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## $\mathfrak{C}$ larendon ${ }^{3}$ ess Series

AN INTRODUCTION<br>TO<br>LATIN SYNTAX

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# Clarendon 

## AN INTRODUCTION

To

## LATIN SYNTAX

BY

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Late Exhibitioner of Balliol College

## Oxford

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## PREFACE.

This little book is an attempt, based on the experience of several years, first as assistant master at a public school, and then as the master of a preparatory school, to present Latin syntax in such a way as to require less supplementing by oral explanation than is necessary with an ordinary memorial syntax (though for many boys this oral explanation can never be entirely dispensed with), and to make it impossible for any boy to learn the rules as mere forms of words, without any attempt at junderstanding them. Instead of beginning with an abstract (and therefore, to most boys, meaningless) rule to be learned, each Section begins with a Latin sentence or sentences illustrative of the rule which is to be explained. The master should see that the pupil is able to translate these sentences word for word, and to parse every word in them. When he can do this, he will be in a position to understand the analysis of the sentences which follows, leading him up by a kind of induction to the rule, which is thus only presented to him when he is able to recognise its truth. The sentences are for the most part taken from the examples in the Public Schools Primer, though I have sometimes taken others which seemed to me better adapted to illustrate the particular rules under consideration, and in a few instances, where I could not find a
perfectly suitable example to hand, I have framed one to suit my requirements.

As regards arrangement, I have on the whole followed the lines of the Public Schools Primer, though I have not hesitated to depart from the order there observed, where it seemed to me that greater clearness would be attained by so doing. Such departures occur chiefly in the treatment of the ablative and of the genitive. There is also an important one in Chapter II, Section 4, where, after the explanation of the accusative with infinitive, is introduced that of the mood and tense in a subordinate clause depending on an accusative with infinitive. It would be absurd for a boy to work all through the rules on the several cases, and those on the infinitive, gerunds, supines, and gerundive, before he had any practice in the commonest use of the subjunctive ; and this seemed the most natural place to introduce it.
Each Section concludes with one or more exercises, to test the pupil's power of applying the rule which has just been arrived at. In the framing of these exercises great care has been taken to illustrate the rules previously treated as well as those immediately under consideration, so that the pupil may by constant repetition be kept from forgetting what he has once learned.

It is a common complaint among schoolmasters that the exercise books do not give enough practice on each rule. I have tried to meet this want by often giving two exercises to a Section, and ending each Chapter with three, which are intended to serve as a kind of recapitulation of the contents of the whole Chapter. For some boys, no doubt, a smaller
number of exercises would be sufficient; but an exercise can always be missed at the discretion of the teacher.

A word or two may be necessary with regard to one or two departures from the ordinary practice in the use of grammatical terms. The term 'subject' is, in most Grammars, used indifferently for the thing spoken of and for the name denoting this thing. The same remark applies, mutatis mutandis, to the term 'object.' This ambiguous use of terms, however high the authority for it, surely ministers to that confusion between words and things which is so common in the minds of the young, but from which it is a part of the teacher's business to deliver them. The terms 'subject' and 'object' are in this book used only to signify things; for the names denoting the things I have ventured to introduce the terms 'subject noun' and 'object noun.' This necessitates a slight extension of the meaning of the word ' noun' beyond its ordinary use, so as to make it include substantival pronouns. It does not, however, imply the disuse of the term 'pronoun,' which may still be used to denote such words as stand in the place of nouns, though these are no longer regarded as forming a separate part of speech, but only as a subdivision of the class of nouns. With regard to the so-called 'adjectival pronouns,' I have followed the French practice of calling them adjectives. This is surely more logical and less confusing than to class together words of such different functions as 'I' and ' my,' and raise the class so formed to the rank of a (quite unnecessary) part of speech.

It is hoped that the plan of giving a separate Vocabulary
for each part of speech may have the effect of obliging the pupil to think before looking out a word, and so tend to eliminate one fruitful source of mistakes, the habit of taking the first Latin equivalent found for an English word (which may have half a dozen different meanings), and spare a few teachers' ears the too familiar answer in justification of a blunder, ' Please, Sir ! I found it in the Dictionary.'

The Rookery, Headington, Oxford.

On Agreement.

Section 1. On the agreement of a noun with another noun, with which it is in apposition.
[Note.-No exercises are given on the agreement of the verb or adjective with a single noun, as it is assumed that the pupil will have been thoroughly practised in these while learning the accidence of verbs and adjectives.]

Let the following sentence be learned, and each word in it parsed :

Nos pueri patrem Lollium imitabimur.
We boys will imitate our father Lollius.
In this sentence the noun 'pueri' is added to the noun ${ }^{1}$ 'nos' to explain it more fully, and the two nouns denote, or are names of, the same persons. Notice that 'pueri' is in the same case with 'nos.'

So also 'Lollium' is added to explain 'patrem,' and denotes the same person that is denoted by this noun. Notice again that 'Lollium' is in the same case with ' patrem.'

[^0]A noun thus added to another noun to explain it, and denoting the same thing as the noun which it explains, is said to be in apposition with that noun ${ }^{1}$. As we have seen, it must be in the same case with the noun with which it is in apposition.

## Exercise 1.

I. The master is teaching two boys, the sons of Caius.
2. Who will dare to say such things ${ }^{2}$ about you, the deliverers of your country?
3. I shall give all these books to my son Caius.
4. Tarquinius Superbus, the son of Priscus, had married the daughter of king Servius Tullius.
5. India has two very large rivers, the Indus and the Ganges.
6. The Tarentines sought aid against the Romans from Pyrrhus, king of Epirus.
7. The Samnites had come into Campania, the most fertile district of Italy.
8. The Helvetii used to dwell between Mount Jura and the river Rhone.
9. He will refuse this even to you, $h i{ }^{3}{ }^{3}$ dearest friend.
10. Alcibiades was a pupil of Socrates, the wisest of the Greeks.

[^1]Section 2. On the agreement of a relative with its antecedent.

Let the following sentences be learned, and the words in them parsed:

1. Mortuus est Caius, quem omnes amavimus.

Caius, whom we all loved, is dead.
2. Amo te, mater, quae me amas.
$I$ love you, mother, who love me.
To find the word that a relative pronoun refers to, or stands for, turn the relative clause into a question, and see what word must be used instead of the relative pronoun in the answer.

For instance, to find the word that 'whom,' in Sent. I, refers to, ask the question 'Whom did we all love?' Ans. ${ }^{1}$ 'We all loved Caius.' 'Caius' is the word that 'whom' refers to, and is called the antecedent.

In this answer 'Caius' is the object noun. Therefore, as the word 'whom' in the relative clause stands for 'Caius,' it denotes the object, and this explains why 'quem' is in the accusative.

Now, as 'quem' stands for 'Caium,' it is of course in the same gender and number as that word, i.e. masc. sing.

To find the antecedent in Sentence 2, ask the question 'Who loves me?' Ans. 'You love me.' 'You' is the antecedent, and the relative pronoun 'quae' is in the same gender and number as 'te,' i. e. (as it is a woman that is addressed) fem. sing.

[^2]In this answer ' you' is the subject noun. Therefore, as the word 'who' in the relative clause stands for 'you,' it denotes the subject, and this is why 'quae' is in the nominative. Further, as the relative pronoun 'quae,' which denotes the subject, stands for 'tu,' the verb 'amas' is in the 2nd person singular, to agree with its subject noun.

We see, then, that a relative agrees with its antecedent in gender, number, and person, but in case belongs to its own clause.

Notice that it is only when the relative denotes the subject of its clause that it affects the person of the verb.

## Exercise 2.

1. This man ${ }^{1}$ has a maidservant, who was taken in that city.
2. Are you not ${ }^{2}$ willing to give this to me, your friend, who have preserved you?
3. The Romans besieged the towns of the Latins, whom they had defeated at Mount Vesuvius.
4. We are willing to do anything ${ }^{3}$ for ${ }^{4}$ you, who have preserved us.
5. Let us finish the work, which we have undertaken.
6. The legions, which the Romans had sent against Hannibal, were routed at the river Trebia.
7. The Romans made an alliance with the Campanians, whose city, Capua, the Samnites were besieging.

[^3]8. Never shall the enemy ${ }^{1}$ conquer us, who are fighting on behalf of our country.
9. The citizens will be willing to do ${ }^{2}$ anything ${ }^{3}$ for you, soldiers, who have saved the city.
10. The Romans sent two armies against the Samnites, who had invaded Campania.

## Exercise 3.

1. I cannot entrust this to you, who have always been my enemy ${ }^{4}$.
2. The Albans dismissed the ambassador, who had come from king Tullus.
3. He is despised by those whom he fears.
4. What rewards will be given to us, who have saved the state?
5. This boy hates even me, who love him.
6. The defeat, which the army had received, was announced to Caius, the praefect of the city.
7. We will follow you, tribunes, who are leading us against the enemy ${ }^{5}$.
8. Tarquinius Superbus killed king Servius Tullus, whose daughter Tullia he had married.
9. Let us pay ${ }^{6}$ honour to the women, who died for ${ }^{7}$ their country.
10. The Aegean sea, which separates Greece from Asia, contains the islands Lesbos, Samos, and very many others.
[^4]Section 3. On the agreement of a verb or adjective with two or more nouns.

Sentences to be learned:
I. Si tu et Tullia valetis, ego et Cicero ${ }^{1}$ valemus. If you and Tullia are well, Cicero and $\mathrm{I}^{1}$ are well.
2. Pater mihi et mater mortui sunt. My father and mother are dead.
3. Labor voluptasque natura dissimillima sunt. Toil and pleasure are by nature very different.
In each of these sentences the subject is denoted by two nouns in the nominative case coupled together. When this is the case, the verb is in the plural, in Latin as in English, even though each of the nouns denoting the subject may be in the singular.

In Sentence $\mathbf{I}$ the subject of 'valetis' is denoted by a pronoun of the 2 nd person 'tu,' and a noun, 'Tullia,' of the 3 rd person, coupled together. Notice that the verb is in the 2nd person, not the 3 rd. So also the subject of 'valemus' is denoted by a pronoun of the rst person, 'ego,' and a noun, 'Cicero,' of the 3 rd person, coupled together. Notice that the verb is in the ist person, not the 3rd.

In Sentence 2, where the subject is denoted by two nouns of the 3rd person coupled together, the verb is, of course, in the 3 rd person too.

The rule, then, is that, when the nouns denoting the subject are of different persons, the verb agrees with the Ist person rather than the $2 n d$ or $3 r d$, and with the $2 n d$ rather than the $3^{r d}$.

In Sentence 2 the nouns denoting the subject are a mas-

[^5]culine, 'pater,' and a feminine, 'mater,' each denoting a living being. Notice that the adjective 'mortui' is in the masculine gender, not the feminine.

In Sentence 3 the nouns denoting the subject are a masculine, 'labor,' and a feminine, 'voluptas,' each denoting a lifeless thing. Here the adjective 'dissimillima' is in the neuter gender.

The rule, then, is that, when an adjective qualifies two or more nouns of different genders, it agrees with the masculine rather than the feminine, if the nouns denote living beings; but is generally put in the neuter, if the nouns denote lifeless things.

The same rules of course apply to the person and gender of a relative pronoun, when the antecedent consists of two or more nouns coupled together.

Exercise 4.

1. Your father and I were taught $b y^{1}$ the same master, Orbilius ${ }^{2}$.
2. My legions and I have routed the enemy.
3. You and your legions were routed by the enemy, whom you had provoked $t^{3}$ battle.
4. Trees and walls were thrown down in that storm, which you had predicted.
5. We are mourning for ${ }^{4}$ Caius and his wife Tullia, who were killed by the soldiers.
6. You and I were sitting by the river, which flows past our garden.
7. The women and children ${ }^{5}$, whom we took in the city, have been set free ${ }^{6}$.

[^6]8. You and your horsemen will go to the right wing; my lieutenant and I will remain here.
9. P. Decius Mus and T. Manlius Torquatus, whom the Romans had sent against the Latins, drew up ${ }^{1}$ their army by Mount Vesuvius.
10. Successes ${ }^{2}$, honours, victories, have been denied to me by the gods.

## Exercise 5.

1. My wife and son were left in the city.
2. We are fighting for our altars and hearths, which we will never yield $u p^{3}$ to the enemy.
3. These things were said to your brother Quintus and me, who were then standing $b y^{4}$.
4. We and our allies will soon put to fight ${ }^{5}$ the savage multitude, which has invaded our territory.
5. The king and his legions had not yet set out.
6. All men are praising you and your wife Cornelia, who have saved the city.
7. You and I were rejoicing because the general and the army had returned unharmed.
8. The state has lost an excellent citizen, Hirtius, whose death we are all mourning.
9. If you and your children are in good health ${ }^{6}$, it is well ; my wife and I are in good health.
10. The shields and spears, which we had taken from the enemy, were hung $u p^{7}$ in the temples.
[^7][^8]
## Exercise 6.

1. You and your sister were walking near the river Tiber.
2. The consul and one legion had been put to fight ${ }^{1}$ by the enemy.
3. Our houses and lands, which we had left unoccupied, were spoiled by the enemy.
4. The houses and temples were set on fire ${ }^{2}$ by the enemy, who had broken ${ }^{3}$ into the city.
5. My brother and I have been praised by Caius, a tribune of the soldiers.
6. You and I were fighting on ${ }^{4}$ the walls, which the enemy were assailing.
7. The king has promised a reward to you and your son, who were wounded in that battle.
8. Your mother and I were born in this house.
9. Our houses and goods were entrusted to the protection of Servilius, the master of the horse ${ }^{5}$.
10. You and I have seen the destruction ${ }^{6}$ which was caused ${ }^{7}$ by the enemy.
[^9]
## CHAPTER II.

On the Accusative with Infinitive and on Copulative Verbs.

Section 1. On the accusative with infinitive, depending on a verb in a primary tense.

Sentences to be learned:
I. Scimus annos fugere. We know that years flee.
2. Dicit se peccavisse.

He says that he has sinned.
3. Promittit se iturum esse.

He promises that he will go.
In all these sentences the principal verb expresses either belief of a fact (as in Sentence I, 'We know'), or a statement of a fact (as in Sentence 2, 'He says,' and Sentence 3, 'He promises'). Such verbs may in English be followed by a clause introduced by the conjunction 'that.' In turning into Latin the word 'that' must be left out, and the verb of the clause introduced by it must be put in the infinitive, with its subject noun in the accusative.

## Exercise 1.

1. He says ${ }^{1}$ that the soldiers did not ${ }^{1}$ fear death.
2. I hope that your father and mother will soon come.
3. It is announced that the enemy have been conquered.
4. He hopes that the enemy will be conquered.
5. They say that the enemy's cavalry is approaching.
6. I think that the plunder will be given to the soldiers.
7. I feel that I am being justly punished.
8. I do not think that Caesar was justly killed.
9. We shall soon hear ${ }^{2}$ that the camp is being taken.
10. The general has promised that we shall receive large rewards.

1 I. I know that the enemy have broken ${ }^{3}$ into the camp.
12. The general believes that the sentinels are keeping watch ${ }^{4}$ before the gates.

Section 2. On the case of the complement of a copulative verb.

Sentences to be learned:
r. Nemo nascitur sapiens.

Nobody is born wise.
2. Constat neminem nasci sapientem.

It is agreed that nobody is born wise.

[^10]In these sentences it is clear that the word 'wise'-or some other word-is necessary to complete the meaning of the verb ' is born,' as it would be absurd to say 'Nobody is born.' It is equally clear that the verb does not express an action done to any person or thing, and is therefore not a transitive verb. It is therefore a copulative verb, and the word 'wise,' which completes its meaning, is the complement.

Notice that the complement of a copulative verb is in the same case as its subject noun, whether that noun is in the nominative, as in Sentence 1, or in the accusative, as in Sentence 2. If the complement is an adjective, it will of course agree with the subject noun in gender and number also.

## Exercise 2.

1. The leader, whom we are following, seems most cautious.
2. Your father will perceive that you are becoming learned.
3. Even those who were born deaf and dumb, may ${ }^{1}$ learn much ${ }^{2}$.
4. It is agreed that Camillus was a very great ${ }^{3}$ general.
5. These things were unknown to you and me, who were then boys.
6. Do you not ${ }^{4}$ know that my brother and I shall be fellow-soldiers?
7. You and your brother, who had seemed unfriendly to us, turned out ${ }^{5}$ most friendly.

[^11]8. All will confess that you have turned out ${ }^{1}$ a skilful leader.
9. We are fighting for our wives and children, who, if we are conquered ${ }^{2}$, will become the prey of the enemy.
ro. It is agreed that nobody ever becomes suddenly very base.

I I. I think that this surrender will seem most disgraceful.

Section 3. On the accusative with infinitive depending on a verb in a historic tense.

In the last two exercises, wherever we have had an accusative with infinitive, the verb on which it depended has been in a primary tense. Now let the following sentences be learned, in which the accusative with infinitive depends on a verb in a historic tense :
I. Scivimus annos fugere.

We knew that the years were flying.
2. Dixit se peccavisse.

He said that he had sinned.
3. Promisit se iturum esse.

He promised that he would go.
Notice that the present infinitive 'fugere,' in Sentence I, is translated as a past imperfect, the past infinitive ' peccavisse,' in Sentence 2, as a pluperfect, and the future infinitive 'iturum esse,' in Sentence 3, by the words 'would go.'

In Latin, 'fugere' is in the present tense, because the action expressed by it was present at the time referred to by the principal verb 'scivimus.'
${ }^{2}$ Say 'shall have been conquered.'
'Peccavisse' is in the past tense, because the action expressed by it zuas past at the time referred to by the principal verb 'dixit.'
'Iturum esse' is in the future tense, because the action expressed by it was future at the time referred to by the principal verb 'promisit.'

To see, then, what tense of the infinitive should be used, where the accusative with infinitive depends on a verb in a historic tense, think what tense would have been used by the person himself about whom the principal verb tells you.

Thus:
'We knew that the years were flying' implies that we said to ourselves 'The years are flying.' Therefore 'fugere' is in the present infinitive.
'He said that he had sinned' = 'He said "I have sinned" ' Therefore ' peccavisse' is in the past infinitive.
'He promised that he would go' implies that he said 'I will go.' Therefore 'iturum esse' is in the future infinitive.

Remember that there are only three distinctions of tense in the infinitive, and that, if any past tense would have been used by the person speaking, the past infinitive must be used.

## Exercise 3.

1. He pretended that $h e^{1}$ saw throug $h^{2}$ the plans of the conspirators.

[^12]2. He heard that the enemy had broken ${ }^{1}$ into the camp.
3. It was announced that the trees and buildings had been set on fire ${ }^{2}$ by the enemy.
4. He promised that rewards should be given to the soldiers.
5. He heard that the guilty were being punished.
6. He hoped that his brother and sister would be there ${ }^{3}$.
7. He hoped that the enemy would be conquered by the dictator Camillus.
8. He said ${ }^{4}$ that the citadel had not ${ }^{4}$ been taken.
9. I did not believe that the enemy had taken the citadel.
10. It was already clear ${ }^{5}$ to all that war was impending.
ir. He promised that you and your wife should receive rewards.
12. The Romans heard that Luceria, a town of Apulia, was being besieged by the Samnites.

Section 4. On the mood and tense in a subordinate clause depending on an accusative with infinitive.

Sentences to be learned:
r. Dicit eos, qui boni sint, beatos esse. He says that those, who are good, are happy.
2. Dixit eos, qui boni essent, beatos esse. He said that those, who were good, were happy.
3. Dicit te laudatum iri, quod heri veneris. He says that you will be praised, because you came yesterday.

[^13]${ }^{2}$ See Chap. i, Ex. 6, n. 2.
${ }^{4}$ See Ex. I, n. I.
4. Dixit te laudatum iri, quod heri venisses. He said that you would be praised, because you had come yesterday.
In each of these sentences we have a subordinate ${ }^{1}$ clause depending on the accusative with infinitive, in Sentences I and 2 a relative clause qualifying 'eos,' the subject of the infinitive, in Sentences 3 and 4 a clause introduced by the conjunction 'quod,' qualifying the infinitive 'laudatum iri.' Notice that the verb in the subordinate clause is in all cases in the subjunctive.

Notice, further, that where the verb, on which the accusative with infinitive depends, is in a primary tense, as in Sentences I and 3 , the verb in the subordinate clause is in the present or perfect subjunctive: where the principal verb is in a historic tense, as in Sentences 2 and 4, the verb in the subordinate clause is in the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive. In general, the English will be a sufficient guide as to the tense to be used; but if you are in doubt whether to use the imperfect or the perfect, remember that the imperfect subjunctive can only be used when the principal verb is in a historic tense, the perfect only when the principal verb is in a primary tense.

Be careful to distinguish between a clause depending on the accusative with infinitive, and introduced by either a relative pronoun or a subordinating conjunction ${ }^{2}$, and a clause joined to the accusative with infinitive by a coordinating conjunction ${ }^{2}$.

[^14]Thus, in the sentence ' He said that the holidays were over, and he must go back to school,' the clause 'he must go back to school' does not depend on the clause 'that the holidays were over,' but makes a fresh statement. It is merely joined to this clause by the coordinating conjunction 'and,' and both clauses alike depend on the verb 'said,' and must in Latin be turned by the accusative with infinitive.

## Exercise 4.

1. He said that he was a Roman citizen, and ${ }^{1}$ could not ${ }^{1}$ be condemned unheard.
2. He learned ${ }^{2}$ that those, who had escaped out of the battle, had perished in the lake.
3. He says ${ }^{3}$ that those, who conspired against the tyrant, did not ${ }^{3}$ fear death.
4. He suspected that he was being deceived by those, who said this.
5. He felt that his strength was failing, and that he would soon die.
6. He confesses that he has done many things, which cannot be approved.
7. He affirmed that all, who had been taken by the enemy, would be killed.
8. I feel that those, who did such things, are justly punished.
9. He heard that the soldiers, whom he had placed on ${ }^{4}$ the right wing, were already flying.
in the principal clause. A coordinating conjunction joins two clauses together, each of which makes a separate statement.
${ }^{1} \mathrm{Nec}$, and not.
${ }^{2}$ Cog-nosc-o, -ěre, -novi, -nĭtum.
${ }^{3}$ See Chap. ii, Ex. I, n. I.
${ }^{4}$ In.
10. They knew that their wives and children, whom they were leaving in the city, would be led away ${ }^{1}$ into slavery.

## Exercise 5.

1. He promises that those, who saved their commander, shall receive large rewards.
2. He cried out ${ }^{2}$ that the enemy were cowards, and would soon surrender the fort.
3. They felt that they had been betrayed by their commanders, who were leading them to the battle.
4. He announces that the town has been taken, and that the citizens are being butchered.
5. He had already learned ${ }^{3}$ that those, who were on ${ }^{4}$ the right wing, were being hard pressed ${ }^{5}$ by the enemy.
6. He promised that rewards should be given to those soldiers, who had first ${ }^{6}$ broken ${ }^{7}$ into the enemy's camp.
7. He thinks that these towns will never be taken by our $m e n{ }^{8}$, unless we have a better general.
8. He said that the legions had been puit to flight ${ }^{9}$ by those, whom they had often before conquered.
9. It was announced to Caesar, that the enemy's infantry were still on this side of ${ }^{10}$ the river, but ${ }^{11}$ that the cavalry had already crossed to the other bank.

[^15]10. I know that the enemy have invaded our territory, and are already drawing near ${ }^{1}$ to the city; but I hope that the allies will arrive before them ${ }^{2}$.

## Exercise 6.

1. He heard that the allies were being blockaded, and ${ }^{3}$ could not ${ }^{3}$ long endure the scarcity of corn.
2. The enemy will learn ${ }^{4}$ from deserters, that our forces are about to cross the river, where it is narrow.
3. These men swore that they would allow no one to be king ${ }^{5}$, while they themselves lived.
4. I affirm that the Tarquins have reigned too long; I am sure ${ }^{6}$ that they cannot live $[\mathrm{as}]^{7}$ private men; I believe that their name will be dangerous to our liberty.
5. It was announced that the two cohorts, which had been left on the other side of ${ }^{8}$ the river, were being hard pressed ${ }^{9}$ by the enemy.
6. He said that a letter would be given to the ambassadors, who had come from our allies the Athenians.
7. I am sure ${ }^{6}$ that our houses and temples will be set on fire ${ }^{10}$, if they are taken ${ }^{11}$ by the enemy.
8. He felt that the riches and honours, which most ${ }^{12}$ men desired, would soon pass away ${ }^{13}$.

[^16]9. He said that the allies, if they had sinned, had already suffered a heavy punishment ${ }^{1}$.
10. The citizens believed that the enemy had fled, and that our men ${ }^{2}$ were the conquerors.

[^17]
## CHAPTER III.

On the Accusative.
It is assumed that the pupil has been sufficiently practised in the ordinary use of the accusative for the object noun, while learning the declensions of nouns.

Section 1. On the accusative of kindred meaning.
Sentence to be learned :
Duram servit servitutem.
He serves a hard slavery.
If we consider the above sentence, we shall see at once that the word 'servitutem,' though it depends on the verb 'servit,' does not denote an object, or thing acted upon. We may notice, further, that it denotes a kind of action, the same kind, namely, which is expressed by the verb ' servit.'

An intransitive verb, then, may take an accusative of a noun denoting the same kind of action which is expressed by the verb. This is called an accusative of kindred meaning, because the meaning of the noun in the accusative is akin to, or like, the meaning of the verb. The noun in the accusative is almost always qualified by an adjective, as in the above example.

By way of exercise, let a noun of kindred meaning, with
a suitable adjective, be supplied to each of the following verbs :

1. He sleeps $\qquad$
2. He died $\qquad$ .
3. The soldiers fought $\qquad$
4. The bird sings $\qquad$ .
5. The planets run $\qquad$ .
6. The traveller goes $\qquad$
7. The bells ring $\qquad$
8. The musician played $\qquad$
9. The cricketers played $\qquad$ .
ro. The savages dance $\qquad$

Section 2. On verbs of asking and teaching.
Sentences to be learned:

1. Nunquam divitias deos rogavi. I never asked riches of the gods.
2. Quid nunc te litteras doceam? Why should I now teach you letters ?
3. Nunquam divitias a me dei rogati sunt. The gods were never asked for riches by me.
4. Quid nunc tu litteras a me docearis?

Why should you now be taught letters by me?
To find the object noun in the first of these sentences, we might say either 'Whom did I never ask ?' or 'What did I never ask?' The answer to the former question would be 'The gods,' to the latter, 'Riches.' Thus we have two object nouns.

So also, to find the object noun in the second sentence, we might say either 'Whom should I teach ?' or 'What
should I teach?' The answers to these two questions would again give us two object nouns, ' you' and 'letters.'

We see, then, that a verb of asking or teaching can have two object nouns, one denoting a person, the other a thing. Both are in Latin put in the accusative.

If we look at the third and fourth sentences, we shall see that they mean just the same as the first and second, but in each of them the verb is turned into a passive verb. The noun denoting the person asked or taught now becomes the subject noun, and is in the nominative, but the noun denoting the thing asked or taught is still in the accusative.

Caution. In English we often use a preposition after a verb of asking. Thus we may say either 'I never asked riches of the gods' or 'I never asked the gods for riches.' Do not be misled by the English preposition, but remember that in Latin the accusative must be used both for the person asked and for the thing asked for, if the verb is active (and for the thing asked for, even if the verb is passive), no matter what preposition may be used in English.

## Exercise 1.

r. The Achaeans asked Philip, the king of the Macedonians, for aid.
2. He said that he and his wife had been asked for their opinions about this matter.
3. He is teaching the same art, which he was taught by you.
4. [It] is better to fight a fierce ${ }^{1}$ battle than to serve a disgraceful slavery.

[^18]5. He asks money of those, whom he has taught philosophy.
6. You and I have been asked for money by those, by whom we were taught philosophy.
7. He said that he was teaching his son letters.
8. You and your brothers have been asked for aid by those, of whom you had yourselves asked advice.
9. He is being taught diligence by those, whom he is teaching letters.
10. He said that he would ask his father for advice.

## Section 3. On factive verbs.

Sentences to be learned :
I. Te facimus, Fortuna, deam.

We make thee, Fortune, a goddess.
2. Romulus urbem suam Romam vocavit.

Romulus called his city Rome.
3. Magister pueros ignavos putat.

