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OHASE \& STUART'S OLASSIOAL SERIES.

## A

## LATIN GRAMMAR:



BY
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PHILADELPHIA:
Eldredge \& Brother, No. 17 North Seventh Street. 1882.

## Chase \& Stuart's Clasisical Series

- COMPRISES -

A FIRST LATIN BOOK,
A LATIN GRAMMAR,
A LATIN READER,

And Editions of all the Latin Authors usually read in Schools.



THE author of this treatise has endeavored to state clearly and directly those facts of Grammar which a student of Latin most needs to know, and thus to conduct him by the surest path to a mastery of the language.. The discoveries of recent philological science have not been neglected, but care has been taken not to overlay and obscure the facts which form the proper subject of the book with a mass of matter belonging only to a treatise on Comparative Philology.

Unnecessary definitions have been avoided; the paradigms are set forth clearly, in distinct type; the rules of Syntax have been stated as simply as possible.

In Prosody, the views of the new school have been to a great extent adopted. One word of warning, however, is due, that the theory of irrational times should not be pressed so far as to destroy the variety which the introduction of different feet produced, in measures which would otherwise be monotonous. Horace says of the iambic trimeter,

[^0]Perhaps the greatest merit of recent metrists is their recognition of the value of pauses, and of the fact that a single syllable by prolongation may stand for a whole foot.

No work on Grammar could be meritorious or complete, whose author was not greatly indebted to the labors of his predecessors. It gives me pleasure to acknowledge my obligation to the treatises of the great grammarians of Germany, and to Key, Kennedy, and Roby among the English.

Finally, this book is committed, not without confidence, to the judgment of the accomplished teachers of our land, and of the intelligent students whose happiness it will be to learn the great tongue of Rome under their guidance. T. C.



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冨 8

## Latin Grammar.

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## The Alphabet.

1. The Latin Alphabet now in use has the same letters as the English, except that it has no W.
2. I and J were originally represented by one character, I , as were also U and V by V .
3. X and Y are found only in words derived from the Greek.
4. K is used chiefly in abbreviations, or as the initial letter of a few words, as Kalendae, Karthago.
5. $Q$ always blends with $U(V)$.
6. The letters have two forms: the capital, which alone was used in ancient times; and the small.

## Vowels and Consonants.

2. The vowels, sounding by themselves, are A, E, I, O, U, Y. The remaining letters are called consonants, as sounding with vowels.
3. The diphthongs are $\mathrm{AE}(\mathbb{E}), \mathrm{OE}(\mathbb{E}), \mathrm{AU}, \mathrm{EI}, \mathrm{EU}$, and UI. The first three occur the most frequently.
4. AI, OI, and OU are found as diphthongs in early Latin, and YI in some Greek words (as Harpyia).
5. When two vowels meet, but are not to be taken as a diphthong, the mark of diærěsis (..) is sometimes placed over the second; as, poëta, pronounced po-ē-ta.
6. The consonants are divided (as in the following table) into labials, linguals (or lingial-dentals), and palatals (or gutturals), according as they
are spoken principally with the lip, tongue, or palate; and into surds (or hard), sonants (or soft), and nasal, according to the mode of utterance.

|  | mUtes. |  | nasals. |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
|  | Surd. | Sonant. |  |
| Labials, | $\mathbf{P}$ | B | M |
| Linguals, | T | D | N |
| Palatals, | $\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{K}, \mathrm{Q}$ | G | N |

5. The surds and sonants in the above table are called mutes; L, M, N, and R are called liquids; $\mathrm{F},(\mathrm{PH}),(\mathrm{TH}) \mathrm{H},$,S , and Z are called fricatives (or spirants) ; S and Z, sibilants ; H, an aspirate; J, R, L, and V, semivowels; $\mathrm{X}(\mathrm{CS})$ and $\mathrm{Z}(\mathrm{DS})$, double consonants.

## Pronunciation.

3. By most nations Latin is pronounced substantially as words so spelled would be pronounced in the language of the nation itself; in America, however, at least three different methods are found:

## I. THE PROBABLE ANCIENT OR ROMAN METHOD,

which attempts to give the pronunciation in use in the best ages of the living language. In it
a long is pronounced as a in father, a short with the same sound shorter, or as the $a$ in dogma;
e long as $e$ in they; e short as $e$ in set;
i long as $i$ in machine; $\mathbf{i}$ short as $i$ in sit;
0 long as o in tone; o short as o in domestic;
u long as $u$ in rude (i. e., as $o o$ in too); $\mathbf{u}$ short as $o o$ in boot;
y like the French $u$, with the proper distinction as long or short;
ae and ai like $a i$ in aisle;
au like ow in owl;
oe and oi nearly like oi in spoil;
ei as $e i$ in eight;
eu like ech-oo rapidly spoken;
ui like the English word we;
j (i consonans) like $y$ in year, but stronger ;
$\mathbf{v}$ (u consonans) nearly like $w$, or more exactly like ou in the French word oui;
c always hard, as in can;
g always hard, as in get;
$\mathbf{r}$ should be trilled;
s always hard, as in $\sin$, and never like $z$ or $s h$;
t always hard, like $t$ in tin;
$\mathbf{x}$ always hard, as in axe;
z nearly like $s$ (or like $d z$ );
gu and su , when making one syllable with the following vowel, like $g w, s w$, as in lingua, suasor ;
qu as $q u$ in English; before $u$ like $k$;
bs like $p s$;
bt like $p t$;
ch like $k$ followed by $h$;
i for $j i$ in the compounds of $j a c i o$ (as eicit, reicit), like $y i$ (thus, $\bar{e}-y \check{c} c i t$, , $\bar{e}-y \check{c} c i t)$.

Letters not named in this table are sounded as in English.

1. In the imperial period AE acquired the sound of long E (i.e., that of $e$ in they).
2. If students find any difficulty in giving to Y the sound of the French $u$, it may be pronounced like I (i. e., where long, as in machine; short, as in $s i t)$.
3. In some schools which use the Roman pronunciation Latin V is pronounced as in English.

## II. THE ENGLISH METHOD,

in which words are spoken in accordance with the ordinary laws of regular English pronunciation, with a few special rules: viz., es at the end of a word is pronounced like the English word ease; os at the end of plural cases like ose in dose; a at the end of a word like the final $a$ in America (or like short $a$ in the Roman method); ch always like $\mathbf{k}$, as in Magna Charta (kar-tăh); ti when followed by a vowel like sh, if the accent is on the preceding syllable, as rátio, pr. rá-sh九̆-o; but the hard sound is retained (1) after $s, t$, and $x$, as injustior,

Attius, Sextius; (2) when the accent is on the $i$, as in totius; (3) in the antique form of the infinitive passive of verbs, as flectier; and (4) in Greek words.

## iil. the continental method,

(inexactly so called), in which, in its most consistent form, the vowels are pronounced as in Italian (substantially as in the ancient method), and the consonants as in English (except that, immediately succeeding the accent, and before $i$ followed by another vowel, c and s are sounded like $s$ pure, and t as in $t i n$, and not like $s h$ ).
4. Whatever system of pronunciation is adopted, proper names, in translating into English, should always take the English sound. Latin phrases used in ordinary speech, as sine die, viva voce, should also be pronounced in the English method.

## Syllables.

5. In every Latin word there are as many syllables as there are separate vowels and diphthongs.
6. In printing and writing Latin, and in the Roman pronunciation, the following rules are observed in the division of syllables:
7. A single consonant between two vowels is joined to the second: as, rǒ-sa, a rose.
8. If several consonants come between two vowels, as many of them as can begin a word in Greek or Latin are joined to the latter: as, pa-tris, a-cris, i-gnis, o-mnis, pun-ctus, pro-pter, po-sco, i-ste, ar-tus, sal-tus, men-sa.
9. Evident and uncontracted compounds are divided into their component parts: as, post-ea, res-publica; but we write vae-neo, ma-gnanimus.
10. In the English method of pronunciation, English analogy is followed in the division of syllables.

## Quantity.

6. The Quantity of syllables is short ( $\cup$ ), long ( - ), or common ( $\simeq$, by preference long; $\Xi$, by preference short).
7. A syllable may be (1) short or long by nature: ămās; (2) short by nature, but long by position: vīndēx ; (3) short by nature, but doubtful by position : quădruplo.

## 7. GENERAL RULES OF QUANTITY.

1. When a short vowel stands before two or more consonants, or a double consonant, or the letter $\mathbf{j}$, the syllable is counted long by position.
Exc. 1. A vowel naturally short before a mute followed by 1 or $\mathbf{r}$ is common; that is, in verse it may be either long or short.
Exc. 2. In the compounds of jŭgŭm, the vowel before $J$ is short.
Exc. 3. H is regarded only as a breathing.
2. Diphthongs and contracted syllables are long.
3. One vowel before another vowel, or before $h$, is short.
4. Derivative and compound words follow the quantity of their primitives.

## 8. RULES FOR FINAL SYLLABLES

1. a final is short in declinable words, but long in others. It is also long in the ablative singular of nouns of the first declension.
2. e and y final are short; but e is long in the first and fifth declensions, and in adverbs derived from adjectives in -us.
3. i and u final are long.
4. o final is variable, but long in datives and ablatives.

5 . The terminations as, es, and os are usually long.
6. The terminations is, us, and ys are usually short; but us in the genitive singular, and nominative, accusative, and vocative plural, of the fourth declension is always long; also in words like virtūs, virtūtis, of the third declension.
7. When a word ends in $b, d, l, r$, or $t$, the final syllable is generally short.
8. When a word ends in $\mathbf{c}$ or n , the last syllable is generally long; but words like carmĕn, carmĭnis, have the ĕn short.

## Accentuation.

9. The last syllable but one is called the penult, the syllable before it the antepenult.

In words of two syllables, the accent is on the first syllable: as, hŏ́mo. In words of three or more syllables, if the penult is long, it is accented; if the penult is short or common, the accent is on the antepenult : as, ămîcŭs, $\overline{0}$ ceẽannus, ténēbrae.
Exc.-In compounds of facio in which the vowel is not changed, and in contracted genitives and vocatives, the accent remains on the penult: as, benefăcis, ingéni, Vergíli.
10. Monosyllables have the circumflex accent ( ${ }^{\wedge}$ ) if the vowel is long by nature ; otherwise, the acute accent ('): as, ôs (mouth), môs, lêx, ós (bone), vir, dix. The accent on the penult is a circumflex, if the vowel be long by nature and the last syllable short; otherwise, an acute: as, mâtĕr, inter, ámant. The antepenult, if accented, takes always the acute. A syllable having the circumflex was dwelt upon by the voice longer than one which has only the acute. The accent signs are not used (as they are in Greek) in printing and writing Latin.

1. The sign of the circumflex is sometimes used also to indicate that a vowel is long (as Româ, abl.), or that a syllable is formed by contraction.
2. The sign of the grave accent is sometimes used to distinguish certain particles from other words of the same spelling : as, quòd, "because," or " that," from quod, " which."
3. The Enclitics (quĕ, nĕ, vĕ, etc.) add an accent to the last syllable of words which are accented on the antepenult, as moéniắque, perículăve. If the preceding word is a dissyllable, it has been the general custom in England and America to retain the accent on its first syllable if the last syllable is short, but drop that accent and place an accent on the last syllable if that syllable is long, or becomes long by position: as, Rốmăque, Rōmámque.
4. The ancient grammarians, however, always place an accent on the syllable preceding the enclitic : as, mĭhĭ́mĕt, mūsắquĕ, mūsầquĕ; except when the proper meaning of the enclitic is lost or obscured, when it is treated as a part of the word: as, ítăquĕ, therefore; but ǐtắquĕ, and so. Yet they said utrắquĕ and plērắquĕ, to keep the accent of the masculine.
5. The enclitic may aid in giving length by position, as in the second syllable of virumque.
6. The enclitics are quĕ, nĕ, vĕ, mĕt, cĕ, ptě, dŭm, quando, inde.

## Parts of Speech.

12. The parts of speech may be grouped in three classes: Nouns, including the Noun, Adjective, and Pronoun ; Verbs, including the Finite Verb, Infinitives or Verbal Nouns, and Participles or Verbal Adjectives; and Particles, including the Adverb, the Preposition, the Conjunction, and the Interjection.
13. Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, and Verbs undergo changes in their terminations, called Inflection. Thus from the stem (8 15) mulier, we have mulier-is, woman's; mulier-es, women; mulier-um, women's; from the stem ama, ama-t, love-s; ama-sti, love-dst; ama-tus, love-d; ama-ns, lov-ing.
The inflection of Nouns, Adjectives, and Pronouns is called Declension; that of Verbs, Conjugation.

## Gender.

13. I. By natural gender the names and titles of male beings are masculine; those of female beings, feminine: as, masculine, Căto ; vĭr, a man; consŭl ; ăriēs, a ram; and feminine, Jūliă ; mŭliĕr, a woman; nūtrix, a nurse; vaccă, a cow.
14. Many nouns denote both the male and the female, and are therefore called common: as, săcerdōs, priest or priestess. These are for the most part really adjectives.
15. Often the male and female are distinguished by different terminations: as, ĕquŭs, horse ; ĕquă, mare.
16. Sometimes the natural gender of animals is forgotten for a fanciful gender. Thus ănăs, duck, ăquĭlă, eagle, vulpēs, $f o x$, are feminine; corvŭs, raven, passěr, sparrow, piscǐs, fish, are masculine. Such nouns are called epicene, i.e., common to both genders. If the real gender is to be denoted, the words mās or mascŭlŭs, male, or fēmĭnă, female, are added.
II. Grammatical gender is determined partly by the meaning, partly by the termination.
17. Months, winds, and rivers are generally masculine.

The names of the months are really adjectives, agreeing with mensiss (month), understood.
2. Countries, islands, and trees are generally feminine.
3. Nouns undeclined, as fās, right; other parts of speech, used for the time as nouns, as scīre tŭŭm, thy knowledge; hōc ipsŭm dia, this very word "diu;" sentences used as nouns; and the produce of trees, are generally neuter.

[^1]
## Numbers and Cases.

14. There are in Latin two numbers, the Singular and Plural; and six cases, viz.:

The Nominative, which names the subject of the verb, answering the question, Who? or What? As, Quĭs dĕdĭt? who gave? Vír, a man.

The Genitive, the case of possession or connection, answering the question, Whose? or Whereof? As, Cūjŭs dōnŭm? whose gift ? Virī̀, a man's.

The Dative, the case of remoter object, or personal interest, answering the question, To whom or what? For whom or what? As, Cuī dătŭm? To whom given? Vĭrō, to a man.
The Accusative, the case of direct object, answering the question, Whom? What? As, Quĕm vǐdēō? Whom see I? Vĭrŭm, A man. It may also answer the questions, To what place? During what time? How far?
The Vocative, the case of direct address. As, Vir, $O$ man! or Thou man!
The Ablative, which denotes means, source, circumstances, translated by the prepositions with, in, from, by, at, etc., and answering the questions, Wherewith? Whence? When? By, with, etc., whom or what? As, $\overline{\mathbf{A}}$ quō dătŭm? By whom given? $\overline{\mathbf{A}}$ vǐrō, By a man.

1. A seventh case, the Locative, is still found in a few words: as, dŏmī, in the house, at home; hŭmī, on the ground.
2. The Sanskrit has also an eighth case, the Instrumental.
3. The Nominative and Vocative are called independent cases; the other four, dependent or oblique.

## Roots and Stems.

15. The endings of declension and conjugation are attached to the Stem, which is the fundamental part of the word.
16. The Stem of a Noun is usually seen on casting off -rum or -um from the Genitive Plural: as, mensa-, dŏmĭno-, lĕon-, mări-, grădu-, dïe-.
17. The Stem of a Verb is shown in the Imperative Mood: as, ăma-, audi-, mŏne. But in the Third Conjugation -ĕ is cast off (for convenience): as, reg- ; and in a Deponent Verb -rě or -ěre: as, fa-, re-, lab-.
18. The Root (which is always a monosyllable) is that part which a word has in common with kindred words. Thus in the noun stătio, standing, station- is the Stem, but sta- (originally stă, sometimes st $\bar{a}$ ) is the Root, as may be seen by comparing stā-re, stă-tuo, stā-men, stā-tūra, stātim, to stand, stablish, standing-thread (i. e., warp), standing-height, instantly. A root may be used as a stem, or the stem may contain the root with alterations or additions.

## Declension of Nouns.

17. Latin nouns have five Declensions, known by the endings of their Genitives:

|  | I. | II. | III. | IV. | V. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| GEN. Sing. | ae | $\overline{1}$ | Ĭs | $\bar{u} s$ | ēi |
| GEN. Plur. | $\overline{\text { arrŭm }}$ | ōrŭm | ŭm or ǐŭm | ŭŭm | ērŭm |

1. In Neuter Nouns the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative are the same in each Number, severally ; and in the Plural they end in ă.
2. The Vocative of Latin words is the same as the Nominative, except in the Singular of the Second Declension.
3. The Dative and Ablative Plural are always the same. 2*
4. Table of Endings of Latin Nouns in the Five Declensions.

Singular.

| $\text { Nom. } \stackrel{\text { à }}{\text { I. }}$ | $\text { L̆s, ĕr, }_{\text {IIr. }}^{\text {ŭ }}$ | $\left\lvert\, \begin{gathered} \text { III. } \\ \text { (various endings.) } \end{gathered}\right.$ | ŭs | V. | $\stackrel{\mathrm{V}}{\mathrm{es}}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gen. m | $\overline{\mathbf{i}}$ - | İs | ūs | ūs ( ${ }_{\text {u }}$ ) | êi |
| Dat. $\begin{aligned} & \text { ® }\end{aligned}$ | $\overline{\mathrm{o}}$ - | $\underline{1}$ | पī | $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ ( $\mathbf{u} \overline{\mathrm{i}}$ ) | ${ }_{\text {¢ }}$ |
| Acc. ăm | ŭm ŭm | ĕm, İm (neut. like | ŭm | - | ěm |
| Voc. ${ }_{\text {a }}$ |  | like nom. | ŭs | $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ | ès |
| Abl. à |  | е̌, і | $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ | $\overline{\text { u }}$ | e |
| $($ Loc. $) \boldsymbol{a}(\bar{a} \bar{i})$ | $\boldsymbol{i}$ i | $i$, e |  |  |  |

Plural.


## The First Declension. <br> Ă- STEMS.

19. The First Declension contains Latin Nouns, mostly Feminine, with Nominative in ă; and a few Greek words, chiefly Proper Names, in ās, ès, Masculine, and ē Feminine.
Those in a are thus declined:

Singular.
Nom. mensă, a table.
Gen. mensae, of a table.
Dat. mensae, to or for a table.
Acc. mensăm, a table.
Voc. mensă, $O$ table or thou table!
Abl. mens $\overline{\mathbf{a}}, b y$, with, or from mensīs, by, with, or from tables. a table.

Note.-As there is no Article in Latin, mensă may be translated table, a table, or the table, according to the context.

1. In this way are declined also the adjectives and participles in a (fem.) : as, magnă, great; pictă, painted; mensă rŏtundă, a round table; mensae rŏtundae, of a round table.
2. An old genitive and dative in $\bar{a} \overline{1}$ are sometimes found in inscriptions and in the poets: as, aulāi, of a hall; ăquāi, of water.
3. An old genitive in às remains in pătĕr fămĭliās, the father of a family; mātĕr fămĭliās, fīliŭs fămĭliās.
4. The genitive plural is found in -ūm rather than -ärŭm in (1) patronymics in -des, as, Aeněadēs, Aenĕădūm; (2) many names of tribes or people, as Lăpǐthae, Lăpĭthūm; (3) compounds of cŏl- or gĕn-, in poetry, as caelicŏlă, caelĭcŏlūm, terrĭgěnă, terrǐgěnūm ; (4) and in amphŏrūm, from amphŏră, and drachmūm, from drachmă, when used with numerals: as, terna millia amphŏrūm, 3000 amphors; millĕ drachmūm, a thousand drachms.
5. The locative case of minliťŭă and names of towns ends in the singular in ae (for $\overline{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{I})$, in the plural in is: as, mīľtiae, at the wars; Rōmae, at Rome; Ăthēnīs, at Athens.
6. The dative and ablative plural of deă, goddess, and fīliă, daughter, end often in -ābŭs, to distinguish them from the like cases of corresponding masculine names of the second declension. So sometimes nātă, ănĭmă, lībertă, conservă, dǒmĭnă, ěră, mīmă, nymphă, ăsĭnă, ěquă, mūla.
7. Stems in -ia sometimes have -is in the dative and ablative plural instead of -īis. Thus grātīis, for thanks, is ordinarily written grātīs.
8. The exceptions to the rule that Latin nouns of the first declension are feminine are mostly from natural gender ; thus agrǐcǒlă, a farmer, naută, a sailor, are masculine. Names of rivers in a are masculine, according to the general rule; but Alliă, Albŭlă, and Matrŏnă are feminine. Hadriă, the Adriatic Sea, is masculine.
9. GREEK NOUNS.

Aenēas, $m$.
Nom. Aenēās,
Gen. Aenēae,
Dat. Aenēae, Acc. Aenēān or Aenēăm, Voc. Aenēā, Abl. Aenēā.

Anchīses, m.
Anchisēs,
Anchīsae,
Anchīsae,
Anchīsēn or Anchīsăm,
Anchīsē or Anchīsā (ă),
Anchīsā.

Cybĕle, f.
Cy̆bĕlē, Cy̆bělēs or Cy̆bělāe, Cy̆bělae, Cy̆bělēn
Cy̆bélē,
Cy̌bělē or Cy̆bexlā.

1. The plural of Greek nouns of the first declension, when used, follows that of mensă.

## The Second Declension.

$$
\breve{\mathrm{O}}-\mathrm{STEMS} .
$$

21. The Second Declension contains Latin Nouns in ŭs, ěr, and ǐr, mostly Masculine, and ŭm, Neuter, and Greek Nouns in os, Masculine, and on, Neuter.
22. The nominative adds $s$ or $m$ to the stem, the characteristic $\check{\circ}$ being generally weakened to $\check{\text { un }}$.
23. Some stems in -ěro drop 0 , rejecting $\mathrm{s}:$ as, puer for puĕros, tener for teněros; and stems in which -ro follows a mute or $f$, drop 0 , reject $s$, and insert e before $\mathbf{r}$; as, magister for magistrǒs, niger for nigrǒs.

> Dominus, a lord, m.

Plural.
Nom. dŏmǐnŭs, lord.
Gen. dǒminnī, of a lord.
Dat. dormínō, to or for a lord.
Acc. dŏmĭnŭm, lord.
Voc. dōmǐnĕ, O lord. dŏmĭnī, O lords.
Abl. dŏminnō, by, with, or from dormǐnīs, by, with, or from lords. a lord.

Puer, a boy, m.
Nom. pŭěr, boy.
Gen. pŭĕrī, of a boy.
Dat. pŭĕrō, to or for a boy.
pŭĕrī, boys.

Acc. pŭěrŭm, boy.
Voc. pŭĕr, $O$ boy.
dǒmĭnī, lords.
dơminnōrum, of lords.
dorminīs, to or for lords.
dǒminnōs, lords.
pǔěrōrŭm, of boys.
pǔĕrīs, to or for boys.

Abl. pŭĕrō, by, with, or from pŭĕrīs, by, witl, or from boys. a boy.
Ager, a field, m.

Singular.
Nom. ăgěr,
Gen. ăgrī,
Dat. ăgrō,
Acc. ăgrŭm,
Voc. ăgěr,
Abl. ăgrō.

Plural.
ăgrī,
ăgrōrŭm,
ăgrīs,
ăgrōs,
ăgrī,
ăgrīs.

Vir, a man, m.


Fĭlıŭs, a son, m.
Bellum, war, n.
Singular.
Nom. fĭlĭŭs, Gen. finlī or fillī, Dat. fulliō, Acc. fulliŭm, Voc. füli, Abl. fulliŏ.


| Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :--- |
| bellŭm, | bellă, |
| bellī, | bellōrŭm, |
| bellō, | bellīs, |
| bellŭm, | bellă, |
| bellŭm, | bellă, |
| bellō. | bellīs. |

22. For the sake of brevity, the declension of neuters may be given as follows :

Singular. Nom., Aco., and Voc. bellŭm, Gen. Dat. and Abl.
bellī, bellō.

Plural.
bellă, bellörum, bellis.
23. The masculine form in ŭs of adjectives and participles of the second declension is declined like dŏmĭnŭs, the neuter in ŭm like bellŭm ; the masculine of most adjectives in ěr of the second declension is declined like ăgĕr, that of the rest like pŭĕr. Thus horrǐdŭs (masc.), horrĭdŭm (neut.), dreadful; pĭgĕr (masc.), pĭgrŭm (neut.), lazy; mĭsĕr (masc.), mĭsěrŭm (neut.), wretched; horrǐdă bellă, dreadful wars; pŭĕrīs pigrīs, to lazy boys; dŏmĭnī misserrī, of a wretched lord.
Note.-The masc. of the adj. sătŭr, full, is the only word in the second declension ending in -ŭr.

1. Like pŭĕr are declined (1) ădultĕr, gěnĕr, Līběr, lībĕrī (children), sǒcĕr, vespĕr, sometimes Mulcĭbĕr; (2) words ending in fĕr and gěr from fĕro and gěro: as, signĭfĕr, armĭgěr ; (3) Celtībērī and Ibērī (plural).
2. The endings ŏs, ŏm, were used even to the Augustan age after $v, u, q u: a s$, servŏs, equŏs (or ĕcŭs).
3. Proper names in -ĭŭs, also fīlĭŭs, son, and gěnĭŭs, familiar spirit, contract the vocative into $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ : as, Claudī, Vergilī. So mĕŭs, $m y$, in the vocative sing. masc., as mī fīlī, $m y$ son.
Pompēī ( $O$ Pompēius) is further contracted by Horace into Pompē̄ ; so Vultē̄, $O$ Vultēius.

Foreign proper namesin ins do not contract the vocative: as, Darĭe, $O$ Darius!
4. The genitive singular of nouns having -iŭs, -iŭm in the nominative, was contracted into i till the Augustan age, and is so written by Vergil (except in two instances) and Horace.

Propertius and Ovid are the first who wrote constantly ii, which then became the usual form: but Manilius, Persius, and Martial prefer i.
5. The genitive plural in $\bar{u} m$ for $\bar{o} r$ ŭm appears in (1) names of coins, weights, measures, and trades: nummus, sestertius, medimnus, modias, talentum, jugerum, stadium, faber : so dēn̄̄̄m tălentūm, praefectŭs făbrūm, (fabrōrŭm is also found); (2) in some names of people: Argī̄̄̄m ( $\overline{0} m$ ), of the Argives; Dănăūm, of the Dánaäns. Poets often use it in words of short penult, and in numeral and compound adjectives; as, vĭrūm, for virōrum; magnănĭmūm Rŭtŭlūm.
6. A contracted dative and ablative plural is found; as, Grāis, from Grāŭŭs; dīs, from dĕŭs.
7. Pĕlăgŭs, sea, vīrŭs, poison, being neuter, have acc. and voc. the same as the nom. Vulgŭs, common people, is generally neuter, but sometimes masculine. Pělăgŭs has a Greek plural, pělăgē; vīrŭs and vulğ̌s have no plural.
8. The locative form in the second declension ends in the singular in $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$, in the plural in is: as, bellī, at war; hŭmī, on the ground; vespĕrī, at evening; Cŏrinthī, at Corinth; Veìss, at Veii.
9. Dĕŭs, a god, is thus declined :

Singular.
Nom. dĕŭs,
Gen. dĕī,
Dat. děo,
Acc. dĕŭm,
Voc. dĕŭs,
Abl. děō.

Plural. dĕī, dǐì, or dY̌, dĕōrŭm, dĕ̄̄̀, dīīs, or dīs, děōs, dĕī, dî̀l, or dī, dĕīs, dî̀is, or dīs.

Note.-In poetry, and in solemn religious forms (as treaties, etc.), the voc. sing. of other words in -ŭs is sometimes like the nominative: as, audi tū, pŏpŭŭs Albānŭs, hear thou, people of Alba !
24. Exceptions in Gender.-Names of towns, and many names of trees, plants, and gems are feminine: as, Cŏrinthŭs, Corinth: pōpŭlŭs, a poplar tree ; smaragdŭs, an emerald. Feminine also are alvŭs, paunch; cŏlŭs, distaff; hŭmŭs, ground, and vannŭs, a winnowing-fan: and some Greek words, of which the most frequent are Arctŭs ( $\check{s}$ ), the Great Bear ; ătōmus, an atom; carbăš̌s, fine flax, a linen curtain, etc. (the pl. carbăsă is neuter); diălectŭs, dialect, and phărŭs, light-house. For the nenter, see $\frac{z}{2} 23,7$.
25. GREEK NOUNS.

Dēlŏs, f.
Nom. Dēlŏs, Gen. Dēlī,
Dat. Dēlō,
Acc. Dēlŏn or Dēlŭm,
Voc. Dēlĕ,
Abl. Dēlō.

Andrŏ́geos, m . Ilion (or Ilium), n .
Andrŏgěōs, Androgěō or $\overline{1}$, Androgẽō, Andrơgěō or ōn, Andrơgēōs, Andrǒěō.

H1ĭ̆̆n,
IIITi, H1̌̄̄, nlĭŏn, Ilǐ̆n, IMō.

1. The Greek genitive plural $\overline{0} \mathrm{n}$ is sometimes found : as, Georgǐcōn, of the Georgics; Phĭlaenōn, of the Philceni. Other plural forms are the same as in Latin nouns.

## The Third Declension.

## 26. CONSONANT STEMS AND 工ॅ- STEMS.

1. The Consonant-Nouns, with few exceptions, have more syllables in the Genitive than in the Nominative Singular. Nouns thus increasing in the Genitive are called Imparisyllables.
2. The I- Nouns have, for the most part, the same number of syllables in the Genitive as in the Nominative. Nouns not increasing' in the Genitive are called Parisyllables.
3. In the consonant stems the final stem consonant is in most cases preceded by a vowel, and this vowel is generally short.
4. A very large proportion of the i-stems have the syllable which precedes the i long.
5. Most of the i - nouns have not more than two syllables in the genitive singular.

> CONSONANT NOUNS.
> Jūdex, c., a judge.

Singular.
Nom. jūdex,* a judge.
Gen. jūdicicis, of a judge.
Dat. jūdǐcī, to or for a judge.
Acc. jūdicěm, a judge.
Voc. jūdex, thou judge. Abl. jūdǐcĕ, by, with, or from a judge.

Plural.
jūdícēs, judges.
jūdícŭm, ofj judges.
jūdícĭbŭs, to or for judges.
jūdícēs, judges.
jūdícēs, Ojudges, or ye judges.
jūdícĭbŭs, by, with, or from judyes.

| $\begin{gathered} \text { Rēx, m., } \\ \text { a king. } \end{gathered}$ | Aetās, f., age. | Cŏmĕs, c., a companion. | Pēs, m., a foot. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Singular. |  |  |  |
| OM. rēx, | aetās, | cǒměs, | pēs, |
| en. rēgĭs, | aetātĭs, | cǒmĭtiss, | pědǐs, |
| at. rêgī, | aetātī, | cormĭtī, | pědī, |
| cc. rēgěm, | aetātĕm, | cormĭtĕm, | pědĕm, |
| oc. | aetās, | cŏměs, | pēs |
| BL. rēgĕ. | aetātě. | cormĭtě. | pědĕ. |

Plural.

Nom. rēgēs, Gen. rēgŭm, $\mathrm{D}_{\mathrm{A}} \mathrm{t}$. rēgĭbŭs, Acc. rēgēs, Voc. rēgēs, Abl. rēgĭbŭs.
aetātēs, cǒmĭtēs, pědēs, aetātŭm (ium), aetātĭbŭs, aetātēs,
aetātēs (īs), aetātĭbŭs.
cǒmǐtŭm, pědŭm, cŏmĭtǐbŭs, pědǐbŭs, cŏmǐiès, pědēs, cŏmǐtēs, pědēs, cơmǐtĭbŭs. pědĭbŭs.

| Princeps, c., | Lěō, m., | Virgō, f., | Pătĕr, m., |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| a chief. | a lion. | a virgin. | a father. |

Plural.

| Nom. princĭpēs, | ľ̌̄nēs, | virginēs, | pă |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gen. princǐpŭm, | lěōnŭm, | virginŭm, | pătrŭm |
| Dat. princĭpĭbŭs, | lěōnĭbŭs, | virginioubus, | pă̆ |
| Acc. princǐpēs, | lěōnēs, | virginēs |  |
| Voc. principeēs, | lěōnēs, | virginēs | pătrēs |
| Abl. princǐpĭbŭs. | lěōnǐbŭs. | virgĭnǐbŭs. | pătrĭbŭ |



Singular.
Nom. căpŭt, Gen. căpǐtǐs,
Dat. căpitī,
Aco. căpŭt,
Voo. căpŭt,
ABL. căpĭtē.


Plural.
Nom. căpĭtă, nōmĭnă, ŏpěră, corpŏră, Gen. căpĭtŭm, nōmĭnŭm, 厄̆pěrŭm, corpŏrŭm, DAT. căpĭtǐbŭs, Acc. căphtă, Voc. căpŭtă, ABL. căpĭtǐbŭs.
ŏpěrǐbŭs, corpŏrǐbŭs, nömŭnă, c̆pěră, corpŏră, nōmĭnă, 厄̌pěră, corpŏră, nōmĭnĭbŭs. ơpĕrǐ̌ŭs. corpŏrĭbŭs.

Note.-For the sake of brevity, the declension of neuters may be given as follows:

## Singular.

Nom., Aco., and Voo. căpŭt, Gen.
Dat.
Abl.
căpítǐs, Gen.
căpǔtī, Dat. and Abl. căpǐtĕ.

## Plural.

Nom., Acc., and Voc. căpı̆tă, căpĭtŭm, căpı̌tǐbŭs.

## I- NOUNS.

Tussis, f., a cough.

Nom. tussǐs,
Gen. tussĭs,
Dat. tussī,
Acc. tussǐm,
Voo. tussǐs,
Abe. tussì.

Clāvǐs, f.,
a key.
Singular.
clāvīs,
clāvǐs,
clāvi,
clāvĕm or clāvĭm,
clāvǐs, clāvĕ or clāvī.

Imbĕr, m., a shower.
imbĕr, imbrǐs, imbrī, imbrĕm, imbĕr, imbrĕ or imbrī.

Plural.
Nom. tussēs, Gen. tussiŭm, Dat. tussĭbŭs, Acc. tussēs (īs), Voc. tussēs, Abl. tussĭbŭs.

Ǒvǐs, f., a sheep.

Nom. б̌vǐs,
Gen. ővĭs,
Dat. ǒvī,
Acc. Ø̌vĕm,
Voc. ŏvǐs,
Abl. ŏvĕ.

Nom. ðvēs, Gen. ǒviŭm, Dat. ð̌ĭbŭs, Acc. ơvēs or ơvīs, Voc. ŏvēs, Abl. ơvĭbŭs.
clāvēs,
clāviŭm, clāvĭbŭs, clāvēs (īs), clāvēs, clāvībŭs.

Nūbēs, f., a cloud.
Singular.
nūbēs,
nūbĭs,
nūbī,
nūběm,
nūbēs, nūbĕ.

## Plural.

nūbēs, dentēs,
nūbiŭm,
nūbĭbŭs,
nūbēs or nūbīs,
nūbēs,
nūbĭbŭs.
imbrēs, imbriŭm, imbrǐbŭs, imbrēs (īs), imbrēs, imbrǐbŭs.

Dens, m., a tooth.
dens, dentǐs, dentī, dentĕm, dens, dentĕ.
dentiŭm, dentǐbŭs, dentēs or dentīs, dentēs, dentĭbŭs.

| Rētĕ, n., <br> a net. | Ănĭmăl, n., <br> an animal. | Mărĕ, $\mathrm{n} .$, | Ŏs, $\mathrm{n} .$, <br> the sea. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| a bone. |  |  |  |

Plural.

Nom. rētiă, Gen. rētiŭm, Dat. rētībŭs, Acc. rētiă, Voc. rētiă, Abl. rētĭbŭs.
ănĭmālīa, ănı̆māliŭm, ănı̆mālĭbŭs, ănĭmālĭă, ănı̆māliă, ănı̌mālĭbŭs.
mărǐa, ossă, măriŭm, ossiŭm, mărĭbŭs, ossĭbŭs, măriă, ossă, măriă, ossă, mărĭbŭs. ossĭbŭs.
27. For the sake of brevity, the declension of neuters may be given as follows:

Nom., Aco., Voc. ŏs, Gen. ossǐs, Dat. ossī, Abl. ossě.

Nom., Aoc., Voc. ossă, Gen. ossiŭm, Dat., Abl.

| Singular. |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| ănĭmăl, | mărĕ, |
| ănĭmālĭs, | mărís, |
| ănīmālī, | mărī, |
| ănĭmālī. | mărī (ĕ). |
| Plural. |  |
| ănĭmālĭă, | mărīă, |
| ănĭmāliŭm, | măriŭm, |
| ănĭmãlĭbŭs. | mărĭbŭs. |

28. Adjectives and participles of the third declension are declined like nouns of similar terminations: as, fēlīx, fēlīcĭs, happy; ămans, ămantĭs, loving; puěrĭs fēlīcĭbŭs, for happy boys; patrĭs ămantĭs, of a loving futher.

## 29. CASE TERMINATIONS.

I. The nominative singular in masculine and feminine nouns of the third declension, except liquids, regularly adds $\boldsymbol{s}$ to the stem; but various modifications are introduced.
II. The terminations of the genitive singular in the third declension are as follows :

1. Nouns in a have their genitive in ătis: as, poēma, poēmătis, a poem. These nouns are neuter, and from the Greek.
2. Nouns in e change e into is: as, sědīle, sědīlis, $a$ seat.
3. The nouns in $i$ are Greek neuters. They are generally indeclinable, but some have the regular genitive in is. The compounds of měli, honey, have their genitive in ǐtis: as, hydromĕli, hydromelǐtis, mead.
4. Nouns in o have their genitive in ōnis: as, pāvo, pavōnis, a peacock.

Exc. 1.-Nouns in do and go have their genitive in inis: as, hirundo, hirundĭnis, a swallow; imāgo, imagĭnis, a likeness.
Exc. 2.-Homo, a man; nemo, no man; turbo, a whirlvind; and Apollo also have their genitive in inis.
Exc. 3.-The following nouns in do and go have their genitive in ōnis; praedo, cudo, udo, ligo, mango, spado, harpăgo, comědo, unĕdo.

Exc.4.-The names of peoples in o have generally ŏnis in the genitive: as, Macědo, Macedŏnis. But o is long in Iōnes, Lacōnes, Nasamōnes, Suessōnes, and Vettōnes.
Exc. 5.-Caro, flesh, has its genitive carnis. Anio, the name of a river, has Aniènis; Nerio, the wife of Mars, has Neriènis.
5. Nouns in y are Greek neuters, and form their genitive by adding is, s, or os: as, misy, misy̌is and misys or misy̆os, vitriol.
6. There are only two nouns in c, viz. : lac, lactis, and àlē, alēcis.
7. Nouns in 1 add is in the genitive: as, sol, solis, the sun.

Note.-Mel, honey, and fel, poison, double the 1, making mellis, fellis.
8. Nouns in ěn have their genitive in innis: as, flüměn, flūmĭnis.
9. Nouns in ēn add is in the genitive: as, rēn, rēnis, kidney.
10. Nouns in $r$ add is in the genitive: as, calcar, calcāris, a spur; nectar, nectăris, nectar; carcer, carcĕris, a prison.

Exc. 1.-Nouns in ter drop e in the genitive: as, păter, patris, father ; so also imber, a shower, and names of months in ber.

But lăter, crātēr, and sōter retain e.
Exc. 2.-Lar or Lars has for its genitive Lartis; far, farris; hēpar, hepătis; iter, itiněris (from an old nominative); Jupǐter, Jōvis.
Exc. 3.-Ebur, fĕmur, jĕcar, and robur have their genitive in ŏris: as, ebŏris; fĕmur has also femĭnis, and jĕcur, jecinŏris, jocinǒris, and jocinĕris.

Note.-Most nouns in or have ōris: as, ămor, amōris, love. But arbor, ador, aequor, marmor, and the adjective memor have obris. Cor has cordis.
11. Nouns in as have their genitive in ātis: as, piětas, pietātis, dutiful affection.

Exc. 1.-Anas has anătis; as, assis; mas, măris; vas (a surety), vădis, väs (a vessel), väsis.
Exc. 2.-Greek masculines have antis: as, Pallas, the name of a warrior, Pallantis; feminines, ădis, as Pallas, a name of Minerva, Pallădis; and neuters, ătis, as, artocrěas, artocreătis.

Arcas, an Arcadian, and Nŏmas, a Numidian, have ădis. Mĕlas, the name of a river, has Melănis.
12. Nouns in es have their genitive in is, ǐtis, ĕtis, or ētis : as, rūpes, rupis, a rock; mīles, milĭtis, a soldier; păries, pariětis, $a$ wall; quies, quiētis, rest.

Exc. 1.-Obses, praeses, and the adjectives deses and reses have Ǐdis; pes and its compounds have ědis; heres and merces have ēdis.

Exc. 2.-The genitive of bes is bessis ; of Ceres, Cerěris; of pūbes and impūbes, pubĕris and impubĕris. Caeres has Caerǐtis and Caerētis.
13. Nouns in is have their genitive the same as the nominative : as, pānis, panis, bread.
Exc. 1.-The following have Ǐdis: cassis, cuspis, lăpis, and the Greek words aegis and pyramis.
Exc. 2.-The following have İis: Dis, lis, Quiris, and Samnis.
Exc. 3.-Ch̆nis and pulvis have ěris: as, ciněris. Cucŭmis has cucumĕris and cucǔmis.
Exc. 4.-Glis hàs glīris; pollis (or pollen), pollĭnis; sanguis (or sanguen), sanguǐnis; semis, semissis.
Note.-Greek nouns in is have generally is or ǐdis in the genitive. Chăris has Charǐtis; Salămis, Salamīnis; Sĭmǒis, Simoentis.
14. Of nouns in os, some have ōtis: as, nepos, nepōtis, $a$ grandson, and some öris: as, flos, flōris, a flower.
Exc.-Custos has custödis; ŏs, ossis; bos, bǒvis. The adjectives compos and impos have ŏtis. The Greek nouns hērōs, Mīnōs, and Trōs have ōis.
15. Nouns in us have their genitive in ĕris or ŏris: as, lătus, latĕris, side; nĕmus, nemŏris, a grove.
Exc. 1.-Incus, pălus, and subscus have ūdis; pěcus, a single head of cattle, a beast, has pecǔdis (while pěcus, pecŏris means cattle collectively); tellus has tellūris, and Věnus, Venĕris.
Exc. 2.-Monosyllables which have a long $u$ have their genitive in ūris; as, crūs, the leg. Grus and sus have uis; the adjective vétus, vetĕris; and intercus, intercŭtis.

Exc. 3.-Some Greek proper names in us have untis: as, Trăpězūs. Compounds ending in pūs (noós) have pŏdis: as, tripus and ©dǐpus; but the latter is sometimes, and poly̆pŭs always, made in the second declension. Rhüs has rhois and roris.
16. Greek nouns in ys have the genitive in yis, contracted ys, or in the Greek form yos. A few, as chlamys, have y̆dis.
17. The only nouns ending in aes are aes, aeris, and praes, praedis.
18. There are only two words in aus; lans, laudis, and fraus, fraudis.
19. Nouns in ls, ns, or rs have their genitive in tis: as, puls, pultis; fons, fontis; pars, partis. Nouns in s, bs, ms , or ps have their genitive in is: as, urbs, urbis; hiem(p)s, hiĕmis; stirps, stirpis.

Exc. 1.-Frons, glans, juglans, lens, and librǐpens have dis: as, frondis. Tiryns has Tirynthis.
Exc. 2.-Gryps has gry̆phis. Compounds in ceps (from capio) have ípis, as princeps, princĭpis. But auceps has aucŭpis.

Exc. 3.-Adjectives in ceps, derived from capat, have their genitive in cȟp̌tis: as, anceps, ancipǐtis.
20. Nouns in thave their genitive in İtis. They are caput, capǐtis, and its compounds, occǐput and sincǐput.
21. Nouns in x have their genitive in cis or gis: as, vōx, Vōcis, voice; lēx, lēgis, law.

1. Latin nouns in ax have ācis, except fax, făcis. .Most Greek nouns in ax have ācis, a few ăcis; Greek names of men in nax have nactis; as, Astyănax, Astyanactis.
2. Words in ex generally have ǐcis: as, judex, judǐcis; but rex and lex have ēgis; aquhlex, grex, and Lelex have ěgis; nex, foenisex, and the obsolete prex have ĕcis; vervex and Myrmex, ēcis. Remex has remĭgis; senex, senis; supellex, suppellectillis.
3. Nouns in ix have īcis, less frequently ǐcis. Nix has nĭvis, and strix, strĭgis.
4. The words in $0 x$ have ōcis; but Cappădox and the adjective praecoz have ǒcis. Nox has noctis; Allŏbrox, Allobrŏgis.
5. Crux, dux, nux, and the adjective trux have the genitive in urcis; the $\mathfrak{u}$ before $c$ is long only in the genitive of lux, lücis, and Pollux, Pollūcis. Conjunx (or conjux) has conjŭgis; the obsolete frux has frügis.
6. The words in yX are Greek; the genitive may be ycis, $\bar{y} c i s$, y̌gis, $\overline{\mathbf{y}} \mathrm{gis}$, or y̆chis.
7. Faex, faecis is the only word ending in aex; the only word in aux is faux, faucis.
III. The dative singular had an old form in $\bar{e}$, retained in some phrases.
IV. The termination -im in the accusative singular is retained
8. Always in ămussis, būris, rāvis, tussis, cŭcŭmis, sĭtis, vis, and the adverb partim (originally an accusative);
9. For the most part, but interchanging with -em, in fëbris, pelvis, puppis, restis, sĕcūris, turris;
10. Sometimes, but more often changed to -em, in clāvis, nāvis, and sēmentis;
11. In some Greek nouns and names of rivers.
V. The termination-i in the ablative singular is retained.
12. In nouns which have -im in the accusative (restī is doubtful) ;
13. Often in amnis, ăvis, axis, bīlis, bǐpennis, cǎnālis, cīvis, fustis, imber, and (in certain formulas) in ignis;
14. In neuter nouns in $-e,-\infty$, , and $-a r$; with the exception of jŭbar, baccar, and nectar, names of towns ending in ě, and sometimes măre and rēte ;
15. In nouns in -is (-älis, -āris, -ilis, -ensis), and names of months in -is, -er, which were originally adjectives; but such nouns often (aedīlis generally), and proper names of this kind almost always, have e. Jŭvěnis has always juvĕne.
VI. The pure locative in $-\overline{1}$ is found in such forms as orbī, rūrī, Lacedaemŏnī, Tībŭrī.
VII. The nominative and accusative plural of neuter nouns generally end in a; but nouns in e, al, and ar, have ia.
VIII. A nominative plural in is or eis occurs sometimes in Plautus and Lucretius.
IX. The genitive plural in ium is found
16. In parisyllabic nouns in -es and -is; except cănis, jŭvěnis, mensis, sēdēs, struēs, sŭbǒlēs, vātēs, sometimes ăpis, and usually vŏlŭcris ;
17. In imber, linter, ūter, venter, sĕquester, Insŭber ;
18. In gentile nouns in -as and -is, as Arpīnās, Quirrīs (but not in names of men; thus, Maecēnātum, of Muecenases);
19. In dos, lis, often in abstracts in -tas, as cīvǐtas, less frequently in abstracts in -tus, as virtus ;
20. In ars, as, dens, nox, ŏs, puls, sēmis ; most frequently in original participles in -ns, as părens, săpiens; in fraus, frons, laus ; rarely in compes, pălus ;
21. In arx, falx, faux, merx;
22. In urbs, stirps;
23. In glis, vis, mas, lar, nix, and sometimes in lien, mus, rēnēs.
X. Some plural words in -ālia, -ilia, -äria, follow the second declension in their genitive plural: as, Compitali-orum; ancili-orum.
XI. Nouns which have -ium in the genitive plural have in the classical period -is as well as -es in the accusative plural. A still older form in -eis occurs.

## 30. RULES FOR GENDER.

1. Concrete nouns in -io are masculine; as, scorpio, a scorpion; pūgio, a dagger.
2. Abstract and collective norns in -io are feminine ; as, rătio, reason; lĕgio, a legion.
3. Nouns in -do and -go, with the genitive in -inis, are feminine : as, magnǐtūdo, greatness; ĭmāgo, a likeness.
4. Other nouns in -o, together with ordo, cardo, and margo, are masculine.
5. Nouns in -ās -ātis, -ēs -ētis, -īs -ītis, -ōs -ōtis, -ūs -ūtis, and -ūs -ūdis, are feminine.
6. Parisyllables in -ēs are feminine.
7. Parisyllables in -is are feminine. But the following are masculine : nouns ending in -nis; also axis, būris, caulis collis, ensis, fascis, follis, fustis, mensis, mūgĭlis, orbis, piscis, postis, sentis, torris, unguis, vectis, vermis.
8. Nouns in-ǐs-ǐdis are feminine ; except lăpis, masculine.
9. Nouns in -ǐs -ĕris, and -ĭs -inis are masculine.
10. Nouns in -ěs -ǐtis are masculine; except merges, feminine.
11. Nouns in s with a consonant before it are feminine; except dens, fons, mons, and pons, which are masculine.
12. Nouns in $x$ are feminine ; but călix, fornix, grex, and most in -ex -icis and -ix -ǐcis are masculine.
13. Nouns in -ōs -ōris, -ŏr -ōris, -ěr -ris are masculine.
14. Nouns in -ěr -ěris; -ŏr -ŏris; -ŭr -ŭris and ŏris; -ŭs -ĕris and -ŏris; -ūs -üris (monosyllabic); -ăl -ālis; -ăr -äris; -厄-is; and -ĕn-inis are neuter. But arbor is feminine ; and agger, carcer, furfur, lăter, and pecten, are masculine.
15. The monosyllables as, mus, ren, sol, and sal, are masculine; fraus, grus, laus, sus, and vis, feminine; aes, cor, far, fel, lac, mel, ōs, ŏs, vas, and ver, neuter.
16. Păriēs and pēs are masculine; ănăs, pĕcŭs, sĕgěs, and tĕgĕs, feminine ; and căput, neuter.

Note 1.-Names of animals with neuter terminations are masculine : as, lĕpŭs, lĕpŏris, a hare.

Note 2.-Nouns derived from the Greek retain their original gender.
Note 3.-No rules of this kind can supersede the use of the Lexicon.
31. NOUNS IRREGULAR IN DECLENSION.

Note.-The stems of bōs, grūs, and sūs end in $u(v)$. So the stem Jǒv in Jūpĭter (for Jovpăter).

Bōs, m.or f., ox or cow.

Nom. bōs, Gen. bŏvĭs,
Dat. bŏvī,
Acc. bǒvěm, Voc. bōs, Abl. bǒvě.

Jūpǐter, m.,
Jupiter. Singular.

Jūpřter,
Jơvĭs,
Jð̌vī,
Jŏvĕm, Jūpřtěr, Jðvĕ.

Sūs, m. or f., a swine. sūs, sŭ1̆s, sŭī, sŭĕm, sūs, sŭĕ.

## Plural.

Nom. bð̌vēs,
GEn. b̌ŭum,
Dat. būbŭs or bōbŭs,
Acc. bðvēs,
Voc. bŏvēs,
ABL. būbŭs or bōbŭs.

## Vīs, f., <br> strength.

Nom. vīs,
Gen. (vīs, rare),
Dat. (vī, rare),
Acc. vĭm,
Voc. (wanting),
Abl. vī.

Nix, f., snow. Singular.
. nix,
nĭv1̆s,
ňvī,
nĬvĕm,
nix,
nǐvě.
sŭēs, sŭŭm, sŭ1̆bŭs or sŭbŭs, sŭēs, sŭēs, sŭ1̆bŭs or sŭbŭs.

Sĕnex, c., old man or woman. sěnex, sĕnั̆s, sĕnī, sĕnĕm, sĕnex, sĕnĕ.

| Nom. vīrēs, | Plural. nǐvēs, |  | sěnēs, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gen. vīriŭm, | nĭviŭm, |  | sěnŭm, |
| Dat. vīr̂̌bŭs, | nY̌vǐbŭs, | - | sěnı̌bŭs, |
| Acc. vīēs, | nı̆vēs, |  | sěnēs, |
| Voc. vīrēs, | nǐvēs, |  | sěnēs, |
| Abl. vīrǐbŭs. | nı̌vǐbŭs. |  | sěnǐbŭs. |

32. GREEK NOUNS.

33. Many Greek nouns of the third declension prefer the gen. in -1 (as of the secon 1 declension) to that in -is : as, Pericles, gen. Periclī (rather than Periclis).
34. The Greek gen. in -ŏs, the acc. in -ă, the nom. plur. in ěs, ē, and the acc. plur. in -ăs, $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$, are often preferred to the Latin terminations.
35. As the Greek gen. plur. in -on is sometimes found in the second declension, so is that in -eōn in the third : as, Metamorphoseōn, of the Metumorphöses.
36. In poetry, the dat. and abl. plur. sometimes end in -sř, before vowels -sĭn.

## The Fourth Declension.

## U- STEMS.

34. Nouns of the Fourth Declension end in us, Masculine or Feminine, and $\mathfrak{u}$, Neuter. They are thus declined:

Grădŭs, m., a step.
Singular.
Nom. grădŭs, Gen. grădūs, Dat. grăduī, Aco. grădŭm, Voc. grădŭs, Abc. grădū.

Plural.
grădūs, grădŭŭm, grădĭbŭs, grădūs, grădūs, grădǐbŭs.

Gĕnū, n., knee. Singular. Plural. gěnū, gěnŭă, gěnūs, gěnŭŭm, gěnū, gěnĭbŭs, gěnū, gěnŭă, gěnū, gĕnŭă, gĕnū. gĕnĭbŭs.

1. Several nouns of this declension have also forms belonging to the second : as, caestŭs, abl. plur. caestĭbŭs and caestīs.

Dŏmŭs, a house, f., is thus declined:

Singular.
Nom. dŏmŭs, Gen. dŏmūs, Loc. dŏmī (rarely dǒmŭī),
Dat. dŏmŭĭ (rarely dǒmō), Acc. dŏmŭm, Voc. dŏmŭs, Abs. dŏmō (rarely dŏmū).

Plural.
dormūs,
dǒmŭŭm or dŏmōrŭm,
dǒmĭbŭs,
dŏmōs or dŏmūs, dǒmūs, dǒmĭbŭs.
2. Many $u$ stems in the earlier Latin had the genitive singular in i: as, sěnātŭs, gen. sěnātī.
3. The dative in ui is often contracted into $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ : as, parce mětū, Verg.
4. The dative and ablative plural in ŭbus is retained always by ăcus, arcus, and trĭbus; usually by artus, lăcus, partus, portus, spĕcus, and Věru; and sometimes by gěnu, tŏnǐtrus, and Quinquātrūs.
5. Most nouns of this declension in us are masculine ; but the following are feminine: ăcus, dǒmus, mănus, portĭcus,
trǐbus, Idūs (plural), Quinquātrūs (plural); and words denoting females or plants. Spĕcus, m., is rarely feminine.

## The Fifth Declension.

## E- STEMS.

35. Nouns of the Fifth Declension end in ès, and are of the Feminine Gender.

They are thus declined:

Diès, c., a day.

Nom. diēs, Gen. diē̄̄,
Dat. diē̄,
Acc. diĕm,
Voc. diēs,
Abl. diē.

Nom. diēs,
Gen. diērŭm,
Dat. diēbŭs,
Acc. diēs,
Voc. diēs,
Abl. diēbŭs.

Rēs, f.,
a thing.
Singular.
rēs,
rěī,
rěī, rĕm, rēs, rè.

Plural.
rēs, rërŭm, rēbŭs,
rēs,
rēs,
rëbŭs.

Fĭdēs, f., faith.
fídēs, f ịdēi, fǐdĕī, fĭdĕm, f1̆dēs, f $\mathfrak{\text { İē. }}$
(no plural.)

1. Diēs and rēs are the only nouns of the fifth declension which have all the cases in both numbers.
2. In the termination ei of the genitive and dative, $e$ is long after $i$, as, prōgĕniēi ; but short, in the classical period, after a consonant.
3. The termination ei was also contracted into $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$, and anciently into $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$, as dǐē, dī̄. Examples: constantis jŭvĕnem fǐdē, and commissa fĭdē, Hor.; mūnĕra laetĭtiamque dii, Verg.
4. The phrases die crastĭni, die proxĭmi, die septĭmi,
are examples of the locative case in this declension. So cortīdie, postrīdie.
5. All nouns of the fifth declension are feminine ; except dies, which, if it means a day, is in the singular usually, and in the plural always, masculine; but if it means time, dies is feminine.
6. GENERAL VIEW OF ALL THE DECLENSIONS.

| 1st Decl. | 2d Decl. | 3d Decl. |  | 5 th Decl. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. mensă, | servŭs, | hornor, | fructŭs, | dǐès, |
| GEN. mensae, | servi, | honōrı̌s, | fructūs, | diēi, |
| Dat. mensae, | servō, | honnorı̄, | fructū], | diēi, |
| Acc. mensăm, | servŭm, | hơnðrĕm, | fructŭm, | diém, |
| Voc. mensă, | servé, | honør, | fructus, | diēs, |
| Abl. mensā. | servō. | hŏnōré. | fructū. | diē. |
|  |  | Plural, |  |  |
| Nom. mensae, | servī, | honōrēs, | fructūs, | diēs, |
| GEN. mensārum, | servōrŭm, | hðnörŭm, | fructŭŭm, | diērŭm, |
| Dat. mensīs, | servis, | honōrı̆bŭs, | fructibŭs, | diēbŭs, |
| Acc. mensās, | servōs, | honōrēs, | fructūs, | diēs, |
| Voc. mensae, | servī, | hơnōrēs, | fructūs, | diēs, |
| ABL. mensis. | servīs. | hǒnōrı̆bŭs. | fructĭbŭs. | diēbŭs. |

## 37. Defective and Irregular Nouns.

1. Some nouns are defective in number, or case, or both.
2. The following have the singular, but rarely the plural:
a Most proper names: as, Cícĕro, Rōma.
b Abstract nouns: as, justǐtia, justice.
c Words which indicate material: as, aurum, gold; hordeum, barley.
$d$ Words signifying a whole, without reference to the individual: as, plebs, the people; sŭpellex, furniture.
$e$ Other words which from their signification are never used in the plural: as, pontus, the sea; sanguis, blood; sŏpŏr, sleep; līmus, mud; hŭmus, the ground.

Note 1.-But proper names haye a plural when several of one name are mentioned: as, duodĕcim Caesărēs, the twelve Caesars; also when they are used as common nouns: as, multi Cătı̆linnae, many Catilines, i. e., many abandoned men.

Note 2.-When different things of a kind, or different manifestations of the same thing, are specified, the plural is used: as, vina, wines; ǒdia, various instances of hatred.
Note 3.-The poets often use plurals which are not met with in prose: as, sĭlentia, silences or silence.
3. The following are used almost solely in the plural:
a Words denoting individuals appearing in great numbers, in groups, or in pairs: as, majōres, ancestors; lībĕri, children (also sing.) ; excŭbiae, night-watch; artus, limbs (rarely sing.); ilia, the loins.
$b$ Names of things which have many parts: as, arma, armor; balneae, a bath-house; exŭviae, spoils (stripped from the dead) ; moenia, fortifications.
c Names of festivals and periods: as, Sāturnālia, the feast of Saturn; Kălendae, the Calends; Nōnae, the Nones; İdus, the Ides.
$d$ The following, with many more, come under one or other of the above heads; those marked $s$. are sometimes, though rarely, used in the sing. :
ambäges, a round-about woy (see fasti, a calendar. 5, below) ; evasive language or conduct.
angustiae, a strait, s.
argūtiae, witticisms, acuteness, s.
bīgae (quadrīgae), etc., a chariot and pair (or and four), s.
blandǐtiae, flattery, s. clītellae, a pack-saddle. compědes, shackles, s.
orĕpundi-a, -örum, n., a (child's) rattle.
cūnābŭl-a, and incūnābŭl-a, ōrum, n., a cradle.
cūnae, a cradle.
dèlĭciae, darling, s.
dīv̌̆tiae, wealth, s.
ĕpŭlae, a banquet, s.
exsĕquiae, funeral rites.
ext-a, -orum, n., entrails.
fauces, the throat, s.
grätes, thanks.
hăbēnae, reins, s.
indūciae, a truce.
infĕriae, offering to the dead.
Inĭmīč̌tiae, enmity, s . insĭdiae, ambush, s. lībĕri, m., children, s . mĭnae, threats. mūni-a, -orum, n., duties. nügae, trifles. nuptiae, a marriage-feast. preces, prayers, s. rĕlĭquiae, remnant, s. sălinae, salt-pits. scālae, a ladder, s. tĕnĕbrae, darkness, s. valvae, folding-doors, s.
4. Many names of towns (as consisting of parts), mountains (as groups or ridges), and hills, have no singular ; as,

Acrǒcĕrauni-a, -orum, n.
Alp-es, -ium (s. rare).
Amȳcl-ae, -arum.
Athēn-ae, -arum.
Ecbătăn-a, -orum.
Esquĭli-ae, -arum.

Găbi-i, -orum.
Părı̆si-i, -orum.
Pȟ̆lipp-i, -ōrum.
Sy̌rā̄̄̄̄̄s-ae, -arum.
Thermŏpy̆1-ae, -arum.
Vêi-i, -ōrum.
5. The following nouns, among others, want some of their cases:
admǒnǐtu, abl. only, admonition. aes, brass; wants gen. plur.
ambāge, abl., a round-about; plur. complete.
aplustre, nom. and acc., curved stern of a ship; plur., aplustr-a, or -ia.
astu, nom., acc., abl. s., a city.
astus, nom. sing., and acc. plur., craft; abl. sing., astu.
căcoēthes, nom. and acc., bad habit ; plur., nom. and acc., cacoethē ; acc., also -es.
caelīte, abl., inhabitant of heaven; plur. complete.
cānĭties, -em (acc.), -e (abl.), hoariness.
chaos, nom. and acc.; chao, abl.; chaos.
compědis, gen., and compĕde, abl., a fetter; plur. complete.
(daps), nom. wanting, a feast; rest of sing. and plur. complete.
(dicio), nom. wanting; rest of sing. complete; no plur.; power.
diu, abl., by day.
far, corn; wants gen., dat., and abl. plur.
fas, right; only nom. and acc. s.
fauce, abl., the throat; plur. complete.
forras, (to) out of doors; foris, abroad; acc. and abl.
fors, chance; abl. forte.
(frux), fruit; nom. wanting.
grātes, thanks; nom., acc., and ablplur. (grätibus).
hiemps, winter; wants gen., dat., and abl. plur.
impertis, gen., and impete, abl., vehemence; plur. impeť̌bus.
infítias, acc. plur., a denial.
ingrätiis, abl. plur., against one's will.
injussu, abl., without orders.
instar, nom. and acc., likeness.
jūgĕris, gen., and abl. jūgĕre, an acre; plur. -a, -um, -ibus, etc.
jussu, abl., by command.
lux, light; wants gen. plur.
mäne, nom. and acc.; abl., rarely māne or māni, the morning.
mel, honey; wants gen., dat., and abl. plur.
mĕlŏs, melody, nom. and acc.; mělo, dat.; plur., nom. and acc., měle.
mětus, fear; wants gen., dat., and abl. plur.
mŏň̌tu, abl., admonition.
nātu, abl., by birth.
nauci, gen., as in the phrase, Non nauci est, It is not worth a nutshell.
nĕfas, nom. and acc., wrong (by divine law).
nēmo, nobody; wants voc. sing. and all the plur. The gen. and abl. are rare.
nĭhı̆l, nom. and acc., nothing.
noctu, abl., by night.
ŏpis, gen.; ŏpem, acc.; ŏpe, abl.,
help; plur. complete.
ŏpus, need, nom. and acc.
ōs, the mouth; wants gen. plur. pax, peace; wants gen. plur.
pessum, to the bad; acc.
prěci, dat. ; prěcem, acc.; and prěce, abl., prayer; plur. complete.
promptu, abl., with readiness.
pūs, matter from suppuration; wants gen., dat., and abl. plur.
rěpĕtundārum, gen. plur.; and rě-
pĕtundis, abl., extortion. (Supply
rerum, rebus.)
rǒgātu, abl., by request.
rūs, the country; wants gen., dat., and abl. plur.
sěcus, sex; only nom. and acc.
sĭtus, situation, nom.; -um, acc.;
-u, abl.; -üs, nom. and acc. plur.
sol, the sun; wants gen. plur.
sordis, gen.; sordem, acc.; sord-e and -i, abl., filth ; plur. complete. spontis, gen. (very rare); sponte, abl., of one's own accord.
sŭbǒles, offspring; wants gen. plur.
Tempē, a valley in Thessaly; only in nom., acc., and voc. plur.
thūs, frankincense; wants gen., dat., and abl. plur.
vēnui and vēno, dat.; vēnum, acc.; and vēno, abl., sale.
veprem, acc.; vepre, abl., a brier; plur. complete.
vesper, evening; vespĕrum, acc.; vespĕr-e, -i, or -0 , abl.
vespĕr-a, -am, -a (abl.), the even. ing.
vǐcis, gen.; vici, dat.; vǐem, acc.; and vǐce, abl., change; plur. complete except gen.
vis, vim, vi; gen. and dat. rare; plur., vīres, vīrium, etc., strength.
6. Some nouns have a plural differing in gender and in formation from the singular. These are called Metaplasts or Heterogeneous :

Singular.
Masc.
Avernus, Avernus (lake).
Dindy̆mus, Dindymus (mt.).
Ismărus, Ismarus (mt.).
Maenălus, Maenalus (mt.).
Tartărus, Tartarus.
Masc.
intübus, (the plant) endive. jŏcus, a joke.
lŏous, a place.
sībľlus, a hissing.
Fem.
carbăsus, a species of flax.
Hiěrŏsŏly̆m-a, -ae, Jerusalem.

Plural.
Neut.

## Averna.

Dindy̆ma.
Ismăra.
Maenăla.
Tartăra, etc.

> Masc. or Neut.
intŭba and intŭbi.
jŏci and jŏca. [sages in books. lŏca, places, and lŏci, spots, or passībĭla (and sibili).

Fem. or Neut.
(carbăsi) and carbăsa (n.).
Hiêrŏ́soly̆̆m-a, -örum (n.).

Neut.
Argos, Argos. oaelum, Heaven. Ely̆sium, Elysium. porrum, a leek. siser, (the plant) skirret.

Neut.
frēnum, a bridle. rastrum, a rake.

## Neut.

balneum, a bath. ĕpŭlum, a feast. nundĭnum, a market. So also väs, väsis, n., a vessel (3d Decl.).

Masc.
Argi.
caeli.
Elysii.
porri.
sissěres.
Masc. or Neut.
frēni and frēna.
rastri and rastra.
Fem.
balneae and balnea (n.). ěpŭlae.
nundĭnae, a fair. vās-a, -ŏrum (2d Decl.), n.
7. Some nouns have two or more forms in one or more of the oblique cases, derivable from the same form in the nom. These are called Heteroclites: as, dŏmus, f., a house (see \} 34).
fămes, f., hunger ; abl., famĕ (3d Decl.), or famē (5th).
pěcŭs, pecŭdis, f., a single head of cattle; and pecus, pecŏris, n., cattle collectively.
pīnus, a pine; also fīcus, a fig-tree ; and laurus, a bay ( 2 d Decl.); but in
abl. sing., nom. and acc. plur. (4th Decl.).
rëqui-es, -etis, f., rest ; acc., -em (5th), or -etem (3d).
satrăp-es, -ae (1st), and satrap-es, -is (3d), a satrap or governor.
sĕnät-us, -i, or -us, the senate.
8. Some nouns have two forms of the same or different declensions. They are called Abundantia, or Redundant: as, băcŭl-us, or -um (2d), a staff. balte-us, or -um (2d), a girdle. clǐpe-us, or -um (2d), a shield.
dilŭvi-um, -i (2d); -0, -ōnis (3d); and dilŭvi-es, -ēi (5th), a flood.
düríti-a, -ae (1st), or duriti-es, -ёi (5th), hardness.
event-us, -ūs (4th), or -um, -i (2d), an occurrence.
jŭvent-ūs, -ūtis (3d), or juvent-a, -ae (1st), youth.
luxŭri-a, -ae (1st), and luxuri-es, -ēi (5th), luxury.
mātĕri-a, -ae (1st), or mātěri-es, ēi (5th), material, stuff.
plebs, plēb-is or plēb-ēs, plēb-is (3d), or plēb-ēs, -ei (5th), the commons. sestertius ( 2 d m .), a sesterce, about four cents ; sestertium ( 2 d n .), a thousand sesterces.
vesper, gen. vespĕr-i (2d); or vesper, gen. vespĕr-is (3d); or vespĕr-a, -ae (1st), the evening; with many others.
9. Some nouns have a meaning in the plural more or less different from that of the singular: as,

Singular.
aedes, a temple. ăqua, water. auxilium, help. bǒnum, a good, a blessing. carcer, a prison. castrum, a fort. cēra, wax. cōdǐcillus, a bit of wood. cơmĭtium, a place of meeting. cöpia, plenty. facultas, a power or faculty. fïdes, harp-string. finis, an end. fortūna, fortune. grātia, favor. impědīmentum, a hindrance. littera, a letter of the alphabet.
lūdus, play, a fencing-school.
lustrum, a period of five years.
nāris, a nostril.
nātālis, a birthday.
ơpěra, labor, toil.
ŏpis, gen., help.
pars, a part.
plăga, region.
rostrum, a beak.
sāl, salt.
tăbella, tablet.
tăbŭla, a board, plank.
torrus, a couch.

## Plural.

aedes, temples, or a house. ăquae, waters, or medicinal springs. auxĭlia, auxiliary troops.
bŏna, goods, property. carcĕres, a starting-post, barriers. castra, a camp.
cērae, waxen tablets or busts. cōdīcilli, tablets. comintia, the Assembly at Rome. cōpiae, troops, stores, resources. facultates, means or resources. fĭdes, lyre.
fines, boundaries or territory. fortūnae, gifts of fortune. grātiae, thanks. impĕdīmenta, baggage. littērae, letters of the alphabet, or an epistle, or literature.
lüdi, public games.
lustra, lairs, dens.
nārēs, the nose.
nātāles, pedigree, descent.
ǒpĕrae, workmen.
opes, wealth, resources, power.
partes, parts; the part of an actor in a play; a party or faction.
plăgae, snares.
rostra, the hustings, or place from which the orators at Rome addressed the people.
săles, wit, witticisms.
tăbellae, documents.
tăbŭlae, boards: an account-book, register; writing-tablets.
tǒri, muscles.

Note.-Many nouns in this list have occasionally in the singular the same meaning as that which is found in the plural.

## Declension of Adjectives.

38. Adjectives and Participles are declined like Nouns of similar terminations.
39. The study of the declension of adjectives is therefore like a review of the corresponding declensions of nouns.
40. Adjectives of the First and Second Declension end in us or er, Masculine; a, Feminine; and um, Neuter ; and are thus declined:

Bŏnŭs, m., b̆̆nă, f., b̆̆nŭm, n., good. Singular.

Masc.
Nom. bonŭus, Gen. bŏn̄̄,
DAT. bŏnō,
Aco. bŏnŭm,
Voc. bǒnĕ,
Abl. bǒnō.

Nom. bǒnī, Gen. bǒnōrŭm,
Dat. bǒnīs, Aco. bǒnōs,
Voc. bø̌n̄
Abl. by̌nīs.

Fem.
bŏnă,
bø̌nae,
bŏnae,
bŏnăm,
bø̆nă,
bŏnā.

Plural.
bǒnae,
bǒnārŭm,
bǒnīs,
bŏnās,
bǒnae, bǒnīs.

Neut. bð̌nŭm, bǒnī, bŏnō, bŏnŭm, bŏnŭm, bŏnō.

Tĕnĕr, tĕnĕră, těněrŭm, tender.
Singular.

Nom. těněr, Gen. těněrī, Dat. těnĕrō, Aco. těnĕrŭm, Voo. těny̌r, Abl. těněrō.
těněră,
těněrae,
těněrae,
těněrăm,
těnerră,
těnĕrā.
tĕnĕrum, těněrī, těnĕrō, těnĕrŭm, těnĕrŭm, těněrō.

| Masc. | Plural. Fem. | Neut. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. těněrī, | těněrae, | těněră, |
| Gen. texněrōrum, | těněrārum, | těněrōrum, |
| Dat. těněrīs, | těněrīs, | těněrīs, |
| Aco. těněrōs, | těněrās, | těněră, |
| Voc. těněrī, | těněrae, | těněră, |
| Abl. těněrīs. | tenněrīs. | těněrīs. |

Pǐgĕr, pigră, pigrŭm, lazy.

Nom. pĭgĕr,
Gen. pigrī,
Dat. pigrō,
Acc. pigrŭm,
Voc. pĭgĕr,
Abl. pigrō.
Nom. pigrī,
Gen. pigrōrǔm,
Dat. pigrīs,
Acc. pigrōs,
Voc. pigrī,
Abl. pigrīs.

Singular.
pigră, pigrae, pigrae, pigrăm, pigră, pigrā.

## Plural.

pigrae,
pigrārǔm, pigrīs, pigrās, pigrae, pigrīs.
pigrŭm, pigrī, pigrō, pigrŭm, pigrŭm, pigrō.
pigră, pigrōrŭm, pigrīs, pigră, pigră, pigrīs,
40. Participles ending in ŭs, ă, ŭm are declined like bŏnŭs.

1. Dextěr, on the right hand, has the two forms dextěră and dextră in the feminine, and dextěrŭm and dextrŭm in the neuter.
2. The following adjectives have the genitive singular in iŭs and the dative in $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$ : ălius, nullus, sōlus, tōtus, ullus, ūnus, alter, ŭter, neuter. Thus:

Tōtŭs, tōtă, tōtŭm, whole.
Singular.

Masc.
Nom. tōtŭs, Gen. tōtīŭs, Dat. tōtī, Acc. tōtŭm, Voc. tōtĕ, Abl. tōtō.

Fem. tōtă, tōtīŭs, tōtī, tōtăm, tōtă, tōtā.

> Neư. tōtūm, tōtīŭs, tōtī, tōtŭm, tōtŭm, tōtō.

The plural is regular, like that of bŏnŭs.

1. The $\overline{\mathrm{I}}$ of the penult in these genitives is long, and takes the accent in prose, except in altěrĭus. In poetry it is sometimes shortened.
2. Ălŭŭs has in its genitive singular ălĭŭs, and in the dative ălii. In the nominative and accusative neuter it has ăliŭd.
3. Some of these adjectives and pronominal words are occasionally found with the common endings in the genitive or dative.
4. Adjectives of the Third Declension are of three classes: (1) a small number with three terminations in the nominative singular, one for each gender, -ĕr, -rǐs, -rě ; (2) many with two terminations, -is Masculine and Feminine, -e Neuter, and comparatives in -or Masculine and Feminine, -ŭs Neuter; and (3) many in $\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{l}$, $\mathbf{s}$, or $\mathbf{x}$, with one termination for all genders. They are thus declined:

## Ācĕr or ācrǐs, ācř̌s, ācrĕ, sharp.

Singular.

