.

14. The participle in rus, joined to the tenses of the rerb sum, denotes either intention, or being upon the point of doing something. This form of the verb is called the active periphrastic conjugation.
Remari 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 ' 1 am about to' (be or do any thing).

## INDICATIVE.

| Pres. | amatūrus sum, | $I$ am about to love. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Imperf. | amatūrus eram, | I was about to love. |
| Fut. | amatūrus ero, | $I$ shall be alout to love. |
| Prf. | amatūrus fui, | I was or have loeen about to love. |
| Plup, | amatūrus fuêram, | $I$ had been about to love. |

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

| Pres | amatūrus sim, | I may le about to love. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Imperf. | amatūrus essem, | I would be about to love. |
| Perf. | amatūrus fuĕrim, | I may have been alout to love. |
| Plup. | amatūrus fuissem, | I would have been about to love. |

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. amatūrus esse, to be about to love. Perf. amatūrus fuisse, to have leen about to love.
Rem. 2. Fuero is scarcely used in connection with the participle in rus.
Rem. 3. Amatürus sim and amatürus essem serve also as subjunctives to the future amäbo. The infinitive amatürus fuisse answers to the Einglish, '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 futürum est, ut epistola scribätur, 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 $\ddagger$-thus:

| INDICATIVE. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Pres. $\quad$ amandus sum, |
| Imperf. $\quad$ amandus ěram, |
| Fut. $\quad$ amandus ěro, |
| Perf. $\quad$ amandus fui, |
| Ilup. $\quad$ amandus fuĕram, |
| Fut. Perf. amandus fuĕro. |

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. amandus sim, Imperf. amandus essem, Perf. amandus fuèrim, Plup. amandus fuissem.

INFINITIVE.
Pres. amandus asse, 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, mihi 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 trimslated by active participles:-ccenātus, having supped; pötus, having drunk; pransus, having dined; and sometimes jurätus, having sworn. So also adultus, coalitus, conspirätus, interilus, occāsus, obsolētus, and crëtus.

For the actıve meaning of ösus and its compounds, see $\S 183,1$.
17. (a.) The perfect participles of some deponent verbs have both an active and a passive sense; as, adeptus lilertātem, having obtained liberty, or adeptâ libertāte, liberty having been obtained. Cf. $\S 142,4,(b$.

So abominātus, comitātus, commentātus, complexus, confessus, contestātus, detestätus, dignätus, dimensus, eff ätus, emensus, ementitus, emeritus, expertus, exsecrätus, interpretưtus, largìtus, machinätus, meditātus, mercätus, meł̧ãtus, oblitus, opinätus, orsus, pactus, partìtus, perfunctus, periclitätus, pollicitus, populätus, depopulütus, stipülütus, testätus, ultus, venerätus.
(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, gavisus, 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. Venturōrum is found in Ovid, exiturārum, transiturārum and periturōrum in Seneca, and moriturōrum in Augustine.
20. In the third and fourth conjugations, the gerund and future passive participle (including deponents) sometimes end in undum and undus, instéad 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, inscienধ, 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, profectus, a commander; ausum, an attempt; commissum, an oflence.

Note. Many words derived from substantives, with the terminations of participles, ätus, ìtus, and ūtus, are yet adjectives; as, alătus, winged; turrîtus, 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, făcio, factum; hăbeo, habǐtum.
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 $\breve{e}$; as, curro, cŭcurri; fallo, fĕfelli. This prefix is called a reduplication.
Note 1. Spondeo and sto lose $s$ in the second syllable, making spzpondi and stecti. For the verbs that take a reduplication, see $\$ \S$ 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, exaudī̀i, exaudītum.
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 $a$, $x$, or $e$, in the first root of the simple verb, is changed in the compound into $i$, (see $\S 189,2$, ) the same is retained in the second and third roots, in case the third root of the simple verb is a dissyllable; as, hăbeo, hăbui, hăbŭtum ; prokĭbeo, prokǐbui, prohĭbütum.
(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; confĭcio, confēci, confectum; tĕneo, tĕnui, tentum; reť̆neo, ret̄̆nui, retentum; răpio, răpui, raptum; abř̆pio, abrı̆pui, abreptum.
Note 3. The compounds of cădo, ăgo, frango, pango, and tango, retain a in the third root. See § 172.

Exc. 4. The compounds of parrio, (ëre), and some of the compounds of do and cübo, are of different conjugations from their simple verbs. See $d o$, cübo and pärio 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, amāv $i$, amātum.

The following list contains such regular verbs of this conjugation as are of most frequent occurrence.

Norz. In this and sabsequent lists, those verbs which are marked * are said to have no perfect participle; those marked $t$ to have no present participie. A dasb( - ) after the present, denotes that there is no second root. The participles in rus and dus, and the supines in $u n$ and $u$ which are in use, are indicated respectively by the letters $r$., $d$., $m$., and $u$. Abundo, for example, bas 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 differs 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 nfeaning, are used either actively and passively, or passively alone. Such verbs are by some grammarians called common. Cf. $\$ 142,4,(b)$
*Abundo, r. to overflozs.
Accūso, m.r.d. toaccuse.
$\dagger$ Adumbro, to delineate.
Edifico, r. d. to build.
Equo, r. d. to lerel.
Estimo, r. d. to ralue.
*Ambŭlo, m. d. to walk.
Amo, r. d. to lore.
$\dagger$ Amplio, d. to énlarge.
Appello, d. to call.
Apto, d. to fit.
Aro, r. d. to plough.

* $\dagger$ Ausculto, to listen.
* $\dagger$ Autŭmo, to assert.
$\dagger$ Bāsio, -, d. to kiss.
*Bello, m. r. d. to wage zar.
$\dagger$ Beo, to bless.
* Boo, to bellow.
$\dagger$ Brèvio, to shorten.
$\dagger$ Cæco, to blind.
$\dagger$ Cælo, to carre.
$\dagger$ Calceo, d. to shoe.
*i Calcitro, to kick.
Canto, m. to sing.
Capto, m. r. d. to seize.
$\dagger$ Castigo, m. d. to chastise.
Celébro, d. to celebrate.
Cēlo, d. to conceal.
Cesso, d. to cease.
Certo, r. d. to strive.
Climo, to shout.
Cugito, d. to think.
Concilio, r. d. to conciliate.
Considëro, r. d. to consider.
Crimo, d. tu burn.-concrèmo, r.
$\dagger$ Creo, r. d. to create.
Crücio, d. to torment.
CיIn: r. A. to blame.
itemeo. d. to wedye in.
Cüro, r. d. to care for.
Dammo, m. r. d. to condemn.
Decöro, d. to adorn.
*     - Heiniec. w telineate
vesidero, r. d. to desire

Destino, d. to design.
Dico, m. r. d. to dedicate.
Dicto, to dictate.
$\dagger$ Dülo, to hew.
Dūn, r. d. to bestoro.
Duplico, r. d. to double.
Dūro, r. to harden.
$\dagger$ Effigio, to portray.
$\dagger$ Enucleo, to explain.
Equito, to ride.
Erro, to wander.
Existimo, u. r. d. to think.
Explöro, m. d. to search.
Exsinlo, m. r. to be banished.
Fabrico, d. to frame.
$\dagger$ Fatīgo, 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 blur.
Formo, r. d. to form.
Föro, d. to bore.
$\dagger$ Fraudo, d. to defraud.
$\dagger$ Freno, to bridle.
$\dagger$ Frio, - to crumble.
Fügo, r. d. to put to flight.
$\dagger$ Fundo, r. to found.
$\dagger$ Fürio, -, to madden.
|Gäleo, -, to put on a helmet.
Gesto, d. to bear.
Glício, -, to congeal.
Grăvo, d. to weigh down.
Gusto, d. to taste.
Habito, m. d. to dwell.
*Hailo, -, to breathe.
Hièmo, m. to winter.
*Hio, d. to gape.
thinme, d. do bury:
Ignōro, r. d. to be ignorant of.
Impero, r. d. to command. $\dagger$ Impetro, r. d. to obtain. Irchาo. " tc bcgin
Indāдo, r. d. to troace our.

Indǐco, m. r. d. to show.
$\dagger$ 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.
Iterro, u. d. to do again. Jucto, r. d. to throw.
Judico, r. d. to judge.
Jŭgo, d. to couple.
Jugulo, m. d. to butcher
Jūro, d. to swear.
Labūro, r. d. to labor.
Lacèro, d. to tear.
*Lacto, to suckle.
$\dagger$ Lanio, d. totear in pieces.
Latro, to bark.
Laudo, r. d. to praise.
Laxo, d. to loose.
$\dagger$ Lēgo, to depute.
Lèvo, r. d. to lighten.
Libéro, r. d. to free.
Libo, d. to pour out.
Ligo, to bind.
$\dagger$ Liquo, d. to melt.
Lito, to appease.
Líco, r. d. to place.
Lustro, d. to surrey.
Luxŭrio, to be luxuriant.
Macto, d. to sacrifice.
Macūlo, to spot, stain.
Mando, r. d. to command.
Mandūco, to chew.

* Mano, to flovo.

Matūro, d. to ripen.
Memöro, u. d. to tell.

* Meo, to go.
* Migro, u. r. d. to depmart
* Míto, m. s woserve as or soldier
$\dagger$ Minio, d. to paint red.
Ministro, d. to serre.
Niitigo, d. w preity.
Monstro, $r$ tc oburs.
idemonstro, d
Mãto. r. d. to rhusage

Narro, r. d. to tell.
Naito, m. r. to swim.
*Nanseo, to be sea-sick.
$\dagger$ Navigo, r. d. to stil.
Nāvo, r. d. to perform.
Něgo, m. r. d. to deny.
*No, $t$ swim.
Nomino, r. d. to name.
Nöto, d. to mark.
Növo, r. d. to renew.
Nūdo, d. to make bare.
Nuncŭpo, 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.
Oněro, r. d. to load.
Opto, d. to wish.
$\dagger$ 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.
$\dagger$ Pio, d. to propitiate.
Plāco, r. d. to appease.
Plōro, m. d. to bewail.
Porto, u. r. d. to carry.
Postŭlo, m. r. d. to demand.
Privo, d. to deprive.
Prơbo, m. u. r. d. to ap-prove.-compröbo, m.
Profligo, d. to rout.
Propěro, d. to hasten.

* $\dagger$ Propinno, 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.
Rädio, to emit rays.
Rapto, d. to drag away.
Recupěro, m. r. d. to recover.
Recūso, r. d. to refuse.
Redundo, to overflow.
Regno, r. d. to rule.
$\dagger$ Repŭdio, r. d. to reject.
Resëro, d. to unlock.

* $\dagger$ Retālio, 一, to retaliate.

Rigo, to water.
Rögo, m. r. d. to ask.
Röto, to whirl around.
Sacrifico, m. to sacrifice.
Sacro, d. to consecrate.
$\dagger$ Sagino, d. to fatten.
Salto, r. to dance.
Salūto, m. r. d. to salute.
Sāno, r. d. to heal.
Sătio, to satiate.
$\dagger$ Satừro, to fill.
Saucio, d. to wound.
*Secundo, to prosper.
Sēdo, m. d. to allay.
Servo, r. d. to keep.

* $\dagger$ Sibĭlo, to hiss.

Sicco, d. to dry.
Signo, r. d. to mark out.assigno, m.
Simŭlo, r. d. to pretend.
Sǒcio, d. to associate.
*Somnio, to dream.
Specto, m. r. d. to behold.
Spēro, r. d. to hope.
*Spiro, to breathe.-conspiro. - exspīro, r. suspiro, d.
Spŏlio, m. d. to rob.
Spūno, to foam.
Stillo, to drop.
Stimŭlo, to goad.
Stipo, to stuff:

Sūdo, to sweat.
Suffoco, to strangle.
Sugillo, d. to taunt.
Supěro, r. d. to owercome.
Suppedito, to afford.
*Supplico, m. to supplicate.
*Susurro, to whisper.
Tardo, to delay.
Taxo, d. to rate.
Temêro, d. to defile.
Tempěro, r. d. to temper. -obtempěro, r. to obey.
Tento, m. r. d. to try.
Tercbro, to bore.
Terminno, r. d. to limit.
Titŭbo, to stagger.
Tolěro, u. r. d. to bear.
Tracto, u. d. to handle.

* $\dagger$ Tripŭdio, to dance.

Triumpho, r. to triumph.
Trucīdo, r. d. to kill.
Turbo, d. to disturb.

* Văco, to be at leisure.
* Vapưlo, 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.
Viôlo, m. r. d. to violate.
Vìtio, d. to vitiate.
Vito, u. d. to shun.
Ulŭlo, to howl.
Umbro, r. to shade.
Vŏco, r. d. to call.
*Völo, to fy.
Vorro, 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. *discrěpo, -ui, or -āvi. incrěpo,-ui or -āri,-itumor-ātum. *†percrěpo,* trecrĕpo, -
*Cübo, cubui, (perf. subj. cubāris; inf. cubasse), cubitum (sup.), to recline. incŭbo, -ui or ãvi, d. Those compounds of cubo which take m before i , are of the third conjugation.
Do, dědi, dătum, m. r. d. to give.So circumdo, pessumde, satisdo, and
venumdo; the other compounds of do are of the third conjugation. See § 163, Exc. 1.
Dơmo, domui, domǐtum, r. d. to tame.
Frico, fricui, frictum or fricātum, d. to rub. confrico, 一, -ätum. So infríco. defrico, -, -ātum or-ctum.
Jŭvo, jūvi, jūtum, r. d., also juvatūrus, to help. ădjŭvo, -jūvi, -jūtum, m. r. d. also adjuvatūrus.
*Lăbo, labasse, to totter.

Lăvo, lāvi, rar. lărāvi, lavātum, lautum or lotum; (sup.) lautum or lavãtum, lavatürus, d. to wash. Lăvo is also sometimes of the third conjugation.

* Hico, micui, d. to glitter. dimico, -ā̀i or -ui, -atūrus. *emíco, -ui, -atūrus. *intermico, -. *promico, 一, d.
Néco, necāvi or necni, necătum, r. d. to kill. enëco, -āvi or -ui, -ātum, or -ctum, d. †internẽco, 一, -ātum.
*†Nexo, - to tie.
Plico, -, plicātum, to folt. duplĭco, -āvi, -âtum, r. d. multiplĭco and replico have -āvi, -ātum. *supplíco, -āvi, m. r. applico, -āvi or -ui, -ătum or -itum, -itūrus. So implĭco. -complíco, -ui, -itum or ātum. explíco, -āvi or -ui, -ātum or -ītum, -atūrus or -itūrus.
Pūto, potāvi, potātum or pōtum, r. r. m. m. d. to drink. †epüto, -āvi,-um. -*perpüto, -āvi.
Sěco, secui, sectum, secatūrus, d. to
cut.-*circumsěco, -. *intersěco, -, d. *persèco,-ui. presēco, -ui, -tum or -ătum. Su reséco, d.
*Sōno, sonui, -atūrus, d. to sound. *consŏno, -ui. So ex-, in-, per-, præ-sōno. *resöno, -āVi. *assöno, -. So circumsöno and dissöno.
*Sto, stēti, stātūrus, to stand. *antesto, -stêti. So circumsto, intersto, supersto.-Its compounds with monosyllubic prepositions have stiti; as, *consto, -stiti, -statūrus. So exsto, insto, obsto, persto. *præsto, -stiti, -stätūrus, d. *adsto or asto, -stiti, -stitūrus. *prosto, -stīti. So resto, restiti: but subj. perf. restāvěrit, Propert, 2, 34, 53. *disto, So substo and supersto.
*Tŏno, tonui, to thunder. So circumtơno. attơno, -ui, -itum. intōno, -ui, -ātum. *retōno, -
Věto, retui, rarely àvi, vetǐtum, to forbid.

Remark 1. The principal irregularity, in verbs of the first and second conjugations, consists in the omission of the comnecting vowel in the second root, and the change of the long vowels $\bar{a}$ and $\bar{e}$ in the third root into $i$. The $v$ remaining at the end of the second root, when it follows a consonant, is pronounced as $u$; as, cubo, (cubäri, by syncope cubvi), i. e. cubui; (cubätum, by change of the comnecting vowel,) cubitum. Sometimes in the first conjugation, and very frequently in the second, the connecting vowel is omitted in the third root also; as, juro, ( $\bar{a} r e$ ) jūzi, jūtum; tëneo, (ēre) tënui, 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 8 ; as, rideo, risi, risum.

Rem. 2. The verbs of the first conjugation whose perfects take a reduplication are $d o$, sto, and their compounds.

Rem. 3. The following verbs in eo are of the first conjugation, viz. beo, calceo, creo, cüneo, enucleo, illäqueo, collineo, delineo, meo, nauseo, screo; $\epsilon 0$ and its compounds are of the fourth.

## § 166. All deponent verbs, of the first conjugation, are regular,

 and are conjugated like mīror, § 161 ; as,Abominor, d. to abhor.
Adūlor, d. to flatter.
Emūlor, 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.
Averser, d. to dislike.
Bacchor, p. to revel.
Calumnior, to censure un$f^{\prime} \mathbf{a}^{2} \cdot l$ l.

Causor, to allege.
*Comissor, m. to revel.
Comitor, p. to accompany.
Conciōnor, to harangue.

* Confabūlor, m. to conrer'se together.
Cūnor, d. to endeavor.
$\dagger$ Conspicor, to see.
Contemplor, d. p. to riew attenticely.
Criminor, in. p. to complain of
Cunctor, d. p. to delay.
Deprect, m. r. d. p. to deprecate.
* $\dagger$ Diglădior, to fence.

Dignor, d. p. to deem worthy.
Dominor, p. to rule.
Epŭlor, r. d. to feast.

* Fiamŭlor, m. to wait on.

Fātur, (defect.) u. d. p. to speak. See § 183, 6.
$\dagger$ Férior, r. to keep holiday.
*Frumentor, m. to forage.
Fūror, m. to steal.
Ginvio:, r. d. to boast.
Gratūlor, m. d. to congratuiate.

Hariŏlor，to practise sooth－Modŭlor，d．p．tomodulate．＊Rustǐcor，to live in the
stiyiny．
Hortor，d．to encourage．
Imitor，u．r．d．to imitute．
Indignor，d．to distatu．
Infitior，at to deny．
Insector，to pursue．
Insidior，r．d．to lie in werit for．
Interpretor，p．to explain．
Jacullor，p．to hurl．
Jöcon，to jest．
Lætor，r．d．p．to rejoice．
Lamerter，d．p．to beworil．
＊$\dagger$ Lignor，m．to guther wood．
Luctor，d．to wrestle．
Medicor，r．d．p．to heal．
Medĭtor，p．to meditate．
Mercor，m．r．d．p．to buy．
Minor，to threaten．
Mîror，u．r．d．to admire．
Miséror，d．to pity．
Moděror，u．d．to govern．

Mŏror，r．d．to delay．
$\dagger$ lintuor，p．to borrow．
Nerōtior，r．to treffic． ＊$\dagger$ Nūgor，to trifle． Obsönor，in．to cater． Obtestor，p．to beseech． Opéror，to ucork． Opiner，u．r．d．to think． Opitŭlor，m．to help． $\dagger$ Otior，to be at leisure． Pabūlor，m．d．to graze． Pālor，to wander about． Percontor，m．to inquire． Periclitor，d．p．to try． $\dagger$ Piscor，m．to fish． Popŭlor，r．d．p．to lay waste．
Prædor，m．p．to plunder．
Prěcor，m．u．r．d．to pray．
Prelior，to fight．
Recordor，d．to recollect．
Rīmor，d．to search：
Rixor，to quarvel．

Note．Some deponents of the first conjugation are derived from nouns， and signify being or practising that which the noun denotes；as，ancilleri，to be a handmaid；heirioläri，to practise soothsaying；from ancilla and harir＇tas．

## SECOND CONJUGATION．

§ 167．Verbs of the second conjugation end in eo，and form their second and third roots in $u$ and $\check{\imath} t$ ；as，moneo，monui， monřtum．

The following list contains most of the regular verbs of this conju－ gation，and many also which want the second and third roots ：－
＊Aceo，to be sour．
＊Fgreo，－，to be sick．
＊Albeo，－，to be white．
＊Arceo，d．to drive away； part．adj．arctus or ar－ tus．The compounds change a into e ；as， coerceo，d．to restrain． exerceo，r．d．to exer－ cise．
＊Areo，to be dry．
＊Aveo，－，to coret．
＊Calleo，r．to be warm．
＊Calleo，－，to be harden－ ed．＊percalleo，to know well．
＊Calveo，－，to be bald．
＊Candeo，to be white．
＊Caneo，to be houry．
＊Careo，r．d．to want．
＊Cēveo，－，ts fawn．
＊Cläreo，一，to be bright．
＊Clueo，一，to be famous．
＊Denseo，一，to thicken．
＊Diribeo，－，to sort the voting tabiets．
＊Döleo，r．d．to grieve．
＊Egeo，r．to want．
＊Emineo，to rise above．
＊Flacceo，to droop．
＊Flāven，－，to be yellow．
＊Flöreo，to blossom．
＊Freteo，一，to be fetid．
＊Frigeo，一，to be coll．
＊Frondeo，一，to bear leaves．
Hăbeo，r．d．to have．The compounds，except post－ hăbeo，change ă into 1 ； as．ad－，ex－，pro－hĭbeo． cohibeo，d．to restrain． inhrbeo，d．to hinder．
＊$\dagger$ perhĭbeo，d．to report． $\dagger$ posthabeo，to postpone． prebeo，（for prelirb－ eo），r．d．to afford． ＊præhĭbeo，－．dēbeo， （for dehăbeo），r．d．to owe．
＊Hébeo，一，to be dull．
＊Horreo，d．to be rouijh．
＊Hāmeo，－to be muoist．
＊Jaiceo，r．to lie．
＊Lacteo，一，to suck．
＊Langueo，－，to be faint．
＊Lăteo，to he hid．
＊Lenteo，－，to be slow． ＊Liceo，to be valued．
＊Liveo，－，to be livid．
＊Máceo，－，to be lean．
＊Nadeo，to be wet．
＊Mæreo，一，to grieve．
Mĕreo，r．to deserve．
tcomměreo，to fully de－ serve．†dēměreo，d．to earn．†emerreo，toserce out one＇s time．＊iper－ mèren，－，to go through service．promèreo，to deserve．
Möneo，r．d．to adzise． almóneo，m．r．d．to re－ minul．commóneo，to iminess upon．promò－ neo，to furevarn．
＊Mñeen，－，to be mouldy．
＊Nigreo，－，to be black．
＊Niteo，to shine．
Nöceo，m．r．to hurt．
＊Oleo，to smell．
＊Palleo，to be pale．
＊Pāreo，m．r．d．to obey．
＊Pateo，to be open．
Placeo，to plealse．
＊i＇olleo，一，to be able．
＊l＇ùteo，to stink．
＊P＇utreo，to be putrid．
＊Renideo，－to glitter．
＊Rigeo，to be stiff：
＊Ríbeo，to be red．
＊Scateo，－，to gush forth．
＊S
＊Sileo，d．to be silent．
＊Sordeo，－，to be filthy．
＊Splendeo，－，to shine．
＊Squaleo，－，to be foul．
＊Strideo，－，to creak．
＊Stŭdeo，d．to study．
＊Stŭpeo，to be amazed．
＊Sueo，－，to be want． Taceo，r．d．to be s ！ent． ＊Tĕ peo，to be warr．． Terreo，d．to terrijy．So deterreo，to deter．†ab－ sterreo，to deter．†con－ terreo，†exterreo，†per－ terreo，to friylten．
＊Tirmeo，d．to jear．
＊Torpeo，一，to be stiff．
＊Tŭmeo，to swell．
＊Valico，r．to be able．
＊Vègeo，－，to arouse．
＊Vieo，－，to plait．Pa． viētus，shriveled．
＊Vigeo，to flourish．
＊Vireo，to be gręen．
＊Uveo，－，to be moist．
§ 168．The following verbs of the second conjugation are ir－ regular in their second or third roots or in both．

Note 1．As the proper form of verbs of the first conjugation is，o，àvi，àtum， of the fourth io，ini，itum，so that of the second would be eo，èvi，ètum．Very few of the latter conjugation，however，retain this form，but most of them，as noticed in $\S 165$ ，Rem．1，drop in the second root the connecting vowel， $\bar{e}$ ，and those in reo drop ré；as，cürco，（cüverri）cävi，（căvētum or căvìtum）cautum． Others，imitating the form of those verbs of the third conjugation whose gen－ eral root ends in a consonant，add $s$ to form the second and third roots．Cf． $\oint 165$, 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．

Abǒleo，－evi，－ǐtum，r．d．to efface．
＊Algeo，alsi，to be cold．
Ardeo，arsi，arsum，r．to burn．
Audeo，ausus sum，（rarelyausi，whence ansim，§ 183, R．1，）r．d．to dare．
Augeo，auxi，auctum，r．d．to increase．
Cāveo，cāvi，cautum，in．d．to beware．
Censeo，censui，censum，d．to think． recenseo，－ui，－um or－itum．＊ per－ censeo，－ni．＊succenseo，－ni，d．
Cieo，civi，citum，to excite．There is a cogncte form，cio，of the fourth comjugntion，buth of the simple rerb and of its compounils．The penult of the participles excitus and concitus is common，and that of accitus is al－ ways long．
＊Conniveo，－nivi，to winl：at．
Dēleo，－ēvi，－ētum，d．to llot out．
Diceo，docui，doctum，d．to teach．
＊Finveo，fāvi，fantūrus，to fazor．
＊Ferveo，ferbui，to buil．Sometimes ferm，vi，of the third conjugation．
Fleo，flèvi，fietum，r．d．to weep．
Föveo，fōvi，fōtum，d．to cherish．
＊Fulgeo，fulsi，to shine．Fulgo，of the third conjugation，is also in use．
Gaudeo，gavisus sum，r．to rejoice． \＄142， 2.
＊Hærco，hæsi，hæsūrus，to stick．So all－，co－，in－，ob－hæreo；but＊subhæ－ reo，一．
Indulgeo，indulsi，indultum，r．d．to in－ dulge．
Jŭbeo，jussi，jussum，r．d．to order．
＊Lūceo，luxi，to shine．pollūceo，－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．
Möveo，mivi，mütum，r．d．to move．
Muleeo，mulsi，mulsum，d．to soothe． perminceo，permulsi，permulsum and perratalctum，to rub gently．
＊IIulgeo，mulsi or mulxi，to milk． emulgeo，－，emulsum，to malk out．

Neo, nēvi, nēturn, to spin.

* ${ }^{\text {liáreo, pāvi, d. to fear. }}$
* Pendeo, pependi, to hung. *impendeo, - propendeo, -, propensum.
Pleo, (obsolete). compleo, -ēvi, -ētum, to fill. So the other compounds.
Prandeo, prandi, pramsum, r. to dine.
Rīdeo, risi, risum, m. r. d. to laugh.
*Sēdeo, sēdi, sessum, m. r. to sit. The compounds with monosyllabic prepositions change è iuto 1 I, in the first root; as, insĭleo, insédi, insessum. *dissĭdeo, -sēdi. So presĩdeo, und 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, sponsurs .o promise. Sce § 163, Rem.
*Strideo, idi, to uthiz.

Těneo, ténui, tentum, r.d. to hold. The compounds change é into I in the first and second roots; as, detineo, detinui, detentum. 米attineo, -tiluui. So pertineo.
Tergeo, tersi, tersum, to wipe. Tergo, of the thidd conjuyation, is also in use. Tondeo, tötondi, tonsum, to sherr. The compounds have the perfect tondi.
Torqueo, torsi, tortmo d. to heist.
Torreo, torni, tostum, to roast.
*Turgeo, tursi, to swell.
*Urgeo or urgueo, ursi, d. to urge.
Video, vīli, visum, m. u. r. d. to see.
Vǒveo, vōvi, vōtum, d. to row.
§ 169. Impersonal Verbs of the Second Conjugation.

Dĕcet, decuit, it becomes.
Libet, libuit or libituin est, it pleases, is agreeable.
Licet, licuit or licitum est, it is lawful, or permitted.
Liqquet, liquit, it is clear, evident.
Miscret, miseruit or miseritum est, it moves to pity; misčret me, I pity. Oportet, oportuit, it behooves.

Pĭget, piguit or pigitum est, d. it troubles, grieves.
Pœistet, pœnituit, pœnitūrus, d. it repents; pœnitet me, I regret.
Püdet, puduit or puditum est, d.; it shames; pudet me, I um ashamed.
Tædet, tæduit or teesum est, it disyusts or wearies. pertædet, pertæsum est.

Note. Lŭbet is sometimes written for libet, especially in the comic writers.

## § $\mathbf{1 7 ( 1 )}$. Deponent Verbs of the Second Conjugation.

Făteor, fassus, r. d. p. to confess. The compounds change ă into 1 in the first root, and into e in the third; as, confyteor, confessus, d. p. to acknowledge. *+diffiteor, to deny. profiteor, professus, d. p. to declare.
Liceor, licǐtus, to bid a price.

* Mĕdeor, d. to cure.

Měreor, meritus, to deserve.
Misěreor, miseritus or misertus, to pity.
Polliceor, pollicitus, p. to promise.
Reor, rătus, to think, suppose.
Tueor, tuitus, d. p. to protect.
Vèreor, 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 $c, g, q u$, 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, (reggi, i. e.), rexi, rectum; vēho, vexi, vectum ; cöquo, cuxi, coctum.

Note. Iluo and struo form their second and third roots after the analogy of verbs whe se 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; cédo, cessi; milto, misi. Cf. $\$ 56, \mathrm{I}$, Rem. 1. After $m, p$ is sometimes inserted betore $s$ and $t$; as, sūmo, sumpsi, sumptum. $R$ is changed to $s$ before $s$ and $t$ in geèro and üro.
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,

| Bibo, | Excindo, | Ico, | Mando, | Scäbo, | Solvo, | Verro, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Edo, | Füdio, | Lambo, | Prehendo, | Scando, | Strido, <br> Emo, | Fügio, | to which add the compounds of the obsolete canclo, fendo, and nuo.

(b.) Some make a change in the first ront. 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, fidi. | Frango, frẽgi. | Fundo, fūdi. |
| Jancio, jēci. | Linquo, liqui. | Rumpo, rūpi. |
| Scindo, scĭdi. | Sisto, stiti. | Vinco, vici. |

Those which have a reduplication are

| Cădo, cěcioldi. | Cædo, cěcioli. | Căno, cěcĭni. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Curro, cŭcurri. | Disco, dìdǐci. | Fallo, fèfelli. |
| Păgo, (obs.) pěpĭgi | Parco, pěperci. | Părio, pěpĕri. |
| and pegi. | Pēdo, pèpëdi. | Pello, pèpŭli. |
| Pendo, pëpendi. | Posco, pốposci. | Pungo, pŭpŭgi. |
| Tango, tětìgi. | Tendo, tētendi. | Tundo, tǔtūdi. |

Exc. 2. Some, after the analogy of the second conjugation, add $u$ to the first root of the verb; as,

| Alo, | Consŭlo, | Gě | Răpio, | Trěmo, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Cólo, | Depso, | Gēno, (obs.) | Strēpo, | Völo, |
| Compesco, | Frêmo, | Môlo, | Texo, | Vŏmo. |

Mĕto, messui; and pono, pösui; 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:-


Exc. 4. The following add $v$, with a change in the root; those in $n o$ and sco dropping $n$ and sc, and those having er before $n$ changing it to $r \bar{e}$ or $r \bar{a}:-$
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { Cresco, } & \text { Pasco, } & \begin{array}{l}\text { Scisco, } \\ \text { Nosco, }\end{array} & \text { Quiesco, } & \begin{array}{l}\text { Sperno, } \\ \text { Cerno, }\end{array}\end{array} \begin{aligned} & \text { Linno, } \\ & \text { Sterno, }\end{aligned} \quad \begin{gathered}\text { Singo, } \\ \text { Sino }\end{gathered}$
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; défendo, dlēfensum; cēdo, cessum; flecto, flexum; figo, fixum. But the compounds of Io add it ; as, perdo, perd̃tum.
(b.) The following, also, add $s$, with a change of the root:-

$$
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { Excello, } & \text { Fallo, } & \text { Pello, } & \text { Spargo, } & \text { Verro. } \\
\text { Percello, } & \text { Mergo, } & \text { Prěmo, } & \text { Vello, } &
\end{array}
$$

Exc. 6. The following add $t$, with a change of the root; those having $n, n c, n g, n q u$, or $m p$ at the end of the first root dropping $n$ and $m$ in the third :-
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, nōvi, nōtun; except pasco, which drops $c$ only.
Exc. 7. (a.) The following have $\mathfrak{u t}$ :-
 Gëno, (obs. form of gigno,) Vömo, Sino, dropping n.
(b.) The following, like verbs of the fourth conjugation, add it to the first root:-

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { Arcesso, } & \begin{array}{l}
\text { Cŭpio, }
\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}
\text { Pěto, },
\end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c}
\text { Tĕro, dropping } \\
\text { Făceso, }
\end{array} \\
\text { Lãcesso, } & \text { Quæro, with a change of } \mathrm{r} \text { into } \mathrm{s} .
\end{array}
$$

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 circumăgo, cōgo, and pěrăgo. *ambĭgo, 一, to doubt. So şatăgo. The other compounds change ă into 1 , in the first root; as, exigo, exēgi, exactum, to drive out. *prōdīgo, -ēgi, to squander. See § 189, 2.
Alo, ălui, altum, and later ălitum, d. to nourish.

* Ango, anxi, to strangle.

Arguo, argui, argūtum, d. to convict.
Arcesso, -cessivi, -cessitum, r. d. to call for. Pass. inf. arcessīri or arcessi.
*Bătuo, bătui, d. to beat.
Bibo, bibi, bibitum, d. to drink.

* Cädo, cêcīdi, cāsūrus, to full. The compounds change $\check{l}$ into y , in the first root, and drop the reduplication; as,
- occìdo, -cíli, ccāsum, r. to set.

Cado, cécīli, cæsum, r. d. to cut. The compounds chanye æ into $\overline{\mathrm{j}}$, and drop the reduplicution ; as, occīdo, -cīdi, -cisimm.
Cando, (olsolete,) synonymous with candeo of the second comjuyation. Hence aecendo, -cendi,-censum, d. to kindle. So incsindo, succendo.
*Cáno, ceèclni, d. to sing. The compounds change ă into I; as, * concino,
-cǐnui. So occino, præcĭno. *accino, -. So incino, intercino, succino, recĭno.

* Capesso, -ivi, r. d. to undertake.

Căpio, cēpi, captum, r. d. to take. So antécăpio. The other compounds change $\check{a}$ into 1 , in the first root, and into e in the third; as, dēcipio, dēcēpi, dēceptum.
Carpo, carpsi, carptum, d. to pluck. The compounds change a into e ; as, dēcerpo, dēcerpsi, dēcerptum.
Cēdo, cessi, cessum, r. to yield.
Cello, (obsolete.) excello, -cellui, -celsum, to excel. *antěcello, - So precello, récello. percello, -cŭli, -culsum, to strike.
Cerno, crēvi, crētum, d. to decree.
*Cerno, - , to see.
Cingo, cinxi, cinctum, d. to gird.
*Clango, -, to cling.
Claudo, clausi, clausim, r. d. to shut.
The compounds change au into $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$; as,

- occlūdo, occlūsi, occlūsum, to shut $u p$.
* $\dagger$ Claudo, -, to limp.
* $\dagger \mathrm{Clëpo}$, clepsi, rurely clēpi, to steat.

Cơlo, cǒlui, cultum, d. to till. taccũlo, -cūlui, -cultmm, l. to hide.
Cömo, compsi, comptum, therk.

* Compesco, -pescui, w restruit.

Consŭlo, -sǔlui, -sultum, m. r. d. to consult.
Cinque, coxi, coctum, m. d. to cook.
Creilo, crédidi, creditum, r. d. to beliere.
*Cresco, crēvi, to grow. concresco, -crèri, -crētum.
Cübo is of the first conjugation. Cf. § 165. *accumbo,-cūbui, to lie down. So the other compounds which insert m.

* Cūdo, -, to fírge. excūdo, -cūdi, -cūsum, d. to stump.
Cŭpio, cŭpīvi, cūpitum, d. to desire. Sulj. imperf. cŭpīret. Lucr. 1, 72.
*Curro, cǔcurri, cursūrus, to run. concurro, succurro, and transcurro, diop the reduplication; the other compounds sometimes drop, and sometimes retain it ; as, dēcurro, dēcurri, and dēcŭcurri, dēcursum. *antěcurro, - So circumeurro.
* Dēgo, dēgi, d. to live.

Dēmo, dempsi, demptum, r. d. to take away.
$\dagger$ Depso, depsui, depstum; to knead.
Dico, dixi, dictum, u. r. d. to say.

* Disco, dìdicici, discitūrus, d. to learn.
* Dispesco, -, to separate.

Divido, divisi, divisum, r. d. to divide.
Do is of the first compayation. abdo, -didi, -ditum, d. to hiile. So condo, indo. addo, -dǐdi, -ditum, r. d. to addl. So dèdo, èdo, prōdo, realdo, trādo, vendo. †tī̀lo, -dīdi, -dìtum, torlistribute. So abdo, subdo. perdo, -didi, -ditum, in. r. d. abscondo, -di or -didi, -ditum or -sum.
Dūco, duxi, ductum, m. r. d. to lead.
Etio, êdi, èsum, m. u. r. d. to eat.
Exio, exui, exūtum, d. to strip off.
Emo, èmi, emptum, r. d. to buy. So coēmo. The other compounds change è to ì; as, eximo, eèmi, -emptum.
Făcesso, -cessi, -cessitum, to execute.
Făcio, fēci, factum, m. u. r. d. to do. Compounded with a preposition, it changes a into 1 in the first root, and into e in the thirl, makits -fice in the imperatice, and has a regular passice. Cmpounded with other words, it retains a when of this comjugntion, makes fac in the imperatice, anilhas the passire, 1 i r , factum. Ste § 180 .
Fallo, fifelli, falsum, il. to deceive. * réfello, -felli, d. to refute.

Fendo, (wbstete.) derendo, -feadn, fensmin, in. u. r. d. to defitui. offendo, -fendi, -fensum, d. woffond.
Fęro, tūli, lātum, r. d. to bear. See \$179. A perfect têtüli is rare. Its compousds ave affëro, attŭli, allătun;
auferro, abstǔli, ablātcin: differro, distŭli, dilătum; confêro, contŭli, collātum; inféro, intŭli, illătum; otľero, obtŭli, oblātum; effero, extūli, elātum ; suffçro, sustŭli, sublātun; and circum-, per-, trins-, dē-, prī, antẹ-, præt èro, -tūli, -lātum.
*Fervo, vi, to boil. Cf. ferveo, $2 l$ comj.
Fìdo, -, físus, to trust. See § $162,18$. confido, confīns sum or confidi, to rely on. difiìdo, diftilus 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. affigo, -flixi, -flictum, to affict. So infligo. profligo is of the first conjugation.
Fluo, fluxi, fluxum, (luctum, obs.) r. to flow.
Fŏdio, fōdi, fossum, d. to dig. Old pres. inf. pass. fôdīri: so also effödïri.
Frango, frēgi, fractum, r. d. to break The compounds change a into i , in the first root; as, infringo, infrêgi, infractum, to break in upon.
* Frèmo, frèmui, d. to roar, howl.

Frendo,-, frēsum or fressum, to gnash.
Frigo, frixi, frictum, varely frixum, $\omega$ ronst.
*F

* Fulgo, - to flash.

Fundo, fūdi, fūsum, r. d. to pour.
*Füro, 一, to rage.
*Gèmo, gèmui, d. to aroan.
Gëro, gessi, gestum, r. d. to bear.
Gigno, (absulcte gěno,) gěnui, gēnıtum, r. d. to beget.
*Glisco, -, to grono.
*Glūbo, - to peel. deglūbo, -, -gluptum.
Gruo, (obsolete.) *congruo, -grui, to agree. So ingruo.
Ico, ici, ictum, r. to strike.
lmbuo, imbui, imbūtum, d. to imbue.
*Incesso, -cessivi or -cessi, to attack.
$\dagger$ Induo, indui, indūtum, to put on.
Jăcio, jēci, jactum, d. to cust. The comprumbls chanye an into 1 in the first root, and into e in the third. (\$ 163 , Exc. 3); as, rejìcio, rejēci, rejectum.
Jungo, junxi, jnactum, r. d. to jein.
Lücerso, -cessivi,-cessitum, r. d. to pro moke.
Laicio, (ntsolete.) The compounds change ă intur ; as, allício, -lexi, -lectum, d. to allure. So illicio, pellicio. elicio, -Licui, -Licitum, to diaw out.

Lædo, læsi, læsum, m. r. to hurt. The componmels change æ into $\overline{\mathrm{I}}$; as, illīdo, illisi, illismun, to dash against.
*Lambo, lambi, to lick.
Lègo, légi, lectum, r. d. to read. So allêgo, perlègo, prelĕgo, relĕgo, sublĕgo, and tramsligo; the other compounds chunge è intu I; as, colligo, collēgi, collectum, to collect. But the following add s to form the second root ; § 171,1 ; diligo, -lexi, -lectum, to love. intelligo, -lexi, -lectum, u. r. d. to understand. negliggo, -lexi, -lectum, r. d. to neglect.
I.ingo, - linctum, d. to lick. *delingo, -, to lick up.
Lino, Iivi or lēvi, litum, d. to daub.
*Linquo, līqui, d. to leave. relinquo, -liqui, -lictum, r. d. delinquo, -liqui, -lictum. So derelinquo.
Lūdo, lūsi, lūsum, m. r. to play.
*Lno, lui, luitūrus, d. to atone. abluo, -lui, -lūtum, r. d. diluo, -lui, -lūtum, d. So eluo.
Mando, mandi, mansum, d. to chew.
Mergo, mersi, mersum, r. d. to dip. So immergo; but pres. inf. pass. immergēri, Col. 5, 9, 3.
Mĕto, messui, messum, d. to reap.
Mětuo, metui, metūtum, d. to fear.
*Mingo, minxi, mictum, (sup.) to make water:
Minuo, mǐnui, minnūtum, d. to lessen.
Mitto, misi, missum, r. d. to send.
Mölo, mǒlui, mölítum, 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, nōvi, nōtum, d. to learn. agnosco, -nôvi, -nǐtum, d. to recognize. cognosco, -nōvi, -nytum, u. r. d. to know. So recognosco. *internosco, nōvi, to distinguish between. præcognosco, -, precognitum, to fore-know. *dignosco, -. So prænosco. ignosco, -nōvi, -nōtum, d. to pardon.
Nūbo, nupsi, or nupta sum, nuptum, m. r. to marry.

Nuo, (obsolete, ) to nod. *abnuo, -nui, -nnitūrus, d. to refuse. *annuo, -nui.

- So innuo, renuo.
*Olo, ollui, to smell.
Pando, -, passum or pansum, to open. So expando. dispando, -, -pansum.
Pago, (obs. the same as paco uchence păciscor,) pèpĭgi, pactum, to bargain: hence
Pango, panxi or pēgi, pactum, panctū-
rus, d. to drive in. compingo, -pēgi, -pactum. So impingo. *oppango, -pēgi. *depango, 一. So repango, suppingo.
* Parco, peperci rarely parsi, parsūrns, to spare. Some of the compnands chunge a to e ; as, *eomparcoor comperco. *imperes, -
Pario, pēpèri, pirtum, păritūrus, d. to bring forth. The cempoumls are of the jourth conjugation.
Pasco, pāvi, pastum, m. r. d. to feed.
Pecto,-, pexum, and pectitum, d. to comb. So depecto. repecto.
*Pédo, pĕpédi. *oppèdo,-
Pello, pẹ̆puli, pulsum, d. to drive. Its compounds are not reduplicated.
Pendo, pĕpendi, pensum, r. to weigh. The compounds drop the reduplication. See § 163, Exc. 1.
Pěto, pětīvi, pětìtum, m. u.r. d. to ask.
Pingo, pinxi, pictum, to paint.
Pinso, pinsi, pinsitum, pinsum or pistum, to pound.
*Plango, planxi, planctūrus, to lament.
Plando, plausi, plausum, d. to clup, applaud. So applaudo. *+circumplaudo, - The other compounds change au into $\bar{o}$.
Plecto, -, plexum, d. to twine.
*Pluo, plui or plūvi, to rain.
Pōno, pösui, (anciently posivi), pǒsítum, r. d. to place.
*     + Porricio, -, to offer sacrifice.
* Posco, póposci, d. to demand.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Prehendo, } \\ \text { Prendo, }\end{array}\right\}-$ di, -sum, r. d. to seize.
Prěmo, pressi, pressum, r. d. to press. The compounds change ě into $\check{1}$, in the first root; as, imprimo, impressi, impressum, to impress.
Prōmo, prompsi, promptum, r. d. to bring out.
*Psallo, psalli, to play on a stringed instrument.
Pungo, pŭpŭgi, punctum, to prick. compungo, -punxi, -punctum. So dispungo, expungo. interpungo, - , -punctum. *repungo, -.
Quæro, quæsīvi, quæsītum, m. r. d. to seek. The compounds change $\mathfrak{x}$ into í; as, requīro, requisīvi, requisītum, to seek ayain.
Quătio, -, quassum, to shake. The compounds change quă into cŭ; as, concŭtio, -cussi, -cussum, d. discŭtio, -cussi, -cussum, r. d.
Quiesco, quiēvi, quiētum, r. d. to rest. Rādo, rāsi, rāsum, d. to shave.
Răpio, răpui, reptum, r. d. to snatch. The compouncs change ă into 1 in the
first and second roots, and into e in the third; as, diripio, -ripui, -reptum, m . r. So eripio and preripio.
Règu, rexi, rectum, r. d. to rule. The compounds chernge è into I, in the forst rant ; as, dirigo, direxi, directum. * perco, (for perrigo), perrexi, r. to go forveird. surgo (for surrigo), surrexi, surrectum, r. d. to rise. So porrigo (fur prorigo), to stretch out.
* Ricpo, repsi, th crexp.

Rūdo, rōi, rōsum, r. to gnmo. ab-, ar-, $\mathrm{e}-$, ob-, pree-rido, want the perfect.

* Rũdo, rudivi, to bray.

Rumpo, rūpi, ruptum, r. d. to break.
Ruo, rui, rŭtum, ruitūrus, to fall. dïruo, -rui, -rŭtum, d. So obruo.
*corruo, -rui. So irruo.
*Sipio, sapivi, to be wise. The comprounds change à into í ; as, *resípio, -sipīvi or -sipui. *desipio, 一, to be silly.

* $\dagger$ Scãlo, scābi, to scratch.

Scalpo, scalpsi, scalptum, to engrave.
Salo or sallo, - salsum, to salt.

* Scando,--, d. to climb. The compounds chenge a into e; as, ascendo, ascendi, ascensum, r. d. descendo, descendi, (anciently descendidi,) descensum.
Scindo, scìli, (unciently sciscǐdi), scissum, d. to cut.
Scisco, scivi, scitum, d. to ordain.
Sciībo, scripsi, scriptum, r. d. to write.
Sculpo, sculpsi, sculptum, d. to carve.
Sēro, sēvi, sātum, r. d. to sow. consěro, -sēvi, -situm. So insēro, r., and obsèro.
Sěro, -, sertum, to entwine. Its compounulshave -sęrui; $a s$, assěro, -sěrui, -sertum, r. d.
* Serpo, serpsi, to creep.
* Side, sidi, to settle. Its compounds have generally sēdi, sessum, from sedco.
* Sino, sivi, sitūrus, to permit. desino, desivi, desitum, r. § 284, R. 3, Exc. 2.
Sisto, stiti, statum, to stop. *absisto, -stiti. So the other compoumls; but circumsisto wounts the perfect.
Solvo, solvi, sölūtum, r. d. to loose.
Sparco, sparsi, sparsum, r. d. to spread. The compounds change a into e : as, respergo, -spersi, -spersum; but with circum and in, a sometiones reanains.
Spécio, (obsolete.) The comporauds change è into 1, in the first root; as, aspicio, aspexi, aspectum, d. to bok at. inspicio, inspexi, inspectum. r. d.

Sperno, sprl vi, sprētum, d. to dtspise.

* $\dagger$ Spuo, spi i, to spit. *respuo, respui, d.

Stătuo, stătuj, stătūtum, d. to place. The compounds chunge a into 1 ; as, instituo, institui, institūtum, to institute.
Stemo, strā̀i, strātum, d. to strew.
*Stermuc, sternui, to sneeze.
*Sterto, - to snore. *†desterto, dostertui.
*Stingun, 一, to extinguish. distinguo, distinxi, distinctum. So exstinguo, r. d.
*Strēpo, strépui, to make a noise.
*Strido, strīdi, to creak:
Stringo, strinxi, strictum, r. d. to bind or tie tight.
Strun, struxi, structum, d. to build.
Sūgo, suxi, suctum, to suck.
Sūmo, sumpsi, sumptum, r. d. to take.
Suo, -, sūtum, d. to sew. So consuo, dissuo. insuo, -sui, sūtum. *assuo, -.
Tago, (very rare), to touch. Hence
Tango, tètigi, tactum, r. d. to touch. The compnonds change a into i in the first root, and drep the reduplication; as, contingo, contigi, contactum, r .
Tégo, texi, tectum, r. l. to corer.
*Temno, -, d. to despise. contemno, -tempsi, -temptum, d.
Tendo, tětendi, 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.

* $\dagger$ Tergo, tersi, tersum, to wipe. Tergeo, of the second conjugation has the same second and third roots.
Tèro, trivi, trïtum, d. to rub.
Texo, texni, textum, d. to weave.
Tingo or tinguo, tinxi, tinctum, r. d. to moisten, tinye.
*Tollo, anciently tětŭli, rarely tolli, d. to ruise. The perfect and supine sustūli and sublătum from suffëro 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.
*'Trèmo, trèmui, d. to tremble.
Tribuo, tribui, tribūtum, r. d. to ascribe.
Trūdo, trūsi, trūsum, to thrust.
Tundo, tūtūdi, tunsum or tinsum, to bent. The compounds drop the reduplication, and hare tūsum. Iet contunsum, detunsum, obtunsum, and retunsum, are also found.
Ungo, (or -guo), unxi, unctum, d. to anoint.

Uro，ussi，ustum，d．to burn．
＊Vàdo，一，to go．So supervādo．The other compounds have vāsi；us，＊evā－ do，evāsi，r．So pervādo；also invā－ do，r．d．
Vèlıo，vexi，vectum，r．to carry．
Vello，velli or vulsi，vulsum，d．to pluck． So avello，d．，divello，evello，d．，re－ vello，revelli，revulsum．The other compounds have velli only，except in－ tervello，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．
＊Viso，－，d．to risit．
＊Viro，vixi，victūrus，d．to live．
＊Völo，vǒlui，velle（for vŏlēre），to be willing．See § 178.
Volvo，volvi，včlūtum，d．to roll．
Vŏmo，vŏmui，vŏmìtum，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，căpio，cüpio，fücio，fódio，fügio， jücio，părio，quătio，rựpio，sŭpio，compounds of lŭcio and spěcio，and grădior，mō－ lior，pátior，and morrior：but compare morrior in § 174，and orior，and pótior in § 177 ．

## Inceptive Verbs．

§ 178．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．
＊Egresco，to grow sick．
＊Albesco，一，s．to grow white．
＊Alesco，－，s．to grovo．coalesco，－alui， －alitum，to grow together．
＊Ardesco，arsi，s．to take fire．
＊Aresco，－，s．to grow diy．＊exares－ co，－arui．So inaresco，peraresco．
＊Augesco，auxi，s．to increase．
＊Cälesco，călui，s．to grow warm．
＊Calvesco，－，s．to become bald．
＊Candesco，candui，s．to gronv white．
＊Cānesco，cānui，s．to become hoary．
＊Ciāresco，clārui，s．to become bright．
＊Condormisco，－dormivi，＇s．to go to sleqp．
＊Contǐcesco，－tǐcui，to become silent．
＊Crebresco，crēbui and crebrui，to in－ crease．
＊Crūdesco，crūdui，to become violent．
＊Dītesco，一，to grow rich．
＊Dulcesco，－，to grow sweet．
＊Düresco，dürui，to grow hard．
＊Evilesco，evilui，to become worthless．
＊Extīmesco，－timui，to fear greatly．
＊Fátisco，一，to gape．
＊Flaccesco，flaccui，s．to wilt．
＊Fervesco，ferbui，s．to grow hot．
＊Floresco，flörui，s．to begin to flourish．
＊Frăcesco，frăcui，to grow rancid．
＊Frígesco，－，s．．to grewo coid．＊per－ frigesco，－frixi．So refirgesoo．
＊Frondesco，－，s．to put forth leaves．
＊Frŭticesco，一，to put forth shoots．
＊Gĕlasco，－，s．to freeeze．So＊congě－ lasco，s．to conyeal．
＊Gèmisco，－，s．to begin tc sigh．
＊Gemmasco，－，to begin to bud．
＊Gènerrasco，－，s．to be produced．
＊Grandesco，－，to grow large．
＊Grăvesco，－，to grow heavy．
＊Hæresco，一，s to adhere．
＊Hëbesco，－，s．u grow dull．
＊Horresco，horrui，s．to grow rough．
＊Hūmesco，－，s．to grovo moist．
＊Ignesco，－，to become inflamed．
＊Indölesco，－dolluı，d．to be grieved．
＊Insölesco，一，to berome haughty．
＊Intĕgrasco，－－－to be renewed．
＊Jŭvěnesco，一，to gronv young．
＊Langnesco，langui，s．to grov languid．
＊Laipidesco，－，to become stone．
＊Lātesco，－，to grovo broad．
＊Latesco，to he concealed．s．＊delitesco， －litui；＊oblitesco，－litui．
＊Lentesco，－，to become soft．
＊Liquesco，－，s．to become liquid． ＊dèīquesco，－licuj．
＊Lūcesco，－s．to grow light，to dawn．
＊Lătesco，－，s．to become mudly．
＊Macesco，－，s．$\}$ to grow lean．
＊remacresco，－macrui．
＊Mădesco，mà alui，s．wo growo moist．
＊Marcesco，－，s．to pine away．
＊Mātūresco，mätürui，to ripen．
＊Misèresco，misèrui，s．to pity．
＊Mitesco，－，to grono mill．
＊Mollesco，一，to gron suft．
＊Mūtesco，－，to become dumb．＊ob－ mūtesco，obmūtui．
＊Nigresco，nigrui，s．to grow black．
＊Nitesco，nitui，s．to grono bright．
＊Nītesco，nūtui，to become known．
＊Obbrūtesco，－，to become brutish．
＊Obdormisco，一，s．to fall asleep．
＊Obsurdesco，－surdui，to grow deaf．
＊Occallesco，－callui，to become callous．
＊Olesco，（scarcely used．）＊ăbŏlesco， －ölèvi，s．to ceuse．ădölesco，－ǒlēvi， －ultum，s．to grono up．exülesco， －ulēvi，－őlētum，to grow out of date． So obsŏlesco．in nưlesco，－ŏlēvi，－ǒli－ tum，d．to grono in or on．
＊Pallesco，pallui，s．to growo pale．
＊Paitesco，patui，s．to be opened．
＊Pivesco，pāvi，s．to grow fearful．
＊Pertimesco，－tìmui，d．to fear greatly．
＊Pinguesco，－to grow fat．
＊P＇ùhesco，－，to come to maturity．
＊Puérasco，－，to become a boy．
＊Pūtesco，一，s．$\}$ Putresco，－s．to become putrid．
＊Rarresco，－，to become thin．
＊Rèsípisco，－sipui，s．to recover one＇s senses．
＊Rigesco，rigui，s．to grow cold．
＊Rübesco，rŭbui，s．to growo red．＊ērŭ－ besco，－rŭbui，d．
＊Sānesco，－，to become sound．＊con－ sänesco，－sãnui．
＊Sënesco，sẽnui，s．d．to grow old．So consènesco．
＊Sentisco，－，s．to perceire．
＊Siccesco，－，to become dry．
＊Sĩesco，sllui，s．to grow silent．
＊Sölĭdesco，一，to become solid．
＊Sordesco，sordui，s．to become filthy．
＊Splendesco，splendui，s．to become bright．
＊Spümesco，一，to begin to foam．
＊Stërilesco，－，to become barren．
＊Stŭpesco，stŭpui，s．to become aiston ished．
Suesco，suēvi，suētum，s．to become ac－ customed．
＊Tābesico，tābui，s．to waste away．
＊Tèněresco and－asco，－，to become tender．
＊Tépesco，tĕpui，s．to groo warm．
＊＇Torpesco，torpui，s．to grow torpid．
＊Trèmisco，－，s．to begin to tremble．
＊Tŭınesco，tŭmui，s．\} to begin to swell.
＊Uvesco，－，to become moist．
＊Vălesco，－，s．to become strong．
＊Vānesco，一，to vanish．＊ēvānesco， ērānui．
＊Větěrasco，větěrāvi，to grovo old．
＊VIresco，virui，s．to grow green．
＊Vivesco，vixi，s．to come to life．＊rě－ vivisco，－vixi．

## § 174．Deponent Verbs of the Third Conjugation．

Apiscor，aptus，to get．The compounds change à into in the first root，and into e in the third；as，ădǐpiscor， adeptus．So indipiscor．
Expergiscor，experrectus，to awake．
＊Fatiscor，to gape or crack open．The compounds change ă into è；as，dēfĕ－ ti－cor，－fessus．
Fruor，fruitus or fructus，fruǐtūrus，d． to enjoy．
Fungor，functus，r．d．to perform．
Gridior，gressus，to walk．The com－ pounds change ă into ě；as，aggrědior， aggressus，r．d．Inf．pres．aggrēdi and aggrèdiri；so，progrelid and progré－ dirt＇；and pres．inel．egrèditur，Plaut．
＊Irascor．to be angry．
Lābor，lapsus，r．to jolll．
＊Liquor，to mell，fow．
Löquer，löcūtus，r．d．to speak．
Miniscor，（obsolete．）comminiscor，com－ mentus，p．to invent．＊rěminiscor， to reme mber．

Mŏrior，（mŏri，rarely mŏrīri，）mortuas， mörǐtūrus，d．todie．So ēmōrīri，Plaut． for emöri．
Nanciscor，nactus or nanctus to obtain． Nascor，nātus，nascitūrus，u．to be born． Nītor，nixus or nīsus，nissūrus，to lean upon．
Obliviscor，oblītus，d．p．to forget．
Paiciscor，pactus，d．to bargain．So dépăciscor．
Pătior，passus，r．d．to suffer．perpĕtior， －pessus．
From plecto，to twine，come，amplec－ tor，amplexus，d．p．complector，com－ plexus，p．So circumplector．
Pröficiscor，pröfectus，r．to depart．
Quèror，questus，m．u．d．to complain．
＊Ringor，to snarl．
Séquor，sē cūtus，r．d．to follow．
Tuor，tūtus，to protect．
＊Vescor，d．to eat．
Uleiscor，ultus，m．d．p．to avenge．
Utor，ūsus，r．d．to use．

Note．Dēvertor，prcevertor，rëvertor，compounds of verto，are used as depo－ nents in the present and imperfect tenses；rëvertor also，sometimes，in the perfect．

## FOURTH CONJUGATION．

§ 175．Verbs of the fourth conjugation regularly form their second root in $i v$ ，and their third in $i t$ ；as，audio，audivi，au－ ditum．

The following list contains most regular verbs of this conjuga－ tion：－

Audio，－ivi or－ii，m．u．r．d．to hear． ＊Cio，cīvi，to excite．Ct．cieo，§ 168. Condio，－ivi or－ii，to season． Custödio，－īvi or－ii，d．to guard： ＊LDormio，－ivi or－ii，m．r．d．to sleep． Erüdio，－ivi or－ii，d．to instruct． Expèdio，－ivi or－ii，d．to disentangle． Fīnio，Aivi or－ii，r．d．to finish． ＊Gestio，－İvi or－ii，to exult ；desire． Impědio，－ivi or－ii，r．d．to entangle． Insānio，－ivi or－ii，to be mad． Irrētio，－ivi or ii，to ensnare．
Lēnio，－ivi or ii，d．to mitigate．
Mollio，－ivi or－ii，d．to soflen．
＊Mūgio，－īvi or－ii，to bellow．
Mūnio，－īvi or－ii，r．d．to fortify．
Mūtio，－īvi，to mutter．
Nūtrio，－ivi or－ii，d．to nourish．
Partio，－ivi or－ii，r．to dicide．
Pölio，－īvi，d．to polish．
P＇ūnio，－jvi or－ii，d．to punish．
Rēdímio，－ivi，to crown．
Scio，－īvi，u．r．to know．
Servio，－ivi or－ii，m．r．d．to serve．
Sōpio，－ivi or－ii，to lull asleep．
Stăbilio，－ivi or－ii，to establish．
Timnio，－ivi or－ii，r．to tinkle．
Vestio，－ivi or－ii，to clothe．
§176．The following list contains those verbs of the fourth con－ jugation 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，sēpio，sepsi，septum．A few become irregular by syncope；as，vënio，vēni，ventum．

Amicio，－ui or－xi，amictum，d．to clothe． ＊Balbütio，一，to stammer．
Bullio，ii，Itum，to bubble．
＊Cæcи̃tio，一，to be dim－sighted．
＊Cambio，－，to exchange．
＊Dementio，－to be mad．
Eff ūtio，－to babble．
Eo，ivi or ii，ǐtum，r．d．to go．The compounds have only ii in the perfect， except ŏbeo，præeo，and sŭbeo，which have ivi or ii．All the compounds want the supine and perfect participles， except ădeo，ambio，inneo，öbeo，pre－ tẽreo，săbeo，circŭmeo or circueo， rědeo，transeo，anl＊$\dagger$ vēneo，vēnii， r．（from vēnum eo），to be sold．
Farcio，farsi，fiutum or farctum，to cram．The compounds generally change a to e；as，rèfercio，－fersi， －fertum，but con－and ef－，－farcio and －fereio．
Fastidio，－ii，－itum，d．to loathe．
＊Fèrio，－，d．to strike．
＊Fĕrōcio，－，to be fierce．
Fulcio，fulsi，fultum，d．to prop up．
＊Gannio，－，to yelp，bark．
＊Glöcio，－to cluck as a hen．
＊Glūtio，īvi，or glūtii，to swallow．
Grandio，－，to make great．
＊Grunnio，grunnii，to grunt．
Haurio，hausi，rar．haurii，haustum， $r a r$ ．hausĩtum，haustūrus，hausūrus， u．d．to draw．
＊Hinnio，一，to neigh．
＊Ineptio，－，to trifle．
＊Lascīvio，lascīvii，to be wanton．
＊Ligūrio，ligūrii；to feed delicately．
＊Lippio，－，r．to be blear－eyed．
＊Obēdio，obēdii，r．to obry．
Parrio is of the third conjuyation，but its compounds are of the finuth，changing ă to è；as，àpèrio，ăpèrui，ăpertum， r．d．to open．So ópèrio，d．compèrio， compēri，compertum，rarely dep． compèrior，to find out．So rêpěrị̣， r．d．

Păvio, —, păvitum, to beat.
*l'ürio, -, to itch.
Queo, quivi or quii, quitum, to be able. So *nèqueo.
*Raucio, -, r. to be hoarse.

* Rügio, - to rear as a lion.

S:evio, sævii, itum, r. to rage.

* Sàgio, -, to perceire keenly.
* Salio, salui or sălii, to leap. The compounds change à into 1 ; as, *absi-lio,- So circumsilio. *assilio, -ui. So dissilio, insilio. *dēsılio, -ui or -ii. So exsillio, rěsilio, subsilio. *transilio, -ui or-īvi, d. So prōsilio.
Sălio, 一, ītum, r. d. to salt.
Sancio, sanxi, sancitum or sanctum, d. to ratify, sanction.

Sarcio, sarsi, sartum, d. to patch.
Sarrio, -ivi or -ui, sarritum, d. to weed, hoe.
*Scätūrio, -, to gush out.
Sentio, sensi, sensum, r. to feel.
Sēpèlio, sépèlīvi or-ii, rar. sépěli, sěpultum, r. d. to bury.
Sēpio, sepsi, septum, d. to hedge in.

* Singultio, -, to sul, hiccup.
*Sitio, sitii, to thirst.
Suffio, -ii, -itum, d. to fumigate.
*Tussio, -, to cough.
* Vágio, rägii, to cry.

Vènio, véni, ventum, r. to come.
Vincio, vinxi, vinctum, r. d. to bind.

Note. Desiderative verbs want both the second and third roots, except these three; - *ésürio, -, ésüritus, r. to desire to eat; *nuptürio, -ivi, to desire to marry ; *parlürio, -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 flotter.
Largior, largitus, p. to give, bestovo.
Mentior, mentitus, r. p. to lie.
Métior, mensus or métītus, d. p. to measure.
Mülior, mülistus, d. to strive, toil.
Ordior, orsus, d. p. to begin.
Orior, ortus, óritūrus, d. to spring up. Except in the present infinitive, this verb seems to be of the third conjuga

Pěrior, (obs. whence pĕrituf.) expèrior, expertus, r. d. to try. oppĕrior, oppertus or oppèritus, d. to wait for:
Partior, partitus, d. to divide.
Pōtior, pōtitus, r. d. to oltain, 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, vŏlo, fĕro, ědo, fīo, 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 onle, 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 $\dot{e}$ was dropped, $r$ following $l$ was changed into $l$; as, velëre (velre) velle; veľ̌rein (velrem) cellem.
$\begin{array}{ccc}\text { Pres. Indic. } & \text { Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic. } \\ \text { vǒ'-lō, } & \text { vel'-lĕ, } & \text { voll'-u-ī, to be willing, to wish. }\end{array}$
indicative.

Pres. S. vŏ-lŏ̃, vīs, vult; $P$. voll'-ŭ-mŭs, vul'-tǐs, vŏ'-lunt. Imperf. vŏ-lè'-bam, vŏ-lē'-bās, etc.
Fut. vŏ'lam, vờ-lēs, etc.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. S. vě'-lim, vě-lis, vě'-litt;
$P$. vè-lì -mŭs, vè-li' -tiss, vè́-lint.
Perf. vol'-u-i.
Plup. vŏ-lu'ĕ-ram. Fut. perf. vŏ-lu'-è-rơ.
Imprf. S. vel'-lem, vel'-les, vel'-lĕt; Plup. vǒl-u-is'-sem. Imperf. S. vel'-lem, vel'-lēs, vel'-lĕt; $P$. vel-lē'-mŭs, vel-lē'-tis, vel'-lent.
infinitive.
Pres. vel'-lě. •
Perf. vǒl-u-is'sě.

PARTICIPLE.
Pres. vŏ'lens.

Note. Volt and voltis, for vult and vultis, and vin', for visne are found in Plantus and other ancient authors.
2. Nōlo is compounded of the obsolete $n \bar{e}$ (for non) and vŏlo. The $v$ of vövo after $n \bar{e}$ is dropped, and the vowels ( $\bar{e} \breve{o}$ ) are contracted into $\overline{0}$.

| Pres. Indic nō'-lờ, | Pres. Infin. nol'-lĕ, | Perf. Indic. nōl'-u-ī, |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

indicative.


$P^{\prime}$. nō-li'-mŭs, nō-li' ${ }^{\prime}$ tis, nṑ'lint. Plup. nōl-u-is'sem.
Imperf. S. nol'-lem, nol'-lēs, nol'-lĕt;
$P$. nol-lē'-mŭs, nol-lee'-tǐs, nol'-lent.
IMPERATIVE.
Present.
Perf. nōl'-u-i.
Plup. nō-lu'-ĕ-ram. Fut. perf. nō-lu'-è-rō.
3. Mālo is compounded of măgis and vŏlo. In composition măgis drops its final syllable, and volo its $v$. The vowels ( $\breve{a} \breve{o}$ ) are then contracted into $\bar{a}$.

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text { Pres. Indic. } & \text { Pres. Infin. } & \text { Perf. Irdic. } \\
\text { mā'-lō, } & \text { mal'-lě, } & \text { māl'-u-ī, to prefer. }
\end{array}
$$

## indicative.

Pres. S. mā'liṑ, mā'-vis, mā'-vult; Perf. - mā1'-u-i.
P. mā̀'-ŭ-mŭs, mā-vul'-tǐs, mā'-lunt. Plup. mă-lu'ĕ-ram.

Imperf. mā-lè'-bam, -bās, etc.
Fut. perf. mā-lu'-ĕ-rŏ.
Fut. mā'lam, -lēs, etc.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

| Pres. | S. ma' ${ }^{\prime}$-lim, ma'dis, ma'lit ; | Perf. mā-lu'-ĕ-rim. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Plup. māl-u-is'-sem. |
| Imperf | S. mal'-lem, mal'-lēs, mal'lět; P. mallē'-mŭs, mal-lē'-tis mal' |  |

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. mal'-lě.
Perf. māl-u-is'sě.
 for mälo, mälunt, etc., occur in Plautus.
§ 179. Fĕro is irregular in two respects:-1. Its second and third roots are not derived from the first, but from otherwise obsolete verbs, viz. tŭlo for tollo, and tlao, sup. tlātum, by aphæresis, lātum: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'rō̆, (to bear.) Pres. Indic. fẽ'-rŏr, (to be borne.)

Pres. Infin. fer'-rĕ́,
Perf. Indic. tŭ'-lī, Supine. lā'tum.

## indicative.

Present.
S. fě'-rō, fers, fert;
$P$. fer'i-mŭs, fer'tǐs, fě'-runt.
fĕ'rŏr, fer'-ris or -rě, fer'-tŭr;
Imperf. fĕ-rē'-bam. Imperf. fĕ-ré - băr.
Fut. fĕ'-ram, -rēs, etc. Fut. fĕ'-răr, -rē’-rǐs or -rḕ-rě, etc.
Perf. . tư'lī. Perf. lā'tŭs sum or fu'i- .
Plup. tưlē-ram. Plup. lā'-tŭs ě'-ram or fu'ĕ-ram.
Fut. perf. tư'lĕ-rŏ Fut. perf. lă'-tŭs ě'-rŏ or fu'cĕ-rō.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. fĕ'ram, -rās, etc. 'Pres. fĕ'răr, -ra'-riss or -rí'rě, etco Imperf. fer'rem, -rēs, etc. Imperf. fer'-rĕr, -rē'rǐs, etc.
Perf. tư'-lĕ-rim. Perf. lā'-tŭs sim or fu'-ĕ-rim. Plup. tŭ-lis'-sem. Plup, lā'-tŭs es'-sem or fu-is'-sem. IMPERATIVE.
Pres. S. fĕr, $\quad P$. fer'tete. $\quad P r e s . S$. fer'-rĕ, $\quad P$. fĕ-rǐm'-ǐni. Fut. S. fer'tō̆, $P$. fer-tō'-tĕ, fer'tō̃; fĕ-run'-tō. $\quad$ Fut. S. fer'-tŏr, $P$. (fč-rēm'-ǐ-nī.) fer'-tŏr. fĕ-run'-tŏr.

## infinitive.

| Pres. fer'-rě. | Pres. fer'rī. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Perf. $\mathrm{tu}-\mathrm{lis}$ '-sě. | Perf. la'tus es'-sě or fu-is'-sě. |
| Fut. lā-tư'-rŭs es'-sĕ. | Fut. lă'-tum i'-rì. |

## PARTICIPLES.

Pres. fĕ'-rens. Perf. lā’-tŭs; Fut. lā-tū'-rŭs. Fut. fĕ-ren'-dŭs.

GERUND.
fĕ-ren'dì, etc.
SUPINES.
Former. ${ }^{1} \bar{a}^{\prime}$-tum.
Note. In the comic writers the following reduplicated forms are found in parts derived from the second root, viz. tetüli, tetulisti, tetülit, tetulërunt; tetulëro, tetulërit; tetulissem, and tetulisse.
§ 18円. Fion, '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 $f$ acio, 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 fiĕre to fiëri.

| Pres. Indic. fi'ō, | Pres. Infin. fǐ'-ĕ-rī, | Perf. Part. <br> fac'-tŭs, to be made or to become. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |

Pres. S. fi'-ō, fis, fǐt; Perf. fac'-tŭs sum or fu'-i. $P$. fī-mŭs, fī'tŭs, fī'-unt. Plup. fac'-tŭs é'-ram or fu'-ĕ-ram. Imperf. fīié'bam, fīi-é-bās, etc. Fut. perf. fac'-tŭs č'-rō or fu'-č-rư. Fut. fí'-am, fi' ${ }^{\prime}-\mathrm{e} \mathrm{e}$, etc.

## Subjunctive.

Pres. fi'-am, fi'-ās, etc.
$\operatorname{Im} p$. fi'ē-rem, -è'-rēs, etc.

Perf. fac'-tŭs sim or fu'-ĕ-rim. Plup. fac'-tŭs es'-sem or fu-is'-sem.

IMPERATIVE.
Pres. Sing. fí ; Plur. fí-tě.

INFINITIVE.
Pres. fíc-e-rì.
Perf. fac'-tŭs es'-sĕ or fu-is'sě. Fut. fac'tum i'-rì.

SUPINE.
Latter. fac'-tū.

Perf. fac'-tŭs.
Fut. fă-ci-en'-dŭs.

Note. The compounds of $f$ ăcio which retain $a$, have also $f$ īo in the passive; as, calefäcio, to warm; passive, calefio; but those which change a into $i$ form the passive regularly. (Cf. facio in the list, § 172.) Yet confit, dēfit, 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 infin¿ive 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. ë'dö, | ě'dís, | ě'-dĭt, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (or |  |  |
| P. ${ }_{\text {end }}$ - ${ }^{\text {r-muss, }}$ (or | ed ${ }^{\prime}-1$ - - tiss, es-tis) | ě'dunt |

SUBJUNCTIVE.
Imperfect.
S. ĕd ${ }^{\prime}$-ĕ-rem, ěd ${ }^{\prime}$-ĕ-rēs, ēd'-ĕ-rĕt, (or es'-sem, es'-sēs, es'-sět); $P$. èd-ě-ré'-mǔs, ěd-è-rē̃'-tǐs, èd'-ě-rent, (or es-sē'-mŭs, es-sē'tiss, es'sent). IMPERATIVE.
Pres, S. ě'dĕ, $\quad$. ěd'-i-tě,
(or ēs; es'-tě). ${ }^{\prime}$
Fut. S. ěd ${ }^{\prime}-1$-itō, $\quad P$. èd-ītō̃'-tě, ě-dun'tō. (or es'-tō, es-tō'-tè).
infinitive.
Pres, ěd'-ě-rě, (or es'-sě).
PASSIVE.
Pres. ěd'-ī-tŭr, (or es'-tŭr).
Imperf. ěd-ě-rē'-tŭr, (or es-sē'-tưr).
Note. (a.) In the present subjunctive, édim, èdis, etc., are found, for èdam, èdäs, etc.
(b.) In the compounds of eddo, alsn, forms resembling those of sum occur. Ambédo has the participles ambens and ambēsus; comédo has comësus, comesürus, and rarely comestus; and adëdo and exëdo have adësus and exësus.
§ 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.
$\mathbf{e}^{\prime}$-ō, $\quad \mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-rě, $\quad \mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-vī, . $\mathrm{I}^{\prime}$-tum, to go.
indicative.
Pres. S. $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}-\overline{\mathrm{o}}$, is, ǐt; $\quad$ Fut. $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-bǒ, $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-biss, $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-bilt, etc. $P$. $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-mŭs, $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}-\mathrm{tins}, \mathrm{e}^{\prime}$-unt. Perf. $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-vī, i -vis' ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{i} \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-vit, etc.

Imperf. S. $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}-\mathrm{bam}, \mathrm{i}^{\prime}-b a \bar{s}, \mathrm{i}^{\prime}-b a ̆ t ;$ $P$. ībā'-mŭs, etc.

Plup. iv'-ë-ram, iv'ěe-rās, etc.
Fut.perf. $\overline{i v}^{\prime}$-ĕ-rǒ, ${ }^{1} v^{\prime}-\mathrm{e}-\mathrm{rixs}$, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.
Pres. $e^{\prime}-a m, \mathrm{e}^{\prime}$-ās, e'-ăt, etc. Perf. iv'-ĕ-rim, iv'ē-rī̀s, etc. Imperf. $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-rem, $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-rēs, $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-rĕt, etc. Plup. i -vis'-sem, $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$-vis'-sēs, etc.

IMPERATIVE.

> Pres. S. ì, P. i'tē.
> Fut. 2. i' ${ }^{\prime}$ tŏ̀, $\quad$ i-tō'-tě̆, 3. í'tō̃; e-un'tṓ.

## PARTICIPLES.

Pres. i'ens, (gen. e-un'tits.)
Fut. ǐ-tū'-rŭs, a, um.
infinitive.

## Pres. i'-rě. .

Perf. ìvis'-sě.
Fut. ĭ-tū'-rŭs es'sese.

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 ìtur, ibūtur, ibitur, itum est, etc.; eātur, irētur, eundum est, etc., which are used impersonally. See $\$ 184,2,(a$.)

Rem. 3. The compounds of eo, including vèneo, are conjugated like the simple verb, but most of them have $i i$ in the perfect rather than ivi. See under co in § 176. Adeo, anteeo, ineo, pratëreo, sübeo, and transeo, being used actively, are found in the passive voice. Iniétur occurs as a future passive of ineo. Ambio is regular, like audio, but has either ambibat or ambiëbat.

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.

[^13](2.) The following list contains such verbs as are remarkable for wanting many of their parts:-

| 1. Odi, I ha | 6. Fāri, to speak. | 11. Cědo, tell, or give me. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2. Cœpi, Ikave begun. | 7. Quæso, I pray. | 12. Confit, it is done. |
| 3. Mèmini, Iremember. | 8. Ave, hail, or | 13. Dēfit, it is wanting. |
| 4. Aio, Isay. | 9. Salve, $\}$ farewell. | 14. Infit, he begins. |
| 5. Inquam, $\}$ I say. | 10. Apăge, begone. | 15. Ovat, he rejoices. |

1. Odi, cœpi, 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. ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{O}$-di or $\bar{o}^{\prime}$-sus sum; plup. ōd'-ĕ-ram; fut. perf. ōd'-x-ro.
Subj. perf. ōd'-ĕ-rim; plup. ō-dis'-sem.
Inf. perf. $\bar{o}$-dis'-se; fut. $\bar{o}$-sū'rum es'-se.
Part. fut. ō-sū'-rus; perf. ó'sus.
Note 1. Exōsus and përōsus, like ösus, are used actively. Odīvit, for ödit, $\infty$ curs, M. Anton. in Cic. Phil. 13, 19: and odiendi in Appuleius.
2. Ind. perf. cœ'-pi; plup. cœp'-ě-ram; fut. perf. cœp'-ě-ro.

Subs. perf. cœp'è-rim; plup. cœ-pis'-sem.
Inf. perf. cœ-pis'-se; fut. cœp-tū'rum es'-se.
Part. fut. cœp-tū'-rus; perf. cœp'-tus.
Note 2. In Plautus are found a present, coppio, present subjunctive, ccopiam, and infinitive, coepëre. Before an infinitive passive, coeptus est, etc., rather than coepi, etc., are commonly used.
3. Ind. perf. měm'-ǐ-ni ; plup. mě-mĭn'-ě-ram; fut. perf. mě-mĭn'-ě-ro.

SUBJ. perf. mě-min'-è-rim; plup. měm-ǐ-nis'-sem.
Inf. perf. měm-ī-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 atque odërit. Cic. In this respect, nōvi, I know, the perfect of nosco, to learn, and consuévi, I am wont, the perfect of consuesco, I accustom myself, agree with $\bar{d} d i$ and memini.
4. Ind. pres. ai ${ }^{\prime}-0$, $a^{\prime}-\mathrm{irs}, a^{\prime}$-it;,- , ai'-unt.*
— imp. ai- $\overline{\mathrm{e}}^{\prime}$-bam, ai- $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}-\mathrm{bă} s, ~ a i-\bar{e}^{\prime}-\mathrm{băt}$; ai-ē-bā'-mŭs, ai-ē-bā'-trs, ai-ē'-bant. Subj. pres.-, ai'-ās, ai'-ăt; —, -, ai'-ant.
Imperat. pres. $a^{\prime}-\bar{i}$. Part. pres. ai'-ens.
Note 4. Ais with ne is contracted to ain' like riden', ăbin': for videsne, abisne. The comic writers use the imperfect $a i \bar{b} a s, a i ̈ b a t$ and $a i ̈ b a n t$, which are dissyllabic.
5. Ind. pres. in'-quam, $\mathrm{in}^{\prime}$-quǐs, $\mathrm{in}^{\prime}$-quǐt; in'-quĭ-mŭs, in'-quí-tis, in'-qui-unt.

—— fut. ——, in'-qui-ess, in'-qui-ĕt;


Subs. pres. _, in'-qui-ās, in'-qui-ăt; —, in-qui-ā'-tis, in'-qui-ant. imperat. in'-qué, in'-qui-to.
6. Ind. pres. - , —, fā'-tŭr; fut. fā'-bŏr, ——, fāb ${ }^{\prime}-1$-tŭr.

- perf. fătus est; plup. fātus èram.

Imperat. fä'-rě. Part. pres. fans; perf. fā'-tŭs; fut. fan'-dŭs.
Infln. pres. fā'-rī or fā'ri-ěr. Gerund. gen. fan'-dī; abl. fan'-dō.
Suplne, fa'tū.

[^14]Interf $\overline{a r} i$ has the forms interf $\bar{a} t u r$, interf $\bar{a} t a$ est, interfäri, interfuns, and interf ätus.-Eff $\bar{r} i$ has eff ábor, effaběre, eff àtus est, eff āt sunt; imperat. effäre; eff āri, effàtus, effandus, effandó; eff ätu.-Prafāari occurs in the following forms, prcefätur, proefāmur; preffabantur; prafärer; prœfarentur; prœfāti sŭ:nus ; praffātus fuèro; imperat. praffàto, praf $\bar{a}-$ mino ; praefans, preefätus, preefandus; prcefando.-Prơfäri has profätur, profäta est, profāta sunt, prof àtus and proffans.
7. Ind. pres. quæ' ${ }^{\prime}$ so, ——, quæ'-sĭt; quæs'-ŭ-mŭs, ——, —.

Inf. pres. quæs'-è-rě.
 Nuit. Avëre and salvëre are often used with jübeo.
9. Ind. pres. sal'-ve-o; fut. sal-vē'-bǐs. Inf. pres. sal-vē'-rĕ. Imperat. sal'-vē, sal-vé'-tě; sal-vē'-to.
10. Imperat. ăp'-ă-gě. So ăge with a subject either singular or plural.
11. Imperat. sing. cě'-do; pl. cet'-tĕ for cěd'-1-tě. Hence cědodum.
12. ind. pres. con'-fit; fut. con-fi'-et.

Subr. pres. con-fí'-at; imperf. con-fí'ĕ-rět. Inf. pres. con-f1'-ě-ri.
13. Ind. pres. dē'-fit; pl. dè-fí'unt; fut. dē-fí-ĕt. Subj. pres. dē-fí $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}-$ ăt. Inf. pres. dē-fi'-è-rĩ. So ef-fi'-ê-rī, and in-ter-f1'-ĕ-ri. Plaut.; and in-ter-fī'-at. Lucr.
14. Ind. pres. in'-fit; $p l$. in-fí'-unt.
15. Ind. pres. ǒ'-văt. SubJ. pres. $\breve{c}^{\prime}-\nabla$ vět; imperf. ŏ-vā'-rět.

Remark 1. Among defective verbs are sometimes, also, included the follow-ing:-Förem, föres, etc., firĕ, (see § 154, R. 3.) Ausim, ausis, ausit ; ausint. Fawo and faxim, faxis, faxit; faximus, faxitis, faxint. Faxem. The form in $o$ is an old future perfect; that in $i m$ a perfect, and that in em a pluperfect sabjunctive. See § 162, 7, (c.), and 9.

Rem. 2. In the present tense, the first person singular, füro, to be mad, and $d o r$ and $d e r$, from do, to give, are not used. So in the imperative scĩ, cüpe and polle, from scio, cŭpio, 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, sultis for si vultis, södes 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 clanse; but in English the neuter pronoun, $i t$, commonly stands before the verb, and represents such clanse; as, me delectat scriběre, it delights me to write. Sometimes an accusative depending on an impersonal verb takes, in English, the place of a subject; as, me misëret 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 harpens; evernit, it happens; thus:-

|  | $18 t$ Conj. | $2 d$ Conj. | 3d Conj. | 4th Conj. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ind. Pres. | delectat, | děcet, | contingit, | svěnit, ureniēbat |
| Imp. | delectābat, | decēbat, decēbit, | contingēbat, continget, | jveniēbat, sveniet, |
| Fut. | delectābit, delectāvit, | decebit, | contigit, | evēnit, |
| Plup. | delectaverrat, delectavèrit. | decuęrat, decuẽrit. | contigèrat, contigērit. | cvenërat. eveněrit. |
| Fut. perf. |  |  |  |  |
| Sub. Pres. | delectet, |  |  |  |
| ${ }_{\text {Impr }}$ Prf. | delectāret, delectavěrit, | decēret, | contingĕret, contigèrit | eveniret, eveněrit |
| Perf. Plup. | delectavisset. | decuisset. | contigisset. | evenisset. |
| Lxf. Pres. | delectäre, | decēre, | contingěre, | evenir |
| 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 $a b$; as,

Illi pugnant; or pugnätur ab illis, they fight. Illi querunt, or queritur 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,

Pugnätum 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 ob lique case dependent on the verb; as, favetur tibi, thou art favored.

The following are the forms of impersonal verbs in the several conjugations of the passive voice:-

## Indicative Mood.



| Pres. | pagnētur, | faveātur, | currātur, | veniātur, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Imp. | pugnarētur, | faverētur, | currerētur, | venirētur, |
| Pcrf. | pugnātum sit or | fautum sit or | cursum sit or | ventum sis |
|  | fuėrit, | fuěrit, | fuěrit, | fuėrit, |
| Plup. | pugnātum esset or fuisset. | fautum esset or fuisset. | cursum esset or fuisset. | ventum essct or fuisset. |


| Pres | agnäri, | fa |  | veniri, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perf. | pugnātum esse or fuisse, | fautum esse or fuisse, | cursum esse or fuisse, | ventum esse fuisse, |
| Fut. | pugnātum iri. | fautum iri. | cursum Iri. | ventum ir |

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. dëcet, libet, licet, liquet, misèret, oportet, pìget, prenitet, püdet, and teedet. (See § 169.) Four of these, dècet, libet, ficet, and liquet occur also in the third person plural, but without personal subjocts. 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 evid | Văcat, there is leisure. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Jŭvat, it delights. | Certätur, there is a con- |  |
| Præstat, it is better. | tention. | Stätur, they stand firm. |
| Restat, it remains. | Peccātur, a fault is com- |  |
| Stat, it is res | mitted. |  |

(b.) In the second conjugation:-

Appāret, it appears. Pertĭnet, it pertains. Persuadētur, he, they, etc.

Attinet, it belongs to.
Displĭcet, it displeases.
Dŏlet, it grieves.
Miserētur, it distresses.
Pătet, it is plain.

Plăcet, it pleases.
Flētur, we, etc. weep, or, there is weeping.
Nocētur, injury is inflicted. are persuaded.
Pertæsum est, he, they, etc. are disgusted with. Siletur, silence is maintained.
(c.) In the third conjugation :-

Acčdit, it happens. Miserescit, it distresses. Desiňtur, there is an end. Condūcit, it is useful. Sufficit, it suffices. Scribitur, it is written. Contingit, it happens. Credistur, it is believed. Vivitur, we, etc. live.
Fallit, or it escapes me; Curritur, people run.
Fŭgit me, $\}$ I do not know.
(d.) In the fourth conjugation:-

Convěnit, it is agreed Expědit, it is expedient. Scitur, it is knowon. upon; it is fit.
Evẽ̃nit, it happens.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Dormitur, we, they, etc. Itur, they, etc. go. } \\
& \text { sleep. }
\end{aligned}
$$

(e.) Among irregular verbs:-

Fit, it happens.
Intèrest, it concerns.
Obest, it is hurtful.

Prætĕrit me, it is unknown to me.
Prōdest, it avails.

