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## GRAMMAR

OF THE

## LATIN LANGUAGE;

FOR THE

## USE OF SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

## BY

E. A. ANDREWS AND S. STODDARD.

## The Fifty-cigllith Edition.

CAREFULLY REVISED AND CORRECTED, Br E.A. ANDREWS, LL.D.

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## PREFACE.

The Grammar here presented to the public originated in a design, formed several years since, of preparing a new edition of Adam's Latin Grammar, with such additions and corrections as the existing state of classical learning plainly demanded. We had not proceeded far in the execution of this purpose, before we were impressed with the conviction, which our subsequent researches continually confirmed, that the defects in that manual were so numerous, and of so fundamental a character, that they could not be removed without a radical change in the plan of the work.

Since the first publication of that Grammar, rapid advances have been made in the science of philology, both in Great Britain and upon the continent of Europe. In the mean time, no corresponding change has been made in that work, and, after the lapse of half a century, it still continues, in its original form, to occupy its place in most of the public and private schools in this country. For this continuance of public favor it has been indebted, partly to a greater fulness of detail than was found in the small grammars which it has superseded, partly to the reluctance so commonly felt to lay aside a manual with which all are familiar; but, principally, to the acknowledged fact, that the grammars which have been proposed as substitutes, not excepting even those translated from the German, though often replete with philosophical views of the highest interest, have still been destitute of many of the essential requisites of a complete introduction to the Latin language.

Instead, therefore, of prosecuting our original purpose, we at length determined to mould our materials into a form corre-
sponding with the advanced state of Latin and Greek philology. With this view, we have devoted much time to a careful examination of such works as promised to afford us the most material assistance. From every source, to which we could gain access, we have drawn whatever principles appeared to us most important. These we have sometimes expressed in the words of the author from whom they were derived ; but, in general, we have preferred to exhibit them in our own language. The whole, with the exception of three or four pages only, has been sent to the compositor in manuscript.

The limits of a preface will allow us to notice but a few of the more prominent peculiarities of the following work.
'To insure a correct and uniform pronunciation of the Latin language, our experience had satisfied us, that rules more copious and exact than any now in use were greatly needed. In presenting the rules of orthoëpy contained in this Grammar, it is not our object to introduce innovation, but to produce uniformity. This we have endeavored to effect by exhibiting, in as clear a light as possible, the principles of pronunciation adopted in the schools and universities of England, and in the principal colleges of this country. If these rules are regarded, the student can seldom be at a loss respecting the pronunciation of any Latin word.

As an incorrect pronunciation may generally be referred to the errors into which the student is permitted to fall while learning the paradigms of the grammar, we have endeavored to prevent the possibility of mistake in these, by dividing the words according to their pronunciation, and marking the accented syllable. If the instructor will see that the words are at first pronounced as they are set down in the paradigms, he will not afterwards be compelled to submit to the mortifying labor of correcting bad habits, when they have become nearly inveterate. Wherever a Latin word is introduced, its quantity is carefully marked, except in those cases in which it may be determined by the general rules in the thirteenth section. As the paradigms are divided and accented, it may not, in general, be expe-
dient for the student to learn the rules of pronunciation at his entrance upon the study of the Grammar. It will be sufficient for him, at first, to understand the principles of accentuation in the fourteenth and fifteenth sections. The remaining rules he can gradually acquire as he proceeds in his study of the language.

The materials for the subsequent departments of the Grammar have been drawn from various sources, most of which need not be particularly specified. It is proper, however, that, in this place, we should, once for all, acknowledge our obligations to the Grammars of Scheller, Zumpt, and Grant, and to the Dictionaries of Gesner and Facciolatus.

The paradigms of Adam's Grammar, as being generally known, have been retained, excepting a few, which were liable to valid objections. Penna was rejected, because, in the sense assigned to it of a pen, it is totally destitute of classical authority. Instead of this, musa, which is found in the older grammars, has been restored. In the third declension, several additional examples have been introduced.