The master thinks the boys idle.
4. Fis dea a nobis, Fortuna.

Thou art made a goddess by us, Fortune.
5. A Romulo urbs sua Roma vocata est.

His city was called Rome by Romulus.
6. Pueri a magistro ignavi putantur.

The boys are thought idle by the master.
In each of the first three of these sentences we have a transitive verb, with an object noun in the accusative, but in each of them the meaning of the verb is incomplete until another word, besides the object noun, is added. Thus it would be nonsense to say, 'The master thinks the boys,'
but, as soon as the word 'idle' is added, the sentence gives a good sense. Again, although it is good sense to say 'The carpenter makes a table,' or 'Your father calls you,' yet it is evident that, in the senses in which the verbs 'make' and 'call' are used in Sentences 1 and 2 above, their meanings would not be complete without the words 'a goddess' in Sentence 1 and 'Rome' in Sentence 2.

A verb of making, calling, or thinking, which wants another word, besides an object noun, to complete its meaning, by showing what the object is made, called, or thought, is called a factive verb, from facio, to make.

The word that is added to the object noun to complete the meaning of a factive verb is called the complement. It may be either a noun, or an adjective, and must agree with the object noun in case, and, if it is an adjective, in gender and number also.

In Sentences 4, 5, and 6, the verbs of Sentences 1, 2, and 3 are turned into passive verbs, and the object noun in each sentence becomes the subject noun, and is of course put in the nominative. The complement is therefore in the nominative also, as the noun it has to agree with is now the subject noun. Thus a factive verb in the passive becomes copulative.

## Exercise 2.

1. He is thought wise by those, whom he calls fools.
2. Cincinnatus, having been created dictator, ${ }^{1}$ appointed C. Servilius ${ }^{2}$ master of the horse.
3. Those whom we love are called our friends.
4. My brother and I have been asked for money by those, whom we think very rich.

[^19]5. You and your brother are being taught philosophy by him, whom you call a slave.
6. You and I are thought troublesome by those, whom we have asked for money.
7. He said that he had been made leader, not king.
8. That part of Gaul, which was nearest to Italy, was called Narbonensis.
9. They said that they would make this man king, because he had shown ${ }^{1}$ himself a skilful leader.
10. He said that Caius was considered a prudent general.

## Exercise 3.

1. They said that they would create him dictator, whom the senate had judged worthy.
2. We have been made slaves by those, whom we taught letters.
3. In the Ligurian sea is the island Corsica, which the Greeks used to call Cyrnus.
4. He said that those, whom he had asked for help, had become cowards.
5. He said that this city was called Capua.
6. The old man, who has been asked for his opinion, is considered very wise.
7. He is taught many things by those, whom he calls his pupils.
8. Romulus, whom all thought ${ }^{2}$ a brave man, was called a god after his death.

[^20]9. He said that those, who had asked pardon of the conqueror, would be called cowards.
10. We know that some, who seem learned to themselves, are thought fools by others.

## Section 4. On the accusative of place whither.

Sentences to be learned:

1. Regulus Carthaginem rediit.

Regulus returned to Carthage.
2. Vos ite domum; ego rus ibo.

Go ye home ; I will go into the country.
3. Ad urbem veni.

I came to the city.
In the first two of these sentences we have the accusatives Carthaginem, domum, rus, used with verbs of motion, without any preposition, answering the question : whither ?' just as in English we speak of going home, not going to home. In Latin the preposition is left out with the words 'domum,' 'rus,' and names of towns: with any other word a preposition (ad, to, or, in, into) must be used, as in Sentence 3. With the name of a country, 'to' should be translated by 'in,' not 'ad.' 'Ad Britanniam venit' would mean ' He came to the coast of Britain' (and no further), whereas, if we say 'He came to Britain,' we really mean to imply that he came into the country.

## Exercise 4.

1. He said that he would go to Athens, to teach ${ }^{1}$ his sons philosophy.

[^21]2. He was sent into the camp, to ask ${ }^{1}$ the consul for help.
3. One ${ }^{2}$ of the consuls went into Samnium, the other returned home.
4. Lest he should be made a slave by the conqueror, he fled into the country.
5. He said that the army, which they believed ready for ${ }^{3}$ battle, had gone into winter quarters.
6. Ambassadors were sent to Rome, to ask ${ }^{4}$ peace of the senate.
7. He sent his lieutenant into Gaul ; he himself returned home.
8. As soon as ${ }^{5}$ he arrived $i n^{6}$ the city, he determined to return to the country.
9. He said that he was going to Rome, to be taught ${ }^{1}$ eloquence.
10. We shall be asked for help by the ambassadors, who have come to England.

Section 5. On the accusatives of duration of time, measure of space, and respect.

Sentences to be learned:

1. Pericles quadraginta annos praefuit Athenis.

Pericles led Athens forty years.
2. Erant muri Babylonis ducentos pedes alti.

The walls of Babylon were two hundred feet high.

[^22]3. Tremit artus.

He trembles in his limbs.
4. Nudae sunt lacertos.

They are bare as to the arms.
In the first of these sentences the words 'quadraginta annos' are in the accusative, answering the question 'how long?' (of time). This is called the accusative of duration of time. In English we often use the preposition 'for'; for instance, we might say 'Pericles led Athens for forty years.' Do not be misled by this into using the dative: in answer to the question 'how long?' the accusative must always be used in Latin.

In the same way, the accusative is used, as in Sentence 2, in answer to the questions 'how. high?' 'how deep?' 'how long ?' (of space), 'how broad ?' 'how far ?' Notice that the word 'alti,' in Sentence 2, agrees with 'muri'; it is the words 'ducentos pedes,' which tell us how high the walls were, that are in the accusative. This is called the accusative of measure of space. It may depend either on an adjective, as 'high,' 'deep,' 'long,' 'broad,' or on a verb signifying distance.

The use of the accusative in Sentences 3 and 4 is very similar to its use to express measure, for, though the words ' artus' and 'lacertos' do not express a definite measure, yet they may be said to answer the question 'how far?' (or !over how much of the body?'). This is called the accusative of respect, because it also answers the question 'in what respect?' It may depend on a verb, as in Sentence 3, or on an adjective, as in Sentence 4. In English we sometimes use the preposition 'in,' sometimes 'as to,' or we might say, in more old fashioned language, 'in respect
of.' The accusative of respect is chiefly used in poetry : in prose, the ablative is generally used instead of it.

## Exercise 5.

1. He said that the Roman people had flourished for many centuries.
2. He fled to the city, which was distant two hundred paces.
3. He said that the soldiers would make a ditch many feet broad, a few feet deep.
4. Having stayed here for many years, he returned into the country.
5. He said that the wall, which was being built, was two hundred feet high.
6. When the army ${ }^{1,2}$ had arrived $a t^{3}$ Capua, it remained a few days inside the walls.
7. He has fled to Gaul, which is ${ }^{4}$ many miles away ${ }^{4}$.
8. Scouts informed ${ }^{5}$ the general that the enemy were making a bridge two hundred feet long.
9. Ambassadors came to Rome, to ask ${ }^{6}$ help of the senate.
10. Augustus, who ruled ${ }^{7}$ prosperously for many years, was called a god.
${ }^{1}$ When a sentence begins with a subordinate clause having the same subject as the principal verb, it is best to begin in Latin with the subject noun, putting it before the conjunction introducing the subordinate clause.
${ }^{2}$ When 'quum' is followed by the imperfect or pluperfect, the subjunctive should be used.
${ }^{3}$ See Ex. 4, n. 6.
${ }^{4}$ Dist-o, -āre, I am away.
${ }^{5}$ Say 'made the general more certain.'
${ }^{6}$ See Ex. 4, n. 4.
${ }^{7}$ Imper-0, -āre.

## Exercise 6.

1. Numa, whom all thought ${ }^{1}$ a wise man, was made king after Romulus.
2. When I have stayed ${ }^{2}$ here a few days, I shall go either to London or to my country-house.
3. He was called a coward by those, whom he had made angry.
4. When he had remained there a whole year, he returned home.
5. Having been informed ${ }^{3}$ that this city was considered unhealthy, he went away into the country.
6. We and our allies are building a wall many feet high.
7. The scouts reported that the enemy had made a ditch fifteen feet broad, as many ${ }^{4}$ feet deep.
8. Having advanced two hundred paces, we came to a mound.
9. Those, whom you and I call the betrayers of their country, have asked a reward of the conqueror.
10. He said that, when he had stayed there a few years, he would go to Greece.

## Exercise 7.

1. He is called lord by those, whom he has made his slaves.
2. He said that the enemy had built a tower two hundred feet high.
3. He was asked for a reward by those, whom he had thought most unfriendly.
4. Caesar, having stayed three years in Gaul, determined to cross to Britain.

[^23]5. He is called master by those, whom he is teaching letters.
6. When ${ }^{1}$ he had arrived at Capua, he learned ${ }^{2}$ that the enemy were distant one day's journey.
7. Having been created consul, he appointed ${ }^{3}$ his son his lieutenant.
8. Camillus, whom all thought ${ }^{4}$ a skilful general, arrived in the city.
9. The soldiers are making a rampart a few feet high.

1о. He said that, when he had stayed here a few days, he would return into the country.

${ }^{1}$ See Ex. 5, n. 2.<br>${ }^{3}$ Dic-o, -ěre, dixi, dictum.

${ }^{2}$ Cog-nosc-o, -ěre, -novi, -nĭtum. ${ }^{4}$ See Ex. 3, n. 2.

## CHAPTER IV.

## On the Dative.

Section 1. On the dative of remoter object depending on words expressing nearness, demonstration, and their contraries.

Sentences to be learned :
r. Colla jube domitos oneri supponere tauros. Bid tamed bulls place their necks under the burden.
2. Paulum sepultae distat inertiae celata virtus. Hidden worth differs little from buried indolence.
3. Rara avis in terris nigroque simillima cygno. A rare bird in the world and very like a black swan.
4. Dic mihi nomen tuum.

Tell me your name.
In Sentence I we have a transitive verb 'supponere' with an object noun 'colla' in the accusative; but besides the object noun we have also another noun ' oneri,' in the dative, also depending on the verb 'supponere,' and denoting the thing under which the bulls are to place their necks. Now as the thing acted on is called the object, so, when the action expressed by the verb affects something or somebody else besides the direct or immediate object, this is called the remoter (i.e. further) object. The noun denoting the remoter
object is put in the dative. Among the verbs which require a noun denoting a remoter object are those which express placing near, as suppono, to place under, impono, to place on, circumdo, to place round, antepono, to place before, postpono, to place after, confero, to bring close to, i.e. to compare with, jungo, to join, \&c. Notice that most of these verbs are compounded with prepositions. In English we use a verb and a preposition to translate the Latin compound verb. The word which denotes the direct object must of course be put in the accusative; the word denoting that near which something is placed, which in English depends on a preposition, must in Latin be put in the dative. A noun in the dative is sometimes found depending on a verb expressing removal from, to denote that from which something is removed, but the ablative, with or without a preposition, is much more often used in this sense.

A noun in the dative denoting a remoter object may also depend on an intransitive verb which expresses being near, as subsum, to be under, adjaceo, to lie near, haereo, to stick, \&c., or, as in Sentence 2, on one which expresses the contrary to this, viz. being distant from (disto, lit. to be distant, hence, to differ). The ablative, with or without a preposition, is however more commonly used to express that from which something is distant.

In Sentence 3 we have a dative 'cygno' depending on the adjective 'simillima,' 'very like,' which again expresses a kind of nearness. In the same way 'dissimilis,' 'unlike,' takes the dative. Notice that here no preposition is used in English, though after many adjectives expressing nearness we use the preposition 'to.'

In Sentence 4 the dative ' mihi' depends on the verb ' dic,' and denotes the person to whom something is shown. Here the
word 'me' in English is not the accusative, but the dative, for it denotes, not the direct object, which of course is denoted by the words ' nomen tuum,' but the remoter object. In the same way we may have a dative depending on an intransitive verb, such as 'to appear,' ' to seem,' or an adjective such as 'apparent,' 'evident,' 'clear'; all of which words contain the idea of something being shown to someone. After an adjective or an intransitive verb containing this idea, the preposition 'to' is used in English, as 'It is evident to all,' 'It appears to me': after a transitive verb it is more often omitted, as 'He showed his brother the way,' though it may be expressed, as 'He pointed out the way to his brother.'

The dative is not commonly used depending on a verb that expresses the contrary to showing, to denote the person from whom something is concealed, but we find it depending on such adjectives as 'doubtful,' 'uncertain,' \&c.

To sum up: a noun in the dative, denoting a remoter object, may depend on a verb (whether transitive or intransitive) or adjective expressing ( $\mathbf{I}$ ) nearness, or (2) demonstration (showing), or (though this is less common) the contrary meanings.

## Exercise 1.

1. He said that he would place ${ }^{1}$ heavier burdens on ${ }^{1}$ those, who had asked him for liberty.
2. He said that this boy was like his father, unlike his mother.

[^24]3. He sent a slave to meet ${ }^{1} \mathrm{me}$, who showed me the way.
4. The land which lies between the rivers Tigris and Euphrates is called Mesopotamia.
5. He said that the wall, which had been built round ${ }^{2}$ the city, was two hundred feet high.
6. Livy writes that king Tullus was very unlike Numa, the former king.
7. Hannibal showed his soldiers the fertile plains, which lie beneath the Alps.
8. Having gone out to meet ${ }^{1}$ the army, they told the consuls all these things.
9. Cicero said that he was wont to weep over the death of Socrates, [when] reading Plato's book.
10. Deserters told our men, that the elephants had brought the greatest terror on the enemy.

Section 2. On the dative of remoter object depending on words expressing advantage, dominion, and their contraries.

Sentences to be learned:
I. Quod alii donat, sibi detrahit.

What he gives to another, he withdraws from himself.
2. Ne libeat tibi, quod nemini licet.

Let not that please thee, which is lawful to no man.
3. Parce pio generi.

Spare a pious race.

[^25]4. Succensere nefas patriae.

It is impious to be wroth with one's country.
5. Omnibus his sententiis resistitur.

All these opinions are opposed (lit. Opposition is offered to all these opinions).
6. Patriae sit idoneus, utilis agris.

Let him be serviceable to his country, useful to the lands.
7. Imperat aut servit collecta pecunia cuique.

Hoarded money rules or serves every man.
If we look at the verbs on which the datives depend in the first five of these sentences, we shall see that they all contain the idea of bringing advantage or the contrary to some person or thing. In each sentence the noun denoting the person or thing, to whom advantage, or the contrary, is brought, is in the dative. The verb may be either transitive, as 'dono' and 'detraho,' in which case the direct object must of course be denoted by the accusative ${ }^{1}$, or intransitive, as 'libet,' 'licet,' 'parco,' 'succenseo,' ' resisto' ; or we may have a similar dative depending on an adjective, as in Sentence 6.

Notice that in English we sometimes use the preposition 'to,' as 'what he gives to another,' though ' to' is more often omitted after the verb 'to give' and many other transitive verbs which contain the idea of bringing advantage or disadvantage to someone, as 'Give me that book,' 'He refused me my request,' 'He grudged me this favour,' 'He promised me a reward,' 'Lend me a pencil,' 'Pay me your debt': sometimes we use another preposition, as 'He with-

[^26]draws from himself,' 'to be wroth with one's country': while very often the verb which in Latin must be classed as intransitive is in English considered as transitive, and the noun which in Latin is put in the dative is in English considered to denote the direct object. Thus 'to please,' 'to spare,' 'to oppose,' may all in English be followed by a noun, without any preposition, denoting the object ; but the corresponding verbs in Latin are intransitive, and take a dative, which will be easier to understand if we consider that 'to please' $=$ ' to be pleasing $t o$,' 'to spare' $=$ ' to be merciful $t o$,' ' to oppose' $=$ 'to stand against.' In the same way 'to believe,' ' to favour,' 'to hurt,' 'to indulge,' 'to succour,' ' to pardon,' ' to threaten,' would all be classed as transitive verbs : but the corresponding Latin verbs 'credo,' 'faveo,' 'noceo,' 'indulgeo,' 'succurro,' 'ignosco,' 'minor,' take the dative. There are indeed several verbs, containing the idea of bringing advantage or disadvantage to someone, which, even in Latin, take an accusative denoting the person to whom advantage or disadvantage is brought. Thus, although 'noceo,' and 'obsum,' 'I am injurious,' take a dative, 'laedo,' ' I hurt,' takes an accusative : the impersonal verb 'libet,' and ' placeo,' 'I please,' take a dative, but 'delecto,' ' I delight,' and 'juvat,' ' it delights,' take an accusative: most verbs meaning 'to help' take a dative, but 'adjuvo' is an exception, and takes an accusative. To avoid mistakes, it will be safer, whenever a verb seems to contain the idea of bringing advantage or disadvantage to someone, and you are in doubt whether it should be considered as transitive or intransitive, to look it out in the Lat.-Eng. Dictionary, and see what case it takes, unless you can remember an example of its use.

Notice, in Sentence 5, the way in which an intransitive verb that takes the dative can be used in the passive. Any
intransitive verb can be used impersonally in the passive, and 'resistitur' means 'Opposition is offered (by someone).' A dative of the remoter object may be added to this, just as to the active, and so we get 'His sententiis resistitur' $=$ ' Opposition is offered to these opinions,' $=$ ' These opinions are opposed.' Remember, then, that when an English transitive verb is turned in Latin by a verb that is intransitive and takes the dative, the Latin verb, if used in the passive, must be used impersonally, and the English subject noun must be translated by the dative in Latin.

In Sentence 7 the dative 'cuique' depends on the two verbs 'imperat' and 'servit,' and denotes the person over whom authority is exercised or to whom obedience is paid. A dative in this sense may depend on a transitive verb, as 'Haec mihi imperavit,' 'He commanded me these things,' i.e. 'gave me these commands' (where notice that the English word ' $m e$ ' is the dative): on an intransitive verb, as in Sentence 7: or on an adjective, such as 'imperiosus,' 'domineering.' When the verb is intransitive, the corresponding verb in English is generally considered as transitive, and the dative is translated as if it denoted a direct object. Sometimes, however, we use the preposition 'over,' as ' He rules over the country.'

Caution. Although most verbs of commanding and ruling take a dative denoting the person commanded or ruled over, ' jubeo,' to bid, 'rego,' to rule, and a few others, take an accusative.

To sum up; a noun in the dative, denoting a remoter object, may depend on a verb (transitive or intransitive) or adjective expressing (3) advantage, (4) dominion, or the contrary meanings.

Note.-It has already been noticed that many of the verbs
expressing nearness are compound verbs, containing prepositions. The same may be said in general of verbs that take a dative denoting a remoter object. Whenever, therefore, you see that a verb is compounded with a preposition, this ought to suggest to you to think whether its meaning does not come under one of the four heads of nearness, demonstration, advantage, dominion, with their contraries. But beware of putting a noun which really denotes a direct object in the dative, merely because it depends on a verb compounded with a preposition, and remember, what has been already said in Section I, that it is the word which in English depends on the preposition that is to be expressed by the dative in Latin.

## Exercise 2.

1. Let him be obeyed who has been set over the army.
2. My son and I know that the laws place the welfare of the state before the welfare of individuals.
3. He said that, if his enemy ${ }^{1}$ were made king, all his riches would be taken away from him.
4. He told me that these things had been given him by his father, a tribune of the soldiers.
5. We will do that ${ }^{2}$ which you and your father have commanded us.
6. He showed ${ }^{3}$ the soldiers that great injuries were being inflicted on them by the enemy.
7. The Romans placed the king of sacrifices under ${ }^{4}$ the pontiff, lest the honour attached to his title should be injurious to their new liberty.
[^27][^28]8. These cohorts were commanded ${ }^{1}$ to ${ }^{2}$ go to the help of the tenth legion.
9. He said that, if he gave ${ }^{3}$ me this, he would be asked for gifts by others.
10. Heavier burdens were placed on the soldiers, because they had not obeyed their commander.

## Exercise 3.

1. He said that this honour, for which he had asked the king, had been denied him.
2. They said that they were unwilling to spare the conquered, lest other nations should ${ }^{4}$ make war upon them.
3. I will never believe you and your wife, who have told me this about my brother Caius.
4. My slave, whom I had ordered to ${ }^{5}$ bring me a sword, did not obey me.
5. That young man pleases his brother, but he does not satisfy me.
6. The ambassadors confessed that their nation had for many years served the Roman people.
7. Socrates did not believe that death would take away all feeling from him.
8. I believe that we shall be sent to Capua to meet ${ }^{6}$ the army.
9. We will not be angry with the captives, but those shall

[^29]be pardoned, who have entrusted themselves to our protection.
10. The soldiers were commanded not to injure ${ }^{1}$ the allies of the Roman people.

Section 3. On the wider use of the dative denoting the person who gets advantage or disadvantage.

Sentences to be learned:

1. Numa virgines Vestae legit.

Numa chose virgins for Vesta.
2. Venus nupsit Vulcano.

Venus wedded (lit. veiled herself for) Vulcan.
3. Quid mihi Celsus agit?

What is my Celsus doing ?
4. Sunt nobis mitia poma.

We have (lit. there are for us) mellow apples.
5. Magnus civis obit et formidatus Othoni. A great citizen is dead, and one dreaded by Otho.
6. Legendae sunt pueris Aesopi fabulae.

Aesop's fables ought to be read (lit. are to be read) by boys.
7. Multis ille bonis flebilis occidit.

His death was a cause of weeping (lit. he died to be wept) to many grood men.
In each of these sentences the dative denotes the person or persons for whose advantage or disadvantage something turns out. If we consider the verb in each of the first four

[^30]sentences, we shall see that it does not necessarily require a dative to complete its meaning. 'Numa chose virgins,' 'Venus veiled herself,' ' What is Celsus doing?' 'There are mellow apples,'-each of these sentences would give a complete sense without the addition of a dative. But, as any action or circumstance may be to the advantage or disadvantage of someone, a dative denoting the person for whose advantage or disadvantage it is may be inserted in any sentence.

In Sentence 3, the word 'mihi' shows that the speaker is interested in what Celsus is doing. It cannot be translated literally without giving a different meaning from the original. We might express the meaning by translating it 'I want to know,' but the translation 'What is my Celsus doing?' is neater, and expresses the same idea. A dative of a personal pronoun may often be translated in this way.

In Sentence 4, notice that 'sunt nobis' is translated 'we have.' As anything that a person has may be said to exist for his advantage or disadvantage, a common way of turning the verb 'have' into Latin is by using 'est' or 'sunt' with the thing that the person has for subject, and a dative denoting the person who has it. Thus 'est (or "sunt") mihi'='I have,' 'est (or "sunt") tibi'='you have,' 'est (or "sunt") ei' $=$ 'he has,' and so on. So also we may say 'erat (or "erant") mihi' for 'I had,' 'erit (or "erunt") mihi' for ' $I$ shall have,' \&c.

In Sentences 5, 6, and 7, the datives depend on adjectives. Notice that 'Othoni' and 'pueris,' in Sentences 5 and 6, are translated 'by Otho,' 'by boys.' The person by whom anything is done (called the agent) is generally expressed in Latin by the ablative with ' $a$ ' or 'ab,' when the verb is passive, but, as the doer may also be considered as the person for whose advantage or disadvantage the thing is done, we
sometimes (but chiefly in poetry) find the dative used instead of the ablative with ' $a$ ' or 'ab,' depending on a past participle passive, as in Sentence 5, where we might translate ' formidatus Othoni,' ' an object of dread for Otho.'

In Sentence 6, the dative depends on a gerundive. We might translate this, 'Aesop's fables are fables for boys to read.' With a gerundive, ' $a$ ' or ' $a b$ ' should not be used to translate 'by,' even in prose, but the dative should be used instead.

In the same way the dative is used, as in Sentence 7, depending on a verbal adjeotive (i.e. an adjective derived from a verb) ending in -bilis. These adjectives are like the English adjectives ending in -able. Just as 'eatable' means 'able to be eaten,' so 'flebilis' (from 'fleo') means 'able to be wept for.' It may be translated 'a cause of weeping,' and the dative is used to denote the person to whom something is a cause of weeping, or (which is the same thing) the person by whom something is to be wept for.

Note.-Strictly speaking, it is only persons who can be said to get advantage or disadvantage, but the dative may also be used to denote a thing which is for the moment personified, i.e. spoken of as if it were a person, and could get advantage or disadvantage.

## Exercise 4.

I. I ' have many books, which my father gave me.
2. He ${ }^{2}$ said that pardon was ${ }^{2}$ not to be ${ }^{3}$ hoped for by those who had resisted the king.
3. Good men do not wish to be rich for themselves only, but for their friends and for the state.

[^31]4. Not all, who ${ }^{1}$ have a small property, ${ }^{2}$ look with envy on the rich.
5. I shall tell the king, that the cowardice of the soldiers was ${ }^{3}$ a cause of wonder to all good citizens.
6. He said that this labour was to be borne by those, who thought themselves the bravest.
7. The captive ${ }^{4}$ woman, torn from her father, married the conqueror.
8. This woman ${ }^{1}$ had three sons, very like their father.
9. Danger ${ }^{5}$ must not be avoided by those, who are thought the bravest.
10. These things, which the conquerer has commanded us, ${ }^{6}$ must be done by all.

## Exercise 5.

1. He said that Cicero was to be often read by thase, who wished to write ${ }^{7}$ Latin.
2. We ${ }^{1}$ had arms, soldiers, a good commander; fortune alone was wanting to us.
3. Proserpine married Pluto, who had carried her away from her mother.
4. We will place sentries round the city, that ${ }^{8}$ all may be like a camp.
5. ${ }^{9}$ The advice, which you gave us, pleased nobody.
6. It was evident to all that this man had hoarded money for his heirs, not for himself.

[^32]7. He set a lieutenant over the infantry; he himself ${ }^{1}$ commanded the cavalry.
8. The penalty ${ }^{2}$ must be paid by those, by whom the wrong was done.
9. He said that he would hold those, by whom the conspirators had been favoured, unfriendly to himself.
10. This man ${ }^{3}$ has many pupils, whom he is teaching philosophy.

Section 4. On the dative of the purpose or result, and on the attracted dative of a proper name.

Sentences to be learned:

1. Equitatum auxilio Caesari miserant.

They had sent the cavalry to the help of Caesar (lit. for a help to Caesar).
2. Virtus sola neque datur dono neque accipitur.

Virtue alone is neither given as (lit. for) a gift nor received.
3. Haec res magno usui nostris fuit.

This circumstance was of (lit. for) great service to our men.
4. Exitio est avidum mare nautis.

The greedy sea is (for) a destruction to sailors.
5. Cui bono fuit?

To whose advantage was it? (lit. To whom was it for an advantage ?)
6. Huic ego diei nomen Trinummo faciam.

To this day I will give the name Trinummus.

[^33]In Sentences 1 and 2 the datives 'auxilio' and 'dono' answer the question 'for what purpose ?' while 'Caesari' in Sentence I denotes the person for whose advantage something is done. Notice that in English we say 'to go to the help of a person,' but in Latin the person to whose help someone goes is denoted by a dative. So 'He comes to my aid' would be 'Auxilio mihi venit.' In the expression 'dono do,' 'dono' may be translated either 'for a gift' or 'as a gift.'

In Sentences 3, 4, and 5, the words 'magno usui,' ' exitio,' and 'bono' show the result to which something leads, an idea which is very near akin to that of the purpose for which a thing is done. 'Nostris,' ' nautis,' and 'cui' are of course datives denoting the persons who get advantage or disadvantage. Notice that 'magno usui' is translated 'of great service,' and that 'exitio' is translated without any English preposition, just as if it were a nominative: while in translating 'bono' the preposition 'to' is used, and the dative 'cui' is rendered by the possessive adjective 'whose.'

The dative of the purpose is most commonly used with a verb of motion, as in Sentence 1, or with a verb of giving (as in Sentence 2) or taking; under which heads we may include such verbs as 'to appoint,' 'to choose,' \&c. The dative of the result forms the complement of a copulative verb, as in Sentences 3, 4, and 5. A second dative denoting the person who gets advantage or disadvantage is very often found together with a dative of the purpose or result.