Rēfert, it concerns. Sŭbit, it occurs. Supěrest, 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 colum, which are sometimes expressed. Of this kind are the following:-

| , | Lapidat, it $r$ | V |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Fulgur ${ }^{\text {rat, }}$, it lightens. | Lucescit, \} it grows light. | Vesperascit, ${ }^{\text {a }}$ evening |
| Fulminat, | Illucescit, $\}$ it grows light. | Advesperascit. |
| -e | Ningit, it snows. | Invesperascit, ${ }_{\text {proach }}$ |

Grandinat :t hails. Pluit, it rains.
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 prenitet has a present participle, futures in rus and dus, and the gerund. Püdet 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 Tiběris 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 fabrǐcor, to frame;-in conjugation; as, lăvo, -äre, and lăvo, -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 0 .

| Abominor, to abhor. | Fabricor, to frame. | Oscitor, to gape. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nor, to flatter. | Fenėror, to lend on in- | Pa |
| Altercor, to dispute. | Fluctuor, to fu | por |
| Arbitror, to suppo | Frustror, to disappoint | P |
| Argũtor, to prat | Fruticor, to sp | Popullor, to lay wast |
| Assentior | Impertior, r. to | Pūnior, to puni |
| Aucùpor | Jurgo | Rumin |
| Angüror | Lacrim |  |
| Aurigor, to drive a chariot. | Ludificor, to ridi | Sortior, to |
| Auspicor, to take the au- | Luxürior, r, |  |
|  | Medicor, to |  |
| Cachinnor, r. to laugh aloud. | Mèreor, to deserce. Mētor, to measure. | Tumultuo |
| Comitor, to accompany. | Misēreor, to commiserate. | Tutor, to defend. |
| Commentor, to deiberate. | Modēror, to moderate. | Utor, to us |
| Convivor, to feast toget | Munẽror, r. to bestov. |  |
| Cunctor, (cont.), to delay. | Nictor, r. to wink. | Veli |
| Dignor, to deem uorthy. | Nütrior, r. to nourish. |  |
| Depascor, to feed upon. | Obsö | Vocif êror, to bavel. |
| Elucubror, to elaborate. | Opi |  |

2. The following verbs are redundant in conjugation:-

| Boo, -ăre, ${ }_{\text {Boo }}$-ęre, r. $\}$ to roar. | Fulgeo, -̄̄re, $\}$ to shine. | Sŏno, -āre, \} to sound. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bullo, -are, $\}$ to boil. | Lăvo, -äre, to wash. | Strideo, -êre, |
| Bullio,-ire, , $60 i$. | Lavo, -ěre, r. \} to wash. | Strido, -ère, |
| Cieo, -ère, to excite. | Lino, -ěre, Linio,-ire, r. $\}$ to anoint. | Tergeo, -ēre, Tergo,-ère, to wipe. |
| Denso, -āre, $\}$ to thicken. | Nicto, -āre, to wink. | Tueor, -ēri, to protect. |
| Denseo, -ère, Ferveo, erre, | Nicto, -̇re, ${ }^{\text {cen }}$, wink. | Tuor, -i, r. \% proch. |
| $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Ferveo, } \\ \text { Fervo, } \\ \text { eere, } \\ \text { elre, }\end{array}\right\}$ to boil. | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { Sălo, -ère, } \\ \text { Salio, -ire, } \end{array}\right\} \text { to salt. }$ | Those marked r.arel |
| $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Födio, } \\ \text { Fódio, -rere, } \\ \text {-rre, r. }\end{array}\right\}$ to dig. | $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Scăteo, } \\ \text { Scãto, } \\ \text { ere, } \\ \text { ere, r. }\end{array}\right\}$ to abound. | ly used. |

Mörior, orior, and potior, 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, -ěre, to refuse.
Accỉdo, -ěre, to full upon. Accido, -ěre, to cut down. Addo, -ěre, to add. Adeo, -ire, to go to. Aggĕro, -āre, to heap up. Aggèro, -ěre, to heap upon. Allêgo, -āre, to depute. Allĕgo, -ĕre, to choose. Appello, -äre, to call. Appello, -ěre, to drive to. Cădo, -ère, to fall.
Cædo, -ěre, to cut.
Cēdo, -ère, to yield.
Caleo, -ēre, to be hot.
Calleo, -ère, to be hard.
Căno, -ěre, to sing.
Cäneo, -ēre. to be gray.
Carreo, -ēre, to want.
Cäro, -čre, to card wool.
Cēlo, -äre, to conceal.
Cælo, -āre, to carve.
Censeo, -ēre, to think.
Sentio, -ire, to feel.
Claudo, -ire, to shut.
Claudo, -ěre, to be lame.
Colligo, -āre, to bind together.
Collĭgo, -ěre, to collect.
Cत̄lo, -äre, to strain.
Cölo, -ěre, to cultivate.
Compello, āre, to accost.
Compello, -ère, to force.
Concido, -ěre, to cut to pieces.
Concìdo, -ěre, to fall.
Con::cendo, -ère, to embark.
Conscindo, -ěre, to tear to pieces.
Consterno,--äre, to terrify.
Consterno, -ĕre, to strew over.
Decìlo, -ěre, to fall doun.
Decīlo, -ĕre, to cut off.
Decĭpio, -ěre, to deceive.
Desīpio, -ĕre, to dote.
Deligo, -ăre, to tie up.
Deligo, -ère, to choose
Diligo, -ěre, to love.
Dico, -ěre, to say.
Dreo, -ăre, to dedicate.

Edo, -ěre, to eat.
$\overline{\mathrm{c}} \mathrm{d}$, -ěre, to publish.
Edŭco, -āre, to educate.
Edūco, -ěre, to draw out.
Eff ěro, -āre, to make wild.
Eff ěro, -re, to carry out.
Excǐdo, -ěre, to fall out.
Excīdo, -ěre, to cut off.
Fério, -ïre, to strike.
Fèro, -re, to bear.
Fērior,-äri, tokeep holiday.
Frīgeo, -ēre, to be cold.
Frigo, -ěre, to fry.
Fŭgo, -āre, to put to flight.
Fŭgio,-rire, to fly.
Fundo, -āre, to found.
Fundo, -ěre, to pour out.
Incido, -ère, to fall into.
Incīdo, ère, to cut into.
Indico, -āre, to show.
Indīco, ěre, to proclaim.
Infício, -ěre, to stain.
Inf ĭtior, -āri, to deny.
Intercido, -ěre, to happen.
Intercīdo, -ěre, to cut asunder.
Jăceo, -ēre, to lie.
Jăcio, -ěre, to throno.
Lăbo, -āre, to totter.
Lābor, -i, to glide.
Lacto, -āre, to suckle.
Lacto, -āre, to deceive.
Lēgo, -äre, to depute.
Lěgo, -ěre, to read.
Liceo, -ēre, to be lawful.
Liccor, -ēri, to bid for.
Liquo, -āre, to melt.
Liqueo, -ēre, to be manifest.
Lìquor, -i , to melt.
Măno, -äre, to flow.
Măneo, -ëre, to stay. .
Mando, -äre, to command.
Mando, -ěre, to eat.
Mèto, -ěre, to reap.
Mētor, -āri, to meaisure.
Mētior, -iri, to measure.
Mètuo, -ĕre, to fear.
Misěror, -arri, to pity.
Misěreor, -èri, to pity.
Mŏror, -äri, to delay.
Mörior, -i, to die.
Niteo, -êre, to giltter.

Nitor, -i, to strive.
Obsêro, -āre, to lock up.
Obsěro, -ěre, to sow.
Occǐlo, -ěre, to full.
Occìdo, -ěre, to kill.
Operrio, -ire, to cover.
Opěror, -āri, to work.
Oppĕrior, -īri, to wait for.
Pando, -āre, to bend.
Pando, -ěre, to extend.
Păro, -āre, to prepare.
Pāreo, -ēre, to appear.
Pario, -ĕre, to bring forth.
Pärio, -äre, to balance.
Pendeo, -ère, to hang:
Pendo, -ĕre, to weigh.
Percōlo, -āre, to filter.
Percơlo, -ère, to adorn.
Permăneo, -ēre, to remain.
Permāno, -āre, to flow through.
Prædīco, -äre, to publish.
Prædīco, -ère, to for etell.
Prōdo, -ëre, to betray.
Prödeo,-ire, to come forth.
Recēdo, -ěre, to retire.
Recido, -ĕre, to fall back
Recīdo, -ěre, to cut off.
Reddo, -ĕre, to restore.
Rèdeo, -ire, to return.
Refëro, -re, to bring back
Refěrio,--ire, to strike back
Relēgo, -äre, to remove.
Relego,-ère, to read ocer
Sēdo, -āre, to allay.
Sĕdeo, -ēre, to sit.
Sĩdo, -ëre, to sink.
Séro, -erre, to sow.
Sěro, -ère, to entwine.
Succido, -ěre, to fall un. der.
Succīdo, -ěre, to cut down.
Vādo, -ëre, to go.
Vădor, -äri, to bind over by bail.
Vēneo, -ire, to be sold.
Vènio, -ire, to come.
Vēnor, -āri, to hunt.
Vincio, -ire, to bind.
Vinco, ěre, to comquer.
Völo, -āre, to fly.
Volo, velle, to be willing.

2 Different verbs have sometimes the same perfect; as,

Aceo, acui, to be sour.
Acuo, acui, to sharpen. Cresco, crêvi, to grow. Cerno, crēvi, to decree. Fulgeo, fulsi, to shize.

Fulcio, fulsi, to prop. Păreo, pāvi, to fear. Lūceo, luxi, to shine. Lūgeo, luxi, to mourn. Mulceo, mulsi, to soothe. Mulgeo, mulsi, to mill.

Pasco, pāvi, to feed.
Pendeo, pěpendi, tohang.
Pendo, pépendi, 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. Pango, pactum, to drive Pătior, passus, to suffer. Frigo, frictum, to roast.
Maneo, mansum, to re- Paciscor, pactus, to barmain.
Mando, mansum, to chew. Pando, passum, to extend.

Tèneo, tentum, to hold.
Tendo, tentum, to stretch.
Verro, versum, to brush.
Verto, versum, to turn.

## DERIVATION OF VERBS.

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§ 187. Verbs are derived either from nouns, from adjectives, or from other verbs.
I. 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. | Neuters. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Armo, to arm, (arma.) | Flöreo, to bloom, (flos.) |
| Fraudo, to defraud, (fraus.) | Frondeo, to produce leaves, (frons.) |
| Nomino, to name, (nomen.) | Lūceo, to shine, (lux.) |
| Numĕro, to number, (numêrus.) | Vireo, to flourish, (vis.) |

From Adjectives.

| Albo, to whiten, (albus.) | Albeo, to be white, (albus.) |
| :--- | :--- |
| Celebro, to frequent, (celěber.) | Calveo, to be bald, (calvus.) |
| Libēro, to free, (līber.) | Flāveo, to be yellow, (fiāvus.) |

(b.) Sometimes a preposition is prefixed in forming the derivative ; as,
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { Coacervo, to heap together, (acervus.) } & \text { Exstirpo, to extirpate, (stirps.) } \\ \text { Excãvo, to excavate, (căvus.) } & \text { Hllaqueo, to insnare, (laqueus.) }\end{array}$
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; fūror, to steal; from architectus, cormes, and für.
3. Such as denote resemblance or imitation are called imitatives; as, cornicor, to imitate a crow, from cornix; Grecor, to imitate the Greeks. Some of mese end in isso ; as, patrisso, to imitate a father.
II. Verbs derived from other verbs are either frequentativss, 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, (dömĭt-) dŏmŭto. So adjŭco, adjūto; dīco, dicto; gěro, gesto. In verbs of the first conjugation, $\bar{a} t$ of the root is often changed into $\breve{\imath} t$; as, clāmo, to cry, (clamāt-) clamíto, to cry frequently.
(b.) A few frequentatives are formed by adding ito to the first root of the primitive; as, ăgo (ăg-) ăğ̌to. So lăteo, lătưto ; nosco, noscito; quacro, quarito.
(c.) Frequentatives, from primitives of the second, third, and fourth conjugations, sometimes serve again as primitives, from which new frequentatives are formed; as, dīco, dicto, dictito; curro, curso, cursito; věnio, vento, ventito. Sometimes the second or intermediate form is not in use.
(d.) Some frequentatives are deponent; as, minitor, from minor (minäth); versor, from verto (vers-). So amplexor, sector, löquītor, from amplector, sëquor, and loquor.
ie.) 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 lăbo, (äre), lăbasco: ingĕmo, (ĕre), ingĕmisco; obdormio, (īre), obdormisco. Hisco is contracted for hiasco, from hio, (äre).
(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, puĕrasco, from puer ; jŭvenĕsco, from jüuěnis.

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 urio; as, cœno, to sup, (cœnät,) cœnātŭrio, 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, prürio, lìgūrio.
4. Diminutives denote a feeble or trifling action. They are formed by adding illo to the root of the primitive; as, conscrïbillo, to scribble, from conscrïbo.

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, fäcesso, to act earnestly-from făcio.

So căpesso, incesso, from căpio and incēdo. Concưpisco, 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, culffico, belligèro, lucrǐfăcio. See § 103, R. 1.
2. Of an adjective and a verb; as, amplifico, multiplico.
3. Of two verbs; as, calĕfücio, malĕfăcio, patĕfăcio.

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 fäcio.
4. Of an adverb and a verb; as, bënĕf ăcio, mălědīco, sătägo, nōlo, negligo.
5. Of a preposition and a verb; as, addüco, excőlo, prōdo, subrépo, discerno, sejungo.
6. Of a preposition and a noun, as, pernocto, irrētio.
§ 189. In composition with particles, the vowels $a$ and $e$ and the diphthong $x$ in the radical syllable of the simple verb are often changed in the compound.

1. The following simple verbs in composition change $a$ into $e$ :-

| Arceo, | Carpo, | Farcio, | Jacto, | Părio, | Patro, | Spargo, <br> Candeo, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Damno, Fätiscor, | Lacto, <br> Capto, | Fallo, | Grardior, | Mando, | Pătior, | Sacro, |
| Scando, |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Exc. $A$ is retained in amando, premando, desacro, and retracto; pradamno, and pertracto sometimes also occur. $A$ is also changed into $e$ in occento from canto, and ankèlo from hālo; comperco also is found.
2. The following, in the first root, change $\breve{a}$ and $\breve{e}$ into $\check{\imath}$; viz.
ăgo, cădo, ĕgeo, ěmo, frango, pango, prěmo, rěgo, sědeo, spěcio, tango.
3. These change $\breve{a}$ and $\breve{e}$, in the first and second roots, into $\check{\imath}$; viz. sălio, to leap, săpio, tăceo, and těneo.
4. These change $\breve{a}$ into $r$, and $a$ into $\bar{\imath}$, in all the roots; viz. hăbeo, lăcio, lăteo, plăceo, stătuo; cædo, lædo, and quæro.
5. The following change $\breve{a}$, in the first root, into $\check{\imath}$, and in the third root into $e$; viz.

> căno, căpio, făteor, jăcio, răpio, and ăpiscor.

Exc. (a.) A is retained in cercumăgo, perăgo, salăgo; antěhăbeo, posthăbeo, dēpango, rêpango, complăceo, and perplăceo. Occăno and récăno also sometimes occur. $E$ is retained in coémo, circumsĕdeo, and sŭpersédeo. Antëcăpio and antïcipo are both used; so also are sŭperjăcio and süperjício.
(b.) Cogo and dègo are formed, by contraction, from con, de, and ăgo; dèmo, prömo and sümo, from de, pro, sub, and émo; prabeo, and perhaps dèbeo, from prex, de, and häbeo; pergo and surgo, from per, sub, and rĕgo.

Note 1. Fácio, compounded with a preposition, changes $a \check{a}$ into $\check{i}$ in the first root, and into $e$ in the third; as, afficio, afféci, affectum. Some compounds of $f a ̆ c i o ~ w i t h ~ n o u n s ~ a n d ~ a d j e c t i v e s, ~ c h a n g e ~ a ́ ~ i n t o ~ i, ~ a n d ~ a l s o ~ d r o p ~ i ~ b e f o r e ~ o, ~ a n d ~$ are of the first conjugation; as, significo, letifico, magnifico. Spécio forms some compounds in the same manner; as, conspicor and suspicor.

Note 2. Légo, compounded with con, de, dî, e, inter, nec, and se, changes é into $i$, in the first root; as, colligo, negligo, etc.; but with ad, pree, per, re, sub, and trans, it retains ë; as, allégo.

Note 3. Calco and salto, in composition, change $a$ into $u$; as, inculco, insulto. Plaudo changes au into $\bar{O}$; as, explödo; except applaudo. Audio changes aus into è in obēdio. Catso, claudo, and quütio, drop a; as, accüso, rëclüdo, percưtio.


Note 4. In the compounds of căveo, măneo, and trăho, ă remains unchanged, and so also does $a$ in the compounds of hares.

Note 5. The simple verbs with which the following are compounded are not used:-


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.

$x$
2. An adverb is a particle used to modify or limit the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as,

Bĕne et sapienter dixit, he spoke well and wisely; Cănis ēgrěgie fidēlis, a remarkably faithful dog; Nimes valde laudäre, 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 com. pared with the derivatives, and most of them are contained in the following lists marked I, II, and III.

## I. Adverbs of Place and Order.

ădeo, so far, as far. ădhūc, to this place. adversŭs, opposite, adversum,,$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { opposite, },\end{array}\right.$ exadversus,-um, toward. ălī̄, by another way. alias, in another place. alibis, elsewhere.
ălĭcŭbi, somewhere. ălĭquōversum, toward
ălĭcundě, from some some place. place. ăliundĕ, from another ăliō, to another place. place. ăliqqua, in some way. ăliorsum, toward another place.
ăı̌quō, to some place. circumcircē ullaround.
citrā, on this side.
citro, hither. contrā, over against. cūram, before. dèline, henceforth. deinceps, successively. deinde, after that.
dēniqué, finally. dēnuo, again. deorsum, downward. dextrorsum, toward the riuht.
e屯, that way.
eādem, the same way.
ē̄, to that place, thither.
eōdem, to the same place.
exinde, after that.
extrā, without.
extrinsěcŭs, from without.
förās, out of doors.
f orris, without.
häc, this way.
hactěnŭs, thus far.
hic, here.
hinc, hence.
hūc, hither.
hūcusquĕ, thus far.
horsum, hitherward.
ybi, there.
ridem, in the same place.
illāc, that way.
illic, there.
illinc, thence.
illō, thither.
illorsum, thitherward.
illūe, thither.
indee, thence.
indidem, from the same place.
infrä, below, beneath.
Inibi, in that place.
intrinsēcŭs, from within
intrā, intro,
introrsum,
intūs, within.
intŭs,
istāc, that woay.
istic, there.
istinc, thence.
istō, istūc, thither.
juxtā, near, alike.
nēcūbi, lest any where. neutro, to neither side.
neutrübi, to neither place, to neither side.
nulizi, nusquam, $\}$ no where.
pēnItǔs, within.
pōnē, post, behind, back. porro, onvard.
pröcūl, far.
prŏpĕ, proptĕr, near.
prorsum, forward.
prōtĭnŭs, onward.
quā? in which way?
quāquā, \} what way
quācumque, $\}$ soever.
quāquě, wheresoever.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { quälibēt, } \\ \text { quāvis, }\end{array}\right\}$ in every way.
quō? whither?
quoäd, quousquē, $^{\text {q. }}$ \} how far.
quōpiam, quéquam, $^{\text {qua }}$ to some place.
quīqū̄, | whither-
quṑcumquě, $\}$ soerer.
quōquōrersūs, toward
erery side.
quorsum? whitherward? $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { quōris, } \\ \text { quō̄ibēt, }\end{array}\right\}$ to every place. $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { retro, } \\ \text { retrorsum, } \\ \text { rursum, }\end{array}\right\} \begin{gathered}\text { backevard, } \\ \text { back. }\end{gathered}$ sicŭbi, if any where. sīcundè, if from any place. sinistrorsum, toward the left.
subtër, beneath.
sŭpēr, suprā, abore, on top. sursum, upward. tum, then, in the next place.
ǔbi? where? ŭbicumquě, \} wherever, ŭbiübi, $\}$ wheresoever. ŭbilĭbět, übíqué, $\}$ any where, ŭbīquè, $\}$ every where. ulträ, ultro, beyond. unde? whence? $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { undëĭbĕt, } \\ \text { unděvis, } \\ \text { undǐquě, } \\ \text { undeundě, }\end{array}\right\} \begin{aligned} & \text { from every } \\ & \text { whděcumere. }\end{aligned}$
$\begin{aligned} & \text { whence- } \\ & \text { soever. }\end{aligned}$ uspiam, |somewhere, usquam, $\}$ any where. usquè, all the way. usquěquāquě, in all wayz. utrimquē, on both sides. utrō? which vay? utrŏbī? in which place? utröbīquĕ, in both places. utrōquè, to both sides. utrōquèversum, twward both sides.

Remark 1. (a.) The interrogative adverbs of place, übi? where? unde? whence? quo? whither? and qui? 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 relatice forms are alike, beginning with $u$ or $q u$. The demonstratires are furmed from is, which is strengthened by dem, and the indefinite from ăliquis. The general relatices and the general iulefinites or universals, like those of the pronominal adjectives, are made, the former by doubling the simple relatives or by appending to them the termination cumqué, 'soever,' and the latter by adding qué, $v i s$, or libét. Thus:

| Interrog. ŭbi? | Demonstr. <br> Ibi, <br> Ibĩdem, | Relat. ŭbi, | Gen. Relat. ŭbiŭbi, ŭbīcumquě, | Indefin. ăliccưbi, | Gen. Indefin. ŭbiqqué, übivis, ǔbinlibĕt. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| undě? | indĕ, indidem, | undě, | undeundé, unděcumquě, | ălicundě, | undiquĕ, undévis, |
| quō? |  | quob, |  | ălíquō, | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ndelib } \\ & \text { novis, } \end{aligned}$ |
| quā? |  | quā. | quăquā, | ălìquã. | qua |

(c.) To those answering to úbi? may be added alibi, nullibi, and $\underset{n}{ } n i b i$, the latter being a strengthened form of $\grave{i b i}$. In like manner ŭliundĕ, utrimquë, intrinsěcŭs, and extrinsécŭs may be added to those answering to undē?? and ălió to those answering to $q u \bar{?}$ ? So also to utrō? answer utröquë and neutro.
(d.) The demonstratives $i b i$, indë, and eõ are used only in reference to relative sentences which precede; but more definite demonstratives are formed from the pronouns hic, istě, and illĕ, answering in like manner to ŭbi? undë? and $q u \overline{0}$ ? These together with the preceding correlatives are, in the following table, arranged respectively under their several interrogatives $\check{u} b i ?$ undë? qū $\bar{?}$ quä? and quorsum?-Thus:

| ŭbi? | undě? | quō? | quā? | quorsum? |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| hīc, | hinc, | hūc, | hāc, | horsum, |
| istic, | istinc, | istũc, | istāc, | istorsum, |
| illic, | illinc, | illūe, | illāc, | illorsum, |
| libi, | inde, | eō, ${ }^{\text {eodem, }}$ | eā, eādem, | --, |
| ălĭbi, | ăliundĕ, | ă̧aī, | ăliā, | ăliorsum, |
| ălícŭbi. | ălǐcundĕ. | ăliqquō. | ăliquā. | ălĭquōversum. |

(e.) Hic, hinc, hūc, refer to the place of the speaker; isticc, istinc, istūc, to the place of the second person or person addressed; and illic, illinc, illūc, to that of the third person or the person or thing spoken of. Cf. §207, R. 23, (a.) and (d.)
(f.) The interrogative adverbs $\check{u} b i$, undë, $q u \bar{o}, q u \bar{a}$, etc. are often used without a question, simply as adverbs of place; as, $I_{n}$ eam partem itūros, atque ribi futüros Helvetios, ŭbi eos Ccesar constituisset.
(g.) In consequence of a transfer of their meaning, some of the adverbs of place, as, hic, ibì, ŭbi, hinc, indë, hactënüs, etc., become also adverbs of time, and some of them are used also as conjunctions.

## II. Adverbs of Time.

actūtum, immediately. abhinc, from this time. ădeō, so long ( $a_{s}$ ).
ădhūc, until now, still. ăliās, at another time. ălĭquamdiū, for awhile. ăĭquandō, at some time. ălĭquŏtiēs, several times. antě, before, anteā, $\}$ previously. antěhāc, formerly. bis, twice. (see § 119). cirčitěr, about, near. crās, tomorrow. cum or quum, when. deinceps, in succession. deindè or deĭn, $\}$ thereupon, exindě or exīn, \}afterward. děhinc, from this time. dēmum, at lenyth.
dēnĭque, lastly.
diū, long.
dūdum, previously. eousquè, so long. hěrě or hěrī, yesterday. hic, here, her'eupon. hinc, from this time, since. hŏdié, to-day.
Ibi , then, thereupon.
Identidem, now and then, repeatedly.
illĭc̄, immediately. indĕ, after that, then. interdum, sometimes. intěrim, meanwhile. itečrum, again. jam, now, already. j̧amdiaũ, ${ }^{\text {jamdum, }}$, long ago. jamjam, presently. jampridem, long since. mǒdo, just now. mox, soon after. nondum, not yet. nonnumquam, sometimes. nūdiŭs tertiŭs, three days ago.
nunc, now.
numquam, never.
nũpěr, lately.
ölim, formerly.
părumpĕr, $\}$ for a short paulispèr, $\}$ time. pèrendiè, two days hence. porro, hereafter, in future.
post, posteā, afterwards. posthac, hereafter. postrïdie, the day after. pridem, long since. pridiē, the day before. prötinŭs, instantly.
quamdiū? how long? quandō? when? quandōcumquĕ, whenever.
quandōquě, at some time. quătěr, four times. quoăd? quousqué? $^{\text {quow long! }}$ quondam, formerly. quötīdiē, daily. quötiēs'? how often? quum or cum, when.
rursŭs, again.
sæpě, ofien.
sěmèl, once. sempèr, always. stătim, immediately. sŭbindĕ, immediately, now and then. tamdiū, so long. tandem, at length. tantispêr, for so long. tĕr, thrice. tǒtiēs, so often. tum, tunc, then. ŭbi, when, as soon as. umquam, ever. usquě, until, ever. ŭt or ŭti, as, ac soon as when.

## III. Adverbs of Manner, Quality, Degree, etc,

ădeō, so, to that degree. admŏdum, very much. ălitěr, otherwise.
ceu , as, like as.
cūr? why?
duntaxăt, only, at least. ětiam, also, truy, yes. ětiamnunc, étiamtum, also, besides.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { fërē, } \\ \text { fermē, }\end{array}\right\}$ almost, nearly.
fortassĕ, perhaps.
frustria, in vain.
grātīs, freely.
haud, not.
haudquāquam, by no means.
hūcusquě, so far.
Identĭdem, constantly.
immŏ, nay, on the con-
trary.
Ită, so.
Item, just so, also.
Itĭdem, in like manner.
juxtā, equally, alike.
măgls, more.
mëdo, only.
næ or nē, truly, verily. nē, not.
nēdum, much less.
nempě, truly, forsootn. nēquāquam, ) by no neutīquam, ( means. nīmīrum, certainly, to be sure.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { nĭmiss, } \\ \text { nĭmium }\end{array}\right\}$ too much. nōn, not.
omnīno, altogether, only. pæně, almost.
pălam, openly.
părǐtěr, equally.
părum, too little.
paulătím, by degrees.
pěnĭtŭs, wholly.
pěrindè, ! just as,
proindĕ, $\}$ as though.
perquam, very much.
plęrumquĕ, for the most
part, commonly.
pŏtiŭs, rather.
porro, moreover, then.
prætĕr, beyond, except.
præsertim, particularly. prŏfecto, truly.
prŏpě, almost, near.
prŏpĕmǒdum, almost.
prorsŭs, wholly.
quam, how much, as.
quamobrem, wherefore.
quārē? why? wherefore?
quăsĭ, as if, as it were.
quěmadmơdum, as.
quĭdem, ${ }^{\text {equídem, }}$, indeed.
quōmŏdŏ? how? in what
manner?
quŏquě, also.
rītě, duly.
saltem, at least.
sānē, truly.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { săt, } \\ \text { sătís, }\end{array}\right\}$ enough.
sătiŭs, rather. sciliceet, truly, to wit. sěcŭs, otherwise.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { seorsum, } \\ \text { seorsŭs, }\end{array}\right\}$ separately. sīc, so.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { sīcŭt, } \\ \text { sīcūtī, }\end{array}\right\}$ so as, as.
sĭmŭl, together.
singillātim, one by one.
sōlum, only, alone.
tam, so, so much.
tamquam, like, as if.
tantëpèré, so greatly.
tantum, so much, only.
tantummŏdŏ, only.
tèměrě, at random.
$\bar{u} n \bar{a}$, together.
usquĕquäquě, in allpoints,
in all ways.
ŭt,
ŭtíquè, at any rate, certainly.
utpǒtè, as, inasmuch as.
valdē, very much.
věl, even.
vělŭt, \{as, like as, for vělŭtí, $\}$ example.
vicissim, in turn, again. vĭdēlĭcēt, clearly, to wit.
vix, scarcely.

Rem. 2. Adverbs denoting quality, manner, etc., are sometimes divided into those of, 1. Quality; as, bĕnĕ, mălë. 2. Certainty; as, certè, plänē. 3. Contingence; as, fortë. 4. Negation; as, haud, nōn, nēe, immö. 5. Affirmation; as, nee, quidem, útiquě, nempĕ. 6. Swearing; as, herclĕ. 7. Explaining; as, vídēlicét, utpǒtě. 8. Separation as, seorsum. 9. Joining together; as, simül, ūnā. 10. Interrogation; as, cūr? quärē? 11. Quantity or degree; as, săť̌s, ădeō. 12. Excess; as, perquam, maximè. 13. Defect; as, părum, pœnĕ. 14. Preference; as, pǒtiŭus, sătiŭs. 15. Likeness; as, ťtă, sic. 16. Unlikeness; as, ălitěr. 17. Exclusion; as, tantum, sölum.

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 pröcul, haud longe, especially haud sāne in connection with other words; as, haud säne fäcile, res haud säne diffícilis, haud sāne intelligo; also haud quisquain, haud umquann, 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.-N $\bar{e}$, (or $n \bar{i}$ ) 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 $f$ the word standing between them: as, ne in oppitis quidem. not even in the towns; (b) in composition as in nes io, nëfas, neuter, etc.; (c) with imperatives and
subjunctives used as imperatives; as, Nē puěri, nē tanta antmit cssuescǐte bella. Virg. So, also, in wishes and asseverations; as, Nē id Jupiter sinĕret, may Jupiter forbid it. Liv. Ne vivam, si scio, may I die, if I know. Cic.; and in concessive and restrictive clauses; as, Ne fuërit, suppose there was not. Cic. Sint misericordes in furibus ararii, ne illis sanguinem nostram largiantur, only let them not, etc. Cic. So dum ne, dummödo ne, mödo ne, dum quั̈lem 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. Sīc, ǐtă, tam, as also tantŏpĕre, and ădeó signify 'so.' Sic is more particularly the demonstrative 'so,' or 'thus'; as, sic se res hăbet. It a defines or limits more accurately, and is equivalent to our 'in such a manner,' or 'only in so far'; as, ita defendito, ut neminnem loedas. Frequently, however, ita has the signification of sic, but sic has not the limiting sense of ita.Tam, 'so much,' gencrally stauds before adjectives and adverbs, and increases the degree; before vowels tantoperere 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 senätus consulto cognoscīte, 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 ălicưbi, but strengthened, just as quispiam is the same as aliquis. So, also, quöpiam is used affirmatively, and quöquan nega-tively.-Jam, with a negative, answers to our 'longer'; as, Nihil jam spêro, I no longer hope for any thing. When used to connect sentences it signifies 'further,' or 'now.'-Usque is commonly accompanied by the prepositions $a d$, $i n, a b$, or $e x$. It rarely signifies 'ever and anon'; as, Natür'am expellas furcā, tămen usque recurvet. Hor. $-N \bar{u} p e r, m o \check{d o}$, and $m o x$ are relative and indefinite.-D $\bar{u} d u m$, 'previously, or 'before,' in relation to a time which has just passed away, may often be translated 'just before.- - Jamd $\bar{u} d u m$ signifies 'long before,' or 'long since.' With the poets jamdüdum contains the idea of impatience, and signifies 'without delay,' 'forthwith'; as, Jamdüdum sumite ponas. 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': T'um is 'then,' as the correlative of $q u u m$,' when ;' as, quum omnes adessent, tum ille exorsus est dicëre, 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 ketween 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,
grégātim, in herds; membrātim, limb by limb; vicisssātim, or more frequently, etcissim, by turns; from grex, membrum, and vicis.
2. Some end in $\mathrm{\imath t}$ tus, and denote origin or manner; as,
ccelitus, from heaven; funditus, from the bottom; rädicitus, by the roots; from colum, fundus, and ràdix.
3. Some are merely the different cases of nouns used adverbially; as,
(a.) Some adverbs of time; as, mënĕ, noctū, diū, temporrë or tempörí, znitiō, principio, mòdo.-(b.) Adverbs of place; as, foris, forās.-(c.) Adverbs of manncr; as, spontê, forté, grätis or grätī̀s, ingrätiis, vulgó, partim.

## II. From Adjectives and Participles.

By far the greater number of derivative adverbs come from adjec tives and participles (present and perfect), and end in $\bar{e}$ and terr.

1. Adverbs derived from adjectives and participles of the second declension, are formed by adding $\bar{e}$ to the root; as,
regrè, scarcely; altē, high; tibērē, freely; longè, far; mìsèrē, miserably; plēnē, fully; doctē, learnedly; ornātè, elegantly; from agèr, aluus, libèr, lonyüs, misèr, plënüs, ductüs, and ornätüs. Bënẻ, well, is from bönuis, or an oldet form bênüs.

Remark. A few adverbs in $e$ differ in meaning from their adjectives; as, sänē, certainly ; valdē, very ; from sānüs, sound, well; and vālidüs, strong.

Exc. 1. A few adverbs derived from adjectives and participles of the second declension, add $\breve{u} t \stackrel{e}{r}$, $\check{\imath} t \breve{u} s$, im, or $\bar{a} t i m$ to the root; as,
 tuätim, after vour manner; singülätim, singillätim, sigillätim, or singsltim, severally; ccesim, carptim, sensim, sǘtim, etc. from nävūs, antiquŭs, dīvīnüs, prīātüs, tuüs, singüli. cresüs, carptüs, etc.

Exc. 2. Some adverbs are formed with two or more of the above termina-
 hurgè, largitèr; lǜülentē, पūcullentér; turbülentē, turbülentèr: so cautē and cautim; hümünē, hümūnitēr, and hümānitüs; pūblicè and püblicitüs.
2. Adverbs derived from adjectives and participles of the third declension, are formed by adding uter to the root, except when it ends in $t$, in which case $\check{e r}$ only is added; as,
ācritér, sharply; fêlicitēr, happily; turpitér, basely;-ielĕgantër, elegantlv; prüdentër, prudently; ämantër, lovingly; pröpérantër, hastily; from äcër, fëlix, turpiss, èlégans, prütens, ămans, and prơpėrans. So also from the obsolete älís for álius, and pröpis, (neuter pröpě), come ălitèr and proptër for propitèr.

Exc. From audax comes by srncope audactër; from firtis comes fortiter; from omuts, omnīno; from ūbēr, übertim; and from nēquam, nēquitër.
3. From the cardinal numerals are formed numeral adverbs in iēs; as,
quinquiēs, děciēs, from quinquě and dĕcem. So tottiēs and qư̌tiēs, from tǒt and $q u \grave{t} t$. See § 119.
4. Some adverbs are merely certain cases of adjectives. Such are,
(a.) Ablatives in $\bar{\delta}$, from adjectives and participles of the second declension; as, $_{2}$ citó, quickly; contïnū, immediately; falsō, falsely; crēbrō, frequently; méritō, deservedly; nĕcơpīnāto, unexpectedly; fortuitō, by chance; auspicāto, auspiciously; consulto, designedly; and a few in $\bar{a}$ from adjectives of the first declension; as, rectā, straight on; $\bar{u} n \bar{a}$, together. In like manner, rëpĕnté, suddenly, from rëpens; and péregre or pĕregri, from pèrĕger.
(b.) Nominatives or accusatives of the third declension in the neuter singular; as, făcillĕ, difficillĕ, rĕcens, sublimĕ, and impūnĕ; and some also of the second declension; as, cētërum, plërumquë, multum, plürtmum, pőtissimum, paulum, ninnium, părum, and the numeral adverbs, prìmum, itěrum, tertium, quartum, etc. which have also the termination in $\bar{o}$, and so also postremum ( $\bar{\delta})$, and ultimum ( $\overline{0}$ ). The neuter plural sometimes occurs also, especially in poetry; as, multă gemëre; tristiă ululā̀e; crēbră ferīre.
(c.) Accusatives of the first declension; as, bĭfariam, trifariam, multĭfariam, omnĭfariam, 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 vērē and vēro have a somewhat different sense. Vërē, truly, is the regular adverb of vërŭs, true; but vēro 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, adfustinĕ hëri in convivio? The affirmative answer is ego vēro adfui, or without the verb, ego vēro, and negatively, minime vëro; and as véro thus merely indicates a reply, it is often untranslatable into English.-Certo, on the other hand, usually takes the meaning of the adjective certus, while certē often signifies 'at least'; as, victī sŭmus, aut, si dignìtas vinci non pötest, fracti certē; but certē is frequently used in the sense of 'certainly;' especially in the phrase certē 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, dīrŭs, discors, gnārǔ̆s, rŭdīs, trux, imbellı̈s, immöbĭľ̆s, and similar compounds. In place of the adverbs formed from větưs and fïdŭs, větustē and antīquē are used for the former, and fídëlitér for the latter, from větustüs, antiqquŭs, and füdēlis.
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, eō for ad eum löcum; hūc for $a d$ hunc locum; the terminations dĕ and inc denote the place from which; $\bar{i}$ and $\bar{i} c$, the place in which; and $\bar{a}$ and $\bar{a} c$, the place $\begin{aligned} & y \\ & \text { or } \\ & \text { through which; as, }\end{aligned}$ $e \bar{a} ; v i \bar{a}$ or parte being understood.
IV. (a.) A few adverbs are derived from prepositions; as, subtŭs, beneath; from sŭb; proptër, near; from prŏpě. (b.) Mordīcŭs and versŭs are derived from the verbs mordeo and verto.

Remark. Diminztives are formed from a few adverbs; as, clam, clancexlum; primum, prīmŭlum; cĕlĕriŭs, cĕlĕriuscŭlē; soepiüs, scepiuscūlē ; bĕnĕ, bellē, bellissìmē,

## COMPOSITION OF ADVERBS.

## § 193. Adverbs are compounded variously :-

1. Of an adjective and a noun; as, postridiē, quottīlië, magnoppĕrě, maximơpĕrě,
 of postēro diē, maynó öperé, etc.

2. Of an adverb and a noun; as, nüdiüs, scepënümérō-of nunc dies, etc.
3. Of a preposition and a nonn; as, comminüs, èminüs, illico, סbiter, extemplठ, obriam, postmídd, admodum, própédiem—of con, $e$, and mănŭs; in and locŭs; etc.
4. Of an adjective and a pronoun; as, áliöqqui or ăliöquin, cêtëröquī or cētērō-

5. Of a pronoun and an adverb; as, ăliqquamdiū, ălĭcübi-of ăliquǔs, diū, and «̀bi; néquäquam and nëquicquam-of né and quisquam.
6. Of two verbs; as, îlicět, scilicět vidèlicět of ìrě, scirre, cìdērě, and licět.
7. Of an adverb and a verb; as, quolibět, übivis, undëlibèt. So deinceps-from dein and cöpio; duntaxat-from dum and taxo.
8. Of a participle with various parts of speech; as, deorsum, dextrorsum, horsum, retrorsum, sursum-of dē, dextër, hic, retro, süpër, and vorsüs or versüs.
9. Of two adverbs; as, jamdūdum, quamdiū, tamdiū, cummaximè, tummaximē, quousquĕ, sicūt.
10. Of a preposition and an adjective; as, dēnuo, imprimis, cumprimis, apprimé, incassum-of dè nörō, in primis, etc.
11. Of a preposition and a pronoun; as, quaproptĕr, posteā, intërreà, pratëreā, hactënŭs, quütēnüs, ălíquätēnŭs, eātënüs-ot proptër que, post ea or eam, etc.
12. Of a preposition and an adverb; as, ăbhinc, ădhūc, dērěpentë, intëribi, interdiū, interdum, perscpeé.
13. Of two or three prepositions; as, insüpër, prōtinŭs, indé, dein, deindẻ, përindě.
14. Of a conjunction and an adverb; as,’, nēcübi, sicưbi-of nē, sí, and ăkícübj,
15. Of an adverb and a termination scarcely used except in composition; as, ibīdem, părumpěr, quandöcumqué, übīqué, utcumquë.
16. Of three different parts of speech; as, forsităn-of fors, sit, ăn, quemadmödum, quamobrem, etc.
17. Of an adverb and an adjective; as, nimirum, utpotě.
18. Of an adjective and a verb; as, quantumvīs, quantumlibět.

## Signification of certain Compound and Derivative Adverbs.

1. The adverbs continuo, prötīnus, stătim, confestim, sübito, rëpente and dēré pente, actütum, illico, ilicet, extemplo, signify in general 'directly' or 'immediately'; but, strictly, contänuo means, 'immediately after'; stätim, 'without delay'; confestim, 'directly'; sübito, 'snddenly, unexpectedly'; prötinnus, 'farther,' viz. in the same direction, and hence, 'without interruption'; repente and dérépente, 'at once,' opposed to sensim, 'gradually,' (see Cic. Off. 1, 33); actütum, 'instantaneously,' i. q. eódem actū; illico, and more rarely ilicet, 'forthwith, the instant,' (Virg. En. 2, 424, Cic. Mur. 10); so also extemplo, (Liv. 41, 1).
2. Prasertim, pracipue, imprimis, cumprimis, apprime, are generally translated 'principally,' but, properly, preesertim is 'particularly,' and sets forth a particular circumstance with emphasis; prucipue, from proccäpio, has reference to privilege, and signifies 'especially'; imprimis and cunprimis, signify 'principally,' or 'in preference to others'; and apprime, 'before all,' 'very,' is used
in pure Latin to qualify and strengthen only adjectives. Admðdum properly signifies 'according to measure,' that is, 'in as great a measure as can be, 'very, exceedingly.' With numerals it denotes approximation, 'about.' $\boldsymbol{A} d-$ modum nihil and admodum nullus signify 'nothing at all' and 'no one at all.'
3. Mödo is the usual equivalent for 'only.' Solum, 'alone,' 'merely,' points to something higher or greater. Tantum, 'only,' 'merely,' intimates that something else was expected. The significations of solum and tantum are strengthened by módo, forming sōlummodo and tantummödo. Duntaxat, '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 mihi hunc dolorrem, aut minue saltem.
4. Frustrā implies a disappointed expectation; as in frustra suscipëre labōres. Nēquicquam 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, tēla incassum jacëre.

## COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

§194. 1. Adverbs derived from adjectives with the terminations $\bar{e}$ and tër, and most of those in $o$, are compared like their primitives.
2. The comparative, like the neuter comparative of the adjective, ends in $i \bar{u} s$; the superlative is formed from the superlative of the adjective by changing $\breve{u}$ s into $e$; as,
 rārơ, rāriüs, rārissime; mātürē, mātüriüus, mātürissime or māturrime.
3. Some adverbs have superlatives in $\delta$ or $u m$; as, merritissimb $\overline{\text {, plürimum, }}$ primó or primum, potissimum.
4. If the comparison of the adjective is urregular or defective, (see $\S \S 125,126)$, that of the adverb is so likewise; as,
bënè, mêliŭs, optimè; măl̆̈, pĕjŭs, pessimè; părum, minnŭs, minimē; muttum, plūs, plürimum; -, priŭs, prìmō or primum; -, öciŭs, ōcissime; 一, dētëriüs, dèterrime; -, potiūs, pōtissime or pótissimum; mêritō, -, mërítissimo; sătis, să̈tiüs, - Măyis, maximè, (from magnŭs,) has no positive; nüpër, nüperrime, has no comparative. Prơpĕ, propiŭs, proxime: the adjective propior has no positive in use. The regular adverb in the positive degree from übĕr is wanting, its place being supplied by $\bar{u} b e r t i m$, but $\bar{u} b e ̈ r i u ̈ s ~ a n d ~ \bar{u} b e r r i m e ̈ ~ a r e ~ u s e d . ~ S o ~ i n-~$ stead of tristiter, tristé, the neuter of tristis, is used, but the comparative tristiüs is regular; and from sōcors only sōcordiüs, the comparative, is in use.
5. Diä and scepĕ, though not derived from adjectives, are yet compared;diū, diūtiŭs, diūtissime; scepĕ, sapıŭs, sapissime. A comparative tempëriüs, from tempĕri or temporrī, also sometimes occurs. So sěcŭs, sēciüs.
6. Adverbs, like adjectives, are sometimes compared by prefixing măğ̆s and maximē ; as, măğ̆s ăpertē, maximē accommŏdātē.

## PREPOSITIONS.

- $\S$ 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, ămor meus ergec to, my love towand thee; eo ad te, I go to thete.
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. adversŭs, \}against, adversum, f towards. antě, before.
ăpŭd, at, with, near, before, in presence of. $\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { circā, } \\ \text { circum, }\end{array}\right\}$ around, about. circitēr, about, near.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { cǐs, } \\ \text { citrā, }\end{array}\right\}$ on this side, within.
contrā, against, opposite. ergā, tocards, opposite.
extrā, without, beyond.
infrä, under, beneath.
intěr, between, among, during.
intrā, within.
juxtā, near to, next to.
ob for, on account of, before.
pěnês, in the power of, with.
pěr, through, throughout, by, during.
pōnè, behind.
post, after, since, behind. præterr, past, before, against, beyond, besides.
pröpè, near by, nigh.
proptêr, near, on account of.
sěcundum, after, behind, along, next to, according to.
suprā, above, over. trans, over, beyond.
ultrā, beyond.
5. Eleven prepositions have after them an ablative :-

|  |  | $\mathrm{pre}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| abs, | $\overline{\text { e, }}$,out of, from, of, by, | with. |
| absquĕ, without, but for. | ex, ${ }^{\text {af }}$ | prō, bef |
| cōram, before, in presence of. | pălam, before, in presence of. | of, according to. sineê, without. |
| cum, with. |  | těnŭs, as far as, up to. |

6. Five prepositions take after them sometimes an accusative, and sometimes an ablative:-
clam, without the knowl sŭb, under, about, near. sŭpĕr, above, over; upon, edge of.
subtěr, under, beneath. in, in, on; to, into, against.

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. $\S 279,10$.

Rem. 2. $A$ is used only before consonants; $a b b$ before vowels, and frequently before consonants, though rarely before labials: $a b s$ is obsolete, except in the phrase abs te.
$E$ is used only before consonants, $e x$ before both vowels and consonants.
Rem. 3. Versŭs, which follows its noun, (cf. § 235, R. 3), usqué, and exadversŭs (-um), sometimes take an accusative, simŭl and pröcŭl, an ablative, and are then by some called prepositions. Sécŭs, with an accusative, occurs in Pliny and Cato.

Rem. 4. Many of the prepositions, especially those which dentte place, are also used as adverbs. Cf. § 191.

## Signification and Use of certain Prepositions.

Rem. 5. (a.) $A d$ denotes direction, and answers to the questions Whither? and Till when? as, Venio ăd te. Sophocles add summam senectūtem tragcedicts fécit. Cic. It also denotes a fixed time; as, ăd horram, at the hour; ăd tempus aliquid facěre,-at the right time. But sometimes ăd tempus denotes 'for a time.' Sometimes, also, ăd denotes the approach of time; as, ăd lücem, ăd vespëram, ăd extrémum, towards day-break, etc.; and also the actual arrival of a time; as, äd prima signu véris proféctue at the first sign of Spring.
(b.) In answer to the question Where? ăd signifies 'resr' a place; as, $\quad$ ad ${ }^{\text {d }}$ urbem esse; ăd portas urbis; pugna naxālis ăd Tenëdum. It is used like tn, 'at,' in such phrases as ăd cedem Bellöne, or, without cedem, ăd Opis; neyotium habēre ăd portum.-With numerals it may be rendered 'to the amount of ' or 'nearly'; as, üd ducentus. It is also used like circitër without any case; as, Occisis ăd hominnum millibus quatuor.-The phrase omnes ăd ūnum signifies, 'all without exception,' 'every one.'
(c.) Ad often denotes an object or parpose, and hence comes its signification of 'in respect to'; as, hömo ad labobres belli impryer. 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, ëd mödum, úel effigiem, àdl similitudinem, äd speciem alicūjus rei; ăd normam, etc. äd voluntütem alicūjus facëre aliquid. Ad verbum signifies, 'word for word'; nihil ăd hanc rem, 'nothing in comparison with this thing.'

Rem. 6. $A p u ̈ d$ expresses nearness to, and was primarily used of persons as $\breve{a} d$ was applied to things. Apüd also denotes rest, and ăd direction, motion, etc. Hence it signifies ' with,' both literally and fignratively. With names of places it signifies 'near,' like ád; as, Măle pugnätum est ăpüd Caudium. But in early writers, ăpüd is used for in; as, Augustus ăpüd urben Nölım extinctus est,-at Nola.-With $m e, t e$, se, or the name of a person, it signifies 'at the house' or 'dwelling of'; as, Fuisti ăpüd Lecam illä nocte.-Before appellatives of persons having authority in regard to any matter, it is translated 'before,' 'in the presence of'; as, äpüd julices, ăpüd prretōrem, ăpüd popülum. - It is also nsed with names of authors, instead of $i n$ with the name of their works; as, Apüd Xenophontem, but we cannot say in Xenophonte.

Rem. 7. Adversüs, contrà, and ergā signify 'opposite to.' Contrā denotes hostility, like our 'against'; ergā, a iriendly disposition, 'towards'; and adversŭs is used in either sense. But ergā sometimes occurs in a hostile sense.

Rem. 8. In trä 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, për litërus, by letter; pěr injurium, pèr scélus, with injustice, criminally; pèr iram, from or in anger; pěr simulutionem, për speciem, pèr causam, under the pretext; pèr occasiönem, on the occasion; perr ridicülum, in a ridiculous manner.-It sometimes signifies 'on account of'; as, pĕr valetudinem, on account of illness.-Për me licet,-so far as I am concerned.

Rem. 10. $A$ or $\check{a} b$, denoting time, is used with nouns, both abstract and concrete, with the same general meaning; as, ä primā cetāte, ăb ineunte cetäte, ăb initio «tātis, àb infantià, à pueritiā, äb adolescentià ; and, à puëro, à puéris, $a ̆ b$ adolescentülo, ăb infante, all of which signify 'from an early age.' So also, $\dot{a}$ parvis, ä paivŭlo, à tenëro, à tenëris unguicŭlis, which expressions are of Greek origin.-Ab initio, à principio, à primo, properly denote the space of time from the begiming down to a certain point; as, Urbem Römam à mincipio re $\bar{e}-$ ges habuēre, i. e. for a certain period after its foundation. But frequently ăb initio is equivalent to initio, in the beginning.-The adherents or followers of a school are often named from its head; as, $\bar{a}$ Platōne, àb Aristutële, etc.-In comic writers $\bar{a} b$ is sometimes used instead of the genitive; as, ancilla ăb Andriā.In a figurative sense it signifies ' with regard to'; as, ăb equitātu firmus.-With names of persons it also denotes relationship, and signifies 'on the side of '; as, Augustus à mutre Maynum Pompeium artissimo contingëbat grädu,-on his mother's side.-Stătin, comfestim, rècens äb aliquā re, 'immediately after.'Ab itinĕre aliquid facerre, 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 aliguo ive; hostes cum detrimento sunt
depulsi. It signifies also 'in', i. e. 'dressed in'; as, cum tunícā pullā sedēre. With verbs implying hostility, it signifies with,' in the sense of 'against'; as, cum aliquo bellunu gerère; cum aliquo quëri to complain of or against.

Rem. 12. Dē commonly signifies 'soncerning,' 'about.' Hence tradìtur dé Homéro is very different from traditur ūb 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, dè frātre, con $\bar{f} \bar{i} d o$ ita esse, ut semper volui.-It often signifies 'down from'; and also 'of,' in a partitive sense; as, hŏmo dē plēbe, ūnus dē popülo.-From its partitive signification arises its use in denoting time; as, in comitium de nocte venire, i. e. even by night, or spending a part of the night in coming; hence multā dè nocte, meidzä de nocte, 'in the depth of night,' 'in the middle of the night.' - In other cases, also, it is used for ex or ăb; as, Audivi hoc dē parente meo puer. Cic.; especially in connection with emëre, mercāri, conducĕre. Triumphum agĕre dē Gallis and ex Gallis are used indiscriminately-Sometimes, like sécundum, it signifies 'in accordance with,' 'after'; as, dè consilio meo:-sometimes it denotes the manner of an action; as, dēnuo, dé integro, afresh; dé improviso, unexpectedly; de industrīā, purposely :-quā dē re, quā dē causā, quibus dē causis, for which reason or reasons.

Rem. 13. Ex 'from,' 'out of.' Ex ëquo pugnāre, to fight on horseback; so ex itinëre scribëre: ex adverso, è regiōne, opposite; ex omni parte, in or from all parts.-Ex viño or ex ăquä coquëre or bibëre, i. e. 'with wine,' etc. are medical expressions.-It sometimes denotes manner; as, ex animo laudāre, to praise heartily; ex sententiä and ex coluntāte, according to one's wish.-It is also, like $\bar{d} \bar{e}$, used in a partitive sense; as, unnus ē plēbe, ünus ē multis.
Rem. 14. In, with the accusative, signifying 'to' or 'into,' denotes the point towards which motion proceeds; as, in odem ire; or the direction in which a thing extends; as, dëcem pëdes 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, ämor in patriam, odium in malos cīves, in milites liberälis; oratio in aliquem, a speech against some one.-It also denotes a purpose; as, pecunia däta est in rem militārem. Pax dăta 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 postërum dien, for the following day. In diem vivëre, to live only for the day; in futurum, in postérum, in reliquum, for the future; in aternum, in perpetuum, forever; in prosens, for the present: with all these adjectives tempus may be supplied. In with singüli, expressed or understood, denotes a distribution, and may be translated 'to,' 'for,' 'on,' 'ojver.'-In singülos 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, mirum in mödum; so in universum, in general; in commüne, in common; in vicem, alternately, or, instead of ; in alicūjus lơcum 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 intër. It may sometimes be translated 'with,' or 'notwithstanding'; as, In summā copī̄ā oratōrum, nēmo tämen Cicerōnis laudem aquävit.-With nouns which by themselves denote time, such as secülum, 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 consulătu in principio, in bello; but even with these in is sometimes omitted, but is usrally retained in connection with the gerund or gerundive; as, in legendo, in legendis libris. In prasenti, or in prasentiā, 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 compostion 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, $\bar{a} m \delta ั v e o, \bar{a} v e l l o$, and sometimes before $f$ in $\bar{a} f u i$ and $\bar{a} f o ̈ r e, ~ f o r ~ a b f u i ~ a n d ~ a b f o ̈ r e . ~ A b ~ i s ~ u s e d ~ b e f o r e ~$ vowels, and before $d, f, h, j, l, n, r$, and $s ;$ as, abjūro, abrögo, 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 ëro 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, aff ëro, aggrédior, allēgo, annītor, appōno, arrigo, assĕquor, attollo. Its $d$ is usually omitted before $s$ followed by a consonant, and before gn ; as, aspergo, aspicio, agnosco, agnätus. Before $q$, the $d$ is changed into $c$; as, acquiro.
3. Ante remains unchanged, except in antïcipo and antisto, where it changes $\boldsymbol{e}$ to $i$; but antesto also occurs.
4. Circum in composition remains unchanged, only in circümeo and its derivatives the $m$ is often dropped; as, circueo, circuitus, etc.
5. Cum (in composition, com), retains $m$ before $b, m, p$; as, combrbo, committo, compono: before $l, n, r$, its $m$ is changed into those letters respectively; as, colligo, connitor, corripio: before other consonants, it becomes $n$; as, condüco, conjungo. Before a vowel, $g n$ or $h, m$ is commonly omitted; as, coéo, coopto, cognosco, cohabito; but it is sometimes retained; as, comĕdo, cŏmes, cŏmitor. In cōgo and cōgitto a contraction also takes place; as, cŏăgo, cōgo, etc. In combūro, $b$ is inserted.
6. Ex is prefixed to vowels, and to $c, h, p, q, s, t$; as, exeo, exigo, excurro, exhíbeo, expĕdio. Before $f, x$ is assimilated, and also rarely becomes ec; as, effĕ$r o$ or ecfëro. $S$ after $x$ is often omitted; as, exĕquor, for exsëquor; in excidium (from exscindo), $s$ is regularly dropped. $E$ is prefixed to the other consonants; as, èbibo, édico, except in eclex. Before these however, with the exception of $n$ and $r$, ex is sometimes used; as, exmöveo. $E$ is sometimes used before $p$; as, èpōto.
7. In remains unchanged before a vowel. Before $b, m, p$, it changes $n$ into $m$; as, imbuo, immitto, impöno: before $l$ and $r, n$ is assimilated; as, illigo, irrētio: before $g n, n$ is omittcd; as, ignärus. Before the other consonants in is unchanged. In some compounds, $i n$ retains $d$ before a vowel, from an ancient form indu; as, indĭgěna, indigeo, indolesco. So anciently induperātor, for imperātor.
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, oppěto. In omitto, $b$ is dropped. An ancient form obs, analagous to $a b s$ for $a b$, 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 pellüceo, in which $r$ is assimilated before $l$. In pējëro, $r$ is dropped.
11. Post remains unchanged, except in pōmarium and pömëridiānus, in which st is dropped.
12. Pree and prater in composition remain unchanged, except that pras is shortened before a vowel. Cf. § 283, II Гxc. 1.
13. Pro has sometimes its vowel shortsaed, (cf. $\$ 285,2$, Exc.5) and, to avoid hiatus, it sometimes takes $d$ before a vowel; as, prödeo, prödesse, prödigo. Before verbs beginning with $r$ and $l$, pro sometimes becomes por and pol; as, porrigo, polliccor.
14. $S u ̈ b$ in composition remains unchanged before a vowel and before $b, d, j$, $l, n_{1} s, t, r$. Before $c, f, g, m, p, r$, its $b$ is regularly assimilated; as, succēdo, suffero, suggëro, summöreo, supplìco, surripio. Before $c, p$, and $t$, it sometimes takes the form sus from subs, analogous to abs and obs; as, suscipio, suspendo, sustoll : $b$ is omitted before $s$, followed by a consonant; as, suspicio.
15. Subter and süper in composition remain unchanged.
16. Trans remains unchanged before a vowel. It omits $s$ before $s$; as, transcendo: in trādo, trädūco, trājùcio, and träno, ns is commonly omitted.
(b.) The following words are called inseparable prepositions, because they are found only in composition:-
Ambì or amb, (Greek a $\mu \phi \frac{1}{}$ ), around, about. Rĕd or rě, again, back. Vẽ, nol. Dis or di, asunder. Sē, apart, aside.
17. Amb is always used before a vowel; as, ambäges, ambarvàlis, ambědo, ambĭgo, ainbio, ambüro: except ampulla, ămìcio, and ănhēlo. Before consonants it has the forms ambi; as, amb゙dens, ambĭfüriam, ambirium: am; as, amplector, ampüto: or an; as, anceps, anfractus, anquiro.
18. Dis is prefixed to words beginning with $c, p, q, s$ before a vowel, $t$, and $h ;$ as, discưtio, dispōno, disquīro, distendo, dishiasco: but disertus is formed from disséro; before $f, s$ is changed into $f$; as, differro: in dirimo, and diribeo (from dis hábeo), $s$ becomes $r$. $D \bar{i}$ is prefixed to the other consonants, and to $s$ when followed by a consonant; as, diduuco, dimitto, distinguo, dispicio. But both dis and di are used before $j$; as, disjungo, dijūdico, and before $r$ in rumpo.
19. Rèd is used before a vowel or $h$; rě before a consonant; as, rédămo, rědeo, rèdhỉbeo, rëdigo, rèdöleo, rëdundo;-réjicio, répōno, rèvertor. But rèd is used before do; as, reddo. The connecting vowel $i$ is found in rédirivus; and in the poetical forms relligio, relliquice, and sometimes in reccido the $d$ is assimilated. In later writers re is sometimes found before a vowel or $h$.
20. $S \bar{e}$ and $v \bar{e}$ are prefixed withont change; as, sècēdo, sēcürus; vēgrandis, vécors.
§ 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 :-
21. $A$, or $a b$, away, from, down; entirely; un-. With verbs it denotes removal, disappearance, absence; as, aufëro, abütor, absum. With adjectives it denotes absence, privation; as, àmens, absơnus.
22. Adl, to, toward; at, by. In composition with verbs ăd denotes (a) motion to, (not into), as, accēdo; (b) addition, as, ascribo; (c) nearness, as, assideo; (d) assent, faror, as, anmm, arrideo; (e) repetition and hence intensity, as, accido; ( $f$ ) at, in consequence of, as, arrigo. It is sometimes augmentative, rarely inchoative.
23. Ambr, around, about, on both sides.
24. Circum, around, about, on all sides.
25. Cim or con, together, entirely. In composition with verbs it denotes (a) union, as, concurro, consūlo; (b) completeness, as, combūro, conficio; (c) with effort, as, conjicio, conclamo; (d) in harmony, as, consőno, consentio; (e) on or over, like the English $b_{\epsilon-}$, as, collinno, to besmear:
26. Contra, against, opposite.
27. $D \bar{\rho}$, off, away, through, over, down; entirely; very, extremely. With verbs dè denotes (a) down; as, dēmitto; (b) removal; as dètondeo; (c) alsence; as, dēsum, děhăbeo; (d) prevention; as, děhortor; (e) unfriendly feeling; as, despicio, dērideo.-With adjectives dē denotes (a)down; as, dēclīvis; (b) without ; as, dèmens.
28. Dis, asunder, apart, in picces, in two; dis-, un-; very greatly. With verbs dis denotes (a) division; as, dīvìdo, dīläbor; (b) difference; as, discrěpo, dissentio; (c) the reverse of the simple notion; ass, displiceo, diffiido; (d) intensity; as, dilaudo.-With adjectives dis denotes difference; as, discölor, discors.
29. $E$, or ex, out, forth, away, upward, without, -less, un-; utterly, completely, very. With verbs it denotes (a) out ; as, exeo, eximo, ēlābōro; (b) removalof something; as, ēdormio; (c) publicity; as, èdico; (d) ascent; as, exsisto; (e) completeness; as, édisco, exuro; ( $f$ ) with denominative verbs, change of character; as, expio, eff èro (āre); ( $g$ ) removal of what is expressed by the noun whence the ver'b 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.
30. In, with verbs, signifies in, on, at; into, against; as, innhäbito, irduo, ingèmo, ineo, illìdo. With adjectives, un-, in-, im-, il-, ir-, not; as, ignōtus, inhospťtãils, immortalis. Some of its compounds have contrary significations, according as they are participles or adjectives; as, intectus, part., covered, adj., uncovered.
31. Inter, between, among, at intervals.
32. $O b$, with verbs, signifies to, towards; as, $\delta b e o$, ostendo ; against; as, obluctor, obnuntio; at, before; as, obambŭlo, obversor; upon; as, occulco; over; as, obdū̆co.
33. Per, with verbs, denotes, through, thoroughly, perfectly, quite; as, perdüco, perfício, perdo: with adjectives, through, very; as, pernox, perlëris.
34. Post, after, behind.
35. Pree 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, præsto; (e) before in time; as, prædico, præcerpo; at the extremity; as, præüro.-With adjectives, (a) before in place or time; as, præceps, præscius; (b) very; as, præaltus, præclārus.
36. Prceter, past, by, beyond, besides.
37. Prō, before, forward, forth ${ }_{\boldsymbol{\mu}}$ away, down; for; openly; as, prolūdo, porrigo, prōterreo, prōtĕro, prōcūro, prøfiteor.
38. Rĕ, again, against, back, re-, un-, away; greatly ; as, rĕföresco, rĕpendo, rĕfĕrio, rëfigo, récondo.
39. Sē, without, aside, apart; as, sēcūro, sēpōno, sēcēdo, sēcūrus.
40. Süb, up, from below upwards, under. With verbs sŭb also signifies ( $a$ ) assistance; as, subvenio ; (b) succession; as, succino; (c) in place of; as, suflicio; (d) near; as, subsum; (e) secretly, clandestinely; as, surripio, subdūco; ( $f$ ) somewhat, a little; as, subrīdeo, sübaccūso.-With adjectives it signifies, slightly, rather; as, sūbobscūrus, sŭbabsurdus, sūbăcỉdus.
41. Subter, beneath, under, from under, secretly, privately.
42. Süper, above, over, left over, remaining, super-; as, sŭpersëdcı, sŭpersum, sŭperstes, süpervăcāneus.
43. Trans, over, across, through; beyond; as, trädo, transeo, transfigo, transalpinus.
44. Vè, not, without; very; as, vēgrandis, vēcors; vèpallidus.

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,

$\frac{\bar{a} t q u e, ~}{\bar{a} c}, \quad$ and, as; than.
āc si, as if.
ădeo, so that, so.
ăn, ame, \} whether.
amon, whether or not.
antěquam, before.
ăt, ast, but.
ăt ěnim, but indeed.
atqui. but.
attamèn, but yet.
aut, either, or.
aut...aut, either...or. autem, but.
cētèrum, but, however
ceu, as, like as, as if.
cum or quam, since.
dōněc, as long as, until
dum, provided, while, as
long as, until.
dummǒdo, if but, if only.
ènimvēro, in very deed.
ěnim, $\}$ énim, for.
$\mathrm{e} \overline{\mathrm{v}}$, therefore.
ěquìdem, indeed.
ergo, therefore.
èt, end.
ět...ĕt | both...and;
ět...quě, \} as vell...as.
ĕt...nëque or něc, on the
one hand, but not on the other.
ětiam, also.
ětiamsi, , although, etsì, \} though.
iccirco,

licèt, though, although.
mödo, provided.
nam, namquě, for.
nē, lest, that not. -nè, whether.
nĕque or něc, neither, nor.
nĕque...nĕque,
něc...něc, neither, nĕque...něc, $\quad . . n o r$. nĕc...nĕque, necnĕ, or not. nĕquĕ, neither, nor.
nĕquĕ or nĕc...ět, \} not nĕquẽ or něc...quě, ) on the one hand, but on the other.
nēve or neu, nor, and not. nēve...nēve, ( neither...
neu...neu, ) nor. ni, nĭsǐ, unless.
num, whether.
præùt, in comparisonwith.
proŭt, according as, just $a s, a s$.
proinde, hence, therefore.
proptĕreā, therefore, for that reason.
postquam, after, since.
priusquam, before.
quam, as, than.
quamvis, aldhough.
quando, quandŏquídem, uhereas, since.
quamquam, although.
quāpropter,
quārē,
quamobrem,
quōcircā,
quantumvis, although, quamlibet, howerer. quăsi, as if, just as.
-quě, and.
-quê...ět, \} both...and; -què...-quě, ( as well...as.
quiă, because.
quin, but that, that not.
quippè, because.
quŏ, in order that. quoăd, as long as, until. quŏd, because, but. quodsi, but if.
quōminus, that nüt.
quŏniam, since, because.
quŏquè, also.
quum or cum, when, since, because.
quum...tum, both...and.
sěd, but.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { sicŭt, } \\ \text { sicưti, }\end{array}\right\}$ so as, just as, as.
sī, if.
sì mǒdo, if only.
sǐmŭl, $\}$ as soon
sǐmŭlăc (-atquĕ) $\} a s$.
sin, but if, if however.
sīvè or seu, or if.
sīvě...sivě̌, \} whether...or.
seu...seu, \} whether...or.
sĭquĭdem, if indeed, since.
tăměn, hocever, still.
tămetsì, although.
tamquam, as if.
tum...tum, both...and.
undĕ, whence.
ŭt, that, as that, so that, ŭti, $\int$ to the end that.
ŭt sì, as if.
utrum, whether.

- vě̆l, $\}$ either, or.
věl...věl, either...or.
vèlŭt, \}even as, just as,
vèlŭtí, $\}$ like as.
vēro, truly, but indeed.
vèrum, but.
vēruntămĕn, yet, notwithstanding.
vērum-ěnim vēro, but in. deed.

Conjunctions, according to their different uses, are divided into two general classes,-coördinate and subordinate.
\& I. Coördinate conjunctions, are such as join coördinate or similar constructions; as,

Luna et stelke fulgèbant, The moon and the stars were shining. Conctdunt venti, fugiuntque nubes, The winds subside, and the clouds disperse. Difficile $\dot{r}$ uctu 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.
II. Subordinate conjunctions are such as join dissimilar constructions; as,

Edo, ut vivam, I eat that I may live. Pyrrhus rex in itinčre inč̌dit in canem, qui interfecti hominis corpus custodiēbat. 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 causuls quod, quum, 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, ět, $\bar{a} c$, atquĕ, the enclitic $q u \check{e}$, which, combined with the negation belonging to the verb, becomes nĕquĕ or $n \check{e} c$, and, the negation being doubled, $n e \check{c} n \bar{o} n$ or $n e \check{\text { équĕ }} n \bar{o} n$, it becomes again affirmative and equivalent to $\check{ } t=$. To these are to be added étiain and quŏquĕ, with the adverbials item and titidem.

Remark. (a.) Et and quë differ in this, ět connects things which are conceived as different, and qué adds what belongs to, or naturally flows from them. $E t$, therefore, is copulative and quĕ adjunctive. Hence, in an enumeration of words, quĕ 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 quĕ denotes a consequence, and is equivalent to 'and therefore.'
(b.) Ac never stands before vowels, atquĕ chiefly before vowels, but also before consonants.-Atquĕ, being formed of ăd and quë, properly signifies 'and also,' 'and in addition,' thus putting things on an equality, but giving'emphásis to the latter. In the beginning of a proposition, which is explanatory of that which precedes, atqué or $\bar{a} c$ introduces a thing with great weight, and may be rendered 'now'; and in answers; as, Cognostine hos versus? Ac memorter, it is rendered 'yes, and that,' $A c$ being an abridged form of atquě luses somewhat of its power in connecting single words, and its use alternates with that of $e t$; it is preferred in subdivisions, whereas the main propositions are connected by ét.
(c.) Něquĕ, compounded of the ancient $n \bar{e}$ for $n o \bar{n}$ and $q u \check{e}$, is used for ert nōn. Et non 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' is used for 'and not rather' to correct an improper supposition; as, Si quam Rubrius injuriam suo nomine ac non impulsu tuo fecisset. Cic. Et nōn is commonly found also in the second clause of a sentence when ĕt precedes, but nĕquĕ, also, is often used in this case. Nëc nōn or nĕquĕ nōn, in classical prose, is not used like ět 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 êt.
(d.) Etiam has a wider extent than quŏque, for it contains the idea of our even,' and it also adds a new circumstance, whereas quöquĕ denotes the addition of a thing of a similar kind. Hence étiam is properly used to connect sentences, while quŏquĕ refers to a single word. Etiam signifies 'and further,' quŏqué, 'and so,' 'also.' Quŏquĕ always follows the word to which it refers, étiam 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 oftez is nōn mǒdo-sěd ét, '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' $E t$-eét is of common oucurrence; so. in later writers, but rarely in Cicero, ět-quĕ; quē-ēt connect single words, but not in Cicero; que-que, occur for the most part only in poetry, or in comection with the relative.-Negative propositions are connected in English by ' neither-nor,' and in Latin by néqué-néqué, něc-nĕc, nëquë-nčc, and rarely by néc-néqué. 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 comnected by ët-nëquë or nëc, nëqué or néc-ët, and occasionally by nĕc or nëquĕ-quĕ.
2. Disuunctive conjunctions connect things that are to be considered separately; as, $a u t, v \dot{e} l$, the enclitic $v \dot{e}$, and sivé or seu.

Remark. (a.) Aut and rél differ in this; aut indicates a difference of the object, rël, a difference of expression, i. e. aut is objective, rël, subjective. I'el is connected with the verb relle, and is generally repeated, vél-vél, 'choose this or choose this,' and the single vel is used by Cicero only to correct a preceding expression, and commonly combined with dicam, pötius, or eetiam.Hence by ellipsis vell has acquired the signification of the adverb, 'even,' and so enhances the signification of the word modified by it; as, Quum Sophöcles vel optime scripsërit Electram, where bëne is to be supplied before $v \in l$, 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 rêlüt is more frequently used.-(b.) Vé, the apocopated rel, leaves the choice free between two or more things, and in later but good prose veil is used in the same mamer.
(c.) Sire commonly retains the meaning of sī, and is then the same as rèl sī, but sometimes loses it, and is then equivalent to rell, denoting a difference of name; as, Vocabülum sivè appellatio. Quint. The form seu is rarely used by Cicero except in the combination seu pütius.-(d.) Aut and $\boldsymbol{v e}$ serve to continue the negation in negative sentences, where we use 'nor'; as, non-aut, where nön-nëqué also may be used. They are used also in negative questions; as, Nuin leyes nostras moresvë nörit? Cic.; and after comparatives; as, Ductrīna paubo aspërior, quam veritas aut natüra patiätur. Cic. It is only when both ideas are to be united into one that a copulative is used instead of aut and ree.(e.) 'Either-or' is expressed in Latin by cut-aut, denoting an opposition between two things, one of which excludes the other, or by rël-rél, denoting that the opposition is immaterial in respect to the result, so that the one need not exclude the other; as, Vèi imperatōre vel milite me utimini. Sall.-Sirésite is the same as vēl si-vëi si, and retains the meaning of vël-rēl. If nouns only are opposed to each other, an uncertainty is expressed as to how a thing is to be called; as, Crëtum L̈ges, 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, $\check{u} t$ or $u t \mathfrak{\imath}$, sïcŭt, vélüt, proŭt, prceüt, the poetical ceu, quam, tamquam, (with and without si), quăsi, üt sí, àc si , with $\bar{a} c$ and $\operatorname{atquëe,~when~they~sig-~}$ nify 'as.'

Pemark. Ac and atquĕ signify' 'as' or 'than' after adverbs and adjectives which denote similarity or dissimilarity; as, aquë, juxtū, pār and püpitër, pèrindë and proindĕ, prò̀ eō, similis and simíliter, dissimílis, tülis, tötidem, culius and ölitér, contrō, sécüs, contrinius.-Quam is rarely used after these words, except when a negative particle is joined with alius; as, Virtus nihil aliud est, quanı, etc.; and ét and quë do not occur in this connection.-Ac is used for quan, after comparatives, in poetry and occasionally by late prose writers; as, Artius atque hedëra. Hor. Insünius ac si. Id.
4. Concessive conjunctions express a concession, with the general signification 'although.' These are etsī, étiamsi, támetsi, or tämẻnetsī, quamquam, quamvis, quantumvis, quamlibĕt, licèt, üt in the sense of 'even if' or 'although,' and quum when it signifies 'although.'

Remark. Tämén and other particles signifying 'yet,' 'still,' are the correlatives of the concessive conjunctions; as, Ut desint vires, tămen est laudanda
voluntas. Ovid. Tcie adverb quidem becomes a concessive conjunc ton, when it is used to connect propositions and is followed by seed.-Quamquam 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 sī, sinn, nĭsī or $n \bar{\imath}$, sī mŏdo, dummódŏ, 'if only,' 'if but,' (for which $d u m$ and $m \delta d o$ are also used alone), $d u m$ $m \check{d} d \check{o} n \bar{e}$, or simply $m \check{o} d o \quad n \bar{e}$ or dumnē.

Remark. (a.) In order to indicate the connection with a preceding proposition, the relative quod, which in such case loses its signification as a pronoun, and may be rendered, 'nay,' 'now,' 'and,' or 'then,' is frequently put before $s i=1$ and sometimes before nisi and etsi, so that quodsi 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.' Quodnisi signifies 'if then-not,' and quodetsī, 'nay, even if.' $Q u o ̆ d ~ i s ~ f o u n d ~ a l s o ~ b e f o r e ~ q u u m, ~ u ̆ b i ̄, ~ q u i u ̆, ~ q u o ̆ n i a m, ~ n e ̄, ~ u ̌ t i ̄-~$ nam, and even before the relative pronoun.
(b.) Ni and nisī limit a statement by introducing an exception, and thus differ from sī $n \bar{o} n$, which introduces a negative case. It is often immaterial whether nissi or $s \bar{\imath} n o \bar{n}$ is used, but the difference is still essential. Si non is used when single words are opposed to one another, and in this case sī minŭs may be used instead of $s \bar{\imath} n \bar{n} n$.-If after an affirmative proposition its negative opposite is added without a verb, our 'but if not' is commonly expressed in prose by sī mīnŭs or sin mĭnŭs or sīn ăl̆ter; as, Educ tecum etiam omnes tuos; si minnus, quam plurimos. Cic.; rarely by sī nōn.
6. Illative conjunctions express an inference or conclusion, with the gen. eral signification of 'therefore,' 'consequently.' These are ergo, igituŭr, țăqué, e $\bar{o}$, tdeo, iccirco, proindé, proptĕrea , and the relative conjunctions, quaproptĕr, quāré, quamobrem, qū̄circa, undĕ,' wherefore.'

Remark. Ergo and igitŭr' denote a logical inference.-Ităqué, 'and thus,' expresses the relation of cause in facts.-ldeo, iccirco, and proptëre $\bar{a}$, 'on this account,' express the agreement between intention and action.- $E \overline{0}$, ' on this account,' or 'for this purpose,' is more frequently an adverb of place.Proindĕ', 'consequently,' implies an exhortation.-Undĕ, 'whence,' is propenly an adverb of place.-Adeo, 'so that,' or simply 'so,' is also properly an adverb. Hinc, 'hence,' and indë, 'thence,' continue to be adverbs.
7. Causal conjunctions express a cause or reason, with the general signification of 'for' and 'because.' These are nam, namquĕ, ěnim, étĕnim, quiă, quŏd, quбniam, quippĕ, quиm, quando, quandóquйdem, sīquílem; and the adverbs nîmirum, nempé, scīliceét, and vídélicét.

Remark. (a.) Nam is used at the beginning of a proposition, énim, after the first or second word. Nam introduces an objective reason, and énim merely a subjective one. There is the same difference between namquĕ and éténin. Nainqué, 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 ăt énim or séd énim is sometimes, by comic writers, put at the beginning of a proposition.-Nam, ěnim, and éténim are often used in the sense of 'namely,' or 'to wit,' to introduce an explanation of something going before. Nìmìrum, vídēlicě̌t, and scillicët likewise answer to our 'namely' or 'viz.' Nīmīrum, compounded of $n \bar{\imath}$ and mī̀um, 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 comected.-Vidēlicet and scīliccet introduce an explanation, with this difference that vidélicet gencrally indicates the true, and scilicet a wrong explanation. Sometimes, however, nam, ĕnim, étënim, nimīrum, and ridēlicēêt are used in an ironical sense, and scillicĕt introduces a true reason.-Nempeé, 'screly,' often assumes a sarcastic meaning when another person's concession is taken for the purpose of refuting him.-(b.) Quiă and quod indicate a defi-
nite and conclusive reason, quoniam, (i. e. quum jam), a motive.-Ideo, iccirco, proptëreà quod, and quiä, are used without any essential difference, except that quiai introduces a more strict and logical reason, whereas quoniam, sijnifying $f_{\text {now }}$ as,' introduces important circumstances.-Quendo, quandóquidem, and siquidem approach nearer to quoniam than to quic, as they introduce only subjective reasons. Quendöquidem denotes 'a reason implied in a circumstance previously mentioned; siquidem, a retson implied in a concession. In siquadem the meaning of $s i$ is generally dropped, but it sometimes remains, and then $s i$ and quidem should be written as separate words; as, $O$ fortunätam rempablicam, si quidem hanc sentinam ejecerrit. Cic.-Quippé, 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 $u \check{t}$ or $\check{u} t \bar{i}, q u \bar{\delta}$,


Remark. Ut, 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 üt nōn; when indicating a purpose, if the negative is added, it, becomes $n \bar{e}$ or $u$ ut $n \bar{e}$, but ǔt nōn also is very rarely used for né.-Nēré (i. e. vél nē) 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. Quō nē for nē occurs once in Horace.
9. Adversative conjunctions, express opposition, with the signification of 'but.' These are sèd, autem, vèrum, véro, ăt (poetical ast), àt ènim, atquí, tảmen, attămen, sedtămen, véruntămen, ăt vèro, (ënimvéro), véruménim, vērum, vēro, cētérum.

Remark. (a.) Sëd 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 vèro as sēd to autem. Vērum, while it denotes opposition, contains also an explanation. Véro 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 vèro is often added to the verb; as, Dasne? Do vero. 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 vēro alone signifies 'yes,' like sānē, ìtŭ, and ètiam.- Enimvēro, 'yes, truly,' 'in truth,' does not denote opposition. It sometimes, like vēro, forms the transition to that which is most important. The compound verrun énimvéro denotes the most emphatic opposition.
(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 amicissimus. It is especially used to denote objections whether of the speaker himself or of others. At ènim 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, rix credibile. 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.'- Cëtěrum, 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 ădeo 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, йt, üt primum, übi, postquam, antĕquam, and priusquam, quando, simùlāc or simưlatque, or simül alone, ism,


Remark. Ut and übi, as particles of time, signify 'when.' Dum, döneéc, and quoul signify either 'as long as,' or 'until.' Dum often precedes intëreá or intërinn, and both dun and donëc are often preceded by the adverbs usque, usquë eō or usqué ădeo.
11. Interrogative conjunctions indicate a question. These are, $n u m$, $u t \vartheta u m, \check{a} u$, and the enclitic $n \check{e}$. This, when attached to the three preceding particles, forming numně, utrumnĕ, and annĕ, does not afffect their meaning. With $n \bar{o} n$ it forms a special interrogative particle nonnĕ. To these add ec and $\bar{e} n$, as they appear in ecquis, ecquando, and énumquam, and numquid and ecquid, when used simply as interrogativs particles.

Remark. (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 g, ec is, like $n u m, n e ̈$, and $a ̆ n$, an interrogative particle, but is always prefixed to some other interrogative word.
(b.) In direct questions, num and its compounds numnĕ, nımnam, numquǐd, numquidnam, and the compounds with èn 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.) Né properly denotes simply a question, but it is used sometimes affirmatively and sometimes negatively. When $n e x$ is attached, not to the principal verb but to some other word, a negative sense is produced; as, mene istud potuisse fuĕre putas? Do you believe that I would have done that? The answer expected is 'no.' When attached to the principal verb nĕ often gives the affirmative meaning, and the answer expected is 'yes.'-Nonné is the sign of an affirmative question; as, Canis nonne lupo similis est?-Utrum, in accordance with its derivation from üter, 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, taceamne an preedicem? 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, uternĕ; quönĕ malo; quantanĕ. In a few passages it is even attached to the relative pronoun. -
(d.) $A n$ is not used as a sign of an indirect question before the silver age; 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, nihil intěrest utrum aqua sit, an vinum; nec refert, utruin sit aureum pocŭlum, an vitreum, an manus concăva. Sen. In direct interrogations, when no interrogative clause precedes, $a ̆ n$, annĕ, ăn vēro are likewise used in the sense of 'or,' that is in such a manner that a preceding interrogation is supplied by the mind; as, Invitus te offendi, an putas me delectāri bedendis hominibus? Here we may supply before an putas, etc. the sentence, 'Do you believe this?' $-A n$, after a preceding question, is rendered by 'not, and it then indicates that the answer cannot be doubtful; as, A rebus gerendis senectus abstrăhit. Quibus? An his, quee geruntur juventüte ac viribus? Is it not from those kinds of business, which? etc. Here we nay suppose aliisne? to be supplied before an his? Is it from other kinds ol business, or from those? etc. Such questions may be introduced by nonnĕ, but without allusion to an opposite question, which is implied in ăn.
(e.) To the rule that ann, 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, incertum est ; delibrro, hoesito, and especially after nescio or haud scio, all of which denote uncertainty, but with an inclination to the affirmatives as, Si per se virtus sine
fortūnc ponderanda sit dubito an hunc primum omnium ponam, If virtae 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 clubito an.-Nescio an, or haud scio an are used quite in the sense of 'perhaps,' so that they are followed by the negatives nullus, nēmo, numquam, instead of ullus, quisquam and umquam. When the principal verb is omitted, ăn is often used in the sense of aut; as, Themistocles, quum ei Simonides, an quis alius, artem memorice pollicerētur, 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 $\varepsilon i$, and it is so used by Cicero after the verb experior.
Note 1. The conjunctions $-n e,-q u e,-v e$, 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, Ceterris in rebus, quum venit calamitas, tum detrimentum accipitur, In other concerns, when misfortune 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 idcirco, (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; ităque, 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!
ăha! aha! ah! haha!
ăpăgě! away! begone!
ătăt! or atatte! oh! ah! alas! lo! au! or hau! oh! ah!
eccě! lo! see! behold!
ěhem! ha! vhat!
ēheu! ah! alas!
ěho! ehodum! ho! soho!
eiă! or heiă! ah! ah ha! indeed! ēn! lo! see! behold! eu! well done! brazo! eugě! well done! good! enax! \}huzzuh! hurrah!
ha! hold! ho!
ha! ha! he! ha! ha!
hei! ah! wo! alas!
hem! oho! indeed! well! hah! alas! alack! heu! oh! ah! alas!
heus! ho! ho there! hark! halloa!
hui! hah! ho! oh!
iō! ho! hurrah! huzzah!
o! o! oh! ah!
ö ! oh! o! ah!
ǒhē ! hn! halloa! ho there!
ǒho! oho! aha!
oi! hoy! alas!
păpæ! strange! wonderful!
phui! foh! fugh!
phy! pish! tush!
prō! or prōh! oh! ah!
st! hist! uchist! lush!
tatæ! so! strange!
væ! ah! alus! woe!
vah! vaha! ah! alas! oh!

Remark 1. An interjection sometimes denotes several different emotions. Thus $v a h$ is used to express wonder, gricf, joy, and anger.

Rem. 2. Other parts of speech may sometimes be regarded as interjections; as, pax! be still! So indignum, infundum, mülum, misërum, miserabile, nĕfas, when used as expressions of astonishment, grief, or horror; and macte and nacti, as expressions of approbation. In like mamer the adverbs nce, profecto, cito, bëne, belle; the verbs quaso, précor, òro, obsecro, amäbo, ăge, cigite, célo, södes, (for si audes), sis, sultis, (for si ris and si vultis), äyésis, ägèdum, and ăgiie dum, and the interrogative quid? what? used as exclamations.

Rem. 3. With the interjections may also be classed the following invocations of the gods : hercŭles, hercŭle, hercle; or mehercŭles, mehercŭle, mehercle; medius fidius, mecastor, ecastor, ecěre, pol, edepol, equirine, per deum, per deum immortälem, per deos, per Jovem, prō (or prōh) Jüpiter, prō dii immortāles, prō deum fídem, prō deum atque hominum fidem, prō deum immortàlium (scil. fidem), etc.

## 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 spīrant, The winds blow:-
(2.) Interrogative; as, Spirantne venti? Do the winds blow? -
(3.) Exclamatory; as, Quam vehëmenter spīrant 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, ëquus 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,
Phücion fuit perpĕtuo pauper, quum ditissimus esse puoset, Phecion 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,
Phöcion fuit perpètuo 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 $u t$, ne, quo, quin, etc., sometimes by quol, 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 valēre.
9. Adjective clauses are connected by means of relatives, both pronouns anc pronominal adjectives; as, qui, quälis, quantus, etc. Adverbial clauses are con nected either by relative adverbs of place and time, ( $\$ 191$, R. $1,(b$.$) , or b.$ temporal, conditional, concessive, comparative, and sometimes by causal corjunctions.
10. A sentence consisting of one proposition is called a simple sertence; as,

Cädunt follia, The leaves fall. Semirămis Babylōnem 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 vivat? How happens it, that no one lives content? Quis ego sim, me rogitas, You ask me, who 1 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,

Spirant venti et cădunt forlia, 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 lègis, Thou readest. A est röcälis, $A$ is a vowel. Mentiri 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 běne actæ vītæ est jücundissima, The consciousness of a well mpent life is very pleasant. Here conscientia is the grammatical, and conscientia béns actre rite the compleas, 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. Grammătice ac mūsīcæ junctee fuērunt, Grammar and music were united. Semper hŏnos nōmenque tuum laudesque mănēbunt.