Masc.
Nom. ācĕr, Gen. ācrǐs, Dat. ācrī, Aco. ācrĕm,
Voo. ācĕr, Abl. ācrī.

Fem.
ācrǐs, ācrĭs, ācrī, ācrĕm, ācrǐs, ācrì.

Plural.
Nom. ācrēs, Gen. ācriŭm, $\mathrm{Dat}. \mathrm{ācrïbŭs,}^{\text {and }}$ Aco. ācrēs, īs, Voc. ācrēs, Abl. ācrǐbŭs.
ācrēs, ācriŭm, ācrǐbǔs, ācrēs, īs, ācrēs, ācrǐbŭs.

Neut. ācrĕ, ācrīs, ācrī, ācrĕ, ācrĕ, ācrī.
ācriă, ācriŭm, ācrǐbŭs, ācriă, ācriă, ācrǐbŭs.

1. Cĕlĕr, cĕlĕrǐs, cĕlĕrĕ, swift, is the only adjective of this class which retains $\mathbf{e}$ before $r$ through all the cases. Its genitive plural ends in ium when it is used merely as an adjective, but in um when it signifies the ancient body-guard at Rome, called Čelĕrēs.
2. Mītĭs, mītĕ, mild.

Singular.
Plural.

| Masc. and Fem. | Neut. | Masc. and Fem. | Neut. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. mitis, | miter, | mitēs, | mitiă, |
| Gen. mitis, | mitis, | mītiŭm, | mitiŭm, |
| Dat. mitī, | mitī, | mitǐbǔs, | mitibus, |
| Acc. mitĕm, | mītĕ, | mitēe, is, | mitiă, |
| Voc. mitis, | mitĕ, | mitēs, | mitiă, |
| Abl. miti. | mitì. | mitiobŭs, | mitĭbŭs. |

1. An ablative singular in ě is sometimes found in poetry.

## 44.-1. Mītǐơr, mītĭŭs, milder.

Singular.

Masc. and Fem.
Nom. mitiŏr, Gen. mītiōrǐs, Dat. mītiörī, Acc. mītiōrĕm, Voc. mitiorr, Abl. mītiōrĕ, -ī.

Neut.
mitiŭs, mītiōrīs, mītiōrī, mitiŭs, mitiŭs, mītiōrĕ, $-\overline{1}$. mītiōrĭbŭs.

Plural.
Masc. and Fem. mitiōrēs, mītiōrŭm, mītiōrĭbŭs, mītiōrēs, -īs, mitiōrēs,

Neut. mītiōră, mītiōrŭm, mitiōrĭbŭs, mítiōră, mītiōră, mitiōrĭbŭs.
2. The comparative plūs, more, plural, plūrēs, plūră, is thus declined :

Singular.
Neut.
Nom. plūs,
Gen. plūrǐs,
Dat. wanting,
Acc. plūs,
Abl. plūrĕ.

Plural.
Neut. plūră (-iă), plūriŭm, plūrǐbŭs, plūra (-ia), plūrǐbŭs.
3. The comparative degree was formed by adding to the clipt stem the termination -īs, which was changed in the nom. sing., masc. and fem., to Ior, in the oblique cases to iorr, and appears in the neut. nom. sing. as iŭs.
4. Complūrēs, several, is declined like plūrēs.
5. The ablative in $-i$ in comparatives is rare.
6. Plürēs and complürès are the only comparatives which have the gen. plur. in ium.
45. Fēlix, happy; $(\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{es})$. Prūdens, wise. Vĕtŭs, old.

| Masc. a | Fem. Neut. | Masc. and Fem. Neut. | Masc. and Fem. Nein |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. | fêlix, | prūdens, | ětǔ |
| Gen. | fêliciss, | prūdentiss, | terrıs, |
| Dat. | fêlīcì | prūdentī, | vêtěrī, |
| Acc. | fêliceorm, fêlix, | prūdentĕm, prūdens, | vêterě̆m, vêtŭs, |
| Voc. | fêlix, | prūdens, | vêtǔs, |
| Abl. | fêlīcī, -ĕ. | prūdentī, -ē. | vêtereĕ. |

Plural.
Nom. fêlīcēs, fêlīciă, prūdentēs, prūdentiă, vêterēs, věterră, Gen. fēlīciŭm, prūdentiŭm, Dat. fēlicǐbŭs, Acc. fêlīcès, -ìs, fêlīciă, Voc. fêlīcēs, fêlíciă, ABL. fēlicǐbŭs.

## Ămans, loving.

Masc. and Fem. Neut.
Nom. ămans, Gen. ămantǐs, Dat. ămantī, Acc. ămantĕm, ămans, Voc. ămans, ABL. ămantě, -ī.

Nom. ămantēs, ămantǐa, Gen. ămantiŭm, Dat. ămantĭbŭs, Acc. ămantēs, ămantia, Voc. ămantēs, ămanția, Abl. ămantǐbŭs.

Singular.
Masc. and Fem. Neut. Masc. and Fem. Neut. prūdens, větŭs, prūdentĭs, vêterř̆s, prūdentī, vetterì,
prūdentĕm, prūdens, vetterěm, větŭs, prūdens, větǔs, prūdentī, -ě. vetterě̆.
as, andāc-ium, prūdent-ium. Those which have a short vowel before the final consonant have -um. These rules, however, have some exceptions.

Participles also have -ium ; but when used as nouns they have sometimes -um.
4. Composite adjectives follow in the genitive plural the declension of the nouns or adjectives from which they are derived: as, concors, concordum; anceps, ancĭpǐtum; quadrŭpes, quadrŭpĕdum. Their neuter plural, however, has generally ia: as, ancĭpǐtia, versiccŏlöria, quadrŭpědia.

## 46. IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES.

1. Some adjectives have two forms, one like bŏnŭs, the other like tristis or prūdens:
acclīv̌̌s (ŭs), steep;
brjŭgĭs (ŭs), two-yoked; effrēnŭs (Ĭs), unbridled; ūnănY̌mŭs (is), of one mind; hylărı̆s (ŭs), cheerful;

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { imbēeillŭs (Ĭs), weak; } \\
& \text { imberbĬs (̆̆s), beardless; } \\
& \text { Ynermŭs (Ĭs), unarmed; } \\
& \text { Øpŭlentŭs (ðpŭlens), wealthy; } \\
& \text { viőlentŭs (viølens), violent. }
\end{aligned}
$$

So exănım-ŭs, ǐs; sěmiănım-ŭs, Ǐs; sublim-ĭs, ŭs; and others.
The Adverb lūcŭlentĕr implies an old form lūcŭlens.
2. Some adjectives are defective in Number:
pauci, few, is rarely sing. (Hor. ad Pis. 203) ; plērīque, most, is found sing. with collective words: "plērăque nōbrlitas" (for plērīque nōbrles), Sallust.
3. Some adjectives are defective in Case and Number :
a. Two cases :

Nom. Sing. pernox, Abl. pernocte, all night. Nom. and Acc. Sing. něcessě, necessary, from necessis (obsolete). Necessum, from necessus (obs.), is found in old poetry.
b. One case :

Nom. sing. damnas, condemned (for damnāt(u)s), with esto: but used also idiomatically as Nom. Pl. with sunto; exspes, hopeless; potis, pŏte, able, possible.
c. Of some, the Nominatives are not found, but other cases only :
(sons), guilty; sontes, the guilty: but insons, innocent, has full cases. Macte, Voc. Sing., macti, Voc. Pl., are used with esto, este, be blessed, be lucky, etc. Macte (macti) virtūte esto (este), good luck to you for your valor.
d. The Dat. Sing. frūgi, for good, is used as an indeclinable adjective of all cases: frugi servus, a good honest slave. Opposed to this is the indeclinable adjective nēquam, good for nothing.

## Comparison of Adjectives.

47. Adjectives are compared regularly by adding to the consonant-stem* of the Positive the terminations -ior, Masculine and Feminine, and -ius, Neuter, for the Comparative, and -issǐmus, -a, -um, for the Superlative: as,

Pos. dūrŭs, dūriơr, tristǐs, felix,

Comp. tristiŏr, fēlīciơr

Superl.
dūrissǐmŭs, hard, harder, hardest. tristissĭmŭs, sad, sadder, saddest. fēlīcissĭmŭs, happy, happier, happiest.

1. Before Augustus, the superlative ended in ŭmus instead of imus.
2. Adjectives in -ĕr form the superlative by adding -rĭmŭs to the nominative : $\dagger$ as,

| Positive. <br> cĕlĕr, swift; <br> pulchĕr, beautiful; | Comparative. <br> cělĕriŏr, <br> pulchriŏr, | Superlative. <br> cělerrímŭs. <br> pulcherrĭmŭs. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

Note.-Větus has in the superlative věterrǐmus (comparative větustior, rarely větěrior); mātūrus, mātūrissĭmus and māturrĭmus; sălūbris, sălūberrǐmus.

1. Six adjectives in ǐlis form the superlative by changing ĭs into limus; $\dagger$ they are
făcǐlĭs, easy; sĭmĭlĭs, like; grăcĭlĭs, slender; diffǐcĭlĭs, hard; dissĭmǐlĭs, unlike; hŭmĭlĭs, looly. Thus: Pos. făcǐlĭs, Comp. făcǐliŏr, Superl. făcillĭmŭs.

## 49. IRREGULAR OR DEFECTIVE COMPARISON.

1. The following adjectives are either deficient in the positive degree, or form their comparative and superlative irregularly or from a different stem :

Positive. Comparative. Superlative.
bǒnus, good,
mălus, bad,
mělior, better, pëjor, worse,
optǐmus, best. pessǐmus, worst.

* That is, the clipt stem, left after the removal from the full stem of the vowel after its last consonant.
$\dagger$ In other words, they double the last consonant of the uncontracted stem, and change the termination to ìmus.

Positive.
mägnus, great, parvus, small, multus, much, nëquam (indecl.), wicked, $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { dīvěs, } \\ \text { dīs, }\end{array}\right\}$ rich, sĕnex, old,
jŭvěnis, young,
ădŭlescens, young, $\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { pǒtis, pŏter (indecl.), } \\ \text { able, possible, }\end{array}\right\}$
(no positive, cf. แ̀кús),
frügi (indecl.),
ěgēns,
ëgènus,
bĕněvolus,
bĕnĕvŏlens (Plaut., Ter.), $\}$ mălĕvŏlus,
mălĕvŏlens (Plaut.), \}
mălĕdǐcus,
mălĕdīcens (Plaut.), $\}$
běnĕfícus,
măě̆fícus,
magnĭfǐcus, mūnĭfǐcus,
mīrîficus,
hŏnōrĭfǐcus,
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { prō̄Ĭdus, } \\ \text { prōil̃dens, }\end{array}\right\}$
cītrā (adv.), on this side,
dē (prep.), down from,
extrā (adv.), extĕr (adj.),
outside (very rare in $\}$ sing.), externus,
infrā (adv.), infĕr (adj.), low, (chiefly used in plur., the beings, places, etc., below),

Comparative.
mājor, greater, minor, less, plūs (neut.), more, nēquior, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { dīv̌tior, } \\ \text { dītior, }\end{array}\right.$ sĕnior, f $\mathrm{jünior}$ (sometimes $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { post-Aug. jŭvě- } \\ \text { nior), }\end{array}\right.$ adulescentior, pŏtior, better,
ōcĭor, swifter, frūgālior, egentior, benevolentior, malevolentior, maledīcentior, beneficentior,
magnificentior,
honorificentior,
providentior,
chtěrior,
dētĕrior, worse, extĕrior,
infĕrior,

Superlative. märimus, greatest. mĭnĭmus,* least. plūrĭmus, most. nēquissǐmas. dīǐtissĭmus (Cic.). dītissĭmus (Aug. and post-Aug.).
(nātu māxímus).
(nātu mĭnĭmus).
(nātu mĭnĭmus). pǒtissĭmus, best. ōcissĭmus. frūgālissǐmus. egentissĭmus.
benevolentissĭmus.
malevolentissǐmus.
maledīcentissǐmus.
beneficentissimus. maleficentissĭmus. magnificentissĭmus. munificentissĭmus.
$\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { mirificisš̆mus (Ter. } \\ \text { once). }\end{array}\right.$
honorificentissĭmus.
providentissĭmus.
č̌tǐmus.
dēterrìmus.
$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { extrēmus. } \\ \text { extímus. }\end{array}\right.$
$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { infímus. } \\ \text { imus. }\end{array}\right.$

Positive.
intra (adv.), within, post, postěrus, next (in time),
prae (prep.), before, prŏpe (adv.), near, suprā ( $a d v$. ), sŭpĕr ( $a d j$. ), high, (chiefly used in plur. the beings, places, etc., above), ulträ (adv.), beyond,

Comparative. intĕrior, inner, \{ postĕrior, hinder, later,
prior, former, prŏpǐor,
sŭpĕrior,

Superlative. intimus, inmost. postrēmus, last. postŭmus, last-born. prīmus, first. proxǐmus. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { suprēmus, highest, } \\ \text { last (in time). } \\ \text { summus. }\end{array}\right.$
ultěrior, farther, ultĭmus, farthest.
2. The following have the superlative, but not the comparative: bellus, caesius, dīversus, falsus, inclŭtus, invictus, invītus, mĕrĭtus, nŏvus, săcer, văfer.
3. The following have the comparative, but not the superlative:

Verbals in -ǐlis (except amābilissimus, mōbilissimus, fertilissimus, ūtilissimus, nöbilissimus):
ălăcer, agrestis, arcānus, caecus, diūturnus, exīlis, jējūnus, jŭvěnis, longinquus, oblīquus, ǒpīmus, proclīvis, prōnus, sătur, segnis, sěnex, sērus, sŭpīnus, surdus, tăcĭturnus, tempestīvus, vīcīnus.
Sǐnister has the superlative sĭnistĭmus only in augurial language.
50. Many adjectives, which express an absolute state or quality (as material, e. g., aureus; time, e. g., nocturnus; special relationship, e. g., păternus), which does not readily admit the idea of a higher or lower degree, have no comparative or superlative. In some others they are wanting without any such apparent reason.

If a comparison is required in such adjectives, the defect is supplied by adding măgis and maxĭme. Thus, magis mīrus, more wonderful, maxime mirus, most wonderful.

Adjectives used only in the positive are chiefly of the following classes :

1. Derivatives ending in -ǐcus, -īnus, -īvus, -örus, -tǐmus, -ŭlus, -ālis or -āris, -īlis, and (from nouns) in -ātus and -ītus, as cīvǐcus, nātūrālis, etc., barbātus, crīnītus.

Exceptions: aequalior ; capitalior ; civilior (Ov.) ; familiarior, familiarissimus; frugalior, frugalissimus; hospitalissimus (Cic.) ; juvenilior (Ov.) ; liberalior, liberalissimus; popularior; puerilior (Hor.); salutarior.
2. Compounds; as, inops, magnanĭmus, etc.

Except those named above from volo, dico, facio (49, 1).
Except also amentior, amentissimus; concordior, concordissimus; deformior; dementior, dementissimus; immänior, immanissimus; inertior, inertissimus; ingentior; insignior; misericordior; perennior; sollertior, sollertissimus.
3. Adjectives ending in -us, preceded by a vowel.

Exc. a. U often is, or becomes, consonantal, and thus allows a comparative or superlative without difficulty; as in -quus and -gais; e. g. antīquior, antiquissimus; pinguior, pinguissimus; propinquior; salutarior; tenuis, tenuior, tenuissimus.
b. industrior (Plaut.) ; piisimus (condemned by Cic. Phil. 13, 19, but used by Antony, Sen., Curt., Tac.).
4. The following, also, have at least ordinarily only the positive: albus, almus, calvus, cānus, clandus, curvus, fĕrus, gnārus, gnāvus, lassus, mědiŏcris, měmor, imměmor, mīrus, rŭdis, trux.
51. Many present and past participles have comparatives and superlatives; as,

1. Present Participle:
amans, appětens, ardens, contĭnens, egens, fervens, flagrans, florens, indulgens, neglĕgens, patiens, tempěrans, tuens, valens, etc.
2. Past Participle:
acceptus, accurātus, adstrictus, apertus, aversus, concitātus, conjunctus, contemptus, dissolūtus, doctus, effüsus, erudītus, exoptātus, expedītus, instructus, intentus, munītus, obstinātus, parātus, perdĭtus, perfectus, promptus, refertus, remōtus, etc.

## 52. COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

1. Adverbs in $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$, $\overline{\mathrm{o}}$, $\check{\mathrm{e}}$, těr, etc., derived from Adjectives, often follow their Comparison, with Comparative ending ŭs, Superlative $\overline{\mathbf{e}}(\overline{\mathbf{0}}, \mathrm{um})$ :


| Adv. |  | Compar. |  | Superl. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | prius | sooner | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { prīmum } \\ \text { prīmo } \end{array}\right.$ | first at first |
|  |  | prtius | rather | potissǐmum | preferably |
|  |  | dētěrius | worse | deterrimmē | very badly |
| intus | within | interius |  | intĭmē |  |
| post | after | posterius |  | postrēmo |  |
| prope | nearly | propius |  | proxímē |  |

So also : saepě, often, saepiŭs, saepissĭme; din̄, long, diūtiŭs, diñtisš̆me; pěnǏtŭs, deeply, pěnYtiŭs, pěňtisšme; sătǏs, enough, sătiŭs; sěcŭs, otherwise, sētiŭs; tempĕrī, betimes, tempěriŭs; nūpěr, lately, nūperrı̆me.

Note.-MăgIs means more in degree; plūs, more in quantity.

## 53. NOTES ON COMPARISON.

1. The Comparative may imply a degree too high (higher than is right), or rather high, somewhat high (higher than ordinary) : as, vǒluptas cum major est atque longior, etc., when pleasure is too great and too long continued; sennectus est lŏquācior, old age is rather talkative.
2. When two adjectives or adverbs are compared with each other, both are often put in the comparative : as, longior quam lātior, rather long than broad; fortius quam fēlīcius, with more courage than success. But with măgis-quam, each word is in the positive: as, măgis audacter quam parātē.
3. The Superlative may denote simply a very high degree : as, vir doctissimus, a very learned man (i. e., in the highest grade of learning).
4. Vel, even, and quam, with or without possum, as much as possible, before the Superlative, render it more emphatic.
5. The Superlative with quisque denotes each single one who possesses the quality in the highest degree, but is best translated with all or clways: as, optimus quisque, all the best men, or the best man always.
6. Per and prae in composition often denote a high degree of a quality; sub a low degree.

## Numerals.

54. The Cardinal Numerals are adjectives answering the question Quot, how many? as, ūnus, one; quinque, five.
55. The Ordinal Numerals are adjectives answering the question Quŏtus, which in order of number? as, quintus, the fifth.
56. The Distribative Numerals are adjectives answering the question Quotēni, how many each? or how many each time? as, quini, five apiece, or by fives, five at a time.
57. The Numeral Adverbs answer the question Quotiens, how often? as, semel, once; quinquies (or quinquiens), five times.

CARDINAL NUMERALS.

| Arabic. | Roman Symbols. | Cardinals. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 1 | unnus, a, um, one. |
| 2 | II | duð, ae, o, two. |
| 3 | III | trēs, tria. |
| 4 | IIII or IV | quattuor. |
| 5 | V | quinque. |
| 6 | VI | sex. |
| 7 | VII | septem. |
| 8 | VIII | octo. |
| 9 | VIIII or IX | nðvem. |
| 10 | X | dĕcem. |
| 11 | XI | unděcim. |
| 12 | XII | duoděcim. |
| 13 | XIII | trěděcim; decem et tres ; tres et decem. |
| 14 | XIIII or XIV | quattuorděcim; decem et quattuor. |
| 15 | XV | quinděcim. |
| 16 | XVI | sēděcim ; sexděcim; decem et sex. |
| 17 | XVII | decem et septem; s. et d. ; septemděcim. |
| 18 | XVIII | duơdēvíginti (decem et octo). |
| 19 | XVIIII or XIX | undēriginti (decem et novem). |
| 20 | XX | viginti. |
| 21 | XXI | unus et viginti ; viginti unus. |
| 22 | XXII | duo et viginti ; viginti duo. |
| 28 | XXVIII | duodetriginta (octo et viginti). |
| 29 | XXIX | undetriginta (novem et viginti). |
| 30 | XXX | trigintā. |
| 40 | XL | quadräginta. |
| 50 | L | quinquāginta. |
| 60 | LX | sexäginta. |
| 70 | LXX | septuăginta. |
| 80 | LXXX | octōginta. |
| 90 | XC | nōnăginta. |
| 98 | IIC | nonaginta octo ; octo et nonaginta. |
| 99 | IC | nonaginta novem; undēcentum. |

## CARDINAL NUMBERS－（Continued）．

| Arabic． | Roman Symbols． | Cardinals． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 100 | C | centum． |
| 101 | CI | centum et unus；centum unus． |
| 136 | CXXXVI | centum et triginta sex ；c．tr．s． |
| 200 | CC | dŭcenti，ae，a． |
| 300 | CCC | trěcenti，ae，a |
| 400 | CCCC | quadringenti，ae，a． |
| 500 | $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{D}}$ or D | quingenti，ae，a． |
| 600 | $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{p}} \mathrm{C}$ or DC | sescenti，ae，a． |
| 700 | $\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{D}} \mathrm{CC}$ or DCC | septingenti，ae，a． |
| 800 | $\mathrm{I}_{5} \mathrm{CCC}$ or DCCC | octingenti，ae，a． |
| 900 | $\mathrm{I}_{0} \mathrm{CCCC}$ or DCCCC | nongenti，ae，a． |
| 1，000 | $\mathrm{CI} \mathrm{D}^{\text {or }} \mathrm{M}$ | mille． |
| 2，000 | $\mathrm{CI}_{0} \mathrm{CI}_{0}$ or MM | duo millia（bis mille）． |
| 5，000 | IOD | quinque millia． |
| 10，000 | CCIOD | decem millia． |
| 50，000 | IODO | quinquaginta millia． |
| 100，000 | CCCIDOD | centum millia ；centēna millia． |
| 1，000，000 | $\mathrm{CCCCI}_{\text {〇〇〇 }}$ | děcies centum millia；děcies． |

ORDINALS，DISTRIBUTIVES，AND NUMERAL ADVERBS．

| ¢ | Ordinals． -us, -a, -um. | Distributives． -i, -ae, -a. | Numeral Adverbs． <br> （－ies or－iens．） |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | primus，first | singŭli，one by one | sěmel，once． |
| 2 | sěcundus（or alter）， second | bini，two by two | bis，twice． |
| 3 | tertius，third | terni or trini | ter，thrice． |
| 4 | quartus | quăterni | quăter，four times． |
| 5 | quintus | quini | quinquies or quinquiens． |
| 6 | sextus | sēni | sexies． |
| 7 | septǐmus | septëni | septies． |
| 8 | octāvus | octōni | octies． |
| 9 | nōnus | ň̌vēni | nðvies． |
| 10 | dečimus | dēni | decies． |

(Continued).

|  | Ordinals. -us, -a, -um. | Distributives. -i, -ae, -a. | Numeral Adverbs. (-ies or -iens.) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 11 | undeçimus | undēni | unděcies. |
| 12 | duodecimus | duodeni | duodecies. |
| 13 | tertius decimus (decimus et tertius) | terni deni | terdecies or trexdecies. |
| 14 | quartus decimus (decimus et quartus) | quaterni deni | quattuordecies or quater d. |
| 15 | quintus decimus | quini deni | quindecies or quinquies d. |
| 16 | sextus decimus | seni deni | sēdecies or sexies decies. |
| 17 | septimus decimus | septeni deni | septiesdecies. |
| 18 | duodevicēsimus (octavus decimus) | duodevicēni | duodevicies or octies d. |
| 19 | undevicesimus (nonus decimus) | undeviceni | undevicies or novies d. |
| 20 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { vicēsımus } \\ & \text { mus) or } \\ & \text { (vigesi- } \\ & \text { mus } \end{aligned}$ | vicēni | vicies. |
| 21 | unus et vicesimus (primus et vic.; vic. pr.) | viceni singuli | semel et vicies or v. s. |
| 22 | alter et vicesimus (v. a.; duo et vic.) | viceni bini | bis et vicies or $\mathrm{\nabla} . \mathrm{b}$. |
| 28 | duodetricesimus (octāvuset vicesimus) | duodetriceni | octies et vicies. |
| 29. | undetricesimus (nonus et vicesimus) | undetriceni | novies et vicies. |
| 30 | tricesimus (trigesimus) or tricensimus | triceni | tricies. |
| 40 | quadragesimus | quadrageni | quadrāgies. |
| 50 | quinquagesimus | quinquageni | quinquāgies. |
| 60 | sexagesimus | sexageni | sexāgies. |
| 70 | septuagesimus | septuageni | septuăgies. |
| 80 | octogesimus | octogeni | octōgies. |
| 90 | nonagesimus | nonageni | nōnāgies. |
| 98 99 | nonagesimusoctavus undēcentesimus | nonageni octoni undecenteni | nonagies octies. undecenties. |


| Arabic. | Ordinals. -us, -a, -um. | Distributives. $-\mathrm{i},-a \theta,-a .$ | Numeral Adverbs <br> (-ies or -iens.) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & 100 \\ & 101 \\ & 136 \\ & 200 \\ & 300 \\ & 400 \\ & 500 \\ & 600 \\ & 700 \\ & 800 \\ & 900 \end{aligned}$ | centēsimus or centensimus centesimus primus centesimus tricesi- <br> mus sextus dŭcentesimus trěcentesimus quadringentesimus quingentesimus sexcentesimus: sesc. septingentesimus octingentesimus nongentesimus | centēni <br> centeni singuli <br> centeni triceni seni <br> duceni <br> treceni <br> quadringeni <br> quingeni <br> seceni <br> septingeni <br> octingeni <br> nongeni | centies. <br> centies semel. <br> centies tricies sexies. ducenties. trecenties. quadringenties. quingenties. sescenties. septingenties. octingenties. nongenties. |
| 1,000 2,000 | millesimus or millensimus bis millesimus | singula millia (mīlia) <br> bina millia | millies. <br> bis millies. |
| 5,000 10,000 | quinquies millesimus <br> decies millesimus | quina millia dena millia | quinquies millies. decies millies. |
| 50,000 100,000 | quinquagiesmillesi mus centies millesimus | quinquagena millia centena millia | quinquagies millies. centies millies. |
| $\begin{array}{r} 500,000 \\ 1,000,000 \end{array}$ | quingenties millesimus <br> millies millesimus | quingena millia decies centena millia | quingenties millies. decies centies millies. |

55.-1. Unus, one, duo, two, and tres, three, are thus declined:

| Singular. |  |  | Plural. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Masc. | Fem. | Neut. | Masc. | Fem. | Neut. |
| Nom. unnŭs, | ŭnă, | ūnŭm, | unī, | ūnae, | ūnă, |
| Gen. unnı̆ŭs, | ūnĭŭs, | ūnı̆ŭs, | ūnōrŭm | ūnārŭm, | ūnōrŭm, |
| Dat. uniol, | unnī, | unnī, | unnis, | unnis, | unis, |
| Acc. unnŭm, | ūnăm, | ūnŭm, | unnōs, | ūnās, | ūnă, |
| Abl. ūnō. | ūnā. | ūnō. | unis. | unnis. | unis. |

Plural.

| Masc. | Fem. | Neut. | Masc. and Fem. | Neut. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. dǔ̌, | dŭae, | dư | trēs, |  |
| N. dŭōrŭm (duum), | dŭārŭm, | dŭōrŭm (duum), | ǔm | trrŭm, |
| DAt. dŭōbŭs, | dŭābŭs, | dǔōbŭs, | trǐbŭs, |  |
| CC. dŭōs or dŭð, | dŭās, | dŭ̌, | trēs (trīs), |  |
| BL. dŭōbŭs. | dŭăbŭs. | dŭōbŭs. | tribŭs. | trbŭ |

2. The vocative üne is found in Catullus xxxvii. 17. Ambo, both, is declined like duo.
3. The other cardinal numbers from quattuor, four, to centum, $a$ hundred, are undeclined; the hundreds, beginning with ducentī, are declined like the plural of bōnus; mille, a thousand, is an indechinable adjective (sometimes noun) ; the neuter plural millia (sometimes milia), thousands, is a noun, declined like mărĭă, the plural of mărĕ.
4. The plural of unnus is used with nouns which have only the plural number: as, ūna castra, one camp; ūni Ubii, the Ubii alone. For higher numbers, such nouns use the distributives: as, bīnae littěrae, two epistles. Trini is used for terni.
a. Bīni is used to express a pair: as, bīna manu crispans hastīlia.
5. Multiplication is expressed by prefixing numeral adverbs to the distributives: as, bis dēnis nāvĭbŭs, with twice ten ships.
6. In compound numbers above twenty and under one hundred, either the smaller number with et comes first, or the larger without et.
7. In compound numbers above one hundred, the larger with or without et generally precedes the smaller.
8. The thousands are expressed by prefixing the cardinal numbers to millia, or (chiefly in poetry) by prefixing the numeral adverbs to mille.
9. The numbers above one hundred thousand are expressed by the numeral adverbs joined to centum millia (milia) or centēna millia (mīia). Centēna millia is often omitted after the numeral adverb; thus, decies, may stand for decies centēna millia, one million.
10. Unus is often used in compound numbers for primus: as, ūno et octōgësimo anno, in (his) eighty-first year.
11. The numbers compounded with eight and nine are commonly expressed by a subtraction of duo and unus from the next multiple of ten: as, duodeviginti, eighteen; undecentum, ninety-nine; but octōdĕcim, nŏvendĕcim, etc., are sometimes found.
12. The ordinal numbers, not the cardinal, are used in giving a date; thus in the year 1883 is anno millésimo octingentēsimo octōgēsimo tertio.
13. In manuscripts, thousands were sometimes indicated by a line over the Roman numerals: as, $\overline{\mathrm{LX}}$, sixty thousand; and hundreds of thousands by lines on three sides: as, $\overline{|\mathrm{XX}|}$, two millions.
14. Multiplicatives, compounded with a root of number and plic-, answer the question quŏtŭplex, how many fold? They are simplex, simple; dŭplex, twofold; trĭplex, quadrŭplex, quincŭplex, septemplex, decemplex, centŭplex, multĭplex, and sesč̆plex or sesquĭplex.
15. Proportionals answer the question how much more? They are simplus, dŭplus, trǐplus, quadrŭplus, quincŭplus, septŭplus, octŭplus, and sescŭplus.

## 56．NUMERAL EXPRESSION OF FRACTIONS．

The Romans expressed fractions in words in several ways：
1．All fractions，with 1 for numerator，are denoted by ordinal numbers， with or without pars，as $\frac{1}{2}$ ，dimidium（not dimidia）or dimidia pars；$\frac{1}{3}$ ， tertia or tertia pars；$\frac{1}{4}$ ，quarta，etc．

2．All fractions with a numerator less by one than the denominator are denoted by the cardinal with partes simply，as $\frac{3}{3}$ ，duae partes；$\frac{3}{4}$ ，tres partes；号，quattuor partes；$\frac{5}{5}$ ，quinque partes．

3．All fractions with 12 or its multiples for a denominator，are denoted by the parts of an as，the Roman unit of weight，length，or measure．（The as of weight is called libra，of length，pes，of area，jugĕrum．）The as con－ sisted originally of 12 unciae，＊and there were distinct names and signs for each multíple of the uncia and for some fractions of it．

Unciae．

| 12 | assis or as，a pound（etc．）， |
| :---: | :---: |
| 11 | deunx（de－uncia），an ounce off， |
| 10 | dextans（desextans），a sixth off， |
| 9 | dodrans（dequadrans），a fourth off， |
| 8 | bessis or bes（dui－assis），a two－as $\dagger$ ， |
| 7 | septunx（septem unciae），a seven－ounce， |
| 6 | semissis or semis（semi－assis），a half－as， |
| 5 | quincunx（quinque unciae），a five－ounce， |
|  | triens（tri－），a third， |
| 3 | quadrans（quattuor－）or teruncius，a fourth， |
| 2 | sextans（sexto－），a sixth，． |
| $1 \frac{1}{2}$ | sescuncia（sesqui－uncia），one and a half ounce， |
| 1 | uncia，an ounce， |
| $\frac{1}{2}$ | semuncia，a half ounce， |
| 1 | sioilicus，a Sicilian farthing， |
|  | sextŭla，a little sixth， |

Value．Sign．
1 as． 1
${ }_{12}^{12} \quad S==ー$
$\frac{5}{6} \quad \mathrm{~S}=$
3 S＝－
${ }_{2}^{2} \quad \mathrm{~S}=$
$\frac{7}{12}$ S－
$\frac{1}{2}$ S
点
$\frac{1}{3}==$
4 ＝ー
$\frac{1}{8}=$
$\frac{1}{8} \Sigma-$
$\frac{1}{12}$－or $\sim$
${ }_{2}^{\frac{1}{24}} \mathrm{\Sigma}$ or L
$\frac{1}{48} \quad 0$
$\frac{1}{2}$ ？

Of the above，the sicilicus was not used till imperial times．The scri－ ptŭlum or scripulum（ $\gamma \rho \dot{\beta} \mu \mu u)$ was also used for $\frac{1}{24}$ of the uncia，$=\frac{1}{288}$ as． The fraction $\frac{1}{36}$ as was denoted by binae sextulae，or duella；$\frac{1}{14}^{\frac{1}{4}}$ as by dimidia sextula，or duo scripula．
The above－named parts of the as were used as mere duodecimal fractions， applicable without any specific concrete meaning to any unit．Hence heres ex asse，heir to the whole inheritance；ex triente，to a third；ex dimidia et sextante，to two－thirds（ a half and a sixth）．
4．Other fractions，not expressible by one of the above methods，are de－

[^2]noted by the cardinal for a numerator, and the ordinal for the denominator, as, $\frac{4}{7}$, quattuor septimae; $\frac{7}{3}$, septem nonae.
5. Some fractions are denoted by resolution into their components, as, $\frac{3}{4}$, dimidia et quarta; $\frac{2}{3}$, pars dimidia et sexta; $\frac{4}{5}$, pars tertia et nona; $\frac{1}{2}$, pars tertia et septima.
6. Sometimes further division is resorted to, as, $\frac{1}{12}$, dimidia quinta. And dimidia tertia is used for sexta; dimidia quarta for octava.
7. Sesquǐ, $1 \frac{1}{2}$, is used only in compounds, as, sesquilibra, $1 \frac{1}{2}$ tbs.
8. Sesquialtëra ratio is $1 \frac{1}{2}: 1:: 3: 2$. [Roby; Kennedy.

## Pronouns.

57.-1. The Personal Pronouns are thus declined:

FIRST PERSON.

Singular.
Nom. ĕğ, $I$.
Gen. měī, of me.
Dat. mǐhǐ, to or for me.
Acc. mē, me.
Abl. mē, from, with, or by me.

Plural.

> nōs, we. nostrī or nostrum, of us. nōbīs, to or for us. nōs, us. nōbīs, from, with, or by us.
SECOND PERSON.

Nom. tū, thou.
Gen. tŭī, of thee.
Dat. tǐbĭ, to or for thee.
Acc. tē, thee.
Voc. tū, $O$ thou.
ABL. tē, from, with, or by thee. vōbīs, from, with, or by you.
REFLEXIVE.
Singular and Plural.
GEn. sŭī, of himself, herself, itself, or themselves.
Dat. sǐbĭ, to or for himself, etc.
Acc. sē or sēsē, himself, etc.
Abl. sē or sēsē, from, with, or by himself, etc.
2. The nominative and vocative of the reflexive pronoun are wanting.
3. The old genitive of the first and second persons was mis, tis.
4. Mi for mihi is found in Cicero and in the poets.
5. The forms med and ted occur as accusatives and ablatives in Plautus.
6. Nostrum and vestrum are used only after partitives. They are the contracted genitives plural of the possessive pronouns noster and vester. In like manner mei, tui, and sui are the genitives singular of the neuter possessive pronouns.
7. The preposition cum, with, is affixed to the ablative of these pronouns in both numbers: as, mecum, with me; vobisoum, with you.
8. The suffix -mĕt may be joined (1) to ego and its cases, except the gen. plural : as, egǒmet, I myself; (2) to the cases of tu, except the nom. sing. : as, vosmet, ye yourselves; (3) to se and sibi, as sibĭmet.
9. The suffix -tĕ may be joined to tu: as, tūtě. We find also tūtĕmĕt, thou thyself.
58. The Possessive Pronouns meus, mea, meum, my or mine; tuus, tua, tuum, thy or thine; suus, sua, suum, his own, her own, its own, their own; and cujus, cuja, cujum, whose, whose? are declined like bonus.

1. Meus has mī, rarely meus, in the vocative singular masculine. Tuus and suus have no vocative.
2. The Possessive Pronouns noster, nostra, nostrum, our, and vester, vestra, vestrum, your, are declined like piger.
3. The Demonstratives have no corresponding Possessives, but their Genitives supply the want: as, ejus lĭber, his book; eōrum ŏpes, their wealth.
4. From the possessives noster, vester, and cujus are derived the Patrials, nostras, of our country ; vestras, of your country; cūjas, of what country?
5. The intensive suffix -mĕt may be joined to the cases of suus: as, suămet facta; the suffix -pte to the abl. sing. of the possessive pronouns: as, meopte consilio, by my advice.
6. The Demonstrative Pronouns are thus declined:

## I. UNEMPHATIC.

Ĭs, that; or, he, she, it.

Singular.
Masc. Fem. Neut. Masc. Fem. Neut.

| Nom. ${ }_{\text {Is }}$, | еӑ, | İd, | eī or iñ, | eae, | , |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gen. ējŭs, | ējŭs, | ējŭs, | eōrŭm, | eārŭm, | eōrŭ |
| Dat. eī,hm | eī, | eī, | eīs or iīs, | eīs or ī̀s, | is, |
| Acc. eŭm, | eăm, | Ǐd, | eōs, | eās, | еӑ, |
| Abl. eō, | eā, | e $\overline{0}$. | eīs or iīs, | eīs or ī̀s, | eīs or iīs. |

## II. EMPHATIC.

HĬc, this (near me); or, he, she, it.

Singular.
Masc. Fem. Neut.

Nom. hĭc, haec, hŏ́c, GEn. hūjŭs, hūjŭs, hūjŭs, Dat. huie, huīc, huic, Acc. hunc, hanc, hōc, Abl. hōc, hāc, hōc.

Plural.
Masc. Fem. Neut.
hōrŭm, hārŭm, hōrŭm,
hīs, hīs, hīs, hōs, hās, haec, hīs, hīs, hīs.

Istĕ, that (near you); or, he, she, it.


Ille, that (yonder); or, he, she, it.

| Masc. | Fem. | Neut. | Masc. | Fem. | Neut. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. illĕ, | illā, | illŭd, | illī, | illae, | illă, |
| Gen. illĭūs, | illĭūs, | illĭŭs, | illōrŭm, | illārŭm, | illōrŭm, |
| Dat. illī, | illī, illi, | illīs, | illīs, | illīs, |  |
| Acc. illŭm, | illăm, illŭd, | illōs, | illās, | illă, |  |
| Abl. illō, illā, illō. | illīs, | illīs, | illīs. |  |  |

60.-1. The Definitive Pronouns are thus declined:

Idem, same.

| Masc. | Fem. | Neut. | Masc. | Fem. | Neut. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. iderm, | eaxděm, | Yděm, | iìděm(eìderm) | eaederm | exaderm, |
| Gen. ējusdem, | ējusděm, | ējusděm, | eōrunděm, | eārunder | eorund |
| dit. eìdem, | eîděm, | eidem, | eisděm or <br> iisdexm | děm, | $\begin{aligned} & \text { isd } \epsilon \\ & \text { iis } \end{aligned}$ |
| c. eundem, | eanderm, | Id | eosděm, | easděm | eăděm, |
| BL. eōdèm, | eāděm, | eōděm. | eisděm | eisděm or | eisděm or |
|  |  |  | isder | dern | iisdem |

## Ipsě, self.

| Singular. |  |  |  |  | Plural. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N | Masc. ipse, | Fem. $i p s a ̆$, | Neut. ipsŭm, | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Masc. } \\ & \text { ipsī, } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Fem. } \\ \text { ipsae, } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Neut. } \\ & \text { ipsă, } \end{aligned}$ |
| Gen. | psīŭs, | ipsĭŭs, | psīŭs, | ipsōrŭm, | ipsārŭm, | ipsōrŭm, |
| Dat. | psī, | $\mathrm{ipsī}$ | psī, | ipsīs, | ipsīs, | ipsis |
| Acc. | sŭm | ipsăm, | ipsŭm, | ipsōs, | ipsās, | ipsă, |
| Voc. | ssě, | ipsă, | psŭm, | ipsī, | ipsae, | ipsă, |
| Abl. | ipsō, | ipsā, | ipsō. | ipsis, | ipsīs, | ipsis. |

2. The demonstrative affix c (for cĕ) is added to iste and ille, making a pronominal declension as follows:

Singular.
 Acc. istunc, istanc, istōc or istūc, illunc, illanc, illōc or illūc, Abl. istōc, istāc, istōc. illōc, illāc, illōc. plural. Nom. and Acc. istaec. illaec. Cĕ sometimes appears in full : as, istiusce, illosce, etc.
61. The adverbs $\overline{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{\overline{1}}$, hīc, illīc, and istic are locative cases of is, hic, illuc, and istic respectively.

1. Of hic, the fuller forms hosce, hasce, hujusce are found in Cicero; the nom. pl. fem. haec is found in Varro, Lucretius, and Vergil. Plautus has hice (nom. sing. m.), hoce (nom. n.), hisce (nom. pl. m.), hībus (dat. and abl. pl.).
2. Old forms of ille, in Ennius, Lucretius, and Vergil, are olli (dat. sing. and nom. pl. m.), ollis (dat. and abl. pl.), and in Lucretius, ollas, olla, acc. pl.
3. Ipse is also called an intensive pronoun. It has an old nominative, ipsus. It is compounded of is and pse for pte; and the is was, in the earlier times, declined. Thus, Plautus has eumpsě, eampse, eäpse, etc. The phrase, reapse, i. e., re eapse, in reality, occurs in Cicero. Ipse sometimes takes the suffix met.
4. A superlative, ipsissimus, is found in the comic poets.
5. The interjection ecce, lol coalesces, in comic poetry, with cases of is, ille, iste: as, ecca, eccum, eccam, etc.; eccilla, eccillum, etc.; eccistam, etc. En, lo ! also coalesces with ille in the accusative forms ellum, ellam, ellos, ellas.
62.-1. The relative pronoun is thus declined:

Qui, who, which.

| Singular. |  |  |  | Plural. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { Masc. } \\ \text { Nom. quī, } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Fem. } \\ & \text { quae, } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Neut. } \\ & \text { quŏd, } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Masc. } \\ & \text { quī, } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Fem. } \\ & \text { quae, } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { qua } \end{gathered}$ |
| Gen. cujuus, | cūjŭs, | cūjŭs, | orr | quārŭm, | quōrŭm, |
| ат. cuì, | cuī, | cuit, | ırbŭ | quĭbŭs, | quîbŭs |
| cc. quĕm, | quăm, | quŏd, | qu | quās | qua |
| BL. quō, | quā, | quō. | quĭbŭs, | quĭbŭs, | quĭb |

2. The interrogative substantive pronoun is thus declined:

| ${ }_{\text {Mase }}^{\text {Singular. }}$ |  |  | ais, wh | what? | what Plural. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. | Masc. quis | Fem. (quae), | Neut. quĭd, | $\begin{gathered} \text { Masc. } \\ \text { nui } \end{gathered}$ | Fem. | Neut. |
| Gen. | cūjus, | cūjus, | cūjus, | quōrum, | quārum, | quōrum, |
| At. | cuī, | cuī, | cuī, | quĭbus, | quĭbu | quĭbu |
| Acc. | quem, | quam, | quid, | quos, | qua | quae, |
| Abl. | quō, | quā, | quō. | quĭbus, | quĭbus, | quĭbus. |

3. Quis is sometimes feminine in the comic poets.
4. The interrogative adjective pronoun, qui, quae, quod, what? which? is declined like the relative pronoun.
5. The indefinite substantive pronoun, quis, (qua), quid, any one, some one, is declined like the interrogative quis, but in the neut. plur. it has qua as well as quae.
6. The indefinite adjective pronoun, qui, qua or quae, quod, any, some, is declined like the relative pronoun, but has qua as well as quae in the singular and plural.
7. Exceptionally, quis is found as an adjective pronoun, and qui as an interrogative substantive pronoun.
8. The gen. and dat. sing. quoius and quoi are found in old writers.
9. $\mathbf{Q u i} \overline{\overline{1}}$ is sometimes found as an abl., in all genders, and in old writers even in the plural, of the relative and interrogative pronouns, also as an adverbial interrogative, how? and occasionally as an indefinite adverb, in any way.
10. The preposition cum is affixed to the ablative, as in the personal pronouns, thus : qṻcum, quācum, quīcum, quĭbuscum.
11. A nom. and acc. plural, ques, occurs in Cato and Pacuvius; a dat. and abl. plural, quis, in Varro, Sallust, and Tacitus, rarely in Cicero.
12. The compounds of qui, quis, are mainly declined like them.
13. Aliquis, some one, something, a compound of the indefinite quis with the stem ali-, is thus declined :

| Singular. |  |  | Plural. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Masc. | Fem. | Neut. | Masc. | Fem. | Neut. |
| Nom. xlǐquis, | alǐquă, | alǐquĭd, | alı̌quī, | alĭquae, | alyquă, |
| Gen. alicūjus, | alicūjus, | alicūjus, | aliquōrum, | aliquārum, | aliquōrum, |
| Dat. alycuī, | alycuī, | alYcuī, | aliquy̌bus, | aliqurbus, | aliqư̌bu |
| Acc. alyquem, | alYquam, | alrquid, | alĭquos, | alyquas, | aľ̌qua. |
| Abl. alyquō, | alı̆quā, | alǐquō. | aliqurbus, | aliquǐbus. | aliquřbus. |

Note.-The adj. pronoun has generally ălĭqui, ălı̆quod. The fem. sing. ălĭquae occurs rarely.
14. Other relative, interrogative, and indefinite compound pronouns are :

1. a. quisnam, quidnam : quinam, quaenam, quodnam, who, what ?
b. uternam, utrănam, utrumnam, whether of the two?
2. ecquis, ecqua, ecquid: ecqui, ecquae, ecquod, any one?

So numquis, siquis, nē quis, etc.
3. alterŭter, one or other; Gen. alterutrīus or alterǐus utrīus, etc.
4. quispiam, quaepiam, quippiam (quodpiam), any one (positively).
5. quisquam, quicquam, any one at all (with non, haud, vix, etc.).
6. quidam, quaedam, quiddam (quoddam), a certain one.
7. a. quicumque, quaecumque, quodcumque, whosoever, whatsoever. (Poets often disjoin the affix cumque from the relative: Quae te cumque domat Venus. Hor.)
b. utercumque, utracumque, utrumcumque, whichever of two.
8. quisquis, whosoever, quidquid, whatsoever; Acc. (quemquem), quidquid; Gen. (ouicuimŏdi); Abl. (quoquo, quaqua, quoquo), etc.; Plur., Dat. and Abl. (quibusquĭbus). Some of these forms are rare.
9. a. quivis, quaevis, quidvis (quodvis), any you will.
b. utervis, utrăvis, utrumvis, whether of the two you will.
10. a. quilĭbet, quaelibet, quidlibet (quodlibet), any you please.
b. uterlibet, utralibet, utrumlibet, whether of the two you please.
11. a. quisque, quaeque, quicque (quodque), each. (Plaut. and Ter. use quisque of a woman; and in other compounds quis occurs as fem.)
b. unusquisque, unaquaeque, unumquicque (-quodque), each one; Acc. unumquemque, unamquamque, etc. Gen. uniuscujusque, etc.
c. uterque, utrăque, utrumque, both, each of two.
15. These compound pronouns are declined as the simple forms, the undeclined affix or prefix accompanying each case: Gen. oujuscumque, utriusvis, Abl. ecquo, etc.
63. The following is a tabular arrangement of certain pronominal adjectives and adverbs:

1. Correlative (pronominal) adjectives.

## is, that.

## tālĭs, such.

tantŭs, so great.
tantŭlŭs, so small.
quantŭlŭs, as small.
 tǒtưs (ver
totŭs (very rare), such in quǒtŭs $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { what in numerical } \\ \text { numerical order. }\end{array}\right.$
which, etc. (rare)
Quāliscunquĕ and quantusounquĕ are also used as simply indefinite (non-relative) pronouns; ălĭquantus is commonly only used in the neuter (alĭquantŭm, ăl̆quantō), and then as noun or adverb.
2. Correlative (pronominal) adverbs.

quamquam, $\}$ however. ) ${ }^{\text {u }}$ however quotiescunque, $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { often. }\end{array}\right.$

## $\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { Yita, } \\ \text { sico, }\end{array}\right\}$ thus, so.

-Se 'moq 'fn
ălı̆quǒtiēs, sometimes.

4. The following are the chief (pronominal) adverbs of time:
quand $\overline{\overline{0}},\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { when? } \\ \text { when. }\end{array}\right.$ quamdi $\bar{u},\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { how long? } \\ \text { as long as. }\end{array}\right.$ quŏm, cŭm, when. ălı̆quamdī̄, for some nunc, now. $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { tunc, } \\ \text { tum, }\end{array}\right\}$ then. antehāo, before this. posthāc, after this.
sŭbindĕ, immediately afterwards. nondŭm, not yet.
ăliās, at another time.
intěrĭm, intēreā, $^{\text {n }}$
quondăm, \} sometime, i.e., formerly, olim, or hereafter.
quŏtiès, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { how often? } \\ \text { as often as. }\end{array}\right.$
tǒtiès, so often.
ălĭquŏtiès, several times.
ǐdentǐdĕm, repeatedly.
nonnunquăm, sometimes
ălĭquandō, $\}$ (i. e., not unquandöquĕ, $\int_{\text {frequently). }}$ interdŭm, sometimes (i.e., occasionally).
unquăm, ever (after negatives, etc.).
usquĕ, ever (of progressive continuance).

## Verbs.

64. Latin Verbs have Two Voices: the Active, as ămo, $I$ love, and the Passive, as ămor, $I$ am loved.
65. Deponent Verbs have the meaning of the Active Voice, but the forms chiefly of the Passive: as, vēnor, I hunt; věreor, $I$ fear.
66. The Passive has sometimes a reflexive use, like the Greek Middle Voice: as, vertor, I turn myself; lăvor, I wash myself, bathe.
67. A Verb is called Transitive when its action passes on to an Object in the Accusative Case: as, puěrum laudo, I praise the boy; te hortor, I urge thee.
68. An Intransitive Verb requires no Object: as, surgo, $I$ rise; prŏf 1 ciscor, $I$ set out.
69. Intransitive Verbs are not used in the Passive Voice, except sometimes impersonally: as, surgǐtur, lit. there is a rising, i. e., we rise or they rise.
70. The Indicative Mood states a fact or condition as real or absolute.
71. a The Subjunctive Mood states a fact or condition as thought of or contingent.
$b$ The Subjunctive is also used in various dependent constructions, in which it is rendered in English by the Indicative.
72. The Imperative Mood is used in command or entreaty.
73. The Infinitive Mood is strictly a verbal noun, expressing action or state.
74. The Participles are verbal adjectives. There are two in the Active Voice, the Present and the Future; and two in the Passive, the Perfect and the Gerundive.
75. The Gerund is a verbal noun, of the second declension neuter.
76. The Supines are the Accusative and Ablative of a verbal noun of the fourth declension.
77. Of the Tenses, the Present, Future, and Imperfect denote Incomplete Action; the Perfect, Future Perfect, and Pluperfect denote Completed Action.
78. The Present Tense denotes an action as now going on. It may also state a general truth; an action attempted; a past action, in lively narration.
79. The Future represents an action in future time, either as continuing, or as indefinite ; I shall be reading, or I shall read.
80. The Imperfect denotes an action as going on at some past time referred to. It may also state a customary past action; an action begun (and continued) at some definite past time; an action attempted at some definite past time. In letters, it is often used where we should use the present, the writer putting himself in the position of the receiver.
81. The Perfect Definite corresponds to our Perfect with have: as, I have seen; the Historical Perfect or Aorist states a past action simply : as, $I$ saw.
82. The Future Perfect corresponds for the most part to the same tense in English, but is used more frequently and precisely.
83. The Pluperfect is used as the same tense in English. In epistolary style it may take the place of the Latin Perfect.
84. The Present, Futures, and Perfect Definite are called Primary Tenses; the Imperfect, Historical Perfect, and Pluperfect, Secondary Tenses.
85. The tenses of the Subjunctive Mood have peculiar uses, which will be explained under Syntax.
86. The Inflections of the Verb are attached to the Stem in the following order: inflections of tense, of mood, of person, of number, of voice.
87. The simplest forms are of the present indicative singular active; thus, dăt is the third person singular, present indicative active, of a verbal stem meaning give. It is composed of dă-, verb stem, and $t$, abbreviated pronoun of the third person; and thus is strictly give-he (she, it), for which give-s is, originally, the English equivalent, but English, having lost its sense of the meaning of the final s , now prefixes in addition the pronoun for the like purpose.
88. Dă-r-e-m-us is the imperfect subjunctive, first person plural, active voice of the same stem, dă-, give. The sound $\mathbf{r}$ denotes past time, $\bar{e}$ the mood of thought (instead of fact), $m$ the speaker himself (it being the same $m$ as in our word $m e$ ), us the action of others with the speaker. Thus, daremus analyzed is give-did-in-thought-I-they. If for -us we have-ur (dărēmur), the speaker and others are passive instead of active.-Roby.
89. The Verb Stem has three forms, the Present Stem, the Perfect Stem, and the Supine Stem.
90. The Present Stem is often identical with the Verb Stem, but sometimes more or less modified. From it are formed all the tenses and verbal forms which express incomplete action: namely, both in the Active and the Passive Voice, the Indicative Present, Imperfect, and Future; the Subjunctive Present and Imperfect; the Imperative; and the Present Infinitive; also the Present Participle Active, the Gerunds, and the Gerundive.
91. The Perfect Stem is sometimes identical with the Verb Stem and with the Present Stem, but usually is considerably modified. From it are formed all the tenses in the Active Voice, denoting completed action : namely, the Indicative Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect; the Subjunctive Perfect and Pluperfect; and the Perfect Infinitive.
92. The Supine Stem is always a modification of the Verb Stem, and from it are formed certain verbal nouns and adjectives, of which the Future Participle Active, the Perfect Passive Participle, and the Accusative and Ablative Supines are reckoned with the Verb. The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative, and the Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive, in the Passive Voice, are formed with tenses of the auxiliary verb esse, to be, and the Perfect Passive Participle; the Future Infinitive Passive is formed by adding to the Accusative Supine the auxiliary iri.
93. The Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, Perfect Indicative, and Accusative Supine are called the

Principal Parts of the Verb, as, they being known, all the other parts of the Verb may be formed from them.
70. The Irregular Verb sum is formed from two Roots,* es- (Sanskrit as, Greek $\varepsilon^{\prime} \sigma$ ), to $b e$, and fu- (Sanskrit bhu, Greek $\phi v-$ ), to be or become.

## PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. Pres. Infin.
Perf. Ind.
Fut. Part. sŭm, Iam; essě, to be; fū̄, I have been, I was; fưtūrŭs, about to be.

## INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT TENSE.

SING. 1. sŭm, I am,
2. ĕs, thou art (you are),
3. est, he (she, it) is,

PLUR. 1. sŭmŭs, we are,
2. estĭs, you are,
3. sunt, they are.
sim, I may be, may I
sis, $\quad[b e, I a m, e t c . ~ \dagger$ sǐt, sīmŭs, sītūs, sint.

IMPERFECT.

SING. 1. ĕrăm, I was,
2. ӗrās, thou wast,
3. ěrăt, he was,
plur. 1. ĕrāmŭs, we were,
2. ěrātĭs, you were,
3. ěrant, they were.
essěm, I should be, etc. $\dagger$ essēs, essēt, essēmŭs, essētǏs, essent.

FUTURE.
sing. 1. ĕrŏ, $I$ shall be,
2. ĕrĬs, thou wilt be,
3. ěrŭt, he will be,
plur. 1. ĕrĭmŭs, we shall be,
2. ĕř̌t1̆s, you will be,
3. ěrunt, they will be.

[^3]INDICATIVE.
SUBJUNCTIVE.
PERFECT AND AORIST.
sing. 1. fuī, I have been, I was,
2. fuistī, thou hast been, thou wast,
3. fuřt, he has been, he was,
plur. 1. fuĭmŭs, we have been, we were,
2. fuistǐs, you have been, you were,
fuĕrǐm, fuěrǐs,
fuerĭt,
fuerǐmŭs, fuerǐtǐs,
3. fuērunt or fuērě, theyhave been, they were. fuĕrint.

## PLUPERFECT.

sing. 1. fuĕrăm, I had been, fuissěm, Ishould have been,
2. fuĕrās, thou hadst been, fuissēs,
3. fuĕrăt, he had been, fuissĕt,

PLUR. 1. fuĕrāmŭs, we had been, fuissēmŭs,
2. fuĕrāt̆s, you had been, fuissētĭs,
3. fuĕrant, they had been. fuissent.

## FUTURE PERFECT.

sing. 1. fuĕrō, $I$ shall have been,
2. fuĕrī̀, thou wilt have been,
3. fuĕř̆t, he will have been,

PLUR. 1. fuěrīmus, we shall have been,
2. fuĕrītĭs, you will have been,
3. fuĕrint, they will have been.

## IMPERATIVE.

PRES. sing. 2. ĕs, be thou.
FUT. 2. estō̆, thou shalt be.
3. estō, he shall be or let him be.
pres. plur. 2. este, be ye.
FUT.
2. estōtĕ, ye shall be.
3. suntō, they shall be or let them be.

## INFINITIVE.

pres. essě, to be. perf. fuissě, to have been. FUT. fưtūrŭs, -̆a, ŭm, about to be.

FUT. fŭtūrŭs essě, to be about to be.

1. A form of the pres. subj. siem, sies, siet is frequent in Plautus and Terence. The pres. subj. fuam, fuas, fuat, fuant is also frequent in Plautus; (G. Curtius regards it as an aorist.) Forms like füvit, füverit, fūvisset, from the old Perfect stem, are met with in old writers.
2. For the imperf. subj., for $\begin{aligned} & \text { rem, forēs, forrět, forrent are frequently used. }\end{aligned}$
3. Forre is often used for the future infinitive.
4. In old writers the forms escit, escunt occur, for erit, erunt.
5. Es in the pres. indic. is always long in Plautus and Terence.
6. When est came after a vowel or $m$, the $e$ was omitted in speaking and sometimes in writing : as, nata st, natum st, oratio st. So sometimes with es after a vowel, and perhaps after $m$ : as, nacta's, lignum's. In the comic writers a short final syllable in s coalesces with est: as, factust, opust, similist, for factus est, opus est, similis est; and occasionally with es: as, naetu's, simili's, for nactus es, similis es.
7. Like sum are inflected its compounds absum (perf. abfui or āfui), adsum or assum (perf. adfui or affui); dēsum (de-est, de-eram, etc., pronounced dēst, dēram, etc.), insum, intersum, obsum (perf. obfai or offui), praesum (3d sing. praest, often written praeest), prōsum (which inserts d before a vowel : as, prōdes, prōdĕro, prōdesse), subsum (no perfect), supersum. Of these absum and praesum alone have a present participle, absens, praesens.
8. Possum, I am able or $I$ can, is a compound of pŏt(pŏtǐs, pǒtě) and sum, and usually retains the $t$ before a vowel, but assimilates it to a following s.

## PRINCIPAL PARTS.

| Pres. Ind. | Pres. Inf. | Perf. Ind. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| possŭm, | possě, | potŭī. |

## INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE. PRESENT TENSE.
sing. 1. possŭm, I can, I am able,
2. pŏtĕs, thou canst,
3. pŏtest, he can,
plur. 1. possŭmŭs, we can,
2. pŏtestǐs, you can,
3. possunt, they can.
possǐm, possīs, possit, possīmŭs, possītĭs, possint.

## IMPERFECT.

sing. 1. pŏtĕrăm, I could,
2. pŏtĕrās, thou couldst,
3. pŏtĕrăt, he could,

PLUR. 1. pŏtĕrāmŭs, we could,
2. pŏtĕrātĭs, you could,
3. pǒtĕrant, they could.

## FUTURE.

sing. 1. pǒtěrǒ̆, I shall be able,
2. pǒterĭs, thou wilt be able,
3. pǒtěrı̆t, he will be able,

PLUR. 1. poftĕrĭmŭs, we shall be able,
2. pŏterrǐtŭs, you will be able,
3. porterrunt, they will be able.

## PERFECT AND AORIST.

sing. 1. pơtuī, I have been able, I could, pŏtuĕrĭm,
2. pŏtuistī, thou hast been able, thou pðtuĕrĭs, couldst,
3. pǒtuĭt, he has been able, he could, pŏtuěř̌t, PLUR. 1. pŏtuĭmŭs, we have been able, we could, pŏtuĕrĭmŭs,
2. potuistřs, you have been able, you pǒtuĕrĭtis, could,
3. potuērunt, they have been able, they pŏtuĕrint. could.

PLUPERFECT.
sing. 1. pŏtuĕrăm, I had been able,
2. pǒtuĕrās, thou hadst been able,
3. pŏtuĕrăt, he had been able,

PLUR. 1. pŏtuĕrāmŭs, we had been able,
2. pŏtuĕrātĭs, you had been able,
3. pŏtuĕrant, they had been able.
possěm, possēs, possĕt, possēmŭs, possētĭs, possent.

## fUTURE PERFECT.

sing. 1. pŏtuĕrō, I shall have been able,
2. pŏtuĕrīs, thou wilt have been able,
3. pŏtuĕrı̆t, he will have been able,
plur. 1. pŏtuĕrīmus, we shall have been able,
2. pŏtuĕrĭtřs, you will have been able,
3. pŏtuĕrint, they will have been able.

## INFINITIVE.

present. possě, to be able. PERFECT. pǒtuissě, to have been able.

## PARTICIPLE.

present. pŏtens, powerful (used only as an adjective).

1. Early writers have sometimes potesse in the infinitive; Plautus and Terence sometimes possiem and possiès in the pres. subjunctive. The full forms potis sum, etc., are found in prae-Augustan poets; and pŏtis and pŏte are even found as predicates without sum. Potestur occurs once in Lucretius. Poterint is found for poterunt.

## Conjugations.

73. There are Four Conjugations, distinguished by the vowel before -re in the Present Infinitive Active. This vowel in the First Conjugation is a long, as ămārě, to love; in the Second Conjugation is e long, as mŏnērĕ, to warn; in the Third Conjugation is e short, as rĕgěrĕ, to rule; in the Fourth Conjugation is i long, as audīrĕ, to hear.

## FIRST CONJUGATION.

74. In the First Conjugation the Present Stem is the same as the Verb Stem, and ends in $\bar{a}$. Its final vowel is united by contraction with the following vowel: as, ama-o, amo; amaim , amem. The regular Perfect is formed by adding -vi to the Verb Stem, the regular Supine by adding -tum: as, vŏco, $I$ call, Pres. Inf. vocā-re, Perf. Ind. vocā-vi, Supine vocā-tum.

## The First Conjugation.

 $\overline{\mathbf{A}}-\mathrm{VERBS}$.
## Active Voice.

## PRINCIPAL PARTS.



INDICATIVE.
PRESENT TENSE.
siva. 1. ămŏ, $I$ love,
2. ămās, thou lovest,
3. ămăt, he loves,
plur. 1. ămāmŭs, we love,
2. ămātĭs, you love,
3. ămant, they love.

IMPERFECT.
sing. 1. ămābam, I was loving, I loved,
2. ăm̄ābās, thou wast loving, etc.,
3. ămābăt, he was loving, etc.,
plur. 1. ămābāmŭs, we were loving, etc.,
2. ămābātĭs, you were loving, etc.,
3. ămābant, they were loving, etc.

## FUTURE.

sing. 1. ămābō, $I$ shall love,
2. ămābĭs, thou wilt love,
3. ămābĭt, he will love,
plor. 1. ămābĭmŭs, we shall love,
2. ămābĭtĭs, you will love,
3. ămābunt, they will love.
snva. perfect and aorist.

1. ămāvī, I have loved, I loved,
2. ămāvistī, thou hast loved, thou lovedst,
3. ămāvǐt, he has loved, he loved,

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

ăměm, ămēs, ămĕt, ămēmŭs, àmētĭs, ăment.
ămārø̆m, ămārēs, ămārĕt, ămārēmŭs, ămārĕtǐs, ămārent.
ămāvĕrĭm, ămāvĕrī̌s, ămāvĕrǐt,

INDICATIVE.
plur.

1. ămāvĭmŭs, we have loved, we loved,
2. ămāvistĭs, you have loved, you loved,
3. ămāvērunt, -ërĕ, they have loved, they loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE.
ămāvĕrīmŭs, ămāvĕrītĭs, ămāverrint.
ămāvisserm, ămāvissēs, ămāvissět, ămāvissēmǔs, āmāvissētǐs, ămāvissent.

FUTURE PERFECT.
sivg. 1. ămāvěrō̆, $I$ shall have loved,
2. ămāvěrī̀s, thou wilt have loved,
3. ămāvĕrı̆t, he will have loved,

Plur. 1. ămāvěrī̀mŭs, we shall have loved,
2. ămāverrítǐs, you will have loved,
3. ămāverrint, they will have loved.

## IMPERATIVE.

Singular.
Pres. 2. ămā, love thou,
Fur. 2. ămātō, thou shalt love or do thou love,
3. ămātō, he shall love or let him love.

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. ămāř̆, to love, Perf. ămāvissĕ, to have loved, Fut. ămātūrŭs essě, to be about to love.

Plural.
ămātĕ, love ye,
ămātōtě, you shall love or do ye love,
ămantō, they shall love or let them love.

## PARTICIPLES.

Pres. ămans, -antis, loving,
Fut. ămātūrŭs,-a,-um, about to love.

## GERUND.

## SUPINE.

Gen. ămandī, of loving,
Dat. ămandō, for loving,
Acc. ămandŭm, loving, Aoc. ămātŭm, to love,
ABL. ămandō, by loving.

Abl. ămātū, in the loving, to be loved.

## Passive Voice.

princtpal parts.

Pres. Ind. ămor,

Pres. Inf. ămārī,

INDICATIVE.

Perf. Ind. ămātŭs sŭm.

PRESENT TENSE.
sing. 1. ămŏr, I am loved,
2. ămārĭs or -rě, thou art loved,
3. ămātŭr, he is loved,
plur. 1. ămāmŭr, we are loved,
2. ămāmĭnī, you are loved,
3. ămantŭur, they are loved.

## IMPERFECT.

sing. 1. ămābăr, I was loved,
2. ămābārīs or -rĕ, thou wast loved,
3. ămābātŭr, he was loved,

PLUR. 1. ămābāmŭr, we were loved,
2. ămābāminn̄̄, you were loved,
3. ămābantŭr, they were loved.
ăměr, ămērǐs or -rĕ, ămētŭr, ămēmŭr, ămēmĭnī, ămentŭr. ămārērīs or -rĕ, ămārētŭr, ămārēmŭr, ămārēmĭnī, ămārentŭr.

## FUTURE.

sing. 1. ămābŏr, I shall be loved,
2. ămābĕrǐs or -rě, thou wilt be loved,
3. ămābǐtŭr, he will be loved,
plur. 1. ămābĭmŭr, we shall be loved,
2. ămābĭmĭnī, you will be loved,
3. ămābuntŭr, they will be loved.

## PERFECT AND AORIST.

sivg. 1. ămātŭs sŭm, I have been loved, I was loved,
2. ămātŭs ĕs, thou hast been loved, etc.,
3. ămātŭs est, he has been loved, etc.,

Plur. 1. ămātī sŭmŭs, we have been loved, etc.,
2. ămātī estĭs, you have been loved, etc.,
3. ămātī sunt, they have been loved, etc.
ămātŭs sĭm,
ămātŭs sīs, ămātŭs sǐt, ămātī sīmŭs, ămātī sītǐs, ămātī sint.

## PLUPERFECT.

sing. 1. ămātŭs đ̆răm, I had been loved,
2. ămātŭs đ̆rās, thou hadst been loved,
3. ămātŭs ĕrat, he had been loved,
plur. 1. ămātī ŏrāmŭs, we had been loved,
2. ămātī Ø̌rātĭs, you had been loved,
3. ămātī ĕrant, they had been loved.
ămātŭs essěm, ămātŭs essēs, ămātŭs essĕt, ămātī essēmŭs, ămātī essētǐs, ămātī essent.

## FUTURE PERFECT.

sivc. 1. ămātŭs ǎrŏ̆, I shall have been loved,
2. ămātŭs ĕrǐs, thou wilt have been loved,
3. ămātŭs ĕrǐt, he will have been loved,
plur. 1. ămātī ĕrímŭs, we shall have been loved,
2. ămāti ĕrǐtĭs, you will have been loved,
3. ămātī errunt, they will have been loved.

## IMPERATIVE.

Singular.
Pres. 2. ămārĕ, be thou loved,
Fut. 2. ămātŏr, thou s̊halt be loved,
3. ămātǒr, he shall be loved ămantǒr, they shall be loved or let him be loved.

Plural.
ămāmĭn̄̄, be ye loved,

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. ămārī, to be loved,
Perf. ămātŭs essĕ, to have been loved, Fut. ămātŭm īrī, to be about to be loved.

## PARTICIPLES.

Perfect. ămātŭs, having been loved. Gerdndive. ămandŭs, to be loved or worthy to be loved.

Note 1. - In all the conjugations, the auxiliaries fui, fuĕram, fuĕro, fuĕrim, fuissem, and fuisse are occasionally found instead of sum, ěram, ěro, sim, essem, and esse: as,

## INDICATIVE.

Perf. ămātus fuī, ămātus fuisti, etc.,
Plup. ămātus fuěram, ămātus fuěrās, etc., Fut. Perf. ămātus fuěro, ămātus fuerrīs, ămātus fuěrit, etc.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

amātus fuěrim, ămātus fuerrĭs, etc., ămātus fuissem, ămātus fuissēs, etc.

## INFINITIVE.

Perf. ămātus fuisse.

The meaning of compound tenses thus made is sometimes indistinguishable from that of the more common forms; but sometimes it differs very much as the auxiliaries themselves differ in meaning.
Note 2.-Fŏrem is sometimes used as an auxiliary with the perfect passive participle, forming either a pluperfect subjunctive, like essem, or a future perfect subjunctive. In a very few cases forre is used instead of esse as the auxiliary in the future active infinitive. With the perfect participle, fore forms a future perfect infinitive passive.

Note 3.-The participle in compound tenses is varied in gender, to agree with the subject of the verb. (See 83, 1.)

## FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

From the present stem, amā-, are formed

| Ind. Pres. | Active. amo, | Passive. amor, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Imperf. | amābam, | amäbar, |
| Fut. | amābo, | amäbor, |
| Subj. Pres. | amem, | amer, |
| Imperat. Pres. |  | amārer, |
| FUT. | amā, | amāre, |
| Inf. Pres. | amāre, | amāri, |
| Pres. Part. | amans, |  |
| Gerundive. | amandi. | amandus. |

From the perfect stem, ămāv-, are formed

Ind. Perf.
Plup.
Fut. Perf.
Subj. Perf.
Plup. Inf. Perf.

Active. amāvi, amavĕram, amavĕro, amavěrim, amavissem, amavisse.

From the supine stem, ămāt-, are formed

| Inf. FUt. | amatūrus esse, | amātum irī, |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| FUT. Part. | amatūrus, |  |
| Perf. Part. | amātus, |  |
| SUPINE. | ( $A c c$.$) amātum.$ | $(A b l$.$) amātu.$ |

75. In the Second Conjugation, the Present Stem is the same as the Verb Stem, and ends in e; the Perfect drops the vowel characteristic of the Verb Stem, and adds ui (as mŏnui), or adds vi to the full Stem (as dēlē-vi); the Supine drops the characteristic and adds itum (as mŏn-ítum), or adds tum to the full Verb Stem (as dēlē-tum).

## The Second Conjugation.

## E- VERBS. <br> Active Voicie.

## PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. mǒnĕŏ,

Pres. Inf. mŏnērĕ,

Perf. Ind. mǒnŭī,

Supine. mŏnĭtum.

INDICATIVE.
PRESENT TENSE.
sing. 1. mŏneŏ̃, I remind,
2. mŏnēs, thou remindest,
3. mŏnĕt, he reminds,
plur. 1. mŏnēmŭs, we remind,
2. mŏnētĭs, you remind,
3. mǒnent, they remind.

From the supine stem, ămāt-, are formed

Passive. amātus sum, amätus eram, amātus ero, amātus sim, amātus essem, amātus esse.
amātum irī, amātus, (Abl.) amātu.

## IMPERFECT.

sivg. 1. mǒnēbăm, I was reminding, I reminded, mǒnērěm,
2. mǒnēbās, thou wast reminding, etc.
3. mŏnēbăt, he was reminding, etc.
plur. 1. mŏnēbāmŭs, we were reminding, etc.
2. mŏnēbātĭs, you were reminding, etc.
3. mǒnēbant, they were reminding, etc. mŏnērēs, mǒnḕrĕt, mŏnērēmŭs, mŏnērētĭs, mð̆nērent.

## future.

sing. 1. mǒnēbo, $I$ shall remind,
2. mŏnēbĭs, thou wilt remind,
3. mŏnēbĭt, he will remind,
plur. 1. mŏnēbĭmŭs, we shall remind,
2. mǒnēbǐtǐs, you will remind,
3. mŏnëbunt, they will remind.

PERFECT AND AORIST.
sing. 1. mǒnuī, I have reminded, I reminded,
2. mǒnuistī, thou hast reminded, etc.
3. mǒnuĭt, he has reminded, etc.
plur. 1. mǒnuĭmŭs, we have reminded, etc.
2. mŏnuistǐs, you have reminded, etc.
3. mŏnuērunt (rĕ), they have reminded, etc.
mǒnuĕrĭm, mŏnuĕrī̆s, mǒnuĕrǐt, mǒnuěrī̆mŭs, mǒnuerītǐs, mǒnuĕrint.

## PLUPERFECT.

sing. 1. mŏnuĕrăm, I had reminded,
2. mŏnuĕrās, thou hadst reminded,
3. mŏnuĕrăt, he had reminded,

PLur. 1. mǒnuĕrāmŭs, we had reminded,
2. mǒnuĕrātĭs, you had reminded,
3. mŏnuĕrant, they had reminded.

## future perfect.

sing. 1. mǒnuěrō, $I$ shall have reminded,
2. mǒnuĕrĭs, thou wilt have reminded,
3. mŏnuĕrǐt, he will have reminded,
pldr. 1. mǒnuĕrĭmŭs, we shall have reminded,
2. mǒnuěrītĭs, you will have reminded,
3. mŏnuĕrint, they will have reminded.
mŏnuissěm, mŏnuissēs, mǒnuissět, mŏnuissēmŭs, mǒnuissētĭs, mǒnuissent.