In Sentence 6, 'huic diei' is a dative of a remoter object depending on 'faciam,', which is here equivalent to 'I will give.' We should expect the name 'Trinummus' to be in the accusative, in apposition with the word 'nomen'; but, when the noun denoting the person or thing named is in the
dative, it is usual for the name to be in the dative also, and it is said to be attracted, or drawn, into the case of the noun denoting the person or thing named.

## Exercise 6.

1. He said that the senate was sending two legions to the help of the consul.
2. He said that he had seen the commander, to whom the surname Felix had been given.
3. He said that this knowledge, which he had been taught by me, had been of great use to him.
4. These things, which seemed to be for our welfare, were to the injury of all.
5. The book, for which you ask me, was given me as a present by my father.
6. They answered the ambassadors, that they would never give up to others the lands, which their ancestors had chosen for their abode.
7. Laelius, the friend of Scipio, ${ }^{1}$ had the surname Sapiens.
8. He promised me that two cohorts should go to the aid of our men.
9. Marcus was set over the two legions, which were left for the defence of the camp.

ェ. Romulus, to whom the Romans gave the surname Quirinus, was considered a god after his death.

## Exercise 7.

1. Let us go to the support of those, by whom we have been asked for help.

[^34]2. He ${ }^{1}$ said that virtue could ${ }^{1}$ not be given to any one as a gift.
3. He said that this would be for the enemy's advantage, - [and] for our destruction.
4. Minucius, the ${ }^{2}$ master of the horse, was very unlike Fabius the dictator, who ${ }^{3}$ had the surname Cunctator.
5. The scouts reported to the consul, that the enemy's commander had taken a very ${ }^{4}$ strong ${ }^{5}$ position for his camp.
6. ${ }^{6}$ When he had ${ }^{7}$ waited a few days ${ }^{7}$ for his colleague, he appointed the following day for the battle.
7. They cried out that ${ }^{8}$ what was ${ }^{9}$ fun to us would be ${ }^{10}$ death to them.
8. Papirius, who ${ }^{3}$ had the surname Cursor, ${ }^{11}$ was then in command of the Roman army.
9. Those who formerly ${ }^{12}$ made war ${ }^{12}$ on us, are now coming to our aid.
10. ${ }^{6}$ When the army had come to this spot, the consul gave the signal for retreat.

Exercise 8.

1. He said that all would call him a coward, if he ${ }^{13}$ gave $u p$ his arms to the enemy.

[^35]2. They ${ }^{1}$ surrounded the camp with a rampart fifteen feet high, [and] a ditch ${ }^{2}$ as many feet broad.
3. [It] was announced to the commander, that the enemy were ${ }^{3}$ threatening the camp.
4. I hope that the cavalry will be sent to our aid.
5. Insults, blows, [and] wrongs ${ }^{4}$ must be endured by the conquered.
6. ${ }^{5}$ When the ambassadors had come to Rome, the senate appointed the following day for the conference.
7. He said that I had taken away this honour from him.
8. He ${ }^{6}$ said that those, who placed glory before safety, would ${ }^{6}$ never serve the conquerors.
9. He ${ }^{6}$ said that he would ${ }^{6}$ never ${ }^{7}$ hand over to another the arms which had been given him as a present by the king.
10. You and your brother will be sent ${ }^{8}$ to meet the consul.
11. I shall not be believed, if I ${ }^{9}$ tell my countrymen ${ }^{10}$ the truth.
${ }^{1}$ Say 'threw a rampart round the camp.'
${ }^{2}$ See Chap. iii, Ex. 6, n. 4.
${ }^{5}$ Immin-eo, -ēre (lit. to hang over).
${ }^{5}$ See Chap. iii, Ex. 5, n. 2.
${ }^{7}$ Trad-o, -ěre, -idi, -itum.
${ }^{9}$ Say 'shall have told.'

## CHAPTER V.

## On the Ablative.

Section 1. On the ablatives of instrument (including price), manner (including condition), and cause.

Sentences to be learned:
r. Hi jaculis, illi certant defendere saxis.

These strive to defend with javelins, those with stones.
2. Ego spem pretio non emo.

I do not buy hope for a price.
3. Summâ diligentiâ scribit.

He writes with the greatest diligence.
4. Cum diligentiâ scribit.

He writes with diligence.
5. Pace tuâ dixerim.

With your leave I would say it.
6. Homo meâ sententiâ prudentissimus est.

He is in my opinion a very prudent man.
7. Oderunt peccare boni virtutis amore.

The good hate to sin from love of virtue.
8. Coeptis immanibus effera Dido.

Dido wild with dreadful purposes.
In Sentence $\mathbf{r}$, the words 'jaculis' and 'saxis' are in the ablative case, and answer the question 'by what means?'

This is called the ablative of the instrument or means. In English we generally use the preposition 'with,' sometimes ' by,' as ' The town was taken by storm.'

Be careful to distinguish between the instrument, or thing by means: of which something is done, and the agent, or person by whom it is done. Either may in English be denoted by a noun depending on the preposition 'by' after a passive verb, but if the noun denotes a person, ' $a$ ' or ' $a b$ ' must be used in Latin, while, if it denotes a thing, the ablative is to be used without a preposition.

In Sentence 2, 'pretio' answers the question 'for what price?' This is called the ablative of price, and may be explained as a particular use of the ablative of instrument, as the price for which you buy or sell a thing may also be looked upon as the means by which you buy or sell it. In English we use the preposition 'for,' or 'at,' as 'at a high price.'

Under this head comes the use of the ablative with ' muto,' 'I exchange,' to denote the thing for which something is exchanged. 'To exchange arms for a gown' is in Latin ' arma togâ mutare.'

In Sentence 3, the words 'summâ diligentiâ' answer the question 'how ?' This is called the ablative of manner. In English we generally use the preposition 'with'; sometimes ' in,' as 'He does it in good style.' . In Latin the ablative is, as a rule, not used without a preposition in this sense unless the noun in the ablative is qualified by an adjective. If there is no adjective, the preposition 'cum;', 'with,' must be used, as in Sentence 4. There are, however, a few words which can be used in the ablative of manner without either 'cum' or an adjective ; as 'jure' ('with right,' i. e.) 'rightly'; 'injuriâ' ('with werong,' i. e.) 'wrongly'; 'modo' (with a genitive de-
pending on it), 'in the manner (of);' 'silentio,' 'in silence'; ' ordine,' ' in order'; and some others. The words 'vi,' 'by force,' and 'fraude,' 'by fraud,' which are also used in this way, may be classed under the ablative of instrument.

Care will sometimes be necessary to distinguish between the instrument and the manner, as a noun denoting either may answer the question 'how?' If, however, the word about which you are doubtful also answers the question ' by what means ?' it may be considered to denote the instrument, and no preposition should be used : if it clearly does not answer this question, it will denote the manner, and the preposition 'cum' must be used, unless the noun is qualified by an adjective.

In Sentence 5, the words 'pace tuâ' answer the question 'on what condition?' This is called the ablative of condition, and is closely akin to the ablative of manner. It is equivalent to a clause introduced by the conjunction 'if' : 'with your leave' $=$ 'if I get your leave.' So in Sentence 6, 'in my opinion' $=$ 'if my opinion is taken.' The prepositions used in English, in translating the ablative of condition, are ' with,' 'in' (as in the above examples), 'by' (as ' by your leave '), and 'on' (as 'Peace was made on these terms').

In Sentences 7 and 8, the ablative answers the question 'why ?' The words 'from love of virtue' tell us why the good hate to sin, the words ' with dreadful purposes' tell us why Dido is wild. This is called the ablative of cause. In English we use various prepositions in this sense, 'from,' ' with,' ' for,' 'through' (as 'He did this for fear of punishment' or 'through fear of punishment'), \&c. Instead of the ablative, we may, in Latin also, have a preposition, ' ob ' or 'propter ' (' on account of'), with an accusative.

In each of the above examples, the ablative is like an adverb qualifying a verb or adjective. Sometimes it may
even be rendered by an English adverb, as 'jure,' 'rightly,' 'injuriâ,' ' wrongly.'

## Exercise 1.

1. He said that friends were ${ }^{\mathrm{I}}$ won by ${ }^{2}$ acts of kindness.
2. Much ${ }^{3}$ progress is made by those, who learn with zeal.
3. Tarpeia, who had asked the Sabines for their bracelets, was crushed with their shields.
4. A treaty was made between the Romans and Albans on these ${ }^{4}$ terms, ${ }^{5}$ that ${ }^{6}$ the people, whose citizens ${ }^{7}$ conquered in that contest, should ${ }^{8}$ rule over the other people.
5. They say that our men fought with wonderful readiness.
6. He said that the boy had been indulged from kindness.
7. He said that he would give me a book, which he had bought for much money.
8. I do not think, citizens, that these burdens will be wrongly imposed on you.
9. The soldiers, burning with anger, spared no one.
10. They ${ }^{9}$ said that they would ${ }^{9}$ never by ${ }^{10}$ their own will exchange their magistrates for a foreign king.

## Exercise 2.

r. The towns, which have been taken by the enemy by fraud, ${ }^{11}$ must be recovered by us by force.

[^36]2. They hoped that they would be received into alliance by the conquerors on fair terms.
3. I know that you have borne this calamity with fortitude.
4. I did not believe that you had asked advice of those, who had sold their country for money.
5. Our men will rightly be held cowards, unless they ${ }^{1}$ resist the enemy with ${ }^{2}$ all their strength.
6. The general ${ }^{3}$ ordered the ships to be ${ }^{4}$ rowed on, and the enemy to be driven back with slings and engines; ${ }^{5}$ which was of great service to our men; for the barbarians, alarmed by the strange kind of engines, immediately fled.
7. I hope that you will never ${ }^{6}$ fail your friends from cowardice.
8. The enemy were pardoned on these conditions, ${ }^{7}$ that they should give hostages, and obey the conquerors.
9. Some were overwhelmed by the enemy's weapons, others escaped with disgrace.
10. Elated with hope, the soldiers were confident that they could conquer those, who had served them for many years.

Section 2. On the ablative of measure.
Sentences to be learned:
I. Paulo longius processerant.

They had advanced a little further.

[^37]2. Quo plus habent, eo plus cupiunt.

The more they have, the more they desire.
3. Tanto pessimus omnium poeta,

Quanto tu optimus omnium patronus.
By so much the worst poet of all, as you are the best patron of all.
4. Homerus annis multis fuit ante Romulum. Homer was many years before Romulus.
5. Templum quinque millibus passuum ab urbe distat.

The temple is five miles distant from the city.
6. Millibus passuum sex a Caesaris castris consedit. He encamped six miles from Caesar's camp.
In Sentence 1, the ablative neuter 'paulo' qualifies the comparative adverb 'longius,' and answers the question 'by how much (further)?' This is called the ablative of measure. It may qualify an adjective or adverb of the comparative or superlative degree. In translating into English, we often use no preposition, as in this sentence. In the same way we say ' much greater' (Lat. 'multo major'), 'a good deal greater' (Lat. 'aliquanto major'). 'Twice as great' is expressed in Latin by 'altero major' (lit. 'greater by a second') or 'duplo major' (lit. 'greater by the double'); 'no greater,' by ' nihilo major' (lit. ' greater by nothing'). Sometimes we use the preposition ' by,' as 'greater by half' (Lat. ' dimidio major'). Where we have two comparatives answering to one another, each preceded by 'the,' as in Sentence 2, we must in Latin put in 'quo' (' by what')-' eo' ('by that'), or 'quanto' ('by how much')-'tanto' ('by so much'). Where the former of two comparatives or superlatives has 'tanto' with it and the latter ' quanto,' as in Sentence 3, we may translate these words ' by. so much'- 'as.'

In the same way, the ablative of measure may be joined, as in Sentence 4, to a preposition (or to an adverb or conjunction) signifying 'before' or 'after,' in which case the ablative answers the question 'how long (before)?' or 'how long (after)?' Be very careful to distinguish this from the question 'how long?' (where the words are not followed by 'before' or 'after'), the answer to which must be in the accusative (see Chap. iii, Sect. 5).

The ablative of measure is also sometimes used, just like the accusative, in answer to the question 'how far?' qualifying a verb expressing distance, as in Sentence 5, where the words 'quinque millibus passuum ' tell us by how much the temple is distant from the city, and even, as in Sentence 6 , where no verb expressing distance is used.

## Exercise 3.

1. He says that our forces are becoming a little greater ${ }^{1}$ every day.
2. The more we are, the greater will be the slaughter.
3. ${ }^{2}$ He was made general two years after that battle, ${ }^{2}$ and ${ }^{3}$ commanded the army for three years.
4. A few days afterwards the captives were sent home unharmed on this condition, ${ }^{4}$ that none of our allies should be injured.
5. If this man ${ }^{5}$ is killed by my ${ }^{6}$ command, I shall be no safer.
6. He said that Alexander was much the most powerful of all kings, who were then living.

[^38]7. The ${ }^{1}$ more this man indulges his anger, the ${ }^{1}$ more do all men hate him.
8. He said that the number of the enemy would soon be twice as great.
9. A few hours before the battle it had been announced to the general, that the allies had pitched their camp six miles from the river.
10. He was dismissed with insults by those whom he had asked for help.

Section 3. On the ablative of material, and on the use of the ablative with certain verbs, adjectives, and nouns.

Sentences to be learned:
r. Cibus eorum lacte, caseo, carne constat. Their food consists of milk, cheese, and flesh.
2. Fungar vice cotis.

I will perform the office of a whetstone.
3. Hannibal, quum victoriâ posset uti, frui maluit. Hannibal, when he might have used his victory, preferred to enjoy it.
4. Rex impius auro vi potitur.

The impious king gets possession of the gold by force.
5. Dignum laude virum Musa vetat mori.

A man worthy of praise the Muse forbids to die.
6. Auctoritate tuâ mihi opus est.

I have need of your advice.
In Sentence I, the ablatives 'lacte, caseo, carne' denote

[^39]the material of which the food consists. In English, we generally use the preposition 'of' in this sense. This is a particular use of the ablative of the instrument, for the material of which a thing is made may also be looked upon as a means by which it is made.

In Sentences 2, 3, and 4, the words.' vice,' ' victoriâ,' ' auro,' are really ablatives of instrument depending on the verbs 'fungor,' 'I busy myself (with)', 'utor,' ' I employ myself (with),' ' fruor,' ' I enjoy myself (with),' and 'potior,' ' I make myself powerful (with);' though the first three of these verbs are generally rendered in English by transitive verbs, ' I perform,' ' I use,' 'I enjoy,' and the ablatives depending on them are then translated as object nouns, without any preposition; while 'potior' is usually translated ' I get possession (of).' In the same way an ablative is used with 'nitor,' ' $I$ support myself (with),' or 'lean (on),' and 'vescor,' 'I feed myself (with),' which may also be rendered 'I feed (on),' or by a transitive verb, 'I eat.'

So also the adjectives 'fretus,' 'relying (on),' ' praeditus,' ' endued (with),' 'contentus,' 'content (with),' take an ablative, which may be similarly explained as denoting an instrument or means.

An ablative is also used, as in Sentence 5, with 'dignus,' 'worthy,' 'indignus,' 'unworthy,' and 'dignor,' 'I think worthy,' denoting that of which a person (or thing) is worthy or unworthy. This is akin to the ablative of price. 'Dignor' is a transitive verb, and the person thought worthy must of course be denoted by an accusative.

In Sentence 6, the words ' opus est' mean literally 'there is a work (to be done),' and the ablative denotes the means by which it is to be done. 'Usus est,' which is used in just the same way, means literally 'there is a use (to be made).'

Both expressions may be translated 'there is need (of),' and the noun denoting the thing of which there is need must be in the ablative. 'Mihi' is the dative denoting the person who has need (see Chap. iv, Sect. 3).

## Exercise 4.

r. He was killed by the same device, which he had often used himself.
2. We have need of the advice of those, who are endued with greater wisdom.
3. He said that the soldiers, if they fought with zeal, would soon gain possession of the enemy's camp.
4. The longer we ${ }^{1}$ sit here inactive, the ${ }^{2}$ more will the enemy despise us.
5. Relying on the skill of their commander, the soldiers ${ }^{3}$ rushed on the enemy's camp with the greatest eagerness.
6. Compelled by hunger, the soldiers were feeding on roots and herbs.
7. He " said that those could ${ }^{4}$ not be pardoned, who had ${ }^{5}$ shown themselves unworthy of pity.
8. We have need of masters ${ }^{6}$ to teach us this art.
9. When you ${ }^{7}$ have performed this duty, you will be able to enjoy leisure.
10. A bridge, which had been made of ships a few days before, was two miles distant from our camp.

## Exercise 5.

r. Relying on the prudence of the king, we were enjoying peace.
${ }^{1}$ Say ' shall sit.'
${ }^{2}$ See n. I, p. 58.
${ }^{\text {s }}$ Irru-o (-ěre, -i, -tum) in (lit. into).
${ }^{4}$ See Chap. ii, Ex. I, n. I.
${ }^{6}$ Say 'who may teach.'

[^40]2. He said that he would have need of prudence, ${ }^{1}$ to perform these duties well.
3. He said that those, who used their power well, were worthy of the ${ }^{2}$ highest praise.
4. The more serious the danger is, the greater will be the glory.
5. Let those be silent, who are endued with no wisdom.
6. He ${ }^{3}$ says that he ${ }^{3}$ cannot buy for money the food, of which he has need.
7. He said that our men would soon get possession of the standards, which had been lost by treachery.
8. Those, who are content with ${ }^{4}$ their owen lot, have ${ }^{5}$ no need of riches.
9. A few hours after the battle the soldiers constructed a rampart of trees and earth.
10. He said that his health, on which we ${ }^{6}$ were depending, had already become a good deal weaker from old age.

Section 4. On the ablative of quality, and the ablative absolute.

The uses of the ablative of which we have had examples in the last two sections may be explained as special instances of the ablative of instrument : this section contains examples of some special uses of the ablative of manner.

Sentences to be learned :
r. Senex promissâ barbâ, horrenti capillo.

An old man with long beard and rough hair.

[^41]2. Vir fuit magnâ vi et animi et corporis.

He was a man of great force both of mind and of body.
3. Regibus exactis, consules creati sunt.

When kings had been driven out, consuls were created.
4. Hoc responso dato discessit.

Having given this answer, he departed.
5. Nil desperandum, Teucro duce et auspice Teucro.

There must be no despair, with Teucer for leader and Teucer for omen-giver.
6. Natus est Augustus consulibus Cicerone et Antonio. Augustus was born in the consulship of Cicero and Antonius.
7. Jamque cinis, vivis fratribus, Hector erat.

And now Hector was ashes, while his brothers were alive.
In Sentence $\mathbf{I}$, the words ' with long beard and rough hair' describe the old man, and answer the question 'of what kind?' So also, in Sentence 2, the words 'of great force both of mind and of body' tell us of what kind the man was. The ablative used in this sense is called the ablative of quality ('qualis' = 'of what kind?') or description. In all its other uses, the ablative is like an adverb, but the ablative of quality is like an adjective, for it qualifies a noun. It is in fact an adverbial phrase used for an adjective, just as in English we use an adverb in the place of an adjective, when we talk of a person being well or poorly. In translating an ablative of quality, we sometimes use the preposition ' with,' sometimes 'of.'

The ablative of quality can only be used when the noun in the ablative has an adjective qualifying it. To turn into Latin 'a man with a beard,' 'a man of courage,' we must
turn the adjectival phrases, ' with a beard,' ' of courage,' into the adjectives, 'bearded,' 'brave,' of course making the adjective agree with the noun it qualifies ('vir barbatus,' ' vir fortis ').

In Sentences 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7, we have instances of the construction called the ablative absolute. This usually consists of a noun in the ablative and a participle agreeing with it. It is closely akin to the ablative of condition, and, like that, it may be turned into a clause, by putting in a conjunction (generally ' when,' sometimes ' while,' 'if,' ' though,' \&c.) and turning the participle into a finite verb. Thus 'regibus exactis' (lit. 'with kings driven out,' or 'kings having been driven out') $=$ ' when kings had been driven out.' If the principal verb of the sentence is in a historic tense, a past participle should be turned into a pluperfect, a present participle into an imperfect. It is generally best to turn an ablative absolute into a clause in translating into English.

Another common way of translating an ablative absolute, when it consists of a noun and a past participle, is to turn the past participle passive into a past (or sometimes a present) participle active, qualifying the subject noun of the principal verb, and to render the noun in the ablative as an object noun depending on this participle. Thus, in Sentence 4, ' hoc responso dato' ('this answer having been given') may be translated 'having given this answer.' But of course this can only be done when the action expressed by the participle was done by the same person as the action expressed by the principal verb.

Sometimes, instead of a participle, we have a second noun in apposition with the first, as in Sentences 5 and 6, or an adjective, as in Sentence 7. 'Teucro duce' may be translated 'with Teucer for leader,' or 'while Teucer is leader.'
'Consulibus Cicerone et Antonio' (lit. 'with Cicero and Antonius consuls') may be translated 'while Cicero and Antonius zere consuls,' or 'in the consulship of Cicero and Antonius.' So 'in my consulship' is in Latin 'me consule.' In turning these ablatives absolute into clauses we must of course supply a part of the verb 'to be.'

The ablative absolute is so called, because it does not depend so closely as other ablatives on any particular word, though, being equivalent to an adverbial clause, it really qualifies the principal verb of the sentence,

## Exercise 6.

1. Brutus, who ${ }^{1}$ ordered ${ }^{2}$ his own sons to be ${ }^{3}$ beheaded, was a ${ }^{4}$ man of wonderful firmness.
2. We know that a great loss was inflicted on the state in the consulship of Varro and Paullus.
3. We have need of the help of your father, who is considered a general of the greatest skill.
4. Scipio ${ }^{5}$ retired, first to the river Po, thence, ${ }^{6}$ when Hannibal ${ }^{7}$ followed, to Placentia.
5. He bade his men be of a brave spirit, lest they should exchange their liberty for slavery.
6. Horace writes that in the consulship of Plancus he was still warm with youth.
7. [There] was in the army a " man of remarkable swift-

[^42]ness of ${ }^{1}$ foot, to whom the surname Cursor had been given by the soldiers.
8. Having given hostages, the conquered were received into alliance on fair terms.
9. He said that those, who had ${ }^{2}$ shown themselves men of courage, were worthy of rewards.
10. Never, while $I$ am alive, shall so great a wrong be borne with patience.

## Exercise 7.

1. When Hasdrubal had been killed, Hannibal is said to have despaired ${ }^{3}$ of the fortune of Carthage.
2. Having routed the enemy, the soldiers with one rush gained possession of the camp.
3. ${ }^{4}$ A certain centurion, a man of great valour, ${ }^{5}$ inspired our men with ${ }^{6}$ courage by his ${ }^{7}$ words.
4. When Numa was king, the Romans enjoyed peace for many years.
5. These things iwere done in your consulship, many years before the death of your brother.
6. He said that his son was a boy of great spirit, and was becoming much stronger.
7. The ${ }^{8}$ more you ${ }^{9}$ urge this boy on, the more sluggish he becomes.

[^43]8. While you are ${ }^{1}$ safe, ${ }^{2}$ [there] is still hope that the enemy ${ }^{3}$ may be conquered.
9. Those who are of moderate ability have need of ${ }^{4}$ the greater diligence.
10. While the consul was saying ${ }^{5}$ this, the soldiers kept their eyes fixed ${ }^{6}$ on the ground for shame.

Section 5. On the ablative and locative of place where, and the ablative of time when.

Sentences to be learned:

1. Philippus Neapoli est, Lentulus Puteolis.

Philippus is at Naples, Lentulus at Puteoli.
2. Tabernae totâ urbe clauduntur.

The shops are closed in the whole city.
3. Tabernae in urbe clauduntur.

The shops are closed in the cily.
4. Quid Romae faciam?

What am I to do at Rome?
5. Is habitat Mileti.

He dwells at Miletus.
6. Caesaris virtus domi militiaeque cognita est.

Caesar's virtue was known at home and in war.
7. Latinâ portâ ingressus est.

He entered by the Latin gate.
8. Hieme omnia bella conquiescunt.

In winter all wars rest.

[^44]
## 9. Quicquid est biduo sciemus. Whatever it is we shall know in two days.

In the first six sentences, the words 'Neapoli,' ' Puteolis,' ' totâ urbe,' 'in urbe,' 'Romae,' ' Mileti,' 'domi militiaeque,' answer the question 'where?' Just as the accusative of the name of a town is used without a preposition in answer to the question 'whither?' so the ablative of the name of a town is used without a preposition, as in Sentence 1, in answer to the question 'where?' With any other word, a preposition (generally 'in,' sometimes 'ad,' ' $a t$ ') should, as a rule, be used, as in Sentence 3, but the preposition is left out when the noun denoting the place is qualified by the adjective 'totus,' as in Sentence 2, and in certain other expressions. In poetry, the preposition is often left out where it would be used in prose. In Sentences 4, 5, and 6, 'Romae,' ' Mileti,' ' domi,' ' militiae,' are not in the genitive, but in a case called the locative (from 'locus,' 'a place'), which was used in Latin in very early times to express the place where a thing was done, but had nearly fallen into disuse before the times of the chief Latin writers, its place being supplied by the ablative for all words except names of towns in the singular number of the first and second declensions (and a few of the third), and the words 'domus' (home), 'rus' (the country), 'bellum' (war), 'militia' (war), 'humus' (the ground). Of these words the locatives 'domi' (at home), 'ruri' (in the country), 'belli,' ' militiae ${ }^{1 \text { ' (in war), 'humi' (on the ground), are used. }}$ It will be seen that the locative case ends in ae in the first declension, in $i$ in the second and third. Instances of

[^45]locatives of names of towns of the third declension are ' Tiburi,' ' Carthagini.'

We see, then, that in answer to the question 'where?' the locative case (ending in ae or $i$ ) is used for names of towns of the first and second declensions, singular number, and for the words 'domus,' 'rus,' 'bellum,' ' militia,' 'humus': the ablative without a preposition for any other name of a town, or for a noun qualified by the adjective 'totus': but that, with these exceptions, a preposition is generally used.

The prepositions mostly used in English in answer to the question 'where?' are 'in' and 'at.' 'On' and 'by' are also used, as ' on the ground,' 'by land and sea.'

Caution. Be careful to distinguish between the place where something is done and the place to which somebody groes. This caution is the more necessary, as we often inaccurately use the word 'where' with the meaning of 'whither,' as 'Where are you going ?' Remember that 'where ' properly means ' in what place,' 'whither,' 'to what place.' For the way to express the place to which somedody goes in Latin, see Chap. iii, Sect. 4.

In Sentence 7, the words 'Latinâ portâ' answer the question 'by what way?' The way by which a person goes may be looked upon as a means by which he goes, and in answer to this question the ablative is used without a preposition.

In Sentence 8, 'hieme' answers the question 'when ?' In English, we sometimes use the preposition 'in,' sometimes 'on,' 'at,' or 'by,' as ' on the third day,' 'at'even,' 'by night'; sometimes no preposition at all, as 'last year we went to the sea-side.'

In Sentence 9, 'biduo' answers the question 'within what time?' In English we use the preposition 'in' or 'within.'

We see, then, that the ablative is used without a preposition in answer to the questions 'when?' and 'within what time ?'

## Exercise 8.

1. He said that he had stayed many years in that town, and had there been taught the Greek language.
2. This man will do the same things at Athens, ${ }^{1}$ as he used to do at home.
3. The Gauls had crossed into Italy by mountain passes two hundred years ${ }^{2}$ before they came to Rome.
4. The consul, having recovered the hostages, who were being kept at Luceria, returned home.
5. The Romans, with Scipio for leader, conquered the Carthaginians in the second Punic war.
6. ${ }^{3}$ What was done on that day at Corinth ${ }^{4}$ was known in the country within a few days.
7. He says that, when this news had been brought, there was the greatest confusion in the whole camp.
8. Next day the bodies of the slain, which had been left on the ground, were buried with the greatest care.
9. He performed with energy all the duties of a king both at home and in war.
10. ${ }^{5}$ When the Romans had entered the pass by ${ }^{6}$ one way, they perceived that they could not go out by the other.
[^46]
## Exercise 9.