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 :-
7. A single word:-
(1.) A noun in the same case; as,

Nos consŭles dēsümus, We consuls are remiss. Mücius augur multa narrävit, Mucius the augur related many things.
(2.) A noun or pronoun in an oblique case, modifying or limiting the subject; as,
Amor multitūdinis commovètur, 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 cetus, Envious time flies. Mea mäter est bënigna. Dūcit agmina $P$ enthésiľéa fŭrens.' Litëra scripta mănet.
2. A phrase consisting of a preposition and its case; as,

Sơpor in grāmine. Oppida sine præsǐdio. Receptio ad te.
3. A dependent adjective clause introduced by qui, quälis, quantus, etc.; as,

Lëre fit, quod bĕne fertur, onus, The burden, which is borne weell, becomes light. Lïtěree, quas scripsisti, acceptee sunt. Ut, quālis (ille) hăbēri vellet, tälis esset. Tanta est inter eos, quanta maxima esse pōtest, mōrum distantia.
II. Complex alditions. The subject may be modified :-

1. By a worl 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,

Lrat exspectätio valde magna. Presidium non nǐmis firmum.
(b.) By a noun in an oblique case; as,

Major pieitate, Superior in piety. Contentiōnis cǔptdus, Fond of contention. Patri similis, Like his father. Nüdus membra. Jüvènes patre digni.
(c.) By an infinitive, a gerund, or a supine; as,

Insuètus vinci, Not accustomed to be conquered. Vēnandi stüdiosus: Fond of hrnting. Mirãabie dictu, Wonderful to tell.
(d.) By a phrase consisting of a preposition and its case; as,

Küdis in rēpublicā, Unskilled in civil affairs. Ab ěquitātu firmus. Cëlér in pugnam. Prönus ad fidem.
(e.) By a subordinate clause; as,

Mêlior est certa pax, quam spēräta victōria, A certain peace is better than an expected rictory. Dübius 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 victōria Cæsăris fäma perfertur, A report concerning Casar's victory is brought.
Remari 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 coördinate conjunction; as,
Consüles, Brūtus et Collatinnus, The consuls, Brutus and Collatinus.
2. By two or more oblique cases of a noun or pronoun connected coördinately; as,

Vítæque něcisque potestas. Pěricūlōrum et lăbōrum incítāmentum.
3. By two or more adjectives, adjective pronouns, or participles, connected coördinately; as,
Grăve bellum perdiŭturnumque. Animi těnĕri 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 coördinately; as,
Genus homìnum agreste, sine leǧbus, sine impèrio, liběrum, atque solūtum.
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 nāves longa. Præpötens finitimus rex.

Rem. 2. An infinitive, with the words connected with it, may be the logical subject of a proposition ; as,

Virtus est vitium fŭgĕre, 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,
$E$ coelo descendit ' Nosce te ipsum.' Equam est, ut hoc făcias.
Rem. 4. The noun or pronoun which is the subject of a proposition 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 aione, 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 lŭcet, The sun shines. Multa ănìmälia rêpunt, Many animals creep Brěvis est vơluptas, Pleasure is brief. Europa est pēninsŭla, Europe is a peninsulla. 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 Annibălis cōpias, Scipio routed the forces of Hannibul. Here füdit is the grammatical, and füdit Annibălis cöpias the logical predicate.So, Rōmülus Rōmānæ condrtor 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 praisel and neglected. Lêti vis răpuit, răpietque gentes. Lucius Catilina fuit magnā vi et animi et corpöris, sed ingenio malo pravōque.

## 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:-
6. A single word:-
(1.) A noun or adjective in the same case as the subject. 'This occurs after certain neuter verbs and passive verbs of naming, calling, etc. (See § 210, R. 3.); as,

Servus fit İbertīnus, The slave becomes a freedman. .Servius Tullius cex est dèclārâtus. Aristides justus est appellàtus. Incēdo regina.
(2.) A noun or pronoun in an oblique case; as,

Spe vivinuus, We live bly hope Deus regit mundum, God rules the voorld.
(3.) An adverb either simple or modified; as,

Sæpe vēnit, He came often. Festina lente, Hasten slowly. Litërce făcile disruntur. Chrèmes nimis grăvǐter crŭciat ădölescentülum.
(4.) An infinitive mood; as,

Cüpit discere, He desires to learn. Audeo diceère. Ver esse coopërat.
2. A plirase consisting of a preposition and its case; as, Vēnit ad urbem, He came to the city.
3. A dependent substantive or adverbial clause; as,

Vëreor ne reprělıendar, I fear that I shall be blamed. Zēnōnem, quum Athēnis esseñ, audiēbam frëquenter. Făc cōgites.
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, Agamemnőnis belli glōria. Păternum odium erga Rōmānos. Mens sibi conscia recti. Mea maxime intërest, te vălēre. Ago tribi grătias. Meipsum inertiæ condemno. Eos hoc mŏneo. In quo te accūso. Mónet eum, ut suspìciōnes vitet.
III. Compound additions. 1. The predicate may be modified by two or more words, phrases, or clauses, joined together by a coördinate conjunction. See Compound additions to the subject, § 202, IШ.
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 despērandum, Teucro dŭce.
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.

§ 294. A noun, annexed to another noun or to a pronoun, and denoting the same person or thing, is put in the same case; as,

Urbs Rōma, The city Rome. Nos consŭles, We consuls. So Apud Herodötum, patrem historice, sunt innumerabiles fabüle, In Herodotus, the father of history, etc. Cic. Lapídes silĭces, fint stones. Liv. Ante me consŭlem, Before I was consul. Fons cui nōmen Arethūsa 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 fŭgee comitem me adjunxi, 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 boy. Căto sěnex scrïbĕre historriam instïtuit. Suet.
(b.) A noum 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 tho 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 egrěgius. Pḷin. Philosorphia magistra vitce. 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 fulmĭna belli, Scipiădas, clādem Libyce. Virg. Mitylēnce, urbs nobilis. Cic. Tulliǒla, delǐciæ nostrex. Id.;-and sometimes in both; as, Näte, me»e vīres. Virg. Nos, anĭmæ viles, inhumāta infletăque turba. Id.

Rem. 4. The substantive pronoun is sometimes omitted before the word in apposition to it; as, Consul dixi, scil. ĕgo; (I) the consul said. And instead of the substantive pronoun, a possessive adjective pronoun is sometimes used; as, Tua dömus, tâlis 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, tribunes of the people. Cæs. Publius et Servius Sullæ, Servî filii.. Sall. Tib. et Gaius Gracchi. Cic. Oratiōnes L. et C. Aureliōrum Orestarrum. 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, Diccearchum vēro cum Aristoxëno, doctos sāne homInes, omittämus. 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 Ptolemoeum Cleopatramque rēges legāti missi sunt. Liv.
Rem. 6. The annexed noun is sometimes in the genitive; as, Urbem Patayl locāvit, The city of Patavium. Virg. Plurimus Eridăni amnis. Id. Arbörem fīci numquam vidĕrat. Cic. In oppido Antiochīæ. Id. Rupilì et Persî par. Hor.

Rem. 7. The name of a town in the genitive occurs with an ablative in apposition to it; as, Corinthi Achaice urbe; At Corinth, a city of Achaia. Tac. Antiochīx, celëbri urbe. Cic. See § 221, Note, and § 254, Rem. 3.

Rem. 8. (a.) A proper name, after nömen or cognōmen, 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 nōmen Arethūsa est. Cic. Stirps virīlis, cui Ascanium parentes dixēre nōmen. Liv. Nōmen Arctūro est mihi, I have the
name Arcturus. Plant. Cui nunc cognōmen Iūlo additur. Virg. Cui Egerio inditum nomen. Liv.-(b.) The name may also be pnt in the genitive; as, Nomen Mercūrii est mihi. Plaut. Q. Metellus, cui Macedonici nömen indïtum ërat. Vell. Cf. R. 6.-(c.) In Illa ctas, cui fecimus Aurea nōmen, Ov. Met. 15, 96, Aurea is used as an indeclinable noun, instead of Auream (scil. atätem); or Aurece, dat. (scil. cetãti.)

Rem. 9. A clause may supply the place of one of the nouns; as, Cogitet oratōrem institui-rem arduam, Let him reflect that an orator is training-a diffcult thing. Quint.-So also a neuter adjective used substantively; as, Triste lüpus stabülis, The wolf, a sad thing to the folds. Virg. Varium 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, Onerärice, pars maxima ad Ejgimürum, -aliæ adversus urbem ipsam deläte sunt, The ships of burden were carried, the greatest part, to Egimurus,-others opposite to the city itself. Liv. Pictores et poêtoe suum quisque orpus 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 imperium 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 hërus est tubi? Amphitruo, scil. est. Who is your master? Amphitruo (is.) Plaut. Qnid queris? Librum, scil. quero. What are you looking for? A book. Quōtā hōrà 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 pëcus? an Meliboi? Non; vèrum LEgönis. 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 minnis. Damnatusne ěs furti? Imo álio crimĭne. 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,

Bornus vir, A good man.
Benigna mäter, A kind mother.
Triste bellum, A sad war.
Spe amissä, Hope being lost.

Bönos viros, Good men.
Vänc lèges, Useless laws.
Minäcia rerba, Threatening words.
Hoc res, This thing.

> So, Mea mäter est benigna. Hacc lēges vãna 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 heary; the latter defining or restricting its meaning; as, this man, ten cities. To the former classabelong such adjectives as denote a property or quality, including all participles and participial adjectives; to the latter, the adjective cronouns, 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. lu 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 meauing 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 combived 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 æger ăgo, scil. égo, Melibœus; Virg. Fortunäte puer, tu nunc eris alter ab illo. Id. Ừ se tōtum ei trädëret. Nep. O me misĕrum (spoken by a man), misěram me - (spoken by a woman). So salvi sŭmis, salvue sŭmus, scil. nos, masculine or feminine.-In general propositions which include both sexes, the pronouns are considered masculine; as, Nos früges consūmëre 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,

Lưpus et agnus siti compulsi, A wolf and a lamb, constrained by thirst. Phæd. Sicilia Sardiniăque amissæ. Liv.

When the nouns are of different genders,
(1.) If they denote living things, the adjective is masculine rather than feminine; as,

Păter mìhi et mäter 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 gěnus, atas, eloquentia pröpe æquālia fuëre, Their family, age, and eloquence, were nearly equal. Sall. Regna, impěria, nobilitätes, honōres, divitice in cāsu sĭta sunt. Cic. Huic bella, rapīnce, discordia civillis, grāta fuēre. Sall. Anima atque animus, quamvīs integra rěcens 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, Croeso et vīta et patrimōnii partes, et urbs Barce concessa sunt. Just.; sometimes also when both nouns are in the singular number; as, Plerosque velocitas et rěgio hostïbus ignära tutāta sunt. Sall. Nox atque prada remorāta sunt. Id.
(3.) If one of the nouns denotes an animate, and another an inanimate thing, the adjective is sometimes neuter, and sometines takes the gender of that which has life ; as,

Numìdce atque signa militāria obscurāti sunt, The Numidians and the military standards were concealed. Sall. Romäni rēgem regnumque Macedönice sua futūra sciunt. Liv. -Jāne, ${ }^{\prime}$ făc æternos päcem pacisque ministros. Ovid.
$\Varangle$ Exc. to Rem. 2. The adjective often agrees with the nearest noun, and is understood with the rest; as,

Sơciis et rēge rěcepto, Our companions and king having been recovered. Virg. Agri omnes et măria. Cic. Cognîtum est sälütem, lībĕros, fämam, fortũnas esse cārissimas. 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, Filian cum fîlio accitos. Liv. Ilia cum Lauso de Nümitōre sāti. Ovid. . F'ilium Alexandrı cum mätre in arcem custödiendos 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 certāre părāti, A part, prepared to contend. Virg. Pars per agros dilapsi. .... suam quisque spem exsëquentes. Liv. Supplex turba ěrant sine jüdice tuti. Ovid. This construction always occurs when the collective noun is the subject of a plural verb. See $\$ 209$, R. 11.
(2.) Sometimes, thongh rarely, an adjective in the singular takes the gender of the individuals; as, Pars arduus altis pulvērǔlentus ëquis fürit. Virg. Pars üna dücum-fractus morbo. Ovid.
(3.) Sometimes other nouns, which only in a figurative sense denote human beings, have by symësis an adjective of a different gender from their own, referring to the words which they include; as, Látium Cüpuáque agro mulctāti, Latium and Capua were deprived of their land. Liv. Cuipita conjürätiōnis virgis cæsi ac sěcūri percnssi sunt. Id. Auxilia irāti. Id. So after millia; as, Duo millia Tÿriōrum, crücibus affixi. Curt. Cf. § 323,3 , (4.)

Rex. 4. Two adjectives in the singular are sometimes joined to a plural noun; as, Märia Tyrrhēnum atque Adriâtícum, The Tuscan and Adriatic seas. Liv. Cum légiönibus sècundā et tertiā. Liv. Circa portas Collinam Esquīlinamque. Id. But sometimes the noun is in the singular; as, Inter Esquilinam Collinamque portam. Id. Lěgio Martia et quarta. In comic writers, an adjective or participle in the singular is sometimes used with a plural pronoun; as, Nöbis prasente. Plaut. AVsente nöbis. 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 omnis error stulitia est dicenda, Not cvery crror is to be called folly. Cic. Gens universa V'énéti appellāti. Liv. (b.) Sometimes also it agrees with a noun following the subject and in apposition to it; as, Cörinthum, patres restri, tötius Gracia lūmen, exstinctum esse völuērunt. Cic.; or (c) with the noun of a subordinate sentence; as, Illōrum urbem ut prōpugnācūlum oppŏsitum esse barbăris. 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 snbject, is sometimes put in the dative; as, Mihi negligenti esse nom licnit, i. e. me neglägentem esse mihi non licuit. Cic. Da mihi justo sanctōque vidēri. Hor. A noun is sometimes expressed with the adjective; as, Vöbis nëcesse est fortibus esse viris. Liv. But the adjective often agrees with the omitted subjeci; as, Expělit bŏnas esse vöbis, scil. vos. Ter. Si ciri Römino licet esse Gādìtānum. Cic.

Rem. 7. (1.) An adjective is often used alone, especially in the plural, the noun, with which it agrees, being understood; as,

Bǒni sunt rāri, scil. hömines, Good (men) are rare. Gesar suos misit, scil. milites, Cæsar scnt his (soldiers). Dextra, scil. münus, The right (hand). Implentur pinguis fĕrinæ, scil. carnis. Virg. Hiberna, scil. casira. Allum, scil. müre. Qurtūna, scil. febris. Immortäles, scil. Dii. Lncr. Amentium, scil. hơmínum. Ter. Illum indignanti similem, similemque minanti aspicères, scil. hömini. Virg. Tili primas drféro, scil. partes. Cic. Respice præteritum, scil. tempus, which is often onitted, as in ex quo, ex eo, and ex illv, scil. tempurre. Cugnōe ex meörum omnium litëris, scil. ămicōrum. Cic. So patrial adjectives; as, Missi ad Parthum Arměniumque légãh scil. règem. In Tuscülāno, scil. practio.

Note 1. The noun to be supplied with masculine adjectives is commonly hơnnines, but when they are posessives, it is oftener ămici, mílites, cives, or propinqui.

- Note 2. The nonn 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 hornestum, vērum, turpe; and in the plural, bŏna, măla, turpia, lëvia, coelestia, etc. Lăbor omnia vincit,Labor overcomes all things. Virg.

Note 1. The Latins generaliy 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 nenter instead of the feminine; as, Eärum rērum utrumque. Cic. Hāmänärum rērum fortūna plērăque rĕgit. Sall. Illud te rơgo, sumptui ne parcas ullā in re, quod ad vălētūdinem ơpus 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. Plaut. Per mūtua, Mutually. Virg. In primis, In the first place. Ad hoc, or Ad hucc, Moreover, besides.
(3.) Adjectives used substantively often have other adjectives agreeing with them; as, Alia omnia, All other (things.) Plin. Iniquissümi mei, My greatest enemies. Fämiliāris meus. Cic. Ināquus noster. Id. Justa fúnebria. Liv. Jócis 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 valle dixit, He pronounced a last farewell. Ovid. Dulce et děcōrum est pro patriā mŏri. Hor. Velle suum cuique est. Pers. Cras istud quando vënit? Mart. J. Rědībo actütum. A. Id actūtum diu est. Plaut. Excepto quod non sirmul esses, cētëra letus. Hor. (b.) In the poets and later prose writers the adjective, as in Greek, is sometimes in the neuter plural; as, Ut AEnëas pëlăgo jactētur-nōta tibbi. 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 tempus; much time. Id rei, for ea res; that thing. So, plus élơquentice, the other form not being admissible with plus. (See § 110, (b.) Neuter adjectives are used in like mamer in the plural; as, Vāna rē̄um, for vānce res. Hor. Plērăque hūmānūrum rèrum. 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. Suinma pectöris.

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 rüdentem Lălăgen ămäbo, dulce lơquentem. Hor. Magnum strīdens. Virg. Arma horrendum cönuēre. Id. Multa deos rěnërāti sunt. Cic. IIodie aut summum cras. Id. See § 192, II. 4, (b.)

Rem. 11. (a.) A noun is sometimes used as an adjective; as, Nēmo miles Rōmünus, No Roman soldier. Liv. Nēmo fëre ădölescens. Cic. Vir nēmo bönus. Id. Cf. $\S 207$, R. 31, (c.) Tîbërim accōlis flŭviis orbātum. Tac. Incōla turba. Ovid. The poets use in this manner the Greek patronymics in as and is; as, Pělias hasta. Ovid. Laurus • Parnäsis. Id. Ǔ'sa Libystis. Virg. Cf. also \$129, 8.
(b.) An adverb is also sometimes used as an adjective; as, $N$ ĕque ĕnim
 hơninum möres Ylaut.

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 nom of a different gender, to which it refers, it usually takes that gender, but sometimes that of the genitive; as, Elĕphanto belluärum nulla est prüdentior, No beast is wiser than the elephant. Ciç. Indus, qui est omnium flumànum naximus. Cic. Vēlōcissǐmum omnium ănimälium est delplimus. Plin. See § 212, Rem. 2.-(b.) So also with de, ex, in, ápul, 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 fortissimns nostrce civitutitu, The bravest man of our state. Cic. Maximus stirpis. Liv.

Pem. 13. (a.) When a possessive pronoun or adjective is used instead of the genfive of its primitive or of its corresponding noun (see $\S 211$, R. $3,(b$.$) and$ (c.) and R. 4), an adjective agrecing with that genitive is sometimes joined with such possessive; as, Sölius meum peccätum corrigi non portest, The fault of me alone cannot be corrected. Cic. Noster duōrum éventus. Liv. Tuum ipsius stüdium. Cic. Pugna Rōmāna stäbilis suo pondëre incumbentium in hostem. Liv.
(b.) Sometimes a noun in the genitive is expressed, in apposition to the substantive pronoun for which the possessive stands; as, Pectus tuum, hŏmĭnis 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 versä; as, Adif icãtionis tuæ consilium for tuum, Your design of building. Cic. Accūsantes viölāti hospitii foedus, for viōlâtum. Liv. Ad mājōra ìnitia rērum dücentībus fätis, for mäjōrum. Id. Iis nōminibus cìritātum, quïbus ex cīvitātībus, etc., for eãrum ciritūtum. Cæs.

Rem. 15. (a.) An adjective agreeing with a noun is sometimes nsed, instead of an adverb qualifying a verb, especially in poetry; as, Ecce vënit Tëlumon pröpěrus, Lo, Telamon comes in haste. Ovid. Læti paicem ăgitābămus, for lete. Sall. Ǎnēas se mātūtīnus ägēbat, for māne. Virg. Nec lŭpus grègibus noctur-

(b.) So nullus is used for non; as, Mëmini tünetsi nullus mŏneas, Though you do not suggest it. Ter. Sextus ab armis nullus discēdit. Cic. Prior, primus, princeps, própior, proximus, sōlus, ūnus, ultimus, multus, tōtus, and some others, are used instead of their neuters, adverbially; as, Priơri Rémo augŭrium vènisse fertur. Liv. Hispānia postrēma omnium prōvinciärum perclönìta est. Liv. Scceröla sölos nörem menses Asia prafuit, Only nine months. Cic. Uuum hoc dico, This only I say. Id. This is sometimes done, for want of an adverb of appropriate meaning; as, Prōnus cécidit. Ovid. Frěquentes convēnërant. Sall.
(c.) In such expressions, $t u$, in the nominative, sometimes takes an adjective in the vocative, and rice versā; as, Sic rënias hödierne..Tibull. Salve, primus omnium părers patrice 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.
(b.) 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, Multí et rürià et cōpiōsā ōrätionne. Cic. If they follow it, the conjunction is sometimes expressed, and sometimes omitted; as, Vir altus et excellens. Cic. Actio, väria, vëhëmens, plēna vēritätis. 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, Périculesissimum citile bellum, A most dangerous civil war. Cíc. Mălam domesticam disciplinam. Id. So with three or more adjectives; Externos multos clāros riros nōmimàrem. 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 pimus, mĕdius, ulť̆mus, extrēmus, intïmus, infïmus, ìmus, summus, suprēmus, rĕliquus, and cètĕra; as,
Mëdia nox, The middle of the night. Summa arbor, The top of a tree. Supromos montes, The summits of the mountains. But these adjectives frequently occur without this signification; as, Ab extremo complexu, From the last embrace. Cic. Infïno löco nätus, of the lowest rank. Iḍ.

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 viscërra terrce. 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 lĕgit, The boy who reads. Adlificium quod exstruxit, The house which he built. Lïtěra quas dëdi, The letter which I gave. Non sum quālis ëram, I am not such as I was. Hor. So Deus cūjus münĕre vivimus, cui nullus est simìlis, quem collimus, a quo facta sunt omnia, est ceternus. Addictus Hermippo, et ab hoc ductus est. Aquilo, quantus frangit īlices. 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 omnīno duo ittinĕra, qư̆bus ŷtiněribus dömo exire possent, There were only two routes, by which routes they could leave home. Cæs. Crüdelissimc bello, quāle bellum nulla umquam barbária gessit. Cic. But it is most frequent with the word dies; as, Före in armis certo die, qui dies fütürus ërat, 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,

Anĭmum rĕge, qui, nǐsi päret, impěrat, Govern your passions, which rule unless they obey. Hor. Tante multitūdr̂nis, quantam cäpit urbs nostra, concursus est ad me factus. Cic. Quot căpítum vīvunt, tơtīdem stüdiờum millia. Hor.
(3.) Sometimes the latter noun only is expressed, especially when the relative clause, as is frequently the case, precedes that of the anrecedent; as,

Quĭbus de rēbus ad me scripsisti, cōram vǐdēbimus; scil. de rêbus, In regard to the things of which you wrote to me, we will consider when we meet. Cic. In quem prïmum égressi sunt lŏcum, Tröja wơcātur; scil, löcus. Liv. Quantā vi expètunt, tantā dḗfordunt. Quālesque vìsus êram vīdisse viros, ex ordine tüles aspicio. Ovid.
(a.) The place of the antecedent is sometimes supplied by a demonstrative pronoun; as, Ad quas res aptissimi èrimus, in iis pötissimum éläbōräbĭmus. Cic. 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 ornünentum ämicitixe tolht, qui ex eā tullit rërēcundium. Cic. Terra quod accīpit, numquam sine $\bar{u} s \bar{\pi} r \bar{a}$ redlit. Id.-The demonstrative adjectives and adverbs are in like manner often omitted before their corresponding relatives; tälis before quälis, tantus befure quantus, inde before unde, ibc before $u \mathfrak{u} b i$, etc.
(b.) Sometimes the latter nonn only is expressed, even when the relative clause does not precede; as, Quis non mălārum quas ămor cūras hübet, hæec inter obliviscitur? 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 bëne lätuit, bëne vixit, scil. homo, (He) who has well escaped notice, has lived well. Ovid. Sunt quos curricülo pulvërem Olympicum collēgisse jürat, scil. homines, There are whom it delights, i. e. Some delight. Hor. Non hăbeo quod te accüsem, scil. id propter guod. Cic. Non sōlum süpiens vidēris, qui hinc absis, sed ětiam beātus, scil. tu. Cic.
(5.) The relative is sometimes either entirely omitted; as, Urbs antiqua fuit; Tÿrii tënuère colōni, scil. 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 péditibus, quos filius ējus adduxěrrat, nêque in priōre pugnā adfuèrant, Rōmānos invādunt, for et qui non in priöre, etc. Sall.
(6.) (a.) The relative sometimes takes the case of the antecedent, instead of its own proper case; as, Quum scribas et áliquid ăgas eōrum, quōrum consuesti, for quee. Cic. Raptim quilbus quisque pótërat élütis, exibant, for üs, que quisque efferre potērat, ēlütis. Liv.
(b.) The antecedent likewise sometimes takes the case of the relative, the substantive either preceding or following the pronoun; as, Urbem quan stätuo vestra est, for urbs. Virg. Eunūchum quem dëdisti nöbis, quas turbas dëdit ! for Eunūchus. Ter. Naucrătem quem convénire vőlui, in nävi non érat. Plaut. Atque ălii; quōrum cōmoedia prisca vīrōrum est, for atque ălii viri, quōrum est. Hor. Illi, scripta quibus cōmedia prisca viris est, for illi viri, quibus. Id. Quos puěros misęram, ěpistölum milhi attül̄̀runt. 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
 jests which they utter. Liv. Verbis, quæ magna rölant. Virg. Călöre, quem multum hăbet. Cíic.
(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 égit, The last night which he spent upon earth. Escülipius, qui primus vulnus obligãrisse dicitur. Cic. Consiliis päre, quæ nunc pulcherrina Nautes dat sěnior, 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, Quum rēnissent ad väda Volaterrinna, quæ nöminnantur, 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,

Santơnes non longe a Tơlōsātium fīnĭbus absunt, quæ cīvitas est in prōrincī̄, The Santones are not far distant from the borders of the Tolosates, which state is in the province. Cæs. Ante comitia, quod tempus hatud louge ăberrat. Sall. Rōmue fānum Diänce pŏpŭli Lătini cum pöдйlo Rōmāno fécērrunt: ea ěrat confessio căput rērum Rōmam esse; i. e. that thing or that act. Liv. Si ommia fücienda sunt, quce ămīci vèlint, non àmícitice tăles, sed conjūrātiōnes pŭtcurtce sunt; i. e. such things or such connections. Cic. So, Ista quidem vis, Surely this is force. Ea ipsa causa belli fuit, for id ipsum. Hither also may be referred such explanatory sentences as, Qui meus ămor in te est, Such is my love for you. Cic.
(9.) If the relative refers to one of two nouns, denoting the same object, but of different genders, it agrees with either; as,

Flūmen est Arar quod in Rhơclŭnum influit. Cæs. Ad flūmen Oxum perventum est, qui twrbidus 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,
Nätūrce vultus quem dixēre Chaos, The appearance of nature which they called chaos. Ovid. Gěnus hŏmìnum quod Hélōtes vŏcätur. Nep. Animal, quem vŏcāmus hŏminem, The animal whom we call man. Cic. Lơcus in carcěre, quod Tulliānum appellätur. Sall. Pĕcüniārum conquīisitio; eos esse belli civililis nervos dictïtans Muciänus. 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 eärum rērum, quæ mortāles prīma pǔtant, 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, quce dīci possunt, quā re intelligātur. Cic. Fätāle monstrum, quæ, etc., scil. Cleöpātra. 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, Equïtātum, quos. Sall. Gënus, qui prěmuntur. Cic. Sěnātus-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, Dèmöcrǐtum ómittāmus; nı̂hil est ĕnim ăpud istos, quod, etc. i. e. with Democritus and his followers. Cic. Diönȳsius nĕgàvit se jūre illo nigro quod coence căput ërat, dèlectātum. Tum is, qui illa coxĕrrat, etc. Id.
(12.) The antecedent is sometimes implied in a possessive pronoun; as, Omnes laudäre fortūnas meas, qui nätum tāli ingènio proeditum häbērem; scil. $m e i$, All were extolling $m y$ fortune, who, etc. Ter. Id mea minime réfert, qui sum nätu maximus. Id. Nostrum consillium laudandum est, qui nöluĕrim, etc. Cic.; or in a possessive adjective; as, Servili tümultu, quos, etc. Cæs.
(13.) (a.) Sometimes the antecedent is a proposition; the relative then is commonly neuter; as, Postrēmo, quod difficillimam, inter mortāles, glōriū invidiam vïcisti, Finally, you have overcome envy with glory, uhich, among men, is most difficult. Sall. Equidem exspectäbam jam tuas litè̃ras, idque cum mullis. Cic.
(b.) In such instances, id is generally placed before the relative pronoun, refering to the idea in the antecedent clause; as, Sive, id quod constat, Plùtonis stüdiōsus audiendi fuit. Cịc. Diem consūmi vôlēbant, id quod fō̄cērunt. lıl.
(c.) Sometimes is, referring to a clause, agrees wit: a noun following; as, Idem velle atque idem nolle, ea dèmum firma ämīcitia 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 nisi; as, Quodsi illinc inānis prŏf ūgisses, tămen ista tua fŭga nëfäria jüdicārētur, 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.' Quodnisi signifies 'if then-not'; as, Quodnisi égo meo adventu illius cōnätus ăliquantülum repressissem, tam multos, etc. Quodetsi is 'nay, even if'; as, Quodetsi ingěniis magnis proediti quidam dicendi cōpiam sine rätiōne consěquentur, ars tămen est dux cer-tior.-Quod is found also before quum, übi, quia, quăniam, né and ŭtinam, where the conjunction alone would seem to be sufficient; as, Quod ütinam illum, cüjus impio fäcinöre in has misërias prōjectus sum, eădem hacc simülantem videam. Sall. It is so used even before a relative in Cic. Phil. 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 Sémīrămis, qui Băby̆lōna condidërant, Ninus and Semiramis, who had founded Babylon. Vell. Crèbro fūnäli et tī̄̄icine, quæ sibi sumpsërat. Cic. Ex summā letitiä atque lasciviā, quæ diüturna quies pēpèrërat. Sall. Näves et captīvos quæ ad Chium capta èrant. 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 päter, qui in convivio ërātis. Ego et tu, quiërāamus. Cf. § 209, R. 12, (7.)
(16.) The relative adjectives quöt, quantus, quälis, are construed like the relative qui. They have generally, in the antecedent clause, the corresponding demonstrative words, tơt, tantus, tülis; 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 $T \bar{u}$, pro tuà prūdentiā, quid optimum factu sit, rídēbis. Cic., we may say, que tua est prūdentia, or, quä prūdentiā ès. So, Vèlis tantummödo, quæ tua virtus, expugnäbis. Hor. Quā prūdentiā es, nähil te fügiet. 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, $l i$, 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 rŏcant, or by qui, que, quod vơcātur, dicitur, etc.; as, Nec Mermas hos, quos vöcant, impöni (Athēnis) licèbat. Cic. Vestra, quœ dicitur, vīta, mors est. Id.
(20.) Relative and demonstrative adverbs (see $\S 191$, R. 1), are frequently used instead of relative and demonstrative pronouns with prepositions; as, $I s$, unde te addisse dicis, i. e. ".quo. Cic. Divitice ăpud illos sunt, aut ŭbi illi rôlunt, i. e. äpuc. quos. Sall. Huic ab ädolescentiā bella intestina, cades, răpīnce, discordia civililis, grāta fuere, İbique jüventūtem 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 iul êrit, quam quod groätissimuın. Cic. Tam ënim sum àmīcus reipūblič, quam qui maxime. Id. Tam sum mitis, quam qui lénissimus. Id. So also with ut qui without tam; as, Te semper sic côlam et tuëbor, ut quem diligentissime. Id.

## DEMONSTRATIVES.

§207. Rsm. 20. The oblique cases of the personal pronoun of the thed person (him, her, etc.) are commonly expressed in prose by the oblique cases of is, ea, ill. Hic and ille, however, beig more emphatic, take the place of $i s$, ea, $i c$, in lyric poetry, and occasionally in prose also, when particular emphasis is intended. The cases of ipse, ips $n$, ipsum, 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 sui, sibi, se; and it is only when the person of the leading subject is to be referred to with particular emphasis, that $i p s e$ is used instead of sui.
Rem. 21. The demonstrative pronouns, is and ille, are sometimes used, especially with quidem, where a corresponding word in English is umnecessary; as, Sŭpientioe stǔdium větus id quĭdem in nostris, sed tămen, etc. Cic. O hŏmĭnem semper illum quìdem mìhi aptum, nunc vēro ětiam suāvem. Id. Quem nĕque fídes, nĕque jusjūrandum, nĕque illum mĕsĕricordia, rĕpressit, 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, Mäle se res hăbet, quum, quod virtūte effíci dēbet, id tentātur pěcüniā. Cic.

Rem. 22. Síc, ita, id, hoc, illiud, 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 mäjörĭbus suis accēpërant, tanta pŏpǔli Rō-
 endum esse ìrücundice. Id. Hoc tĩbi persuädeas vèlim, me nihil ömīsisse, I wish you to be persuaded of this-that 1 have omitted nothing. These pleonastic additions have generally no influence on the construction of propositions, but in a few instances they are followed by $u t$; as, De cüjus dīcendi cōpiä sīc accēpťmus, ut, etc. Cic. Ita ěnim dëfīnit, ut perturbätio sit, etc. Id. In the phrase hoc, illud, or id ăgĕre $u t$, 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 homo is then the same as eggo. 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 hĕbĕtat, läbor firmat; illa mātūram sěnectūtem, hic longam ädölescentiam reddit, 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 kic refers to the object first mentioned, and ille to the one mentioned last; as, Sic deus et virgo est; hic spe celler, illa timöre. 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 an¿ 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, Mayno illi Alexandro simillimus, Very like Alexander the Great. Vell. Médèa illa, The celebrated Medea. Cic. Hence ille is sometimes added to other pronouns, to refer to something discussed before; as, Avēbant visére, quis ille tot per annos ơpes nostras sprēeisset. Tac. Ille is sometimes translated this; as, Unum illud dïco, This only I say. Cic. Ille
sometimes marks a change of persons, and may then be translated 'the other'; as, Vercingetörix obviam Cosări pröficiscitur. Ille (scil. Cosar) oppödum Noviodūnum oppugnäre instituĕrat. Cæs.
Rem. 25. 1s te properly refers to the person addressed, and for this reason is called the demonstrative of the second person.-llle 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 döcet, is discit, or hic discit, but not ible discit, unless some individual is referred to.
(b.) Is before a relative or $u t$ has sometimes the sense of $t a \bar{a} i s$, such, denoting a class; as, Nëque énim 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 nse et is, atque is, isque, et is quidem, and with a negative nec is; as, Vincŭla rēro, et ea sempiterna, etc. Cic. Unā in dömo, et ea quİdem angusta, stc. Id. Adölescentes äliquot, nec ii tënui loco orti, etc. Liv. Sed is is used when the additional predicate is opposed to the preceding; as, Séveritatem in sĕnectūte prǒbo, sed eam, sïcut ălia, mödǐcam. Cic. The neuter et id, or idque, serves to introduce an addition to the preceding proposition; as, Quamquam te, Marce füli, annum jam audientem Cıătippum, idqque Athēnis, 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 lïbëros et tămen castigat. Multos illustrat fortüna, dum vexat.
(e.) When in English 'that' or 'those' is used instead of the repetition of the preceding substantive, is is never ased in Latin, and ille only in later anthors. In such cases the noun is commonly not repeated in Latin, and no pronoun is used in its place; as, Philippus hostium mänus saepe vītāvit, suōrum effügĕre non văluit, those of his own subjects. Curt. Sometimes the substantive is repeated; as, Jüdicia cī̌itätis cum jūdiciis princtpis certant. Vell. Sometimes a possessive adjective is used instead of the genitive depending on the omitted substantive; as, Tërentii fäbülas stŭdiōse lëgo, Plautīnis minnus dēlector: and sometimes instead of the genitive or a possessive adjective the name of the persortitself is put in the case which the verb governs; as, Si cum Lycurgo et Drăcōne et Sölōne nostras lëges conferre vóluēritus. 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 ënim. virtus äliam mercēdem dēsïdèrat, proeter 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 étiam, 'also,' 'at the same time,' or of tumen, 'ret,' if the things are apparently inconsistent; as, Müsici, qui ěrant quondam iīdem poēter, Musicians, who formerly were poets also. Cic. Euphrätes et Tigris magno äquārum divortio îter percurrunt; iīdem (and yet) paulätion in arctius coéunt.
(b.) Et ipse, on the other hand, denotes that the same predicate belongs to two subjects. It is rendered by 'too' or 'also'; as, Antöninus Commơdus nihil püternum häbuit, nisi quod contra Germänos féliciter et ipse pugnārit, for item or ipse quŏque. Eutr.-So, also, nec ipse is used in the sense of 'neither'; as, Prïmis rẹpulsis Maharbal cum mäjöre röböre virōrum missus nec ipse ēruptiönum cöhortium sustinuit. Liv.
(c.) Idem is sometimes repeated in the sense of 'at once,' denoting the union of qualities which might be thought incompatible; as, Fuêre quïdam qui iīdem ornäte ī̀dem versüte dücērent, There have been some who could speak at once elegantly and artfully. Cic.
(d.) 'The same as' is varionsly expressed in Latin, by idem with qui, ac or atque, quam, quăsi, ut or cum; as, Verres ìdem est qui fuüt semper, Verres is the same as he has always been. Cic. Vitta est eădem ac fuit. Liv. Dispŭtūtiōnem expōnïmus iisdem fëre verbis ut actum est. Cic. Eindem constituit pŏtestātem quam si, etc. Cic. Eōdem löco res est, quăsi ea pěcūnia lēgāta non esset. Id. Hunc égo eōdem mécum patre gĕnǐtum, etc. So also poetically with the dative; as, Eādem ăliis sōpītu' quiēte est. Lucr. Cf. §222, R. 7.

## IPSE, Inerensive 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, according as either is emphatic; as, Agam per me ipse, I will do it myself. Cic. Non ëgeo médīcīnã (i. e. ut ălii me consölentur); me ipse consōlor. Cic. Accūsando eum, a cūjus crüdēlitāte vosmet ipsi armis vindǐcastis. Liv.-Cn. Pompeium omnibus, Lentülum mǐhi ipsi antěpōno. Cic. Fac ut te ipsum custōdias. Id. Dō forme est de se ipsum proedīcāre. Id.-But Cicero often construes ipse as the subject, even where the emphasis belongs to the object; as, Quid est nëgötii continēre eos, quibus prasis, si te ipse contineas?
(b.) When $i p s e$ is joined with a possessive pronoun used reflexively, it usually takes the case of the subject; as, Meam ipse légem négligo; not meam ipsius, according to § 211, R. 3, (a). So, Si ex scriptis cognosci ipsi suis portuissent. Cic. Eam fraudem vestrā ipsi virtūte vìtastis. Liv. But the genitive is necessary when the possessive does not refer to the subject; as, Tuā ipsius causā hoc fēeci. And it is sometimes found where the case of the subject should be used; as, Conjectūram de tuo ipsius stüdio cëpëris, instead of $i p s e .-(c$.$) Ipse is sometimes used$ as reflexive without sui; as, Omnes bŏni, quantum in ipsis fuit, Cesărem occīdèrunt. Cic.
(d.) Ipse, with nouns denoting time or number, expresses exactness, and may be rendered, 'just,' 'precisely'; or 'very,' 'only'; as, Dyrrhăchio sum pröfectus ipso illo die, quo lex est dăta de nöbis, on the very day. Cic. Triginta dies ërant ipsi, quum has dübam lītěras, per quos nullas a vōbhs accēpěrram, just thirty days. Id. Et quisquam dŭbutābit-quam făč̌le império atque exercǐtu sócios et vectūgālia conservätūrus sit, qui ipso nōmine ac rūmọre dēfendërit, 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. Quícumque is commonly used as an adjective, and quisquis as a substantive; but the neuter quolcumque is used as a substantive with a following genitive; as, Quodcumque militum; and, on the other hand, quisquis is rarely an adjective; as, Quisquis érit vitos collor. Hor.; and even the neuter quidquid is used in the same manner; as, Quisquis hŏnos tümŭli, quidquid sölämen hŭmandi est. Virg. Quïcumque seems sometimes even in Cicero equivalent to omnis or quivis; as, Que sānāri pötèrunt, quācumque rătiōne sānäbo, What can bé 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 quīcumque is frequently used in the absolute sense for quīvis or quïl̄bet; as, Cïcĕrōnem cuicumque ē̈rum fortīter. oppŏsuĕrim. Quint. Quäliscumque and quantuscumque are likewise used in an absolute sense by ellipsis; as, Tu non concüpisces quantīcumque ad libertätem pervěnīre? 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
 contains the idea of 'perhiaps'; as, Nūda fëre Alpium căcūmina sunt, et si quid est päbŭli, obruunt nivves. Liv.

## Indeflinte Pronouns.

Rem. 30. (a.) Altquis and quispiam are particular and affirmative, corresponding to the English some one; as, Héréditas est pécünia, quee morte allicūjus ad quempiam pervenit jüre, An inheritance is property which, at the death of some one, falls to some (other) one by law. Cic. Multi sine doctrina aliquid omnium gėnérum et artium constrquuntur. Id.
(b.) Aliquis is more emphatic than the indefinite pronoun quis. (See § 137, (3.) Hence áliquis 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 ëgestas aut quid ejusmódi. Cic. Dētrãhĕre quid de ăliqquo. Id. Injüriam cui fäcëre. Id. So Dixěrit quis, Some one might say. But even after those conjunctions which usually require quis, ăliquis is used when employed antithetically and of course emphatically; as, Timébat Pompeius omnua, ne ăliqquid vos timérētis. Cic. In English the emphasis of ăliquas is sometimes expressed by 'really'; as, Sensus möriendi, si alīquis esse pötest, is ad exiguum tempus dūrut. Cic.-Quispiam, also, is sometimes used like quis after si, etc., and sometimes stands alone; as, Queret fortasse quispiam.

Rem. 31. (a.) Quisquam, 'any one,' andullus,'any,' are universal. Like umquam 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. Nëque ex castris Cutilince quisquam omnium discessërat,

- Nor liad any one departed from the camp of Catiline. Sall. Nec ullo cāsu pótest contingère, ut ulla intermissio fiat officii. Cic. An quisquam pôtest sine perturbätiōne mentis irasci? Id. Tètrior hic ty̆rannus Sy̆rācūsānis fuit, quan quisquam süpériòrum. Id. Vix quidquam spei est. Sen. But after the dependent negative particles ne, néve, 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 ënim nēmo, quod quidem măgis crède, aut, si quisquam, ille săpiens 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 érit, qui te dè fendëre audeat, rives. Cic. Bellum maxime omnium mënörābile, quæe umquam gesta sunt, scriptūrus 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 cīvi, To any citizen. Cüjusquam ōrātōris élöquentiam. Hence quisquam corresponds to the substantive nemo and ullus to the adjective nullus. Nēmo is often used with other substantives denoting male persons so as to become equivalent to the adjective nullus; as, nēmo pictor, nēmo ádölescens, and even hömo némo. Cic. Quisquam is sometimes used in a similar-matner: as, quisquam hómo, quisquam civis. On 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 nsed 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, Alind aliis ridétur optimum, One thing seems best to one, another to another. Cic. Aliis ăliunde përicülum est, Danger threatens one from one source, another from another; or, Danger threatens different persons from different sources. Ter. Diönÿsium ăliter cum ăliis de nöbrs lücūtum audiübam. 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 ir alterum causam confërunt, They accuse each other.
( $l_{s}$ ) Alius, repeated in diff' rent propositions, is also translated 'one...ancther'; as, Aliud ăgitur, aliud simülätur, One thing is done, another pretended. Cic. Alĩter lơquitur, aliter scribit, like äliter ac or atque, He speaks otherwise than he writes. So Aliud lơquĭtur, äliud 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 ouly when each of two parties consists of several individuals; as, Mäcélŏnes-Ty̆rii, utrique. But in other good prose writers the plural utrique is occasionally used in speaking of only two; as, Utrīque Diönȳsii. Nep. Cf. § 209, R. 11, (4.)

Rem. 33. (a.) Quidam differs from ăliquis by implying that a person or thing, though indefinitely described, is definitely known; as, Quidam de collēgis nostris, A certain one of our colleagues. Cic. Scis me quōdam tempŏre Mĕtäpontum vēnisse tēcum. Id.
(b.) Quĩdam is sometimes used for some, as opposed to the whole, or to others; as, Excessērunt urbe quīdam, ǎlii mortem sibi conscīvērunt, 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 nätūräle cum corvo, A kind of natural warfare. Cic. Fuit ënim illud quoddam coccum tempus servǐtūtis. Id. Etěnim omnes artes qua ad hūmānìtātem pertīnent, hăbent quoddam commūne vincŭlum et quăsi cognātiōne quādam inter se continnentur. Id.-Tamquam is used for the same purpose, and also ut ita dīcam.

Rem. 34. Quīvis and quīlìbet, 'any one,' and ūnusquisque, 'each,' are universal and absolute; as, Omnia sunt ejusmódi quīvis ut perspícére possit, All are of such a nature that any one can perceive. Cic. Hic ăpud mäjöres nostros adhibēbātur përrītus, nunc quilỉbet. Id. Nātūra ūnumquemque trähit ad discendum. A negative joined with them denies only the universality which they imply; as, Non cuivis hömini contingit ădïre Cörinthum, i. e. not to every man without distinction. Hor. Cuiquam would have made the negation universal.

Rem. 35. (a.) Quisque signifies each, every one, distributively or relatively, and generally stands without a noun; as, Quod cuique obtĭgit, 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, Scīpio pollícētur sïbi magnce cūrce före, ut omnia cīvǐtātībus, quæ cūjusque fuissent, restïtuěrentur. Cic. Ut proedīci posset, quid cuique èventürum, et quo quisque fāto nātus esset. Id. Cur fïat quidque queris: recte omnino. Id. Quo quisque est sollertior, hoc döcet lăbōriōsius. Id. Ut quisque optĭme dīcit, itta maxime dīcendi diff ĭcultātem tämet. Id. And hence the expression quötusquisque in the sense of 'how few among all.' It is also used distributively after numerals; as, Dĕcímus quisque sorte lectus, Every tenth man. Quinto quōque anno, In every fifth year. So also after suus; as, Sui cuique lībĕri cärissïmi: suum cuique plăcet. (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, doctrssimus 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 rärissimum, The best is the rarest. Cic. Altissima quæque flùminna minimo sǒno lūbuntur, The deepest rivers flow with the least sound. Curt. With primus, it denotes the first possible; as, Primo quöque tempöre, 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, Tütus ămor meus est tībi, My love is secure to you. Ovid. Tuam vicem dolère soleo. 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, ămor tuus ac jüdïcium 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 nĕque tuā nēglĭgentiā, nëque oddio id fëecit 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 münėra porrexit, 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, tämen id pötëritis cum ănimis vestris cöritãre. 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 ănimum mỉhi rèconciliasti, i. e. patris mei ănimum 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 $S U I$ AND $S U U S$.

§ 20S. 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 fredum 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 dìligit, non ut ăliquam a se ipse mercēdem exigat cāritätis suæ, sed quod per se sibi quisque cārus 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;

Ariöristus pradic ārit, non sēse Gallis, sed Gallos sǐbi bellum intǔlisse, Ariovistus declared that he had not made war upon the Gauls, but the Gauls upon him. Cæs. Hömérum Cülöphōnii cīrem esse dìcunt suum, The Colophonians say that Homer is their citizen. Cic. Ty̆rannus pétivit ut se ad ämícitiam tertium ascribèrent. 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 Allobröges vi coactūros existìmäbant, ut per suos fīnes eos ire pätërentür. Cæs. Here suos refers to the subject of the dependent clause, and eos to Helvètii, the subject of the leading clause. And sometimes, even in the same dependent clause, two reflexive pronouns are used, referring to different persons; as, Scy thce pétēbant, ut règis sui fîliam mätrimónio sǐbi jungèret. 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,

Mēdēảm proedicant (scil. hormines) in fügā frätris sui membra in iis lŏcis, quã - se pärens persëquërētur, dissīpāvisse. Cic. Ipsum rēgem trädunt öpĕrātum his sacris se abdidisse. 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 Cesăre invitor ut sim sibi lęgätus, i. e. Cesar me invitat, I am invited by Cæsar 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 custōdia quid significat ăliud, nisi se ad hőmitum commóctitütes esse gẻnêrâtoos? Cic.
(4.) Instead of $s u i$ 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,

Jugurthı légātos mīsit, qui ipsi lïberisque rītam pëtěrent, Jugurtha sent ambassadors to ask life for himself and his children. Sall. Ea mölestissime ferre höniñes dēbent, quee ipsōrum 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,
Frātres inter se quum formā, tum mōribus similes, Brothers resembling each other both in person and character. Cic. Fëras inter sēse conciliat nätüra. Cic. Incidunt äliqua a doctis ëtiam inter ipsos mütuo 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,

Thĕmistöcles servum ad Xerxem mīsit, ut ei nuntiāret, suis verbis, adversārios ējus in $f \ddot{u} g \bar{a}$ 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.
(b.) 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 sirbi 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 persuädent Raurăcis, ut ūnä cum iis pröf ǐciscantur, 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 (scil. Ligärius) ut ei pācem esse expĕdīret. 'Cic. C. Claudii ōrantis per sui frātris pärentisque ējus mānes. Liv.-Sometimes the reflexives refer to different subjects in the same sentence; as, Ariövistus respondit, nēminem sēcum sine suā pernïcie contendisse (Cæs.); where se refers to Ariovistus, and suă 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 cĩves sui ex urbe éjēcērunt, Him his fellow-citizens banished from the city. Cic. Tîtürius quum prơcul Ambiŏrigem, suos cǒhortantem, conspexisset. Cæs.
(b.) Suus, and not $h \bar{u} j u s$, is used when a noun is omitted; as,

Octävius quem sui (scil. ămīci) Cesărem sălūtābant, Octavius, whom his followers saluted as Cæsar.
$X$ (c.) Suus is also commonly used when two nouns are coupled by cum but not when they are connected by a conjunction; as,
Ptolèmincus ämícos Demetrii cum suis rèbus dimisit, Ptolemy dismissed the friends of Demetrius with their effects. Just.
(8.) Suus sometimes denotes ftt, favorable ; as,

Sunt et sua döna pärenti, There are likewise for my father suitable presents. Virg. Ut lizérātor ille pöpưli Rōmāni oppěrírêtur tempơra sua. Liv. Alphēnus ūtébätur pơpülo sāne suo. Cic. Sometimes it signifies peculuar; as, Molles sua türa Säboci, scil. mittunt, i. e. the frankincense for which their' country was famous. Virg. Fessosque sopor suus oecïpat 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 rerb in any mood except the infinitive is called a finite verb. (b.) In historical writing the nominative is sometimesjoined 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 lëgo, I read. $T u$ scribis, Thou writest. Equus currit, The horse runs.

Nos lëgimus, We read. Vos scribitis, You write. Equi currunt, Horses run.

Note 2. The imperative singular is sometimes used in addressing several persons; as, Huc nätas adjíce septem, scil. ros, Thēbaìdes. Ovid. Met. 6, 182. So Adde défectiōnem Itălice, scil. vos, mïlites. 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,

Cüpio, I desire; vivis, thou livest; hăbëmus, 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 é $\bar{e} c \bar{c} i$, vos ty̆rannos intrōdūcitis, I banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Auct. ad Her. Nos, nos, dico äperte, consüles dēsümus. Cic. Tu es patrōnus, tu păter. Ter. In indignant questions and addresses $t u$ is expressed; as, Tu in förum prödīre, tu lücem conspicëre, tu in hörum conspectum vénīre 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, Mösa prōfluit ex monte Vösēgo, et in Oceănum influit. Cæs.; or (b) in an oblique case; as, Cursōrem misērunt, ut id nuntiār $\epsilon$, scil. cursor. Nep.: or (c) in a possessive adjective; as, Et réreor quo se Jûnōnia rertant Hospitia; haud tanto cessābit cardine rêrum, scil. illa, i. e. Jūnō. Virg En. I. 672.
(2.) When it is a general word for person or thing:-

Thus homines is often omitted before aiunt, dicunt, fërunt, etc.; as, Ut aiunt. As they say. Cic. Maxime admirantur eum, qui pécūnià non móvètur. Id -So bëne est, bëne hăbet or běne ăgitur, It is well; as, Si rales, bĕne est, ego vazeo. Cic. Quum mělius est, grätülor dis. Afran. Optŭme hăbet, Nothing can be better. Plaut. Bēne hăbet: jacta sunt fundāmenta dēfenşiōnis. Cic. Bĕne ăgítur pro noxia. Plaut.

Note 3. This omission of the nominative is common in the clause preceding a relative; 2s, Qui Băvium non odit, ămet tua carmina, Moveri, scil. hőmo, Let him who hates not Bavius, love your verses, Mævius. Virg. Vastātur agri quod inter urbem ac Fidēnas est, scil. íd spätium. Liv. Sunt quos jŭvat...scil. hömines, There are (those) whom it delights. Hor. Est qui nec rétěris pōcŭla Massici spernit, scil. hơmo. Hor. Here sunt quos and est qui are equivalent to quīdam, áliquis, or äliqui. So, Est quod qaudeas, There is (reason) wity you should rejoice. Cic. Nëque érat cur fallĕre rellent. Ovid. Est ubi id räleat. Cic. Est, quum non est sectius, etc. Auct. ad Her. In the latter cases the adverbs are equivalent to in quo, scil. be:o, temporre.

Rem. 3. (1.) The nominative is wanting before verbs denoting the state of the weather, or the operations of nature; as,
Fulgŭrat, It lightens. Plin. Ningit, It snows. Virg. Lŭcescêbat, It was growing light. Liv. Jam adiesperascit. 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 tïbi a me, Thou art favored by me. Ejus ōrätiōni rěhěmenter ab omnibus reclāmātum est. Cic. Proinde ut bëne vivitur, diu vivitur. Plaut. Adexitum ventum est. Sen. Actum est de impěrio. 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, Pugnct pugnäta est. Cic. See § 232, (1.)
(3.) It is wanting also before the neuter of the future passive participle with est ; as,

Si ris me flère dŏlendum est prīmum ipsi tïbi, If you wish me to weep, you yourself must first grieve. Hor. Orandum est, ut sit mens sāna in corpüre säno. Juv. Ad villam revertendum est. Cic.
(4.) The nominative is also wanting before the impersonal verbs mŭsĕret, pœnŭtet, püdet, twdet, and pŭget; as,

Eos ineptiärum ponitet, They repent of their follies. Cic. Misĕret te ăliörum, tui te nec misĕret nec pŭdet. Plaut. Me cīvītōtis mōrum pĭget tadetque. Sall.In such examples,' the sense will sometimes permit us to supply fortüna, condītio, mëmorria, etc. So in the expression, Vēnit in mentem, It came into mind; as, In mentem rēnit de spě̌cülo, scil. cōgítätio, etc. Plaut.-An infinitive or a subjunctive clause sometimes forms the subject of these verbs; as, $T e$ id nullo módo püduit facecre, To do that by no means shamed you. Ter. Non penitet $m e$, quintum prōf ēcērim. 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 culpā magnum est sōlūtium, To be free from fault is a great consolation. Nĕque est te fallěre 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,' fuctum est jam trītum sermōne prōverbium. Id. Ni dēgënērātum in ăliis huic quöque dëcơri offécisset. Liv. (Cf. § 274, R. 5 , (b.) Sin est ut vèlis mănēre illam apud te. Ter. Nec pröfuit Hÿdre crescěre per damnum, gèminasque rèsūmëre vīres. Ovid. Dic mihi, cras istud, Postüme, quando rënit? Tell me, Postumus, when does that to-morrow come? Mart. Parrumne campis atque Neptüno sưper füsum est Lătīni sanguinis? Hor.
(a.) This construction is especially common with impersonal verbs; as, Oratōren irrasci non dĕcet, That an orator should be angry, is not becoming. Cic. Hoc fièri et öportet et ŏpus est. Id. Me pĕdỉbus delectat claudĕre verba, Hor. Intërest omnium recte fäcēre. Cic. Cüsu acctolit, ut, id quod Rōmæ audiĕrat primus uuntiaret. Id. Somet mes a neuter pron 'in is interposed between a proposition and its verb; as, Impüne fŭcĕre que lïbet, id est rēyem esse. Sall. Cf. § 206, (13,) ( 1. .)
(6.) The nominative is also wanting before potest, cœpit or coptum est, incīpit, dēsĭnit, dēbet, sŏlet, and v̌̌dētur, when followed by the infinitive of an impersonal verb; as,

Pigēre eum facti coppit, It began to repent him (i. e. he segan to repent) of his conduct. Just. Süpientia est ūna, quà praceptrice, in tiəanquillitāte vivi potest. Cic. Tcedère sôlet̀ àvāros impendì. Quint.
Rem. 4. The rerb is sometimes omitted; as,
Di méliōra piiz, scil. dent or rélint, May the gods grant better things to the pions. Virg. Vérum haec hactěnus, scil. diximus. Cic. Pertìneo is understood in such expressions as nihil ad me, nilil ad rem; Quid hoc ad Epicurum? What does this concern Epicurus? Quorsus hoec? i. e. quorsus hace pertinent? What is that for?-Päräbo is to be supplied, in Quo mihi hanc rem? Of what use is this to me? and, Cnde mihi äliquam rem? Whence am I to get any thing? as, Quo miki büblióthécas? Sen. Unde mihi lăpidem? Hor. A tense of fäcio is often to be supplied, as in Recte ille, mélius hi; Běne Chrȳsippus, qui décet. Cic. Nihil per vim umquam Clödius, omnia per vim Milo. Id. Quee quum dixisset, Cotıa finem. Id. So, also in the phrases nihil ăliud quam; quid ăliud quam; nihil praterquam, which signify 'merely'; as, Tisaphernes nihil ăliud quam bellum comparāit. Nep. This verb is in like manner omitted with nthil amplius quam; niliil minus quam, and in the phrase si nihil ăliud.-Ait or inquit is sometimes omitted in introducing the direct words of another, and more frequently in relating a connected conversation; as, Tum ille; hic ëgo; huic ĕgo. Dicit is sometimes omitted in quoting a person's words; as, Scite Chrysippus: ut glädii causā räginam, sic prater mundum cētęra omnia ăliōrum causā esse gēnërāta. Cic. - After per in adjurations ōro, rögo or prëcor is often omitted; as, Per ëgo vos deos patrios, vindicāte ab ultímo dedë́cơre nōmen gentemque Persārum; i. e. per deos patrios ros ōro, rindicāte. Curt. This omission is most common with the copula sum; as, Nam Pǒly̆dorus ĕgo, scil. sum, For I am Polydorus. Virg. And so $\epsilon$ st and sunt are often omitted with predicate adjectives, and especially in proverbial phrases; as, Quot hơmines tot sententice. Ter. Omnia praclära rära, scil. sunt. Cic. So also est and sunt are often omitted in the compound tenses of the passive roice; as, Agro mulctāti, 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 nderstood with the other, and that even when the persons are different; as, măgis égo te ămo, quam tu me, scil. ămas. After a negative verb a corresponding positive verb is sometimes to be supplied; as, after négo, dīco, after réto, jübeo, 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 Minücium, măgistrum équitum, püri ac dictātōrem dơlo prōductum in proelium, fügärit, i. e. pări ac dictātor dülo prōductus fuěrat. Nep. Hann. 5. So Liv. 34, 32.

Rem. 5. In the historic style the nominative is sometimes found with the present infinitive; as,

Intưrim quoutidie Cesar AXduos frūmentum flägitāre, Meanwhile Cæsar was daily demanding corn of the EXUi. Cæs. Nos păridi trěpĭdāre mětu. 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.
人 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 lĕgo, I who read. Tu qui scrībis, Thou who writest. Equus qui currit, The horse which runs. Vos qui quæritis, Iou 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 causā ămīcōrum! How many things we do (i. e. men do) for the sake of friends! Cic. Si vis me fḕre, dölendum est primum ipsi tïbi, Whoever wishes me, etc. Hor.
(b.) Nos is often used for ĕgo, 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, bat nostrum always expresses a real plurality.

Rem. 8. The accusative is sometimes used for the nominative by attraction. See § 206, (6.) (b.)

Rem. 9. ${ }^{\text {-The }}$ The verb sometimes agrees with the predicate-nominative, especially if it precedes the verb; as, Amantium īrce ămōris integrātio est, The quarrels of lovers are a renewal of love. Ter. Löca, quce proxima Carthägìnem, Nŭmídia appellãtur. Sall. And sometimes it agrees with the nearest subject of a subordinate sentence; as, Sed ei cāriōra semper omnia, quam dĕcus àtque pŭdïcitia fuit. Sall. Cat. 25.

Rem. 10. In cases of apposition, the verb commonly agrees with the noun which is to be explained; as, Tulliơla, dēliciæ nostrce, flägitat. Cic. But sometimes the verb agrees, not with the principal nominative, but with a nearer noun in apposition to it; as, Tungri, civitas Gallice, fontem hăbet insiynem, The Tungri, a state of Gaul, has a remarkable fountain. Plin. Cöriöli oppìdum captum (est). Liv.

Rem. 11. A collective noun has sometimes, especially in poetry, a plural verb; as,

Pars ĕpŭlis ŏněrant mensas, Part load the tables with food. Virg. Turba ruunt. Ovid. Atria turba tĕnent; věniunt lëve vulyus 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 gĕnĕri hämāno èvēnit, quod in terrā collöcāti sint, because they (scil. hömines) live on earth. Cic. In Livy it occurs more frequently; as, Iocros omnis multitūudo ăbeunt.
(b.) Abstract nouns are sometimes used collectively, instead of their conoretes; as, nöbilitas for nöbüles, jüventus for jŭvčnes, vicīnia for vicini, servitium for servi, lëvis armätūra for lëviter armãti, etc. (c.) Mïles, ëques, pëdles, and similar words are sometimes used collectively for the soldiery, the citvalry, 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 quĭdem turba ex eo löco dīlābēbātur, refractārosque carcĕrem minnābantur. Liv. Gens eădem, que te crūudēli Daunia bello insĕquïtur, nos si pellant, nîhil abföve crēdunt. Virg.
(3.) Tantum, followed by a genitive plural, has sometimes a plural verb, like a collective noun; as, Quid huc tantum höminum incēdunt? Why are so many men coming hither? Platt.
(4.) A plural verb is sometimes used, though not by Cicero, after úterque and quisque, pars...pars, ălius...alium, and alter...altërum, on account of the idea of plurality which they involve; as, Uterque eörum ex castris exercitum $\bar{e} d \bar{u} c u n t$, Each of them leads his army from the camp. Cæs. Intimus quisque lübertōrum vincti abreptīque (sunt.) Tac. Alius ălium, ut prolizm incỉpiant, 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 thes the singular, denoting its parts; Cētĕri, suo quisque tempöre, ădĕrunt. Liv. Dĕcemviri perturbäti ălius in ăliam partem caströruin discurrunt. Id. See $\$ 204$, R. 10.

Rem. 12. Two or more nominatives singular, not in apposition, generally have a plural verb; as,

Fŭror iràque mentem præcīitant, Fury and rage hurry on (my) mind. Virg. Dum cetas, mëtus, mägister, prohībēbant. Ter.
(1.) If the predicate belongs to the several nominatives jointly, the verb is always plural; as, Grammătice quondam ac mūsice junctæ fuēruint. Quint.
(2.) A verb in the singular is often used after several nominatives singular, especially if they denote things without life; as,

Mens ĕnim, et rãtio et consilium in sênibus est. Cic. Bënëficentia, liběrälitas, bǒnitas, justitia funditus tollitur. Id.

Note 9. This construction is most common when the sereral nominatives, as in the preceding examples, constitute, as it were, but one idea. So also the compound subject Sënätus pópülusque Rōmänus has always a predicate in the singular. The same construction sometimes, especially in the poets, occurs with names of persons; as, Gorgias, Thräsy̆măchus, Prōtăgŏras, Prödicus, Hippias in hơnōre fuit. Cic. Quin et Prơmétheus et Pēlơpis părens dulci läbōrum deecipitur'sono. Hor. When the nominatives denote both persons and things, the verb is commonly plural; as, Coitio consülum 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 pènätes patriaque, et patris ímāgo, et dōmus rēgia, et in dómo rēgāle sōlium, et nōmen Tarquinium creat vǒcatque rëgem. Liv.
(4.) When each of the nominatives is preceded by et or tum, the verb agrees with the last; as, IIoc et rätio doctis, et nẽcessìtas barbăris, et mos gentibus, et fëris nātūra ipsa præscripsit, This, reason has dictated to the learned, and necessity to barbarians, and custom to nations, and nature itself to wild beasts. Ciç. Et ègo, et Cìcéro meus flāgītābit. Id. Tum ætas vïresque, tum ăvīta glōria ănimum stimŭlābat. Liv. So when the subject consists of two infinitives; as, Et fäcēre, et păti fortia, Rōmänum est. Cic. Unus et alter always takes a singular verb; as, Dìcit unnus et alter brěviter. Cic. Unus et alter assuìtur pannus. Hor.
(5.) When the nominatives are connected by aut, sometimes the plural, but commonly the singular, is used; as,

Si Sjerätes aut Antisthënes dīcěret, If Socrates or Antisthenes should say. Cic. Ct quosque stüdium prī̀ātim aut grātia occŭpāvērunt. Liv.
(a.) The plural is necessary with disjunctives, if the subject includes the first or second person; as, Quod in Dëcemviris néque ëgo nëque Casar häbiti essēmus. 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, Dömitius cum Messālā certus esse vidēbātur. Cic. Bocchus, cum pèdītībus, postrẹmam Rōmänōrum äciem invādunt, Bocchus, with his foot-soldiers, attacks the rear of the Roman army. Sall. Ipse dux, cum ăliquot princīpĭbus, căpiuntur. Liv.
( $\overline{\text {. }}$ ) 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 vàletis, ěgo et Ciç̆ro rălēmus, If vou and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are uccll. Cic. Hac néque égo néque tu fécimus. Ter. Ego pópünlusque Rōmãnus bellum jūdico fācioque. 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 sénātus frëquens restitit. This is always the case when the action of the verb is qualified with reference to each nominative separately; as, Ego miseère tu fëlictter vivis.

Rem. 13. The interjections en, ecce, and $O$, are sometimes followed by the nominative; as,

En Priămus! Lo Priam! Virg. En ĕgo, vester Ascănius. Id. Ecce hðmo Catiēnus! Cic. Ecce tuce litě̛rce. 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 furror brervis est, Anger is a short madness. Hor. Ego rớcor Lyconĩdes, I am called Lyconides. Plaut. Eyo incèlo regina, I walk a queen. Virg. Caius et Lücius frātres fuèerunt. Cic.So (b.) when the subject is in the accusative with the infinitive; Jūdicem me esse rölo. Cic.
(c.) Some: mes also a dative, denoting the same object, both precedes and follows a vero neuter or passive. See $\S 227, \mathrm{~N} .-$ And (d.) a predicate ablative sometimes follows passive participles of choosing, naming, etc.; as, Consülibus certiōrǐbus factis. Liv. Sce § 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 mōrum. 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 vitce măgister est.
(g.) An infinitive may supply the place of a predicate nominative. See §269, R. 4.

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 $\S 205$, R. 2 .

Rem. 2. (a.) The noun in the predicate sometimes differs in gender and number from the subject; as, Sanguis ĕrant lücrimace, Her tears were blood. Ovid. Captīvi millĭtum præda fuērunt. Liv.
(b.) So when a subject in the singular is followed by an ablative with cum, the predicate is plural; as, Exsŭles esse jübet L. Tarquinium cum conjüge et lībërrs. 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 Jovis sum filius. Plaut. Disce esse păter. Ter. The predicate with sum may be an adverb of place, manner, etc.; as, Quod est longe ălìter. Cic. Rectissǐme sunt ăpud te omnia, Every thing with you is in a very good condition. Id.; or a noun in an oblique case; as, Nümen š̌ne tūre est. Ovid. Sunt nōbis mītia pōma. Virg.
(2.) Certain neuter verbs denoting existence, position, motion, etc.; as, $v$ īvo, exsisto, appäreo, cŭdo, eo, evàdo, fü̆uio, incē̈lo, jăceo, mănneo, sëdeo, sto, vénio, etc. Thus, Rex circrübat pèdes, The king went round on foot. Plin. Quos jüdicäbat non posse ōrātōres êvā̃dĕre. Cic. Ěgo huic causce patrōnus exstīti. Cic. Qui fit, ut nēmo contentus vīvat?
(3.) The passive of verbs denoting,
(a.) To name or call; as, appellor, dicor, nōminnor, nuncŭpor, perhibeor, sălūtor, scrïbor, inscrībor, vöcor. Thus, Cognömine Justus est appellütus, He was called by the surname Just. Nep. Aristous ólive dicitur inventor. Cic.
(i.) To choose, render, appoint, or constitute; as, constituor, creor, dī̀ läror, désignor, éligor, fîo, reddor, rënuncior. Thus, Dux a Römānis électus est Q. Fäbius. Postquam éphēbus factus est. Nep. Certior factus sum.
(c.) To esteem or reckon; as, censeor, cognoscor, crēdor, dèprèhendor, existimor, dücor, fèror, hăbeor, jüdicor, mĕmöror, nüměror, pŭtor, répërior, videor. Thus, Cièdèbar sanyuùnis auctor ĕgo. Ovid. Mülim vídèri tĭmĭdus quam pürum prūdens. Cic.

Note 1. With several passives of the last class, when followed by a predi-cate-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, Sätis döcuisse videor. Id.-Atīlius prūdens esse pǔtābātur. Id. So with dīcor (to be said), and perhïbeor: as, Vèrus patrice diceerris esse păter. Mart. Hoc ne lŏcūtus sine mercēde existimer. Phæd.

Note 2. Audio is sometimes used by the poets like appellor; as, Tu rexque păterque audisti cōram. Hor.

Rem. 4. A predicate-nominative is used after many other verbs to denote a purpose, time, or circumstance of the action; as, Commesadditus $\mathbb{E} \delta$ lides, Eolides was added as a companion. Virg. Lüpus obbambülat nocturnus. Id. Appäret liquido sublimis in oethëre Nisus. Id. So with an active verb; Audivi hoc puer. Cic. Săpiens nil $f$ ăcit invitus. Id. Rempüblicam dèfendi ădŏlescens. Id. Cf. § 204, R. 1.

Note 3. Insteal 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 löco or in nümëro with a genitive; as, ille est mihi $i$ părentis lŏco; in hostium nŭměro häbētur.

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 nöbis et auctor ŏpus est. Cic. Multi ŏpus sunt bǒves. Varr. (Dixit) aurum et ancillas ŏpus 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 Jóris esse nescis, i. e. te esse uxōrem. Hor. Rětưlit Ajax esse Jơris pröněpos. 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 glöria, Love of glory; Arma. Achillis, The arms of Achilles; Păter patrixe, The father of the country; Vitium irce, The vice of anger; Némorrum custos, The guardian of the groves; Amor häbendi, Love of possessing.
Nore 1. In the first example, ămor denotes love in general; glöria 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.

Pemark 1. The genitive denotes various relations, the most common of which are those of Source; as, Rädii solis, The rays of the sun;-Cause; as, Dolor podagrae, The pain of the gout;-Effect; as, Artifex mundi, The Creator of the world; -Connection: as, Putter consülis, Tre father of the con-sul;-Possession; as, Dómus Cesänis, The house of Cæsar;-Object; as, Cögitātio ălicūjus rei, A thought of something;-Puriose; as, Appärātus triumphi, Preparation for a triumph;-A whole; as, Pars hơminum, A part
of men; this is called the partitive genitive;-Character or Quality; as, Adölescens summoe audācice, A youth of the greatest boldness;-Material or C'omponent Parts; as, Montes auri, Mountains cof gold; Acerrus scūtōrum, A heap of shields;-Time; as, Frūmentum diërum dëcem, Corn for ten days. Sall.

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,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Subjective. } \\
& \text { Facta virörum, Deeds of men. } \\
& \text { Dølor animim, Grief of mind. } \\
& \text { Jünonis ira, The anger of Juno. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Objective.
Odium vitii, Hatred of vice. Amor virtūtis, Love of virtue. Dēsīdërium ôtii, Desire of leisure.
(a.) Whether a genitive is subjective or objective, is to be determined by the meaning of the words, and by their connection Thus, pröridentia 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, mĕtus hostium, fear of the enemy, may mean, either the fear felt by the enemy, or that felt by their opponents. So vulnus Ulixis (Virg. Æn. 2, 436.) denotes the wound which Ulysses had given; vulnus AEnëre, (Ia. Æn. 12, 323.) that which Eneas 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 verbal nouns and adjectives, whatever may be the construction of the verbs from which such nouns and adjectives are derived, whether they take an accusative 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 rempüblĭcam, for reipüblīca, Love to the state. Cic. Odium erga Rōmänos, for Rōmānörum. Nep. C'ūra de sălūte patrice, for sălūtis. Cic. Proedātor ex sờcizs, for söciörum. Sall. Sometimes both constructions are combined; as, Rëvĕrrentia adversus hǒmines et optìmi cüjusque et rélüquōrum. Cic. Off. 1, 28.

Note. A limiting genitive is sometimes used instead of a noun in apposition, especially with vox, nōmen, verbum, etc.; as, vox vǒluptātis, the word pleasure; nōmen ămīcǐtiæ, the word ămīcitia; dŏmĭni appellätio. This is usual when the genus is defined by the species; as, arbor fici, a fig-tree; flos violke, a violet; virtus continentiæ, the virtue of abstinence: and in geographical names; as, oppidum Antiǒchiæ. Cf. § 204, R. 6 .-Cicero frequently uses a genitive in this manner with gėnus and causa; as, Unum gĕnus est eörum, qui, etc. Dur sunt causce, ūna pŭdōris, altěra scělěris.-So, also, the genitive of gerunds; as, Triste est nōmen ipsum cărendi, 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,

Cüra mei, Care for me. Ovid. Pars tui, Part of thee. Id. Vestri cūram ăgìte. Curt. This genitive is used especially with verbal substantives in or, $i x$ and io; as, Accüsātor mei. Cic. Nimia astïmātio sui. Id. Rătiōnem et sui et ălīorrum hübēre. 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. Cüra mea, My care, i. e. the care exercised by me. Cic. Tuas litëras exspecto. Id. Yet the subjective genitive of a substantive pronoun sometimes occurs; as, Tui uniùus stưdio, By the zeal of yourself alone. Cic.
(c.) And not unfrequently, also, an adjective pronoun occurs instead of the objective genitive; as, Mea injüria, Injury to me. Sall. So, Invidlia tua, Envy of thee. Fidūcia tur, Confidence in thee. Plaut. Spes mea, The hope placed in me. With causa the adjective pronoun, and never the genitive, is used; as, Meã causü, For my sake. Plaut.

Rem. 4. (a.) Instead, also, of the subjective genitive of a noun, a possessive adjective is often used; as, Causa rēgia, for causa règis. Cic. Hèrilis fillius, for héri filius. Id. Evandrins ensis, for Evandri. Virg. Hercunleus lübor, for Hercülis. Hor. Civilis füror, for civiuin. Hor. So, also, for the objective genitive, Mětus 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, Vestrā ipsōrum causā hoc féci$i$. In the poets and later prose writers a participle also is found agreeing with such implied genitive; as, Mea scripta culgo récitāre 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 ămor exititium pěcǒri (est), pécórisque măgistro. Virg. Vitis ut arbŏribus dĕcöri est, ut vitibus ūcce-Tu dĕcus omne tuis. Virg. In this passage the dative décorri and the nominative dëcus are used with no difference of meaning. Cf. §227, R. 4. Auctor fui sěnātui. Cic. Murcena lēgātus Lūcullo fuit. Id. Erit ille mĭhi semper deus. Virg. Huic causæ patrōnus exstiti. Cic. Huic ëgo me bello dücem prơfiteor. Id. Se tertium (esse) cui fätum föret urbis pōtīi. Id.-Cum P. Africāno sěnätus ègìt, ut légätus frātri prŏfĭciscērētur. Id. Ccesar tëgìmenta găleis mīlites ex viminìbus făcěre jübet. Cæs. Trinŏbantïbus Cesar impěrat-frūmentum exercītui. Id. Quod něque insidice consǔli prōcēdēbant. Sall. Quem exitum tantis mălis spērārent? Id. Sanctus vir et ex sententia amböbus, scil. qui fuit. Id. See § $22 \bar{i}$, R. 4.

Note. The dative in the preceding examples has been thought by some grammarians to depend on the nouns connected with it; as, exătium, dĕcus, auctor, lēgātus, deus, patrönus, 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,
Sėse omnes flentes Cæsări ad pèdes pröè ēērunt, 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. Tum vëro exursit jŭvěni 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 summace audãcice, A youth of the greatest boldness. Sall. Fossa pélum riginti, A ditch of twenty feet, (i. e. in width). Cæs. Hamilcar sēcum duxit fülium Hannibuălem annōrum nŏvem. Nep. Athēnienses dëligunt Përiclem, spectātæ virtūtis virum. Just. Quinquäginia annōrum arpèrium. Id. Iter unius diēi. Cic. Pulchritūdíne exImiā fēmina, A womar of exquisite beauty. Cic. Maxímo nāte fûlius, The eldest son. Nep. L. Cütilina fuit magnā vi et ănìmi et corpŏris, sed ingènio mălo prāvōque. Sall. Spēlunca infinītā altitūdīne. Cic.-Sometimes both constructions occur in the same proposition; as, Lentülum nostrum, eximiā spe, summæ virtūtis ädölescentem. Cic.
(1.) A genitive sometimes supplies the place of tl, adjective; and the noun denoting the property, etc., is then always put in the ablative; as, Est bos cervi fĭgūrā,...of the form of a stag. Cæs. Uıi spěcie et cōlōre tauri. Id. Frŭtex palmi altîtūdine. Plin. Clãri digìti pollĭcis crassitūđĩne. Cæs.
(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 quindëcim pĕdum; hơmo antïquä virtūte. 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, foss $a$ quindĕcim pèdes lāta: puer dĕcem annos nātus. Cf. § 236.
(3.) Whether the genitive or the ablative of quality is preferable in particular cares, 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 timōre sum, I am in great fear. Cic. Bŏno ănĭmo sum. Id. Quanto fuĕrim dölōre mëmĭnisti. Id. Maximo hönöre Servius Tullius ërat. 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 sěcus (sex), gěnus and pondo; as, Lïbĕrōrum căpitum virīle sěcus ad dĕcem millia capta, i. e. of the male sex, instead of sexūs virilis. Liv. So gěnus, when joined with a pronoun, as hoc, id, illud, quorl, or with omne, is used for hüjus, éjus, omnis, etc.,
 dëre nügas hoc gěnus. Hor. So pondo is joined as an indeclinable word to the accusatives libram and libras; as," Dictitor corrōnam auream libram pondo in Cüpitōlio Jơvi dōnum pǒsuit,...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, cujusmödi libri, the same as quäles libri, what kind of books; hüjusmǒdi libri, i. e. täles libri, such books. So, also, gěněris is used, but less frequently.
(6.) With the genitive of measure are often connected such ablatives as
 tüdine; 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 hð̈mo, res, něg $\overline{0}$ tium, pröprium or pröprius, etc., and with the ablative, prceditus, instructus, ornätus, etc. Cf. Rem. 8, and §§ 244, and 249, I..

Rem. 7. (1.) The limited noun is sometimes omitted; as, $O$ miseĕrce sortis! scil. homines; 0 (men) of wretched fortune! ${ }^{\circ}$ Lucan. Ad Diänce, scil. adem. Ter. Hectöris Andrömăche, scil. uxor. Virg. Suspiciōnis vītandee, scil. causā. Tac. So filius or fïlia; as, Hannibal Gisgōnis.
(2.) The omitted noun may sometimes be supplied from the preceding words; as, Cüjum pëcus? an Mëlïboi? Non; vèrum AEyönis, scil. pěcus. Virg. An adjective is often expressed referring to the noun omitted; as, Nullam virtus ălỉam mercēdem dēsīdèrat, prater 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,

[^15]Thücȳdides, qui ejusdem atātis fuit, scil. homo, Thucydides, who was of the same age. Nep. Multum ei détraxit, quod áliènce érat ciritātis, scil. hơmo or civis. Id. Primum stīpendium mëruit annörum dëcem septemque, scil. ădölescens. Id. Summi ut sint läbōris efficiunt, scil. ănimūlía. Cæs. (Claudius) somni brěvissimi èrat. Suet. Mirā sum àlacritate. Cic. Vülgus ingènio mōbili érat. Sall. Non est jūris sui, He is not his own master. Lucan. Pötestātis suce esse. Liv. Suärumque rèrum èrant. 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,

Tëměritas est flörentis atätis, prūdentia sěnectütis, Rashness is (the characteristic) of youth, prudence of old age. Cic. Est hoc Gallicae consuētūdinis. Cæs. So, stultitice est; est lëritätis, etc., which are equivalent to stultitia est, lèritas est. Omnia hostium érant. A paucis èmi, quod multōrum 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, Adölescentis est mäjōres nätu rérěrèri, It is (the duty) of a youth to reverence the aged. Ovid. Cūjustis höminis est errāre, nullius nisi insipientis in errōre persérérāre. Cic. Paupëris est nümérāre pécus. Ovid. So especially mōris est; as, Nĕgārit mōris esse Grocōrum, ut in convǐvio virōrun accumbërent mūliēres, the same as mörem esse Grocōrum: Cic. Nihil tam aquande lībertūtis esse. Liv. So when the verb is omitted; Tämen officii duxit, exōrāre patrem, scil, esse. Suet. Non est mentīri meum. Ter. Tuum est, M. Cäto, vidēre quid ägätur.
(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 făcēre et păti fortia Rōmānum est. Liv.
(4.) The same construction sometimes occurs after $f \dot{f} a \dot{c} i o$, and some other verbs mentioned in § 230, esse being understood; as, Asia Römänörum facta est, Asia became (a possession) of the Romans. Just. Agrum suæe ditionis fécisse. Liv.
(5.) The limited noun is sometimes wanting, when it is a general word, though not in the predicate after sum; as, Maymi formica läbōris, scil. annmal, The ant (an animal) of great labor. Hor. So Li vénit in mentem pötestātis tu®, scil. měmória, or the like. Cic.

Note. When the noun which is wanting denotes a thing, grammarians sometimes supply nĕgötium, offǐium, mūnus, ठpus, 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,

Ağamemnŏnis belli glōria, Agamemnon's glory in war. Nep. Illius adminis-
 spectā. Cas. Orbitas reip̄̄blicæ tālium virōrum. Cic. Pro vètérĭbus Helvētiōrum injūrius pópŭli Rōmāñi. Cæs.

Rem. 11. Opus and usus are rarely limited by a genitive or accusative, but generally by an ablative, of the thing reeded; as,

Argenti opus fuit, There was need of money. Liv. Ad consilium pensandum tempöris ŏpus esse. Id. Proœmii non scmper ūsus est. Quint. Si quo ópèræ ē̃ruin ūsus est. Liv. Puěro ópus est cĭbum. Plaut. Usus est hŭmĭnem astutum. Id. See $\wp 243$.

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,
Rëmédium dolōris, A remedy for pain. Injūria patris, Injury to a father. Descensus Averni, The descent to Avernus. Lra belli, Anger on account of the war. Pütestas rei, Power in or over a thing.

Nore. 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.

§ $\mathbf{\Omega} \boldsymbol{Z} \mathbf{Z}$. Nouns, adjectives, adjective pronouns, and adverbs, denoting a part, are followed by a genitive denoting the whole; as,

Pars civitätis, A part of the state. Nulla sörorrum, No one of the sisters. Aliquis phillusöphōrum, Some one of the philosophers. Quis mortälium? Who of mortals? Mäjor jüvěnum, The elder of the youths. Doctissimus Rōmānōrum, The most learned of the Romans. Multum pëcūnice, Much (of) money. Sätis èlơquentice, Enough of eloquence. Ubinam gentium sümus? 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 the neuter of adjectives and adjective pronouns, or adverbs; and that of material nouns depends on substantives signifying quantity, weight or measure; as, mědimnum tıйť̆ci, a bushel of wheăt; lībra farris; jūgĕrum agri; magna vis auri.

Remark 1. Nouns denoting a part are pars, nèmo, nŭhil, etc., and also nouns denoting measure, weight, etc.; as, mŏdius, mĕdimnum, and libra; as,

V èmó nostrum, No one of us̀. Maxima pars hŏmĭnum. Nikil hūmānärun rērum. Cic. Dīmìdium milĭtum. Liv. Mědimnum 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, sōlus, ălius, ŭter, ŭterque, ŭtercumque, ŭtervis, ŭterlibet, neuter, alter, altē̈rŭter, ăliqquis, quīdam, quispaam, quisquis, quisque, quisquam, quīcumque, ūnusquisque, quĭs? qui? quŏt? quŏtus? quötusquisque? töt, älëquø̀t, nonnulli, plërīque, multi, pauci, mëdius. Thus, Quisquis deōrum, Whoever of the gods. Ovid. Consülum alter, One of the consuls. Liv. Multi hơminum, Many men. Plin. Et mědius jŭvĕnum àbat; i. e. between. Ovid. For the gender of adjectives used partitively, see $\S 205$, R. 12.
(2.) Words used partitively; as, Expédeti militum, The light-armed (of the) soldiers. Liv. Dēlecli ëquítum. Id. Vètĕres Rōmānōrum dücum. Vell. Süuěri deörum, The gods above. Hor. Suncte deōrum. Virg. Dēgĕnĕres cänum. Plin. Pisciu!̣ fémince. Id.
(3.) Comparatives and superlatives; as, Doctior jŭvènum. Orātōrum prastantıssimus. Elöquentissimus Rōmōnōrum. Optìmus omnium.
(4.) Numerals, both cardinal and ordinal; also the distributive singŭli; as, Equitum centum quinquäginta interfecti, A hundred and fifty of the horsemen were killed. Curt. Săpientum octāvus. Hor. Singŭlos 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 nonn after it in the genitive; as, Doctissrmus Römānönum, or, doctissămus Rōmānus: Alter consŭlum, or alter consul. But th屯 genitive cannot be used, when the adjective includes the same number of things as that of which the whole consists; as, Vĕniämus ad vivos, qui duo sŭpersunt; not quörum 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 individnals or classes; the superlative denotes a part of a number greater than two; as, Mäjor frätrum, The elder of two brothers. Maximus frätrum, The eldest of three or more.
(b.) In like manner, üter, alter, and neuter, generally refer to two; quis, àlius, and nullus, to a whole consisting of more than two; as, Uter nostrum? Which of us (two?) Quis restrum? 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 commūnis est omnium nostrum părens. Cic. But vestrum sometimes occurs in other connections also without a partitive meaning; as, Quis érit tam cŭp̌̌dus vestrum. Cic.

Note 3. The partitive word is sometimes omitted; as, Fies nöbulium tu quoque fontium, scil. ūnus. Hor. Centies sestertium, scil. centêna mallia.

Note 4. The noun denoting the whole, after a partitive word, is often put in the ablative, with the prepositions $d e, e, e x$, or $i n$, or in the accusative, with ăpŭd or intër ; as, Nēmo de iis. Alter ex censơríbus. Liv. Unus ex multis. Cic. Acerrimus ex sensǐbus. Id. Thăles, qui săpientissimus in septem fuit. Id. Prïnus inter omnes. Virg Crosus inter rēges ơpülentissimus. Sen. Apad Helvētios nöbilissimus.

Note 5. The whole and its parts are frequently placed in apposition, distributively; as, Interfectōres, pars in förum, pars Sy̆rācūsas pergunt. Liv. See § 204, R. 10.

Note 6. Cuncti and omnes, like partitives, are sometimes followed by a genitive plural; as, Attălus Măcědŏnum fĕre omnòbus persuăsit, Attălus persmaded almost all the Macedonians. Liv. Cunctos hǒmǐnum. Ovid. Cunctas prōvinciărum. Plin.
Note 7. In the following passage, the genitive singular seems to be used like that of a collective noun: Tōtius autem injustřtiæ nulla căpítālior esț, etc. Cic. Off. 1, 13. The phrase Rem nullo mơdo pröbäbilem omnium (Cic. Nat. Deor. 1, $2 \pi$,) seems to be used for Rem nullo omnium módōrum pröbäbilem.

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 ëloquentice, More (of) eloquence. Tantum fïdei, So much fidelity. Id temporis, That time. Ad hoc cetātis. Sometimes the genitive plural; as, Id misèriārum. Ter. Armōrum quantum. Cæs.