## IMPERATIVE.

Singular.
Pres. 2. mơnē, remind thou,
Fut. 2. mǒnētŏ, thou shalt remind or do thou remind, 3. mǒnētō, he shall remind or let him remind.

> Plural.

Pres. 2. mǒnētĕ, remind ye,
Fut. 2. mŏnētōtø̆, ye shall remind or do ye remind, 3. mŏnentō, they shall remind or let them remind.

INFINITIVE.
Pres. mŏnērě, to remind, Perf. mŏnuissĕ, to have re- Fut. mŏň̆tūrŭs, about to remind. minded,
Fot. mǒnĭtūrŭs essě, to be about to remind.

## GERUND.

## SUPINE.

Gen. mǒnendī, of reminding,
Dat. mŏnendō, for reminding,
Acc. mǒnendŭm, reminding, mŏnĭtŭm, to remind,
Abc. mŏnendō, by reminding. mŏnĭtū, in the reminding, to be reminded.

## Passive Voice.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. mŏneŏr,

Pres. Inf. mơnērī,

INDICATIVE.
PRESENT TENSE.
sing. 1. mǒneŏr, $I$ am reminded, mŏneăr,
2. mŏnērĭs (rĕ), thou art reminded,
3. mŏnētŭr, he is reminded,
pldr. 1. mŏnēmŭr, we are reminded,
2. mŏnēmĭnī, you are reminded,
3. mðnentŭr, they are reminded,

## PARTICIPLES.

Pres. mǒnens, reminding,

## INDICATIVE.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

## IMPERFECT.

sing. 1. mŏnēbăr, I was reminded,
2. mŏnēbārĭs (rĕ), thou wast reminded, mŏnērērĭs (rĕ),
3. mŏnēbātŭr, he was reminded, mŏnērētŭr,
plur. 1. mǒnēbāmŭr, we were reminded, mǒnērēmŭr,
2. mŏnēbāmĭn̄̄, you were reminded, mǒnērēmĭnī,
3. mŏnēbantŭr, they were reminded. mŏnērentŭr. FUTURE.
sing. 1. mŏnēbŏr, I shall be reminded,
2. mŏnēbĕrǐs (rĕ), thou wilt be reminded,
3. mŏnēbĭtŭr, he will be reminded,
plur. 1. mǒnēbĭmŭr, we shall be reminded,
2. mŏnēbĭmĭnī, you will be reminded,
3. mŏnēbuntŭr, they will be reminded.

## PERFECT AND AORIST.

sing. 1. mŏnitŭs sŭm, I have been reminded, I was reminded,
2. mǒnĭtŭs ĕs, thou hast been reminded, thou wast reminded,
3. mŏnĭtŭs est, he has been reminded, he was reminded,
PLUR. 1. mŏnĭtī sŭmŭs, we have been reminded, we were reminded,
2. mŏnĭtī estǐs, you have been reminded, you were reminded,
3. mŏnĭtī sunt, they have been reminded, they were reminded,

## PLUPERFECT.

sing. 1. mǒnĭtŭs ěrăm, I had been reminded,
2. mǒnĭtŭs ěrās, thou hadst been reminded,
3. mǒnĭtŭs ĕrăt, he had been reminded, plur. 1. mŏnĭtī ěrāmŭs, we had been reminded,
2. mŏnĭtī ěrātĭs, you had been reminded,
3. mŏniti ĕrant, they had been reminded.
mǒnǐtŭs sǐm, mǒnĭtǔs sīs,
mŏnĭtŭs sǐt, -
mǒnǐtī sīmŭs,
mŏ́nĭtī sītǐs,
mơnǐtī sint.
mŏnĭtŭs essěm,
mŏnĭtŭs essēs, mŏnĭtŭs essĕt,
mǒň̌tī essēmŭs, mơnĭtī essētīs, mơnitī essent.

FUTURE PERFECT.
sivg. 1. mǒnĭtŭs ěrŏ, I shall have been reminded,
2. mǒň̆tŭs ĕrĭs, thou wilt have been reminded,
3. mŏn̆九tŭs ĕrĭt, he will have been reminded,
plor. 1. mŏnĭtī ĕrimŭs, we shall have been reminded,
2. moňiti egrǐtǐs, you will have been reminded,
3. mŏň̆ti ĕrunt, they will have been reminded.

## IMPERATIVE.

Singular.
Pres. 2. mðnērĕ, be thou reminded,
Fut. 2. mŏnētŏr, thou shalt be reminded,•
3. mǒnētŏr, he shall be reminded or let him be reminded.

## Plural.

Pres. 2. mð̌nēmĭnī, be ye reminded, Fut. 3. mðnentorr, they shall be reminded or let them be reminded.

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. mơnērī, to be reminded, Perf. mð̌n̆tŭs essé, to have been reminded, Fut. mǒnǐtum īrī, to be about to be reminded.

## PARTICIPLES.

Perf. mðň̆tŭs, having been reminded, Gerundive. mðnendŭs, to be reminded or worthy to be reminded.

## FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

From the present stem, monē-, are formed

Ind. Pres.
Imperf. Fut.
Subj. Pres.
Imperf.
Imperat. Pres. Fut.
Inf. Pres. Pres. Part. Gerundive. Gerund.

Active. moneo, monēbam, monēbo, moneam, monērem, mone , monēto, monēre, monens, monendi.

Passive. moneor, monēbar, monēbor, monear, monērer, monēre, monētor, monēri, monendus.

From the perfect stem, mŏnŭ-, are From the supine stem, mŏnĭt-, are
formed
Ind. Perf.
Plup.
Fut. Perf.
Subj. Perf.
Plup.
Inf. Perf.

Active. monui, monuĕram, monuěro, monuĕrim, monuissem, monuisse,
formed
Passive. monYtus sum, monytus eram, monytus ero, monitus sim, monytus essem, monitus esse.

From the supine stem, mŏň̆t-, are formed

76. In the Third Conjugation, the Present Stem is sometimes the same as the Verb Stem, and sometimes modified (94). It ends (or is regarded as ending) in a consonant, or in $u$ or i. The endings of the Perfect and Supine are various.

## The Third Conjugation.

> CONSONANT VERBS.

Active Voice.
PRINCIPAL PARTS.

| Pres. Ind. | Pres. Infin. | Perf. Ind. | Supine. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| rěgō, | rěgĕrĕ, | re $X \overline{1}$, | rectŭm. |

INDICATIVE.
SUBJUNCTIVE.
PRESENT TENSE.
sing. 1. régŏ, I rule,
2. regis, thou rulest,
3. rěgit, he rules,

PLUR. 1. rĕgĭmŭs, we rule,
2. rěgĭtis, you rule,
3. regunt, they rule.
régam, rěgās, rěgăt, rěgāmŭs, re̛gātīs, rěgant.

## INDICATIVE.

IMPERFECT.
sing. 1. rĕgēbăm, I was ruling, I ruled,
2. rěgēbās, thou wast ruling, etc.,
3. rĕgēbăt, he was ruling, etc.,
plur. 1. rğgēbāmŭs, we were ruling, etc.,
2. rğө̄bātĭs, you were ruling, etc.,
3. rĕgēbant, they were ruling, etc.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

rĕgěrĕm, rëgĕrēs, rěgĕrĕt, rěgĕrèmŭs, rěgĕrētǐs, rĕgĕrent.

FUTURE.
sing. 1. rĕgăm, I shall rule,
2. rěgēs, thou wilt rule,
3. rĕgĕt, he will rule,
plur. 1. rěgēmŭs, we shall rule,
2. rěgētĭs, you will rule,
3. rěgent, they will rule.

## PERFECT AND AORIST.

sing. 1. rexī, I have ruled, I ruled,
2. rexistī, thou hast ruled, thou ruledst,
3. rexĭt, he has ruled, he ruled,
plur. 1. rexĭmŭs, we have ruled, we ruled,
2. rexistĭs, you have ruled, you ruled,
rexĕrĭm, rexĕrĭs, rexĕrǐt, rexěrĭmus, rexĕrǐtǐs,
3. rexērunt or (rĕ), they have ruled, they ruled. rexĕrint.

## PLUPERFECT.

sing. 1. rexĕrăm, I had aled,
2. rexĕräs, thou hadst ruled,
3. rexĕrăt, he had ruled,
plut. 1. rexĕrāmŭs, we had ruled,
2. rexerrätĭs, you had ruled,
3. rexĕrant, they had ruled.
rexisserm, rexissēs, rexissĕt, rexissēmŭs, rexissētĭs, rexissent.

## FUTURE PERFECT.

sing. 1. rexĕrŏ, I shall have ruled,
2. rexěrís, thou wilt have ruled,
3. rexĕrǐt, he will have ruled,
plor. 1. rexĕrimus, we shall have ruled,
2. rexĕrītis, you will have ruled,
3. rexĕrint, they will have ruled.

## IMPERATIVE.

## Singular.

Pres. 2. rěgĕ, rule thou,
Fut. 2. rěgǐtō, thou shalt rule or do thou rule,
3. rĕgǐtō, he shall rule or let him rule.

```
Plural.
```

Pres. 2. rěǧ̌tĕ, rule ye,
Fut. 2. rĕgǐtōtĕ, ye shall rule or do ye rule,
3. rĕguntō, they shall rule or let them rule.

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. rěgĕrĕ, to rule,
Perf. rexissě, to have ruled,
Fut. rectūrŭs essĕ, to be about to rule.

## PARTICIPLES.

Pres. rĕgens, ruling,
GERUND.
Gen. rěgendī, of ruling,
$\mathrm{D}_{\text {at. }}$ rĕgendō, for ruling,
Acc. rĕgendŭm, ruling,
Abl. rěgendō, by ruling.

Fot. rectūrŭs, about to rule.

## SUPINE.

Acc. rectŭm, to rule, Abl. rectū, in the ruling, to be ruled.

## PASSIVE V ICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

| Pres. Ind. | Pres. Inf. | Perf. Inf. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| rěgŏr, | rěgī, | rectus sŭm. |

INDICATIVE.
PRESENT TENSE.
sing. 1. rĕgŏr, I am ruled,
2. rĕgĕrĭs (rĕ), thou art ruled,
3. rěgĭtŭr, he is ruled,
plur. 1. rğgĭmŭr, we are ruled, 2. rĕgĭmĭnī, you are ruled, 3. rěguntŭr, they are ruled.

SUBJUNCTIVE.
rĕgăr, rěgārĭs (rĕ), rěgātŭr, rěgāmŭr, rěgāmĭnī, rĕgantŭr.

## INDICATIVE.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

IMPERFECT.
sina. 1. rĕgēbăr, I was ruled,
2. rěgēbārĭs (rĕ), thou wast ruled,
3. rěgēbātŭr, he was ruled,
plur. 1. rěgēbāmŭr, we were ruled,
2. rěgēbāmīnī, you were ruled,
3. rěgëbantŭr, they were ruled.
rĕgĕrĕr,
rĕgĕrērīs (rě), rĕgĕrētŭr, rěgěrēmŭr, rěgěrēmīnī, rĕgĕrentŭr.

FUTURE.
siva. 1. rěgăr, I shall be ruled,
2. rĕgērĭs (rĕ), thou wilt be ruled,
3. rěgētŭr, he will be ruled,
plur. 1. rěgēmŭr, we shall be ruled,
2. rĕgēmĭnī, you will be ruled,
3. rĕgentŭr, they will be ruled.

## PERFECT AND AORIST.

sing. 1. rectŭs sŭm, Ihave been ruled, I was ruled, rectŭs sĭm,
2. rectŭs ĕs, thou hast been ruled, etc., rectŭs sīs,
3. rectŭs est, he has been ruled, etc., rectŭs sĭt,
plur. 1. rectī sŭmŭs, we have been ruled, etc.,
2. rectī estĭs, you have been ruled, etc.,
3. rectī sunt, they have been ruled, etc.

## PLUPERFECT.

sing. 1. rectŭs đ̆răm, I hed been ruled,
2. rectŭs ĕrās, thou hadst been ruled,
3. rectŭs ĕrăt, he had been ruled,
plur. 1. rectī ĕrāmŭs, we had been ruled,
2. rectī ĕrātĭs, you had been ruled,
3. rectī grant, they had been ruled.
rectī sīmŭs, rectī sītīs, rectī sint.

## FUTURE PERFECT.

sing. 1. rectŭs ĕrō, $I$ shall have been ruled,
2. rectŭs ĕriss, thou wilt have been ruled,
3. rectŭs ĕrĭt, he will have been ruled,
plur. 1. rectī Ørimŭs, we shall have been ruled,
2. rectī ĕrĭtĭs, you will have been ruled,
3. recti Ørunt, they will have been ruled.

## IMPERATIVE.

## Singular.

Pres. 2. rĕgĕrĕ, be thou ruled,
Fut. 2. rĕgĭtŏr, thou shalt be ruled, 3. rëgítŏr, he shall be ruled or let him be ruled.

Plural.
Pres. 2. rěgĭmĭnī, be ye ruled,
Fur. 3. rěguntŏr, they shall be ruled or let them be ruled.

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. rĕgī, to be ruled, Perf. rectŭs essě, to have been ruled, Fot. rectŭm īrī, to be about to be ruled.

## PARTICIPLES.

Perf. rectŭs, ruled, having been ruled, Gerundive. rěgendŭs, to be ruled, worthy to be ruled.

## FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

From the present stem, rěg-, are formed

Ind. Pres.
Imperf.
Fut.
Subj. Pres. Imperf.
Imperat. Pres. Fut.
Inf. Pres.
Pres. Part.
Ger. and Gerundive. regendi.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Passive. } \\
& \text { regor, } \\
& \text { regēbar, } \\
& \text { regar, } \\
& \text { regar, } \\
& \text { regerrer, } \\
& \text { regĕre, } \\
& \text { regîtor, } \\
& \text { regi, } \\
& \text { regendus. }
\end{aligned}
$$

From the perfect stem, rex-, are formed

Ind. Perf.
Plup.
Fut. Perf.
Subj. Perf.
Plup. rexissem,
Inf. Perf.

Active.
rexi, rexěram, rexĕro, rexĕrim, rexisse.

| Active. | Passive. <br> rego, |
| :--- | :--- |
| regebar, |  |
| regam, | regebar, |
| regam, | regar, |
| regĕrem, | regar, |
| rege, | regĕrer, |
| regito, | regere, |
| regere, | regítor, |
| regens, | regi, |
| regendi. |  |

From the supine stem, rects, are formed

Passive. rectus sum, rectus eram, rectus ero, rectus sim, rectus essem, rectus esse.

From the Supine stem, reet-, are formed

| INF. FUT. | Active. <br> rectürus esse, | Passive. <br> rectum iri, |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| FUt. PART. | rectürus, | rectus, |
| PERF. PART. | (Acc.) rectum. | (Abl.) rectu. |

77. In Verbs in -io of the Third Conjugation, the i falls out when an i or er follows: as, capis, for capi-is; capěrèm, for capi-ërem. They are inflected as follows:

## Active Voice.

| Pres. Ind. <br> căpī̃o, | Pres. Inf. <br> căpĕrĕ, | Perf. Ind. <br> cēpī, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | | Sup. |
| :---: |
| captŭm. |

INDICATIVE.
PRESENT TENSE.
sing. 1. căpĭŏ, I take,
2. căpǐs, thou takest,
3. căpĭt, he takes,
plor. 1. căpĭmŭs, we take,
2. căpǐtĭs, you take,
3. căpiunt, they take.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

căpiăm, căpiās, căpiăt, căpiāmǔs, căpiātǐs, căpiant.

IMPERFECT.
sing. 1. căpiēbăm, I was taking, I took, căpĕrĕm,
2. căpiēbās, thou wast taking, thou didst take, căpĕrēs,
3. căpiēbăt, he was taking, he took,
plur. 1. căpiēbāmŭs, we were taking, we took,
2. căpiēbātĭs, you were taking, you took,
3. căpiēbant, they were taking, they took.
căpěrĕt, căpěrēmŭs, căpĕrētīs, căpĕrent.

FUTURE,
sivg. 1. căpiăm, I shall take,
2. căpiēs, thou wilt take,
3. căpiĕt, he will take,
plur. 1. căpiēmŭs, we shall take,
2. căpiētĭs, you will take,
3. căpient, they will take.

## perfect and aorist, I have taken, I took.

cēpī, etc. cēpĕrĭm, etc.
ploperfect, I had taken.
cēpĕrăm, etc.
cēpisserm, etc.
future perfect, I shall have taken. cępĕrō, etc.

IMPERATIVE.
Singular. Plural.
Pres. 2. căpě,
Fut. 2. căpítō̆,
3. căpǐtō̆,

INFINITIVE.
Pres. căpĕrĕ,
Perf. cēpissě,
Fet. captūrŭs essě.
GERUND.
căpiendī, etc.

## Passive Voice.

## PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. căpiŏr,

Pres. Inf. căpī,

INDICATIVE.
present tense.
sing. 1. căpiŏr, I am taken,
2. căpĕrĭs (rĕ), thou art taken,
3. căpĭtŭr, he is taken,
plur. 1. căpĭmŭr, we are taken,
2. căpĭmĭnī, you are taken,
3. căpiuntŭr, they are taken.

IMPERFECT.
sivg. 1. căpiēbār, I was taken,
2. căpiēbārĭs (rĕ), thou wast taken,
3. căpiēbātŭr, he was taken,
căpĭtē, căpǐtōtĕ, căpiuntō.

PARTICIPLES.
Pres. căpĭens,
Fut. captūrŭs.

## SUPINES.

Acc. captŭm; Abl. captū.

Perf. Ind. captŭs sŭm.
căpiăr, căpiārĭs (rĕ), căpiātŭr, căpiāmŭr, căpiāmĭn̄̄, căpiantŭr. căpĕrĕr, càpĕrērĭs (rĕ), căpĕrētŭr,

INDICATIVE.
plur. 1. căpiēbāmŭr, we were taken,
2. căpiēbāmĭn̄̄, you were taken,
3. căpiēbantŭr, they were taken.

SUBJUNCTIVE.
căpěrēmŭr, căpĕrēmīn̄̄, căpĕrentŭr.

FUTURE.
sing. 1. căpiăr, I shall be taken,
2. căpiērĭs (rĕ), thou wilt be taken,
3. căpiētŭr, he will be taken,
plor. 1. căpiēmŭr, we shall be taken,
2. căpiēmĭn̄̄, you will be taken,
3. căpientŭr, they will be taken.

Perfect and aorist, I have been taken, I was taken. captŭs sŭm, captŭs sim.

PLUPERFECT, I had been taken.
captŭs ĕrăm,
captŭs essĕm.
future perfect, I shall have been taken. captŭs ĕrō.

IMPERATIVE.

Singular.
Pres. 2. căpĕrĕ,
Fut. 2. căpĭtŏr,
3. căpĭtŏr.

INFINITIVE.
Pres. căpī,
Perf. captŭs essě, Fur. captŭm īrī.

Plural.
căpĭmĭn̄̄, căpiuntŏr.

PARTICIPLES.

Perf. captŭs, ă, ŭm. Gerundive. căpiendŭs, ă, ŭm.
78. In the Fourth Conjugation, the Verb Stem and the Present Stem end in $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$; to this termination the Perfect adds vi, and the Supine, tum.

## The Fourth Conjugation.

$$
\boldsymbol{I}-\mathrm{VERBS} .
$$

## Active Voice.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.
audiō,

Pres. Inf. audīrĕ,

Perf. Ind. audīvī,

SUBJUNCTIVE.
PRESENT TENSE.
sing. 1. audiŏ, I hear,
2. audis, thou hearest,
3. audĭt, he hears,
plur. 1. audìmŭs, we hear,
2. audītĭs, you hear,
3. audiunt, they hear.

IMPERFECT.
sing. 1. audiēbăm, I was hearing, I heard,
2. audiēbās, thou wast hearing, etc.,
3. audiēbăt, he was hearing, etc.,
plur. 1. āudiēbāmŭs, we were hearing, etc.,
2. audiēbātĭs, you were hearing, etc.,
3. audiēbant, they were hearing, etc.
audiăm, audiās, audiăt, audiāmŭs, audiātǐs, audiant.
audīrĕm, audīrēs, audīrët, audīrēmŭs, audīrētǐs, audīrent.

## FUTURE.

sing. 1. audiăm, I shall hear,
2. audiēs, thou wilt hear,
3. audiĕt, he will hear,
plur. 1. audiēmŭs, we shall hear,
2. audiētĭs, you will hear,
3. audient, they will hear.

PERFECT AND AORIST.
sing. 1. audīvī, I have heard, I heard,
2. audīvisti, thou hast heard, thou heardst,
3. audivǐt, he has heard, he heard,
audivěrĭm, audivĕrǐs, audīvĕrĭt.

INDICATIVE.
PLUR. 1. audīǐmŭs, we have heard, we heard, audīvĕrĭmŭs,
2. audīvistĭs, you have heard, you heard, audīvěrĭtĭs,
3. audīvērunt (rĕ), they have heard, they \} audīvĕrint.
heard.

PLUPERFECT.
sing. 1. audivěrăm, I had heard,
2. audīvĕrās, thou hadst heard,
3. audīvĕrăt, he had heard,
plutr. 1. audīvĕrāmŭs, we had heard,
2. audīvěrātǐs, you had heard,
3. audīvĕrant, they had heard.

[^4]SUBJUNCTIVE.

$\square$

## SUPINE.

Acc. audītŭm, to hear, Abl. audītū, in the hearing, to be heard.

## Passive Voice.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. audiŏr,

Pres. Inf. audīrī,

> Perf. Ind. audītŭs sŭm.

## INDICATIVE.

PRESENT TENSE.
sing. 1. audiŏr, I am heard,
2. audīrĭs (rĕ), thou art heard,
3. audītŭr, he is heard,
plur. 1. audīmŭr, we are heard,
2. audīmĭnī, you are heard,
3. audiuntŭr, they are heard.

## IMPERFECT.

sivg. 1. audiēbăr, I was heard,
2. audiēbārĭs (rĕ), thou wast heard,
3. audiēbātŭr, he was heard,

Plut. 1. audiēbāmŭr, we were heard,
2. audiēbāmĭnī, you were heard,
3. audiēbantŭr, they were heard.

FUTURE.
sncg. 1. audiăr, I shall be heard,
2. audiërĭs (rĕ), thou wilt be heard,
3. audiētŭr, he will be heard,
plur. 1. andiēmŭr, we shall be heard,
2. audiëmĭnī, you will be heard,
3. audientŭr, they will be heard.

## PERFECT AND AORIST.

sing. 1. audītŭs sŭm, $I$ have been heard, $I$ was heard,
2. auditŭs ěs, thou hast been heard, etc., 3. audītŭs est, he has been heard, etc.,
audiăr, audiārĭ́s (rĕ), audiātŭr, audiāmŭr, audiāmĭnī, audiantŭr.
audīrĕr, audīrērǐs (rĕ), audīrētŭr, audīrēmŭr, audīrēmīn̄̄, audīrentur.

PERFECT AND AORIST.
Plur. 1. auditī sŭmŭs, we have been heard, etc., audītī sīmŭs, 2. audītī estĭs, you have been heard, etc., audītī sītǐs, 3. audītī sunt, they have been heard, etc., audītī sint.

## PLUPERFECT.

sing. 1. audītŭs Ğrăm, I had been heard, 2. audītŭs ĕrās, thou hadst been heard, 3. auditŭs ěrăt, he had been heard, plur. 1. audītī ěrāmŭs, we had been heard, 2. auditī ĕrātĭs, you had been heard, 3. auditī ĕrant, they had been heard.
audītŭs essěm, auditŭs essēs, audītŭs essět, audītī essēmŭs, audītī essētĭs, auditī essent.

## FUTURE PERFECT.

sing. 1. auditŭs ěrŏ, $I$ shall have been heard,
2. auditŭs ĕrǐs, thou wilt have been heard,
3. audītŭs ĕrĭt, he will have been heard,
plor. 1. auditī ĕrĭmŭs, we shall have been heard,
2. auditī ěrǐtĭs, you will have been heard,
3. auditi e九runt, they will have been heard.

## IMPERATIVE.

Singular.
Pres. 2. audīrè, be thou heard,
Fut. 2. audītŏr, thou shalt be heard,
3. audītŏr, he shall be heard or let him be heard.

Plural.
Pres. 2. audiminin, be ye heard, Fut. 3. audiuntŏr, they shall be heard or let them be heard.

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. audīrī, to be heard,
Perf. auditŭs essĕ, to have been heard,
Fut. auditŭm īrī; to be about to be heard.

## PARTICIPLES.

Perf. auditŭs, heard, having been heard, Gerundive. audiendŭs, to be heard, worthy to be heard.

## FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

From the present stem, audi-, are formed

| Ind. Pres. | Active. audio, | Passive. audior, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Imperf. | audièbam, | audiēbar, |
| Fut. | audiam, | audiar, |
| Stbj. Pres. | audiam, | audiar, |
| Imperf. | audīrem, | audīrer, |
| Imperat. Pres. | audi, | audīre, |
| Fut. | audīto, | audītor, |
| Inf. Pres. | audire, | audīri, |
| Pres. Part. | audiens, |  |
| Gerundive. |  | audiendus. |
| Gerund. | audiendi. |  |

From the perfect stem, audīv-, are formed

Active.
Ind. Perf. audīvi, PLup. audivĕram, Fut. Perf. audivěro, Subj. Perf. Plup. Inf. Perf. audivěrim, audivissem, audivisse.

From the supine stem, audīt-, are formed
Inf. FUT. auditūrus esse, auditum iri, Fut. Part. auditürus, Perf. Part. Acc. Supine. auditum. Abl. Supine.

From the supine stem, audīt-, are formed

Passive. auditus sum, auditus eram, auditus ero, auditus sim, auditus essem, auditus esse,
auditus,
auditu.

## 79. Deponent Verbs.

Deponent verbs have the inflections of the Passive Voice with the meanings of the Active, and have also a present and future participle active and the gerunds and supines.

The following synopsis gives the first person singular, or other leading form, of the verbs prěcŏr, pray; věreŏr, fear; sĕquŏr, follow; partiŏr, divide:

## DEPONENT VERBS OF THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

1st Conjugation.
Present, Imperfect, Future,
prěcor, I pray or I am praying, prěcābor, I shall pray, prěcäbar, I was praying or I prayed, vĕrēbor, Perf. AND Aor., prěcātus sum, I have prayed or I prayed, věrǐtus sum, Pluperfect, prěcātus ěram, I had prayed, Future Perf., prěcātus ěro, I shall have prayed.

2d Conj.
věreor, věrëbar, věrǐtus ěram, věrítus ěro.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present, prěcer, I be praying, I pray, etc., věrear, Imperfect, prĕcärer, I were praying, I prayed, etc., vĕrērer, Perf. and Aor., prěcātus sim, I prayed, etc., Pluperfect, prěcātus essem, I had prayed, etc.
věrǐtus sim, vĕrǐtus essem.

## IMPERATIVE.

Present, Future,
prěcārě, pray or pray thou, prěcātor, thou shalt pray.
vērērēĕ, vĕrētor.

## INFINITIVE.

Present, Perfect, Future,
prě̌cārī, to pray, prěcātus esse, to have prayed, prěcātūrus esse, to be about to pray.
věrèrī, vĕrrı̆tus esse, vĕrǐtūrus esse.

PARTICIPLES, ETC.

Present, Future, Perfect, Gerund, Gerdndive, Acc. Supine, Abl. Supine,
prěcans, praying, prěcātūrus, going to pray, prěcātus, having prayed, prĕcandī, of praying, prěcandus, to be prayed, prě̌cātum, to pray, prěcātū, in praying.
věrens,
věrǐtūrus,
věritus, vĕrendī, vĕrendus, věrǐtum, věř̆tū.

## DEPONENT VERBS.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

| Present, Imperfect, | 3d Conjugation. | 4th Conj. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | sěquor, I follow or I am following, |  |
|  | sĕquēbar, I was following or I followed, | rtiebar, |
| Future, | sĕquar, I shall follow, | partiar, |
| Perf.and Aor., | sěcūtus sum, I have followed or Ifollowed, | partitus sum, |
| Pluperfect, | sěcātus ěram, I had followed, | partītus ěram, |
| Future Perf., | sěcūtus ĕro, I shall have followed. | partītus ěro. |
| SUBJUNCTIVE. |  |  |
| Present, | sĕquar, I be following, I follow, etc., | partiar, |
| Imperfect, | sĕquĕrer, I were following, I followed, etc., | partīrer, |
| Perf.and Aor., | sěcūtus sim, I followed, etc., | partītus sim, |
| Pluperfect, | sěcūtus essem, I had followed, etc. | partītus essem. |

## IMPERATIVE.

| Present, | sěquěrě, follow or follow thou, | partīrĕ, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Future, | sĕcūtor, thou shalt follow. | partītor. |

## INFINITIVE.

| Present, | sĕquī, to follo |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Per | sěcūtus esse, to have followed, | partītus esse, |
| Future, | sěcūtūrus esse, to be about to follow. | partītūrus |

PARTICIPLES, ETC.
Present, sĕquens, following, partiens,

Future,
Perfect, Gerund, Gerundive, Acc. Supine, Abl. Supine,
sĕcūtūrus, going to follow, sěcūtus, having followed, sĕquendī, of following, sĕquendus, to be followed, sěcūtum, to follow, sěcūtū, in following.
partītūrus, partītus, partiendī, partiendus, partītum, partītū.
80. Some Deponents originate in the reflexive use of the Passive, like the Greek Middle : as, glörior, Iboust (myself); vescor, Ifeed (myself). Others grow out of Passive verbs : as, grăvor, I grudge, I am loth (literally, I am burdened).

1. More than half of the Deponents are of the First Conjugation, mostly derived from nouns.
2. Some Deponents have also an Active form with a similar meaning: as, pūnior and pūnio, $I$ punish; ădūlor and ădū̀o, $I$ fawn.
3. Many Deponents are occasionally used in a passive sense: as, pŏpŭlāri, to plunder or to be plundered; partīri, to divide or to be divided.
4. The perfect participle in us of Deponent verbs is often used in a passive sense: as, ădeptus, being obtained, as well as having obtained. The passive signification is confined chiefly, however, to material objects: as, ădeptā lībertāte, but not ădeptō mărīto.
5. The gerundive is found only in transitive verbs (as hortandus), or in the neuter in impersonal constructions (as mŏriendum est omnĭbus).
6. Quasi-Passives. - A few verbs of active form are used in a passive sense, and are called Quasi-Passive or Neutral Passive verbs. These are exsŭlo, $I$ am banished, vāpŭlo, $I$ am beaten, fio, when meaning I am made, vēněo, I am on sale, $I$ am sold, liceo, $I$ am put to auction (but lǐceor, $I$ bid at an auction). To this list some add pĕreo, I am lost or destroyed.
7. Semi-Deponents.- The intransitive verbs audeo, $I$ dare, gaudeo, I rejoice, sǒleo, I am wont, fīdo, I trust, and fio, $I$ become, have the passive form in the perfect and its cognate tenses; hence they are called Semi-Deponents or Neuter Passives.
8. The following verbs have an active perfect, with a passive perfect participle, active in sense: cēno, cēnāvi, I supped, cēnātus, having supped; jūro, jūrāvi, $I$ swore, jürātus, having sworn; prandeo, prandi, $I$ dined, pransus, having dined; nübo, nupsi, lit., I put on the veil, i. e., I was wedded, nupta, wedded.
9. Other deponent perfect participles from active intransitive verbs are ădultus, grown up, from ădŏlesco; crētus, sprung, from cresco; suētus, accustomed, from suesco; obsŏlētus, out of date, from obsŏlesco; plăč̆tus, pleasing, from plăceo; pōtus, having drunk, from an old root, po-; pĕrōsus, hating, from pĕrōdi; exōsus, hating or hating utterly; pertaesus, tired, from pertaedet; also coălĭtus (from coălesco), dēflagrātus, exŏlētus, ĭnĬtus, invěterrātus, prōpensus, and the compounds conjūrātus, injürātus.

## Scheme of the

## Active Voice．

| 镸 |  | INDICATIVE MOOD． |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\left.\begin{array}{cc}\begin{array}{c}\text { was } \\ \text { amā } \\ \text { monē } \\ \text { măm } \\ \text { regēm } \\ \text { audiē } \\ \text { abăm }\end{array} & \text {－băm }\end{array}\right\}$ wast | was <br> －băt | were <br> －bāmŭs | were w <br> －bātĭs | －loving，etc． <br> －bant |
| 荡 | shall  wilt <br> amā －bŏ  <br> monē －bō －bĭs <br> reg －ăm audi <br> and －ăm  | will <br> －bĭt <br> －ĕt | shall <br> －bĭmŭs <br> －ēmŭs | will <br> －bittis <br> ētis | will－love，etc． <br> －bunt <br> －ent |
| 䔡 | $\left.\begin{array}{lll}\begin{array}{cc}\text { loved } \\ \text { or have }\end{array} & \begin{array}{c}\text { lovedst } \\ \text { hast }\end{array} \\ \text { amāv } & -\overline{1} & \\ \text { monu } & -\overline{1} & \\ \text { rex } & -\overline{1} & \\ \text { audī } & -\overline{1} & \end{array}\right\}$－istī | has <br> －ĭt | have <br> －Ĭmŭs | have <br> －istǐs | loved，etc． ave－loved，etc． <br> －èrunt or－èrĕ |
| 铬 |  | had <br> －ĕrăt | had <br> －ĕrāmŭs | had <br> －ěrātĭs | ad－loved，etc． <br> －errant |
|  |  | will <br> －ěrǐt | shall <br> －九̌ĭmŭs | will <br> －̌̌rīt | ll－have loved etc． <br> －ěrint |

## Four Conjugations.

Passive Voice.

|  | INDICATIVE MOOD. |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Singular. |  |  | Plural. |  |
|  | 1. | 2. | 3. | 1. | 2. | 3. |
|  | $I$ | thou | $h e$, etc. | we | ye | they are |
|  | $a m$ | art | is | are | are | -loved, etc. |
| am | -orr | -ārìs | -ātür | -āmŭr | -āmĭnī | -antur |
| mon | -eŏr | -eris | -etur | -emur | -èmıักี̀ | -entur |
| reg | -or | -erris | -ĭtür | -imŭr | -imini | -untur |
| aud | -iŏr | -irǐs | -itur | -īmŭr | -i̇mı̆ni | -iuntŭr |
|  | was | wast | was | were | were | were-be- |
| amā | -băr | ) |  |  |  | g loved, etc. |
| monē | -băr | $\}$-bār-ĭs (ĕ) | -bātŭr | -bāmŭr | -bämĭnī | -bantur |
| rege audiē | $\begin{aligned} & \text {-băr } \\ & \text {-băr } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  | banta |
|  | shall | wilt | will | shall | will | will be |
| $a m \bar{a}$ | -bŏr | \}-bĕr-1̆s (¢) | -bitur | -bĭmur | -bı̌minı | loved, etc. |
|  | -ăr |  |  |  |  |  |
| audi | -ar | $\}$-èr-is (e) | -etur | -ēmŭr | -èmı̆nī | -entur |


| was or have amātŭs, monĭ | wast <br> hast <br> tŭs, rectŭs | was <br> has <br> , audītŭs | were were have have amätī, monǐt | were-loved, etc. have-been loved, tī, rectī, audītī [ete. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { sŭm } \\ & \text { (fuí) } \end{aligned}$ | ĕs <br> (fuistī) | $\underset{(\text { fuIt })}{\text { est }}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { sŭmŭs } \\ \text { (fuĭmŭs) } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{cc} \text { estĭs } & \text { sunt } \\ \text { (fuistǐs) } & \text { (fuêrunt, } \mathrm{e}) \end{array}$ |
| had amātŭs, monı̆ | hadst <br> tŭs, rectŭs | had <br> , audītŭs | had had amātī, monĭ | d had-been loved, Ǐtī rectī audītī [etc. |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { ěrăm } \\ \text { (fuĕrăm) } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { ěrās } \\ \text { (fuĕrās) } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { ěrăt } \\ \text { (fuěrăt) } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { ěrāmŭs } \\ \text { (fuĕrāmŭs) } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{cc}\text { ěrātĭs } & \begin{array}{c}\text { ěrant } \\ \text { (fuĕrātis) }\end{array} \\ \text { (fuĕrant) }\end{array}$ |
| shall amātǔs, monǐ | wilt tŭs, rectǔs, | will , audītǔs | shall will amātī, monǐtī | will-have been loved, $\bar{i}$, rectī, audītī [ete. |
|  | $\begin{gathered} \text { ěrĭs } \\ \text { (fuĕrĭs) } \end{gathered}$ | $\underset{\text { (fuěrř̆t) }}{\text { ěřt }}$ |  |  |

Scheme of the
Active Voice.

|  | SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD. <br> Singular. |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | 12 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|  | am | -ěm -ēs | -ot | -ēmŭs | -ētıs | -ent |
|  | mone | -ăm -ās | -ăt | -āmŭs | -ātis | -ant |
|  | reg | -ăm -ās | -ăt | -āmŭs | -ātis | -ant |
|  | audi | -ăm -ās | -ăt | -āmŭs | -ātis | -ant |
|  | amā <br> mone <br> regě <br> audī | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text {-rěm } \\ \text {-rěm } \\ \text {-rĕm } \\ \text {-rěm } \end{array}\right\} \text {-rēs }$ | -rĕt | -rēmŭs | -retis | -rent |
|  | amāच <br> monu <br> rex <br> audī | $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text {-ěrı̆m } \\ \text {-ěrı̆m } \\ \text {-ěrı̆m } \\ \text {-ěrı̆m } \end{array}\right\} \text {-ĕrı̆s }$ | -errĭt | -ěrīmus | -ěrǐtis | -erint |
|  | amāच <br> monu <br> rex- <br> audī | $\}$ issěm -issēs | -issět | -issēmŭs | -issētis | -issent |

## IMPERATIVE.



Gerunds.
Supines.
Partic. Pres
Partic. Fut. loving, of, by, etc. to love, in loving, etc. loving, etc. about to love, etc.
 monend $-\overline{1}-0$ - - ŭm regend $-\overline{1}-\overline{0}-\mathrm{u} m$ audiend $-\overline{1}-\overline{0}-u ̆ m$ monitt-ŭm - $\bar{u}$ rect -ŭm -ū audīt -ŭm - $\bar{u}$ mone -ns rege -ns audie -ns monitūr -ŭs -ă-ŭm rectūr -ŭs -ă-ŭm auditūr -ŭs -ă-ŭm

## Four Conjugations. Passive Voice.

## SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.



IMPERATIVE.


INFINITE. Pres. (Impr.) Perf. (Plup.)
to be loved, etc. to have been loved, etc. to be about to be loved, etc.


Gerundive.
meet to be loved, etc. amand -ŭs -ă-ăm monend -ŭs -ă -ŭm regend -ŭs -ă-ŭm audiend -ŭs -ă -ŭm

## INFINITIVE.


$\qquad$
$\qquad$ $m$
$\qquad$ $n$
$\qquad$

## PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATIONS.

82. The Participles in -urus and -dus may be combined with all the tenses of the verb sum. Thus are formed (1) the Periphrastic Future Conjugation and (2) the Periphrastic Gerundive Conjugation.
83. ămātūrŭs, -ă, -ŭm essě, to be about to love.

| Pres. | ămātūrŭs sǔm, I am about to love, | ăm |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Imperf. | ămātūŭs ěrăm, I was about to love, | ămātūrŭs essěm, |
| Fut. | ămātūrŭs ěrō, $I$ shall be about to love, |  |
| Perf. and AOR. | ămātūrŭs fū̄, I have been (was) about to love, | ămātūrŭs fuĕrĭm, |
| Pluperf. | ămātūrŭs fuĕrăm, I had been about to love, | ămātūrŭs fuissĕm. |

FUt. Perf. ămātūrŭ3 fuěrō̆, I shall have been about to love.

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. ămātūrŭs, ă, -ŭm essě, to be about to love, PERF. ămātūrǔs, -ă, -ŭm fuissĕ, to have been about to love.
2. ămandŭs, -ă, -ŭm essě, to deserve to be loved.

## INDICATIVE.

Pres. ămandŭs sŭm, I have to be loved, Imperf. ămandŭs ĕrăm, I had to be loved, Fut. ămandŭs ěrō̆, I shall deserve to be loved, Perf. and $\}$ ămandŭs fuī, I have had (I had) to be Aor.
Aok. loved,
Pluperf. ămandŭs fuěrăm, I had been worthy to be loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE. ămandŭs sĭm, ămandŭs essěm,
ămandŭs fuĕrĭm, ămandŭs fuissěm.
INFINITIVE.
Pres. ămandŭs, -ă, -um essě, to have (or to deserve) to be loved, Perf. ămandŭs, -ă, -ŭm fuisse, to have been worthy to be loved.
83. The Supine in -um is found in comparatively few verbs,-not more, it is said, than about three hundred,-but is often mentioned in giving the Principal Parts of a verb whenever there is a perfect participle (or, more properly, the neuter of the participle is given in its stead).

1. In the compound tenses of the indicative and subjunctive passive the participle is always in the nominative case, but may be used in both numbers and in all genders to suit the subject: as, amāta erat, she was
loved; negōtium confectum est, the business has been finished; laudāti sunt viri, the men have been (or are) praised; accepta sunt vulnera, wounds were received.
2. The participles in the compound infinitive are used either in the nominative or (commonly) in the accusative of both numbers and all genders.

## 84. SPECIAL FORMS AND ABBREVIATIONS.

1. In the older writers the present subjunctive is occasionally made in -im, -is, -it, etc.: as, ědim, edīs, edit, edīmus, edītis, edint, for edam, edas, edat, etc. So comědim, exědint. Also from duo, duim, etc., and interduim, perduim (as, Di te perduint ( $=$ perdant), creduis, etc. This form was retained in sum and volo, with their compounds.
2. The imperfect indicative of the fourth conjugation is often made by the older writers in -ībam, -ībar, instead of -iēbam, -iēbar. So in the future, -ībo and -ībor were used for -iam and -iar ; ībam and ībo remain in eo, queo, and nequeo.
3. The termination -re (for -ris) in the second person singular of the passive voice is very common in all tenses except the present indicative, in which it is rarely found. In the fourth conjugation it is almost always avoided, unless in deponents, where it could not be taken for the infinitive active.
4. The four verbs dīco, dūco, făcio, and ferro take in the second singular imperative the abbreviated forms dīc, dūc, făc, and fĕr; so also the compounds of these verbs (except those compounds of facio which change a into i ; as, effice, confice). The old writers, and the poets occasionally, use the full forms dice, duce, and face. Scio has scito instead of sci, and in the plural usually scitōte.
5. The active form of the future imperative was often used by early writers instead of the passive, in deponent verbs: as, arbǐtrāto, for arbitrator; utunto, for utuntor. The forms -minno, for the second and third persons singular, and -minor, for the second person plural were used rarely.
6. The antique infinitive often ended in -ier instead of -i: as, amärier, for amāri. Vergil and Horace sometimes use this form, as well as older writers.
7. In those verbs which have a $\nabla$ in the perfect stem a contraction often takes place, by omitting $\nabla$ and absorbing the first vowel of the termination in the final vowel of the stem : as, amāsti, for amãvi-sti; amasse, for ama $\bar{a}$ -vi-sse; implessem, for implēvi-ssem; nosse, for novi-sse; mostis, for movistis; summosses, for submovi-sses ; isse, for ivi-sse; amäram, for amäveram; implēro, for impleve-ro; complērunt, for complevē-runt: nörunt, for novē-runt ; adjūris, for adjuvè-ris; admōrunt, for admovē-runt; sīrı̌s, for sive-ris (from sino). But this contraction is never made before the termination ēre (for ērunt) in the third plural of the perfect indicative.

When the $\mathbf{v}$ is preceded by $i$, the $\mathbf{v}$ is frequently omitted without contraction: as, finiĕro, for finīv-ero; audiĕram, for audiv-ěram; iĕro, for īv-ěro; iĕram, for $\bar{i} v$-ěram. The $i$ also before $v$ is sometimes dropped: $\mathfrak{z s}$, andisse, for aud-iv-isse; audisti, for aud-iv-isti.
8. In perfect stems ending in s or x the letters is, si, iss, and sis are occasionally omitted in the perfect and derived tenses, more particularly in verbs of the third conjugation : as, dixti for dixisti; evasti for evasisti; surrexe for surrexisse; erepsēmus for erepsissēmus; exstinxe for extinxisse; divisse for divisisse; accestis for accessistis.
9. In the perfect of the first, third, and fourth conjugations we sometimes find such contracted forms as fumāt, cupīt, audīt, for fumāvit, cupīvit (cupiit), audivit (audiit). So rarely in the first person, as sepĕlī.
10. In the third person plaral of the perfect indicative the form in ère is less common than that in ērunt, especially in prose.
11. An older form of the termination of the gerund and gerundive in -undi, -undas is common in Plautus, Terence, and Sallust. The same terminations, after $i$, and in the words gerundus and ferundus, occur frequently in the manuscripts of Caesar, Cicero, and Livy. The verb ire, to go, and its compounds, always have this form: as, eundum, adeundus. Some law phrases also: as, rerum repetundarum; familiae ercisoundae; finibus regandis; in jare dicundo. But after $u$ or $v$ no other form of the suffix is found than -endi, -endus.
12. In the older language, of Plautus and ancient laws and formularies, a future perfect indicative in -so (-sso), subjunctive perfect in -sim (-ssim), future or future perfect infinitive in -sĕre (-sserre), and passive indicative future perfect in -sǐtur (-ssĭtur) are found.
$a$. Of all these forms faxo, faxim (= facso, facsim), and ausim, almost alone occur after the time of Terence. Instances are found in laws and other antique documents and formulæ in Livy and Cicero, but these do not belong to the age of their real or feigued recorders.
b. These forms are made by suffixing s to the verb-stem, as in the Greek future and aorist, a short 1 or sometimes $\theta$ of the stem being omitted. The double $s$ in the forms from a- and (afew) e-verbs is either a mode of marking the place of the accent, or due to a mistaken etymology, as if the form were analogous to amasse, from amavisse. Possibly both causes may have combined.

## 85. IRREGULAR VERBS.

1. Fero * (Sansk., bhar-; Greek, $\phi \varepsilon \rho-$ ), I bear or bring.,

The peculiarities of this verb are, (1) that in the forms from the present stem it casts out $\mathbf{i}$ before s and t , as fers (feris), fertur (feritur); also $\mathbf{e}$ between $\mathbf{r}$ and $\mathbf{r}$, as ferre (ferere): (2) it takes its perfect stem, tŭl-, from

[^5]the root tol-, and the supine stem lāt- (for t-lat-) from another form of the same root (tal- or tla-).

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

| Pres. Ind., | Pres. Inf., | Perf. Ind., | Supine. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| fĕrō, | ferrĕ, | tŭl̄, | lātŭm. |

## INDICATIVE.

present tense.
sing. 1. fĕrŏ, $I$ bear,
2. fers, thou bearest,
3. fert, he bears,
plutr. 1. fěrĭmŭs, we bear,
2. fertĭs, you bear,
3. fĕrunt, they bear.

SUBJUNCTIVE.
füăm, fĕrās, ferăt, fěrāmŭs, fĕrātǐs, ferant.

IMPERFECT.
sing. 1. fěrēbăm, I was bearing, I bore, . ferrěm,
2. fĕrēbās, thou wast bearing, didst bear, ferrēs,
3. fĕrēbăt, he was bearing, he bore, ferrĕt,
plur. 1. fërēbāmŭs, we were bearing, etc., ferrēmĕs,
2. ferrēbātĭs, you were bearing, etc., ferrētīs,
3. fërēbant, they were bearing, etc. ferrent.

## FUTURE.

sing. 1. fěrăm, I shall bear,
2. fërēs, thou wilt bear,
3. ferrĕt, he will bear,
plur. 1. fĕrēmŭs, we shall bear,
2. fĕrētŭs, you will bear,
3. fĕrent, they will bear.

PERFECT AND AORIST.
sing. 1. tŭlī, $I$ have borne, $I$ bore,
tŭlĕrŭm,
2. tŭlistī (etc., regularly).*
tŭlĕrǐs, etc.

[^6]INDICATIVE.
PLUPERFECT.
tŭlĕrăm, etc.
FUTURE PERFECT.
tŭlĕrŏ̃, etc.
IMPERATIVE.
Pres. 2. fër, bear thou, fertě, bear ye,
Fut. 2. fertŏ̃, thou shalt bear or fertöte, ye shall bear or do thou bear, - do ye bear,
3. fertŏ, he shall bear or fěruntŏ, they shall bear let him bear.

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. ferrě, to bear, Perf. tŭlissĕ, to have borne, Fut. lātūrŭs essĕ, to be about Fut. lātūrŭs, about to bear. to bear.

GERUND.
Gen. fĕrendī, of bearing, etc.

## SUPINES.

Acc. lātŭm,
Abl. lātū.

## Passive Voice.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind., fĕrŏr,

Pres. Inf., ferrī,

INDICATIVE.
PRESENT TENSE.
sing. 1. fĕrŏr, I am borne,
2. ferris, thou art borne,
3. fertür; he is borne,

PLUR. 1. f r rĭmŭr, we are borne,
2. fĕrĭmĭnī, you are borne,
3. fĕruntŭr, they are borne.

Perf. Ind., lātŭs sŭm.

SUBJUNCTIVE.
fĕrăr, fĕrārĭs or -rĕ, fĕrātŭr, fĕrāmŭr, fĕrāmĭnī, fĕrantŭr.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

IMPERFECT.
SING. 1. fĕrēbăr, I was borne, ferrĕr,
2. fĕrēbārı̆s or -rĕ, thou wast borne, ferrērĭs or -rě,
3. fĕrēbātŭr, he was borne, ferrētür,
PLUR. 1. fĕrēbāmŭr, we were borne, ferrēmür,
2. fĕrēbāmĭn̄̄, you were borne, ferrēmīni,
3. fĕrēbantŭr, they were borne. ferrentür.

## FUTURE.

sing. 1. fĕrăr, I shall be borne,
2. fĕrērı̆s or -rĕ, thou wilt be borne,
3. fĕrētŭr, he will be borne,
pLUR. 1. fĕrēmŭr, we shall be borne,
2. fărēm̆ni, you will be borne,
3. fĕrentŭr, they will be borne.

## PERFECT AND AORIST.

lātŭs sŭm, etc.
lātŭs sĭm, etc.
PLUPERFECT.
lātŭs ĕrăm, etc.
lātŭs essĕm, etc.
fUTURE PERFECT.
lātŭs ĕrō, etc.

## IMPERATIVE.

> Singular.

Pres. 2. ferrě, be thou borne,
Fut. 2. fertor, thou shalt be borne or do thou be borne, 3. fertor, he shall be borne or let him be borne.
Plural.

Pres. 2. fĕrĭmĭnī, be ye borne,
Fut. 3. fĕruntor, they shall be borne or let them be borne.

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. ferri, to be borne, Perf. lātŭs essě, to have been borne, Fut. lātŭm īrī.

PARTICIPLES.

Perf. lātŭs, borne, having been borne, Gerundive. fĕrendŭs,tobe borne.

Note 1.-In like manner are inflected the compounds of fëro; as, afferro (adfero), afferre, attŭli, allātum ; aufĕro (ab+fero), auferre, abstŭli, ablātum; diffĕro, differre, disť̆li, dī̄ātum; rěfĕro, referre, rettŭli, relātum, etc.
Note 2.-An archaic perfect, tětŭli, is found ; also tětŭlĕro, tětŭlissem, tětŭlisse.
2. Fīo (Sansk., bhu ; Greek, фv-), I am made, become.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

| Pres. Ind., fī̆ | Pres. Inf., fîèrī, | Perf. Part. factŭs. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |

INDICATIVE.
SUBJUNCTIVE.
PRESENT TENSE.
SING. 1. fī̄̄, I am made, I become,
2. fis, thou art made, etc.,
3. fĭt, he is made, etc.,
plur. 1. (fīmŭs),* we are made, etc.,
2. (fītĭs), you are made, etc.,
3. fīunt, they are made, etc.

IMPERFECT.
sing. 1. f Y̌ēbăm, I was made, I became,
2. f 1 ̄bā̄, thou wast made, etc.,
3. f 1 ēbăt,

PLUR. 1. f Y̌ēbāmŭs,
2. f 1 ēbāť̌s,
3. fY̌ēbant.
fĭăm, fīas, fĭăt, f1āmŭs, f1ātis, fīant.
f ̌̌erěm,
f Ǐērēs,
f1̌ĕrĕt,
f ̌̌erḕmŭs,
f ̂̌ěrētĭs,
f̌ĕrent.

[^7]
## FUTURE.

sing. 1. fiăm, I shall be made, I shall become,
2. fiēs, thou wilt be made, thou wilt become,
3. fït, etc.

PLUR. 1. fīēmŭs,
2. fīetĬs,
3. fīent.

PERFECT AND AORIST.
sing. 1. factŭs sum, I have been made (or was $\}$ factŭs sĭm, made), Ihave become (or became), $\}$
2. factŭs ěs, thou hast been made, etc., factŭs sīs,
3. factŭs est,

PLUR. 1. factī sŭmŭs,
2. factī estĭs,
3. factī sunt.
factŭs sĭt, factī sīmŭs, factī sītĭs, factī sint.

PLUPERFECT.
factŭs ĕrăm, etc. factŭs essĕm, etc.

FUTURE PERFECT.
factŭs ĕrŏ, etc.
IMPERATIVE.
Pres. 2. fī,
Fut. 2. (fītō),
3. (fītō).
(fītōtĕ),
(fīuntō).

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. fièreī, Perf. factŭs essě, Fut. factŭm îrī.

Note 1.-The $i$ is long except before er and in fut. In fierem and fieri, Plautus and Terence often have the $i$ of the stem long.

Note 2.-Fio (fu-i-o) is only a strengthened form of fu-. Hence fore and futūrus may be assigned to fio as well as to sum. Cf. Cic.: neque ego ea, quae facta sunt, fore cum dicebam, divinabam futura; and quid fiat, factum, futurumve sit.-[KENNEDY.]

Note 3.-Fit, it happens, and fiebat, it happened, are often used impersonally.

Note 4.-Fio is used as the passive of facio, from which verb it takes the participles. The compounds of facio with verbal roots have -fio for their passive : as, calefacio, I warm, calefio, I become warm, I am warmed. So liquefio, satisfio. The compounds of fio with prepositions are only some forms of confieri, defieri, ecfieri, interfieri, superfieri, and infit, begins (to speak).
3. Volo (Sansk., vri ; Greek, $\beta$ on-, $\beta$ ov $\lambda-$ ), I wish, I will.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

| Pres. Ind., | Pres. Inf., | Perf. Ind. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| vŏlŏ, | vellé, | vollū̄. |

INDICATIVE.
SUBJUNCTIVE. present tense.
sing. 1. vơlŏ̆, I wish, will, or am willing, vělĭm,

- 2. vīs, thou wishest, etc.,

3. vult,

PLUR. 1. vŏlŭmŭs,
2. vultǐs,
3. vŏlunt.

## IMPERFECT.

vŏlēbăm, etc.
FUTURE.
vŏlăm, vŏlēs, etc.

PERFECT AND AORIST.
vŏluī, etc.
PLUPERFECT.
vŏluĕrăm, etc.
FUTURE PERFECT.
vŏluĕrō, etc.

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. vellě, to wish, etc. Perf. vǒluissě.

## PARTICIPLE.

Pres. vŏlens.

Special Forms.-Volt, voltis, were used before the time of Augustus. In conversational language vin' is used for visne, will you?; sīs, sultis for si vis, si vultis ; capsīs for cape si vis. (Compare pergin' for pergisne.)
4. Nōlo, I am unwilling, is compounded of nē (nōn) with volo.

## PRINCIPAL PARTS.

| Pres. Ind., | Pres. Inf., | Perf. Ind., |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nōlō, | nollĕ, | nōluī. |

INDICATIVE.
SUBJUNCTIVE.
present tense.
sing. 1. nōlŏ, I am willing,
2. nōn vīs,
3. nōn vult,

PLUR. 1. nōlümŭs,
2. nōn vultǐs,
3. nōlunt.

IMPERFECT.
nōlēbăm, etc.

## FUTURE.

sing. 1. (not used). nōlēs, etc.

PERFECT AND AORIST.
nōluī, etc.
PLUPERFECT.
nōluĕrăm, etc.
FUTURE PERFECT.
nōluĕrŏ, etc.

# IMPERATIVE. 

Singular.
Pres. 2. nōlī,
Fut. 2. nōlītŏ,
3. nōlītō̆.

INFINITIVE.
Pres. nollě, Perf. nōluissě.
Special Forms.-For non vis, non vult, Plautus has frequently nĕvis, něvult; for nolis, nolit, nolint, nollem, he has sometimes the full forms non velis, etc.
5. Mālo, I am more willing, I prefer, is compounded of măgĭs (mage, mā) with volo.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.
Pres. Ind., Pres. Inf., Perf. Ind.,
mālŏ,
INDICATIVE.
present tense.
sing. 1. mālŏ, I prefer,
2. māvīs,
3. mā̀ult,

PLUR. 1. mālŭmŭs,
2. mãvultǐs,
3. mālunt. nōlītě,
nōlītōté;
nōluntō.
PARTICIPLE.
RES. nōlens (rare).

Pbes. nōlens (rare). nōlītōté, nōluntō.

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. mallě.
Perf. māluissě.
PARTICIPLE (not used).
Special Forms in old Latin are māvŏlo, māvŏlet, māvělim, māvĕlis, māvĕlit, māvellem, māvelle.
6. Pervŏlo, I wish much, has pervělim, pervellem, pervelle.
7. The root of eo (for $\check{\mathbf{1} 0}$ ), to $g o$, is $\breve{\mathbf{1}}$ - (found both in Sanskrit and Greek), which becomes e before a, $\mathbf{0}, \mathrm{u}$.

## PRINCIPAL PARTS.

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Pres. Ind., } \\ & \text { eढ̆̃, } \end{aligned}$ | Pres. Inf., irĕ, | Perf., $\overline{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{V} \overline{\mathrm{I}}$ or I I, | Supine. Ǐtŭm. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| INDIC |  | SU | TIVE |

PRESENT TENSE.

SING. 1. ど̄̆, $I g o$,
2. īs,
3. Ĭt,

PLUR. 1. īmŭs,
2. ìtŭs,
3. ěunt.

$$
e \breve{a} m,
$$

$$
e \bar{a} s
$$

$$
e a ̆ t,
$$ eāmŭs, eātuss, eant.

IMPERFECT.
ībăm, etc. īrĕm, etc.

FUTURE.
$\overline{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{b} \overline{\mathrm{O}}_{2}$ ībĬs, etc.

PERFECT AND AORIST.
ìvī or ivistī or isti, etc.

PLUPERFECT.
ivěrăm or ierăm, etc.
īvissěm or issěm, etc.
ivērṑ or iĕrö, etc.

IMPERATIVE.

Singular.
Pres. 2. ì, Fut. 2. ìtŏ,
3. ītō.

Plural.
ītě, ītōtĕ, euntŏ.

INFINITIVE.
Pres. īrĕ,
Perf. īvissě or issě,
Fut. Y̌tūrŭs essě.

PARTICIPLES.
Pres.
Fut.
Gerundive. eundŭs (in composition).

## GERUND.

Gen. eundī, Dat. eundō, 'Acc. eundŭm, Abl. eundō.

## SUPINES.

## Acc. Y̌tŭm, <br> Abl. Y̌tū.

1. The $\boldsymbol{\nabla}$ is usually dropped by eo and its compounds: as, ii, ieram, issem, redii, redistis, redisse, etc.
2. The impersonal passive $\mathbf{1} t u r$, $\overline{\text { Itum }}$ est, $\overline{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{i}$, etc., is often used. Iri with the supine supplies a future passive to verbs. The active eo also with the supine expresses a future action : thus, injurias istas ultum eunt, they are going to avenge those wrongs; aiunt injurias istas ultum iri, they say that those wrongs are going to be avenged (literally, that there is a tending to avenge those wrongs).
3. Transitive compounds of eo have a personal passive voice, as adeor.
4. Besides the form ibit, a future in -itt is sometimes found in compounds: as, veniet (or vaeniet) from veneo, to be sold; transiet, etc.
5. Ambio, I go round, I canvas, is the only compound of eo which is inflected regularly, like audio.
6. Edo (Sansk., ad, Greek, $\varepsilon^{\dot{\varepsilon}} \delta-$ ), I eat, is inflected regularly, and also has some contracted forms, which omit the vowel after the root, and either change $d$ to $s$ or omit it. In the present subjunctive, in addition to the regular ĕdam, ĕdās, etc., it has a form with the old termination im, found also in sim and velim. The Principal Parts are

Pres. Ind., ĕdŏ,

| Pres. Inf., |
| :---: |
| ědĕrě or essě, |$\quad$ Perf.,

édī,

Perf. Part. ēsŭs.

The following are the anomalous forms:
Ind. Pres. Sing. 2. ēs, thou eatest,
3. est, he eats,

Plur. 2. estĭs, you eat.
Subj. Pres. Sing. 1. ĕdĭm, may I eat,
2. ědīs, etc.
3. ědĭt,

Plur. 1. ĕdīmus,
2. ědītis,
3. ědint.

Subj. Imp. essěm, etc.
Imperat. Sing. 2. ēs, 2 and 3. estō. Plur. 2. estĕ, 2 and 3. estōtě.

Inf. Pres.
Passive.
essě.
estur (for editur), essētur (for ederētur).

Note.-The contracted forms are found also from comědo, and some (exest, exesse, exesset) from exĕdo.
86. DEFECTIVE VERBS.

1. Aio, I say, say yes, affirm.

INDICATIVE.
SING. ā-io, ăYs, ă1̌t, PLUR. ā-iunt.

SUBJUNCTIVE.
$\overline{\mathrm{a}}$-iās, $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$-iat, ä-iant.

IMPERFECT.
SING. ā-iēbam, ā-iēbās, ā-iēbat, PLUR. ā-iēbāmus, ā-iēbātis, ā-iēbant.
Imperative Present, aī (rare).
Preseñt Participle, ä-iens, ä-ientis (as adjective).
Note 1.-The $\mathbf{i}$ is consornans (pronounced like English $y$ ), except in the second and third persons singular of the present indicative.
Note 2.-Ain'tu ( $=$ aisne tu), do you say so? was a familiar expression.
2. Inquam, I say.

Pres. inquam, inquis, inquy̌t, inquy̌mus, inquy̌is, inqư̌unt.
Subj. Pres.
Ind. Imperf.
inquiat.
inquiēbat.

Fut.
inquyēs, inquyet.
Perf. (inquii), inquisti, inquit.
Imperat. Fut. inquito.
Note.-Inquam is used in direct quotations, in which it is inserted parenthetically.
3. Quěo, $I$ can, and Nĕquěo, $I$ cannot.
indicative.
Pres. 1. quěo,
2.
3.

1. quïmus,
2. 
3. queunt.

Imperf. 1.
2. etc.

Perf. 1. quīvi, quiverrim,
2. etc. quivisti, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE. IND.
queam, ne̛quěo, queas, non quis, queat, queāmus, queãtis, queant. quiverris,
nequit, nequimus, nequitis, nequeunt. nequibam, nequïbas, etc. nequii, nequisti, etc.

SUBJ. nĕquěam, nequeas, nequeat, nequeāmus, nequeätis, nequeant. nequirem, nequires,etc. nequīverim, nequiverris, etc.

Pluperf. quīvěram, etc. quivissem, etc. nequīverram, etc. nequivissem, Fut. Perf. quivèro, etc. nequivèro, etc. [etc.
Inf. Pres. quïre, Perf. quivisse.
Part. Pres. quiens, queuntis.
SUP. Acc. quitum.
nequïre, nequivisse. nequiens, nequeuntis. nequitum.

Note.-Only the presentind. and subj. are at all frequent. Passive forms are found in old writers in connection with a passive infinitive: as, nĕquītur sŭbĭgi.
4. Färi, to speak, has these forms: Indic. Pres. fātur, he (she) speaks; Fut. fābor, fābĭtur; Perf. fātus est; Pluperf. fātus eram, fātus erat; Imperative, fare; Infinitive, fari ; Participles, fantis, etc. (the nominative wanting, except in the phrase fans atque infans in Plautus), fätus, fandus; Gerund. fandi, fando; Supine, fātu. In compounds we have also -fämur, -fämĭni; -fābar, -fābĕre, -fābĭmur, fârer, and in the imperative praefāto, praefámĭno.
5. Coepi (co- and the obsolete apio, Sansk. root. ap, to get; acquire), I have begun, has the tenses derived from the Perfect Stem, coepi, coepěram, coepĕro, coepĕrim, coepissem, coepisse, and from the Supine Stem, coeptūrus, coeptūrus esse, and coeptus. In connection with a passive infini-
tive coeptus sum, coeptus eram, are used more often than coepi, coĕperam : as, comitia haberi coepta sunt. (Cic.)
Note-A few forms from the Present Stem (as coepio) are sometimes found in old writers.
6. Verbs which have no forms from the Present Stem in use are called Præteritive. In these the English idiom generally translates the Perfect by the Present, the Pluperfect by the Imperfect, the Future Perfect by the Future: as, mĕmĭni, I remember; meminĕram, $I$ remembered; meminĕro, $I$ shall remember. Strictly speaking, however, there is the proper force of the tenses in these forms; for mermĭni is the perfect of an obsolete verb meno (măno), connected with the Sansk. man, and means something like I have minded, I have fixed it in mind, and thus, I now remember; ōdi is from the obsolete odio, oderre, and means I have repelled, thrust from me with loathing, then hate; nōvi is the perfect of nosco, and means I have become acquainted, I have come to know, i. e., I know, I am acquainted with. Memini, odi, and novi all have the Ind. Perf., Pluperf., and Fut. Perf., the Subj. Perf. and Pluperf., and the Inf. Perf., regularly. Memini has also the Imperative, 2d Sing. memento, 2d Plur. mementōte; ōdi has the Inf. Fut., osūrus esse, and Fut. Participle, osūrus ; ōsus sum is a rare form of odi; and the Perf. Participles exōsus and perōsus are found. Nōvi has the Perf. Part. nōtus, only as an adjective.
7. O$v a ̄ r e, ~ t o ~ t r i u m p h, ~ t o ~ r e j o i c e, ~ h a s ~ t h e ~ t h i r d ~ p e r s o n s ~ s i n g u l a r ~ o v a t, ~$ ovet, ovaret, the participles ovans, ovātus (Persius), and the gerund ovandi.
8. Quaeso and quaesŭmus, prythee, are old colloquial forms.
9. Salvē, hail! has the Imperative salvē, salvēto, salvēte, Future salvēbis, Inf. salvēre. Plautus uses once the Pres. Ind. salveo, playing on the original meaning of the word, to be in good health.
10. Âvē (or hăvē), hail ! has the Imperative ăvē, ăvēto, ăvēte, and the Inf. ăvēre.
11. Vălē, farewell! has Imperative vălē, vălēto, valēte, Ind. Fut. vălēbis, Inf. vălēre.
12. Ăge, ăgite, come! come on ! is sometimes called a defective verb, used only in the imperative. It is properly considered, however, as the imperative of ăgo, with a special meaning.
13. Ăpăge, away! be off! is a Greek imperative.
14. The imperative cědǒ, pray tell me, give me, has also the plural cědite, cette.

## 87. IMPERSONAL VERBS.

1. Impersonal verbs are conjugated in the third persons singular of the finite verb and in the infinitive.
2. Active impersonals have no passive voice. The principal of these are of the second conjugation :

| ǒportet, taedet, mĭsĕret, <br> pĭget, pŭdet, paenĭtet, <br> dĕcet, dēdĕcet, <br> lĭbet, lĭcet, lĭquet, |
| :---: |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |

> it behoves, disgusts, moves pity.
> it irks, shames, repents.
> it beseems, misbeseems.
> it pleases, is lawful, is clear.
> it relates, belongs.

Table of Impersonal Verbs (Second Conjugation).


The following perfects are also used: 2, pertaesum est; 3, mǐsĕrǐtum est; 4 , pı̆ğ̌tum est; 5 , pǔď̌tum est; 9 , ľ̆bǐtum est; 10 , lǐcĭtum est.

Misĕrescit is also found; sometimes mĭsĕrētur.
The gerundives pĭgendus, pŭdendus, paenǐtendus, and the participles mǐsěrǐtus, pertaesus, attĭnens, pertǐnens are in use. Paenĭtens, dĕcens, lĭbens, lĭcǐtus are used as adjectives.

The Persons are expressed by the Case: as,


\left.| SING. licet mihi ire, | it is allowed me |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| licet tibi ire, | " | " | you |
| licet ei ire, | " | " | him |
| PLUR. licet nobis ire, | " | " | us |
| licet vobis ire, | " | " | you |
| licet iis ire, | " | " | them |$\right\}$ to go \(=\left\{\begin{array}{l}I <br>

you <br>
he <br>
we <br>
y e <br>
they\end{array}\right\}\) may go;
and so in the other tenses.
3. Some Personal verbs are used impersonally with special meaning:


So usu venit, in mentem venit, etc.
4. Some Impersonals express changes of season and weather ; such are
fulgŭrat, it lightens. tǒnat, it thunders. grandinat, it hails.
ningit, it snows. pluit, it rains. rörat, there falls dew.
lūcescit, it dawns.
illūcescit, it gets light. vespĕrascit, it gets late.
5. Intransitive verbs may be used impersonally in the passive voice: as, lūdǐtur, from lūdo, I play:

Present
Imperf.
Future
Perfect
Pluperf.
Fut. Perf.
lüdĭtur, ludebatur, ludetur, lūsum est, lusum erat, lusum erit.

IND. SUBJ. INFIN.
ludatur, luderetur,
lusum sit, lusum esse, lusum esset. lusum fuisse.

The persons may be expressed by an ablative case with the preposition a or ab following the verb:

## PRESENT INDICATIVE.

SING. luditur a me, there is playing by me $=$ I play,

| luditur a te, ". ". |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| luditur ab eo, | ". | thou playest, |
| him $=$ he plays, |  |  | luditur ab eo, " " him = he plays,

## PRESENT INDICATIVE.


and so in the other tenses.
The case is generally understood, and the verb is rendered usually as expressing the first or third person plural : as, lūdĭtur, we play or they play; sometimes, one plays : as the French, on joue.
6. The neuter gerundive is similarly used to express duty or necessity, with a dative or ablative of the person :

## PRESENT INDICATIVE.

$\left.\begin{array}{llll}\text { SING. Iudendum est mihi, there must be playing by me }=I \\ \text { Iudendum est tibi, } & " & " & \text { thee }=\text { thou } \\ \text { ludendum est ei, } & " & " & \text { him }=\text { he } \\ \text { PLUR. ludendum est nobis, } & " & " & \text { us }=w e \\ \text { ludendum est vobis, } & " & " & \text { you }=\text { ye } \\ \text { Iudendum est iis, } & " & " & \text { them }=\text { they }\end{array}\right\}$
and so in the other tenses.
In this construction the case often occurs; but here, too, it may be absent, and we, they, or one supplied, as in the former instance. So French, on doit jouer.

## 88. DERIVATIVE VERBS.

1. Inceptive (or Inchoative) Verbs denote the beginning of an action or state. They are all of the third conjugation. Those derived from verbs add sco or isco to the Present stem : as, lăbasco, $I$ begin to totter, from lăbāre; călesco, $I$ grow warm, from călēre; trĕmisco, $I$ begin to tremble, from trĕmĕre; obdormisco, I get sleepy, from dormire. Those derived from nouns or adjectives add esco, more rarely asco, to the clipt stem : as, dūresco, become hard, from dūrus; jŭvĕnesco, grow young, from jŭvěnis; puěrasco, become a boy, from puer.
2. Frequentative or Intensive Verbs express repeated or intense action. They are of the first conjugation; and are formed either by adding -ito or -itor to the clipt stem; as, rŏgito, ask often, from rŏgo; mĭnĭtor, threaten much, from minor; or to the Supine stem: as, lūsĭto, play often, from lūdo, lūsum; or by adding o to supine stems in $t$ or $s:$ as, curso, run often, from curro, cursum; dieto, keep saying, from dīco, dictum.
a. Frequentatives may be formed from frequentatives: as, cantǐto, cursǐto, dictǐto.
3. There are a few Intensives in esso and isso, denoting eager action, as căpesso, catch eagerly, take in hand; făcesso, make haste to do; pětisso, seek eagerly. They are of the third conjugation, but with perfect and supine of the fourth. Sometimes such derivatives differ little in meaning from the primitive verb.
4. Desiderative verbs denote desire after a thing, and are formed by adding ŭrio to the Supine stem : as, ēsŭrio, desire to eat, from ĕdo, ēsum ; cēnātŭrio, wish to dine, from cēno, cēnātum. They are of the fourth conjugation. Such verbs are sometimes coined for rhetorical or comic effect, as sullatŭrit, he wants to be a Sulla.
5. Diminutive verbs denote a diminution or pettiness of the action. They are of the first conjugation, and are formed by adding illo to the Present stem: as, cantillo, sing low, from canto; conscrībillo, scribble, from conscrībo; sorbillo, to sip, from sorbeo.
6. A few verbs form what are at once diminutives and frequentatives, with the suffix ǐco: as, fŏdǐco, keep nudging, from fŏdio, dig; vellĭco, keep plucking, from vello, pull. So missiccŭlo, keep sending, from mitto, missum. These are all of the first conjugation.
7. Imitative verbs add isso to the clipt stem of nouns or adjectives: as, attĭcisso, to imitate the Attics; graecisso, to adopt a Grecian manner; patrisso, to take after one's father. They are of the first conjugation. Compare Demosthenes's verb, Philippize.

## The Inflections of Verbs.

89. INFLECTIONS OF PERSON, NUMBER, AND VOICE.
90. The personal terminations of verbs were originally personal pronouns; they have become modified in their form for smoothness of sound or from gradual changes in utterance.
91. The terminations in the different conjugations in the classical period will be seen by observation of the paradigms. The supposed primitive forms of the present indicative lego are thus given by G. Curtius, together with the supposed primitive forms of the Greek $\lambda \hat{\ell} \gamma \omega$ and the actual forms of the Sanskrit present bharāmi, I bear:

| Classical Latin. | Primitive Latin. | Primitive Greek. | Sanskrit. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| SING. 1. lego, | lego-m (i), | $\lambda \varepsilon \gamma \sigma-\mu t$, | bharä-mi, |
| 2. legi-s, | lege-s (i), | $\lambda \varepsilon \gamma \varepsilon-\sigma \iota$, | bhară-si, |
| 3. legi-t, | lege-t (i), | $\lambda \varepsilon \gamma \varepsilon-\tau \iota$, | bhară-ti, |
| PLUR. 1. legi-mus, | lego-mas, | $\lambda \varepsilon \gamma o-\mu \varepsilon s$, | bharā-mas, |
| 2. legi-tis, | lege-tes, | $\lambda \varepsilon \gamma \varepsilon-\tau \varepsilon$, | bhară-tha, |
| 3. legu-nt. | lego-nt $(\mathbf{i})$ | $\lambda \varepsilon \gamma o-\nu \tau \iota$. | bhara-nti. |

3. The $-m$ in the First Person singular and plural is the same as is seen in the oblique cases of the pronoun me.

This $-m$ is dropped in the singular of the present indicative of all verbs (as reg-o); (except two; viz., sum (for ĕs-om), $I a m$, and inqua-m, quoth $I$;) also in the future perfect of all verbs: as, amavero; and in the future indicative of all verbs with stems ending in -a or ee, and of some with stems ending in -i; ămābo, mŏnēbo, Ībo.