1. Having stayed at Ephesus many days, in the third month he went away into the country.
2. He promised me that he and his sister would visit me at home.
3. He said that these things had been done at Rome in his consulship.
4. ${ }^{1}$ When he had stayed a few days in Asia, he heard that his brother was returning home.
5. Two hours after the battle it was announced that the enemy were advancing into our territory, and would arrive ${ }^{2}$ at Alba within a few days.
6. The more fiercely the enemy ${ }^{3}$ fought, the more stubbornly ${ }^{3}$ zere they resisted.
7. He was already of a cheerful countenance, for he ${ }^{3}$ believed that on the next day he would sup at Naples.
8. Having taken this town, the consul returned into Campania by the same way by which he had set out six days before.
9. That year there was a great pestilence in the whole province, both in the country and in the towns.
10. $\mathrm{He}{ }^{4}$ said that he would ${ }^{4}$ not go to the help of those, who had ${ }^{5}$ shown themselves unworthy of pity.

## Section 6. On the ablative of respect.

Sentences to be learned:

1. Angor animo.

I am distressed in mind.

[^47]${ }^{2}$ See Chap. iii, Ex. 4, n. 6.
2. Ennius, ingenio maximus, arte rudis. Ennius, mighty in genius, in art is rude.
3. Amor et melle et felle est fecundissimus.

Love is very fruitful both in honey and in gall.
4. Sensu caret.

He is without feeling.
5. Gravius est spoliari fortunis quam non augeri dignitate.
It is a more serious thing to be robbed of one's property than not to be loaded with honour.

Very similar to the use of the ablative denoting 'place where' is its use, as in Sentences 1 and 2, qualifying a verb or adjective, in answer to the question ' in what respect?' As we saw (Chap. iii, Sect. 5) that the accusative of respect, which is chiefly used in poetry, might be said to answer the question 'how far?' so the ablative of respect, which is much commoner in prose, may be said to answer the question 'where?' In translating this, the, preposition 'in' is generally used in English.

The ablative depending on a verb or adjective expressing abundance or its contrary, comes under this head. Thus, in Sentence 3, the words ' melle ' and 'felle' show us in what respect love is fruitful, while 'sensu' in Sentence 4, shows in what respect someone is in want ${ }^{1}$. In English, with a verb or adjective expressing abundance, we sometimes use the preposition 'with,' as 'the sea teems with fish,' sometimes

[^48]' in,' as 'a land rich in corn,' sometimes 'of,' as 'a purse full of money.' In translating an ablative depending on a word expressing the contrary to abundance, we sometimes use the preposition 'of,' as 'he is in want of money'; sometimes 'in,' as 'wanting in courtesy'; often we render in English by a transitive verb, as 'to want,' 'to lack.' 'Careo' is generally translated 'I am without.'

We sometimes find the genitive instead of the ablative depending on a verb or adjective expressing abundance or its contrary, but the ablative is commoner, at least in prose.

In the same way (i.e. as an ablative of respect) we may explain the use of the ablative, as in Sentence 5, to denote that with which a person (or thing) is enriched (dignitate), or that of which he (or it) is deprived (fortunis) ${ }^{1}$. Verbs of enriching and depriving are of course transitive, and take also an accusative denoting the person (or thing) enriched or deprived.

## Exercise 10.

1. We know that some men, distinguished in genius, have been of low stature.
2. They will be robbed of those standards, which our soldiers have always preserved with the greatest care.
3. Many wrongs must be endured by those, who are without friends.
4. We are fighting with a nation like ourselves in speech and manners.
5. He said that the king had wrongly deprived him of those honours, which were his by right.
6. We cannot buy for money that wisdom which we need.

[^49]7. The Greeks flourished most in literature, the Romans in war.
8. We have been deprived by force of those arms, which we had used for many years.
9. The enemy are without all those things, of which there is need ${ }^{1}$ for war.
10. He said that the town was being furnished with supplies, with which it was already ${ }^{2}$ weell stocked.

## Exercise 11.

I. He said that those, who had deprived the enemy of this assistance, were worthy of the ${ }^{3}$ highest praise.
2. He says that our men are without many things, in which the enemy ${ }^{4}$ are strong.
3. The temples have been spoiled by the enemy of those riches, of which our ancestors gained possession by their valour.
4. The enemy ${ }^{4}$ are strong in land forces, but our ships ${ }^{5}$ are a good deal better ${ }^{5}$ equipped.
5. Since we are without meat, we will feed on bread.
6. Having performed this duty badly, he was deprived of his office.
7. Having conquered the enemy in battle, he ${ }^{6}$ knew not how to use his victory.
8. He said that this man, though rich in slaves, ${ }^{7}$ was in want of money.
${ }^{1}$ Ad.
${ }^{3}$ See Chap. v, Ex. 5, n. 2.
${ }^{5}$ Perfect. The present would mean ' are being equipped.'
${ }^{6}$ Nesc-io, -ire, I know not. 'How' is not to be expressed in Latin.
${ }^{7}$ Eg-eo, -ēre, I am in want of.
9. He said that, if that were done, he should be bereft of all his children on one day.
10. White I was consul, the city was filled with the spoils of the enemy.

Section 7. On the ablatives of place whence, separation, and origin.

Sentences to be learned:
r. Demaratus fugit Corintho.

Demaratus fled from Corinth.
2. Domo venit.

He comes from home.
3. Rure venit.

He comes from the country.
4. Ex urbe venit.

He comes from the city (strictly 'out of the city').
5. Camillus dictaturâ se abdicavit. Camillus resigned (lit. declared himself away from) the dictatorship.
6. L. Brutus civitatem dominatu regio liberavit.
L. Brutus freed the state from the rule of kings.
7. Atreus Pelope natus, Tantalo prognatus est. Atreus was born of Pelops, descended from Tantalus.
In the first four of these sentences the words 'Corintho,' 'domo,' 'rure,' 'ex urbe,' answer the question 'whence ?' i.e. 'from what place?' Notice that the preposition is omitted in Latin with names of towns, and with the words 'domo' and 'rure,' just as it is in answer to the questions ' whither ?' and 'where?' With other words a preposition ('ab,' 'from,' 'ex,' 'out of,' or 'de,' 'down from') is generally used, as in

Sentence 4. With the name of a country, 'from' should be translated 'ex,' as, when we say 'he comes from Italy,' we really mean 'he comes out of Italy.' 'Ab Italiâ venit' would mean 'he comes from the borders of Italy.'

In Sentences 5 and 6, the words 'dictaturâ,' 'dominatu regio,' answer the question 'from what?' With verbs expressing separation from a thing, the preposition signifying 'from' need not, as a rule, be repeated in Latin, when it is already contained in the verb, as in Sentence 5, where 'abdicavit' contains the preposition 'ab'; though there are some verbs containing ' ab ,' ' de ,' or ' ex ,' with which it is more usual to repeat the preposition.

There are also some verbs, not containing a preposition in themselves, which may take an ablative without a preposition, denoting that from which something is separated, as in Sentence 6. Among these are 'libero,' ' I set free,' ' solvo,' ' I loose,' 'levo,' ' I relieve,' 'arceo,' 'I keep off,' 'moveo,' ' I move,' ' pello,' ' I drive,' ' cedo,' ' I retire,' 'vaco,' ' I am free.' Remember that such of these verbs as are transitive will also take an accusative denoting the object. An ablative without a preposition may also be used in the same sense depending on an adjective, as 'liber curâ,' 'free from care,' ' vacuus motu,' 'free from motion.'

Note.-The person from whom something is taken away must be denoted by a dative, not an ablative (see Chap. iv, Sect. 2), and the dative is sometimes used, but chiefly in poetry, to denote the thing from which something is removed (see Chap. iv, Sect. r.)

The preposition signifying 'from' is often omitted in poetry where it would be expressed in prose, both in expressing 'place whence' and with verbs expressing separation from a thing.

In Sentence 6, the words 'Pelope' and 'Tantalo' answer the question 'from whom?' The ablative is used in answer to this question, with or without a preposition, depending on a verb expressing birth, where in English we use the preposition ' of' or 'from.' This is called the ablative of origin.

## Exercise 12.

1. He arrived ${ }^{1}$ in the city from the country a few days before I started from home.
2. He said that by this decree the soldiers had been shut out from all hope of pardon.
3. This man, born of an illustrious father, was himself considered a general of the greatest skill.
4. They hoped that we should free them from the slavery, which they had endured for many years.
5. He ${ }^{2}$ removed from Athens to Rome, for he ${ }^{3}$ preferred to live in Italy [rather] than in Greece.
6. Nero came from Apulia to Umbria by the sea coast in seven days.
7. P. Claudius, having lost an excellent fleet, was compelled to resign his consulship.
8. When the consul had been killed, the soldiers were scarcely able to keep off the enemy from the gate.
9. He returned home two years ${ }^{4}$ after $I^{5}$ left the city.
io. Varro, whom the Romans had made consul that year, ${ }^{6}$ zas born of humble parents.

[^50]${ }^{2}$ Migr-o, -āre.
${ }^{4}$ See Ex. 8, n. 2.
${ }^{6}$ Say ' had been born.'

## Exercise 13.

1. This man, who had wished to sell his country for money, was thrown down from the Tarpeian rock.
2. He promised that he would come from the country ${ }^{1}$ to zisit me at Athens.
3. This man, born of poor parents, had always lived in the country.
4. ${ }^{2}$ Though he was worthy of a greater punishment, he was ${ }^{3}$ only deprived of his honours and sent away into the country.
5. When the decemvirs had been driven from office, L. Valerius and M. Horatius were created consuls.
6. On the next day he set out from the city by the Latin gate.
7. He said that he had set out from home many days before I had arrived at my farm-house.
8. When the enemy ${ }^{4}$ have departed from Capua I will resign my office.
9. By this man's death my wife and I have been freed from fear.
10. Tarquinius Priscus, whose father had come from Etruria to Rome, reigned at Rome for many years.

## Section 8. On the ablative of thing compared.

 Sentences to be learned:1. Nulli flebilior quam tibi, Vergili.

To none more a cause of weeping than to thee, Vergil.

[^51]2. Vilius argentum est auro, virtutibus aurum. Silver is less valuable than gold, gold than virtues.
3. Puto mortem dedecore leviorem. I think death easier than disgrace.
In these sentences we have instances of two different ways of expressing 'than' after a comparative in Latin. In Sentence $\mathbf{1}$, the conjunction 'quam' couples the nouns ' nulli' and 'tibi,' and, as two nouns coupled by a conjunction must always be in the same case, 'tibi' is in the same case as ' nulli.' To find what are the two words coupled by 'quam' in any sentence, think what are the two things compared.

In Sentences 2 and 3, instead of 'quam' and a noun after it in the same case as the noun to which it is coupled, we have the noun which would have followed 'quam' put in the ablative, the word 'quam' being left out. Thus 'auro' $=$ 'quam aurum,' 'virtutibus'='quam virtutes,' 'dedecore' $=$ 'quam dedecus.' This can only be done when the noun following 'quam' would have been in the nominative, as in Sentence 2, or in the accusative, as in Sentence 3.
'Quam ' should be used in the following cases:
( I ) if the noun qualified by the comparative does not denote one of the things compared, as in the sentence 'Caesar won more victories than Pompey,' where 'more' qualifies 'victories,' but the comparison is between Caesar and Pompey :
(2) if the comparative is an adverb, not an adjective :
(3) if the omission of 'quam,' and use of the ablative, would make the meaning doubtful, as might happen if there were another ablative depending on the comparative adjective. (Thus ' nihil homine dig-
nius clementiâ' might mean either 'nothing is worthier of a man than mercy,' or 'nothing is worthier of mercy than a man.'

## Exercise 14.

r. $\mathrm{He}^{1}$ said that he had seen ${ }^{1}$ nothing more beautiful than the statues of Polycletus.
2. We have need of a leader rather than an adviser.
3. He says that those who died ${ }^{2}$ for their country have won truer glory than the conquerors.
4. Nothing is worthier of a great conqueror than mercy.
5. He said that our men would fight much more stubbornly than the enemy.
6. I think that the soldiers will be roused by desire of praise rather than of plunder.
7. He says that greater losses are being inflicted on us by the enemy than on the enemy by us.
8. This state has produced no one more weighty in influence than Africanus.
9. He said that he was doing this from desire of praise rather than from fear of punishment.
10. In this man's consulship a battle was fought ${ }^{3}$ fiercer than all former battles.

## Exercise 15.

1. He said that those, who had perished in the camp by the enemy's weapons, were much happier than those, who had returned home with ignominy.
2. Cheered with the hope of victory, and relying on the

[^52]skill of our commander, my sons and I were fighting with the greatest energy.
3. You and your son, who ${ }^{1}$ showed ${ }^{2}$ so much energy, are in my opinion worthier of reward than of punishment.
4. Having left six cohorts for the defence of this city, he hastened into Samnium by the shortest way.
5. Phidippides ran from Athens to Sparta in two days, ${ }^{3}$ to ask the Lacedaemonians for help against the Persians.
6. I do not think that any one was ever loaded with more honours by the Senate than you.
7. He said that his brother, a man of great foresight, had foretold this calamity many years before.
8. The statue, which was about fifty paces distant, seemed larger than a man.
9. Let us exchange the corn, with which our land abounds, for wool, of which we have need.
10. Tarquinius said that he would ${ }^{4}$ seek to regain by force the kingdom, from which he had been unjustly expelled.

## Exercise 16.

r. In that year there was a great fire in London, where almost all the houses ${ }^{5}$ were built of ${ }^{6}$ wood.
2. This man, born of distinguished parents, was entirely without talent.
3. No one ever performed the duties of a commander more wisely than this man, whom you wish to deprive of his office.
4. They said that those, who had released them from this fear, were more like allies than enemies.

[^53]5. While my father was alive I used to live at Athens; when he was dead $I^{1}$ removed from Greece to Italy,
6. Tarquinius and his wife enjoyed for several years the kingdom, of which they had gained possession by their crimes.
7. No one had ever been more successful than Pompey, who was made general that year.
8. The ${ }^{2}$ more you threaten these men, the less you are obeyed.
9. $\mathrm{He}^{3}$ said that this state had produced ${ }^{3}$ no one more skilled in warfare than Caesar.
10. Do you ${ }^{4}$ not think that those who employed such arts are worthier of punishment than of praise?

${ }^{1}$ See Ex. 12, n. 2.<br>${ }^{3}$ See Ex. 14, n. I.

## CHAPTER VI.

On the Genitive.
Section 1. On the genitives of the maker or possessor, quality, and value.

Sentences to be learned:
I. Polycleti signa plane perfecta sunt. Polycletus' statues are quite perfect.
2. Singulorum opes sunt divitiae civitatis.

The resources of individuals are the riches of the state.
3. Respublica meâ unius operâ salva erat.

The state was saved by my single exertions.
4. Aves fetus adultos suae ipsorum fiduciae permittunt.

Birds entrust their grown young ones to their own selfreliance.
5. Ingenui vultus puer ingenuique pudoris.
$A$ boy of a high-bred countenance and high-bred modesty.
6. Voluptatem virtus minimi facit.

Virtue makes pleasure of very small account.
In Sentences I and 2 we have three genitives, 'Polycleti,' 'singulorum,' and 'civitatis,' each qualifying a noun in the same way as an adjective does. 'Polycleti' denotes the maker of the statues, 'singulorum' and 'civitatis' the possessors of the riches. Notice that the genitive may be
rendered in English either by a possessive case (Polycletus'), or by the use of the preposition 'of.' Like an adjective, a genitive may either be joined immediately to the noun it qualifies, as in these sentences, or form the complement to a copulative verb (that statue is Polycletus').

A genitive of the maker or possessor is called a subjective genitive, because it may be turned into a clause with the nominative of the same word for its subject noun. Thus 'Polycletus' statues'='the statues which Polycletus made,' 'the resources of individuals' $=$ 'the resources which individuals have.' This, which is the commonest use of the genitive, will present no difficulty, and instances of it have of course occurred in previous exercises.

The genitive of a personal pronoun is not used in Latin to denote the maker or possessor, but a possessive adjective is used instead. Just as in English we say 'my head,' ' his head,' etc., not 'the head of me,' 'the head of him,' so in Latin we must say 'caput meum,' not 'caput mei.' But, as the possessive adjective may be said to stand for the genitive of a personal pronoun, a genitive is sometimes found with it, as if in apposition with the personal pronoun for which it stands. Thus, in Sentence 3, 'meâ operâ,' 'by my exertions' $=$ ' by the exertions of me,' and so 'meâ unius operâ' $=$ 'by the exertions of me alone.' In the same way, in Sentence 4, 'suae fiduciae' $=$ 'to the self-reliance of them,' and 'suae ipsorum fiduciae' $=$ ' to the self-reliance of them themselves.' The genitives most commonly used in this way are 'unius' and the genitive singular or plural of 'ipse.' A possessive adjective with 'unius' may sometimes be rendered by turning the possessive adjective into a personal pronoun with 'of,' and translating 'unius' by the word 'alone,' qualifying the personal pronoun, (as above 'by the exertions of
me alone'). Or we may keep the possessive adjective in English, and use the word 'alone' or 'single,' qualifying the noun ('by my exertions alone,' 'by my single exertions'). The genitive of 'ipse' is used to add emphasis to the possessive adjective, and is best rendered by the word 'own,' qualifying the noun. Notice that the right position for the genitive in Latin is after the possessive adjective and before the noun.

In Sentence 5, the words 'ingenui vultus' and 'ingenui pudoris' qualify 'puer' like adjectives, and answer the question 'of what kind?' This is called the genitive of quality. Like the ablative of quality (see Chap. v, Sect. 4), it can only be used if the qualifying noun is itself qualified by an adjective. 'A man of courage' is neither 'vir fortitudine' nor 'vir fortitudinis,' but 'vir fortis' (' a brave man'). This use of the genitive may be brought under the head of the genitive of the possessor, for, by a slight exercise of imagination, a person may be looked upon as belonging to his qualities, just as a railway porter will speak of 'the gentleman that belongs to this luggage,' meaning the person to whom the luggage belongs.

In Sentence 6, the genitive 'minimi' answers the question ' of what value?' This is a particular use of the genitive of quality. In the same way are used 'magni,' ' of great value,' 'pluris,' 'of more value,' 'maximi' and 'plurimi,' 'of the greatest value,' 'parvi,' 'of small value,' 'minoris,' 'of less value,' 'tanti,' 'of so much value,' 'quanti,' 'of how much value.' (When used answering to one another 'tantiquanti' may be translated 'of as much value as.') Any of these words may be used, agreeing with 'pretii' understood, as the complement to a copulative verb, or to a factitive verb such as 'puto,' ' I reckon,' 'habeo,' ' I hold' (i.e. ' consider'),
'facio,' 'I make' (i.e. 'consider'), 'aestimo,' 'I value,' etc. They may be variously translated in English. Thus 'magni puto' ('habeo,' 'facio,' or 'aestimo') may be rendered ' $I$ reckon (or 'consider') of great value' (or 'worth' or 'importance'), 'I value (or 'esteem' or 'prize') highly,' etc., 'parvi puto' ('habeo,' etc.), 'I reckon (or 'consider') of small value' ('worth' or 'importance'), 'I make ('consider' or 'hold') of small account,' etc.

## Exercise 1.

1. That year Fabius Maximus was created dictator, whom all ${ }^{1}$ thought a leader of the greatest prudence.
2. He said that you were bringing this calamity on yourself by your own fault.
3. Money, which you consider of the highest value, is of less worth than wisdom.
4. He says that his father is reckoned by all a man of prudence.
5. He said that all these evils would be brought on the state by your crimes alone.
6. I know that your father was a man of the greatest valour.
7. Leonidas, who ${ }^{2}$ commanded the Spartan army ${ }^{3}$ at Thermopylae, valued glory much more highly than life.
8. We will trust to our own valour rather than to the enemy's cowardice.
9. Your safety is of as much importance to me as my own life.
10. He said that my single vote had kept off this calamity from the state.
[^54]
## Exercise 2.

1. Pleasure, which ${ }^{1}$ most men value highly, seems of very little importance to the wise.
2. He says that this happened through your obstinacy alone.
3. He said that your brother was ${ }^{2}$ showing himself a man of great firmness, and worthy of the ${ }^{3}$ highest praise.
4. A man of courage will value his country's welfare much more highly than his own.
5. I hope that this man will be taken by his own device.
6. The old man, whose wisdom you and I esteem so highly, has not been asked for his opinion.
7. He said that great loss would be brought on the enemy by your single aid.
8. Next year the Romans made Numa Pompilius king, who ${ }^{4}$ was reckoned a man of the greatest piety.
9. Those, who hold learning of small account, deprive themselves of great advantages.
10. They felt that they had been betrayed by their own commander, who had promised them ${ }^{5}$ such great rewards.

Section 2. On the genitive qualifying a noun omitted, and on 'interest' and 'refert.'

Sentences to be learned:
I. Ventum erat ad Vestae.

We had come (lit. it had been come) to Vesta's temple.

[^55]${ }^{2}$ See p. 26, n. I.
${ }^{4}$ See p. 26, n. 2.
2. Cujusvis hominis est errare.

It is any man's nature to err.
3. Est adolescentis majores natu vereri.

It is the duty of a young man to reverence his elders.
4. Tempori cedere habetur sapientis.

It is considered the part (or 'sign' or 'mark') of a wise man to yield to circumstances.
5. Interest omnium recte facere.

It is of importance to all to act rightly.
6. Et meâ et tuâ interest te valere.

It is of importance both to you and to me that you should be wevll.
7. Quid nostrâ id refert?

What does that matter to us?
Sometimes a genitive of the possessor qualifies a noun omitted, as in Sentence $\mathbf{I}$, where 'ad Vestae' stands for 'ad Vestae templum,' and in Sentences 2, 3, and 4, where the words signifying 'nature,' 'duty,' and 'part,' or 'sign' or 'mark,' have to be supplied as complements to the verbs 'est' and 'habetur,' which are used impersonally. In turning sentences similar to these last three into Latin, remember that the word 'it' is not to be expressed, nor the word ' nature,' 'duty,' ' part,' 'sign,' or ' mark.'

The genitive used with 'interest,' as in Sentence 5, is perhaps to be explained in the same way as qualifying the word 'rem' omitted. Thus 'interest omnium' would stand for 'inter rem omnium est,' 'it is among the concerns of all.' It may be translated, 'it concerns all,' 'it is of importance to all,' or 'it is important to all.' 'Refert' is used in exactly the same way, but is less common. This is perhaps a corruption of 'rem fert.' Thus 'refert omnium' would
stand for 'rem omnium fert,' 'it brings the advantage of all.'

As the possessive adjectives are used instead of the genitives of the personal pronouns, we might naturally expect to find ' interest meam,' 'refert meam,' for 'it is of importance to me.' This ' meam' was, however, corrupted into ' meâ'; so that the place of the genitive of a personal pronoun depending on 'interest' or 'refert' is supplied by what looks like the ablative singular feminine of the corresponding possessive adjective, as in Sentences 6 and 7.

In the last sentence, 'quid' is used adverbially. So we may have 'nihil,' 'nothing,' used as an adverb qualifying ' interest' or 'refert.' 'Quid interest ' (or 'refert') ? may be translated 'what does it matter?' or 'what difference does it make?' 'nihil interest' (or 'refert'), 'it matters nothing' or 'it makes no difference.' The preposition 'to' must be used in translating the genitive or possessive adjective. These verbs may also be qualified by the genitives of value 'magni,' 'pluris,' etc. Thus we may say 'magni meâ interest' for 'it is of great importance to me.' Instead of such a genitive we may have an adverb ('magnopere,' 'greatly,' 'magis,' ' more,' etc.)

Caution. 'It is of importance to him' must of course be translated 'interest ejus,' as 'suus' can only be used referring to the subject. So also 'it is of importance to them' is 'interest eorum.' But 'he said that it was of importance to him.' is 'dixit suâ interesse;' 'they said that it was of importance to them,' 'dixerunt suâ interesse.'

Each of the verbs 'interest' and 'refert' may be used either with a neuter pronoun for subject noun, as in Sentence 7, or impersonally, as in Sentences 5 and 6, in which case it may be followed by an infinitive, as in Sentence 5 , or an
accusative with infinitive, as in Sentence 6. Notice the translation of the accusative with infinitive in this sentence, and remember that in such sentences 'should' is not a sign of the future, but the present is the right tense to ase. Instead of the accusative with infinitive, 'ut' with the subjunctive may be used; in which case the rule explained in Chap. ii, Sect. 4. holds good : if the principal verb is in a primary tense, the present subjunctive is to be used, if the principal verb is in a historic tense, the imperfect subjunctive.

## Exercise 3.

1. He said that it was the nature of a wise man to bear evil fortune with fortitude.
2. He ${ }^{1}$ says that this is ${ }^{1}$ not less important to the State than ${ }^{2}$ to himself.
3. It is the duty of boys to obey their own parents.
4. It concerns both us and the ${ }^{3}$ rest of the citizens that you should be spared.
5. It is a sign of rashness rather than bravery to ${ }^{4} g o$ to meet dangers ${ }^{5}$ of one's own accord.
6. He says that this concerns himself alone ; but it concerns you, citizens, no less than him.
7. Zeno, who presided over the Stoics for many years, thought that it was the part of a wise man to make pleasure of very small account.

[^56]8. Having received this news, he answered that that mattered nothing to him.
9. It is the nature of a good man to consider the welfare of others of as much importance as his own.
10. It is equally important to me and to the soldiers that the enemy should be conquered.

## Exercise 4.

I. It is the part of a good commander to provide for the welfare of the soldiers.
2. He said that this was of importance to him ; but it is no less important to the soldiers than to the commander himself.
3. It is the duty of a good soldier to value the welfare of his country more highly than his own.
4. This will make no difference to those who have remained in the country.
5. It is the sign of a fool to hold learning of small account.
6. He imposed the task of fortification on the soldiers of the tenth legion, for it was of the greatest importance to them that the enemy should be kept off from the camp.
7. It is the nature of fools to consider learning of less value than their own pleasure.
8. They said that this concerned us more than them.
9. It is considered the mark of a good soldier to prize glory much more highly than rewards.
ro. It is of importance not only to the king, but also to you, citizens, that the enemy should be resisted.

Section 3. On the genitive depending on partitive words, and the genitive of material.

Sentences to be learned:

1. Gallorum fortissimi sunt Belgae.

The Belgae are the bravest of the Gauls.
2. Sulla centum viginti suorum amisit.

Sulla lost a hundred and twenty of his men.
3. Elephanto beluarum est nulla prudentior.

Of beasts, none is more sagacious than the elephant.
4. Te venire uterque nostrum cupit.

Each of us wishes you to come.
5. Satis eloquentiae, sapientiae parum est.

There is enough (of) eloquence, too little (of) wisdom.
6. Summus mons a Labieno tenebatur.

The top of the mountain was occupied by Labienus.
7. Lapidum imber defluxit.

A shower of stones has fallen.
In the first four of these sentences the genitives 'Gallorum,' 'suorum,' 'beluarum,' ' nostrum,' denote each a number of persons or things, about one or more of which something is said.

Such a genitive may depend
(I) on a comparative (' the elder of the two') or superlative, as in Sentence 1, 'Gallorum fortissimi' :
(2) on a numeral, whether cardinal (one, two, three, etc.), as in Sentence 2, 'centum viginti suorum,' or ordinal (first, second, third, etc.):
(3) on any pronoun or adjective denoting one or some of a number, as in Sentence 3, where 'beluarum nulla' $=$ ' not one of all beasts,' or in Sentence 4, 'uterque nostrum,' 'each (one) of us.' So we
may have a genitive with words signifying ' many, 'a few,' and the like.
[But the genitive is not used in Latin, as we sometimes use 'of' in English with a word signifying the whole of a thing or of a number. 'The whole of Italy' is 'tota Italia,' ' all of us' is 'nos omnes,' or 'omnes' alone, if it denotes the subject of a verb in the first person plural.]

A word which has a genitive depending on it in this sense is called a partitive word, because it denotes a part out of a whole number. The genitive is akin to the genitive of the possessor, as a part may naturally be looked upon as belonging to the whole, of which it is a part.

Notice that 'nulla' in Sentence 3 is feminine, to agree with 'belua' understood; the partitive word taking the same gender as the word in the genitive.

Notice also that for 'of us,' 'of you' (plur.), when depending on a partitive word, the forms 'nostrum' and 'vestrum' (not 'nostri,' 'vestri') are to be used, as in Sentence 4.

A partitive adjective may of course be used, like any other adjective, with the noun it qualifies expressed in the same case. Thus we may say ' fortissimi Galli,' 'the bravest Gauls,' 'céntum milites,' 'a hundred soldiers,' 'nulla belua,' 'no beast,' ' uterque consul,' ' each consul.'