Note 1. (a.) Most neuter adjectives used partitively denote quantity; as, tantum, quantum, ăliquantum, plüs, mĭnus, minimum, dïmüdum, multum, nїmium, paulum, plürimum, réliquam; with the compounds and diminutives, tantülum, tantundem, quantülum, quantülumcumque, etc.; to which add mídium, summ:mn, ultimum, áliud, etc. The pronouns thus used are hoc, id, illud, istud, îlem, quod, and quid, with their compounds, ăìquid, quidquid, quippiam, quidquam, quolcumque.
(b.) Most of these adjectives a.d prononns 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, Quantuin crērit Nîlus, tantum spei in annum est. Sen. Quid mūlièris uxürem hübes? What kind of a woman... Ter.

Aliquid formæ. Cic. Quin hoc rei est? What does this mean? Ter. Quod auri, quod argenti, quod ornāmentōrum fuit, id Verres abstülit.

Note 2. Neuter adjectives and pronouns, when followed by் 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 hăbes nǒvi, If you have any thing new. Cic. Quid réliqui est? Ter. Niluil is also used with such a genitive; as, Nilil sincēri, No sincerity. Cic. This construction occurs very rarely with neuter adjectives in $\check{e}$ of the third declension, and only in connection with neuters of the secoud declension; as, Si quidquam non dīco cīvìlis sed hümäni 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, Extrèma imperrii, The frontiers of the empire. Tac. Pontes et viărum angusta, The bridges and the narrow parts of the roads. Id. Opāca lơcōrum. Virg. Antīqua foedèrum. Liv. Cuncta campōrum. Tac. Exercent colles, atque hōrum asperrima pascunt. Virg. Cf. § 205, R. 9.

Rem. 4. The adverbs săt, sătis, părum, nımis, ăbunde, largĭter, affactim, and partim, used partitively, are often followed by a genitive; as,

Sat rătiōnis, Enough of reason. Virg. Sătis ēloquentice, părum săpientice, Enough of eloquence, (yet) but little wisdom. Sall. Nimis insìdiärum. Cic. Terröris et fraudis äbunde est. Virg. Auri et argenti largüter. Plaut. Cōpiärum aff ătion. Liv. Quum partim illōrum mihi fămiliuärissimi 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 locörum, with certain adverbs of place, strengthen their meaning; as, Usquam terrärum. Just. Usquam gentium, Any where whatever. Plaut. Ubi tervarum sümus? Where in the world are we? Cic. Abire quo terrārum possent. Liv. Ubi sit loci. Plin. Eo löc $i$, equivalent to eo löco, In that place. Tac. Eòdem lơci res est. Cic. Nescire quo löci esset. Id. But the last three examples might perhaps more properly be referred to Rem. 3.
(b.) The adverbs of place thus used are ǔbi, йbinam, ŭbicumque, ŭbiŭbi, ŭbŭvis, ub̄̄que, unde, usquam, nusquam, quo, qṻcumque, quövis, qū̄quo, ălйquo, hīc, hūc, eo, eódem. Löci also occurs after ibi and ibūdem; gentium after longe; as, Ibz lóci, In that place. Plin. Abes longe gentium. Cic. So, minime gentium, By no means. Ter. Vicinice in the genitive is used by the comic writers after hic and huc; as, Hic proximee vícinice. Plaut. Huc vicinice. 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 insölentiæ fŭrōrisque prōcessit, He advanced to such a degree of insolence and madness. Plin. Huc ënim mälōrum ventum est. Curt. Huccine rērum vēnimus? Have we come to this? Pers. Eo mīsēriārum vënire, To such a pitch of misery. Sall. Quo āmentiæ prögressi sitis. Liv.

Note 4. The genitives loci, locörum, and temporis, appear to be redundant after the adverbs adhuc, inde, intĕrea, postea, tum; and tunc, in expressions denoting time; as, Adhuc löcōrum, Till now. Plant. Inde lới, After that. Lucr. Intërea löci, In the mean time. Ter. Postea löci, Afterwards. Sall. Tum temporris, and tunc temporris, At that time. Just. Lócörum also occurs after id, denoting time; as, Ad id locōrum, Up to that time. Sall. Cf. R. 3.

Note 5. When the genitive éjus occurs after quoad, in such connections as the following: Quoad èjus făcëre pötëris. Cic.; or passively, Quoad éjus fiëri posstt, As far as may be. Cic.; the ejus 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 tiem; as, Pridie ējus diêi, lit. On the day before that day, i. e. The day before. Cic. Pridie insidiärum, The day before the ambush. Tac. Postrïdie éjus 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 genitize; as, Optime omnium, Best of all. Cic.

## GENITIVE AFTER ADJECTIVES.

§ 218. 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,

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Avidus laudis, Desirous of praise. } & \text { Plëna tïmōris, Full of fear. } \\
\text { Appētens glōriæ, Eager for glory. } & \text { Egēnus ăquæ, Destitute of water. } \\
\text { Mémor virtūtis, Mindful of virtue. } & \text { Doctus fandi, Skilful in speaking. }
\end{array}
$$

So, Nescia mens fāti, The mind ignorant in regard to fate. Virg. Impötens Iræ, lit: Powerless in respect to anger, i. e. unable to control it. Liv. Hómines expertes vēritātis, Men destitute of truth. Cic. Lactis ăbundans, Abounding in milk. Virg. Terra fërax arbŏrum, Land productive of trees. Plin. Tënax prōpŏsĭti vir, A man tenacious of his purpose. Hor. EEger ănĭmi, Sick in mind. Liv. Löcus médius jŭgŭli summique lăcerti, i. e. between. Ovid. Mōrum dīversus. Tac. Opĕrum soľūtus. Hor. Līber lăbōrum. Id. Intëger vìtæ scēlĕrisque pürus, Upright in life, and free from wickedness. Hor. Vini pollens Lïber. 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 $a x$; as, căpax, èdax, fërax, fŭgax, pervicax, ténax, etc.-(2.) Participials in $n s$, and a few in tus, with their compounds; as, ămans, appëtens, cŭpiens, efficiens, pătiens, impătiens, sitiens;-consultus, doctus, sölütus.-(3.) Adjectives denoting desire or aversion; as, àrārus, ăvidus, cưpǐdus, stüdiossus; fastīdiōsus:-participation; as, particeps, affinis, consors, exsors, expers, inops:-k nowledge, experience, capacity, and their contraries; as, callidus, compos, conscius, gnärus, ignärus, pĕritus, impërī̀tus, impos, pòtens, impötens, prūdens, imprüdens, expertus, inexpertus, conscius, inscius, nescius, insőlens, insölitus, insuētus, rüdis, sollers:-memory and forgetfulness; as, mémor, immémor, etc.:-certainty and doubt; as, certus, incertus, ambiguus, dübius, suspensus:-c are and negligence; as, anxius, sollicitus, pröridus, impröridus, sēcūrus:-fear and confidence; as, păvidus, tïnidus, trëp̆dus, impăvidus, füdens, interritus:-guilt and innoсепсе; as, noxius, reus, suspectus, compertus, mănĭfestus, innoxius, innöcens, insons:-plenty and want; as, ábundans, plēnus, dives, sătus, largus, inops, ëgēmus, ìnānis, pauper, parcus, sơlütus, văcuus.
(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, ingĕnii, mentis, īrce, mïlitice, belli, lăbōris, rērum, œevi, fütūri, mōrum, and fidei.

Rem. 2. The limiting genitive, by a Greek construction, sometimes denotes a cause or source, especially in the poets; as, Lassus măris, et viārum, militiæque. Hor. Fessus vice. Stat. Fessus măris. Hor. Attơnĭtus serpentis. Sil. Mens ${ }_{\text {interrita }}$ leti. Ovid.

Rem. 3. Participles in $n s$, when used as such, take after them the same case as the verbs from which they are derived; as, Se ämans, Loving himself. Cic. Măre terram appětens. 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 përiti. Virg. Fēt̄icior unguêre tēla. Id. Anxius quid facto ŏpus sit. Sall. Vive mëmor quam sis ævi brěvis. Hor.-So ăliēnus, ăvidus, callidus, chipidus, firmus, frèquès, gnärus, impötens, inops, letus, largus, līer, pollens, mémor, dübius, etc.
(2.) An accusative with a preposition; as, Ad rem ăvidior. Ter. Avǐdus in direptiōnes. Liv. Animus cäpax ad precepta. Ovid. Ad cāsum fortūnamque fêlix. Cic. Ad fraudem calīidus. Id. Dïligens ad custōdiendum. Id. Negligentior in patrem. Just. Vir ad disciplinam përitus. Cic. Ad bella rüdis. Liv. Pơtens in res bellicas. Id. Alăcer ad măĕf̆ficia. Cic. Inter bellum et pācem
 with in, cŭpidus, parcus, porens, prödigus, etc.
(3.) An accusative without a preposition, chiefly in the poets; as, Nüdus membra, Bare as to his limbs. Virg. Os, hŭměrosque deo similis Id. Cētëra fulvus. Hor. Cuncta pollens. Sen. Ag. See $\S 234, \mathrm{II}$.
(4.) An ablative with a preposition; as, Avidus in pěcūniis, Eager in regard to money. Cic. Anxius de fāmā. Quint. Rưdis in jūre civīli. Cic. Pêritus de agrǐcultūrā̀ Varr. Prüdens in jūre cīvili. Cic. Reus de vi. Id. Pürus ab cultu hümāno. Liv. Certior factus de re. Cic. Sollicitus de re. Id. Sŭper scělĕre suspectus. Sall. Inops ab ămīcis. Cic. Pauper in ære. Hor. Mödicus in cultu. Plin. Ab ăquis stêrilis. Apul. Cōpiōsus a frūmento. Cic. Ab ěquîtātu firmus. Id. So with in, immödicus, parcus, über:-with ab, ăliēnus, beätus, extorris, inmü̆nis, inops, līber, nūdus, orbus, văcuus.
(5.) An ablative without a preposition; as, Arte rüdis, Rude in art. Ovid. Regni crīmĭne insons. Liv. Compos mente. Virg. Prūdens consilio. Just. Ager pědỉbus. Sall. Prostans ingěnio. Cic. Mödǐcus sěvēritāte. Tac. Nîhil insidiis văcuum. Cic. Amor et melle et felle est fēcundissimus. Plaut. Mëdius 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, bĕnignus, căpax, exsors, impos, impotens, insätidbîlis, irrǐtus, lībĕiälis, mödīcus, münĭficus, prcelargus, and many others.
(2.) The genitive more frequently; as, compos, consors, ëgënus, exhēres, expers, fertïlis, indigus, inops, parcus, partĭceps, pauper, prödigus, prosper, stërilis.
(3.) The genitive or ablative indifferently; as, dives, fēcundus, fërax, immūnis, inānis, inmơdйcus, јёjünus, largus, nìmius, ðpülentus, pěrītus, plënus, pдtens, pürus, rĕfertus, sătur, über, văcuus.
(4.) The ablative more frequently; as, ăbundans, ăliënus, cassus, cōpiosus, extorris, fivmus, fētus, frě̆quens, grăvǐdus, grăris, infirmus, līber, löcuples, letus, mactus, nüdus, ơnustus, orbus, pollens, sătiātus, truncus, vălídus, vĭduus.
(5.) The ablative only; as, beätus, crēber, densus, mǔtilus, tümüdus, turgtdus.

For the ablative after many of the preceding adjectives, see $\S 250$.
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 sill, conscia recti. Cf. $§ 222$, R. 3 . Conscius has also sometimes the dative instrad of the genitive of the thing; as, conscius huic făcinorri. 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, sumito, Take of me so much money as (he) is worth. Ter. Magni astimábat pëcūniam, He valued money greatly. Cic. Ager nunc plūris est, quam tunc fuit. Id. Tanti est, It is worth so much; and, absolotely, It is worth while. Cic. Hūjus non făcio, 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, plüris, minnöris, magni, permagni, plürimi, maximi, mànimi, parii, tantïlen,, quanticumque, quanticis, quantïthet, but only very rarely multi and mäjöris.
(2.) The nouns assis, flocci, nauci, nihili, pili, tëruncii, and also pensi and hüjus.
(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.
Rex. 2. The verbs of valuing are asstimo, existimo, düco, făcio, fĩo, häbeo, pendo, püto, depŭto, taxo. Thus, Ut quanti quisque se ipse füciat, tanti fĩat ab ámícis, That as much as each one values himself, so much he should be valued by his friends. Cic. Seld quia parvi ill dū̄ēret. Id. Hönöres si magni non pülēmus. Id. Non assis fäcis? Catull. Nẽque quol dixi, flocci existimat. Plaut.
Note 1. (a.) The phrase requi bobni, or requi bónique făcio, or consülo, I take a thing in good part, am satisfied with it, may be classed with genitives of value; as, Nos æqui bōnĭque făcimus. Liv. So, Bōni consüluit Plin.-(b.) A genitive of price is joined also to ceno, hübito, düceo, etc.; as, quanti hübitas? what rent do you pay for your house or lodging? quanti docet? what are his terms in teaching?
Note 2. After cestimo, the ablatives magno, permagno, parro, nihilo, are sometimes used instead of the genitive; as, Düta magno cestimas, accepta parvo. Sen. Pro nithilb, also, occurs after düco, häbeo, and püto; and nihil with astimo and móror. Cf. § 231, R. 5.
Note 3. The neuter adjectives above enumerated, and hüjus, may be referred to a noun understood, as prétii, cris, pondëris, mömenti; and may be considered as limiting a preceding noun, also understood, and denoting some person or thing; as, Æestimo te magni, i. e. höminem magni prettii. Scio ejus ordinis auctōritâtem semper öpud te magni fuisse, i. e. rem magni mömenti. The words assis, etc., may also be considered as depending on an omitted noun; as, prettio, 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,
Mercätōres non tentīdem vendunt, quanti èmérunt. Cic. Nulla pestis hümãno gèněri plūris stêtit, quam îra. Sen.
Note 1. Verbs of buying, selling, etc., are ëmo, véndo, the neutral passive, rēneo, consto, prösto, and liceo, to be exposed for sale.
Note 2. With verbs of buying, selling, etc., the ablatives magno, permagno, plürimo, parro, minimo, and nihito are often used instead of the genitive; as, Non pơtest parvo res magna constäre. Sen. Quanti ëmĕre possum minimo? What is the lowest price I can buy at? Plaut. Sometimes also the adverbs cäre, béne, and măle taks the place of the genitive or ablative of price.
§.215. (1.) Mĭsĕreor, mĭsĕresco, and the impersonals mĭsĕret, poenŭtet, pŭdet, tadet, and prgget, are followed by a genitive of the object in respect to which the feeling is exercised; as,

Misě̌rēminni sǒciōrum, Pity the allies. Cic. Misěrescĭte rēgis, Pity the king. Virg. Mea mäter, tui me müsĕret, mei pı̆get, I pity you, and am dissatisfied with myself. Acc. Eos Ineptiārum poenìtet. Cic. Frātris me püdet pigetque. Ter. Me cīvitätis mōrum piget taedeique. Sall. So the compound distadet; Ilaud quod tui me, nĕque dŏmi distıedeat. Plaut.; and the passive; Numquam suscepti nĕgōtii eum pertcesum est. Nep. Lentĭtūdĭnis eōrum pertcesa. Tac. Misērìtum est me tuărrum fortūnārum. Ter. Căve te frātrum mìsĕreātur. Cic. Püdet ( $m e$ ) deōrum hŏminnumque, I am filled with shame in reference both to gods and men. Liv.
Note 1. Mïserrescit is sometimes used in the same manner as misëret; as, Nunc te misĕrescat 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., ef § 211, R. $8,(3)$; and $\S 209$, 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 dīcēre püdēbit. Cic. Non paeritet me quantum prōfëcěrim, I am not dissatisfied with my progress. Id. These verbs have also sometimes a nominative ; as, Me quidem haec condítio non panitet. Plaut. Non te hæc püdent? Ter.

Note 2. Misĕret occurs with an accusative of the object, instead of a genitive; as, Mënědèmi viccm mǐsěret me. Ter. So, also, Pertasus ignāviam suam. Suet.

Note 3. (a.) These impersonals, as active verbs, take also an accusative of the person exercising the feeling which they express. Sce § 229, R. 6. (b.) And sometimes also the accusative of the neuter pronouns and of nihil, denoting to what degree the feelings are exercised; as, Séquitur ut nĭhil (săpientem,) pornīteat. Cic. Cf. § 232, (3.)
(2.) Sătăgo is sometimes followed by a genitive denoting in $-f$ what respect ; as,

Is sătăgit rērum suärum, 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, Nunc ăgttas sat tüte tuärum rērum. Plaut.
§ 216. Rĕcordor, mĕmĭni, rĕmĭniscor, and oblīviscor, are followed by a genitive or accusative of the object remembered or forgotten ; as,
Flăgitiōrrum suōrum rĕcordäbitur. Cic. Omnes grădus atātis rěcordor tuce, 1 call to mind all the periods of your life. Id. Mémini vivōrum, I am mindful of the living. Id. Nŭmëros mëmini, I remember the measure. Virg. Rěminisci větěris fāmæ. Nep. Dulces möriens re̛müniscītur Argos. Virg. Rèminisci ămicos. Ovid. Oblītus sni. Virg. Injūriārum oblī̀iscitur. Nep. Oblīviscor injūrias. Cic. Oblīviscëre Graios. Virg.

Remari 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 mëmini, when referring to a contemporary, always takes an accusative of the person; as, Cinnam mëmini. Cic.
(b.) An infinitive or a dependent clause sometimes follows these verbs; as, Mémento mihi suppétias ferre. Plaut. Esse quöque in fótis réminisctur, afföre tempus, quo märe, etc. Ovid. Oblīti quid dëceat Hor. Mëmini te scrībẻre. Cic. Ques sum passūra récordor. Ovid.
Rfm. 2. Récordor and mémini, to remember, ars sometimes followed by an ablative with de; as, Pétǐmus ut de suis līběris réco dentur. Cic. De pallã měmento. Plaut.

Rem. 3. Mëmìni, signifying to make mention of, has a genitive, or an ablative with de; as, Néque hūjus rei mémünit.poëta. Quint. Méministi de exsŭlibus. Cic. With venit mihi in mentern, the person or thing may be made the subject of věnit; as, Misěrce übi vēnit in mentem mortis mětus. Plant. Vénit hoc mili 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 vénire illius temporis, see $\S 211$, 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. Altërum accūsat probri, He accuses another of rillany. Meipsum inertiæ condemno. Cic.

## Remark 1. (a.) To this rule belong the verbs of

Accusing; accūso, ňgo, arcesso, arguo, cito, dēfēro, incrëpo, incūso, insimülo, postälo, and more rarely alligo, anquiro, astringo, capto, incrépito, urgeo, interrợŋo, reum ăgo or fäcio, ülicui diem dìco, cum äliquo ăgo.-Convicting; convinco, coaryuo, prèhento, tèneor, obstringor, obligor.-Cond e mning; damno, condemno, inf (imu, and more rarely jūlico, nóto, plector.-Acquitting; absolvo, libero, purgo, and rarely solvo. To the verbs of accusing, etc., may be added the adjectives denotiug guilt and innocence, which likewise take a genitive. Cf. § 213, R. 1, (3.)
(b.) The genitives which follow these verbs are, audācice, àrāritice, cadis, falsi, furti, ị̂nāvice, impiétūtis, injūriärum, lōritātis, mājestätis, mălëficiii, mendā-
 scélêris, stulutice, tëmèrilututis, timōrıs, vänitätis, vènēficii, etc.

Rem. 2. (a.) Instead of the genitive, an ablative with de is often used after accūso, ll̈f éro, anquiro, arguo, postülo, damno, condemno, absolvo, and purgo; as, Accûsī̀e de neglĭgentiā. Cic. De vi condemnäti sunt. Id. De rępétundis est postàlütus. Id. Sometimes with in, after accūso, coarguo, conrinco, téneor, and dèprëhendor; as, In quo te accūso (Cic.); and after libéro, with $a$ or $a b$; as, A scèlìre lïbe̛ráti sünus. Cic. Accūso and damno with inter occur in the phrases inter sicūrios accusäre, etc., to charge with assassination.
(b.) With some of the above verbs, an ablative without a preposition is often used; as, Libërā̈re culpā. Cic. Crïnen quo argui posset. Nep. Pröconsŭlem postülëréret rèpètundis. Tac. This happens especially with general words denoting crime; as, scèlus, mälĕficium, peciétum, etc.; as, Me peccāto solco. Liv. The ablatives crimine and nomine, without a preposition, are often inserted before the genitive: as, drcessëve euliquem crimine ambitūs. Liv. Nōmine scëlëris comjürōtiönisque dumnäti. Cic.; and when not so inserted they are to be understood.
(c.) Sometimes a clause takes the place of the genitive; as, Eum accūsibant quod sonciétātem fecisset. Nep. So the infinitive with the accusative. Quid! quorl me-arguit serrum accessisse? Ovid.

Rem. 3. (a.) The punishment is commonly expressed by the genitive; as, căpítis, mortis, multce, pécünia, quadrupli, octupli; but sometimes by the abla. tive; as, căpite, morte, multā, pécūniā: and always by this case when a definite sum is mentioned; us, quindécim millibus aris: or the a: snsative with ad or in,
as, ad pœenam, ad bestias, ad mëtalla, in mëtallum, in expensas;-sometimès, though rarely, in the poets, by the dative; as, Damnätus morti. Lucr.(b.) Vōti or vṑtōrum, and less frequently vōto or vōtis damnäri, signifies 'to be condemned to fulfil one's vow,' and is consequently equivalent to 'to obtain what one wishes.' So also in the active voice, Damnabis tu quöque voitis. Virg. Perdo is used by Plautus as a verb of accusing, with căpĭtis; Quem égo cơquitis perdam, will charge with a capital offence. So cäpite or cüpitis périclítãri, Plaut., signifies 'to be in peril of one's life.' With plecto and plector, cüput is used in the ablative only.-(c.) Damni infecti is put in the genitive (depending upon nōmine understood) after sätisdo, prömilto, stüpüläri, rëpromitto, and căveo; as, Si quis in păriĕte dèmōliendo damni infecti prömìsĕrit. Cic.

Rem. 4. Accūso, incūso, and insĭmǔlo, instead of the genitive, sometimes take the accusative, especially of a neuter pronoun; as, $S i$ id me non accūsas. Plaut. Quæ me incūsā̀ē̈ras. Ter. Sic me insimülāre falsum făcĭnus. 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:-călumnior, carpo, corripio, crīminor, culpo, excūso, multo, pūnio, rêprẹhendo, sügillo, taxo, trūdūco, vítüpëro ; as, Culpăre inf ēcunditātem agrōrum. Colum. Excūsäre errōrem et ădolescentian. Liv.
(b.) This construction also sometimes occurs with accūso, incūso, arguo, and innarguo; as, Ejus ărārìtiam perfídiamque accüsărat. Nep. Culpam aryzo. Liv. With multo, the punislment is put in the ablative only, without a preposition; as, Exsiliis, 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 tempöris mornet, He admonishes the soldiers of the occasion. Tac. Admơnēbat ălium ěgestātis, ălium cŭpìdītătis suce. Sall.

Note. The verbs of admonishing are móneo, admoneo, commóneo, and comm $\delta$ nĕfăcio.

Remark 1. Instead of the genitive, verbs of admonishing sometimes have an ablative with de; as, De æde Tellüris me admönes. Cic.-sometimes an accusative of a pronoun or adjective in the neuter gender; as, Eos hoc morneo Cic. Illud me admöneo. Id.; and in the passive, Multa admönémur. Id.-rarely also a noun in the accusative; as, Eam rem nos lơcus admonuit. Sall.

Rem. 2. Instead of the genitive, verbs of admonishing are also often followed by an infinitive or clause; as, Sóror alma mönet succēdëre Lauso Turnum, His sister admonishes Turnus to take the place of Lausus. Virg. Mönet, ut suspiciōnes vītet. Cæંs. Sed eos hoc mơneo, dēsinnant fŭrěre. Cic. Mönet rătiōnem frūmenti esse hăbendam. Hirt. Immortālia ne spēres mönet annus. Hor. Discipùlos id ūnum möneo, ut, etc. Quint. Möneo quid facto ŏpus sit. Ter. See $\$ 273,2$.
§ 219. Rēfert and intĕrest are followed by a genitive of the person or thing whose concern or interest they denote; as,

Hūmänt̄tätis rēfert, It concerns human nature. Plin. Rēfert omnium ăntmadverti in mălos. Tac. Intërest omnlam recte făcĕre, 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,

Meanihil rëfert, It does not concern me. Ter. Illud mea magni intërest, That greatly concerns me. Cic. Tua et mea maxime intĕrest, te välēre. Cic. Mägis reipūblĭcæ intërest quam mea. Id. Magni intërest Ciccěrōnis, vel mea pötius, vel mehercŭle utriusque, me intervënire dicenti. Id.

Note. Rëfert rarely occurs with the genitive, but often with the prononns mea, tua, etc., and most frequently without either such pronoun or a genitive; as, quid rēfert? magnṡ or magnơpē̃e rēfert.

Rem. 2. In regard to the case of these adjective pronouns, grammarians dif$\ddot{\mathrm{er}}$. Some suppose that they are in the accusative plural neuter, agreeing with commóda or the like understood; as, Intërest mea, i. e. est inter mea, It is among my concerns. Rēfert tua, i. e. rēfert se ad tua, It refers itself to your concerns. Others think that they are in the ablative singular feminine, agreeing with re, caus $\overline{0}$, 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 rēfert was originally rem fert, and that hence the $e$ of rēfert is long.

Rem. 3. Instead of the genitive, an accusative with ad is sometimes used; as, Ad hŏnōrem meum intërest quam primum urbem me rënire. Cic. Quid id ad me aut ad meam rem rēfert. Plaut.-sometimes, though rarely, an accusative without a preposition; as, Quid te igitur rētưlit? Plaut-or a dative; as, Dic quid rëfĕrat intra nātūre 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 rēfert. Ter. Hoc věhěmenter intërest reipüblica. Cic.; and sometimes by an infinitive with its accusative, or ut, or an interrogative particle with a subjunctive clause; as, multum mea intërest te esse diligentem, or ut diligens sis, or utrum diligens sis nec ne. When the infinitive alone is used with rēfert or intěrest, the preceding subject is understood; as, omnium intërest recte fă--ëre, scil. se.
Rem. 5. The degree of interest or importanee is expressed by adverbs or by neuter adjectives, etc., in the accusative or genitive; as, măgis, magnöpëre, véhĕmenter, părum, minime, etc.; multum, plüs, plürimum, nihil, ăliquid, etc.; tanti, quanti, magni, permagni, plüris. But mĭnı̈mo discrimine rēfert 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, excriucio, fallo, pendeo, which are followed by ănimi ; dēcipior, désịpio, fallor, fastīdio, incideo, miror, véreor; as, Absuヶde făcis, qui angas te ănìmi. Plaut. Me ănĭmi fallit. Lacr. Dēcipitur lăbōrum. Hor. Dēsīpiēbam mentis. Plaut. Justïtiæne prius mïrer belline lăbōrum. Virg.
2. The following, in imitation of the Greek idiom; abstineo, dèsinn, purgo. Hor.; dēsisto. Virg.; laudo, prǒhĭbeo. Sil.; lëvo, partic (\$) Plaut.; liběro. Liv.; dissolvo. Tibull.: compare līber lăbōrum; ơpěrum văcuus ; pürus scělĕris. § 213.
3. Some verbs denoting to fill, to abound, to want or need, to free, which are commonly followed by an ablative. Such are ăbundo, căreo, compleo, expleo, impleo, égeo, indígeo, sătŭro, obsǎtüro, scăteo; as, Adölescentem suce těměritātis implet, He fills the youth with his own rashness. Liv. Animum explesse flammæ. Virg. Egeo consĭli. Cic. Non tam artis indigent quam lăboris. Id. See §§ 249 and $250,(2$.
4. Pötior, wrich also is usually followed by an ablative; as, Urbis pottiri, To make oneself master of the city. Sall. Pottiri regni (Cic.), hostium (Sall.), rerum, To make oneself master of the world. Cic. Potio (active) occurs in Plautus; as, Eum nunc pơtivit servitūtis, He has made him partaker of slavery. In the same writer, portitus est hostium signifies, 'he fell into the hands of the enemy.' So, also, Aliquem compötīre prædæ or vōti. App. So, Rērum ãdeptus est. Tac. Dŏminā̄tiōnis ăpisci. Id. Regnävit pŏpŭlōrum. 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,

IIăbitat Mîlēti, He lives at Miletus. Ter. Quid Rōmce făciam? What can I do at Rome? Juv. Hercŭles Ty̆ri maxime coblitur. Cic.

Note. For the construction of nouns of the third declension or plural nzmber, see § 254 . The following appears to be the best explanation that lias 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 Römce and Athënis present no difficulty. In the third declension the dative and ablative singular were anciently alike, and in such ablatives as Anxüri, Carthägīni, Lăcéduemŏni, the old form remains, see § 82, Exc. 5, (c.) In the second declension there was an old dative in oi, as in Greek, which was commonly changed to $o$, but' sometimes to $i$ : and the latter is still found in nulli, uni, etc., se $\$ 107$, 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, Ithäcee vīvëre, To live in Ithaca. Cic. Corcȳre fümus. Id. Cönon plārinıum Cypri vixit, Tīmötheus Lesbi. Nep. Quum Miltiüdes domum.Chersõnēsi häbuit. Id. Crētıe jussit considēre Apollo. Virg. Rōma Nümidiæqque fŭcй̃ŏra ējus mĕmŏrat. 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 Ty̌ro décēdit, The king dies at Tyre. Just. Et Córintho et Athënis et Lăcědamŏne nunciāta est victöria. Id. Pons quem ille Aby̆do fēcĕrat. Id. Hujus exemplar Rōmā nullum hăbēmus. Vitruv. Non Liby̌e, non ante Ty̆ro. 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, $\check{u} b i$, $\grave{\imath} b i, i b i d e m$, ălibi, ăliccübi, 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 ips $\bar{a}$ Alexandriă. Cic. And poetically without in, Gënus Longā nostrum dömīnäbitur Albā. Virg.-(c.) When urbs, oppidum, locus, etc., follow the genitive of place as appositions, they are put in the ablative either with, or, more rarely, without, in; as, Archias Antiochīu nätus est, cělebri quondam urbe. Cic. Cíves Rōmänos Neäpolli, in cêlěberrimo oppĭdo sape vidimus. Id. But when in urbe, etc., precede-the name of a town, the latter also is put in the ablative; as, In oppido Citio. Nep.; and
"but very rarely in the genitive; as, Cassius in oppido Antiŏchiæ est,-in the town of Antioch. Cic., where the genitive depends on oppido.

Rem. 3. The genitives domi, mīlutice, belli, and hümi, are construed like names of towns; as,

Tènuit se dŏmi, He staid at home. Cic. Vir dŏmi clārus. Liv. Spargit hŭmi jussos dentes,-on the ground. Ovid. Militice and belli are thus used, especially when opposed to dömi; as, Una semper militiæ et dŏmi fuĭmus,-both at home and in the camp. Ter. So Dormi militiceque. Cic. Et dom et miltitice. Id. Militice dornique. Liv. Militice et domi. Ter. Belli dömique, in war and in peace. Hor.
(1.) Dömi is thus used with the possessives mea, tua, suo, nostra, vestra, and áliënce; as, Dŭmi nostræ vixit, He lived at my house. Cic. Apud eum sic fui tanquam meæ dŏmi. Id. Sacríficium, quod ăliēnæ dŏmi fièret invisēre. Id. But with other adjectives, an ablative, generally with a preposition, is used; as, In víduã dómo. Ovid. Päternä dŏmo. Id. Sometimes also with the possessives; as, Meä in dömo. Hor. In dŏmo suā. Nep. So, instead of hümi,' upon the ground,'
hümo is sometimes used; with or without a preposition; as, In hŭmo ărēnōsā. Ovid. Sëdēre hŭmo nūdā. Id.
(2.) When a genitive deroting the possessor follows, either dŏmi or in domo is used; as, Dëprěhensus dömi Casăris. Cic. Dŏmi illius fuisti. Id. In dŏmo Cesăris. Id. In dǒmo ejus. Nep.
(3.) The ablative ď̌mo for dömi also occurs, but not in Cicero; an, Ego id nunc expërior dǒmo. Plaut. Dŏmo se těnére. Nep. Dǒmo abditus. Suet. Bello for belli is found in Livy-Dŏmi bellöque. So, also, hŭmo for hŭmi ; Strātus hümo. Stat. Fīgit hŭmo plantas. Virg.: and in hŭmo lümen fîgit. Ovid.
(4.) Terra is sometimes used like hümi; as, Sacra terræ cēlärimus. Liv. Pröjectus terræ. Virg. Ignes terra condit. Luc. So, also, ärēnee; Truncum rèliquit ărēnæ. Virg.: and vicinice; Proximee vicīniæ hăbǐtat. Plaut.
(5.) The genitive of names of towns, dormi, militice, etc., is supposed by some to depend on a noun understood; as, urbe, oppido, adibus, sölo, loco, tempŏre, 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 tĕnus; as,
 nus. Id. Urbium Corcy̆ra tënus. Liv.-For the ablative after tënus, 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 commŏdi et incommŏdi, the dative of advantage and disadvantage; as,
Scribo vöbis hunc librum, I write this book for you. Prösum tibi, or Tībi utilis sum, I am useful to you.
2. Hence the dative of advantage and disadvantage may be used (a) with adjectives and partucles 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,

Utìlis agris, Useful to the fields Juv. Jücundus ămīcis, Agreeable to his friends. Mart. Inimicus quièti, Unfriendly to rest. Id. Charta inütilis scrïbendo, 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 butlis, are followed by the dative; as,

Fēlix tuis, Propitious to your friends. Virg. Orātio ingrāta Gallis, A speech displeasing to the Gauls. Cæs. Amīcus ty̆rannĭdi, Friendly to tyranny. Nep. Lăböri inhăbülis, Unsuited to labor. Colum. Patri similis, Ljke his father. Cic. Nihil tam est Ly̆siæ dîversum, quam Isocrătes. Aptum tempŏri. Id. Mălo prōnus. Sen. Promptus sēdĭtiōni. Tac. Cuivis făcille est. Ter. Mĭhi certum est. Cic. Par frātri tuo. Id. Falsa vēris finitiť̀ma sunt. Id. Ocŭli concŏlōres corpŏri. Colum. Multis bŏnis flebbilis. Hor. Mors est terrǐbülis iis, quōrum, etc. Cic.
(a.) The following are some of the adjectives included in Rem. 1, viz. grātus, acceptus, dulcis, jūcundus, luetus, suāvis; ingrātus, insuāris, injūcundus, mölestus, grăris, ăcerbus, ódiōsus, tristis; -ūtìlis, ǐnūtülis, bönus, sălūber, sălūtāris, fructuōsus; călămǐtōsus, damnōsus, funestus, noxius, pestīfer, pernïciōsus, exitiōsus:-ămīcus,
 adversus, cemǔlus, ăliènus, contrārius, infestus, infüdus, inñqqus, ìrātus;-aptus, accommớdātus, appŏsitus, hăbilis, ìdōneus, opportünus ; ìneptus, ïnhăb̄̆lis, importünus, inconvëniens;-arquälis, par, impar, dispar, sìmilis, dissìmilis, absĭmillis, discőlor:-prōnus, prōclivis, prōpensus, promptus, pärātus:-făcilis, difficicilis:ăpertus, conspı̆сuиs, mănйfestus, perspícuus, obscūrus, certus, compertus, nōtus, ambǐguus, dübius, ignōtus, incertus, insölìtus;-vīcinus, fīnitimus, confinis, conterminus, pröpior, proximus, cognätus, concŏlor, concors, congruus, consanguйneus, consentäneus, consŏnus, convèniens, contĭguus, contïnuus, continens.
(b.) Many adjectives of other significations, including some compounds of $o b$, sub, and sŭper, as obnoxius, obvius, subjectus, supplex, and sŭperstes, are also followed by a dative of the object.
(c.) After verbals in bilis, the dative is usually rendered by the preposition by; as, Tibur crédibilis 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, Sy̆rā̈cūsāni nōbis dicto audientes sunt. Cic. Audiens dicto fuit jussis mĕgistrütuum. Nep. In this phrase, dicto is a dative limiting audiens, and the words dicto audiens seem to form a compound equivalent to obbédiens, and, like that, followed by a dative; thus, Nec plebs nōbis dicto audiens atque obbēdiens sit. Liv. So dicto öbēdiens; as, Fütūra es dicto ơbēdiens, annon, patri? Plaut.

Rem. 2. (a.) The adjectives aquälis, affinis, ăliēnus, cognöminis, commūnis, contıärius, fīdus, insuētus, par, dispar, pécūliāris, proprius, pröpinquus, săcer,
 others, instead of a dative of the object, are sometimes followed by a genitive; as, Par hujus, Equal to him. Lucan. Proprium est ōrātōris ornāte dīcêre. Cic. But most of these words, when thus used, seem rather to be taken substantively; as, Eqquälis ejus, His contemporary. Cic.
(b.) Similis, assimilis, consìmìlis, 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 Rōmŭli quam Nŭmæ similes. Liv.
(c.) Amīcus, ìnìmīcus, and fămìliāris, owing to their character as substantives, take a genitive even in the superlative; as, По̆mo ămäcissĭmus nostrōrum hơmìnum,-very friendly to our countrymen. Cic. On the other hand, hostis, though a substantive, is sometimes 'red like an adjective, being modified by
an adverb, and taking an object in the dative; as, Exspectantibus omnibus quisnam esset tam impius, tam dëmens, tam diis hǒmĭnĭbusque 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 ren ütìlis. Cic. Lŏcus aptus ad insĭdias. Id.
(2.) Adjectives denoting motion or tendency, take an accusative with ad more frequently than a dative; as, Piger ad pœnas, ad præmia vèlox, Ovid; Ad ălĭquem morbum prōclìvior, Cic.; Ad omne făcinnus părätus, Id.; Prōnus ad fídem, Liv.;-sometimes with' in; as, Cëler 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, Fidēlis in filios. Just. Mäter ăcerba in swos partus. Ovid. Grātus erga me. Cic. Grätum adversus te. Id. So Dissimìlis in dǒminum. Tac.
(4.) Adjectives signifying like, equal, common, etc., when plural, are often followed by the accusative with inter; as, Inter se similes. Cic. Hæc sunt inter eos commūnia. Id. Inter se diversi. Id.

Rem. 5. Prŏpior and proxtmus, instead of the dative, have sometimes, like their primitive prŏpe, an accusative; as, Quod vitium prŏpius virtūtem érat. Sall. P. Crassus proxìmus māre Oceănum hiēmārat. Cæs. Ager, qui proxǐmus finem Mĕgălơpŏlitärum est. Liv. Cf. § 238, 1.

Rem. 6. (a.) Some adjectives, instead of the dative, have at times an ablative with a preposition. Thus, par, commünis, consentäneus, discors, with cum; as, Quem pärem cum lībēris fêecisti. Sall. Consentäneum cum iis lītěris. Cic. Civitas sécum discors. Liv. So ăliènus and diversus with a or ab; as, Aliēnus a me, Ter.; A rătione diversus, Cic.; or without a preposition; as, Aliēnum nostrā ămīcîtià. 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.

Res. 7. Idem is sometimes followed by the dative, chiefly in the poets; as Jüpiter omnibus ìden. Virg. Invītum qui servat, iddem fäcit occidenti. Hor In the first example. omnibus is a dative of the object; in the second, th. dative follows idem, in imitation of the Greek construction with aivos, and is equivalent to quod occidens, or quod fäcit 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 $q u i$, ac, atque, ut, quăsi, or quam; sometimes by the preposition cum. Cf. § 207, R. $27,($ d. $) \cdot$ Sìmilis 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 obtempērātio scriptis lēgibus instìtūtisque püpülörum. Cic. Trãdítio ălīcūjus rei altěri. Id. Exprobrātio cuiquam vétëris fortūnce. Liv.

[^16]
## DATIVE AFTER VERBS.

§ 22B. 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 dŏmus tĭbi pătet, My house is open to you. Cic. Pars optāre lobcum tecto, A part choose a site for a building. Virg. Tìbi sĕris, tĭbi métis, You sow for yourself, you reap for yourself. P̀laut. (Lǐcet nēminni contra patriam dūcĕre exercitum, It is not lawful for any one to lead an army against his country. Cic. Hoc tirbi prömitto, I promise you this. Id. Haret lătêri lētâlis ărundo. Virg. Surdo fäbŭlam narras. Hor. Mǐhi responsum dëdit. Virg. Sic vos non vōbis fertis ärätra, bơves. Id. Omnìbus bŏnis expédit salvam esse rempūbľ̃cam. Cic. Aptat hăbendo 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. $\oint 142,1$, 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 tịbi făvet, She favors you, or is favorable to yơı. Ovid. Mǐhi plăcēbat Pompōnius, mìnĭme displìcēbat. C̣ic. Qui š̌bi fìdit. Hor. Non lĭcet sui commödi causā nơcēre altĕri. Cic. Non invĭdētur illi ætāti sed ctiam făvētur. Id. Despērat sălūti suce. Id. Něque mĭlhi vestra decrēta auxiliantur. Sall. Impěrat aut servit collecta pĕcūnia cuique. Hor. Obēdīre et pärēre vǒluntāti. Cic. Quŏniam factiōni ìnìmīcōrum rësistëre nĕquīvěrit. Sall. Mĭhi mìnābātur. Cic. Irasci ̆nĭmīcis. Cæs.
(b.) So Adîlor, assentior, blandior, commð̆do, făveo, grāťfǐcor, grätor, grātŭlor, and its verbal grātūlăbundus, ignosco, indulgeo, lēn̄̄̄cĭnor, palpor, parco, plaudo, respondeo, stŭdeo, suppărăsītor; amŭlor, incommðdo, invǐdeo, nə̆ceo, obsum, offrcio;-arrīdeo,


 obsęquor, obtempĕro, pāreo, dicto audiens sum;-ancillor, famŭlor, mrnistro, servio, inservio, prastōlor;-adversor, refrăgor, obsto, obtrecto, rèluctor, rěnîtor, rĕpugno, rèsisto, and, chiefly in the poets, bello, certo, luctor, pugno;-minor, comminor, intermı̈nor ,-irascor, succenseo, stömăchor.-To these may be added aquo, ădąquo, convīcior,
 persuādeo, dissuädeo, suppľ̆co, văco, v̌̃deor, and sometimes misceo and lăteo:-also the impersonals acčudit, convěnit, condūcit, eontingit, děcet, dület, expědit, ľ̆cet, ひ̌̌̆bet, or lübet, lăquet, pläcet, etc.-(c.) Intransitive verbs governing a dative are often used impersonally in the passive with the same case; as, my̌hi invそdềtur, I am envied. M̌̌hi maľdīcîtur, I am reviled. Mǔhi parcîtur, I am spared. Hor. Hoc persuādētur mũhi, I am persuăded 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, ădūlor, ausculto, blandior, dégěnĕro, despēro, indulgeo, lăteo, mědeor, mĕdícor, mödĕror, obtrecto, prcestōlor, prōv̌deo, etc.; as, Adūlāri ălĭquem. Cic. Hanc căve dēgēněres. Ovid. Indulgeo me. Ter. Hujus adventum prcestōlans. Cæs. Prṑidēre rem frümentäriam. Id.-Sometimes also by a preposition and the ablative or accusative; as, A Stōrcis dēgĕnĕrāvit Păncetius. Cic. De rēpūblǐcā despērāre. Id. Obtrectärunt inter se. Nep.-Or by a dependent clause; as, Quæ despērat tractāta nǐtescĕre posse, rělinquit. Hơ.
(b.) Others, as transitive verbs, have, with the dative, in accusative, expressed or understood; as, impëro, mando, ministro, mìnor, comminor, intcrminor, precipioio, rěcípio, rënucio, etc.; as, Equītes impèrat civitãtibus; where cōgendos is perhaps to be supplied, He enjoins upon the states the providing of cavalry. Cas. See $\$ 2 \overline{4} 4$, R. 5. Ministrāre victum álicui. Varr. Dēflagrātiōnem urbi et Itălǐz tōti mìnülǜtur. Cic.
(c.) Aquo and ădoquo are construed with the accusative and either the dative or cum with the ablative.-Invideo takes either a single dative of the person or thing, a dative of the person and an accusative of the thing; as, Hono rem mîhi invident. Hor.; or, when incideve is used in the sense of pricūre, a dative of the person and an ablative of the thing; as, Non inviderunt laude suä mülièribus. Liv. In Horace, by a Greek construction, the genitive is once used instead of the accusative or ablative of the thing; as, Néque ille séporsitit ciccerris nec longae invìdet ăvène.
(d.) Cedo, used transitively, takes a dative of the person and an accusative of the thing; but sometimes the thing is expressed by the ablative; as, cédëre ălícui possessiōne hortörum. So, also, concēdo tïli löcum, or concēdo tïli lüco.
(2.) Many verbs which, from their significations, might be included in the above classes, are, as transitive verbs, only followed by an accusative; as, dëlecto, jūro, adjūro, adjüto, ledlo, offendo, etc.-Jübto is followed by the accusative with an infinitive, and sometimes by the accusative alone, or the dative with the infinitive or subjunctive; as, Jübeo te bëne spëräre. Cic. Lex jübet ea que fäcienda sunt. Id. Ubi Britannǐco jussit exsurgëre. Tac. Quibus jussērat, ut instantibus reésistérent. 1d.-Fido and confido are often followed by the ablative, with or without a preposition; as, Fidère cursu. Ovid. Cf. §245.
§ 224. Many verbs compounded with these eleven prepo-
 are followed by the dative; as,

Annue cœptis, Be favorable to our undertakings. Virg. Rōmānis ěquĭtíbus litërce affëruntur; Letters are brought to the Roman knights. Cic. Antëcellérs omnibus, To excel all. Id. Antëtülit iræ rëligiōnem. Nep. Audetque viris concurrère virgo. Virg. Fixercìtum exercitui, düces dŭcibus compürāre. Liv. Immtnet his aerr. Ovid. Pécǒri signum impressit. Virg. Nox pralio intervēnit. Liv. Interdixit histriōnıbus scēnam. Suet. Meis commödis officis et obstas. Cic. Cum se hostium tēlis objécissent. Id. Posthălui mea sēria lūdo. Virg. Certāmini $p$ rasēdit. Suet. Hībernis Labiēnum prapŏsuit. Cæs. Gènībus prōcumbère. Ovid. Misěris succurrěre disco. Virg. Iis subsidia submittēbat. Cæs. Timidis süpertënit $\neq$ Egle. 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, ădĕqǔ̌to, adhareo, adjáceo, adno, adnăto, adsto, aulst̄pūlor, adsum, alversor, affulgto, allāabor, allū̀do, annuo, appāreo, applaudo, appröpinquo, arrēpo, arrideo, aspйro, assentior, assideo, assisto, assuesco, assurgo ;-
 ро́no, арріlico, aspergo.
2. Antěcędo, antěcello, anteeo, antesto, antěvěnio, anterverto;-antěfĕro, antěhăbeo, ant?₹̇̈no.
3. Cơhpreo, collūdo, concīno, congruo, consentio, consöno, consuesco, convīvo, and, chiefly in ihe poets, coëo, concumbo, concurro, contendo;-confĕro, conjungo, compăro, compüno.
4. Inç̂ło, incŭbo, incumbo, indormio, ingèmisco, خnhereo, znhio, innascor, innżtor,

 clüdo, induo, inféro, ingèro, injı̆cio, insěro, inspergo, insuesco, żnūro.
5. Intercêdo, interčido, interclūdo, interjäceo, intermico intersum, intervĕnio ;-interdico, interjicio, interpono
 obsum, otitrecto, obteとtio, obversor, occumbo, occurro, occurso, off rcio;-obl цисo, objそ̌io, offero, olfundo, onpōno.

7 Postfěro, posthăbeo, postpōno, postpŭto, postscrībo.
 ขălen, pravertor;-2raféro, prafício, prapūno.
9. Pröcumbo, pröf $\mathfrak{c} i \mathrm{io}$, prōpugno, prosp̌̌cio, prōvideo.
10. Sucrēllo, succresco, succumbo, succurro, suffĭcio, suffrāgor, sйbøleo, subjăceo, subrępo, subsum, subcěnio ;-subdo, subjı̌cio, subjŭgo, submitto, suppōno, substerno.
11. Sŭpercurro, sŭpersto, sŭpersum, sŭpervěnio, sŭpervīvo.

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 .

Remari 1. (a.) Some verbs, compounded with $a b b$, $d e \bar{e}$, ex, circum, and contrā, are occasionally followed by the dative; as, absum, dēsum, dēläbor, despēro, excido, circumdo, circumfundo, circumjăceo, circumjício, conträdico, contraeo; as, Serta capiti dēlapsa, The garlands having fallen from his head. Virg. Numqui nummi excidèrunt tîbi? Plaut. Tigris urbi circumfunditur. Plin. Sibi despèrans. Cæs.-(b.) Circundo and circumf undo take cither an accusative of the thing with a dative of the person, or an ablative of the thing with an accusative of the person; as, circumado ălícui custödias, or circumdo äliquem custōdiis. Aspergo, inspergo, döno, impertio, exuo, and induo, are construed in the same mamer. Cf. § 251, R. 2.

Rem. 2. Some verbs of repelling and taking away (most of which are compounds of $a b h$, $l \bar{p}$, or $e x$ ), are sometimes followed by the dative, though more commonly by the ablative; as, àbigo, abrogo, abscindo, auféro, ädimo, arceo, dēfendo, dèmo, dēpello, dèrơyo, dèträho, èripio, èruo, excŭtio, eximo, extor träho, exuo, probibeo, surripio. Thus, Nec milhi te èripient, Nor shall they take you from inc. Ovid. Solstitíium pěcơri dëfendìte. Virg. Hunc arcëbis pècơri. Id. So rarely abrumpo, àliēno, füror, and rupio.

Rem. 3. Some verbs of differing (compounds of $d i$ or dis) likewise occur with the dative, instead of the ablative with the preposition ab, or poctically with the ablative alone; as, differro, discrẹpo, discordo, dissentio, dissideo, disto; as, Quantum simplex hîlărisque népüti discrẹpet, et quantun discordet, parcus ăvīro. Hor. Distäbit infīdo scurræ ämicus. Hor. Græcis Tuscünìcce stätuce diffërunt. Quint. Cömodia differt sermōni. Hor. So likewise misceo; as, Mista mődestiæ grărittus. Cic.

Rem. 4. Many verbs compounded with prepositions, especially with ad, con, and in, instead of the dative, egither constantly or occasionally take the case of the preposition, which is frequently repeated. Sometimes, also, a preposition of sinnilar signification is used; as, Ad primam vōcem timidas advertitis aures. Ovid. Nēmo eum antëcessit. Nep. Saxa vides sölā coălescëre calce. Lucr. Infërunt omnia in ignem. Cæs. Silex incumbëbat ad amnem. Virg. Innixuz mödērāmīne näris. Ovid. In Pansam frätrem innixus. Plin. Cmferte hano pärem cum illo bello. Cic. In this sibstitution of one preposition for another, $\check{a} d$ is used for $\grave{i n}$, and $i n$ for $\check{a} d$; $\check{b} b$ for $e x$; $\check{a} d$, anté, contr $\bar{a}$, and $i n$, for $\check{o b}$; ăd and antě, for $n^{2} \dot{0}$.

Pem. 5. Neuter verbs of motion or of rest in a place, when compour ded with the prepositions, ăd, antë, cơn, in, etc., either take the dative, or, aecquiring an active signification, are followed by the accusative; as, Helvétii réliquos Gallos virtüte pracèdunt, The Helvetii surpass the other Gauls in valor. (Yas. Uterque, Isocràtem cetäte prœecurrit. Cic. So prœeo, prasto, proverto, pras ello. See §233, (3.)
§ 225. I. Verbs compounded with sătis, bĕne, and măle, are followed by the dative; as,

Et nātuiræ et lēgibus saxtisfécit, He satisfied both nature and the laws. Cic. Tibi $a_{i i}$ bénĕfăcient omnes, May all the gods bless you. Plaut. But also, Amicuin erga bêne fēci. Id. Málëdícit utrīque. Hor. So sătisdo, běnĕdīco, mălĕfăcic

Note. These compounds are often written separately; and the dative always depends not on sătis. bĕne, and male, but on the simple verb. So, also, bĕne and male alïcui vălo: as, Tíbi běne ex sǐli malé vult. Petron. In like manner válēre dīco, and vále dī̃o; as, Augustus discēdens (e cùriā) sédentibus sinğullis vălēre dīcēbat. Suet. Tibi välēdīcĕre non lĭcet grātis. Sen.-In late writers bĕnědīco and mälédīco 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, Quilquid in hac causä mihi susceptum est. Cic. Nëque cernitur ulli, Nor is he seen by any one. Virg. Nulla tü̆rum audīta mǐhi nęque vīsa sörōrıum. Id. Barbărus hìc ĕgo sum, quia non intelligor ulli. Ovid. But the agent after passives is usually in the ablative with $a$ or $a b$. See § 248, I.
III. The participle in $d u s$ is followed by a dative of the agent; as,

Unda omníbus ènäriganda, The wave over which (we) all must pass. Hor. Nōbis, cum sëmel occidìt brëris lux, Nox est perpětua ūna dormienda. Catull. Adhibenda est nōbis diligentia, We must use diligence. Cic. Vestīgia summōrum hóminum sìbi tuenda esse dīcit. Id. Si ris me flère, dülendum est primum ipsi tìbi. Hor. Făciendum mĭhi pütāri, ut respondèrem. Id.

Remark 1. The dative is sometimes wanting when the agent is indefinite; as, Orandum est, ut sit mens sāna in corpŏre sāno. Juv. Hic rincendum aut móriendum, milites, est. Liv. In such examples, tibi, rōbis, nöbis, hơminibus, 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 $\bar{a}$ or $a b b ;$ as, Non eos in deōrum immortálium nüméro rěněrandos a vōbis et cơlendos pütātos? Cic. Haec a me in dïcendo prostéreunda 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 $\check{a} d$ or $\check{\imath} n$; as,

Ad templum Pallädis ibant. Virg. Ad prætōrem hơminem traxit. Cic. Vergit ad septemtriōnes. Cæs. In conspectum vënire. Nep.

So curro, dūco, fëro, festino, fügio, inclino, lëgo, mitto, pergo, porto, pracipito, pröpéro, tendo, tollo, vādo, verto.

Pemark 1. So likewise verbs of calling, exciting, etc.; as, Eurum ad se vơcat. Virg. Prōvöcasse ad pugnam. Cic. So ánimo, hortor, incito, invīto, lücesso, stimưlo, suscito; to which may be added attineo, conformo, pertineo, and specto.

Rem. 2. But the dative is sometimes used after these verbs; as, Clämor it cœlo. Virg. Dum tibi litěra mex věniant. Cic. Grëgem virididi compellëre hībisco. Virg. Sédrbus hunc rěfer ante suis. Id. After vẽnio both constructions are used at the same time; as, Vēnit minhi in mentem. Cic. Vēnit múhi in suspǐciōnem. Nep. Eum vēnisse Germānis in ămīcītiam cognōreĕrat. Cæs. Prōpinquo (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 $u m$, an infinitive, or an adverb of place; as, Rōmam pröfectus est. Ite dŏmum. Rus ībam. Lāvinia rènit lītơra. Virg. Nĕque égo te derīsum rēnio. Plaut. Non nas Liby̆cos pŏpŭlāre pënütes rènimus. Virg. Huc rēnit. Plaut. See $\$ \S 237,276,11.271$, 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 lớco tỉbi litěras ante dédērāmus. Cic. Vulturcius litéras sibi
ad Catīlinnam dătas esse，dicē̄bat．Id．Cesar scrībit Labjēno cum，etc．Cæs．Ad me Cürius de te scripsit．Cic．But to give one a letter to deliver is also ex－ pressed by lăre litěras ălicui，and also the delivery of the letter by the bearer．
§ セ26．Est is followed by a dative denoting a possessor ；－ the thing possessed being the subject of the vert．

Est thus used may generally be translated by the verb to have with the dative as its subject；as，List milhi drmi păter，I have a father at home．Virg． Sunt nōbis mītia pōma，We have mellow apples．Id．Grātī̄ nōbis ơpus est tuä， We have need of your favor．Cic．Innŏcentiæ plas pěricūli quam hưnōris est． Sall．An nescis longas rēgĭbus esse mănus？Ovid．So with an infinitive as the subject，Nec tribi sit düros ăcuisse in preelia dentes．Tib．4，3，3．The first and second persons of sum are not thus construed．

Remark 1．Hence mühi est nōmen 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 cognōmen，cognōmentum，and，in Taci－ tus，vöcäbülum，est mìhi．－Sometimes，also，a possessive－adjective agreeing with nomen，etc．，supplies the place of the proper name；as，Est mihi nōmen Tar－ quĭnium．Gell．Mercŭriāle impósuēre mihi cognōmen．Hor．

Rem．2．The dative is used with a similar signification after forre，suppettit， àbest，deest，and dēfit；as，Pauper ënim non est，cui rērum suppětit ūsus．Hor． Si mĭhi cauda forret，cercơpithēcus èram．Mart．Dăfuit ars vôbis．Ovid．Non dēföre Arsăcīdis virtūtem．Tac．Lac mǐhi non dēfit．Virg．Hoc ūnum illi ab－ fuit．Cic．

Rem．3．With the dative of the person after est Sallust and Tacitns some－ times join，by a Greek idiom，vŏlens，cŭpiens，and invitus；as，Quia nĕque plēbi millitia völentí（esse）pŭtābātur，Because the common people were not thought to like the war．Sall．Ut quibusque bellum invitis aut cüpientibus ërat，Accord－ ing as each liked or disliked the war．Tac．

## Dative of the End or Purpose．

§ 2セ\％．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，

Mrhi maximes est cūræ，It is a very great care to me．Cic．Spēro nōbis hanc conjunctiōnem volluptāti fŏre，I hope this union will afford us pleasure．Id． Mätri puellam dōno dëdit．Ter．Făbio laudi dătum est．Cic．Vĭtio id tĭbi ver－ tunt．Plaut．Id tirbi hŏnōri hăbētur．Cic．Mätūrăvit collēgæ vênive auxñlio．Liv． Cui bŏno fuit？To whom was it an advantage？Cic．
Remark 1．The verbs after which two datives occur，are sum，fore，fīo，do，dono， düco，häbeo，rělinquo，trǔbuo，verto；also curro，eo，mitto，prŏf ̌̌ciscor，věnio，appōno，as－ signo，cēdo，compäro，păteo，suppĕdそ̆to，ěmo，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 bơna dīvīsui fuēre．Liv．Rĕl̄̄quit pignŏri pŭtāmina．Plaut．Quce ēsui et pōtui sunt．Gell．Esse dërī̈sui，To be a subject of ridicule．Tac．Rěceptui cänĕre， To sound a retreat．Cæs．Alíquid dōti dìcāre，To set out as dowry．Cic．

Rem．3．（a．）Thé verb sum，with a dative of the end，may be va－ riously 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，

Ignävia ërit tǐbi magno dēděcŏri, Cowardice will bring great disgrace to you. Cic. Ilec res est argumento, This thing is an argument, or serves as an argument. Id. Hoc vitio milhi dant, This they set down as a fault in me. Universos cūræ hăbuit. Suet. Una res èrat magno ūsui. .... was of great use. Lucil. Quod tibi magnöpëre çordi est, mîli véhëmenter 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 cirtitätes non essent, .... not able to pay. Cic. Dirites, qui ŏněri fĕrendo essent. Liv. Quce restinguendo igni forrent. Liv. Rädix ejus est vescendo. Plin.

Rem. 4. Instead of the dative of the end, a predicate nominative or accusative is sometimes used; as, Nätūrā tu illi păter es, By nature you are his father. Amor est exitium pécorri : or the purpose is expressed by the accusstive with ad or in; as, Alicui cơmes est ad bellum. Cic. Se Rēmis in clientēlam dicäbant. Cæs.: or by the ablative with pro; as, Innöcentia pro mălivōlentiā dūci copit. Sall. Alcibus sunt arböres pro cŭbilībus. 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 mîli fortūnam, si non concēditur ūti? Hor. Quo tībi, Pasiphae, prětī̄sas sünëre vestes? Ovid.

Rem. 6. After do and other similar active rerbs an accusative of the purpose is found in apposition; as, Lătini cŏrōnam auream Jời dōnum in Cäpitôtium mittunt. Liv. Alicui cómitem esse dütum. 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, Vöbis nëcesse est fortióbus esse viris. Liv. Maximo tibi et cìvi et dŭci ērādëre contigit. Val. Max. See $\$ \$ 205$, R. 6, and 239, R. 1.

## DATIVE AFTER PARTICLES.

§ 288. Some particles are followed by the dative of the object; as,

1. Some adverbs derived from adjectives; as,

Pröpius Tiběri quam Thermŏpy̆lis. Nep. Proxime castris, Very near to the camp. Cæs. Pröpius stābŭlis armenta tënērent. Virg. Congruenter nātūræ, convénienterque vivëre, Agreeably to nature. Cic. Epicürus quam sibi constanter convënenterque dicat, non lübörat. Id. Nēminn nimium bëne est. Afran. Minh numquam in rìtā fuit mèlius. Hor. Vivè̀re vitæ hoominum ämìce. Cic. Bēne mǐhi, bëne vöbis. Plaut. So, Mîhi obviam vēnisti. Cic. In certāmina saro comminus ire viro. Sil. Qucestorres prōrincice mihi prosto fuērunt. Cic. Sămos est exadeersun Mileto. App.

Remalik. Probius and proxime, like their primitive prope, are sometimes construed with $a$ and the ablative; as, Prope a meis ædibus. Cic. Stellos errantes pröpius a terris. Id. A Surā proxime est Philiscum, oppidum Parthōrum. Plin.
2. Certain prepositions, especially in comic writers; as, Mihi clam est, It is unknown to me. Plaut. Contra nöbis. Id. But in such instances they seem rather to be used like adjectives.
3. Certain interjections; as, Hei mihi! Ah me! Virg. Ve mihi! Wo is me! Ter. Ve rictis esse! Liv. Ve misēro mihi. Plaut. Hem tïli. Id. Ecce tili. Cic.

Note. (a.) The dative of the substantive pronouns seems sometimes nearly redundant, hut it always convers the expression of a lively feeling, and is therefore tormed dătivusè êthicus; as,

Fur mĭhi es, .... in my opinion. Plant. An ille mǐhi līber, cui mǔlier impĕrat? Cic. Tongilium mīhi ëduxit. Id. Ubi nunc nöbis deus ille măgister? Virg. Ecce tíbi Sebōsus! Cic. Mem tìbi tălentum argenti! Phĭlippicum est. Plant. Sibi is sometimes subjoined quite pleonastically to suus; as, Suo sibi glădio hunc jŭgŭlo. Plaut. Iynōrans suo sībi servit paitri. Id. Sĭbi.suo tempŏre.
(b.) The following phrases also occur with rölo and a reflexive pronoun: quid libi vis? what do you want? quid sibi iste vult? what does he want? quid vult sibi heec órātro? what does this speech mean? quid heec sibi iōna vǒlunt? 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. Antmus möret corpus, The mind moves the body. Cic. Da vèniam hanc, Grant this favor. Ter. Eum imētäti sunt, They imitated him. Cic. Piscem Sy̆ri vënĕrantur. Id.

Remark 1. A transitive verb, with the accusative, often takes a genitive, dative, or ablative, to express some additional relation; as,

Te convinco āmentiæ, I convict you of madness. Cic. Da locum mèliöribus, Give place to your betters. Ter. Solvit se T'eucria luctu, Troy frees herself from grief. Virg. See those cases respectively.
Rex. 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 cavertet, 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 mithi fävel, He favors me: and many verbs originally intransitive acquire a transitive signiúcation.

Rem. 3. The verb is sometimes omitted:-

1. To avoid its repetition; as, Eventum sênätus, quem (scil. düre) vidē̄bttur, dăbit. Liv.
2. The interrogative interjection quid? what? depends on ais or censes. So also quid vēro? quid ǐgitur? quid eryo? quidënim? 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 posteas quid tum? supply sĕquitur. With quid quod, occurring in transitions, dicam de $e o$ 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 plüra? ne multa; ne multis; ne plüra. The infinitive dïcère is also sometimes omitted; as, Nimiss multa videor de me. Cic. Perge réliqua. Id.

## Rem. 4. The accusative is often omitted:-

1. When it is a reflexive pronoun; as, Nox pracipitat, scil. se. Virg. Tum prôra ãvertit. Id. Ėo lăvātum, scil. me. Hor.

The reflexives are usually wanting after ăboleo, abstı̆neo, accingo, ădaqquo, aquo, ag-
 érumpo, flecto, déflecto, factsso, incĭpio, inclino, insĩnuo, irrumpo, jungo, lavo, laxo,

 verto, dēverto, rěverto, 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. litëras. Cic. De quo et tēcun égi dēlìyenter, et scripsi ad te. Id. Bëne fēcit Silius. Id. Dūcit in hostem, scil. exercitum. Liv.

Rem. 5. An infinitive, or one or more substantive cliuses, may supply the place of the accusative after an active verb; as,

Da mìhi fallěre. Hor. Reddes dulce lŏqui, redles rīdēre dēcōrum. Id. Cŭpio me esse clēmentem. Cic. Athēnieñsєs stätuérunt ut nāves conscendërent. Id. Vĕreor ne a doctis rěprěhendar. Id.Euœ, Bacche, sönat. Ovid. Sometimes both constructions are united; as, Di īram misērantur inãnem ambōrum, et tantos mortālibus esse läböres. 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 făciam, ut minnus văleas. Plaut.
(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 répūblicā vestrā paucis accipe. Sall. Compare a similar omission of a subject modified by de and the ablative, $\S 209$, R. 3 , (2.)

Rem. 6. The impersonal verbs of feeling, mǐsĕret,-pænĭtet, pŭdet, tcedet, pı̆get, m̌̆sĕrescit, mǐsĕrētur, and pertcesum 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. § $215,(1$.$) ; as,$

Eörum nos misëret, We pity them. Cic. The impersonal Véritum est also occurs with such an accusative; Quos non est vĕritum pönĕre, etc. Cic.

Rem. 7. Jŭrat, dèlectat, fallit, fŭgit, proteterit, and dĕcet, with their compounds, take an accusative of the person; as,

Te hilări ănimo esse valde me jürat, That you are in good spirits greatly delights me. Cic. Fügit me ad te scrib're. Cic. Illud altërum quam sit difficille, te non fŭgit. Id. Nec vero Cæsărem fëfellit. Cæs. Fücis, ut te dëcet. Ter. So also when used personally; as, Parvum parva dëcent. Hor.; but dëcet often takes the accusative of the person with the infinitive; as, Hanc măcŭlam nos dĕcet eff ŭgĕre. Ter.; and in comic writers a dative; as, Vöbis dĕcet. Ter.

For mea, tua, sua, nostra, vestra, after rēfert and interrest, see $\varsigma 219$, 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 nōmine Antiŏchīam roccārit, He called the city Antioch, etc. Just. Lūdos fäcis me, You make game of me. Plaut. Me consŭlem fécistis. Cic. Iram bĕne Ennius inintium dixit insänice. Id. Ancum Marciunn rēgem pŏpŭlus creãrit. Liv. Sulpicium accūsātōrem suum nümérābat, non compêtitürem. Cic. Quum vos testes häbeam. Nep.
Norz 1. The following are among the verbs included in this rule, riz. appello, dico, nठ̈mīno, nuncŭpo, pĕrhĭbeo, sälūto, scrībo and inscrībo, vöco; căpio, ccnsťtuo, creo, dē-

 bēre or prastäre, etc.

Note 2. An ablative with ex occurs, though rarely, instead of the accusative of the object; as, Fortüna me, qui liber fuĕrañ, servum fēcit, e summo infimum. Plaut. Cf. Qui recta prāra fäciunt. Ter.

Note 3. An infinitive may supply the place of the objective accusative; as, Si slmŭlasse vócat crimen. Ovid.:-and sometimes of the predicate accusative
also; as, Si rěpěrīre vơcas ämittĕre certius; aut si scïre ŭbi sit rĕpěrīre vöcas. Id. So also an adjective may supply the place of the predicate accusative; as, Prebuit se dignum suis mäjōribus. Cic. Ccesărem certiōrem făciunt. Cæs.

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 ăvārum possŭmus existīmāre. Cic. Tālem se impĕrātōrem prabuit. Nep. Prasta te eum, qui mühi es cognitus. Cic. Mercŭrium omnium inventōrem artium fërunt; hunc viārum atque itīnërum dŭcem arbitrantur. Cæs.; or an adjective supplies the place of the predicate accusative; as, Ne me existimäris ad mănendum esse prōpensiōrem. Cic.

Note 4. Instead of the predicate accusative, (1) pro with the ablative sometimes follows püto, dū̄co, and hăbeo, but denotes only an approximation; as, Aliquidypro certo hăbēre or pŭtäre. Ea prc falsis dücit. Sall. Alĭquem pro hoste hăbēre. Cæs.-So also in with the ablative; as, Nïhil preeter virtūtem in bŏnis häbēre. Cic. Alǐquem in nŭměro hostium dücĕre. Cic.-and the ablative without in; as, Uti vos affinium lŏco dücěrem. Sall.-So also $e$ or $e x$ with the ablative; as, (Ut) făcĕret quod e rẹpūblĭcā fĭdēque suā dücĕret. Liv.-Sometimes (2) the genitive; as, Officii duxit exōrāre fïlice patrem. Suet. (See §211, R. 8, (3.) So with a genitive or an ablative of price or value; as, Pütäre áliqquem nǐhĭlo. Cic. Non hăbeo nanci Marsum augŭrem. Enn-and sometimes (3) a dative; as Quando tu me hăbes despīcātui. Plaut.:-or an adverb; as, Ægre häbuit, fîlium id pro păf̀ente ausum. Liv. And (4) ad or in with the accusative; as, Lóca ad hībernācŭla lĕgĕre. Liv. Alĭquem in Patres lëgĕre. Id.: or (5) the genitive depending on the ablative of cause, manner, etc.; as, Qui servitütem dēdītiōnis nömine appellant. Cæs.

Rem. 2. Many other verbs, besides their proper accusative, take a second, denoting a purpose, time, character, etc.

Such are do, tribuo, sūmo, pëto, pōno, adjungo, ascrïbo, cognosco, accio, fingo, signĭfico, etc.; as,

Quāre ējus fŭgre cŏmĭtem me adjungĕrrem. Cic. Hŏminum oxpinio sǒcium me ascrībit tuis laudibus. Id. Quos ëgo sin toties jam dèdignāta mărītos. Virg. Hunc ígĭtur rēgem agnoscimus, qui Phillippum dēdıynätur: patrem? Curt. Fīliam tuam mihi uxōrem posco. Plaut. Pĕtit hanc Süturnia mūnus. Ovid. Such constructions may often be referred to apposition, or to an ellipsis of esse.
§ 231. Verbs of asking, demanding, and teaching, and cēlo (to conceal), are followed by two accusatives, one of the person, the other of the thing; as,

Hoc te vëhëmenter rŏgo. Cic. Illud te obro, ut; etc. Id. Rogo te nummos, I ask you for money. Mart. Posce deos věniam, Ask favor of the gods. Virg. Quum lëgent quis mūsǐcam döcuĕrit Epăminnondam, When they shall read who taught Epaminondas music. Nep. Antřgonus îter omnes cēlat, Antigonus con ceals his route from all. Id. Dèprëcüri deos măla. Sen. Quoutidie Cesar EXduos frūmentum flägı̆täre. Cæs. Multa deos ōrans. Virg.
Remari 1. This rule includes the verbs of asking and demanding, fāğ̄̆to, effăgǔto, obsecro, ōro, exōro, contendo, percontor, posco. rĕposco, consŭlo, précor, dëprècor, rŏgo, and interroggo, 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, düceo, èdöceo, dēdưceo, and ērŭudio, which last has two accusatives only in the poets. Admüneo and consülo are rarely found with two accusatives; as, Consülam hanc rem ămĩcos. Plaut. Eam rem nos l̆̆cus admönuit. Sall.

Rem. 2. Instead of the accusative of the person, verbs of asking and demanding often take the ablative with $a b$ or ex; as, Non débēbam abs te has liteceras poscėre. Cic. Vëniam örēmus ab ipso. Virg. Istud vơlēbam ex te percontäri. Plaut.

Rem. 3. (a.) Instead of the accusative of the thing, the ablative with de is sometimes used; as, Sic égo te eisdem de rēbus interrơgem. Cic. De itíněre hostium sēnätum ēdöcet. Sall. Bassus noster me de hoc libro cèlārit. Cic. Cf. §229, R. 5, (b.)-(b.) Sometimes also instead of the accusative of the thing au infinitive, or an infinitive or subjunctive clause is used; as, Deos précāri débētis, ut urbem dēfendant. Cic. Üt döcream Rullum posthac tăcēre. Id. Döcui id non fièri posse. Id. Döceant eum qui vir Sex. Roscius fuĕrit. Id.-(c.) With verbs of teaching, the instrument by means of which the art is practised is put in the ablative; as, Aliqquem fidībus döcēre. Cic. Dǒcēre äliquem armis. Liv. Litérre may be used either in the accusative or in the ablative; as, Te litéras dŏceo. Cic. Doctus Groecis litěris. Id.
Rem. 4. Some verbs of asking, demanding, and teaching, are not followed by two accusatives; as, ex̌̌go, pēto, postullo, quaro, scîtor, scisč̆tor, 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, Instĭtuěre äfquem ad dicendum. Cic.

Rem. 5. (a.) Many active rerbs 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 ăliqquid jüräre posses. Cic. Pauca pro tempöre milites hortätus. Sall. Id adjüta me. Ter. Nëque eşt te fal lëre quidquam. Virg. Cf. § 232, (3.)

Rem. 6. By a similar construction, gènus and sēcus, 'sex,' are sometimes used in the accusative, instead of the genitive of quality; as, Nullas hoc gěnus rigilảas vǐgïlärunt. Gell. So, Omnes müliebre sěcus. Suet. Cf. 211, R. 6, (4.)
§ 232. (1.) Some neuter verbs are followed by an accusative of kindred signification to their own; as,

Vitam jücundam vīvĕre, To live a pleasant life. Plaut. Mirum somniäri somnium, I have dreamed a wonderful dreat. Id. Füre̊re hunc fŭrōrem. Virg. Istam pugnam pugnäbo. Plaut. Pugnäre dicenda Mūsis prœlia. Hor. Lūsum insölenteni lüdëre. Id. Si non servitūtem serviat. Plaut. Quëror haud făciles questus. Stat. Jūrāvi rērissimum jusjūrandum. Cic. Ignōtas jübet īre vias. Val. Flacc. So, also, lre exséquias, To go to a funeral. Ter. Ire suppětias, To go to Gie's assistance. Ire infitias, To deny. This expression is equivalent to infitior, and may like that take an accusative; as, Si hoc unum adjunxĕro, quod nemo eat infitias. Nep.: or the accusative with the infinitive; as, Něque infitias imus Sĭcilliam nostram prōvinciam esse. Liv. Ut suum gaudium gaudèrèmus. Col. ad Cic. Pröficisci magnum Iter. Cic. Pollux itque rèditque 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 obleo and săpio, and their compounds, rëdoleo, rèsipio; as, Olet unguenta, He smells of perfumes. Ter. Olére pèrêgrīnum, To have a foreign smell. Cic. Orätiōnes rédölentes antiqquitātem. Id. Mella herbam eam săpiunt, The honey tastes of that herb. Plin. Liva pircem rèsipiens. Id. So, Sitio hǒnürcs. Cic. Carnem pluit. Liv. Claudius āleam stüdiōsissime lūsit. Suet. Erumpĕre diu coercìtam İram in hostes. Liv. Libros èvigilūre. Ovid. Proire verba. Liv. Nec rox hǒmĭnem sornat. Virg. Südāre mella. Id. Mŏrientem nōmine clämat. Id. Quis post rīna grärem milîtiam aut paupèriem crëpat Hor. Omnes ūna mänet nox. 1d. Ingrâti ănimi crīmen horreo. Cic. Ego meas quĕror fortūnas. Plaut. Vìvëre Bacchānālia. Juv. Pastōrem saltāret ŭù Cyclōpa, rógābat. Hor. So the passive; Nunc agrestein Cyclōpa múrētur. Id. Xeraes quum măre amhülūrisset, terram nã̌igasset. Cic. Qui stadium currit. Id.


Cơry̆don ardēbat Alexin．Virg．Sty̆gias jūrāvimus undas．Ovid．Nävigat æquor． Virg．Currtmus æquor．Id．Pascuntur sylvas．Id．
Note 1．Accusatives are found in like manner after ambŭlo，calleo，dǒleo，ěquर̆to，feo， gaudeo，gĕmo，glōrior，horreo，lơtor，lātro，năto，palleo，păveo，pĕreo，dëpĕreo，pröcēlo， quěror，rīdeo，süleo，sïbŭlo，tăceo，trěmo，trěpido，vädo，vēnio，etc．
（3．）Neuter verbs and sometimes adjectives also may be fol－ lowed by an accusative denoting in what respect，or to what de－ gree，the feeling，condition，etc．，is manifested；as，

Nthil lăböro．Cic．Num id lacrìmat virgo？Does the maid weep on that ac－ count？Ter．Multa ălia peccat．Cic．Quicquid dëlīrant rëges，plectuntur Achīvi．Hor．Nec tu id indignāri posses．Liv．Illud mìhi lotandum video．Cic． Illud valde tibi assentior．Id．Idem glōriāri．Id．Hæc glōrians．Liv．Hoc stüdet ūnum．Hor．－So，Id дрё̆ram do，I strive for this．Ter．Consilium pétis， quid tiobi sim auctor．Cic．Quod quīdam auctōres sunt，Which is attested by some authors．Liv．Nil nostri mîsěrēre？Virg．－Nǐhil Rōmänce plēbis sǐmǐlis． Liv．Sënätus nǐhil sāne intentus．Sall．These limiting accusatives have com－ monly 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 $i d$ ，quid，quidquam，ăľ̌quid，quicquid，quod，ň̌hil，nonnそ̌hil，そ̌dem， illud，tantum，quantum，ūnum，multa，pauca，ália，cētëra，omnia，etc．Cf．§ 256 ，R．16，N．
§ 卫33．Many verbs are followed by an accusative depend－ ing 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，

Omnèm ĕquǐtātum pontem transdūcit，He leads all the cavalry over the bridge． Cæs．Agēsīlāus Hellespontum cōpias trājēcit．Nep．Petrēius jusjūrandum àd－ rgit Afrānium．Cæs．Roscillum Pompëius omnia sua præsǐdia circumduxit．Id． So，Pontus scŏpŭlos sŭperjăcit undam．Virg．So，also，adverto and indūco with ănimum；as，Id ănimum advertit．Cæs．Id quod ănĭmum induxĕrat paulisper non ť̌nuit．Cic．So，also，injücio in Plautus－Ego te mănum injüciam．
（2．）Some other active verbs take an accusative in the passive voice depending upon their prepositions；as，

Măgǐcas accingier artes，To prepare oneself for magic arts．Virg．In prose writers the $a d$ is in such cases repeated；as，accingi ad consilatatum．Liv． Classis circumvëhitur arcem．Id．Quod anguis domi vectem circumjectus fuisset． Cic．Lŏcum pratervectus sum．Id．
（3．）Many neuter verbs，especially verbs of motion，or of rest in a place，when compounded with prepositions which govern an accusa－ tive，become transitive，and accordingly take an accusative；as，

Gentes quee măre illud adjăcent，The nations which border upon that sea．Nep． Oběquǐtäre agmen．Curt．Incēdunt meestos lŏcos．Tac．Transilui flammas．Ovid． Succēdĕre tecta．Cic．Lūdōrum diēbus，qui cognǐtiōnem intervēnërant．Tac． Adïre prōvinciam．Suet．Căveat ne prœlium ineat．Cic．Ingrědi ìter pědibus． Cic．Epícūri horti quos mödo proetĕrī̄āmus．Id．

Note．To this rule belong many of the compounds of ambŭlo，cẽdo，curro，eo，ěqǔ̆to， fuo，grădior，läbor，no and näto，rẽpo，sălio，scando，vādo，věhor，vĕnio，vǒlo；－cŭbo， jĕceo，sědeo，sisto，sto，etc．，with the prepositions included in $\$ 224$ ，and with ex．

Remari 1. Some neuter verbs compounded with pripositions which govern an ablative, in like manner become transitive, and are followed by an accusative; as,

Nēminnem convēni, I met with no one. Cic. Qui sŏciětātem coiëris. Id. Aversāri hŏnōres. Ovid. Ursi arbŏrem āversi dērēpunt. Plin. Edormi crāpŭlam. Cic. Egressus exsĭlium. Tac. Erāditque cĕler ripam. Virg. Excēdĕre nŭmĕrum. Tac. Exire limen. Ter. Tibur ăqu® fertīle prafluunt. 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,

Cesar se ad nēmìnem adjunxit. Cic. Multitū̃̃inem trans Rhēnum in Galliam transdūcerre. Cæs.-In Galliam invāsit Antōnius. Cic. Ad me ădïre quosdam měmĭni. Id. Orātor pěragrat per ănìmos hơninnum. Id. Ne in sěnātum accēdẻrem. Id. Rēgina ad templum incessit. Virg. Juxta gĕnītōrem adstat Lävinia. Id. Fines extra quos égrědi non possim. Cic. A dative instead of the accusative often follows such compounds, according to §224. Circum is not repeated.

Nóre. 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 rěceptio ad te est meum virum? Wherefore do you receive my husband hither to you? Plaut. Quid tibi, mülum, me, aut quid Ěgo ăgam, cūrātio 'st? Id. Quid tibi hanc ăditio est? Id. Quid tibl hanc nōtio est, inquam, ămicam meam? Quid tībi hanc diǧ̌to tactio 'st? Id. Hanno vītābundus castra hostium consǔlesque. Liv. Mïthrìdātes Rōmānum mědǐtābundus bellum. Just. Mīrāabundi vānam spěciem. Liv. Pơpŭlābundus agros. Sisenn. Carnĭfĩcem imāginābundus. 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 sübject of the passive voice; as, Active, Díco rēgem esse justum:-Passive, Rex dicitur justus esse. Act. Jübeo te ré-dire;-Pass. Jüberris rèdire: the construction in the passive being the same as though rēgem and te 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. § $270, \mathrm{~N}$.
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,
Rogaãtus est sententiam, He was asked his opinion. Liv. Interrogãtus causam.
 gaudet Iönicócos mätūra virgo. Hor. Omnes belli artes édoctus. Liv. Nosne hoc cēl̄̄̈tos tam dia? Ter. Multa in extis mönēmur. Cic.

Note 2. The accusative of the thing after docius and edoctus is rare; and after cilari it is generally a neuter pronoun; as hoc or $i d$ célabbar; of this I was kept in ignorance; but it is found also with the person in the dative; as, Id Alcibiãdi diūtius cêhl̄ri non pơtuit. Nep. Alcib. 5. Célo, 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, Indutur ätras vestes, She puts on sable garments. Ovid. Thōrāca indū̀tus. Virg. Exūta est Rōma sĕnectam. Mart. So indücor and cingor; as, Ferrum cingitur. Virg. So rěcingǐtur anguem. Ovid.
(b.) When two accusatives follow an active verb compounded with trans, the passive retains that which depends upon the preposition; as, Belyo Rhēnum antīquittus transducti. Cæs.

Rem. 2. The future passive participle in the neuter gender with est, is sometimes, though rarely, followed by an accusative; as, Multa nơris rēbus quum sit ăgendun. Lucr. Quam (viam) nöbis ingrědiendum est. Cic.
II. Adjectives, verbs, and perfect participles, are sometimes followed by an accusative denoting the part to which their signification relates; as,
$N u ̄ d u s$ membra, Bare as to his limbs. Virg. Os hŭměrosque deo simùlis. Id. Cläri gĕnus. Tac. Trǐbüni suam vǐcem anxii. Liv. Tre̛mit artus. Virg. Cētĕra parce puer bello. Id. Sībüla colla tămentem. Id. Expléri mentem nĕquit. Id. Grȳneus èruǐtur ŏcŭlos. Ovid. Picti scūta Lăbīci. Virg. Collis frontem lēniter fustīgătus. Cæs. AnĬmum incensus. Liv. Oblìtus făciem suo cruōre. Tac.

Remark 1. In this construction an ablative is often joined with the perfect participle; as, Mïles fractus membra lăbōre. Hor. Dextěrum gĕnu lăpĭde ¿ctus. Suet. Adversum fěmur trāgŭlā grărǔter 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 maynä or maximä ex parte, or the adverb fëre; as, Maximam partem lacte vivunt. Cæs. Magnam partem ex iambis nostra constat ōrätio. Cic. Livy has magna pars, viz. Nŭmìdæ, magna pars agrestes.-So cētĕra and rêliqua are joined to adjectives in the sense of cētëris, 'for the rest,' 'in other respects'; as, Proximum regnum, cētěra ēgrĕgium, ab ünä parte haud sătis prospěrum fuit. Liv. So cētëra similis, cētëra bŏnus. A te bis terve summum litéras accepi. Cic.-So, also, in the expressions id temporris; id, hoc or idem ctätis, illud hörce, for eo tenqŏrre, eā ctäte, etc.; id gĕnus, omne gènus, quod gĕnus.
III. Some neuter verbs which are followed by an accusative, are used in the passive voice, the accusative becoming the subject, according to the gencral rule of active verbs; as,

Tertia vivìtur cetas. Ovid. Bellum mälìtäbītur. Hor. Dormītur hiems. Mart. Multa peccantur. Cic. Adìtur Gnossius Minos. Sen. Ne ab omnïbus circumsistërētur. Cæs. Hostes invādi posse. Sall. Campus öbītur ăquā. Ovid. Plūres inneuntur grātice. Cic. Ea res silētur. Id.

## ACCUSATIVE AFTER PREPOSITIONS.

## § 235. (1.) Twenty-six prepositions are followed by the

 accusative.These are $̆$ ăd, adversus or adversum, antě, ăpйd, circā or circum, cirč̄ter, č̆s or citrā, contrā, ers̄ā, extrā, infrā, intĕr, intrà, juxtū, ǒb, pĕnĕs, pĕr, post, pōnč, pratĕr, prŏpě, proptēr, sěcuıdum, suprā, trans, ultrā ; as,

[^17]Rfmare 1. Cis is generally used with names of p.aces; citra with other words also; as, Cis Taurum. Cic. Cis Pădum. Liv. Paucos cis menses. Plant. Citra Vèlinm. Cic. Citra sătiêtātem, Not to satiety. Col. Citra fătigātiōnem. Cels. Citra Trōjana tempöra. 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 nätos et pärentes. 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 ipsums pagnce tempus. Liv. Inter cœenam. 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 Cicěrōnem consǔlem, rather than ante or post consŭlātum Cicěrōnis.
(2.) In and sub, denoting motion or tendency, are followed by the accusative; denoting situation, they are followed by the ablative; as,

Via dücit in urbem, The way conducts into the city. Virg. Noster in te ămor. Cic. Callimăchi ĕpiggramma in Cleombrōtum est-on or concerning Cleombrotus. Id. Exercitus sub jŭgum missus est, The army was sent under the yoke. Cæs. Magna mei sub terras ibit ìmãgo. Virg. Mélia in urbe, In the midst of the city. Ovid. In his fuit Ariovistus. Cæs. Bella sub Iliücis mœnibus gërěre, 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, tovards, 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 vènīre. Phæd. Nätiōnes qưe in ãmicìtiam pŏpüli Rōmäni, ditiōnemque essent. Id. Sub jŭgo dictätor hostes misit. Liv. Hostes sub montem consē.isse. 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 hōras. Ovid. Hostilem in mõdum. Cic. Quod in bóno servo dīci posset. Id. Sub eā conditiōne. Ter. Sub pœnā mortis. Suet.

Pem. 6. In expressions relating to time, sub, denoting at or in, usually takes the ablative; as, Sub adventu Römãnörum. Liv. Sub lüce. Ovid. Sub temporre. Jucan. Denoting near, about, just before or just after, it takes the accusative; as, Sub lūcem. Virg. Sub lūmīna prima. Hor. Sub hoc hěrus inquit. Id.

Rem. 7. In is used with neuter adjectives in the accusative in forming adyerbial phrases; as, In ūnüversum, In general. In tōtum, Wholly. So, in plènum; in incertum ; in tantuin; in quantum; in majus; in mélius ; in omnia, in all respects, etc.
(3.) Sŭpĕr, 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 sŭper signifies over, above, besides or in addition to; with numerals, more than; as,
Süper läbentem culminna tecti, Gliding over the top of the house. Virg. Süper tres mödios. Liv. Süper morbum etiam fămes affécit exercitum. Id. Süper ténëro prosternit grämine corpus, He stretches his body on the tender grass. Virg. Multa süper Priämo rögitans süper Hectöre multa, .... concerning Priam, etc. Id.