Under adjectives, the different kinds of comparison, and the mode of forming each, have been explained. The terminations of the comparative and superlative are referred, like every other species of inflection, to the root of the word.

In treating of the pronouns, we have aimed so to arrange the several classes, as to exhibit their peculiar characteristics in a clear and intelligible manner.

The compounds of sum are given in connection with that verb. In the second conjugation, moneo has been substituted for doceo, as the latter is irregular in its third root. In the third conjugation, also, rego has been taken instead of lego, as the latter is irregular in its second roct, and, from its peculiar signification, cannot properly be used in the first and second persons of the passive voice.

In every conjugation except the first, the active and passive voices have been so arranged as to show the relation of their corresponding tenses.

The derivation of the several parts of the verb from the root is exhibited in a peculiar manner, and such as we have found in practice to render the varieties of termination, both in regular and irregular verbs, peculiarly easy to be retained in memory. Every part of the verb is shown to be naturally derived, either immediately or mediately, from its primary root. The mode of forming the secondary roots, and the terminations to be added to them and to the primary root respectively, in order to form the various tenses, are fully exhibited.

In each conjugation, those verbs whose second and third roots are either irregular or wanting, are arranged alphabetically, in order to render a reference to them as easy as possible.

In constructing the tables of verbs, and occasionally in other parts of etymology, we have derived essential aid from Hickie's Grammar, and we trust that the information resulting from his researches, in relation to the parts of verbs in actual use, will be esteemed not only curious but important. To a considerable extent, we have verified his statements by our own investigations; in consequence of which, however, some changes have been made in the parts of certain verbs as exhibited by him.

The rules of syntax contained in this work result directly from the analysis of propositions, and of compound sentences; and for this reason the student should make himself perfectly familiar with the sections relating to subject and predicate, and should be able readily to analyze sentences, whether simple or compound, and to explain their structure and connection. For this purpose, it is generally expedient to begin with simple English sentences, and to proceed gradually to such as are more complex. When in some degree familiar with these, he will be able to enter upon the analysis of Latin sentences. This exercise should always precede the more minute and subsidiary labor of parsing. If the latter be conducted, as it often is, independently of previous analysis, the principal advantage to be derived from the study of language, as an intellectual exercise will inevitably be lost. The practice which we would respectfully recommend is that which we have presented at the close of

Syntax under the head "Analysis." When language is studied in this way, it ceases to be a tiresome and mechanical employment, and not only affords one of the most perfect exercises of the intellectual faculties, but, in a short time, becomes a most agreeable recreation.

In the syntax of this Grammar, it is hoped that nothing essential which is contained in larger grammars, has been omitted. Our object has been in this, as in other parts of the work, to unite the comprehensive views and philosophical arrangement of the German philologists with the fulness and minuteness of the English grammarians. In no German grammar that we have seen, is the language well adapted to the capacity of the younger classes of students, or such as to be conveniently quoted in the recitation-room. These defects we have endeavored to remedy, by expressing the rules of syntax in as simple and precise language as possible. In the arrangement of the syntax, we have followed the order of the various cases and moods, so that whatever relates to each subject will be found under its appropriate head, and the connection of different subjects is ponted out by references from one part to another. In the distribution of the subo:dinate parts, we have endeavored to exhibit in the clearest manner their mutual relation and dependence.

The sections relating to the use of moods have received particular attention, as it is in this part, perhaps, more than in any other, that the common grammars are deficient. Upon this subject, in addition to the sources before enumerated, we have derived important aid from Carson's treatise on the relative, and from Crombie's Gymnasium.

The foundation of the prosody which is here presented, is to be found in the more extended treatises of Carey and Grant, and in that contained in Rees's Cyclopædia. From various other sources, also, occasional assistance has been derived; but in this, as in every other part of the Grammar, we have given to the materials such a form as seemed best adapted to our purpose.

Extended discussions of grammatical principles we have
every where omitted, as foreign to the design of our work, but have endeavored to present the results of such discussions in the manner most likely to serve the practical purposes of the student.