In Sentence 5, the genitives 'eloquentiae' and 'sapientiae' are like the genitives in the first four sentences, except that, instead of denoting each a number of things, each denotes a single thing, about a part of which something is said. Such a genitive may depend on any word denoting a certain quantity, which may be either ( I ) a word like 'satis,' ' parum,' 'nimis,' ' nihil,' which are all, when used in this way, indeclinable nouns, though they may also be used as
adverbs: or (2) the neuter of a pronoun or adjective, as 'aliquid,' 'multum,' 'plus,' ' plurimum,' 'paulum,' 'minus,' ' minimum,' 'nimium,' etc.

The partitive word and the genitive are most commonly rendered in English by a noun and adjective in agreement, as in the above sentence, 'enough eloquence,' 'too little wisdom.' So 'nimis (or 'nimium') pecuniae' $=$ 'too much money,' 'nihil mali' $=$ ' $n o$ evil,', 'aliquid voluptatis' $=$ 'some pleasure,' 'multum (' plus' or 'plurimum') caedis'=' much ('more' or 'very much') slaughter,' 'paulum ('minus' or 'minimum') sapientiae' $=$ ' $a$ little ('less' or 'very little') wisdom.' Sometimes, however, the genitive may be literally translated, as 'aliquid pristini roboris,' 'something of his old strength.'

Note I.-If a word denoting a certain quantity is in any case except the nominative or accusative, or if it depends on a preposition, it should be used as an adjective, agreeing with its noun. Thus 'of too much money' is 'nimiae pecuniae.'

Note 2.-The genitive depending on a word of quantity may be a neuter adjective, as ' nihil veri'; in which case we may either render the genitive by a noun, and the word of quantity by an adjective qualifying it (' no truth'), or, translating the word of quantity as a noun, render the genitive by an adjective qualifying it ('nothing true'). An adjective of the third declension should not be used in the genitive with a word of quantity, but should be put in agreement with it, as ' nihil triste,' ' nothing sad.'

In Sentence 6, the words 'summus mons' mean 'the highest part of the mountain.' We might naturally have expected to find the adjective in the neuter, with the noun in the genitive; but the words 'summus,' 'highest,' ' imus,'
' lowest,' 'ceterus' and 'reliquus,' 'remaining,' 'medius,' ' middle,' ' primus,' ' first,' ' extremus,' 'outermost' or ' last,' and some other superlatives, when placed before the nouns they qualify, have a partitive meaning. Thus 'ima vallis' $=$ 'the bottom of the valley,' 'cetera (or 'reliqua') classis' $=$ 'the rest of the fleet,' 'media acies' $=$ ' the centre of the line of battle,' 'primum agmen' $=$ ' the front (or 'beginning') of the line of march,' 'extremum ('postremum,' 'ultimum,' or 'novissimum') agmen' $=$ ' the rear (or 'end') of the line of march.' When these adjectives are placed after the nouns they qualify, they have no such partitive meaning. Thus ' via media' $=$ ' the middle road.'

In Sentence 7, the genitive 'lapidum' denotes the material of which the shower consists. This differs from the ablative of material (see Chap. v, Sect. 3), inasmuch as that depends on a verb, the genitive on a noun. It is akin to the genitive depending on a partitive word, as the material of which a thing consists may be regarded as a whole, of which the thing is a part. Sometimes a genitive denoting that of which a thing consists is added to a noun to explain it in much the same way as a noun in apposition, as 'honos consulatus,' ' the honour (consisting) of the consulship,' and may sometimes even be rendered as such in English, as 'numerus trecentorum,' 'the number (consisting of) three hundred.'

## Exercise 5.

1. He has ${ }^{1}$ ordered the elder of you to go to Rome.
2. The front of the line of march halted at the bottom of the mountain.

[^57]3. He said that all of you had ${ }^{1}$ shown much talkativeness, very little wisdom.
4. The Persians, who had ${ }^{2}$ taken their stand in the centre of the line of battle, captured three of our standards.
5. $\mathrm{He}{ }^{3}$ said that ${ }^{3}$ none of us was wiser than Socrates.
6. It is of importance both to us and to the rest of the citizens that the general should have enough forces.
7. He said that [there] would be too much danger in that undertaking.
8. The enemy surprised many of our cohorts ${ }^{4}$ on the top of the hill.
9. I believe that [there] was nothing true in the whole of his speech.
10. Money, which ${ }^{5}$ most of you value highly, is of less worth than a mind contented with its own lot.
II. It is the mark of a fool to have more confidence than valour.

## Exercise 6.

1. This war was ${ }^{6}$ prepared for at the ${ }^{7}$ end of the winter, finished at the ${ }^{7}$ beginning of summer.
2. I hope that you will say something useful; at least you will say nothing false.
3. He said that ten of us had been ${ }^{8}$ sent for by the king ; that the rest of the captives had been judged worthy of death.
4. It was announced that those, who were in the city, would within three days have no corn.

[^58]5. The whole of our army ran down from the top of the hill to the bottom of the valley.
6. Some of you have too much confidence, others too little skill ; all of you are men of too much rashness.
7. It is of the greatest importance to us that the soldiers should have more corn.
8. It is important to all that the bravest of you should be sent to the camp.
9. ${ }^{1}$ One of my sisters will go to Corinth, the other will remain a whole year at Athens.
ro. He said that the enemy had less ammunition than we, ${ }^{2}$ and could ${ }^{2}$ not inflict much damage on our men.

Section 4. On the objective genitive depending on a noun or adjective.

Sentences to be learned :
I. Nicias tuâ sui memoriâ delectatur.

Nicias is delighted with your remembrance of him.
2. Habetis ducem memorem vestri.

You have a leader mindful of you.
3. Volo me patris mei similem. I wish myself like my father.
4. Animus fuit alieni appetens.

His mind was desirous of another's wealth.
5. Miserrima est honorum contentio.

Striving about honours is most miserable.
6. Consolantur aegram animi.

They console the woman sick at heart.

[^59]${ }^{2}$ See Chap. ii, Ex. 4, n. I.

In Sentence r, the words ' with your remembrance of him' might be otherwise expressed 'that you remember him,' where 'him' is the object noun to the verb 'remember.' So also in Sentences 2, 3, and 4, the words on which the genitives depend may be turned into transitive verbs, and the genitives into their object nouns. 'Mindful of you' $=$ 'who remembers you': 'like my father' $=$ 'one who resembles my father ${ }^{1 \text { ' }}$ : 'was desirous of another's wealth ' $=$ 'desired another's wealth.' A genitive which may thus be turned into an object noun is called an objective genitive. It may depend on a noun, as in Sentence r, or on an adjective, as in Sentences 2, 3, and 4. In particular, a present participle may have such a genitive depending on it, when it is used as a mere adjective, i. e. when it describes a permanent quality, as in Sentence 4 ('alieni appetens'), and not a particular act done at some one time ('mortuus est manus ad caelum extendens,' 'he died stretching out his hands to heaven'). A participle thus used may often be rendered by an English adjective, as above, 'desirous of another's wealth'; sometimes by a noun, as 'amans patriae,' 'a lover of his country'; sometimes by several words, as 'patiens frigoris,' 'capable of enduring cold.'

Notice that the genitives of the personal pronouns, which, as we saw above (Sect. r), are not used to denote the maker or possessor, are used as objective genitives, as in Sentences I and 2 ; and notice further that for 'of us,' ' of you ' (plur.), when the genitive is objective, the forms 'nostri,' ' vestri,' are used, as in Sentence 2, not ' nostrum,' ' vestrum,' which, as we saw in Sect. 3, are used with partitive words.

[^60]In Sentence 5, 'honorum contentio' $=$ ' de honoribus contendere.' As a preposition is seldom used depending on a noun, a genitive is sometimes used in this way, where, if the noun on which it depends were turned into a verb, a preposition would be used: and as the genitive is the only case that can be used qualifying a noun, it is occasionally found where a dative or ablative without a preposition would be used, if the noun on which the genitive depends were turned into a verb. So 'vacatio militiae' $=$ 'militiâ vacare,' 'freedom from military service '; 'imperium pelagi'='pelago imperare,' 'rule over the sea.' In such cases care will be necessary to see what preposition is most suitable in translating the genitive into English.

In Sentence 6, the genitive 'animi' is used just like an ablative of respect. This is a use of the genitive which is chiefly found in poets and late writers, but the word ' animi' is so used in writers of the best period, both with adjectives, as in this sentence, and with verbs, as ' animi pendeo,' 'I waver in mind.'

## Exercise 7.

1. Our parents will be delighted by our care of them.
2. Of all animals none is more capable of enduring toil than the horse.
3. He said that you had ' shown too little goodwill in this matter; but I will never believe that you were so forgetful of us.
4. Having read this letter, he said that he ${ }^{2}$ woondered at your hatred of him.
5. That man seems to me much more like you than your own brother.

[^61]${ }^{2}$ Mir-or, -āri, I wonder at, trans.
6. I think, soldiers, that this was done from fear of you.
7. This man, whom you think so neglectful of me, has always been considered a lover of himself.
8. Your parents will rightly be angry with you ${ }^{1}$ on account of your neglect of them.
9. I believe that ${ }^{2}$ none of us will see anything like this comet within the ${ }^{3}$ next thirty years.
10. He told me that the rest of the allies, blind with hatred of us, had gone to the help of the enemy.

Section 5. On verbs that take a genitive.
Sentences to be learned :

1. Romani signorum potiti sunt.

The Romans gained possession of the standards.
2. Mancipiis locuples eget aeris Cappadocum rex.

The king of the Cappadocians, rich in slaves, is in want of coin.
3. Condemnamus haruspices stultitiae.

We condemn soothsayers (as guilty) of folly.
4. Petillius furti absolutus est.

Petillius was acquitted of theft.
5. Res adversae admonent nos religionum.

Adversity reminds us of religious duties.
6. Jubet mortis te meminisse Deus.

God bids thee remember death.
7. Nunquam obliviscar noctis illius.

Never shall I forget that night.

[^62]8. Dulces moriens reminiscitur Argos.

Dying, he remembers sweet Argos.
9. Arcadii, quaeso, miserescite regis.

Pity, I pray, the Arcadian king.
10. Miseret te aliorum; tui nec miseret nec pudet.

Thou pitiest others; thou neither pitiest nor art ashamed of thyself.
The genitives in these sentences, unlike those in the former examples, depend on verbs.
'Potior,' 'I gain possession,' ' egeo' and 'indigeo,' 'I am in want,' may take either a genitive, as in Sentences I and 2, or an ablative, as we saw in Chapter v, Sects. 3 and 6. So also verbs signifying 'to fill' sometimes take a genitive instead of an ablative, denoting that with which a thing is filled.

A genitive is used, as in Sentences 3 and 4, with verbs of accusing, condemning, and acquitting, to denote the crime of which a person is accused, pronounced guilty or acquitted. In translating the genitive depending on a verb signifying 'to condemn' it is necessary to put in some such words as 'on a charge ' or 'as guilty,' as in Sentence 3. Remember that these are transitive verbs, and take also an accusative denoting the person accused, condemned, or acquitted.

A genitive is used, as in Sentences 5, 6, and 7, with verbs of reminding, remembering, and forgetting, to denote that of which a person is reminded, or that which one remembers or forgets. Notice that the person reminded is denoted by the accusative (' nos' in Sentence 5). With verbs of remembering and forgetting, the genitive must be translated like an object noun, without any English preposition. Indeed with these verbs the thing remembered or forgotten may also be
denoted by an accusative in Latin, as in Sentence 8, where ' Argos' is acc. plur. from 'Argi.'

A genitive is also used, as in Sentences 9 and ro, with the verbs 'miseresco' and 'misereor,' 'I pity,' and the impersonal verbs ' miseret,' ' piget,' ' taedet,' ' pudet,' ' paenitet,' to denote the person or thing on account of which one feels pity, disgust, weariness, shame, or repentance. With the verbs signifying 'to pity,' the genitive must be translated as an object noun, without preposition. With the impersonal verbs given above, the person who feels the emotion is denoted by an accusative. In translating, the impersonal must be turned into a personal verb, of which the word in the accusative becomes the subject noun. Thus 'miseret te aliorum ' $=$ 'thou pitiest others.' [In the latter part of this sentence, 'te' is understood a second time with 'miseret' and 'pudet.'] So 'fratris me piget,' 'I am disgusted with my brother': 'taedet me vitae,' 'I am weary of life': 'tui te non pudet,' ' thou art not ashamed of thyself': 'paenitet eum facti,' ' he repents of the deed.'

With the verbs 'miseror' and 'commiseror,' 'I compassionate,' i.e. express pity for, the accusative, not the genitive, is used.

For ' of us,' 'of you' (plur.), when depending on a verb, the forms ' nostri,' 'vestri,' should be used.

A genitive (of the same kind as those of which we had examples in the last section) may be used depending on an adjective corresponding in meaning with any of the verbs that take the genitive, as 'potens,' 'having power (over),' 'impotens,' 'without control (over),' 'egenus,' 'in zeant,' 'plenus,' 'full,' 'reus,' 'accused,' 'sons' and 'noxius,' 'guilty,' 'insons' and 'innocens,' 'innocent,' 'memor,' ' mindful,' ' immemor,' 'forgetful,' \&c.

## Exercise 8.

I. I think that this circumstance will remind them of us.
2. He was convicted of treason ${ }^{1}$ by means of his own letter.
3. I pity those who gave themselves up to the enemy much ${ }^{2}$ more than those who were killed in the battle.
4. You will soon forget the labours, of which you are now weary.
5. I do not remember the deed of which you say that you repent.
6. They are ashamed of their allies, who are guilty of the greatest crimes.
7. We could not gain possession of the camp, for we ${ }^{3}$ had too little strength.
8. He told me that you were innocent of those crimes, of which you were accused.
9. I am disgusted with you, who are accusing your own brother of ${ }^{4}$ such baseness.
10. I cannot acquit you of those crimes which you have committed [while] full of anger and without control over yourself.

## Exercise 9.

1. ${ }^{5} \mathrm{He}$ will be reckoned the bravest of us who ${ }^{6}$ gains possession of the enemy's standard.
2. Those who have too much money derive no pleasure ${ }^{7}$ from the use of it .
${ }^{1}$ Per.
'Say 'so great.'
${ }^{5}$ The word 'he' should be expressed in Latin (' is').
${ }^{6}$ Say 'shall have gained.'
${ }^{3}$ Imperfect.
${ }^{2}$ See p. 58, n. 1 .
${ }^{7}$ Ex.
3. ${ }^{1}$ Do you think, soldiers, that your commander will ever forget you?
4. The general ${ }^{2}$ orders ten of you to go to the centre of the line of battle.
5. I am disgusted with you, who do not repent of so great a crime.
6. He said that he would derive some pleasure ${ }^{3}$ from this toil.
7. It is of the greatest importance to the State that you should remind our allies of the wrongs inflicted on us by the enemy.
8. Brutus, who condemned his own sons [as guilty] of treason, was a man of wonderful firmness.
9. I think that he did this from fear rather than from love of us.
10. He said that he pitied those who were not ashamed of their crimes.
ri. He said that the general had selected a few of you, whose influence he valued highly.
11. It concerns us that the army should have enough corn.

Exercise 10.

1. He told me that a few of our cohorts could inflict very much damage on the enemy.
2. The general was no less weary of the blockade than the soldiers.
3. He is so blind with love of us, ${ }^{4}$ that he forgets his duty.

[^63]4. He said that more injury would be brought on the State by the death of you alone than by the slaughter of a whole legion.
5. The general will place a few of you, whose valour he esteems most highly, in the front of the line of march.
6. It is the nature of fools to have less firmness than confidence.
7. Are you ${ }^{1}$ not ashamed of those crimes, which all of us remember?
8. It is of importance both to you-and to me that you should have the money of which you are in want.
9. He says that he pities those who had been placed in the rear of the line of march.
10. I did not think that you had been so forgetful of us.
ir. The general says that he had too little cavalry.
12. The enemy hoped that they would kill many thousands of us.

[^64]
## CHAPTER VII.

## On the Infinitive, Gerunds, Supines, and Gerundive.

Section 1. On the infinitive.
Sentences to be learned:
I. Dulce et decorum est pro patriâ mori.

It is a sweet and glorious thing to die for one's country, or,
Dying for one's country is a sweet and glorious thing.
2. Mori nemo sapiens miserum dixerit.

No wise man will call (lit. will have called) it miserable to die, or,
No wise man will call dying miserable.
3. Stoicus esse voluit.

He zoished to be a Stoic.
4. Neu sinas Medos equitare inultos.

And mayst thou not suffer the Medes to ride unpunished.
5. Patriae diceris esse pater.

Thou art said to be the father of thy country.
6. Multi sequi, fugere, occidi, capi.

Many were following, flying, being slain, being captured.
To find the subject of Sentence I, we should ask 'What
is a sweet and glorious thing?' The answer would be, ' Dying (or 'to die') for one's country.' The word 'dying' is here a verbal noun, signifying the act of dying, and is equivalent to the infinitive 'to die.' In Latin the infinitive is used, which we thus see is a kind of noun, and may stand as the subject noun to a verb (though seldom to any exçept a copulative verb).

Again, in Sentence 2, to find the object noun we should ask 'What will no wise man call miserable ?' The answer, as before, would be 'Dying' or 'To die'; in Latin, 'mori.' We see, then, that the infinitive may also stand as an object noun (generally to a verb of thinking or calling).

Notice that the adjectives qualifying the infinitives used as subject and object nouns are in the neuter gender (dulce, decorum, miserum).

Notice also the different ways of translating the infinitive when it is thus used as subject or object noun. It may be rendered either by a verbal noun, as 'dying,' or by the infinitive, 'to die.' If the infinitive is used in English, the pronoun 'it' is generally inserted in the regular place of the subject or object noun, and the infinitive is added after the complement to explain the word 'it' (' $I t$ is a sweet and glorious thing to die,' 'No wise man will call it miserable to die.') In translating such sentences into Latin, remember to leave out the word ' it .'

Be very careful to distinguish between the English verbal noun and the present participle, which is the same in form. Remember that a participle is an adjective, and must qualify a noun, either expressed or understood. When a Latin participle is used without any noun to agree with, 'man' or 'men' must be supplied. It may be variously translated into English. Thus 'morientem' may be rendered ' $a$ dying
man,' 'one dying,' 'one who is dying', 'one who dies,' or, if the verb of the sentence is in a historic tense, 'one who was dying,' 'one who died.' So also 'morientes' may be rendered 'dying men,' ' the dying,' 'those dying,' 'those who are dying,' 'those zwho die,' 'those who were dying,' 'those who died.' In translating such expressions into Latin, remember that the word 'one' or 'those,' when joined to a participle, must be left out.

In Sentence 3, the infinitive 'esse,' with its complement 'Stocius,' completes the meaning of the verb 'voluit.' Among the verbs thus used with an infinitive to complete their meaning are those signifying 'to wish,' 'to be able,' 'to dare' (and the opposites of these), 'to be accustomed,' 'to learn,' 'to determine,' 'to begin,' 'to cease,' with 'debeo,' 'I ought,' and some others. Many of these may also be used with an accusative instead of the infinitive (most commonly the accusative neuter of a pronoun). Thus we can say 'Hoc volo,' 'I wish this': 'Quod poterant, id audebant,' 'What they could, that they dared.' When the infinitive is used, it is really a kind of object noun.

In Sentence 4, the words 'equitare inultos' are added, like a second object noun, to complete the meaning of the verb 'sinas,' which has already an object noun, 'Medos,' in the accusative. Just as verbs of asking and teaching take two accusatives, one of the person and one of the thing, so the verbs 'doceo,' 'I teach,' 'jubeo,' ' I bid,' ' veto,' 'I forbid,' 'sino' and 'patior,' 'I allow,' ' cogo,' ' I compel,' and some others, may be used with an accusative of a person, and an infinitive of the thing which he is taught, bidden, forbidden, allowed, or compelled, to do.

In Sentence 5, the words 'patriae esse pater' form the complement of the copulative verb 'diceris.' So also an
infinitive may stand as the complement to 'videor,' ' I seem,' ' putor,' ' I am thought,' \&c.

Notice that, in Sentences 3 and 5, the words 'Stoicus' and 'pater' are in the nominative, because, in each of these sentences, the subject of the infinitive is the same with the subject of the finite verb, which of course would be denoted by a nominative, if expressed. On the other hand, in Sentence 4, the subject noun of the infinitive 'equitare' is the accusative 'Medos,' and therefore the complement 'inultos' is also in the accusative.

Although the infinitive is, as we have seen, a noun, it may, like any other part of the verb, be qualified by an adverb, or by an adverbial phrase consisting of a preposition with noun (as in Sentence I, 'pro patriâ mori'), and it may have a noun depending on it in any case that would be used with the finite verb. In the same way a participle, though an adjective, may have an accusative (or any other case that the finite verb would govern) depending on it.

In Sentence 6, the infinitives 'sequi,' 'fugere,' 'occidi,' 'capi,' are equivalent to imperfects indicative, and must be translated as such. This use of the infinitive is called the historic infinitive, and is chiefly found in lively descriptions of scenes. Several such infinitives are often found together. Notice that the subject noun is in the nominative, not the accusative. We may sometimes translate a historic infinitive 'began to -.'

The use of the accusative with infinitive depending on a verb of thinking or saying was explained in Chap. ii, and has been illustrated in all the succeeding exercises. In this construction the whole infinitive clause takes the place of an object noun.

Exercise 1.
r. Nothing seems to me more desirable than living at home with honour.
2. Do you ${ }^{1}$ not think it most base to insult a dying man ?
3. We answered the ambassadors, that the pardon, for which we were asked, would be granted to ${ }^{2}$ those who yielded.
4. These are the words of one rejoicing rather than grieving.
5. What fault can be more disgraceful than lying ?
6. Then the multitude ${ }^{3}$ began to cry out and threaten ; ${ }^{4}$ and, ${ }^{5}$ owing to the shouts of those demanding battle, the general's voice could ${ }^{4}$ not be heard.
7. I will bid him be ${ }^{6}$ more mindful of us; for it is a mark of an ungrateful man to forget his friends.
8. He ${ }^{7}$ said that he ${ }^{8}$ knew ${ }^{7}$ nothing more pleasant than living in the country, and reading the books of the philosophers, Plato and Aristotle.
9. He said that he had been able to hear both the groans of the dying and the shouts of those pursuing.
10. The fight, which our men fought that day, is said to have been the most glorious of all fights.

## Exercise 2.

1. ${ }^{9}$ Complaining of fortune is not a remedy ${ }^{10}$ for pain.

[^65]2. Caesar ${ }^{1}$ gave orders to his men, ${ }^{2}$ not to pursue the flying.
3. The State seems to have been saved by your single vote.
4. It is unworthy of you, a Roman soldier, to ${ }^{3}$ depart from your post.
5. He said that he would hear the words of those ${ }^{4}$ complaining of injuries.
6. Writing with care is useful for those, who are being taught the Latin language.
7. The city had ${ }^{5}$ now been besieged for many months; ${ }^{6}$ and scarcity of provisions was troubling the besieging ${ }^{6}$ no less than the besieged.
8. It is much easier to all of you to confess your faults. than to amend your ${ }^{7}$ ways.
9. Betraying a friend for money is more disgraceful than being taken by the enemy.
10. We will not suffer you to be a private man, while your son is consul.

Section 2. On the gerunds and supines.
Sentences to be learned:

1. Ad bene vivendum breve tempus satis est. For living zeell a short time is sufficient.
2. Dat operam legendo.

He pays attention to reading.

[^66]3. Multae civitates non sunt solvendo.

Many states are not capable of paying (lit. are not for paying).
4. Fugiendo vincimus.

We conquer by flying.
5. De pugnando deliberant.

They deliberate about fighting.
6. Ars scribendi discitur.

The art of writing is learned.
7. Cupidus sum satisfaciendi reipublicae.

I am desirous of satisfying the state.
8. Lusum it Maecenas, dormitum ego.

Maecenas goes to play, I to sleep.
9. Foedum dictu est.

It is horrible to tell.
In the first seven of these sentences the words 'living,' ' reading,' 'paying,' ' flying,' ' fighting,' ' writing,' 'satisfying,' are all verbal nouns. We saw in the last Section that for a verbal noun standing as subject or object noun the infinitive could be used in Latin. For the accusative depending on a preposition, and for the dative, ablative, and genitive, the gerunds ${ }^{1}$ are used, as we see in these sentences.

The accusative gerund is most commonly used with the preposition 'ad,' as in Sent. I, where 'ad vivendum' = 'for living,' i.e. 'for the purpose of living.' This might also be translated 'to live,' and is one way of expressing a purpose in Latin. [N.B. When 'to --' expresses a purpose, it must never be translated by the infinitive in Latin, unless it depends on $\dot{a}$ verb expressing purpose, as ' He determined

[^67]to go.'] The accusative gerund is also used with 'inter,' ' in the midst of,' 'in the act of,' and occasionally with other prepositions.

The dative gerund is used
( 1 ) as a dative of the remoter object, depending,
$(a)$ as in Sentence 2, on such a verb as 'do,' ' $I$ give,' ' praesum,' 'I preside over,' \&c., or
(b) on an adjective expressing fitness, such as 'aptus,' 'suited,' 'utilis,' 'useful' (though with these 'ad' with the accusative gerund is more common):
(2) as a dative of the purpose or result,
(a) depending on a verb of appointing or choosing ('to appoint a day for starting'),
(b) forming the complement to a copulative verb, as in Sentence 3, where 'solvendo' is best translated 'capable of paying.'
The ablative gerund is used
(1) as an ablative of means, as in Sentence 4:
(2) as an ablative of cause ('weary with fighting'),
(3) depending on a preposition, as in Sentence 5. The prepositions with which it is used are 'in,' 'ex' and 'ab' ('from'), and 'de ' ('about').
The genitive gerund is used
( r ) depending on a noun, as in Sentence 6, as a genitive of that of which something consists (see Chap. vi, Sect. 3, last paragraph):
(2) as an objective genitive, depending on a noun or adjective, as in Sentence 7, where 'cupidus sum satisfaciendi $=$ ' cupio satisfacere.'

[^68]can never be expressed in Latin by participles. 'Scribentis,' in accordance with what was said in the last Section, means, not ' of writing,' but ' of one who is writing.'

The supines, as well as the gerunds, are really cases of a verbal noun, though one of a different form from the gerunds. The supine in -um is the accusative, the supine in $-u$ the ablative, of a noun of the fourth declension. As a rule, this form of verbal noun is only used in these two cases, though there are some verbal nouns of the fourth declension which are used in other cases also, just like any ordinary noun. Such are 'sensus,' 'feeling,' from 'sentio,' 'tactus,' 'touch,' from 'tango,' 'cursus,' 'running,' from ' curro,' \&c.

The supine in -um is used, as we see in Sentence 8, with a verb of motion, to express the purpose for which one goes. This is like the use of the accusative of the name of a town to which one goes. Like the accusative gerund with 'ad,' the supine in -um expresses a purpose, but it can only be used with a verb of motion, whereas the accusative gerund with 'ad' may be used with other verbs as well. Beware of translating 'to -' after a verb of motion by the infinitive.

We can now understand how the supine in -um with the present infinitive passive of 'eo' came to be used as the future infinitive passive of a transitive verb. For, as any intransitive verb can be used impersonally in the passive, we can say 'itur,' meaning ' It is gone (by somebody),' i.e. 'Somebody is going.' Prefixing to this a supine in -um, e.g. 'datum,' we get 'datum itur' = 'Somebody is going to give.' Now the supine in -um, like an infinitive, may have an object noun in the accusative, and so 'datum itur uxorem' $=$ 'Somebody is going to give a wife.' Turning this into an
infinitive clause depending on a verb of thinking or saying, we get $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { 'Dicit } \\ \text { 'Putat }\end{array}\right\}$ datum iri uxorem' $=$ ' $H e\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { says } \\ \text { thinks }\end{array}\right\}$ that somebody is going to give a wife' $=$ 'He $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { says } \\ \text { thinks }\end{array}\right\}$ that a wife will be given.'