Rem. 8. The compound dessiper is found with the accusative, and insüper with the accusative and the ablative.
(4.) Subter generally takes the accusative, but sometimes, in poctry, the ablative; as,

Subter terras, Under the earth. Liv. Subter densā testūdine. 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. Cæs. Neque potest clam me esse. Plaut. Clam uxore meā. Id. Its diminutive clancŭlum is once followed by the accusative, clancǔlum 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 Oceănum versus prŏficisci. Cæs. Fŭgam ad se versum. Sall. In Galliam versus castra mŏvēre. Id.-Usque ad Numantiam. Cic. Usque in Pamphỳliam. Id. Ad noctem usque. Plaut.-Brundŭsium versus. Cic. Terminos usque Libyce. 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 brūmee imbrem.-Versus also rarely follows ab, and usque either $a b$ or $e x$ with the ablative; $\mathrm{as}, \mathrm{Ab}$ septemtriōne versus. Varr. A fundà mento risque mōvisti măre. Plaut. Usque ex ultĭmā Sy̆riā. Cic. Usque a puěritià. Ter. Usque a Römŭlo. Cic. Usque a māne ad vespèrum. 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. wdem. Sall.

Rem. 11. The accusative, in many constructions, is supposed to depend on a preposition understood; as, Quid opus cst plür $\cdot \vec{a}$ ? i. e. propter quid? why? i. q. cur? or quäre? 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 $\S 232$. 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 cacus multos annos fuit, Appius was blind many years. Cic. Bìduum Läodicicèc fui. Id. Dies tōtos de virtûte dissèrunt. Id. Te junz annum audientem Crätippum. Id.-Dēcrēèèrınt intercälārium quinque et quādrāginta dies longum. Id.-Quum ăbessenı ab Amãno iter ūnius dièi. Id. Tres püteat coeli spătium. non amplius ulnas. Virg. (Cf. § 256, R. 6.) A portu stădia centum et vīginti prōcessìmus. Cic.-Duas fossas quindēcim pèdes lätas pêduxit,-two ditches fifteen feet broad. Cæes. Fossce quīnos pēdes altue. Id. Förā̀minnu longa pēdes tres sēmis. Cato. Orbem olleärium crassum digitos sex fücito. Id.Abl. Vixit annis undētrịginta. Suet. Quātuordēcim annis exsilium tơlĕrāvit. Tac. Trịginta annis vixit Panatius. Cic.-Exercitus Rōmānus trìdui îiluêre abfuit ab amne Tünai. Tac. AEscülāpii templum quinque millirbus 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 löcus alte duos pèdes et sēmissem infödiendus est. Colum. Vercingětơrix löcum castris dèligit ab Avarico longe millia passuam sèděcim. 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, Dēcessit Alexander mensem ūnam, annos tres et triginta nätus. 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 annōrum trium et triginta décessit. (c.) Older or younger than a certain age is expressed by prefixing to the acousative or genitive of the definite age the ad-
verbs plus o: minus, or the adjectives major or minor, either with or without quam. See § 256 , R. 6 and 7.-Sometimes, also, the ablative depends on the comparative; as, Minor riginti quinque annis nätus. Nep. Minor trīginta annis nätu. 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 $\S 211$, R. 6 .

Res 2. A term of time not yet completed may be expressed by an ordinal number; as, Nos vicēsimum jam diem puitìmur hëbescěre äcièm hōvum auctōritōtis. Cic. Pūnico bello duodecimum annum Itălia ūrē̄ātur. Liv. Hence in the passive, Nunc tertia viritur ætas. Ovid.

Rem. 3. The accusative or ablative of space is sometimes omitted, while a genitive depending on it remains; as, Castra que ăbérant bīdui, scil. spŭtium or spütio. Cic.

Rem. 4. To denote a place by its distance from another, the ablative is commonly used; as, Millibus passuum sex a Caesăris castris consēdit. Cæs.; but sometimes the accusative; as, Tria passuum millia ab ipsā urbe castra posuit. Liv. The only words used for this purpose in the ablative alone are spátio and intervallo; as, Quindëce:n ferme millium spătio castra ab Tärento pösuit. Id.

Note 4. For abhinc 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 dëcem annos àluämus, .... during ten years. Cic.

Rem. 6. When the place from which the distance is reckoned is not mentioned, $a b$ is sometimes placed before the ablative of distance, as if this depended on the preposition; as, A millibus passuum duöbus castra possuērunt, Two miles from the place, or, Two miles off. Cæs.

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,

Rëgülus Carthäğnem rědït, Regulus returned to Carthage. Cic. Căpuam flectit titer, He turns his course to Capua. Liv. Calpurnius Rōmam proficiscitur. Sall. Rōmam èrat nunciūtum. Cic.

Remari 1. The accusative, in like manner, is used after iter with sum, hod beo, etc.; as, Iter est mihi Lānŭvium. Cic. Coesărem îter hăbēre Căpnam. Id And even after sum alone; as, Omnia illa mūnicipia, que sunt a Vibōne Brundisium. Cic. So with a verbal noun; as, Adventus Rūmam. Liv. Rẽdìtus Rōman. Cic.

Rem. 2. (a.) The preposition to be supplied is in, denoting to or into, which is sometimes expressed; as, In Ephěsum ábii. Plaut. $A d$, before the name of a town, denotes direction towards it; as, Iter dirigëre ad Mütinam. Cic.; and also its vic:nity; as, Adölescentütus miles prŏfectus sum ad Cäpuam; i. e. in castra ad Cäpuan. Id. So, Lelius cum classe ad Brundisium vēnit. Cæs. Cosar ad Gěnēvs n perrènit. Id. Quum égo ad Hêrāclēam accēdërem. Cic.
(b.) When urbs, oppidum, löcus, etc., follow the names of towns as appositions, they generally take a preposition; as, Dēmărätus se contülit Tarquinios, in So also when the name of the town is qualified by an adjective; as, Magnum
ǐter ad doctas pröfücisci cōgor Athēnas. Prop. But the poets and later prose writers sometimes omit the preposition; as, Ovid, Her. 2, 83.

Rem. 3. Instead of the accusativ, a dative is sometimes, though rarely, used; as, Carthāgini nuncios mittam. Hor. Cf. § 225, IV. and R. 2.

Rem. 4. Dömus in both numbers, and rus in the singular, are put in the accusative, like names of towns; as,

Ite dŏmum, Go home. Virg. Galli dŏmos ăbiërant,-had gone home. Liv. Rus $i b o$, I will go into the country. Ter.

Note. (a.) When dömus 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 introěo in nostram domum. Plaut. Vénisse in dŏmum Leccæ. Cic. Ad eam dǒmum prơfecti sunt. Id. In dŏmos sŭpĕras scandëre cūra fuit. Ovid. Rarely, also, when not limited; as, Söcrŭtès phìlŏsophiam in dŏmos intrōduxit. Cic. So, lărem suum. 'App., or ad lărem suum. Cic. Cürǐcas in Albense rus inferre. Plin. Quum in sua rūra vēnērunt. Cic. With the possessor's name in the genitive, either dömum or in domum is used; as, Pompōnii dŏmum vēnisse. Cic. In dômum Møelii tēla infĕruntur. Liv.
(b.) Dŏmus is sometimes used in the accusative after a verbal noun; as, Dŏmum rĕdǐtiōnis spe sublātā. 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 domus and rus, the preposition is commonly used; as, Ex Asiā transis in Eurōpam. Curt. Te in Epīrum vēnisse gaudeo. Čic. But it is -sometimes omitted; as, Dēvëniunt spēluncam. Virg. Dēvēnēre lŏcos. Id. Tŭmŭlum antīquce Cěrě̆ris sēdemque sacrātam vēnìmus. Id. Ibis Cēcröpios portus. Ovid. So, also, before names of countries, especially those ending in us; as, LIgyptus, Bospörus, Chersŏnēsus, Epī̀us, Pëlŏponnēsus, etc. So, also, Illy̆rǐcum pröfectus. Cæs. Măcědŏniam pervēnit. Liv. Afrĭcam transitürus. 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 perrädit. So, Virgil, Nos ìbĭmus Afros.-Pliny has, Insŭlas Rubri Măris nāvĭgant.
(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, Sardĩnia, Brǐtannia, Crēta, Eubcea, Sicilia.
(c.) Before accusatives of any words denoting locality after verbs of motion, the poets omit the preposition; as, Ităliam-Läviniăque vēnit litorra. Virg.The old accusative foras is used, like names of towns, to denote the place whither, while forris denotes the place where; as, Văde fơras. Mart. Exit föras. Plaut.

## aCCUSATIVE after adJectives, adVErBS, AND INTERJECTIONS.

§ 238. 1. (a.) The adjectives prŏpior and proxımus, with their adverbs prŏpius and proxĭme, like their primitive prŏpe, are often joined with the accusative; as,

Ipse prŏpior montem suos collöcat. Sall. Crassus proxǐmus măre Oceănum hiëmãrat. Cæs.-Libyes prŏpius măre Afrĭcum ăqŭtäbant. Sall. - Proxĭme Hispāniam Mauri sunt. Id.
(b.) The adverbs pridie and postridie are also often followed by the accusative; as, Prīdie eum diem. Cic. Prīdie ìdus. Id. Postrīdie līdos. Id.-(c.) Ais accusative somet mes follows intus and corminus; as, Intus dŏmum. Plaut, Agrestes cöminus : $e$ 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 rersus, usque, exadversus (-um) and sěcus with the accusative, see § $195^{\circ}$, R. 3 : and § 235 , R. 3 .

Rem. 2. The adverb bėne, by the elipsis of vălēre jübeo, is sometimes followed by the accusative in forms of drinking health; as, Bëne vos, bëne nos, bëne te, bè̉ne me, bëne nostram etiam Stĕphanium! Plaut. Bëne Messālam, 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 ferling is put in the accusative either with or without the interjections, O! ah! heu! eheu! ecce! en! hem! pro! or voe!as,

En quätuor äras! ecce duas tìbi Daphni! Behold four altars! lo, two for thee, Daphnis! Virg. Eccum! eccos! eccillum! for ecce eum! ecce eos! ecce illum! Plaut. O proclărum custōdem! Cic. Heu me infélīcem! Ter. Pro Deâm hóminumque fiden! Cic. Ah me, me! Catull. Eheu me misèrum! Ter. Hem astütias! Id. Ve te! Plaut. Ve me! Sen. Miséram me! Ter. Hóminem grăo vem et cîvem égrëgium! 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,

Mŏleste Pompeium id ferre constābat, That Pompey took that ill, was evident. Cic. Eos hoc nōmine appelläri fas est. Id. Mīror te ad me nīhil scrībëre, I wonder that you do not write to me. Cn. Mag. in Cic. Campos jübet esse pătentes. Virg.
Note 1. In historical writing the present infinitive has sometimes its sabject in the nominative. Cf. $\begin{gathered}\text { 209, R. } 5 .\end{gathered}$
Remark 1. The subject of the infinitive is omitted when it precedes in the genitive or dative case; as, Est ädölescentis mäjöres nätu rërḕri, scil. eum. Cic. Expédit bönas esse vöbis, scil. ros. Ter.; and rarely when it precedes in the accusative; as, Ea pöpülus letāri et mërito dïcère fiëri; and also when its place is supplied by a possessive pronoun expressed or understood; as, Non fuit consilium (meum)-servilibus officciis intentum atãtem ăgëre (scil. me). Sall.
Rem. 2. A substantive pronoun is also sometimes omitted before the infinitive, when it is the sulject of the preceding verb; as, Pollicitus sum susceptürum (essel, scil. me, I promised (that 1) would undertake. Ter. Sed reddëre posse négäbat, 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 áliud ĩräcundum esse, ăliud îrätum, scil. höminem. 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.
Nots 2. For the verbs after which the subject-accusative with the infinitive is used, see $\boldsymbol{2}^{2 \pi} 2$. 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), ĕhem, ĕho, ehodum, eia (heia), hem, heus, hui, io, and ohe, are followed by the vocative; as,
0 formöse puer! 0 beautiful boy! Virg. Heu virgo! Id. Pro sancte Jüpìter! Cic. Ah stalte! Ter. Heus Sy̆re! Id. Ohe lïbelle! Mart. Ehodum böne vir. Ter--Urbem, mi Rūfe, côle. Cic. Quinctili Vare, légiönes redde. Suet. Quo möritūre ruis? Hor. Macte virtüte esto. Cic.

Rem. 2. The vocative is sometimes omitted, while a genitive depending upon it remains; as, $O$ misèrree sortis! scil. hómines. Lucan.

Nore. 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 $\bar{a}$, (or ăb, abs), absquĕ, dē ; cōram, pălam, cum, ex, ( $\bar{e}$ ); ๘ॅnĕ, tĕnŭs, prō, and prce ; as,
Ab illo tempơre, From that time. Liv. A scribendo, From writing. Cic. Cum exerctitu, With the army. Sall. Certis de causis, For certain reasons. Cic. Ex fŭyā, From fight. Id. Pălam pơpülo. Liv. Sìne lübōre. Cic. Cüpŭlo tënus. Virg. Cantäbit uăcuus cōram lătrōne vī̄tor. Juv. cf. § 195, 5.
Nore. Of the prepositions followed by the ablative, five signify removal or separation, viz. $\bar{a}$ (ă $b$ or $a b s$ ), $d \bar{e}$, é (or $e x$ ), absqu厄 and sinĕ.

Remark 1. Tĕnus is always placed after its case. It sometimes takes the genitive plural. See $\S 221$, III.-Cum is always appended to the ablative of the personal pronouns $m e, t e, s e, n o b b i s$, and $v o ̈ b i s$, and commonly to the ablatives of the relative pronoun, $q u o, q u a \bar{a}, q u i b u s$, and $q u i$. Cf. $\S 133,4$, and $\S 136$, R. 1 .

Rem. 2. The adverbs prơcul and simul are sometimes used with an ablative which depends on the prepositions $a$ or $a b$, and cum understood; as, Pröcul mŭri, Far from the sea. Liv. Simul nōbis hăbĭtat. Ovid. Pröcul dŭbio. Suet. The prepositions are frequently expressed; as, Fröcul a terrā. Cic. Pröcul a patrià. Virg. Tēcum simul. Plaut. Vōbiscum simul. Cic.-So, rarely, aque. Qui me in terrā aqque fortūnātus ērit. Plaut. Cf. Nöri ceque 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 cōram sŭmus. Cic. Cum frätre 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?' süper, when it signifies 'on' or 'concerning'; and sometimes clam and subter. Cf. § 235, (2.)-(5.)

Rem. E. In is generally joined with the ablative after verbs of placing, as, pöno, lơco, collơco, stătuo, constituo, and consido; as, Et săle tābentes artus in Fitoore pönunt. Virg.-So, also, after verbs signifying to have, hold, or regurd.
as, hăbeo, düco, nümèro, etc.-After verbs of assembling, concealing, and including, in is followed by either the accusative or the ablative.-After défigo, in. scribo, insculpo, incido, and insero, in is usually joined with the ablative.
§ \$29. Many rerls compounded with $\breve{a} b, d \bar{e}, ~ e x$, and sŭper, are followed by an ablative depending upon the preposition; as,

Abesse urbe, To be absent from the city. Cic. Abire séllibus, To depart from their habitations. Tac. Let se mülëdictis non abstineant. Cic. Dētrüdent näves scöpuilo, They push the ships from the rock. Virg. Näri égressus est. Nep. Excièlëre fïnibus. Liv. Casar proelio süpersēdère stätuit. Cæs. Tribūto ac dèlectu süpersessum est. Cic. So the adjective extorris; as, Extorris patriā, dömo. Sall. And so the verbal éruptio, as, Mütinnā èruptio. Cic.

Remark 1. The preposition is often repeated, or one of similar signification is used; as, Dēträhère de tuă fämã numquam cōgitārí. Cic. Ex ơcǔlis ăbiērunt. Liv. Exire a patriā. Cic. Exire de rìta. Id. Cf. § 224, R. 4.

Rem. 2. These compound verbs are often used withont a noun; but, in many cases, it may be supplied by the mind; as, Equites dēgressi ad pedes, scil. ëquis. Liv. Ab̈rre ad Deos, scil. vitā. Cic.

Rem. 3. Some verbs compounded with $a b, d e$, and $e x$, instead of the ablative, are sometimes followed by the dative. See $\S 224$, 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 $\bar{u} s u s$, signifying need, usually take the ablative of the thing needed; as,

Auctōritāte tuā nöbis opus est, We need your authority. Cic. Nunc ănirmis opus, nunc pectŏre firmo. Virg. Nāres, quìbus consüli ūsus non esset, Ships, for which the consul had no occasion. Liv. Nunc viribus ūsus, nunc mănĭbus răpidis. Virg.

Remari 1. (a.) Opus and usus are sometimes followed by the ablative of a perfect participle; as, Mātūrāto orpus est, There is need of haste. Liv. Usus facto est mĭhi. Ter. Ubi summus impërātor non ädest ad exercitum, citius, quod non facto esi ūsus, fit, quam quod facto est opus. Plaut. After öpus, a noun is sometimes expressed with the participle; as, Opus fuit Hirtio convento,-of meeting, or, to meet, $\oint 274$, R. 5. Cic. Opus sibi esse dömino ējus invento. Liv.-or a supine is used; as, Ita dictu opus 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 pst te ănimo vălëre. Cic. Mihi ơpus $\epsilon s t$, ut lăvem. Id.-
(b.) Opus and $\bar{u} s u s$, thongh 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 necdful 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 nölis ópus єst. Cic. Verres multa sibli ópus esse aiēbat. Id.; or, Dūce nōbis ŏpus est. The former construction is most common with neuter adjectives and pronouns; as, Quod non üpus est, asse cārum est. Cato apud Sen.-In the predicate ǒpus and ūsus are commonly translated 'needful' or 'necessary.' Cf. $\$ 210$, R. 5.
Nory. For the abisivive of character, quality, etc., limiting a noun, see § 211, R. 6.
§ 244. Dignus, indignus, contentus, pradǐtus, and frētus, are followed by the ablative of the object; as,

Dignus laude, Worthy of praise. Hor. Vox pø̈pŭli mājestāte indigna, A speech unbecoming the dignity of the people. Cæs. Bestice eo contentae non quarunt amplius. Cic. Hómo scělĕre pređditus. Id. Plēriqque ingĕnio frēti. Id.—So, Equum est me atque illo. Plaut.

Remark 1. The adverb digne, in one passage, takes the ablative; Peccat üter nostrum crŭce 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 ĕquidem tali me hŏnơre dignor. Virg.-Pass. Qui tāli hŏnōre dignāti sunt. Cic. Conjŭgio, Anchīs $x$, Vènëris dignäte sŭperbo. Virg.-Sometimes as a deponent, instead of the ablative of the thing, it is followed by an infinitive clause; as, Non ĕgo grammăticas ambïre trïbus et pulpita dignor. Hor. And both diynor and dédignor 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 cögìtātiōnem dignissìnam tuce virtūtis. Cic. Indignus ăvōrum. 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. $\S 222$, R. $6,(b$.
(b.) Instead of an ablative, dignus and indignus often take an-infinitive, especially in the passive; as, Erat dignus amāri. Virg.; or a subjunctive clause, with qui or ut ; as, Dignus qui impěret. Cic. Non sum dignus, ut fígam pālum in păriětem. Plaut.; or the supine in $u$; as, Digna atque indigna rêlātu
 artes contenta păternas ēdĭdǐcisse fuit. Ovid.-So, Näves pontum irrumpěre frētce. Stat.
§ 245. I. Utor, fruor, fungor, pŏtior, vescor, and their compounds, are followed by the ablative; as,

Ad quem tum Jūno supplex his vōcǐbus ūsa est,-addressed these words. Virg. Frui vòluptāte, To enjoy pleasure. Cic. Fungïtur offǐcio, He performs his duty. Id. Oppído pötiti sunt. Liv. Vescitur aurā. Virg. His rēbus perfruor. Cic. Lēgíbus ăbūti. Id. Dēfuncti impěrio. Liv. Grăvi ôpěre perfungimur. Cic. 0 tandem magnis pělăgi dēfuncte pěrī̀lis. Virg.
The compounds are abütor, deūtor, perfruor, dēfungor, 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 făcili me ūtêtur patre, He shall have in me an indulgent father. Ter.

Remark. In early writers these verbs sometimes take an accusative; as, Quam rem mědici ūutuntur. Varr. Ingěnium fiui. Ter. Datămes mīlitāre mēnus fungens. Nep. Gentem ăli̛quan urbem nostram pŏtītüram pŭtem. Cic. Sacras lauros vescar. Tibull. In prölơgis scrībendis ǒpêram ăbūtitur. Ter.-Pötior is, also, found with the genitive. See § $220,4$.
II. 1. Nitor, innitor, fīdo and confīdo, may be followed by the ablative without a preposition; as, Hastā innixus. Liv. Fìdëre cursu. Ovid. Nātūrā ľaci confìdēbant. Cæs.
2. Misceo with its compounds takes, with the accusative of the object, the ablative of the thing mingled with; as, Miscēre päbŭla săle. Coll. Aquas nectăre. Ovid. Aër multo cãlōre admixtus. Cic.
3. Assuesco, assuëfăcio, consuesco, insuesco, and sometimes acquiesco, take either the dative or the ablative of the thing; as, Aves sanguine et prodà assuēte. Hor. Nullo officio aut discipliñ assuéfactus. Cæs. Cff. § 224.
4. Viv: and épǔlor, 'to live or feast upon,' are followed by the ablative; as, Dăpibus Énulàmur opìmis. Virg. Lacte atque pēcŏre vīvunt. Cæs.
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 pulvěre colum stäre rìdent. Virg. Multo sanguine ac vulnèribus ea Pceñ̃s cic tōria stētit. Liv. Stäre condǐtiōnibus. Cic. Omnis in Ascănio stat cūra pärentis. Virg.-Consto, 'to consist of' or 'to rest npon,' is followed by the ablative either alone or with ex, de, or in; as Constat mátéries sölido corpŏre. Lucr. Hömo ex ănĭmo constat et corpöre. Cic.

Remark 1. Fìdo, confído, misceo, admisceo, permisceo, and assuesco often take the dative.
Rem. 2. When a preposition is expressed after the above verbs, sto, fido, confìlo, nïtor, 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.

[^18]Thus, $N a \bar{t} t e d e \bar{a}!$ O son of a goddess! Virg. Tantălo prögnätus, Descended from Tartalus. Cic. Sätus Néreìde, Sprung from a Nereid. Ovid. Creātus rēge. Id. Alcānơre crēti. Virg. Edìte rēgibus. Hor. Diis gěnāte. Virg. Argŏl ico gèněrātus Alēmơne. Ovid. Ortus nullis mājōrībus. Hor. Coelesti sēmine oriềndi. Lucr.

Remark 1. The preposition is also rarely omitted after the verbs creo, gěněro, and nascor; as, Ut patre certo nascérēre. Cic. Fortes creantur fortíbus. Hor.

Rem. 2. After participles denoting origin, the preposition $e x$ or de is usually joined to the name of the mother; and in a few passages $e x$ or $a b$ is joined to the name of the father; as, Prōgnäti ab Dīte patre. Cæs. In speaking of one's ancestors $a b$ is frequently used; as, Plērosque Belyas esse ortos a Germānis. Id.

Rem. 3. Origin from a place or country is generally expressed by a patrial adjective; as, Thrăsy̆būlus Athēniensis, Thrasybulus of Athons. Livy often uses $a b$; as, Turnus Herdōnius ab Arīciā. Cæsar prefers the ablative alone; as, Cn. Magius Crěmōnā; and in this manner is expressed the tribe to which a person belongs; as, $Q$. Verres Rōminliā,-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 canse, manner, means, and instrument are $b y$, with, $i n$, 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,
Compāni fū̄runt sŭperbi bōnītāte agrōrum. Cic. Animal pābŭlo letum. Sen Prelio fessi lassique, Weary and faint with the battle. Sall. Hömines agri grăvi morbo. Cic.
(2.) Neuter verbs expressing an action, state or feeling of the subject originating in some external cause, may take that cause in the ablative; as,

Intĕriit făme, He perished with hu .ger. Laude ăliēnā dolet. Cic. Lator tuā dignītāte. Id. Gaule tuo bŏno. Id. Suā victōriā glōriäri. Cæs. Aquilōrbus läbörant quercēta. Hor.-So with bène est and the dative; as, Mihi bëne ërat non piscibus urbe pétititis, sed pullo atque hædo. Hor. Ubi illi bëne sit ligno, ăquā călìdā, cíbo, vestīmentis, etc. Plaut.

Note 1. After such adjectives and neuter verbs, a preposition with its caso 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, estōte, ) is joined with an ablative of cause, especially with virtūte.

Note 3. After neuter verbs and adjectives denoting emotions, especia'ly those of care, grief, and sorrow, the accusative vicem, with a genitive or a possessive pronoun, is used, instead of the ablative rice, to signify 'for' or 'on account of'; as, Rĕmittìmus hoc tizbi, ne nostram vicem irascäris, That you may not be angry on our account. Liv. Tuam vicem sape döleo, quod, etc. Cic. Suam vĭcem măgis anxius, quam ejus, cuı auxilium ab se pětēbätur. 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 cequum me propter vos décipi. Ter. These prepositions, and $a$, or $a b, d e, e$ or $e x$, and prce, are also sometimes used when the cause is not a voluntary agent; as, Ob ădulterrium cosi. Virg. Nec lŏqui præ mœrōre 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, rŏgātu and admönitu, is seldom expressed by the simple ablative, but either by a preposition, $r$ by causä, gratiā, ergo, etc., with a genitive; as, Légibus propter mětum päret. Cic. Ne ob eam rem ipsos dēspícĕret. Id. Dōnäri virtūtis ergo. Id. Si hoc hŏnōris mei causā suscēpḕris. Id. But with causä, etc., the adjective pronoun is commonly used for the corresponding substantive pronoun; as, Te ăbesse meã causī, möleste fëro. Cic. Cf. § 211, R. 3, (b.)
(b.) When the cause is a state of fceling, a circumlocution is often used with a perfect participle of some verb signifying 'to induce'; as, Cüpiditàte ductus, inductus, incìtātus, incensus, inflammẵtus,impulsus,mōtus, captus, etc. Mihi běnĕvollentiā ductus tribuēbat onnia. Cic. Livy frequently uses $a b$ in this sense; as, $A b \bar{\imath} r \bar{a}, a$ spe, $a b o \partial d i o$, 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. Thus:

Cum vŏluptāte ăliquem audire. Verres Lampsăcum vēnit cum magnā călamıtāte civitātis. Cic. Hence also when the connection between the subject and the noun denoting the attribute is only external; as, Pröcédĕre cum veste purpŭreã: in distinction from Nūdis pědíbus incēdëre; Aperto căpĭte sědēre, etc., which express circumstances or attributes essential to the subject.

But möllus, rătio, mos, rītus, etc., signifying manner, never take cum, and it is omitted in some expressions with other substantives; as, Hoc mŏdo scripsi; Constituērunt quà rằtiōne ăgërētur; Mōre bestiārum văgāri; Latrönum rītu vivéré; Equo ănìmo fĕro; Maxímā fĭde ămĩcìtias cőluit. Summā æquītāte res constītuit; Viam incrēdībili cělèrītāte confēcit; Librum magnā cūrā dīlĭgentiāque scripsit; the action of the verb being intimately connected with the circumstance expressed by the ablative. So in some expressions with substantives alone; as, Sĭlcutio proetërīre or făcëre ălĭquid; Lēge ăgĕre; Jūre and injūriā $\hat{j}$ ücère; Magistrātus vitio creātus; Recte et ordĭne fit.

Rem. 3. The manner is also sometimes denoted by de or ex with the ablative; as, De or ex industriä, 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 observantiā, rem parsimōniā reetínuit, He retained his friends by at- . tention, his property by frugality. Cic. Auro ostrōque dëcōri. Virg. Eigrescit mēdendo. Id. Cornibus tauri, apri dentībus, morsu leōnes se tūtantur. Cic. Cossus est virgis. Id. Trabs saucia sěcūri. 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 ofpërā with a genitive or a possessive pronoun; as, meā, tuă, suā, opërrà, which are equivalent to per me, per $t e_{\text {, }}$ per se, and denote both good and bad services. Bënĕficio meo, etc., is used of good results only; as, Bënëficio meo patres sunt. Sall. But persons are sometimes considered as involuntary agents, and as such expressed by the ablative without a preposition; as, Servos, quĭbus silvas publicas dèpöpülàtus èrat. 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 oppùdum cépit, but per vim ei böna ēripuit.

Rem. 5. The material instrument is always expressed by the ablative without a preposition; as, Conficēre cervum săgittis; glädio ãliquem vulnëräre; träjicëre 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 $a b$ 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 $a b$; as,
(In the active voice,) Clödius me diligit, Clodius loves me (Cic.); (in the passive, ) A Clödio diligor, I am loved by Clodius. Laudātur ab his, culpâtur ab illis. Hor.
Remark 1. (1.) The general word for persons, after verbs in the passive voice, is often understood; as, Pröbitas laudätur, scil. ab höminibus. Juv. So after the passive of neuter verbs; as, Discurritur. Virg. Töto certütun 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 gẻnère scęlérum vơlütentur, scil. a se. Cic.

Rem. 2. Neuter verbs, also, are sometimes followed by an ablative of the voluntary agent with $a$ or $a b$; as,
M. Marcellus perriit ab Annĭbăle, M. Marcellus was killed by Hannibal. Plin. Ne vir ab hoste cädat. Ovid.
Rem. 3. The preposition is sometimes omitted; as, Nec conjŭge captus. Ovid. Cülitur liniyërā turbā. Id. Péreat meis excisus Argivis. Hor.
For the dative of the agent after verbs in the passive roice, and participles in dus, see \{225, II. and III.
II. The involuntary agent of a verb in the passive voice, or of a nenter verb, is put in the ablative without a preposition, as the cause, means, or instrument; as, Maximo dölōre conficior. Cic. Frangi cūpı̊itāte. Id. Lüucide tēlo jăcet Hector. Virg.

Note. The involuntary agect is sometimes personified, and takes $a$ or $a b$; as, A vǒluptātřbus dēsĕri. Cic. A nātūrā dütum hơminni vivendí curricŭlum. Id. Vinci a vŏluptāte. Id. Victus a lăbōre. Id.
§ \$89. 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 aff tio, aspergo, conspergo, inspergo, respergo, compleo, expleo, impleo, oppleo, repleo, suppleo, cŭmŭlo, farcio, rêfercio, sătio, exsătio, sătŭro, stīpo, const̄̄po, ŏbruo, ŏnĕro, augeo, induo, vestio, armo, orno, circumdo, circumfundo, macto, löcuplēto, instruo, imbuo, döno, impertio, rēmūněror, honesto, hŏnōro, etc.; as,

Terrōre implētur Africa, Africa is filled with terror. Sil. Instruxēre ěpǔlis mensas, They furnished the tables with food. Ovid. Ut ējus ănimum his opīnionnibus imbuas, That you should imbue his mind with these sentiments. Cic. Näves önërant auro, They load the ships with gold. Virg. Cümŭlat 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 cĭbo et pootiōne complēti. Cic. Libros puěrrīlibus fābŭlis rĕfercire. Id. Sătiāri dēlectātiōne non possum. Id. Hömĭnes sătŭr āti hơnōrřbus. Id. Senectus stīpüta stŭdiis jŭventūtis. Id. Me tanto hōnōre hð̌nestas. Plaut. Equis Africam lơcuplētārit. Colum. Stŭdium tuum nullā me nơvā vơluptāte aff ēcit. 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, döno, 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 Dēiünīra tŭnĭcam induısset. Cic. Dönāre mūněra cīvĭbus. In the earliest writers dōno, like condöno, 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. Instǐtūto suo Cusar cōpias suas ëduxit, According to his practice. Cæs. Id factum consǐlio meo,-by my advice. Ter. Päcem fëcit his condǐtiōnìbus,-on these conditions. Nep.

Note. The prepositions de, ex, pro, and secundum are often expressed with such nouns; as, Nëque est factūrus quidquam nìsi de meo consilio. Cic. Ex consuētūdĭne ălĭquid făcĕre. Plin. Ep. Dĕcet quidquid ăgas, ăgĕre pro virribus. Cic. Sěcundum nātūram vìvěre. Id.
III. The ablative denoting accompaniment, is usually joined with cum; as,

Văgāmur ëgentes cum conjŭgĭbus et līběris, Needy, we wander with our wives and children. Cic. Sape admīrāri sōleo cum hoc C. Lælio. Id. Jülium cum his ad te litěris misi. Id. Ingressus est cum glădio. Id. Rōmam vēni cum febri. Cum occäsu sōlis cōpias ēdūcěre,-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 Cosăris omnibus cōpiis contendërunt. Cæs. Inde tōto exercǐtu proffectus. Liv. Eōdem dëcem näribus C. Furius vēnit. Liv. And sometimes in military language cum is omitted, when accompanying circumstances are mentioned, and not persons; as, Castra clāmōre invādunt.
§ 2フ0. 1. A noun, adjective, or verb, may be followed by the ablative, denoting in what respect their signification is taken; as,

Piêtãte filius, consilüs pärens, In affection a son, in counsel a parent. Cic. Rëges nönine mágis quam impèrio, Kings in name rather than in authority. Nep. Oppidum nömine Bibrax. Cæs.-Jüre péritus, Skilled in law. Cic. Anxius ănâmo, Anxious in mind. Tac. Pédibus ager, Lame in his feet. Sall. Crine rüber, niger öre. Mart. Fronte latus. Tac. Mäjor nätu. Cic. Prüdentī̄ non infërior, üsu rèro étiam süpérior. Id. Maximus nätu. Liv.-Animo angi, To be troubled in mind. Cic. Contrémisco tôtā mente et omnibus artübus, I am agitated in my whole mind and in every limb. Id. Captus mente, Affected in mind, i. e. deprived of reason. Id. Altêro öcūlo cápitur. Liv. Ingēnii laude fôruit. Cic. Pollíre nöbilitäte. Tac. Animóque et corpöre 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 $\oint 231$, 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 fall of servants. Juv. Dives agris, Rich in land. Hor. Férax seccullum bönis artibus. Plin.-Inops rerbis, Deficient in words. Cic. Orba frätribus, Destitute of brothers. Ovid. Viduum arböribus soslum. Colum. Nüdus agris. Hor. For the genitive after adjectives of plenty and want, see § 213, P. 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 rëdundat militibus, The city is full of soldiers. Auct. ad Her. Villa ábundat porco, hado, agno, gallinā, lacte, cäseo, melle. Cic.-Virum qui pècūnià ëgeat, A man who is in want of money. Id. Cärēre culpä, To be free from fault. Id. Mea ädolescentia indiget illörum bơnā existimātiōne. Id. Abundat audāciā, consilio et rătiōne dif icitur. Id.

Pemark 1. To this rule belong äbundo, exūberro, rédundo, scăteo, affluo, circumfluo, dịffuo, süperfluo, suppédìto, väleo, vigeo;-cäreo, égeo, indègeo, väco, dèficior, déstituor, etc.

Resr. 2. The genitice, instead of the ablative, sometimes follows certain verbs signifying to abound or to want. See $\oint 220,3$.

Rem. 3. To do any thing with a person or thing, is expressed in Latin by fäcère with de; as, Quid de Tulliōlä meä fiet ? Cic ; and more frequently by the simpl: ablative, or the dative; as, Quid hoc hŏmine or huic hŏminn fäciätis? What can you do with this man? Cic. Nescit quid fáciat auro,-what he shall do with the gcld. Plaut. Quid me fiat parri pendis, You care little what becomes of me. Ter.-Sum is occasionally used in the same manner; as, Mëtum cépērunt quidnam se fütürum esset,-what would become of them. Liv.
§ 251. A 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, dèpello, expello, abdīco, interdīco, dēfendo, dēturbo, dēj̄icio, èjicio, absterreo, dēterreo, möveo, ämöveo, dēmôr:eo, rèmòven, sēcerno, prőhîbeo, sêpäro, exclūdo, interclūdo, äbeo, exeo, cèdo, dècèdo, discèdo, elēsistc, évädo, abstineo, spollio, privo, orbo, lïbëro, expědio, laxo, nüdo, solvo, exsolvo, exornĕro, lëvo, purgo, to which may be added the adjectives lïber, immünis, pūrus, văcuus, and ăliēnus; as,

Nüdantur arböres föliis, The trees are stripped of leaves. Plin. Hoc me libĕra mětu, Free me from this fear. Ter. Tüne eam phălơsöphiam sĕquĕre, quee spǒliat nos jūdǐcio, prîvat apprŏbātiōne, orbat sensĩbus? Cic. Solvit se Teucria luctu. Virg. Te illis sēdı̌bus arcēbit. Cic. Q. Varium pellĕre possessiōnĭbus cōnötus. est. Id. Omnes trĭbu rěmōti. Liv. Lëväre se ære ăliēno. Cic. Me lĕres diơri sëcernunt pŏpŭlo. Hor. Anìmus omni līber cūrā et angōre. Cic. Utrumque hŏmIne ăliënissimum. Id. When ăliēnus signifies 'averse' or 'hostile to,' it takes the ablative with $a b$, or rarely the dative; as, Id dicit, quod illi causærmaxime est ălienum. Id. In the sense of 'unsuited,' it may also be joined with the genitive; as, Quis ăliēnum pŭtet ējus esse dignrtātis'? Id.-Alius too, in analogy with adjectives and verbs of separation, sometimes takes an ablative; as, Nêve pŭtes ălium săpiente bŏnōque beätum. Hor.; but this may also be referred to the ablative after comparatives. Cf. §256, R. 14.

Remark 1. Most verbs of depriving and separating are more or less frequently followed by $a b$, de, or $e x$, with the ablative of the thing, and always by $a b$ with the ablative of the person; as, Tu Jüpiter, lunnc a tuis āris arcēbis. Cic. Proesidium ex arce pëpŭlērrunt. Nep. Aquam de agro pellĕre. Plin. Ex ingrātā cīvītāte cēdëre. Cic. Arcem ab incendio līběrãvit. Id. Solvěre belluam ex cătēnis. Auct. ad Her.-Sēdes rèmōtas a Germānis. Cæs. Se ab Etruscis sēcernëre. Liv.

Rem. 2. Arceo, in the poets, sometimes takes the dative, see § 224, R. 2., and sometimes an infinitive; as, Plägamque sědēre cēdendo arcêbat. Ovid.Protibeo and défendo take either the accusative of the person or thing to be defended, with the ablative of the thing to be warded off-or the reverseăliquem or ălĭquid a pĕrícŭlo, or pèrícŭlum ab ăliquo. They are also sometimes construed with the dative, see $\S 224$, R. 2, and sometimes with infinitive or subjunctive clauses. Prohibeo has rarely two accusatives; as, Id te Jüpiter probhbessit. Plaut.; or poetically the accusative and genitive; as, Captce prohtbēre Ponos ăquilæ. Sil.-Interdĩco takes the person either in the accusative or the dative, and the thing in the ablative, ălíquem or álicuĭ alĭquā re; as, Quĭbus quum ăquā et igni interdixissent. Cæs.-Instead of the ablative, a subjunctive clause with $n e$, and mo rarely with $u t$, sometimes follows interdico.-Absum, in like manner, taker ablative with $a b$, and sometimes the dative: as, Curtee nescio quid semper ăbest rei. Hor. Cf. §224, R. 1.-Abdico takes sometimes an ablative, and sometimes an accusative of the thing renounced; as, Abdīcāre se măgistrātu. Cic. Abdicāre măgistrātum. Sall. In Plautus, circumdüco, 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; as, Itinérum angustice multytūdĭni fŭgam interclüsěrant. Cæs.: and, instead of the ablative of the thing, a subjunctive clause with quōminnus occurs: Interclüdor dōlōre, quöminnus ad te plüra scrībam. Cic.

Rem. 3. Verbs which signify to distinguish, to differ, and to disagree, are generally construed with $a b$, but sometimes, especially in the poets, with the ablative alone.

Note. Verbs signifying to distinguish, etc., are distinguo, discerno, sëcerno, diffĕro, discrẹpo, dissïdeo, disto, dissentio, discordo, ăbhorreo, äliēno, and äbăliēno.Dissentio, dissideo, discrëpo, and discordo are construed also with cum.-The verbs which signify to differ are sometimes construed with the dative; as, Distat infido scurræ ămicus. Hor., and in like manner the adjective diversus; as, Nihil est tam Ly̆siæ diversum, quam Isocrătes. 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 trëcentis tălentis règi Cotto vendïdisses, 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. Cïbus uño asse vénālis. Plin. Constîtit quād ringentis millibus. Varr. Dēnis in diem assǐbus ăñ̆mum et corpus (militum)
 nis. Plaut. Asse cārum est. Sen. Ep.

Remark 1. The verbs which take an ablative of price or value are (1) cestzmo, dūca, fäcio, fīo, häbeo, pendo, pŭto, dèpŭto, taxo: (2) ëmo, mercor, vendo, clo, vèneo, sto, consto, prosto, condüco, löco, văleo, luo, and liceo.-To these must be added others, which express some act or enjoyment for which a certain price is paid; as, Lăvor quādrante. Trïginta millĭbus Coelius hăbitat. Cic. Vix drachmis est obsönātus dĕcem. Ter. Dŏceo tălento, etc. So esse in the sense 'to be worth'; as, Sextante sal in Itŭlià èrat.

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, parro, tantülo, plüre, minnimo, pı̄̄rimo, vīli, viliōri, vīlissimo, nimio, etc.; as, Plūre vēnit. Cic. Conduxit non magno domum. Id. These adjectives refer to some noun understood, as prêtio, cre, and the like, which are sometimes expressed; as, Parvo prètio ea cendidisse. Cic.-The adverbs bëne, pulchre, recte, măle, cäre, etc., sometimes take the place of the genitive or ablative of price; as, Bëne ëmëre; recte vendëre; optime vendëre, etc.

Rem. 4. Varro has used văleo with the accusative; as, Dënärii dicti, quod dēnos crris rălëbant.

Rem. 5. Müto and its compounds, commãto and permüto, 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, Chäoniam glandem pingui mütävit ăristā. 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 Säbinā divitias opè̈rōsiôres? 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 temporre, At this time. Cic. Tertià viǧliā éruptiōnem fēcērunt, They made a sally at the third watch. Cæs. Ut hième näriges, That you should sail in the winter. Cic. Proxìmo triennio omnes gentes sŭbēgit. Nep. Agămemnon cum ūnīversā Grœeciā vix dëcem annis ūnam cépit urbem. Nep.

Note 1. The English expression 'by day' is rendered in Latin either by interdin or die; 'by night,' by noctu or nocte; and 'in the evening,' by respere or vespëri; see $\$ 82$, Exc. $5,($ a.) Lülis is used for in tempöre Tülörum; and Säturnälibus, Lütīnis, glüdiätōribus, for lüdis Süturnälibus, 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 discessı ălícüjus, comitious, tūmultu, bello, pāce, etc.; or in initio, etc. But bello is more common without $i_{0}$, if it is
joined with an adjective or a genitive; as, Bello Pūnłco sěcundo, bello Lǎtīnסrum; and so, also, pugnä Cannensi. So "we say in puĕritiä, but omit in with an adjective; as, extrḕmā puërītiā. In is very rarely used with nouns expressing a certain space of time; as, annus, dies, horra, etc., for the purpose of denoting the time of an event. In temporre signifies either 'in distress,' or 'in time, 'i. e. 'at the right time'; but in both cases tempore alone is used, and tempöre in the sense of 'early' has even become an adverb, an earlier form of which was tempöri or tempëri, whose comparative is tempĕrius.
Pemark 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, tribbus 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 děcemvirros. Cic. So Consul factus est annis post Rōmam condītam trëcentis duゐdēnōnāginta.
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 âliquanto; 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 vēnĕrat; post tres annos quam vënĕrat; tertio arno postquam vēnĕrat; post annum tertium quam vēnĕrat, etc.; all of which expressions signify 'three years after he had come.' Sometimes post is omitted; as, tertio anno quam vënërat.

Note 4. Instead of postquam, 'after,' we may use ex quo, quum, or a relative agreeing with the preceding ablative; as, Ipse octo diēbus, quíbus has littëras dăbam, culine Lépidi cópias 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, C'hrÿsoggono nuntiātur,-four days after he had been killed. Cic. Quem triduo, quum has drabam lìte̛ras, exspectäbam,-three days after the date of this letter. Planc. in Cic. In such cases $i n$ is sometimes joined with the ablative; as, In diëbus paucis, quǐbus hoec acta sunt, mörǐtur. Ter.

Rem. 2. The length of time before the present moment may be expressed by ăblinc with the accusative, and, less frequently, the ablative; as, Questor fuisti ăbhinc annos quätuordëcim. Cic. Comittiis jam ăbhinc trīginta diēbus häbiť̀s. Id. The same is also expressed by ante with the pronoun hic; as, ante hos sex menses mălëdixisti mǐhe,-six months ago. Phæd. Ante is sometimes used instead of abbhinc: and the length of time before is sometimes expressed by the ablative joined with hic or ille; as, Paucis his diēbus, or paucis illis diēbus,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 temporris. Cic. So with a preposition; $A d i d d i \bar{e} i$. 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 tertiá vigilià ad hostes contendit,-in the third watch. Cæs. Ut jŭyŭlent hơmines surgunt de nocte latrōnes. Hor. So, also, with sub: as, Ne sub ipsā pröfectiōne milites opptdum irrumperrent,-at the very time of his departure. Cæs. Sub adventu Römänörum, While the Romans were arriving. Id.
(b.) The time within which any thing occurs, is also sometimes expressed by intra with the accusative; as, Dīmidiam partem nätiōnum sübēgit intra vīginti dies. Plaut. Intra dëcimum diem, quam Phĕras vënërat, In less than ton 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 mumerals; as, Bis in die suturum fierri; rix ter in amo nuntium audire; 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 pueritiä. ädölescentiā, jürentüte, sĕnectūte, etc., in stating the age at which a person performed any action, the concretes puer, ädulescens, jüuenis, sënex, etc., are commonly joined to the verb; as, Ch. Pompeius, ădülescens se et patrem consilio servārit.-So, also, adjectives ending in énärius are sometimes used in stating the number of years a person has lived; as, Cicèro sexāgēnãrius.
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 $b e$, or to be done, if of the third declension or plural number, is put in the ablative without a preposition ; as,

Alexander Băby̆lōne est mortuus, Alexander died at Babylon. Cic. Intëre̊rit multum-Thēbis nütrïtus an Argis,-whether brought up at Thebes or at Argos. Hor. Nätus Tībŭre vel Gäbiis. Id.

Pemark 1. 'In the country' is expressed by rūre, or more commonly by rüri, without a preposition; as, Pater fïlium rüri häbitāre jussit. Cic. With an adjective only rüre is used; as, Inteidum nügäris rǜe păterno. Hor. Cf. § $221, \mathrm{~N}$.

Rem. 2. (a.) The preposition in is sometimes expressed with names of towns; as, In Philippis quidam nunciārit. Suet.
(b.) Names of towns of the first and second declension, and singular number, and also domus and hünus, are in like manner sometimes put in the ablative without in. See $\$ 221$, R. 2 and R. 3.-So, also, terrä mărique, by land and by sea. In is also frequently omitied with $\omega_{0} c o$ and locis, especially when joined with an adjective and having the meaning of 'occasion'; as, Hoc loco, multis löcis, etc.-Libro joined with an adjective, as hoc, primo, 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, tōtr̄, tōtis, is generally used without in; as, Urbe tôtā gèmítus fit. Cic. Tōtā Asià rägàtur. Id. Tōto mări. Id. But in such cases in is sometimes used. So cunctā Asià. 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, Iphicrätes in Thrāciā vixit, Chares in Sigèo. Nep. Rūre égo vīrentem, tu dicis in urbe beātum. Hor. Aio hoc fièri in Grectià. Plaut. In Bactriānis Sogdiãnisque urbes condidit. Lücus in urive fuit. Virg. But it is sometimes omitted by writers of every class and period; as, Milites stütivis castris häb̄̄bat. Sall. Magnis in laudilus fuit tōtā Greciñ. Nep. Pöpúli sensus maxime theātro et spectācūlis perspectus est. Cic. Pompeius se oppido ternet. 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, Návita puppe sèdens. Ovid. Ilam forte Vià Sacrä. Hor. Silvisque agrisque viisc ae corpöra fvedn jücent. Ovid. Médio alveo concursum est. Liv.-Foris, ont at the door, abroad, is properly an ablative of place ; as, Forris caenat. Cic. Cf. §237, R. $\mathbf{5}$, (c.)
§ 255. 1. After verbs expressing or implying motion, the name of a town whence the motion proceeds, is $p$ it in the ablative, without a preposition ; as,

Brundisio prøfecti sưmus, We departed from Brundisium. Cic. Diönȳsius ty̆rannus Sy̆rācūsis expulsus Cơrintlii puĕros dőcēbat. Id. Dēmărātus Tarquinios Cörintho făugit. Id. Accëpi tuas litēeras dătas Plăcentiā. Id. Intërim Rōmā per litëras certior fit ; scil. dütas or missas. Sall. J. 82. So, also, after a verbal noun; as, Narbōne réditus. Cic.

Remark 1. The ablatives dŏmo, hŭmo, and rūre or rūri, are used, like names of towns, to denote the place whence motion proceeds; as,

Dŏmo prợfectus, Having set out from home. Nep. Surgit hŭmo jŭrěnie, The youth rises from the ground. Ovid. Rūre huc advēnit. Ter. Si rūri rèniet. Id. Virgil uses dömo with unde; as, Qui gĕnus? unde dewo? and Livy, instead of dömo ăbesse, has esse ab dömo. With an adjective, tū̀re, and not rṻri, must be used.

Rem. 2. With names of towns and dormus and hưmus, when answering the question ' whence ?' $a b, e x$, or $d e$, is sometimes used; as, Ab Alexandrià $p r \delta-$ fectus. Cic. Ex dömo. Id. De vītifềrä vēnisse Viennā. Mart. Al hŭmo. Virg.

Rem. 3. (a.) With other names of places whence motion proceeds, $a b, e x$, or de, is commonly expressed; as, Me a portu premisit. Plaut. Ex Asià transis in Europain. 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 adversäriōrum hībernäcŭla pervēnit. Nep.
(b.) But the preposition is sometimes omitted; as, Litĕrce Măcědŏniā allätce. Liv. Clussis Cypro advēnit. Curt. Cessissent lŏco. Liv. Nì cite vicis et castellis proximis subventum föret. Id. Ite sacris, propęreāte sacris, laurumque căpillis pönite. Ovid. Finibbus omnes prōsiluēre suis. Virg. Advolvunt ingentes montībus ornos. Id. This omission of the preposition is most common in the poets 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 fücit. Nep. Exercìtum vădo transdūcit. Cæs. His pontribus päbülātum pittēbat. Id. Trîbūni militum portā Collīnā urbem intrārēre sub signis, mědiãque urbe agmine in Aventīnum pergunt. Liv. Lěgiōnes Penninnis Cottiānisque Alpĭbus, par's monte Graio, trādūcuntur. Tac. Equites viā brěviōre prcemìsi. 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,

Nîhil est virtūte formösius, Nothing is more beautiful than virtue. Cic. Quis C. Lælio cömior? 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,

Sīdčre pulchrior ille est, tu lĕvior cortīce. Hor. Vīlius argentum est auro, virtūtībus aurum. Id. Tullus Hostīlius fërōcior Rōmŭlo fuit. Liv. Lacrımā nithil citius ärescit. Cic. Quid măgis est dürum saxo, quid mollius undā? Ovid. Hoc nèmo fuit mìnus ineptus. Ter. Albänum, Mecḕnas, sìve Fălernum te măgis appǒsitis delectat. Hor.

Rey. 2. An object with which a person or thing addressed is compared, is also put in the ablative; as, $O$ fons Bandüsice 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, Orātio quam hăbītus fuit mĭsěrābilior. Cic. Affirmo nullam esse laudem ampliörem quam eam. Id. So, also, when an ablative in the case absolute takes the place of the subject; as, Eidem (scil. düce) plüra, quam grègārio milite, totlĕrante. 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 sometimes in an oblique case to agree with the object with which it is compared; as, Méliovem, quam ego sum, suppōno tibi. Plaut. Ego höminem callidiùrem vidi nēminent quam Phormiōnem. Ter. Adventus hostium fuit agris, quam urbi terríbilior. Liv. Omnes fontes æstāte, quam hiěme, sunt yélidiöres. Plin. Thëmistoclis nömen, quam Sölōnis, est illustrius. Cic.-The following example illustrates both the preceding constructions:- $\overline{U t}$ tiobi multo mājori, quam Africānus fuit, me non multo minōrem quam Lælium făcile et in rēpüblicā et in ämicitūu arljunctum esse pătiäre. 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, Attălo, quo grăriōrem inimicum non hăbui, sơrōrem dëdét, He gave his sister to Attalus, than whom, etc. Curt. Hoc nihhl grätius făcēre pơtes. Cic. Causam. ěnim suscêpisti antiquiōrem mèmǒriā tuā. Id. Exéqi monŭmentum ære pĕrennius. Hor. Cur ólivum sanguĭne vīpěrino cautius rittat? Id. Quid prius dicam sǒlĭtis pärentis laudibus? Id. Säjöra viribus audes. Virg. Nullam sacrā vìte prius sērēris arborem. Hor. Nullos his mallem lüdos spectasse. Id. $\oint 178,3$.
(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, Mélior tü̃iorque est certa pax quam spērāta victōria. Liv. After quam, if the verb cannot be supplied from the preceding sentence, est, fuit, etc., must be added; as, Haec rerba sunt M. Varrōnis, guam fuit Claudius, doctiōris. Gell. Drüsum Germānicum minnōrem nātu, quam ipse ěrat, frätrem àmīsit. Sen. .

Rem. 6. (a.) Minus, plus, and amplius with numerals, and with other words Tenoting a certain measure or a certain portion of a thing, are used either with or without $\phi_{u} u m$, generally as indeclinable words, without influence upon the construction, but merely to modify the number; as, Non plus quam quätuor millia effüqērunt, not effügit. Liv. Pictōres antīqui non sunt $\bar{u} s i ~ p l u s ~ q u a m ~ q u a ̄-~$ tuor côlöribus, not plürībus. Cic.
(b.) Quam is frequently omitted with all cases; as, Minus duo millia hominu?n ex tanto exercitu effuggērunt. Liv. Milites Rōmāni sappe plus dìmidiāti mensis cibāria férèbant. Cic. Quum plus annum ager fuisset. Liv. Sēdëcim non amplius eo anno lěgiōnöbus dëfensum impérium est. Id.
(c.) These comparatives, as in the preceding example, are sometimes irserted between the numeral and its substantive, and sometimes, when joined with a negative, they follow both, as a sort of apposition; as, Quinque millia armëtōrum, non amplius, rélictum érat proesidium,-a garrison of five thousand soldiers, not more. Liv. So, also, longius; Cesar certior est factus, magnas Gallörum cöpias non longius millia passuum octo ab hībernis suis abfuisse. Cæs. See § 236.
(d.) The ablative is sometimes used with these as with other comparatives; as, Dies triginta aut plus eo in näri fui. Ter. Triennio amplius. Cic. Hōrā amplius möliébantur. Id. Ne longius tridno ab castris absit. Cæs. Apud Suēvos non longius anno rêmănëre üno in lŏco incôlendi sausä līcet. Id. Quum initio non amplius duōbus millibus häbuisset. Sall.

Rem. 7. Quum is in like manner sometimes omitted, without a change of case, after mïjor, minor, and some other comparatives; as, Obsitles ne mimōres octōnum dēnum annōrum, nez mạjöres quīnum quādrāgēnum,.... of not less than eighteen, nor more than forty-five years of age. Liv. Eix urbäno exercitu, qui mĭnōres quinque et trịginta amnis èrant, in näres impositi sunt. The genitive and ablartive, in these and similar examples, are to be referred to $\$ 211$, R. 6. Longius ab urbe mille pussuum. Liv. Annos nātas mägis quädräginta. Cic.

Ren. 8. When the second member of a comparison is an infinitive or a clanse, quam is always expressed; as, Nihil est in dïcendo mäjus quam ut fāveat ōrātōri audītor. Cic.

Rem. 9. Certain nouns, participles, and adjectives,-as opiniōne, spe, exsper tütiōne, fìde,-dicto, solito,-requo, crēdīlili, nécessārio, vēro, and justo,-are used in a peculiar manner in the ablative after comparatives; as, Opinionne cĕlĕrius ventūrus esse dïcitur,-sooner than is expected. Cæs. Dicto cìtius tümida cequöra plācat, Quicker than the word was spoken. Virg. Injūrias grăvius æquo hülēre. Sall.
(a.) These ablatives supply the place of a clause; thus, grănius aquo is equivalent to grăvius quam quod æequum est. They are often omitted; as, Thëmistocles līběrius vivēbat, scil. aquo. 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, omne ănimi lümen exstinguit,-when it is too great, and of too long continuance. Cic. So tristior, scil. sölito, rather sad.
(b.) The English word 'still,' joined with comparatives, is expressed by ětiam or vel, and only in later prose writers by ădhuc ; as, Ut in corpŏribus magne dissimilìtūdines sunt, sic in ánümis exsistunt mājōres ětiam văriĕtātes. Cic.

Rem. 10. (a.) With inferrior, the dative is sometimes used, instead of the ablative; as, Vir nullā arte cuiquam infërior. Sall. The ablative is also found; as, Ut hümānos cāsus virtūte inf ĕriōres pŭtes. Cic. But usually inf ērior is followed by quam; as, Timótheus belli laude non infërior fuit, quam păter. Cic. Grātiā non infërior, quam qui umquam fuērunt amplissimi. Id.
(b.) Quälis, 'such as,' with a comparative, occurs poetically instead of the relative pronoun in the ablative; as, Nardo perrunctum, quāle non perfectius mece lübörārint mănus; instead of quo. Hor. Epod. 5, 59. Anïmce quāles nĕque candìdiöres terra tülit ; for quìbus. Id. Sat. 1, 5, 41.

Rem. 11. Quam pro is used after comparatives, to express disproportion; as, Proelium atröcius quam pro nŭměro pugnantium, The battle was more severe than was proportionate to the number of the combatants. Liv. Minor, quam pro tŭmultu, eexdes. Tac.

Rem. 12. When two adjectives or adverbs are compared with each other, both are put in the comparative; as, Triumphus clārior quam grātior, A triumph more famous than acceptable. Liv. Fortius quam fēlicius belum gessērunt. So, also, when the comparative is formed by means of măgis; as, Măgis audacter quam părāte ad dicendum rëniëbat. Cic.-Tacitus uses the positive in one part of the proposition; as, Spéciem excelsa glōrice věhěmentius quam cante appětēbat ; or even in both; as, Clāris mäjōribus quam větustis.

Rem. 13. (a.) Potius and măgis are sometimes joined pleonastically with malle and prostāre, and also with comparatives; as, $A b$ omnïbus se dēsertos pŏtius quam abs te dēfensos esse mālunt. Cic. Qui măgis vēre vincĕre quan diu impĕräre mālit. Liv. Ut ēmơri pōtius quam servirre præstāret. Cic. Mîhi quavis füga pŏtius quam ulla prövincia esset optātior. Id. Quis măgis queat esse beātior? Virg.
(b.) So, also, the prepositions prae, ante, proter, and supra, are sometimes used with a comparative; as, Unus præ cētëris fortior exsurgit, Apul. Scëlëre ante ălios immänior omnes. Virg. They also occur with a superlative; as, Ante člios calrissimus. Nep. As these prepositions, when joiner 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, Nēve pütes ălium săpiente bōnōque beātum. Hor. Alius Lȳsippo. Id. But compare ${ }^{\text {S } 251, ~ N . ~}$

Rem. 15. By the poets ac and atque are sometimes used instead of quam after comparatives; as, Quanto constantior idem in vitiis, tanto lévius miser ac prior ille, qui, etc. Hor. Arctius atque hédērā prōcēra adstringitur îlex. Id.

Rem. 16. The degree of difference between objects compared is expressed by the ablative :-
(1.) Of substantives; as, Minor uno mense, Younger by one month. Hor. Sesquípède quam tu longior, Taller than you by a foot and a half. Plant. Hibernia dìmĩdio minor quam Britannia. Cæs. Dīmìdio minnöris constäbit, It will cost less by half. Cic. Quam mólestum est ūno digito plus häbēre !....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.' Süpěrat căpĭte et cervicibus altis. Virg.
(2.) Of neuter adjectives of quantity and nenter pronouns, in the singular number. Such are tanto, quanto, quo, eo, hoc, multo, parvo, paulo, nimio, ăliquanto, tantülo, altèro tanto (twice as much); as, Multo doctior es patre, Thou art (by) much more learned than thy father. The relative and demonstrative words, quanto-tanto, quo-eo, or quo-hoc, signifving 'by how much-by so much,' are often to be translated by an emphatic the ; as, Quanto sümus süperriöres, tanto nos submissius gérāmus, The more eminent we are, the more humbly let us conduct ourselves: lit. by how much-by so much-. Cic. Eo grärior est dölor, quo culpa est mäjor. Id. But the relative word generally precedes the demonstrative; as, Quo difficilius, hoc prceclärius. Id. Poetically, also, quam măgis-tam mágis are used instead of quanto măgis-tanto măgis. Virg. En. 7, 787: and quam mägis-tanto mägis. Lucr. 6, 459.-Iter multo fäcilius,much easier. Cæs. Parvo brérius, A little shorter. Plin. Eo măgis, The more. Cic. Eo minus. Id. Istoc mágis vuipŭlibis, So much the more. Plaut. Via altěro tanto longior,-as long again. Nep. Multo id maximum fuit. Liv.
(3.) The ablative of degree is joined not only with comparatives but with verbs which contain the idea of comparison; as, málo, prossto, süpèro, excello, antëcello, antëcédo, and others compounded with ante; and also with ante and post, in the sense of ' earlier' and 'later'; as, Multo prostat. Sall. Post paulo, A little after. Id. Multo ante lūcis adventum, Long before-. Id. Multis partībus is equivalent to multo; as, Nümëro multis partibus esset inf ërior. Cæs.

Note. The accusatives multum, tantum, quantum, and ăliquantum, are sometimes used instead of the corresponding ablatives; as, Aliquantum est ad rem ăvidior. Ter. Multum improbbiöres sunt. Plaut. Quantum dömo infërior, tantum glörià sŭpërior èvāsit. Val. Max. Cf. § 232, (3.)-So longe, 'far,' is frequently used for multo; as, Longe mëlior. Virg. Longe et multum antécellëre. Cic. So,' pars pëdis sesqui major,-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,

Pÿthăgorras, Tarquinio regnante, in Ităliam vēnit, Pythagoras came into Italy, in the reign of Tarquin. Cic. Lüpus, stimŭlante fame, captat orile, Hunger inciting, the wolf seeks the fold. Ovid. Mílites, pēcöre e longinquiöribus ricis ădacto, extrēmam fämem sustentäbant. Cæs. Hac ōrātiōne häbītā, concilivm dimīsit. Id. Galli, re cognītā, obsidīonem rèlinquunt. Id. Virtūte exceptā, nikil ămícitiā prasiàbilius pŭtêtis. 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 comected by when, since, while, although, after, as, etc., or by a verbal substantive; as, Te adjüvante, With thy assistance. Non-nisi te adjŭvante, Only with thy assistance, or not without thy assistance. Te non adjüvante, 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 regnäbat might be used; for hac ōrātiōne hăbütā;-quum hanc ōrātiōnem hăbuisset, or quum hace ōrātio hăbīta esset,-coricīlium dīmīsit. 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, Phosphơre, redde diem. Mart. Irruptūris tam infestis nātiōnĭbus. Liv. Quum concio plausum, meo nōmĭne rěcĭtando, dëdisset, -when my name was pronounced. Cic. Quum immŏlandā Iphĭgènīa tristis Calchas esset. Id. Quis est в̆nim, qui, nullis officii præceptis trādendis, phĭlösophum se audeat dicëre-without propounding any rules of duty. Cic. Cf. § 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, scrībit Thūc̄̄dides. Cic. Lěgio ex castris Varrōnis, adstante et inspectante ipso, signa sustŭlit. Cæs. Me dūce, ad hunc vōti fīnem, me mīlĭte, vēni. Ovid. So M. Porcius Cüto, vīvo quöque Scīpiōne, allātrāre ējus magnītūdīnem sŏlitus ěrat. Liv.
Note 2. Two participles must not be put together in the ablative absolute agreeing with the same noun. Thus, we may say Porcia sope marītum coyitantem invenërat, but not, Porcia mărīto cōgitante invento.

Note 3. Instead of the ablative absolute denoting a cause, an accusative with $\overline{0} b$ or propter occurs in Livy and in later writers; as, Cänöpum condidēre Spırtāni, ob sêpultum illic rectōrem nāvis Cănōpum. Tac. Dècemviri libros Sibyllinos inspiccére jussi sunt propter territos hŏminnes növis prödigiis. 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-Pÿthăgöras, Tarquĭnio regnante, in Ităliam venit, Pythagoras came into Italy during the reign of Tarquinius. Galli, re cogňtta, obsidiònem rélinquunt, The Gauls, having learned the fact, abandon the siege. So, Rex ăpum non nìsi migrātūro exāmỉne fơras prōcēdit, The king-bee does not go abroad, except when a swarm is about to emigrate. Plin.

Note 4. Non prius quam, non nësi, ut, vělut, and tamquam, are sometimes joined with the participle; as. Tilĕrius excessum Augusti non prius pülan fécit, quam Agrippä jüuěne intërempto, -not until. Suet. Galli heti, ut explōrāta cictôriū, ad castra Rōmānōrum pergunt. Cæs. Antiöchus, tamquam non transitūris in Asiam Rōmänis, 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, 'Cessar, ěquĭtātu præmisso, sulséquëbātur omnìbus 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 $a b$ is generally not expressed with this participle in the ablative absolute, as it is with other parts of the passire voice. Thus, Coesar, his dictis, concilium dimîsit, 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, Casar, hæec löcutus, concilium dimisit. In the following example, both constructions, are united: Ităque....agros Remörum dēpŏpŭlāti, omnibus ricis, æedificiisque 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. C̣æs. Vel exstincto rel èlapso ănimo, nullum rësìdère sensum. Cic. Tam multis glōriam ējus ădeptis. Plin. Lìtëras ad exercitus, tamquam ădepto princǐpātu, misit. 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, ădŏlescentŭlo dūce, efficerre possent, What they could do under the guidance of a youth. Cæs. Me suāsöre atque impulsūre, hoc factum, By my advice and instigation. Plaut. Hannibăle rīro, While Hannibal was living. Nep. Invītā Minerrāa, in opposition to one's genius. Cic. Colo sérēno, 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, Rōmam vēnit Märio consŭle, 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, cömes, adjutor and adjūtrix, auctor, testis, jūdex, interpres, măgister and mägistra, praceptor and procestrix; as, dūce nātūrā, in the sense of dūcente nätūr $\bar{a}$, under the guidance of nsture; $j u ̈ d \bar{c} c e ~ P o ̈ l y ̆ b i o, ~ a c c o r d i n g ~$ to the judgment of Polybius.

Rest. 8. A clause sometimes supplies the place of the noun; as, Nondum comperto quam in règiōnem vēnisset rex. Liv. Aulito vēnisse nuncium. Tac. Vāle dicto. Ovid. This construction, however, is confined to a few participles; as, audìto, cognito, comperto, explōrāto, despērāto, nunciāto, dicto, édicto. But the place of such participle is sometimes supplied by a neuter adjective in the ablative; as, Incerto pree ténebris quid pëtérent. Lir. Cf. R. 7, (a.) Haud cuiquam dübio quin hostium essent. Id. Juxta pēricicùlōso vēra an ficta prōnẹret. Tac.

Resc. 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 Serviliam, Brüti mütrem, non minus post mortem éjus, quam flōrente, cöluit, scil. eo,
i. e Brūto. Nep. (b) When it is the general word for person or persons followed by a descriptive relative clause; as, Hannübal Ib戸̄rum cöpias träjēcit, præmissis, qui Alpium transitus spécülārentur. Liv. (c) When the participle in the neuter singular corresponds to the impersonal construction of neuter verbs in the passive voice; as, In annis transgressu, multum certāto, Bardesünes vicit. Tac. Mihi, errāto, nulla věnia, recte facto, exigua laus prōpōtur. Cic. Quun, nondum pălam facto, vivi mortū̄que prōmiscue complōrārentur. Liv. Nam jam atāte eā sum, ut non siet, peccāto, mi iynosci æquum; i. e. si peccātum fuĕrit. Ter. Cf. § 274 , R. 5 , (b.)
(2.) So in descriptions of the weather; as, Tranquillo, scil. mări, the sea being tranquil. Liv. Sërēno, scil. coelo, the sky being clear. Id. Arānei sèrēno texunt, nübilo texunt,-in clear and in cloudy weather. Plin. Substantives when used thus are to be considered as ablatives of time; as, Cormitiis, lūdis, Circensibus. Suetonius has used proscriptione in the sense of 'during the proscription.' So pāce et Princīpe. 'Tac. Impěrio pŏpŭli Rōmāni. Cæs.

Rem. 10. This ablative is sometimes connected to the preceding clause by a conjunction; as, Cesar, quamquam obsǐdiōne Massilice rētardante, brĕvi tămen omnia sŭbēgit. Suet. Décemviri non ante, quam perlātis lëgĭbus, dēpōsǐtūros impĕrium esse aiēbant. Liv.

Rem. 11. A predicate ablative is sometimes added to passive participles of namıng, choosing, etc. § $210,(3$.$) ; as, Hasdrŭbăle impĕrătōre suffecto. Liv.$

## CONNECTION OF TENSES.

§ 258. 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 ( $\S 145, \mathrm{~N} .2$.), 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 ăgas. Scio quid ëgĕris. Scio quid actūrus sis.-Audìri quid ăgas, I have heard what you are doing. Audivi quid égëris. Audī̀ quid actūrus sis.-Audiam quid ăgas, etc.-Audīvëro quid ăgas, etc.
(b.) In the second class. Sciēbum quid ăgĕres. Sciēbam quid ēgisses. Sciēbam quid actīrus esses.-Audivi quid ăgĕrě̀s, I heard what you were doing. Audivi quid ēgisses. Audīvi quid actūrus esses.-Audīvěram quìd ăgěres, etc.
The following may serve as additional examples in the first class; viz. of principal tenses depending on,
(1.) The Present; as, Non suim ǐta hëbes, ut istuc dīcam. Cic. Quantum dőōrem accēpěrim, tu existĭmāre pŏtes. Id. Nec dŭbǐto quin rèdìtus ējus reîpūblíce sălūtāris fütūrus sit. Id.
(2: The Perfect Definite; as, Sǔtis prōvisum est, ut ne quid ăgĕre possint. Id. Quis mūsicis, पuis huic stüdio lilérärum se dēdidit, quin omnem illärum artium rim comprēhendèrit. Id. Dēfectiōnes sōlis prædictæ sunt, que, quantue, quando fütūræ sint. Id.
(3.) The Futeres; as, Sic făcillime, quanta ōrātōrum sit, semperque fuĕrit paucitas, jūdīcäbit. Id. Ad quos dies rèditūrus sim, scribam ad te. Id. Si scičris aspidem hütere uspiam, et relle ălĭquem imprüdentem süper eam assidère, cū̄jus mors tibl émölümentum factūra sit, imprơbe fēcēris, nǐsi mǒnuēris, ne assideat. Id.
The following, also, are additional examples in the second class, viz. of preterite tenses depending on,
(1.) The Imperfect; as, Unum illud extímescēbam, ne quid turpiter fácěrem, rel jam effēcissem. Cic. Non ènim dübítābam, quin eas libenter lectūrus esses. Id.
(2.) The Historical Perfect; as, Vēni in èjus villam ut libros inde prōmĕrem. Id. Hac quum essent nuntiāta, Vălērius classem extemplo ad ostium füminis duxit. Liv.
(3.) The Pluperfect; as, Păvor cēpĕrat milites, ne mortĭfĕrum esset vulnus. Liv. Ego ex ipso audiẹram, quam a te lībëräliter esset tractātus. Cic. Non sătis mỉhi constītèrat, cum älïquäne ănimi mei mölestiā, an pơtius lībenter te Athēnis visūrus essem. Id.

Remark 1. (a.) When the present is nsed in narration for the historical perfent, it may, like the latter, be followed by the imperfect; as, Légütos mittunt, ut pācem impeträrent. Cæs.
(b.) The present is also sometimes followed by the perfect sabjunctive in its historical sense; as, Pandite nunc Hëlicōna, deæe, cantusque mōvēte, Qui bello exciti rëges, quee quemque sécütce Complērint 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 progre;s, and not merely in its conclusion or result; and especially when the agent harl an intention accompanying him from the beginning to the end of the action; as, Féci hoc, ut inteliggeres, I have done this that you might understand; i. e. such was my intention from the beginning. Sunt philosơphi et fuērunt, qui omnino nullam häbḕre censērent hŭmānārum rerum procūrātiōnem 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 collēgoe Miltiädes văluěrit. 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 nihil misěrĭti sunt, ut incursiōnes facěrent et Vēios in änimo hăbuěrint oppugnäre. 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, Autiúcho päcem pětenti ad priöres conditiōnes nihil addítum, Africiño prredicante, nèque Rümãnis, si vincantur, ànämos münui, nëque, si vincant, sécundis rēbus insülescĕre. 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 pictöres quoque eos peccāre dicēbat, qui non sentirent, quid esset sautici. Cic. Ad te scripsi, te lëriter accūsans in eo, quod de me cito crēdidisses. Id.
(b.) In like manwer the tense of the subjunctive following the infinitive future is detcrmined by the verb on which such infinitive depends; as, Sol Plaěthonti fïlio factūrum 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 tense, according as it is used in the definite or in the historical sense; as, Arbitrümur nos ea prastitisse, que rătio et doctrina præscripsērit. Cic. Est quod gaxdeas te in ista löca vēnisse, ŭbi ăliquid süpĕre vidērēre. Id.
. (b.) But it may sometimes take a different tense, according to Rem. 2; as, Ita mîhi vĩdeor et esse Deos, et quäles essent sătis 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, Ardēbat autem Hortensius cŭp̌̌dītāte dīcendi sic, ut in nullo umquam flagrantius stŭdium vìděrim; i. e. that up to this time I have never seen. Cic. And, on the other hand, a preterite may follow a present to express a continuing action in the past; as, Scitōte oppïdum esse in Siciliä nullum, quo in oppido non isti dēlecta mŭlier ad lib̄̄̄linem 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 present time; as, Mëmörāre possem quibus in löcis muximas hostium cöprias pợŭlus Rōmānus parrıā münu 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 $s i$, nìsi, etsi, and ětiamsi, 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 negľ̆genda est, si omnīno exstinguit ănìmun, aut étiam optanda, si ăliquo eum dēlūcit, ŭbi sit fŭtūrus ceternus. Cic. Adhuc certe, nĭsi ëgo insānio, stulte omnia et incaute fìunt. 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, hovever, 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 § $145, \mathrm{I}$. 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, défende si pótes.-(c.) The present is also used for the imperfect or perfect, when it is joined with dum 'while'; as, Dum ĕgo in Sicǐliā sum, nulla stătua dējecta est. Cic. It is even so used by Livy in transitions from one event to another; as, Dum in Asiä bellum gěrĭtur, ne in AEtōlis quidem quiēte res fuërant. But the preterites 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 mŏnŭmentum cere pĕrennius; and Ovid, in like circumstances, Jamque opus exëgi. So, also, Panthus in Virgil, in order to de-
note the utter ruin of Troy, exclaims, Fuĭmus Tröes, fuit Ilium, i. e. we are nc longer Trojans, llium 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, Cesar Rübüconem transiit, Cæsar crossed the Rubicon. (c.) As in the epistolary style the imperfect is used instead of the present, when an incomplete action is spoken of ( $\$ 145, \mathrm{II} .3$ ), 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 étiamnunc may be used instead of tunc and étiamtum.
(d.) The historical perfect is sometimes used for the pluperfect in narration; as, Sed postquam aspexi, illico cognöri, But after I (had) looked at it, I recognized it immediately. Ter.-This is the usual construction after postquam (r posteäquam, übi, ŭbi prīmum, ut, ut prïmum, quuı primum, simul, simul ut, simul ac, or simul atque, all of which have the signification of 'as soon as,' and societimes after priusquam. But when several conditions are to be expressed in past time, the pluperfect is retained after these particles; as, Idem simŭlac se rèmisèrat, nëque causa subĕrat, quūre ănimi läbōrem perferret, luxŭriōsus répĕriēbätur. 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 dömo prŏfūgèrat, cum quinque nävibus 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, Dixěrat, et spissis noctis se condèdit 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, Vălebis, Farewell. Cic. And:-
(5.) The future perfect for the future; as, Alio loco de ōrätōrum ănimo et injüriss vìdēro, 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.

Resm. 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 sěquēmur dücem, numquam ăberrābĕ mus. Cic.; but by the future perfect, if the one must be completed before the other is performed; as, De Carthägine rèrēri non ante dēsinam, quam illam excisam esse cognōvëro. Cic. In English the present is often used instead of the future perfect; as, Făciam si pŏtěro, I will do it, if I can. Ut sēmentem fēcěris, ita métes, 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 ( $\S 145, \mathrm{~N} .2$.) is used, where the English idiom would have led us to expect the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive.
(a.) This construction ocours with the verbs ŏportet, nécesse est, dēbeo, convènit, possum, dëcet, licet, reor, pŭto; and with par, fas, cōpia, aequum, justum, consentäneum, sătis, sãtius, cequius, mëlius, ūtilius, optābilius, and optimum-est, èrat, 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 düci jam pridem öportēbat, i. e. thy execution was necessary and is still so; hence it ought to take place. Cic.-LLonge ūtilius fuit angustias ăditūs occüpāre, It would have been much better to occupy the pass. Curt. Cütilina ērūpit e sénätu triumphans gaudio, quem omnino vivum illinc exire non ǒportuěrat. Cic.
(c.) In both the periphrastic conjugations, also, the preteriies of the indicative have frequently the meaning of the subjunctive; as, Tam böna constanter proedra tènenda fuit,-ouglit 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 subjuictive is added, and it is here in particular that the indicative preterites of the periphrastic conjugations are employed; as, Que si dübia aut prờul essent, tämen omnes bönos reipūblicie consülëre dĕcēbat. Sall. Quodsi Cn. Pompeius prītātus esset hoc tempöre, tümen èrat mittendus. Cic.-Dēlēri tōtus exercitus pöthit, si fŭgjientes persc̈cūti victöres essent. Liv. Quas nüsi mănūmisisset, tormentis ětians dedendi fuêrunt. Cic. Si te non invënissem, pěrïtūrus per pracižitia 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 fämes quam pestilentia tristior ěrat; $n i$ annönce forret subventum,-would have been worse. Liv. The same is expressed by the verb cœpi instead of jam; as, Britanni circumire terga vincentium cœpěrant, ni, etc. Tac. And without jam; Effigies Pïsōnis traxĕrant in Gëmōnias ac dīvellēbant (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 pěractum ěrat bellum sine sanguine, si Pompeium opprǐmĕre Brundisii (Cæsar) pơtuisset. Hor.-The imperfect indicative is rarely used, also, for the imperfect subjunctive, when this tense is found in the hypothetical clause; as, Stultum èrat mönëre, nisi fiĕret. Quint.-Sometimes, also, the preterites of the indicative are thus used in the condition; as, At fuërat mélius, si te puer iste těnēbat. Ovid. See § 261, R. 1.
(2.) 'I ought' or 'I should,' is expressed by the indicative of dēben, and possum is in like manner often used for possem; as, Possum persëqui multa oblectämenta 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 cst, longum est, infinnitum est, e. g. narräre, etc., for, 'it would be difficult,' 'it would lead too farf,' '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, ütut, utcumque, etc., see $\S \S 139,5,(3$.$) and 191,I. R.1,(b.); as, Quidquid id est,$ titmeo Dănaos et dōna fërentes. Virg. Quem sors cumque dübit, lucro appōne. Hor. Sed quöquo mơdo sēse illud hăbet. 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 vèrum est, sive falsum, mihi quidem itta rënunciätum est. Later writers however use the subjunctive both with general relatives, etc., and with sive-sive.

## SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

§ 』60. 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 comective. In some cases, however, it is found in independent clauses, or in such, at lenst, as have no obvious dependence.
I. 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. Stellärum tanta est multhtüllo, ut nümérāri non possint,-that they cannot be counted. Quum Cesar esset in Gallia, When Cæsar was in Gaul. Cæs.
II. The subjunctive is used to express what is contingent or hypothetical, including possibility, power, liberty, will, duty, and desire.

Remapi 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, Mëdiocribus et quis ignoscas ritiis tëneor, I am subject to moderate faults, and such as you may excuse. Hor. Orat a Cesăre ut det sibi rèniam, 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 fäta fuissent ut cădĕrem, If it had been my fate that I should fall. Virg. Si possem, sänior essem, I would be wiser, if I could. Ovid. Cētéros răpěrem 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 nd to be accounted a perfect, but the subjunctive of the future perfect. See Rem. 4 and 7, (1.) But compare $\S 258$, R. 1, (b.) and R. 3, (b.)
(4.) The pluperfect subjunctive relates to past time, expressing a contingency, which is usnally future with respect to some past time mentioned in comnection with it; as, Id respondērunt se factūros esse, quam ille vento Aquil̄̀n 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, püto, arbitror, crēdo; also with vïdeo, cerno, and discerno; as, Mastïque (crēdëres victos) rédeunt in castra, 一one might have thought that they were defeated. Liv. Pécünice an fämue minus parcēret, haud fäcille discerněres. Sall. Qui vidēret équum Trōjànum intrōductum, urbem captam dīeéret. Cic. Quis umquam crēdèret? Id. Quis pŭtäret? Id.-The imperfect subjunctive is frequently used, also, for the pluperfect in interrogative expressions; as, Socrătes quum rŏgärētur cūjätem se esse dīeèret, Mundänum, inquit. Id. Quod si quis deus dīcĕret, numquam pŭtārem me in Acădēmiā tamquam phîlüsöphum dispütātürum, If any god had said....I never should have supposed. Cic.

Rem. 3. The su junctive in all its tenses may denote a supposition or concession; as, Vendat cedes vir bünus, Suppose an honest man is selling a house. Cic. Dixèrit Epicūrus, Grant that Epicurus could have said. Id. Vèrum anceps pugnce fuërat fortüna.-Fuisset, Grant that it might have been. Virg. Mülus cītis Ch. Curbo fuit. Fuérit alïs, He may have been to others. Cic.-This concessive subjunctive is equiralent to esto iut.

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, Forsǐtan quærātis, You may perhaps ask. Vělim sic existìmes, I would wish you to think so. Nēmo istud tìbi concēdat, or concessěrit, No one will grant you that. Hoc sine ullü dübitãtiōne confirmāvĕrim, ēlơquentiam rem esse omnium difficicllimam, This I will unhesitatingly affirm. Cic. Nil ĕgo contŭlĕrim jūcundo sānus ămīco. 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.) Voblo and its compounds are often so used in the present; as, Vèlim obvias mîh litěras crebro mittas, I wish that you would frequently send, etc. Cic. The perfect subjunctive is also rarcly used in the sense of a softened perfect indicative; as, Forsìtan tëmĕ̈re fēcērim, 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 ivěrim? Whither was I to have gone? Quo ivissem? Whither should I have gone? The answer implied in all these cases is, 'nowhere.' So, Quts dŭbĭtet quin in virtūte divitioe sint? Who can dount that riches consist in virtue? Cic. Quisquam nümen Jünōnis ădōret pratĕrea? Virg. Quidni, inquit, měmĭněrim? 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,
Mŏriar, si, etc. May I die, if, etc. Cic. Pěream, si non, etc. May I perish, if, etc. Ovid. So, Ne sim salvus. Cic. In mĕdia arma ruāmus, Let us rush.... Virg. Ne me attingas, scèleste! Do not touch me, villain! Ter. Făciat quod lübet, Let him do what he pleases. Id. The perfect is often so used; as, Ipse vidĕrit, Let him see to it himself. Cic. Quamid recte fäciam, vīděrint săphentes. Id. Měminěrìmus, étiam adversus infimos justitiam esse servandam. Id. Nihil incommơdo vălētüdènis tuce fëcēris. Id. Emas, non quod ơpus est, sed quod nëcesse est. Sen. Dōnis impii ne plūcāre audeant deos; Plătōnem audiant. Cic. Nātūram expellas furca, tămen usque rĕcurret. 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 dïcas; ne dicat ; ne dixëris. So, also, ne fuërit, for licet ne fuĕrit.
(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 dücas. In the latter case the perfect very frequently takes the place of the present; as, ne dixèris. 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 nëmo cir fortis dixĕrit, restĭtisses, mortem pugnans oppětisses,-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 fcur 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 subjunctive of the future perfect, and might not improperly be so called; as,

Tantum mǒneo, hoc tempus si āmīsěris, te esse nullum umquam măgis tdōneum rěpertūrum, 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 dübitat quin brěri Trüja sit pecritūra, He does not doubt that Troy will soon be destroyed. Cic. In hypothetical sentences the form with fuërin takes the place of a pluperfect subjunctive; as, Quis ënim dübitat, quin, si Ságuntīnis impigre tülissīnus öpen, tōtum in Hispüniam āversūri bellum fuĕrĭmus. Liv. The form in fuissem occurs also, but more rarely; as, Appäruit, quantam excìt̄̄tūra mōlem vēra fuisset clädes, quum, etc. See Periphrastic Conjugation, § $162,14$.
(3.) The future subjunctive passive is supplied, not by the participle in dus, but by $f u ̈ t u ̈ r u m ~ s i t ~ o r ~ e s s e t, ~ w i t h ~ u t ~ a n d ~ t h e ~ p r e s e n t ~ o r ~ i m p e r f e c t ~ o f ~ t h e ~ s u b-~$ junctive; as, Non dülito quin fưtūrum sit, ut laudētur, I do not doubt that he will be praised.

## PROTASIS AND APODOSIS.

§ 261. In a sentence containing a condition and a conclu sion, the former is called the protăsis, the latter the apodŏsis.

1. In the protasis of conditional clauses with $s i$ and its compounds, the imperfect aud 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 incitätum esse confīděrem, scriběrem plüra, 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 Neptünus, quod Thēseo prōmisę̌rat, non fēcisset, Thēseus fülio Hippŏly̆to 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 reelit, 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 väles, bëne est. Cic. Si quis antea mirābātur quid esset, ex hoc tempöre mîrêtur pötius.... Id.-The conjunetion si in the protasis is often omitted; as, Libet agros émi. Primum quaro 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, Cäsus médicusve lĕrārit agrum ex proctpiti, mäter dêlìra nĕcábit, (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 numquan ad sölem occäsum vivērem. Plaut.

Kem. 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 wete definite, the indicative would be used; as, Mëmöria minuitur, 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 ōrätio oblïqua, 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, $T u$, si hic sis, ăliter sentias, If you were here, you would think otherwise. Ter. Quos, ni mea cūra rĕsistat, jam flammé tŭlérint. Virg.

Rem. 4. The protasis of a conditional sentence is frequently not expressed, but implied; as, Magno mercentur Atrīdee, i. e. si possint. Virg.; or is contained in a participial clause; as, Agis, etsi a multǐtūdĭne victus, glōriā tămen omnes vicit. Just. So, also, when the participle is in the ablative absolute; as, Dōnärem tripǒdas-dīvĭte me scīlicet artium, quas äut Parrhăsius prōtŭlit, aut Scöpas. Hor. C. Mūcius Porsěnam interfĭcěre, prōpŏsítā sibbi morte, cōnātus est. Cic. It is only in later writers that the concessive conjunctions etsi, quamquam, and quamvis are expressed with the participle, but tămen 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 nŭmĕrum (nautārum) nāves hăbērent. Cic. Cimbri si stătim infesto agmine urbem pétissent, grande discrimen esset. Flor. Sometimes the imperfect, although the actions are completed, appears both in the protasis and the apodosis.