In a- verbs the final a has blended with the suffix, and both are now represented simply by -0 . Other vowel verbs retain their characteristic vowel : as, trĭb-n-0, mŏn-0-0, aud-i-0, căp-i-0. But three i- verbs change $i$ to $e$; viz., ěo (stem i-), queo (stem qui-), and its compound nĕqueo. Inquam has apparently a stem in $\breve{a}$, which except in the first singular present passes into $\mathbf{1}$.

The perfect indicative always ends in $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$. The proper personal suffix (m) has dropped off altogether. It is probable that this final $\bar{i}$ is part of the stem; but in practice it is more convenient to regard it as the personal termination.

In the Passive Voice the only change from the active is the addition of $r$, if the $m$ has dropped away, or the substitution of it for $m$ if the $m$ has been retained in the active: as, active, ămo, ămābo ; passive, ămor, ămābor; but active, amabam, amem; passive, amabar, amer.

This $r$ is generally considered to be a substitute for $s$, the proper passive inflection being, as is supposed, the reflexive pronoun se.
(A passive formed by a reflexive pronoun is seen in German, Das versteht sich von selbst, " that is understood of itself;" French, Le corps se trouva, "the body was found;" Italian, Si loda l'uomo modesto, " the modest man is praised;" Spanish, Las aguas se secaron," the waters were dried up."Key.)

Plural. The final -us is the part of the suffix which distinguishes the plural number. Its origin is uncertain. Some think it arose from the pronoun of the second person, so that we (-mus) was expressed by $I+$ thou.

In the present indicatives of three verbs, viz., sŭmus, we are, vŏlŭmus, and their compounds, and the old form quaesŭmus (stem quaes-), we pray, we have before $m$ the older vowel $u$. dă-mus retains the radical ă.

In the passive the final s is changed to $r$; thus, ămāmŭs, $\bar{a} m \bar{a} m u ̆ r$.
4. The consonant of the suffix of the Second Person is $s$ in the singular
(changed before another vowel to $r$ in the passive), and $t$ in the plural. The perfect indicative has $t$ in the singular also. The personal pronoun of the second person singular in Latin (tu) and the Doric dialect of Greek (rv́) shows us this $t$; in the Attic dialect of Greek it has s (ov́).
Singular. In the present tense of fěro, $I$ bear; vŏlo, $I$ will; ědo, $I$ eat; the short vowel ( $\mathfrak{l}$ ) is omitted or absorbed; hence fers (for ferrĭs), vis (generally taken to be for vŏlis, vilis, vils), and ēs (for ědǐs, eds); es (ès Plautus and Terence, ěs in subsequent poets) is also the second person singular present indicative of sum, $I$ am.

All a-, $\theta$-, and i- verbs have the final syllable long; viz., ās, ès, is. Not so the verbs with 1 : as, capio, capis.
In the perfect indicative the ending of the second person singular is -isti, of which ending -ti is the proper personal suffix. The $s$ is thought by Schleicher to be a remnant of es (Sansk. as); it may possibly be of pronominal origin.

In the passive, -erris (at first sight) appears to be formed by placing the characteristic passive $r$ before the personal suffix; the true theory, however, is probably that the passive suffix, with a short preceding vowel, being placed after the personal suffix caused the $s$ between two vowels to change to $\mathbf{r}$, necessitating also the change of the vowel $\mathbf{i}$ to $e$ before $r$. Thus rĕgěrǐs is for rěgǐ-s-is. The passive suffix itself (i.e., s for se) was allowed to remain $s$, instead of being changed to $r$, as usually, in order to avoid having two r 's close together.
-re (as amabāre) is more common than -ris (as amabāris) in Plautus, and, except in the present tense, in Cicero and Vergil. It is frequent in Horace, rare in Livy; and is usually avoided by all writers where the form would then be the same as that of the present infinitive active. Hence -ris is retained in the present indicative (with rare exceptions) in verbs which have an active voice; but in deponents (where there is no risk of confusion, as the infinitive ends in i) -re is frequent in Plautus, sometimes found in Cicero; -ris is usual in Vergil and Horace.

Plural. The plural ending -tis contains the personal pronoun of the second person, $t$, and the syllable -is, which contains either the pronoun of the second person in its other form, s , (thou + thou $=y e$ ) or is a suffix of plurality.

In the present tense of the four verbs named above, the i before the suffix is again omitted: fertis for fěrŭtis; voltis or vultis for volľtis; estis for ědĭtis, ye eat, and for (originally) ĕš̆tis, ye are.

In the perfect s is simply suffixed to the singular form.
In the passive voice the ending -imini is probably a masculine plural participial form. The Greek present passive participle is of similar form; viz., -ŏměnŏs, plur. -ŏměnoi. Originally, perhaps, estis was used with it, as it is used with a past participle to form the perfect passive.
5. The -t is the suffix of the Third Person, both singular and plural in
all tenses, is a demonstrative pronoun, found in the Greek (so-called) article, and in iste, tot, talis, tantus, etc.
Singular. In the present tense of sum, ědo, fĕro, vŏlo, the short vowel before -t is not found; viz., est (both from sum and from ědo), fert, volt, or (later) vult.
a. The third person singular active of a-, e-, and i- verbs was originally long, as may be inferred from the passive voice (amāt-ur, monēt-ur, an-dit-ur), and is actually found long not unfrequently in Plautus, and sometimes in Augustan poets.
b. In the perfect active the ending is the same as in the present (-it). Plautus sometimes, and more rarely Augustan poets, have this -it long.
To form the passive, -ur is suffixed to the active form.
Plural. The plural suffix is -nt. Instead of the ending -unt, in praeAugustan inscriptions, in Plautus, and Varro, the older -ont was retained after $\nabla$ (or $\mathfrak{u})$ : as, vivont, confluont, loquontur. Of this suffix the $t$ is probably the same as in the singular; the origin of the $n$ (which marks plurality) is uncertain.

The passive is formed (as in the singular) by suffixing -ur to the active form.

The perfect suffix is the same as the present, the ending being er-unt, of which the -er is the same as the -is (before $t$ ) of the second person. The penult (-er) is usually long (as, rexērunt, amavērunt), but the dactylic poets often, beginning with Lucretius (not Ennius), and others occasionally, shorten it : as, dormiĕrunt, locāvĕrunt, subēgĕrunt, etc. (Plaut.); èmĕrunt (Ter.) ; dedĕrunt, fuĕrunt, exiĕrunt, etc. (Lucr.).
-ère (for ērunt) is not uncommon in Plautus and Terence, rare in Cicero and Caesar, but frequent in dactylic poets and Liry.
In the future perfect indicative the suffix-vowel is $i$ instead of $u$ (-ĕrint for -errunt); probably in order to avoid confusion with the perfect.

## 90. INFLECTIONS OF MOOD.

The imperative and subjunctive moods are distinguished from the indicative by certain modifications.

## 1. Imperative Mood.

a. Present.-The imperative present appears to consist of shortened forms of the indicative present. The final $s$ is thrown off, and $-\bar{l}$ is changed to $\breve{\text { e }}$ (or rather, as the form probably originally ended in -es, the $s$ is simply thrown off ). Hence the active rěgis, becomes rěgé ; rěgitǐs, regitee ; the passive rěgěriss, rěgěrě; the second person plural rěgiminnī is the same as in the indicative. But from verbs with vowel stems in a-, e-, $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ - ( $\operatorname{not}$ 1.)
the $s$ is thrown off in the singular without further change; e. g., amă, mone $\bar{e}$, aud $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$. The exceptional form noli is formed as if from the second person singular of the subjunctive present.
b. (For a merely practical rule, we may say, the imperative active is seen by dropping the termination re of the present infinitive.)
In verbs which have short penult, and vowel stems in a, e, $i$, and also in the compounds of eo, the imperative forms in Plautus and Terence often shortened the final vowel : as, commŏdă, mŏnĕ, jŭbĕ, ăď̆, ăbř; especially in colloquial forms: as, mănědum, tăcēdum, mŏnĕsis, vĭděsis.
c. Future-The future imperative active is distinguished by a suffix, originally $-\overline{0} d$. In the form which is common to the second and third persons, $i . e$. , reg- $\mathrm{It}-\overline{0}$, and the form for the third person plural, i.e., reguntō, the -d has fallen off, as in the ablative case of nouns.

The suffix appears to have been simply added to the present indicative forms of the third person singular and plural. (The use of this form for the second person singular was perhaps due to -t being a characteristic of the second personal pronoun.) The plural second person is formed by appending ee (for ees, later -is) as the sign of plurality in this person to a modified form of the singular : as, rĕg-it-ōt-e (for rěg-ĭt-ōd-e).

The passive forms substitute -r for the final -d : as, rěgĭt-or for rěgĭtod; rĕgunt-or for rĕgunt-od.

In Plautus, Cato, and old inscriptions, a form in -mino is (rarely) found for the second and third person singular of the imperative of deponents: as, profitē-mĭno, praefä-mĭno, progredĭ-mĭno, fru-1-mĭno. One instance of a passive verb denuntiamino is found. This old form is of the same origin as the second person plural indicative in -mini.

## 2. Subjunctive Mood.

The subjunctive is characterized by a lengthened vowel immediately before the consonant of the personal suffix.

Present.-This vowel is $\bar{a}$ in the present tense of all verbs, except verbs with $\bar{a}-$ stems, in which it is $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$; i. e., reg-ā-mus, regāmur ; moneāmus, moneāmur; audiāmus, audiāmur; tribuāmus, tribuāmur; but amēmus, amēmur.

Except also a few in which it is $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$; viz., sim, sīs, etc., from sum ; velim, velīs, etc., from vollo; and the compounds of both; i. e., possim, absim, ete., nolim, malim; so also edim, duim, and their compounds.

Sum and its compounds had an older form siem, sies, from which sim, sis, etc., are contracted. The -es, eet is perhaps only the older form of the ending-is, it. But more probably it corresponds to the long final syllable in Gr. $\epsilon^{\eta} \eta \nu$, Sansk. syam.

Imperfect and Pluperfect.-The long vowel in these tenses is $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ in all verbs; e. g., rexissēmus, amavissēmus, etc.
a. (For a practical rule, we may say, the imperfect subjunctive active is seen by adding m , and the passive by adding r , to the present infinitive active.)
Perfect.-The vowel (assumed to have been originally long) is $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$, which, however, probably from confusion with the future perfect, is in dactylic poets as often short as long.
In Plautus and Terence there appears to be no instance incompatible with the rule of $\overline{\mathrm{I}}$ for the perf. subj., $\overline{1}$ for the fut. perf. indic., in the second person singular and first and second persons plural.

The forms for the subjunctive have been thought best explicable by assuming the proper suffix to be $\overline{\mathrm{I}}$ (seen in the Greek optative), which was contracted with a preceding $\bar{a}$ to $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$. Thus amas, ama- $\overline{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{s}$, amès. But as $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$ suffixed to the present indicative of vowel verbs other than those with a stems would have given still the same form when contracted, an $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ (frequent in Aryan subjunctives) was substituted in all such cases. The consonant verbs eventually followed this analogy, the forms in i being either sporadically used or (if originally usual) only sporadically retained. Sis and velis, etc., retain the $\overline{\mathbf{i}}$, because they have other points of difference from the indicative.

## 91. TENSES FORMED FROM THE PRESENT STEM.

1. The characteristic tense-endings, both in the forms from the present and those from the perfect stems, were probably originally verbs-added to the verb-stem with the force of auxiliaries-to which auxiliaries the terminations of number and person belong. It has been supposed that some of them were derived from bhu and es, meaning to be; others from ya, a form of i , to go .
2. Present.-The present indicative is formed simply by suffixing the inflections of number and person. The present subjunctive has a mood inflection in addition.
3. Future--The future indicative is in consonant, in i- verbs, and in uverbs a modified form of the present subjunctive. The first person singular is the same: the other persons have long $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$ where the present subjunctive has $\bar{a} ; i$. e., fut. regēs, regèmus, etc.; pres. subj. regās, regāmus, etc. In the third person sing. act. the final syllable was short in the ordinary language.

This $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$ perhaps arises from suffixing $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$ (meaning to go) to the present subjunctive of these verbs; i. e., reg-ā-mus, reg-ā-ī-mus, rēgēmus; just as amēmus, pres. subj. was formed. But this formation would not do for
a- and e- verbs; because in a- verbs such a form (e. g., amēmus) is already used for the pres. subj.; and in e- verbs, it (e. g., monēmus) would be identical with the present indicative. Accordingly
In a- and e- verbs there is a different mode of forming the future indicative; viz., by suffixing $\mathbf{i b}$ - to the present stem, with the final vowel of which it is contracted; e. g., ama-, ama-1̆b-, amāb-; first person plural amab-imus; mon-e-, mone-ĭb-, monēb-; first person plural monēbimus.

A similar future (besides the ordinary form in -am, -es, -et) is not unfrequently formed from 1 - stems in early writers (Plautus, Terence, etc.); e. $g$., aperībo, adgredībor (comp. adgredīri for adgredi), largībere, opperībor, scībo, etc. But of these forms none are found so late as the first century b. C., except ībo, quībo, nequïbo, which are the only forms in use at any time in those three verbs. Lenībo is also found in Propertius.

The verb do has a short penultimate dăbo.
The verb sum and compounds may seem to have merely a different form of the present for the future; viz., ĕr-o (for esom), first person plural ěrimus (compare pres. sưmus for ěs-ŭm-us). Most philologists, however, consider ero, etc., to be for esio, the $i$ being similar to that of the present subj.
4. Imperfect.-The imperfect indicative has in all stems a long a preceding the personal inflections. Thus ěs- with à suffixed becomes ěsā-, which with the personal $m$ and the usual change of $s$ to $r$ becomes ĕrā-m, I was. In all stems except ěs-, b is prefixed to this long a. Moreover, in all stems but dă- the vowel preceding bā is long.

The long a, which is always found (though shortened by final $m$ and $t$ ), serves to distinguish the imperfect from the future where the forms are otherwise similar; e. g., amābāmus, amābĭmus; monebāmus, monebǐmus; ībāmus, ībĭmus; dăbāmus, dăbǐmus; ĕrāmus, ěrĭmus. It is apparently a sign of past time, and as such is found in the pluperfect also.

In consonant stems the ending is -ēbā-, and this is usually found also in verbs with i stems; e. $g$., reg-ēbā-mus, audi-ēbā-mus. But this long e is not found in eo, queo, and their compounds, and is not unfrequently absent in the earlier language (Plautus, Ter., Varr., etc.) ; e. g., scībam, nescībam, āībam, etc., gestībat, grundībat, insanībat, mollībat, praesagībat, servības, stabilībat, věnībat. So also, apparently for metrical reasons, in the dactylic poets; e. g., audībant, lenībat, saevībat, redimībat, molībar, ferïbant, etc.
5. Imperfect Subjunctive.-This tense had the suffix -ěr (for ěs), which with the modal suffix $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$ made -ěrē. The first vowel coalesced with a preceding a, e, or $\overline{\mathrm{I}} ;$ e. $g$., reg-ĕr-ēmus, tribu-ĕr-ēmus, am-ār-ēmus (for amā-ĕr-ēmus), mon-ēr-èmus, aud-īr-èmus, and caused the omission of a preceding 1 i ; e. g., capı̆-, capĕrem.

In ědo, vŏlo, fĕro, and their compounds, the vowel ě was dropped out; e. g., first person plural es-sēm-us (for ěd-ěs-ēmus); vel-lēm-us (for vọl-
ěr-ēm-us); fer-rēm-us (for fĕr-ĕr-ēm-us). Do has dărēmus. Sum (as well as ědo) has essēmus.
essem (from sum) may be formed from the imperfect indicative with the subjunctival suffix $\bar{i}$. Thus ĕsā-ī-m becomes esē- $m$, the first syllable being lengthened by a double s as a compensatory result of the contraction. The imperfect of sum in a somewhat different form appears to have been used to form the imperfect of regular verbs, e. g., reg- with the imperfect indicative of sum, is reg-eram : hence reg-era-i-m, regerem.
6. The Present Infinitive Active has the suffix -ěre, for -ĕsě ( $s$ between two vowels changed to $r$ ), in which the first e coalesces with a preceding $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$, e, or $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$; e. g., reg-ĕre, tribu-ĕre ; am-āre, mon-ēre, aud-īre. Căpĕre is formed analogously to căpĕrem (5).

In sum, ĕdo, vŏlo, fĕro, and their compounds, the first vowel e was dropped out, as in the imperfect subjunctive. Hence the infinitives are esse (for esese and for edese), velle (for vollere), ferre (for ferere).
$a$. The infinitive is generally considered to be the dative or locative case of a verbal noun with stem ending in s- or si-; e.g., dicer-e for old daikas-ai, viver-e analogous to the Sanskrit jîvas-ai. The finale (=ai) would be originally long.
7. The Present Infinitive Passive has the suffix i appended to the stem, in verbs whose stem ends in a consonant, or in $\overline{1}$ or in $u: a s$, reg- $\bar{i}$, tribu- $\overline{1}$, cap- $\overline{1}$. In other vowel verbs $\bar{i}$ takes the place of the final e of the active infinitive : as, aud- $\overline{\mathrm{r}}-\overline{\mathrm{i}}$, mon-ēr- $\overline{1}$, am-ār- $\overline{\mathrm{I}}$.
$a$. A further suffix -ĕr is found appended to the i , frequently in the older and occasionally in later poets: as, amärier, vestīrier.
8. The suffix of the Present Participle is eenti, nom. sing. -ens : as, reg-ens, tribu-ens, audi-ens. In eo and its compounds an older form of the suffix, viz., -unti, is retained ; the nom. sing. is, however, usually iens. In -a and -e verbs the suffix coalesces with the final stem vowel: as, amans (for amā-ens), monens (for monē-ens).
9. The suffix -endo forms, as a noun, the Gerdend, as an adjective, the Gertindive: as, regendum, tribuendum, audiendum; amandum, monendum.
An older form in -undo (probably for an earlier -ondo) is common in some writers. Eo and its compounds always have this form : as, eundum, adeundus.

## 92. TENSES FORMED FROM THE PERFECT STEM.

1. The suffixes for the tenses formed from the perfect stem, i.e., for the perfect, future perfect, and pluperfect in the indicative, and perfect and pluperfect in the subjunctive, are the same in all verbs; viz., future perfect, -ĕr-; perf. subj., -ĕr-ī ; piuperf. ind., -ĕr- $\bar{a}$; pluperf. subj., -iss-ē. The perfect infinitive ends in isse.
2. The great resemblance of these suffixes to the parts of the verb sum,
which are used to form the same tenses in the passive voice, suggests (and the suggestion has been generally adopted) that they are identical in origin.

This theory would give a complete explanation of the pluperfect and the future perfect indicative, with the exception that the third person plural of the latter has errint instead of ĕrunt, perhaps in order to avoid confusion with the third person plural perfect indicative.
The perfect subjunctive would be explained by assuming as the suffix an older form of sim; viz., -ĕsim, or with the usual change of $s$ to $r$, -ĕrim.

In the perfect infinitive and pluperfect subjunctive, audivissem, audivisse would stand for aud-ī1-essem, audivi-esse.

In the perfect indicative the second person singular, e. g., audivisti would stand for aud-īī-esti (the personal suffix -ti being lost in the simple verb, es, thou art) ; second person plural, e. g., audivistis, for aud-īvīestis; third person plural, e.g., audiverunt, for aud-īvi-ěsunt. The third personal singular may have the simple personal suffixes, or may possibly have been reduced from a fuller form ; e. g., audivi-est, audivist, audivit. The -īt is sometimes found long. The first person singular, e. g., audivi, may then be for andivi-esum, audīvism, audivim. And the first person plural may have had a similar pedigree.
It must, however, be observed that the resemblance to the parts of the stem es, on which this theory rests, is in some degree deceptive, for it consists largely in personal and modal suffixes, which even on another hypothesis might be expected to be the same.
3. The perfect stem when formed by a suffixed $\mathbf{v}$, is frequently modified by the omission of the $\mathbf{v}$ in all tenses and persons and both numbers, except in the first person singular and plural, and third person singular of the perfect indicative. The vowels thus brought together are contracted, excepting -ie and sometimes -ii. (See 83.)

## 93. PARTICIPLES AND COMPOUND TENSES FORMED FROM THE SUPINE STEM.

From the so-called supine stem are formed the future participle active by suffixing -ūro-, sing. nom. -ūrus (m.), -üra (f.), -ürum (n.); and the past participle passive, by suffixing the ordinary case-endings of the first and second declension ; e. g., sing. nom. -us (m.), -ă (f.), -um (n.).
These participles, in the appropriate gender and number, are used in the nominative case with the finite tenses of the verb sum, and in the accusative as well as the nominative with the infinitive of the same verb to supply the place of certain tenses for which there is no special form. The future participle thus supplies additional future tenses in the active voice, especially in the subjunctive; the past participle supplies the perfect tenses of the passive voice, whether the passive voice have a strictly passive meaning, or, as in deponents, an active or reflexive meaning.

## Verb Stems.

## 94. THE PRESENT STEM.

Verbs may be divided into consonant verbs and vowel verbs, according as the present stem ends in a consonant or a vowel.

## I. Consonant Verbs.

1. Most consonant verbs exhibit in the present stem no alteration of the regular stem of the verb: as, rěg-, rěg-ĕre; caed-, caed-ĕre.

In others such alteration is found: as,

1. The verb stem is reduplicated to form the present tense; thus, from the verb stem gěn-, we have the present gigněre for gì-gĕnĕre (gen-ui, gěnǐtum); from stă-, sistĕre (styti, stătum); from să, sęrĕre for sĕsĕre (sēvi, š九tum).
2. The radical vowel is lengthened; thus from the stem dŭc- (compare dux, dŭcis) dūcĕre; from dĭc- (compare veridicus) dīcere; from fĭd- (compare fides) fidere.
3. $n$ is suffixed to the stem of the verb: as, tem-, tem-n-bre; cer-, cer-n-ĕre; sǐ-, sǐ-n-ĕre.
(In early Latin are found such forms as dă-n-unt for dant, solǐ-n-unt for solent, nequi-n-unt for nequeunt, obi-n-unt for obeunt.)
4. A nasal is inserted before the final stem consonant: as, a. Labial stems: cŭb-, cu-m-bĕre; rŭp-, ru-m-pĕre; b. Guttural stems: lı̆qu-, li-nqŭere; frăg-, fra-n-gĕre; vict-, vi-n-cĕre. In some verbs the nasal is retained in the perfect and dropped in the supine stem: as, fig-, fi-n-gere, fi-n-xi, fi-ctum. In some the nasal is constant in the verb stem : as, root jŭg- (compare jŭg-um), ju-n-gĕre, ju-n-xi, ju-n-ctum; $c$. Dental stems: as, fĭd-, fi-n-dere; tŭd-, tu-n-dĕre.
5. sc or isc is suffixed to verb stems, especially to vowel stems in e, and gives often the special meaning of beginning or becoming. This inchoative form sometimes exists alone, sometimes is used besides the ordinary stem, sometimes is found in a compound, but not in the simple verb. The perfect and supine, if any, are the same as those of the ordinary stem (real or assumed). A very few stems carry the suffix -sc throughout all the tenses. Thus sc is suffixed :
a. To consonant stems: as, ăl- (alĕre), ale-sc-ěre; păc-, păc-isc-i; dǐc-, di-sc-ĕre (for dic-sc-ĕre).
b. To vowel stems: as, īrā-, ira-sc-i; nā-, na-sc-i ; no-, no-sc-ĕre; crē-, cre-sc-ĕre; dormī- (dormīre), ob-dormi-sc-ĕre; scī-, sci-sc-ĕre.
6. The guttural is omitted in some stems which probably ended in gu(i.e., $g$ with a slight labial action after it): as, flugu-, flu-ĕre; strugu-, stru-erre; frugu-, frui; vigu-, vī-ēre; also the vowel stem conigu-, conīvēre.

Other stems vary between gu and $\mathbf{g}$ : as, stinguěre, stingěre; tinguěre, tingěre; unguĕre, ungĕre; ninguit, ningit (compare nix, nǐv-is), and the vowel stems urguēre, urgēre.
7. $s$ is changed between vowels to $r:$ as, gěs-, gěrěre (gessi, gestum); quĕs-, quĕri (ques-tus); quaes-, quaerěre (compare quaeso, quaesīvi, etc.); üs-, ūrĕre (ussi, ustum).

Also the vowel stem hausi-, haurire (hausi, haus-tum).
8. A few verbs have 11 in present stem, but not in other parts: as, col-, percellĕre (per-cŭl-i, per-cul-sum) ; pol-, pellĕre (pe-pŭl-i, pul-sum); tol-, tollĕre (tŭl-i); vellĕre retains $1 l$ in perfect velli, but has the supine vul-sum.

## II. Vowel Verbs.

## 1. Verbs with stems ending in a:

Most of these verbs have the verb stem ending in $\vec{a}-$, and preserve it in all tenses : as, flā-, fläre (flävi, flätum); fā-, färi (fätus); in which a is radical.

In nä-, näre (nāvi, nātum), the $\bar{a}$ is constant, but the derivative năto shows that $\breve{a}$ is radical. In strā-, ster-n-ěre (strāvi, strätum); tlā-, tollěre (tětŭli, lātum for tlātum); the present stem is consonantal.
2. Verbs with stems ending in $\mathfrak{a}-:$ as,
dă-, dăre (dědi, dătum), but das has $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$. In all other verbs which may be considered to have a stem ending in ă-, the final a- combines with the initial vowel of the suffixes in tenses formed from the present stem, so as to present à; e. g.,

Stă-, stāre (stěti, stătum, but sometimes stātum), where ă is radical; crěpă-, crěpāre; cŭbă-, cŭbāre; dŏmă-, dŏmāre; frĭcă-, frǐcāre; mĭcă-, mǐcāre; ēněcă, ēněcāre, but něcā- usually is simple verb; -plĭcă- and -plicā-, plicāre; secă-, sěcāre; -sŏnă-, sonāre (also soněre); tŏnă, tonāre; vĕtă-, vetāre; all of which have perfects in -ui, and most of them usually supines in -ľtum. Also lăvă-, lavāre (and lavĕre) ; jūvă-, juväre; which vocalize and contract the radical $\nabla$ with -ui of the perfect; and contract or omit it in the supine.
3. Of verbs with stems ending in 0 , the only traces are
nö-, which has the inchoative suffix in the present tense, noscerre (nōvi, nōtum) ; the root has o็, comp. nŏta (noun), nǒtāre, cognitum, etc.; and pō- (pōtum), the frequentative potä-re being otherwise alone in use.
4. Verbs with stems ending in $\mathbf{u}$.
a. Most have stems in $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$, which, however, becomes short before the initial vowel of the suffixes: as, acū-, acŭere, acŭis, acŭisti, acŭas, acūēbam, acŭĕrem, etc.; the supine has $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$. Plu-, pluĕre (perf. plūvi and plui) is, apparently, contracted for plŭv- or plov- (compare plŭvia). And the same may be the case with all : compare fluo, flŭ-ius.
b. ruo has rŭ-in supine of compounds, but rūta (n. pl.) according to Varro. Pŭ-is found only in adj. pŭtus and frequentative pŭtāre.
c. A few verbs have $u$ vocal in the supine, but consonantal usually in the present and perfect: as, lŏqu-, lŏqui (locūtum) ; sequ-, sěqui (secūtum) ; solv-, solvere (solvi, sŏl̄̄tum); volv-, volvěre (volvi, vŏlūtum).
5. Verbs with stems ending in e:
$a$. Few verbs have the stem ending in $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$, and these are monosyllables, where $e$ is radical: as, delē- (compound), delēre ; fiè, flère ; nē-, nēre; -plē, -plēre.
All these have the perfect and supine in -ēvi, -ētum.
Other verbs with $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$ (-ēvi, -etum) have consonantal present stems: as, crē-, crescěre ; quiē-, quiescěre.
b. In most verbs with stems in -e, the $e$ was probably short, as may be inferred from the perfect being in -ui (for -eui), and supine in -itum, which in some verbs was reduced to -tum : as, mŏně-, monēre (monui, monĭtum), and many others; căvě-, căvēre (căvi for căvūi, căvǐtum, contracted to cautam), and others. Contraction with the initial vowel of suffixes gives $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ in most forms of the present stem; e.g., monēre, monēs, monēmus, monēbam, monēbo, monērem, monētur (monĕt, as amăt, audĭt, the vowel being shortened before $t$ final).
c. Many verbs have e (probably ĕ) in the present stem, but drop it entirely and show consonantal stems in other parts of the verb: as, morde, mordēre (momordi, morsum); vĭde-, vĭdēre (vīdi, vīsum); sěde-, sedēre (sēdi, sessum), and many others.
d. Some have a present stem in -e, besides another (older or poetic) consonantal stem: as, fervēre, fervěre; strīdēre, strīdĕre; tuēri, in compounds -tui; ciēre, in compounds ecīre.
6. Verbs with stems ending in i :
a. Some verbs with radical i , and many derivatives, have $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$, and retain it through all the tenses : as, scī-, scīrē ; i-, īre; cī, -cīre (also ciēre); qui-, quīre. In these the i is radical. So, too, audi-, audire; dormī-, dormire ; and many other derivatives. In all these the perfect is in -īvi, and in the derivative verbs and scio, the supine is in -itum. But itum, cǐtum, quĭtum.
b. Some verbs have $\overline{\mathrm{I}}$ in the present stem, but drop it and show a consonantal stem in other parts; as, amǐcī-, amǐcīre (amiccui, amictum).
c. Some verbs have the stem ending in $\check{1}$, which fell away before $\mathfrak{I}$ orĕr ; and, as final in the imperative, was changed to $\breve{\text { e. The } i \text { is generally dropped }}$ in the supine stem. Thus căpı̆-, căpĕre (cēpi, captum); grădĭ-, inf. grădi (gressum). Two have $\overline{1}$ in other tenses than those derived from the present: cŭpǐ-, cŭpěre, cŭpīvi, cŭpītum (in Lucretius also cupīret); săpĭ, săpěre, sapīvi, in compound rěsīpui and rěsĭpīvi.
d. A few verbs have consonant stems in the present, but $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$ stems in other parts: as, pĕt-, pětĕre, pětīvi, petītum; quaes-, quaerěre, quaesīvi, quaesītum; arcess-, arcessěre, arcessīvi, arcessītum.

## 95. formation of the perfect stem.

The perfect stem is formed in six different ways:

1. By reduplication. The first consonant of the stem is prefixed with a short vowel, which is (1) e if the stem-vowel is a or $e$, and (2) is the same as the stem-vowel if that vowel is o, $u$, or $\mathbf{i}$. (3) If the stem-vowel is a, it is changed to e before two consonants, to i before one; (4) ae is changed to $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$. (5) Before single 1, e and o become u. (6) If the stem begins with sp, sc, st, the second consonant is reduplicated, and the s prefixed to the reduplication syllable.
Thus: (1) and (3) căn-, cĕ-cĭn-i ; parc-, pe-perc-i; (1) pend-, peèpend-i ; (2) posc-, pŏ-posc-i; tŭd- (present tund-), tŭ-ť̆d-i ; dĭc- (present discfor dic-sc-), dî-dĭc-i ; (4) caed-, cě-cīd-i ; (5) pŏl- (present pell-), pĕ-pŭl-i; (6) sponde-, spŏ-pond-i ; stă- (present stā-), stĕ-ti.
2. By lengthening the stem-vowel: as, rŭp- (present rump-), rūp-i. Short a is changed to $\overline{\boldsymbol{e}}$ (except in scăbĕre), as ăg-, èg-i.
3. By suffixing s: as, carp-, carp-s-i. This suffix is supposed to be the same as that of the First Aorist in Greek. In stems in $m$, a euphonic $\mathbf{p}$ is generally inserted before $s$, as dēm-, dēmp-s-i. In prĕmo the m is assimilated: pres-si. The gutturals $\mathbf{c , g}$, and qu, with s become $\mathbf{x}$; as dic-, di-x-i ; c and g , after 1 or r , are dropped before s ; as, mulce-, mul-s-i; sparg-, spar-s-i. The labial b becomes p; as, scrīb-, scrīp-s-i. The dentals $t$ and $d$ fall away before $s$, or are assimilated to it: as, flect-, flex-i ( $x=c s$ ) ; mitt, mī-s-i; cēd-, ces-s-i; dīvìd-, dīvī-s-i; vād-, vā-s-i.
4. By suffaing u: as, strĕp-, strep-u-i ; dŏmă-, dom-u-i; dŏcĕ-, dŏc-u-i.
5. By sufflxing $v$ : as, ama-, ama-v-i; audi-, audi-v-i; no- (present nosco), nō-v-i.
6. By adopting the present-stem as the perfect-stem: as, bĭb-, bĭb-ī; īc-, īc-i; vert-, vert-i ; ăcū-, acu-i.

## 96. FORMATION OF THE SUPINE STEM.

The supine stem has the suffix $t$.
When the verb-stem ends in a vowel, that vowel is, if long, generally retained : as, ămā-, ămā-tum ; if short, it is almost always changed, except in monosyllables, to $\check{1}$, or omitted altogether : as, dŏmă-, dŏmĭ-tum; hăbĕ-, 12*
hăbĭ-tum; mǒvĕ-, mō-tum. A few of the verbs which have a consonant stem have-it (instead of $t$ ) in the supine, as if from a vowel-stem: thas, frĕm-, frĕm-ĭtum.

When the verb-stem ends in a consonant, or loses its final vowel, $t$ is, when following certain consonants, changed to $s$. Before this $s, t$ and $d$ are dropped, or assimilated: as, ed-, ē-sum; cēd-, cēs-sum (ced-sum); mitt-, mis-sum. The guttural characters, $g, g u, q u, h$ become $c$ when $t$ follows: as, ăg-, ac-tum; the labial b becomes p: as, scrīb-, scrīp-tum; $v$ is vocalized into $u$ in solv-, solū-tum, volv-, volū-tum; $r$ (primitively s) becomes s again: as, ger-, gestum.-Roby, in part.

## 97. A TABLE OF VERBS, SHOWING THE PRESENT, INFINITIVE, PERFECT, AND SUPINE.

Note.-Forms enclosed in parentheses, as (jutum), are rare or late.

## I. First Conjugation.

Present. Infinitive. Perfect. Supine.
Regular Form, -0, -āre, -āvi, -ātum; as, ămo, ămāre, ămāvi, ămātum.
Exceptions:-

1. Those having -ui in Perfect, -itum or -tum in Supine.

2. Those having -vi in Perfect, -tum in Supine.
jūvo, juvāre, jūvi, (jūtum), help, delight. 3
lăvo, lavāre, lāvi, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { lavātum, } \\ \text { lautum, } \\ \text { lōtum, }\end{array}\right\}$ wash.

[^8]3. Those having reduplicated ${ }^{1}$ Perfect, -tum in Supine.

| Pres. | Inf. | Perf. | Supine. | Meaning. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| do, | dăre, | dědi, | dătum, | give. |
| sto, | stāre, | stetti, | stătum, | stand. 2 |

## II. Second Conjugation.

Regular Form, as, mŏnĕo, mŏnēre,

Perf.
-ŭi, mŏnŭi,

Supine. Ǐtum; mŏnĭtum.

## Exceptions:-

1. Those having regular Perf. in -ui, but -tum or -sum in Supine.

| Pres. | Inf. | Perf. | Supine. | Meaning. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| censeo, | censēre, | censui, <br> docensum, | docēre, | docui, |
| dockon, give opinion. |  |  |  |  |
| misceo, | miscēre, | miscui, | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { mixtum, } \\ \text { mistum, }\end{array}\right\}$ | teach. |

2. Those having -vi in Perf., -tum in Supine.

| dēleo, fleo | delēre, flēre, | delēvi, flēvi, | delētum, flētum, |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| impleo, |  | implēvi, | implêtum, |  |

3. Those having -si in Perf., -sum or -tum in Supine.

| eo, | algêre, | alsi, |  | be cold. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| , | ardere, | arsi, |  | be on fire. |
| eo, | augère, |  | auctum, | make bigg |
| indulge |  |  | indultum (late) | indul |
|  |  |  | jussu |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | mulsi, | m, | stroke, sooth |

1 That is, having the first consonant of the present, together with a vowel, prefixed to the perfect tense, as, do, de-di (8 95). In the perfects of compound verbs the initial consonants of the verb, not of the preposition, appear as the reduplication of the perfect, e. g., con-sto, con-stiti.
2 The compounds generally make -stiti in perf., as, praesto, praestiti, and seldom have a supine; those with dissyllabic prepositions retain e in the perfect. as circumstěti. Lucan has stâturus.
3 So all compounds of teneo, to hold, which has no supine.
4 So all compounds of pleo, to fll, which is never found in an uncompounded form.

| Pres. | Inf. | Perf. | Supine. | Meaning. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| rideo, | ridēre, | risi, | rīsum, | laugh. |
| suảdeo, | suādēre, | suāsi, | suāsum, | advise. |
| tergeo, | tergëre, | tersi, | tersum, | wipe. 1 |
| torquěo, | torquēre, | torsi, | tortum, | twist. |

4. Those having -i in Perf., -tum or -sum in Supine.

| căveo, | cavēre, | cā̄i, | cautum, | beware. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| fåveo, | favēre, | fāvi, | fautum, | be favorable. |
| foveo, | fovēre, | fōvi, | fōtum, | keep warm, cherish. |
| mðveo, | movēre, | mōvi, | mōtum, | move (transitive). |
| prandeo, | prandēre, | prandi, | pransum, | dine. |
| respondeo, | respondēre, | respondi, | responsum, | answer. 2 |
| sędeo, | sedēre, | sēdi, | sessum, | sit. |
| video, | vidēre, | vīdi, | visum, | see. |
| vǒveo, | vovēre, | vōvi, | vōtum, | vow. |

5. Those having reduplicated Perf., -sum in Supine. mordeo, mordēre, mŏmordi, morsum, bite. pendeo, pendēre, pěpendi, pensum, be suspended. spondeo, spondēre, spøpondi, sponsum, promise. tondeo, tondēre, tǒtondi, tonsum, shear.
6. Semi-deponent Verbs.

| audeo, | audēre, | ausus sum, | dare. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| gaudeo, | gaudēre, | gāvisus sum, | rejoice. |
| soleo, | solēre, | solY̌tus sum, | be accustomed. |

## III. Third Conjugation.

Infinitive ends in -erre. The principal varieties of conjugation are the following:-

1. Those having -si in Perf., -tum in Supine.

Note.-Perfects in -xi are considered as ending in -si, since $\mathbf{x}$ is only a double letter standing for $\mathbf{c s}, \mathbf{g s}, \mathbf{k s}$, or qs.

| Pres. | Inf. | Perf. | Supine. | Meaning. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| allǐcio, | allicerre, | allexi, | allectum, | entice. 3 |
| aspǐcio, | aspicěre, | aspexi, | aspectum, | behold. 4 |
| carpo, | carpěre, | carpsi, | carptum, | pluck. |

[^9]| res. | Inf. | Perf. | Sup. | Meaning. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| cingo, | cingëre, | cinxi, | cinctum, | gird. |
| cömo, | comerre, | compsi, | comptum, | ador |
| cơquo, | $\begin{aligned} & \text { oquëre, } \\ & \text { emere } \end{aligned}$ | dempsi, | demptum | cook. <br> take away. |
| dico, | icěre, | dixi, | dictum, | say, tell. |
| dūco, | ducěre, | duxi, | ductum, | lead, dr |
| extinguo, | extinguĕ |  | extinctum | inguish. 1 |
| fingo, | fingere, | finxi, | fictum, | form, invent. |
| gěro, | gerěre, | gessi, | gestum, | carry |
| jungo, | jungěre, | junxi, | ctun | yoke, join. |
| nübo, | nuběre, | nupsi, | nuptum, | be married. 2 |
| pingo, | pingěre, | pinxi, | pictum, | paint. |
| prōmo, | měre, | prompsi, | promptum, | draw out. |
| rĕgo, | gěre, | rexi, | rectum, | keep straight, rule. |
| rēpo, | perre, | repsi, | (reptum), | creep. |
| scrībo, | ribĕre, | scripsi, | scriptum, | write. |
| stringo, | stringëre, | strinxi, | strictum, | graze, draw tight |
| struo, | uĕre, | struxi, | structum, | build. |
| sūmo, | měre | sumpsi, | sumptum, | take up. |
| těgo, | gere, | texi, | tectum, | cover. |
| temno, | temněre, | tempsi, | temptum, | despise. |
| tingo, | tingěre, |  |  |  |
| tinguo, | tinguerre, | tinxi, | tinctum, | dye. |
| trăho, | trahěre, | traxi, | tractum, | draw. |
| ungo, | \{ ungěre, . |  |  |  |
| unguo, | unguěre, | unxi, | um, | grea |
| üro, | ure̛re, | ussi, | ustum, | bur |
| věho, | vehĕre, | vexi, | vectum, | carry. |
| vivo, | viverre, | vixi, | victum, | live. |

## 2. Those having -si in Perf., -sum in Supine.

| cēdo, | ceď̌re, | cessi, | cessum, | give way, yield up. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| claudo, | claudẽre, | clausi, | clausum, | shut. 3 |

1 So all compounds of stinguo, to quench, which has no perfect or supine.
2 As a bride; literally, put on a veil.
3 The compounds make -cludo; as, reclūdo, -ĕre, -si, -sum, open.
4 So all compounds of quătio, quătĕre, to shake, which has supine quassum, and no perfect.


[^10]| Pres. | Inf. | Perf. | Sup. | Meaning. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tango, | tangěre, | tettrigi, | tactum, | touch. |
| tendo, | tenděre, | tětendi, | \{ tentum | $\} s t r$ |
| tollo, | tol | stŭ | bātum, | ft up, remo |
| ndo, | tunděre, | tŭtǔdi, | tüsum, | \} thump, pound |

## 4. Those having -i in Perf., -tum in Supine.

| ăgo,2 | agěre, | ègi, | actum, | do, drive. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| attingo, | attingěre, | attrgi, | attactum, | touch. 3 |
| brbo, | brbezre, | brbi, | (bybrtum), | drink. |
| căpio,4 | căperre, | cēpi, | captum, | take. |
| contendo, | contenděre, | contendi, | contentum, | strive. 5 |
| ěmo,6 | ěměre, | èmi, | emptum, | $b u y$ (orig. take). |
| făcio, 7 | facerre, | fexci, | factum, | make, do. |
| frango, 8 | frangere, | frēgi, | fractum, | break in pieces. |
| fŭgio, | fugerre, | fūgi, | fugitum, | flee, fly from. |
| impingo, | impingĕre, | impēgi, | impactum, | strike upon. 9 |
| jaxcio,10 | jăcĕre, | jēci, | jactum, | throw, cast. |
| lěgo,11 | legere, | lēgi, | lectum, | pick up, choose, read. |

1 The proper perfect and supine are tŭli (in prae-Augustan poets tětŭi) and lātum (for tlātum); but as fero takes these, tollo uses the perfect and supine of its compound sustollo.

2 The compounds make -igo, -igĕre, -ēgi, -actum, as exĭgo; except cōgo, cögĕre, cǒēgi, cǒactum ; dēgo, which has no perfect or supine; and circumăgo, perăgo, which retain a in the present stem. Sătăgo is really two words: perfect ēgi satis.

3 So all compounds of tango, to touch.
4 The compounds (except antecapio) make -cĭpio, -cipěre, -cēpi, -ceptum, as excipio.
5 So all compounds of tendo, to stretch. Extendo, extend, and ostendo, shew, have -sum as well as tum in the supine.
6 The compounds make -ĭmo, -iměre, -ēmi, -emptum, as ădímo; except coĕmo, perěmo, interĕmo, which retain e , and the earlier compounds, cōmo, dēmo, prōmo, sūmo, which make compsi, comptum, etc.

7 The compounds make -f ǐcio, -ficěre, -fēci, -fectum, as efficio. The half compounds, calĕfacio, tremĕfacio, etc., retain a.
8 The compounds make -fringo, -fringere, -frēgi, -fractum, as effringo.
9 So compounds of pango, to fasten; but oppango, dēpango (wants the perf.), and rěpango (wants perf. and sup.) retain a in the present stem.

10 The compounds make -jicio, -jicěre, -jēci, -jectum, as conjicio. In these compounds ji is by recent editors written i ; as cōnĭcio, conĭcěre, conjēci, conjectum.

11 The compounds generally make -lĭgo, -ligĕre, -lëgi, -lectum, as collĭgo. Dīĕgo or dīlĭgo, love; intellĕgo, understand, and neglĕgo, neglect, retain e, and usually have the perf. in -xi (rarely intellēgi, neglēgi). Allĕgo, perlĕgo, praelĕ. go, rělĕgo, and sublĕgo also retain e.

| Pres. | Inf. | Perf. | Sup. | Meaning. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| rělinquo, | relinquĕre, | relīqui, | relictum, | leave. 1 |
| rumpo, | rumpěre, | rūpi, | ruptum, | burst through. |
| vinco, | vincěre, | vīci, | victum, | conquer. |

5. Those having -i in Perf., -sum in Supine. accendo, accendëre, accendi, accensum, set on fire. 2 compello, compellĕre, compŭli, compulsum, compel. 3 contundo, contundĕre, contŭdi, contūsum, bruise. 4 defendo, defenděre, defendi, defensum, defend. 5 èdo, ěděre, èdi, ēsum (essum), eat. findo, findëre, fydi, fissum, cleave. fơdio, fǒděre, födi, fossum, dig. fundo, fundēre, füdi, füsum, pour, rout. occǐdo, ocč̌dęre, ocč̌di, occāsum, set. 6 occìdo, occīděre, occīdi, occīsum, kill. 7 pando, pandĕre, pandi, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { passum, } \\ \text {-pansum, }\end{array}\right\}$ spread out, open. percello, percellěre, percŭli, perculsum, strike down. prehendo, 8 prehendëre, prehendi, prehensum, lay hold of. scando, 9 scandĕre, scandi, scansum, climb. scindo, scinděre, sčdi, scissum, tear, cut. succurro, succurrëre, succurri, succursum, succor. 10 suspendo, suspenděre, suspendi, suspensum, hang up. 11 vello, vellěre, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { velli, } \\ (\text { vulsi) }\end{array}\right\}$ vulsum, pluck. verto, vertëre, verti, versum, turn.
6. Those having -ŭi in Perf., -tum in Supine [one -sum].

[^11]| res. | Inf. | Perf. | Sup. | Meaning. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| consǔlo, | consǔľre, | consǔlui, | consultum, | consult. |
| êlycio, | êľcerre, | èlycui, | èlǐç̌tum, | lure forth. |
| mo | fremerre | mui | mYtum | roar, snort. |
| gĕmo, | gěměre, | gěmui | mYtum, | sigh, groan. |
| gigno, | gignere, | gěnui, | gěňtum, | beget. |
| měto, | mětěre, | (messui), | * messum, | reap, m |
| mofō, | mollerre, | molui, | moľrtum | grind |
| occŭlo, | occŭlı̌re | cǔlu | ltum | hide. |
| pōno, 1 | pōněre, | pŏsui, | situm, | put, pla |
| răpio, 2 | răperre, | răpui, | raptum, | natch |
| sěro, | sěrĕre, | sěrui (in compound | -sertum, <br> ds) | con |
| strepo, | str | strěpui, | strěpytum | make a din. |
| texo, | texere | texui | textum, |  |
| trěmo, | trěměre, | trěmui, |  | tremble. |
| vomo, | vorměre, | vǒmui, | vormytum, | vomit. |

7. Those having -vi in Perf., -tum in Supine.
arcesso, 3 arcessĕre, arcessivi, arcessītum, summon. cerno, cerněre, crēvi, crētum, separate, discern.
cognoseo, cresco, cŭpio, lăcesso, lĭno, nosco, pasco, pêto, quaero, 5 quYesco, sěro, sino, sperno
cognoscěre, cresce̛re cŭpěre, lacesserre,
IYnëre, noscěre, pasce̛re, pětëre, quaerěre, quYescëre, sěrĕre, siněre, sperněre,
cognōvi, crēvi, crētum, cŭpīvi, cŭpītum, lacessivi, lacessitum, lēvi, lYtum, nōvi, nōtum, pāvi, pastum, pêtivi, pětītum, seek. quaesivi, quaesitum, inquire. quêēvi, qư̄ētum, rest. sēvi, sătum, sow, plant. sivi, (sYtum), allow. sprēvi, sprētum, reject, despise.

## * Say messem feci.

1 Posīvi is frequent in Plautus ; postum (simple and compound) is often'found in poetry.

2 The compounds make -rípio, -ripere, -ripui, -reptum, as, dīripio, to tear in pieces.
3 Another form (perhaps of different origin) is accerso. In the passive infinitive arcessīri and accersīi sometimes occur.

4 So agnosco, to recognize. But all other compounds of nosco, to become acquainted with, have -nōtum in the supine, except dignosco and internosco, which have no supine.
5 The compounds make -quiro, -quirěre, -quisīvi, -quisītum ; as, exquīro. 13

## K

| Pres. | Inf. | Perf. | Sup. | Meaning. <br> sterno, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sterněre, | strāvi, | strātum, | throw down. |  |
| suesco, | suescěre, | suēvi, | suētum, | be accustomed. |
| těro, | těrěre, | trī̄i, | trītum, | rub. |

8. Those ending in -uo in Present Indicative First Person Singular, which (with the exception of some already mentioned, as, struo, struxi,etc.) make -ui in Perf. and -ūtum in Supine, as, tríbuo, trỉbuĕre, tribui, tribūtum, assign.
In this class must be included

| solvo, | solvěre, | solvi, | šlūtum, | loose, pay. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| volvo, | volvěre, | volvi, | volūtum, | roll. |

9. Inceptives in -sco. These Verbs are formed (a) from Verbs of the Second Conjugation, (b) from Nouns. The former have no Perfects, except those of the Verbs from which they are derived, as, pallesco (from palleo), I grow pale, Perf. pallŭi; the latter either have no Perfects or form them in the same way in -ui, as, dūresco (from durus), I grow hard, Perf. durŭi. Few Inceptives have any Supine.
10. The Semi-Deponent, fīdo, trust, has Perfect fïsus sum.

## IV. Fourth Conjugation.

Regular Form, as, audǐo, audīre, audīvi, audītum.

Exceptions:-

1. Those having regular Perf., but -tum in Supine.

| Pres. | Inf. | Perf. | Sup. | Meaning. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Ł̌o, | ire, | ivi, | Ytum, | go. |
| sěpělio, | sepelïre, | sepělivi, | sexpultum, | bury. |

2. Those having -i in Perf., -tum in Supine. comp̌rio, compěrire, compłri, compertum, ascertain. rěpěrio, rěperirire, repperi, rěpertum, find. věnio, věnīre, vēni, ventum, come.
3. Those having -si in Perf., -tum or -sum in Supine.
fulcio, fulcire, fulsi, fultum, prop. haurio, haurīre, hausi, haustum, draw up. sancio, sancire, sanxi, sanctum, decree. sentio, sentire, sensi, sensum, feel. vincio, vincïre, vinxi, vinctum, bind.
4. Those having -ui in Perf., -tum in Supine.

| Pres. | Inf. | Perf. | Sup. | Meaning. <br> ămy̆cio, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ămīcire, |  | amictum, | clothe. |  |

## V. Deponent Verbs.

Deponent Verbs follow the Passive forms of the four Conjugations. It should be remembered that they have the four Participles complete : viz., the Present Active, in -ns; the Future Active, in -ürus; the Perfect Passive (with an Active meaning), in -us; and the Gerundive, in -ndus. They have also the Gerund, and many of them the Supine.

1. Deponents of the First Conjugation are all regular, making the Infinitive in -äri and Perfect Participle in -ātus.
2. Deponents of the Second Conjugation make the Inf. in -ëri and Perf. Part. in -ǐtus, except

| Pres. | Inf. | Perf. Part. | Meaning. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| fäteor,2 | fatëri, | fassus, | acknowledge. |
| mĭsěreor, | mY̌sěrēri, | mǐsěř̌tus or (mY̆sertus), | pity. |
| reor, | rēri, | rătus, | think. |

3. Deponents of the Third Conjugation have various forms. A great number end in -scor in the Pres. Indic., e. g. :-

| ădY̌piscor, | ădYpisci, | ădeptus, | obtain. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| commY̌iscor, | commYnisci, | commentus, | devise. |
| expergiscor, | expergisci, | experrectus, | awake. |
| irascor, | irasci, | irātus, | grow angry. |
| nanciscor, | nancisci, | nactus or nanctus, | obtain. |
| nascor, | nasci, | nātus, | be born. |
| oblīviscor, | oblīvisci, | oblītus, | forget. |
| păciscor, | pacisci, | pactus, Perf. pěpı̆gi, | bargain. |
| pascor, | pasci, | pastus, | feed. |
| proffciscor, | profycisci, | profectus, | set out, march.. |
| vescor, | vesci, |  | eat. |
| ulciscor, | ulcisci, | ultus, | avenge. |

[^12]The others are:-

| Pres. | Inf. | Perf. Part. | Meaning. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| amplector, | amplecti, | amplexus, | embrace. |
| fruor, | frui, | fructus and (fruytus), | enjoy myself. |
| fungor, | fungi, | functus, | get quit. |
| grădior, 1 | grădi, | gressus, | step. |
| lābor, | lābi, | lapsus, | glide. |
| lorquor, | loqui, | loceūtus, | speak. |
| morrior, 2 | mðri, | mortŭus, |  |
| nitor, | nīti, | nīsus or nixus, | strive. |
| pattior, | păti, | passus, | suffer, allow. |
| quěror, | quěri, | questus, | complain. |
| rĕvertor, 3 | rěverti, | rĕversus, | return. |
| sěquor, | sěqui, | secūtus, | follow. |
| ūtor, | ūti, | ussus, | avail oneself. |

4. Deponents of the Fourth Conjugation make the Inf. in -īri, and Perf. Part. in -ītus, ${ }^{4}$ except,


## Particles.

98. Adverbs, Conjunctions, Prepositions, and Interjections are indeclinable. Some of them are cases of existing words, others cases of lost words, others words with case-terminations different from those in common use in Latin, others mutilated remnants of fuller expressions. Some of the interjections are simple natural ejaculations.
[^13]
## 99. ADVERBS.

1. Many Adverbs contain the stem of some noun, adjective, or other part of speech, e. g. :
$a$. Those which are formed from adjectives of the first and second declension, and which end (1) in $\bar{e}$ (perhaps an old ablative termination for ed): as, plăcĭdē, from plăcĭdus ; (2) in $\overline{0}$ (ablative) : as, falsō, from falsus; (3) in ŭm (accusative) : as, multŭm, from multus ; (4) in tĕr : as, dūrǐtĕr (or dūrē), from dūrus; hūmānītěr (or hūmānē), from hūmānus.
b. Those which are formed from adjectives of the third declension, and which end (1) in tĕr : as, fortǐtĕr, from fortis; (2) in ě (accusative neuter) : as, făcĭlĕ, from făcǐlis; (3) in o: as, omnīnō, from omnis.
c. Those which are formed from nouns, pronouns, or prepositions, and which end (1) in $\operatorname{im}$ (accusative): as, partim, from pars; furtĭm, from fūr; (2) in tŭs: as, fundĭtŭs, from fundus; (3) in c, $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ (locative), o (ablative), quĕ, dĕ, dĕm, etc.: as, hūc, hěrī, eō, ǔbīquě, ǐbīdĕm, hinc, indě, etc.
2. Compound adverbs are made up of two or more words: as, hŏdiẹ for hoc die; tantummǒdŏ for tantum modo; quamobrem for quam ob rem; magnŏpĕrĕ for magno ŏpĕrĕ; quamvīs for quam vis.
3. As to meaning, adverbs may be divided into many classes: e. g., (1) Time: as, nunc, now; crās, to-morrow; jăm, already. (2) Place: as, hīc, here; hinc, hence; hūc, hither; undě, whence; ĭb̄̆, there; intŭs, within. (3) Manner: as, cārē, dearly; ēlĕgantĕr, elegantly, in an elegant manner ; perpĕrăm, wrongly; Ĭtĕm, likewise; ŭt, how. (4) Degree: as, multō, much; ădeō, to such a degree; tantŏpĕrě, so greatly. (5) Cause : as, quŏd, because; eō, therefore. (6) Comparison: as, părĭtĕr, equally; pŏtĭŭs, rather. (7) Afflrmation: as, vērō, indeed; sānē, of course; ŭtīquĕ, anyhow, assuredly. (8) Negation : as, nōn, not; haud, not. (9) Interrogation: as, ŭtrŭm, whether or no? cūr, why? quōmǒdǒ, how?
4. For the Comparison of Adverbs, see $\$ 52$.

## 100. CONJUNCTIONS.

1. In form, Conjunctions are simple : as, et, āc, ut, aut; or compound: as, atquĕ, quamvīs, attămĕn.
2. Co-ordinative conjunctions are employed to connect clauses which are on an equality with each other ; that is, either primary clauses, or secondary clauses standing in the same relation to the governing clause. Such are êt, -quĕ (always attached to a word), āc, atquĕ, sěd, věl, aut, něc, nĕquĕ.
3. Subordinative conjunctions connect a secondary clause to a primary or leading clause. Such are ǔt, sī, cǔm (quŏm, quŭm), nē, quō, ŭbй, dŭm, etc.
4. Some conjunctions are used in co-ordination as well as in subordination.
5. As to meaning, conjunctions may be arranged in thirteen classes.

## I. Co-ordinative.

1. Copulative: as, et, āc, atque, -que, and; and a few more.
2. Adversative: as, sed, but; autem, but, however; vērō, truly, but; vērum, but; at, but; atqui, and yet; tămen, yet; cētërum, on the other hand; and the like.
3. Alternative: as, aut, either, or; vel, either, or; sīve, whether; nĕc, nĕque, neither, nor; and the interrogatives, ŭtrum, an, whether or no.
4. Causal: as, nam, ĕnim, namque, ĕtĕnim, for; enimvēro, for in truth, or adversative, but in truth.
5. Illative: as, Ǐgĭtur, ergō, ǐtăque, therefore.
6. Comparative : as, ut, sīcut, as; vĕlut, as if; quăsī, as if; quam, than, as; utpŏte, as being.

## II. Subordinative.

1. Final, expressing purpose or result: as, ut, that, so that; ne, lest, i. e., that not ; quin, that not, but that; quo minus, in order that not; nēve or neu, and in order that not.
2. Conditional, expressing a condition or contingency : as, sì, if; sin, if however, but if; nĭsi, unless, if not; dum, provided that, etc.
3. Concessive, expressing a concession or admission: as, ut, although; etsi, tămetsi, quamquam, quamvis, although; also cum, although; and a few others.
4. Temporal, expressing time : as, cum, when; sǐmŭl ac,
as soon as; ut, when, as soon as; dum, whilst; dōnec, until; ŭbi, when, etc.
5. Causal, expressing cause, reason, or ground: as, quod, quiă, quŏniam, cum, because; quippe, as, because, inasmuch as; quando, since (because).
6. Relative, expressing a reference to something going before: as, unde, whence, for which reason; quärē, on which account, wherefore, why; quămŏbrem, wherefore.
7. Comparative, expressing comparison or likeness: as, ut, as; sīcut, just as; vělut, as if; quăsī, as if.
Note 1.-Many words in the above lists are used in more than one sense and one construction.
Note 2.-Many pronominal particles are Adverbs when interrogative, but Conjunctions when relative.

## 101. PREPOSITIONS.

Some prepositions govern the accusative case, some the ablative, and a few both the accusative and the ablative. (See Syntax, \& 131 ; \& 186.)

## I. Prepositions in Composition.

Prepositions are often compounded with other words, and in many cases suffer a modification of their final letter, according to the principles of euphony.
$\mathbf{A}$ is used before the consonants $m$ and $v:$ as, a-moveo, aveho; better also in a-fui, a-fore, from absum.

Ab is used before vowels and most consonants : as, ab-ire, ab-duco, ab-icio(ab-jicio), ab-ripio, ab-latus, ab-nego, etc.
$A b$ is changed into $a u$ in au-fero, au-fugio.
Abs is used before c, $q$, and $t$ : as, abs-condo, abs-cisio, abs-que, abs-tineo.

Ab before $p$ becomes as: as, as-porto.
Ad is found before vowels, $h$, and the consonants $d, j, m$, and $\nabla$ : as, ad-amo, ad-hibeo, ad-duco, ad-icio (ad-jicio), ad-moneo, ad-veho. It is often assimilated to the other consonants : as, al-loquor or ad-loquor, af-fero or ad-fero, accolo or ad-colo. Before q, d may become c: as, ac-quiro or ad-quiro. Before gn, or before s followed by a consonant, the $d$ is often omitted : as, a-gnosco or ad-gnosco, a-spicio or ad-spicio.

Cum is represented by com, con, or co.
Com is often used before $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{m}$ : as, com-paro, combibo, com-munio. Before $1, n, r$, the $m$ may be assimilated : as, col-loquor or con-loquor, con-niveo or coniveo, corripio or conripio.

Con is used before the other consonants not mentioned under com : as, con-fero, con-tego, con-sido.

Co is used before vowels, and h : as, co-eo, co-alesco, co-haereo; but the $m$ remains in some words: as, comedo, comes, comitor, and comitium.

Ex is used before vowels, $\mathbf{h}$, and the consonants $\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{s}$, and $t$ : as, ex-oro, ex-cipio, ex-perior, ex-quiro, ex-solvo, ex-tendo. Before $f$ the $\mathbf{x}$ is assimilated, or sometimes becomes c: as, ef-fero, or, rarely, ec-fero, for ex-fero. It is omitted before other consonants: as, e-ripio, e-volvo.
Note.-But e, and not ex, is used for the most part in e-scendo and e-poto; while, on the contrary, ex is used in ex-lex, lawless.

In (both the preposition and the inseparable negative particle) may become im before the labials $p, b, m$ : as, im-pono for in-pono, im-buo for in-buo, im-mitto for in-mitto. Before 1 and $r$ the $n$ is often assimilated: as, illudo or inludo, ir-rideo for in-rideo. Before gn it is dropped: as, i-gnoro for in-gnoro. In other cases it remains: as, inutilis, in-eptus, in-fero.

Inter remains unchanged, except in intellego for interlego, and its derivatives.

Ob assimilates its final letter to $\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{g}$, and $\mathbf{p}$, and generally remains unchanged before others: as, oc-curro for ob-curro, of-fero for ob-fero, og-gero for ob-gero, op-primo for obprimo (prĕmo). Before $s$ and $t$ it is frequently written op; it becomes obs in obsolesco; and is written ob, sometimes om, before $m$. It drops $b$ in omitto, operio, ostendo (for obs-tendo).

Per assimilates its final letter only in pel-licio for perlicio, and words derived from it. In pejero for per-juro, the $r$ is omitted.

Pro generally remains unaltered; but we have prod when the second part of the compound begins with a vowel: as, prod-erat. The $r$ and the $o$ are sometimes transposed : as
in por-rigo for pro-rigo (i. e., rego), and portendo for protendo.

Sub assimilates its final letter before $\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{g}$, generally before $p$, and sometimes before $m$ and $r$ : as, suc-curro for subcurro, sug-gero for sub-gero. Before other consonants it remains unchanged, except that we find sus (for subs) in suscipio, suscito, suspendo, sustineo, sustento, sustuli, and su in suspicio, suspiro.

Trans is often shortened into tran or tra: as, tra-duco for transduco.

Note.-Usage varies greatly in compounds, in regard to the retention of the final consonant of the preposition and its assimilation or other modification.

## II. Inseparable Particles.

There are certain quasi-prepositions which are often found in composition. These are amb-, dis- or di-, re- and se.

1. Amb, around; on both sides: as, amb-io, to go round. The b is omitted when p follows: as, am-plector for ambplector. Before gutturals and f , the b is omitted, and the m changed into n : as, an-ceps.
2. Dis or di, in different directions, in twain: as, dis-pōno, to place in different positions. Before a vowel or h , dis becomes dĭr-: as, dǐr-ĭmo; before $f$ it becomes dif-: as, dif-fĕro. It remains dis before $c, p, q, s:$ as, dis-cŭtio; before other consonants, and sp, sc, and st, it becomes di.
3. Re or red, back; again: as, rĕ-tĭneo, to keep back; rĕdimo, to buy back. Sometimes the $d$ is assimilated or falls off, the vowel e being lengthened to compensate.
4. Sē or sēd, apart, remains the same : as, sē-păro, sēdūco, sēd-ǐtio.

## 102. INTERJECTIONS.

1. Interjections may be divided into two classes, according as they are imitations of sounds, or abbreviated sentences or mutilated words.
2. Imitations of sounds.
$\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ or $\overline{\mathrm{a} h}$, in warning or sorrow. Comp. á; Eng., ah!. or hā Germ., ach!
ăhă in reproof or denial, or laughter.

| $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { ējă } \\ \text { hēiă } \end{array}\right\}$ | in encouragement. Comp. eia; Engl., hey. |
| :---: | :---: |
| vāh or vā | in surprise or indignation. Comp. bōa. |
| $\overline{0}$ | various. Comp. $\dot{\omega}$, $\grave{\omega}$; Engl., oh! |
| 10] | a shout in excitement. Comp. ió and iov́ or ioṽ; Engl., yoho! |

ěhŏ or ǒho a cry of distress. Comp. Engl. Ho! In Terence sometimes with dum appended.
prō or proh in surprise or indignation; especially in phrases, pro Di immortales, etc. Perhaps this is not imitative of a natural sound, but is a word.
euoe for $\varepsilon$ vioũ: a cry in Bacchic rites.
au in fear and warning.
fū or fū̄ expression of disgust. Comp. фع $\tilde{v}$ (?); Engl., fie! faw! foh! Germ., pfui.
phy inimpatienceat unnecessary explanation. Ter. Ad., 412. Probably same as last. Comp. Engl., pooh.
huī various. Perhaps a whistle, which is written in Engl., whew.
băbāe $\} \quad$ in wonder and delight: a quivering of the lips.
păpae $\}$ Perhaps imitative of Greek $\beta a \beta a ́$, , $\quad \delta \pi \pi o$, , $\pi a \pi a i ̈ . ~$
hahahae laughing. Comp. âã or $\dot{a} \dot{a}$, Engl., Hahu.
vae in grief and anger. Represents a wail. Comp. ovaí, in Alexandrine and later writers, perhaps imitation of the Latin; Germ., weh; Engl., woe. Compare also vah and the verb vāgire.
ōhē in annoyance, especially when a person is sated; probably between a groan and a grunt. Comp. Engl., ugh.
hei or ei in grief. It represents a sigh. Comp. $\hat{\varepsilon} \dot{\varepsilon}$ or $\hat{\varepsilon} \tilde{\varepsilon}$ or $\varepsilon \dot{\varepsilon}$, and perhaps aiaí; Engl., heigh.
heu, ēheu alas!
ĕhem or $\}$ the sound of clearing the throat. Comp. Engl., hem, hem or em $\}$ ahem. In Plautus em is often found in MSS. for en. st to command silence. The corresponding sound in English, hist, is used to attract attention ; and sh, hush, to command silence.
attat or atat or in surprise, vexation, fear, etc.; smacking of rarely attatae the tongue against the teeth. Comp. áт àттататай, і̀тотой, 宀̀тототой; Engl., tut, tut. a noise to attract attention; a combined whistle and hiss. Comp. Engl. whisht! and perhaps Germ. heisa (= Engl., huzza).
bombax apparently from $\beta \circ \mu \beta a ́ \xi$ : expression of wonder. euax a cry of joy. Comp. $\varepsilon \dot{v} a$, $\varepsilon \dot{u} a ́\} \varepsilon \imath v$, and perhaps Germ., juchhe.
taxtax the sound of blows. Comp. Engl. thwack. tărătantără (Ennius), the sound of a trumpet.
2. Mutilated words or abbreviated sentences. The following are probably such :
(a) Latin :
-̄
ecce lohere! The ce is perhaps the demonstrative particle. In the comic poets it is frequently combined with the accusative (as if it were equivalent to see) of the pronouns is and ille: eccum, eccam, eccos, eccas, ecca; eccillum, eccillam, eccillut ; once also eccistam.
eccěre used similarly to English there!
mehercŭles, mehercŭle, \} abbreviations of me Hercules mehercle, hercŭles, hercle, $\}$ juvet, or me, Hercule, juves. mědĭus fĭdĭus for me deus Fidius juvet.
ēcastor perhaps for en Castor.
pol for Pollux.
ĕděpol for me, dee Pollux, juves; or the e may be an old interjection.
sōdes prythee; if you will be so good.
(b) Borrowed from the Greek:
ăpăge off! away! for $\dot{a} \pi a \gamma \varepsilon$.
eu well done! for $\varepsilon \dot{v}$.
euge well done! bravo! for $\varepsilon \dot{v} \dot{\gamma} \varepsilon$.
eugěpae originally for $\varepsilon \tilde{v}^{\gamma} \varepsilon \pi \pi a i$ ?
2. Several nouns and verbs are used in exclamation or invocation, like interjections. Such are :

1. pax, hush! mălum, plague! the mischief! nĕfas, infandum, monstrous! indignum, horrendum, mǐsěrum, mǐsěrābĭle, turpe. The vocative macte, plur. macti, is used with an ablative or genitive: as, macte esto virtūte, go on and prosper. It is, perhaps, the participle of a lost
verb, magĕre. The interrogative pronoun, quid, what $!$ is sometimes used in exclamation.
2. quaeso, prithee ! prěcor, ōro, obsĕcro, pray; ămābo, do please; sīs (si vis), sultis (si vultis), please; ăge, ăgĭte, ăgěsis, ăgědum, ăgĭtědum, come now; cědo (plur. cette), here! give me: so, sōdes.
3. Less properly it has been said that certain adverbs may sometimes be regarded as interjections: as, prŏfectō, nē (truly), cǐtō̆, bĕnĕ, bellē.

## The Formation of Words.

103. Words are formed directly from roots, or from other words.
104. Root syllables may be reduplicated: as, mur-mur, tin-tin-nare; br$b e-r e, s \breve{u}$-sur-rus, cŭ-cū-lus; (compare papa;) and they may undergo internal change, such as the lengthening of their vowel, or the insertion of a consonant, or other modifications: as, vōc-is (nom. vōx), root vŏe (as in vø̆care) ; stem crūd-0̄- (nom. crüdus), root cru-; flamm-a, root flag.
105. Almost all words have some suffix.
106. The suffixes of inflection are used to form the cases and numbers of nouns, and the persons, moods, tenses, voices, etc., of verbs.
107. Stem-suffixes form the distinguishing marks of the declensions of nouns and the conjugations of verbs.
108. Derivative suffixes are additions placed between the root and the stem-suffix, or, when there is no stem-suffix, between the root and the suffix of inflection. They may originally have been words themsel ves, but are now merely significant terminations, modifying the meaning of the nouns to which they are annexed. The same suffix does not always express the same modification, and different suffixes sometimes seem to have the same effect. Sometimes the sense of the suffix has been obscured, and a further suffix is added to express what had already been denoted : thus, puella is a diminution of puěra, but, having supplanted puěra as the ordinary term for girl, a new diminutive, puellŭla, was formed for a little or very young girl.
109. The long vowel, often found in the same part of different derivatives, is sometimes part of the suffix, sometimes comes from contraction of the stem-suffix with a short initial vowel of the suffix, and is sometimes due to a false analogy.

## 104. SIGNIFICANT ENDINGS.

## I. Nouns derived from Verbs.

1. The termination or signifies the action or condition: as, ămor, love, from ămo; tĭmor, fear, from tĭmeo.
2. Note.--But many nouns in -or seem to be simple or primary: as, hŏnor, arbor, lăbor.
3. The termination -tŏr, or -sǒr, signifies the doer or agent. Such words are formed from the stem of the supine : as, vinco, victum, to conquer, victor, a conqueror. curro, cursum, to run, cursor, a runner.
4. Note.-There is a fem. termination in -trix, corresponding to the masc. -tor: as, victor, fem. victrix; vēnātor, vēnātrix.

Rem.-The terminations $-a,-0$, and -ber sometimes denote an agent: as, scrīb-a, prae-c-o (praevor-co), ěd-o, łă-ber.
5. The terminations -io, -tio, -tus, or -sus, and -tūra, denote action or make verbal abstracts: as,
obsǐdeo, to besiege, obsǐdio, a siege (i. e., a besieging). lĕgo, to enroll, lĕgio, a legion.
ăgo, (Sup.) actum, to do, actio, a doing. mŏveo, mōtum, to move, mōtio, a moving. verto, versum, to turn, versio, a turning. ăgo, actum, to do, actus, a doing. mŏveo, mötum, to move, mōtus, a moving. căno, cantum, to sing, cantus, a singing. verto, versum, to turn, versus, a turning. pingo, pictum, to paint, pictūra, a picture. cǒlo, cultum, to till, cultūra, a tilling.
6. Note.-A few words in -igo denote action or condition: as, vertīgo, a turning, from verto.
7. The terminations -men and -mentum usually denote the means or thing performing the action, or its result : as,
lūceo, to light, lūmen, light.
tĕgo, to cover, tegmen, a covering.
flŭo, to flow, flūmen, a river.
impědio, to hinder, impĕdīmentum, a hindrance.
orno, to adorn, ornämentum, an ornament.
8. Note 1.- -men is sometimes used passively : as, agmen (a thing led), an army on march; gestämen, a thing carried.
9. Note 2.-In some words of this class the stem is extended by a vowel : as, rĕgimen, from rego.
10. The instrument is also expressed by -cŭlum (-clum) and -bŭlum, which become -crum and -brum when 1 precedes: as,
gŭberno, to steer, gŭbernācŭlum, a rudder. vĕho, to carry, vĕhĭcŭlum, a carriage, cart.
f̈ro, to bear, fercŭlum, a tray. sěpělio, to bury, sěpulcrum, a sepulchre. sĭmŭlo, to imitate, sĭmŭlācrum, an image. pasco, to feed, pābŭlum, fodder.
vēnor, to hunt, vēnābŭlum, a hunting-spear.
flo, blow, flābrum, a blast.
11. Note 1.--bŭlum sometimes denotes plaoe: as, stăbălum, a stall (standing-place), from sto, to stand.
12. Note 2.-When the stem of the verb ends in $\mathbf{c}$ or $\mathbf{g}$, the termination is -ulum: as, jacŭlum (jac-io); cingŭlum (cingo).
13. Note 3.--trum also denotes the instrument. When the stem of the verb ends in $d, s$ is substituted for $d:$ as,
ăro, to plough, ărātrum, a plough.
rädo, to scrape, rastrum, a hoe.
Rem.-Masculines and feminines occur: as, căp-ŭlus, tèg-ŭla, soā-lae.
14. The termination -ium denotes a state, or an act, or the result of an action : as,
gaudeo, to rejoice, gaudium, joy.
aedĭfĭco, to build, aedĭfĭcium, a building.
ödī, I hate, ǒdium, hatred.
15. The termination -ies denotes the thing made, or the result of the action: as,
făcio, to make, făciēs, figure, appearance. congěro, to heap up, congĕriēs, a heap.
16. Note-We sometimes meet other terminations: as, cŭpīdo (from cŭpio); quĕrēla (from quěror); erro (from the verb erro), and a few more.