A prominent object in the composition of this Grammar, and one which we have endeavored to keep constantly before our minds, was the introduction of greater precision in rules and definitions, than is usually to be found in works of this kind. To this feature of our work we would respectfully invite the reader's attention. It will be found, if we mistake not, that, in the language of many of the grammars in common use, there is such inaccuracy, as well as indefiniteness, that many parts, if taken independently of examples, and of the explanations of the teacher, would be wholly unintelligible. This is especially the case in the rules of syntax. Take, for example, the common rule, " A verb agrees with its nominative in number and person." Whether the nominative intended is that which, in construction, precedes, or that which follows, the verb, or, in other words, whether it is the subject-nominative, or the predicate-nominative, is left undetermined.

So in the rule, "One substantive governs another signifying a different thing in the genitive," there is no intimation that the two substantives have any relation whatever to each other; it is not even required that they shall stand in the same proposition. The only condition is, that they shall signify different things. Any one substantive, therefore, governs any other substantive n the genitive, whenever and however used, and, in its turn, is governed in like manner by that other, provided they signify different things.

In like manner the rule, "One verb governs another in the infinitive," contains no limitation or restriction of any kind. The least that the student can be expected to infer from it is, that any verb may, in certain circumstances, govern an infinitive ; and this inference we know has actually been made by some respectable teachers. One who has formed such a conclusion may well be surprised to find that the number of
verbs followed by the infinitive without a subject-accusative, is very small, and that no inconsiderable portion of the verbs of the language cannot, under any circumstances whatever, govern an infinitive, either with or without such accusative.

Rules of this kind appear to have been intended not to lead the student to a knowledge of the structure of the language, but to be repeated by him after the construction has been fully explained by his teacher. Of themselves, therefore, they may be said to teach nothing. Similar remarks might be made respecting a very large proportion of the common rules of syntax, as will be obvious to any one who will take the trouble of subjecting them to a rigid scrutiny. As the object of syntax is to exhibit the relations of words and propositions, no rule can be considered as otherwise than imperfect, which leaves the nature and even the existence of those relations wholly indeterminate. An active verb, for example, may, in general, be followed by at least three different cases, in order to express what are sometimes called its immediate and its remote objects, and also some attendant circumstance of time, place, instrument, \&c. To say, then, that " A verb signifying actively governs the accusative," can give no precise information, unless we specify which of its relations is denoted by this case.

The fault to which we have now alluded, seems, in many cases, to have arisen from an excessive desire of brevity, and to have been perpetuated by the aversion so commonly felt to change a form of phraseology to which, however defective in its original, custom has at length attached a definite meaning. In cases of this kind, we have not scrupled to make such changes, both in rules and definitions, as the nature of the case seemed to us to demand; but, in doing this, we have not forgotten the importance of uniting brevity with precision.

In regard to the manner in which this work was composed, we would merely remark, that the labor has been in every respect a mutual one. The hand and mind of each have been repeatedly employed upon every part, until it has at length become impossible even for ourselves to recollect the share
which each has had in bringing the work to its present state. Of each and every part, therefore, it may be safely said that we are the joint authors; and hence, whatever of praise or blame may attach to any part, must be shared equally by each.

In commending to the patronage of the public a work on which so large a portion of our thoughts has been for several years employed, we will not pretend indifference to its fate. It was begun under a conviction, derived from the experience of many years in teaching the ancient languages, that a Latin grammar, different in many respects from any with which we were acquainted, was greatly needed in our schools and colleges Had we contemplated the amount of labor which its execution would impose upon us, we might probably have shrunk from the attempt, encumbered as we were with other employments. At every step, however, our labor has been cheered by the greater familiarity which we have acquired with the best of the Roman writers, and by the hope that the result might be of service to others in forming an acquaintance with the same immortal authors. Should the verdict of an enlightened public decide, that, in this respect, we have been successful, we shall feel ourselves fully recompensed for our labor, in the satisfaction of having contributed, in however humble a degree, to promote the cause of classical literature, and consequently of sound learning, among our countrymen.

Boston, April 8, 1836.