Rem. 6. Nisi, nı̌si vēro, and ň̌si forte are joined with the indicative, when they introduce a correction. Nisi then signifies 'except'; as, Nescio; nirsi hoc video. Cic. Nisi vëro, and nǐsi forte, 'unless perhaps,' introduce an exception, and imply its improbability; as, Nëmo fĕre saltat söbrius, ň̌si 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 Glauses.

## § 262. A clause denoting the purpose, object, or result of

 a preceding proposition, takes the subjunctive after $u t, n e, q u o$, quin, and quŏmĭnus; as,Ea non, ut te instrituérem, scripsi, I did not write that in order to instruct you. Cic. Irritant ad pugnandum, quo fiant acriōres, They stimulate them to fight, that they may become fiercer. Varr.

Remark 1. Ut or $\breve{u} t i$, 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, čta, ădeo, tam, tālis, tantūs, is, $\bar{e} j u s m o ̆ d i$, etc., in the preceding clause; as,

Id mïhi sic ërit grātum, ut grātius esse nĭhil possit, That will be so agreeable to me, that nothing can be more so. Cic. Non sum ita hëbes, ut istuc dīcam. Id. Nëque tam èrāmus āmentes, ut explōräta nōbis esset victōria. Id. Tantum indulsit dŏlōri, ut eum piëtas vincěret. Nep. Ita and tam are sometimes omitted; as, Epämīnondas fuit ètiam disertus, ut nëmo Thëbänus ei par esset ēlơquentiā, instead of tam disertus. Id. Esse ðportet ut vivas, non viveére ut ědas. Auct. ad Her. dol eff tcit ut omnia fōreant. Cic.

Rem. 2. Ut, signifying 'even if' or 'althongh,' expresses a supposition merely as a conception, and accordingly takes the subjunctive; as,

Ut dēsint vires, tămen est laudanda roluntas, Though strength be wanting, yet the will is to be praised. Ovid. Ut, in this sense, takes the negative non; as, Exercìtus si pãcis nömen audiĕrit, ut non rěfẽrat pédem (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 contĭgit, ut patriam ex servitūte in lībertātem vindīcāret. Nep. Sěquîtur igitur, ute étiam vitia sint parca. Cic. Rèliquum est, ut égŏmet milhi consŭlam. Nep. Restat igìtur, ut mōtus astrōrum sit rōluntãrius. Cic. Extrēmum illud est, nt te ōrem et obsecrem. Id.
Note 1. To this principle may be referred the following verbs and phrases signifying 'it happens,' viz. fit, fièri non pötest, accidit, incidit, contingit, èvènit, $\bar{u} s u$ rènit, 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. fútürum, extrèmum, pröpe, proximum, and rëliquum-est, rélinquitur, séquïtur, restat, and süpérest ; 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 hŏmini contingit ădire Corrinthum. 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.-Sěquitur 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 möris est, consuētūdo or consuētūdinis est, and nätüra or consuētüdo fert, are often followed by ut instead of the infinitive.- $C t$ also occurs occasionally after many such phrases as nơrum est, rārum, nätūrāle, nécesse, üsitātum, mïrum, singŭläre-est, etc., and after aquum, rectum, vērum, ūtile, vērisimile, and integrum-est.

For other uses of $u t$, with the subjunctive, see § 273.
Remr. 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 ris fäciam? What do you wish (that) I should do? Ter. Insāni fëriant sine litơra fluctus. Virg. Tentes dissìmülāre rögat. Ovid. Id sinas ōro. Id. Se suädēre, dỉxit, Pharnabäzo id négōtii dăret. Nep. Accēdat ŏportet actio văria. Cic. Fac cōgĭtes. Sall. So, Vide ex nā̃i effërantur; quce, etc. Plaut

[^19]Rem. 5. Nē, 'that not,' 'in order that not,' or 'lest,' expresses a purpose negatively; as,

Güra ne quid ei disit, Take care that nothing be wanting to him. Cic. Nēmo prüdens pūnit, ut ait Pläto, quia peccātum est, sed ne peccêtur. Id. Ut ne is frequently used for ne, especially in solemn discourse, and hence in laws; as, Opèra détur, ut jūdicia ne fiant. Id. Quo ne is used in the same manner in one passage of Horace. Missus ad hoc-quo ne per :ăcuum Römäno incurrëret hos$t i s$.-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 ogrōtäbam, ut ad nuptias tuas vẽnīre 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 ăliēnos, sed invītātus ad tuos isse videāris. Cic.

Rem. 6. Nē is often omitted after căve ; as, Cüve pütes, Take care not to suppose. Cic. Compare § 267, R. 3.
Rem. 7. After mëtuo, ť̆meo, vëreor, and other expressions denoting fear or caution, $n \bar{e}$ must be rendered by that or lest, and ut by that not.

Note 3. To the verbs mĕtuo, tïmeo, and verreor are to be added the substantives expressing fear, apprehension or danger, and the verbs terreo, conterreo, dèterreo, căveo, to be on one's guard, video and observo in requests (as, vïde, vidète and videndum est), in the sense of 'to consider'; as,

Milo mëtuēbat, ne a servis indiccārētur, Milo feared that he should be betrayed by his servants. Cic. Vĕreor, ne, dum mĭnuĕre vělim lăbōrem, augeam. Id. Păvor érat, ne castra hostis aggrĕdĕrētur. Liv. Illa duo rëreor, ut tìbi possim concēdĕre, I fear that I cannot grant.... Cic. Cüvendum est ne assentātōribus pătěf ăciāmus aures, neu ădülāri nos sĭnämus. Cic. Vìde ne hoc tùbi obsit. Terruit gentes, grăve ne rëdīret sēcülum Pyrrhce. Multïtüdīnem dēterrent, ne frümentum confërant. Cæs. Me mǐsěrum! ne prōna cădas. Ovid.

Note 4. Nēve or neu is used as a continuative after $u t$ 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, Lëgern tülit, ne quis ante actārum rērum accūsārētur, nēve multārētur. Nep. Cosar mīlites ñon
 neu perturbārentur ănimo-prolii committendi signum dĕllit. Cæs. Nëque, also, is sometimes used for et ne after ut and ne; as, Ut ea prctermittam, něque eos appellem. Cic. Cur non sancītis ne vīcinus patricio sit plèbeius, nec eōdem•ìtinëre eat. Liv.-Ne non is sometimes used for ut after verbs of fearing; as, Timeo ne non impětrem, I fear I shall not obtain it.

Rem. 8. The proposition on which the subjunctive with $u t$ and $n \bar{e}$ depends, is sometimes omitted; as, Ut ǐta dīcam. Cic. Ne singǔlos nōmĭnem. Liv.

Note 5. Nēdum, like ne, takes the subjunctive; as, Optïmis tempŏribus clärissĭmi vïri vim trībünĭciam sustinēre non pötuērunt: nēdum his tempŏribus sine jūdíciōrum rèmĕdiis salvi esse possīmus,-still less, etc. Cic. Ne is sometimes used in the sense of nēdum; as, Nơvam eam pötestätem (scil. trïbūnörum plēbis) ērrpère patrtbus nostris, ne nunc dulcēdīne sémel capti fêrant dësidërium. Liv.Nēdum without a verb has the meaning of an adverb, and commonly follows a negative; as, Egre ïnermis tanta multitūdo, nērlum armäta, sustīnēri pøtest. Liv. $N e$, also, is used in the same manner in Cic. Fam. 9, 26.
Rem. 9. $Q u \bar{o}$, 'that,' 'in order that,' or, 'that by this means,' especially with a comparative; non qū̄, 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 quōminnus, 'that not,' after clauses denoting hinderance, take the subjunctive; as,

Adjūta me, quo id fīat făcǐlius, Aid me, that that may be done more easily. Ter. Non quo répūblīcā sit mühi quicquam cārius, sed despḕrātis êtiam Hippöcrătes vétat ădhíbëre médicinam. Cic. Non quod sōla ornent, sed quod excellant. Id. Nëque rëcūsūvit, quo mĭnus lĕgis ponam sŭbīret. Nep. Ego me dŭcem in civrīli bello nĕgävi esse, non quin rectum esset, sed quia, etc. Cic. And instcad of non quin we may say non quo non, non quod non, or non qria non; and for non qued, non eo quod, or non ideo 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, rëpěrǐcer, invěnïtur etc., vix est, agre répěrütur, etc.; as, Messänam némo vènit, quin vìdèrit, i. e. qui non vëdërit, No one came to Messana who did not see. Cic. Něgo ullam pictüram fuisse....quin conquīsiĕrit, i. e. quam non, etc. Id. Nīhil est, quin măle narrando possit dēprā̀ā̀ri. Ter. Quis est, quin cernat, quanta vis sit in sensỉus? Cic.
Note 6. When quin is used for the relative it is commonly equivalent to the nominative qui, quee, quod, but it is sometimes used in prose instead of the accusative, and sometimes after dies for $q u o$, as the ablative of time; as, Dies fĕre nullus est, quin hic Satrius dotmum meam ventîtet, i. e. quo-non ventitet. Cic.-Qui non is often used for quin; as, Quis ènim 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 nĕgat ullum cibum esse tam grăvem, quin is die et nocte concöquätur. Cic. Nihil est quod sensum hăbeat, quin id intëreat. Id.-So, also, the place of quin is supplied by ut non; as, Augustus numquam fïlios suos pơpŭlo commendüvit ut non adjicëret (without adding) si mërēbuntur. 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 făcěre non possum, fierri non portest, nulla causa est, quid causce est? nihil causce est; as, Făcëre non possum quin ad te mittam, i. e. ut non, etc. Cic. Numquam tam mäle est Sicŭlis, quin ălĭquid făcēte et commóde dīcant. Cic. Numquam accédo, quin abs te ăbeam doctior,-withont going from you wiser. Ter.
Note 7. Quin takes the subjunctive also after the negative expressions non dübito, non est dübium, non ambigo, I doubt not; non ăbest; nihil, paulum, non procul, haud multum äbest; non, vix, agre alstineo; tĕnēre me, or tempëräre mihi non possum; non impédio, non récūso, nĕhil prcetermitto, 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 ăbest, 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 dübĭto quin offensiōnem negligentice vitàre atque effügére non possum. Cic. Dübitandum non est quin numquam possit ūtilitas cum hơnestāte contendëre. Id.

Note 8. In Nepos, non dülito, 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 rerb following has the same subject, dübito and non dübito are generally followed by the infinitive; as, Ciceéro non dŭbĭtābat conjürātos supplicio af-fícěre.-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 $a n$, 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 $q u \bar{i}$ and $n \bar{e}$, i. e. non, and in this sense is joined with the indicative in questions implying an exhortation; as, Quin conscendimus équos? Why not mount our horses? In this sense it is also joined with the imperative; as, Quin dic stätim, 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 $n e$, and, if a negative precedes, quin also may be used, are dèterreo, impédio, intercēdo, obsisto, obsto, offício, pröhübeo, rěcūso, and rëpugno. It occurs also after stat or fit per me, I am the cause, non pugno, nihil möror, non confĩneo me, etc.

Note. Impědio, déterreo, and rècūso are sometimes, and prohibeo freqnently followed by the infinitive. Instead of quöminus, quo sécius is sometimes used.
§ 283. 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 $\breve{u} t \breve{\imath} n a m, u ̆ t i,-\uparrow$ $O!$ and $O!s i$; as,
Utinam minus vitce cŭpidi fuissēmus! O that we had been less attached to life! Cic. O si sŏlitte quicquam virtütis ădesset! 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 ütïnam ne and ütĭnam non. Utïnam is sometimes omitted; as, Técum lūdĕre sīcut ipsa possem! C̣atull.

## B. Adverbial Clauses.

2. (1.) Quamris, however; licet, although; tamquam, tamquam si, $q u \bar{a} s i$, ac si, ut si, vĕlut, vĕlut si, vĕlŭti, sīcŭuti, and ceu, as if; mŏdo, dum, and dummódo, provided,-take the subjunctive; as,

Quamvis ille fêlix sit, tămen, etc. However happy he may be, still, etc. Cic. $V$ Veritas licet nullum dëfensörem obtinneat, Though truth should obtain no defender. Id. Tamquan clausa sit Asia, sic nihil perfertur ad nos. Id. Sed quid ègo lis testībus ütor, quăsi res dübia aut obscüra sit? Id. Me omnibus rēbus, juxta ac si meus fräter esset, sustentāvit, He supported me in every thing, just as though he were my brother. Id. Similiter fäcĕre eos,-ut si nauke certīrent, üter, etc. Id. Absèntis Ariŏristi crüdēltātem, vèlut si cōram ădesset, hòrrērent. Cæs. Inque sĭnus cüros, vèlŭti cognoscèret, îbat. Ovid. Sīcŭti jurgio lăcessìtus föret, in sĭnütum vènit. Sall. Hic vēro inyentem pugnam, ceı cètërı nusquam bella förent. Virg. Odërint dum mĕtuant. Att. in Cic. Münent ingĕnia sěnibus, mŏdo permăneat stüdium et industria. Cic. Omnia hŏnesta neglignint dummõdo pŏtentıum consěquantur, They disregard every honorable principle, provided they can obtain power. Id.

Note. Módo, dum, and dummordo, when joined with a negation, become mödo ne, dum ne, and dummódo ne.
(2.) Quamris (although) is in Cicero joined with a principal tense of the subjunctive; as, Quamvis non fuēris suäsor, appröbätor certe fuisti. Cic. In later writers it is often used with the indicative; as, Feelicem Niöben, quanvis tot fünëra vidit. Ovid. So also once in Cicero, Quamvis patrem suum numquam viděrat. 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. Grachus dixit, sibi in somnis Ti. frätrem vīsum esse dī̀ĕre, quam vellet cunctārētur, tämen, etc.-Quamxis 'however much,' as an adverb, governs no particular mood.
(4.) Etsi, tămetsi, cven if, although, and quamquam, although, commonly introduce an indicative clause:-ětiamsi 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 preesente Lücullo löquar. Cic. Vi rĕgĕre putriam quamquam possis. Sall. Jug. 3. Fìlius quamquam Thĕtidos mărīne Dardănas 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, Egnätii rem ut tueãre wque a te péto, ac si mea nëyötia essent, i. e. ac pétĕrem, si mea nĕgötia essent, as I would pray if, etc. Cic.
3. After antëquam 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 équos, priusquam päbüla gustassent Trōje, Xanthumque bibissent. Virg. Priusquam incĭpias, consulto opus est, Before you begin there is need of counsel. Sall.
4. (1.) Dum, dōnec, and quoad, signifying until, are followed by the subjunctive, if they refer to the attainment of an object; as,

Dum hic věniret, lơcum rèlinquĕre nōluit, He was unwilling to leave the place until he (Milo) should come. Cic. Nihil püto tībi esse ūtilius quam oppèriri quoad scire possis, quid tibi ăgendum sit. Id. Cornu têtendèt, et duxit longe, dōnec currāta coirrent inter se cäpita. Virg.-In the sense of 'as long as,' these particles take the indicative, but Tacitus joins dōnec 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. $\S 259$, 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 dêfendit injūriam, néque rę̣pulsat a suis, quum pŏtest, injuste făcit. Cic. Quum recte närigāri põtêrit, tum nīriges. Id. Crēdo tum, quum Sicilia fiōrēbat ơpibus et cōpiis, magna artificicia fuisse in eā insülū. Id. Quum tot sustíneas et tanta nĕgötia, peccem, si murrer tua tempöra, Since you are burdened with so many and so important affairs, I should do wrong, if I should occupy your time. Hor. Quum vita sine ämicis métus plēna sit, rátio ipsa nŏnet ămicitzas compärāre. 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 merely a particle of time, with no refe: ance to cause and effiect, 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 rēlagiōnem păpŭlo vẽnisse sentiret, ad sênātum rětülit. Cic. Alexander, quum intērēmisset Cllìtum, vix mãnus 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 coepêrat, däbat se lubōri. Cic. Quum rŏsam viděrat, tum incipëre 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 intërea or intërim, to express simultaneous occurrences; as, Cütülus cèpit magnum suæe virtütis fructum, quum omnes prơpe ūnā rōce, in eo ipso vos spem häbitüros esse, dixistis. Cic. Coedēbātur virgis
in médio fơro Messānce cīvis Rōmānus, jūdīces, quum intĕrea nulla vox ălia istius misèri audiēbātur, nissi hcec: cīvis Rōmänus sum. Id.

Rem. 4. Quum, for the most part preceded by an adverb, as, jam, nondum, vix, cegre, or joined with rëpente or sübito 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 $\S 261$.

## 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 $u t$ with a personal or demonstrative pronoun, it takes the subjunctive.

[^20]2. When the relative is equivalent to quamquam is, etsi is, or dummödo is, it takes the subjunctive; as,
Laco, consilii quamvis ēgrëgii, quod non ipse afferret, innimícus, Laco, an opponent of any measure, however excellent, provided he did not himself propose it. Tac. Tu ăquam a pūmìce postülus, qui ipsus sitiat. Plaut. Nikil mölestum, quod non dēsīdères, i. e. dummödo id. Cic.
3. Quod, in restrictive clauses, takes the subjunctive; as,

Quod sciam, as far as I know; quod mĕminěrim, as far as I recollect; quod ĕgo intelligam ; quod intellĭgi possit; quod conjectūr̄ā prōvidēri possit; quod salvā fide: possin; quod commodo tuo fiat, etc.-Quidem is sometimes added to the relative in such sentences. Quod sine mơlestiā tuä fīat, So far as it can be done without troubling you. Cic. In the phrases quantum possum, ẹuantum égo perspicio, on the other hand, the indicative is used.
4. A relative clause, after the comparative followed by quam, takes the subjunctive; as,

Möjor sum, quann cui possit fortūna nöcēre, i. e. quam ut mihi, etc., I am too great for fortune to be able to injure me. Ovid. Aul̄̀̄à rōce proccōnis mājus gaudium fuit, quan quod ünitersum hơmines cāpèrent, Upon the herald's voice being heard, the joy was ton 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 litēris longior fui, quam aut vellem, aut quam me pütāri före:-and so frequently with the verbs velle and posse.
5. A relative clause expressing a purpose, aim, or motive, and equivalent to $u t$ with a personal or demonstrative pronoun, takes the subjunctive; as,

Lícëdcemōnii ľ̄gātos 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. Cresar équìtâtum omnem pramittit, qui videant, quas in partes iter füciant. Cæs. Sunt autem multi, qui ēripiunt àliis, quod áliis largiantur. Cic. Assidue répėtant, quas perdant, Bēlicles undas. Ovid.

Rem. 2. So also with relative adverbs; as, Lampsăcum ei (Thĕmistocli) rex dōnārat, unde rīnum sūmēret, i. e. ex quā or ut inde, etc. Nep. Süper täbernācülum rëgis, unde ab omnibus conspici posset, ìmägo sōlis crystallo inclüsa fulgèbat. Curt.
6. A relative clause with the subjunçtive 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 dīcěrent, There were at that time some who said. Sall. Erant, quībus appëtentior fämee, vidērētur, There were those to whom he appeared too desirous of faune. Tac. Sunt, qui censeant, üna ánimum et corpus oc cidēre. Cic. Erunt, qui existïmãri vèlint. Id. Si quis èrit, qui perpėtuam ōrā̃iōnem dē-idēret, altén à actiōne audiet. Id. Vēnient légiōnes, quæ néque me inultunn néque te impūnitum pătiantur. Tac. So after est tollowed by quod, in the sense of 'there is reason why'; as, fist quod gaudeas, You have cause to rejoice. Plaut. Est quod visam dómum. Id. Si est quod dēsit, ne beãtus quidem $\epsilon s t$. Cic.

Note 1. The expressions included in the rule are est, sunt, adest, prasto sunt, exsistunt, exüriuntur, invę̃ıiuntur, rępĕriuntur, (scil. hümĭnes); si quis est, tempus fuit, tempus थどпiet, etc.

Rem. 3. The same construction occurs with relative particles used indefinitely; as, Est unde hacc fîant. Si est culpam ut Antipho in se admisērit, If it chance that, etc. Ter. Est ŭbi iul isto modo valleat. Cic. So est cur and est ut in the sense of est cur; as, Ille érat, ut ōdisset défensörem sölütis mear, 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 quidrm, sunt nonnulli, sunt multi, etc., when referring to definite persons, the relative takes the indicative; as, Sunt örätionts quadam, quas Menocrito däbo. Cic.

Rem. 5. The indicative is sometimes, though rarels, used after sunt qui, even when taken indefinitely, especially in the poets; as, Sunt, quos jŭvat. Hor. Sunt qui ìta dicunt. Sall.
7. A relative clause after a general negative, or an interrogative expression implying a negative, takes the subjunctive ; as,

Nēmo est, qui haud intelligat, There is no one who does not understand. Cic. Nulla res est, quæ perferre possit contīnuum lüb̄̄rem, There is nothing which can endure perpetual labor. Quint. Nullu pars est corporris, quæ non sit minor. Id. Nilil est, quod tam misĕros făciat, quam impiētas et scëlus. Cic. In fóro vix dëcinnus quisque est, qui ipsus sèse noscat. Plaut. Quis est, qui uutilia fŭgiat? Who is there that shmens what is useful? Cic. Quce lutebra est, in quam non intret métus mortis? Sen. Quid dulcius quam hăbēre, quīcum omnia audeas sic loqui ut tēcum? Cic. (See respecting this use of the indefinite quïcum rather than the definite quöeum, §136, R. 1.) An est quisquam, qui hoc ignōret? Is there any one who is ignorant of this? Id. Numquid est mäli, quod non dixerris? Ter.

Note 2. General negatives are nẽmo, nullus, ň̌hil, ūnus non, ălius 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, quce, quod; quantus, ŭter. ecquis, numquis, an quisquam, an ălžquis, quŏtus quisque, quŏtus, etc., with est? quot, quam multi, etc., with sunt?

Note 3. The same construction is used after non est, nihil est, quill est, numquid est, etc., followed by quod, cur, quäre, 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. Nihil est, quod adventum nostrum pertïmescas. Cic. Quid est, quod de ëjus civitūte dŭbĭtes? Id. Quceris a me, quid égo Cătìlinam neëtuam. Nilhil, et cūrä̀i ne quis mètuèrret. Quid est, cur virtus ipsa per se non efficiat beätos? Id.-So after non hăbeo, or nîhil hăbeo; as, Non hăbeo, quod te accūsem. Cic. Nil hăbeo, quod ăgam, I have nothing to do. Hor. Nihil häbeo, quod ad te scribam. Cic. So without a negative, De quibus häbeo ipse, quid sentiam. Id. Causa or, with quid and nïhil, causce, is sometimes added; as, Non fuit causa, cur postüläres. Id. Quid ërat causce, cur mĕtuĕret. 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; as, $N \bar{e}$ emo est, qui nesciut, There is no one who is ignorant, i. e. no one 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 stăbile est, quod infïdum est Nothing which is faithless is firm. Cic.
8. (1.) A relative clause expressing the reason of what goes before, takes the subjunctive; as,

Peccārisse mıthi videor, qui a te discessĕrim, I think I did wrong in leaving you. Cic. Inertiam accüsas ădülescentium, qui istam artem non édiscant, You blame the idleness of the young men, because they do not learn that art. Id. O fortūnäte ădülescens, qui tuæe virtūtis Hömērum prcecōnem invēnēris!-in having found. Id. Cănīnius fuit nī̀rifficā vǐgĭlantiā, qui suo tōto consülütu somnums non vìdĕrit,-since, etc. Id.
(2.) Sometimes, instead of qui alone, ut qui, quippe qui, or utpŏte $q u i$, is used, generally with the subjunctive; as,

Convīvia cum patre non ìnībat, quippe qui ne in oppiddum quìdem nissi perrāro vēnisset. Cic. Nëque Antōnius prớcul ăbĕrat, utpŏte qui mayno exercītus sĕquĕrētur. Sall. But sometimes with the indicative in Sallust and Livy; as, Quippe qui omnia vīcērat. Sall.
9. After dignus, indignus, aptus, and üdöneus, a relative clause takes the subjunctive; as,

Vidētur, qui áliquando imperret, dignus esse, He seems to be worthy at some time to command. Cic. Rustici nostri quum fidem ălicījus bǒnitätemque laulant, dignum esse dicunt, quīcum in tënebris mǐces. Id. Nulla vidēbütur aptivr per-
sōna, quæ de atāte lŏquěrētur. Id. Pompeius ìōneus non est, qui impetret. Id. Elt rem ídōneam, de quā quærātur, et hŏmines dignos, quĭbuscum dissečrātur, 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 lībertãte dignus fuit, cui nostra sălus cära 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 cantări dignus. Virg. :-and sometimes ut ; as, Eras dignus, ut hăbēres integram mănum. Quint.
10. A relative clause, after $\bar{u} n u s$, sōlus, prīmus, etc., restricting the affirmation to a particular subject, takes the subjunctive; as,
Hacc est unna contentio, quæ ădhuc permănsěrit, This is the only dispute which has remained till this time. Cic. Voluptas est sōla, quæ nos voccet ad se, et allīceat suapte natürā, 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 hăbiti sunt fortissìmi, qui summam impěrii pŏtīrentur, Those were always accounted the bravest, who obtained the supreme dominion. Nep. Quemcumque lictor jussu consŭlis prẹhendisset, tribünus mitti jŭbébat. Liv. Ut quisque maxime lăbōrāret löcus, aut ipse occurrēbat, aut ăliqquos mittēbat. So after si quis or qui; as, Si qui rem málitiōsius gessisset, dèdécus existimābant. Cic. Quơtiens süper tāli nĕgōtio consultảret, èdîtā dömūs parte ūtēbätur. Tac. Nec quisquam Pyrrhum, quā tŭlisset impétum, sustinēre văluit.-It is sometime $\downarrow$ found in like manner after quum, $\mathfrak{u} b i, u t$, and $s i$ when used in the sense of quum, when repeated actions are spoken of; as, Id ŭbi dixisset, hastam in fines eōrum èmittébat. Liv. Sin Nümìdǎ prơpius accessissent, íbi vèro virtūtem ostendëre. 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 § 145̌, I. 2.); as, Ubi de magnã rirtūte et glōriā bōnōrum měmŏres, que sibi quisque, etc. Sall.
Nots 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 accusative with the infinitive. Cf. $\$ 272$. Thus:-

Quālis sit ănimus, ipse ánimus nescit, The mind itself knows not what the mind is. Cic. Cridibile non est, quantum scribam, It is incredible how much I write. Id. Quis yo sim, me rógitus? Do you ask me who I am? Plaut. Ad te quid scribam nescio. Cic. Nec quid scrivam laübeo, Nor have I any thing to write. Id. Döce me, ùbi sint dii, Inform me where the gods are. Id. Incertum est, quo te lŏco mors exspectet. Sen. Ep. Quam pridem sibi hērēditas vēnisset, dücet. Id. Nunc accipe, quāre dēsīpiant omnes. Hor. Id utrum illi sentiant, an
vèro sĭmŭlent, tu intellĭges. Cic. Qucero, num tu sěnātui causam tuam permittas. Id. Vides, ut altā stet nìve candīdum Sōracte. Hor. Nescit, vītăne fruātur, an sit ăpul mänes. Ovid.

Note 2. All interrogatives whether adjectives, pronouns, or particles, may serve as connectives of clauses containing indirect questions; as,
 quorsum, quamdiu, quamdūdum, quamprìidem, quơties, cur, quāre, quamobrem, quenıad-


Remark 1. The indicative is frequently used in dependent questions, especially in Terence and Plautus and occasionally in later poets; as, Vide äu äriticu 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, Quarämus übi mălëfĭcium est, Let us seek there, where the crime actually is. Cic. Nīhil est admïräbilius, quam quōmŏdo ille mortem fîlii tŭlit.

Rem. 2. In double questions, 'whether-or,' the first may be introduced by utrum, or the enclitic $n e$, or without an interrogative particle. Hence there are four forms of double questions,-1. utrum (or utrum ne),-an. 2. utrum, 一an (anne). 3. -ne, _an. 4. -ne, —— -ne; as, Multum intĕrest, utrum laus imminnuātur, an sălus dēsěrātur. 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, neene sint, queeritur. Cic.-Nene, an-an, or num-num scarcely occur except in poetical or unclassical language.

Rem. 3. Dübito, dübium est, or incertum est an, dèlībĕro or haesto 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 cäsu nescio quo in ea temporra cetas nostra inčidit. Cic. Lūcus, nescio quo cäsu, nocturno temporre incensus est. Nep. So, also, nescio quömŏdo, 'somehow' or 'in some way'; as, Sed nescio quōmŏ́do, inhheret in mentibus quăsi augŭrium. Cic. In like manner mïrum quam, mirum quantum, nimium quantum, and the like, when united to express only one idea, do not affect the mood of the verb; as, Săles in dicendo nimium quantum vălent,-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,

[^21]Remark 1. Hence the subjunctive is used in general senterzes, in which the class of things mentioned exists only as a conception or icea, while the individual thing has a real existence; as, Est ënim ulciscendi et piniendi müdus, atque land scio an sátis sit eum qui lăcessièrit injūrice suce pxnitēre, i. e. each individual offender of the class.

Prem. 2. When the principal proposition contains a subjunctive denoting a result, after ita, tam, tälis, etc., the inserted clause has the indicative; as, Asia vēro tum ơpüma est et fertilis, ut-multitūdine eārum rērum, quæ exportantur, fücile omnibus terris antëcellit. Cic. The same is the case in definitions; as, Vidïre igitur oportet, que sint convénientia cum ipso nĕgötio, loc cst, quæ ab re sēpürāre non possunt. Cic.-So also explanatory clanses, especially circumlocutions introduced by a relative pronoun, are sometimes found with the indicative; as, Ităque ille Märius item eximie L. Plötium dillexit, cūjus ingënio pütübat ea, quæ gessèrat, posse cèlebrāri. Cic.

Note. To this rule belongs the construction of the oratio obliqua, '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, Cæsar said, 'I came, I saw, I conquered,' is direct,-Cæsar said, that 'he came, saw, and conquered,' is indirect discourse.
2. In the ōrātio obliqqua, 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 langnage of Marcus Antonius, make use, the former of the ōrätio directa, the latter of the ōrātio obliqua;Antōnius inquit, 'Ars eärum rèrum est, quæ sciuntur', Antonius says,' Art belongs to those things which are known.' Cic. Antönius inquit, artem eärum rērum esse, quæ sciantur, Antonius says, that 'art belongs to those things which are known.' Quint.

So, Söcrătes dīcère sölëbat, omnes, in eo quod scirent, sătis esse èlơquentes, Socrates was accustomed to say, that 'all were sufficiently eloquent in that which they understood? Cic. Cüto mirāri se aī̄bat, quod non rīdēret hăruspex, hăruspìcem quum vidisset. Id. Négat jus esse, qui miles non sit, pugnäre cum hoste. Id. Indiynnäbantur ibi esse impérium, ŭbi non esset libertas. Liv. Ităque Athënienses, quod hơnestum non esset, id ne ūtile quădem (esse) pütävèrunt. Cic.

Remark 1. (a.) When the subjunctive would be necessary in the örãtic directa, to denote liberty, power, etc., the same remains in the örätio obliqua, and is not changed into the infinitive with an accusative; as, Ad hoec Ariorvistus respondit, quum rellet, congrědërētur, To this Ariovistus replied, that 'he might meet him when he pleased.' Cæs. In the ōrātio directa, this would be congrèdiāris.
(b.) The imperative in the drãtio directa is, in the orãtio obliqua, changed into the subjunctive; as, hoc mihi dicite, which in the ōrätio obliqqua is, hoc sibi dicant, or hoc sibi dicérent, according to the tense of the leading verb.
(c.) So also direct questions addressed to the second person, when changed from direct to indirect sperch, become subjunctives. Liv. 6, 37.-But such questions when not addressed to the second person are expressed in the $\delta r a \bar{a} t i o$ obliqua by the accusative with the infinitive; as when in direct speech we sar,
 mëmơriam dèponère? The orātio obliqua will be, Casar respondit (histor. perf.)si rêtéris contümélice oblirisci rellet, num étiam rêcentum ìnüriārum-mémóriam depönerre posse? Cæs. 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 Cæsar; as, Quis päti posset? for quem păti posse? Quis hoc sibi persuādēret? for quem sili persaāsūrum? Sce § 273, 3.

Rem. 2. A writer may state his own past words or thoughts in örätio oblïqua, 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 nĕcessìtãte conctus dŏmĭno näris qui sit ăpĕritu, multa pollicens, si se corservasset. 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 suspǔciōnem vénisset, ăliquid in épistờlä de se esse scriptum. Nep.; for the words, quum ei in suspinciōnem vënisset, are equivalent to quum suspicärētur. See §208, (1.)

Rem. 4. The tenses to be used in changing the ōratio directa into the obliqua, depend on the tense of the verb which introduces the quotation, according to the rule, $\S 258$. 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, Impĕrā̃it Alexander Ly̆sippo, ut eōrum équìtum, gui ăpud Grānīcum cĕcǐdĕrant, fücěret stătuas, 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 avcid 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 accūsätus est, quod corrumpěret jŭventūtem, Socrates was. accused of corrupting the youth, lit., because (as was alleged) he corrupted the youth. Deum invöcäbant, cujus ad sölenne vênissent, They invoked the god, to whose solemnities they had come. Liv. Quos viceěris ămīcos tïbi esse cäve 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 vicisti 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, püto, 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 énim, Hannibălis permissu, exisset de custris, rĕdiüt paulo post, quod se oblïtum nescio quod diceĕret,...because (as) he said, he had forgotten something. Cic. Ab Athēniensibus, locum sépultūrce intra urbem ut därent, impetrā̃e non pờtui, quod rēl̆giōne se impëdīri dïcërent. Id.

## - IMPERATIVE MOOD.

§ 267. The imperative mood is used to express a command, wish, advice, or exhortation ; as,

Nosce te, Know thyself. Cic. AEquam měmento seriāre mentem, Remember to preserve an unruffled mind. Hor. Huc ădes, Come hither. Virg. Pasce căpellas, et pötum pastas ăge, et inter ăgendum occursäre capro căvēto. Id.
(1.) The imperative present denotes that an action is to be performed directly or at once; as, lëge, read; mörère, 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 some ${ }^{\text {thing }}$ else has taken place; as, Quum răētüdini tuce consüluéris, tum consŭlīto värịgãtiōni. Cic. Prius aulite paucis; quod quum dixěro, si plăcuĕrit, facitōte. Ter. The precedent event is often to be supplied by the mind. Sometimes, especially in poetry, the jmperative present is used for the imperative future, and, on the other hand, scito and scitōte, 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, Rēgio império duo sunto, iique consüles appellantor, millitize summum jus hăbento, nēmini pärento, illis sălus pŏpŭli suprèma lex esto. Cic. Non sătís est pulchra esse poēmăta, dulcia sunto. Hor. Ignoscito sape alëri, numquam tibi. Syr.

Remark 1. With the imperative, not is expressed by $n \bar{e}$, and nor by

Ne tanta ănămis assuescīte bella. Virg. Ne crēde colōri. Id. Höminem mortuam in urbe ne sěpēlito, nēve ūrĭto. Cic.

Note. Non and nëque occur, though rarely, with the imperative; as, Vos quŏque non cäris aures ŏnërãte lăpillis, nec prödàte grăres insüto vestïbus auro. Orid. But with the subjunctive used for the imperative non and especially něque are found more frequently. Cf. § 260, R. 6, (b.)-In Plautus and Terence $n e$ is of common occurrence both with the imperative and with the present subjunctive, and with no difference of meaning; but later poets chiefly 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 ădipisci vēram glöriam vülct, justitice fungātur off iciis. Cic. Quod dübitas, ne fêccèris. Plin. Ep. See § 260, II., R. 6. An imperative of the perfect passive is very rarely found; as, $A t$ vos admŏnnti nostris qưque cäsibus este. Orid. Jacta allea esto. Cæs. in Suet. But the subjunctive is more common; as, Jacta sit älea. Sometimes also the future indicative; as, Sed vălēbis, meăque négōtia vìdēbis, méque diis jürantībus ante brümam exspectābis, instead of răle, vide, exspecta. Cic. Ubi sententiam meam röbis pérégĕro, tum quĭbus eădem plücēbunt, in dextram partem tüciti transībìtis, instead of transitōte. Liv. With the future the negative is non. See § 259, R. 1, (4.)

Rem. 3. Sometimes, for the simple affirmative imperative, cūra or cūrātn ut, fac ut, or fac alone is used with the subjunctive; as, Cura ut quam primum věnias, Come as soon as possible. Fac ērüdias, Instruct, or Take care to instruct. Cic. For the negative imperative fac ne, căre ne or căve alone, with the present or perfect subjunctive is used; but especially noli with the infinitive; as, Nōli pŭtāre, Do not suppose. Cic. Căre existämes, Do not think. Id. Nölìte id velle quod non fiĕri pötest, ét căvēte ne spe prcesentis pācis perpĕtuam päcem ŏmittātis. Id.

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

## OF THE TENSES OF THE INPINITIVE.

§ 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 manser, without specifying either person, number, or time, and thus merely indiates 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 comected; as,

Hoc faccère possum, I am able to do this. Cic. Vidi nostros innimicos cǔpěre bellam, 1 saw that our enemies were desiring war. Id. Nec gèmére af̈riá cessäbit turtur ab ulmo, Nor shall the turtle dove ccase to coo from the lofty elm. Virg.-Victorem victe succŭbuisse querror, I complain that the victor las yielded to the vanquished. Ovid. Se a sénïbus audisse dieēbant, Thev said that they had heard (it) from the old men. Cic. Audiet cites alcuisse ferrum jürentus, The youth will hear that the citizens have whetted the sword. Hor.Négat sīse verbum esse factinrum, He declares that he is not about to speak. Cic. Postquam audièrat non clătum iri filio uxörem suo, After he had heard that a wife would not be given to his son. Ter. Semper existimābitis nilhil hōrum ros visūros före, 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 mémini ; 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, Hoc me mémini dicerre, I remember my saying this. Cic. Teucrum mëminni Sïdöna věnīre, I remember Teucer's coming to Sidon. Virg. So with mëmơriā tĕneo. Cic. Phil. 8, 10. Scrîbit also is construed like meminit; as, Cic. Off. 3, 2: and after the same analogy, and for the sake of vivid expression Cicero says, M. Maximum accēpimus fücile cēläre, tăceēre, dissinmŭläre, etc., though speaking of things which he had not witnessed himself. So, also, with récordor;-Rëcordor longe omnibus ünum antefferre Dēmosthennem. Cic. When the action is spoken of simply as a fact, the perfect infinitive is used with mëminni; as, Mëministis me ita distribuisse causam. Cic.
(b.) The passive voice having no simple form for expressing the completed state of suffering makes use of the combination of the perfect participle with esse; as, ămätus 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 conscientiá těnēri conjūrätiōnem tuam non vǐdes? Cic. Sometimes, however, when no ambiguity can arise, esse in the usual combination retains its original meaning; as, Apud Plătīnem est, omnem mōrem Lăcědkemōniōrum inflammãtum esse cuipiditāte rincendi. Id. Here inflammätum esse expresses a continued or habitual stateFuisse with the perfect participle denotes a state completed previous to a certain past time; as, Jŭbet bơno ănimo esse; sōpītum fuisse rēgem sübito 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 sătis hăbeo, sătis mĭhi est, pǔdet, contentus sum, mělius ĕrit, völo or a verb of equivalent meaning; as, Bacchātur rātes, magnum si pectöre possit excussisse deum. Virg. Quum illam nēmo rélit attiggisse. Plin. The poets use the infinitive perfect where we should expect a present; as, Tendentes Pélion impösuisse Olympo. Hor.

Rem. 3. The present infinitive is also sometimes used for the future, especially when the verb has no future; as, Dēsine fäta dê̂m flecti spērāre, Cease to hope that the fates of the gods will be changed. Virg. Prögéniem Trōjāno a sangū̆ne dūci audiërat. Id. Cras mìhi argentum dăre dixit, i. e. se dätürum esse. Ter. Căto affirmat se vīvo illum non triumphāre. Cic.

Rem. 4. (a.) The infinitive future active is formed by a combination of the partic:ple future active with esse; as, ămātürus esse; the infinitive future passive by a combination of the supine in um with iri; as, ämütum iri. 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, ' your 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 nsed (cf. §162, 14, R. 3.) ; as, Etiumsi obtempérasset auspžciis, ídem ēventūrum fuisse puto. Cic. In like manner the infinitive future with esse is used in the apodosis of hypothetical sentences instead of the imperfect subjunctive; as, Lïbertus, nîsi jūrasset, scēlus se factūrum (esse) arbiträbātur. Id.
(b.) Instead of the future infinitive, in both voices, fŭtürum esse or fore, followed by $u$ 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 pǔtūri fŏre, ut supplex ad te vènīrem, I never supposed (that it would happen) that I should come a suppliant to you. Cic. Suspicor före; ut infringātur hơminnum impröbitas. Id. Crēdēbam fŏre, ut épistölam scripsisses.-So, also, in the passive for a continued state of future suffering the present and imperfect are used; as, Crēdo före, ut épistölam scrībātur, and, Crēdēban före, ut ëpistola scrīběrētur. But to express a completed state in future time the perfect participle is employed; as, Quos spéro bréri tempöre tēcum cōpŭlātos före. Cic. Quod vidēret nōmine pācis bellum invōlūtum forre. Id. This construction is necessarily used, when the verb has either no future active participle, or no supine; as, in such case, the regular future infinitive cannot be formed; as, Spēro före ut sŭpias.-Före is found in two passages pleonastically joined with the future participle active, viz. Te ad me före ventūrum. Cic. Att. 5, 21: and Quum sènātus censēret-lībenter factūros före. 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 läböres suscepturrum fuisse, si iisdem fīnibus glōriam meam quĭbus ritam essem terminätūrus? Do you think that I should have undertaken so great labors if, etc. Cic. Ct perspicuum sit omnäbus, nìsi tanta ăcerbitas injürise fuisset, numquam illos in eum locum prōgressūros fuisse,....that they never would have come into that place. Id.
(b.) Füturum fuisse with $u t$ and the imperfect subjunctive passive, corresponds to the infinitive fuisse with the future participle active in a conditional proposition; as, Nisi nuncï essent allāti, existāmābant plēriqque fŭtūrum fuisse, ut oppidum āmittērētur,...that the town would have been lost. Cæs.
(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, ămandum esse, ămandum fuisse, and ămandum före; as, Instire hièmem, aut sub pellibus hăbendos mülites före, aut differrendum esse in cestãtem 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 vîtam filice sui (āriörem fuisse, si tibère ac püdica vicëre 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 Plätōnem existimo, si gënus forrense dïcendi tractāre éliaisst, grärissime et cópiōsissime pǒtuisse dicerre,-would have been able to speak. Cic.
§ §69. 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 prǒpěrāri litơre, 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 conservairi, It concerns the state that I sloould be preserved. Cic. Numquam est ūtile peccäre, To do wrong is never useful. ld. Mäjus dēdëcus est parta āmittěre quam omnino non pārāvisse. Sall. In the first example consercäri 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, Fäcinus est vincīre cīvem Römänum, 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, $\mathscr{E} q u u m$ est peccätis vënirm poscenten redlëre rursus. Hor. Attícus maximum astímāāit questum, měmǒrem grātumque cognosci. Nep.

Note. The indefinite pronoun ăliquem or ăliquos 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 Fäcinus est vincīre cīvem Rōmänum, may also be expressed by Fücinus est vincīri cīvєm Rōmänum. So, Quum vìdèrent de eōrum vìtū̀te non despērrāri. Nep.-The impersonal verbs licet, dëcet, öportet, opus est, and nëcesse 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, act. licet hoc făcĕre; dĕcet spěcimen căpĕre ex hac re; pass. licet hoc fiẹri; dĕ: et spĕcìmen căpi.

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 verl forms the predicate. Of this kind are justum, aqquum, vērisimile, consentāneum, ăpertum-est, ĕrat, etc., nĕcesse est, opus est; appäret, constat, convënit, dëcet, licet, oportet; intelligitur, perspuicitur, etc.; as, Cui verba dăre difficille est. Ter. Mendācem mèmơrem esse ơportet. Quint. Lēgem brěvem esse ơportet. Sen. Constat prơfecto•ad sălütenr civium inventas esse lēges. Cic. Non ĕnim me hoc jam dicěre pŭdēbit. Id. See § 209, R. 3, (5.), (a.)

Rem. 3. The infinitive may itself be the subject of an infinitive; as, Audio non līcēre cuiquam in näve căpillos dēpōněre. Ter.

Rem. 4. The infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, may also be the predicate nominative; as, Impüne qualïbet facěre id est rēgem esse. Sall. In this sentence fäcëre is the subject, and rēgem esse is the predicate; for $i d \dot{d}$, which only represents by a kind of apposition the clause impüne qucelibet fäcerre, can be omitted.
Rem. 5. When the infinitive esse, (or others of similar meaning, as, fiëri, vireĕre, vītam dēgĕre, cēdëre, ăbïre, 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 consŭlem fiěri. Auct. ad Her. Mëdios esse jam non lǐcēbit. Cic. Si cîvi Rōmāno licet esse Gādītānum. Id.-Lĭcuit e̛nim esse ōtiōso Thëmistocli. Id. Mîhi nēglĭgenti esse non licet. Id. Sïbi vītum fîlice suā cāriōrem fuisse, si libběræ ac püdicæ vīvère acitum fuisset (scil. ei). Liv. So also nëcesse est with the predicate in the
dative. Vobis nĕcesse est fortrbus riris esse. Liv.-But licet, ‘portet, and nëcesse est are also joined with the subjunctive mood, and hence is derived the zonstruction of licet as a conjunction. See $\oint 263,2$.

## THE INFINITIVE AS THE OBJECT OF A VERB.

§ $\mathbf{2 7 ( 6 )}$. The infinitive, either with or without a subject-accusative, may be the object of a verb; as,

Hec vitäre cüpìmus, We desire to avoid this. Cic. Poētas omnīno non cōnor attingěre, I do not at all attempt to read the poets. Id. Sententiam vălēre cüpièrunt, They desired that the opinion should prevail. Id. Spēro te välēre, 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. $\S 231, \mathrm{R} .3,(b$.$) , and in the$ passive retain the infinitive; as, Consŭles jŭbentur scrībĕre exercitum. Mūros ădire větiti 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, Cédëre nescius. Hor. Avìdi committĕre pugnam. Ovid. Cüpìdus mörī̀i. Id. Cantāre pěrīti Arcădes. Virg. Callĭdus condëre furto. Hor. Quidlibet impötens spērāre. Id. Sutrinas fücëre inscius. Varr. Insuêtus vēra audīre. Liv. Certa mơri. Virg. Fêlīcior unguëre tēla. Virg. So, Audax omnia perpéti, Resolute to endure every thing. Hor. Sollers ornäre Cy̆passis, Skilful to adorn. Ovid. Segnes solvěre nödum. Hor. Indǒcilis paupëriem päti. Id. Non lēnis füta rěclūdëre. 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, (Tībia) aspīrāre et ădesse chơris érat ūt̄̄lis. Hor. Atas mollis et apta rěgi. Ovid. Fons ětiam rīro dăre nōmen ǐdōneus. Hor. Frū̆ges consūměre nāti. Id. And after dignus and contentus; as, Dignus ämāri. Virg. Cf. §244, R. 2, (b.)
(c.) Upon a noun; as, Tempus est hūjus libri făcěre finem, It is time to finish this book. Nep. Iniüt consǐlia rēges tollěre, He devised a plan to destroy the kings. Id. Ea érat confessio cäpul rêrum Rōmam esse. Liv. Cŭpīdo incessěrat AEthiópiam invisěre. Curt. Quibus in ötio vivère cūpia ërat. Sall. So, Nec mähi sunt rires inimicos pellěre tectis, instead of pellendis inimicis, or ad pellendos inàmīcos. 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 crēdibulle est? or rērumne est? may be supplied; as, Mēne incepto dēsistĕre rictam? That I, vanquished, should desist from my undertaking? Virg. Me misèrum! te in tantas crrumnas propter me inciddisse! Cic.-But ut, also, with the subjunctive, either with or without an interrogative particle, may be used to express a question with indignation; as, Fine (scil. patri) égo ut adverser? Liv. Tu ut unquam te corrigas? Cic. Jūdicio ut ärātor dēcŭmānum persěquātur? Id.; where fiëri pötest? may be supplied.
(b.) So, in the órätio obliqua, the words signifying said, saying, etc., are often omitted, or implied in a preceding verb or phrase; as, Id fracile eff ici posse. scil. dixit. Nep. Quem signum dătūrum fügientibus? 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 cognövi fortes. Sall. Quen pulsum ménơrädi. Tac.-So, also, with the infinitive perfect passive when depending on völo, nōlo, cŭpio, andưportet; as, Adölescenti mōrem gestum öportuit. Ter. Quod jam pridem factum ŏportuit. Cic.-Sometimes in a relative clause an infinitive is to be supplied from the finite verb of the main proposition; as, Quos völuit omnes interfēcit, scil. interfičěre. Ne illam quïdem consěquuntur; quam pŭtant, grätiam; i. e. quan se consěcūtūros pŭtant. Cic.

THE INFINITIVE WITHOUT ASUBJECT-ACCUSATIVE.
§ $\mathbf{9 8 1}$. 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, nerqueo, văleo, dēbeo; cūro, cōgz̆to, dēcerno, stătuo, consť̃tuo, inst̆̆tuo, păro ; cōnor, nütor, tendo, contendo, tento, mätūro, prơpěro, aggrědior, persěvèro, ;-ccpi, incīpio, pergo, dēš̃no, dèsisto, intermitto, parco, rěcūso; sø̆leo, assuesco, consuesco, insuesco; audeo, vèreor, mĕtuo, réformīdo, ť̌meo,
 $j u ̆ b e o r, ~ v \imath ̌ d e o r, ~ a n d ~ c o ̄ g o r . ~$

Note 2. When the preceding verbs are joined with esse, hăbēri, jūdücäri, vidéri, etc., the predicate noun or adjective is put in the nominative; as, Solet tristis vidḕri; aude săpiens esse; copit mîhi mŏlestus esse; dēbes esse diligens; pötest liber esse : and so also mërētur, scit, didicit liber esse.

Note 3. The poets, in imitation of the Greeks, use the infinitive after $f \check{u} g e$, aufer, căve, parce, mëmento; păveo, rĕfŭgio, quero, urgeo, lăbōro, ămo, gaudeo, füro, calleo, sümo, mitto, rěmitto, pâtior, jūro, conjüro, pugno, nätus, and some other verbs, especially to denote a wish or purpose; as, Introiit vidēre. Ter. Non te frangĕre persëquor. Hor. Non pŏpülāre pénātes vénimus. 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 dícĕret, récüsävit. Cic.

Rem. 2. The passives dīcor, trädor, fĕror, narror, rĕpérior, existtmor, vǐdeor, etc., may either be used personally, with the infinitive alone, or impersonally, followed by the accusative with the infinitive. Thus we may say, Mäter Pausănice eo tempŏre vixisse dič̌tur, or, Dič̌tur eo tempŏre mătrem Pausănice 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 zommon especially with videor, see $\$ 272$, R. 6 ; but the latter is frequent with nuntīutur, and very common with the compound tenses, trädïtum est, pröditum est, etc., and with the participle future passive; as, crēdendum est, intelliggendum est, etc.; as, Quörum nēminem tälem 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, vorlo, nōlo, mälo; cüpio, opto, stüdeo, 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, häbēri, 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, vollo érŭditus fiëri, and on the other hand, vơlo te ērüditum fiěri, and völo me ērŭdītum fiĕri. So, Vollo is esse, quem tu me esse véluisti. Cic. Cüpio me esse clèmentem, cüpio-
me non dissotütum vidēri. Id.; or, omitting the pronoun, cüpio esse clēmens nec dissölūtus ridēri.-Omnis homines qui sese stüdent prastāre cītërs änimälibus, etc. Sall.

Note 4. 「סlo is ased with the present infinitive passive; as, Me ämãri rolo, I wish to be beloved; hoc vèlim intelligi, 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, Lëgäti quod ĕrant appellāti süperbius, Cürinthum patres restri-exstinctum esse robluērunt. Cic.; but it occurs most frequently with the omission of esse; as, hoc factum völo; nunc illos commonitos rělim: so, patriam exstinctam cüpit.

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, Phüsēlus ille, quem vìdētis, hospites, ait fuisse närium célerrimus. Catull. Quia rëtŭlit Ajaz esse Jouris něpos, instead of se esse Jöris něpötem. Ovid. Sensit médiqs dēlapsus in hostes, instead of se dèlapsum 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 fieri, He saw that that could not be done. Nep. Sentit ănimus, se suã vi, non culliènà, mövēri. Cic. Andīvi te rēnīre. Me in êjus pötestüte dixi fứve. Id. Affirmant mīlitum jăcēre ănímos. Liv. Sape vēnit ad aures meas, te istud nimis crēbro dīcère. Cic. Eam pugnam ad Pềư̆siam pugnātam (esse), quidam auctōres sunt. Liv.
Note 1. This rule includes all such verbs and phrases as denote the exercise of the exterual senses and intellectual faculties, or the communication of thought to others; as, autio, video, sentio. animadeerto, cognosco, inteltigo, percipio. disco, scio, nescio,
 rěcorlor, obliriscor. úpīnio est, spes est. etc.;-dīco, trādo. prōdo, scrībo, rĕfĕro, narro, nunlio, confirmo. nĕgo, oslendo, indico, düceo, certiüren facio, dèmonstro, pĕrhŭben, "prömitto, pollīreo, spondeo, etc.; but with most of these a different construction often occurs. See § $2 \overline{7} 3$

Notz 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 perceiring. 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, $T e$ suspicor eisdem rébus, quibus me ipsum, commövéri. If the verb is expressed we must say, eisdem rēbus commódèri, quibus (ĕgo) ipse commóveor. So, also, in inserted relative clanses where the verb, if expressed, would be in the subjunctive, (see $\oint 266,2$. ) ; as, (Verres) aiēbat se tantidem cestimasse, quanti Säcerdūtem, for quanti Sücerdos cstìmasset. Cic. Confùtētur se in eā parte fuisse quā te, quā virum omni laude dignum patrem tuum. Id.
(b.) The same is the case witl the particle quam after a comparative, see $\$ 256, \mathrm{P} .5,(a$.$) But sometimes when quam connects a clause to a preceding$ 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 affirmãri quiduis me pǒtius perpessūrum, quam ex Itüliā ad bellum civile me exitūrmm instead of quam exirem or quam ut exirem. Cic.
(c.) In long speeches in the oratio oblique, 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 clanse 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 illörum urbem ut pröpugnäcülum oppositum esse barbăris, ăpud quam jam bis classes rēgias fècisse naufrăgium; for et ăpud eam jam bis, etc.-In Livy and Tacitus the same construction sometimes occurs even after conjunctions; as after quum in the sense of ' while,' see $\$ 263,5$, R. 3 ; after quamquam on account of its absolute signification, see $\oint 198,4$, 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, Prōmisit se ventürum (scil. esse, see § 270, R. 3 ). ${ }^{\text {• But the infinitive present sometimes occurs after these verbs; }}$ as, Pollicentur obsides düre, Cæs. B. G. 4, 21; and the pronoun is occasionally omitted, see § 239, R. 2 and 3.

Remari 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 audītum est, crơcŏdilum viölātum esse $a b$ Ægyptio; instead of Egyptium cröcődilum viölasse. 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 flëre, 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, Crèdunt 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 was 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, Surgĕre vìdet lünam, He sees the moon (to rise) rising. Virg. Arma rŭtīlāre vident. Id. Vìdēbis collūcēre făces. Id. Nec Zëphy̆ros audis spirāre? Do you not hear the zephyrs blowing? Id. Scepe hoc mäjöres nūtu dīcère audīvi. Cic. The two constructions are sometimes united; as, Mëdium vǐdeo discēdère ccelum, pālantesque pōlo stellas. Virg.

Rem. 6. The subject-accusative after verbs of saying, showing, and believing; as, dīco, nëgo, trādo, fĕro, mĕmöro, narro, nuntio, përhibeo, prōdo, scrībo, dèmonstro, ostendo, arguo, crēdo, püto, existïmo, and the like, and also after jübeo, vecto, and pröhibeo, 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, Dïcunt (they or people say) me rǐrum pröbum esse, or clicor vir pröbus esse. So, Vĕtümur hoc fäcěre, instead of, Nos hoc făcëre rětant. Instead also of the impersonal vědētur (it appears) followed by the infinitive with its subject-accusative, it is common to say personally, vïdeor, vide $\overline{r i s}$, etc., with the infinitive; as, vìdeor errasse, it appears that I have crred.

## 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 $u t$, 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.

 ram do, I exert myself, id. hoc, or illud ăgo, I endeavor, nühil antžquius häbeo or dǘco quam, nothing is of more importance to me, and video for curro, the subjunctive is almost exclusively used.
(b.) Verbs of effecting are construed with ut or ne and the subjunctive.
Notz 2. Such are fäcio, efficio, perfício, èvinco, pervinco, impetro, assĕquor, conséquor, etc. Bnt fäcěre 'to effect ' occurs in Cic. Brut. 33, in connection with the accusative and infinitive passive.

Note 3. Facio with $u t$ is also used as a periphrasis for the indicative; as, Invītus quìdem fēci, ut L. Flăminium e sënätu éficērem, for invitus éjēci. Cic.Fac, 'suppose' or 'granting,' and efficére, 'to prove,' take the accusative with the infinitive; but the passive efficitur, 'it follows', takes also the subjunctive. -Fäcěre, 'to introduce' or 'represent'' is joined with a present or perfect participle; as, Lelium et Scipiōnem fäcimus admirantes. Cic. In the passive the accusative also with the infinitive is found, there being no present participle; as, Isocrătem Plăto laudāri făcit a Sōcrăte. 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 $u t$ or $n e$, and only rarely by the infinitive.

Note 4. (a.) Such are rŏgo, öro, prĕcor, pĕto; poseo, postŭlo, fā̆gžto; mðneo, admöneo, commŭneo, hortor, cühortor, exhortor, suädeo, persuädeo, instituo, (I instruct), impello, eūgo, mando, proscrībo, èdíco, dêcerno, lęgem do, censeo, perpello, excîto, incito, impěro, etc.; as, Te non hortor sōlum, sed étiam ōro, ut tōta mente in rempüblicam incumbas. Cic.
(b.) In the poets and later prose writers the infinitive more frequently follows those verbs withont any difference of meaning. The poets even use the infinitive to express a purpose; as, Prôteus pëcus égit altos visère 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, Hace ut facias, scribo. Cic.
(d.) Jübeo and rêto commonly take the accusative with the infinitive, but sometimes the subjunctive with or rarely without $u t$. Sometimes, with the infinitive, the person to whom the command is given is onitted, especially when it is either obvious from the nature of the command or indefinite: as, Castra münire jübet, scil. milites. Cæs. Lex recte fücēr•e jübet, scil. hơmines. Cic. With the subjunctive the dative of the person sometimes follows jübeo; as, Bintannico jussit, exsurgĕret. Tac.-Impėro 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, Carthäginem dèlendam censeo.
(e.) Mŏneo and admöneo, 'I remind,' and persuädeo, 'I convince,' take the accusative with the infinitive.
3. (a.) In the oratio oblizqua, 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 : respı̆cĕrent tribbünal hơmines castellum omnium scëlérum. 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, Oräbat ne se ut parricidam lïbërûm āversārentur: sībi vītam fïlice suā cāriōrem fuisse, si.... 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 voblo, nōlo, mālo, opto, permitto, pătior, sino, concēdo, licet, proȟbeo, ǒportet, and něcesse est. Cf. $\{271$, R. $4 . \quad V$ blo 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 rělictas, scil. esse ancillas. Ter. Ut ut ërat, mansum tămen oportuit, scil. esse. Id. Non pŭtābant de tāli viro suspiciōnībus ơportēre jūdīcāri. 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 bëne, măle, prūdenter făcio; běne, măle fit ; ēvënit, accïdit, and the like; pratěreo, mitto; and generally adde, accēdit, etc.; as, Bëne fücis, quod me adjüvas.
:(2.) To introduce the explanation of a noun, pronoun, or pronominal adverb in the principal clauṣe; as, Magnum bĕněficium est nätūræe, quod nĕcesse esı möri.
(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.

[^22]Note 8. A purely objective proposition is expressed by quod only when it depends upon addo, (generally in the imperative adde), or upon fäcio joined with an adverb; as, Adde quod pübes tībi crescit omnes. Hor. Adde huc quod mercem sine fücis gestat. Id. Fēcit hūmānĭter Licinius, quod ad me respēř vēnit. Cic. In all other cases the infinitive is employed in purely objective propositions.
6. 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 nöbis accēdit incommơdum, quod M. Jünius ảbest. Cic. Huc accēdibat, quod, etc. Sall. Quod generally refers to past time, and hence it is preferable to say, Grätissimum milhi est, quod ad me tua mănu scripsisti; but with the infinitive, Grätissimum mîhi est te bëne välēre.
(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 Agámemnönem đmülāri pütas, falléris. Nep. Quod scrībis te velle scire, qui sit reipūblicce stütus: summa dissensio est. Cic. Sentences thus introduced by quod are in no grammatical connection with the verb that follows them. See $\oint 206,(14$.
(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 vidertur hömines hac re maxime bellais prostāre, quod woqui 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 Tōtum hoc phĩlŏsŏphāri displicet. Cic. Quum vivē̃re ipsum turpe sit nöbis. Id. Me hoc ipsum nĭhil ăgěre délectat. Id. Meum intelliggēre nullā pecuniā vendo. Petr. See § 205, R. 8 .
(b.) It may be followed by a limiting genitive; as, Cūjus non dimicāre fuit vincëre. Val. Max.
(c.) It may be either the subject or object of a verb. See $\$ \S 209$, R. 3, (5,) and 229, R. 5 . It may also be used after neuter verbs, like an accusative, depending on a preposition understood; as, $T e$ accēpisse meas litĕras gaudeo. Ter. See $\oint \oint 232,(2$,$) and 273, 5$.
(d.) It is also used like a predicate-nominative; as, Vidēre est perspǐcěre 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 valēre et grăvissime ægrôtāre, nihil prorsus dīcēbant intëresse. Cic. Quoll crimen dicis præter ămasse meum? Ovid. Invéniet nil sibi lēgätum, præter plörāre. Hor.
(g.) It is used also like an ablative; as, Audito rëgem in Siciliam tenděre. Sall.
(h.) Sometimes, also, especially in the poets, it denotes a purpose, like a participle in dus, (see § 274, R. 7.); as, Lōricam dōnat häbēre 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,

Quīdam, poēta nōmłnātus, A certain one, called a poet. Cic. Cătŭlõrum oblita leana, The lioness forgetful of her whelps. Virg. Fäventes rēbus Carthäginiensium, Favoring the interests of the Carthaginians. Liv. Tendens ad sidëra palmas. Virg. Accūsātus rei căpōtälis. Cic. Prīmã dïcte minhi summã dícerule Cŭmēnā. Hor. Ominna doctus. Stat. Cāsus ăbies vīsūra mărinos. Id. Cürìtūri arbŏre montes. Ovid. Parcenulum est těněris. Juv. Utendum est ætāte. Ovid. L. Brütus arcens rēdïtu ty̆rannum, in proelio 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,

Simul hoc dicens attollit se. Virg. Tum ad Thraseam in hortis ăgentem missus est. Tac. Turnum fŭgientem hace terra vidēbit? Virg. Qui missus ab Argis Itălā consëdĕrat urbe. Id. Lămia mũnĕre cedilititātis perfunctus, pětit pratūram. Cic. Jussus cum fide pœnas luam. Hor. Jŭvĕnis médios mŏrītūrus in hostes irruit. Virg. Pĕrǐtūrus injēcit sēse in agmen. Id. Illa tibi ventūra bella expĕdiet. 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 věniam,....to sue for favor.... Virg. Eury̆py̆lum scitantem ōräcüla Phoebi mittimus. Id. (b.) It is also used to express a state or condition, where, in English, a substantive is employed with a preposition; as, ignōrans, from ignorance; mëtuens, from fear; consŭlütum pětens, in his suit for the consulship; omne mălum nascens fäcile opprimítur,-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, Nòtus ēroblat pìceā tectus cäligine.....covered with pitchy darkness. Ovid. Cf. Virg. En. 1, 480; 2, 277; 4, 72, 589; 5, 113, 708; 6, 335: Georg. 1, 204. It is often to be translated by a present active participle; as, Mänu pectus percussa dĕcōrum, flàventesque abscissa cơmas, i. e. percütiens, abscindens. Virg. Tunsæ pectöra palmis. Id. So, also, sǒlitus, ausus, fīsus, and the perfect participles of deponent verbs; as, Longum cantu sōlāta läbōrem. Id. Vox audītur fractos sơnitus imitāta tübārum. Id. Divitiăcus Cosărrem complexus, obsecrāre coppit. Cæs. Concrētos sanguine crìnes gěrens. Virg. Tonsis in 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, fũsum persëquitur. Liv. This idiom frequently occurs in Ovid.

Rem. 4. Häbeo, with perfect participles denoting knowledge and determination; as, cognitum, perspectum, perceptum, comprēhensum, explōrātum, stătūtum,
 passive verb in English, and equivalent to cognör, perspexi, percepi, etc., instead of the verb of the participle; as, Clodii anjmum perspectum or cognitum hăbeo; for perspexi, etc., I perceive, know. rersuāsum mihi hübeo and persuāsissimum häbeo are used only in the neuter gender and with an accusative with the infinitive in the sense of mĭhi persuăsi or persuăsum mìhi est. When hăbeo with any other participle than those above indicated is used, it expresses more than the ordinary perfect active; as, Quod me hortāris ut absolvam; hăbeo absölūtan suāve épos ad Cosăren; i. e. I have it ready. Cic. Do, reddo, cüro,
tëneo, possiddeo, and missum făcio, are sometimes so construed with participles; as, Missam iram făciet, for mittet. Ter. Hostes victos dăre, for vincére. 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 Romam conditam, Before the building of Rome. Cic. Consilia urbis dēlendæ, Plans 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, Hee litérce rĕcitātæ magnum luctum fécērunt, The reading of this letter. Liv. Tärentum captum, The taking of Tarentum. Ob rěceptum Hannibülem, On account of the reception of Hannibal. Sibi quisque cæsi régis expétebat décus, The glory of killing, or, of having killed the king. Propter Africam dŏmìtam. Eutrop. Ante Epăminondam nātum. Nep. Post Christum nâtum. $A b$ condĭtā urbe ad libērātam. 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 dictätörem, ut ambo patricü consüles creărentur, 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, Ccesar exercitum numquam per insidiōsa itīnëra duxit, ň̌si perspē̃cūlātus iơcōrum situs, without having examined the localities. This form occurs often with the ablative abşolute; as, Athēnienses non exspectāto auxilio adversus ingentem Persārum exercitum in proelium egrédiuntur, withont waiting for assistance. So, nullă præstitūtā die, Without fixing any time. Cic. Misērum est nīhil perfícientem angi. Id.

Rem. 6. (a.) The participle in rus, especially with verbs of motion, often denotes intention or parpose; as, Ad Jovem Ammönem pergit consultūrus de $\not \partial r i g i n e ~ s u \bar{u}$, 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, al though, etc., is employed; as, Plüra löcūtūros äbire nos jussit, When or although we intended to say more. Hercŭlem Germäni, ītūri in prolium cănunt. Tac. Hence it is sometimes used, though not by Cicero, to express the inference from a hypothetical proposition; as, Egréditur castris Rōmäuus, rallum inrã̄ūrus, ni cöpia pugnce fiëret. And with the repetition of the preceding verb; as, Dédit mĭhi quantum maxime pőtuit, dătūrus amplius, si pòtuisset, i. e. ac dédisset amplius. Plin. Ep.

Rem. 7. (a.) The participle in $d u s$, also, denotes a purpose passively, when joined with verbs signifying to give, to deliver, to agree for, to hare, to receire, to undertake, etc. Such are do, trädo, tribuo, attribuo, mando, mitto, permitto, concèdo, redimo, condüco, lüco, hăbeo, accipio, suscịpio, rèlinquo, cūro, déposco, rŏgo; as, Testämentum täbi trädit lĕgendum, He delivers his will to you to read. Hor. Attribuìt nos trǔcīdandos Céthégo. Cic. Quod ūtendum accépèris, reddito. Id. Cönon mūros dīrūtos a Ly̆sandro rēficiendos cūrärit,-ordered them to be restored. Nep.
(b.) But the same meaning may be expressed actively by means of ad and the gerund; as, Cosar oppidum ad diripiendum militibus concessit. The poets sometimes use the infinitive active for the same purpose; as, Tristitiam et mé-tus trädam proterris in märe Cuspium portãre vevitis. Hor. In prose such use of the infinitive is of exceedingly rare occurrence; as, Biberre däre. Cic.

Rem. 8. (a.) The participle in $d u s$, 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 věnĕrandus a nöbis et cŏlendus est, He should be worshipped and honored by us. Cic. Dēlenda est Carthägo, Carthage must be destroved. Cato. Herc spēranda fuërunt. Virg. So with est used impersonally; as, Utrum pāce nöbis an bello esset ūtendum. Cic.
(b.) Sometimes, also, when not agreeing with the subject of a sentence, it has this signification; as, Fucta narräbas dissimŭlanda tibi, You were relating facts which you should have concealed: Ovid. A. L. Brüto principe hüjus maxime conservandi gèněris et nōmìnis. 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, Occüpātus sum in litěris scrībendis, 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 explēbit. Virg. Volvenda dies. Id. Cf. Volventǐbus 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 $a b$. 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 pācem ōrandum, nunc-arma rëpōnendum, et bellum exitiāle 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 laudanda 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 cuīque jūdĭcio sit ūtendum.
Rem. 12. In classical prose the participle in dus never has the signification of possibility, except when joined with vix; as, Vix optandum nōbis vidēbütur. Cic. Vix èrrat crēdendum, i. e. vix crēdi pǒtërat. 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,
Cürio, ad forcum sědenti (as he was sitting) magnum auri pondus Samnïtes attülērunt. Cic. Trīdui viam prōgressi, rursus rêvertērunt; for, quum prōyressi essenl. Cæs. Diönȳsius ty̆rannus, Sy̆rācūsis expulsus, Cơrinthi puĕros döcēbat. Cic. Diŏnȳ̀sius, cultros mètuens tonsörios, candenti carbōne sibi ädūrēbat căpillum. Id. Risus interdum ita rĕpente ērrumpit, ut eum cŭpientis tĕnēre nĕqueāmus. Id. Cícönice ăbìtūræ congrégantur in löco 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 $\S 257$, 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, Nēmo observat lūnam ň̌si lábōrantem. Sen. U̇t ŏcĭlus, sic ăñ̌mus, se non vídens, älia cernit,-though not perceiving itself. Cic. Servălius Ahāla Spürium Maelium, regnum appětentem, intĕrēmit,-because he was aspiring to the sovereignty. Cic.-(b.) When a participle is connected with a relative or interrogative it can only be translated by a circumlocution; as, Non sunt ea bЈ̆na dīcenda, quĭbus ăbundantem lícet esse maserramum,-which one may possess in abundance; and still be very miserable. Cio. Sẽnātus absurdum esse diceēbat, ignörāre rẽgem, quid spērans aut pětens vēnc̆rit.— with what hope 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) sēdens cithăram tënet. Ovid. Simul hoc dīcens attollit in regrum se fëmur. 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, Cusar hostes aggressus fügärit. Submersas obrue puppes, i. e. Submerge et obrue. Virg.-When the English clause would be connected by although, the participle is often followed by tămen. Later writers in such case join the particles quamquam, quamris, étiam and vel with the participle itself; as, Cesärem mīlites, quamvis rêcūsantem ultro in Africam sunt sécūtí. 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 tĕnentem. Plin. In English the infinitive is often joined with verbs of seeing and hearing; as, Audîvi te cănentem, I heard you sing. Audǐri te cănëre, would be, I heard that you sung. Vìdèmus Pơly̆phēmum vastā se mōle mōventem. Virg.

Note 3. In many cases, for want of a perfect participle active, and a present participle passive, this construction cannot be used. Thus, quum ämāvisset 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 participial construction. The mant of a perfect active participle may also be supplied by the perfect passive participle in the ablative absolute. See $\S 257$, R. 5 .

## GERUNDS AND GERUNDIVES.

§ 275. I. Gerunds are governed like nouns, and are followed by the same cases as their verbs; as,

Mĕtus pärendi sǐbi, Fear of obeving him. Sall. Parcendo victis, By sparing the vanquished. Liv. Efféror stüdio patres restros ridendi, I am transported with a desire of seeing your fathers. Cic. Pëtendi consūlātum grätiā. Sall. $V$ ēnit ad récipiendum pē̃cū̆ias. 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 Lacèdoemŏnem occūpandi, A design of occupying, or to occupy, Lacedæmon. Liv.

Rem. 2. The gerund is sometimes, though rarely, used in a passive sense; as, Spes restituendi nulla ërat,--of being restored. Nep. Athënas ērŭdiendi grātiă zuissus,-for the purpose of being instructed. Just. Ante dömandum. Virg. Aldes ad impěrandum. Cic.

Pem. 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 pace of a declinable present infinitive active; but in the accusative there is this difference between the infinitive used as an accusative and the geruud, that the infinitive has simply the power of an abstract noun, whereas the gerund expresses a real action; as, Multum intërest inter düre et aicipëre. Sen. Non sölum ad discendum pröpensi sümus, sed ètian ad döcendum. Cic.
II. When the object of an active verb is to be expressed, the participle in $d u s$ 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 scrïlendi ĕpistŏlum, 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 (épistolam) 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 scribendee épistolle. Betwcen the two forms of construction there is no difference of signification. So, Consilia urbis dēlendæ (Cic.), for urbem dēlendi, Plans for destroying the city. Rēpărandārum classium caus $\bar{a}$ (Suet.), for rẹpărandi classes. Perpètiendo lăbōri ídōneus. Colum. Ad dēfendendam Rōmam ab oppugnandā Căpuā düces Rōmānos abstrăhëre. Liv.
Remark 1. The same construction is used with the future passive participles of ütor, fruor, fungor, pötior, and rarely of mědeor, as these verbs were originally followed by the accusative; as, AEtas ad hoec ūtendā idōnea. Ter. Justitice fruendæ causā. Cic. In mūnĕre fungendo. Id. Hostes in spem pŏtiundörum castrōrum vēnërant. Cæs. Aque sülübrítāte mèdendisque corpŏrībus nōbiles. 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, Alĭquid făciendi rătio (Cic.), not ălicūjus. Artem et vēra et falsa dījüdicandi (Id.), not vērōrum dījüdicandörum: because it would not be known whether ălicūjus 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 courso 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 vǐdendi. Virg. Nam hăbet nätūra, ut ăliārum omnium rērum, sic vivendi möd̄um. Cic. Barb̆ăra consuētūdo hðminum inmolandörum. Id. Postrēmo Cütĭlina dissimŭlandi causä"aut sui expurgandi, in sěnütum vënit. Sall. Inìta sunt consillia urbis dēlendæ, civium trŭcīdandōrum, nōminis Rōmāni exstinguendi. Id. Vēnundi stŭdiōsi. Cic. Certus eundi. Virg. Insuētus närigandi. Cæs. Përitutus civivitātis rĕgendke. Nep.
(1.) The nouns after which these genitives most frequently occur are amor, ars, causa, consilium, consuētūdo, cōpia, cüpiditas, dēsidërium, diff i̛cultas, fīnis, făcultas, forma, grātia, illĕceb̉ra, lībido, löcus, lícentia, mơdus, mätëria, mos, occāsio, ōtium, pơtestas, rătio, spătium, spes, stüdium, tempus, ūsus, věnia, 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 is the subject; as, Quïbus סmnia hŏnesta atque inhonesta venděre mos ërat, With whom it was a custom, or, who were accustomed. Sall. Tempus est ăbire, 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, ătidus, cüpidus, stüdiōsus, përītus, impërītus, insuētus, certus, conscius, ignärus, rüdis, etc. Sce § 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 gcrundive, a noun or promoum in the genitive plural is sometimes joined with the gerumd; as, Exemplörum éligendi pötestas, instead of exempla éligendi, or, exemplōrum éligendōrum. Cic. Eārù rẹrum infitiandì rătio. Id. Fücultas agrōrum condönandi. Cic. Nōminandi istōrum èrit cöpia. Plaut.
(4.) The pronomin tui and also the plurals $\boldsymbol{v e s t r i}$ and sui, even when feminine, are joined with the masculine or neuter form of the gerundive in di; as, Quóniam tui vǐdendi est cōpia. Plaut. Non vëreor, ne quis hoc me vestri ădhortandi causī magnifíce lưqui existīmet. Liv. In castra rènērunt sui purgandi causā.With the demonstrative pronouns, ejus, hüjus, illius, the participle usually agrees, but in two passages of Terence $\bar{\rho} j u s$, though referring to a woman, has the participle in di, not in dex; as, Ego éjus videndi cüpidus rectà conséquor. Ter. $T u i$ in the first example and $\bar{\rho} j u s$ 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 impërium initio conservandæ lībertātis fuërat. Sall. Sometimes esse in some form is to be supplied; as, Que pustquam glōriōsa mődo, nëque belli patrandi cognörit, scil. esse. Id. Causā or grütià may sometimes be supplied. In some other cases, also, the word on which the gerund in $d i$ depends is not expressed, and the gerund seems to be used instead of the infinitive; as, Măneat prövinciälibus pötentiam suam täli mơdo ostentandi, scil. fücultas. Tac. Quum häbërem in ănimo nāvigandi, scil. prōpösitum. 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 finess; and also after certain verbs and phrases, to denote a purpose; as,

Charta empơrētica est innūtilis scrībendo. Plin. Căpessendæ reīpüblicce hăbilis. Tac. Ut nec triumrivi accīpiundo, nec scriboe rẹf ĕrundo sufficěrent. Liv. Lócum oppido condendo căpĕre. Id. Non fuit consilium agrun cölendo aut vēnando intentum atātem ăgĕre. Sall. Tībĕrius quăsi firmandee rălétūdini in Campäniam concessit. Tac. Quum solvendo are ăliēno respüblica non esset. Liv. Quum solvendo cizitūtes non essent,-were insolvent. Cic.
(1.) The verbs and phrases upon which this dative most frequently depends are, Stüdēre, intentum esşe, tempus impendëre, tempus consümĕre or insümëre, ŏpĕram däre, sufficëre, sätis esse, deesse, esse, signifying to serre for, to be adequate 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, Décemriri legibus scribendis, i. e. the ten commissioners for drawing up a code of laws. Liv. So, Cómitia creandis děcemriris. Id. Triumvins agro dando creat. Id.
(3.) A parpose is more commonly expressed by ad and the accusative of the gerund, or by a clause with $u t$, than by the dative; as, Pĕcus ad vescendur hơminibus 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 $o b$; as,

Ad pœnîtendum prơpěrat, qui cito jūdǐcat. Pub. Syr. inter btbendum, While drinking. Just. Ad tōlërandos fücìlius lăbōres. Quint. Ad castra făcienda. Cic. Ob absulvendum. 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 $a,(a b), d e, e,(e x)$, or in ; or it is used without a preposition, as the ablative of cause, manner, or means; as,

Aristǒtělem non dëterruit a scrībendo. Cic. Ex assentando. Ter. Non vídeor a dēfendendis hŏmĭnǐbus discēdĕre. Cic. Crescit eundo. Virg. Rem quaerunt mercātūris făciendis. Cic. Orātiōnem Lătīnam lěgendis nostris efficies plēniōrem. Id.

Note 1. This ablative also occurs, though rarely, after pro and cum; as, Pro rō̄pülando. Plaut. Cum lơquendo. 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 rěf ěrendā grātiā măgis nĕcessārium est, instead of rêlätiōne grātice. § 256. Cic. Nec jam possǐdendis pūblicis agris contentos esse. § 244. Liv. Is finis fuit ulciscendā Germänïci morte,-in avenging the death of Germanicus. Tac.; where the ablative seems to imply time. $\$ 253$.

## 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 $u m$ having an active and the supine in $u$ a passive siguification. 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 Gräiīs servītum mātrybus ībo, I shall not go to serve Grecian matrons. Virg. Te id admönǐtum vënio. Plaut.
II. Supines in um follow verbs of motion, and serve to denote the purpose of the motion; as,

Cŭbĭtum discessimus. Cic. Ire dējectum mŏnŭmenta rēgis. Hor. Lēgāti vēnērunt questum injūrias, et res rěpétītum. Liv. Quum spectātum lūdos ivet. Nep. So after participles; as, Patriam dēfensum reèvŏcātus. Nep. Spectātum admissi. Hor.

[^23]supine is formed; as, Ne bonos omnes perditum eant (Sall.), for perdant. Ereptum eunt (Id.), for értpiunt. Ultum ivit (Tac.), for ultus est. Ultum ìre injūrias festinat, i. e. ulcisci. Sall.

Rem. 3. The supine in $u m$ most frequently occurs with the infinitive ini, with which it forms the future infinitive passive; as, Brütum visum iri a me putto. Cic. In this construction the accusative properly depends upon the supine, and $\bar{i} r i$ 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 causä or grätiā, a subjunctive clause with ut or qui, a present or future active participle, and sometimes poetically an infinitive. See § 275, R. 1, 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,

Mîräbile dictu! Wonderful to tell; or to be told! Virg. Jūcundum cognitu atque aulitu, Pleasant to be known and heard. Cic. Res factu fäclis, A thing easy to be done. Ter. Făcilia inventu. Gell. Incrèdibile mëmơrätu. Sall. Turpia dictu. Cic. Optimum factu. Id.
Note. The principal supines in $u$ in common nse are audẽtu, cogntrtu, dictu, factu, inventu, mëmörãtu and nātu, which occurs in the expressions, grandis, mājor, mĩnor, maxīmus, and mĭnĭmus nātu. In magno nātu, of an advanced age, and maximo nātu $f \bar{z} l i u s$, the eldest son, $n \bar{a} t u$ 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 affabzlis,
 grăvis, hüneştus, horrendus, incrédřbălis, jŭcundus, injūcundus, magnus, měmörãb̄̆lis, mollis, pröclìvis, pulcher, rârus, turpis, and ūťlis.

Rem. 2. The supine in $u$ is used also after the nouns fas, nëfas, and opus; as, Huc fas est dictu. Cic. Nëfas dictu. Ovid. Dictu opus est. Ter.-In the following examples it follows a verb: Püdet 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 imitātu, cūtĕrum cognosci ūtilia. Val. Max. Illud autem fäcile ad crēdendum est. Cic. Opus proscriptiōne dignum. Plin. Aova pǒtui jūcunda. Id. Fácilior ad intellectum atque imitātiōnem. 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. $\S 243$, R. 1.
(b.) The construction with ad and the gerunt; as, res fäcilis ad intelligendum; or with sum and the infinitive active; as, fücile est invenire, is used by the best writers after fücilis, difficilis, and jücunalus. The most common construction of dignus is with qui and the subjunctive, ( $\$ 264,9$ ), but the poets and later prose writers have joined it with the infinitive passive.

ADVERBS.

[^24]Bĕne mönes, You advise well. Ter. Fortissime urgentes, Most vigorously pressing on. Plin. Măle narrando. Ter. Longe dissimilis. Cic. Valde bêne. 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 adjectivecharacter predominates; and sometimes limit the meaning of a preposition; as, Pơpŭlus lāte rex, for lāte regnans,-ruling far and wide. Virg. Nilhil admödum, Nothing at all. Cic. Hömo plãne noster,--entirely ours, that is, devoted to us. Id. Homērus plāne ōrātor. Id. Admơdum puella. Liv. Läte ty̆rannus. Hor. Grărǐbus sŭperne ictībus conflictābantur, i. e. sŭperne accĩdentībus. Tac. Multārum circa civitätum, 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, săpienter for cum săpientiä; hic for in hoc lơco; bëne for in bơno mơdo; nunc for hoc temporre.-(b.) The following are examples of other parts of speech used adverbially, viz. Nihil, 'in no way'; nonnihil, 'in some measure'; quidquam, 'at all'; ăliquid,' 'somewhat'; quid?' why?'

Rem. 3. A negative adverb, modifying another negative word, destroys the negation; as,

Non pārēre nōluit, He was not unwilling to obey. Nep. Haud ignāra măli, 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 affirmative sense, while it softens the expression; as, Hömo non indoctus, i. e. hömo säne doctus. Non sěmel, i. e. scepius; non ignōro, non nescio, non sumnescius, I know very well. Qui mortem in mălis pönit, non pŏtest eam non timeère,-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,
$N e ̄ m o ~ n o n ~ v i ̀ d e t, ~ E v e r y ~ o n e ~ s e e s . ~ C i c . ~ N e ̌ q u e ~ h a e c ~ n o n ~ e ̄ v e ̄ n e ̄ r u n t, ~ A n d ~ t h i s ~$ indeed took place. So, if both the antecedent and the predicate of a relative clause are negative, the proposition is affirmative; as, Nèmo 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 fügio ne hos quĭdem möres: and when the negative leading proposition has subordinate subdivisions with nëque -nëque, nēve-nēve, or non-non, these negative particles are equivalent to aut -aut; as, Non me carminibus vince nec Orpheus, nec Lǐnus. Virg. Nēmĭnem, non re, non verbo, non vultu dënique offendi. Cic. Nullius rei nëque proes, nĕque 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, Jüra te non nöcitūram hómini nēmini. Plaut.
(c.) Nēmo, nullus, nǔhil, and numquam have a different sense according as the non is placed before or after them; as, Non némo, some one; nēmo 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, ălicŭbi is used.

Rem. 6. (a.) Non is sometimes omitted after non mŏdo or non sōlum, when followed, in a subsequent clause, by ne quŭdem, if both clauses have the same verb, and if the verb is contained in the second clause ; as,

Mihi non mödo irasci, sed ne dolēre quidem impuine licet, which is equivalent to Mihi non mớo non irrasci, sed ne dölëre quidem impūne licet, or Mili non modo ìrasci, sed dölére quidem impuñe non licet, Not only am I not permitted to be angry, but not even to grieve with impunity. Cic. Quum sěnätui non sōlum jüvāre rempüblicam, sed ne lūgēre quídeǹ licēret. Id.
(b.) Non is also rarely omitted after non mơdo when followed by sed or rêrum with étiam, and also after vix; as, Qui non mödo ea fütüra timèt, vērum étiam fert, susitunetque prcesentix, Who not only does not fear.... Cic. Hac gënĕra tivtūtum non sōlum in mōribus nostris, sed vix jam in libris répěriuntur, These virtues are not only not found in life, but scarcely in books. Id.

Rem. 7. Fäcile, in the sense of undoubtedly, clearly, is joined to superlatives, and words of similar import; as, Vir ūnus tötius Gracioe făcile doctissimns. Cic. Hơmo vëgiōnis illius virtūte fácìle princeps. Id.
Rem. 8. Sentences are often united by means of an adverb which is repeated before each of the connected clauses; as, mödo-mödo, and nunc-nunc, (some-times-sometimes); as, Mödo hoc, mödlo illud dicit; mödo huc, mödo illuc rölat Instead of the second modo other particles of time are sometimes used; as, ălíquando, nonnumquam, interdum, scepius, tum or deinde.-Partin-partim,' ${ }^{\text {part- }}$ ly-partly,' is sometimes used with a genitive or the preposition ex, in the sense of álii-ălii, as a nominative in all the genders; as, Quum partim e nöbis ita tïmidi sunt, ut, etc., partim itta rēpüblīcā âversi, ut, etc.-Sìmul-simul, 'as well-as, like nunc-nunc, is not found in Cicero.-Quā-qua is equivalent to et-et.-Tum-tum is used sometines like mödo-moddo, sometimes like partimpartion; as Erumpunt scepe ritia ămīcōrum tum in ipsos ămäcos, tum in áliēnos. Cic. Hac (bĕnĕficia) tum in ūniversam rempüblicam, tum in singưlos cives confërnntur. 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 especiaily,' 'not only-but also,' or 'but more particularly.' Sometimes additional weight is given to the second part by means of vèro, certe, étiam, quöque, pracipue, imprimis or maxime. 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, Fortüna quum in reèliquis reebus, tum pracipue in bello plūrimum portest. Sometimes the verb stands in the first part of the sentence; as, Quum omnis arrogantia odiōsa est, tum illa ingènii atque c̈lơquentice multo môlestissima. Tum is sometimes repeated in the second part of the sentence; as, Quem păter mŏriens quum tütöribus et prơpinquis, tum ľ̄gībus, tum aqquìtāti măgistrãtuum, tum jūdīciis vestris commendātum pütârit. Cic. Sometimes the gradation is, quum-tum-tum vèro.