In Sentence 9, 'foedum dictu' means literally 'horrible in the telling.' 'Dictu,' the so called supine in -u, is then an ablative of respect, qualifying the adjective 'foedum.' The expression may be translated 'horrible to tell' or 'horrible to be told.' Remember, then, that 'to -,' when it qualifies an adjective, must not be translated by the infinitive, but by the supine in -u.

In Sentence 7, 'reipublicae' is a dative depending on the gerund 'satisfaciendi.' This shows that the gerunds, like the infinitive, although nouns, differ from other nouns in taking the same cases as the verbs from which they are formed. (They may also, like verbs, be qualified by adverbs, as we see from Sentence r.) The same is true, as we have already seen, of the supine in -um. The supine in -u, from the nature of its use, can never have another noun depending on it.

## Exercise 3.

r. ${ }^{1}$ It is certain that the Roman people was by nature suited for commanding other nations.
2. I am ashamed of you, who are more desirous of escaping than of conquering the enemy.
3. Having dismissed the ambassadors, he said that he

[^69]ON THE INFINITIVE, GERUNDS, AND SUPINES. 115
would within the ${ }^{1}$ next two hours ${ }^{2}$ appoint a day for setting out against the enemy.
4. He said that he had become the strongest of us by using his limbs.
5. On the following day ambassadors, sent by the conquered, came to ask the conquerors for pardon.
6. The ${ }^{3}$ line of the flying was pitiable to see, even to those pursuing.
7. In the midst of drinking he fell, crying out that he was dying.
8. So great was the desire of avenging these wrongs, ${ }^{4}$ that neither ${ }^{5}$ those who resisted nor ${ }^{5}$ those who fled were spared.
9. He said that he placed his only hope of safety in resisting the enemy.
10. You teach others the art of painting; but I do not think that you yourself have paid attention to writing.

## Exercise 4.

r. The slaughter was horrible to see; men and horses ${ }^{6}$ weere everywhere flying, being captured, wounded, [and] slain.
2. For commanding well it is useful to have ${ }^{7}$ frrst obeyed others.
3. Nothing shall deter us ${ }^{8}$ from succouring our allies.
4. Ambassadors were sent from Rome to Clusium, to

[^70]${ }^{1}$ complain of the injuries inflicted on the allies of the Roman people.
5. To one fighting for his country nothing seems troublesome to do.
6. T. Manlius ${ }^{2}$ had the surname of Capitolinus, because he had saved the Capitol by throwing down the Gauls ${ }^{3}$ who were climbing $u p$.
7. He said that the soldiers were being ${ }^{4}$ carried away by desire of gaining possession of the enemy's camp.
8. He said that we should be surprised by our enemies the Volscians in the midst of disputing.
9. The consul will send a few of us to lay waste the enemy's lands.
10. Tired with pursuing rather than fighting, they returned by the shortest way into the camp.

## Section 3. On the gerundive attraction.

Sentences to be learned:-

1. Brutus in liberandâ patriâ est interfectus. Brutus was slain in freeing his country.
2. Hi septemviri fuerunt agris dividendis.

These were the seven commissioners for dividing lands.
In these two sentences we have instances of the construction called gerundive attraction. 'In liberandâ patriâ' and 'dividendis agris' are translated as if 'liberandâ' and 'dividendis' were gerunds, and 'patriâ' and 'agris' accusatives dependent on them. Notice that the object noun, instead of being in the accusative, is attracted, or drawn, into the case in which the gerund would have been, while the gerundive,

[^71]ON THE INFINITIVE, GERUNDS, AND SUPINES. 117
which is used instead of the gerund, is attracted to the gender and number of the object noun.

The dative gerund is not used with an accusative depending on it, nor can a gerund depending on a preposition be used with an accusative: instead of these the gerundive attraction must be used. Thus you cannot translate 'for dividing lands' by 'agros dividendo,' nor 'in freeing his country' by 'in liberando patriam,' but must say 'agris dividendis' and 'in liberandâ patriâ.' On the other hand you can say either 'agros dividendo' or 'agris dividendis' for 'by dividing lands'; and either 'liberandi patriam' or 'liberandae patriae' for ' of freeing his country.'

The use of the gerundive attraction is common in the titles of officers, expressing the purpose for which they were appointed, as in Sentence 2, 'septemviri agris dividendis.' Here the dative seems to depend on a noun; but a participle such as 'appointed' may be easily supplied, on which the dative may be said to depend.

## Exercise 5.

1. From recalling the army he turned ${ }^{1}$ to exhort the soldiers.
2. It is of the greatest importance to the State that the consul should give his attention to holding the levy.
3. He says that too much time was spent in getting ready arms.
4. [There] was no hope that the besieged would be saved except by surrendering the city.
5. He said that the enemy had deliberated for many hours about killing the hostages, who were being kept at Luceria.
6. Caius and I have been ${ }^{1}$ appointed ${ }^{2}$ commissioners for dedicating the temple.
7. ${ }^{3}$ Complaining of fortune is useless for lessening [one's] ills.
8. Some write that the consul returned to Rome for the sake of holding the levy.
9. Marcus, a man of the greatest valour, had been sent by the Appian road to reconnoitre the ${ }^{4}$ country.
ro. He said that that, however easy to say, could scarcely be accomplished without great labour.

## Exercise 6.

r. The Romans thought that by surrendering the consuls they had been freed from their obligation.
2. We place our only hope of victory in saving the citadel.
3. It concerns us, citizens, that our generals should have enough forces for storming the city.
4. Ambassadors had been sent from Rome to Alba a few days before to ${ }^{5}$ demand satisfaction.
5. He was ${ }^{6}$ seized with a desire of seeing the temple, which was not many paces distant.
6. He said that this was a good deal easier to say than to do.
7. ${ }^{7}$ When he was encouraging the soldiers ${ }^{8}$ to attack the enemy's camp, he was struck by an arrow in the midst of speaking.

8. It is the part of a coward to desert the dying in hope of escaping death.
9. The only hope of saving the city ${ }^{1}$ lies in saving the king.
10. These men have come to the consul to ${ }^{2}$ complain of the wrongs inflicted on them by you, an ambassador of the Roman people.

Section 4.-On the impersonal use of the gerundive. Sentences to be learned:-
r. Eundum est.

$$
\text { One }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { must } \\
\text { has to } \\
\text { ought to } \\
\text { should }
\end{array}\right\} \text { go (lit. it is to be gone). }
$$

2. Eundum fuit.

$$
\text { One }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { had to go } \\
\text { ought to have gone } \\
\text { should have gone }
\end{array}\right\} \text { (lit. it was to be gone). }
$$

3. Eundum erit mihi.

I shall have to go (lit. it will be to be gone by me).
4. Suo cuique judicio est utendum.

$$
\text { Each }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { must } \\
\text { has to } \\
\text { ought to } \\
\text { should }
\end{array}\right\} \text { use his own judgment. }
$$

[^72]5. Civibus est a vobis consulendum.
\[

You\left\{$$
\begin{array}{l}
\text { must } \\
\text { have to } \\
\text { ought to } \\
\text { should }
\end{array}
$$\right\} consult for the citizens.
\]

As any intransitive verb can be used impersonally in the passive, the neuter of the gerundive of an intransitive verb, with 'est,' ' fuit,' or 'erit,' may be so used, as in these sentences, to express that something is, was, or will be, to be done. Notice particularly the different ways in which these expressions may be rendered in English.

If we want to express the person by whom something is to be done, the dative should generally be used, as in Sentences 3 and 4 ('mihi' and 'cuique'); see Chap. iv, Sect. 3. In English, as we turn the passive into an active verb, this dative must be turned into the subject noun. Thus, in Sentence 4, 'cuique est utendum ' = 'each must use.' In this sentence, besides the dative 'cuique,' used with the gerundive to express the agent, we have an ablative 'suo judicio' depending on the verb 'utor' (see Chap. v, Sect. 3). Thus we see that the gerundive of an intransitive verb with 'est,' 'fuit,' or 'erit,' used impersonally, may have a noun depending on it in the same case (dative, ablative, or genitive) that the verb usually takes.

Thus with the gerundive of a verb which takes the dative, we might have two datives, one completing the meaning of the verb, the other expressing the agent; but, as this might make the meaning doubtful, it is more usual in such cases to express the agent by the ablative with ' $a$ ' or ' $a b$,' as in Sentence 5 , where 'civibus' is the dative of the persons whose advantage has to be consulted for, while the agent is
expressed by ' $a$ vobis' instead of the dative. If the dative ' vobis' had been used, we could not have been sure whether the meaning was 'You must consult for the citizens,' or ' The citizens must consult for you.'

We saw in Chap. iv, Sect. 2, that with many verbs the dative must be translated in English without any preposition, just as if it were an accusative. When the gerundive of one of these verbs is used with 'est,' we may either turn it actively in English, as in the sentences at the beginning of this Section, or we may use the passive, in which case the dative of remoter object must be turned into the subject noun. Thus 'Parendum est a te imperatori' may be translated either 'You must obey the commander,' or 'The commander must be obeyed by you.'

## Exercise 7.

r. We had to be silent about our own miseries.
2. We have to fly from home into the country.
3. We are entirely without corn, and shall soon have to feed on skins.
4. He said that the general's command ought to be obeyed by the soldiers.
5. You should not have believed those who told you this.
6. It was announced to the captives, that [they] must all die on the following day.
7. In this man's consulship the Romans had to fight with many enemies at once.
8. You, who used to be considered a man of prudence, ought to have performed this duty.
9. I, who have been taken by the enemy, shall have to die in a foreign land within a few days.
10. We should remember our allies the Romans rather than our enemies the Carthaginians.

## Exercise 8.

r. In so great a danger we must not deliberate, but dare and ${ }^{1} d o$.
2. The soldiers knew that their commander had to be obeyed.
3. The general, standing ${ }^{2}$ on the top of a mound, had to shout with a loud voice, that he might be heard to the ${ }^{3}$ end of the camp.
4. The general should use rather than enjoy so great a victory.
5. You ought to have pitied " such great sorrow.
6. We shall have to ${ }^{5}$ exercise the greatest care in choosing a commander.
7. That year all of us had to ${ }^{6}$ remove from the country into the city.
8. He did not think that he ought to fight with so great a number of the enemy.
9. He answered that a Roman soldier must never forget his duty.
ro. You should not have hesitated about succouring ${ }^{7}$ those who were in difficuly.

[^73]Section 5.-On the attributive use of the gerundive.
Sentences to be learned :-
r. Legendae sunt pueris Aesopi fabulae.

स्sop's fables $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { are to } \\ \text { must } \\ \text { have to } \\ \text { ought to } \\ \text { should }\end{array}\right\}$ be read by boys:
or,

$$
\text { Boys }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { must } \\
\text { have to } \\
\text { ought to } \\
\text { should }
\end{array}\right\} \text { read AHsop's fables. }
$$

2. Non tangenda rates transiliunt vada.

Ships fly over the seas that ought not to be meddled with.
3. Diviti aurum servandum dedit.

He gave the gold to a rich man to keep.
4. Traditi sunt fetialibus Caudium ducendi.

They were handed over to the fetials to be led to Caudium.

In Sentence r, 'legendae,' the gerundive of a transitive verb, is used with 'sunt,' in the same way as we saw in the last Section that the gerundive of an intransitive verb could be used with 'est,' with this difference, that, instead of being used impersonally, the verb has a subject noun to agree with, which the gerundive qualifies. The gerundive is here said to be used attributively, because it expresses an attribute, or quality of the thing denoted by the noun. Notice the different ways in which the expression can be rendered in English. It is often best to turn the verb actively, in which case the agent, denoted by the dative in Latin, becomes the subject of
the English sentence, while the subject of the Latin sentence becomes the object. Of course we may also say-

Legendae fuerunt pueris Aesopi fabulae,
which may be translated-

$$
\text { A'sop's fables }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { had to be } \\
\text { ought to have been } \\
\text { should have been }
\end{array}\right\} \text { read by the boys; }
$$

or,

$$
\text { The boys }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { had to read } \\
\text { ought to have read } \\
\text { should have read }
\end{array}\right\} \text { Hsop's fables: }
$$

and
Legendae erunt pueris Aesopi fabulae,
which may be translated-
A'sop's fables will have to be read by the boys,
or,
The boys will have to read Asop's fables.
The gerundive of a transitive verb may also be used, as in Sentence 2, without 'est' or 'sunt,' qualifying a noun like any other adjective. When this is the case, it is often best to render it in English by a relative clause, as in this Sentence.

Sometimes, as in Sentences 3 and 4, the gerundive of a transitive verb is used qualifying the object or subject noun, and completing the meaning of another transitive verb, active or passive, in such a way as to be equivalent to a clause expressing a purpose. Thus, in Sentence 3, the meaning of 'servandum' (lit. 'to be kept,') which forms the complement of ' dedit,' might otherwise have been expressed by the words 'quod servaret.' And in Sentence 4, instead of 'ducendi,' which forms the complement of ' traditi sunt,' we might have had 'ut ducerentur.' The gerundive used in this way may be rendered in English by the preposition 'to,' with either
the infinitive active, as in Sentence 3, or the infinitive passive, as in Sentence 4.

## Exercise 9.

I. You must not endure so great a disgrace.
2. An opportunity of fighting with the enemy has to be given to the soldiers.
3. Those, who ${ }^{1}$ were born of free parents, were sent into the camp to be ${ }^{2}$ kept under guard.
4. They said that you and Caius, who had not gone to the general's aid, ought rightly to be deprived of your arms.
5. You should not have spent the rest of the time in playing. .
6. These things, and worse than these, will have to be endured by me at Thebes.
7. We have to obey those who have given us the hostages to keep.
8. The opportunity of indulging their anger should not have been given to the soldiers.
9. We shall have to mourn many who have been slain in freeing their country.
10. Two of you must be sent home to announce that the allies are by no means ready for fighting.
ri. You are thought by ${ }^{3}$ most men to be the writer of a book ${ }^{4}$ which ought to be read by all.
12. He ${ }^{5}$ said that these insults, so disgraceful to tell, were ${ }^{5}$ not to be endured by Roman citizens.

[^74]
## Exercise 10.

1. A river three hundred feet broad had to be crossed by the army.
2. We had to endure the injuries inflicted on us by the conquerors.
3. ${ }^{1}$ One of these apples is sweeter to taste, the other softer to touch.
4. We have to guard the women and ${ }^{2}$ children, who have been entrusted to our care.
5. You should appoint a time for setting out from the city.
6. You ought not to have neglected the advice of your father for so many years.
7. We shall have to pursue the flying for many miles.
8. Do you ${ }^{3}$ not feel that this is a very great disgrace, ${ }^{4}$ and [one] that ought never to be endured by a man of courage ?
9. He promised that those, whose houses and goods had been destroyed in keeping off the enemy, should receive lands to cultivate.
10. Never, while I am tribune, shall a Roman citizen be handed over to the lictors to be beaten.
II. He said that you and I, who had given up our arms, ought to be shut out of the city.
11. He said that he had been sent from Rome to ${ }^{5}$ inquire into the disposition of the allies.
[^75]
## Exercise 11.

r. The soldiers felt that they had to fight with an implacable enemy.
2. The consul, ${ }^{1}$ thinking that he ought to encourage the soldiers, ${ }^{2}$ ordered the legions to assemble ${ }^{3}$ in arms.
3. The Samnites sent the hostages of the Romans to Luceria to be ${ }^{4}$ kept under guard.
4. He said that he would ${ }^{5}$ give $u p$ the bodies of the slain to their friends to bury.
5. The Greeks thought it a noble deed to free [one's] country by killing a tyrant.
6. The consuls should not have spent the whole of that day in deliberating.
7. The consul, having set out to ${ }^{6}$ go through Apulia, conquered some peoples, received others into alliance on fair terms.
8. The slaughter, horrible to ${ }^{7}$ hear of, was even more horrible to see.
9. We have ${ }^{8} n o$ need of the help of those, who are not ${ }^{9}$ capable of bearing arms.
10. He said that you had ${ }^{10}$ set an example which ought to be imitated by all good men.
11. The tribunes of the plebs were handed over to the fetials with the rest to be led to Caudium.
12. Resisting [one's] passions is more difficult than taking a city.

[^76]

## VOCABULARIES.

Before looking for a word in these Vocabularies, think what part of speech it is. A separate Vocabulary is given for each part of speech. Pronouns which stand for nouns (as the personal pronouns, the relative pronoun, and the interrogative 'who ?') will be found among nouns, while the possessive, demonstrative, and other so-called pronouns which qualify nouns are given among adjectives.

## 1. NOUNS.

Note-All proper names used in the exercises will be found in this Vocabulary except those which, ending in -a or -us, are the same in Latin as in English, and are declined regularly according to the first or second declension.

The genitive of each noun is given, to show how the noun is declined, but not the gender, as this can always be found by applying the rules for genders of nouns.

Ability, ingeri-um, -i.
Abode, domicili-um, -i.
Account, see Chap. VI, Sec. 1.
On account of, see Vocabulary of Prepositions.
Achaean, Achae-us, -i.
Advantage, bon-um, -i.
Advice, consili-um, -i.
Adviser, auctor, -is.
Age, old, senectu-s, -tis.
Aid, auxili-um, -i.
Alban, Alban-us, -i.
Alcibiades, Alcibiad-es, -is.
Alexander, Alexand-er, -ri.
Alliance, societa-s, -tis.
Ally, soci-us, -i.

Alps, Alp-es, -ium.
Altar, ar-a, -ae.
Ambassador, legat-ns, -i.
Ammunition, missili-a, -um.
Ancestors, major-es, -um.
Anger, ir-a, -ae.
Animal, animal, -is.
Anyone (in a negative sentence), quisquam, cujusquam .
Anything (in a negative sentence), quicquam, neut. of quisquam.
Apple, pom-um, -i.
Aristotle, Aristotel-es, -is.
Arms, arm-a, -orum.
Army, exercit-us, -us -
Arrow, sagitt-a, -ae.

Art, ar-s, -tis.
Assistance, auxili-um, -i.
Athenian, Atheniens-is, -is.
Athens, Athen-ae, -arum.
Attention, oper-a, -ae.
Axe, secur-is, -is (abl. -i).
Bank, rip-a, -ae.
Barbarian, barbar-us, -i.
Baseness, turpitud-o, -inis.
Battle, praeli-um, -i.
Beginning, see Chap. vi, Sec. 3.
Behalf of, on, see Vocabulary of Prepositions.
Betrayer, proditor, -is.
Blockade, obsidio, -nis.
Blow, ict-us, -us.
Body, corp-us, -ŏris.
Book, lib-er, -ri.
Bottom, see Chap. vi, Sec. 3.
Boy, puer, -i.
Bracelet, armill-a, -ae.
Bravery, fortitud-o, -inis.
Bread, pan-is, -is.
Bridge, pon-s, -tis.
Britain, Britanni-a, -ae.
Brother, frat-er, -ris.
Building, aedifici-um, -i.
Burden, on-us, -eris.
Caesar, Caesar, -is
Calamity, calamita-s, -tis.
Camp, castr-a, -orum.
Campanian, Campan-us, -i.
Capitol, Capitoli-um, -i.
Captive, captiv-us, -i.
Care, cur-a, -ae.
Carthage, Carthag-o, -inis.
Carthaginian, Poen-us, -i.
Cavalry, equitat-us, -us.
Centre, see Chap. vi, Sec. 3.
Centurion, centurio, -nis.
Century, secul-um, -i.
Children, libér-i, orum.
Cicero, Cicero, -nis.
Circumstance, re-s, -i.
Citadel, ar-x, -cis.
Citizen, civ-is, -is.

City, urb-s, -is.
Coast, or-a, -ae.
Cohort, cohor-s, -tis.
Colleague, colleg-a, ae.
Comet, comet-es, -ae.
Command, imperi-um, -i.
Commander, imperator, -is.
Condition, conditio, -nis.
Conference, colloqui-um, -i.
Confidence, fiduci-a, -ae.
Confusion, trepidatio, -nis.
Conqueror, victor, -is.
Conspirator, conjurator ${ }_{2}$-is.
Consul, consul, -is.
Consulship, consulat-us, -us.
Contest, certam-en, -inis.
Control over, without, see Vocabulary of Adjectives.
Corinth, Corinth-us, -i.
Corn, frument-um, -i.
Countenance, vult-us, -us.
Country (=native land), patri-a, -ae.
Country (as opposed to ' town'), ru-s, -ris.
Country-house, vill-a, -ae.
Countryman ( $=$ fellow-countryman), civ-is, -is.
Coward, ignav-us, -i .
Cowardice, ignavi-a, -ae.
Crime, scel-us, -eris.
Cunctator, Cunctator, -is.
Cursor, Cursor, -is.
Damage, damn-um, -i.
Danger, pericul-um, -i.
Daughter, fili-a, -ae.
Day, die-s, -i.
Deal, a good, see Chap. v, Sec. 2.
Death, mor-s, -tis.
Decemvirs, decemvir-i, -orum.
Decree, decret-um, -i.
Deed, fact-um, -i.
Defeat, clad-es, -is.
Defence, praesidi-um, -i.
Deliverer, liberator, -is.
Deserter, transfug-a, -ae.

Desire, cupid-o, -inis.
Destruction, exiti-um, -i.
Device, artifici-um, -i.
Dictator, dictator, -is.
Difference, to make a, see Chap. vi, Sec. 2.
Diligence, diligenti-a, -ae.
Disgrace, ignomini-a, -ae.
Disposition, anim-us, -i.
District, regio, -nis.
Ditch, foss-a, -ae.
Duty, offici-um, -i ; it is the duty of, see Chap. vi, Sec. 2.

Eagerness, alacrita-s, -tis.
Earth, terr-a, -ae.
Elephant, elephant-us, -i.
Eloquence, eloquenti-a, -ae.
End, see Chap. vi, Sec. 3.
Energy, alacrita-s, -tis.
Engine, machin-a, -ae.
England, Angli-a, -ae.
Euphrates, Euphrat-es, -is.
Evil, mal-um, -i.
Example, exempl-um, -i.
Eye, ocul-us, - i.
Farm-house, vill-a, -ae.
Father, pat-er, -ris.
Fault, culp-a, -ae.
Fear, timor, -is.
Feeling, sens-us, -us.
Felix, Feli-x, -cis.
Fellow-soldier, commilito, -nis.
Fetial, fetial-is, -is.
Fight, pugn-a, -ae.
Fire, incendi-um, -i.
Firmness, constanti-a, -ae.
Fleet, class-is, -is.
Food, cib-us, -i.
Fool, stult-us, -i.
Foot, pe-s, -dis.
Force, vis, acc. vim, abl. vi.
Forces, copi-ae, -arum.
Foresight, providenti-a, -ae.
Fort, castell-um, -i.
Fortification, munitio, -nis.
Fortitude, fortitud-o, -inis.

Fortune, fortun-a, -ae.
Fraud, frau-s, -dis.
Friend, amic-us, -i.
Front, see Chap. vi, Sec. 3.
Ganges, Gang-es, -is.
Garden, hort-us, -i.
Gate, port-a, -ae.
Gaul (name of country), Galli-a, -ae.
Gaul (inhabitant of the country), Gall-us, -i.
General, du-x, -cis; imperator, -is.
Genius, ingeni-um, -i.
Gift, don-um, -i.
Glory, glori-a, -ae.
God, De-us, -i.
Goods, bon-a, -orum.
Goodwill, volunta-s, -tis.
Greece, Graeci-a, -ae.
Greek, Graec-us, -i.
Groan, gemit-us, -us.
Ground, terr-a, -ae; hum-us, -i.
Hannibal, Hannibal, -is.
Hasdrubal, Hasdrubal, -is.
Hatred, odi-um, -i.
Health, valetud-o, -inis.
Hearth, foc-us, -i .
Heir, here-s, -dis.
Help, auxili-um, - i .
Herb, herb-a, -ae.
Hill, coll-is, -is.
Himself (in apposition with a noun), ips-e, -ius.
Himself (in any case except nominative ; referring to subject of the clause), se, sui, etc.
Home, dom-us, -us.
Honour, honor, -is.
Hope, spe-s, -i.
Horace, Horati-us, -i.
Horse, equ-us, -i.
Horseman, equ-es, -itis.
Hostage, obs-es, -idis.
Hour, hor-a, -ae.

House, dom-us, -us.
Hunger, fam-es, -is.
Ignominy, ignomini-a, -ae.
Ill, mal-um, -i.
Importance, see Chap. Vi, Secs. 1 and 2.
Individuals, singul-i, -orum.
Infantry, peditat-us, -us.
Influence, auctorita-s, -tis.
Injury (=harm), detriment-um, -i,
Injury (=wrong), injuri-a, -ae.
Insult, contumeli-a,-ae.
Island, insul-a, -ae.
Italy, Itali-a, -ae.
Journey, it-er, -ineris.
Kind, gen-us, -eris.
Kindness, benevolenti-a, -ae.
King, re-x, -gis.
Kingdom, regn-um, -i.
Knowledge, scienti-a, -ae.
Labour, labor, -is.
Lacedaemonian, Lacedaemonius, -i .
Lake, lac-us, -us.
Land (=country), terr-a, -ae.
Lands, agr-i, -orum.
Language, lingu-a, -ae.
Latin, Latin-us, -i.
Law, le-x, -gis.
Leader, du-x, -cis.
Learning, doctrin-a, -ae.
Legion, legio, -nis.
Leisure, oti-um, - -1.
Lesbos, Lesb-us, -i.
Letter (of the alphabet), litter-a, -ae.
Letter ( = epistle), litter-ae, -arum ; epistol-a, -ae.
Levy, delect-us, -us.
Liberty, liberta-s, -tis.
Lictor, lictor, -is.
Lieutenant, legat-us, -i.
Life, vit-a, -ae. .

Limb, membr-um, -i.
Line of battle, acie-s, -i.
Line of march, agm-en, -innis.
Literature, litter-ae, -arum.
Little, a (qualifying a comparative or superlative), see Chap. v , Sec. 2.
Livy, Livi-us, -i.
London, Londini-um, -i.
Lord, domin-us, -i.
Loss, clad-es, -is.
Lot, sor-s, -tis.
Love, amor, -is.
Lover, use pres. part. of amo.
Macedonian, Maced-o, -ŏnis.
Magistrate, magistrat-us, -us.
Maidservant, serv-a, -ae.
Man (as opposed to woman), vir, -i.
Man (=human being), hom-o, -ĭnis.
Manners, mor-es, -um.
Mark of, it is a, see Chap. vi, Sec. 2.
Master (=schoolmaster), magister, -ri.
Matter, re-s, -i.
Means, by no, see Vocabulary of Adverbs.
Meat, car-o, -nis.
Mercy, clementi-a, -ae.
Midst of, in the, see Vocabulary of Prepositions.
Miles, millia passuum, lit. thousands of paces.
Mind, anim-us, -i.
Misery, miseri-a, -ae.
Money, pecuni-a, -ae.
Month, mens-is, -is.
Mother, mat-er, -ris.
Mound, tumul-us, -i.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Mount } \\ \text { Mountain }\end{array}\right\}$ mon-s, -tis.
Multitude, multitud-o, -inis.
Myself (in any case except nominative; referring to subject of the clause), me, mei, etc.

Name, nom-en, -inis.
Naples, Neapol-is, -is.
Nation, gen-s, -tis.
Nature of, it is the, see Chap. vi, Sec. 2.
Need of, to have, see Chap. v, Sec. 3 .
Neglect, negligenti-a, -ae.
News, nunci-us, -i.
Nobody $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { nem-o, acc. -inem. For } \\ \text { the gen. and abl. nul- }\end{array}\right.$
No one lius and nullo are used.
Nothing, nihil, indeclinable.
Number, numer-us, -i.
Oar, rem-us, -i.
Obligation, religio, -nis.
Obstinacy, pertinaci-a, -ae.
Office, magistrat-us, -us.
Old age, senectu-s, -tis.
Old man, sen-ex, -is.
Opinion, sententi-a, -ae.
Opportunity, occasio, -nis.
Pace, pass-us, -us.
Pain, dolor, -is.
Pardon, veni-a, -ae.
Parent, paren-s, -tis.
Part, par-s, -tis; it is the part of, see Chap. vi, Sec. 2.
Pass, salt-us, -us.
Passion, appetit-us, -us.
Patience, patienti-a, -ae.
Peace, pa-x, -cis.
Penalty, poen-ae, -arum.
People ( = nation), popul-us, -i.
Persian, Pers-a, -ae.
Pestilence, pest-is, -is.
Philip, Philipp-us, -i.
Philosopher, philosoph-us, -i.
Philosophy, philosophi-a, -ae.
Piety, pieta-s, -tis.
Pity, misericordi-a, -ae.
Plain, camp-us, -i.
Plan, consili-um, -i.
Plato, Plato, -nis.
Pleasure, volupta-s, -tis.