## ADVERTISEMENT TO THE FORTY-SIXTH EDITION.

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## LATIN GRAMNAR:

1\$ 1. Latin Grammar teaches the principles of the Latin Language.

These relate,

1. To its written characters;
2. To its pronunciation;
3. To the classification and derivation of its words;
4. To the construction of its sentences;
5. To the quantity of its syllables, and its versification.

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

## ORTHOGRAPHY.

§ 2. Orthography treats of the letters, and other characters of a language, and the proper mode of spelling words.

The letters of the Latin language are twenty-four. They have the same names as the corresponding characters in English. They are A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f; G, g; $\mathbf{H}, \mathrm{h} ; \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{i} ; \mathrm{J}, \mathrm{j} ; \mathrm{L}, \mathrm{l} ; \mathbf{M}, \mathrm{m} ; \mathbf{N}, \mathrm{n} ; \mathbf{O}, \mathrm{o} ; \mathrm{P}, \mathrm{p} ; \mathbf{Q}, \mathrm{q} ; \mathbf{R}, \mathrm{r}$; $\mathrm{S}, \mathrm{s} ; \mathbf{T}, \mathrm{t} ; \mathrm{U}, \mathrm{u} ; \mathrm{V}, \mathrm{v} ; \mathbf{X}, \mathrm{x} ; \mathbf{Y}, \mathrm{y} ; \mathbf{Z}, \mathrm{z}$.
$I$ and $j$ were anciently but one character, as were likewise $u$ and $v$.
$W$ is not found in Latin words, and the same is true of $k$, except at the beginning of a few words whose second letter is $a$; and, even in these, most writers make use of $c$.
$\boldsymbol{Y}$ and $z$ are found only in words derived from the Greek.
$H$, though called a letter, only denotes a breathing, or aspization

## DIVISION OF LETTERS.

\$ 3. LLetters are divided into vowels and consonants.
The rowels are fo........ $a, e, i, o, u, y, \ldots 6$
Liquids, $\ldots \ldots . . . l, m, n, r, \ldots . .4$
 divided into
$X$ is equivalent to $c s$ or $g s ; z$ to $t s$ or $d s$; and, except in compound words, the double letter is always written, instead of the letters which it represents.

## Diphthongs.

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

The diphthongs are $a e, a i, a u, e i, e u, o e, o i, u a, u e, u i, u 0$, $u u$, and $y i . \quad A e$ and $o e$ are frequently written together, $a, \infty$.

## PUNCTUATION.

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

The following marks, also, are sometimes found in Latin authors, especially in elementary works :-
$\ldots-=$ The first denotes that the vowel over which it stands is short; the second, that it is long ; the third, that it is doubtful.
^ This is called the circumflex accent. It denotes a contraction, and the vowel over which it stands is always long

- This is the grave accent, and is sometimes written over particles, to distinguish them from other words containing the same letters; as, quòd, because ; quod, which.
.. The diæresis denotes that the vowel over which it stands does not form a diphthong with the preceding vowel; as, aër, the air. It is used principally with $a e, a i$, and $o e$.


## ORTHOËPY.

§ 6. Orthoëpy treats of the right pronunciation of words.
The ancient pronunciation of the Latin language being in a great measure lost, the learned, in modern times, have applied to it those principles which regulate the pronunciation of their own languages; and hence has arisen, in different countries, a great diversity of practice.

In the following rules for dividing and pronouncing the words of the Latin language, we have endeavored to conform to English analogy, and to the settled principles of Latin accent. The basis of this system is that which is exhibited by Walker in his "Pronunciation of Greek and Latin Proper Names." To pronounce correctly, according to this method, a knowledge of the following particulars is requisite :-

1. Of the sounds of the letters in all their combinations.
2. Of the quantities of the penultimate and final syllables.
3. Of the place of the accent, both primary and secondary.
4. Of the mode of dividing words into syllables.