Rem. 10. Non mödo-sed étian (or non sōlum, or non tantum-rèrum ètiam) generally expresses the transition from less important to more important things, like the English 'not only-but (also)'. The transition from greater to smallef things is expressed by noi modo-sed, without the étiam, which we render in English by 'I will not say-but only,' and in Latin, too, we may sary non dicam or non dico-sed; as, Quid est ēninı münus non dīco ōrātōris, sed höminis.

Pem. 11. Tam-quam expresses a comparison in degree; as, Nèmo tam multa scripsit, quam multa sunt nostra. With superlatives they are rendered into English by 'the-the' and comparatives; as, Véternōsus quam plürimum bibit, tam maxime sitit, The more he drinks, the more he thirsts. Cato. Quam quisque pessime fécit, tam maxime tütus est. Sall.-Tam-quam quod muxime signifies, 'as much as possible.' - Non tam—quam signifies, 'not so much-as,' or'less-than'; as, Prörincia non tam grātiōsa et illustris, quam négētiōsa ac molesta. Cic.

Pem. 12. Non minus-quam and non măgis-quam are equivalent to ceque$a c$, 'as much as,' butin nor mägis-quam the greater weight is attached to the affirmative clause beginning with quam; as, Alexander non dücis măgis quam.
mīlütis mūnia exsëquëbätur, Alexander performed as much the service of a soldier as that of a commander. In this connection plus frequently supplies the place of măgıs.
(a.) Sic and $\begin{gathered}\text { ta } \\ \text { are demonstrative adverbs corresponding to the relative ut. }\end{gathered}$ The restrictive meaning of itu (see § 191, R. 5. ), is sometimes made more emphatic by the addition of tamen. Tantus is used in a like restrictive seuse; as, Presidii tantum est, ut ne mürus quìden cingi possit, i. e. 'only so much.' Uas.
(b.) Ut-ita or sic places sentences on an equality. They may sometimes be translated 'althongh-still,' or 'indeed-but.'-The adverb ut, 'as,' sometimes takes the signification of the conjunction quod, 'because.'; as, Atgue ille, ut semper fuit ăperitissimus, non se purgūvit. Cic.

Rem. 13. In an enumeration, primum, deinde, tum, dënĭque are commonly preferred to the numerals, primum, sĕcundo, (for sěcundum 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 dënique is followed by postrèmo to form the conclusion of a series, but often dènique without the other adverbs concludes a series, and is theu equivalent to 'in short' or 'in fine.' See Cic. Cat. 1, 5 .

Rem. 14. Minus is often used for non; as, Nonnumquam ea, quee proedicta sunt, minnus évëniunt. Cic.-So, si nünus-at, ' if not-yet', and sin mïnus, '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 ädeo non; as, ădeo non cūrābat, quid hömines de se lơquĕrentur.

Rem. 15. Nunc always expresses the time actually present, or the time to which a narrator transfers limself for the purpose of making his description livelier. Thus in speaking of the present time we may say, Nunc primum somnia me ēlüdunt cr ēlüsērunt; but in a narrative we must say, Somnio tunc primum se dīcēbat èlūsisse. Compare the use of hic and ille. See §207, R. 23, (c.)

Rem. 16. The conjunction dum, 'while,' when added to negatives, becomes an adverb, signifying 'yet'; as, nondum, 'not yet'; necdum, 'and not yet'; nullusclum, 'no one yet'; nihildum, 'nothing yet.' Hence vixdum signifies 'scarcely yet'; as, Vixdù ëpistőlam tuam lëgĕram, quum ad me Curtius vēnit. Cic.So, also, the conjunction nissi, 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 gencrally expressed by proeterquam or the preposition preter, and must be so expressed when no negative precedes. But the expression 'except that' may be rendered either by nisi quod or praterquam quod.-After nihil ăliud we may use either nìsi or quam, nisi referring to nîhil and quam to ăliud. Hence nihil ăliud nissi signifies ' nothing further,' or ' nothing more,' and nihil ăliud quam, 'nothing else,' or ' no other thing but this.'

Rem. 17. Ut, 'as,' in interposed clauses, such as ut öpinor, ut pŭto, 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 lëge et contra lëgem dicère; haec cum eo, pution ĕtiam ab eo didǐci. Those dissyllabic prepositions only, which are sometimes used as adverbs, may follow another, without being joined with a case; as, Quod aut sěcundum nätūram esset, aut contra. Cic. Cis Pădum ulträque. Liv Cæsar reverses the order, Intra exträque münitiönes. 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 ocher, or are emphatic; as,

Quid dicam de thēsauro omnium rērum, měmüriā? Hoc appäret in bestis, rölucribus, nantibus, agrestibus, cicūribus, fèris, ut se ipsce diligant. Cic. Sapissime inter me et Scipiōnem de ămicitiū dissèrēbātur. Id. Quid fücēres si in aihiquam dümum villamve vēnisses? Id. Nùlil per iram aut cŭpidintātem actum ést. Id. Thémistücles non minus in rēbus gěrendis promptus quam excōgitandis errat. Nep.
4. The monosyllabic prepositions $a b, a d, d e, e x$, and in are often used beiore 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 eõrum et in belicicis et in civilibus officiis vigeat industria. Cic.-Inter is frequently repeated by Cicero after interesse, and other writers repeat it after other verbs also; as, Quid intersit inter pöpülärem-cīrem, et inter constantem, sêrèrum et grảrem. Cic. Certātum inter Ap. Chaudium maxime fërunt et inter P. Décium. Liv.
5. (a.) In poctry a preposition is occasionally omitted with the first of two noms, and put with the second only; as, Que nëmöra, aut quos ägor in spécus, (Hor.) for, in que nëmöra aut in quos spëcus ăgor. 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 eādem ópiniōne fui, quä rèliqui onnes, (Cic.), properly in quä rëliqui omnes fuērunt.

## 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 verls, either independent, or alike dependent; adverbs qualifying the same verbs, adjectives, etc.; and prepositions on which depends the same noun or pronoun; as, Concidunt renti, fügiuntque nūbes, The winds subside, and the clouds disperse. Hor. Locum, quem et non cöquit sol, et tangit ros. Varr. Lūdi dëcem per dies, facti sunt, nĕque res ulla pretermissa est. Cic. Vides, ut altā stet nive candidum Söracte, nec jam sustineant onnus silvie läbōrantes, gèlūque fûmüna constitérint äcùto. Hor. Intelligitis et ànimum ei presto fuisse, nec consilium dïfuisse. Cic. Gënéri änìmantium omni est a nâtūrà tribùutum, ut se tueătur, dēclinetque ea, que nöcitūrra rǐdeantur. Id. Aut nēmo, aut Câto säpiens fuit. Id. Pulvis et umbra sümus. Hor. Si tu et Tullia vălètis, ègo et Ciceero vallentus. Cic. Aggěre jacto turibusque constitūtis. Cres. Clarus et hōnōrầtus rir, An illustrious and honorable man. Id. Casar Rēmos cöhortātus, libérüliterque ôrätiòne prōsēcūtus. Cæs. Päter tuus, quem cōlui et dīlexi. Cic. Belyor spectant in septentriōnem et örientem sölem. Cæs. Nāvibus junctis, rătibusque complüribus factis. Id. Lëge, rel tübbellas redde. Plaut. Allobrơges trans Rhödünum vicos possessiönesque hǟēbant. Cæs. Quum triumphum ēgēris, censorque fuĕris, el ôbiêris l̄̈gãtus. Id. Quum ad oppidum accessisset, castrăque ibi pōnĕret. Cæs.

Ades ănimo, et ŏmitte tĭneōrem. Cic. Ea vîdēre ac perspicečre pŏtestis. Id. Grăviter et cōpiōse dixisse dicitur. Id. Cum frätre an sine. Id. Cf. § $2 \pi$ T̄, II. 2. Cui carmina cordi, nümërosque intenděre nervis. Virg. Nec census, nec clērumb nōmen ărörum, sed prŏbĭtas magnos ingěniumque fácit. Ovid. Philơsŏphi nĕgant quemquam virrum bơnum esse, nìsi sǎpientem. Cic. Glōria virtūtem tamquam umbra sĕquitiur. 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, Meã et reīpūblĭcæ intërest. Cic. (See § 219.) Sive es Rōmæ, sive in Kpīro. Id. (See §§ 221 and 254. But see also \$221, Note.) In Mettii descendat jūdǐcis aures, et patris et nostras. Hor. See §211, R. 3. In like manner, Hannĭbal non ălíter vinci pottuit, quam mŏrā.

Rem. 3. As the subjunctive is often used for the imperative, they may be connected by coorrdinate conjunctions; as, Disce nec invideas. Pers.

Rem. 4. Where the purpose of the writer requires it, cobrdinate conjunctions sometimes connect independent propositions, whose verbs are in different moods; as, Stüpōrem hóminis, vel dieam pěcüdis, vǐdēte. Cic. Nec sătis scio, nec, si sciam, dičěre ausim. Liv.

Rem. 5. Et is used after multi followed by another adjective, where in English 'and' is usually omitted; as, IWultce et magnoe 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, velim, nölim, whether I would or not; maxima minimä, the greatest as well as the least; prìma postrēma, from the first to the last; dignos indignos ădïre; īre rédïre, to go to and fro. Edificicis omnïbus pūblicis privātis, sacris proffänis sic pĕpercit. Cic. INam glōriam, hŏnörrem, impërium bönus ignāvus aqque sibi exoptant. Sall. C. 11.
(b.) Et is very frequently omitted between the names of two colleagues; as, Consüles dēclārāti sunt Ch. Pompeius M. Crassus. P. Lentŭlo L. Triärio, questöribus urbänis. Cic. Sometimes, also, when the two persons are not colleagues. It is also occasionally omitted between two words in the oratorical style; as, Aděrant ămici, pröpinquı. Id.; also with verbs; as, Adsunt, quĕruntur Sicǔli. 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 mödo Cüriis, Cĕtōnibus, Pompeiis, antïquis illis, sed his rĕcentibuus, Măriìs et Dìdiis et Coeliis commĕmörandis jäcëbant. This 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 rëlüqui, et cétĕra, etc., but should make use of the adjectives alone, ălii, rélĭqui, cētëra, 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, Prěcor ut ea res vöbis pācem, tranquillitūatem, otium, 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 $u t$ 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 copit Pōrum, ne ultima expörī̀i persĕvēräret, dëdĕretque se victōri. 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 pècünia persuädet, et grātia, et auctöritas dīcertis, et dignitas, et postrēmo aspectus. Quint. Hoc et turpe, nec tămen tūtum. Cic. Něque näta est, et aierna "st. Id." Et tơbi et mtki voluptäti före. Id. Before clauses the disjunctive cơn-
junctions are used in a similar manner; as, Res ipsa ant invitäbit aut děhortäbttur. Id. So, also, nunc...nunc, simul...simul, partim...partim, quā...quā, turn... 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, Mar's sive Märors. Cf. $\$ 198$, 2, (c.)

Rem. 9. Instead of et and $u t$ with the negatives nemo, nihil, nullus, and numquam, néque (or nec), and ne are used with the corresponding affirmative words quisquam, ullus, umquam, 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, Hörce quidem cēdunt, et dies, et menses, et anni: nec pratéritum tempus umquam reèvertitur. Cic. Sěnātus dēcrēvit, därent ópëram consüles, ne quid respūblica dētrimenti cäpèret. Cæs.

Rem. 10. The conjunctions tgttur, vërum, vèrumtămen, 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,' aLd sometimes in Latin inquam is so used. Nam also is occasionally employed in this way and very rarely ităque.

Rem 11. Véro and autem are frequently omitted in adversative clauses, especially in short ones; as, Vincére scit Hannïbul, rictöriā üti 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 withont et or vēro; as, ăliēna ritia videt, sua non videt. But in unreal suppositions or ironical sentences, where the second member contains the truth, et non or ac non mnst be used, where we may supply 'rather'; see § 198, 1, (c.); as, Quăsi nunc id ăgätur,-ac non hoc quærātur. Cic.

## INTERJECTIONS.

Respecting the construction of interjections with the nominative, see \$209, R. 13:-with the dative, $\S 228,3$ :-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 thie nost 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, Dumnorrix grātiä et largitiōne ăpud Sęquănos plūrimum pŏtěrat. 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 ärescit lacrima, prosertim in ăliēnis madlis, Quickly dries the tear, especially when shed for others' woes. Cic. Sua vitia insípientes et suam culpam in sěnectūtem confërunt. 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 numquam. Id. Quod ăliud iter hăbērent nullum. Id. Que virtus ex prōridendo est appelläta 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, sin, sed, nain, 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, paene, and prope, and also after the negatives nullus, nēmo, nihil, and the word tantum. In Cicero, ităque stands first and igitur is commonly placed after the first, and sometimes after several words.
(c.) Autem, ĕnim, and vèro.(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 verh sum; as, Ille ěnim rěrǒcătus reesistère capit. Cæs. Ego vēro vellem, affuisses. Cic. Incrēdǐbǐle est ěnim, quam sit, etc. Id. They rarely occur after several words; as, Cur non de integro autem dütum. Id. The enclitics $q u e, n e, v e$, 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, Rōmam Căto dèmigrārit, in förōque esse coopit; and this is always the case with $a, a d$ and $o b$. So, also, for the sake of euphony, Apud quosque. Cic.
(d.) Quidem and quŏque, when belonging to single words, are always subjoined to the emphatic word in a clause; as, Verbo ille reus érat, re quĭdem vëro Oppianicus. Cic. Me scillicet maxime, sed proxime illum quơque fĕfellissem. Id. In negative sentences, ne precedes, and quidem follows, the emphatic word; as, Ne ad Cătönem quĭdem prörơcäbo. Cic.-Quidem is sometimes attracted from the word to which it properly belongs to a neighboring pronoun; as, Tibüque persuäde, esse te quĭdem mihi cärisstmum, sed multo före cāriōrem, si, etc., instead of, te cārissimum quidem mihi esse.-Prepositions and conjunctions belonging to the word on which the emphasis rests are placed with it between ne and quídem; as, Ne in fänis quidem. Cic. Ne si dübìtētur quĭdem. Id. Ne quum in S iciliiä quĭdem fuit. ld.; and even Ne cüjus rei arguĕrētur quidem.— So, also, in Cicero, non nisi, '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, pঠ̈tes nam, etc.. Hor. Vìvos et rödĕret
ungues. Id. They even separate et from the word belonging to it; as, Audire et videor pios erräre per lücos. Id. So, Auctius atque dii nèlius fécēre. Id. And they sometimes append que and $v e$ neither to the first word, nor to their proper words in other connections; as, Messallam terrā dum séquiturque mări, instead of terrà mărique. Tib. In such arbitrary positions, however, these conjunctions are almost invariably joined to verbs only.
4. When a word is repeated in the same clanse, so that one is opposed to, or distinguished from, the other, they must stand together; as, Hormines hoominǐbus maxime ūtiles esse possunt. Cic. Equites ălii ălio dilapsi sunt. Liv. Légitque virum vir. Virg. Mănus mănum lüvat. Petr. So, also, the personal and possessive pronouns; as, Séquĕre quo tua te nätūra dücit. Suum se nĕgōtium ägĕre dïcunt.
5. Words used antithetically are also placed near each other; as, Dum tăcent, clămant. Cic. Frăgile corpus ănỉmus sempiternus mơvet. Id.
6. Inquam and often aio, introducing a quotation, follow one or more of the words quoted; as, 'Non nosti quid päter' inquit, 'Chrÿsippus dicat.' Hor. 'Quid,' aio, 'tua crimina prōdis?' Ovid. When a nominative is added to inquit, it usually follows this verb; as, Mihi vēro, inquit Cotta, vidētur. 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 plaed before the other. When any thing is dependent on the adjective, it usually follows its 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 dignitātem meam stüdium. Id.
(b.) Demonstratives, and the adjectives primus, mëdius, 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. Mëdia nox. Cæs. Rëliqua Egyptus. Cic.
8. Monosyllables are usnally prefixed to longer words with which they are connected; as, Vir clärissimus. Cic. Di immortāles. Res innümëräbiles. Vis tempestātis. Cæs.
9. (a.) When nouns are put in apposition, the one which explains or defines the other is generally pat last, unless it is to be made emphatic; as, Opes irritāmenta mälörum. Orid. Hence names of honors or dignities, and every thing of the nature of a title, are commonly placed after the proper name, as explai:atory additions. Thus, especially, the names of changeable Roman dignities; as, Cicęro consul; C. Cüriōni tríbūno plēbis; but also permanent appellations; as, Ennius poēta; Plăto phĭlŏsŏphus; Diơny̆sius ty̆rannus; and such epithets as vir honestissimus; homo doctissimus. But the hereditary title rex is frequently placed before the name; as, rex Dēiŏtărus; and so the title Impërätor after it became permanent.
(b.) In the arrangement of the Roman names of persons, the pronomen stands first, next the nomen or name of the gens, third the cognomen or name of the fämĭlia, and last the agnömen; as, Publius Cornēlius Scīpio Afrǐcānus. Tlie 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,

Pŏpŭli Rōmāni laus est. Cic. Laudis ăvi̛di, pĕcūniæ lïbërāles. Sall. Cunctis esto bënignus, nulli blandus, paucis fämiliāris, omnïbus aquus. Sen. Mönйmentum ære pérennius. Hor. Hanc tibi dōno do. Ter.-Ad mërī̀diem spectans. Cic. Extra pěricülum. Id.
(b.) Genitives depending upon neuter adjectives are commonly placed last; as, Incerta fortunce. Liv. Nec thbi plus corais, sed minus oris inesi. 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, nors patris tui, contrasts the death with the preceding life; but, frutris tui mors distinguishes this case of death from others. Hence we say, ănimi mötus, ănimi morbus, corpóris partes, terrce uötus.-An objective genitive usually follows the worl on which it depends; as, unua signtificātiōne lītèrārum, 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 goveming noun.The genitive dependent on causä or grati $\bar{\iota}$, 'on account of,' regularly precedes these ablatives; as, glōrice causā morten ơbive ; ēmölŭmenti sui gractiū̀.
(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 prīmā lüce ad sextam hōram. Liv. Ad ănümi mei ketitiam. Cic. Ad bĕne beătëque vīvendum. Id.
(d.) Sometimes, however, the preposition comes between its noun and`an adjective or a genitive, by which the noun is modified; as, Nullä in re. Cic. Justis de causis. Id. Suos inter cequăles. Id. Hanc ob causam. Id. Magno cum mëtu. Id. Quā in urbe. Id. Eä in re. Id. Atātis suce cum primis. Nep.So, also, a conjunction may follow the preposition; as, Post vēro Sulle rictōriam.
(e.) Per, in adjurations, is often separated from its case by other words; as, Per égo te deos óro. Ter.-In the poets, other prepositions are sometimes separated in the same manner; as, Vulnëra, que circum plurima mūros accēpit patrios. Virg.
(f.). Tènus 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, pĕnes, ultra and adversus; and with still less frequency with post, per, ad, and de; as, quam ante, quem contra, quos inter, quem propter, 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 ipsus. Virg. Ripain ăpud Euphrätis. Tac. Măria omnia circum. Virg. And more rarely other words intervene; as, His accensa sŭper. Id. Vitiis nēmo sine nascītur Hor.
11. Infinitives precede the verbs on which they depend; as,

Jŭgurtha, übi eos Afrǐcā dēcessisse rătus est, něque propter lơci nātūram Cirtam armis expugnäre possit, mcenia circumdat. Sall. Servire măgis quam impěrāre părāti estis. Id.
12. A word which has the same relation to several words, either precedes or follows them all; as, Vir grăvis et săpiens. Cic. Clärus et hơnörätus vir. Id. In scriptöribus lĕgendis et ìmitandis, or In lĕgendis imitandisque scriptöribus; but not In lëgendis scriptōríbus et ímẽtandis. Quum respondēre nëque vellet nëque posset. Häbentur et dïcuntur ty̆ranni. Amīcitiam nec ūsu nec rătiōne hăbent cognitam.
13. Relatives are commonly placed after their antecedents, and as near to them as possible; as,

Qui sim, ex eo, quem ad te misi, cognosces. Sall. Litěras ad te mīsi, per quas grātias tībi ègi. Cic.
14. Quisque is generally placed after se, suus, qui, ordinals and superlatives; as, Suos quisque dèbet tuēri. Cic. Sătis sưperque est silli suärum cuīque rērum cūra. Id. Sèvēritas ănìmadversiōnis infimo cuīque grätissima. Id. Maxime décet, quod est cüjusque 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, Năle parta măle diläbuntur. Cic. Nihil tam aspérum nëque tam difficile esse, quod non cŭpìdissĭme factüri essent. Sall.-Impérium făcille iis artībus rětīnētur, quibus inïtio partum est. Id. Sed maxǐme üdölescentium fămíliārítātes appētēbat. Id. Non tam in bellis et in proliis, quam in prömissis et fide firmiörem. Cic.-(b.) When non belongs to a single word of the proposition, it always stands immediately before it ; as, non te rëprěhendo, sed fortünam. 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 tantöpére te angas, intelligëre säne non possum. Instead of non dico, négo is generally used; as, négăvit eum ădesse. The negatives non, nëque, nëmo, nullus, when joined to general negative pronouns or adverbs, such as quisquam, ullus, umquam, always precede them though not always immediately; as, némini quidquam nĕgāvit; non méminni 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 Rōmänus, pơpǔlus Rōmānus, jus civile, ces àliènum, terrā mărique, Pontĭfex maximus, măgister ëquìtum, tribūnus milìtum, tribüm mülitum consülāri pötestäte, Jüpiter optimus maximus, via Appia; ne quid respüblica dètrimenti căpiat. Cic. The ablatives öpiniōne, spe, justo, sólito, (see § 256, R. 9 ), generally precede the comparative.

Nots 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 vidētur; nor, in general, with a monosyllable.
18. Hiätus 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 ARPANGEMENT OF CLAUSES.

§ 250. 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 sèmiänimis de templo èlätus esset, confestim annimam effāvit, 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 sèmiănimis de templo è $\bar{a} t u s$ esset, confestim animan effāvit, Pausanias, when he had been carried out of the temple but just alive, immediately expired. Nep.
(b.) A sentence, such as Scipio exercitum in Africam träjēcit, ut Hannibălem er. Ităliã dēdücěret, is not periodic in its structure, but it becomes so when wo
say, Scīpio, ut Hannǐbălem ex Ităliā dēdūcèret, exercǐtum in Afrtcam trājēcit. Periods in which the subordinate clause precedes with two conjunctions; as, Quum ìğtur Rōmam vēnisset, stătion impèrātōrem ădìt, are made still more strictly periodic by placing first the conjunction which belongs to the whole, and then inserting the subordinate proposition; as, Ităque, quum Rōnam vénisset, stătim impérātōrem ădiit.
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, Antĭgŏnus, quum adversus Sěleucum L̆̀̆simăchumque dīmūcäret, in prolio occīsus est. Nep. Quem, ut barbări incendium eff ügisse èmìnus vīdērunt, tēlis missis interf ēcērunt. 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 dictätor fuisset, M. Pompōnius, trǐbūnus 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 sōlum quas regni suspiciōne consŭlem absolvèrent, sed que ădeo in contrāriuin vertërent, ut pöpŭlärem étiarı făcërent. 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, $q u i$ for et is, quälis for et tälis, 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 ignörassem, for et quuns hoc, et si hoc, et quamvis hoc; or quum autem hoc, etc.; and, often, also, where in English no conjunction is used, and even before other relatives; as, quod qui făcit, eum ĕgo impium jüdico, i. e. et qui hoc făcit, or, qui autem hoc fücit. In the ablative with comparatives the relative is often used as a connective; as, Cŭto, quo nëmo tum ërrat 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 quœerěrētur, cur tam diu vellet esse in vītā, Ninil hăbeo, inquit, quod accūsem sěnectūtem. Cic. de Sen. 6. But is more frequent with the protasis or secondary clause; as, A quo quum quærĕrētur, quid maxĭme expĕdiret, respondit. Cic. Off. 2, 25. When it ie 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 postëriöribusnon esset rètentus, Arcěsilas eum rêvơ̌cāvit. Cic. de Fin. 2, 1. The accusative is sometimes to be supplierl; as, Qui (Hērāclītus: quŏniam intelligi nōluit, ómittāmus. 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 suäsi Pompueio, quĭbus ille si pāruisset, Cusar tantas ópes, quantas nunc hăbet, non hăbèret. Cic. Fam. 6, 6. Nōli adversus ens me velle dücëre, cum quĭbus ne contra te arma ferrem, Itüliam réliqui. 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 revum, or the relative alone implying the adversative conjunction; as, multa nihi promisit, sed ea non prostitit, or, quæ non prestitit, but not quee autem or quae vēro. Qui autem and qui vēro are used howerer in protases, where the relative retains its relative meaning, and there is a corresponding demonstrative in the apodosis; as, Qui autem omnia böna a se ipsis pëtunt, iis nīhil málum vidèri pôtest, quod nätūræe nëcessitas afferrat. Cic. de Sen. 2.
(4.) In double relative clauses, especially where the cases are different, Cicero frequently for the second relative clause substitutes the demonstrative; as, Sed ipsius in mente insidēbat spécies pulchritüdinis eximia quaedam, quam intuens, in eāque défixus, ad, etc. for et in quā. Cic. Orat. 2. And sometimes even when the cases are the same; as, Quem Phliuntem rēnisse fërunt, eumque cum Leonte dissěruisse quedam. 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.) Néque 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 $\$ 27 \mathrm{~s}, \mathrm{R} .9$. Nëgue or nec is added to ènim, vēro, and tämen, where we cannot use 'and.' To these negative expressions a second negative is often joined, in which case néque ënim non is equivalent to nam; non vèro non, to atque étiam, a stronger et; nec tămen non, to attämen.

## 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 equiralent to clauses should be mentioned, and ellipses be supplied. Sce § 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. Divile it into two parts-the subject and the predicate, §201, 1-m. If these are simple, the analysis is complete, but if either is compound :-
2. Spesify the simple subjects or predicates of which the compound con-sists.-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 successivcly, 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 gramnatical 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 subdivision 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.
6. 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 ĕquus, its predicate is currit, both of which are simple. See $\oint 201,1-3$; $\$ 202,2$; and $\$ 203,2$.

Parsing. Equus is a common noun, § 26, 1 and 3; of the 2 d decl., § 38 ; rasc. gender, $\$ 28,1$; third person, $\$ 35,2$; its root is équ-, $\$ 40,10$; decline it, $\$ 46$; it is in the nominative case, singular number, $\$ 35,1,(b$.$) ; the subject$ of currit, $\S 209,(a$.$) -Currit is a neuter verb, \S 141$, II.; of the 3d conjugation, § 149, 2, from curro; its principal parts are curro, cŭcurri, cursum, currère, $\oint 151,4$; it is from the first root curr-; give the formations of that root, $\$ 151,1$; it is in the active roice, $\S 142,1$; indicative mood, $\S 143,1$; present tense, $\S 145$, I.; third person, § 147 ; singular number, § 146 ; agreeing with its subject-nominative ëquus, § 209, (b.)

Note. The questions to be asked in parsing ěquus are such as these, Why is ëquus 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. Saevius ventis ăgŭtātur 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 scevius ventis ăgitūtur; both of which are complex, §201, 10, §202, 6, and $\S 203,5$.

The grammatical subject is pinus, the pine; this is modified by ingens, great, § 201, 2, § 202, 2, and $\S 202,6,(3$.

The grammatical predicate is ágitãtur, is shaken; this is modified by two independent modifiers, scerius, 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 2 d and 4th declensions, $\S 88$ and $§ 99$; feminine gender, $\S 29,2$; 3 d person, $\oint 35,2$; from the root pin-, $\$ 40,10$; (decline it both in the 2 d and 4 th declensions); -it is found in the singular number, $\oint 35,1$, and the nominative case, the subject of ágitātur, § 209, (a.)

Ingens is a qualifying adjective of quantity, $\S 104,4$, and $\S 205, \mathrm{~N} .1$; of the 3 d decl., $\S 105,1$, and $\S 38$; of oue termination, $\$ 108$, and $\S 111$; from the root ingent-, $\S 40,10$; (decline it like prasens, $\S 111$, but with only $i$ in the ablative, $\oint 113$, Exc. 3,);-it is found in the singular number, feminine gender, $\$ 26, \mathrm{~K} .4$; and nominative case, agreeing with its noun pinus, § 205.
Agitātur is an active frequentative verb, $\oint 141$, I., and $\S 187$, II. 1; of the 1st conjugation, $\S 149,2$; from the first root of its primitive ágo, $\S 187$, 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 pinus, § 209, (b.)

Secius is a derivative adverb of manner, $\$ 190,2-4$; in the comparative degree, from the positive save or sceviter, which is derived from the adjective scevus, § 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, $\oint 26,1$ and 3 ; of the 2 d declension, $\oint 38$; masculine gender, §46; from the root vent-, §40, 10; (decline it); -it is found in the plural number, $\$ 35,1$; ablative case, modifying ăgitātur by denoting its means or instrument, § 247.
3. Mãthrīdātes, duārum et vīginti gentium rex, tơtīdem 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 ciyinti gentium rex, its predicate is totidem linguis jüra dixit, both of which are complex, $\S 201,10, \S 202,6$, and $\S 203,5$.

The grammatical subject is Mithridätes; 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 $e t$, § 202, III. 3.

The grammatical predicate ss dixit; this is limited by jüra 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. Mïthridätes is a proper noun, $\$ 26,2$; of the third declension, § 38 ; masculine gender, $\$ 28,1$; from the root Mithridāt-, $§ 40,10$; genitive Mithridatitis, $\S 73,1$; (decline it in the singular number only, $\S .95,(a$.$) ;-it is$ found in the nominative case, the subject of dixit, § $209,(a$.

Rex is a common noun-third declension, § 38 ; masculine gender, § 28, $\mathbf{1 ;}$ from the root rēg-, $\S 40,10$; genitive rēgis, $\S 78,2$; (decline it);-it is found in the singular number-the nominative case, in apposition to Mïthridätes, § 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, $\S 83$, II. 3 ; limiting rex subjectively, $\S 211$ and R. 2.

Duärum is a numeral adjective, § 104, 5; of the cardinal kind, § 117 ; from $d u o, d u c e, d u o$; from the root $d u$-; (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.
$E t$ is a copvlative conjunction, $\S 198,1$, connecting duärum and viginti, § 278.
$V$ iginti 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, $\S 149,2$; from dico, (give the principal parts in the active voice, and its first, second, and third roots, $\S 150,4$, and $\S 171,1 ;$ ) it is formed from the second root dix-, (give the formations of the second root);-it is found in the active voice, $\S 141,1$; indicative mood, § 143, 1; perfect indefinite tense, § 145, IV. and Rem.; singular number, third person, agreeing with Mîthrǐdätes, § 209, (b.)
$J u ̈ r a$ is a common noun, of the third declension, from jus, root jür-, §56, I. R. 1, genitive $j \bar{u} r i s$, $\S 76$, Exc. 3 ; neuter gender, $\S 66$; (decline it); it is found in the plural number, accusative case, § 40, 8; the object of dixit, §229.

Linguis 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.

Tötżdem is a demonstrative pronominal adjective, § 139,5,(2.) and (3.); indeclinable, $\$ 115,4$; it is in the ablative plural, feminine gender, limiting linguis, § 205.

## 4. Pausănurs, quum semiănĭmis de templo ēlātus esset, confestim ŭnそ̌-

 mam effāvit. Nep. Paus. 4.Analysis. This is a complex sentence, $\S 201,11$; consisting of two members, which are so arranged as to constitute a period, $\$ 280,1$.

The principal proposition is, Pausănias confestim ănĭmam effāvit, §201, 5. The subordinate proposition is, quum (is) sēmiănimis de templo ē̄ātus esset, § $201,6$.

The leading proposition has a simple subject, Pausănias, §202, 2, and a complex predicate, confestim ăniman effāvit, $\$ 203,3$; in which effavit is the grammatical predicate, $\$ 203,2$; which is modified by confestim and animum, $\S 203$, I. 1, (2.) and (3.), and II. R. 2., and also by the adverbial clause quum sémiänimis, ete. $\S 201,6$ and 7 , and $\$ 203$, I. 3 .

The subordinate proposition, which is connected to the leading clause by the subordinate conjunction quum, $\S 201,9$, has a simple subject, viz. is understood, and a complex predicate sēmiănimis, de templo élātus esset, § 203, 3.The grammatical predicate is ètātus esset, $\$ 203,2$; which is modified by seemioxnìmis, § 203, I. 1, (1.), and de templo, § 203, I. 2, and II. Rem. 2.

Parsing. Pausănias, a Greek proper noun, $\$ 26,2 ;-1$ st decl., $§ \$ 41$ and 44 ; masc. gender, $\$ 28,1$; root Pausüni-; found in sing. num., nom. case, the subject of eflärit, §209,(r.)

Confestim, an adv. of time § 190, 3; limiting effārit, § 277. .
Animam is a com. noun of 1st decl., fem. gender, $\$ 41$; from ănima, root alnim-; (decline it);-it is found in the sing. num., acc. case, the object of eflacit, 229.

Efflurit, an act. verb, 1st conj., from efflo, compo: 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 fers., agreeing with Pausĭnias, § 209, (b.)

Quum is a temporal conjunction, $\$ 198,10$; connecting the dependent to the principal clause, § 278.

Semiunimis 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.)
$D e$ is a preposition, expressing the relation between ēlätus 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.

Elutus esset is an irregular active verb, of the third conjugation, § 179; from efféro, conupounded of ex and féro, ¢ 196, 6 ; (see fëro and compounds, §172); (give the principal parts in both voices, and the 1st and 3d roots);-it is formed from the third root, člāt-, (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 Pausänias, §209, (b.)
5. Rōmāna pūbes, sēdāto tandem păvōre, postquam ex tam turb̌̆do die sĕrēna et tranquilla lux rĕdiit, ŭbi văcuam sēdem rēgiam vīdit, etsi sătis crēdēbat patrībus, qui proxĭmi stĕtĕrant, sublīmem raptum prŏcellā; tămen, vĕlut orbưtātis mĕtu icta, mœstum ălíquamdiu sĭlentiurn obtĭnuit. 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. Rōmāna pūbes [tămen] mœestum ăliquamdiu silentium obtinuit. This is the eading clause. The following are dependent clauses.
2. vèlut orbitātis métu icta,
3. sèdàto tandem păvōre,
4. postquam ex tam turbiddo die sĕrēna et tranquilla lux rẽdiut,
5. übi răcuam sèdem rēgiam vidit,
6. etsi sătis crëdēbat patribus,
7. qui proximi stětěrant,
8. sublìnem rapturn prơcellā.

Note 1. In the preceding clauses the predicates are printed in Italics.
Note 2. The connective of the 1 st clause, is the adversative tămen, which is inserted on account of etsi intervening between the principal subject and predicate. The connective of the 2 d clause is velut, of the 4th postquam, of the 5 th $u \quad u b i$, of the 6 th 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 pübes, which is limited by Romana.-The grammatical predicate is obtinuit, which is limited by äliquamuliu and silentium, and also either directly or indirectly by all the dependent clauses. Silentium is itself modified by mostum.

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) crbituatis mëtu icta esset, § 274, 3, (a.)
(3.) The third clause is also participial, and is equivalent to quum tandem päror sēdütus esset, § 257, R. 1; and hence păvöre represents the subject, and seedato 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 sëreèna and tranquilla.-The grammatical predicate is réduit, 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 vīdit, which is modified by ưbi and văcuam sēdem rejgiam, § 203, I. 1, (3.) and II. 1.
(6.) The grammatical subject of the sixth clause also is $e a$. Its grammatical predicate is creèdēbat, 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 steterrant, which is modified by proximi, $\S 203$, 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, § 20ı, Rem., is eum, i. e. Rōmülum, understood. Its grammatical predicate is raptum (esse), which is modified by sublimem and procellä.

Parsing. Rōmāna is a patrial adjective, § 104, 10, derived from Rōma, $\S 128,6,(a$.$) and (e.); of the 1$ st and 2 d declensions, § 105,2 ; fem. gender, sing. number, nom. case, agreeing with pübes, § 205.

Pūbes, a collective noun, § 26,4 ; 3d decl., fem. gender, § 62 ; from the root $p u \bar{u}-, \S 56$, I. R. 6 ; genitive $p \bar{u} b i s, \S 73,1$; (decline it); -found in the nom. sing., the subject of obtinuit, \$209, (a.)

Tamen, an adversative conjunction, $\$ 198,9$, relating to etsi in the 6th clause.
Mostum, a qualifying adj., § $205, \mathrm{~N} .1$; of the 1st and 2 d declensions, neut. gender, sing. num., acc. case, agreeing with silentium.

Aliquamdiu, an adverb of time, § 191, II.; compounded of ăliquis and diu, § 193, 6 ; and limiting obtìnuit, § 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 $o b$ and tëneo, see $\$ 168$; (give the principal parts in the act. voice, and the formations of the 2 d root, $\$ 157$ at the end);-found in the active voice, ind. mood, perf. indef. tense, sing. num., 3d person, agreeing with pübes, §209, (b.)
$V$ ĕlut for vělut si, an adverb, compounded of vel and ut, §193, 10; modifying icta, and obtinnuisset understood, (as they would have done if, etc.)

Orbitätis, an abstract noun, $\S 26,5$; from the primitive orbus, § 101, 1 and 2; 3 d decl., fem. gender, § 62 ; from the root orbitāt-, § 56 , I., and R. 1; (decline it);-found in the sing. num., subjective gen. case, limiting mĕtu, § 211.

Mëtu, an abstract noun, 4th decl., masc. gen., § 87 ; sing. num., abl. case, § 247.

Icta, a perf. part. pass., from the active verb ico, of the 3 d conj. (give the principal parts in both voices, and decline the participle);-found in the fem. gen., sing. num., nom. case, agreeing with pübes, § 205.

SSédàto, a perfect pass. part. from the active verb sēdo, of the 1st conj., § 149, 2; (give the principal parts in both voices, § 151, 4; and decline it, § 105, R. 2.);-found in the masc. gender, sing. num., abl. case, agreeing with păvöre, § 205.

Trundem, an adverb of time, § 191, II. ; modifying sēdāto, § 277.
Pärōre, an abstract noun, § 26, 5, and § 102, 1; (from päveo), 3d decl., masc. gen., §58; root păvor, § 56, II., and § 70, (decline it);-found in the sing. nuınber, abl. case, absolute with sēdāto, § 257.

Postquam, an adverb of time, compounded of post and quam, $\$ 193,10$; modifying reediit, and connecting the 1st and 4th clauses, § 201, 9.

Ex, a preposition, § 195, R. 2.
Tam, an adverb of degree, $\$ 191$, R. 2; modifying turbtdo, § 277.

## Turbtdo, an adjective, agreeing with die.

Die, a common noun, 5th decl., masc. gender, $\oint 90$, Exc. 1.; sing. number, abl. case, after the prep. ex,$\S 241$.

Sërēna, an adj., 1st and 2 d decls., fem. gen., sing. num., nom. case, agreeing with lux, § 205.

Et, a copulative conjunction, $\$ 198,1$; connecting serrēna and tranquilla, § 278 .

Tranquilla, like sèrēna.
$L u x$, a common noun, 3 d decl., fem. gen., $\$ 62$; from the root lūo-, $\$ 56$, I., and R. 2 ; genitive lūcis, $\S 78,2$.

Rédiit, an irregular neuter verb, of the 4th conj., $\$ 176$; from rèdeo, compounded of eo, $\oint 182$, 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 modifying vidit, § 277.
$V$ ăcuam, an adj., qualifying sédem.
Sēdem, a common noun, $3 \hat{d}$ decl., fem. gen., § 62 ; from the root sēd-, § $56, \mathrm{I}$, R. 6; genitive sedis, § 73,1 ; (decline it);-found in the sing. num., acc. case, the object of the transitive verb vidit, § 229 .

Régiam, a denominative adj., § $128, \mathrm{I} ., 2,(a$.$) ; from the primitive rex, agreo-$ ing with sedem.

Vidit, an active verb, of the 2d conj., (give its principal parts in the active voice, and the formations of the 2 d root); found in the active voice, ind. mood, perf. indef. tense, sing. num., 3 d pers., agreeing with ea, i. e. pübes, understood.

Etsi, a concessive conjunction, $\S 198,4$; corresponding to the correlative adversative conj. tămen, § 198,4, R. and 9 .

Sätis, an adverb of degree, § 191, III., and R. 2; modifying crēdēbat, § 277.
Crédébat, an act. verb, $\$ 141$, I.; 3 d 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. pübes, understood.

Patribus, a common noun, $\S 26,3$; 3d decl., from the root patr-, $\$ 56, \Pi$., R. 3; gen. patris, § 71; masc. gender, § 28,1 ; plur. num., dat. case, depending nn crēdēbat, § 223, R. 2.

Qui, the subject of the 7 th clause, is a relative pronoun, $\$ 136$; masc. gender, plur. num., agreeing with its antecedent patribus, § 206, R. 19, (a.); and is nominative to stêtěrant, $\$ 209$, (a.)

Proximi, an adj. of the superlative degree, § 126, 1, (compare it); of the 1st and 2 d decls., masc. gen., plur. num., nom. case, agreeing with qui, § $205, \S 210$, R. 1, (a.) and R. 3, (2.)

Stétér rant, a neuter verb, 1st conj., irregular in its 2d root, \$165; (give its principal parts, and the formations of the 2 d 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. Rōmñlum,) cnderstood, 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 3 d 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 $\S 145, \mathrm{~V}_{.}$; depending on crëdēbat, § 272.

Pröcellä, 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 morae or double the time occupied in pronouncing a short one; as, ămārĕ.
(c.) A common syllable is one which, in poetry, may be made either long or short; as the middle syllable of tênē̈brce.
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 ressisto is short by nature; while in réstitit it is long by its position, since it is followed by two consonants: $\$ 283$, IV. On the coutrary, the $e$ in dédūco is naturally long, but in déerro 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. mäter, fräter, prāvus, dico, düco; päter, ävus, cădo, măneo, grăvis, 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 mĕus, $i$ in patrǐce. Thus,

Consčáa mens recti fāmæ mendàčua ridet. Ovid. F. $4_{2} 311$.

(b.) So also when $h$ comes between the vowels, since $h$ is accounted only a breathing; as, ň̌hil: (see § 2, 6.) Thus,

Exc. 1. (a.) Fio has the $i$ long, except in $f \breve{u} t$ and when followed by $e r$; as fiunt, fièbam. Thus,

Omnia jam fžant, fı̈rri quæ posse nĕgăbam. Ovid. Tr. 1, 8, 7.
(b.) It is sometimes found long even before er; as, fiëret. Ter.; fiërri. Plaut: and, on the contrary, Prudentius has $f i \delta$ 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, $f a ̆ c i e ̄ i . ~ T h u s, ~$

Non rădii solis, něque lūcīda tēla diēi. Lucr. 1, 148.
(b.) In sper, rea, and fidei, e is short.

Note. In Lucretius, the e of rei is, in a few cases, long, and that of fider 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 $a i$ of the first declension; as, aulā̃, pictāi. Cf. § 43, 1.
(b.) A and $e$ are also long in proper names in aĩus, eius, or eia; as, Cäuus, Pompêius, Aquiľ̌ia; and in the adjectives Gräius and Vềus. Thas,
Ethěrium sensum, atque aurãi simplicicis ignem. Virg. A. 6, 747.
Accípe, Pompēi, déductum carmen ab illo. Ovid. Pont. 4, 1, 1.
Necnon cum Vēnětis Aquйlēia perfŭrit armis. Sil. 8, 606.

Exc. 4. (a.) $I$ is common in genitives in ius; as, $\bar{u} n$ Ĩus, ill̃̃us. Thus,

> Iľus et nitidido stillent unguenta căpillo. Tibull, 1, 7, 51 . Illius püro destillent tempöra nardo. Id. 2, 2. 7.
(b.) But $i$ in the genitive of alter is commonly short; and in that of älius it is always long.

Exc. 5. The first vowel of ēheu is long; that of Dīāna, $\bar{\imath} 0$, and $\check{o} h e$, 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,
äèr, Achära, Achëlöus, dïa, êos, Läertes, and Greek words having in the original a long $e$ or $o(n$ or $\alpha$.) See also § 293, 3.
(1.) Words which, in Greek, are written with ei $(\varepsilon)$ before a vowel, and in Latin with a single $e$ or $i$, have the $e$ or $i$ long; as, EEnëas, Alexandria, Cussio-

Hence, most adjectives in eus, formed from Greek proper names, have the $e$ long; as, Cythéreüu, Pélopēus; and the e remains long when eé is restored; as, Pélópêta.
Exc. Acădèmia, chơrea, Mălea, plătea, and some patronymics and patrials in eis; as, Néreis, have the penult common.
(2.) Greek genitives in eos, and accusatives in ea, from nominatives in eus, generally shorten the $e$; as, Orpheos, Orphea; ;-but the $e$ is sometimes lengthened by the Ionic dialect; as, Céphêos, llionèa.
(3.) Greek words in ais, ois, aius, eius, oius, aon, and ion, generally lengthen
 But Thëbăis, Simóis, Phäon, Deucälićn, Pygmälion, and many others, shorten the former vowel.
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, Amÿthäon, -ä̈nis; Deuorition, -onis.

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, $\overline{a u r u m}, f \bar{\propto} n u s, \overline{E u} b \bar{\propto} a$, Pompḕus, Orphēe. Thus,


Harpyï̈̈que cơlunt ăliē, Phiñē̃a postquam. Iu: A. 3, 212.
Exc. 1. Prce, in composition, is short before a vowel; as, prĕustus, prĕăcūtus. Thus,

Nec tōtā tămen ille prior prĕeunte cărīnā. 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,

Insŭľ̆ rơnio in magno, quas dira Cělæno. 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, $q u \bar{a}, q u \bar{i}, q u \bar{\jmath} r u m$, quīa, quibus, quătio, quëror, æqudr, linguá, sanguis.
III. A syllable formed by contraction is long; as,
ălius for alizus; cögo for cơăgo; null for nさhill; jünior for jǜvẽnior. Thus, Tīty̆re cöge pécus, tu post cārecta látébas. Virg. E. 3, 20.
IV. A vowel naturally short, before two consonants, a double consonant, or the letter $j$, is long by position; as, ärma, bèlum, $\bar{a} x i s, g a ̈ z a, m a ̈ j o r . ~ T h u s, ~$

Pāscẹre ðpōrtet ðुes dēdūctum diečre cärmen. Virg. E. 6, 5. Nēc my̆rtūs vīncet corry̆los ; nēc laurea Phœebi. Id. E. 7, 64. At nōbis, Pax alma, vēni, spīcamque tënēto. Tibull. 1, $10,67$. Răra jüvant: primis 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 $m a^{\prime}-y o r$. See § 9,1 .

Exc. 1. The compounds of $j u ̈ g u m$ have $i$ short before $j$; as, $b \check{j} \check{j} \mathbf{u}$ gus, quädrüjŭgus. Thus,

Intĕreā bzjŭg gis infert se Lüčgus 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 nŏcuz̄t differre parātis. Lucan. 1, 281.
> Ferte cîti ferrûm; dăte tēlā; scandîte mūros. Virg. A. 9, 37. Ne tảmen ignōrēt, quæ sit sententiă 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 fol lowed 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, phărētra, volŭ̈̆cris, pŏplĭtes, cŏchlea. Thus,

> Et primo sinninis vơlŭcri, mox vèra vờūcris. Ovid. M. 13. 607.
> Nātum ante ōra pătris, pātrem qui obtruncat ad āras. Virg. A. 2, 663. Nox těnẽbras pröfert. Phoebus fügat inde těnêbras. Ovid.

Rem. 1. If the rowel before a mute and liquid is naturally long, it continues so; as, sălübris, ambülūcrum.

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, äbluo, obbruo, süblévo, quamöbrem.

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,

Terrasquẽ tractusque marris coelumque prŏfundum. 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 Tě̃cmessa, Pröcne, Cy̆cnus.

## SPECIAL RULES.

## FIRST AND MIDDLE SYLLABLES.

## I. DERIVATIVE WORDS.

§ 284. Derivative words retain the quantity of their primi tives; as,
by conjugation, ămo, ămat, ămäbat, ămävi, ămätus, etc.; by declension, ămor, ămöris, ămöri, ămöribus, etc.; so, ănımal, ănimātus, from ănima; gěmébundus, from gẽnère; $f$ ămília, from $f$ ămülus ; māternus, from māter ; prơpinquus, from prơpe.

Note 1. Lär, $p \bar{a} r$, sāl, and $p \bar{e} s$ in declension shorten the vowel of the nominative; as, sális, pédis, 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,
puěritia, from puěri; virgĩneus, from virginis; sǎlūber, 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,
mǒvēbam, mǒvēto, mǒveam, mŏvèrem, mŏve, mŏvēre, mŏvens, mŏvendus, from mör, the root of the present, with $\delta$ short;-mōvěram, mōvérim, mōvissem, mōverro, mōvisse, from mōr, the root of the perfect, with $\bar{o}$ long; mōtūrus and mōtus;-mōto, mōtio, mōtor, and mōtus, - $\bar{u} s$, from mōt, the root of the supine, with $\bar{o}$ also long.

Rem. 3. (a.) Sŏlūtum and volütum from solvo and volvo have the first syllable short, as if from soluo, voluo. So, from gigno come gĕnui, gěnìtum, as if from gêno; and potui, from pott's sum (possum).
(b.) The $a$ in $d a$, imperative of $d 0$, is long, though short in other parts of the verb. See § 294, 2.
(c.) The $o$ in possui and pøsitum is short, though long in pōno.

Exc. 1. Perfects and supines of two syllables have the first syllable long, even when that of the present is short; as,
vēni, vīdi, fēēi, from vĕnio, vìdeo, făcio; cāsum, mōtum, vīsum, from cădo, möreo, video.

Note 3. Such perfects are supposed to have been formed either by the contraction of reduplicated syllables, as věnio, perf. věvěni, by syncope věëni, by crasis vēni, or by the omission of a consonant, as video, perf. vìdsi, by syncop6 $v i d i$, 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 visum; moveo, movitum, by syncope mörtum, by contraction mötum.
(1.) (a.) These seven perfects have the first syllable short:-bıb $b$, dĕdi, fưdi, (from findo), scŭdi, stĕti, stưti, tưli. So also percŭli, from percello.
(b.) The first syllable is also short before a vowel (§ 283, I.); as, rüi.
(2.) (a.) These ten supines have the first syllable short:-ctitum, (irom cieo), dătum, ǐtum, ľ̆tum, qư̆tum, rătum, rŭtum, sătum, sťtum, and stătum.
(b.) So, also, had the obsolete fütum, from füб̆, whence comes fütūrus.

Exc. 2. (a.) Reduplicated polysyllabic perfects have the first two syllables short; as,
cëctdi, cĕctini, tettígi, didìci, from cădo, căno, tango, and disco.
(b.) The second syllable of reduplicated perfects is sometimes made long by position; as, mómōrdí, têtēndi.- Cécīdi from caedo, and pěpēdi 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, coenätürio from coenātū, the third root of cceno. So partürio, ēsürio, nuptürio.

Exc. 4. Frequentative verbs, formed from the third root of verbs of the first conjugation, have the $i$ short; as, clämìto, volito. 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 Fömentum, fŏveo. Hūmānus, from hǒmo. Lāterna, from. lăteo, Litěra from lìno. Lex (lēgis), from lĕgo.

Mōbı̌lis, from mŏveo.
Persōna, from persŏno. Rēgŭla and \}rom Rex (rēgis), $\}$ rěgo. Sēcius, from sěcus. Sēdes, from sědeo. Sēmen, from sěro.

Stīpendium, from stips (stipis).
Suspicio, ōnis, from suspicor.
Tēgŭla, from těgo.
2. Some have a short vowel from a long one in the primitive. Such are,

| Dicax, fro | Mŏlestns, from mooles. | Săgax, from sägio. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Dux (dŭcis), from dūco. | Năto, from nātu. sup. | Sŏpor, from sōpio. |
| Fides, from fido. | Nŏto, from nōtu. sup. | Vădum, from vādo. |
| Lăbo, from läbor, dep | ǒdium, from ōdi. | Vŏco, from vox (vōcis.) | Lŭcerna, from lūceo. Quăsillus, from quālus.

Note 1. Disertus comes regularly (by syncope) from dissertus, the prefix dis being short, §299, 1. Cf. dirimo and divibeo, where $s$ is changed to $r$. See $\$ 196$, (b.) 2.

Note 2. Some other words might, perhaps, with propricty be aidded 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 möbilis may have been möribilis; mötum, 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, nüx, nŭcis. 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 liquor or liqueo; as,

Crassaque convěniant İquidis, et liqǔda crassis. Lucr. 4, 1255.

## II. COMPOUND WORDS.

## § 285. 1. Compound words retain the quantity of the words

 which compose them; as, cơmèdo, ènitor, prōdüco, sübörno.
2. The change of a vowel or a diphthong in forming the compound does not alter its quantity ; as,
concido, from cádlo; concido, from ccedo; èrigo, from règo; reclüdo, from claudo; inïquus, from aqquus.

Exc. 1. A long syllable in the simple word becomes short in the following compounds:-agnitus and cognitus, from nötus; dējëro and pējëro, from jüro; hódie, from höc die: nihïum and nihill, from hilum; causidicus, and other compounds ending in dicus, from dico.

Exc. 2. Imbëcillus, from bäcillum, has the second syllable long. The participle ambitus has the penult long from itum, but the nouns ambitus and ambitio follow the rule.

Fxc. 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. $\% 294,(a$.

Note 1. Prepositions of one syllable, which end in a vowel, are long ( $\$ 294$, (a.); those which end in a single consonant are short ( $\$ 299,1$.$) -Trä from$ trans is long; as, trädo, trādūco.

Exc. 5. Pro, in the following compounds, is short:-prøfänus, proffäri, pröfecto, pröfestus, pröficiscor, pröfiteor, prof ügio, pröf ügus, pröcella, pró fundus, projépos, pröneptis, and protercus. It is common in procuro, profundo, propaco, propello, and propino.-Respecting prae in composition before a vowel see $\$ 283$, III. Exc. 1.

Rem. 1. The Greek preposition pro (before) is short; as, pröphëta. In prol ogus, propola, and propinu, it is common.

Rem. 2. The inseparable prepositions $d i$ (for $d i s$ ) and se are long; as,
cidivea, sëpäro. Respecting disertus, soe § 284, Exc. 5, 2, N. 1.

Rem. 3. (a) The inseparable preposition re or red is short; as, rëmitto, rĕfĕro, rědămo.
(b.) Re is sometimes lengthened in religio, reliqquice, reliquus, repervit, retülit, repülit, rectudit, redūcëre, where some editors double the consonant following re. Cf. § 307,2 . In the impersonal verb rēfert, 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,
mälo, quäpropter, trādo, (trans do) ; nĕfas, valĕdīco, hujuscĕmठdi; bǐceps, trrdens, omnĭpötens, signĕf íco; hŏdie, quandöquìdem, phïlơsơphus; dŭcenti, lưcŭples, Trō̆ŭgěna; Poly̆dōrus, Eury̆py̆lus, Thrăsy̆bülus.

Exc. 1. A. $A$ is scort in quăsi, eădem, when not an ablative, and in some Greek compounds; as, cătăpulta, hexămĕter.

Exc. 2. E. $E$ is long in crēdo, nēmo, nēquam, nëquāquam, nēquidquam, nēquis, nēquìtia; mèmet, mè̀cum, tēcum, sēcum, sēse, vècors, vēsānus, věnē̄ficus, and vidélicet ;-also in words compounded with se for sex or sèmi; as, sédécim, sēmestris, sēmodius; but in selibra it is found short in Martial.

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, täbefăcio, tëpefăcio.

Exc. 3. 1. (1.) $I$ is long in those compounds in which the first part is declined, ( $\$ 296$;) as, quïdam, quīvis, quïlibet, quantīvis, quantīcumque, tantīdem, unīcuīque, eìdem, reīpüblìcx, utrīque.
(2.) $I$ is also long in those compounds which may be separated without altering the sense, ( $\$ 296 ;$ ) as, lüdìmágister, sīquis, agricultūra.
(3.) I, ending the former part of a compound word, is sometimes made long by contraction; as, tībīcen for tībičcen, from tībia and căno. See § 283, III.
(4.) I is long in bīgø, quadrīgæ, îlicet, scilǐcet.
(5.) In idem, when masculine, $i$ is long; but when neuter, it is short. The $i$ of $\check{u} b \bar{q} q u e$ and utröbique, the second in ibidem, and the first in nimirum, are long. In $\check{u} b i c u m q u e$, as in $\check{u} b i, i$ is common.
(6.) Compounds of dies have the final $i$ of the former part long; as, biduum, triduum, mërīdies, quötīdie, quotĩdiānus, prīdie, postridie.

Note 3. In Greek words, $i$, ending the former part of a compound, is short; as, Callimăchus; unless it comes from the diphthong ei ( $\varepsilon$ ), or is made long or common by position.

Exc. 4. O. (1.) In compounds, the final o of contro, intro, retro, and quando (except quandŏquüdem,) is long; as, contrōversia, intrōdüco, retrōcēdo, quandöque. $O$ is long also in ăliöqui (-quin), and utröque.
(2.) $O$ is long in the compounds of $q u \bar{o}$ and $e 0$; as, $q u \bar{o} m \delta d o$, quöcumque, quo-
 in the conjunction quöque, it is short.
(3.) Greek words which are written with an oméga ( $\infty$ ) have the 0 long; as, geōmetra, Mīnōtaurus, lăgōpus.

Exc. 5. U. $U$ is long in Jüpiter (Jovis păter), and jüdico (jūs 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, päcis; 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 Yter, sŭpellex, compounds of căput ending in $p s$, and sometimes jĕcur, have two increments; as,
iter, $\mathfrak{i - l i n - e ̈ - r i s ; ~ s u ̈ p e l l e x , ~ s u ̈ - p e l l e c - i z - l i s ; ~ a n c e p s , ~ a n - c i p - i - t i s ; ~ j e ̈ c u r , ~ j e ̀ - c i n - ~}$ $\delta$-ris.
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, iliner, etc.
3. The dative and ablative plural of the third declension have one increment more than the genitive singular; as,

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\begin{array}{l}
\text { rex, } \\
\text { sermo, } \\
\text { iter, }
\end{array} & \text { Gen. rē-gis, } \\
\text { ser-mō-nis, } \\
i-t i n-e \overline{e r} \text {-ris, }
\end{array} \quad \text { D. and Ab. rēg-i-buts. } \begin{aligned}
& \text { ser-mōn-i-bus. } \\
& \text { it-i-nēr-i-bus. }
\end{aligned}
$$

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,

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,
sermönis, sermōni, sermōnem, sermōne, sermōnes, sermönum, sermōnibus. Böbus, or bübus, from bos, bocis, 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.

§ 刃87. 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. fructüi, § 283 , I. (a.): dies, gen. dieī, § 283, 1. Exc. 2, (a.)

## LNCREMENTS OF THE SECOND DECLENSION.

2. The increments of the second declension in the singular number are short; as,
gĕner, gënēri; sätur, sătŭri; tënĕr, tënëri; vir, v̌̌ri. Thus,
Ne, puěri, ne tanta anīmis assuescîte bella. Virg. A. 6, 833.
Minnstra sinunt; gěnêros externis aff öre ab öris. IU. A. 7, 270.
Exc. The increment of Iber and Celiber 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,
ănìmal, ănı̆mālis; audax, audācis; sermo, sermōnis; fërox, fërōcis; ŏpus,
 dux, dŭcis; chlămys, chlămy̆dis; Styx, Sty̆gis. Thus,

Prōnăque cum spectent ăň̆mãlia cētĕra terram. Ovid. M. 1, 84.
Iæc tum multiplĭci pŏpŭlos sermōne reple己bat. Virg. A. 4, 189.
Incumbent gěněris lapsi sarcïre ruīnas. Id. G. 4, 249.
Quālem virgĭneo dēmessum poll̃̆ce flōrem. Id. A. 11, 68.
Adspïce, ventōsi cěcīdërunt murmŭris auræ. Id. E. 9, 58.

## Exceptions in Increments in A.

1. (a.) Masculines in al and ar (except Car and Nar) increase short; as, Annïbal, Annı̆bălis; Amilcar, Amilcăris.
(b.) Par and its compounds, and the following-ănas, mas, vas (vădis), baccar, hëpar, jübar, 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, düpis; Arabs, Arăbis.
3. Greek nouns in $a$ and as ( $\breve{d} d i s$, $\breve{n} i s$, or $\breve{a} t i s$ ) increase short; as, lampas, lampădis; Mĕlas, Mĕlănis, poēma, poëmătis.
4. The following in $a x$ increase short:-ăbax, anthrax, Arctophy̆lax, Atax, Atrax, climax, cölax, corrax, and nycticörax, drōpax, fax, harpax, pänax, smilax, and sty̆rax.-The increment of Syphax is doubtful.

## Exceptions in Increments in 0.

1. $O$, in the increment of neuter nouns, is short; as,
marmor, marmorrıs; corpus, corporis; èbur, éborris. But os (the mouth), and the neuter of comparatives, like their masculine and feminine, increase long. The increment of addor 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 omĕga; as,

Aēdon, Aēdönis; Agămemnon, Agămemnŏnis:-Plăto, Plătōnis ; Sinnon, Sinnōnis ; Sicyon, Sicyönis. Sidon, Orion, and EEgqoon, have the increment common.
3. (a.) In the increment of gentile nouns in or on, whether Greek or barbaric, $o$ is generally short; as,

Măcědo, Mŭcedönis. So, Amazŏnes, Aönes, Myrmidones, Santönes, Saxōnes, Sënönes, Teutơnes, etc.
(b.) But the following have o long:-Eburōnes, Lacōnes, Jönes, Nasamōnes, Suessönes (or -iōnes), Vettōnes, Burgundiönes. Britones has the o common.
4. Greek nouns in or increase short; as, Hector, Hectorris ; rhētor, rhētŏris; Agēnor, Agēnŏris.
5. Compounds of pus, (roũs), as trłpus, pöly̆pus, Edǐ̃pus, and also arbor, mëmor, bos, compos, impos, and lépys, increase short.
6. $O$, in the increment of nouns in $s$ with a consonant before it, is short; as,
scrobs, scrobis ; inops, inorpis; Dotlopes. But it is long in the increment of cercops, Cyclops, and hydrops.
7. The increment of Allobrox, Cappădox, and prcecox, is also short. .

## Eふニзptions 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, loccüples, mansues, merces, and quies-also Iber, ver, lex, rex, älec or älex (häl-) narthex and vervex-plebs and seps-increase long.
3. Greek nouns in es and er (except aër and cether) increase long; as, magnes, magnētis; crāter, crātēris.

## Exceptions in Increments in I.

1. Nouns and adjectives in $i x$, increase long; as, victrix, victricis; fêlix, fèl̄̄̄cis.

Exc. Cŭlix, Cílix, coxendix, fillix, fornix, hystrix, lărix, nix, pix, sălix, strix, and rarely sandix or sandyx, increase short.
2. Vibex and the following nouns in is increase long:-dis, glis, lis, ris, Nēsis, Quiris, and Samnis. The increment of Psöphis is common.
3. Greek nouns, whose genitive is in inis increase long; as, del. phin, delphīnis; Sălămis, Sălămīnis.

## Exceptions in Increments in U.

1. Genitives in udis, uris, and utis, from nominatives in $u s$, have the penult long; as,
pălus, pălüdis; tellus, tellürıs; virtus, virtütis. But intercus, Lǔgus and pěcus pëcüdis, 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, Trächyn, Trāchÿnis.
2. The increment of bombyx, Cey̆x, 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 penult is called the plural increment; as, sa in müsārum, no in döminōrum, $\AA$ in rūpium and rūpibus.
3. In plural increments, $a, e$, and $o$, are long, $i$ aad $u$ are short; as,
bơnārum, ănimäbus, rērum, rêbus, gẹnèrơrum, amböbus; sermöntbus, lăcübus. Thus,

Appia, longã āum, tërǐtur, rêgīna viã rum. Stat. S. 2, 2, 12. Sunt lacrǔmæ rērum, et mentem mortālia tangunt. Virg. A. 1, 462. Atque allii, quörum cōmœedia prisca vǐrōrum est. Hor. S. 1, 4, 2. Portübus êgrĕdior, ventisque férentĭbus 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, dü-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 remaning increments are numbered successively from the first; as,
ă-mas,
1
ă-mā-mus, 12
ăm-ā-bā-mus,
123
ăm-ā-vě-rā-mus.
mŏ-nes,
1
mǒ-nē-tur, 12
mŏn-ē-rē-tur, 123
mŏn-ē-bĭm-ī-ni.
au-dis, 1
au-dī-tis, 12
au-di-ē-bas, 1234
au-di-ē-băm-ī-ni.
8. 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.

## $1 \quad 12$

Thus the increments of $l e-t \bar{a}-t u r$, let- $\bar{a}-b \bar{u}-t u r$, etc., are reckoned from the supposed verb leto, letas.
§ 290. In the increments of verbs, $a, e$, and $o$, are long; . $i$ and $u$ are short; as,
ămäre, mönēre, făcitōte, vòlŭmus, rěgēbāmini. Thus,
Et cantāre păres, et respondēre părāti. Virg. E. 7, 5.
Sic ěquĭdem dūcēbam ănìmo, rêbarque fūtūrum. Id. A. 6, 690.
Cumque lŏqui pŏtěrit, mātrem făč̆tōte sălütet. Ovid, M. 9. 378.
Scindfatur incertum stŭdia in contrāria vulgus. Virg. A. 2, 39.
Nos nŭměrus sŭmus, et frūges consūmëre 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, circumdăbāmus.

## (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 bĕris and bëre; as,
régĕre (infin. and imperat.), rěgěris or rĕgĕre (pres. ind. pass.), rěgěrem and régĕrer (imp. subj.); ämäbêris, ămäbëre; monēbéris, mönēbëre.
Note 1. In velim, vélis, etc., from rolo, (second person, regularly rolis, by syncope and contraction vis), $\tilde{e}$ is not an increment, but represents the root vowel $\delta$, and is therefore short; § 284, and $\S 178,1$.
2. $E$ is short before ram, rim, ro, and the persons formed from them; as,
àmāvèram, ămāvërat, ămāvèrim, mơnuěrimus, rexëro, audīvěrtis.
Note 2. In verbs which have been shortened by syncope or otherwise, e before $r$ retains its original quantity; as, flēram, for flèvěram.

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,
pétivi, audīvi, quesivit, dìvisit, audivimus, divisistmus, audivěram.
2. $I$ is long, after the analogy of the fourth conjugation, in the final syllable of the third root of gaudeo, arcesso, divivido, făcesso, lăcesso, pĕto, quarro, rĕcenseo and obliviscor; as,
gävisus, arcessitus, divisus, fäcessitus, lăcessitus, pêtitus, quesitus, rëcensitus, oblitus; gãǔisūrus, etc.
3. $I$ in the first increment of the fourth conjugation, except in rmus of the perfect indicative, is long; as,
autire, audirem, auditus, auditürus, pres. vènïmus, but in the perfect vēnimus. So in the ancient forms in ibam, ibo, of the fourth conjugation; as, nutribat, lēnibunt; and also in ibam and ibo, from eo.

Note 3. When a vowel follows, the $i$ is short, by $\S 283$; as, audiunt, audièanm.

- 4. $I$ is long in the first and second persons plural of subjunctives in sim, sis, sit, ctc., ( $\$ 162,1$,); as, simus, sitis, veilimus, veilitis, and their compounds; as, possimus, adsimus, mälimus, nölimus. So also in nolito, nölite, nölitote, after the analogy of the fourth conjugation.

5. $I$ in ris, rimus and ritis, in the future perfect and perfect subjunctive, is common; as,
vidëris, Mart., occidériş, Hor.; viděritis (Ovid), dëdërititis (Id.); fēcērimus (Catull.), ègĕrimus (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,


## RULES FOR THE QUANTITY OF PENULTIMATE AND ANTEPENULTIMATE SYLLABLES.

## I. PENULTS.

§ 291. 1. Words ending in acus, icus, and icum, shorten the penult; as,
ămärăcus, Aggyptiăcus, rustǐcus, trīticum, viäticum.
Except Dācus, mërācus, ŏpācus; ämīcus, aprīcus, fīcus, mendīcus, pīcus, posticus, pŭdīcus, spicus, umbilīcus, vicus.
2. Words ending in abrum, ubrum, acrum, and atrum, lengthen the penult; as,
candē̈ābrum, dèlūbrum, lāvācrum, vērātrum.
3. Nouns in $c a$ lengthen the penult; as,
ăpothēēa, cloäca, lactūca, lörica, phōca.
Except ălica, brassǐca, dica, fülica, mantǐca, pělica, pertica, scưtlca, phălärtca, tünica, vömica; and also some nouns in ica derived from adjectives in îcus; as, fabriča, grammëtica, etc. So mänǐcce.
4. Patronymics in ades and ides shorten the penult; as, Atlantiädes, Priămı̆des.
Except those in ides which are formed from nouns in eus or és (ns); as, Atrïdes, from Atrēus; Neoclides, from Neoclēs; except, also, Amphiäraïdes, Bètides, Amÿclides, Ly̆curgīdes.
5. Patronymics and similar words in ais, eis, and ois, lengthen the penult; as,
Achäus, Chrȳ̄sëis, Minōös. Except Phöcăis and Thëbüis. The penult of Nëreis is common.
6. Words in do lengthen the penult; as,
vàdo, cèdo, dulcḕdo, formìdo, rṑdo, testī̀do. Except cădo, divtdo, èdo (to eat), comélo, Macëdo, mödo, sólido, spädo, trëp̌̌ido. Rudo is common.
7. Words in idus shorten the penult; those in udus lengthen it; as,
callidus, herb̌̌dus, limpìdus, lī̀̀̀dus, perf̌dus; crūdus, lūdus, nüdus, südus, ūdus. Except ldus, fìdus, infìdus, nìdus, sīdus.
8. Nouns in $g a$ and $g o$ lengthen the penult; as,
säga, collèga, aurïga, rüga; tmägo, cälīgo, erügo. Except căltga, osstfrăga, tơyut, plăga, (a region, or a net), fŭga and its compounds, stëga, ecloga, égo, harpăgo, ligo.
9. Words in le, les, and lis, lengthen the penult; as,
crinäle, mantēle, ancīle : äles, mìles, pröles; annälis, crüdēlis, civilis, cưrülis.Except mäle;-verbals in ilis and bilis; as, ăgǐlis, ämäbilis;-adjectives in atilis; as, umbrätilis,; -and also, indolles, söbơles; périscëlis, dapsilis, gräcilis, hümilis, pärilis, similis, stërilis, mügilis, strigilis.
10. Words in elus, ela, elum, lengthen the penult; as, phăsèlus, quërèla, prèlum. Except gèlus, gèlum, scèlus.
11. Diminutives in olus, ola, asm, ulus, ula, ulum, also words in
ilus, and those in ulus, ula, and ulum, of more than two syllables, shorten the penult; as,
urceñlus, fǐlïla, lectŭlus, rătiuncüla, corcŭlum, pābŭlum; rưtilus, garrülus, fäbülu. Except ásilus.
12. Words in ma lengthen the penult; as,
fàma, pō̄ma, rima, plüma. Except ănima, cơma, dĕcŭma, lacrima, victìma, hăma.
13. A rowel before final men or mentum is long ; as,
lěrāmen, grāmen, crīmen, fūmen, jūmentum, ātrāmentum. Except tämen, cōlümen, Hy̆mer, élémentum, and a few verbal nouns derived from verbs of the second and third conjugations; as, ălimentum, dócümen or documentum, èmolŭmentum, nðnŭmentum, régìmen, spēcimen, téginien, etc.
14. Words ending in imus shorten the penult; as, ănĭmus, děclmus, fīnitìmus, fortissimus, maximus. Except bīmus, lìmus, mĩmus брimus, quädrimus, simus, trimus, and two superlatives, imus and primus.

Note. When an adjective ends in umus for imus, the quantity remains the same; as, dĕcŭmus, optŭmus, maxŭmus, for dĕcimus, etc.
15. A, e,o, and $u$, before final mus and mum, are long; as, rämus, rëmus, extrēmus, prömus, dūmus, pömum, rơlēmum. Except ătðmus, balsămum, cinnămum, domus, glơmus, hŭmus, postŭmus, thălămus, tomus, călămus, nèmus.
16. (a.) Words in $n a, n e, n i$, and $n i s$, lengthen the penult; as, läna, ărēna, cărīna, mätrōna, lüna, māne, septēni, octōni, inānis, fīnis, immūnis. Except advëna, cottäna, ptïsăna, minna, yëna, bĕne, sine, cănis, cinis, jŭvènis; and the following in inna,-buccina, dömina, fiscina, fèmina, fuscina, lämina, mächinna, pägina, pătina, sarcina, tībūcina, trütina: and in plur. ăpinœe, mino, nundince. So compounds of gěno; as, indigě̌na.
(b.) Verbs in ino and inor shorten the penult; as, destino, fascino, inquino, sino, criminor. Except festino, propino, săgino, ơpinor, 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, diūtìnus, pristinus, pĕrendinus: fägĭnus, cröcĭnus, hyăcinthĭnus, ădămantīnus, crystallinus, óleäginus, bomb̄ycinus. Except mätütīnus, rëpentīnus, vespertinus.
(l.) Other adjectives and words in inus and in inum lengthen the penult; as,
caninus, binus, përegrinus, mărinus, clandestīnus, sŭpinnus: linum. Except ăcinus, ŭsinus, coccinus, cōminus, èminus, cőphinus, dơminus, făcinus, fätícinus, prōtinus, sinus, terminus, gėminus, circinus, minus, väticinus, succinum, fascinum.
18. $A, e, o$, and $u$, before final nus and num, are long; as, urbānus, sērēnus, patrōnus, prōnus, münus, trībünus, fänum, vẽnēnum, dönum. Fxcept ănus, an old woman, galbănus, mănus, ōceänus, plütănus, ëbënus, gĕnus, limigėnus, pénus, tënus, Vĕnus, ŏnus, bǒnus, sönus, thrönus; lăgănum, peucědăпum, ро̆рӑпит, tymрӑпим, abrötŏnum.
19. Words ending in $b a, b o, p a$, and $p o$, shorten the penult; as, füba, jưba, syllăba; bibo, cŭbo, prơbo; ălăpa, hüpa, scăpha; crẹ̛po, participo. Except glēba, scrība, būbo, glūbo, lībo, nübo, scrībo, sipho, cēpa, rūpa, pāpa, pūpa, rịpa, scōpa, stüpa; cäpo, rēpo, stīpo.
20. Words in al, ar, are, and aris, lengthen the penult; as,
trìbūnal, vectīgal: lŭpānar, pulvīnar; altāre, lăqueäre; näris, Except ănimal, căpĭtal, cưbital, tơrăl, jŭbar, sŭlar, măre, bǐmăris, hilărris, canthăris, cappăris, léaris.
21. Before final ro or ror, $a$ and $e$ are short; $i, o$, and $u$, are long; as,
ăro, păro, fëro, gĕro, sěro, cělĕro, tempěro, quĕror ; mīror, spīro, tīro; auctōro, ignōro, ōro; cūro, dūro, fĭgūro; lūror. Except dēclāro, pēro, spēro; fơro, mŏror, sơror, vöro, füro, sătüro ; and derivatives from genitives increasing short; as, augŭror, dëcơro, mĕmơro, murmŭro, etc.; from augur, augŭris; dĕcus, dĕсбris, etc.
22. Before final rus, ra, rum, $e$ is short; the other vowels are long; as,
měrum, měrus, hědëra, sěrum, cētěrum; cārus, mīrus, mōrus, mūrus, gȳrus; āra, spīra, ōr $a$, nätūra, lōrum.
Except, 1. austērus, gălērus, plërus, prōcērus, sincērus, sērus, sëvērus, vērus, crätēra, cèra, pèra, panthèra, stătēra.
Exc. 2. barbărus, cammărus, cămŭrus, canthărus, chơrus, fơrus, hellĕbŏrus, nŭrus, ơp̆̆рărus, ōvǐpărus, phosphơrus, pirus, săty̆rus, scărus, spărus, tartărus, tơrus, zĕphy̆rus; amphơra, ancơra, cithăra, hăra, ly̆ra, morra, purpŭra, phïly̆ra, py̆ra, sütǐa; fŏrum, gărum, părum, suppărum.
23. Adjectives in osus lengthen the penult; as,
fümōsus, vīnõsus.
24. Nouns in etas and itas shorten the penult; as, piëtas, cīvitas, bönĭtas.
25. Adverbs in tim lengthen the penult, those in iter and itus shorten it; as,
stātim, (constantly), virītim, trǐbūtinn ; acrǐter, fundìtus. Except stătim, (immediately), affution.
26. (a.) Words in ates, itis, otis, and in ata, eta, ota, uta, lengthen the penult, as,
vätes, pěnätes, vītis, mïtis, cǎryōtis, Icăriōtis, pīrāta, mēta, poēta, ălūta, cǐcūta. Except sittis, pơtis, dräpěta, nŏta, röta.
(b.) Nouns in ita shorten the penult; as,
ămĭta, nävǐta, orbǐta, sēmìta. Except pītuīta.
27. Nouns in atum, itum, utum, lengthen the penult; as,
lŭpātum, ăcơnītum, vĕrūtum. Except dēfiưtum, pulpĭtum, pětōř̌tum, lǔtum (mud), comprtum.
28. Nouns and adjectives ending in tus lengthen the penult; as,
barbätus, grātus, bōlētus, făcētus, crī̄̄̄tus, pĕrītus, cegrōtus, tōtus, argütus, hirsūtus. Fxcept cătus, lătus, (-ĕris), impětus, mĕtus, vĕgĕtus, větus ; ănhëlitus, diği-
 (so great); arbŭtus, pŭtus; incly̆tus; and derivatives from perfect participles having a short penult; as, exercitus, hăbĭtus.
29. A penultimate vowel before $v$ is long; as,
. clāva, ơlīva, dīves, nāris, cīvis, păpäver, pāro, prīvo, ōvum, prävus, westïvus, fŭgitiviv:s. Except ăvis, brěvis, grăvis, lĕvis, ðvis; căvo, grăvo, jừo, lăvo, lĕvo, ゝvo; ăvus, căvus, făvus, nŏvus, fävor, păvor, nơvem.

30．Words ending in dex，dix，mex，nix，lex，rex，lengthen the －enult ；as，
cōdex，jūdex；lưlix，rädix；cimex，pūmex；jūnix；ilex；cārex，mūrex． Except cülex，silex，rümex．

## 1I．ANTEPENULTS

ミ卫き2．1．I is short in diminutives in icŭlus and icellus（a，um）， whether nouns or adjectives；as，
collicŭlus，dulcicūlus，crātičüla，pellícŭla，mollicellus．Except mords in which the preceding vowel is short；as，cưticicula，cünicüla：or in which $i$ is long in the primitive；as，cornūcüla，from cornix，－icis．

2．Numerals in ginti，ginta，èni，and estmus，lengthen the antepe－ nult；as，
riginti，quädrāginta，trícīni，quinquāgēsimus．
3．$O$ and $u$ before final lentus are short；as， riñơlentus，fraudülentus，pualuěrư̆lentus，trücülentus．
4．A vowel before final nea，neo，nia，nio，nius，nium，is long；as， ŭränea，lìnea，cèneo，mūnia，pūnio，Fürōnius，patrimōnium．Except castänea， tinea，măneo，míneo，möneo，sëneo，ť̆neo，ignöminia，luscinia，vënia，lünio，vënio， inyénium，gènius，sénio，sïnium；words in cinium，as，leñōciniunn；and deriva－ tives in onius，when o in the root of the primitive is short；as，Agămemnornius， from Agămemnon，－ǒnis．

5．Words ending in areo，arius，arium，erium，orius，orium，lengthen the antepenult；as，
äreo，cìbūrius，plantārium，dictèrium，censīnius，tentōrium．Except căreo，căa－


6．Adjectives in aü̆cus，aullis，lengthen the antepenult；as， ăquaticicus，plumātlitis．Except some Greek words in ăticus；as，grammăticus
7．$I$ before final tūdo is short；as，
allitūudo，longitūdo．
8．Verbals in bilis lengthen a but shorten $i$ in the antepenult；as， ämäbilis，mìräbilis；crédibilis，terribilis．In käbilis，$b$ belongs to the root．
9．$U$ before $v$ is short，（except in Juverna）；as，
jürěnis，jŭvēnälis，jŭvěnilitas，flüvius，dilŭvium．

## III．PENULT OF PROPER NAMES．

§ 893．1．Patrials and proper names of more than two sylla－ bles，found in the poets with the following terminations，shorten the penult：－

| ba， | de， | 0,6 | ges， | duc， 13 | ena， 19 | arus， | atus， 22 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ca，${ }^{1}$ | le，${ }^{4}$ | on， 7 | les， | eus， 14 | anes， | erus， 21 | itus，${ }^{23}$ |
| la，＇ | pe，${ }^{5}$ | 0s， 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.

1 Mărīca, Nāsica.-2Erĭphýla, Messāla, Phı̆lŏmēla, Suādēla.-3Běrěnice. ${ }^{4}$ Erĭphy̆le, Neŏbūle, Pĕrīmēle.- ${ }^{5}$ Lurōpe, Sinnōpe.- ${ }^{6}$ Carthägo, Cŭpāvo, Cŭpīdo, Orīgo, Theāno.-7Alēmon, Anthēdon, Chalcēdon, Iāson, Phîlèmon, Pìly̆pēmon, Sarpēdon, Thermödon.- ${ }^{8}$ Cercēros, Pëpărēthos, Pharsālos, Sēriphos.${ }^{9}$ Mēleăger.- ${ }^{10}$ Bessālis, Eumēlis, Jñvènālis, Murtiālis, Phăsēlis, Stymphanlis.${ }^{11 B e ̄ n a ̆ c u s, ~ C a i ̄ c u s, ~ G r a ̄ n i ̄ c u s, ~ N u ̆ m i ̄ c u s, ~ T r i v i c u s .-~}{ }^{12}$ Ophiūchus.- ${ }^{13}$ Abỹdus.${ }^{14}$ Căphāreus, En̄̄peus, Prơmēthens, Phơrōneus, Salmōneus, Oileus.- ${ }^{5}$ Cēthē-gus.- ${ }^{16}$ Names in -clus, in -olus (except Eǒlus, Naubŏlus), in -bulus, (except Bŭbǔlus) Eumēlus, Gætūlus, Iūlus, Massȳlus, Orbēlus, Pharsālus, Sardănă pānlus, Stymphālus.- ${ }^{17}$ Some in -dēmus and -phēmus; as, Acădēmus, Pöly̆phē-mus.-i8Seriphus.-19 Alcmēna, Athēnæ, Cāmēna, Fídêna, Messēna, Mưrēna, My̆cēnæ.-20Amāsis.- ${ }^{21}$ Hŏmērus, Ibērus.- ${ }^{22}$ Arātus, Cærātus, Torquātus.${ }^{23}$ Hěrāclītus, Herınăphrődītus.- 24 Būthrōtus.
2. Proper names of more than two syllables, found in the poets with the following terminations, lengthen the penult:-

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { ana, }{ }^{1} \\ & \text { ina, } \\ & \text { ona, }{ }^{3} \\ & \text { yna, } \end{aligned}$ | sa, | num, ${ }^{7}$ | tas, | nus, ${ }^{12}$ | urus, | etus, ${ }^{16}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ta, ${ }^{4}$ | tum, | des, ${ }^{9}$ | pus, ${ }^{13}$ | esus, ${ }^{15}$ | utus, |
|  | ta, 5 | or, ${ }^{8}$ | tes, ${ }^{10}$ | irus, | isus, | ytus, ${ }^{17}$ |
|  | ene, ${ }^{6}$ | nas, | tis, ${ }^{11}$ | orus, ${ }^{14}$ | ysus, | vus. |
| Exceptions. |  |  |  |  |  |  |

${ }^{1}$ Sēquăna.-.2Mŭť̆na, Prŏserpǐna, Ruspĭna, Sarsina.- ${ }^{3}$ Axŏna, Matrŏna.4Dalmăta, Prŏchy̆ta, Sarmăta, Lăpĭtha.-5Gălătæ, Jaxămětæ, Massăgětæ, Măcētæ, Saurǒmătas.- ${ }^{6}$ Cly̆měne, Hělěne, Melpǒměne, Nyctỉmēne.-7Arimínum, Drěpănum.- ${ }^{8}$ Nŭmĭtor.- ${ }^{9}$ Miltiădes, Py̆lĭdes, Sōtãdes, Thūcỹdídes; patronymics in -des, ( $\$ 291,4$, ) and plurals in -ades.- ${ }^{10}$ Antīphătes, Chărītes, Eurybătes, Ichnŏbătes, Euergëtes, Massăgētes, and all names in -crates.- ${ }^{11}$ Der-cêtis.- ${ }^{12}$ Apĭdănus, Apŏnus, Cărănus, Chrȳsŏgŏnus, Címĭnus, Cly̆mĕnus, Concănus, Dardănus, Diădūmĕnus, Eărĭnus, Erǐdẳnus, Fīeīnus, Hĕlēnus, Lǐb̆̆nus, Mörinni, My̆cǒnus, Nebrŏphŏnus, Olěnus, Pēricly̆měnus, Rhŏdănus, Santǒnus, Sęquăni, Stěphănus, Têlĕgõnus, Terminus, and names in -gonus and-xenus.${ }^{13}$ Gdipus.-14Păcorrus, Bospŏrus, and names in -chorus and -phorus; as, Stēsichŏrus, Phosphŏrus.- ${ }^{15}$ Ĕphēsus, Vogěsus, Völēsus.- ${ }^{16 I a ̆ p e ̌ t u s, ~ T a ̆ y ̆ g e ̌ t u s, ~}$

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, Æthīon, Achělōns, Achillēus, Alcyǒnēus, Alexandria, Alōens, Alphēus, Amĭnēus, Amphiărāus, Amphĭgēnīa, Amphīon, Amy̆thāon, Arīon, Anchīsēus, Atlantēus, Antiōchīa, Biŏnēus, Cæsareēa, Călaurēa, Calliōpēa, Cassiŏpēa, Cleanthēas, Cy̆dŏnēus, Cỳncödōcēa, Cy̆thěrēa, Dārīus (-ēus), Dēidămīa, Dídy̆māon, Diǒmēdēus, Döīchāon, Echion, Elēus, Endy̆ıniōnẹus, Enyoo, Eūus, Erèbēus, Erecthēus, Gălătēa, Gĭgantēus, Hērāclēa (-ēus), Hippơdămia, Hy̆pĕ-
 Ly̌cāon, Măchāon, Mausōlēum, Mēdēa, Mēnèlāus, Mèthion, Myrtōus, Ophīon, Orīon, Orīthȳīa, Orphēus, Pallantēum (-us), Pandion, Paphagēa, Pēnēus, Penthěsilè̈a, Phœbēus, Poppēa, Prōtěsilāus, Pyrēnēus, Sardēus, Thălīa.

Note. Eus in the termination of Greek proper names, is commonly a diphthong; as, Alceus, Ceneus, Orpheus, Pēleus, Perseus, Pröteus, Thēseus, Tÿdeus, which are dissyllables; Briăreus, Enipheus, Macăreus, TYphöeus, which are trisyllables, Idömëneus, etc. Cf. $\$ 253$, Exc. 6 , Note 2 . But in those which in Greek are written sas (eios), eus forms two syllables; as, Alphëuls. So also in adjectives in eus, whether of Greek or Latin origin; as, Erebēils, Erecthèns, Orphélus ; aursius, ligwétus.

## QUANTITY OF FINAL SYLLABLES.

## I. VOWELS.

## MONOSYLLABLES.

§ 294. (a.) All monosyllables, except enclitics, ending in a vowel, are long; as,
 pröh, quō, stō, tū.

## POLYSYLLABLES.

## A final.

1. A final, in words declined, is short ; as, mūsă, templă, căp̆ $\imath-$ $t a ̆, T \bar{y} d e a ̆ . ~ ` ~ T h u s, ~$

Mūsă mĭhi causas mĕmŏrā; quo nūmĭne 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,
Mūsū, fundā; 0 EXnēā, $O$ Pallā, $O$ Anchisisa.
2. A final, in words not declined, is long; as, $\breve{a} m \bar{a}$, frustr $\bar{a}$, ante $\bar{a}$, erg $\bar{a}$, intrā. Thus,

Extrū fortūnam est quidquid dōnātur æmicis. Mart. Epig. 5, 42, 7.
Exc. A final is short in eiă, ităa, quiă, and in putăa, when used adverbially, in the sense of 'for example.' It is sometimes short. in the preposition contra, and in numerals ending in ginta; as, triginta, etc. In postea, it is common.