Plebs, pleb-s, -is.
Plunder, praed-a, -ae.
Pluto, Pluto, -nis.
Po, Pad-us, -i.
Pompey, Pompei-us, -i.
Pontiff, pontif-ex, -icis.
Possession of, to gain or get; see Vocabulary of Verbs.
Post, statio, -nis.
Power, potenti-a, -ae.
Praise, lau-s, -dis.
Prefect, praefect-us, -i.
Present, don-um, -i.
Prey, praed-a, -ae.
Property, cens-us, -us.
Proserpine, Proserpin-a, -ae.
Protection, tutel-a, -ae.
Province, provinci-a, -ae.
Provisions, commeat-us, -uum.
Prudence, prudenti-a, -ae.
Punishment, poen-a, -ae.
Pupil, discipul-us, -i.
Rampart, agger, -is.
Rashness, temerita-s, -tis.
Readiness, alacrita-s, -tis.
Rear, see Chap. vi, Sec. 3.
Remedy, remedi-um, -i.
Rest, the, ceter-i, -orum; the rest of, see Chap. vi, Sec. 3.
Retreat, recept-us, -us.
Reward, praemi-um, -i.
Rhone, Rhodan-us, -i.
Riches, diviti-ae, -arum.
River, flum-en, -inis.
Rock, rup-es, -is.
Roman, Roman-us, -i.
Rome, Rom-a, -ae.
Root, radi-x, -cis.
Rush, impet-us, -us.

Sabine, Sabin-us, -i.
Safety, salu-s, -tis.
Sake of, for the, causâ (abl. of causa), with gen. before it.
Samnite, Samni-s, -tis.
Samos, Sam-us, -i.

Sapiens, Sapien-s, -tis.
Scarcity, inopi-a,-ae.
Scipio, Scipio, -nis.
Scout, explorator, -is.
Sea, mar-e, -is.
Senate, senat-us, -us.
Sentinel
Sentry vigil, -is.
Service, us-us, -us.
Shame, pudor, -is.
Shield, clipe-us, -i.
Ship, nav-is, -is.
Shout, clamor, -is.
Sign of, it is a, see Chap. vi, Sec. 2.
Signal, sign-um, -i.
Sister, soror, -is.
Skill, scienti-a, -ae.
Skin, pell-is, -is.
Slaughter, caed-es, -is.
Slave, serv-us, -i.
Slavery, servitu-s, -tis.
Sling, fund-us, -i.
Socrates, Socrat-es, -is.
Soldier, mil-es, -itis.
Something, aliquid (neut. of aliquis).
Son, fili-us, -i.
Sorrow, dolor, -is.
Spartan, Lacedaemoni-us, -i.
Spear, hast-a, -ae.
Speech (=language), lingu-a, -ae.
Speech ( = oration), oratio, -nis.
Spirit, anim-us, -i.
Spoils, spoli-a, -orum.
Sport, ludibri-um, -i.
Spot (= place), loc-us, -i.
Standard, sign-um, -i.
State (=commonwealth), respublica, reipublicae.
Statue, statu-a, -ae.
Stature, statur-a, -ae.
Stoic, Stoic-us, -i.
Storm, tempesta-s, -tis.
Strength, vir-es, -ium.
Summer, aesta-s, -tis.
Supplies, commeat-us, -uum.
Support, subsidi-um, -i.

Surname, cognom-en, -inis.
Surrender, deditio, -nis.
Swiftness, celerita-s, -tis.
Sword, gladi-us, i.
Talent, ingeni-um, -i.
Talkativeness, loquacita-s, -tis.
Tarentine, Tarentin-us, -i.
Tarquin, Tarquini-us, -i.
Task, op-us, -eris.
Temple, templ-um, -i.
Terms, condition-es, -um.
Territory, fin-es, -ium (lit. borders).
Terror, terror, -is.
Thebes, Theb-ae, -arum.
Themselves, see ' himself.'
Thermopylae, Thermopyl-ae, -arum.
Thing, re-s, -i.
Thousands, milli-a, -um.
Tiber, Tiber-is, -is.
Tigris, Tigr-is, -is.
Time, temp-us, -ŏris.
Title, nom-en, -inis.
Toil, labor, -is.
Top, see Chap. vi, Sec. 3 .
Tower, turr-is, -is.
Town, oppid-um, -i.
Treachery
Treason proditio, -nis.
Treaty, foed-us, -eris.
Tree, arbor, -is.
Tribune, tribun-us, -i.
Two days, bidu-um, -i.
Tyrant, tyrann-us, -i.
Undertaking, incept-um, -i.
Use, us-us, -us.
Valley, vall-is, -is.
Valour, virtu-s, -tis.
Value, see Chap. vi, Sec. I.
Varro, Varro, -nis.
Victory, victori-a, -ae.
Virtue, virtu-s, -tis.
Voice, vo-x, -cis.

Volscian, Volsc-us, -i.
Vote, suffragi-um, -i.
Wall, mur-us, -i.
Want of, to be in, see Vocabulary of Verbs.
War, bell-um, -i.
Warfare, militi-a, -ae.
Way, vi-a, -ae.
Weapon, tel-um, -i.
Welfare, salu-s, -tis.
Which, relative, qui, quae, quod.
Who, interrogative, quis, cujus.
Who, relative, qui, quae, quod.
Wife, uxor, -is.
Will, volunta-s, -tis.
Wing (of an army), corn-u, -us.
Winter, hiem-s, -is.
Winter quarters, hibern-a,
-orum.

Wisdom, sapienti-a, -ae.
Woman, mulier, -is.
Wool, lan-a, -ae.
Word, verb-um, - i .
Work, op-us, -eris.
Worth, see Chap. vi, Sec. I.
Writer, scriptor, -is.
Wrong, injuri-a, -ae.
Year, ann-us, -i.
Young man, adolescen-s, -tis.
Yourself (in apposition with ' you'), ips-e, -a, -um.
Yourself (in any case except the nominative; referring to subject of the clause), te, tui, etc.
Youth, juvent-a, -ae.
Zeal, studi-um, -i.

## 2. ADJECTIVES.

[In this Vocabulary will be found all words used in the exercises which qualify nouns, including the possessive, demonstrative, and some other so-called pronouns.]

Able, to be, see Vocabulary of Verbs.
Accused, re-us, -a, -um.
Aegean, Aegae-us, -a, -um.
Agreed, it is, see Vocabulary of Verbs.
All, omn-is, -e.
Alone, sol-us, -a, -um.
Angry, irat-us, -a, -um; to be angry, see Vocabulary of Verbs.
Appian, Appi-us, -a, -um.
Ashamed, to be, see Chap. vi, Sec. 5 .

Bad, mal-us, -a, -um.
Base, turp-is, -e.
Beautiful, pulch-er, -ra, -rum.
Bereft, orb-us, -a, -um.

Blind, caec-us, -a, -um.
Born, see Vocabulary of Verbs.
Brave, fort-is, -e.
Broad, lat-us, -a, -um.

Capable of enduring, pres. part. of patior, see Chap. vi, Sec. 4.
Captive, captiv-us, -a, -um.
Cautious, caut-us, -a, -um.
Certain ( $=$ sure), cert-us, -a, -um.
Cheerful, alac-er, -ris, -re.
Confident, to be, see Vocabulary of Verbs.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Content } \\ \text { Contented }\end{array}\right\}$ content-us, -a, -um.
Control over, without, im-poten-s, gen. -tis.

Dangerous, periculos-us, -a , -um.
Dead, mortu-us, -a, -um.
Deaf, surd-us, -a, -um.
Dear, car-us, -a, -um.
Deep, alt-us, -a, -um.
Desirable, optabil-is, -e.
Desirous, cupid-us, -a, -um.
Difficult, difficil-is, -e.
Disgraceful, turp-is, -e.
Disgusted with, to be, see Chap. vi, Sec. 5.
Distant, to be, see Vocabulary of Verbs.
Distinguished, insign-is, -e.
Dumb, mut-us, -a, -um.
Easy, facil-is, -e.
Elated, elat-us, -a, -um.
Elder, maj-or, -us (with or without ' natu').
Endued, praedit-us, -a, -um.
Enough, satis, indeclinable; see Chap. vi, Sec. 3.
Evident, it is, see Vocabulary of Verbs.
Evil, mal-us, -a, -um.
Excellent, egregi-us, -a, -um.
Fair, aequ-us, -a, -um.
False, fals-us, -a, -um.
Fertile, fecund-us, -a, -um.
Few, pauc-i, -ae, -a.
Fifteen, quindecim, indeclinable.
Fifty, quinquaginta, indeclinable.
First, prim-us, -a, -um.
Following (qualifying 'day'), poster-us, -a, -um.
Foreign, extern-us, -a, -um.
Forgetful, immemor, gen. -is.
Former, pri-or, -us.
Free, liber, -a, -um.
Friendly, amic-us, -a, -um.
Frull, plen-us, -a, -um.
Glorious, praeclar-us, -a, -um.
Good, bon-us, -a, -um.
Great, magn-us, -a, -um.

Greek, Graec-us, -a, -um.
Guilty, son-s, gen. -tis.
Happy, beat-us, -a, -um.
Heavy, grav-is, -e.
High, alt-us, -a, -um ; of high value, see Chap. vi, Sec. I.
His (referring to subject of clause), su-us, -a, -um.
His (not referring to subject of clause), genitive of is, ea, id.
Horrible, foed-us, -a, -um.
Humble, humil-is, -e.
Illustrious, clar-us, -a, -um.
Implacable, implacabil-is, -e.
Important, to be, see Chap. VI, Sec. 2.
Inactive, iner-s, gen. -tis.
Injurious, to be, see Vocabulary of Verbs.
Innocent, innocen-s, gen. -tis.
Lacedaemonian, Lacedaemonius, -a, -um.
Land, pedest-er, -ris, -re.
Large, magn-us, -a, -um.
Latin, Latin-us, -a, -um.
Learned, doct-us, -a, -um.
Less, see Chap. VI, Sec. 3; at least, see Vocabulary of Adverbs.
Ligurian, Ligustic-us, -a, -um.
Like, simil-is, -e.
Little, see Chap. vi, Sec. 3.
Long, long-us, -a, -um.
Loud, magn-us, -a, -um.
Low, humil-is, -e.
Many, mult-i, -ae, -a.
Mindful, memor, gen.-is.
Moderate, modic-us, -a, -um.
Mountain, montan-us, -a, -um.
Much, mult-us, -a, -um; too much, nimi-us, -a, -um, see Chap. vi, Sec. 3.

Narrow, angust-us, -a, -um.

Nearest, proxim-us, -a, -um.
Neglectful; pres. part. ofneglig-o, -ĕre, see Chap. vi, Sec. 4.
New, nov-us, -a, -um.
Next (=following), poster-us, -a, -um.
No, null-us, -a, -um. See also Chap. vi, Sec. 3.
Noble, praeclar-us, -a, -um.
None, null-us, -a, -um.
Old (old man), see Vocabulary of Nouns.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { One } \\ \text { Only }\end{array}\right\}$ un-us, -a, -um.
Other, ali-us, -a, -ud; the other (of two), alter, -a, -um.
Own, see Chap. vi, Sec. I.
Pitiable, miserabil-is, -e.
Pleasant, jucund-us, -a, -um.
Poor, pauper, gen. -is.
Powerful, poten-s, gen. -tis.
Private, privat-us, -a, -um.
Prudent, pruden-s, gen. -tis.
Punic, Punic-us, -a, -um.
Ready, parat-us, -a, -um ; to get ready, see Vocabulary of Verbs.
Relying on, fret-us, -a , -um.
Remarkable, insign-is, -e.
Rich, div-es, gen. -ĭtis.
Right (the opposite of 'left'), dext-er, -ra, -rum.
Roman, Roman-us, -a, -um.
Safe, tut-us, -a, -um.
Same, idem, eadem, idem.
Savage, fer-us, -a, -um.
Sea, maritĭm-us, -a, -um.
Second, secund-us, -a, -um.
Serious, grav-is, -e.
Seven, septem, indeclinable.
Several, aliquot, indeclinable.
Short, brev-is, -e.
Silent, to be, see Vocabulary of Verbs.
Single, see Chap. vi, Sec. I.

Six, sex, indeclinable.
Skilful, perit-us, -a, -um.
Sluggish, pig-er; -ra, -rum.
Small, parv-us, -a, -um.
So great, tant-us, -a, -um.
So many, tot, indeclinable.
Soft, moll-is, -e.
Some, nonnull-i, -ae, -a; some

- others, ali-i - ali-i (-ae, -a).

Spartan, Lacedaemoni-us,-a,-um.
Strange, inusitat-us, -a, -um.
Strong, robust-us, -a , -um.
Successful, feli-x, gen. -cis.
Such, tal-is, -e.
Suited, apt-us, -a, -um.
Sweet, dulc-is, -e.
Tarpeian, Tarpei-us, -2 , -um.
Ten, decem, indeclinable.
Tenth, decim-us, -a, -um.
That (answered by 'which' or ' who'), is, ea, id.
That (contrasted with 'this'), il-le, -la, -lud.
This, hic, haec, hoc.
Their (referring to subject 'of clause), su-us, -a, -um.
Their (not referring to subject of clause), gen. plur. of is, ea, id.
Third, terti-us, -a, -um.
Thirty, triginta, indeclinable.
Three, tr-es, -ia.
Three hundred, trecent-i, -ae, -a.
Tired, fess-us, -a, -um.
Too little
Too much $\}$ see Chap. vi, Sec. 3.
Troublesome, molest-us, -a, -um.
True, ver-us, -a, -um.
Two, du-o, -ae, -o.
Two days, see Vocabulary of Nouns.
Two hundred, ducent-i, -ae, -a.
Unfriendly, inimic-us, -a, -um.
Ungrateful, ingrat-us, -a, -um.
Unharmed, incolum-is, -e.
Unhealthy, insalubr-is, -e.
Unheard, inaudit-us, -a, -um.

Unknown, incognit-us, -a, -um.
Unlike, dissimil-is, -e.
Unoccupied, vacu-us, -a, -um.
Unwilling, to be, see Vocabulary of Verbs.
Unworthy, indign-us, -a, -um.
Useful, util-is, -e.
Useless, inutil-is, -e.
Wanting, to be, see Vocabulary of Verbs.
Warm, calid-us, -a, -um.
Waste, to lay, see Vocabulary of Verbs.
Weak, infirm-us, -a, -um.
Weary, to be, see Chap. vi, Sec. 5.

Weighty, grav-is, -e.
What, interrogative, qui, quae, quod.
Whole, tot-us, -a, -um.
Winter (winter quarters), see Vocabulary of Nouns.
Wise, sapien-s, gen. -tis.
Without control over, impo-ten-s, gen. -tis.
Wonderful, mir-us, -a, -um.
Wont, to be, see Vocabulary of Verbs.
Worthy, dign-us, -a, -um.
Young (young man), see Vocabulary of Nouns.

## 3. VERBS.

[Where only the pres. indic. and infin. of a verb are given, the perf. and sup. may be formed regularly.]

Able, to be, pos-sum, -se, potui, no sup.
Abound, abund-o, -are.
Accomplish, per-fic-io, -ěre, -fec-i, -tum.
Accuse, accus-o, -are.
Acquit, ab-solv-o, -ěre, -i, -solutum.
Advance, pro-gred-ior, -i, -gressus sum.
Affirm, affirm-o, -are.
Agreed, it is, const-at, -are, -ritit.
Alarm, perterr-eo, -ēre.
Allow, pat-ior, -i, passus sum.
Amend, cor-rig-o, -ĕre, -rexi, -rectum.
Angry, to be, irasc-or, -i, iratus sum.
Announce, nunci-o, -are.
Answer, respon-deo, -dēre, -di, -sum.
Appoint, con-stitu-o, -ěre, -i, -stitutum.
Approach, appropinqu-o, -are.

Approve, prob-o, -are.
Arm, arm-o, -are.
Arrive, ad-věn-io, -ire, -vēn-i, -tum.
Ashamed, to be, see Chap. Vi, Sec. 5 .
Ask, rog-o, -are.
Assail, oppugn-o, -are.
Assemble, con-věn-io, -ire, -vēn-i, -tum.
Attach, adjun-go, -gĕre, -xi, -ctum. Attack, oppugn-o, -are.
Avenge, ulcisc-or, -i, ultus sum.
Avoid, vit-o, -are.

Bear, fer-o, -re, tuli, latum.
Beat, caed-o, -ěre, cecīdi, caesum.
Become, fi-o, -ěri, factus sum.
Believe, cred-o, -ěre, -idi, -itum.
Besiege, ob-sid-eo, -ēre, -sedi, -sessum,
Betray, prod-o, -ěre, -idi, -itum.
Bid, jub-eo, -ēre, juss-i, -um.

Blockade, ob-sid-eo, -ēre, -sedi, -sessum.
Born, to be, nasc-or, -i, natus sum.
Bring, affer-o, -re, attuli, allatum.
Bring on, infer-o, -re, intuli, illatum.
Build, aedific-o, -are.
Burn (intrans.), ar-deo, -dēre, -si, -sum.
Bury, sepel-io, -ire, -ivi, sepultum.
Butcher, trucid-o, -are.
Buy, ěm-o, -ere, èm-i, -ptum.
Call, voc-o, -are.
Can, pos-sum, -se, potui, no sup.
Capture, cap-io, -ĕre, cepi, captum.
Carry away from, aufer-o, -re, abstuli, ablatum.
Cheer, e-rig-o, -ěre, -rexi, -rectum.
Choose, de-lĭg-o, -ěre, -legi, -lectum.
Climb up, scan-do, -děre, -di, -sum.
Come, věn-io, -ire, vēn-i, -tum.
Command, imper-o, -are.
Compel, cog-o, -ěre, co-egi, -actum.
Concerns, it, inter-est, -esse, -fuit ; re-fert, -ferre, -tulit ; see Chap. vi, Sec. 2.
Condemn, damn-o, -are.
Confess, con-fit-eor, -ēri, -fessus sum.
Confident, to be, con-fid-o, -ěre, -fisus sum.
Conquer, vinc-o, -ěre, vic-i, -tum.
Consider, hab-eo, -ēre.
Conspire, conjur-o, -are.
Construct, constru-o, -ěre, -xi, -ctum.
Contain, hab-eo, -ēre.
Convict, con-vinc-o, -ĕre, -vic-i, -tum.
Create, cre-o, -are.

Cross, trans-eo, -ire, -ii, -itum.
Crush, obru-o, -ěre, -i, -tum.
Cry out, clam-o, -are.
Cultivate, col-o, -ěre, -ui, cultum.
Dare, aud-eo, -ēre, ausus sum.
Deceive, de-cip-io, -ĕre, -cep-i, -tum.
Dedicate, dedic-o, -are.
Defeat, pell-o, -ěre, pepuli, pulsum.
Deliberate, deliber-o, -are.
Delight, delect-o, -are.
Demand, posc-o, -ěre, poposci, no sup.
Deny, neg-o, -are.
Depart, disce-do, -děre, -ssi, -ssum.
Deprive, priv-o, -are.
Desert, deser-o, -ěre, -ui, -tum.
Desire, cup-io, -ěre, -ivi, -itum.
Despair, desper-o, -are.
Despise, contem-no, -něre, -psi, -ptum.
Destroy, perd-o, -ěre, -idi, -itum.
Deter, deterr-eo, -ēre.
Determine, stat-uo, -uěre, -ui, -ūtum.
Die, mor-ior, -i, -tuus sum; fut. part. morǐturus.
Disgusted with, to be, see Chap. vi, Sec. 5.
Dismiss, di-mitt-o, -ěre, -mis-i, -sum.
Dispute, disput-o, -are.
Distant, to be, dist-o, -are.
Do, fac-io, -ěre, feci, factum.
Drink, bib-o, -ěre, -i, no sup.
Drive, pell-o, -ĕre, pepuli, pulsum.
Drive back, repell-o, -ěre, reppuli, repulsum.
Dwell, habit-o, -are.
Employ, nt-or, -i , usus sum.
Encourage, hort-or, -ari.
Endure, pat-ior, -i, passus sum.
Enjoy, fru-or, -i, -itus sum.

Enter, in-gred-ior, -i, -gressus sum.
Entrust, com-mitt-o, -ěre, -mis-i, -sum.
Equip, arm-o, -are.
Escape, ef-füg-io, -ěre, -fügi, no stap.; trans. or intrans.
Esteem, aestim-0, -are.
Evident, it is, appar-et, -ēre.
Exchange, mut-o, -are.
Exhort, hort-or, -ari.
Expel, ex-pell-o,-ěre, -pul-i, -sum.
Fail, de-fic-io, -ěre, -fec-i, -tum.
Fall, cad-o, -ěre, cecǐdi, casum.
Favour, fãv-eo, -ēre, fāvi, fautum.
Fear, tim-eo, -ère.
Feed on, vesc-or, -i, no perf. or sup.
Feel, sen-tio, -tire, -si, -sum.
Fight, pugn-o, -are.
Fill, repl-eo, -ēre, -evi, -etum.
Finish, con-fic-io, -ěre, -fec-i, -tum.
Fix, fig-o, -ěre, fix-i, -um.
Flee, fŭg-io, -ĕre, fügi, fügitum.
Flourish, flor-eo, -ère.
Flow past, praeterflu-o, -čre, -xi, -ctum, trans.
Fly, füg-io, -ëre, fügi, fuggitum.
Follow, sequ-or, -i, secutus sum.
Foretell, prae-dic-o, -ěre, -dixi, -dictum.
Forget, oblivisc-or, -i, oblitus sum.
Free, liber-o, -are.
Furnish, instru-o, -ěre, -xi, -ctum.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Gain } \\ \text { Get }\end{array}\right\} \begin{gathered}\text { possession of, pot-ior, } \\ \text {-iri. }\end{gathered}$
Get -iri.
Get ready, exped-io, -ire.
Give, d-o, -ăre, -ědi, -ătum.
Give up, ded-o, -ěre, -idi, -itum.
Go, eo, ire, ivi, itum.
Go away, ab-eo, -ire, -ii, -itum.
Go out, e-gred-ior, -i, -gressus sum.
Grant, d-o, -ăre, -ědi, -ătum.

Grieve, dol-eo, -ēre.
Guard, custod-io, -ire.
Halt, con-sist-o, -ěre, -stiti, no sup.
Hand over, trad-o, -ěre, -idi, -itum.
Happen, accid-o, -ěre, -i, no sup.
Hate, od-i, -isse (perf., with pres. meaning).
Have, hab-eo, -ēre.
Hear, aud-io, -ire.
Hesitate, dubit-o, -are.
Hoard, cond-o, -ëre, -idi, -itum.
Hold, hab-eo, -ēre.
Hope, sper-o, -are.
Imitate, imit-or, -ari.
Impend, impend-eo, -ēre.
Important, to be, see Chap. vi, Sec. 2.
Impose on, im-pon-o, -ěre, -posui, - itum.
Indulge, indul-geo, -gēre, -si, -tum.
Inflict on, in-fer-o, -re, -tuli, illatum.
Injure, noc-eo, -ēre.
Injurious, to be, ob-sum, -esse, -fui, no sup.
Insult, insult-o, -are (lit. to leap on).
Invade, in-vad-o, -ĕre, -vas-i, -um.

Judge, judic-o, -are.
Keep, ten-co, -ēre, -ui, -tam.
Keep off, arc-eo, -ēre.
Kill, inter-fic-io, -ěre, -fec-i, -tum.
Know, sc-io, -ire.
Lay waste, vast-o, -are.
Lead, duc-o, -ěre, duxi, ductum.
Learn, disc-o, -ĕre, didici, no sup.
Leave, re-linqu-o, -ěre, -liqui, -lictum.

Lessen, minu-o, -ěre, -i, minūtum.
Lie (=tell a lie), ment-ior, -iri.
Lie beneath, subjac-eo, -ēre.
Lie between, interjac-eo, -ēre.
Live, viv-o, -ëre, vixi, victum.
Load, cumul-o, -are.
Lose, a-mitt-o, -ěre, -mis-i, -sum.
Love, am-o, -are.
Make, fac-io, -ěre, feci, factum.
Marry (if a man is the subject), duc-o, -ĕre, duxi, ductum.
Marry (if a woman is the subject), nub-o, -ěre, nup-si, -tum, see Chap Iv, Sec. 3 .
Matter, see Chap. vi, Sec. 2.
Mourn, lug-eo, -ēre, luxi, luctum.
Need, eg-eo, -ēre.
Neglect, neg-lig-o, -ěre, -lexi, -lectum.

Obey, par-eo, -ēre.
Order, imper-o, -are.
Overwhelm, obru-o, -ěre, -i, -tum.

Paint, ping-o, -ěre, pinxi, pictum.
Pardon, igno-sco, -scěre, -vi, -tum.
Pay, solv-o, -ĕre, -i, solutum.
Pay attention, operam d-o, -are, -edi, -atum.
Perceive, sent-io,-ire, sens-i, -um.
Perform (a duty), fung-or, - $i$, functus sum.
Perish, per-eo, -ire, -ii, -itum.
Pitch (a camp), pon-o, -ĕre, posui, -itum.
Pity, see Chap. vi, Sec. 5.
Place, pon-o, -ěre, pos-ui, -itum.
Place before, ante-pon-o, -ĕre, -pos-ui, -itum.
Place on, im-pon-o, -ěre, -pos-ui, -itum.
Place round, circumd-o, -are, -edi, -atum.
Place under, sub-jic-io -ěre, -jec-i, -tum.

Play, lud-o, -ěre, lus-i, -um.
Please, plac-eo, -ēre.
Praise, laud-o, -are.
Predict, prae-dic-o, -ěre, -dixi, -dictum.
Prefer, mal-o, -le, -ui, no sup.
Preserve, serv-o, -are.
Preside over, prae-sum, -esse, -fui.
Pretend, simul-o, -are.
Prize, see Chap. vi, Sec. r.
Produce, fer-o, -re, tuli, latum.
Promise, pollic-eor, -èri.
Provide, pro-vĭd-eo, -ēre, -vidi, -visum.
Provoke, lacess-o, -ěre, -ivi, -itum.
Punish, pun-io, -ire.
Pursue, sequ-or, -i, secutus sum.
Read, lĕg-o, -ěre, lēgi, lectum.
Recall, revoc-o, -are.
Receive, ac-cip-io, -ĕre, -cep-i, -tum.
Reckon, numer-o, -are.
Reconnoitre, explor-o, -are.
Recover, re-cip-io, -erre, -cep-i, -tum.
Refuse, neg-o, -are.
Reign, regn-o, -are.
Rejoice, gaud-eo, -ēre, gavisus sum.
Release, solv-o, -ěre, -i, solutum.
Remain, man-eo, -ère, -si, -sum.
Remember, reminisc-or, $-i$, no perf.; memin-i, -isse, no sup. (perf. with pres. meaning).
Remind, admon-eo, -ēre.
Repent, see Chap. vi, Sec. 5.
Report, nunci-o, -are.
Resign, see Chap. v, Sec. 7.
Resist, re-sist-o, -ĕre, -stiti, no sup.
Return, red-eo, -ire, -ii, -itum.
Rob, spoli-o, -are.
Rouse, excit-o, -are.
Rout, fund-o, -ěre, fudi, fusum.
Run, curr-o, -ĕre, cucurri, cursum.

Run down, de-curr-o, -ěre, -curri or -cucurri, -cursum.