## II. Nouns derived from Nouns.

17. The terminations -al and -ar denote that which has or that which pertains to something: as,
ănĭma, breath, ănĭmal, a living creature (having breath).
calx, the heel, calcar, a spur.
18. The termination -ärius denotes one engaged in a trade: as,
aes, copper, aerārius, a coppersmith. argentum, silver, argentärius, a silversmith; $\cdot a$ banker.
19. -ārium denotes the place where things are kept: as,
ăvis, a bird, ăviārium, an aviary, or place where birds are kept.
aes, money, aerārium, a treasury.
20. -ātus and -ūra, appended to the names of officers, indicate the offlce : as,
consul, consŭlātus, the consulship. praetor, praetūra, the pratorship.
21. -ina denotes an employment, or the place (as of a business), or indicates the female: as,
mĕdĭcus, a physician, mědĭcīna, the healing art.
ŏpĭfex, a workman, offĭcīna (ŏpĭfĭcīna), a workshop.
piscis, fish, piscīna, a fish-pond.
rēx, a king, rēgīna, a queen.
22. Note.-cinnium denotes action or event: as, latrō-cinnium.
23. -ium indicates occupation, state, assemblage, etc.: as, săcerdos, a priest, săcerdōtium, priesthood. exsul, an exile, exsǐlium, exile. collēga, a colleague, collēgium, an association.
24. -ëtum appended to the names of trees, shrubs, or plants denotes the place where they grow, or a collection of them, and -īle added to names of animals denotes the place of their abode : as,
quercus, an oak, quercētum, an oak-grove.
vīnea, a vine, vīnētum, a vineyard.
övis, a sheep, ǒvīle, a sheepfold.
bōs (bǒvis), an ox, bǒvīle, an ox-stall.
25. There is a class of derivatives called Diminutives, which express smallness: hence also sometimes endearment, contempt, pity, or depreciation. Such are of the same gender as their primitives. They are formed by adding
26. -ŭlus, -ŭla, -ŭlum, with nouns of the First and Second Declensions, and sometimes other nouns, especially when the clipt stem ends in $c, g, t$, or d: as,
hortus, a garden, hortŭlus, a little garden. rīvus, a brook, rīvŭlus, a rill.
saxum, a rock, saxŭlum (once in Cicero), a little rock.
rādix, a root, rādīcŭla, a little root.

- rēx, a king, rēgŭlus, a kingling, a petty king.

2. -cŭlus, -cŭla, -cŭlum, with nouns of the Third, Fourth, and Fifth Declensions: as,
frāter, a brother, frātercŭlus, a little brother. versus, a verse, versĭcŭlus, a short verse. nāvis, a ship, nāvǐcŭla, a little ship. corpus, a body, corpuscŭlum, a particle.
3. Note 1.-When the suffix follows a vowel, the $\mathfrak{u}$ becomes 0 : as,
fīlius, a son, fīľ̆ŏlus, a little son.
glădius, a sword, glădiŏlus, a small sword. nĕgōtium, business, nĕgōtiŏlum, a bit of business.
4. Note 2.-A contraction is sometimes formed (especially when the clipt stem of the primitive ends in $1, n$, or $r$ ), and the termination is changed into -ellus, -ella, or -ellum; -illus, -a, -um; or -ullus, -ulla: as,
ǒcŭlus, an eye, ŏcellus, a dear little eye.
cătŭlus, a puppy, cătellus, a little puppy.
pŏpŭlus, the people, pŏpellus, the rabble.
lăpis, a stone, lăpillus, a pelble.
hŏmo, a man, hŏmullus, a manikin.
5. Note 3.-Nouns ending in -0 (-ōnis or -inis), change -on or -in into -un: as, homo, homuncŭlus (or homuncio), a little man; sermo, sermuncŭlus. So also ăvus, ăvuncŭlus.
6. Note 4.-Adjectives also have diminutives: as, mǐser, mǐsellus; frīgĭdus, frīgĭdŭlus; mĕlius-cŭlus, a little better.
7. Note 5.-Many ordinary words in the Romance languages are formed from Latin Diminutives: as, from luscĭni-ŏla, Italian usignuolo, French rossignol, nightingale; agn-ellus, French agneau, lamb.
8. Female names are often made from the corresponding masculine forms by the termination -a: as,
cervus, a stag, cerva, a doe.
fīlius, a son, fīlia, a daughter.
măgister, a master, măgistra, a mistress.
cliens, a client, clienta, a female client.
9. Some nouns in -io denote persons: as,
restis, a rope, restio, a rope-maker.
pellis, a skin, felt, pellio, a furrier.
10. Some nouns ending in -tus, and denoting quality or condition, are formed from generic names: as,
vir, a man, virtūs, virtue (manliness).
jŭvenis, a youth, jŭventūs, youth. servus, a slave, servǐtūs, slavery.
11. From personal names (masc.) the Greeks formed a class of nouns called Patronymics, indicating descent: as, Priămĭdēs, a son of Priam; Tantălĭs, a daughter of Tantalus; Aeněădēs, a descendant of Aeneas. These words are most commonly employed in poetry, occasionally in prose. Thus,
12. Masculine Patronymics are formed in
a. -ĭdēs: as, Priămus, Priămĭdēs, a son of Priam.
b. -īdēs, from substantives in -eus and -clēs: as, Atreus; Atrīdēs, a son of Atreus; Hērăclēs; Hērăclīdēs, a descendant of Heracles.
c. -ădēs: as, Aeněădēs, a descendant of Aenēas.
d. -iădēs: as, Thestiădēs, a descendant of Thestius; Abantiădēs, a son of Abas.
13. Feminine Patronymics end in
a. -ĭs, -ǐdis: as, Tantălĭs, a daughter of Tantălus.
b. -ēīs, -ēīdis: as, Nērēĭs, a daughter of Nereus.
c. -ias, -iădis: as, Thestias, a daughter of Thestius.
d. -īnē: as, Neptūnīnē, a daughter of Neptune.
e. -ōnē: as, Acrǐsiōn̄̄, a daughter of Acrisius.

## III. Nouns derived from Adjectives.

35. Nouns expressing a quality or state are formed from adjectives, with the following terminations:
36. -ia, -tia, and -tas: as,
audax, bold, audācia, daring. mollis, soft, mollǐtia, softness. moestus, sad, moestǐtia, sadness. bŏnus, good, bŏnĭtas, goodness.
37. -tūdo and mōnia : as, altus, high, altǐtūdo, height (highness). sanctus, holy, sanctimōnia, sanctity (holiness). 14*

## IV. Adjectives formed from Verbs.

36. Adjectives are formed from verbs with the following terminations:
37. -dus or -ǐdus, denoting quality or condition: as, răpio, to hurry along, răpĭdus, swift. tĭmeo, to fear, tǐmǐdus, fearful.
38. -lis, -ǐlis, and -bǐlis, denoting capability or possibility, or belonging to, or sometimes actively, power : as, făcio, to make, to do, făcǐlis, able to be done (easy). dŏceo, to teach, dŏcĭlis, teachable. ămo, to love, ămābĭlis, lovable. terreo, to frighten, terribilis, creating terror.
39. -ax, denoting an inclination or propensity, and usually in a bad sense: as,
audeo, to dare, audax, daring (fool-hardy). lŏquor, to talk, lŏquax, talkative.
40. -bundus, -cundus, denoting action, capacity, or state, and -ŭlus, repeated action, are more rare : as, mŏrior, to die, mŏrǐbundus, in the agony of death. īrascor, to be angry, īrācundus, angry. fāri, to speak, fācundus, of ready speech. garrio, to chatter, garrŭlus, bubbling.

## V. Adjectives formed from Nouns.

37. Adjectives ending in -eus denote the material of which a thing is made, and sometimes resemblance: as,
lignum, wood, ligneus, wooden.
aurum, gold, aureus, golden.
rŏsa, a rose, rŏseus, like a rose (rosy).
38. Note 1.-To names of trees, and of materials, -neus or -nus is usually added : as,
pōpŭlus, a poplar, pōpulneus (or -nus, once in Plautus), made of poplar.
ěbur, ivory, ěburneus, made of ivory.
39. Note 2.-But -nus sometimes signifies belonging to, or arising from : as,
păter, a father, păternus, belonging to one's father. ver, spring, vernus, vernal.
40. -āceus, -ǐcius, and -ǐtius indicate material or relation, or property : as,
argilla, clay, argillāceus, made of clay (clayey).
lăter, a brick, lătĕrǐcius, made of brick.
trǐbūnus, a tribune, trībūnīcius, relating (or belonging) to a tribune.
41. -ǐcus or īcus, -īlis, and -ālis or āris denote belonging or relating to : as,
bellum, war, bellǐcus, relating to war.
ămor (ămo), love, ămīcus, friendly.
hostis, an enemy, hostīis, hostile.
rēx, a king, rēgālis, regal, of a king.
pŏpŭlus, the people, pŏpŭläris, relating to the people.
42. -ius, īnus, ānus, and -ārius denote belonging or pertaining to; -ius being usually added to the names of persons; -inus to the names of animals; -ānus and -ārius are, more particularly, local: as,
păter, a father, pătrius, of or pertaining to a father. ěquus, a horse, ěquīnus, of or pertaining to a horse. urbs, a city, urbānus, of or pertaining to a city.
ăger, a field, agrārius, of or pertaining to a field.
43. -ōsus and -lentus mean full of, abounding in : as,
pěrīcŭlum, danger, pĕrīcŭlōsus, dangerous.
vīs, violence, viǒlentus, violent (full of violence).
44. -ātus, -ītus, and -ūtus mean supplied with : as,
barba, a beard, barbātus, having a beard.
auris, an ear, aurītus, having ears.
cornu, a horn, cornūtus, having horns.
45. Many adjectives are formed from proper names by the suffix -ānus or -iānus, or -īnus or -icus added to personal names: as,

Sulla, Sullānus, of or pertaining to Sulla.
Cĭcëro, Cĭcĕrōniānus, of Cicero, Ciceronian.

Jŭgurtha, Jŭgurthīnus, of or pertaining to Jugurtha. Gallus, Gallĭcus, of or pertaining to Gaul, Gallic.
46. Note.-In Greek words the usual terminations are -ǐcus, -ēus, or -ius: as,

Sōcrătēs, Sōcrătǐcus, Socratic.
Sŏphŏclēs, Sŏphŏclēus, Sophoclēan.
Aristŏtělēs, Aristŏtĕlīus, Aristotélian.
47. The termination -ěus is poetical: as,

Hērcŭles, Hērcŭlĕus, Hercúlean.
Rōmŭlus, Rōmŭlěus, Romúlean. Horace has Rōmŭla gens. We find also dŏmus Augusta; portus Trajānus.
48. Proper adjectives are formed from names of places by the terminations ( $\alpha$ ) -ensis (cf. forrensis, castrensis, etc.), and a few in -iensis, from words in -o, and from some in -a, -ae, -um ; (b) -innus, from words in -ia and -ium ; (c) -ānus from words in -a and -ae, and sometimes -um and -i: as,

Cannae, Cannensis, of or pertaining to Cannue.
Carthāgo, Carthāgĭniensis, of Carthage, Carthaginian. Amĕria, Aměrīnus, of Amëria, Amerian.
Alba, Albānus, of Alba, Alban.
Thēbae, Thēbānus, of Thebes, Theban.
Tuscŭlum, Tuscŭlānus, of Tuscŭlum, Tusculan.
Fundi, Fundānus, of or pertaining to Fundi.
49. The suffix -as, gen. -ātis, belongs to names of places in -na, -nae, and -no, but specially to those in -num: as,

Căpēna, Cāpēnās, of or pertaining to Capēna.
Fĭdēnae, Fĭdēnās, of or pertaining to Fidēnae.
Arpīnum, Arpīnās, of or pertaining to Arpīnum.
50. Note.-These adjectives are often used as nouns indicating the inhabitants; as, Duo Arpinātes, the two men of Arpinum.
51. The suffixes -ǐus, -aeus, ēnus, belong to adjectives derived from the names of Greek places: as, Corrinthius, Lārissaeus, Cȳzĭcēnus.
52. Adjectives are also derived from Particles; some from Adverbs: as, crastĭnus from crās, hǒdiernus from hǒdie; some from Prepositions : as, antīquus from ante.

## 105. FORMATION OF VERBS.

1. Verbs derived from other Verbs are called Verbals. Such are the Inchoatives, Imitatives, Frequentatives, Diminutives, and Desideratives (\% 88).
2. a. Verbs derived from Nouns or Adjectives are called Denominatives: Such are most verbs in the First and Fourth Conjugations, the greater number being transitive: as, laudāre, to praise; mīlĭt-āre, to serve in war; līběr-āre, to set free; laet-āri, to rejoice; fīn-īre, to end; vest-īre, to clothe; mollire, to soften; larg-īri, to bestow.
b. The suffixes -ŭl, -ŏl, -č̆n, -ǐt, -ĭg (= ăg), ̌̌c, occur in the First Conjugation: as, grāt-ŭl-āri, vi-ŏl-āre, sermō-č̆n-āre, dēbhl-ĭt-āre, nāv-İg-āre, mīt-ĭg-āre, claud-ĭc-āre, commūn-ǐc-āre. So jūr-g-āre for jūr-Ig-āre, $p u \bar{r}-\mathrm{g}$-āre for $\mathrm{pür}$-1̆g-āre.
c. Most verbs in the Second Conjugation are from Nouns, a few from Adjectives; the greater number being intransitive: as, call-ēre, lūc-ēre, flōr-ēre, flāv-ēre.
d. A few U-verbs in the Third Conjugation are Denominatives: as, ăcu-ĕre, mĕtu-ĕre, mĭnu-ĕre, trĭbu-ĕre.
Note-Some Verbs called Denominative may be really Primitive.
3. Some Roots have a Transitive and an Intransitive Verb corresponding to each other: as, fŭgāre, to put to fight, fŭgĕre, to fly; jăcĕre, to throw, jăcēre, to lie; penděre, to suspend, pendēre, to hang.

## 106. COMPOUND WORDS.

1. Two or more words may be so joined as to form one word.
2. Sometimes the words are so joined that one actually agrees with the other: as, rēs-pübľ̌ca; jūs-jūrandum; trēs-vǐri : or that the second governs the first: as, sěnātūs-oonsultum; vēri-sĭm̌̆lis. Such compounds can be severed, thus: resque pūblǐca; sěnātūsve consulta; so that they are not proper compounds in the strictest sense of the word. But generally one part or both lose the form of words: as, magnănĭmus; Trojŭgĕna; artĭfex.
3. Some compounds indicate simple addition or association of their parts: as, duǒdĕcim, twelve (duo + decem); suŏvětaurilia (plur.), a sacrifice of a pig, sheep, and bull (su-+ $\mathrm{\gamma vi}$ - +tauro-).
4. In some compounds the first part has the nature of a case governed by the second part: as (Nouns), agrǐ-colla (qui agrum colit), a farmer;
vītī-sător (vitium sător), a vine-planter; (Adjectives) armĭ-ger (arma gerens), bearing arms (as noun, an armor-bearer); mellĭ-fluus, fowing with honey; (Verbs) bellĭ-gĕrāre $=$ bellum gěrëre; aequĭ-părāre $=$ aequum părāre; călě-făcěre $=$ călēre făcęre.
5. In some compound nouns the first part is an adjective or numeral : as, plēnī-lūni-um, the full moon; tri-ennium, a space of three years.
6. The first part sometimes modifies the second adverbially : as, (Nouns) prin-ceps (primus and căpio, one who takes the first place); ĭn-ĕdia (in, negative, and èdo, to eat), fasting; (Adjectives) omn1-pǒtens, powerful in all things; bĭ-f ǐdus (bis and findo), cleft in two; bĕnĕ-vŏlus, wishing well; sēmĭ-vīvus, half alive; septěm-gĕmĭnus, seven-fold; im-mĕmor, unmindful; (Verbs) bĕnĕ-dīcěre; ně-quīre; ad-dūcěre; ef-fēmīnāre (ē and fēmY̌na); ē-rǔdīre (ē and rŭdis).
7. Adjectives are sometimes so compounded as to imply "having" in some qualified manner, or "not having:" as, magn-ănĭmus; centĭ-ceps (centum and căput), having a hundred heads; ā-mens, dē-mens, not having one's right mind; im-bellis, not warlike; ālĭ-pēs, wing-footed; ignǐcơmus, with fiery hair; con-cors; in-numerus; prae-ceps (căput) headforemost.
8. Most compound verbs are made up of a preposition and a verb. In composition, the stem-vowel of the simple verb is often changed :
9. a (short) is changed before a single consonant into $i$ or $e$; a before two consonants into e or u: as, făcio, rěfucio; cădo, ocč̌do; grădior, rěgrědior; scando, descendo; calco, inculco. But pĕrăgo and others retain a.
10. e (short) before a single consonant becomes i: as, těneo, rětǐneo. But rĕlĕgo and others retain $\mathbf{e}$.
11. ae is changed into $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$ : au into $\overline{\mathrm{o}}$ or $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$, and in one case $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$ : as, caedo, occīdo; quaero, requīro; plaudo, explōdo; claudo, exclūdo; audio, obēdio.
12. Similar changes of vowel take place in other compounds: as, ămīcus, inĭmīcus; barba, imberbis.
13. Stems ending in a, $o$, $n$ regularly weaken these vowels into the more easy and euphonic $\mathfrak{I}$ before consonants in composition: as, causǐdicus; signĭfer; cornĭger; but the vowel is sometimes dropped: as in manceps (manu + cap-). Stems in i retain i or drop it: as, ignĭvomus; naufragus (nāvi-). Consonant stems either drop their consonants or add i: as, lapǐcīda (lapid-); mātrǐcīda (mātr-).
[^14]
## SYntax.



## Sentences.

107. A simple sentence expresses a single thought, or tells a single fact, and contains one finite verb.
108. Every Simple Sentence is either (1) a Statement, (2) a Question, (3) a Command or Request, or (4) an Exclamation.
Note.-There are two forms in which each of these kinds of sentences may be found, the Direct, and the Indirect or Dependent; as, Brutus killed Caesar, and he said that Brutus killed Caesar; where the first example is a Direct Statement, and the same words in the second example an Indirect Statement. Do you live in Rome? and, He asked him, "Do you live in Rome?" are examples of a Direct Question; in He asked him whether he lived in Rome, we have an example of an Indirect Question.
109. A Compound Sentence is made by the union of two or more simple sentences.
110. The Clause containing the Principal Assertion is called the Leading Clause ; clauses depending upon it, explaining or modifying it, are called Subordinate ; clauses connected with it but not dependent upon it in their construction, are called Co-ordinate.

## Subject and Predicate.

108. Every sentence contains a Subject and a Predicate.
109. The Subject is the person or thing of whom, or of which, something is told ; the Predicate is that which is told of the subject. Thus in the sentences, rosa flöret, the rose blooms, and rosa pulchra est, the rose is beautiful, rosa is the Subject, and flöret and pulchra est are the Predicates.
110. The Subject is expressed either (1) by a Noun, as rosa, (2) a Pronoun, as ille, in ille currit, he runs, or (3) some word, phrase, or clause standing for a Noun ; or (4) it is inplied in the termination of the Verb, as curr-o, I run; curri-t, he runs.
111. Words which may stand for Nouns are (1) Adjectives, as omnia flö-
rent, all things bloom; (2) Adverbs, as satis temporis datur, enough time is given; (3) Infinitives, as nāvigāre dēlectat, sailing gives delight ; (4) Terms cited as words or Phrases merely, as "ad arma" clāmātur, "to arms" is shouted ; and (5) Substantive Clauses, as Quae sit nātūra lūcis ambigitur, what is the nature of light is disputed.
112. A full and definite sentence may be expressed by a single word, if that word is a verb in the first or second person; as, curris, thou runnest ; currimus, we run. The verb in the third person requires the aid of the context for fuller definition of its subject.
113. The Predicate is either a Verb, as flörent, or a Noun or Adjective connected with the Subject by some form of the verb esse, to be; as, rosa flōs est, the rose is a flower; rosa pulchra est.
114. When the verb sum is thus used, it is called the Cōpŭla, or connecting link. It can make a Predicate by itself, when it implies absolute existence; as, seges est ubi Troja fuit, (there) is corn where Troy was.
115. The verb sum is also, or appears to be, more than a mere copula, (1) in the expression est ut, it is possible that; (2) when it has for complement ( $a$ ) an adverb, as sic est vīta hominum, (b) a preposition and case, as est apud Caesarem, (c) a Possessive Genitive, a Case (Gen., Abl., or Loc.) of Quality or Place, or a Dative expressing that which a person or thing occasions or serves as : as, bona sunt viri ; summae facultātis est; opertō capite est ; Caesar Dyrrachī̄ est; ea dēdecorī sunt.
116. A predicate noun, adjective, or participle is often added to the subject without a copula: as, fortis Jülius, brave is Julius ; fūsi hostes, the enemies are routed.
117. A single interjection or exclamation may be equivalent to a sentence; thus the cry, Oh! may imply, I am surprised, I am pleased, I am pained, or still other meanings, according to the circumstances, and the context (in writing) or the tone of voice (in utterance). Other interjections may be limited to a single meaning.
118. The Subject and Predicate may each be modifled by additional words or clauses.
119. A simple sentence is enlarged by the addition of the Object to the verb. The object is that to which the action of the verb extends; and is either Direct, as, Rōmulus Remum interfēcit, Romulus killed Remus; or Indirect, as, do tibi librum, I give thee a book.

Note,-The indirect may also be called the remoter .object.

## 109. SUBJECT.

1. The subject of a finite verb is in the nominative:

As, equus currit, the horse runs.
Note.-A verb is called finite in those forms which are limited by mood and person, as well as tense. Hence all the forms of the verb in any mood except the infinitive are finite.
2. A personal pronoun is generally omitted, being implied in the termination of the verb. If expressed, it is for the sake of emphasis or distinction :

As, nātūrā tu illi pater es, consiliis ego, thou art his father by nature, I by counsel.
3. The subject of an infinitive is in the accusative. (See \& 238-240.)
Exc.-The nominative stands sometimes with a present infinitive, used in lively discourse instead of a present or imperfect indicative:
As, pars cēdere, alii insequi, a part was retiring, others advancing.

## 110. SUBJECT-NOMINATIVE AND VERB.

1. A verb agrees with its subject-nominative in number and person :

As, nos, consules, deesumus, we, the consuls, are wanting.
2. a. If there are several subjects, the verb is generally in the plural :
As, aetas, metus, magister prohibēbant, age, timidity, and a tutor forbade.
b. But if several subjects represent one whole, or one combined notion, they may take a verb in the singular :
As, Senātus populusque Rōmānus intellegit, the Senate and people of Rome understand; Gallos a Belgis Matrona et Sèquana dīvidit, the Marne and the Seine separate the Gauls from the Belgae; religio et fides antepōnātur amīcitiae, let religion and honor be preferred to friendship.

1. If the subject nearest the predicate is singular, and of particular importance, the verb may agree with this subject alone.
2. When the preposition cum unites the subjects, the verb is sometimes plural: as, ipse dux cum aliquot principibus capiuntur, the commander himself with some leading men are captured. The singular gives greater
importance to its subject: as, tū cum Sexto scīre velim quid cögites, I should like to know what thou and Sextus think.
3. If there are subjects of different persons, the verb is generally of the first person rather than of the second, and of the second rather than of the third :

As, si tu et Tullia valētis, ego et Cicero valēmus, if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well.

Note.-In Latin the first person is put before the second or the third: as, ego et tu et rex meus; and the second person before the third person.
4. Collective nouns may take a plural verb:

As, pars Rōmam inermes dēāti sunt, a portion were brought unarmed to Rome.
a. Such nouns are pars, multitūdo, vulgus, turba, vis, juventus, nöbilitas, plebs, and others. This construction is rare in Caesar, and not used by Cicero.
b. Mille generally takes a plural verb, but sometimes a singular.
5. Distributive words and phrases, as quisque, uterque, pars, alius . . . alium, alter . . . alterum, vir . . . virum, are found with plural predicates, but may be explained as appositive to plural subjects understood: as, alius alii subsidium ferunt, they bring support one to another.
$a$. The adverb partim is found with the plural in Cicero: as, partim e nobis timidi sunt, partim a re pūblicā āversi, one part of us are cowards, the other estranged from the state.
6. Subjects connected by disjunctives generally take a singular verb :

As, si Aeacus aut Mīnōs dīceret.
a. But sometimes the verb is plural : as, si quid Sōcrates ant Aristippus fēcerint.
7. With aut . . . aut the singular alone is used; et . . . et and neque . . . neque usually lead to a singular predicate, but sometimes to a plural.
8. The verb is sometimes omitted:

As, di meliōra piis, may the gods grant better things to the pious; tum ille, then he replied; quid multa? (understand, dicam.)

1. This omission is very frequent with the verb sum : as, nam Polydorus ego, for I am Polydōrus.

## 111. PREDICATE NOUN AND ADJECTIVE.

1. With verbs signifying to be, become, remain, appear, be made, be chosen, be thought, be called, and the like, a noun or adjective in the predicate is in the same case as the subject:

As, Ancus Martins rēx creātus est, Ancus Martius was made king; quaestor es factus, you have become quaestor; Cato esse quam vidēri bonus mālēbat, Cato preferred being good to seeming good; Numidae quiēti mansērunt, the Numidians remained quiet; Antōnius hostis jūdicātur, Antony is adjudged an enemy; ego, quae incēdo rēgīna deūm, $I$, who walk proudly the queen of the gods.
2. The predicate adjective agrees with the subject in gender and number also.
3. The verb may agree in number with the predicate instead of the subject: as, amantium irrae amöris integrātio est; more rarely in the plural : as, contentum suis rēbus esse maximae sunt dīvitiae.
4. The predicate of an infinitive with a subject accusative is in the accusative: as, aiunt vītam esse somnium, they say that life is a dream.
5. The predicate of an ablative absolute is in the ablative: as, Cȳro rēge oreäto, when Cyrus had been chosen king; consulibus certiöribus faotis, when the consuls had been informed.
6. When a predicate noun or adjective is found with esse (or a similar verb) after the impersonal licet with a dative, it is generally in the dative, if the subject accusative is not expressed ; but sometimes in the accusative; as, licuit Themistoolī esse ōtiōso, it was left free for Themistocles to be at leisure; cīvi Rōmāno licet esse Gāditānum.

## 112. APPOSITION.

1. A noun added to another noun or pronoun to describe it, and denoting the same person or thing, agrees with it in case :

As, Cicero ōrātor interfectus est, Cicero the orator was slain; hic liber est Titi, frātris tui, this bool belongs to Titus, thy brother.

Note.-A noun so added is called an appositive.
Exc.-An appositive to a noun meaning name is often attracted to the dative of the person :
As, Scipio, cui Africāno cognōmen fuit, Scipio, who had the surname of Africanus; Africāno being attracted to cui.
2. Sometimes the appositive denotes not a general or permanent character of the noun with which it is in apposition, but one belonging to it at the time implied in the sentence: as, Cicero praetor legem Maniliam suasit, consul conjürätiōnem Catilīnae oppressit, Cicero as consul . . . as praetor, etc., or when he was consul, when he was praetor; Cato senex scribere historiam instituit, Cato in his old age.
3. A genitive may stand in apposition to the person implied in a possessive personal pronoun : as, meā unīus operā, by my activity alone (mea $=$ of $m e$ ); vestra omnium caedes, the slaughter of you all.
4. An appositive to two or more nouns is usually in the plural: as, Gnaeus et Publius Scipiōnes, duo fulmina belli, Gnaeus and Publius Scipio, two thunderbolts of war.
5. If the appositive has two genders, it usually takes the gender of the noun explained: as, leo, rēx bestiārum, the lion, king of beasts; aquila, rēgina avium, the eagle, king of birds; philosophia, magistra vītae, philosophy, the guide of life; Athēnae, omnium doctrīnārum inventrīcēs, Athens, the inventor of all sciences.
6. Such words as urbs, oppidum, caput, city, town, capital, appositive to plural names of places, are always in the singular: as, Athēnae, urbs Graeciae, Athens, a city of Greece.

## 113. AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES.

1. Adjectives, adjective pronouns, and participles, agree with their nouns in gender, number, and case:

As, amīco fīdo, to a faithful friend; haee sententia, this opinion; carmina dulcia, sweet songs; doctārum fēminärum, of learned women.

Note.-An adjective is used attributively when it accompanies its noun immediately, as psittacus loquax, the talkative parrot; predicatively, when it is connected with its noun by a copulative verb, as psittacus est loquax, the parrot is talkative.
2. Adjectives agree, in like manner, with substantive pronouns, expressed or understood :
As, 0 me miserum (spoken by a man); me miseram (spoken by a woman); invītus fēci, sc. ego.
3. An adjective agreeing with two or more nouns is put in the plural. If the nouns are of different genders, the adjective is generally masculine if they denote living beings, and neuter if they denote things without life :

As, pater mihi et māter mortui sunt, my father and mother are dead; labor voluptasque, dissimillimă nātūrā, societāte quādam inter se nātūrāli sunt juncta, labor and pleasure, things most unlike by nature, etc.

Exc.-The adjective often agrees with the nearest noun, and is understood with the rest:
As, Orgetorigis fīlia atque ūnus e fīliis captus est.
Note 1.-If the nouns denote things without life, even when they are all masculine or feminine, the adjective is generally neuter: as, īra et aväritia imperio potentiōra erant, things more potent than empire.

Note 2.-When nouns denoting persons are combined with nouns denot-
ing objects without life, the adjective may take the gender of the persons or be in the neuter: as, rēx regiaque classis profecti sunt, the king and the royal fleet set out; inimīca inter se sunt lībera cīvitas et rex, a free state and a king are things hostile to each other.
4. An adjective referring to a phrase or clause must be neuter: as, hūmānum est errāre, it is natural to man to err.
5. The gender of an adjective is sometimes determined by the meaning rather than by the grammatical form of the noun : as, capita conjūrātiōnis oaesi sunt, the heads (i.e., the chief men) of the conspiracy were put to death.
6. An adjective added to the subject often has the force of an adverb: as, invìtus fēci, I did it unwillingly; insiste audax müris, advance on the walls boldly; Aenēas se mātūtīnus agēbat, Aeneas was astir in the morning; domesticus ōtior, I lounge at home; memini, tametsi nullus moneas, I remember, without any suggestion from thee; Hannibal princeps in proelium ībat, ultimus conserto proelio excēdēbat, Hannibal used to be the first to go to battle, and after the engagement the last to quit the field.

Note 1.-Where the English usually uses a relative pronoun, as he was the first (or the last or the only one) who came, the Latin more concisely says prīmus (ultimus, sōlus) vēnit.

Note 2.-The distinction between prīmus and the adverbs prīmum and primo, appears from the following examples: (1) hanc prīmam örātiōnem lēgi, this is the first oration that I read; (2) hanc ōrātiōnem prīmum lēgi, deinde transcripsi, this oration I first read and then copied; hōdie hano ōrātiōnem prīmum lēgi, to-day I read this oration for the first time; (3) hanc ōrātiōnem prīmo libenter lēgi, posteā magis magisque mihi jejūna visa est, this oration I read at first with pleasure; afterwards it seemed to me drier and drier.
7. Adjectives are often used as if they were nouns: as, boni et sapientes ex urbe pulsi sunt, the good and wise have been banished from the city; Caesar suos mīsit, Caesar sent his soldiers (see $\xi$ 117, 5); dextra, the right hand; hïberna, winter quarters.
8. A neuter adjective is often found in the predicate, with the force of a noun, although the subject is masculine or feminine: as, triste lupus stabulis, the wolf is a pest (lit., a sad thing) for the stalls.
9. An adverb is sometimes used as an adjective: as, ignāri ante malōrum, ignorant of former evils.
10. The adjectives prīmus, medius, ultĭmus, extrēmus, intǐmus, infĭmus, ìmus, summus, suprēmus, relĭquus, etc., sometimes denote the first part, middle part, last part, etc., of any place or time : as, summus mons, the top of the mountain; media nox, the middle of the night.

## 114. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. Pronouns agree with their antecedents in gender, number, and person; but their case depends on the construction of the clause in which they stand:
As, signum Jovis, quod Phīdias fēcit, the statue of Jupiter, which Phidias made; litterae quas dedi, the letter which Isent; Jäsōn nāvem aedificat, quae Argo nōmināta est; in eam ascendit; Jason builds a ship, which is called Argo; on it he embarks; nōn sum quālis eram, I am not such as $I$ was; adsum qui fêci, $I$, who did it, am here.
2. a. Usually the noun is expressed only in the antecedent clause, but sometimes also with the relative pronoun :
As, erant omnino duo itinera, quibus itineribus domo exīre possent, there were only two routes, by which routes they could leave home.
b. Sometimes the noun is expressed only in the relative clause, especially when that clause precedes that of the antecedent:
As, urbem quam statuo, vestra est (as for the city which I found, it is yours), yours is the city that I found.
c. The noun is sometimes omitted in the antecedent clause even when it has an adjective there agreeing with it: as, quis non malärum quas amor cüras habet haec inter oblīviscitur? ( $=$ malarum curarum quas amor habet.)
d. Sometimes no noun is expressed: as, qui bene latuit, bene vizit, (he) who has well escaped notice, has lived well.
3. The relative is sometimes attracted to the case of the antecedent: as, cum aliquid agas eōrum quōrum consuesti, for quae.
4. When relative or demonstrative pronouns refer to more than one noun, the gender and person are determined by the same rules as those of predicate adjectives ( $8113,3,4,5$ ).

## 115. PERSONAL AND POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

1. Pronouns and verbs of the First Person Plural are often used by a single person speaking of himself: as,
nöris nos, docti sumus, you should know me, I am a man of learning (lit., with a certain humor, "you should know us, we are a learned man").
2. The personal pronouns are used with ad, apud, ab, to signify house, abode: as, vēni ad me, I came to my villa; Scaurum rūri apud se esse audio, I hear that Scaurus is at his country seat; quisnam e nöbis ēgreditur foras? who is coming out of our house?
3. Pronouns of the First and Second Persons, expressed only in the ter-
mination of the verb, may have a noun in apposition: as, Hannibal peto pācem, I, Hannibal, sue for peace; omnes boni nōbilitāti favēmus, all we conservatives regard noble birth with favor; sōli Tusculāni vēra arma invēnistis, only you men of Tusculum have discovered genuine warfare.
4. Possessive pronouns are usually omitted when not required for clearness or emphasis: as, patrem video, I see my father.
5. The possessive pronouns are sometimes used in the sense of $f t$ or propitious : as, ventis itūrus non suis, about to sail with unpropitious winds. This is simply an extension of their proper meaning.

## 116. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

1. Hic is called the demonstrative of the First Person, iste the demonstrative of the Second Person, and ille the demonstrative of the Third Person; hic referring to that which is near or connected with the speaker in time, place, or idea; iste having similar reference to the person or persons addressed, and ille to persons or things more remote:

As, huic homini ( $=$ mihi); Chrysis vīcīna haec, my neighbor here, Chrysis; hoc studium, this pursuit of mine (or ours):
mūta istam mentem, change that purpose of thine ; ista subsellia, those benches in thy neighborhood:
Q. Catŭlus non antīquo illo mōre, sed hoc nostro, fuit ērudītus, Quintus Catülus was learned not in that ancient manner but in this of our day.
2. Ille is sometimes used to denote fame or dignity:

As, Mēdēa illa, the celebrated Mēdēa; venerāmini illum Jovem, adore that great Jupiter.
3. Ille may mean the other of two named; or, in the plural, the other side, the other party.
4. a. When hic and ille refer to two things, hic designates either what is last mentioned (and thus the nearest in the discourse, the latter), or what is the nearer to the speaker's mind; ille either the former, or what is farther from the speaker's mind.
b. The two pronouns are also used for distribution: as, hoc et illud, this and that. So ille aut ille, ille et ille, this and that man.
5. Iste sometimes implies contempt; not from its intrinsic meaning, but from its use in courts of law to imply the
opposing party (iste, that fellow whom you are defending), or from the speaker's apparently repelling what he names from himself to some one else.
6. Is is an unemphatic demonstrative. It is used:
a. In reference to a noun before mentioned, as maximum ornāmentum amīcitiae tollit qui ex eā tollit verēcundiam , he takes away the chief grace of friendship, who takes from it respectfuliness. Its oblique cases are often left to be understood.
$b$. It is a simple antecedent of a relative: as, is qui hoc fēcit, he who did this.
c. It means one (of a kind), such, especially before qui or ut with the subjunctive.
7. Idem may often be rendered also, or at the same time: as, quidquid honestum, idem est ūtile, whatever is morally right is also expedient. Sometimes it implies a contrast, but yet.
8. Demonstratives are sometimes used where in English idiom they would be redundant.
9. The adverb quidem is elegantly joined to personal and demonstrative pronouns, especially ille, where a concession is made, but immediately qualified by an adversative clause (certainly . . . but) : as, tuus dolor hūmānus is quidem, sed tamen magnopere moderandus, yours is a grief natural to man, I admit, but one which should be very much repressed.
10. Demonstratives and relatives are sometimes used concisely in a suggestive sense, in agreement with a noun, instead of adding what is suggested in the genitive case or some similar construction: as, haec pulchritūdo, this beauty, meaning the beauty of these things around us; hic metus, the alarm thus occasioned; haec similitūdo, something like this; haec dēfensio $=$ hujus rei dēfensio.

## 117. REFLEXIVES.

1. Se and suus generally refer to a subject nominative of the third person in their own clause:

As, fur tēlo se dēfendit, the thief defends himself with a weapon; sentit animus se vi suā movēri, the soul feels that it is moved by its own force.
Note-Quisque is a frequent subject of se, suus.
2. Se and suus may be referred to an object (which usually precedes):

As, Caesarem sua nātūra mītiōrem facit, Caesar's own character makes him milder.
3. Se and suus may be referred to an indefinite subject or object aliquem or alicui :
As, habenda ratio non sua solum, sed etiam aliorum, one must take account not of himself alone, but also of others; bellum est sua vitia nōsse, it is a fine thing to know one's own faults. -
4. Where se and suus would be out of place, the cases of is, and sometimes of ipse, are used:

As, Chilius te rogat, et ego ejus rogātu, Chilius asks thee, and I at his request; aranti Quinctio nuntiātum est eum dictātōrem esse factum, news came to Quinctius while plowing that he was appointed dictator.
5. Sui, the masculine plural possessive pronoun, is used idiomatically in the sense of his, her, or their friends, family, soldiers, etc.

## 118. THE DEFINITIVE IPSE.

1. Ipse may be appositive either to the subject or object, according as the one or the other is emphatic:

As, me ipse consōlor and me ipsum consolor, where (though each is translated in English, I comfort myself) ipse with the subject means, I (rather than another); with the object, I comfort myself (rather thau any body else).
2. Ipse is also used (1) to imply of one's own accord, as ipsae lacte domum referent distenta capellae ūbera, the she-goats of their own accord will bring home their milk-swollen udders; (2) to define time exactly, as decem ipsos dies, exactly ten days; nuno ipsum, at this very moment ; (3) to express the chief person, as Pÿthagorēi respondēre solēbant; Ipse dixit, the Pythagorēans used to reply, He himself said so (i. e., Pythagoras). Hence slaves used to call their master and mistress, ipse, ipsa; and Catullus uses ipsa for era.

## 119. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS, ETC.

1. The Indefinite Pronouns quis, quī, cannot begin a sentence. They usually follow some particle (si, nisi, nē, an, num, nt, etc.), or a relative; but are sometimes used without a particle, as dixerit quis, some one may say.
2. Nescio quis, nescio qui, are used as indefinite pronouns in the sense of some (person or thing) or other. Compare the French, je ne sais quoi. So nescio quo, nescio quando.
3. Aliquis, aliqui, some, are somewhat less indefinite than quis, qui.
4. Occasionally aliquis means a person of importance, as sēsē aliquem crēdens, considering himself somebody.
5. Quispiam is used with more emphasis than quis, and rather less than aliquis. Quispiam is found chiefly in positive sentences; quisquam chiefly in negative and dubitative sentences; nonnullus only in a positive, ullus only in a negative or dubitative construction.
6. Quīdam, a certain one, implies that the subject is definitely known, though indefinitely described; thus: quōdam tempore nātus sum, aliquo moriar, I was born at a certain time, I shall die some time or other. It is joined with epithets : as, spīnōsa quaedam et exīlis örātio, a certain prickly and lean style. It occasionally means some as opposed to the whole or others: as, nullis piscibus supra quaternas pinnae sunt, quibusdam binae, aliquibus nullae, no fishes have more than four fins, some two, a few none at all. Hence it qualifies an expression not meant to be taken strictly : as, in ideis Plato quiddam dīvīnum esse dīcēbat, Plato used to say that in ideas there is something divine.

Quīdam also stands in contrast to quīvis, quīlibet, any you will: as, ut saltātōri mōtus non quīvis sed certus quīdam est datus, sic vīta agenda est certo genere quōdam non quōlibet, as to a dancer is assigned not any optional movement, but a certain definite one, so must life be passed in a certain definite way, not in any we please.
7. Quisque means each of any number. (It occurs in Plautus in the sense of quisquis, whosoever.)
8. The Universal Relatives, whether compounded with -cumque, or of the duplicated form, have no special idioms distinguishing them from other relatives.
9. Pronominal Adjectives.-a. Alter is one of two: as, claudus fuit altero pede, he was lame of one foot. It answers the question uter, which of two?
b. Two cases of alter (as of alius) may stand in the same clause, distributing ambo, uterque, etc.: as, uterque hōrum medium quiddam volēbat sequi; sed ita cadēbat ut alter ex alterius laude partem, uterque autem suam tōtam habēret: both these men wished to attain a mean; but it so fell out that one had a share of the other's credit, while each possessed his own entire. Uterque means each of two ; alterŭter, one or the other of two.

Alter alterum amat, they love one another; (also expressed by, amant se invicem; mūtuo amant; amant inter se.)
Alteri . . . alteri, one party, . . . the other party.
c. Alter sometimes means a second, another besides one named or implied: alter erit tum Tiphys, then will there be a second Tiphys; alterum tantam, as much again.
d. Alius repeated in successive clanses means one, another, another, and so on, without limit of number. In like manner the adverbs of alius,
aliter, alias, alibi, alio, etc. : as, alias contentius, alias remissius, at one time more vigorously, at another more slackly.
e. Repeated in the same clause, or joined with one of its adverbs, alius may be translated by the word different, or more commonly, by two separate clauses, rendered in the first by one . . . one, and in the second by another. . . . another: as, aliud aliis vidētur optimum, one thing seems best to one, another to another; aliis aliunde perīculum est, danger threatens different persons from different sources.

## The Cases.

## 120. NOMINATIVE AND VOCATIVE.

1. The nominative is used as the subject of a finite verb (§ 109), as an appositive (§ 112), or in the predicate after verbs signifying to be, to be called, etc. (§ 111.)
2. The vocative, with or without an interjection, is used in addressing a person or thing :

As, vincere scis, Hannibal, adeste, āmīci! 0 dii boni! heu virgo! ah stulte!
3. The nominative may stand with the interjections en, ecce, 0 , and others:

As, ecce nuntii, ecce litterae, Caesarem ad Corfinium, lo couriers and letters stating that Caesar is at Corfinium; $\mathbf{0}$ vir fortis atque amīcus!
4. In the poets, and in antiquated style, the nominative is sometimes found for the vocative:
As, almae filius Maiae !
Thus often, when the noun is collective, or when the word is an attributive or an appositive :

As, audi tu, p̌̆pŭlus Albānus; nūdus jacitūre sepulcro.
5. In prose the vocative is usually placed after some other words in the proposition: as, crēdo ego vos, jūdices, mīrāri. But it may be prefixed with a kind of solemn dignity, or in vehement expressions of feeling.

## Accusative.

## 121. ACCUSATIVE OF DIRECT OBJECT.

1. The direct object of a transitive verb is put in the accusative :

As, māter alit pullos, the mother nourishes her young; in prīmis veneräre Deum, in the first place worship God; pudet me (lit. it shames me), I am ashamed.

Rem.-The object of a transitive verb in the active voice becomes the subject of the verb in the passive voice: as, pulli a matre aluntur, the young are nourished by the mother.

Note 1.-Impersonal verbs governing the accusative are referred to this rule.
Note 2.-An infinitive or a clause may be the subject of a verb.
Note 3.-After verbs denoting the operations of the senses or intellectual powers, and some verbs of causing and effecting, the subject of the governed clause is sometimes (especially in the older writers) attracted as object to the governing verb: as, nōsti Marcellum, quam tardus sit, you know Marcellus, how slow he is, instead of nosti quam tardus sit Marcellus. Compare, I know thee, who thou art. This idiom is used sometimes where it cannot be imitated in English: as, quis tuum patrem . . . qui esset audivit, who heard who your father was.
2. Some verbs are sometimes used as transitives in Latin, though translated in English by intransitives followed by a preposition. Such are
a. Many intransitive verbs denoting a feeling or state of the mind: as, honōrēs dēspērant, they despair of honors; cäsum hunc doleo, I grieve for this misfortune.
b. Verbs signifying to have the smell of, have the taste of, to thirst for, breathe out, sound like, etc.: as, olet vinum, he smells of wine; anhēlat scelus, he breathes out crime; vox hominem sonat, her voice sounds like a man.
c. The poets go very far in giving intransitive verbs a transitive signification. (See \& 124.)
$d$. The passive of such verbs is used more rarely; but we find rideor, $I$ am laughed at ; triumphātae gentis; nox vigilāta; regnāta rüra.
3. In the comic poets, an accusative is sometimes found with verbal nouns : as, istum tactio; hanc cürātio rem.
4. The participial in -bundus sometimes takes an accusative : as, populābundus agros.
5. The verb is sometimes omitted, in phrases in which it is easily supplied: as, unde mihi lapidem? where shall $I$ get a stone?

## 122. COMPOUNDS BECOMING TRANSITIVE.

Intransitive verbs of motion sometimes become transitive when compounded with a preposition.

As, hostes circumīre; transīre fiūmen; occumbere mortem.
a. So some verbs of position : as, equites circumstant senātum.

Note 1.-Most of these verbs can be used in the passive: as, angustias Thěmistŏclḕs quaerēbat, nē multitūdine circumīrētur.

Note 2.-Compounds with trans, circum, and ad can take two accusatives, if the simple verb is transitive: as, transjicere exercitum flumen.

Note 3. -The preposition may be repeated: as, trans Rhodănum cōpias trajēcit.

Note 4.-When such compounds take on a new meaning, differing from the simple meaning of the verb, they are generally construed without a preposition: as, inīre in urbem, to go into the city; inīre proelium, to begin a battle; adīre ad aliquem, to go to; adīre aliquem, to consult.

## 123. COGNATE ACCUSATIVE.

An intransitive verb often takes an accusative of kindred meaning. This accusative repeats the idea already contained in the verb, and is usually modified by an adjective or pronoun :

As, vītam jūcundam vīvere, to live a delightful life; hoc bellum bellāre, to wage this war ; mīrum somniāre somnium, to dream a wonderful dream.

## 124. LIMITING OR DEFINING ACCUSATIVE.

Intransitive verbs sometimes take an accusative limiting their meaning, especially in the poets:

As, corōnāri Olympia, to be crowned as an Olympic victor; saltāre Cyclōpa, to dance the Cyclops.
Note 1.-To this rule may be referred the use of the accusative of neuter adjectives and pronouns after intransitives: as, dulce rīdēre ( $=$ dulcem risum rīdēre), to smile sweetly; torvum clāmāre; acerba tuēri, to look bitter things; aeternum vīvere; hoc studet $\bar{u} n u m$, he makes this one thing his aim; id laetor, I am pleased at this; idem glöriātur, he makes the same boast. This is the accusative of the inner object.
Note 2.-A limiting accusative of a pronoun may be added to a transitive verb with an accusative of the person: as, hoc te hortor, I give thee this exhortation.

> 125. ACCUSATIVE AFTER PASSIVES USED REFLEXIVELY.

The passive of some verbs in the poets and later prose writers is used like the Greek middle to describe an action done by the agent to or for himself, and takes an accusative:

As, Priamus ferrum oingitur, Priam girds on his blade; Androgei
galeam induitur, he dons the helmet of Androgěos; virgĭnes longam indūtae vestem.

Note.-In classical prose we have the ablative, cingitur ferro; indūtus veste albä.

## TWO ACCUSATIVES.

126. Verbs meaning to name, call, make, choose, think, take, and some others, may take two accusatives, one of the object, the other of the predicate:

As, urbem Rōmam vocāvit, he called the city Rome; Sōcratēs tōtīus mundi se cīvem arbitrābātur, Socrates was wont to think himself a citizen of the whole world; jūdicem populum Rōmānum cēpēre, they took the Roman people as their judge; grātum me praebeo, I show myself grateful.
127. Doceo, I teach, and its compounds, cēlo, I conceal, and some verbs of asking and demanding, govern two accusatives, one of the person and the other of the thing:

As, te litteras doceo, I teach thee literature ; iter omnes cēlat, he conceals his journey from all.

1. Instead of the accusative, we often find the ablative of the thing with de.
2. Peto and postulo take always the ablative of the person with ab, and quaero takes the ablative of the person with ab, de, or ex.
3. While the art taught is put in the accusative, the instrument is put in the ablative: as, aliquem fidibus docēre; docendum equo armisque. Dootus generally takes the ablative.
4. Verbs that in the active voice take two accusatives, in the passive retain one, while the other becomes the subject.

> 128. ACCUSATIVE OF SPECIFICATION AND ADVERBIAL ACCUSATIVE.

1. The accusative of specification may be joined with a verb or adjective to denote that in respect to which the expression is used :

As, tremit artus, he trembles in his limbs; ōs humerosque deo similis, in face and shoulders like a god; cētera ēgregius, excellent in other respects; caput nectentur, their heads shall be bound.

Note.-This is often called the Greek accusative, or the accusative by syneedorche. It denotes particularly the part affected.
2. The accusative in certain expressions is used adverbially :

As, maximam partem, for the most part; meam vicem, on my account; quod si, but if (lit. as to which, if).
The accusative in these expressions is often an accusative of extent.
3. In a few phrases, the adverbial accusative stands where we might expect the genitive or ablative: as, id temporis (eo tempore), at that time; id genus alia, other things of that kind.
4. In the comic poets, and more rarely in other writers, a sentence sometimes begins with an accusative antecedent to a following relative in the same case.
129. ACCUSATIVE OF EXTENT OF TIME OR SPACE.

1. The accusative is used to denote extent of time or space:

As, decem annos urbs oppugnāta est, the city was besieged for ten years; fossa duos pedes lāta, a ditch two feet broad.
2. Time throughout which may be denoted by per with the accusative.
3. Duration of time is sometimes expressed by the ablative; but rarely in the best writers. This is a free use of time in which for time throughout which. (See $\bar{\zeta}$ 185, 10.)
4. A specified distance may stand either in the accusative of extent, or the ablative of measure. If spatium or intervallum be used, they are in the ablative, and govern a defining genitive.
5. When the place from which the distance is reckoned is not mentioned, ab often stands before the words stating the distance: as, a millibus passuum duōbus, two miles off.

## 130. TERMINAL ACCUSATIVE.

1. After verbs implying motion, the names of towns and small islands are put in the accusative without a preposition, to denote the place whither.

As, Athēnas profectus est, he set out for Athens; missi sunt Delphos, they were sent to Delphi.
2. Names of countries and large islands generally take a preposition; but the preposition is sometimes omitted, especially in poetry.
3. Domus and rus are put in the accusative after verbs of motion, like names of towns:
As, rus ībo, I shall go to the country; rediit domum, he returned home; cohortes Latinae Hernicaeque remissaè (sunt) domos, to their homes.

## 131. AGCUSATIVE AFTER PREPOSITIONS.

1. Tyenty-eight Prepositions govern the accusative.

These are ad, adversus or adversum, ante, apud, circā, circum, circǐter, cis or citrā, contra, ergā, extrā, infrā, inter, intrā, juxtā, ob, penes, per, pōne, post, praeter, prope, propter, secundum, suprā, trans, ultrā, and versus.
2. The comparative propins and superlative proxime also take an accusative: as, propins urbem, nearer the city.
3. In and sub are followed by the accusative when they denote motion to a place; denoting situation, they are followed by the ablative:
As, ire in urbem, to go into the city; in urbe esse, to be in the city; sub scālas se conjēcit, he threw himself under the stairs; sub mensā jacet, he lies under the table.

Note.-In with the accusative may mean for, about, against, etc.
4. Super and subter generally govern the accusative, but sometimes take the ablative in poetry; when super means concerning, it takes the ablative in prose.
5. Versus or versum always follows its case: as, Rōmam versus contendit, he marched towards Rome. The best writers subjoin it to a case governed by ad or in. Postpositive also sometimes are propter, contra, ante, circa, circum, inter, juxta, penes, subter, super, sapra, and per, especially after personal and relative pronouns, and in the poets. See Verg. Aen. 4, 671.

> 132. ACCUSATIVE IN EXCLAMATIONS.

The accusative is used in exclamations, either with or without an interjection :

As, me miserum ! or, 0 me miserum! wretched me!
The accusative is used as it would have been if some verb of emotion or declaration had preceded.

## Genitive.

## 133. ADNOMINAL GENITIVE.

A noun that limits the meaning of another noun, denoting a different thing, is put in the Genitive.

## Genitive of Possession.

1. The noun in the genitive may denote the possessor, the author, or the source:

As, Caesaris horti, Caesar's gardens; Cicerōnis ōrātio, an oration of Cicero; labor discendi, the toil of learning.
Note 1.-The noun limited is sometimes omitted: as, ventum erat ad Vestae, sc. templum ; we had come to the temple of Vesta (compare, he went to St. Paul's) ; hujus video Burriam, I see this man's slave, Burria; Verania Pīsōnis, Piso's wife, Verania.

Note 2.-a. The possessive adjective pronouns are used to denote the possessor, instead of the genitive of the personal pronouns: as, domus mea, my house.
b. The genitive of pronouns or participles may be added to such possessive pronouns, agreeing with the genitive which they imply: as, meă ūnīus operā, by my single exertion; nostros vīdisti flentis ocellos, you saw the eyes of me weeping.
c. In connection with omnium, the genitives nostrum and vestrum are used: as, commūnis omnium nostrum parens, the common parent of us all. But nostrum and vestrum are ordinarily used after partitives.

Note 3.-Aliēnus is often used instead of the genitive of alius, and other possessive adjectives instead of the genitive of the nouns from which they are derived: as, aliēnus puer, the child of another; Hectoreum oaput, Hector's head; erīlis fīlius, the master's son. See also Z 116, 10.

## Subjective Genitive.

2. The noun in the genitive may denote the subject of the action or feeling denoted by the governing noun: as, amor parentum, parents'. love, meaning the love which parents feel for their children.

## Objective Genitive.

3. The noun in the genitive may denote the object of the action or feeling denoted by the governing noun: as, amor parentum, the love of parents, meaning the love which children feel for their parents.

Note 1.-The objective genitive is often translated by other prepositions than of: as, fuga perīculi, fight from danger; contentio honörum, the struggle for office; Boiōrum triumphus, a triumph over the Boii; fïdūcia vïrium, confidence in strength.

Note 2.-Both genitives may limit the same noun: as, Agamemnonis glōria belli, Agamemnon's (subject) glory in war (object).
Note 3.-The possessive adjective pronouns, though generally subjective, may be used objectively or passively : as, neglegentia tua, disregard for you; ōdium tuum, hatred for you.

## Genitive after Partitives.

4. Words denoting a part are followed by a genitive denoting the whole:

As, juvenum princeps, foremost of the youth.
Note 1.-Words denoting a part are called partitives. They are,
a. Nouns which express partition: as, pars, numerus, nēmo, nihil;
b. Some adverbs of quantity, measure, place, or time: as, partim, parum, satis, affatim, nimis, abunde; eo, huo, adhuc, quo, quoad; hic, huc, nusquam, ibi, ubi; interea;
c. Pronouns and pronominals, as hic, ille, is; qui, quis, and their compounds; tot, quot, and their derivatives; alins, alter, nter , and its compounds, ullns, nullns, plērīque, multi, pauci, reliqui, cēteri, sōlus;
d. Cardinal and ordinal numerals; also princeps and medius;
e. Neuter adjectives and pronouns used as nouns;
$f$. Adjectives in the comparative and superlative ; as, major Nerōnum, the elder of the Neros; avium loqnāciōres, the noisier sort of birds; maximus frātrum, the elder of the brothers;
$g$. Adverbs in the superlative;
$h$. Any noun or adjective which can imply distribution: as, piscium fēminae; lecti juvenum.
Note 2.-The genitive of the thing measured or counted is used after words of measure or quantity : as, vīni tres amphorae; tria millia equitum; magna vis argenti.

Note 3.-The genitive of the whole is sometimes the predicate : as, fies nöbilium tu quoque fontium, thou also shalt become one of the fountains of fame. An object partitive, also, is sometimes omitted.
Note 4.-After numerals, where all are embraced, the genitive is not used in Latin: as, nos duo sumus, there are two of us; cognāti quos paucos habeo, kinsmen of whom I have few. In such cases of is generally used in English; but compare "we are seven."
Note 5.-Instead of the genitive, the prepositions ex, de, in, or inter are sometimes used: as, melior ex duōbus; aliquis de hēē̃̄ibus; sapientissimus in septem. Unus is generally construed with ex or de and the ablative.

Note 6.-The genitive of the whole after neuter adjectives or pronouns or nihil, is often an adjective of the second declension, standing as a noun: as, aliquid pulchri; nihil boni. Adjectives of the third declension are
not used in this way (unless rarely in connection with adjectives of the second), many of them having the same form in the genitive as in the nominative masculine and feminine.

Note 7.-The poets and later prose-writers use frequently the neuter plural of adjectives and participles with a defining genitive: as, strāta viärum = strātae viae.

## Genitive of Definition.

5. The genitive of definition generally corresponds to an appositive in English :

As, Būthrōti urbs, the city of Buthrōtum; virtus justitiae, the virtue of justice; arbor fīci, the fig-tree; sprētae injūria formae, the injury of slighting her beauty.

## Genitive of Material.

6. The genitive may denote the substance or material: as, flümina lactis, rivers of milk. But seeming cases of this kind may often be referred to other rules. The material is more frequently denoted by an adjective, or by an ablative (generally with ex) after a verb or participle.

Genitive after Prepositional Nouns, etc.
7. The nouns causā and gratiā, for the sake of, also ergō (in old writers) on account of, and instar, as large as, like, old nouns used like prepositions or adverbially, govern the genitive: as, hominum causä, for the sake of mankind; virtūtis ergō, on account of manliness; Plato sōlus instar omnium est, Plato alone is equal to them all; instar montis equas, a horse like a mountain.

1. Prīdiē, the day before; postrīdiē, the day after; tenus (with the plural), as far as, and clam, without the knowledge of, may govern the genitive.

## 134. GENITIVE OF QUALITY OR DESCRIPTION.

Nouns indicating a quality, or describing the limited noun, are put in the genitive, with an adjective agreeing with them:

As, juvenis mītis ingenii, a youth of mild disposition; puer sēdecim annörum, $a$ boy of sixteen; non multi cibi hospitem accipies, sed multi joci, you will receive a guest who is not a great eater but a great joker.
Note 1.-The descriptive noun and adjective are more frequently in the ablative. The genitive seems to be preferred to describe the general nature and kind of the subject, or permanent qualities; the ablative to denote particular or transient qualities and circumstances: sēcūri animi es, you are free from anxiety always; bono animo sum, I am of good cheer in the present
circumstances. But there are many exceptions to this rule. The requisites for a thing, and all ideas of measure are expressed by the genitive : as, res magni laböris; fossa centum pedum; parts of the body by the ablative: as, quā facie fuit? magno capite, ōre rubioundo.
Note 2.-Ejus modi, cajus modi, and the like, are genitives of quality, in meaning equivalent to tāles, quāles.

## 135. GENITIVE AS A PREDICATE.

The genitive in the predicate after sum denotes property, characteristic, part, lot, office, or duty:
As, omnia hostium erant, all things belonged to the enemy; cajusvis hominis est errāre, it is the lot of every man to err; hoc est praeceptöris, this is the business of the teacher; möris est Graecörum, it belongs to the custom of the Greeks (or simply, it is the custom, etc.) ; stultitiae est, it is a mark of folly.

1. The genitive of property or possession may be used in the predicate with fio: as, omnia quae mulieris fuērunt, viri fiunt, dōtis nōmine.
2. The genitives lucri, compendi, and dicionis are found in the predicate after facio or fīo.

## 136. OBJECTIVE GENITIVE AFTER ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives are followed by a genitive denoting the object to which the quality they express is directed.

1. Adjectives in ax formed from transitive verbs; and present participles used adjectively, govern the genitive : as, tenax prōpositi, tenacious of purpose; vēritatis dīligens, fond of the truth; amantior domini.
2. Adjectives govern the genitive which signify desire, knowledge, care, memory, mastery, participation, fulness, guilt, and their contraries: as, avidus glōriae, eager for glory; belli perītus, skilled in war; ignāra mali, unacquainted with evil ; prōvida ātilitātum, providing for advantages; memor virtūtis, mindful of virtue; impotens sui, without self. control; ratiōnis particeps, sharing in reason; plēnus rīmārum, full of chinks; inops hūmānitātis, destitute of culture; rei capitallis reus, guilty of a capital crime.
3. Many of these adjectives are found sometimes in a different construction; as with the ablative, with or without a preposition; with the accusative, especially with ad or in; with the dative; and with an infinitive or subjunctive clause : as, rudis in jūre cīvili ; arte rudis; ad rem avidior; potens in res bellicas; cuncta pollens; facinori mens conscia; oertus īre; memor quam sis aevi brevis.
4. The genitive after an adjective or participle sometimes denotes a cause or souree, especially in the poets: as, fessus viae, weary of the way; nōtus in frātres animi paterni, well-known for his father-like affection for his brothers.
5. The genitive of the respect in which is used freely by the poets: as, integer vìtae scelerisque pūrus, upright in life and free of crime.
6. The genitive animi as the seat of feeling, after adjectives and verbs, is strictly locative: as, aeger animi, sick at heart.
7. The genitive can sometimes be explained by the adjective's standing for a noun. For the genitive after similis, dissimilis, etc., see $\& 162,4$.

## 137. GENITIVE AFTER VERBS.

1. Memini and reminiscor, $I$ remember, and oblīviscor, $I$ forget, take an objective genitive:

As, vīvōrum memini, nee tamen Epicūri licet oblīvisci, I remember the living, and yet I am not allowed to forget Epicürus.
2. Recordor, I bethink myself of, takes the genitive rarely in the best writers, more frequently in later Latin. It is generally found with the accusative, sometimes with the ablative (of persons) with de.

Exc.-Verbs of remembering and forgetting often take an accusative, when they denote to have a thing in the memory, or the reverse: as, Antipatrum Sīdōnium tu probē meministi, you remember well Antipater of Sidon.

Note.-The phrase venit mihi in mentem may be construed impersonally with a genitive: as, venit mihi in mentem Platōnis, Plato occurs to $m e$. It is also used personally.
138. Misereor and miseresco, I pity, take an objective genitive: as, miserēre soröris, pity thy sister.

## 139. ACCUSATIVE AND GENITIVE.

1. Verbs of reminding take an accusative of the person and a genitive of the thing:

As, Catilīna admonēbat alium egestātis alium cupiditātis suae, Cutiline kept putting one in mind of his poverty, another of his desire.

Note.-Instead of the genitive of the thing, admoneo may take the accusative of a pronoun or neuter adjective, or the ablative with de.
2. Misěret, paenǐtet, piget, pudet, taedet, and pertaesum est take an accusative of the person who feels and a genitive of the cause or respect :

As, me stultitiae meae pudet, I am ashamed of my folly.
140. Verbs of accusing, condemning, and acquitting, take an accusative of the person and a genitive of the crime:

As, accūsāre aliquem furti, to charge one with theft; majestātis absolvantur, they get acquitted of treason; damnāri repetundāram, to be condemned of extortion.

1. The crime is sometimes in the ablative with de; or crimine, nomine, or judicio, with the genitive may be used.
2. With damno and condemno, the punishment is put in the genitive or ablative:
As, damnāri capitis or capite.
For a definite penalty, if money or land, the ablative is always used :
As, damnāri decem millibus; damnāri tertiā parte agri; and so always with the verb multo.
Note.-Damnāri ad bestias means to be condemned to be throun to the wild beasts; in metalla, to the mines; vöti damnāri, to be bound to fulfil $a$ vow; hence vōti damnātus or vōti reus means successful.
3. Impleo, repleo, and compleo, and sometimes in the poets expleo, verbs signifying to fill, may take in addition to the accusative a genitive, though more commonly an ablative.
4. GENITIVE AFTER REFERT AND INTEREST.
5. Rēfert and interest may take the genitive of the person to whom anything is of interest or importance:
As, intererat Clödii Milōnem perīre, it was important for Clodius that Milo should die.
6. Instead of the genitive of the personal pronouns, the possessives meā, tuā, suā, nostrā, vestrā, are used.
7. The thing of interest or importance may be expressed by a ncuter pronoun, but is usually denoted by an accusative with an infinitive, or by ut or the interrogative particles with a subjunctive:

As, hoc meā interest; multum meā interest te esse diligentem, or ut dīligons sis, or (utrum) dīligens sis neene.
4. The accusative with ad is used to denote the ond for which the matter is important: as, magni ad honōrem nostrum interest, quam prīmum ad urbem me venīre, it is of great importance for my honor that I should come to the city as soon as possible.

## 143. SPECIAL USES OF THE GENITIVE.

Egeo sometimes, and indigeo frequently, take the genitive; but verbs of wainting commonly take the ablative.
Note-Both the genitive and ablative after such verbs are cases of specifioation of the respect in which.
144. Sătăgo (sat ago) takes a genitive defining the indeclinable adjective sat.
145. Poets, and later prose writers, sometimes use a genitive of definition or respect after many verbs regularly construed with other cases:
As, regnāvit populōrum; sēpositi ciceris invīdit; dēcipitur labōrum.

1. The poetical genitive sometimes denotes cause: as, sunt lacrimae rērum, there are tears for human fortune; justitiae aliquem mīrāri, to admire one for his justice; felīcem cerebri, happy in your hot temper.
2. The genitive after verbs of separation is similar to the genitive in Greek: as, abstinēto īrārum ; dēsine querēlārum.
3. Potior, both in the sense of to make oneself master of and to be master of, is often found with the genitive. Plautus sometimes uses potior with the genitive in the sense of fall into the hands of.

## 146. GENITIVE OF VALUE゙.



Sum and verbs of valuing take the genitive of the degree of estimation :
As, dīvitias minōris aestimāre dēbēmus quam virtūtem, we ought to set a lower value on riches than on virtue; parvi sunt foris arma; ager nunc plūris est quam tunc fuit; tanti est, it is worth while.
1.-a. Such genitives are magni, plūris, plūrimi, maximi, parvi, minōris, minimi, tanti, quanti, nihili. So also flocci, nauci, pensi, pili, assis, terunoi, hujus : as, non hujus faoio, I don't care that for it.
b. Such verbs are puto, dūco, aestimo, existimo, pendo, facio, fio, habeo, taxo; and sum, in the sense of being of a value.
c. Aestimo may take either the genitive or ablative.
2. The genitives boni, aequi boni, aequi bonïque, with facio, and boni, optimi, with consulo, may be classed with genitives of value.
147. GENITIVE OR ABLATIVE WITH VERBS OF BUYING AND SELLING.

1. Verbs of buying and selling take the genitives tanti, quanti, plūris, maximi, and minōris:

As, quanti orȳza empta? parvo; for how much was the rice bought? At a small price.
2. So with the genitives tantidem, quantīis, quantiounque.
3. But such verbs take the ablatives magno, permagno, plūrimo, parvo, minimo, nihilo, nonnihilo, tantulo.

## 148. LOCATIVE OF NAMES OF TOWNS, ETC.

1. Names of towns and small islands in which anything is said to be or be done, if of the first or second declension and singular number, are put in the genitive; if of the plural number or third declension, they are put in the ablative:

As, Corinthi pueros docēbat, he used to teach boys at Corinth; Smyrnae, at Smyrna; Carthāgine, at Carthage; Athēnis, at Athens; Trallibus, at Tralles.

Note.-These constructions owe their origin to the old locative termination $i$. The genitive of the first declension once ended in $i$, as Rōmāi ; that of the second has the locative termination. Even in the third declension forms in i are often preferred for the locative; as, Carthägini, at Carthage. For other expressions of the place where, see \& 183.
2. Domi, at home; belli, at war; millitiae, on military service; humi, on the ground, are locative genitives.
3. Other locatives are vicinniae (Plautus and Terence), in the neighborhood; and animi (plural animis), in mind, especially in certain expressions of doubt or anxiety. (Compare \& 136, 6.)

## 149. Dative.

The dative denotes the person or thing, to or for which anything is or is done. It marks the person affected or interested, and generally implies advantage or disadvantage.

1. As denoting that with reference to which the subject acts, or in reference to which it possesses a quality, it is called the case of the remoter object.
2. The dative of advantage is often called the datīvus commŏdi.
3. There are some uses of to and for in English, which cannot be expressed by the dative, but require a preposition; thus to, after words of actual motion, is often to be translated by ad or in; and for, meaning in behalf of or in defence of, by pro.

## 150. ACCUSATIVE AND DATIVE.

Transitive verbs govern the accusative and dative when, together with the object of the action, there is expressed the person or thing to or for which, or with reference to which, it is done:
As, dedi puero librum, I gave the boy a book; trādo prōvinciam successōri; mōrem tibi gero; nullum locum relīquit precibus.

1. This dative stands also with the passive: as, liber puero datus est, the book was given to the boy.
2. Many verbs of taking away, defending, and protecting from, most of which are compounds of $\mathrm{ab}, \mathrm{de}$, or ex, are found often with the accusative and dative:

As, solstitium pecori dēfendite, ward off the heat from the flock; ēlābor frātri; Caesar Ambiorigi auxilia dētraxit; oestrum arcēbis pecori.

Note.-The dative in these cases is one of advantage or disadvantage. The ablative, with or without a preposition, is more frequently found in prose. But while the ablative marks simply separation, the dative intimates that the person or thing is harmed or benefited. There is a delicate elegance in this use of the dative, which makes it a favorite construction in the poets. A similar use of the dative is seen in German writers.

## 152. ACCUSATIVE AND DATIVE OR ACCUSATIVE AND ABLATIVE.

Some verbs have two constructions, taking sometimes an object-accusative and the dative of the person or thing affected, and sometimes the accusative of the thing affected and the ablative of the means: as, urbi circumdedit mūrum (literally, he put a wall around, for the city), or urbem circumdedit mūro, he surrounded the city with a wall; dōno tibi mūnus, or dōno te mūnere. So also adspergo, induo, exuo, impertio, inūro, misceo, circumfundo, and other verbs.

## 153. DATIVE AFTER VERBS.

Many intransitive verbs, such as those which denote benefiting, injuring, pleasing, and others, take a dative of the person or thing affected :

As, Fortūna favet fortibus, Fortune favors the brave; nēmini noceas, harm no man; mihi placēbat Pompōnius, Pomponius was pleasing to me; mundus deo pāret, the world pays obedience to God; sibi fīit, he trusts himself; īrasoitur inimicis, he is angry with his enemies; omnibus bonis
expedit salvam esse rempublicam, it is for the advantage of all good men that the Commonwealth should be safe.

1. The principal verbs of this kind are, a. prōsum, auxilior, adminioulor, opitulor, patröcinor, subvenio, succurro, medeor; noceo, obsum, dēsum, officio, incommodo, insulto, insidior; placeo, arrīdeo, displiceo; faveo, grātificor, indulgeo, ignosco, studeo, pareo, adūlor, blandior, lēnōcinor, palpor, assentior, assentor, respondeo; adversor, refrāgor, obsto, renītor, repugno, resisto, invideo, aemulor, obtrecto, convícior, maledīco; impero (also transitive), pāreo, cēdo, ausculto, obēdio, obsequor, obtempero, mörigeror (mōrem gero), alicui dicto andiens sum, servio, inservio, ministro, famulor, ancillor, praestōlor; crēdo (also transitive), fīdo, confido, diffido; immineo, propinquo, appropinquo, impendeo, occurro; minor, comminor (both also transitive), irascor, stomachor, succenseo.
$b$. Also the impersonals, condūcit, contingit, convěnit, expědit, dolet, libet, licet.
2.-a. Some verbs of this kind are rendered in English by transitive verbs; but a strictly exact translation, in accordance with their etymology, would show that they are intransitive. Thus suädēre, to persuade, is literally to be sweet to; nūbere, to marry (said of the female), means to put on the veil for.
b. Some verbs are transitive in Latin, while from their English translation they would appear to belong to this class; as, dēlecto, juvo, adjuvo, adjūto, laedo, offendo, jubeo, and others.
2. Intransitive verbs governing a dative are often used impersonally in the passive with the same case: as, mihi invidētur, I am envied; mihi nunquam persuädēri potuit, I never could be persuaded. We cannot say invideor, persuädeor, etc.
3. Some of the verbs which, as intransitive, govern a dative, may become stronger and take an accūsative; or they may take a preposition and its. case, or a dependent clause. The classical writers themselves, and the lexicons, will furnish examples.
4. The poetic dative of the place whither is a bold extension of the dative of influence: as, it clāmor caelo, a shout reaches the sky.
5. In the poets and the later prose writers the dative is more frequent than in the best classical prose. Haerēre, jungere, miscēre are among the verbs which sometimes take a dative in such writers.
6. Certo, dēcerto, contendo, and luctor are often used by the poets with the dative.

## 154. DATIVE AFTER VERBS COMPOUNDED WITH PREPOSITIONS, ETC.

Many verbs compounded with the prepositions ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, sub, and super, take the dative:

As, omnibus antestāre, to surpass all; interfuit pugnae, he was engaged in the battle; miseris succurrere disco, I learn to aid the wretched.

1. Transitive verbs take also an accusative. (See 8 150.)
2. If a local relation is clearly designed, the preposition is commonly repeated with its proper case: as, adhaeret nāvis ad scopulum ; Ajax incubuit in gladium ; inourrere in hostes.
3. The compounds of cum (con, com) usually repeat the preposition, but not always.
4. Some verbs never repeat the preposition ; with some a different preposition is used, as obrepere in animum. The facts in each case can be learned from observation of the usage of classical writers, and by consulting the lexicons.
5. Verbs compounded with satis, bene, and male, govern the dative : as; pulcrum est benefacere reipublicae.

## 156. DATIVE OF THE POSSESSOR.

The verb esse, to $b e$, is construed with a dative of the possessor:

As, est mihi liber, I have a book.
This is a form of the dative of advantage or disadvantage.
1.-a. In such expressions as est mihi nōmen the name is generally, put by attraction in the dative :

As, est mihi nömen Balbo, my name is Balbus.
b. The nominative, however, is sometimes found, and, more rarely, the genitive:

As, ei morbo nōmen est avāritia; Q. Metello Macedonioi nōmen inditum est.
2. The construction of a dative with a participle agreeing with it, after esse, is imitated from the Greek : as, quibus bellum volentibus erat, those who wished for war ; mihi volenti est, it is agreeable to my wish (properly, is related to me as wishing it).

## 157. DATIVE OF THE AGENT.

1. The gerundive, and sometimes passive verbs, take a "dative of the agent," as the person to whom the action relates or is of interest :

As, proelia conjugibus loquenda, battles for wives to talk about; quid-
quid mihi susceptum est, whatever has been undertaken by me (as far as I am concerned) ; non intellegor ulli (Ovid), I am not understood by any one (I do not make myself intelligible to any one).