## OF THE SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

## I. Of the Vowels.

§7. 1. An accented vowel, at the end of a syllable, has always its long English sound; as,
$p a^{\prime}-t e r, d e^{\prime}-d i t, v i^{\prime}-v u s, t o^{\prime}-t u s, t u^{\prime}-b a, T y^{\prime}$-rus; in which the accented vowels are pronounced as in fatal, metre, vital, total, tutor, tyrant.
$\boldsymbol{E}, o$, and $u$, at the end of an unaccented syllable, have nearly the same sound as when accented, but shorter and more obscure ; as, $r e^{\prime}-t e, v o^{\prime}-l o, a c^{\prime}-u-o$.
$A$, at the end of an unaccented syllable, has the sound of $a$ in father, or in $a h$; as, $m u^{\prime}$-sa, e-pis'-tō-la; pronounced $m u '$-sah, \&c.
$I$, at the end of a word, has always its long sound.
So also in the first syllable of a word, the second of which is accented, when either the $i$ stands alone before a consonant, or ends the syllable before a vowel; as, $i$-do $0^{\prime}-n e-u s, f-e^{\prime}-b a m$ di-ur'-nus.

In other cases, at the end of an unaccented syllable not final, it has an obscure sound, like short $e$; as, $\boldsymbol{F a} a^{\prime}-b i-u s$, phi-los'-б́phus; pronounced $\boldsymbol{F a}^{\prime}-b e-u s, \& c$.

## Remare 1. The final $i$ of $t i b^{\prime}-i$ and $s i b^{\prime}-i$ also sounds like short $e$ <br> 2. $\boldsymbol{Y}$ is always pronounced like $i$ in the same situation.

§8. 2. When a syllable ends with a consonant, its vowel has the short English sound ; as,
mag'-nus, reg'-num, fin'-go, hoc, fus'-tis, cyg'-nus, in which the vowels are pronounced as in magnet, seldom, finish, copy, lustre, symbol.

Exception 1. $A$, when it follows $q u$ in an accented syllable, before $d r$ and $r t$, has the same sound as in quadrant and quart; as, qua'-dro, quad ${ }^{\prime}$-ra-gin'-ta, quar'-tus.

Exc. 2. Es, at the end of a word, is pronounced like the English word ease; as, ig'-nes, au'-des.

Exc. 3. Os, at the end of plural cases, is pronounced like ose in dose; as, nos, $i l^{\prime \prime}$-los, dom ${ }^{\prime}$ - - -nos.

Exc. 4. Post is pronounced like the same word in English; so also are its compounds ; as, post'-quam, post'-e-a; but not its derivatives; as, pos-tré-mus.

## II. Of the Diphthongs.

§ 9. Ae and oe are pronounced as $e$ would be in the same situation; as, $\boldsymbol{a}^{\prime}$-tas, as'-tas, cat'-ĕ-ra, pac'-na, $x s^{\prime}-t r u m$.
$A i, e i, o i$, and $y i$, usually have the vowels pronounced separately. When they are accented, and followed by another vowel, the $i$ is pronounced like initial $y$, and the vowel before it has its long sound; as, Maia, Pompeius, Troius, Harpyia; pronounced Ma'-ya, Pom-pe'-yus, Tro'-yus, Har-py'-ya.
$E i$, when a diphthong, and not followed by another vowel, is pronounced like long $i$; as in hei.
$A u$, when a diphthong, is pronounced like aw; as, laus, au'rum, pronounced laws, \&c.

In the termination of Greek proper names, the letters $a u$ are pronounced separately ; as, Men-e-lā'-us.
$\boldsymbol{E} u$, when a diphthong, is pronounced like long $u$; as, heu, Or'-pheus.
$\boldsymbol{U a}, u e, u i, u o, u u$, when diphthongs, are pronounced like $w a$, ve, \&c.; as, lin'-gua, que'-ror, sua'-de-o, quo'-tus, $e^{\prime}-q z u s$. They
are always diphthongs after $q$, and usually after $g$ and $s$. In $s u^{\prime}-u s, a r^{\prime}-g u-0$, and some other words, they are not diphthongs.
$U_{i}$ in cui and huic is pronounced like long 2.