A final is also short in the names of Greek letters; as, alphă, bētü, etc., and in täruatantäră, the imitated sound of the trumpet.

$$
\mathbf{E} \text { final. }
$$

§ 295. $E$ final, in words of two or more syllables, is short; as, nātĕ, patrĕ, ipsĕ, currĕ, rĕgĕrĕ, nempĕ, antĕ. Thus,

Remark. The enclitics -que, $-n e,-v e,-c e,-t e,-p t e$, etc., as they are not used alone, have e short, according to the rule; as, něqué, hüjuscë, suaptě. Cf. § 294, (a.)

Exc. 1. $E$ final is long in nouns of the first and fifth declensions; as,
 hödiè, pridiè, postridiē, quötidiè, and in the ablative fämé, originally of the fifth declension.
Exc. 2. $E$ final is long in Greek vocatives from nouns in -es, of the third declension; as, Ackillē, Hippömènē; and in Greek neuters plural; as, cètē, mëlē, pělügē, Tempê.

Exc. 3. In the second conjugation, $e$ final is long in the second person singular of the imperative active; as, dŏcē, mŏne $;$-but it is sometimes short in căve, văle and cĭde.

Exc. 4. $E$ final is long in adverbs formed from adjectives of the second declension; as,
plăčidè, pulchrē, valdē for vălidē, maximè ; but it is short in běnĕ, mălĕ, infernĕ, and superné.

Exc. 5. Fĕrē, fermē, and ǒhē, have the final e long.

## 1 final.

§ 296. I final is long; as, dŏmĭnī, fīlī, classī, dŏcērī, sī. Thus, Quid dömŋñ făcient, audent cum tālia füres. Virg. E. 3, 16.
Exc. 1. (a.) $I$ final is common in mihhi, ť̌bi, sibi, $\imath b i$, and $u b b i$.
(b.) In übīque and commonly in íbīdem it is long, but in übivis and übinam it is short.-(c.) In nisi, quăsi, and cui, when a dissyllable, $i$ final is common, but usually short. In útinam and ưtique, and rarely, also, in ưti, it is short.

Exc. 2. Ifinal is short in the dative singular of Greek nouns of the third declension, which increase in the genitive; as, Pallădĭ, Mīnötdi, T'ēthy̆t.

Exc. 3. $I$ final is short in the vocative of Greek nouns in -is; as, Alexi, Daphni, Părǐ. But it is long in vocatives from Greek nouns in -is, ( $\varepsilon \varsigma$ ) -entos; as, Símō̃, Py̆rơi.

Exc. 4. Ifinal is short in Greek datives and ablatives plural in -si, or, before a vowel, -sin; as, Dryăsǐ, hērṑtš̆, Trōäsin.

$$
\mathbf{O} \text { final. }
$$

§ 297. $O$ final, in words of two or more syllables, is common; as, virgö, ămŏ , quand $\bar{o}$. Thus,

Ergə mětu čapǐta Scylla est iniomica paterno. Virg. Cir. 386.

$$
\text { Ergö solǐciťæ tu causa, pēcūnia, vitæ es ! Prop. } 3,5,1 \text {. }
$$

Exc. 1. $O$ final is long in the dative and ablative singular; as, $d \delta m i n \delta$, regn $\delta$, bonō, suō, illō, eō.

Exc. 2. $O$ final is long in ablatives used as adverbs; as, certō, falsö, mërito, vulg $\overline{,}, ~ e \bar{o}, q u \bar{o}$; and also in omninō, in ergó, 'for the sake of,' and in the interjection $2 \overline{0}$.

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 ădeo, zdeo, ergo, séro, vēro, porro, retro, inmo, idcirco, sübĭto, and postrēmo, is sometimes short.

Exc. 3. O final is short in cito, illico, profecto, and the compounds of modo; as, dummödó, postmódŏ, etc.; and in ěgo and hómo it is more frequently short than long.

Exc. 4. $O$ final in Greek nouns written with an oměga ( $\infty$ ) is long; as, Clīd, Dīd̄̄, Athō, and Andrögeō, (gen.)

## $\mathbf{U}$ final.

§ 298. 1. $V^{T}$ final is long; as, vult $\bar{u}$, corn $\bar{u}$, Panth $\bar{u}, d \check{\imath} c t \bar{u}$, diū. Thus, Vultū, quo coelum tempestãtesque sěrẽnat. Virg. A. 1, 255.

Exc. Indŭ and nënŭ, ancient forms of in and non, have $u$ short. $U$ is also short in terminations in ŭs short, when $s$ is removed by elision; as, contentü', for contentüs. See § 305, 2.

$$
\mathbf{Y} \text { final. }
$$

2. $Y$ final is short ; as, Möly̆, Tiphy̆. Thus,

Möly̆ vŏcant sŭpěri : nigrā rädice těnētur. Ovid. M. 14, 292.
Exc. $Y$ in the dative $T \bar{e} t h \bar{y}$, being formed by contraction, is long. $\S 283, \mathrm{III}$.

## II. CONSONANTS.

## MONOSYLLABLES.

§ $\mathbf{2 9 5}$ 1. Monosyllabic substantives ending in a consonant are long; all other monosyllables ending in a consonant are short; as,
sōl, vīr, für, jūs, splēn, vēr, fär, lär, När, pār, Sēr, für, fäs, mäs, rēs, pēs, Dīs, glīs, lis, rīs, flōs, mōs, rōs, Trōs, ōs, (ōris), dōs, grūs, rūus, tūs ;-něc, in, ăn, ăb, àd, quíd, quis, quôt, ět; as,

Ipse dŏcet quid ăgam. Fäs est ět ăb hoste dŏcēri. Ovid. M. 4, 428. Vēr ădeo frondi nĕmǒrum, 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 $\S 283$, IV. and II.

Exc. 1. Cör, fël, mĕl, pöl, virr, $\delta s$ (gen. ossis), and probably vas (vădis), are short.

Exc. 2. En, nōn, quīn, sin, crās, plüs, cūr, and pär, are long: so also are particles and pronouns ending in $c$, except $n c c$, which is short, and the pronouns hic and hoc, in the nominative and accusative, which are common.

Exc. 3. Monosyllabic plnral cases of pronouns and forms of verbs in as, es, and is, are long; as, hās, quès, hōs, nōs, rōs, quōs, hiss, quīs;-dàs, flès, stēs, is, $f i s, s i s, v i s$; except ěs from sum which is short.
Exc. 4. The abridged imperatives retain the quantity of their root; as, dic düc, from dico, dūco; füc, fär, from fäcio, fëro.

## POLYSYLLABLES.

## $\mathbf{D}, \mathbf{L}, \mathbf{N}, \mathbf{R}, \mathbf{T}$, final.

2. Final syllables ending in $d, l, n, r$, and $t$, are short; as, illŭd, consŭl, carmĕn, pătĕr, căpŭt. Thus,

Obstăpuit sĭmūl ipse, simul perculsus Achātes. Virg. A. 1, 513.
Nümẽn Arīónium Sícŭlas implērečrăt urbes. Orid. F. 2,93.
Dum lŏq̧uür, horrör, hábet; parsque est mëmīnisse dŏlöris. Id. M. 9, 291.
Exc. 1. $E$ in liën 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 $e n$, and genitives plural in on, lengthen the final syllable; as,

Tuãn, Orion, Enédn, Anchisin, Callioposn; sprgrammatön,

Exc. 3. A $\bar{e} r$, athēer, and nouns in $\bar{e} r$ which form their genitive in ēris, lengthen the final syllable; as,
cratèr, sotèr. So also Ibēr; 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 äbiit, fümutt, for fumūvit, ämänt. 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 hegins with a vowel. See Lecthlipsis, § $305,2$.
3. Final syllables ending in $m$, when it is not cut off, are short; as,

Quam laudas, plūmā? cocto nŭm ădest hð̆nor idem. Hor. S. 2, 2, 28.
Remark. Hence in composition the final syllables of cum and circum are short; as, cơmědo, circümägo.

## C final.

4. Final syllables ending in $c$ are long; as, $\bar{a} l \bar{e} c$, illīc, ist $\bar{a} c$, illūc. Thus,

Illīc indocto prïmum se exẽrcuit arcu. Tib. 2, 1, 69.
Exc. The final syllable of dönĕc is short; as,
Dõnčc ěris fêlix, multos nŭmêrābis ămīcos. Ovid. Trist. 1, 9, 5.

## AS, ES, and OS, final.

§ 30D. Final syllables in $a s, e s$, and os, are long; as,
mūsäs, piëtās, ămãs, स्सnēās, quiēs, sermōnēs, diēs, Pēnĕlơpēs, dŭcentiēs, mönēs, hönōs, viriōs, döminдös. Tlius,

Hüs autem terrās, Itälīque hanc lītŏris ōram. Virg. A. 3, 396.
Si mŏdo dēs illis cultus, sĭm̌̌lēsque părātus. Ovid. M. 6, 454.
Exc. 1. (a.) AS. As is short in ănăs, in Greek nouns whose genitive ends in ădis or ădos; as, Arcŭs, Pallüs; and in Greek accusatives plural of the third declension; as, hëröăs, lanwădăs.
(b.) As is short also in Latin nouns in as, ădos, formed like Greek patronymics; as, Appiăs.

Exc. 2. ES. (a.) Final es is short in nouns and adjectives of the third declension which increase short in the genitive; as, hospess, limĕs, hĕllĕs; gen. hospütis, etc.
(b.) But it is long in äbiès, ăriès, păriès, Cërēs, and pēs, with its compounds corriupēs, sỡupès, etc.
(c.) Es, in the present tense of sum and its compounds, and in the preposition pène̛s, is short.
(d.) Es is short in Greek nenters in es; as, căcoéthěs, and in Greek nominatives and vocatives plural from nouns of the third declension, which increase in the genitive; as, Arcàdës, Tröes, Amazönes; from Arcas, Arciddis, etc.
Exc. 3. OS. (a.) $O_{s}$ is short in compøs, impøs, and $\delta_{s}$ (ossis), with its compound exðs.
(b.) Os is short in Greek nouns and cases written in the original with omicron; as (1) in all neuters; as, chaös, ëp $\partial s$, Argŏs; (2) in all nouns of the second declension; as, Iliös, Ty̆rǒs, Dèlös; except those whose genitive is in $\bar{o}$, (Greek $\omega)$; as, Athos, gen. Athö ; (3) in genitives singular of the third declension; as, Pallädơs, Tèthyŏs, from Pallüs and Tēthys.

## IS, US, and YS, final.

§301. Final syllables in $i s, u s$, and $y s$, are short ; as,
 tĕnŭs; Cäpy̆s, Ity̆s. Thus,

Non $\breve{\alpha} p$ ̌s inde tŭlit collectos sēdŭla fiōres. Ovid. M. 13, 928.
Sêriŭçs aut cîtius sëdem prరpě̌āmŭs ad ūnam. Id. M. 10, 33 .
At Cäpy̆s, et quōrum mělior sententia menti. Virg. A. 2, $\mathbf{3 5}$.
Exc. 1. IS. (a.) $I_{s}$ is long in plural cases; as,
$m u ̈ s i s, n o ̈ b i ̄ s$; omñ̄s, urbīs, (for omnēs, urbēs); quīs, (for quëis or quïbus). So also in the adverbs grātīs, ingrātīs, and förīs, which are in reality datives or ablatives plural.

Et lĭquĭdi sĭmŭl ignis; ut hīs exordia prīmīs. Virg. A. 6, 33 .
Quǐs ante öra patrum Trōjæ sub mœenibus altis. Id. A. 1, 95. Non omnīs arbusta jŭvant, hŭmĭlesque my̆rīcæ. Id. E. 4, 2. Adde tōt êgrēgias urbīs, ŏpērumque lăbōrem. 1d. G. $2,155$.
(b.) Is is long in the nominative of nouns whose genitive ends in itis, inis, or entis; as, Samnīs, Sälămūs, Simoūs.
(c.) $I_{s}$ is long in the second person singular of the present indicative active of the fourth conjugation ; as,
audis, nesciss. So also in the second persons, $f i \bar{i}$, is, sīs, vīs, vèlīs, and their compounds; as, adsis, possīs, quamvis, mālīs, nōlīs, etc. Cf. § 299, 1, Exc. 3.
(d.) Ris, in the future perfect and perfect subjunctive, is common; as, vidërìs.

Exc. 2. US. (a.) $U_{s}$ 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,
tellüs, virtūs, incūs;-fructūs. But pălüs, with the us short, occurs in Horace, Art. Poet. 65.
(b.) $U_{s}$ is long in Greek nouns written in the original with the diphthong ous (oũs)whether in the nominative or genitive; as, nom. Amăthūs, Opūs, CEdïpuss, trìpūs, Panthūs ; gen. Dīdūs, Sapphūs. But compounds of pus (mous), when of the second declension, have us short; as, poly̆püs.

Note. The last syllable of every verse, (except the anapæstic and the Ionic a minōre), 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 $m a$ stands instead of a long one, and the long syllable cu instead of a short one:-

Sangưneāque mănu crĕpĭtantia concŭtit, armă. Ovid. M. 1, 143.
Non ěget Mauri jacŭlīs, 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．


## 2．Of three Syllables．



## II．COMPOUND FEET．

Dispondee，．．．．．．．．．．．．a double spondee，————；as，．．．．．．．．．．cōnflixērrünt．

Ditrochee，．．．．．．．．．．a double trochee，－ー ー－as．．．．．．．．．．．．cōmprobbärit．

Greater Ionic，．．．．．．．．a spondee and a Pyrrhic，———－；as，．．．cōrrēximŭs．
Smaller Ionic，．．．．．．．．．a Pyrrhic and a spondee，こー — —；as，．．．prơpéräbänt．
Choriambus，．．．．．．．．．a choree and an iambus，—————；as，．．．térrificänt．
Antispast，．．．．．．．．．．．．an iambus and a choree，- ———；as，．．．ădhcesissĕ．
First epitrit，．．．．．．．．．an iambus and a spondee，$\smile$ ———；as，．．ămāvḕūnt．
Second epitrit，．．．．．．．a trochee and a spondee，—————；as，．．．cōndïtōrēs．
Third epitrit，．．．．．．．．a spondee and án iambus，————；as，．．dīscorrdiōs．
Fourth epitrit，．．．．．．．．a spondee and a trochee，一 ー——；as，．．．．äldūxistǐs．

Second pron，．．．．．．．．．．an iambus and a Pyrrhic，־ーモー；as，．．．pơtêntüă．
Third paon，．．．．．．．．．a Pyrrhic and a trochee，ーモーー；as，．．．änimãtüs．
Fourth proon，．．．．．．．．．a Pyrrhic and an jambus，$\smile \smile \smile ー ; ~ a s, . . . c e ́ l e ̆ r i ̌ t u ̄ s . ~$
Remark．Those feet are called isocnronous，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, anapastic, iambic, trochaic, chori ambic, and Ionic. These names are derived from the original on 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.
-1. 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, sēnärius, consisting of six feet; jctŏnärius, of eight feet; mŏnŏmĕter, consisting of one measure; dìmĕter, of two; trimĕter, tetramĕter, pentamĕter, hexamĕter; - sometimes from a celebrated author who used a particular species; as, Sapphic, Anacreontic, Alcaic, Asclepiadic, Glyconic, Phalcecian, Sotadic, Archilochian, Alcmanian, Pherecratic, Aristophanic, etc., from Sappho, Anacreon, Alcceus, Asclepiädes, Gly̆con, Phalæcus, Sotădes, Archilöchus, Alcman, Pherecrătes, Aristophănes, etc.-and sometimes from the particular uses to which they were applied; as, the prosodiac, from its use in solemn processions, the parcemiac, 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 rerse 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 hypermĕter
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 triméterocatalectic.
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 trihēmı̆mëris; if it contains five half feet, or two feet and a half, it is called a penthēmŭmĕris; if seven half feet, or thrèe feet and a half, a hepthēmĕmerris; if nine half feet, or four feet and a half, an ennehēmŭmèris. A portion of a verse consisting of one whole metre and a half, is called a hèmiolius, 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. SYNALEPHA.

§305. 1. Synaloepha is the elision of a final vowel or diphthong in scanning, when the following word begins with a vowel.
Thas, terra antiqua is read terr' antīqua; Dardäntdas infensi, Dardänid' infensi; vento huc, vent' huc. So, Quidve mơror? si omnes unno ordǐne hăbêtis Achǐvos. Virg. A. 2, 102.
Which is scanned thus-
Quidve mơror? s' omnes ūn' ordin' habeetis Achivos.
(1.) The interjections $O$, heu, ah, proh, vce, vah, are not elided; as,

$$
O \text { et de Lătiâ, } O \text { et de gente Săbīnā. Ovid. M. } 14,832 \text {. }
$$

remari. But 0 , though not elided, is sometimes made short; as, Te Corry̆don $O$ Alexi; trǎhit sua quemque vǒluptas. 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 ăpud răpídum Simoënta sŭb Iliŏ alto. Virg. A. 5, 261. Anni tempŏre eo qǔ̆ Etēsiœ̨ esse fěruntur. Lucr. 6, 717. Ter sunt cōnāt̄̄ impōněre Pēliŏ Ossam. Virg. G. 1, 281. Glaucõ et Pănŏp̄̄̄e, et Inōo Mĕlĭcertæ. Id. G. 1, 436.
(3.) Rarely a short vowel, also, remains without elision; as, Et vēra incessu pǎtuit deă. Ile ŭbi mātrem.... Virg. A. 1, 405.
(4.) Synalœpha in a monosyllable occasionally occurs; as, $S i$ ad vitŭlam spectas, nihill est, quod pocŭla laudes. Virg. E. $3,48$.
For synalœpha at the end of a line, see Synapheia, § 307, 3.

## ECTHLIPSIS.

2. Ecthlipsis is the elision of a final $m$ with the precedng vowel, when the following word begins with a vowel. Thus, 0 cüras hoัmĭnum, 0 quantum est in rēbus ināne! Pers. 1, 1.

Which is thus scanned-
0 cāras hŏmin' $\mathbf{O}$ quant' est in rēbus ināne.
Nonstrum horrendum, informe, ingens, cui lūmen ădemptsm. Virg. A. 3, 658.
(1.) This elision was sometimes omitted by the early poets; as,

Corporrŭm officium est quŏniam prěmĕre omnia deorsur. Lucr. 1, 363.
See § 299, 2.
(2.) Final $s$, also, with the preceding vowel, is sometimes elidel by the early poets before a vowel, and sometimes $s$ alone before a consonant; as, content' atque (Emn.), for contentus atque; omntbu' rēbus. (Lucr.) So, Tum lătęrāli' dōlor, certisšmu' nunciu' mortis. Lucil.
Remark. This elision took place principally in short syllables.
For ecthlipsis at the end of a line, see Synapheia, $\S 307,3$.

## SYNERESIS.

§306. 1. Synæresis is the contraction into one syllable of two vowels which are usually pronounced separately. Thus,

Aureā percussum virgā, versumque vènēnis. Virg. A. 7, 190. Eosdem häbuit sēcum, quībus est ēlāta, cápillos. Prop. 4, 7, 7. Tîť̆re, pascentes a flümine reice căpellas. Virg. E. 3, 96.
Remark 1. So Phaethon is pronounced Phathon; alveo, alvo; Orphea, Orpha; deorsum, dorsum.
(1.) Synæresis is frequent in $i i$, iidem, iisdem, dii, diis, dein, deinceps, deinde, deest, deërat, deĕro, deĕrit, deesse; as,

Præcīpitātur ăquis, et aquis nox surgit ab isdem. Ovid. M. 4, 92.
Sint Mæcēnātes; non deerunt, Flacce, Märōnes. Mart. 8, 56, 5.
Rems. 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, $\boldsymbol{e}$ in anteambülo, anteire, antèhac, dehinc, mehercŭle, 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, äbiëte, āriëte, àbiègnce, päriētīus, consiliüm, fortuītus, Nāsidiēnus, vindèmiätor, omniă ; gēnuă, tènuis, pituita, flüvōrum, etc. In such examples, the $i$ and $u$ are pronounced like initial $y$ and $w$; as, àlyĕte, pāryětibus, consilyum, fortwitus, Nāsidyēnus, omn-yă, tencis, 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 tenniöre occurs as a trisyllable, in which the three vowels, uio, are united in pronunciation; thus, tēn-wiö-re.
(4.) Sometimes, after a synalœpha or echthlipsis, two vowels suffer synæresis; as, stellio et, pronounced stell-yet : consilium $\epsilon t$,-consil-yet.
(5.) If only one of the vowels is written, the contraction is called crasis; as, di, consili, for dii, consilii.

## DIERESIS.

2. Diarĕsis is the division of one syllable into two; as,
aulär, Tröia, sìlŭa, sŭădent; for aulce, Troia or Troja, silra, suädent. So, sŭ̌sco for suesco; rêliqüŭs for rêlĭquus; ecqŭ̌s for ecquis; milüŭs for milvus, etc., as

At̄ěreum sensum, atque auräi simplicicis ignem. Virg. A. 6. 747. Atque ălios ălii irrīdent, Vĕnĕremque sŭädent. Lucr. 4, 1153. Grammătĭci certant; et ădhue sub iūdăce lis est. Hor. A. P. 78. Aurảrum et š̌lŭ̌e mĕtu. Id. O. 1, 23, 4.
(1.) So in Greek words originally written with a diphthong (st or !) ; as,
 and also in words of Latin origin; as, Vễừs for Veius, Aquìlē̃̆ă for Aquileiă.

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,
videè'n for videsne, in which $e$ is naturally long; sătı'n for sătisne, in which $i$ is long by position;-hŏdie for hōc die ; multimoddis for multīs mơdis. So, Dūcĕre multı̇mŏdis vōces, et flectĕre cantus. Lucr. 5, 1405.
(1.) By the omission of $j$ after $\breve{a} b, a \check{a} d, ~ \partial b, s u \check{b}$, and $r \breve{e}$, in compound words, those prepositions retain their naturally short quantity, which would otherwise be made long by position; as, ăbǔci, ădicicit, obbicis, etc. Thus, Si quid nostra tuis ădřcit vexātio rēbus. Mart. 10, 82, 1.
Remark. In some compounds the short quantity of $\check{a} d$ and $\delta b$ is preserved before a consonant by the elision of the $d$ or $b$ of the preposition, as in äperrio, opěrio, omitto, etc.
(2.) The penult of the third person plural of certain perfects is said by some to be shortened by systole; as, stëtěrunt, tŭlĕrunt, 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, Präămides, rēligio, etc. Thus,

Hanc tïbi Prĭămrdes mitto, Lēdæa, sălūtem. Ovid. H. 16, 1.
Rēľgiöne patrum multos servāta 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 ecthlipsis. See $\S \$ 283$ and 305.
(1.) This figure is most frequent in anapæstic verse, and in the Ionic a minöre.

The following lines will illustrate its effect:-

> Præeceps silvas montesque fugit
> Citus Actacon. Sen.

Here the $i$ in the final syllable of fugit, which is naturally short, is made long by position before the following consonants, $t c$.

> Omnia Mercŭrio siminis, vōcemque colōremque
> Et crīnes flāvos.... Virg. A. 4, 558.
> Dissīdens plēbi nŭmẽro beātōrum
> Exïmit virtus. Hor. 0. 2, 2, 18.

In the former of these examples, synapheia and synalœpha are combined, que being elided before et in the following line; in the latter there is a similar combination of synapheia and ectlulipsis.
(2.) By synapheia, the parts of a compound word are sometimes divided between two verses; as,
.... si nonofienděret
Quemque poc̄tārum līmæ lálor 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 comecting tha two verses by synapheia, excites the expectation of something which is to follow, and often tends to magnify the object; as,
 Imminet assimilis. Virg. A. 6, 602.
Remirk. The poets often make use of other figures, also, which, however, are not peculiar to them. Such are prosthésis, ciphcerésis, syncơpe, epenthěsis, apocơpe, paragöge, tmēsis, antithĕsis, and metathèsis. 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, $\smile \smile-$, it is equal; in the trochee, $-\backsim$, and iambus, - , it is twice as long. This difference in the proportionate duration of the arsis and thesis constitutes the difference of rhython. 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 roice 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 icirs

Note 2. As the ancient pronunciation of Latin is not now raderstood, 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 synalœepha and ecthlipsis, though omitted in scanning, were pronounced in reading verse.

## CESURA.

§ 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- $\mid$-trem tenu- 1 -i Mu- 1 -sam medi- 1 -tāris a-|-vēna. 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 $2 \mathrm{~d}, 3 \mathrm{~d}$, and 4 th 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.) Cæsura 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,

Pēctŏrĭ- |-bŭs ĭnhĭ- | -āns spī- | -rāntǐă | cōnsŭlĭt | èxta. Virg. A. 4, 64.
This occurs chiefly in hexameter verse.
Rem. 2. Cæsura 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 coesural pause. In several kinds of verse, its place is fixed; in others, it may fall 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.

§ 810. 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,

1. The fifth foot is sometimes a spondee, and the verse in such case is called spondaic ; as,

Cāră dē- | -ūm sŏbŏ- | -lēs māğ- | -nūm Jŏvǐs | increē- |-mēntūm. Virg. E. 4, 49.
Remark 1. In such rerses, 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,

$$
\text { Quādrŭpě-1 - dāntě pŭ- | trèm sǒnĭ- | -tū quătīt | ūngŭla | cāmpum. Virg. A. 8, } 596 .
$$

Illi īn- $\mid$-tēr sē- | -sē mag-|-nā vī | brāchỉa tōllunt. Ia. 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, Pārtürī-|-ūnt mōn-|-tēs: nās-| -cētūr | rīdīcŭ- | -lūs mūs. Hor. A. P. 139.
3. The beauty and harmony of hexameter verse depend much on due attention to the cosura. (See §309.) A line in which it is neglected is destitute of poetic beauty, and can hardly be distinguished from prose; as,

4. The cæsural pause most approved in heroic poetry is that which occurs after the penthemimeris, i. e. after the arsis in the third foot. This is particularly distinguished as the heroic cassura. Thus,

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, Iñfān-1 -dūm rê- 1 -gīnă || jŭ- 1 -bēs rěnŏ- $\int$-värĕ dō- $\mid$-lōrem. Virg. A. 2, 3.

Rem. 3. When the cæsural pause occurs, as in the latter example, after the hephthemimëris, i. e. after the arsis of the fourth foot, another but slighter one is often found in the second foot; as,

6. The cæsura after the third foot, dividing the verse into exactly equal parts, was least approved; as,

Rem. 4. The cæsural 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 cæsnra; as,

Note 1. The cæsura after the arsis is sometimes called the masculine or sylabic casura; that in the thesis, the feminine or trochaic, as a trochee immediately precedes. When a cæsura occurs in the fifth foot it is usually the trochaic cæsura, unless the foot is a spondee; as,

Fräxĭnŭs |īn sīl-|-vīs pūl-|-chērrimă, | pīnŭs in $\mid$ hōrtīs. Virg. E. $\mathbf{7}, 65$.
(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,

(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 cæsura of the verse poets frequently introduce a pause in the sense, which must be attended to in order to determine the place of the cæsural pause. For in the common place for the cæsura in the third foot there is often a cæsura 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 cæsura, and distinguished accordingly; as,

Bellī | ferrā- | -tōs pōs- | -tes, || pōr- | -tāsquē rĕ- | -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,

It is, however, more properly considered as choriambic metre, consisting of tilternate Glyconics and Pherecratics. See § 316, IV. V. Thus, $\overline{0}$ cơ- | -lōnı̆ă, quä | cŭpis

Pōntĕ | lûdĕrě 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,

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,


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,
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,

Flêbiliss indīgnōs, Ĕlĕgèix, sōlvè capililos.


- § 312. IV. The tetrameter a priōre, or Alcmanian dactylic tetrameter, consists of the first four feet of a hexameter, of which the fourth is always a dactyl; as,

Gärrüla | pèr rā- 1-moss, arvis | obstrēpĭt. Sen. Cd. 454.
V. The tetrameter a posteriōre, or spondaic tetrameter, consists of the last four feet of a hexameter; as,

Remari. 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,

VI. The dactylic trimeter consists of the last three feet of a hexameter; as,

$$
\text { Grātō | Pȳrrhă sŭb | āntro. Hor. Od. 1, 5. } 3 .
$$

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,

$$
\text { Pūlv̌̌s ět | ūmbră sŭ- | -mns. Hor. 0d. 4, 7, } 16 .
$$

VIII. The dactylic dimeter, or Adonic, consists of two feet, a dactyl and a spondee; as,

$$
\text { Risit Ā- | -pöllo. Hor. Od. 1, 10, } 12 .
$$

IX. The Eolic 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,

Visè - |-bāt gělī- |-d्̄ल || sĩdĕra | brümæ. 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 Falsccan consists of the last four feet of a hexameter, except that the last foot is an iambus instead of a spondee; as,
$\bar{U} t$ nŏvà | frügẽ grǎ- 1 -vis Cěrěs । èat. Bcëthius.
XII. The Tetrameter Catalectic consists of the tetrameter a priore wanting the latter half of the concluding dactyl; as,


> ANAPESTIC METRE. .
§ 318. I. The anapastic monomëter consists of two anapæsts; as,

Clŭlase - -te canes. Sen.
II. The anapcestic dimeter consists of two measures, or four anapæsts; as,

Remark 1. The first foot in each measure of anapæstic 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,

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,


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:-
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- | -rium |. Utrüm- | -nẽ jús-1-sī pēr-| -sêquẽ'- |-mŭr ō- | -tīam. I
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,

This species of verse is also called Hipponactic trimeter, from its inventor Hippǒnax.
III. The iambic tetrameter or quadrātus, 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,

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,

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,
 Trăhūnt- | -qŭe sĩc- 1 -cäs mãch- $\mid$-ĭnæ |carrī1 -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,

Fōrti | sĕquē- I -mūr pēc- |-tŏre. Hor. Epod. 1, 14.
Cānǐdī- | そ̆ trāc- 1 -tāvīt | dăpēs. Id. Epod. 3, 8.
Vidē- $\mid$-rĕ prơpĕ- 1 -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,

Remark. Horace always makes the third foot a spondee.
VIII. The iambic dimeter acephalous is the iambic dimeter, wanting the first syllable; as,

Nōn | ěbür | nĕque $\overline{\mathrm{au}}$ - | -rěum.... 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, Ot tī- | gris ōr- I -bæ 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,

Rem. 3. The cæsura uniformly occurs at the end of the fiist dimeter.

## TROCHAIC METRE.

§ 815. 1. Trochaic verses bear a near affinity to is nbics. The addition or retrenchment of a syllable at the beginning of a pure iambic verse, renders it pnre 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 versc.
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,

Rōmŭ lāās | īpsă | fécīt $\mid$ cūm Sä- | -bīnis | nūptī- | -ās. Id.

The following is its scale:-


Remark 1. The pure trochaic verse was rarely used, and the dactyl very rarely occurs in the fourth place. The cæsural panse 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, sulject, however, to the same variations as the catalectic tetrameter; as,

Ipsé | sümmīs | sāxīs | fīxŭs | äspeč- | -rīs, ē- | -vīscě- | -rätŭs. Enn.
II. The Sapphic verse, invented by the poetess Sappho, consists of five foothe first a trochee, the second a spondee, the third a dactyl, and the fourth and fifth trochees; as,


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 Adonio which follows; as,

Lābí- | -tūr rī- | -pā Jově | nōn prǒ- | -bānte uxठriŭs | ànis. Hor. Od. 1, 2, 19.

## 351 PROSODY.-VERSIFICATION-CHORIAMBIC METRE. § 316.

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 trochee.

Note 2. This verse is sometimes scanned as epichoriambic, having an epitrite in tl: first place, a choriambus in the second, and ending with an iambic sizygy ca'alectic; thus,
Intĕgēr vī- | -tex, scêelĕris- | -quě pūrŭs.
III. The Phalcecian verse consists of five feet-a spondee, a dactyl, and three trochees; as,
Nōn ēst | vīvěrěe, | sēd vă- |-lērě | vitǎ. 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 Phalocian 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,

Nōn ě | -bür nĕ- | que āurrẽ- | -um. Hor. Od. 2, 18, 1.
Lēnĭs | àc mǒdǐ- |-cūm flŭ- |-ēns
Aūră, | nḗc vēr- | -gēns lă- | -tus. Sen. Ed. 887.
Note. This measure is the same as the acephalous iambic dimeter (see \$ 814 , 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,

II. The choriambic tetrameter consists of three choriambi, or feet of eqnal length, and a Bacchius; as,

Omně němūs | cūm flŭvīis, | ōmně cãnāt \| prơfūudum. Claud.
2. In this verse Horace substituted a spondee for the iambas contained in the first choriambus; as,

3. Somescan this verse as an epichoriambic tetrameter catalectic, beginning with the second epitrite.
III. 1. The Asclepiadic tetrameter (invented by the poet Asclepiădes) consists of a spondee, two choriambi, and an iambus; as,

2. This form is invariably observed by Horace; bat 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 catalectio. See § 311, III. Thus,

IV. 1. The choriambic trimeter, or Glyconic (invented by the poet Glyco), consists of a spondee, a choriambus, and an iambus; as, Sĩe tē | diva pŏtēns | Cy̆prí... 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,

Sict tē | dīvă pŏ- \| tēns Cy̆pri.
V. 1. The choriambic trimeter catalectic, or Pherecratic (so called from the poet Pherecrătes), is the Glyconic deprived of its final syllable, and consists of a spondee, a choriambus, and a catalectic syllable; as,

$$
\text { Grătō, | Pȳrrhă, sŭb ān- | -trō. Hor. Od. 1, 5, } 3 .
$$

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,

Lȳdră dīc | pĕr ơmnês. Hor. Od. 1, 8, 1.
2. This verse is by some called the choriambic dimeter catalectic. Cf. $\mathbf{~} \mathbf{8 1 6}$, (a.)

## IONIC METRE.

§317. I. The Ionic a majōre, 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 gĕmĭ- | -nā cômpědĕ, | dêdǐcāt cǎ- | -tēnās, Sātūrně, tǐ-| -bī Zōilus, | ànnŭlōs prī- |-ōrês. Mart.
2. Hence the following is its scale:-

Note. The final syllable, by $\S 301$, note, may be short.
II. 1. The Ionic a minōre consists generally of verses of three or four feet, which are all smaller Ionics; as,

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 penthemimecris ( 312 , vir.), followed by an iambic dimeter (§ 314, vi.); as,

Scrībĕrě | vērsicǔ- | -lös || amō- | -rě pèr- | -cūlsūm | grăvī. 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,

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,

Vìdēs | ŭt āl-| -tā || stēt nivè cān- | dĭdum. Hor. Od. 1, 9, 1.
Remark 1. The first foot is often a spondee.
Rem. 2. The cæsura uniformly occurs after the catalectic syllable.
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 priōre (§ 312), followed by three trochees; as,

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,

Lēvỉ | pêrsōnŭ- \|l -ěre | sāxă. 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, dicölon; that which has three kinds, tricolon.
3. When the poem returns, after the second line, to the same verse with which it began, it is called distrŏphon; when after the third line, tristrŏphon; and when after the fourth, tetrastrŏphon.
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 cailed dicolon distrophon, (see $\oint 320,3$ ); when it contains three, dicó-

Ion triströphon, (Auson. Profess. 21); when four, dicōlon tetraströphon, (§ 320, 2); and when five, dicölon pentaströphon.
6. A poem consisting of three kinds of verse, when the stanza contains three verses, is called tricōlon triströphon, ( $\$ 320,15$ ); whẹ four, tricōlon tetraströphon, (\$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, vir.), and one lesser Alcaic (§ 318, v.); as,

| Vídēs, ǔt āltă stēt nivě cāndǐdum |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Sōrācté, nēc jām sūstin ${ }^{\text {cōānt ŏnŭs }}$ |  |
| Sīlvø̈ lăbōrāntēs, gělūquĕ |  |
| Flūmĭna cōnstîtërint ácūto. | (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 Sapphics (§ 315, ir.) and one Adonic (§ 312, viri.) ; as,

Jām sătis tērris nĭviss ātquě dīræ
Grāndĭnīs mīsīt pătěr, êt, rŭbēntĕ Dēxtĕrā sācrās jăcŭlātŭs àrces, Tērrŭĭt ưrbem.
(Lib. 1, 2.)
3. One Glyconic (§ 316, rv.) and one Asclepiadic (§ 316, mir.); as, Sīc tē Dīva pơtēns Cy̆pri, Sīc frātrēs Hělĕnæ̈æ, lūcīđ㐅 sīdĕra... (Lỉ. 1, 3)
4. One iambic trimeter (§ 314, r.) and one iambic dimeter (§ 314, vi.) ; as,

> Ibīs Líbūrnìs intĕr āItă nāvium, Amīcè, prōpūgnācŭla.
(Epod. 1.)
5. Three Asclepiadics (§ 316, iII.) and one Glyconic (§ 316, rv.) ; as,

> Scrībēris Variō fōrtĭs, ět hōstǐum
> Vīctōr, Mæōnī̀ cārmĭnīs ālĭti,
> Quām rēm cūmquĕ fĕrōx nāचībŭs $\overline{\text { aut }}$ ẽquis Mîlës, tē dŭcĕ, gēssērit.
> (Lib. 1, 6.)
6. Two Asclepiadics (§ 316, mi.), one Pherecratic (§ 316, v.), and one Glyconic (§ 316, Iv.) ; as,

Dīānām, tĕněrǣæ, dicītĕ vīrgĭnes:
Intōnsūm, pŭĕrī, diccitě Cȳnthĭum,
Lātōnāmquĕ sŭprēmo
Dīlēctām pěnĭtūs Jơvi.
(Lib. 1, 21 )
7. The Asclepiadic (§ 316, inI) alone ; as,

(Lib. 1, 1.)
8. One dactylic hexameter ( $(310$, r.) and one dactylic tetrameter a posteriōre (§ 312, v.); as,

Laūdābūnt alıī clārām Rhŏdŏn, aūt Mïty̌lēnen, Aut Ēphěsūm, bīmărisvě Cơrinthi...
(Lib. 1, 7.)
9. The choriambic pentameter ( $\S 316$, r.) alone; as,

Tū nē quǣsiērīs, scīrẽ nĕfās, quēm mīhĭ, quēm tībi... (Lib. 1, 11.)
10. One dactylic hexameter ( $\S 310$, I.) and one iambic dimeter (§ 314, vr.) ; as,

Nōx ěrăt, ēt cōelō fülgēbāt lūnð sěrěno Inter minnōră sīděra.
(Epod 15.)
11. The iambic trimeter (§ 314, r.) containing spondees; as, Jām, jam ēfficāci đō mănŭs scīentǐæ.
(Epod. 17.)
12. One choriambic dimeter ( $\S 316$, vi.) and one choriambic tetrameter (§ 316, II.) with a variation; as,

Lỳdřă, dīe, pêr ōmnes
TĒ Dēōs ōrō, Sy̆bărin cūr prơpěrās amāndo... (Lib. 1, 8.)
13. One dactylic hexameter ( $\S 310, \mathrm{I}$.) and one iambic trimeter without spondees (§ 314, r.) ; as,
 Süīs êt īpsă Rōma viríbūs rüit.
(Epod.16.)
14. One dactylic hexameter ( $\S 310$, r.) and one dactylic penthemimeris (§ 312, vir.) ; as,

Diff ügērẽ nīvěs: rědēūnt jàm grāmĭnæ cāmpis, Arbŏribūsquĕ coัmæ.
(Lib. 4, 7.)
15. One iambic trimeter (§ 314, r.), one dactylic trimeter catalectic (§ 312, vir.), and one iambic dimeter (§ 314, vi.) ; as,

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,

Hörrïdă tēmpēstās cōelūm cōntrāxīt; ět īmbres
Nīvēsquĕ dēdūcūnt Jōvem: Nīvēsquĕ dēdūcūnt Jōvem: Nūnc mărĕ, nūnc sīlŭæ...
(Epod. 13.)
Note. The second and third lines of this stanza, also, are often written as one verse. See § 318, ir.
17. One Archilochian heptameter ( $\S 318$, rv.) and one iambic trimeter catalectic ( $\S 314, \mathrm{v}$. ) ; as,

> Sōlvītür ācrīs hīèms grātā vicee vêris êt Fǎvōnf, Trahūntquē sīccās māchīn̄̄̄ carrinas.
> (Lib. 1, 4.)
18. One iambic dimeter acephalous (§ 314 , viII.) and one iambic trimeter catalectic ( $\S 314, \mathrm{v}$. ) ; as,

> Nōn ěbūr nĕque āurěum Mẽã rěnīdēt in dőmō lăcūnar.
(Lib. 2, 18.)
19. The Ionic a minōre ( $\S 317$, II.) alone; as,

(Lib. 8, 12.)

## § 821. 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.

Eli, vetusto. ..... No. 1
Mollis inertia. ..... No. 10
Equam memento ..... 1
Albi, ne doleas ..... 5
Altèra jam terǐtur ..... 13
Angustam, amice ..... 1
At, 0 deōrum ..... 4
Audivēre, Lyce ..... 6
Bacchum in remōtis. ..... 1
Beătus ille ..... 4
Cœlo supinnas1
Cœlo tonantem ..... 1
Cur me querēlis ..... 1
Delicta majörum. ..... 1
Descende cœlo ..... 1
Diānam, teněræ ..... 6
Diffugēre nives ..... 14
Dive, quem proles ..... 2
Divis orte bonis. ..... 5
Donārem patěras ..... 7
Donec gratus cram tibi ..... 3
Eheu! fugāces ..... 1
Est mihi nonum ..... 2
Et ture et fidibus ..... 3
Exēgi monumentum ..... 7
Extrēmum Tanaim ..... 5
Faune, nymphārum ..... 2
Festo quid potius die ..... 3
Hercŭlis ritu ..... 2
Horrida tempestas ..... 16
Ibis Liburnis ..... 4
Icci, beātis ..... 1
Ille et nefasto. ..... 1
Impios parræ ..... 2
Inclūsam Danăên ..... 5
Intactis opulentior ..... 3
Intĕger vitæ ..... 2
Intermissa, Venus, diu ..... 3
Jam jam efficāci ..... 11
Jam pauca arātro ..... 1
Jam satis terris ..... 2
Jam veris comites. ..... 5
Justum et tenäcem. ..... 1
Laudābunt alii. ..... 8
Lupis et agnis ..... 4
Lvdia, dic, per omnes ..... 12
Mæcēnas atăvis. ..... 7
Malā solūta ..... 4
Martiis cælebs. ..... 2
Mater sæva Cupidinum. ..... 3
Mercŭri, facunde ..... 2
Mercurri, nam te ..... 2
Miserarrum est. ..... 19
Montium custos. ..... 2
Motum ex Metello ..... 1
Musis amicus. ..... 1
Natis in usum. ..... 1
Ne forte credas ..... 1
Ne sit ancillæ ..... 2
Nolis longa feræ ..... 5
Nondum subacta. ..... 1
Non ebur neque aureum. ..... 18
Non semper imbres. ..... 1
Non usitātâ. ..... 1
Non vides, quanto. ..... 2
Nox erat. ..... 10
Nullam, Vare, sacrâ. ..... 9
Nullus argento ..... 2
Nunc est bibendum ..... 1
0 crudēlis adhuc ..... 9
0 diva, gratum ..... 1
0 fons Bandusiæ ..... 6
0 matre pulchrā. ..... 1
0 nata mecum ..... 1
0 navis, refĕrent ..... 6
0 sæpe mecum ..... 1
O Venus, regina ..... 2
Odi profānum ..... 1
Otium Divos ..... 2
Parcius junctas. ..... 2
Parcus Deōrum. ..... 1
Parentis olim. ..... 4
Pastor quum trahěret ..... 5
Percícos odi, puer. ..... 2
Petti, nihil me. ..... 15
Phœbe, silvarumque ..... 2
Phœbus volentem. ..... 1
Pindărum quisquis ..... 2
Poscimur: si quid. ..... 2
Quæ cura Patrum ..... 1
Qualem ministrum. ..... 1
Quando repostum ..... 4
Quantum distet ab Inăcho ..... 3
Quem tu, Melpoměne ..... 3
Quem virum aut heröa. ..... 2
Quid bellicōsus ..... 1
Quid dedicatum ..... 1
Quid fles, Asterie ..... 6
Quid immerentes ..... 4
Quid obserātis. ..... 11
Quid tibi vis. ..... 8
Quis desiderio. ..... 5
Quis multa gracilis. ..... 6
Quo me, Bacche. ..... 8


The following are the single metres used by Horace in his lyric compositions, viz:-

1. Dactylic Hexameter.
2. Dactylic Tetrameter a posteriori.
3. Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic.
4. Adonic.
5. Trimeter Iambic.
6. 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. Glycenic.
15. Pherecratic.
16. Choriambic Dimeter.
17. Ionic a minöre.
18. Greater Alcaic.
19. Archilochian Heptameter.
20. Lesser Alcaic.

## A P P E N D I X .

## 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. Prosthĕsis is the prefixing of a letter or syllable to a word; as, gnätus, for nätus; tětưli, for tŭli. These, however, are rather the ancient customary forms, from which those now in use were formed by aphærěsis.
2. Aphcerersis is the taking of a letter or syllable from the beginning of a word,' as, 'st, for est ; răbōnem, for arrăbōnem.
3. Epenthěsis is the insertion of a letter or syllable in the middle of a word; as, âlitüum, for älītum; Māvors, for Mars.
4. Syncope is the omission of a letter or syllable in the middle of a word; as, deûm, for deōrum; meâm factûm, for meōrum factōrum; scecla, for saccŭla; flesti, for fêevisti; rěpostus, for rèpŏsitus; aspris, for aspèris.
5. Crasis is the contraction of two vowels into one; as, cōgo, for cơăgo; nill, for nihill.
6. Paragoge is the addition of a letter or syllable to the end of a word; as, med, for me; claudier, for claudi.
7. Apocorpe is the omission of the final letter or syllable of a word; as, mën', for mēne ; Antōni, for Antōnii.
8. Antithěsis is the substitution of one letter for another; as, olli, for illi; optümus, for optïmus; afficio, for adficio. $O$ is often thus used for $u$, especially after $v$; as, voltus, for vultus; servom, for servum. So after $q u$; as, cequom, for aquum.
9. Metathěsis is the changing of the order of letters in a word; as, pistris, for pristis.

## II. FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

833. The figures of Syntax are ellipsis, pleonasm, enallăge, and hyperbăton.
834. (a.) Ellipsis is the omission of some word or words in a sentence; as,
Aiunt, scil. hơmìnes. Dārīus Hystaspis, scil. fïlius. Cäno, scil. ègo. Quid multa? scil. dīcam. Ex quo, scil. tempờe. Fërina, scil. caro.
(b.) Ellipsis includes asyndĕton, zeugma, syllepsis, and prolepsis.
(1.) Asynulĕton is the omission of the copulative conjunction; as, äbiit, excessit, êväsit, ērūpit scil. et. Cic. This is called in pure Latin dissôtütio.
(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 bellum gërens: (Sall.) where gërens is applicable to bellum only, while päcem requires ăgĕre. Semperne in sanguăne, ferro, fügā versībimur? (Id.) where the verb does not properly apply to ferro.
(b.) Nẽgo is often thus used with two propositions, one of which is affirmative; as, Nëgant Casărem mansürum, postülātăque interpōsita esse, for dìcuntque postübāta... 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 sylfepsis; as, Et gěnus, et virtus, nisi cum re, vilior algă est. Hor. Căper tibi salvus et hoedi. 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, person's, or numbers, agrees with one rather than another; as, Attŏnǐti norvitāte păvent Baucis, tämídusque Phīlēmon. Ovid. Prōcumbit ŭterque prōnus hümi, i. e. Deucălion et Pyrrha. Id. Sustŭlĭmus mănus et ěgo et Balbus. Cic. So, Ipse cum frātre ădesse jussi sŭmus. Id. Pröjectisque ămicūlo et litěris. Curt. See $\$ \S$ 205, R. 2, and 209, R. 12, (3.) and (7.)
(4.) Prolepsis 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 ciēbant, ab Säbīnis Mettius Curtins, ab Rōmānis Hostus Hostîlius. Liv. Bŏni quöniam convent̀mus ambo, tu călämos infläre, ěgo dicère versus. Virg.
835. (a.) Pleonasm is using a greater number of words than is necessary to express the meaning; as,

Sic ōre lơcūta est. Virg. Qui măgis vēre vincēre quam diu impěrāre mālit. Liv. Nèmo ūnus. Cic. Forte fortūnā. Id. Prūdens sciens. Ter.
(b.) Under pleonasm are included parelcon, polysyndĕton, hendiădys, and periphrăsis.
(1.) Părelcon is the addition of an unnecessary syllable or particle to pronouns, verbs, or adverbs; as, ëgömet, ăgédum, fortassean. Such additions, however, usually modify the meaning in some degree.
(2.) Pölysyndëton is a redundancy of conjunctions; as, Una Eurusque Nötusque ruunt crēberque pröcellis Africus. Virg.
(3.) Hendiădys is the expression of an idea by two nouns connected by et, -que, or atque, instead of a noun and a limiting adjective or genitive; as, Pătěrís lībāmus et auro, for aureis pătěris. Virg. Libro et silvestri sūběre clausam, for libro sübĕris. Id. Cristis et auro. Ovid. Met. 3, 32.
(4.) Pèriphrăsis or circumlơcuutio is a circuitous mode of expression; as, Tẽněri fotus övium, i. e. agni. Virg.
3. (a.) Enallăge 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, heterōsis, antiptōsis, synĕsis, and anacolüthon.
(1.) Antümëric, is the use of one part of speech for another, or the abstract for the concrete; as, Nostrum istud vivère triste, for nostra rita. Pers. Aliud cras. Id. Conjŭgium vidē̄bit? for conjŭgem. Virg.
(2.) Heterösis is the use of one form of noun, pronoun, verb, etc., for another; as, Eqo quóque una pereo, quod mihi est cārius, for qui mihi sum cārior. Ter.

Rōmānus proelio victor, for Rōmāni victōres. Liv. Many words are used by the poets in the plural instead of the singular; as, colla, corda, $\bar{o} r a$, etc. See § 98. Me truncus illapsus cěrebro sustŭlĕrat, for sustŭlisset. Hor. See § 259, R. 4.
(3.) Antiptōsis is the use of one case for another; as, Cui nunc cognōmen Iūlo, for lūlus. Virg. §204, R. 8. Uxor invictí Jŏvis esse nescis, for te esse uxōrem. Hor. § 210 , R. 6.
(4.) Synessis, or synthĕsis, is adapting the construction to the sense of a word, rather than to its gender or number; as, Sŭbeunt Tëgcea jŭventus auxilio tardi. Stat. Concursus pōpŭli mĩrantium quid rei est. Liv. Pars in crŭcem acti. Sall. Ubi illic est scělus, qui me perdidit? Ter. Id mea minnime rēfert, qui sum nätu maximus. Id. See § 205, R. 3, (1.) and (3.), and § 206, (12.)
(5.) Anăcoltuthon is a disagreement in construction between the latter and former part of a sentence; as, Nam nos omnes, quibus est ălicunde ălíquis objectus lăbos, omne quod est intërea tempus, priusquam id rescîtum est, lncro est. Ter. In this example, the writer began as if he iutended to say lucro hăbēmus, and ended as if he had said nöbis omnibus, leaving nos omnes without its verb.
4. (a.) Hy̆perbăton is a transgression of the usual order of words or clauses.
(b.) Hy̆perbăton includes ănastrŏphe, hystĕron prŏtĕron, hy̆pallăge, synch̆̆sis, tmēsis, and părenthĕsis.
(1.) Anaströphe 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 ërit ūna süper, for sŭpërěrit. Ovid. Et făcit āre, for ärĕfŭcit. Lucr.
(2.) Hystĕron prötëron is reversing the natural order of the sense; as, Morriämur, et in mĕdia arma ruämus. Virg. Vălet atque vĩvit. Ter.
(3.) Hÿpallăge is an interchange of constructions; as, In növa fert änimus mūtätas dïcĕre formas corpŏra, for corpðra mūtāta in nōvas formas. Ovid. Dăre classibus Austros, for dăre classes Austris. Virg.
(4.) Synchy̆sis is a confused position of words; as, Saxa vơcant Ităli, mědiis quee in fluctībus, āras, for que saxa in mědiis fluctïbus, hăli vơcant āras. Virg.
(5.) Tmésis or diacơpe is the separation of the parts of a compound word; as, Septem subjecta triōni gens, for septentriōni. Virg. Que me cumque vöcant terrce. Id. Per mũhi, per, inquam, grātum fëcĕris. Cic.
(6.) Părenthĕsis or dialy̆sis is the insertion of a word or words in a sentence interrupting the natural connection; as, Tity̆re dum rěleo, (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, auläz, for aube; sĕnāti, for sĕnātûs; fuat, for sit ; prőȟbesso, for prőhîbuĕro; impetrassěre, for impeträtūrum esse; färǐer, for $f \bar{a} r i$; nēnu, for non; endo, for in;-Opĕram ăbütutur, for ŏpërā. Ter. Quid tïbi hanc cūrātio est rent? Plaut.
(2.) Hellenism is the use of Greek forms or constructions; as, Hĕlĕne, for Hêlëna; Antïphon, for Antĭpho; aurās (gen.), for aurce; Pallüdos, Pallŭda, for Pallădis, Pallädem; Tröăsin, Tröădas, for Tröădibus, Träădes ;-Abstinēto ì ārum. Hor. ${ }^{\text {T Tempus dēsistëre pugnce. Virg. }}$
§ 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, Ridet äger, The field smiles. Virg. Etas aurea, The golden age. Ovid. Naufragia fortüme, The wreck of fortune. Cic. Mentis ocunli, The eyes of the mind. Id. Virtus ünimum glöriee stimŭlis concitat. The harshness of a metaphor is often softened by means of quăsi, tamquam, quìdam, or ut ita dicam;
 quoddam et tamquam ädipātæ dictiōnis gěnus. Id.
(b.) Cütachrēsis or ăbūsio is a bold or harsh metaphor; as, Vir grëgis ipse cŭper. Virg. Eurus per Sicūlas ěquǐtāvit 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 hơmines. Virg. Amor düri Martis, i. e. belli. Id. Früges Cèrěrem appellämus, vīnum autem Līběrum. Cic. Cüpio vīğ̀liam meam tībi trädëre, i. e. meam cūram. Id. Pallìda mors. Hor. Hausit pătēram, i. e. vinnum. Virg. Vīna cơrōnant, i. e. pătëram. Id. Necte ternos cōlōres, i. e. tria füla diversi colōris. Id. Cēdant arma tōgæ, i. e. bellum pāci. Cic. Sæcŭla mītescent, i. e. hömines in saecŭlis. Virg. Vivat Pācưvius vel Nestōra tōtum. Juv. Doctrīnā Græcia nos sŭpěrābat, for Graci süpërābant. Cic. Pāgi centum Suevörum ad rīpas Rhēni consēdërant, for pāgōrum incőle. Cæs. Tempŏra ămīcōrum, for res adversce. Cic. Claudius lēge praediātōriā rēnälis pépendit, for Claudii proedium. Suet. Vìci ad Jānum médium sêdentes, for Jāni vicum. Cic.
3. Sy̆necdŏche 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 fërēbant. Id. Tectum, for dömus. Id. Armäto mīlìte complent, for armãtī milítibus. Id. Ferrum, for glödius. Id. Qui Córinthiis òpěrǐbus ăbundant, i. e. vāsis. Cic. Urbem, urbem, mi Rüfe, colle, i. e. Rümam. Cic. Centum puer artium, i. e. multärum.
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 bŏne vir, cürasti pröbe. Ter. Egrĕgiam vēro laudem, et spölia ampla rĕfertis, tüque, puerque tuus. Virg.
5. Hy̆perborle is the magnifying or diminishing of a thing beyond the truth; as, Ipse arduus, altäque pulsat sīdĕra. Virg. Ocior Euro. Id.
6. Métălepsis is the including of several tropes in one word; as, Post ălíquot 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, rěfërent in müre te nouri fluctus. Hor.
(b.) An obscure allegory or riddle is called an anigma; as, Dic, quibus in terris tres păteat ceeli spütium non amplius ulnas. Virg.
8. Antőnŏmăsia is using a proper noun for a common one, and the contrary; as, Irus et est subito, qui módo Crœesus èrat, ior pauper and dires. Ovid. So, by periphrasis, pōtor Rhödäni, for Gallus. Hor. Eversor Carthäginis, for Scipio. Quint. Elöquentice princeps, for Cicero. Id. Tȳdỉdes, for Diŏmēdes. Virg.
9. Litötes is a mode of expressing something by denying the contrary; as, Non laudo, I blame. Ter. Non innoxia verba. Virg.
10. Antiphrăsis is using a word in a sense opposite to its proper meaning; as, Auri sacra fümes. Virg.
11. Euphemism is the use of softened language to express'what is offensive or distressing; as, Si quid accidisset Cosă̈ri, i. e. si mortuus esset. Vell.
12. Antănaclăsis or punning is the nse of the same word in different senses; as, Quis nëget EXnéce nätum de stirpe Nërōnem? Sustŭlit hic mätrem, sustŭlit ille patrem. Epigr. Amāri jucundum est, si cūrētur ne quid insit ămāri. Cic.
13. Anăphठra or ĕpănăphठ̆ra is the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clauses; as, Nǐhilne te nocturnum prcesidium pălätii, nihil urbis vigťlice, nîhil tŭmor pŏpŭli, etc. Cic. Te, dulcis conjux, te, sōlo in litơre sēcum, te, vëniente die, te, dēcēdente, cănēbat. Virg.
14. Epistrophe is the repetition of a word at the end of successive clauses; as, Pœonos pơpüius Rōmänus justitiā vicit, armis vicit, līē̆rā̄̄̄tāte vicit. Cic. In pure Latin this figure is called conversio.
15. Symploce is the repetition of a word at the beginning, and of another at the end, of successive clauses, and hence it includes the anaphorra and the epistrŏphe; as, Quis lēgem tŭlit? Rullus: Quis mäjōrem pŏpŭli partem suffīagiis prîvävit? Rullus: Quis cobmètiis prafuit? Idem Rullus. Cic.
16. Epănălepsis is a repetition of the same word or sentence after intervening words or clauses. See Virg. Geor. II. 4-7.
17. Anădiplösis is the use of the same word at the end of one clause, and the beginning of another; as, Sëquĭtur pulcherrimus Astur, Astur ëquo fĩdens. Virg. A. 10, 180. Nunc étiam audes in hörum conspectum věnīre, věnīre audes in hōrum conspectum? Cic. This is sometimes called ĕpănaströphe.
18. Epănădiplōsis is the use of the same word both at the beginning and end of a sentence; as, Crescit ămor nummi, quantum ipsa pěcūnia crescit. Juv.
19. Epănădos or rĕgressio is the repetition of the same words in an inverted order; as, Crūdēlis mäter măgis, an puer imprơbus ille? Improbbus ille puer, crüdēlis tu quðque, māter. Virg.
20. Epizeuxis is a repetition of the same word for the sake of emphasis; as, Excǐtāte, excǐtāte eum ab infëris. Cic. Ah Cŏry̆don, Cŏry̆don, que te dēmentia cêpit? Virg. Ibimus, ībimus, utcumque pracē̄des. 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, Quce 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 grädātio.
22. Incrēmentum is an amplification without a strict climax; as, Făcinus est, vincīri cìvem Rōmänum; scëlus, verbĕrā̃ri; prŏpe parrǐcīdium, nĕcāri; quid dīcam in crŭcem tolli? Cic.
23. Pollyptoton is the repetition of a word in different cases, genders, numbers, tenses, etc.; as, Jam clịpeus clïpeis, umböne rëpellïtur umbo; ense minux ensis, pěde pes, et cuspide cuspis. Stat.
24. Paregměnon is the use of several words of the same origin, in one sentence; as, Abesse non pǒtest, quin ĕjusdem hðminis sit, qui imprŏbos prŏbet, prŏbos imprơbāre. Cic. Istam pugnam pugnābo. Plaut.
25. Părठnठmăsia is the use of words which resemble each other in sound; as, Amor et melle et felle est fécundissimus. Plant. Cīvem bŏnärum artium, bơnārum partium. Cic. Amantes sunt āmentes. Ter. This figure is sometimes called agnöminăätio.
26. Hðmœoprơphĕron or alliteration is the use in the same sentence of several words beginning with the same letter; as, $O$ Tite, tüte Täti, tïbi tantn, ty̆ranne, tŭlisti. Enn. Neu patrice vălidas in viscëra vertite vīres. Virg.
27. Antithĕsis is the placing of different or opposite words or sentiments in contrast; as, Häjus ōrātiōnis diffičičlius est exĭtum quam prinč̌pium invënīre. Cic. Cæsar bĕněfĭciis ac mūnІ̆fĭcentiā magnus häbēbātur ; integrǐtāte vītæ Cato. Sall.
28. Oxymōron unites words of contrary significations, thus producing a seeming contradiction; as, Concordia discors. Hor. Quum tăcent, clämant. Cic.
29. Synnonyymia is the use of different words or expressions having the same import; as, Non fĕram, non pătiar, non sinam. Cic. Prömitto, rěctpio, spondeo. Id.
30. Päräbdla or Simile is the comparison of one thing with another; as, Repente te, tamquam serpens e lätibülis, öcülis ēminentibus, inflāto collo, tümídis cervicibus, intülisti. Cic.
31. Erōtēsis is an earnest question, and often implies a strong affirmation of the contrary; as; Crēditis ãvectos hostes? Virg. Heu! quæe me œquöra possunt acctpëre? 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 ūnicum ădollescentülum hăbeo: ah! quid dixi? me hăbēre? Imo hăbui. Ter.
33. Apösiöpēsis, Rëtícentia, or Interruptio, is leaving a sentence unfinished in consequence of some emotion of the mind; as, Quos ëgo-sed mötos proestat compōnëre fluctus. Virg.
34. Prósöpŏpceia or personification represents inanimate things as acting or speaking, and persons dead or absent as alive and present; as, Quce (patria) têcum, Cütilina; sic ăgit. Cic. Virtus sūmit aut pōnit sècūres. Hor.
35. . Apostrophe is a turning off from the regular course of the subject, to address some person or thing; as, Vi pótitur; quid non mortālia pectơra cōgis, auri sacra fämes! Virg.
36. Pŭrăleipsis is a pretended omission of something, in order to render it more observed. See Cic. Cat. 1, 6, 14.
37. Epiphōnëma or Acclämätio is an exclamation or grave reflection on something said before; as, Tanto mölis ërat Rōmänam condëre gentem. Virg.
38. Ecphönësis or Exclämätio shows some violent emotion of the mind; as, O tempŏra! O möres!
39. Apŏria, Diăpŏrēsis, or Dübitātio, expresses a doubt in regard to what is to be said or done; as, Quos accēdam, aut quos appellem? Sall.
40. Prolepsis is. the anticipation of an objection before it is made, or of an event before it occurs; as, Vërum anceps pugn® fuĕrat fortüna. Fuisset: Quem mětui mǒritūra? Virg.
§ 325. To the figures of rhetoric may be subjoined the following terms, used to designate defects or blemishes in style :-
41. Barbarism is either the use of a foreign word, or a violation of the rules of orthography, etymology, or prosody; as, rigōrōsus, for rïgidus or sěvērus; domminus, for dominus; davi, for dèdi.
42. Solecism is a violation of the rules of syntax; as, Vènus pulcher ; vos invidèmus.
43. Neoterism is the use of words or phrases introduced by authors living subsèquently to the best ages of Latinity; as, murdrum, a murder; constäbülărius, a constable.
44. Tautology is a repetition of the same meaning in different words; as, Jam ros ăciem, et prœlia, et hostem poscitis. Sil.
45. Amphibolia is the use of equivocal words or constructions; as, Gallus, a Gaul, or a cock. Aio te, Aăcida, Rōmānos vincēre posse. Quint.
46. 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 mihz verbum, instead of Fac me certiörem, 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 sunrise to sunset, as, on the other hand, the night extended from sunset to sumrise. 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 seacons 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 (vigulice), 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 Cæsar, 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 | " | Octūber . . 31 | " |
| Martius. . 31 days. | Quintīlis 31 | " | Nõvember 30 | " |
| Aprīis . . 30 | " | Sextīlis. 31 | " | Décember 31 |

In early times the Roman year began with March, and the names Quintillis, Sextullis, September, etc., indicated the distance of those months from the commencement of the year. Quintulis and Sextilis were afterwards called Jülius 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 (Cälendce), were always the first day of the month. The Nones ( $N \bar{n} n(e)$ ), 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 Nōnas Jinnuñrias, or Jänuärii, scil. die ante: the third, tertio Nonas; the fourth, pridie Nönas; and the fifth, Nönis. The sixth was denoted by octävo Idus; the seventh,
septimo Idus; and so on to the thirteenth, on which the Ides fell. The fourteenth was denoted by undēevīgèsimo Cälendas Februärias, or Februärii; 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 $I V$. Nonas Jänuärias, 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 Aprilis: the Ides of April falling upou the 13 th, 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 April.
(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 17 th 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 $X I$. 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 bǐsextus, bissextile or leap year.
(a.) The day after the Calends, etc., was sometimes called postridie 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. Mat. <br> Jul. Oct. | Jan. Aug. Dec. | Apr. Jun. <br> Sept. Nov. | Frebr. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Calendæ. | Calendæ. | Calendæ. | Calendæ. |
| 2 | VI. Nonas. | IV. Nonas. | IV. Nonas. | IV. Nonas. |
| 3 | V. " | III. " | III. " | III. " |
| 4 | IV. " | Pridie " | Pridie " | Pridie " |
| 5 | III. " | Nonæ. | Nonæ. | Nonæ. |
| 6 | Pridie Non. | VIII. Idus. | VIII. Idus. | VIII. Idus. |
| 8 | 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. '6 | 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. $\quad$ | 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:-
23. VII. Călendas Martias.
24. bisexto Cal. Mart.
25. VI. Cal. Mart.
26. V. " "
27. IV. Cal. Mart.
28. III. ." "
29. pridie Cal. Mart.
(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 27 th of February in leap-year is $29+2-27=4$, and the proper Roman expression is IV. Cul. NFart.
(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. Cälendas 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., Cuilendas, etc., but also ante diem tertium, etc., Cülendas, 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, Comsul Lätinas férias in ante diem tertium Idus Sextulis edixit, The consul appointed the Latin festival for the third dar before the Ides of August. Liv. Supplícãtio indicta est ex ante diem quintum İdus Octö́res. Id. So, Ad pridie Nōnas Maias. Cic.
(10.) The week of seven days (hebdomas), 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 Sollis, Sunday; dies Lünce, Monday; dies Martis, Tuesday; dies Mercürii, Wednesday; dies Jorris, Thursday; dies Vënëris, Friday; dies Säturni, Saturday.
(11.) The term nundince (from norem-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 vear. Thus Virgil was born, M. Licinio Crasso et Cn. Pompeio Magno consulibus, i. e. in the year of the consulship of Crassus and Pomper. But in Roman anthors events are often dated from the year in which Rome was founded, which, according to Varro, was in the $7 \overline{5} 3 d$ 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. 684. To reduce such dates to our reckoning, if the given number is lees than 754 , we subtract it from the latter number, and the difference is the required year before Christ. The birth of Virgil therefore is $754-684=70$ 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 $767-753=14$.
 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 (jūgĕrum). 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, Düpondius (duo pondo; for the As originally weighed a pound), i.e. 2 Asses; Sestertius (sesqui tertius), i. e. $2 \frac{1}{2}$ 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 uncice, and the different fractions received different names, as follows:

Uncia.
As.................................. 12
Deunx............................... . 11
Dextans ............................ . . . . 10
Dodrans .............................. . . . . 9
Bes................................. 8
Septunx............................... 7
Sēmis ................................ 6

Uncia
Quincunx .......................... 5
Triens................................ . 4
Quādrans, or Těruncius. .......... . 3
Sextans............................. . . . 2
Uncia................................... . . . 1
Sescuncia............................... 1\$

The Uncia was divided in the following manner:-
1 Uncia contained 2 Sēmunciæ.

Roman Coins.
These were the Tĕruncius, Sembella, and As or Lībella, of copper; the Sestertius, Quinārius (or Victōriätus), and Dēnärius, of silver; and the Aureus, of gold.

*Sometimes also (in copper) the triens, sextans, uncia, sextŭla, and dŭpondius.

## Roman Computation of Money.

## Sestertii Nummi.

| Sestertius (or nummus) | \$0 | Cts. 3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Děcem sestertii......... | 0 | 39 |
| Centum sestertii | 3 | 900 |
| Mille sestertii (equal to a sestertium) | 39 | 0 |
| Sestertia. |  |  |
| Sestertium (equal to mille sestertii). | 39 | 0 |
| Děcem sestertia | 390 | 00 |
| Centum, centum sestertia, or centum millia sestertiûm | 3900 | 00 |
| Děcies sestertiûm, or děcies centēna millia nummûm. | 39000 | 00 |
| Centies, or centies H.s. | 390000 | 00 |
| Millies r. s......... | 3900000 | 00 |
| Millies centies H. s. | 4290000 | 00 |

N. B.-The marks denoting a Sestertius nummus are .IIS., LLS., HS., which are properly abbreviations for $21-2$ asses. Observe, also, that when a line is placed over the numbers, centēna millia is understood, as in the case of the numeral adverbs; thus, H.S. $\overline{\mathrm{MC}}$. 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 persent 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, semisses, trientes, quädrantes, etc., i. e. the half, third, fourth, etc., of the as or of 12 per cent. according to the following table:-

| Asses ūsūræ or cen | Per cent. a year |
| :---: | :---: |
| Sēmisses ūsūræ. | , |
| Trientes ūsūre | . 4 |
| Quadrantes ūsūræ | 3 |
| Sextantes ūsūræ. | 2 |
| Unciæ ūsūræ. | 1 |
| Quincunces ūsūræ. | b |
| Septunces ūsūræ. | 7 |
| Besses $\overline{\text { us }}$ uræ. |  |
| Dodrantes ūsūræ. | 9 |
| Dextantes ūsūræ. | 10 |
| Deunces ūsūræ. | . . 11 |

## Roman Weights.



* The Libra was also divided, according to the fractions of the As, into Dennx, etc.

Roman Measures for Things Dry.


Roman Measures for Things Liqum.


[^25]Roman Measures of Lengta.

|  | Dĭgytus transve |  |  | English paces. 0 | $\begin{gathered} \text { Feet. } \\ 0 \end{gathered}$ | Inch. Dee. 0.725 1-4 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 11-5 | Digitus | make | 1 Uncia. | 0 | 0 | 0.967 |
| 3 | Unciæ | 6 | 1 Palmus minor... | 0 | 0 | 2.901 |
| 4 | Palmi minnores | 6 | 1 Pes | 0 | 0 | 11.604 |
| 1 1-4 | Pes | " | 1 Palmřes. | 0 | 1 | 2.505 |
| $11-5$ | Palmípes | 6 | 1 Cŭbĭtus. | 0 | 1 | 5.406 |
| $12-3$ | Cŭbřtus | ${ }_{6}$ | 1 Grădus | 0 | 2 | 5.01 |
| 2 | Grădus | " | 1 Passus. | 0 | 4 | 10.02 |
| 125 | Passus | 6 | 1 Stădium . . . . . . . | 120 | 4 | 4.5 |
| 8 | Stădia | ${ }_{6}$ | 1 Milliärium. | 967 | 0 | 0 |

## Roman Square Measures.

|  | Roman <br> sq. feet. | English rods. | Sq. pls. | Sq. feet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Jūgĕrum (As) | 28,800 | 2 |  | 250.05 |
| Deunx. | 26,400 | 2 | 10 | 183.85 |
| Dextans | 24,000 | 2 | 02 | 117.64 |
| Dodrans. | 21,600 | 1 | 34 | 51.42 |
| Bes.. | 19,200 | 1 | 25 | 257.46 |
| Septunx | 16,800 | 1 | 17 | 191.25 |
| Sēmis.. | 14,400 | 1 | 09 | 125.03 |
| Quincunx | 12,000 | 1 | 01 . | 58.82 |
| Triens. | 9,600 | 0 | 32 | 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 $1-2$ th of a pound.
Rem. 3. (a.) The dēnärius was a silver coin, originally equal in value to ten asses, whence its name; but, after the weight of the as was reduced, the dënürius was equal to eighteen asses.
(b.) The sestertius, or sesterce, was one fourth of the dënärius, or two asses and a half (seemistertius). 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 dēnāriii, 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 quadräginta millia sestertiùm, or quadrayinta sestertia, to denote 40,000 sesterces. With the genitive sestertium, millia was sometimes omitted; as, sestertiàm centum, scil. millia, 100,000 sesterces.
Rem. 6. To denote a million, or more, they used a combination; thus, dëcies centēna millia sestertiîm, $1,000,000$ sesterces. The words centëna millia, however, were generally omitted; thus, décies sestertiûm, and sometimes merely décies. See $\S 118,5$. So, centies, 10 millions; millies, 100 millions.

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. Quinquägies sestertio, $5,000,000$ sesterces. Id. But this usage does not occur in Cicero.

## ABBREVIATIONS.

§ 328. The following are the most common abbreviations of Latin words:-
A., Aulus.
C., Caius, or Gaius.

Cn., Creiuls.
D., Dëcimus.
L., Lūcius.
M., Marcus.
M. T. C., Marcus Tullius Q., or Qu., Quintus. Cicéro. Ser., Servius.
M., Münius.

Mam., Mämercus.
N., Nümërius.
P., Publius.
S., or Sex., Sextus.

Sp., Spürius.
T., Titus.

Ti., or Tib., Tiberrius.
A. d., ante diem.
A. U. C., anno urbis conditce.
Cal., or Kal., Cülendss.
Cos., Consul.
Coss., Consüles.
D., Dīvus.
D. D., dōno dëdit.
D. D.' D., dat, dīcat, dēdicat, or dōno dicat, dèdicat.
Des., dēsignätus.
D. M., dius mānibus.

Eq. Rom., èques Rōmãnus.
F., Filius; as, M. F., Pont. Max., ponttfes

Marci filius.
Ictus, jürisconsultus.
Id., Idus.
Imp., impérāator.
J. O. M., Jơvi, optimo maximo.
N., nëpos.

Non., Nönce.
P. C., patres conscripti.

Pl., plēbis.
Pop., pơpǔlus.
P. R., pð́pülus Rōmānus.
maximus.
Pr., praetor.
Proc., pröconsul.
Resp., $r$ espüblica.
S., sálūtem, sacrum, or sènātus.
S. D. P., sălūtem dicit plūrimam.
S. P. Q. R., Sënätus pŏprilusque Rōmānus.
S. C., sěnätùs consultum.

Tr., tribünus.

To these may be added terms of reference; as, c., căput, chapter; cf., confer, compare; l. c., lóco citāto; l. l., loco laudāto, in the place quoted; v., versus, verse.

## DIFFERENT AGES OF ROMAN LITERATURE.

§ 329. 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 Ciccro, 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 Pome 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 foreigu 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.
Q. Novius. Lævius.
P. Nigidius Figŭlus.
C. Decius Laberius.
M. Verrius Flaccus. Varro Attacinus. Titinius.
L. Pomponius.
C. Sempronius Asellio.

Cn. Matius.
Sex. Turpilius.
C. Q. Atta.
L. Cassius Heminna. Fenestella.
Q. Claud. Quadrigarius. Colius Antipăter. Fabius Pictor.
Cn. Gellins.
L. Piso, and others.
L. Afranius.

Of the works of the preceding writers, only a few fragments remain.

| Porcius Cato. | Sex. Aurelius Propertius. | P. Ovidius Naso. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| M. Accius Plautus. | C. Sallustius Crispus. | Q. Horatius Flaccus. |
| M. Terentius Afer. | M. Terentius Varro. | C. Pedo Albinovānus. |
| T. Lucretius Carus. | Albius Tibullus. | Gratius Faliscus. |
| C. Valerius Catullus. | P. Virgilius Maro. | Phædrus. |
| P. Syrus. | T. Livius. | C. Cornificius. |
| C. Julius Cæsar. | M. Manilius. | A. Hurtius, or Oppius. |
| C. Cornelius Nepos. | M. Vitruvius. | P. Cornelius Sevērus. |
| M. Tullius Cicěro. |  |  |

M. Tullius Cicěro.

To these may be added the following names of lawyers, whose opinions are found in the digests:-
Q. Mutius Scævǒla. M. Antistius Labeo. Masurius Sabinus.

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.
M. Annæus Lucānus.
P. Velleius Patercŭlus.
L. Junius Moderātus Colamella.
Pomponius Mela.
A. Persins Flaccus.
Q. Asconius Pediānus.
M. Annæus Seněca.
L. Annæus Seněca.
T. Petronius Arbiter.
C. Plinius Secundus.
C. Silius Italícus.
C. Valerius Flacens.
C. Julius Solinus.
D. Junius Juvenālis.
P. Papinius Statius.
M. Valerius Martiālis.
M. Fabius Quintiliānus.

Sex. Julius Frontinus.
C. Cornelius Tacǐtus.
C. Plinius Cæcilius Secundus.
L. Annæus Florus.
C. Suetonius Tranquil lus.

The age to which the following writers should be assigned is somewhat un-certain:-
Q. Curtius Rūfus.
Valerius Pröbus.
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. Serênus Sammoň̌cus.
Censorīnus.
Thascius Cæcilius Cypriānus.
T. Julius Calpurnius.
M. Aurelins Xemesiānus. ※lius Spartiānus. Julius Capitolinus. Elius Lampridius.

Vulcatius Gallicānus.
Trebellius Pollio. Flevius Vopiscus. Celius Aureliānus. Flavius Eutropius. Rhemnius Fannius. Arnobius Afer.
L. Cœlius Lactantius. Elius Donātus.
C. Vettus Juvencus. Julius Firmícus. Fab. Marius Victorinns. Sex. Rūfus, or Rūfus Festus.

Ammiānus Marcellinus.
Vegetius Renātus.
Aurel. Theodōrus Macrobius.
Q. Aurelius Symmăchus.
D. Magnus Ausonius.

Paulinus Nolānus.
Sex. Aurelius Victor.
Aurel. Prudentius Clomens.
Cl. Claudiānus.

Marcellus Empirycus.
Falconia Pröba.

Of an Age not entirely certain.

Valerius Maxǐmus. Justinus.

Terentiānus Maurus.
Minutius Fēlix.

Sosipăter Charisius. Flavius Aviānus.

The opinions of the following lawyers are found in the digests:-

Licinius Procǔlus.
Neratius Priscus.
P. Jurentius Celsus. ${ }^{\circ}$

Priscus Jabolēnus.
Domitius Llpiānus.

Herennius Modestinus.
Salvius Juliảnus.
Caius.
Callistrătus.
Emilius Papiniānus.

Julius Paulus.
Sex. Pomponius. Venuleius Saturnīnus. Flius Marciãnus. Elius 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 Tau- Auctōres Priapeiōrum. rus Emiliānus. Catalecta Virgilii et Emilius Măcer.
Messāla Corvinus.
Vibius Sequester.
Julius Obsëquens.
L. Ampelius.

Apicius Cœlius.
Sex. Pompeius Festus.
Prŏbus (auctor Notanrum.)
Fulgentius Planciădes.
Hyginus.
C. Cæsar Germanǐcus.
P. Victor.
P. Vegetius.

Ovidii.
Auctor oratiōnis Sallustii in Cic. et Cicerōnis in Sall.; item illius $A^{\text {a }} \mathrm{it}$ ěquam $\overline{\mathrm{z}}$ ret in exsilium.
Auctor Epistölæ ad Octavium.
Auctor Panegyrici ad Pisōnem.
Declamationes quæ tribuuntur Quintiliāno, Porcio Latrōni, Calpurnio Flacco.

Interpres Darētis Phrygii, et Dictyos Cretensis.
Scholiastæ Vetěres.
Grammatǐci Antīqui.
Rhetŏres Antīqui.
Medĭci Antīqui.
Catalecta Petroniāna.
Pervigilium Veuěris.
Poematia et Epigrammă ta vetěra a Pithæo collecta.
Monumentum Ancyrānum.
Fasti Consulāres. Inscriptiōnes Vetěres.

WRITERS OF THE IRON AGE.
Cl. Rutilius Numatiānus. Servius Honorātus.
D. Hierony̆mus.
D. Augustinus.

Sulpicius Severus. Paulus Orosius. Cœlius Sedulius. Codex Theodosiānus. Martiānus Capella. Claudiānus Mamertus. Sidonius Apollināris.

Latīnus Pacātus.
Claudius Mamertinus, et alii, quorum sunt Panegyrici vetěres.
Alcimus Avìtus.
Manl. Severinus Boesthius.
Prisciānus.
Nonius Marcellus.
Justiniāni Institutiōnes

Ruf. Festus Aviēnus.
Arātor.
M. Aurelius Cassidōrus.

Fl. Cresconius Corippus.
Venantius Fortunātus.
Isidōrus Hispalensis.
Anony̆mus Ravennas. Aldhelmus or Althelmus. Paulus Diacŏnus.

## I N D E X .

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$4$
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[^1]:    Hew Britain, Conn., Oct., 1857.

[^2]:    *These art ie, met, pte, ce, cïne, and dem; as, tute, egðmet, meapte, hicce, hiccine, idem.

[^3]:    Rem. 4. Adjectives and participles have likewise different genders, numbers, and cases, corresponding to those of nouns.

[^4]:    *To distinguish the gender of latin noung, grammarians write hic before the mascu. line, haic before the feminine, and hoc before the neuter.

[^5]:    * Pronounced $a r^{\prime}$-she-um, noc'-she-um. See $\$ 12$.

[^6]:    * Pronouncer mish'-8-a, etc. Soe \& 12.

[^7]:    * Pronounced fe-lish'-e-um, etc. See \& 10, Exc., and 87 7., 3, (b.)
    $\dagger$ Pronounced pre-zen'she-a, eto

[^8]:    Acclivis, and-us, r, ascending.
    Auxiliäris, and -ius, auxiliary.
    Bijŭgis, and -us, yoked two together.
    Declivis, and -us, r, descending.
    Exanı̆mis, and-us, r, lifeless.
    Hilăris, and -us, cheerful.
    Imbecillis, $r$, and -us, weak.
    Impübes, and -is, r, -is or -ěris, not grown up.
    Inermis, and-us, $r$, unarmed.
    Infrēnis, and -us, unbridled.

[^9]:    *See § 19, 1, Exc.

[^10]:    *Pronounced $a$-lik'-vě-bus. See $\$ \oint 9,4$, and 21, 8.

[^11]:    *See §§ 105, R. 2: and 111, R.

[^12]:    *In the second person singular in English, the plural form you is commonly used except in solemn discourse; as, tues, you are.
    $\dagger$ The plural pronoun of the second person is either ye or you.

[^13]:    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, hecause they do not occur in the classics now extant. Others are in their nature defeo tive. Thus, the first and second persons of the passive voice must be wanting in many verbs, from the nature of their signification.

[^14]:    *Pronounced $a^{\prime}-y o, a^{\prime}-y u n t$, etc., wherever the diphthong $a i$ is followed by a vowel.
    

[^15]:    Hec dömus est Casăris, This house is Cæsar's. Nōrien auræ tam sape rŏcātum esse pütans Nympho. Ovid. Nāves ónĕrrārias, quär. m minnor nulla ĕrat duum millium amphŏrum, i. e. quärum minor nulla ěrat quam 1 āvis duum, etc. Cic.
    (2.) When it is a general word denoting a person, an animal, etc. ; as,

[^16]:    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. $\S 227$, R. 4

[^17]:    Ad templum non aequee Pallădis ìbant,--to the temple. Virg. Adversus hostes, Against the enemy. Liv. Germüni qui cis Rhēnum incölunt,-this side the Rhine. Cæs. Quum tantum rěsideat intra mūros măli. Cic. Princīpio rērum impërium pĕnes rēges ërat. Just. Templum pönam propter ăquam. Virg. Inter ăgendum. Id. Ante dömandum. Id. Respecting the signification of some of the preceding prepositions see § 195, R. 5, etc.

[^18]:    Such are nätus, prōgnātus, sãtus, creãtus, crētus, ēdz̃tus, gěnătus, gěněrãtus, ortus; to which may be added ofriundus, descended from.

[^19]:    Verbs of willingness, etc., are vŏlo, mālo, permitto, concêdo, pătior, sĭno, licet, věto, etc.; those of asking, etc., are rŏgo, üro, quaso, mŏneo, admŭneo, jŭbeo, mando, pčto, prècor, censeo, suüdeo, ŏportet, nêcesse est, postülo, hortor, cūro, dècerno, opto, impĕro.

[^20]:    Note. The demonstratives after which qui takes the subjunctive, are tam with an
     tālis; as,

    Quis est tam Lyncēus, qui in tantis tënebris nưhil offendat? i. e. ut ille in tantis, etc., Who is so quick-sighted, that he would not stumble, (or, as not to stumble, ) in such darkness. Cic. Tälem te esse orportet, qui ab impiôrum cìvium söciëtāte sējungas; i. e. ut tu, etc. Id. At ea fuit lēgătio Octâviī, in quā pĕrī̀cŭli suspiccio non sübesset, i. e. ut in eā. Id. Nec tümen ëgo sum ille ferreus, qui frātrie cārissimi moeröre non mövear, i. e. ut ĕgo non mövear. Id. Non sŭmus ii, quĭbus nîhil vērum esse vǐdeātur, i. e. ut nōbis nǐhil, etc. Id. Nulla gens tam fěra est, cūjus mentem non imbuěrit deörum ơpinio, i. e. ut ëjus mentem, etc. Id.
    (b.) Sometimes the demonstrative word is only implied; as,

    Res parva dictu, sed quæ stŭdiīs in magnum certāmen excessĕrit, i. e. tālis que....of such a kind that it issued in a violent contest. Cic. Nunc dicis ăliquid, quod ad rem pertĭneat, i. e. tāle ut id, etc. Id. So quis sum, for num tälis sum; as, Quis sum, cūjus aures loedi nëfas sit? Sen.-In like manner, also, a demonstrative denoting a character or quality, is implied in the examples included in the following rule :-

[^21]:    Quid enim pŏtest esse tam perspicuum, quam esse ăliqquod nūmen, quo hacc rĕgantur? 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 hoc rĕgantur is an essential part of the general proposition. Illud sic fĕre dëfinnīri sölet, dĕcōrum id esse, quod consentäneum sit hơmĭnis excellentice. Id. Audianı quid sit, quod Eñ̌cūrum non pröbes, I shall hear why it is that you do not approve c: Epicurus. Id Jussit ut, quee vēnissent, nāves Eubcean pềtěrent. Liv.

[^22]:    Note 6. Such are gaudeo, dēlector, grātum, or jūcundum est m̌̌hi, angor, dठleo, agre, müleste. or grärǐter fëro, succenseo, pcentet, mãror, admāror, glōrior, grātülor, grā̆lias $\breve{a} g o, q u e ̈ r o r, ~ i n d i g n o r, ~ a n d ~ o t h e r s ~ o f ~ s i m i l a r ~ m e a n i n g ; ~ a s, ~ S c i ̄ p i o ~ s a p e ~ q u e ̈ r e ̄ b a ̄ t u r, ~ q u o d ~$ omnťbus in rēbus hömznes dīľgentiōres essent, ut, etc. Cic. Gaudeo quod te interpellāvi. Id. Quod spīrãtis, quod vōcem mittžtis, quod formas hơmünum häbētis, indignantur. Liv. Cáto mīrāri se aiēbat, quod non rādēret häruspex, härusp̌̌cem quum v̌̌dêret. Cic.

    Note 7. After those verbs which express the feeling of joy, grief, etc.; as, gaudeo, dolen, miror, 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. Grātülor is commonly joined with quod.

[^23]:    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.
    Ren. 2. The supine in $u m$ 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 Plantus and Terence and in the prose writers later than Cicero; as, Men Glÿcerrium, quid agis? cur te is perditum? Why are you going to destroy yourself? Plaut. Bönōrum prcemia ēreptum eunt. Sall. With eo the supine in um often forms a periphrasis equivalent to the same mood and tense of the verb froin which the

[^24]:    § 277. I Adverbs modify or limit the meaning of verbs, adjectives, and sometimes of other adverbs; as,

[^25]:    * The Sextārius was also divided into trelve equal parts, called cyăthi, and therefore the calices were denominated sextantes, quadrantes, trientes, according to the number of cyăthi which they contained.
    N. B.-Cädus, congiärius, and dölium, are the names of certain vessels, not measures, of capacity.