Note.-In good prose, the dative of the agent with passive verbs is rare, and seldom found except with the compound tenses.
2. When the verb itself governs the dative, the gerundive may take the ablative with ab: as, oīvibus est a vöbis consulendum; but two datives are sometimes found, where no ambiguity arises from their use.
3. Verbal adjectives in -bl̆lis take a dative: as, multis flēbilis, bewailed by many (literally, to many an object of lamentation).
158. DATIVE LIMITING THE WHOLE PREDICATE.

A whole proposition is sometimes qualified by a dative, where a single noun might have been qualified by a genitive or a preposition :

As, is finis populātiōnibus fuit, that was the end for the raiding parties; puero dormienti caput arsisse ferunt.

1. English idiom often compels us to translate this dative as a genitive: as, sēse omnes flentes Caesari ad pedes projēēērunt, they all threw themselves weeping at Caesar's feet.
2. The dative sometimes specifies the relation in which one person stands to another : as, M' Mān̄̄lio consuli tribūnus, tribune under Manius Manilius; hēres est frätri suo, he is heir to his brother.
3. Facio and fio, with the accusatives quid and idem, take the dative of the person or thing affected: as, quid facies huic, what will you do with this man? quid mihi futūrum est, what will become of me? But de with the ablative, and the ablative alone, are also used.
4. The dative of a participle is occasionally used to denote time or circumstances :
As, sita Anticyra est laevā parte sinum intrantibus, Anticy̆ra lies on the left as you sail in (lit. to those sailing in) ; in üniversum aestimanti, plus penes peditem rōboris, looking at it on the whole, their chief strength is in the infantry (lit. to one looking at it).

> 159. ETHICAL DATIVE.

A slight reference to a person, as interested in the matter in hand, is sometimes made by the dative of a personal pronoun :
As, quid mihi Celsus agit? how is my Celsus? Haec vöbis illörum per bīduum mīlitia fuit, this, you see, was their two-days' campaigning. Hem Dāvum tibi, see, here's Davus. A similar construction is found in Shakespeare; and in French and German writers.

## 160. DATIVE OR ACCUSATIVE AFTER VERBS.

1. Some verbs may take an objective accusative, or a dative of interest, with a different meaning :

As, metuo aliquem, $I$ fear some one; metuo alicui, $I$ am anxious for some one; caveo aliquem, I am on my guard against some one; caveo alicui, I look out for some one's interests.

Such verbs are metuo, timeo, caveo, consulo, prōspicio, prōvideo, moderor, tempero.
2. A few verbs take either the accusative or dative without marked difference in signification : as, adūlor, aemulor, comitor, dēspēro, praestōlor.

## 161. TWO DATIVES.

1. Esse and certain other verbs sometimes take two datives, one of the person or thing affected, the other of the end served or the result:

As, cui bono fuit? whom did it,benefit? exitio est mare nautis, the sea brings destruction to sailors.
2. Besides esse, the verbs most frequent in this construction are habēre, dūcere, dare, vertere: as, Q. Metello laudi datum est.
3. Some other verbs, especially verbs of motion, are so construed with auxilio, praesidio, subsidio: as, equitātum auxilio Caesari mīserant; quinque cohortes castris praesidio relinquit.
4. Sometimes the dative of the person or thing affected is not expressed: as, omnia deerant quae ad reficiendas nāves erant ūsui.

## 162. DATIVE AFTER ADJECTIVES.

1. Adjectives which in English take to or FOR after them, are generally followed by the dative:

As, cīvis ūtilis reipublicae, a citizen useful to the state; res tibi facilis, oēteris difficilis, a thing easy for thee, hard for the others.
2. Such are adjectives denoting advantage or disadvantage, ease or diffculty, friendliness or unfriendliness, similarity, nearness, and the like.
3. Some such adjectives are frequently used as nouns, with the genitive: as, amīcus, aequālis, affinis, aliēnus, proprius, sacer, superstes, etc.
4. Similis, consimilis, adsimilis, and dissimilis, are put both with the genitive and the dative; in the earlier writers, almost always with the genitive of the names of gods and men.
5. Aptus, habilis, idōneus, accommodātus, instead of the dative, have 17 *
often ad with the accusative. Adjectives meaning friendly or hostile, sometimes take the prepositions in, erga, or adversus, instead of the dative. Aliēnus may take the ablative, with or without ab.
6. Propior and proximus have generally the dative, but sometimes the accusative, or the ablative with ab. The adverb propins, proxime, takes the accusative, more rarely the dative.
7. The poets sometimes use the dative after idem (in any case but the nominative), instead of atque with the nominative : as, idem facit occidenti, he does the same as he who kills him.

## 163. DATIVE AFTER PARTICLES AND NOUNS.

The dative is used with the adverbs convenienter, congruenter, constanter, obsequenter, obviam, ītiliter, and the interjections hei and vae.
164. Verbal nouns govern the dative in a few instances : as, obtemperätio lēgibus; remedia morbis.

## Ablative.

165. The ablative is the case of separation or departure, and source. It also serves as an instrumental and a locative case, under the latter head including respect, manner, condition, and quality, as well as time and place.
166. ABLATIVE OF CAUSE, MANNER, AND INSTRUMENT.

The ablative after verbs, participles, or adjectives may denote the cause, manner, means, or instrument:

As, ardēre studio, to burn with zeal; ratiōne voluptatem seqni, to follow pleasure in a rational manner; möribus conciliandus amor, love must be won by character; cornibus tauri se tūtantur, bulls defend themselves with their horns; Britanni lacte et carne vivēbant, the Britons lived on milk and flesh; nātūram expellere furcā, to drive nature out with a pitchfork.

1. The ablative of manner is regularly accompanied by an adjective, a pronoun, or a participle, or by the preposition cum; but a few words, such as modus, mos, ratio, rītus, and consuētūdo are used in the ablative without this accompaniment.
2. The ablative of manner denotes the way in which or the circumstances under which a thing is done.
3. Even with an adjective, the preposition cum is sometimes used, particularizing the concomitant : as, magno cum studio aderat, i. e., he was present, and displayed great zeal.
4. The ablative may denote that in accordance with which anything is
or is done: as, meo jūdicio, in my opinion; institūto suo, in accordance with his practice.
5. Accompaniment is generally denoted by the preposition cum: as, vagāmur cum conjugibus et līberis, we wander with our wives and children. But in words denoting military and naval forces, we generally have the ablative of instrument, without a preposition, when an adjective is used: as, ad castra omnibus cöpiis contendērunt.
6. Junctus, conjunctus, implicatus, admixtus, may take the ablative.

## 167. ABLATIVE WITH CERTAIN VERBS, ETC.

Ūtor, abūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, and vescor take the ablative:

As, quousque tandem, Catilīna, abūtēre patientiā nostrā? officio, münere, honöribus fungi ; carne vescor; oppido potitur.

1. These are ablatives of means or instrument or of source.
2. In older Latin the accusative is sometimes found with these verbs. Hence they retain the gerundive: as, vīta data est ūtenda; spes potiundörum caströrum. Potior often takes the genitive.
3. The idiomatic uses of ūtor deserve notice: as, valetūdine ūtor non bonā, I have poor health; ūtebātur intime Hortensio, he was on intimate terms with Hortensius; $\overline{\text { üsus eram silentio, I had kept silence ; fortūnā ūti, }}$ to try one's fortune; facili me ūtētur patre, he shall find in me an indulgent father.
4. The verbs laetor, exsulto, gaudeo ; dēlector, glōrior ; labōro, doleo ; valeo, flōreo; excello, praesto, supero; fīdo, confīdo, nītor; and the adjectives laetus, contentus, praeditus, frëtus, take an ablative of cause or means. Dignor takes an ablative of respect or price.
5. The ablative is put with various verbs to denote that with which the action is performed, or to specify in what it is manifested : as, culter mānat cruöre, the knife is dripping with blood; pluit lapidibus; sanguine sū̄āre; augēre aliquem scientiā; afficere aliquem honōre, ignōminia, etc.; aliquem pūro sermōne adsuēfacere; homines laböre adsuēti.
6. These may be regarded as free exemplifications of the ablatives of means or instrument and specification.
7. Transitive verbs meaning to fill, to furnish with, aud some others, govern the accusative and ablative.
8. Verbs of fulness and want take the ablative: as, Germānia abundat fiūminibus; caret oculis. (But see $\ell$ 143.)

## 171. OPUS AND USUS.

Opus est, used impersonally, takes the dative of the person needing, and the ablative of the thing needed; it can also be construed personally: as, duce nöbis opus est, we have need of a leader; or dux nöbis opus est.

1. Usus est, there is occasion, with the ablative, is sometimes found : as, nuno vīribus ūsus.
2. Opus est can be followed by an infinitive, or an acc. with the infin.
3. ABLATIVE OF THE MATERIAL.

Verbs and participles signifying consisting or being made of, take the ablative : as, agri constant campis, vīneis, silvis, (Plin. Ep.). But prepositions are often used; Cicero always has 0 x with constare in this sense.

## 173. VOLUNTARY AGENT.

1. The voluntary agent of a verb in the passive voice is put in the ablative with a or ab :

As, mundus a deo administrātur.
Note.-The voluntary agent is a living person ; the involuntary agent is properly called the instrument, and is put in the ablative without a preposition: as, Hector ab Achille caesus est, Hector was slain by Achilles; Hector tēlo caesus est, Hector was slain by a spear.
2. Neuter verbs, also, are sometimes followed by an ablative of the voluntary agent with a or ab : as, periit ab Annibale, he died at the hands of Hannibal.
3. If the involuntary agent is personified, it takes the preposition : as, animus ab ignāvia corruptus.
4. The voluntary agent is sometimes found in the ablative without $\mathbf{a b}$. In such cases, the idea of personality is thrown in the background, and the agents appear as the mere instruments of the action : as, servi agrestes ac barbari, quibus Etrūriam vexārat.
174. ABLATIVE AFTER COMPARATIVES.

The comparative degree is followed by the ablative, when quam, than, is omitted:

As, Tullus Hostīlius ferōcior Rōmulo fuit; lacrimā nihil citius ärescit.

1. After plus, minus, amplius, and longius (but rarely after other adverbs in prose), quam is often omitted without influence on the construction: as, spatium nōn amplius pedum sexcentōrum.
2. It is a rare license to put the ablative after the comparative when the latter stands in any other case than the nominative and accusative: as, pāne egeo, jam mellītis potiōre placentis.
3. The poets use this ablative of distinction also with alius: as, ne pūtes alium sapiente bonōque beātum.
4. The ablatives aequo, justo, dicto, solito, spe, opīniōne, necessārio, follow comparatives: as, Caesar opīniōne omnium celerius ventūrus est.
5. The ablative after the comparative is sometimes omitted; the adjective or adverb may then be translated with quite, too, rather :
As, līberius vīvēbat, he lived too freely; res graviōres, matters of unusual importance. (See \& 53, 1.)

## 175. ABLATIVE OF QUALITY.

A noun and an adjective are put in the ablative of quality or description :
As, Mūrēna, vir mediocri ingenio; or, Mūrēna mediocri ingenio fuit, Murēna was a man of moderate ability. (See $\langle$ 134, Note 1.)
176. ABLATIVE OF THE DEGREE OF DIFFERENCE.

The degree of difference between objects compared is expressed by the ablative:

As, sōl multis partibus major atque amplior est quam terra.
The ablatives multo, parvo, quo, quanto, eo, and tanto are frequently used to denote the degree of difference: as, eo gravior dolor quo culpa major, the pain is heavier in proportion as the fault is greater.

## 177. ABLATIVE OF SEPARATION.

The ablative denotes that of which a person or thing is deprived, or from which it is separated :
As, spoliāre hominem fortūnis, to rob a man of his fortunes: arcēre tyrannum reditu, to bar the tyrant from return; abstinēre scelere, to keep from crime.

1. But the verbs which signify to abstain, to hinder, to exclude, are also used with ab: as, prohibēre hostem a pugnā. When a person is specified, the preposition is always used.
2. The poets, in imitation of a Greek idiom, have the genitive with a few such verbs: as, solūtus operum, freed from work. (See $\ell$ 145, 2.) For the dative, see $\&$ 151. Compounds with dis- take the dative in poetry.
3. Verbs denoting to drive a person or thing from or out of the place where it is, sometimes take the ablative alone, but usually with ab, ex, or de:

## As, dēpellere hostem loco or e loco.

4. Cēdo and its compounds often take the ablative without a preposition; so also abeo, used of resigning an office.

## 178. ABLATIVE OF SOURCE.

Perfect participles denoting origin are followed by the ablative of the source:

As, Meroūrius Jove et Maiā nātus erat; equestri loco ortus.

1. Such participles are nātus, ortus, genitus, satus, ēditus.
2. With the parents, ex and de are also used.
3. More remote ancestry is indicated by ortus ab: as, Belgae orti sunt a Germānis ; Cato Uticensis a Censōrio ortus erat.

## 179. ABLATIVE OF PRICE.

The price or value is put in the ablative:
As, hunc librum parvo pretio èmi ; maltōrum sanguine et vulneribus ea victōria Poenis stetit; asse oārum est, it's dear at a penny.

1. To this rule belong the ablatives magno, plürimo, parvo, minimo, nihilo, with verbs of buying and selling: as, hano libram plūrimo ēmi. For the genitive with such words, see $\zeta 147$. Bene, male are also used.
2. Dignus and indignus take the ablative of the thing of which anything is worthy or unworthy :

## As, virtus imitātiōne digna est ; quam multi lūce indigni sunt!

The genitive is found rarely.
3. Mūtāre, commūtāre, permūtāre, and vertere, to exchange, take either an accusative of the thing parted with, and an ablative of the thing taken: as, mūtāre pācem bello, to exchange peace for war, i. e., to go to war; or, especially in poetry, an accusative of the thing taken, and an ablative of the thing parted with : as, permūtāre ōtio dīvitias, to take wealth in exchange for ease.
4. The penalty is sometimes in the ablative: as, capite damnātus, condemned to death (to lose his head).

## 180. ABLATIVE OF SPECIFICATION.

An ablative may be joined to nouns or adjectives to denote in what respect their signification is taken :

As, nōmine grammaticus, rē barbarus, in name grammarian, in fact a barbarian; claudus altero pede, lame of one foot

## 181. ABLATIVE AFTER ADJECTIVES.

Some adjectives denoting abundance, want, or exemption, take the ablative:

As, dīves agris ; orbus rēbus omnibus; līber cūrā.

1. Some adjectives of this kind take a genitive or the preposition ab.
2. The word macte takes the ablative of the thing on account of which a man is pronounced happy: as, macte virtūte. (Originally, an ablative of the means with which one was honored.)
3. The ablative after many adjectives is explained by the general rules given in preceding sections.

## 182. ABLATIVE OF PLACE WHENCE.

1. The ablative of place whence, if a town or small island, or domo, rure, humo, is used without a preposition :
As, redīre Athēnis, Tībure, rūre, to return from Athens, Tibur, or the country.
2. But the prepositions ab, de, ex, are sometimes used.
3. The ablative of place whence may be used in dating letters: as, dat. iiii. kal. Jünias Thessalonīcā, written the 29th of May, from Thessalonīca; ego ūnas Capuā litteras dedi, I have written once from Capua.
4. Native place is sometimes expressed by this ablative: as, Gn. Magius Cremōnä, Gnaeus Magius of Cremona. More usually an adjective is used, as Cremōnensis; sometimes ab, as Turnus Herdonius ab Arícia.
5. The name of the tribe is added in the ablative to that of a Roman citizen, in inscriptions: as, Ser. Sulpicius Q. F. Lemoniā Rūfus, Servius Sulpicius Rufus, son of Quintus, of the Lemonian tribe.

## 183. ABLATIVE OF PLACE WHERE.

1. The ablative of place where, except in the names of towns and small islands, generally takes in:
As, in portu nāvigo, I am sailing in the harbor.
2. The preposition is omitted in certain phrases: a. loco, multis locis, plüribus locis, etc.; hoc libro, alio libro, etc.; terrā, mari; dextrā (parte), on the right hand; laevä, sinistrā, on the left hand; mediä urbe, in the middle of the city; medio aedium, in the middle of the house; $b$. with the adjective tōtus: as, tōtā Asiă, throughout Asia; c. with se tenēre, se continēre : as, Pompēius se oppido tenet, Pompēius keeps in the town.
3. The poets omit the preposition more freely: as, silvisque agrisque viisque corpora foeda jacent, in forests and fields and roads lie revolting corpses.
4. But many apparent ablatives of place may be explained as ablatives of means, cause, etc.
5. When a work is quoted, in is used: as, in Iliade Homēri; but when the author only is cited, apud: as, apud Homērum, in Homer.
6. For the ablative of names of towns, see $\& 148$.
a. Prepositions are much used (1) with names of towns: as, in Epheso est; in Ephesum abii; has litteras a Brundisio dedi. So ad (at or near) and apud. (2) With humus, domus, and rus : as, in domo Periclis.
b. Usque is joined with names of places, with or without a preposition: as, ab Aethiopiā usque, as far as from Ethiopia; usque Ennam, as far as Enna.

## 184. ABLATIVE OF ROUTE.

The road by which is denoted by the ablative without a preposition: as, $\overline{\text { Īre }}$ viā Sacrā, to walk on the Sacred Road; ingredi urbem portā Esquilīna, to enter the city by the Esquiline gate; tendimus hinc recta Beneventum (sc. viā).

## 185. ABLATIVE OF TIME.

## The ablative denotes time when and time within which :

As, hieme, in winter; hōrā quartā, at the fourth hour (ten o'clock); Kalendis Jānuäriis, on the first of January; biennio, within two years; paucis diēbus, within a few days; tribus hōris Aduātucam ven̄̄re potestis.

1. Recurring games, meetings, or festivals, in the ablative may denote the time when : as, comitiis, at the elections; gladiātöribus, at the gladiators' show; Līberālibus, at the feast of Liber.
2. Rarer idioms are serëno, in a calm; austro, in a south wind; and the like.
3. Interdiu, noctu, māne (māni), lūci, vesperi, heri, temperi, prïdie, postrīdie, quotīdie, crastini die, represent old locatives.
4. The preposition used to define time when is chiefly de, beginning from, ere the close of, during: as, multā de nocte, long before night ended. In is sometimes used to express time within which; so also intra.
5. The ablative of time within which is sometimes emphatically defined by the pronouns hic or ille: as, hoc triennio, within the next (or the last) three years; the tense determining whether hic refers to future or past time.
6. Post is also used in answering the question how soon ? ante in telling
how long ago: as, paucis post diēbus, paucos post dies, or post paucos dies, within the next few days; paucis ante diëbus, paucos ante dies, or ante paucos dies, a few days ago. We also have abhinc with the accusative or ablative: as, abhinc triennium (or triennio) huc commigrāvit, she came here three years ago.
7. I saw him three days before he died may be rendered in any of the following ways: vīdi eum tribus diēbus (or trīduo) antequam mortuus est; v.e. tertio die antequam m.e.; v.e.ante tres dies (or ante trīduum) quam m.e.; $\boldsymbol{\nabla}$. e. ante tertium diem quam m.e.
8. He died six years after I saw him may be translated in any of the following ways: mortuus est sex annis (or sexennio) postquam eum vïderam; m. e. sexto anno postquam e.v.; m. e. sexto anno quam e. v.; m. e. post sex annos (or post sexennium) quam e. v.; m. e. post sextum annum quam e. v .
9. Cum, quo, quibus are sometimes used for postquam: as, bīduo quo (or cum) haec gesta sunt, two days after these things were done.
10. The ablative may denote time throughout which; but rarely, except in post-Augustan writers : as, maestitia est caruisse anno Circensibus üno.
11. Prīdie quam mortuus est, means the day before he died (ante diem quam) ; postrīdie quam eum vīdi, the day after I saw him (post diem quam).

## 186. ABLATIVE AFTER PREPOSITIONS.

The prepositions $\overline{\mathrm{a}}, \mathrm{ab}$, or abs, absque, clam, cōram, cum, de, $\bar{e}$ or ex, palam, prae, prō, sine, and tenus, govern the ablative:

As, pecūniam à me accēpit, he received the money from me; cōram populo dixit, he spoke before the people; prae laetitiā lacrimae prōsiliunt mihi, tears start into my eyes for joy.

1. Tenus follows its case, and governs the ablative singular (rarely plural) and plural genitive ( $\}$ 133, 7, 1) : capulo tenus abdidit ensem, he buried his sword to the hilt; verbo tenus, as far as words go; quädam tenus, a certain way, to a certain extent.
2. Clam (and clanculum) are found in comedy with the accusative. For in, sub, super, and subter with the ablative, see \& 131, 3, 4.

## 187. ABLATIVE ABSOLOTE.

1. A noun and a participle not connected with the main construction of the sentence, may stand by themselves in the ablative. This is called the ablative absolute.
2. As the verb sum has no present participle, two nouns, or a noun and an adjective, may stand together in the ablative absolute:
As, Camillo duce, with Camillus as commander; vivo patre, while my father is (or was) alive.
3. The ablative absolute may express any accompaniment of the principal action, as the time, a condition, a concession, a cause, according to the context.
Thus, te invīto may mean, in different connections, against your will, if you are unvilling, though you are unwilling, since you are unwilling, etc.
4. An impersonal participle stands sometimes in the ablative absolute: as, lībāto, after the libation was offered; mihi errāto, nulla venia; recte facto, exigua laus prōpōnitur; to me, if I blunder, no indulgence; if I succeed, small credit is offered.
5. A few participles, like audīto, cognito, comperto, explōrāto, dēspērāto, intellecto, nuntiāto, ēdicto, permisso, sometimes stand in the ablative absolute with a clause which is used as a noun : as, Hannibal, cognito insidias sibi parāri, fugā sal̄̄tem quaesīvit. The place of such a participle is sometimes supplied by an adjective.

## Moods and Tenses.

## The Indicative Mood.

188. The Indicative is the mood of simple assertion (affirmative or negative), or of direct question.
189. In conditional sentences, in which it is stated simply that a thing is (or is not) in case another thing is (or is not), without stating anything in regard to the actual truth of the two propositions, the Indicative is used in both :
As, Si Deus mundum creāvit, conservat etiam, if God made the world, he preserves it as well; nīsi hoc ita est, frustra labōrāmus, if this is not so, we are laboring in vain.
190. There are some idiomatic uses of the Indicative where other moods might have been expected. (See $\varepsilon 196 ; \xi 215,3$, n. 3, 4, 3.)

## 189. THE PRESENT TENSE.

1. The Present may denote (1) a momentary or (2) a continued present action:
As, (1) prōcumbit humi bos, the bull falls prostrate on the ground; (2) nāvigat aequor, he is sailing on the sea.
2. The Present may denote an action or state as existing (1) occasionally, (2) habitually, or (3) in all time:
As, (1) domesticus otior, I lounge at home; (2) honor alit artes, honor nurtures the arts; (3) deus mundum conservat, God preserves the universe.
3. The Present may express the opinion or statement of an author, cited as still living in his books:
As, praeclāre hunc locum Cicero tractat in libris de nātūrā deōrum.
4. The Present is sometimes a lively substitute for the Future.

As, ni propere fit quod impero, vincīrī vos jam jubeo, if what I command is not done with speed, I order you to be put in chains this moment: imusne sessum, shall we go and sit down? abeo an maneo, shall I go or stay?
5. As a tense of incomplete action, the present sometimes denotes a thing as simply attempted, or as simply begun. In these uses it is called the conative or the inceptive present.
6. 1. The Historic Present is used for a past tense, in animated and picturesque narrative:

As, dīmisso senātu, decemviri prodeunt in conciōnem abdicantque se magistrātu, when the senate broke up, the decemvirs go forth to the assembled people and resign office.
2. The Present is commonly used in a temporal clause with dum, while, even when the principal sentence is past or future: as, dum haec in colloquio geruntur, Caesari nuntiātum est equites Ariovisti propius accedēre. But the Perfect may also be used, of an action, or the Pluperfect, of a state of things.
7. The Present, with jam, jamdiu, jamdūdum, and jamprīdem, is used of that which has lasted for some time and still continues: as, annum jam audis Cratippum, you have now for a year been attending the lectures of Cratippus; jamdūdum video, I have seen it this long time.

## 190. IMPERFECT.

1. The Imperfect denotes continued past action :

As, scrībēbam, I was writing; ībam viā Sacrā, accurrit quidam, I was walking on the Sacred Road, when a certain man ran up to me.
2. The Imperfect denotes repeated or habitual past action:

As, scrïbēbam, I used to write; dīcēbat melius quam scripsit Hortensius, Hortensius used to speak better than he has written; noctes vigilabat ad ipsum mane, diem totum stertēbat, he would lie awake whole nights till daybreak, and snore all day long.
3. The Imperfect denotes action in past time, intended, attempted, or begun, but not completed :

As, Aenēas lenībat dictis animum, Aeneas was trying to soften her mind with his words; num dubitas id me imperante facere, quod jam tuā sponte faciēbas, do you hesitate to do at my command what you were already on the point of doing voluntarily? Hujus deditiōnis ipse, qui dedebātur, suāsor et auctor fuit, of this surrender the very man who was to be surrendered was the mover and adviser.
4. The Imperfect is sometimes translated in English by a simple preterite.
5. The Imperfect sometimes expresses a fact which is just now recognized by the speaker or writer, having been previously overlooked: as, quantā laböräbas charybdi, in what a whirlpool you are struggling, and I did not know it!

## 191. FUTURE.

1. The Future expresses continued and indefinite action in future time:

As, ambulābo, I shall be walking; ut voles me esse, ita ero, I will be as you shall wish me to be.
2. The Future is often used as a polite imperative: as, quod superest, puerum Cicerōnem cūrābis et amābis, for the rest, please to treat young Cicero with care and affection.
3. The Future is used in subordinate sentences, qualifying a principal future sentence, and referring to the same time. In English the Present is generally found: as, hoc, dum erimus in terris, erit illi caelesti vītae simile.

## 192. PERFECT AND AORIST.

1. The Perfect expresses an action finished in-present time:

As, dixi, I have spoken; vēnit summa dies, the last day is come.
2. The Perfect may express:
a. In poetry, the rapid completion of an action : as, terra tremit, fügēre ferae, the earth trembles, beasts have fled; perii! I'm undone.
b. Cessation of existence: as, fuimus Troes, fait Ilium, we Trojans have been, llium has been, i. e., we are no longer Trojans, Ilium is no more.
c. Repeated action, or a general habit, like the gnomic perfect and gnomic aorist in Greek: as, cum Fortūna reflāvit, adfligimur, when Fortune blows adverse, we are cast down; rēge ämisso, rūpēre fidem constructaque mella dīripuēre, if the queen bee is lost, they break faith and pull down their honey stores.
d. Lively anticipation, for the Future Perfect: as, Brutus si conservātus erit, vīcimus, if Brutus shall be saved, we have won the day.
193. The Historical Perfect, or Aŏrist, expresses a simple past action :

As, vēni, vīdi, vīci, I came, I saw, I conquered.

1. In historical narration the conjunctions postquam, posteāquam, ubi, ubi prīmum, cum prīmum, simul, simul ac, simul atque, simul ut, meaning as soon as, generally take the Historical Perfect (sometimes the Present), although our idiom prefers the Pluperfect.

## 194. PLUPERFECT.

The Pluperfect expresses an action finished in past time:
As, postquam lux certior erat, et Rōmāni, qui caedibus superfuerant, in arcem confügerant, conticescēbatque tumultus, tum Tarentinos convōcāri jubet, when the light became stronger, and the Romans, who had survived the massacre, had escaped into the citadel, and the uproar was getting quiet, he then orders the Tarentines to be convoked.

## 195. FUTURE PERFECT.

1. The Future Perfect denotes an action to be finished in future time:

As, qui Antōninm oppresserit, is bellum confēcerit, he, who shall have crushed Antonius, will have finished the war.

Note.-The Latin is more precise and accurate than the English in its use both of the Future and the Future Perfect.
2. The Future Perfect is often used in connection with the Future tense: as, ut sementem fēceris, ita metes, as you shall have sown, so will you reap.

Rem.-English idiom often uses the Present, or the simple Future, for the Future Perfect : as you sow, or, as you shall sow, instead of as you shall have sown.
3. Especially in the comic poets, the Future Perfect is often used where we should expect the Future, to express the immediate sequence upon the future action to which it is related, or the certainty of the event :
As, molestus si sum, reddite argentum; abiero; if I bother you, give back the money and I'll be off.
4. It may denote the future result of an action now past:

As, ūnus homo tantas strāges impūne per urbem ēdiderit? shall it be with impunity that a single man has made such heaps of slain throughout the city?
5. The Future Perfect, like the Future, sometimes resembles the Imperative: as, sitne malum dolor necne, Stoici vīderint, whether pain is an evil or not, the Stoics will have to see.

## 196. THE INDICATIVE AS AN AUXILIARY.

Latin writers often express duty, necessity, propriety, possibility, as facts, in the Indicative, where the English would have the Potential :

As, ̄̄tilius fuit, it would have been better.

## 197. PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION.

1. In the Future Periphrastic Conjugation, the participle in -ūrus expresses
a. being about to; meaming to; purposing; being on the point of: as, apes ēvolātūrae sunt, the bees are about to swarm; ubi rēx erat mansūrus, where the king intended to stay.
b. being likely to; being sure to; being ready to: as, haec sine doctrīnā crēditüri fuērunt, this they were sure to believe if they had not been taught (otherwise).
c. being destined to (am to, are to, etc.) : as, si vēri amīci futūri sumus, if we are to be true friends; manet mansūrumque est, it abides and is destined to abide.
2. Periphrastic past tenses may sometimes be idiomatically translated by would have or should have: as, deditos ultimis cruciātibus affectūri fuērunt, they would have executed them, if surrendered, with the uttermost tortures.

Note.-As the passive has no participle with a future signification, certain periphrases are used to express those relations of time which in the active are denoted by the future participle with sum: e. g., futūrum est (erat, fuit) ut; fore ut or futūrum esse ut; in eo est (erat, fuit) ut: as, erat in eo, ut urbs caperētur, the city was on the point of being taken.

## 198. PASSIVE PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION.

The combination of the gerundive with the tenses of the verb esse denotes necessity or fitness. (See $\mathcal{z} 82,2$.)

## 199. PASSIVE COMPOUND TENSES.

The perfect passive participle is sometimes used with fui, fueram, or fuero to form the perfect, pluperfect, or future perfect passive tenses. But generally the participle with these forms of sum is used adjectively, or to denote a state or condition rather than an act. (See also \& 74, Note 1.)

## 200. TENSES IN LETTERS.

Writers of letters sometimes express time from the point of view of the receiver of the letter, to whom of course the time of writing is already past. Thus the Imperfect (and sometimes the Perfect) may be used where in English we have the Present, and the Pluperfect where we have the Perfect:

As, Ante diem viii. Kal. haec ego scrībēbam hōrā noctis nōnā. Marcellus ita stertēbat ut ego audīrem; on the eighth day before the Kalends I write this at three o'clock in the morning. Marcellus is snoring so loud that I hear him. Prīdie Idūs Febr. haec scripsi ante lūcem; eo die apud Pompōnium in ējus nuptiis eram cēnātūrus; I have written this before daybreak on the day before the Ides; I am going to dine with Pomponius today at his wedding. Dederam litteras Ephesi prīdie; has dedi Trallibus; $I$ sent a letter from Ephesus yesterday; I send this letter from Tralles. Quae ad eam diem cum haec scrībēbam audīverāmus, inānis rūmor vidëbātur; what we have heard till the moment I write this seems idle rumor.

1. This peculiarity is very frequently observed not at all, or only in part.
2. Matters which will remain present to the receiver are stated in the present: as, ego hic cōgito commorāri, quoad me reficiam, I think of remaining here while I am recruiting my health.
3. Expressions of time are often accommodated to the tense employed, so that yesterday becomes prīdie ; to-morrow, postrīdie or postero die.

## The Subjunctive Mood.

201. 202. The Subjunctive Mood has two very different uses:
I. It denotes contingency, possibility, will, desire, or purpose, and is generally to be translated in English by the auxiliaries may, might, can, could, would, or should.
II. It is used in consecutive clauses to denote result, or in subordinate or dependent clauses, simply to show their subordination or dependence; and is then generally to be translated in English by the Indicative.
Note.--The first use represents the original force of the mood; the second has been derived from it, through steps more or less traceable. But the second use has become so characteristic that it has given the mood its ordinary name. Another name, Conjunctive, is preferred by many grammarians.
1. As contrasted with the Indicative, the Subjunctive is the
mood of ideal relations, and often represents a thing as thought or supposed, rather than as done or narrated.

## 202. Potential subjunctive.

1. The subjunctive sometimes represents an action as possible or probable:

As, quaerat quispiam, some one may ask; forsitan quaerātis, perhaps you may inquire; vix crëdiderim, I can hardly believe; forsitan quis. piam dixerit, some one may perchance say.
2. The subjunctive is often used for mild, modest, or cautious statement, in preference to the more direct and positive indicative :

As, hoc sine ullā dubitātiōne confirmāverim, I might affirm this without any hesitation.

Note- Velim, nōlim, mālim are often thus used to express a wish modestly, I could wish, could wish not, would rather. A wish which cannot now be fulfilled is expressed by vellem, nollem, mallem.

## 203. OPTATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

1. The subjunctive is used to denote a wish or an exhortation:

As, sīs fēlix, may you be happy; valeant cīves mei, sint incolumes, sint beāti, may my fellow citizens be strong, may they be without harm, may they be happy! ne vīvam, may I not live; imitēmur mājōres nostros, let us emulate our ancestors! moriar, si pato, may I die, if I think.
Note.-The negative particle with the optative subjunctive is ne (nēve, neu), rarely non.
2. Utinam, vould that, I wish that, and utinam ne (sometimes non), would that not, are used with the present subjunctive, and rarely the perfect, in wishes whose fulfilment is possible, or is conceived of as possible, and with the imperfect and pluperfect in wishes whose fulfilment is impossible:
As, utinam cōnāta efficere possim, $O$ that I may be able to accomplish my purposes! utinam tam facile vēra invenīre possem, quam falsa convincere, would that it were as easy for me to discover the truth, as it is to refute falsehood! utinam in Ti . Graccho tālis mens ad rem publicam bene gerendam fuisset, quāle ingenium ad bene dīcendum fuit, I wish that Tiberius Gracchus had had a disposition for the good administration of the government, similar to his genius for good oratory.
3. In the same manner ut, si, and $\mathbf{O}$ si are sometimes used:

As, ut te omnes dii perduint, I hope that all the gods will destroy you; 0 si praeteritos referat mihi Juppiter annos, $O$ if Jupiter would give me back my bygone years!
4. The particle is sometimes omitted in the poets: as, tēcum lūdere sīcut ipsa possem, $O$ that I could sport with thee like her!
5. The subjunctive, in the third person, is sometimes used in communds and prohibitions:

As, aut bibat aut abeat, let him either drink or depart; puer tēlum ne habeat, let not a boy have a weapon.
6. The subjunctive, in the second person, is used of a subject that is only assumed ; rarely of a definite person, and then mostly in the poets :
As, injūrias fortūnae dēfugiendo relinquas, you must escape the wrongs of fortune by fight; si sciens fallo, tum me, Juppiter optime maxime, pessimo lēto afficias (Liv.).
7. The second person of the perfect subjunctive is used in prohibitions: as, ne transieris Ibērum.
8. In the imperfect and pluperfect, the advisory or imperative subjunctive is used of a thing which ought to have been done, as distinguished from what was actually done: as, potius diceret, he should rather have said; frümentum ne ēmisses, you should not have bought any wheat.
9. The want of a first person in the imperative is supplied by the subjunctive.
10. An exhortation may be given in Latin by a question with quin: as, quin imus, why are we not going?

## 204. CONCESSIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

1. Permission and concession are expressed by the subjunctive:

As, fruātur sāne hoc sōlācio, let him enjoy forsooth this consolation; nātūram expellas furcā, tamen usque recurret, you may drive nature off with a pitchfork, still she' ll be all the time running back; sit fur, granted that he be a thief; fuerit aliis; tibi quando esse coepit? suppose he has been so to others; when did he begin to be so to you?
2. The concessive subjunctive is often preceded by the particles quamvis, ut, and ne, or by licet:

As, homines, quamvis in turbidis rēbus sint, tamen interdum animis relaxantur, men, allowing that they are in circumstances as troubled as you please, still at times unbend; ut dēsint vīres, tamen est laudanda voluntas, though strength be wanting, yet praiseworthy is the will; ne sit summum
malum dolor, malum certe est, granting that pain is not the greatest evil,an evil it certainly is.

1. Quamquam is used mostly with the indicative in the best authors, but sometimes, especially in the poets and in Livy and later writers, with the subjunctive. Quamvis is found with the indicative sometimes in Livy, and often in later writers and in the poets ; in the same writers quantumvis and quamlibet are found with the subjunctive. The verb licet takes the present or perfect subjunctive. Cum when meaning although, and qui meaning although I (thou, he, etc.), take the subjunctive; but they are found with the indicative usually in Plautus and Terence, and sometimes in the classical period.
2. The compounds of si, when denoting concession, take the same moods and tenses as when denoting condition.
3. QUESTIONS OF DELIBERATION OR OF APPEAL.
4. Questions of doubt or of appeal take the subjunctive :

As, quid faciam? what am I to do? quid facerem? what was I to do? what could I do? or what ought I to have done?
2. The hesitation or doubt is often in regard to what may with the greatest propriety or fitness be done.
3. Questions with the subjunctive are sometimes potential; and they often imply a negative answer.

## 206. SUBJUNCTIVE OF PURPOSE.

The subjunctive is used to denote a purpose, after ut, quo, ne, and the relative qui :
As, Platōnem ferunt, ut Pȳthagorēos cognosceret, in Italiam vēnisse, they say that Plato came to Italy in order that he might become acquainted with the Pythagorēans; Dionȳsius, ne tonsöri collum committeret, tondēre fīlias suas docuit, Dionysius taught his daughters to shave, in order that he might not entrust his neck to a barber; medico puto aliquid dandum, quo sit studiōsior, I think the physician should have something given to him that he may be more zealous; Clūsīni lēgātos Rōmam qui auxilium a senātu peterent mīsēre, the Clusini sent ambassadors to Rome to ask aid from the Senate.

1. Qui ( $\delta 220$ ) in such clauses is equivalent to ut is, quo to ut eo. When quo is used with comparatives, the ablative denotes the measure ( $\xi \mathbf{1 7 6}$ ).
2. Relative adverbs, also, may be followed by the subjunctive of purpose.
3. Ut ne and quo ne are sometimes used with clauses of negative purpose.
4. Ne is used in clauses denoting the purpose, not of the principal action, but of the mention of the action : as, ne dicam, not to say; ne longior sim, vale, not to be too long, good-bye.
5. Ne and nēdum take the subjunctive in the sense of much less; the prevention of the greater event being rhetorically regarded as the purpose of the less event: as, vix in tectis frigus vītātur; nēdum in mari sit facile abesse ab injüriā temporis, much less is it easy on the sea, lit., that it should not be easy.

## 207. SUBJUNOTIVE OF RESULT.

Ut, ut non, and quin, denoting a consequence or a result, take the subjunctive :
As, Verres Siciliam ita vexāvit, ut restitui in antīquum statum nullo modo possit, Verres so harried Sicily that it could in no way be restored to its ancient condition; ruere illa non possint, ut haee non concidant, those things cannot fall without these things falling with them; nunquam accēdo quin abs te abeam doctior, I never come near you, without going away more learned.

## SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES USED AS SUBJECTS, OBJECTS, OR APPOSITIVES.

208. The subjunctive is used in substantive clauses introduced by ut, that, ut non and quōminus, that not, which are the subjects of a verb :

As, accidit ut eo tempore in urbe essem, (it) happened that at that time $I$ was in the city; per me stetit quōminus hae fierent nuptiae, (it) was owing to me that this marriage did not take place; saepe fit ut ii qui dēbeant non respondeant ad tempus.

Note.-Such substantive clauses are the subjects of such verbs and phrases as fit, futūrum est, accidit, contingit, ēvenit, ūsu venit, est (it is the case that), sequitur, restat, reliquum est, super est, proximum est, extrēmum est, prope est, longe abest, tantum abest.
209. The subjunctive is used in substantive clauses introduced by ut, that, ne and ut ne, that not, which are the objects of a verb :

As, sol efficit ut omnia floreant, the sun causes that all things should flourish; vos adepti estis ne quem cīvem metuerētis, you have obtained that you should fear no citizen.

Note.-Such object clauses follow verbs signifying to effect, bring about, ask, persuade, advise, exhort, command, wish, strive, and the like.

1. After verbs of effecting, bringing about, ut non is also used.
2. When the object of these verbs is an opinion or belief, the accusative with the infinitive is generally used. Fac, suppose, always has the accusative with the infinitive.
3. Verbs of wishing, willingness, commanding, and their opposites, often take after them an accusative with the infinitive ( $(242$ ).-So generally jubeo.
4. Ut is sometimes omitted: as, dic veniat; fac cōgites qui sīs; sine te exōrem; Caesar Labiēno mandat, Rēmos adeat; oppidānos hortātur moenia dēfendant.
5. Volo, nōlo, mālo, sino, take the subjunctive in short and unambiguous expressions generally without ut: as, quid vis faciam? sine te exōrem; volo ut mihi respondeas. So facio, faxo ferant (Aen. ix. 155), and jubeo in poets and late writers.
6. Verbs signifying to hinder, resist, prevent, refuse, avoid, take the subjunctive with ne: as, impedior dolōre ne plūra dīcam, I am hindered from saying more; Rēgulus ne sententiam dīceret recūsāvit, refused to give his vote.
7. Ne is often omitted after cave ; impedio and prohibeo often, and caveo sometimes, have the infinitive.
8. Quöminus with the subjunctive may be used after verbs and phrases of hindering, or verbs implying resistance or refusal when qualified with a negative.
9. Quin with the subjunctive is used after verbs and phrases of resisting, detaining from, omitting, delaying, when they are negatived or questioned: as, vix me contineo, quin involem in eum; haud multum abfuit quin Ismēnias interficerētur.
10. After verbs meaning properly to hinder and forbid, quōminus is regularly used, quin very seldom; after those meaning to omit, only quin.
11. The subjunctive with ut, etc., is used in appositive clauses: as, damnātum paenam sequi oportēbat, ut igni cremārētur, it was necessary that the punishment of being burnt with fire should follow his condemnation.

## 213. AFTER VERbS of fearing.

After verbs and phrases of fearing, ut is translated by that not, ne by that:

As, timeo ne pereas, I fear you will perish; metui ut effugeres, $I$ feared you would not escape.

1. Pavidus sum, timor est, perīculum est, are examples of such phrases. The ut is the oblique interrogative how.

## 214. TEMPORAL CLAUSES.

Adverbs of time generally take the indicative when they simply denote actual time; but if they denote also cause, or purpose, or introduce general statements, they take the subjunctive.

1. Dum, dōnec, and quoad, take the present and imperfect subjunctive of an action expected or purposed:
As, exspeota dum Atticum conveniam, wait till I meet Atticus; multa bello passus, dum conderet urbem, much did he suffer in war, that he might found a city (while he was striving to found); rēx quattuor millia armātōrum, dum recens terror esset, Scotūssam mīsit, while the terror should be (as he expected) fresh in men's minds.

Note 1.-When meaning as long as, these adverbs take the indicative, unless a design is also expressed; in the sense of until they take the indicative if the event is thought of as really happening: as, Ti. Gracchus tamdiu laudābitur, dum memoria rērum Rōmānārum manēbit; dōnec rediit Marcellus silentium fuit; haud dēsinam dōnec perfēeero; Milo in senātu fuit eo die quoad senātus dīmissus est.

Note 2.-Dum, while, while yet, generally takes the present when two things are described as occurring simultaneously, or one is the occasion of the other: as, Tityre, dum redeo-brevis est via-pasce capellas, lit., while I am on way back, feed my kids; dum obsequor adulescentibus, me senem esse oblītus sum ; dum elephanti träjiciuntur, Hannibal equites ad castra mīserat. So also where waiting is spoken of : as, tu hic nos, dum eximus, interea opperībere, till we come out.

Note 3.-Chiefly in Livy and later historians, as Tacitus, after dōnec, so long as, until, the subjunctive is sometimes used of facts, where we generally have the indicative.
2. Priusquam and antequam take the subjunctive (1) when the occurrence, or prior occurrence, of an expected or purposed event is prevented, or (2) when the principal sentence is negative:

As, Rōmānus prius quam fores portārum öbicerentur, velut agmine uno irrumpit; is videlicet antequam veniat in Pontum, litteras ad Cn. Pompēium mittet; non ante datam cingētis moenibus urbem quam vos dīra fames . . . ambēsas subigat mālis consūmere mensas.

1. So potius quam, citius quam, and similar expressions.
2. The subjunctive is used after antequam and priusquam in general or indefinite statements: as, tempestas minātur antequam surgat.
3. The imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive are sometimes used in denoting a point of time, or an action which has really taken place: as, paucis ante diēbus quam Syrācūsae caperentur, Otācilius in Africam transmisit. This is analogous to the use of cum in narration.
4. The following are examples of the indicative of actual time : neque prius fugere dēstitērunt quam ad flūmen Rhēnum pervēnērunt; ante ferit amor quam cernimus hostem. (The imperfect is rarely used, and is then picturesque; the pluperfect never.)
5. The indicative is occasionally found even when the occurrence is a thing to be prevented.
6. The present indicative, of actions strictly future, occurs: as, ante quam de accūsātiōne ipsā dīco, de accūsātōrum spe pauca dīcam.
7. Cum (quom, quum) takes the subjunctive when it means because, since, or although:

As, quae cum ita sint, now since these things are so; cum mīlites perīculum verērentur, non audēbant cum hostibus confligere, becuuse the soldiers feared danger, etc.; Pyladēs cum sīs, dices te esse Oresten? when (i.e. although) you are Pylădes, will you say that you are Orestes?

1. In early Latin, the indicative is more common; and it is found sometimes even in Cicero.
2. Cum takes the subjunctive when it makes a kind of comparison, or denotes a contrast, and may be translated while on the other hand, whereas.
3. Cum, when, takes the indicative in the present, futures, and perfect :

As, cum tacent, clāmant; sed plūra, cum ista cognōro; cum Caesar in Galliam vēnit, alterius Gallōrum factiōnis principes erant Aedui, alterius Sēquani.
Note 1.-Cum takes the perfect indicative (or historical present) if the action is conceived as a point of time coincident with the main action. (Fischer.)

Note 2.-If when means in doing, cum takes the indicative: as, amice facis quom me laudas, in praising me.

Note 3.-Cum takes the indicative when itmeans from the time when, since.
5. Cum, when, generally takes the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive, especially when the time is also the cause or occasion of the action stated in the principal sentence :
As, cum mīlites de hostium adventu ēdocērentur, continuo summo pugnandi ardōre flagrāvērunt; Alexander, cum interēmisset Clītum, vix a sēsē manus abstinuit.

1. Sometimes the only reason that can be seen for this subjunctive after cum temporal is the secondary or subordinate character of the temporal clause.
2. Especially in the ante-classical writers and Cicero, cum may take an imperfect indicative, if there is an imperfect or aorist in the principal sentence.
3. The imperfect, whether in the subjunctive or indicative, is used if the action is conceived as occupying a period of time within which the main action took place. (Fischer.)
4. Cum may take a pluperfect indicative, when a demonstrative marks
the point of time: as, tum cum in Asiā res magnas permulti āmīserant, at the very time when many persons had lost great properties in Asia.
5. Cum meaning as often as takes the pluperfect indicative in Cicero and Caesar, there being an imperfect in the principal sentence. Livy and the later historians use the subjunctive.

## 215. CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

1. In conditional sentences, the clause containing the conditron is called the pro'tăsis, and that containing the conclusion is called the apo'dŏsis. The protasis is often introduced by si, if, nisi or si non, unless, if not.
Note 1.-Nisi denies a negative supposition; si non supposes a negative: as, nēmo fere saltat sōbrius, nisi forte insānit, hardly any sober person dances, unless perhaps he is mad (denying the supposition that he is not mad); si non quaeret, nullus dixeris, if he shall not ask, you will say nothing (making the supposition that he will not ask).
Note 2.-The compounds of si, etsi, etiamsi, tametsi, are used in conditional clauses with the same moods and tenses as si itself.
2. In simple conditions, which imply nothing about the truth or falsity of the supposition made, yet in form are stated as fucts, the indicative is often found.

The apodŏsis, or following clause, is usually in the indicative or imperative, but it may be in the subjunctive of modest assertion, wish, exhortation, or prohibition :

As, si hoc dīcis, erras; parvi sunt foris arma, nisi est consilium domi; si nōles sānus, curres hydrōpicus; haud errāvero, si a Zēnōne disputātiōnis principium duxero; si occīdi, recte fēci; sed non occīdi; si quid in te peccāvi, ignosce; mīrer, si vāna vestra auctōritas est; si sciens fallo, tum me pessimo lēto afficias.

Note 1.-The combinations of tense may be as various as the logic of language allows.

Note 2.-In all forms of conditional sentences, si is sometimes omitted: as, rīserit, adrīde ; dedisses huic animo par corpus, fēcisset quod optābat, had you given.
3. In conditions stated merely as thought of, the subjunctive, either in the present or perfect, is used both in the protasis and the apodosis :

As, nec possim, si velim, nec velim fortasse, si possim ; si exsistat hodie ab inferis Lycūrgus, gaudeat mūrōrum Spartae ruīnis; si scieris aspidem occulte latëre uspiam, improbe fēceris nisi monueris alterum ne assideat.
Note 1.-The time is either present or future. The present subjunctive is often used of a future contingency, and the perfect like a future perfect.

Note 2.-The primary tenses of the subjunctive may be used even in a condition contrary to fact: as, tu si hic sis, aliter sentias; but this is simply avoiding to add to the statement of the pure supposition an indication of its quality as false.

Note 3.-The apodosis may be in the indicative; especially in the case of verbs of ability or duty, or of est with longum, immensum, infīnitum, or a gerundive : as, hi te homines neque debent adjuvāre si possint, neque possunt si velint; immensum est, si velim singula referre; si valeant homines, ars tua, Phoebe jacet (here the certainty is emphasized).
Note 4.-The second person singular of the subjunctive represents an indefinite subject, you being used in a lively way for some one, any one.
4. In conditions stated as contrary to fact, both in protasis and apodosis the imperfect subjunctive is used of present or general time, and the pluperfect subjunctive of past time :

As, pācem non peterem, nisi ūtilem crēderem, I would not seek peace, if I did not believe it advantageous (the supposition that I did not believe it advantageous is contrary to the fact) ; si Metelli fidei diffīsus essem, jūdicem eum non retinuissem; ulla si tibi poena nocuisset unquam, crēderem; consilium, ratio, sententia nisi essent in senibus, non summum consilium majöres nostri appellassent senätum.

1. The imperfect is sometimes found of past time, by a liveliness of speech similar to that in the use of the historical present.
2. The imperfect is sometimes used in conditional sentences of continued action in the past.
3. The indicative is sometimes found where either the condition or the conclusion is stated in a lively manner as if a fact: as, Antōni gladios potuit contemnere, si sic omnia dixisset, he really could have despised; lābēbar longius, nisi me retinuissem; pons sublicius iter paene hostibusdedit, ni unnus vir fuisset, Horātius Cocles. The last two examples may be explained by supplying an apodosis for the following conditional clause : I was slipping, and should have fallen, had I not checked myself; almost gave a way, and would have given it.
4. When the apodosis itself depends upon a clause requiring to be followed by the subjunctive, instead of the pluperfect subjunctive the periphrastic perfect subjunctive is used.
5. The periphrastic pluperfect subjunctive is sometimes found in a dependent question, after a secondary tense.

## 216. MIXED CONDITIONAL CONSTRUCTIONS.

In Latin, as in all other cultivated tongues, various unusual combinations of moods and tenses in the protăsis and apodŏsis sometimes occur, the propriety of which is shown in each instance by general principles of language.

## 217. OTHER WAYS OF DENOTING CONDITIONS.

1. A condition may be denoted by a participle, an adjective, or an ablative absolute, or be merely implied in the context :

As, uno proelio victus ( $=$ si victus esset) Alexander bello victus esset; animi magnitūdo, remōtā commūnitāte hūmānā ( $=$ si remōta sit commūnitas) feritas sit quaedam et immānitas; nēmo sine spe immortālitātis (= nisi spes esset) se pro pătriā offerret ad mortem; illīus impulsu ( $=$ si ab illo impulsa essent) moenia mōta forent.
a. So sometimes the apodosis:

As, vir, nisi in līberā cīvitāte nātus esset, memorābilis, a man (who would be) worthy of renown, had he not been born in a free state.
2. A concessive clause may serve as a condition :

As, ut ratiōnem Plato nullam afferret, ipsā auctöritāte me frangeret, even if Plato adduced no argument.
3. Dum, modo, dummodo, with or without ne, if only, if only not, take the subjunctive.
4. A question, or an imperative, may serve as a condition.
5. Clauses introduced by temporal or local adverbs are sometimes equivaleut to conditional clauses.

## 218. GNOMIC SUBJUNCTIVE.

The subjunctive, generally in the second person singular, is often used in general maxims: as, bōnus segnior fit ubi nĕglegas, a good man's energy declines when you neglect him.

## 219. SUPPRESSEED PROTASIS.

A condition is sometimes not expressed:
As, hoc tantum bellum quis umquam arbitrārētur ūno anno confici posse, who would think? id velim mihi ignoscas, $I$ should like; libenter omnibus omnīs opes concesserim, I would grant.

1. The unexpressed condition may be if occasion arose, if a trial were made, if $I$ (or other person) were there, were to do what the expressed verb implies, and the like.
2. Cases of this kind may often be explained more simply as instances of the subjunctive's implying directly willingness or inclination.
3. The second person singular is used where the subject is indefinite (you meaning any one):

As, maesti, orēderes victos, redeunt, you would believe them conquered.

## 220. OMITTED APODOSIS IN SENTENCES OF COMPARISON.

With quasi, ut si, velut si, ac si, tamquam si, sīcuti, ceu, etc., the verb of the apodosis is often omitted :
As, ita honöres petunt, quasi honeste vixerint, as if they led honorable lives, i. e., as they would seek them, if they led, etc.

1. With tamquam and velut, the si also is sometimes omitted.
2. The omitted verb is a hypothetical repetition of the verb of the principal sentence.
3. There is a similar omission when si is used in wishes ( $(203,3)$.

## 221. RELATIVES IN THE PROTASIS.

The protassis in a conditional sentence may be introduced by a relative: as, qui ( $=$ si quis) vidēret equum Trojānum intrōductum, urbem captam diceret; haec qui videat, nonne cögätur confitēri deos esse, if any one sees this, will he not be compelled?

1. The same mood and tense are used as in ordinary conditional sentences.

## 222. RELATIVE CLAUSES OF PURPOSE.

A relative clause denoting a purpose, and equivalent to ut with a personal or demonstrative pronoun, takes the subjunctive:
As, Clūsini lēgātos Rōmam qui auxilium a senātu peterent mīsēre, to seek aid from the senate ( $q u i=u t i i$, that they should seek aid); homini nātūra addidit ratiōnem, quā regerentur animi appetītus, that by it the passions of the soul might be governed.

Note 1.-A relative clause denoting a destination takes the subjunctive: as, Germāni neque Druǐdes habent, qui rēbus dīvīnis praesint, to preside over their religious ceremonies.
Note 2.-A relative clause may be introduced by a relative particle (as, ubi, quo, unde), as well as by a relative pronoun.

## 223. RELATIVE CLAUSES DEFINING A QUALITY.

1. A relative clause defining a quality of an antecedent, takes the subjunctive :
As, L. Pīnārius erat vir ācer et qui nihil in fide Siculōrum repōneret, one who trusted nothing, etc.; Syrācūsāni, homines perīti, qui etiam occulta suspicāri possent, etc., such as could.

Note 1.-Such clauses are similar to clauses of result, qui being equivalent to talis ut is.

Note 2.-The antecedent is frequently a demonstrative, as is, talis, tantus, tam, etc.: as, ea est Rōmāna gens quae victa quiescere nesciat; innocentia est affectio tālis animi quae noceat nēmini; quis potest esse tam āversus a vēro qui neget, etc.
2. The adjectives dignus, indignus, idōneus, aptus, sōlus, ūnus, prīmus, ultimus, are often followed by a relative with the subjunctive completing their meaning :

As, digna res est quam diu consīderēmus, the matter is worthy of our long consideration; sōla est in quā merito culpētur pecūniae cupiditas, the only thing in which he can be rightly blamed.
Note.-The infinitive after adjectives of this kind is frequent in poets, but rare in prose: as, legi dignus, worthy of being read. Ut with the subjunctive is sometimes found.
3. Indefinite and interrogative pronouns, and general negatives, are defined by relative clauses with the subjunctive:

As, est aliquid quod non oporteat; quis est qui ūtilia fugiat? nēmo est qui haud intellegat; nihil est quod tam miseros faciat quam impietas et scelus.

1. In a negative relative clause, depending on a negative or interrogative clause, qui non (qui nunquam, qui nusquam) may be used, or quin for qui non: as, nec quisquam rēx Persārum potest esse, qui non ante Magōrum disciplinam percēperit; nihil est quin (=quod non) male narrando possit dēprāvāri ; nullum intermīsi diem quin (=quo non) scrīberem, without writing.
2. Quin rarely stands for any case except the nominative or ablative; but exceptions occur: as, nego ullum vas fuisse, quin (=quod non) Verres conquīsierit.
3. Indefinite general expressions are defined by a relative clause with the subjunctive:

As, sunt qui discessum animi a corpore putent esse mortem, there are those who think, etc.; pauciōres viri reperti sunt qui suas cupiditātes quam qui hostium cōpias vincerent.

Note.-Such expressions are est qui, sunt qui, reperītur qui; habeo, invenio, reperio qui; exstitit qui.
5. A relative clause after a comparative with quam takes the subjunctive:

As, Campāni mājōra delīquerant quam quibus ignosci posset, greater offences than could be pardoned.
Note.-Quam ut is also found, and even quam alone, without a relative: as, mājor sum quam ut mancipium sim mei corporis, I am too great to be the slave of my body.
6. Relative clauses restricting a general assertion may take the subjunctive :
As, ex örātōribus Atticis antiquissimi sunt, quōrum quidem scripta constent, Periclēs et Alcibiadēs, of those at least whose writings are known; Epicūrus se ūnus, quod sciam, sapientem profiteri est ausus, as far as I know.

1. This subjunctive is used especially with qui quidem, qui modo.

## 224. QUI MEANING BECAUSE HE.

A relative clause expressing the reason of the leading proposition takes the subjunctive:

As, miseret tui me, qui hunc tantum hominem facias inimicum tibi, because you make ; O fortūnāte adulescens, qui tuae virtūtis Homērum praecōnem invēneris, in that you have found.
Note 1.-The assigning of the reason is strengthened by using ntpote qui, ut qui, or praesertim qui, with the subjunctive. Quippe qui takes the subjunctive, or in some writers, as Sallust and Livy, the indicative.
Note 2.-The indicative is common, particularly in old Latin.
Note 3.-The relative pronoun followed by quia or quoniam generally takes the indicative.

## 225. QUI MEANING ALTHOUGH HE.

Qui equivalent to although with a personal or demonstrative pronoun takes the subjunctive :
As, nosmet ipsi, qui Lycūrgei a principio fuissēmus, quotīdie dēmītigāmur, though we had been strict as Lycurgus.

1. On the indicative in such clauses, see $\& 204,1$.

## 226. SUBJUNCTIVE DEPENDENT ON ANOTHER SUBJUNCTIVE OR AN INFINITIVE.

A relative clause forming an essential part of a sentence whose verb is in the subjunctive or the infinitive, takes the subjunctive:
As, erat in Hortensio memoria tanta ut, quae sēcum commentātus esset, ea sine scripto verbis eisdem redderet, quibus cögitāvisset; non is sum, qui, quicquid vidētur, tāle dīcam esse, quāle videātur; spem afferunt posse animos, cum e corporibus ex̣cēsserint, in caelum pervenïre.
Note 1.-If a fact is to be stated as such, the indicative mustrbe used. In many cases it seems indifferent whether the indicative or subjunctive be chosen.

Note 2.-The incorporated clause may be introduced by a relative adverb or conjunction, as well as by a pronoun.

## 227. RELATIVES WITH THE INDICATIVE.

In any of the uses of the relative, after affirmative expressions, the indicative may be found when a fact is stated or emphasized, rather than a quality or a thought.

1. Thus the indicative may be used in simple definitions of existing things or persons or classes: as, Sp . Thorius, is qui agrum publicum lēge vectīgāli levāvit; eae artes, quas qui tenent ēruditi appellantur; utrum tibi commodum est, êlige; virtus est ūna quae nunquam vi ullā labefactāri potest; sunt multi qui ēripiunt aliis quod aliis largiantur; sunt qui non habeant, est qui non cürat habēre, there is one whom I have in mind (perhaps the poet himself), who certainly does not care to have; Catōnem vēro quis nostrōrum ōrātōrum, qui quidem nunc sunt, legit?

## 228. ORATIO OBLIQUA.

Note.-When a reported statement, question, or supposition is dependent upon such a verb as said, or some similar expression, in such a way as to change any of the pronouns, cases, moods, or tenses used by the original speaker, the narrative is called indirect, or örätio oblīqua.

In örätio recta, or direct narration, on the contrary, the very words of the speaker or writer are quoted.

1. In ōrātio oblīqua principal clauses take the infinitive, generally with a subject-accusative ; dependent clauses take the subjunctive:
As, Antōnius docet, artem eārum rērum esse, quae sciantur; ōrātōris autem omnem actiōnem opīniōnibus, non scientiā, continēri; quia et apud eos dīcat, qui nesciant, et ipse dīcat, quod nesciat.
In örātio recta we should have: ars eārum rērum est, quae sciuntur; ōrātōris autem omnis actio opīniōnibus, non scientiā, continētur; nam et apud eos dieit, qui nesciunt, et ea dieit, quae nescit ipse.
2. Dependent clauses are chiefly relative, or introduced by si, cum, dum, quod, or quia.
3. Occasionally short relative clauses are attracted into the infinitive. Those relative sentences in which qui $=$ et is or nam is, quum $=$ et tum, etc., usually have the infinitive.
4. Dum is sometimes found with the indicative, especially in the poets: as, dic hospes Spartae nos te hic vidisse jacentes, dum sanctis patriae lĕgibus obsequimur.
5. The imperative in oratio recta becomes the imperfect subjunctive in ōrātio oblīqua:

As, fidem Pompēii implōrārent: praestāret quod recēpisset, calling on him to make good the promise he had made; in oratio recta, praesta quod recēpisti.

1. But the present and perfect subjunctive are sometimes found. (See \& 228, 9.)
2. Questions to which an answer is expected, are put in the subjunctive in ōrātio oblīqua:

As, Vêios jam fore in potestāte populi Rōmāni : quid de praedā faciendum censērent? [Camillus reported] that Veii would soon be in the power of the Roman people, [and asked] what they thought should be done with the booty; in oratio recta, quid de praedā faciendum censētis?
4. Mere rhetorical questions are generally treated as belonging to the principal clause, and are put in the inflnitive in ōrātio oblīqua:

As, quid esse turpius quam auctōre hoste capere consilium ? [the military tribunes asked indignantly,] what could be baser than to shape one's plans by an enemy's advice? in oratio recta, quid est turpius?
5. When an indicative is found in ōrätio oblīqua, it gives an assertion of the narrator, not of the person whose speech is reported:
As, Caesar per explōrātöres certior factus est, ex eā parte vici quam Gallis concesserat, omnes discessisse, Caesar was informed through scouts that all had retired from that part of the town which he had granted to the Gauls. Quam Gallis concesserat is Caesar's explanation for his readers. Had it been part of what the scouts said, concessisset would have been used.
6. The imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive, in the apodosis to a conditional sentence in oratio recta, are in oratio obliqua expressed in the active voice by the future participle with fuisse: in the passive by the periphrase futürum fuisse at. The future participle with esse is used also for the prosent (and sometimes for the imperfect) subjunctive active; and fore or futürum esse at for the present (and sometimes for the imperfect) subjunctive passive.
7. The ordinary perfect infinitive is sometimes found, representing the pluperfect subjunctive of the oratio recta, in the same way as the indicative is sometimes used for the subjunctive in independent sentences.
8. The tenses of the infinitive are present, perfect, or future, according as the time would have been present, past, or future in the örätio recta.
9. The tenses of the subjunctive are usually the imperfect and the pluperfect, especially in commands or questions; but the present and perfect are sometimes used, especially if the verb on which the whole indirect narration depends is in the present.
10. The two methods of reporting speech are illustrated in the following extract :

Oratio Recta.
Si pacem populus Romanus cum Helvetiis faciet, in eam partem ibunt atque ibi erunt Helvetii, ubi tu eos constitueris atque esse volueris ; sin bello persequi perseverabis, reminiscitor et veteris incommodi populi Romani et pristinae virtutis Helvetiorum. Quod improviso unum pagum adortus es, cum ii qui flumen transierant suis auxilium ferre non poterant, ne ob eam rem aut tuae magnopere virtuti tribueris aut nos despexeris. Nos ita a patribus majoribusque nostris didicimus, ut magis virtute, quam dolo contendamus aut insidiis nitamur. Quare ne commiseris ut hic locus ubi constitimus ex calamitate populi Romani et internecione exercitus nomen capiat aut memoriam prodat.

## Oratio Obliqua.

(Is ita cum Caesare egit): Si pacem populus Romanus cum Helvetiis faceret, in eam partem ituros atque ibi futuros Helvetios, ubi eos Caesar constituisset atque esse voluisset: sin bello persequi perseveraret, reminisceretur et veterisincommodi populi Romani et pristinae virtutis Helvetiorum. Quod improviso unum pagum adortus esset, cum ii qui flumen transissent suis auxilium ferre non possent, ne ob eam rem aut suae magnopere virtuti tribueret aut ipsos despiceret : se ita a patribus majoribusque suis didicisse, ut magis virtute, quam dolo contenderent aut insidiis niterentur. Quare ne committeret ut is locus ubi constitissent ex calamitate populi Romani et internecione exercitus nomen caperet aut memoriam proderet.

## 229. PRONOUNS IN ORATIO OBLIQUA.

Instead of pronouns of the first and second persons, se, suus, ipse, is, and ille are used in oratio obliqua. Se and suus refer to the subject of the verb on which the narrative depends, unless another subject is introduced, in which case the reference is to be determined by the general sense.

1. Nos and noster are sometimes used by Caesar of the Roman people or Roman army generally.
2. Quisque, quisquam, quis, with the reflexive pronoun, sometimes show that the reflexive is to be referred to the subject of the clause in which it stands.
3. Ipse, by agreeing with the subject of a clause in which there is a reflexive pronoun, shows the reference of that pronoun to the subject of the clause, rather than to the principal subject: as, nātūra movet infantem ut se ipse dīligat. (Without ipse, se might have been referred to nātūra.)
4. Ipse may stand for se when antithetic to some other word (a noun, suus, or another pronoun) ; it then refers to the principal subject: as, pertimuērunt ne ab ipsis descisceret et cum suis in grātiam rediret, the Lacedaemonians feared that he would withdraw from themselves, and return into favor with his oun countrymen.
5. Hic and iste are rarely used in oratio obliqua.
6. Instances are found of is, ejus, where the ordinary rules would require se or suus.

## 230. VIRTUAL ORATIO OBLIQUA.

A clause expressing the thoughts, words, or alleged reasons of another than the writer, takes the subjunctive.

1. Indirect statements of one's own former thoughts or words may take the constructions of the ōrātio oblīqua.
2. While special rules are convenient for use, indirect questions, ōrātio oblīqua, and petītio oblīqua, may all be referred to the same principle.

Note.-The term petītio obliqua is applied to dependent constructions following verbs of wishing, commanding, permitting, caring, striving, fearing, and the like.

## 231. INDIRECT QUESTIONS.

## 1. Indirect questions take the subjunctive:

As, ne ūtile quidem est scire, quid futūrum sit, it is not even advantageons to know what is to be in the future; quālis sit animus, ipse animus nescit; nātūra dēclārat quid velit.

Note 1.-An indirect question is a dependent clause introduced by an interrogative pronoun or particle, and depending on some other verb or proposition.

Note 2.-All the words which are used in direct questions with the indicative take in dependent interrogative clauses the subjunctive; as, quis, quae, quid; qui, quae, quod; quot, quālis, quantus, quam, quando, ubi, unde, quāre, cur, uter, quo, quōmodo, quemadmodum, utrum, an, ne (enclitic), num. Sometimes also si.
2. Sometimes in the older writers, and occasionally in Horace and Vergil, an indicative is found in indirect questions: as, adspice ut antrum silvestris räris sparsit labrusca racēmis, see how the wild labrusca has sprinkled the cave with scattered grapes.
3. An interrogative clause sometimes accompanies the phrase quid ais,
the imperatives dic, vide, quaere, cedo, or the indicative quaeso, without being dependent on them, and hence has its verb in the indicative.
4. After nescio quis, nescio quid, nescio qui, nescio quod, nescio quōmodo, mïrum quam, mīrum quantum, nimium quantum, and some similar expressions, which have come to express a single idea, the indicative is used, as it would be after aliquis, etc. But dubito an, nescio an, haud scio an, are of course followed by the subjunctive.

## 232. CAUSAL CLAUSES.

Causal conjunctions, quod, quia, quoniam, quando, take the indicative when the writer states the cause or occasion as a fact, on his own responsibility, but the subjunctive if the reason is given as believed or stated by another party.

In other words: Causal conjunctions take the indicative in direct discourse, the subjunctive in indirect (or virtually indirect):

As, laudo te, quod rem tam bene gessisti, that you have, as I see, managed, etc. ; Aristīdes expulsus est patriā, quod praeter modum justus esset, because, as the people said, he was too just ; Themistoclēs noctu ambulābat, quod somnum capere non posset, because, as he alleged, he could not sleep.

1. The subjunctive sometimes intimates that the reason given is not the true reason : especially with non quod, or non quo; after which the true reason is introduced by sed quod or sed quia with the indicative.
2. A writer or speaker may treat his own opinion as if it were that of another man, and thus use the subjunctive: intimating that at a certain time this was his opinion, without showing what his opinion now is ( $\ell 230,1$ ).
3. Quod takes the subjunctive of verbs meaning to say or think, when logically not these verbs, but the verbs depending upon them should have been in that mood : as, rediit, quod se oblitum nescio quid diceret (= quod oblītus esset, or, quod se oblītum esse diceēbat); multi praetōres quaestōres et lēgātos suos de prōvinciā dēcēdere jussērunt, quod eōrum culpā se minus commode audire arbitrārentur. So with nego, puto, etc.
4. After verbs denoting a feeling of pain or joy, admiration, thanks, complaint, quod may be used, or, more often, the accusative and infinitive; after verbs denoting the expression of such feelings, quod is more often used than the accusative and infinitive. The mood after quod is determined by general rules.
5. Quod is used in clauses explaining a demonstrative pronoun: as, contentus eo, quod ratio plëbēiōrum habita esset, content with this, that regard had been had, etc.

## 233. QUOD MEANING THE FACT THAT.

Quod is used with the indicative (or subjunctive in oratio obliqua) to mean the fact that, or as regards the fact that.

Utile est patrem adisse means the presence of the father is useful, without implying whether he is present or not ; ūtile est, quod pater adest, signifies the father is present, and his presence is useful.

Quod scrībis, te ad me ventūrum, ego te istic esse volo, as regards your writing that you will come to see me, I wish you to remain where you are. Quid quod eādem mente res dissimillimas comprendimus? what of the fact that, etc. Similarly nisi quod, with the exception that.

## Sequence of Tenses in the Subiunctive Mood.

234. The present and perfect are used in sentences dependent on primary tenses; the imperfect, aorist, and pluperfect, in sentences dependent on secondary tenses.

In other words : on primary tenses ( $\& 66,7$ ) primary tenses follow; on secondary tenses, secondary.

1. The historical present may be followed either by primary or by secondary tenses. In the former case the form governs, in the latter (which is more common), the meaning: as, rogat Rubrium ut quos ei commodum sit invītet; servis suis Rubrius ut januam clauderent imperat.
2. Even in sentences dependent on a secondary tense, the present is used of such actions as belong to the present time only: as, Siciliam ita vexāvit, ut ea restitui in antīquum statum nullo modo possit, he did such damage to Sicily, that it cannot be restored.
3. A secondary tense may be used in the statement of a general truth, if the law of sequence requires, although the present is preferred in English.
4. The true perfect, though a primary tense, is sometimes followed by secondary tenses.
5. The perfect is used in consecutive sentences of a result completed in the present time only ; and the historical perfect, or aorist, of an event simply regarded as in past time, without reference to its being contemporaneous or prior to other past events: as, $a$. Aemilius Paullus tantum in aerārium pecūniae invexit ut unīus imperātōris praeda tīnem attulerit tribūtōrum, has put an end; b. tantum opes crēverant, ut ne morte quidem Aenēae mōvēre arma Etrūsci ausi sint, did the Etrurians dare. Cicero rarely uses this aorist subjunctive; Nepos often.
6. Clauses following an accusative with the infinitive are governed in tense by the leading verb on which the accusative itself depends.
7. After the primary tenses, the future is represented by the present subjunctive, the future perfect by the perfect subjunctive; after secondary tenses, the future is represented by the imperfect, the future perfect by the pluperfect. But when future time is to be strongly marked, the active periphrastic conjugation is used (i. e., part. in -rus with sim or essem).
8. When the pluperfect subjunctive in the apodosis of a conditional sentence is subordinated, so as to form a clause of result or an indirect question, the periphrastic perfect subjunctive takes its place.

## The Infinitive.

235. The Infinitive is an indeclinable verbal noun: but it may have a subject or object; it contains the notion of time; it governs the case of its verb; and it is modified by adverbs, not by adjectives.

## 236. INFINITIVE AS SUBJECT, PREDICATE, OR APPOSITIVE.

The infinitive, with or without a subject-accusative, may be the subject or predicate of a finite verb, or used as an appositive:
As, turpe est fugere, to fly is disgraceful; vīvere est cōgitāre, living is thinking; vidētur sapiens esse, he seems to be wise; istuc ipsum, non esse cum fueris, miserrimum puto, I think this very thing most wretched, not to be when you have been.

1. The infinitive as subject is found chiefly with esse and impersonal verbs.

## 237. INFINITIVE AS OBJECT OF A VERB.

The infinitive, with or without a subject-accusative, may be the object of a verb :

As, vincere scis, Hannibal; victōriā ūti nescis, you know how to win a victory, Hannibal, you do not know how to use it; scio Caesarem abisse victōrem, I know that Caesar came off victorious.

## 238. INFINITIVE WITH A SUBJECT-ACCUSATIVE.

The infinitive with a subject-accusative is governed by verbs signifying to feel, think, know, say, and the like :

As, sentīmus nivem esse albam, we perceive by our senses that snow is white; crēdunt se neglegi, they believe that they are neglected; scio plērosque scripsisse, I know that most writers have recorded; nuntiat rēgi adversārios ejus in fugā esse, he informs the king that his enemies are in fight.

Note 1.-Such verbs are called verba sentiendi et dēclārandi. The principal verbs of this kind are audio, video, sentio, animadverto, cognosco, intellego, percipio, disco, scio, crēdo, arbitror, puto, opīnor, dūco, statuo, memini, recordor, oblīviscor; dīco, trādo, prōdo, scrībo, refero, nuntio, confirmo, nego, ostendo, dēmonstro, perhibeo, prōmitto, polliceor, spondeo, and some others.