## III. Of the Consonants.

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

The following cases, however, require particular attention.

## C.

$C$ has the sound of $s$ before $e, i$, and $y$, and the diphthongs $\mathscr{C}$ and $\mathscr{\infty}$; as, $c e^{\prime}-d o, \boldsymbol{C a}^{\prime}-$ sar, C $y^{\prime}$-rus. In other situations, it has the sound of $k$; as, $\boldsymbol{C a}-t o$, lac.

Ch has always the sound of $k$; as, charta, machǐna, pronounced $k a r^{\prime}-t a$, mak'ri-na.

Exc. $C$, following or ending an accented syllable, before $i$ followed by a vowel, and also before $e u$, has the sound of $s h$; as, socia, caduceus, pronounced so'she-a, ca-du'-she-us.

## G.

$\boldsymbol{G}$ has its soft sound, like $j$, before $e, i$, and $y$, and the diphthongs $\mathscr{C}$ and $\mathscr{\infty}$; as, ge $e^{\prime}-n u s$, re-g $i^{\top}-n a$. In other situations, it has its hard sound, as in bag, go.
Exc. When $g$, in an accented syllable, comes before $g$ sof, it coalesces with it in sound; as, agger, exaggěro, pronounced $a^{\prime}-e r$, \&c.

## S.

§11. $S$ has its hissing sound, as in so, thus.
Exc. 1. $\boldsymbol{S}$, following or ending an accented syllable, before $i$ followed by a vowel, and before $u$ ending a syllable, has the sound of sh; as, Persia, censui, pronounced Per'she-a, cen'-shu-i. But, in such case, $s$, if preceded by a vowel, has the sound of $z h$; as, Aspasia, Mosia, posui, pronounced $\operatorname{As-pa} a^{\prime}-z h e-a, ~ M e e^{\prime}-z h e-a$, poz $l^{\prime}-u-i$.

Note. In compound words, whose second part begins with $s u, s$ retains its hissing sound; as, in $^{\prime}$-sŭ-per.

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

English analogy has also occasioned the $s$ in $\mathrm{Ca}^{\prime}$-sar, ca-s $\bar{u}{ }^{\prime}-r a, m i^{\prime}-s e r$, $m u^{\prime}$-sa, re-sid ${ }^{\prime}$-u-um, cau'su, ro'sa, and their derivatives, and in some other words, to take the sound of $z$. Coss-a-ré'-a, and the oblique cases of Casar, retain the hissing sound; so likewise the compounds of trans.

## T.

§ 12. $T$, following or ending an accented syllable, before $i$ followed by a vowel, has the sound of $s h$; as, ratio, Sulpitius, pronounced $r a^{\prime}$-she-o, Sul-pish'e-us. But in such case, $t$, if preceded by $s$ or $x$, has the sound of ch in child; as, mixtio, Sallustius, pronounced mix'-che-o, Sal-lus'-che-us.

Exc. Proper names in tion, and old infinitives in er, preserve the hard sound of $t$; as, $A m$-phic'-ty-on, flec'-ti-er for flecti.

## X.

$X$, at the beginning of a syllable, has the sound of $z$; at the end, that of ks; as Xenŏphon, axis, pronounced Zen'-o-phon, $a k$-sis.

Exc. 1. In words beginning with $e x$, followed by a vowel in an accented syllable, $x$ has the sound of $g z$; as, examĭno, excmplum, pronounced eg-zam'-i-no, eg-zem'-plum.

Exc. 2. $\boldsymbol{X}$, ending an accented syllable, before $i$ followed by a vowel, and before $u$ ending a syllable, has the power of $k s h$; as, noxius, pexui, pronounced nok'she-us, pek'-shu-i.

Remark. Ch and $p h$, before $t h$, in the beginning of a word, are silent, as Chthonia, Phthia, pronounced Tho'-ni-a, Thi'-a. Also in the following combinations of consonants, in the beginning of words of Greek origin, the first letter is not sounded :-mne-mon'-i-ca, gna'-vus, tme ${ }^{\prime}$-sis, Cte $e^{\circ}$-sias, Ptol-e-ma'-us, psal'-lo.