Satisfy, satis-fac-io, -ěre, -feci, -factum.
Save, serv-o, -are.
Say, dic-o, -ĕre, dixi, dictum.
See, vĭd-eo, -ēre, vīdi, visum.
Seek, pet-o, -ĕre, -ivi, -ītum.
Seem, videor, pass. of video, I see.
Select, de-lig-o, -ěre, -legi, -lectum.
Sell, vend-o, -ěre, -idi, -itrm.
Send, mitt-o, -ěre, mīs-i, -sum.
Send away, di-mitt-o, -ěre, -mís-i, -sum.
Separate, di-vǐd-o, -ĕre, -vīs-i, -um.
Serve, serv-io, -ire.
Set out, proficisc-or, -i, profectus sum.
Set over, prae-fic-io, -ěre, -fec-i, -tum.
Shout, clam-o, -are.
Show, monstr-o, -are.
Shut out, ex-clud-o, -ĕre, -clus-i, -um.
Silent, to be, sil-eo, -ēre.
Sin, pecc-o, -are.
Sit, sěd-eo, -ēre, sēdi, sessum.
Slay, caed-o, -ěre, cecīdi, caesum.
Smite, fer-io, -ire, no perf. or sup.
Spare, parc-o, -ĕre, peperci, parsum.
Speak, loqu-or, -i, locutus sum.
Spend, consum-o, -ěre, -psi, -ptum.
Spoil, spoli-o, -are.
Stand, st-o, -are, -eti, -atum.
Start, proficisc-or, -i, profectus sum.
Stay, commor-or, -ari.
Storm, expugn-o, -are.
Strike, per-cut-io, -ĕre, -cuss-i, -um.
Succour, succur-ro, -rĕre, -ri, -sum.

Suffer, pat-ior, -i, passus sum.
Sup, caen-o, -are.
Surprise, op-prim-o, -ěre, -press-i, -um.
Surrender, trans., ded-o, -ĕre, -idi, -itum.
Suspect, suspic-or, -ari.
Swear, jur-o, -are.
Take, cap-io, -ěre, cepi, captum.
Take away from, ad-im-o, -ěre, -emi, -emptum.
Taste, gust-o, -are.
Teach, doc-eo, -ēre, -ui, -tum.
Tear from, ab-rip-io, -ĕre, -ni, -reptum.
Tell, dic-o, -ĕre, dixi, dictum.
Think, put-o, -are; reor, reri, ratus sum.
Threaten, min-or, -ari.
Throw down, de-jic-io,-ĕre, -jec-i, -tum.
Throw round, circum-jic-io, -ĕre, -jec-i, -tum.
Touch, tang-o, -ĕre, tetigi, tactum.
Trouble, vex-o, -are.
Trust, con-fid-o, -ĕre, -fisus sum.
Turn, intr., vert-or, -i, versus sum.
Undertake, sus-cip-io,-ĕre, -cep-i, -tum.
Unwilling, to be, nol-o, -le, -ui, no sup.
Use, ut-or, -i, usus sum.
Visit, vis-o, -ĕre, -i, -um.
Walk, ambul-o, -are.
Want of, to be in, eg-eo, -ēre.
Wanting, to be, de-sum, -esse, -fui.
Waste, to lay, vast-o, -are.
Weary of, to be, see Chap. vi, Sec. 5 .
Weep over, illacrim-o, -are.
Willing, to be, volo, velle, volui, no sup.

Win, par-io, -ěre, peperi, partum.
Wish, volo, velle, volui, no sup.
Without, to be, car-eo, -ēre.
Wont, to be, sol-eo,-ēre,-itus sum.

Wound, vulner-o, -are.
Write, scrib-o, -ĕre, scrip-si, -tum.
Yield, ced-o, -ëre, cess-i, -um.

## 4. ADVERBS.

About (=nearly), circiter.
Afterwards, postea.
Almost, fere.
Alone, tantum.
Already, jam.
Also, etiam.
Always, semper.
At least, certe.
At once ( $=$ at the same time), simul.
Away, to earry, go, send, take, see Vocabulary of Verbs.

Back, to drive, see Vocabulary of Verbs.
Before, antea.
By no means, nequaquam.
Down, to run, to throw, see Vocabulary of Verbs.

Entirely, omnino.
Equally, pariter.
Even, etiam.
Ever (in a negative sentence), unquam.
Everywhere, ubique.
Fiercely, acriter.
First, primum.
Formerly, quondam.
Here, hic.
Highly, see Chap. vi, Sec. 1
However (qualifying an adjective), quamvis.

Immediately, statim.
Justly, jure (lit. with right), abl. of jus.

Less, minus.
Little, a (qualifying a comp. or superl.), see Chap. v, Sec. 2.
Long, diu.
Much, multum.
Much (qualifying a comp. or superl.), see Chap. v, Sec. 2.

Never, nunquam.
No (qualifying a comp.), see Chap. v , Sec. 2.
Not, non.
Not yet, nondum.
Now, nunc.
Off, to keep, see Vocabulary of Verbs.
Often, saepe.
Once, at (=at the same time), simul.
Only, solum.
Out, to cry, to go, see Vocabulary of Verbs.

Prosperously, prospere.
Rather, magis.
Rightly, see Chap. v, Sec. I.
Scarcely, vix.
So (qualifying an adjective), tam. So great $\}$ see Vocabulary of AdSo many $\}$ jectives.
Soon, mox.
Still, adhuc.
Stubbornly, pertinaciter.
Suddenly, subito.
Then, tum.
Thence, inde.

There, ibi.
Too (qualifying an adjective or another adverb), nimium.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Too little } \\ \text { Too much }\end{array}\right\}$ see Chap.vi, Sec. 3 .

Up, to climb, to give, see Vocabulary of Verbs.

Well, bene.
Wisely, sapienter.
Wrongly, see Chap. v, Sec. I.
Yet, not, nondum.

## 5. Prepositions.

About (= concerning), de.
After, post.
Against, adversus.
At, ad.
Before (=in front of), pro.
Before (of time), ante.
Between, inter.
By ( = near), ad.
By (depending on a passive verb, to show the person by whom something is done), a or ab.
For ( = in defence of), pro.
From, a or ab.
From (=out of), e or ex.
From (=down from), de.
In, in.
In the midst of, inter.

Inside, intra.
Into, in.
Near, prope.
On account of, propter.
On behalf of, pro.
Out of, ex.
To (implying motion, or $=$ as far as), ad.
To (not implying motion), generally expressed by the dative.

With, cum.
Without, sine; to be without, see Vocabulary of Verbs; without control over, see Vocabulary of Adjectives.

## 6. CONJUNCTIONS.

After, postquam.
Because, quod.
Before, antequam.
Both - and, et - et.
But, sed.
Either - or, aut - aut.
Except, nisi.
For, nam.
If, si.
Lest, ne.

Neither - nor, nec - nec.
Or, aut.
Since, quoniam.
Than, quam.
That (=in order that), at.
Unless, nisi.
When, quum.
Where, ubi.
While, dum.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ The word 'noun' is used throughout this book to include substantival pronouns, 'adjective' to include adjectival pronouns and par1 ticiples.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ Unless it is put in to show who is being addressed, in which case it is of course a vocative.
    ${ }^{2}$ When the word 'thing' has an adjective qualifying it, it may generally be left out in turning into Latin, if it is in the nominative or accusative, and the adjective must then be put in the neuter gender.
    ${ }^{3}$ A possessive adjective should generally be left out in turning into Latin, if the meaning is quite clear without it. Here there can be no doubt whose friend is meant, therefore 'his' may be left out.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ In making the answer to the question, it is necessary to repeat the verb, or the reason for the case of the relative pronoun will not be made clear.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ When the word 'man' has an adjective qualifying it, it may generally be left out in turning into Latin, the adjective of course being put in the masculine gender.
    ${ }^{2}$ 'Not' in a question should generally be translated by ' nonne.'
    ${ }^{3}$ Quidvis.
    ${ }^{4}$ Pro.

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ Hostes, plur. This word always signifies an enemy of one's country.
    ${ }^{2}$ Quidvis. ${ }^{3}$ Pro.
    ${ }^{4}$ Inimicus (a personal enemy).
    ${ }^{6}$ Tribu-o, -ěre, -i, tribūtum.
    ${ }^{5}$ See n. I.
    ${ }^{7}$ Pro.

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ Notice that in Latin the first person is put before the second or third, in English we generally use the reverse order.

[^6]:    ${ }^{1} \mathrm{Ab}$, used with a pass. verb to show the person by whom something
    is done.
    ${ }^{3}$ Ad.
    ${ }^{5}$ Pueri.
    ${ }^{2}$ Orbilius is the master's name.
    ${ }^{4}$ Lngeo, I mourn for, trans.
    ${ }^{6}$ Liber-0, -āre, I set free.

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ Instru-o, -ěre, -xi, -ctum.
    ${ }^{3}$ Trad-o, -ěre, -idi, -itum.
    ${ }^{5}$ Fug-o, -āre, I put to flight.
    ${ }^{7}$ Suspen-do, -děre, -di, -sum.

[^8]:    ${ }^{2}$ Res secundae.

    * Adst-o, -are, I stand by.
    ${ }^{6}$ Valeo, I am in good health.

[^9]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Ex. 5, n. 5.
    ${ }^{2}$ Incen-do, -děre, -di, -sum, I set on fire.
    ${ }^{3}$ Ir-rump-o, -ěre, -rup-i, -tum. ${ }^{4}$ In.
    ${ }^{5}$ Magister equitum. ${ }^{6}$ Strag-es, -is. : Fac-io, -ěre, fêci, factum.

[^10]:    ${ }^{1}$ When there is a 'not' in a clause introduced by 'that' depending on the verb 'say,' use 'neg-o' (-āre), I deny, for the principal verb, and leave out the ' not.'
    ${ }^{2}$ This is a verb expressing a statement of $a$ fact, as it implies that some one will say that which we shall hear. -
    ${ }^{3}$ See Chap. i, Ex. 6, n. 3.
    ${ }^{4}$ Excub-o, -āre, I keep watch.

[^11]:    ${ }^{1}$ Possum. $\quad{ }^{2}$ Say ' many things.' ${ }^{3}$ Summus.
    ${ }^{4}$ See Chap. i, Ex. 2, n. 2.
    ${ }^{5}$ E-vad-o, -ĕre, -vas-i, -um, I turn ont, i.e. prove to be.

[^12]:    ${ }^{1}$ In a clause depending on a verb expressing a belief or statement of a fact, the personal pronouns 'he,' 'she,' 'it,' 'they,' must be translated by 'se,' and the possessive adjectives, 'his,' 'her,' ' its,' 'their,' by 'suus,' if they refer to the subject of the verb on which the clause depends.
    ${ }^{2}$ Per-spic-io, -ěre, -spexi, -spectum.

[^13]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Chap. i, Ex. 6, n. 3.
    ${ }^{3}$ Ad-sum, -esse, -fui.
    ${ }^{5}$ Apparet, it is clear.

[^14]:    ${ }^{1}$ A clause is said to be subordinate to another clause when it depends on (i.e. completes the meaning of) that clause, and does not itself make any fresh statement.
    ${ }^{2}$ A subordinating conjunction introduces a clause which makes no fresh statement, but only completes the meaning of the statement made

[^15]:    ${ }^{1}$ Ab-duc-o, -ěre, -duxi, -ductum.
    ${ }^{2}$ Clam-0, -āre. ${ }^{3}$ See Ex. 4, n. 2. ${ }^{4}$ See Ex. 4, n. 4.
    ${ }^{5}$ Prem-o, -ěre, press-i, -um, I press hard.
    ${ }^{6}$ Adjective.
    ${ }^{7}$ Seee Chap. i, Ex. 6, n. $3 . \quad{ }^{8}$ See Chap. i, Ex. 2, n. 1.

    - See Chap. i, Ex. 5, n. 5.
    ${ }^{10}$ Citra.
    ${ }^{11}$ Vero. This word must stand after the first word of the clause which it joins on to the preceding clause.

[^16]:    Appropinqu-o, -āre, I draw near. ${ }^{3}$ See Ex. 4, n. 1.
    ${ }^{5}$ Regn-o, -āre, I am king. ${ }^{4}$ See Ex. 4, n. 2.
    ${ }^{6}$ Pro certo habeo.
    ${ }^{7}$ Words enclosed in square brackets are to be omitted in translating. ${ }^{8}$ Trans. $\quad{ }^{9}$ See Ex. 5, n. 5. ${ }^{10}$ See Chap. i, Ex. 6, n. 2.
    ${ }^{11}$ Say 'have been taken.'
    ${ }^{12}$ Plerique.
    ${ }^{13}$ Inter-eo, -īre, -ii, -itum.

[^17]:    ${ }^{1}$ Poenas do (dare, dedi, datum), I suffer punishment.
    ${ }^{2}$ See Chap. i, Ex. 2, n. I.

[^18]:    1 Atro-x, -cis.

[^19]:    ${ }^{1}$ Dic-o, -ëre, dixi, dictum.
    ${ }^{2}$ See Chap. i, Ex. 6, n. 5.

[^20]:    ${ }^{1}$ Praest-o, -āre, -iti. 'Show' is here a factive verb, coming under the head of verbs of making.
    ${ }^{2}$ ' Thonght ' here $=$ ' used to think.'

[^21]:    ${ }^{1}$ Say 'that (ut) he might,' \&c.

[^22]:    ${ }^{1}$ See n. 1, p. 27.
    ${ }^{4}$ Say ' who should ask.'
    ${ }^{2}$ Alter, - a , -um. $\quad{ }^{3}$ Ad.
    ${ }^{5}$ Quum primum.
    ${ }^{6}$ As 'to arrive' is a verb of motion, the words 'in' and 'at,' depending on it, must always be turned into Latin as if they were 'into' and 'to.'

[^23]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Ex. 3, n. 2.
    ${ }^{3}$ See Ex. 5, n. 5.
    ${ }^{2}$ Say 'shall have stayed.'
    ${ }^{*}$ Totidem, indeclinable.

[^24]:    ${ }^{1}$ Wherever in this and the following exercises a verb and a preposition in the same clause are printed in italics, a compound verb is to be used in Latin.

[^25]:    ${ }^{1}$ Obviam, lit. 'on the way.' The expression 'sent to meet' contains the idea of nearness, and, though that idea is contained rather in the adverb 'obviam' than in the verb, the same construction must be used as if it were contained in the verb.
    ${ }^{2}$ Circum-jic-io, -ĕre, -jec-i, -tum.

[^26]:    ${ }^{1}$ The object noun of 'detrahit,' in Sentence I, is 'id,' understood as the antecedent to 'quod.'

[^27]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Chap. i, Ex. 3, n. 4.
    ${ }^{3}$ Demonstr-o, -āre.

[^28]:    ${ }^{2}$ Say 'those things.'
    ${ }^{4}$ Sacrificulus, adjective, $=$ ' of sacrifices.'

[^29]:    ${ }^{1}$ After 'impero,' use 'ut' with subjunctive to translate the English infinitive. For the tense of the subjunctive, see the rule given in Chap. ii, Sec. 4.
    ${ }^{2}$ Sub-ven-io, -īre, -vēn-i, -tum.
    ${ }^{3}$ Say 'should have given.'
    ${ }^{4}$ In-fero, -ferre, -tuli, illatum.
    ${ }^{6}$ See n. I, p. 36.

[^30]:    ${ }^{1}$ After 'impero' use 'ne' with subjunctive to translate the English ' not' with infinitive.

[^31]:    ${ }^{1}$ Use the verb 'sum.'
    ${ }^{2}$ See Chap. ii, Ex. I, n. I.
    ${ }^{3}$ Sper-o, -äre, I hope for, trans.

[^32]:    ${ }^{1}$ Use the verb 'sum.'
    ${ }^{2}$ In-vid-eo, -ēre, -vidi, -visum. ${ }^{3}$ Mirabil-is, -e.
    4 The word 'woman' need not be expressed in Latin.
    ${ }^{5}$ Say ' is not to be avoided.' ${ }^{6}$ Say ' are to be done.'
    ${ }^{7}$ Latine, adv. ${ }^{8}$ I.e. all things.
    ' Say 'those things, which you advised (sua-deo, -dēre, -si, -sum) us.'

[^33]:    ${ }^{1}$ Prae-sum, -esse, -fui. $\quad{ }^{2}$ See n. 5, p. 45. $\quad{ }^{3}$ Use the verb ' sum.'

[^34]:    ${ }^{1}$ Use the verb 'sum.'

[^35]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Chap. ii, Ex. I, n. I.
    ${ }^{2}$ See Chap. i, Ex. 6, n. 5.
    ${ }^{3}$ See Ex. 6, n. I.
    ${ }^{*}$ Munit-us, -a, -um. ${ }^{5}$ Loc-us, -i.
    ${ }^{6}$ See Chap. iii, Ex. 5, n. 2. ${ }^{7}$ Exspect-o, -āre, I wait for, trans.
    s 'What' is not here an interrogative pronoun, but $=$ ' that which.'
    ,, ${ }^{10}$ Say ' for sport,' ' for death.'
    ${ }^{11}$ Prae-sum, -esse, -fui, I am in command of.
    ${ }^{12}$ See n. 4, p. 41.
    ${ }^{13}$ Say 'should have given up.'

[^36]:    ${ }^{1}$ Par-o, -āre. ${ }^{2}$ Offici-um, -i.
    ${ }^{3}$ Pro-fic-io, -ěre, -fec-i, -tum, I make progress. Use the passive impersonally, and use an adverb for 'much.'
    ${ }^{4}$ Conditio, -nis. Use the singular.
    ${ }^{7}$ Say 'should have conqueren.'
    ${ }^{9}$ See n. 6, p. 50.
    ${ }^{11}$ See n. 5, p. 45.
    ${ }^{5}$ Ut. ${ }^{6}$ Is.
    ${ }^{8}$ Imper-o, -āre.
    ${ }^{10}$ Suus.

[^37]:    ${ }^{1}$ Say 'shall have resisted.' ${ }^{2}$ Summus (lit. highest).
    ${ }^{3}$ Use jub-eo (-ēre, juss-i, -um), which takes accusative and infinitive.
    'Say ' to be urged on (incit-o, -āre) with oars.'
    ${ }^{5}$ Say 'which thing.' The word 'thing' should here be expressed in Latin.
    ${ }^{6}$ De-sum, -esse, -fui (lit. I am wanting).
    ${ }^{7}$ See Ex. 1, n. 5.

[^38]:    ${ }^{1}$ Indies. ${ }^{2}$ Say ' having been made . . . he commanded.'
    ${ }^{3}$ Prae-sum, -esse, -fui.
    ${ }^{4} \mathrm{Ne}$ quis $=$ that none.
    ${ }^{5}$ Say 'shall have been killed.'
    ${ }^{6}$ Jussu, abl. of $4^{\text {th }}$ decl. (nom. not in use).

[^39]:    ${ }^{1}$ Magis. Plus is not commonly used as an adverb.

[^40]:    ${ }^{5}$ See n. I, p. 26.
    ${ }^{7}$ Say 'shall have performed.'

[^41]:    ${ }^{1}$ Say ' that he might perform.'
    ${ }^{2}$ Summus.
    ${ }^{3}$ See Chap. ii, Ex. I, n. I.
    ${ }^{4}$ Suus. ${ }^{5}$ Non.
    ${ }^{6}$ Nit-or, -i, nisus sum.

[^42]:    ${ }^{1}$ See n. 3, p. 55.
    ${ }^{3}$ Say 'to be smitten with the axe.'
    ${ }^{2}$ Suus.
    ${ }^{5}$ Me recip-io (-ěre, recep-i, -tum), I retire, lit. I take myself back.
    ${ }^{6}$ When a clause is printed in italics in this and the following exercises, turn it by an ablative absolute.
    T.e. ' was following.'

[^43]:    ${ }^{1}$ Use the plural.
    ${ }^{2}$ See p. 26, n. 1.
    ${ }^{3}$ De. ${ }^{4}$ Quidam, quaedam, quoddam.
    ${ }^{5}$ Say 'put courage into our men.' In-jic-io, -ĕre, -jec-i, -tum, I put into.
    ${ }^{6}$ Animus. $\quad{ }^{7}$ Dict-um, -i. $\quad{ }^{8}$ See p. 58 , n. I.
    ${ }^{9}$ Incit-o, -āre, I urge on.

[^44]:    *. Salv-us, -a, -um.
    ${ }^{2}$ The expression 'there is hope ' is equivalent to a verb of thinking.
    ${ }^{3}$ See Chap. ii, Ex. 2, n. I. ${ }^{4}$ Say 'by that the greater.'
    ${ }^{5}$ Say 'these things.' ${ }^{6}$ In with accusative.

[^45]:    ${ }^{1}$ The locatives 'belli' and 'militiae' should, however, only be used when coupled with 'domi.'

[^46]:    ${ }^{1}$ Say ' which.'
    ${ }^{2}$ Remember that the word 'before' may be either a preposition (governing a noun) or an adverb (qualifying a verb) or a conjunction (introducing a clause), and be careful to distinguish between these three uses in turning into Latin. The same remark applies to the word 'after.'
    ${ }^{3}$ See Chap. iv, Ex. 7, n. 8. ${ }^{4}$ Cog-nosc-o, -ěre, -novi, -ň̆tum.
    ${ }^{5}$ See Chap. iii, Ex. 5, nn. I and 2. ${ }^{6}$ See Chap. iii, Ex. 4, n. 2.

[^47]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Chap. iii, Ex. 5, n. 2.
    ${ }^{3}$ Imperfect.
    ${ }^{5}$ See p. 26, n. I.

[^48]:    ${ }^{1}$ The ablative depending on a verb or adjective expressing abundance, or a verb of enriching, may also be explained as an ablative of instrument: while that depending on a verb of depriving may be brought under the head of the ablative of separation, which is treated in the next Section.

[^49]:    ${ }^{1}$ See note, p. 71.

[^50]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Chap. iii, Ex. 4, n. 6.
    ${ }^{3}$ Say ' was preferring.'
    ${ }^{5}$ Say ' departed out of.'

[^51]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Chap. iii, Ex. 4, n. 1.
    ${ }^{2}$ Etsi.
    ${ }^{3}$ Tantum.
    ${ }^{4}$ See Ex. 4, n. 7.

[^52]:    ${ }^{1}$ Say ' denied that-anything.'
    ${ }^{2}$ Pro.
    ${ }^{3} \mathrm{Ac}$-er, -ris, -re.

[^53]:    ${ }^{1}$ Ut-or, -i, usus sum.
    ${ }^{3}$ See Chap. iii, Ex. 4, n. I.
    ${ }^{2}$ Tant-us, -a, -um.
    ${ }^{5}$ Say 'had been built.'
    ${ }^{4}$ Repet-o, -ěre, -ivi, -itum.
    ${ }^{6}$ Trab-es, -um (timbers).

[^54]:    ${ }^{1}$ See p. 26, n. 2.
    ${ }^{2}$ Prae-sum, -esse, -fui.
    ${ }^{3}$ Thermopylae is the name of a pass, not of a town.

[^55]:    ${ }^{1}$ Pler-ique, -aeque, -aque.
    ${ }^{3}$ See Chap. v, Ex. 5, n. 2.
    ${ }^{5}$ Tant-us, -a, -um.

[^56]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Chap. ii, Ex. I, n. I.
    ${ }^{2}$ Do not be misled by the rule that the words coupled by 'quam' must be in the same case. Remember that a possessive adjective is equivalent to a genitive case.
    ${ }^{3}$ Say ' the remaining (reliqu-us, -a, -um), citizens.'
    ${ }^{4}$ Occur-ro, -rěre, -ri, -sum.
    5 Ultro.

[^57]:    ${ }^{1}$ Use jubeo.

[^58]:    ${ }^{1}$ Exhib-eo, -ēre.
    ${ }^{2}$ Con-sist-o, -ĕre, -stiti.
    ${ }^{3}$ Say 'denied that any one.' ${ }^{4}$ In.
    ${ }^{6}$ Par-o, -āre, I prepare for, transitive. ${ }^{7}$ Use adjectives.
    ${ }^{8}$ Arcess-o, -ěre, -ivi, -itum, I send for, transitive.

[^59]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Chap. iii, Ex. 4, n. 2.

[^60]:    1 'Similis'• and 'dissimilis' may be used either with a genitive, as here, or with a dative, as we saw in Chap. iv, Sect. I.

[^61]:    ${ }^{1}$ Praest-o, -āre.

[^62]:    ${ }^{1}$ Use a preposition. ${ }^{2}$ Nem-o, acc. -ǐnem. ${ }^{3}$ Proxim-us, -a, -um.

[^63]:    ${ }^{1}$ To mark the question, put 'ne' after the verb, written as one word with the verb.
    ${ }^{2}$ Use jubeo. ${ }^{3}$ Ex. Ut (with subjunctive).

[^64]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Chap. i, Ex. 2, n. 2.

[^65]:    See Chap. i, Ex. 2, n. 2.
    ${ }^{2}$ Use a participle.
    ${ }^{3}$ Use the historic infinitive.
    ${ }^{4}$ See Chap. ii, Ex. 4, n. I.
    ${ }^{5}$ Prae. ${ }^{6}$ The comparative of ' memor' is ' magis memor.'
    ${ }^{7}$ See Chap. v, Ex. 14, n. 1.
    ${ }^{8}$ Novi (perf. of nosco), I have become acquainted with $=I$ know.
    ${ }^{9}$ Quer-or, -i, questus sum, I complain of, trans.
    ${ }^{10}$ See Chap. vi, Sect. 4.

[^66]:    ${ }^{1}$ Impero, I give orders.
    ${ }^{2}$ See p. 42, n. 1.
    ${ }^{3}$ De-ced-o, -ëre, -cess-i, -um. ${ }^{4}$ See p. 109, n. $9 .{ }^{5}$ Jam.
    ${ }^{6}$ Begin the sentence with 'and not less;' and see Chap. ii, Ex. 4, n. I.
    ${ }^{7}$ Mores, pl. of mos.

[^67]:    ${ }^{1}$ Or the gerundive, as will be explained in the next Section.

[^68]:    Remember that ' of writing,' ' for writing,' ' by writing,' \&c.,

[^69]:    ${ }^{1}$ Constat.

[^70]:    ${ }^{1}$ Proxim-us, -a, -um. ${ }^{2}$ Dic-o, -ěre, dixi, dic-tum. ${ }^{3}$ Agmen.
    ${ }^{4}$ Ut, with subjunctive. For the tense of the subjunctive, see Chap. ii, Sect.
    ${ }^{5}$ Use participles. ${ }^{6}$ Use the historic infinitive.
    ${ }^{7}$ Prius, neuter of prior, used as adverb. ${ }^{8} \mathrm{Ab}$.

[^71]:    ${ }^{1}$ See p. 109, n. 9.
    ${ }^{3}$ Use a participle.
    ${ }^{2}$ Use the verb 'sum.'
    ${ }^{*}$ Effer-o, -re, extuli, elatum.

[^72]:    ${ }^{1}$ Perf. pass. of pon-o, -ěre, posui, positum.

[^73]:    ${ }^{1}$ Ag-o, -ĕre, ēgi, actum.
    ${ }^{3}$ Use an adjective. See Chap. vi, Sect. 3. ${ }^{4}$ Tant-us, -a, -um.
    ${ }^{5}$ Ut-or, -i, usus sum. ${ }^{6}$ See Chap. v, Ex. 12, n. 2.
    ${ }^{7}$ Use a participle. Labor-o, -āre, I am in difficulty.

[^74]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Chap. v, Ex. 12, n. 6.
    ${ }^{2}$ Custod-io, -ire, I keep under guard. ${ }^{3}$ Pler-ique, -aeque, -aque.
    ${ }^{4}$ Compare the second of the Sentences to be learned at the beginning of this Section.
    ${ }^{5}$ See Chap. ii, Ex. I, n. I.

[^75]:    ${ }^{1}$ See p. 28, n. 2.
    ${ }^{2}$ Pueri.
    ${ }^{3}$ See Chap. i, Ex. 2, n. 2.
    ${ }^{4}$ Compare the second of the Sentences to be learned at the beginning of this Section. For 'and-never,' say 'and not ever,' and see Chap. ii, Ex. 4, n. I.
    ${ }^{5}$ Per-spic-io, -ĕre, -spexi, -spectum, I inquire into, trans.

[^76]:    ${ }^{1}$ Use a deponent verb, and say 'having thought.'
    ${ }^{2}$ Use jubeo. ${ }^{3}$ Say 'armed.' See Ex. 9, n. 2.
    ${ }^{5}$ Tra-do, -ěre, -idi, -itum. ${ }^{6}$ Peragr-o, -āre, I go through, trans.
    ${ }^{7}$ Audio, I hear of, trans. ${ }^{8}$ Non.
    ${ }^{9}$ Compare the third of the Sentences to be learned at the beginning of Sect. 2.
    ${ }^{10}$ Ed-o, -ěre, -idi, -itum.