Note 2.-For the accusative and infinitive after verbs of joy, pain, etc., see $\frac{8}{2} 232,4$.
Note 3.-Where a clause containing an accusative with an infinitive is followed by a relative clause in which the same verb is understood, the subject of the latter clause is in the infinitive: as, Platōnem ferunt censisse idem, quod Pýthagoram (sc. sensisse). So in clauses introduced by quam after a comparative.
a. Phrases equivalent to verbs, like certior factus est, auctor est, aliquem spes tenet, spem affero, etc., in like manner take the accusative and infinitive.
239. The accusative with the infinitive is the subject of the verb sum with a predicate, or of an impersonal verb:

As, accūsātōres multos esse in cīvitāte ūtile est, it is celvantageous that there should be many accusers in a state; lēgem brevem esse oportet, a lav ought to be brief; facinus est cīvem vinoīri.

1. The subject cannot be expressed with the infinitive when it is an indefinite person; hence we say ignoscere amico hūmānum est, to forgive a friend is becominy in a man; facinus est vincīre cīvem Rōmānum, to bind a Roman citizen is a crime.
2. The verbs sum, and those denoting to appear, to be considered, to be called, require the predicate, if declinable, to agree with the unexpressed subject in the accusative: as, contentum suis rēbus esse maximae sunt divitiae; magnis in laudibus tōtā ferē fuit Graeciā victōrem Olympiae citäri; fidēlem esse in minimo magnum est; non esse emācem vectigal est.
3. The impersonals licet, decet, oportet, opus est, necesse est, are joined with the infinitive active alone, or with an accusative with the infinitive in the passive: as, ex malis êligere minima oportet; ex malis êligi minima oportet.
4. The accusative with the infinitive stands by itself in exclamations, and in indignant questions:

As, te nunc, mea Terentia, sic vexāri, idque fieri meā culpā, for thee now, my dear Terentia, to be in such distress! and that this should happen by my fault! mēne incepto dēsistere victam, I, vanquished, give up what $I$ have undertaken?

1. In these cases the accusative with the infiuitive is the object of some uneкpressed thought or feeling.
2. Ot with the subjunctive is also used in exclamatory questions: as, victamne ut quisquam victrici patriae praeferat, that any one should prefer a conquered to a victorious country?

## 241. INFINITIVE AFTER CAN, WISH, OUGHT, AM ACCUSTOMED, ETC.

Verbs which require to be followed by a second verb with the same subject govern the infinitive of that second verb :

As, possum (or volo, audeo, dēbeo, soleo, etc.) hanc rem facere; vincere scis, Hannibal; victōriā ūti nescis; non dēstitit monēre; institit sequi; mātürat proficisci ; mitte ōrāre; ōdi peccāre; Antium me recipere cōgito; nēmo alteri concēdere in animum indūcēbat.

1. Such are verbs signifying will, power, duty, purpose, custom, beginning, continuance, ending, neglect, etc.; and in the poets other verbs admitting a similar meaning figuratively; also phrases of similar purport: as, habeo in animo, in animo est, consilium est, consilium cēpi, certum est, animum (or in animum) indūxi, etc.
2. Verbs denoting a determined purpose are found also with ut.
3. When these verbs are joined with esse, habēri, jūdicāri, vidēri, and the like, the predicate is put in the nominative: as, solet tristis videri; aude sapiens esse; merētur (scit, didicit) līber esse.
4. Volo, nōlo, mālo, cupio, opto, studeo, have a twofold construction: the infinitive without a subject-accusative is used after them when the subject remains the same; and when they are followed by esse, habēri, jüdicäri, vidēri, etc., the predicate is in the nominative: but the accusative with the infinitive is used when the subject is changed, or when the pronoun of the same person is repeated: as, volo ēruditus fieri; volo me ērudītum fieri; volo te ērudītum fieri; princegps esse māluit quam vidēri; principem se esse māluit quam vidēri.
5. The use of the nominative with the infinitive after other verba sentiendi et declarandi ( $\ell_{8} 238, \mathrm{n} .1$ ) is very rare and poetical : as, vir bonus et sapiens dignis ait esse parātus.
6. Vergil, in imitation of the Greek idiom, uses a participle in one passage instead of an accusative with the infinitive: sensit medios dēlapsus in hostes, instead of se dēlapsum esse.

## 242. INFINITIVE, ACCUSATIVE AND INFINITIVE, OR UT WITH THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

1. Verbs denoting willingness, unwillingness, permission, and necessity, commonly take the infinitive or the accusative with the infinitive, but sometimes the subjunctive.
2. Volo takes after it the accusative with the infinitive passive. With the perfect infinitive, esse is often omitted: as, hoc factum volo.
3. Volo ut is more rare, but is used to express a strong emphasis. Mālo takes either ut or the infinitive.
4. Patior and sino are generally followed by the accusative and infini-
tive, sometimes by at with the subjunctive; opto, concēdo, permitto, may have either the infinitive or ut; posco, postulo, flägito, cōgo, more frequently ut.
5. Verbs of resolving and endeavoring are followed by ut or ne when the dependent clause has a subject of its own; when the same subject remains, they more often have an infinitive.
6. Verbs of asking, advising, exhorting, persuading, are followed by ut or ne. They take the infinitive only exceptionally.
7. Jubeo and vēto take generally the accusative with the infinitive, or the infinitive alone, if the subject is a general word or easily understood; sometimes the subjunctive with (or rarely without) ut or ne: as, eos suum adventum exspectāre jussit; infandum jubes renovāre dolōrem; jussit ut nāves Euboeam peterent; jube mihi dēnuo respondeat; avārum vēto te fieri; dēspērātis Hippocratēs vētat adhibēre medicīnam. Impĕro, besides the subjunctive, takes an infinitive in early and post-Augustan Latin, but only the passive infinitive in Cicero and Caesar.
8. Many Latin verbs which we might suppose would take the accusative with the infinitive, take ut with the subjunctive, either exclusively, or admit the construction of the accusative with the infinitive besides.

Observation of the usage of classic writers, and reference to lexicons for the tyro, will gradually teach the constructions usual with any particular verb.

## 243. HISTORIC INFINITIVE.

The infinitive is sometimes used with a nominative, when we might expect the imperfect indicative :
As, pars cēdere, alii insequi; neque signa neque ordines observāre; ubi quemque perīculum cēperat, ibi resistere ac prōpulsāri ; arma, tēla, equi, viri, hostes, cīves permixti; nihil consilio neque imperio agi; fors omnia regere, some were retiring, others pursuing; keeping neither to their standards nor their ranks; where peril encountered each man, there was he resisting and repelling; arms, darts, steeds, men, foes, countrymen intermingled; nothing was proceeding by counsel or command; chance directed everything.

1. This is an absolute use of the infinitive. In time it is not always past, but sometimes present or general.
2. The historic infinitive is frequent in animated description. Only the present tense is used, except in praeteritives: as, ödisse, meminisse.

## 244. SPECIAL USES OF THE INFINITIVE.

1. The poets sometimes use the infinitive after verbs to express purpose or destination: as, pecus ēgit altos vīsere montes; frūges consūmere nāti; lōrīcam dōnat habēre viro.
2. The infinitive sometimes follows nouns: as, tempus est jam mājöra cōnāri.
3. In poetry and later prose the infinitive sometimes follows adjectives: as, cantāre perīti; niveus vidēri.
4. The infinitive is very rarely dependent on prepositions: as, multum interest inter dare et accipere.

## 245. PERSONAL CONSTRUCTION OF PASSIVES FOR IMPERSONAL.

Instead of an impersonal passive of a verb of saying, relating, thinking, believing, finding, perceiving, commandiny, or forbidding, or of the verb vidēri, followed by an accusative with the infinitive, a personal construction is preferred, what would be the accusative being made the subject of the passive verb, and the infinitive subjoined: as, lectitāvisse Platōnem Dēmosthenēs dīcitur, it is said that Demosthenes read Plato eagerly; malum mihi vidētur esse mors, it seems to me that death is an evil; vidēris mihi satis bene attendere, it seems to me that you are sufficiently heedful.

1. The personal form instead of the impersonal is sometimes found also in scrībor, dèmonstror, audior, intellegor, and other verbs. It is the regular construction with jubeor, vētor, and videor. Poets and later writers extend this usage widely.
2. Videor has a similar personal use in a parenthesis with ut: as, ut mihi vidēbar, as it seemed to me.
3. With verbs of saying and thinking, the impersonal form is more usual in the compound tenses : as, trāditum est Homērum caecum fuisse.

## 246. TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE.

The Tenses in the Infinitive represent time as present, past, or future, relatively to the time of the principal verb in the clause.

1. The perfect infinitive is found as the object of a verb:
$a$. When it is important to speak of the action or event as already done or ready: as, non potest non optasse, she cannot revoke the wish already made; but non potuit non optare, she could not help wishing; mälui dīxisse, I preferred to have done with speaking, i. e., to say no more; but mālui dīcere, I preferred speaking; dēbeo vīcisse, $I$ ought to be pronounced winner.
b. When the perfect is used like the Greek aorist. This conveys no idea of time, either as past or as continuing, but denotes a simple occurrence of the action. It is found in the oldest Latin and in Plautus and Terence, and was revived subsequently under Greek influence, as in Livy and the Augustan poets. It is not found in Caesar, Cicero, Sallust, and Tacitus.

Verg.: magnum si pectore possit excussisse deum; Horat.: sunt qui nōlint tetigisse.
2. But commentators have sometimes rashly called perfects infinitive aoristic, when they are true perfects and denote completed past time.
3. English and Latin idiom differ in the tense of the infinitive after verbs denoting power, daty, permission. In Latin the time is marked by the verb in the indicative, and the present infinitive is used, unless the action is to be stated as over before the time to which the leading verb refers: as, mihi ire licet, I may go; mihi ire licuit, I might have gone; facere dēbeo, I ought to do it; facere dēbui, I ought to have done it.
4. Memini is used with the present (and sometimes the perfect) infinitive of events at which the speaker himself was present: as, memini Pamphylum mihi narrāre, I remember Pamphylus's telling me. So sometimes after such expressions as memoriā teneo, scrībit, accēpimus.
5. For the future infinitive, both active and passive, the periphrase fore nt or futürum esse ut is often used.
6. Fore with the perfect participle, in deponent and passive verbs, corresponds to the future perfect.
7. In the compound infinitive, the participle often is alone expressed, and esse or fuisse omitted.

## The Imperative.

## 247. 1. The Imperative Present commands or entreats:

As, perge quo coepisti, ēgredere ex urbe, proficiscere, proceed on your chosen path, quit the city, go forth; pergite, adulescentes, atque in id studium in quo estis incumbite, go on, young men, and devote yourselves to that study on which you are engaged.
2. The Imperative Future may either entreat or command ; but it oftener commands, and is used especially in legal formularies: as, cum faciam vitulā pro frūgibus, ipse venīto, when I shall be sacrificing a calf for the crops, do you come yourself; rēgio imperio duo sunto, there shall be two magistrates with royal pover.

Note.-The imperative future often puts a command in connection with some other action, and denotes that something is to be done in future when, or as soon as, something else takes place or has taken place: as in the first example above, and, cum valētūdini tuae consulueris, tum consulito nāvigätiōni.
3. The second person of the Future Indicative may be substituted for the imperative in familiar style, in affirmative sentences, and the third person of the Present Subjunctive in advice or exhortation. The second person of the Present Subjunctive may be used of an indefinite subject.
4. Ne with the Imperative Present is found in poetry, but
is rare in prose. It is used in legal forms with the Imperative Future:

As, equo ne crēdite; hominem mortuum in urbé ne sepelīto nēve ūrito, thou shalt not bury or burn.
5. Instead of the negative imperative, we may have the second person of the Future Indieative with non, the second person of the Perfect Subjunctive with ne, and the third person of the Present or (rarely) the Perfect Subjunctive with ne: as, non facies; ne transieris Ibērum; illum jocum ne sīs aspernātus; puer têlum ne habeat; capessitẹ rempublicam, neque quemquam metus cēperit.
Note 1.-The second person of the present subjunctive may be used, both affirmatively and negatively, when the subject is indefinite : as, isto bono ūtare, dum adsit, cum absit, ne requīras.

Note 2.-As not is expressed by ne, so is nor by nēve or neu. But non and neque or nec are sometimes found in the poets. The non, however, often serves rather to qualify a single word in the sentence.
6. Periphrases of the imperative are made by fac, fac ut, cūrāut, velim, with the subjunctive, and in poetry by memento with the subjunctive or the infinitive; and negatively by fac ne, cave, nölim, with the subjunctive, by nolli, and in poetry parce, mitte, omitte, absiste, fuge, and similar words with the infinitive: magnum fac animum habeas, mind you have a lofty spirit; cūra ut valeas, take care of your health; aequam memento servāre mentem, remember to keep an even mind; cave facias, beware of doing it ; hoc nōlim me jocāri putes, I would not have you think I say this in jest; nölīte id velle quod fieri non potest, do not wish what cannot be; mitte sectāri, search not ; fuge suspicāri, do not suspect.
7. Imperative phrases are softened by the polite expressions sis $=$ si vis), sultis, sōdes, amābo, etc., please, pray: as, refer te, sis, ad vēritātem; hoc agite sultis; id agite, amābo.
8. An imperative of the perfect passive is found, though very rarely : as, admoniti este, Ov., and Caesar's famous cry, jacta ālea esto!

## Participles, Gerunds, and Supines.

248. Active participles govern the same cases as their verbs:

As, amans virtūtem; faventes rēbus Carthāginiensium; catulōrum oblīta leaena; arcens reditu tyrannum; ūtendum est aetāte.
249. Participles represent time as present, past, or future, relatively to the time of the principal verb :

As, Plato scrībens mortuus est, Plato died while writing; Alexander, Persidis fīnes aditürus, urbem Archelāo trādidit, Alexander, when about
to enter the borders of Persia, gave up the city to Archelāus; plēraeque scrībuntur örātiōnes habitae jam, non ut habeantur, most speeches are written after being delivered, etc.

1. The future participle sometimes denotes purpose: as, Alexander Hephaestiōnem in regiōnem Bactriānam mīsit, commeātus in hiemem parātūrum, Alexander sent Hephaestion into the Bactrian country to get provisions for the winter. See $\langle 2253, \mathrm{n}$.
2. The want of a present passive participle is supplied by a passive verb with a relative or particle: as, pueri, qui docentur, discunt (or cum docentur, dum docentur), childreu learn by being taught.
3. There being no participle corresponding to the English perfect active, except in deponent verbs, its want is supplied by an active verb, with a relative or particle, or by an ablative absolute passive: as, Tarquinium rēgem qui non tulerim, Sicinium feram, having refused to endure Tarquin as king, shall I endure Sicinius? Alexander, cum interēmisset Clitum, vix a se manus abstinuit, Alexander, having slain Clitus, hardly abstained from suicide ; Pompēius, captis Hierōsolymis, victor ex illo fäno nihil attigit, Pompey, having taken Jerusalem, in the very moment of victory, meddled with nothing belonging to that temple.
4. The want of a future passive participle is supplied by a verb with a relative: as, grāta super veniet quae non spērābitur hōra.

## 250. THE CIRCUMSTANTIAL PARTICIPLE.

Participles are often used to denote the circumstances of an action, such as time, cause, manner, means, purpose, condition, concession:

As, Herculem Germāni itūri in proelia canunt, the Germans when about to march to battle chant Hercules; Hephaestio longe omnium amicōrum cärissimus erat Alexandro, cum ipso pariter ēducātus, of all his friends He phaestion was by far the dearest to Alexander, because he had been brought $u p$ with him ; aēr effluens huc et illuc ventos efficit, the air by flowing this way and that produces the winds; mīlites, pinlis missis, phalangem hostium perfregeerunt, the soldiers by hurling their javelins broke through the phalanx of the enemy ; Catilina ad exercitum proficiscitur, signa illātūrus urbi, Catiline goes to the army, intending to march on the city; epistulae offendunt, non lōeo redditae, letters annoy, if not delivered in season; scripta tua jam diu exspectans, non audeo tamen fāgitāre, though Ihave long been looking for your writings, yet I dare not demand them.

1. Clauses of concession are sometimes called adversative.
2. Nisi, etsi, quamquam, quamvis, quasi, may be found with participial conditional and adversative clauses, especially in later writers.

## 251. SOME PARTICIPIAL CONSTRUOTIONS.

1. Participles may be used instead of a relative clause: as, Pisistratus Homëri libros, confüsos antea, disposuit, Pisistratus arranged the books of Homer, which were heretofore confused.
2. The English idiom " without," followed by a participle or verbal noun, is often represented in Latin by the participle accompanied by some negative expression: as, Nätūra dedit ūsūram vītae, tamquam pecūniae, nullā praestitūtä die, Nature has given the loan of life, as it were of money, without fixing any day for repayment.
3. In such forms as hoc cognitum habeo, and the corresponding expression in Greek, we see the origin of the perfect tense in modern languages, as made up of the auxiliary have and the past participle. But in the classical languages the have is used in its full sense of present possession, and is no mere auxiliary. Besides habeo, teneo and possideo and other verbs are used in the same way with perfect passive participles.
4. The Perfect Participle is elegantly used when in English we should have a verbal noun :

As, anno urbis conditae, in the year from the building of the city; Prūsiam rēgem suspectum Rōmānis et receptus Hannibal et bellum adversus Eumenem mōtum faciēbat, both the reception of Hannibal and the beginning of war against Eumenes made king Prusias an object of suspicion to the Romans.

Note.-Livy, Tacitus, and Lucan use the neuter of the perfect passive participle as a passive verbal noun.
5. Still more frequently is the Gerundive used where we use a noun :

As, de urbe trādendā, concerning the delivery of the city; temperantia constat ex praetermittendis voluptātibus, temperance consists in abstinence from bodily pleasures; ante conditam condendamve urbem, before the actual or designed foundation of the city.
6. A Participle and Verb are often best translated by two verbs: as, Caesar scrībit se cum legiōnibus profectum celeriter adfore, Caesar writes word that he has set out with his legions and will soon arrive.
7. A Participial construction is often involved with an indirect question or a relative clause, so that it can hardly be translated without periphrase: as, cōgitāte quantis labōribus fundātum imperium, quantā virtūte stabilītam lībertatem ūna nox paene dēlērit, think how vast the toil that founded this empire, how great the valor that established this freedom, which a single night all but destroyed.
8. The nouns man, men, things, are frequently understood with Participles: as, beātos pūto, quibus datum est aut facere scribenda aut scribere
loquenda, I deem them blest, to whom it has been given either to do things worthy to be written, or to write things worthy to be spoken of; grande locūtüri nebulas Helicōne legunto, let those that would utter a sublime strain cull mists on Helicon.
9. Some Participles are sometimes used as Adjectives: such are neglegens, patiens, sapiens, doctus, horrendus, tremendus, venerandus, etc.
10. Some Participles are sometimes used as Nouns: such are amans, adulescens, sponsus, nupta, sponsa, coeptum, dictum, factum, praeceptum, etc. Neuter Participles so used are sometimes modified by Adverbs: as, vêrum est fortes et sapientes viros non tam praemia sequi solēre recte factōrum quam ipsa recta facta.

## Gerunds and Gerundives.

252. Gerunds govern the same case as their verbs:

As, spes satisfaciendi reipublicae; et agendi aliquid et dīligendi aliquos principia in nōbis continēmus; parsimōnia est ars re familiäri moderāte ūtendi.

1. A transitive gerund in classic authors seldom takes an accusative except of pronouns or neuter plural adjectives: as, aliquid, multa, omnia, etc. But it may do so for the sake of rhythm or perspicuity : as, salūtem hominibus dando.
2. Instead of the Gerund with its object in the Accusative, the Gerundive is generally used, the Gerundive taking the gender and number of its object, and the object taking the case of the Gerund :

As, tuendae urbis, of protecting the city (for tuendi urbem); ad liiberandos cīves, for freeing the citizens (for ad līberandum cīves).

Note.-This is the substitution of a passive for an active construction: thus, for consilium scrībendi epistulam, the design of writing a letter, we have more frequently consilium scrībendae epistulae, lit. the design of a letter to be written.
3. The Gerund is preferred where the Gerundive would cause an ambiguity as to gender.
4. The Genitive of Gerunds and Gerundives defines Nouns and Adjectives: as, ars canendi; scientia cīvitātis regendae; cupidus audiendi.
5. The Genitive of a Gerund is sometimes found governing a Genitive case instead of an Accusative : as, facultas agrōrum latrōnibus dōnandi.
6. The Genitive of the Gerund and Gerundive in the predicate after esse sometimes denotes the purpose which a thing serves or the end to which it tends: as, rēgium imperium initio conservandae lībertātis atque augendae
libertātis fuerat; tribūni plebis concordiam ordinum timent, quam dissolvendae maxime tribūniciae potestātis rentur esse.
7. In a few writers, especially later ones, the Genitive of the Gerund or Gerundive is used to denote the purpose of an action : as, Germānicus in Aegyptum proficiscitur cognoscendae antīquitātis. In better Latin causā or gratiä is added.
8. The genitives of the personal pronouns, mei, tui, etc., being really genitives of the neuter adjective pronoun, with them the Gerundive is used without variation for gender and number: as, sui conservandi; sui colligendi facultas, the power of collecting themselves together; vestri adhortandi causă, for the sake of exhorting you.
9. The Dative of Gerunds and Gerundives is used after adjectives which take a dative, and sometimes after nouns and verbs to express the purpose or design: as, aqua nitrōsa ūtilis est bibendo, nitrous water is useful for drinking; studere revōcandis rēgibus, to plot for recalling the kings.

1. To express purpose, the Accusative of the Gerund or Gerundive with ad, or ut with the subjunctive, is more common in Cicero.
2. The adjectives and verbs or phrases most used with the Dative of Gerunds and Gerundives are ūtilis, inūtilis, noxius, aptus, idōneus, par; studēre, intentum esse, tempus impendere or consūmere or insūmere, praeesse, operam dare, diem dicere, locum capere, sufficere, satis esse, deesse, and esse in the sense of serving for or being adequate to.
3. The following are examples of the predicative use after esse: quae diütinae obsidioni tolerandae erant, the things which were serviceable for enduring a long siege; dīvites, qui oneri ferendo erant, the rich, who were able to bear the burden; solvendo non eras, you were insolvent (lit., not adequate for paying, not able to pay).
4. The purpose of an office is stated in the Dative: as, triumvir dividendis agris, one of the three commissioners to divide the lands; tresviri rei publicae constituendae.
5. The Accusative of Gerunds and Gerundives is governed by prepositions: most commonly ad or inter ; sometimes ante, circa, in, ob, or post: as, haec ad jūdicandum sunt facillima ; magna summa ērogāta est in servos armandos.
Note-Instead of the accusative gerund with a direct object, the gerundive construction is always used: as, missus est ad animos rēgum perspiciendos.
6. The Accusative of the Gerundive, agreeing with an object, is used after such verbs as do, trādo, condū̄o, loco, prōpōno, cūro, habeo, to denote purpose: as, ēdiscendos fastos populo prōposuit, he published the calendar for the people to learn by heart ; Caesar pontem in Arare faciundum cūrat. (On the Accusative with ad, see $\langle\mathbf{2} 252,9,1$.)
Note-If the governing verb is put in the passive, the gerundive becomes a predicate nominative.
7. The Ablative of Gerunds and Gerundives is used of means, manner, or cause, or is governed by ab, de, ex, or in, rarely pro, and very rarely super : as, Caesar dando glōriam adeptus est; hodie stat Asia Lūculli institūtis servandis; de contemnendā morte; in accūsando atque in explicandis crīminibus operam consumpsi.
Note.-The ablative gerund is rarely used with a direct object depending on it, unless it be a neuter pronoun : as, nōmen lēgis Graece a suum cuique tribuendo ductum est.
8. The neuter Gerundive may be used impersonally, either withont case, or with the dative or ablative: as, bibendum est, we must drink; serviendum est lēgibus, it is right to comply with the laws; $\overline{\text { utendum }}$ est aetāte.

Note 1.-This is called by some grammarians the nominative of the Gerund.
Note 2.-In old Latin an object in the accusative is found: as, aeternas quoniam paenas in morte timendumst.
15. Transitive verbs have a personal gerundive construction: as, aqua bibenda est.
16. The Gerundive often takes a dative of the person concerned or to whom the action is related: as, moriendum est omnibus. ( $\& 157,1$.$) An$ ablative of the agent with ab may be used, if required for perspicuity.
17. The Gerundive when used attributively implies obligation, destiny, or desert; and in negative sentences it sometimes approaches the meaning of possibility:

As, venerandus a nöbis et colendus est, he should be worshipped and honored; dēlenda est Karthāgo, Carthage must be destroyed; laböres aut jam exhaustos aut mox exhauriendos, destined soon to be spent; vix erat crēdendum, it could scarcely be believed; labōres non fugiendos, that cannot be shunned.

## Supines.

## 253. ACCUSATIVE SUPINE.

The accusative supine, after verbs expressing or implying motion, denotes purpose:

As, lūsum it Maecēnas, dormītum ego, Maecenas goes off to play ball, I to go to bed.

Note.-Purpose is more often expressed in other ways: thus, for eunt consultum Apollinem, we may have ut consulerent, qui consulerent, ad consulendum, consulendi causā, and, less frequently, consultūri.

1. This supine may goveru a case: as, Hannibal dēfensum patriam revōcātus est, to defend his country.
2. The implication of motion is sometimes only indirect: as, coctum conductus sum, I was hired to cook.
3. Ire with the accusative supine means to set about : as, ultum $\overline{\mathrm{I}} \mathrm{r}$, to set about to revenge. Hence the use of the impersonal passive infinitive iri with the supine to make a passive infinitive future: as, audierat non datum īri filio uxōrem, lit., that there is not a going to give a wife to his son, i. e. that a wife will not be given to his son.

## 254. ABLATIVE SUPINE.

The supine in $-u$ is an ablative of specification. It limits fas, něfas, opus, and adjectives meaning good or evil, easy or difficult, pleasant or unpleasant, fit or unfit:

As, nĕfas visu, (horrible in the seeing) horrible to behold; turpe dictu, (shameful in the saying) shameful to say.

1. The ablative supine is found rarely after verbs: as, pudet dictu, Tac.
2. The supine in $-u$ is found very rarely as an ablative of separation: as, vilicus prīmus cubitū surgat, postrēmus cubitum eat (Cato).

## Particles.

## 255. ADVERBS.

1. Adverbs qualify verbs, adjectives, participles, and sometimes other adverbs:

As, prūdenter agit; male salsus; domus celeriter exstructa; satis bene.
2. Adverbs sometimes qualify nouns, but very rarely, and only when the noun is used as an adjective or participle, or when a participle is understood: as, admodum puer, very much like a boy, very young; lāte rēx (= lāte regnans); gravibus superne ictibus, blows coming from above; circa cīvitātum (of states round about), of neighboring states.

## 256. TWO NEGATIVES.

Two negatives destroy each other :
As, nullā non arte petītus, sought by every art (with no art untried).

1. Not only does non before a negative word (as nēmo, nunquam, nescio) make it affirmative, but neque gets the affirmative sense of et when followed by a negative word in the same proposition: as, neque haee non ēvēnērunt, and this came to pass indeed.
2. Non followed by ne-quidem remains negative: as, non fagio ne hos quidem mores, I do not shun even this character. So neque-neque, neve -neve, following a negative leading proposition, are translated like autaut. Ne non after vide must be rendered by whether.
3. Non modo, or non sōlum, is used before sed ne-quidem, or sed vix, where at first thought we should expect to find non modo non, non solum non. The negation in ne-quidem belongs conjointly to both clauses; or we may say, with Herzog, that it changes the affirmation of the verb to negation.
4. In a few cases two negatives strengthen the negation, as in Greek: an exceptional usage, from the language of common life.

## 257. CONJUNCTIONS.

1. Co-ordinative conjunctions ( $\% 101,2$ ) connect words or clauses which are on an equality with each other.
2. In quick and lively discourse the copulative conjunctions are sometimes omitted. This is called asynděton.
3. Three or more co-ordinate words may be connected each with the preceding by a conjunction; or the conjunction may be omitted entirely; or it may be omitted between the first members and que annexed to the last. Thus we may say fides et constantia et justitia, or fides, constantia, justitia, or fides, constantia, justitiaque.
4. Two words essentially different in meaning are separated by aut. Vel (for velis, choose you) denotes a distinction which is of no great importance, or relates only to the choice of an expression.
5. The meaning of -ve is similar to that of vel. With numerals it means or at most: as, bis terve, twice or (at most) three times; while bis terque means two or three times (at least).
6. When two words are united by a conjunction, which stands also before the first, withoutconnecting it with a preceding word, the first et is translated both, the first aut or vel, either, the first sive, whether, the first nec or neque, neither. So cum...tum, may be rendered by not only ...but also; both... and; tum... tum, at one time ... at another time.
7. After words of likeness, ac and atque signify as; after words of unlikeness, than, or sometimes from or to.
8. Subordinative Conjunctions ( $\} 101,3$ ) connect a secondary clause to a primary or leading clause.

## 258. INTERROGATIVE PARTICLES.

1. In simple questions, -ne asks only for information; nonne expects the answer yes; num expects the answer no:
As, sentisne, do you feel? nonne sentis, do you not feel? num sentis, do you feel? you do not feel, do you?
2. Ne is appended to the emphatic word. It remains true that the particle itself does not imply either an affirmative or a negative answer, although this emphasis sometimes gives a rhetorical effect similar to that of num or
nonne : as, potestne virtus servire, is it possible that virtue should be enslaved? (No.) Mēne istud potuisse facere putas, do you believe that $I$ would have done that? (Certainly not.) Videsne, ut in prōverbio sit ōvōrum inter se similitūdo, do you see, where he might have said, do you not see?
3. In conversational language, the final $e$ in -ne is often omitted: as, nostin, tūn; also a preceding s in some verbs: as, āin, scin, viden, audin, for äisne, etc.
4. Rarely in poetry, ne is appended to interrogative adjectives, and even to the relative pronoun.
5. Questions are sometimes found without any interrogative particle or pronoun. They generally denote surprise or some strong feeling, or are purposely abrupt.
6. In alternative questions, utrum or -ne are generally used in the first member of the sentence, and an in the second and subsequent clauses :

As, utrum nescis quam alte èscenderis, an pro nihilo id putas? vosne L. Domitium, an vos Domitius dēseruit?
7. Sometimes there is no interrogative particle in the first clause, and the second has an or (chiefly in indirect questions) -ne : as, èloquar, an sileam ? nihil interesse nostrā putāmus, valeāmus aegrīne sīmus.
8. Utrumne is sometimes found for utrum, anne for an.
9. Ne...ne, an ... an, are rare, and found chiefly in the poets; utrum ne, very rare.
10. Or not is annon, rarely necne, in direct questions, necne, rarely annon, in indirect: as, sortiētur, an non? sunt haec tua verba, necne? dii utrum sint, necne, quaeritur.
11. Those are not alternative (or disjunctive) questions in which aut is interposed, and not an : as, quid ergo, sōlem dīcam aut lūnam aut caelum deum, what then, shall I apply the name of God to the sun or moon or sky? Here there is no real opposition, but the three terms may all be equally affirmed or denied.
12. The old construction, utrum, which of the two? has after it -ne . . . an : as, utrum, studiōne id sibi habet, an laudi putat fore, si perdiderit gnātum? (Ter.) Utrum erat ūtilius, suisne servīre, an populo Rōmāno obtemperāre? (Cic.)
13. An stands not only in the second member of a disjunctive question, but also in simple questions used to complete and emphasize what precedes: asking, what must be the case otherwise, or what must be the case then; or answering a question under the form of a question; or adding in an interrogative form some conjecture respecting what is asked: as, necesse est quidquid prōnunties, id aut esse aut non esse. An tu dialecticis ne imbūtus quidem es? what you put forward must needs either be or not be. Or are you not acquainted with even the first elements of logic? sed ad 21*
haec, nisi molestum est, habeo quae velim. An me, inquam, nisi te audire vellem, censes haec dictūrum fuisse? do you, then, believe, etc. Quid āis? an vēnit Pamphilus? what do you say? Has Pamphilus come? nos hic te exspectāmus ex quōdam rūmōre, an ex litteris tuis ad alios missis, on the authority of some rumor, or (am I right?) of letters of yours sent to other persons.
14. In dependent clauses num means whether, and only asks the question; si is sometimes found in the sense of whether; and so an in later writers and the poets.
15. After haud scio, nēscio, dubito, dubium, or incertum est, and some other expressions of uncertainty, an means whether not, and the whole expression signifies perhaps; I am inclined to think that. (See $\%$ 231, 4.)
16. An answer in the affirmative may be given by etiam, ita or ita est, sic or sic est, vērum, vēro, factum, sāne, maxume, quidni? admodum, oppido, plāne, by a personal pronoun with vēro, or by the verb of the preceding sentence repeated.
17. An answer in the negative may be given by nōn, minume, nihil minus, ne... quidem.
18. Immo, nay, always corrects the preceding expression; but sometimes only to substitute a stronger affirmation.

## Order of Words.

259. As the connection and construction of words in Latin can be known from their inflection, their position is not determined by such strict and definite rules as in English, but admits of great variety. That order is to be preferred which is most easily understood, marks out the more emphatic words, and gives an agreeable sound and rhythm.

The following rules give some idea of the normal or most usual order. Many of them may be superseded, however, by the demands of rhythm or emphasis.

1. The subject is put first, its modifiers next, the verb last, and the object and other modifiers of the predicate are put between :

As, ego te ob egregiam virtutem semper amavi; cur ego tuas partes suscipio ? car M. Tullius P. Africani monumenta requirit, P. Scipio eum, qui illa sustulit, defendit?
Note.-When the subject is closely connected with a clause following the verb, it may be placed after the verb.
2. Poets use great freedom in the order of their words: as, Ponitur ad patrios barbara praeda deos. (Ov.)
3. The Preposition stands before the noun, either immediately, or with the interposition of such expressions only as qualify the noun: as, consul de bello ad populum tulit; sine ullo metu et summa cum honestate; haec officia pertinent ad earum rerum, quibus utuntur homines, facultatem; ad bene beateque vivendum.
4. The preposition is sometimes placed between an adjective which is emphatic, or a pronoun (or rarely a genitive case), and the noun: as, magna ex parte; tribus de rebus; paucos post menses; summa cum cura; ea de causa; qua in urbe; quorum de virtutibus; deorum in mente.
5. Some prepositions, chiefly dissyllabic, occasionally stand after a relative pronoun: as, is, quem contra venerat. (See \& 131, 5.) Cum is always suffixed to personal and usually to relative pronouns. (See ${ }_{8}$ 57, 7; \& 62, 9.)
6. The following examples show the freedom often used by the poets in placing their prepositions: avem caelo dejecit ab alto; foedera regum vel Gabiis vel cum rigidis aequata Sabinis.
7. Adverbs, and Oblique Cases of nouns and adjectives, stand before the verb or adjective to which they belong: as, bellum civile opinione plerumque et fama gubernatur; multi autem, Gnathonum similes, sunt loco, fortuna, fama superiores.

Note 1.-Adverbs may be placed for emphasis at the beginning or end of the sentence; and they may be inserted without emphasis between the more prominent words.

Note 2.-Adverbs which qualify an adjective or another adverb almost always stand before it. But admodum can be placed after an adjective which is emphatic. An adverb of degree (as multo) may stand for emphasis at the beginning of the clause or sentence, and the adjective be put farther along: as, multo ejus oratio esset pressior.
8. Negatives stand before the word they qualify; hence before the verb (but not always immediately before it) when they apply to the whole proposition: as, non te reprehendo, sed fortunam; intellegere sane non possum. Instead of non dico, nego is generally used : as, negavit eum adesse, he said he was not there; (not, he denied, etc.)

Note.-Ne quidem takes the emphatic word between the two particles: as, ne joco quidem.
9. Attributes, whether adjectives, nouns in apposition, or oblique cases, usually follow their noun; but the reverse order is frequent, and is the rule with demonstrative pronouns and adjectives of number and quantity: as, vir bonus; praemeditatio rerum futurarum; Balbus quaestor, magno pondere auri, majore argenti coacto de publico exactionibus, Kal. Juniis trajecit se in regnum Bogudis; ejus disputationis sententias memoriae mandavi, quas hoc libro exposui; tribus modis.

But a demonstrative may be placed after, if it is desirable to bring it into close connection with the relative: as, mediocritatem illam tenebit, quae est inter nimium et parum.
10. In many expressions the order of the words is fixed by custom : as, populus Romanus, civis Romanus, res familiaris, res gestae, aes alienum, jus civile, senatus consultum, magister equitum, tribunus plebi, pontifex maximus, Bona Dea, Jupiter optimus maximus, Carthago Nova, Via Appia, terra marique, etc. In a few cases this order is found reversed, for emphasis.
11. A monosyllabio noun almost invariably precedes a longer adjective: as, res innumerabiles; di immortales; rex potentissimus.
12. When a noun is qualified by both an adjective and a genitive, or by both a genitive and a prepositional expression, the adjective in the first case, the genitive in the second place, is usually put first, and the other attribute placed between that and the noun: as, amicitia nullam aetatis degendae rationem patitur esse expertem sui; cujus rationis vim ex illo caelesti Epicuri de regula et judicio volumine accepimus.
13. Relative pronouns regularly stand at the beginning of their clause; never after their verb: as, hic est quem quaerimus; quae cum ita sint, hoc loquor.
14. But sometimes an emphatic word, or words, is placed before the relative, especially when the demonstrative sentence is put after the relative sentence: as, Tarentum vero qua vigilantia, quo consilio, (Fabius) recepit? Romam quae apportata sunt, ad aedem Honoris et Virtutis videmus (to Rome, in contrast with what remained at Syracuse).
15. The relatives may be used for the demonstratives with et: e. g., qui for et is, qualis for et talis, quo for et eo. They may therefore be placed before those conjunctions which can be connected with et or autem : as, quod cum audivissem, quod si fecissem, quod quamvis non ignorassem, for et cum hoc, et si hoc, et quamvis or cum autem hoc.
16. Connective adverbs and interrogative pronouns usually stand at the head of their clause, or only after words, such as relative or demonstrative pronouns, which refer to the preceding sentence. They never come after their verb.
Note.-But in poetry we have freer position.
17. Words belonging to two or more co-ordinate words or expressions should strictly be put either before them all or after them all. But, partly for rhythm's sake, the common word is often put after the first of the coordinated words: as, jam viris vires, jam ferro sua vis, jam consilia ducibus deerant; an tu existimas fuisse tum alios medicos, qui morbis, alios qui volneribus, alios qui oculis mederentur?
Note 1.-In poetry irregularities occur: as, pacis eras mediusque belli (for bellique medius).
Note 2.-When the same verb belongs to several clauses, it is more com-
mon in Latin to place it in the last clause, and understand it in those preceding. The reverse is the rule in English.
18. Hiätus, or the concurrence of long vowels at the end of one word and the beginning of another, should be avoided as much as possible. A concurrence of short vowels, or of a long vowel followed by a short, is not objectionable.
19. The more easy and familiar the style of composition, the less formal is the arrangement of the words.
20. The position of the following particles may be specially noticed :

Nam, always, namque, almost always, stands at the beginning;
Enim, always after one word, seldom after two;
Ergo, therefore, either first, or after an important word of the sentence: as, hunc ergo, quid ergo; when it denotes not a conclusion, but only a transition, it almost always stands after a word;
Igitur, usually after one or two words, or even after more words, if they are closely connected; it is also put first, especially in Sallust;
Itaque, therefore, consequertly, almost always at the beginning, in good prose;
Tamen, at the beginning, except where a single word is to be made emphatic by antithesis;
Etiam, also, even, before the word it qualifies; but also after it, especially if the word is put at the beginning of the sentence for the sake of emphasis;
Quoque, quidem, and demum, immediately after the word they qualify;
Autem, and vero, after a word, or two closely connected words: as, de republica vero; autem, even after several words, which cannot well be separated;
Ne, assuredly, is prefixed to a personal or demonstrative pronoun, except in a peculiar class of answers in Plautus.
Note.-If enim, autem, or igitur, and est or sunt, come near together, the verb usually stands without emphasis in the second place, if the proposition begins with the emphatic word: as, nemo est autem; sapientia est enim una, quae maestitiam pellat ex animis. But the verb is put in the third place, if the emphasis falls more on the words which come after it: as, cupiditates enim sunt insatiabiles.
21. The pronoun quisque almost always stands in the relative proposition, when a relative and demonstrative proposition are combined, and immediately after the relative.
260. Emphasis suggests the following rules:

1. Any word which is to be made prominent is placed at or near the beginning of the sentence, or sometimes, if not the primary predicate, at
the end (as an unusual position) : as, a malis mors abducit, non a bonis; dedi veniam homini impudenter petenti; sequemur igitur hoc tempore et in hac quaestione potissimum Stoicos.
2. The ordinary place of the verb being at the end, it is emphatic when at the beginning of the sentence; in other positions than these, it makes the preceding word or words emphatic: as, Saguntum vestri circumsident exercitus; mox Karthaginem circumsidebunt Romanae legiones.
3. As the first place is allotted to emphatic words, in the second place in the sentence unimportant words are often thrown in; such words as are rather slurred over in reading.
4. An unemphatic word is sometimes put between words connected with one another, partly to throw the words before it into greater relief, partly to prevent itself occupying a more important position in the sentence. So especially est, sunt, etc.: as, qui in fortunae periculis sunt ac varietate versati; primum Marcelli ad Nolam praelio populus se Romanus erexit.
5. Contrasted and kindred words are put next to one another: as, ego Q. Fabium, senem adulescens, ita dilexi ut aequalem; quaedam falsa veri speciem habent; quid quod tu te ipse in custodiam dedisti?
6. Contrasted pairs of words are often put with the words in one pair in a reverse order to that of the other pair ; two of the contrasted words still often being together as by last rule. This figure is called chiasmus, i. e. crossing, from the Greek letter X : as, ratio enim nostra consentit, repugnat oratio; cum spe vincendi simul abjecisti certandi etiam cupiditatem; clariorem inter Romanos deditio Postuminm, quam Pontum incruenta victoria inter Samnites fecit; cedere alius, alius obtruncari.
7. Where cumulative effect, or a sense of similarity rather than contrast, is desired, the same order of words is preserved in the component clauses. This figure is called anaphŏra, i. e. repetition: as, his similes sunt omnes qui virtūti student: levantur vitiis, levantur erroribus; ut non nequiquam tantae virtutis homines judicari deberet ansos esse transire latissimum flumen, ascendere altissimas rupes, subire iniquissimum locum.
8. Rhythm admits of no definite rules being given, but suggests:
9. That short words or expressions occupying a distinct position as subject, predicate, etc., be put first: as, erant ei veteres inimicitiae cum duobus Rosciis Amerinis; terrebat et proximus annus lugubris duorum consulum funeribus; movet ferocem animum juvenis seu ira seu detrectandi certaminis pudor seu inexsuperabilis vis fati.
10. That there be variety in the arrangements of neighboring sentences as regards prosody and syntax. (Thus chiasmus and anaphð̆ra are often found together.) Examples: Vide quid intersit inter tuam libidinem majorumque auctoritatem, inter amorem furoremque tuum et illorum consilium atque prudentiam. Adde huc fontium gelidas perennitates, liquores perlucidos amnium, riparum vestitus viridissimos, speluncarum concavas amplitu-
dines, saxorum asperitates, impendentium montium altitudines immensitatesque camporum: adde etiam reconditas auri argentique venas infinitamque vim marmoris.
11. As the rhythm of prose is essentially distinct from that of verse, all verse endings should be avoided at the close of a sentence, particularly the hexameter termination of dactyl and spondee: as, êssě vǐdētur.
The occasional use of such endings, and even of a full verse, in the historians, may be justified by the context, but should not be imitated in ordinary prose.
12. The following is a table of cadences approved by Cicero and Quintilian : glōrrām cōmpărāvĭt; mēmbră fîrmārūnt; ēssě vǐdēātŭr ; cōǧ̌tāns sēnť̌ō;
 nōvissé.

## 262. Position of subordinate sentences.

1. Subordinate sentences, except those which express a result, follow the rule of qualificatory words or phrases: i. e., they are put before the principal sentence to which they belong; either before the whole of it or before all but a few words: as, cum hostium copiae non longe absunt, etiamsi inruptio nulla facta est, tamen pecunia relinquitur, agricultura deseritur. Qui autem ita faciet, ut oportet, primum vigilet in deligendo (quem imitetur), deinde, quem probavit, in eo, quae maxime excellent, ea diligentissime persequatur. Quid autem agatur cum aperuero, facile erit statuere quam sententiam dicatis.
2. A short principal sentence or clause is often prefixed to the wholeor part of the subordinate sentence, especially if this be a dependent interrogative: as, Stoicorum autem non ignoras quam sit subtile vel spinosum potius disserendi genus.
3. A Period consists of at least two, and generally several sentences, so connected that the grammatical construction is not complete till the last clause is added.
4. A Period (repiodos) is so called because the main proposition surrounds the interpolated clauses.
5. By being grouped together in due order, the clauses of a period produce the effect of logical completeriess, and of that sonorous and dignified expression which accorded well with the majesty and dignity of the Roman character. (Kennedy.)
6. The usual arrangement of clauses in a period is analogous to that of words in a simple sentence, viz. :
First: The word or clause containing the subject, with the words or clauses immediately connected with it;

Second: The words or clauses denoting the time, place, motive;
Third : The word or clause expressing the remoter object;

Fourth : The word or clause expressing the immediate object; Fifth: The principal verb.
To this order there are frequent exceptions, particularly in the position of the principal verb.
264. Both as regards arrangement, and in many other respects, it will be useful while writing a Latin composition to break off occasionally and read aloud extracts from some Roman author of the best period. This helps one to get into the right atmosphere for his work.


## Prosody.

## 265. QUANTITY IN VERSE.

1. In Latin, as in Greek, Verse depended upon the Quantity of syllables, every syllable being either long ( - ) or short ( $\cup$ ); and the various Metres resulted from the various relations of the long and short syllables to each other ; their alternation producing the rhythm of the verse.
In English, on the contrary, and other modern languages, the rhythm of verse depends upon the accentuation or nonaccentuation of the syllables.
2. A short syllable was said to contain one mora or time; a long syllable two morae or times.
Note.-The short syllable is the unit of measure, and has the value of or an $\frac{1}{8}$ note in music. The long syllable has the value of $d$ or a $\frac{1}{4}$ note.
3. Syllables which might, at the same period of the language, be either long or short, are called common ( $\underline{\text { ㅡ }}$ or ).
4. Some syllables which at one period of the language were long, at another were short.
5. A long syllable resolved into two short is marked ū; two short syllables contracted into a long, $\overline{\mathrm{v}}$.
6. A long syllable in the arsis $(8283,1,3)$ may be prolonged so as to have the measure of three or even four short syllables, and may thus represent a whole foot. A syllable which includes three times is marked L-(d.); one which includes four times, $ـ(d)$.
7. A long syllable may be shortened, so as to take the place of a short syllable. Such a syllable is called irrational, and is marked > .
8. In most kinds of metre, the last syllable of every verse is common; that is, it may be regarded as either long or short, as the metre requires.

Note.-If the last syllable is short, where the metre requires a long syllable, the pause naturally made at the end of the verse gives it the additional time required; if on the other hand a long syllable stands here
for a short, the excess of time is not felt in consequence of this very anticipation of the effect of the pause. The voice, too, would give some indication of the irrational time.
266. QUANTITY BY POSITION.

1. A syllable is long by nature when it has a long vowel or diphthong: as, fâtō, maestīs.
2. When a short vowel is followed by two or more consonants, a double consonant, or the letter $J$, the syllable is long by position :
As, fāctūs sūbsūnt.
Exc.-In the compounds of jugum the syllable before $\mathbf{j}$ is short.
Note 1.-The consonants may be in the first word, or in two consecutive words. Where both are in the second word, the vowel usually remains short; the more careful poets avoid this position.

Note 2.-H does not give position; and qv has only the power of a single letter.
Note 3.-In the older language, final s preceded by a short vowel was slightly sounded, if at all; it was often, therefore, not written, and often with the older poets did not give position : as, infantibŭs parvis; torvŭs draco.
Note 4.-Before cm and cn in Greek words a vowel may remain short.
Note 5.-The comic poets sometimes keep a vowel short before two consonants.
3. A syllable ending in a short vowel coming before a mute followed by 1 or $r$ is common:

As, tenĕbrae or tenēbrae; trĭplex or trīplex; rĕtro or rētro. In the same verse Vergil has pătris, pātrem.

Exc.-The comic poets seem never to have lengthened a short vowel before a mute and a liquid.

1. This rule does not apply where the mute ends a syllable and the liquid begins another. In such cases the vowel is long by position, as in ābluo, ōbruo.
2. One vowel (or diphthong) before another vowel, or before $h$, is short:

As, měae, trăho, ǐ0, bǒant, tŭus, praěustus.

1. a of the old Genitive of the First Declension in äi is long: as, terrai, purpureāi.
2. a or $e$ is long before i in proper names ending in ius or ia: as, Gäius, Pompēius, Aquilēia; a is long in āio.
3. e is long in diēi ; Lucretius has rēi ; and once fidēi (as in Plautus and Ennius). So ēi in Lucretius, ěi in Catullus, the dative of is; it is sometimes contracted into one syllable, as is also rei.

Note r.-In ai and ei followed by a vowel, the $\mathbf{j}$ both made a diphthong with the preceding a or e, and also was pronounced like English y : as, Pompeius, pronounced Pompei-yus. Cicero wrote the i double: as, Pompei-ius.
Note 2.-In the compounds of jacio it was usual to write $\mathbf{i}$ only once: as, ēīcit, though the $\mathbf{i}$ was equivalent to ji . This accounts for the quantity of rēicio, where the i formed a diphthong with the $e$ of re, and also a separate syllable. But ei-cit, rei-cit, are sometimes dissyllabic, and ăbĭcit, ădĭcit are found with their first syllable short.
4. In genitives in ius, $i$ is common, but generally long in prose: as, ipsǐus, unǐus. In alīus (contracted for aliius), $i$ is always long.
5. I is long before a vowel in fio, except before er: as, fiebam, fiam; but fierem. (Plautus and Terence sometimes have fieri, etc.)
6. The following quantities should be noticed : ēheu, Rhēa (Silvia), dīus, divine; Dīana, ŏhe.
7. Many Greek words keep a vowel long before another: as, āer, musēum, Thalīa; Academīa, in the best Latin; daedalĕus, chorě̀a.

## 267. DIPHTHONGS AND CONTRACTED SYLLABLES.

1. Diphthongs, and vowels derived from diphthongs, are long: as, $\overline{a e g e r}, \overline{a u} d i o$, inīquus (in + aequus).
2. Prae in composition is generally short before a vowel.
3. Sometimes a diphthong at the end of a word is shortened when the next word begins with a vowel: as, insulae Ionio.
4. Contracted syllables are long: as, fructūs (fructŭĭs), nīl (nǐhīl), prūdens (prōvĭdens).

## 268. DERIVATIVES AND COMPOUNDS.

1. Derivative and compound words generally retain the quantity of their primitives:

As, ămo, ămor, ămīcus, ămīcitia, māter, māternus, dēfĕro, rēgȟfugium.
Exc.-Perfects and supines of two syllables have the first long, even when that of the present is short: as, vēni, vīdi, mōtum.

Note.-In such perfects as rŭi, the penult is of course short.
2. Eight perfects and ten supines have the first syllable short: bǐbi, dědi, fřdi, ľ̆qui (from liqueo), scǐdi, stěti, stĭti, tŭli; cĭtum, dătum, ǐtum, lǐtum, quǐtum, rătum, rǔtum, sătum, sǐtum, stătum (from sisto).

These perfects seem either to be reduplicated or to have once been so.
3. Reduplicated perfects have the first two syllables short: as, cěcirdi (from cădo), pĕpŭli, cěcĭni, dĭď̆ci.
Note.-The secoud syllable is sometimes long by position : as, feffelli, mǒmōrdi. Cěcīdi (from caedo) has the second syllable long, because the $\overline{\mathbf{I}}$ represents the diphthong ae; pĕpēdi, from pēdo, also has a long penult.
4. Some apparent derivatives are illusory: rēx, rēgis, rēgina do not come from rĕgo. Variations of quantity do occur, however, in words supposed to come from the same root.
5. The change of a vowel or diphthong in forming a compound does not alter its quantity.
6. The quantity of the simple word is changed in some compounds: as, agnǐtus and cognǐtus, from nōtus; pejĕro and dejĕ̈ro, from jūro.
7. Ne- is generally long: but short in nĕque, nĕqueo, nĕfas, nĕfandus, nĕfarius, and some other words.
8. Pro is generally long in composition; but there are many exceptions: as, prŏcella, prŏfanus, prŏficiscor, prŏfecto, prŏfugus, prŏfundns, prŏfari, prŏfiteor, prŏtervus (also prōtervus in Plautus), prŏnepos, prŏneptis, prŏfundo (prōfundo, Catullus) ; prŏpello twice in Lucretius, elsewhere long; prŏ̈curo, prŏ̄pino, prŏ̆pago; Prōserpina regularly, but Horace and Seneca each once Prŏserpina. In Greek words pro remains short; but prölogus in Plautus and Terence.
9. The inseparable prepositions $\mathrm{d} \overline{\mathrm{I}}, \mathrm{se}$, vē are long; rē or rĕd, short.
10. Re is sometimes lengthened by position. In the oldest Latin the quantity was rē or rēd generally. Hexameter poets have religio, rêlicuus, reliquiae; but the later poets always rĕliquus.
11. In rēfert, the first syllable is not the preposition, but from res; rĕfero has rĕfert.

> 269. MONOSYLLABLES.

1. Monosyllables ending in a vowel are long: except the enclitics $(811,2)$ and the nominative and accusative quă.
2. Monosyllables ending in a consonant are long.
3. Such as end in $b, d, l, t$ are short ; but sāl and sol, and diphthongs, as aut and hād, are long.
4. Făc, nĕc, ăn, ǐn, fĕr, pěr, těr, vǐr, cǒr, bǐs, cǐs, ǐs, qǔ̆s, are short; as is ěs from sum, although Plautus has ēs. The pronoun hī̀ is common; hō̆c (nominative and accusative) is long in the later poets, common in the old dramatic poets. The quantity of ac is uncertain, as it never comes before a vowel in good writers.

## 270. Final syllables in polysyllables.

1. In words of more than one syllable, final $i, o$, and $u$ are long; a, e, and $\bar{y}$ are short.
Exceptions.-a final is long :
2. In the Ablative Singular of the First Declension : as, mensā.
3. In the Imperative of the First Conjugation (but puta is used parenthetically).
4. Sometimes in the Nominative of Greek nouns, and in the Vocative of nouns in as.
5. In Numerals: as, trigintā.
6. In Prepositions and Adverbs: as, contrā, frustrā, posteā (but we have ită, quiă; eiă or heiă is perhaps common).
e final is long :
7. In the Ablative of the Fifth Declension: as, diē, hodiē.
8. In the second person singular of the Imperative of the Second Conjugation : as, gaudē. (But sometimes cavĕ, vidĕ.)
9. In Adverbs from Adjectives of the Second Declension: as, valdè, aegrē; also in fermē, ferē, ohē. (But benĕ, malĕ, infernĕ (Lucr.), supernĕ (Lucr., Hor.), temerĕ.)
10. When it represents the Greek long e $(\eta)$ : as, Hebē.
$i$ final is short:
11. In Greek Nominatives, and some Greek Datives and Vocatives:
12. In nisĭ, quasĭ, necubŭ, sicubĭ, ouĭ (when a dissyllable).
$i$ final is common :

Note.-In hexameter poets, ibīdem; in scenic poets, ibĭdem; utĭque, utǐnam, although always utī; ubĭnam, ubĭvis, but ubīque.
o final is short:
In cedŏ, citǒ, duŏ, egŏ, modŏ (but sometimes modō in Lucretius and eg $\overline{0}$ in Plautus).
o final is common :
13. In some Nouns, especially Proper Names.
14. In Verb endings (but generally long in the best period); and in later writers, even in the ending -do of the Gerund.
15. In the Silver Age in quandō, porrō, serō̃, amb̄̆̄, octŏ, and a number of other words. (In all ages quandŏquidem.)
16. c final lengthens the vowel : except donĕc.
17. $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{r}$, and t final shorten the vowel.

## Exceptions:

1. nihĭl.
2. Greek nouns in $n$ which have the preceding vowel long in Greek.
3. Celtibē̌r, Hibēr (Ibēr), dispār, impār; Greek nouns in er which have $\overline{\mathrm{e}}(\eta)$ in Greek.
4. The final syllable of contracted perfects is long : as, disturbāt, petït, obit; so often the final syllable of petiit and of iit and its compounds.
5. as, es, and os final are long :

Exceptions:

1. ăs in the Nominative Singular and Accusative Plural of Greek nouns which have the a short in Greek.
2. penĕs; Nouns of the Third Declension which increase short: as, milěs, milǐtis (but pēs and its compounds, Cerēs, abiēs, ariēs, pariēs, remain long) ; compounds of ěs: as, potěs, aděs; ěs in words representing a short ending in Greek: as, cacoothĕs, Arcadĕs.
3. exŏs, compŏs, impŏs; ŏs in words which have a short ending in Greek: as, Chiŏs, Phasidǒs.
4. is, us, and ys final are short:

## Exceptions:

1. is in the Dative and Ablative Plural; is in the Accusative Plural of the Third Declension; is in the second person singular of the Present Subjunctive; is in compounds of vīs: as, mavīs, quamvis; ins in Nominatives which increase long (as, Samnīs, Samnītis); is representing a long syllable in Greek: as, Salamīs, Salamīnis; $\overline{\bar{z}}$ is in the Future Perfect, and $\overline{\overline{1}}$ in the Perfect Subjunctive; sanguĭs; Vergil has once pulvīs.
2. $\bar{u} s$ in Nominatives which have $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ in the Genitive: as, virtūs, virtūtis, but Horace has once palŭs; ūs in the Genitive Singular and Nominative and Accusative Plural of the Fourth Declension; ūs representing Greek ovs: as, Panthūs.
3. $\overline{\mathrm{y}} \mathrm{s}$ in Tethȳs and chrysophrȳs.

## 271. QUANTITY OF INCREMENTS.

A noun is said to increase when any case of it is longer than the nominative singular, by one or more syllables; and a verb, when any part of it is longer than the second singular present indicative active, by one or more syllables. The penult syllable of such increased form is called the increment. Thus, -sa is the increment in mensarum, and -no in honoris. In longer forms, when more than one syllable is added, there may be a second or third increment: as, vecti-ga-lis, vecti-ga-lí-a,
 ba-mi-ni. $^{3}$

1. In the increment of nouns and adjectives, a and $o$ are long; e, $\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{u}$, and y are short :

As, mensārum, audācis; puerōrum, doctiōris; puĕri, pĕdis; v̌̆ri, divĭtis; portŭbus, vultŭris; Ery̆cis.

## Exceptions:

a is short:
in Greek nouns in a and as of the third declension: as, poēmă, poēmătis, lampas, lampădis.
in masculine nouns in -al and -ar: as, Caesar, Caesăris.
in those Latin nouns in -as whose genitive does not end in -atis: as, mas, măris; but vas, vāsis; and anas, anătis.
in par, parris, and its compounds, and in baccar, hepar, jubar, nectar, and sal.
in nouns ending in s preceded by a consonant: as, trabs, trăbis. $e$ is long:
in the fifth declension: as, diēbus, diērum.
in Greek words in -ter, -tēris and -es, -ētis: as, cratēris, lebētis.
in words whose genitive ends in -ēnis : as, ren, rēnis.
in many words which cannot be classified : as, vēris, Ibēris, lēgis, rēgis, mercēdis, herēdis, plēbis, quiētis, locuplētis, vervēcis.
$i$ is long:
in nouns in -in and -is of the third declension: as, delphin, delphinis; Salamis, Salaminis.
in nouns and adjectives in -ix, -icis: as, radix, radīcis, felix, felīcis.
Note.-But calix, filix, fornix, nix, pix, salix, strix, and some others,
increase short: i.e., in -řcis, except nix, nĭvis, strix, strǐgis.
in nouns in -is, -ītis: as, Quiris, Quirītis; lis, lītis; in glis, glīris; vis, vires (plur.), and a few more.
0 of the third declension is short:
in nouns ending in us: as, tempŏris, from tempus; leporis, from lepus.
in neuter nouns in or and -ur: as, marmŏris, from marmor; jecorris, from jĕcur.
in many Greek nouns, having o short in Greek: as, Hectōr, Hectŏris; aedōn, aedŏnis; tripūs, tripŏdis; rhetor, rhetŏris.
in nouns and adjectives ending in s preceded by a consonant: as, inŏpis, from inops.
arbor, memor, bos, compos, impos, lepus, praecox, and some others, have o short: as, arbŏris, memŏris, bŏvis, compŏtis, etc.
national names generally have o short: as, Macedŏnis. But there is great variety.
$u$ is long:
in many nouns of the third declension ending in ūs : as, virtūtis, palūdis, rūris, tellūris.
Note.-Frūgis, fūris, lūcis, plūris, Pollūcis (from [frux], fur, lux, plus, Pollux), and some others, have u long.

## $y$ is long:

in some words, mostly foreign: as, Ceȳcis, Trachȳnis.
in some other words it is common.
2. In the increment of verbs $a, \theta, o$, and $u$ are long: $i$ is short:

As, amātis, monebātis, audiātis, ferātis; legēmus, legēbamus; amatōte; amatūrus, sol̄̄tum; legĭmus, monuĭmus.

## Exceptions:

do and its compounds have the stem vowel (or first increment) short: as, dăre, dăbamus, dăbo, dăturus.
Note.-But the vowel a is long in da and das.
$e$ before $r$ is short in the first increment of the present and imperfect tenses of the third conjugation; and in the second increment of futures ending in -bĕris and -bĕre: as, regĕre (infiu. and imperat.), regĕris or regĕre (pres. ind. pass.), regĕremus, regĕremur ; amabĕris, docebĕris.
$e$ is short before -ram, -rim, -ro, and the persons formed from them: as, amavěram, monuĕrim, legĕro.
$e$ before $r$ in the third plur. perf. ind. act. is sometimes shortened by the poets: as, steterrunt ( $\% 279$ ).
$i$ is long :
in perfects in -īvi: as, petīvi;
in supines of verbs with such perfects: as, petītum.
in the first increment of the fourth conjugation : as, audirem.
Note r .-But-imus in the perf. is short.
Note 2.-If the $i$ comes before a vowel, it is short.
in subjunctives in -im: as, sīmus, sītis, velīmus.
in the imperative of nolo: as, nolito.
$i$ is common,
but oftener long, in rī̀mus and rī̀tis of the perfect subjunctive; -
but oftener short, in rimus and rǐtis of the future perfect.
u is short:
in the first person plural: as, surmus, volŭmus.

## 272. PENULTS AND ANTEPENULTS.

Rules are sometimes given for the quantity of penults and antepenults; but they have many exceptions, and such quantities are best learned by practice in reading poetry, etc., with the aid of a Dictionary or Gradus.

## 273. NATURAL QUANTITY.-AUTHORITY.

1. We are often ignorant of the natural quantity of Latin syllables which we call long by position. The ancients carefully distinguished in pronunciation such words as lēcto, I read, and lĕcto, from lěctus, a couch. General
laws of language give us here some help. Some special laws, too, are well established; thus, every vowel followed by ns or nf was long by nature: as in mēns, sapiēns, infelix, cōnfecit; while e was short in mĕntis, sapiĕntis; o in pŏntis, fŏntis, mŏntis. In many cases we know the length of the vowel by finding the Latin word written in Greek: as, Sēstius, さńorıos, Rōscius, 'P由́rkıos.
2. When we have no other reason, it is customary to say that a syllable is long or short by authority,-that is, the authority of the poets, whose usage is our guide.

## 274. ELISION.

1. When one word ends in a vowel or diphthong, or the letter m , and the following word begins with a vowel or h , such final vowel or diphthong, or $m$ with its vowel, is elided ; that is, does not count in the verse :

As, Quidve moror, si omnes uno ordine habetis Achivos; scanned thus:
Quidve moror, $\mathrm{s}^{\mathrm{i}}$ omnes un ${ }^{\mathrm{o}}$ ordine habetis Achivos.
2. The first vowel of est, and sometimes of es, is often elided, instead of the preceding vowel: as, labori 'st; timendumst; simili's (similis es).
3. The earlier poets use elision more freely than the later. In the best ages, usage varies in different authors and in different styles of verse.
4. In reading, the elided vowels should be pronounced slightly and rapidly, rather than suppressed altogether.
5. The elision of a final vowel or diphthong is called synaloepha; that of $m$ with the preceding vowel ecthlipsis.
6. On the elision of final s , see $\& \mathbf{2 6 6}, \mathbf{2}$, n. 3.

## 275. HIATUS.

Sometimes a vowel is left unelided before another. This open concurrence of vowels is called hiātus:
As, Nereidum matri et Neptuno Aegaeo.

1. The monosyllabic interjections, $\overline{\mathrm{a}}, \overline{\mathrm{o}}$, heu, are not elided by the dactylic poets.
Note 1.-Such elision would too much obscure and weaken the word. Io is found unelided in a few sentences, and once in Ovid the Greek interjection ai ai.
Note 2.-0, though not elided, is sometimes made short.
2. Sometimes a long vowel is left unelided and long in the arsis of a foot ( $282,1,3$ ) : as,

Stant et juniperī et castaneaee hirsutae.
Ter sunt conatī imponere Peliǒ Ossam.

Once only Vergil leaves a syllable thus long in the thesis of the foot: Glancō et Panopēae êt Inōō Melicertae.
3. Vergil allows himself an hiatus, first, in the arsis of the second, third, fourth, or fifth foot, especially in proper names followed by a mark of punctuation, or where the same vowel is the initial of the following word; secondly, in the thesis, when in accordance with Greek precedents a long vowel or diphthong is shortened, especially in the case of proper names and interjections; with short vowels in the thesis, hiatus occurs only before a strong mark of punctuation (as in Aen. i. 405).
4. Hiatus in Vergil is often found in those lines which are formed on a Greek model, i. e., those which terminate in a quadrisyllable (and this, moreover, is frequently of Greek origin), or which have a spondaic ending.

## 276. SYNAERĔSIS.

1. Two vowels usually pronounced separately are sometimes contracted into one syllable:

As, aurea, pronounced something like aurya; ferrè; $\overline{\text { eosdem, }}$, pronounced somewhat like yōsdem. So sometimes Phaēthon for Phaëthon; Orphea, alvē, deorrsum, dēn, deesse, anteīt.
2. Such contraction is frequent in ii, iidem, iisdem, dii, diis, dein, deinceps, deinde, deest, deerat, deero, deerit, deesse, etc.
3. The vowels $i$ and $n$ are often made consonantal before another vowel : as, vindemjator (pronounced vindemyator), for vindemiator; so arjetat, abjete, parjetibus, omnja, precantja, consiljum, for arietat, etc.; for genua, genva (pronounced genwa); so pitvita, patrvi, sinvatis, etc. In the genitive plaral of the Fourth Declension, un is sometimes contracted.
4. When $i$ and $u$ are thus consonantal, they have, with another consonant, the power of lengthening a preceding short vowel.
5. If only one of the vowels is written, the contraction is called crasis : as, di, derit.

## 277. DIAL $\breve{Y} S I S$ OR DIAERĔSIS.

One syllable is sometimes divided into two :
As, Tro-i-a for Tro-ja; sil-ŭ-a for sil-va; su-es-co for sue-sco; Or-phe-us for 0 O -pheus.
278. SYNCOPE.

A short vowel, or a syllable, is sometimes omitted: as, repostor for repositor; surpuit for surripuit.

## 279. SYSTOLE.

A syllable long by nature or position is sometimes shortened: as, viděn for vidēsne; hŏdie for hōc die, constantly; stetěrunt for stetērunt, occasionally.

## 280. DIASTOLLE.

A syllable naturally short is sometimes lengthened : as, Priamides for Priamides. Vergil sixteen times lengthens -que.

## 281. TMESIS.

Tmesis is the separation of the component parts of a compound word by an intervening word or words: as, inque salutatam for insalutatamque.

## 282. SYंNAPHĪA OR CONTINUITY.

1. The first syllable of a following verse sometimes has an influence on the last syllable of the preceding, either by position or elision.
This is not uncommon in the Anapaestic system, and the Glyconic of Catullus.
2. The parts of a compound word are sometimes divided between two verses: as,
si non offenderet unum.
Quemque poetarum limae labor et mora.
3. For hypermetrical verses, see $\langle 287$.

## VERSIfication.

283. A verse is composed of a certain number of feet.
284. Each foot has two parts,--the arsis, on which falls a special stress of voice called the ictus, or stroke, and the thesis.* The regular alternation of arsis and thesis in successive feet produces the rhythm or harmonious movement of the verse.
285. The most common feet in Latin are the following :

Feet of Three Times. •


Feet of Four Times.


[^15]3. The ictus falls on the long syllable, as marked in the examples.
4. The spondee and the tribrach are merely representative feet, and take their character and ictus from the kind of verse in which they are found.
5. The following is a full list of Feet or so-called Feet.

| Pyrrhic | pătěr | Paeon Secundus | $\cdots$ - vămābĭmŭs |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Iamb | - ămắnt | Paeon Tertius | - - v nĕmŏrālı̆s |
| Trochee | vídǐt | Paeon Quartus | $\cdots$ - rěgĭmĭnī |
| Spondee | 1ātōs | Ionic a minori | mětūentēs |
| Tribrach | $\cdots$ rĕgĕrĕ | Ionic a majori | - - - v tērrēbĭmŭs |
| Anăpaest | ... ănı̆mós | Diiambus | $\sim$ - - prǒtērvǐtās |
| Dactyl | -u côrpŏră | Ditrochee | - - - cōndǐdīssĕ |
| Cretic | - - - díxěrấnt | Choriamb | - ט - ōppǒsǐtīs |
| Amphrbrach | - - lătínŭs | Antispast | $\cdots$ - - rĕgèbāmŭr |
| Bacchius | - . - rěgébānt | Epitrrtus Primus | - ămāvīstī |
| Palimbachius | - rếxisssĕ | Epitrrtus Secundu |  |
| Molossus | - dīcēbās | EpitrYtus Tertius | - - aūdīvĕrānt |
| Proceleusmatic u u u hŏminĭbŭs Epitr |  |  |  |
| Paeon Primus | $\cup \sim \sim$ cốnď̌dĭmŭs | Dispondee | - sūspēxērūnt |

6. In Falling Rhythms, the verse moves from long syllables to short, as in verses composed of dactyls and trochees; in Rising Rhythms, from short to long, as in verses composed of iambs and anapaests. Rising rhythms may be treated as Falling, by considering the first short syllable or syllables as an Anacrūsis, or Base (284, C).
7. Explanation of technical terms.
A. Hemimerris ( $\dot{\eta} \mu i \mu e \rho i s)$ means $\frac{1}{2}$. Hence one foot and a half ( $\frac{3}{2}$ ) is called Trihemimeris; two feet and a half ( $\frac{(2}{2}$ ), Penthemimeris; three feet and a half ( $\frac{2}{2}$ ), Hephthemimeris; four feet and a half ( $\frac{( }{2}$ ), Ennehemimeris.
8. Hence: $a$. Caesura ( $\frac{2}{2} 286$ ) after $1 \frac{1}{2}$ feet is called Trihemimeral; $b$. after $2 \frac{1}{2}$ feet, Penthemimeral; c.after $3 \frac{1}{2}$ feet, Hephthemimeral ; $\boldsymbol{d}$. after $4 \frac{1}{2}$ feet, Ennehemimeral.
Examples: $\begin{gathered}a \\ b\end{gathered} c \quad d$

$\left.\left.$| 1. Fúdit equúm |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2. Aut ámite |\right|$_{a} ^{\text {magnó }}$| lévi |
| :--- |\right|$_{b} ^{\text {tellús }}$| rára |
| :--- |\(\left|\begin{array}{l}percússa <br>


téndit\end{array}\right|\)| tridénti.-Verg. |
| :--- |
| rétia.-Hor. |

In the first verse, a Dactylic Hexameter, the fourth caesura is weak, the others strong ( ${ }^{2} 285,7$ ).
In the second verse, an Iambic Trimeter, all the caesuras are after thesis, and therefore weak.
2. In distinction from Caesura (which is the coincidence of the close of a word with the middle of a foot), the coincidence of the close of a word with the close of a foot is called Dizerĕsis: as,

## Lumina | labentem caelo quae | ducitis | annum.

3. Diaerěsis in some metres coincides with a natural pause in the verse, caused by the ending of a rhythmic series. It is marked $\|$.
B. Metre ( $\mu$ é $\rho \rho \boldsymbol{\nu}$, measure) is used in two senses.
I. Metre, in the first place, means the verse or system of verses used by a poet in any composition: as, Heroic, Elegīac, Alcāic, Sapphic Metre.
4. A Metre which contains only one kind of verse is called Monocōlum ; a metre which contains only two kinds, Dicōlum; one which contains only three kinds, Tricōlum (from $\mu$ óvos, single; к $\hat{\omega} \lambda o \nu$, member).
5. When two kinds of verse alternate, they form Distichum (from dis, twice; $\sigma \tau i x o s, r o w)$, a Distich or couple.

When recurrence takes place after four verses, these form a Tetrastich (stanza).
3. Thus the Dactylic Hexameter (Heroic), Iambic Trimeter, Trochaic Tetrameter, and others, are found as Metra Monocola. The Elegiac Metre and many others are Dicola Disticha. The Sapphic and some others are Dicola Tetrasticha. The Alcaic is Tricolum Tetrastichum.
II. Metre, in the second place, is used to express a given portion of a Verse in some Rhythms: as the Dactylic, the Trochaic, the Iambic, and the Anapaestic.

1. In a Dactylic Verse, one foot constitutes a Metre.

In Trochaic, Iambic, and Anapaestic Rhythms two feet, or a Dipody ( $\delta \iota \pi o \delta i a$ ), constitute a Metre.
2. A Verse comprised in a single Metre is called Monometer ; in two, Dimeter; in three, Trimeter; in four, Tetrameter; in five, Pentameter; in six; Hexameter.
3. Wanting one syllable to complete its metres a Verse is called Catalectic (ката入ךктькós); in syllăbam, if the incomplete foot retains one syllable; in disyllăbum, if it retains two; wanting two syllables, Brachycatalectic ( $\beta \rho a \chi$ ккатád $\eta \kappa$ ктos); having a syllable above its metres, Hypercatalectic (ìmєркатádךктos); having its metres complete, Acatalectic ( $\left.{ }^{\alpha} \kappa \alpha \tau \alpha ́ \lambda \eta \kappa \tau o s\right)$.
4. The time of the omitted syllable or syllables in a catalectic verse is filled by a pause. A pause of one time, equivalent to a short syllable, is marked $\Lambda$; a pause of two times, $\bar{\Lambda}$.
5. A Verse may also be called according to the number of feet: Binarius (2), as the Adonian; Ternarius (3), as the Pherecratēan; Quaternarius (4), as the Trochaic or Iambic Dimeter; Senarius (6), as the Dactylic Hexameter or the Iambic Trimeter; Septenarius (7), as the Trochaic Tetrameter Catalectic; Octonarius (8), as the Trochaic Tetrameter Acatalectic of the scenic poets.
6. Or a Verse may be called according to the number of its syllables, as Phalaecius Hendecasyllabus (II). So the Alcaic Strophe consists of two Alcaic Hendecasyllabi (If), one Alcaic Enneasyllabus (9), and one Alcaic Decasyllabus (ro).
C. 1. A, syllable at the beginning of a Verse before the just Rhythm, is called Anacrūsis (avákpovoıs, back-stroke): as (according to one mode of scansion),

## 0 | magna Carthago probrosis.

2. Two syllables so preceding the just Rhythm are called a Base, which may be trochaic:

Lūte | umve papaver;
or spondaic:
or even iambic.

> Dūrām | difficilis mane;
3. A double Base, according to some metrists, is trochee + spondee, e. g., in the Sapphic Verse, as they explain it:

> Illĕ mī pār | esse deo videtur.

This may even have an Anacrusis before it: as,

## Mōrs | ēt fŭgāoēm | persequitur virum.

D. A Verse is called Asynartēte (àvváprnros) which is really composed of two different verses welded together:

Tu vina Torquato move \| consule pressa meo (z 299, 1).
E. Some kinds of verse are named after their inventor or first aser, usually a Greek lyric poet: e. g., Archilŏchus, Alcaeus, Aloman, Sappho, Hippōnax, Anacreon, Pherecrătes, Asclepiădes, and Glycon.

## 285. THE DACTYLIC HEXAMETER.

1. The dactylic hexameter, first adapted from the Greek by Ennius, became the heroic measure in Latin. It consists of six feet, of which the last is always a spondee, the fifth is generally a dactyl, and any of the first four may be either a dactyl or a spondee.
2. From its sustained and continuous flow, this is the verse best adapted for narrative (or epic) poems, and it is used also in didactic poems, satires, and poetic epistles.
3. The spondee has the same time as the dactyl, and in dactylic verse takes an ictus on its first syllable.
4. In Homer, the last foot is a trochee or curtailed dactyl; while the best Latin verse lets us see that in the writer's mind it was rather a genuine spondee. (Munro.)
5. Sometimes the fifth foot is a spondee. The line is then called spondaic.
6. The last word in the verse is seldom a monosyllable, and only so to produce a special effect: as, procumbit humi bos; praeruptus aquae mons.
7. A light and rapid movement is given to the verse by frequency of dactyls; a slow and weighty movement by spondees: as,

Quấdrǔpědấntě pŭtrếm sǒnĭtú quătǐt ấngŭŭă cấmpŭm.
Îlli inntér sēsé māgnáa vī braạ́cohĩa tốlūnt.

## 286. CAESURA.

1. Caesūra occurs where a word, which began in a preceding foot, ends in the middle of a foot:

2. In every verse, melody requires a pause. This ordinarily corresponds with a caesura, and is called the caesural pause.

In the example above, it is marked $\ddagger$, the other caesuras being marked $\dagger$.
3. The caesural pause frequently concurs with a pause of sense; and where there are several possible places for it, considerations of the sense and of the proper connection of words have weight in determining it. Thus:

> Hīnc mätēr $\dagger$ cūltrīx $\dagger$ Cy̆bĕlī, $\ddagger$ Cǒry̆bāntĩăque $\frac{\text { ára }}{\text { aera }}$
> Nëque īntēr $\dagger$ sānctōs $\dagger$ ignēs $\ddagger$ in hŏnōrĕ dēōrum.
4. The most natural and common place of the caesural pause in a hexameter verse is after the arsis in the third foot: as,

## Cóntičư̌ére ömnếs, $\ddagger$ īntếntīque ốră těnếbānt.

A pause in the fourth foot, however, is very agreeable, when at the same time there is a less considerable pause in the second foot: as,

$$
\text { Î́taliiáam, } \dagger \text { fatốt prơfưgús } \ddagger \text { Lāvíniăquue vếnit. }
$$

5. The so-called Bucolic Caesura is a diaerěsis ( $(284, A, 2)$ at the end of the fourth foot: as,

## Ítĕ dŏmúm sătŭraé, vĕň̆t Hếspĕrŭs, || ítě căpéliae.

6. The more frequent occurrence of the pause in the third foot gives the flow of the verse a certain unity, while occasional changes of its place prevent monotony. The expression of the verse is greatly affected by the place of the pause or pauses. The earlier caesuras in general give to the verse more vivacity; the later, more gravity.
7. When only one syllable in the foot precedes it, the caesura is called strong, or masculine; when two syllables, it is called weak, trochaic, or feminine. Thus, the caesura after spērārè is weak in the verse

## Ứnă sălû́s vīctís, nülấm spêrârěe săứtem;

and the other caesuras in the same verse are strong (unless, with some grammarians, we regard the ending of a word before the end of the first foot as making a caesura, in which case there is a weak caesura after una).

## 287. HYPERMETRICAL VERSES.

Ennius and Vergil sometimes introduce a verse containing a syllable beyond the number requisite for the metre ; this syllable, however, ends in a vowel, or in m preceded by a vowel, and is elided before the initial vowel of the following line.

Such verses are sometimes effective as denoting that the speaker is carried on beyond bounds by his excitement, or breaks off leaving something still unsaid; or simply as giving an emphatic ending to the sentence.

## Examples:

> İmprěcơr, ấrm $a$ ārmís; pūgnếnt īpsíquĕ něpốtēsque. Sế sătǐs á́mbōbû́s Teūcrísqquĕ vĕnírě Lătínīsque.

## 288. THE ELEGĪAC DISTICH.

The Elegiac distich consists of a Dactylic Hexameter verse followed by a so-called Pentameter. The latter consists of two Dactylic penthemimers : each penthemimer consisting of two feet,--either of which, in the first, may be a dactyl or a spondee, but both of which must be dactyls in the second,-followed by a long syllable. The long syllable is dwelt upon, and followed by a pause, so that it is really equivalent to a foot; and the verse should be called hexameter, though differing from the ordinary dactylic hexameter.

## Examples:

Jām sěgĕs ēst ŭbǐ Trōjă fūīt, rěsěcāndăquě fālce
Lüxǔriāt Phry̆gĭo || sāngaĭnĕ pīnguǐs hŭmūs, त
Sēmǐsěpūltă vǐrūm cürvīs fěrĭūntǔr ărātrīs
Ōssă, rưinnōsàs || öccŭlìt hērbă dǒmōs. $\bar{\wedge}$
289. OTHER DACTYLIC METRES.

1. The Dactylic Tetrameter acatalectic occurs rarely. It consists of four Dactyls, for either of the first three of which a Spondee may be substituted:
2. The Dactylic Tetrameter catalectic is similar to the last four feet of the Hexameter. It is used chiefly with other verses:

$$
\therefore \approx 1 \div=1 \therefore=120
$$

3. The Dactylic Dimeter oatalectic (called Adonic from a poem of Sappho addressing Adonis), like the last two feet of the Hexameter, consists of a Dactyl and a Trochee or Spondee. In the Sapphic strophe, the dactyl is cyclic, and the second foot a trochee:

$$
\therefore \sim 1 \leq v
$$

4. The Dactylic Trimeter catalectic in syllăbam, or minor Archilochian, consists of two Dactyls and a long syllable. It is used only with other verses. By adding a pause, it may be regarded as Dactylic Trimeter:

$$
\not u \cup \mid 1 u \cup 11 \pi
$$

## 290. TROCHAIC METRES.

1. Trochaic Tetrameter catalectic consists of eight trochees (two trochees making a metre), for any of which an irrational trochee may be used, and for any but the last a cyclic dactyl, an apparent anapaest (here a resolved irrational trochee), or a tribrach. There is a diaerĕsis after the first dimeter. Found only in the comic poets.
Note 1.-As a long syllable shortened, so as to take the place of a short syllable in verse, is called irrational, and marked $>$, the same name is given to the foot in which it occurs; thus, a spondee used for a trochee is called an irrational trochee, ${ }^{\prime}>$, and a spondee used for an iamb, an irrational iamb, > 1 .

Note 2.-A dactyl taking the place of a trochee is called a cyclic dactyl, and is marked $u v$; it may be represented approximately by $\sqrt{2}$; an anapaest taking the place of an iamb is called a cyclic anapaest, marked $\checkmark v$. The name cyclic, given by the ancients, is supposed to be derived from the use of these rapid feet in the daucing measures in the choruses.

Note 3.-A tribrach taking the place of a trochee has the ictus on its first syllable, its first two syllables representing the long syllable of the trochee, which of course has the ietus. A spondee used for a trochee has also its ictus on the first syllable.
2. Trochaic Tetrameter catalectic consists of seven trochees and an additional syllable; the diaerĕsis after the first dimeter. It is frequent in comic poets with the same choice of feet as in the acatalectic. Seneca observes stricter rules, allowing tribrachs in the odd places, except the last, spondees (i. e., irrational trochees) and irrational anapaests in the even places, and cyclic dactyls in the first, second, and sixth places.
Note.-By observing a pause after the syllable in the eighth place, the verse may be treated as acatalectic. The same principle applies in other catalectic measures.
3. Trochaic Dimeter catalectic consists of three trochees and a long syllable. It is used only in combination with other verses.
4. Trochaic Dimeter brachycatalectic, or Ithyphallic, consists of three trochees, and hence may be called Trochaic Tripody. It is used only with other verses.

## 291. DACTYLO-TROCHAIC OR LOGAOEDIC VERSES.

1. The Greater Archilochian metre consists of four cyclic dactyls followed by three trochees. In any of the first three feet, irrational trochees may be used. It is found only with other verses.
2. The Alcāic Decasyllable consists of two cyclic dactyls (not each contained in a single word), followed by two trochees. It is a combination of the endings of the two metres used in the first three lines ( $\delta 292$, 4,5 ) of the Alcaic stanza, in which it forms, as a refrain, the fourth or closing line.
\&u | \&u 1 ! - 1 1 u
3. The Aristophanic consists of a dactyl followed by two trochees; or, otherwise, of a cyclic dactyl, a trochee, a lengthened long syllable, and a long syllable with pause:

$$
\perp \cup 1 \div \cup 1-1-\Lambda
$$

## 292. TROCHAEO-DACTYLIC METRES.

1. The Sapphic minor is a Trochaic tetrapody, with a dactyl always in the third foot. It consists of a trochee, irrational trochee, cyclic dactyl, and two trochees. Catullus has, but rarely, a true trochee in the second foot. There is a caesura, usually strong, sometimes weak, in the dactyl. Usually combined with the Adonic.
2. The greater Sapphic consists of the minor Sapphic with a choriamb inserted before the dactyl. This choriamb is best treated as a oyclic dactyl and a long syllable followed by a pause, equivalent to a trochee.
3. The Phalaecian, or simply Hendecasyllabus, is also a Trochaic pentapody. The first foot is usually an irrational trochee, but in Catullus occasionally a true trochee or iamb; the second a cyclic dactyl (except in Catul. 55, where it is frequently a spondee, i. e., an irrational trochee); the other three feet are trochees. There is no special caesura.
4. The Alcāic hendecasyllabus consists of a long or short syllable as an anacrūsis, a trochee, an irrational trochee, and two cyclic dactyls.

There is generally a diaeresis after the spondee (i. e., the irrational trochee). It is used in the first two lines in the Alcaic stanza.

$$
\gtrsim|1 v| \pm<,| \pm v| \& v
$$

5. The Alcāic enneasyllabus consists of a long or short syllable as an anacrūsis, a trochee, an irrational trochee, and two trochees. It forms the third line of the Alcaic stanza.

$$
\geq 1 \pm v 1 \leq<, 1 \leq v 1 \div
$$

6. The Pherecratian consists in Catullus of a trochee or irrational trochee, a cyclic dactyl, and a trochee; in Horace, of an irrational trochee, a dactyl, and a spondee (or, better, a lengthened long syllable, followed by a long syllable and a pause). Used in stanzas with other metres.

$$
\lrcorner>|\perp \sim|-1-\wedge
$$

7. The Glyconic consists of a trochee or irrational trochee, followed by a cyclic dactyl, a trochee, and a long syllable with a pause. Catullus has usually a trochee in the first place; Horace almost always a spondee.

$$
\leadsto>|\& \sim| \perp \cup \mid-\Lambda
$$

8. The Priapēan consists of a trochee or irrational trochee, a cyclic dactyl, a trochee, a long syllable followed by a pause, equivalent to a trochee, a trochee, a cyclic dactyl, and a trochee. (Catul. 17.)

## 293. CHORIAMBIC METRES, SO CALLED.

1. The minor Asclepiadēan is sometimes considered as consisting of a spondee, a choriamb, and two dactyls; but, better, of an irrational trochee, a cyclic dactyl, a long syllable followed by a pause, making it equivalent to a foot, a cyclic dactyl, a trochee, and a long syllable followed by a pause.

$$
\_>\mid \mathscr{\sim}
$$

2. The greater Asclepiadēan is sometimes considered as consisting of a spondee, two choriambs, and two dactyls. But each of the choriambs should be treated as a dactyl and a long syllable followed by a pause, as in the minor Asclepiadean metre. The spondee is an irrational trochee, and the dactyls are cyclic. There is usually a diaeresis after each choriamb.
3. For the greater Sapphic, see $\& 292,2$.

## 294. CRETIC AND GREATER IONIC METRES.

1. The Cretic Tetrameter acatalectic consists of four cretics. It occasionally admits a dactyl or paeon, or even a molossus as an irrational cretic. It is found only in the comic poets.
2. The Cretic Tetrameter catalectic has three cretics followed by a spondee.
3. The Sotadēan consists of three ionics a majori and one trochee. A double trochee is often substituted for the third ionic, and sometimes for the first ; and some of the long syllables are occasionally resolved into two shorts.

## 295. ANAPAESTIC METRES.

1. The Anapaestic dimeter acatalectic consists of four anapaests, for any of which a spondee (with the ictus on the last syllable), and for the first and third of which a dactyl (with the ictus on the second syllable), may be substituted. There is a diaeresis after the second foot.
2. The Anapaestic dimeter catalectic, or Paroemiac verse, consists of three anapaests (or their substitutes) and a short syllable.
3. The Anapaestic monometer acatalectic consists of two feet, either anapaests or spondees. The first may be a dactyl. It is only used interspersed among dimeters.

Note.-Many metrists regard the first two short syllables in an anapaestic line as an anacrusis, and thus treat all anapaestic verses as dactylic.

## 296. IAMBIC METRES.

1. The Iambic Tetrameter catalectic consists of seven iambs and a half. In the first and fifth places are found apparent spondees occasionally. The comic poets use apparent spondees and dactyls, and cyclic anapaests, in every place but the seventh.

Note.-In iambic verse, spondees and anapaests take the ictus on the last syllable; tribrachs and dactyls on the second.
2. The Iambic Trimeter acatalectic consists of six iambs. It is sometimes found pure throughout a poem, but generally in Horace admits an irrational iamb frequently, a cyclic dactyl rarely, in the first, third, and fifth places, and a cyclic anapaest in the first and fifth. The tribrach occurs in all places except the last. There is a caesura usually in the middle of the third foot, sometimes not until the middle of the fourth.
3. The Iambic Scazon or Hippōnactēan, also a Trimeter Acatalectic, differs from the preceding by having always a spondee in the sixth foot and iamb in the fifth. Either a spondee, anapaest, or dactyl may be used in the first or third feet; a tribrach in the second, third, and fourth. The caesura is in the third or fourth foot.
4. The Iambic Trimeter catalectic consists of four iambs and a bac-
chīus, or rather of five iambs and a long syllable following by a pause, making it equivalent to a foot. Spondees (irrational iambs) are sometimes used in the first and third places, and a tribrach once occurs. There is a diaeresis in the middle of the third foot. It is used only with other verses.
5. The Iambic Dimeter acatalectic consists of four iambs, for the first and third of which a spondee (irrational iamb) is often substituted. A tribrach and (cyclic) dactyl also occur, though rarely. It is used with other verses.
6. The Iambic Dimeter catalectic consists of two iambs and a bacchīus; or, better, of three iambs and a long syllable followed by a pause. A special form of this verse, called the Anacreontic, has an anapaest in the first foot.
7. The Iambic Dimeter brachycatalectic consists of three iambs. It is found only at the close of a system of dimeter catalectics.

Note.-Many metrists regard the first syllable in an iambic line as an anacrusis, and thus treat all iambic verses as trochaie.

## 297. ANAPAESTO-IAMBIC METRE.

The Galliambic consists in theory of two Iambic or Anacreontic Dimeters, of which the first is catalectic, and the second brachycatalectic. There are thus six feet, which are usually anapaest, iamb, bacchīus, anapaest, tribrach, iamb; but with some variations.
The metre is found only in Catullus 65. The name is from the Gallic priests of Cybelle, who form the subject of the poem.

## 298. BACCHIAC AND LESSER IONIC METRES.

1. The Bacchiac Tetrameter acatalectic consists of four bacchī; a long syllable may sometimes be resolved into two short, and in some instances a molossus occurs as an irrational bacchius. It is found only in comic poets.

Occasionally a Bacchīac Hexameter occurs.
2. The Ionic a minori, occurring in Latin only in Horace iii. 12, is composed of forty feet, all ionics a minori. As the synaphīa is perfect, it may be divided into four decameters; but it is best printed in four stanzas, in each of which the first, second, and fourth lines are dimeters, the third a tetrameter. It may also be divided into stanzas of three lines, two tetrameters and a dimeter.

## 299. IAMBS AND DACTYLS.

1. The Iambilegic verse consists of an iambic dimeter, followed by a minor Arohilochian ( $\delta 289,4$ ), which is a dactylic penthemimer. There is a diaeresis after the penthemimer.

$$
\geq-1 \cdots-1^{\geq}-1 \cdots-\|-\cdots 1-\cdots-1-\pi
$$

2. The Elegiambic verse consists of a dactylic penthemimer followed by an iambic dimeter. There is a diaeresis after the penthemimer.

3. IAMBICO-TROCHAIC METRE.

The Saturnian is the oldest form of Latin verse, resembling the English ballad metre:

The queên is in her párlor, || eating bread and hóney.
Many irregularities occur.
Examples:

> Dăbû́nt mălúm Mĕtélīi, || N N $\frac{1}{\text { aevinóo poofetae. }}$ Immortales mortales || si foret fas flere, Flerent divae camenae || Naevium poetam; Itaque postquam est orcino || traditus thesauro Obliti sunt Romāi || loquier lingua latina.

## 301. HORATIAN METRES.

In the Odes and Epodes of Horace, the following Metres are found

1. The minor Asclepiadēan system, consisting of four minor Asclepiadēan verses (293, 1). Od. i. 1 ; iii. 30 ; iv. 8.
2. The first Asclepiadëan strophe, in which the Glyconic verse $(292,7)$ alternates with the minor Asclepiadēan (293, 1). Od. i. 3, 13, 19, 36 ; iii. $9,15,19,24,25,28$; iv. $1,3$.
3. The second Asclepiadēan strophe, consisting of three minor Asclepiadēan verses followed by a Glyconic. Od. i. 6, 15, 24, 33; ii. 12; iii. 10, 16; iv. 5, 12.
4. The third Asclepiadëan strophe, consisting of two minor Asclepiadēan verses, a Pherecratēan (292, 6), and a Glyconic. Od. i. 5, 14, 21, 23; iii. 7, 13; iv. 13.
5. The greater Asclepiadēan system, consisting of four greater Asclepiadēan verses (293, 2). Od. i. 11, 18; iv. 10.
6. The Sapphio strophe, consisting of three minor Sapphic verses (292,1) and one Adonic verse (289, 3). Horace has a caesura generally in the dactyl.
Od. i. $2,10,12,20,22,25,30,32,38$; ii. $2,4,6,8,10,16$; iii. $8,11,14$, 18, 20, 22, 27 ; iv. 2, 6, 11; Carmen Saeculare.
7. The greater Sapphic strophe; an Aristophanic verse (291, 3) followed by a greater Sapphic (292, 2). Od. i. 8.
8. The Alcaic strophe consists of the Alcaic hendecasyllabic verse $(292,4)$ twice repeated, an Alcaic onneasyllabic (292,5), and an Alcaic decasyllabic verse (291, 2). Horace has a diaeresis after the second trochee in the first three lines.

Note.-No one who feels the beauty of the refrain in the fourth verse of the Alcaic strophe, can fail to recognize the dactylic ending of the hendecasyllable and the trochaic ending of the enneasyllable. Observe, too, that the third verse is the doubling of the first half (after the anacrusis) of the first and second verses.

This is often called the Horatian stanza, Horace using it more frequently than any other. 0 d. i. $9,16,17,26,27,29,31,34,35,37$; ii. $1,3,5,7,9$, $11,13,14,15,17,19,20$; iii. $1,2,3,4,5,6,17,21,23,26,29$; iv. $4,9,14,15$.
9. The first Archilochian strophe, in which the dactylic hexameter alternates with the minor Archilochian verse (289, 4). (Od. iv. 7.)
10. The second Archilochian strophe, in which the dactylic hexameter alternates with an iambilegic verse $(299,1)$; so that in this strophe an iambic dimeter is interposed between the two members of the first Archilochian strophe. Ep. 13.
11. The third Archilochian strophe; iambic trimeters alternating with elegiambic verses (299, 2). Ep. 11.
12. The fourth Archilochian strophe, in which the greater Archilochian verse (291, 1) alternates with the iambic trimeter catalectic, or, as it may be better considered, a trochaic pentapody with anacrusis. 0d. i. 4.
13. The Alcmanian strophe : dactylic hexameters alternating with dactylic tetrameters catalectic (289, 2). 0d. i. 7, 28.
14. The Iambic trimeter. Ep. 17.
15. The Iambic strophe: iambic trimeters alternating with iambic dimeters. The first ten Epodes.
16. The first Pythiambic strophe: dactylic hexameters alternating with iambic dimeters. Ep. 14, 15.
17. The second Pythiambic strophe: dactylic hexameters alternating with iambic trimeters. Ep. 16.
18. The Trochaic strophe or the Hipponactēan: trochaic dimeters catalectic alternating with iambic dimeters catalectic. Od. ii. 18.
19. The Ionic a minori (298, 2). Od. iii. 12.

## 302. EARLY DRAMATIC VERSE.

In early dramatic verse the quantity of syllables was not so definitely fixed or observed as in the later dactylic and other verse. The principal cases of deviation may be classified as follows:

1. Final syllables, afterwards short, were sometimes used with their original long quantity : as, fam $\bar{a}$ (nom. sing.), sorōr, patēr; amēt, sciāt, ponebāt, percipīt, vendidīt; amēr, loquār; milēs.
2. Final syllables with long vowels were sometimes used as short: as, domŏ (abl. sing.), probĕ (adv.), tacě, manŭ, virĭ; conrigĭ, bonăs, forăs, dolŏs, ověs, manŭs (acc. plur.), bonǐs, habĕnt. This is almost confined to iambic words.
3. Syllables containing a vowel followed by two consonants were sometimes used as short. Such are:
Syllables in the later language written with doubled consonants: as, îmmo, ǐlle, simĭllimae, Philĭppus, ěsse, ǒcculto;

Some syllables with two different consonants: as, innter, interim, intus, inde, ǐste, ŭnde, nĕmpe, ŏmnis, ěcquis. So also (according to some) volŭptas, magĭstratus, minǐstrabit, venŭstas, seněctus (or perhaps volptas, magstratus); ĕxpediant, ĕxigere, ŭxorem.
4. Final syllables euding in a consonant were sometimes not lengthened, though the next word began with a consonant: as, (in Terence) enĭm vero, auctŭs sit, sorŏr dictast, dabĭt nēmo, simŭl conficiam, tamĕn suspicor; apud is frequently so used: even studĕnt facere. This license is most frequent when the final consonant is $\mathrm{m}, \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{r}$, or t ; and is due to the tendency of the early language to drop the final consonant, and to shorten the final vowel.
5. Synizēsis is freely used : as, tros for tuos, svos for suus, scjo for scio, pver for puer, fvit for fuit, djes for dies, filjo for filio, otjum for otium.
6. Long initial syllables were slurred into short quantity when they followed monosyllables or elided pyrrichs; sometimes also at the beginning of a verse.
7. Spondees, dactyls, anapaests, and even proceleusmatics, were freely used for iambs or trochees, except in the last foot of the verse. (Roby, in part.)

## 303. METRICAL READING.

1. Verse should be read with a certain metrical expression, which a delicate taste will suggest, but for which no formal rules can be given. Some ictuses will be observed more strongly than others. The meaning of the words, and their rhetorical character as spirited or quiet, glad or plaintive, etc., will have its influence.
2. While students will need some exercises at first in simply marking off the feet, and indicating the place of ictus, caesura, or diaeresis, before they become initiated in the mysteries of metre, good metrical reading, as in English verse, preserves the words intact, and gives to the ear at once the sense and the melody.
3. Some kinds of verse admit of more than one way of scanning, and metrists differ in their preferences. But as the rhythm depends upon the alternations of long and short syllables-undisputed facts in any verse, unless sometimes in the final syllable -there is not room for so much difference in the actual reading as there is in regard to the theory of the structure of the verse.


## Appendix.

## Grammatical and Rhetorical Terms.

## 304. GRAMMATICAL TERMS AND FIGURES.

Amphĭbŏlia, ambiguity; e. g., aio te Romanos vincere posse, "Pyrrhus the Romans shall, I say, subdue;" where te may be subject and Romanos object, and vice versu.
Anăcŏlūthŏn, non-sequence, where a sentence is begun in one way and finished in another way, with a changed construction; e. g., Deos verisimile est ut alios indulgentius tractent for deos ... alios tractare or Di...ut... tractent.

Anastrŏphē, inversion; e. g., male quod vult for quod male vult; tecum for cum te; transtra per et remos for per transtra, etc.
Aphaerěš̆s, omission of a letter or syllable at the beginning of a word; e. g., lis for stlis, natus for gnatus.

Apocočpe, cutting off, i. e., omission of a letter or syllable at the end of a word; e. g., ille for illus, me for med, vigil for vigilis.
Apŏdŏsĭs, reply, applied especially to the consequent clause of a conditional sentence.
Archaism, use of an old or obsolete form, word, or expression; e. g., olli in Vergil for illi; duellum in Horace for bellum ; animai; in cassum magnum (Lucr.).
Assimilation, when of two consonants the former is either made the same as the latter, or changed into another consonant of like kind: as, cessi for cedsi; scriptus for scribtus; defensum for defendtum (where the $t$ of the suffix is changed to $\mathbf{s}$, and the final d of the stem assimilated to it; s being often written for double s).
Asyndĕtŏn, omission of conjunctions; e. g., usus fructus; sarta tecta; inde ventis remis in patriam properavi (Cic.); abiit, excessit, evasit, erupit.
Attraction, when a word, by the influence of another, is diverted from the
usual construction to a less usual one; e. g., hic est quem quaero hominem; urbem quam statuo vestra est.
Barbarism, using a faulty non-Latin word, especially a word faultily formed; e. g., gladia for gladii, scala for scalae. Distinguished by relating to a single word from solecism which relates to false syntax of several words or a phrase.
Brachylŏgy, shortening of expression.
Crāsĭs, union of two or more vowel sounds; e. g., cors for cǒhors, prorsus for prōversus.
Diaerěsĭs, separation of one vowel sound into two; e. g., Orphĕus for Orpheus: also the treatment of a usually consonantal $\nabla$ as a vowel; e. g., sillŭae for silvae. In verse, it means also the coincidence of the end of a word with the end of a foot.
Ecthlīpsĭs, crushing out, in verse of a syllable ending in $m$ before an ensuing vowel.
Ellīpš̌s, omission of one or more words which would be used if complete fulness of expression were necessary.
Enallăgē, change; i. e. putting of one part of speech, number, case, tense, etc., for another; e. g., vivere nostrum for vita nostra; nos for ego; mox navigo for navigabo.
Epenthĕš̌s, insertion; e. g., of $\mathfrak{u}$ in Alcŭmēna for Alcmena; p in sumpsi, sumptum.
Graecism or Hellenism; use of a Greek form or construction, not properly Latin also; e. g., amplexi habent for amplexi sunt.
Hendiady̆s, one by two; use of two nouns with a conjunction, instead of a single noun with a modifier ; e.g., paterae et aurum for anreae paterae.
Hy̆pallăge, exchange; applied to such deviations from ordinary expression or construction as Tyrrhenus tubae clangor for Tyrrhenae tubae clangor; arma dei Volcania for arma a deo Volcano facta.
Hy̆perbăton, transgression; i. e. when a considerable clause or expression is interpolated between two parts of a sentence mutually connected in meaning; e. g., hyperboreo septem subjecta trioni ; animadverti omnem accusatoris orationem in duas divisam esse partes.
Hy̆phen, union of two words, as if by composition; e.g., non-sūtor, one who is not a tailor, ignari ante-malorum, ignorant of the ills before.
Mĕtăthĕš̆s, change of position; transposition of two or more letters in a word; e. g., crētus for certus.
Părăgōgē, addition; applied e.g., (according to a probably false theory) to the formation of dicier from dici by the addition of er.
Părenthěšs, insertion of a clause into the midst of another; e. g., s1 nos, id quod maxime debet, nostra patria delectat (Cic.). The term is generally applied to an ordinary insertion; if unusual either from its eharacter or length, it is sometimes called hyperbaton.
Pleŏnasm, saying too much, an unnecessary fulness of expression; e.g.,
erant omnino itinera duo, quibus itineribus domo exire possent (Caes.) ; suo sibi gladio hunc jugulo, I slay him with his own sworl to him; praesensi prius; nemo unus.
Prŏlēpsis, anticipation, applied to such use of an adjective as laceras aries ballistave concutit arces, where the towers are lacerae from the effects of concutit.
Prŏtăsiss, proposal, applied to the relative or especially to the conditional clause.
Syllepsĭs, taking together, applied to the relation of an adjective to two or more nouns of different genders ; e. g., pater et mater et filia capti sunt.
Synaerěsĭs, contraction of two vowels into one sound: e. g., treating deinde, quoad as monosyllables; aureo, eidem as dissyllables; ariete, tenuia is trisyllables. Other terms are synecphōnēsis and synizēsis. All three are variously distinguished and applied, but most frequently used of those contractions which are regarded as exceptional and not expressed in writing; while crasis applies to such contractions as auceps for aviceps, cōgo for co-ago.
Sy̆naloepha, coalescing of two vowels, applied to the elision in verse of the vowel at the end of one word before a vowel beginning the next.
Syncǒpe, striking together, applied to the omission of a letter or syllable in the middle of a word; e.g., saeclum for saecŭlum, puertia for puerítia, lūna for lucna, pergo for perrego.
Synecphōnēsis, pronouncing together, see Synaerěsis.
Sy̆něsĭs, where the construction is adapted to the sense of the word rather than to the form; e. g., turba ruunt; turba circumfusi fremabant (Liv.) ; concursus populi mirantium (Liv.).

Sy̆nīzēsis, settlement together, see Synaeresis.
Tmēsis, cutting of a compound word into two, separated by other words; e. g., septem subjecta trioni for septemtrioni; per mihi gratum feceris for pergratum; quae me cunque vocant for quaecunque me; and saxo cere comminuit brum which Ennius wrote, probably mistaking cerebrum for a compound.
Zeugma, joining, where a verb grammatically belonging to two or more nouns is in sense appropriate to one only (or to less than all); e. g., te greges centum Siculaeque circum mugiunt vaccae (Hor.); where lowing does not properly suit greges sc. ovium. Magonem alii naufragio (sc. perisse), alii a servis ipsius interfectum, scriptum relıquerunt (Nep.).
305. RHETORICAL TERMS, OR FIGURES OF SPEECII.

Allegory, a continued description of one thing in terms and in images properly belonging to another; e. g., at jam tempus equum fumantia solvere colla (Verg.), of concluding a book. A more detailed allegory is seen in Horace's description (Od. i. 14) of the Stcte in political difti-
culties under the name of a ship tossed by waves. Essentially, allegory is a chain of metaphors.
Alliteration, the use in the same sentence of several words beginning with the same letter ; e. g., 0 Tite, tute Tati, tibi tanta, tyranne, tulisti (Enn.).
Anăphǒra, repetition of the same word or grammatical form at the beginning of several clauses ; e. g., in his templis atque tectis dux Lentulus erat constitutus meis consiliis, meis laboribus, mei capitis periculis, sine tumulta, sine delectu, sine armis (Cic.).
Antĭthĕsĭs, contrast ; e.g., ego projector, quod tu peccas; tu delinquis, ego arguor; pro malefactis Helena redeat, virgo pereat innocens (Enn.).
Antŏnŏmăsia, substituting a description for a name; e. g., Tydīdes for Diomēdes; eversor Karthaginis for Scipio; Saturnia for Juno.
Apǒsiōpēš̆s, breaking into silence; an abrupt pause after a sentence or subject has been begun; e. g., Quos ego-sed motos praestat componere fluctus.
Apostrŏphē, turning away to address some person, or thing, who is absent or at least not the proper object of address at the time; e. g., o leges Porciae legesque Semproniae (Cic.); citae Mettum in diversa quadrigae distulerant: at tu dictis, Albane, maneres (Verg.); Quid non mortalia pectora cogis, auri sacra fames?
Cătăchrēšs, a wrong use of a term, either to supply the place of a non-existing word, e. g., parricida for the murderer of a brother; or to puta different aspect on a case; e.g., virtus for temeritas, liberalitas for luxuria.
Chiasm, making a $X(\mathbf{C h i})$, i. e., crossing, where a second and corresponding set of words are stated in inverse order to that of the first set; e. g., multa quae nostra causa non facimus, facimus causa amicoram (Cic.). See $\begin{gathered}\text { 260, } \\ 6 .\end{gathered}$
Clīmax (or gradātio), ladder, a series of words or expressions each stronger than the preceding: e. g., nihil agis, nihil moliris, nihil cogitas, quod ego non modo audiam, sed etiam videam planeque sentiam (Cic.).
Enallăgē, change, i. e., the use of a more general word for a specific word; e. g., Poenus for Hannibal, urbs for Roma ; vos, o Calliope.

Epexēgēsiss, additional explanation, applied to such usages as habere in loricam donat habere viro (Verg.), or to the subordinate clause in pacem amicitiamque hortatus est, ut cum rege in gratiam rediret (Nep.).
Euphemism, the use of softened language to express what is disagreeable or distressing.
Hŏmœŏtĕleatŏn, like ending of several clauses; e. g., in muros statim curritur, exercitus a sociis accersitur, dilectus juventuti denuntiatur; neminem alteri posse dare in matrimonium nisi penes quem sit patrimonium.
Hŏmōny̆mia, applicability of the same word to different things; such words are called hŏmōny̆mă; e. g., taurus may be an animal, a mountain, a constellation, name of a man, or root of a tree.

Hy̆perbŏlē, exaggeration; e. g., gemini minantur in caelum scopuli (Verg.); or the description of Camilla's swiftness (Aen. vii. 808-811). Hystĕrŏn prŏtĕrŏn, putting the former later, when that which naturally comes first is mentioned last; e. g., moriamur et in media arma ruamus (Verg.).
Irony, dissimulation, says one thing and means another, but so as to let the real meaning be understood; e. g., in balneis delituerunt: testis egregios! dein temere prosiluerunt; homines temperantis ! (Cic. Caec. 26); meque timoris argue tu, Drance, quando tot stragis acervos Teucrorum tua dextra dedit! (Verg.)
Lītŏtēs, plainness, states less than is actually meant; e. g., non nego instead of aio; non indoctus for doctus; non laudo for culpo.
Mĕtăphŏr (or translātio), transference of a term from its proper subject to another, on account of some resemblance or analogy between their meanings; frequently the application of a physical or concrete term to a mental or abstract subject; e. g., sitiunt segetes; asper homo (rough, i. e., ill-tempered) ; incensus ira, on fire with rage; eloquentiae fulmina. It differs from allegory only by being less sustained, and by being worked into the discourse instead of being an independent fable. Almost all language is metaphor, more or less vivid and conscious.
Mĕtōny̆my, change of name, applied to such expressions as Neptunus for sea; Valcanus for fire; Ceres for corn; bene moratae urbes for bene morati urbis cives; Graecia for Graeci; Vergilius for carmina Vergili ; proximus ardet Ucalĕgon, where Ucalegon is for Ucalëgon's house. Among the substitutions of names made by Metonymy are that of the cause for the effect; the container for what is contained; the property for the substance ; the sign for the thing signified: and vice versa: also, the parts of the body for certain affections; the possessor for the thing possessed; the place and time for the persons and things which they comprise.
Onŏmătŏpœĭa, name making, in modern writers applied only to making names from the sounds which they are to denote; e. g., ŭlŭla, howler; murmur; clangor; hirrire (of a dog snarling).
Oxy̆mörŏn, keen, though apparently foolish, applied to such expressions, uniting seeming contraries, as insaniens sapientia; strenua inertia; splendide mendax: et absentes adsunt et egentes abundant et imbeoilli valent et, quod difficilius dictu est, mortui vivunt (Cic. Lael. 7).
Părŏnŏmăsia (adnōminātio), playing upon the sound of words; punning; e. g., oonsul ipse parvo animo et pravo, facie magis quam facetiis ridiculus (Cic.). Inceptio est amentium haud amantium (Ter.). Praetor iste vel potius praedo sociorum. Cui quod libet, hoc licet. Hanc ăvium dulcedo ducit ad āvium.
Pĕrĭphrăă1̆s, roundabout expression, circumlocution; e. g., fao discas for 24 *
disce; vos oratos volo for vos oro; Scipionis providentia Karthaginis opes fregit for Scipio Karthaginem fregit.
Prŏsōpŏpœia, personification, representing inanimate things as living and acting; e. g., crudelitatis mater avaritia'st, pater furor. Si patria mea loquatur, "M. Tulli, quid agis?" (Cic.). Extemplo Libyae magnas it Fama per urbes (Verg.).
Sĭmĭle or Părăbŏlē, an apt comparison illustrating a statement; e. g., per urbes Hannibal Italos ceu flamma per taedas vel Eurus per Siculas equitavit undas (Hor.).
Solecism, a grammatical blunder in matters of syntax; "Quintilian instances non feceris for ne feceris; hic aut ille for hic an ille; eo intus and intro sum for eo intro and intus sum."
Sy̆nĕcdŏchē, when the whole is understood along with (i. e., under the name of) a part ; e. g., puppis for navis; tectum for domus; mucro or ferrum for gladius; capat for homo.
Sy̆nōny̆mia, using different words or expressions for the same meaning; e. g., non feram, non patiar, non sinam (Cic.). Words of the same or like meaning are called sy̆nōny̆mă; e. g., gladius with ensis; scutum with clipeus; mare with pontus.
Tautology, repetition of the same thing; sometimes used as identical with synonymia; sometimes applied to repetitions of the same word ; e. g., non solum igitur illud judicium judicii simile, judices, non fuit (Cic.). Nam cujus rationis ratio non exstat, ei rationi non est fidem habere (Cornif.).
Whether the use of any of these figures is legitimate or proper depends on the context and the occasion, and on general considerations of intelligibility, good sense, vigorous expression, propriety, habit of speakers and writers, and the like. A name confers no license, and a grammatical or rhetorical figure is a name of a fact, not of a law. (Roby, in part.)

## Money, Weights, and Measures. <br> 306. VALUE OF COINS.

1. From 451 to 269 b. c.:

The as libralis, of copper ....................................... about 10 cents.
2. From 269 to 217 b. C.:

The as sextantarius, of copper................................ " 2 cents.
The sestertius, of silver
" 5 cents.
The denarius, of silver............................................ " 19 cents.
3. From 217 to 30 b. c.:

The sestertius, of silver ......................................... " 4 cents.
The denarius, of silver .......................................... " $16 \frac{2}{3}$ cents.
The aureus, of gold ( 25 denarii, or 100 sestertii)......... " \$4.17.
Hence mille sestertiūm.......................................... " \$41.67.
decies sestertium (a million sestertii) ............ " $\$ 41,667.00$.

## 307. THE NAMING OF SUMS OF MONEY.

1. The ordinary unit of reckoning was the sestertius or nummus; in full, sestertius nummus. Up to two thousand, the nouns sestertii or nummi are used: as, decem sestertii, ten sesterces; ducenti nummi, two hundred sesterces; quini sestertii, five sesterces each. For higher numbers, in thousands up to a million, a neuter noun in the plural number, sestertia, was used : as, septem sestertia, seven thousand sesterces, instead of septem millia sestertiüm; or both millia and sestertia are found : as, dena millia sestertia, ten thousand sesterces; or, again, in poetry millia is used with an ellipsis of sestertiūm : as, mullum sex millibus emit, he bought a mullet for six thousand sesterces. Horace has bis dena sestertia nummüm, twenty thousand sesterces.
2. In sums of a million and upwards, numeral adverbs are employed: as, decies centum (or centena) millia sestertiüm. Usually the numeral adverb and sestertium are put alone: as, decies sestertium, a million sesterces; or, when the context is clear, the adverb is used alone, as simply decies; we find also, for the same sum of a million sesterces, decies centena millia or decies centena. In such expressions, sestertium was taken to be a neuter noun, in the singular number: as, (nominative) sestertium quadragies relinquitur, four million sesterces are left; (accusative) sestertium quadragies accepi, I have received four million sesterces; (ablative) sestertio decies fundum emi, I have bought an estate for a million sesterces; in sestertio vicies egere, to be poor in the possession of two million sesterces.

Abbreviations are used : as, HS. DC. $=600$ sesterces ; HS. $\overline{\text { DC }} .=600,000$ sesterces (or 600 sestertia); HS. $|\overline{\mathrm{DC}}|=60,000,000$ sesterces. See 855,13 ; द 317, 8.

## 308. INTEREST.

The as and its fractional parts were used in designating rates of interest. Thus, the interest being paid monthly at the rate of so much per 100 asses,

| iae | $=1$ per cent. per month $=$ |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| xtantes usurae $=\frac{1}{6}$ |  | " | $=2$ | " |  |
| quadrantes usurae $=\frac{1}{4}$ and so on; | " | " | $=3$ | " | ' |
| asses usurae | " | " | $=12$ |  |  |

Asses usurae were also called centesimae; binae centesimae $=2$ per cent. per month $=24$ per cent. ; quaternae centesimae $=48$ per cent. per annum. Horace says, quinas hic capiti mercedes exsecat (i. e., quinas centesimas), this man slices off 60 per cent. from the capital, because in lending money he deducts interest at the rate of five per cent. per month.
Unciarum faenus, the yearly interest legalized by the Twelve Tables, was probably one uncia per as, or $8 \frac{1}{3}$ per cent., for the old year of ten months.

## 309. WEIGHTS.

1. The unit or as of weight was the libra, or Roman pound, the supposed weight which a man could support on his hand horizontally extended. It was duodecimally divided, the uncia, or ounce, being its 12 th part, the scriptulum or scrupulum, scruple, its 288 th part. Its weight was about 5050 grains English, or about $\frac{7}{8}$ pound Troy.
2. The Greek system also was used in the imperial times, the unit being a denarius, called from the Greek drachma, of which the libra contained until Nero's time 84; afterwards 96 . This latter drachma contained three scriptula, the scriptulum two oboli, the obolus three siliquae.

## 310. MEASURES OF LENGTH.

1. The unit or as of length was pes, the foot; digitus was a fingerbreadth; palmus, "hand-breadth, was four digits; pes, a foot, was four palms or sixteen digits.
2. In the duodecimal division of the foot, uncia, the twelfth part, was an inch. Three unciae made a palmus. Two feet are sometimes called dupondius; two and a half feet, sestertins, also gradus, or step ; one and a half feet, sesquipes, called also cubitus, the fore-arm.

Ulna, an ell, is sometimes a synonym of cabitus; but it sometimes means the full span of a man's arms, or six feet.
3. Land was measured out by the pertica or decempeda, a rod of ten feet. The actus (i. e., the furrow made at one drawing (driving) of the plough-oxen) measured twelve rods.
4. The unit of distance was the passus, pace, consisting of two gradus or steps, hence of five feet. It represents the distance from the point where, in walking, the same foot is taken up to the point where it is put down. Mille passus (or millia passuum or millia) was the Roman mile, 4850 English feet, or 919 English mile. The pes was 11.6 English inches.

The stadium, or furlong, was $\frac{1}{8}$ of a Roman mile.

## 311. MEASURES OF SURFACE.

1. The as of superficial measure was the jugerum: It contained 2 square actus, or 28,800 squure feet; each actus 144 square rods or perticae. The square rod was called a scrupulum, or decempeda quadrata. Two jugera made an heredium; 100 heredia formed a centuria; 4 oenturiae a saltus.
2. The pes quadratus was .94 English square foot; the jugerum almost $\delta_{8}^{8}$ of an English acre ; an heredium nearly an acre and a quarter.
3. MEASURES OF CAPACITY.
4. The unit of liquid measure was the quadrantal, a vessel of a cubit foot in content, after Cicero's time called the amphora. The amphora $=$
two urnae; the urna $=$ four congii ; the congius $=$ six sextarii ; the sextarius = two heminnae; the hemina $=$ two quartarii; the quartarius $=$ two acetabula. Twenty amphorae made a culeus. The amphora was about $5 \frac{3}{4}$ gallons English.
5. The duodecimal system was applied to the sextarius, which was a little less than an English pint (.96). Its twelfth, or uncia, was a cyathus, not quite half an ordinary wine-glass. The triens was 4 cyathi; the quadrans, 3 cyathi; the sextans, 2 cyathi; and so on.
6. The unit of dry measure was the modius, nearly one peck, or $\ddagger$ bushel, English. It held two semodii or 16 sextarii. The divisions of the sextarius (sometimes called librarius) were the same as in liquid measure.

## Computation of Time.

313. 314. The Romans' oivil day, as recognized in law, was from midnight to midnight; a natural day, from sunrise to sunset. The natural day was divided into twelfths, called horae, which were therefore of different absolute lengths according to the time of year. From December 23d, when the day at Rome was, according to modern reckoning, 8 hours 54 minutes long, and the Roman hour was $44 \frac{1}{2}$ minutes, the length increased up to the 25th of June, when the day was 15 hours 6 minutes, and the Roman hour 75 $\frac{1}{2}$ minutes. At the equinoxes, 23d. March, 25th. September, the Roman hour was of the same length as our own. The civil day is sometimes spoken of as divided into twenty-four hours.
1. The night was for military purposes divided into four watches (vigilia prima, etc.) of equal length. And a similar division of the day into four parts is also implied by Varro's account of the praetor's marshal crying the third hour, noon, and the ninth hour.
2. The division of time into weeks of seven days with distinct names was not used by the Romans before the introduction of Christianity. The months were distinguished by the names adopted by us from the Romans, excepting that, before the time of the Emperor Augustus, Julius and Augustus had the names of Quinctīlis and Sextilis (i. e., fifth and sixth month, March being the first). The days of the month were computed from three leading days in each, which were called respectively Calendae (Kal.), Nonae (Non.), and Idus (Id.); to these the name of the month was appended as an adjective. The Calendae was the first day of every month ; the Nonae and Idus the fifth and thirteenth, except in the months of March, May, July, and October, in which they were the seventh and fifteenth respectively.* From these days they counted backwards, the days between the 1st and the Nones being reckoned as so many days before

[^16]the Nones: the days between the Nones and Ides as so many days before the Ides; and the remaining days of the month as so many days before the Kalends of the next month. The day immediately preceding any of these reckoning points was called pridie Nonas, etc.; the day next but one before was the third day before (in consequence of the Nones, etc., being themselves included in the reckoning), and so on.
4. There are two abbreviated modes of denoting the date; e. g., the 27th of March might be marked as vi Kal. Apr., or a. d. vi Kal. Apr. The first is for sexto (die ante) Kalendas Apriles; the second for ante diem sextum Kalendas Apriles. The latter expression appears to have originally signified before (on the sixth day) the Kalends of April; the exact day being thrown in parenthetically, and attracted from the ablative into the accusative case in consequence of following ante. Similarly we find the date sometimes denoted by the number of days preceding a festival : as, a. d. v. Terminalia, i. e., 19th Feb. (the festival of the god of boundaries being on the 23 d Feb.). This expression was considered as one word, before which in or ex may stand: as, Ex ante diem iii Nonas Junias usque ad pridie Kalendas Septembres, from the 3d June to the $31 s t$ August; differre aliquid in ante diem $x \vee$ Kalendas Novembres, to put off something to the 18th October.
5. The readiest way of reckoning the day is,

1. If the date lie between the Kalends and Nones, or between the Nones and Ides, to subtract the number of the day mentioned from the number of the day on which the Nones or Ides fall, and add one (for the inclusive reckoning).
2. If the date lie between the Ides and the Kalends, to subtract the number of the day mentioned from the number of the days in the month, and add two (i. e., one for the inclusive reckoning, and one because the Kalends are not the last of the month in which the date lies, but the first of the following month).
3. In leap year the intercalated day was counted between a. d. vi Kal. Mart. and a. d. vii Kal. Mart., and called a. d. bissextum Kal. Mart. (Hence the name of leap year, annus bissextīlis.)
4. Before the reformation of the Calendar by Julius Caesar, B. c. 45, the number of days in the months was in March, May, July, and October, 31 ; in February 28 ; in all the rest 29. As these four months were two days longer, the Nones and Ides were two days later. This should be remembered in reading Cicero's letters, many of which were written before 45 B . c. After that year the number of days in each month was the same as now.
5. The year was designated by the names of the consuls for that year. Thus, Vergil was born M. Licinio Crasso et Cn. Pompeio Magno consulibus (abl. absol.), in the consulship of Crassus and Pompey. Sometimes events are dated in their year after the founding of the city (A. U. C., U. C., or A.).
6. The following Table supposes the date to be subsequent to B. C. 45 . The usual abbreviated form is given.
It must be remembered that Kalendae, Nonae, and Idus are feminine, and the months adjectives; that the dates Kalendis, Nonis, and Idibus (on the first, fifth, etc.) are in the ablative; and that a. d. vi Non. Mart., etc., is for ante diem sextum Nonas Martias.

|  |  |
| :---: | :---: |

1. Kalendis.
2. a. d. iv. Non.
3. a. d. iii. Non.
4. Prid. Non.
5. Nonis.
6. a. d. viii. Id.
7. a. d. vii. Id.
8. a. d. vi. Id.
9. a. d. v. Id.
10. a. d. iv. Id.
11. a. d. iii. Id.
12. Prid. Id.
13. Idibus.
14. a. d. xix. Kal.
15. a. d. xviii. Kal.
16. a. d. xvii. Kal.
17. a. d. xvi. Kal.
18. a. d. xv. Kal.
19. a. d. xiv. Kal.
20. a. d. xiii. Kal.
21. a. d. xii. Kal.
22. a. d. xi. Kal.
23. a. d. x. Kal.
24. a. d. ix. Kal.
25. a. d. viii. Kal.
26. a. d. vii. Kal.
27. a. d. vi. Kal.
28. a. d. v. Kal.
29. a. d.iv. Kal.
30. a. d. iii. Kal. 31. Prid. Kal.


Kalendis.
a. d. iv. Non. a. d. iii. Non. Prid. Non. Nonis. a. d. viii. Id. a. d. vii. Id. a. d. vi. Id. a.d. v. Id. a. d. iv. Id. a. d. iii. Id. Prid. Id.

Idibus.
a. d. xviii. Kal.
a. d. xvii. Kal.
a. d. xvi. Kal.
a. d. xv. Kal.
a. d. xiv. Kal.
a. d. xiii. Kal.

Feb., Sept., Jan.
a. d. xii. Kal. a. d. xi. Kal. a. d. x. Kal. a.d. ix. Kal. a. d. viii. Kal. a. d. vii. Kal. a. d. vi. Kal. a. d. v. Kal. a. d. iv. Kal. a. d. iii. Kal. Prid. Kal.


Kalendis. a. d. vi. Non.
a.d. v. Non. a.d.iv. Non. a.d. iii. Non. Prid. Non.

Nonis. a. d. viii. Id. a. d. vii. Id. a. d. vi. Id. a.d. v. Id. a.d.iv. Id. a. d. iii. Id. Prid. Id.

Idibus.
a. d. xvii. Kal.
a. d. xvi. Kal.
a.d. xv. Kal.
a.d. xiv. Kal.
a. d. xiii. Kal.
a. d. xii. Kal.
a. d. xi. Kal.
a.d. x. Kal.
a.d. ix. Kal.
a. d. viii. Kal.
a. d. vii. Kal.
a. d. vi. Kal.
a.d. v. Kal.
a. d. iv. Kal.
a. d. iii. Kal.

Prid. Kal.

[^17]
## Principal Extant Latin Authors.

## 314. PraE-CICERONIAN AGE.

Cn. Naevius, a Latin of Campania, d. 199 b. c. Dramatic and epic poems; only fragments extant.
T. Maccius Plautus, b. 254 в. c., at Sassina in Umbria, d. 184 в. c. Comedies, 20 of which are extant, many being written 201-189 в. с.
Q. Ennius, b. 239 b. c., at Rudiae in Calabria, d. 169 B. c. Poems epic and dramatic; only fragments extant.
M. Porcius Cato (Censorinus), b. 234 B. C., at Tusculum, d. 149 в. c. History, speeches, and treatise on farming; this treatise and fragments extant.
P. Tĕrentius, b. 185 B. C., at Carthage, d. 159 в. c. Six comedies; all preserved.
L. Attius (or Accius), b. 170 b. C., d. circa 104 b. C. Tragedies and other poems; fragments only extant.
C. Lücīlius, b. 148 в. c., at Suessa Aurunca in Campania, d. 103 b. c. Satires; only fragments extant.

## 315. GOLDEN $A G E$.

## 1. Ciceronian:

Cornificicius, probable name of the author of a treatise on rhetoric addressed to C. Herennius and printed with Cicero's works. Possibly Q. Cornificius trib. pl. 69 в. c.
M. Terentius Varro, b. 116 в. c., at Reate, d. 27 B. C. Antiquarian and grammatical writings; satires, partly in verse; a treatise on farming. Extant: part of a work on the Latin language (written cir. $43 \mathrm{~B} . \mathrm{c}$.), and the treatise de re rustica (written $37 \mathrm{~B} . \mathrm{c}$.) : fragments only of others.
M. Tullius Cǐcĕro, b. 106 в. c., at Tusculum, d. 43 в. C. Speeches, treatises on rhetoric and philosophy, and private letters. 58 speeches (some matilated), most of the treatises, and many letters, are extant. Speeches from 81 B. C.; treatises from 55 b. C., except a work on rhetoric written in his youth ; letters from 68 в. C.: all reaching nearly to his death. Fragments only of his poems extant.
Q. Tullius Cicero, b. 102 в. c., d. 43 B. c. A short political essay de petitione consulatus: extant (with his brother's writings).
C. Jūlius Caesar, b. 100 B. C., d. 44 B. C. Speeches, history, treatises on astronomy and grammar; only histories (or rather notes for history) of his own campaigns extant.
A. Hirtius, d. 43 b. C., wrote 8th book of Caesar de Bello Gallico, and Bellum Alexandrinum : both extant, printed with Caesar.
Cornēlius Nĕpos, b. 104 to 94 в. c., near the Po, d. after 32 в. C. History in the form of biographies: some extant.
T. Lŭcrētius Cārus, b. 90 в. C., d. 55 в. C. Philosophical poem: extant.
C. Vălĕrius Cătullus, b. 87 B. c. at Verona, d. 54 в. C. Poems, of varied character; epic, lyric, occasional: extant.
Publilius Syrus of Antioch, cir. 45 B. c. Mimes. Extant a collection of proverbial lines extracted from them.
C. Sallustius Crispus, b. 87 в. c., at Amiternum, d. 34 B. C. History. Extant: histories of wars with Catiline and with Jugurtha, and some speeches from the other histories.
M. Caelius M. F. Rūfus, b. 85-82 в. C., d. cir. 48 b. C. Speeches. Some lively letters to Cicero are extant, forming Book viii. of Cic. ad Familiares.
Among other correspondents of Cicero, several of whose letters have come to us with Cicero's, are L. Munatius Plancus (Cic. ad Fam. Book x.) ; C. Asinius Pollio (same Book) ; D. Brutus (Book xi.); C. Cassius (Book xii.) ; P. Lentulus (ibid.) ; M. Junius Brutus (Cic. Epist. ad M. Brutum). One or two letters also occur from C. Jul. Caesar, Cn. Pompeius, M. Porcius Cato, M. Antonius, M. Lepidus, Q. Metellus Nepos, Matius, Caecina, Cicero filius.

## 2. Augustan:

P. Vergǐlius Măro, b. 70 в. C., at Andes, near Mantua, d. 19 в. c. Rural and epic poems, viz., Bucolica (в. c. 41-38) ; Georgĭса (в. С. 37-30); Aenēis (begun cir. B. c. 26 ; left unfinished at his death): all extant. Some other smaller poems, partly satirical, which have been ascribed to him, are extant.
Q. Hǒrātius Flaccus, b. 65 B. C., at Venusia, d. 8 b. c. Poems lyrical and satirical or didactic; partly in the form of epistles; all extant.
T. Līvius, b. 59 в. c., at Patavium, d. 16 A. D. History of Rome from the foundation of the city to the death of Drusus ( 9 в. c.), in 142 books, of which 35 books (viz., i.-x., xx.-xlv.) only are extant.

Albius Tǐbullus, b. cir. 54 в. C., d. 19 в. c. Poems chiefly amatory. Other poems are printed with Tibullus', especially those of
Lygdămus, b. cir. 43 в. c. Amatory poems.
Sextus Prŏpertius, b. cir. 49 в. C., in Umbria, d. after 16 в. c. Poems chiefly amatory; all extant.
L. Annaeus Sĕněca (the father), b. cir. 54 B. C., at Corduba, d. cir. 38 A. D. Wrote in old age reminiscences and specimens of the exercises of rhetorical schools, called Suasoriae and Controversiae; partly extant. (Often called Seneca Rhetor to distinguish him from his son.)

Vitruvius Pollio, cir. 14 b. C. Wrote a work on Architecture, still extant.
P. Ovǐdius Näso, b. 43 b. C., at Sulmo, d. 17 A. D. Poems amatory (B. c. 14-1 A. D.), mythological and antiquarian (A. D. 2-8), and elegiac (A. D. 9-16) ; all extant. A tragedy which he wrote is not extant.

Grātius. Poem on hunting; extant probably only in part.

Mānīlius. Poem on astronomy written about the end of Augustus's reign ; extant.

## 316. SILVER AGE.

## 1. Early:

T. Claudius Caesar Germānǐcus, b. 15 b. C., d. 18 A. D. Translation in hexameters of Aratus's poem on the constellations.
M. Vellēius Pătercŭlus, a soldier before 1 A. D., died after 30 A. D. Roman history ; a short work, mainly extant.
Vălĕríus Maxǐmus, cir. $30 \mathrm{~A} . \mathrm{D}$. Wrote a collection of anecdotes, all or almost all extant.
A. Cornelius Colsus, time of Tiberius. Practical treatises on various arts; work on medicine extant.

Phaedrus (freedman of Augustus). Fables in verse; mainly extant.
L. Annaeus Sĕnĕca (the son), b. cir. 4 B. C., d. 65 A. D. Philosophy and tragedies; both largely extant.
Q. Curtius Rūfus, time of Claudius. History of Alexander the Great; not wholly extant.
L. Jūnius Mŏdĕrātus Cŏlŭmella, of Gades, time betwęen Celsus and Plinius major. Treatise on farming, in twelve books (one in verse); all extant.
Q. Ascōnins Pědiānus, cir. 3-88 A. D. Notes on Cicero's speeches, partly preserved.
Pompönius Mĕla, of Tingentera, in Spain, time of Claudius. Geography; extant.
A. Persius Flaccus, b. at Volaterra 34 A. D., d. 62 A. d. Satirical poetry ; extant.
M. Annaeus Lūcānus, b. 39 A. D., d. 65 A. D. Poem on the war between Pompey and Caesar, called Pharsalia; extant.
Petrōnius Arbĭter, time of Nero. Romance; extant in large fragments, chiefly in prose, but partly in verse.

Calpurnius, time of Nero. Bucolic poetry ; extant.

## 2. Age of Quintilian:

C. Plīnius Sěcundus (the elder), b. 23 A. D., d. 79 A. D. History, Grammar, Natural History ; extant only the Natural History, in 37 books.
C. Vălĕrius Flaccus, d. before 90 A. D. Epic poems on the Argonautic expedition; extant.
C. Sinius Itălĭcus, b. 25 A. D., d. 101 A. D. Epic poem on the second Punic War. Extant.
P. Papinius Stātius, b. at Naples, cir. 45 A. d., d. 96 A. D. Poems, epic and occasional. Extant: Thēbăis cir. 80-92 A. D. ; Achillēis (unfinished), and Silvae, written in the last years of his life.
M. Vălĕrius Martiālis, b. at Bilbilis, in Spain, cir. 42 A. D., d. cir. 102 A. D. Epigrams in verse ; extant.
M. Făbins Quintǐliānus, b. at Calagurris, in Spain, cir. 35 A. D., d. cir. 95 A. D. Treatise on rhetoric ; extant.
Sex Jūlius Frontīnus, b. cir. 40 A. D., d. cir. 103 A. D. Military and engineering works. Extant: treatise on Roman aqueducts, and anecdotes of military tactics, and fragments.

## 3. Age of Tacitus:

Cornēlius Tăcǐtus, b. cir. 54 A. D., d. cir. 119 A. D. Rhetoric and later Roman history. Extant : a considerable part of the history, a life of Julius Agricola, and a description of Germany. A dialogue de oratoribus is attributed to him, but its very different style from that of the other works of Tacitus makes this attribution doubtful.
C. Plīnius Caecǐlius Sěcundus (the younger), b. at Comum 62 A. D., d. 113 A. D. Letters (published by himself) and a panegyrical speech. Extant.
D. Jūniưs Jŭvĕnālis, b. at Aquīnum, cir. 67 A. D.; d. cir. 147 A. D. (So according to Friedländer. Usually put ten or twelve years earlier.) Satires; extant.
Velius Longus, time of Trajan. Grammatical treatises, one of which is extant.
Hygīnus, time of Trajan. Land surveying; partly extąnt.
C. Suētōnius Tranquillus, b. cir. 75 A. D., d. cir. 160 A. D. Biographical, antiquarian, and grammatical writings. Partly extant, principally the Lives of the Caesars, written cir. 120 A. D.-Roby.

## 317. ABBREVIATIONS.

1. First names (Praenomina)

| A. | Aulus. | Mam. | Mamercus. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| App. | Appius. | N. or Num. | Numerius. |
| C. | Gaius. | P. | Publius. |
| Cn. | Gnaeus. | Q. | Quintus. |
| D. | Decimus. | S. or Sex. | Sextus. |
| K. | Raeso. | Ser. | Servius. |
| L. | Lucius. | S. or Sp. | Spurius. |
| M. | Marcus. | T. | Titus. |
| M. or M. | Manius. | Ti. | Tiberius. |

Women's names are expressed by inverted cliaracters: as,, $\boldsymbol{\rho}$ for Gaia.

> 2. Titles of Persons, etc.

| Ces. or Cens. | Censor or Censores. | D. | Divus. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Cos.* | Consul or Consules. | Des. | Designatus. |
| Coss. | Consules. |  |  |

[^18]| F. | Filius. | Resp. | Respublica. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| III. V. R. C. | $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { Triumvir Reipublicae } \\ \text { constituendae. }\end{array}\right.$ |  | Respublica Populi Romani Quiritium. |
| Pr. | Imperator. | S. | Servus. |
| EG | Legatus. | S. P. Q. R | Senatus Populusque |
| L. or L | Libertus, Liberta |  | Romanu |
| Mag. | Magister. | S.P.P. | Senatus Populus Ple- |
| N. | Nepos. |  | besque Romana. |
| P. C | Patres Con | Tr. Mi | Tribunus Militum |
| P. M | Pontifex Maxim | Tr. Pl. | ibunus Plebi |
| Pr. | Praetor, or Praetores. | Tr. Рот. | Tribunicial Potestate. |
| Proc. or Pro. | Pro consule, i. e., Pro- | X . V. | Decemvi |
| Cos. | consul. | X. Vir. S | Decemvir stlitibus (i. |
| Pro. Pr. | Propraetor. | Judik. | e., litibus) judican- |
| Proq. | Proquaestor. |  | dis. |
| P. R. | Populus Romanus. | XV. V. S. | Quindecimviri sacris |
| Q. | Quaestor. |  | faciundis. |
| Quir. | Quirites. |  |  |

The name of the tribe to which a person belonged is sometimes added to the name in an abbreviated form : thus, Pup. for Pupiniā ; Qui. or Quir. for Quirinā ; Esq. for Esquilinā.

## 3. Sepulchral.

| D. M. S. | Dis Manibus Sacrum. | H. S. E. | Hic situs est. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| D. S. P. | De sua pecunia. | OB. | Obiit. |
| F. C. | Faciendum curavit. | P. C. | Ponendum curavit. |

H. C. E. Hic conditus est.
4. In voting on trials.

| A. | Absolvo. | A. P. | Antiquam (legem) probo. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| C. | Condemno. | V. R. | Uti.rogas. |

## 6. Epistolary.

D. Data (est epistola).
S. D. Salutem dicit.
S. P. D. Salutem plurimam dicit.
S. Salutem (dicit),
S. V. B. E. E. V. Si vales, bene est: ego valeo.
S. T. E. Q. V. B. E. E. Q. V. Si tu exercitusque valetis bene est: ego quoque valeo.
S. V. G. V. Si vales gaudeo. Valeo.
7. In decrees of the Senate.
D. E. R. I. C. De ea re ita censu- Scr. ARF. Scribendo arfuerunt (i.e.,
erunt.
I. N. Intercessit nemo.
S. C. Senatus consultum.
adfuerunt).
V. F. Verba fecit.

## 8. Miscellaneous.

A. U. C. Anno urbis conditae. ITER. Iterum.
D. D. Dono dedit. L. Libertas.

DD. Dederunt. M. P. Mille passuum.
D. D. D. Dat, dicat, dedicat. Q. B. F. F. Q. S. Quod bonum felix
F. F. F. Felix, faustum, fortunafaustumque sit. tum.
HS (for IIS, i. e., duo + semis) sestertius.

## 9. Modern Latin.

A. C. Anno Christi.
A. D. Anno Domini.
A. M. Anno mundi.
a. C. n. ante Christum natum.
p. C. n. post Christum natum.
c. caput, capitis, etc. (chapter).
cet. cetera.
cf. confer or conferatur.
cir. circa (about).
Cod., Codd. Codex, Codǐces.
coll. collato or collatis.
C. P. P. C. collatis pecuniis ponen- N. F. Novum Foedus. dum curaverunt. N. T. Novum Testamentum.
comp. or cp. compara or compare- obs. observa or observetur. tur.
del. dele or deleatur.
D. O. M. Deo optimo maximo.
ed., edd. editio, editiones.
e.g. exempli gratiā.
etc. or \&c. et cetera.
h. e. hoc est.
I. C. Jesus Christus,
I. H. S. Jesus Hominum Salvator. v. c. verbi oausā.

Ictus. Juris consultus. V. cel. Vir celeberrimus.
ibid. ibidem. V. cl. Vir clarissimus.
id. idem.
i. e. id est. 25 *
i. q. id quod.
L. or Lib., Libb. Liber, Libri.
L. B. Lectori Benevolo.

1. c. loco citato.
1.1. 1000 laudato.
leg. lege or legatur.
L. S. Locus Sigilli.

MS., MSS. Manuscriptum (or Manusoriptus, sc. liber), Manuscripta, or manusoripti.
N. B. Nota bene.
P. S. Postsoriptum.
q. v. quem (or quod) vide.
sc. scilicet.
sq., sqq. sequenti, sequentibus.
s. $\mathrm{\nabla}$. sub voce.
vid. vide.
viz. videlicet.
v. versus, versum, etc.
V. F. Vetus. Foedus.
V. T. Vetus Testamentum.

## 10. Academic.

A. B. Artium Baccalaureus, Bachelor of Arts.
A. M. Artium Magister, Master of Arts.
D. Doctor.

LL. B. Legum Baccalaureus, Bachelor of Law.
LL. D. Legum Doctor, Doctor of Laws.
LTT. D., or L. H. D., Litterarum Humaniorum Doctor, Doctor of Literature.
M. D. Medicinae Doctor, Doctor of Medicine.

Mus. D. Musicae Doctor, Doctor of Music.
Ph. D. Philosophiae Doctor, Doctor of Philosophy.
S. T. D. Sanctae Theologiae Doctor, Doctor of Divinity.
S. T. P. Sanctae Theologiae Professor, Professor of Divinity.
S. B. Scientiae Baccalaureus, Bachelor of Science.
S. D. Scientiae Doctor, Doctor of Science.
*** Other Academical Degrees are represented by similar initials.



Abbreviations: w., with; compd., compound or compounded. The figures denote the sections.
-a, denoting agent, 104, 4, Rem.; female names, $104,31$.
$-\bar{a}$ in abl., 270, 1, 1.
a, ab, abs, form in compounds, 101, I.; before words of distance, off, 129, 5 ; w. abl. of agent, 173 ; w. verbs of abstaining, excluding, etc., 177, 1; w. verbs of driving out, 177, 3 ; w. abl. of remote origin, 178,3 ; after adjs., 181,1 ; w. abl. of place whence, 182, 2; w. abl., 186.
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[^0]:    "Tardior ut paulo graviorque veniret ad aures, Spondeos stabiles in jura paterna recepit."

[^1]:    Exceptions.-1. The following names of rivers are feminine: Allia, Albŭlă, Mātrŏnă, Styx, and Lēthē.
    2. Names of countries ending in -ŭm or -ă (plur.) are neater: as, Lătiñ̃m, Bactră.

    Pōntŭs, Hellespontŭs, Isthmŭs, are masculine.
    3. Names of trees in -er and -ŭr of the third declension are neuter: as, sĭlĕr, an osier; rōbŭr, an oak; those in -ěr, of the second declension, are usually masculine, as are also many of those in -ŭs.

[^2]:    ＊Hence inch as well as ounce is derived from uncia．
    $\dagger$ This term must either have been formed when the as was equal to 4 unciae； or be short for two－thirds of an as．

[^3]:    * The English forms am, art, is, are, belong to the root as ; be to the root bhu.
    $\dagger$ The tenses of the Subjunctive have many different translations in English, according to the construction of the sentences in which they stand. Their various uses are explained under Syntax of the Subjunctive Mood.

[^4]:    $\qquad$

[^5]:    * 'The irregular forms are given in italics.

[^6]:    * Give the inflections in full : tuli, tulisti, tulit, tulïmus, tulistis, tulērunt or tulēre.

[^7]:    * Forms in parentheses are seldom used.

[^8]:    1 So nearly all compounds of plico, to fold, which has no perfect or supine.
    2 Dīmíco has dimicãvi and dimicŭi (twice in Ovid), dïmicātum; ēmĭco has fut. part. emicatūrus.

    3 Fut. part. jŭvātūrus; adjŭvo has adjūtūrus.

[^9]:    1 A form tergo, tergěre, is found less frequently.
    2 So all compounds of spondeo, to promise.
    3 So all compounds, except elicio (6), of the unused verb lacio, to entice. Prolicio has no perfect or supine.

    4 So all compounds of the verb specio, to look, found only in Plautus.

[^10]:    1 Explōdo (hiss off), exploděre, explōsi, explōsum. So the other compounds, except applaudo, which does not change the vowel.

    2 So most compounds of do (dăre), to give, to put; as, abdo, hide; condo, found; crēdo, believe; dēdo, give up; ēdo, give forth; perdo, lose, destroy; prōdo, betray; reddo, restore ; trādo, deliver up; vendo, sell. But the half compounds, circumdo, surround; pessumdo, ruin; sătisdo, give security; and vēnumdo, offer for sale, form perfect, supine, and infinitive like do, and belong to the First Conjugation.

    3 The compounds frequently retain the reduplication, as accŭcurri; more usually (in Cicero and Livy) drop it, as accurri.

    4 Plautus always, and Terence sometimes, have perfect parsi.
    5 The future participle is părǐtūrus.
    6 Compounds have punxi in the perfect.
    7 So all compounds of sisto, to stop (itself a reduplicated form of sto), which rarely has the perfect stiti, and has no supine. Sisto is rarely intransitive, and then has the perfect stĕti.

[^11]:    1 So all compounds of linquo, perf. liqui, to leave, which has no supine.
    2 So all compounds of the unused verb cando, to set on fire.
    3 So all compounds of pello, to drive. Rěpello always has rēpŭli or reppŭli.
    4 So all compounds of tundo, to beat or pound; supines in -tunsum occur.
    5 So all compounds of the unused verb fendo, to strike.
    6 So all compounds of cădo, to fall; except that the supine is rarely found.
    7 So all compounds of caedo, to cut, fell, slay.
    8 Often contracted into prendo, etc.
    9 Scando becomes scendo in compounds, as, descendo, descendi, descensum, to descend.
    10 So all compounds of curro, to run. But some have the reduplicated form also; as, dēcurro, to run down, which has perf. dēcurri and dēcŭcurri.
    11 So all compounds of pendo, to weigh.
    12 A supine ălitŭm is found in post-Augustan writers.

[^12]:    1 The compounds make -sǐlio, -silīre, -silŭi, -sultum, as, rěsĭlio, to leap back. 2 The compounds make -f ǐtĕor, -f ĭtēri, -fessus: as, conf ĭtěor, to confess.

[^13]:    1 The compounds make -grědǐor, -grědi, -gressus: as, aggrědior, to attack.
    2 The future participle is mǒrĭtūrus. An infin. mǒrīri and ēmŏrīri occurs several times in Plautus, once in Terence, and once in Ovid.

    3 Properly the passive of reverto.
    4 Pŏtior, be master, is of the Fourth Conjugation, but in some forms wavers between the Fourth and the Third. Almost always pŏtǐtur, pŏtĭmur.

    5 Orior has some forms of the Third Conjugation (like capior): Pres. Ind., orĕris, orǐtur, orǐmur; Imperf. Subj., orīrer and orěrer; Fut. Part., ǒrǐtūrus; Gerundive, oriundus (used as adj.). The compound adorior has in Pres. Ind., adorīris, adorītur.

[^14]:    Note. - For the changes which prepositions undergo in composition, see page 151.

[^15]:    * Originally, "the more strongly intoned part of the measure was called thesis ( $\theta \dot{\epsilon} \sigma$ rs), because in beating time the foot was here set down, while the lighter part of the measure, during which the foot was raised, was called arsis (äpots)." The Roman writers inverted this use. The accent in the examples marks the regular place of the ictus.

[^16]:    * In March, July, October, May,

    The Ides were on the fifteenth day,
    The Nones upon the seventh, we say.
    (For other months, take two away.)

[^17]:    * In leap year, the 24th Feb. was called a. d. bis sextum Kal. Mart.; the $25 t h, ~ a . d . ~ v i . ~ K a l . ~ M a r t . ~ ; ~ t h e ~ 26 t h, ~ a . ~ d . ~ v . ~ K a l . ~ M a r t . ~ ; ~ t h e ~ 27 t h, ~ a . ~ d . ~ i v . ~ K a l . ~$ Mart. ; the 28th, a. d. iii. Kal. Mart.; the 2gth, Prid. Kal. Mart. The first twenty-three days were designated as in other years.

[^18]:    *"Not until the 3d cent. after Christ was cons. used; in Diocletian's time began the custom of doubling the $\mathbf{s}$ (e. g., conss.) to denote the plural."