## OF THE QUANTITIES OF THE PENULTIMATE AND

## FINAL SYLLABLES.

§ 13. The quantity of a syllable is the relative time occupied in pronouncing it.

A short syllable requires, in pronunciation, half the time of a long one.

The penultimate syllable, or penult, is the last syllable but one.
The antepenult is the last syllable but two.
The quantities of syllables are, in general, to be learned from the "Rules of Prosody;" but the following very general rules may be here inserted :-

A vowel before another vowel is short.
Diphthongs, not beginning with $u$, are long.
A vowel before $x, z, j$, or any two consonants, except a mute and liquid, is long, by position, as it is called.

A vowel before a mute and a liquid is common, i. e. either long or short.
In this Grammar, when the quantity of a penult is determined by one of the preceding rules, it is not marked; in other cases, except in dissyllables, the proper mark is written over its vowel.
To pronounce Latin words correctly, it is necessary to ascertain the quantities of their last two syllables only; and the rules for the quantities of final syllables would be unnecessary, but for the occasional addition of enclitics. As these are generally monosyllables, and, for the purpose of accentuation, are considered as parts of the words to which they are annexed, they cause the final syllable of the original word to become the penult of the compound. But as the enclitics begin with a consonant, the final vowels of all words ending with a consonant, if previously short, are, by the addition of an enclitic, made long by position. It is necessary, therefore, to learn the quantities of those final syllables only which end with a vonoel.

## OF ACCENTUATION.

§ 14. Accent is a particular stress of voice upon certain syllables of words.

When a word has more than one accent, that which is nearest to the termination is called the primary or principal accent.
The secondary accent is that which next precedes the primary.

A third and a fourth accent, in some long words, precede the secondary, and are subject, in all respects, to the same rules.

In words of two syllables, the penult is always accented; as, $p \bar{a}^{\prime}$-ter, $m \bar{a}^{\prime}$-ter, pen'-na.

In words of more than two syllables, if the penult is long, it is accented ; but if it is short, the accent is on the antepenult ; as, $a-m^{\prime \prime}-c u s, d^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}-i-n u s$.

Remark. Accent, as treated of in $\$ \$$ 14-23, refers to English pronunciation alone, (see § 6,) and not to the written accents mentioned in §5.
§ 15. If the penult is common, the accent, in prose, is upon the antepenult ; as, vol'-u-cris, phar'-e-tra, ib'-i-que: but genitives in ius, in which $i$ is common, accent their penult in prose; as, $u$-ni'-us, is-ti'-us.

The rules for the accentuation of compound and simple words are the same; as, se $e^{\prime}$ cum, sub ${ }^{\prime}-e-0$.
In accentuation, the enclitics $q u e, n e, v e$, and also those which are annexed to pronouns,* are accounted constituent

[^1]parts of the words to which they are subjoined; as, $i^{\prime}-t a, i t^{\prime}-\breve{a}_{-}$que; vi'-rum, vi-rum'-que.

If only two syllables precede the primary accent, the secondary accent is on the first; as, mod $^{\prime \prime}-e-r \bar{a}^{\prime}-t u s, ~ t o l l^{\prime \prime}-e-r a b^{\prime}-2-l i s$.
§ 16. If three or four syllables stand before the primary accent, the secondary accent is placed, sometimes on the first, and sometimes on the second syllable; as, de-mon"-stra-ban'-tur, $a d^{\prime \prime}$-o-les-cen'-ti-a.

Some words which have only four syllables before the primary accent, and all which have more than four, have three accents; as, mod ${ }^{\prime \prime \prime}$-e-ra $a^{\prime \prime}-t i-\bar{o}^{\prime}-n i s$, tol ${ }^{\prime \prime \prime}-e-r a-b i l^{\prime \prime}-i o^{\prime}-r e m$, ex-er $r^{\prime \prime \prime}-$ ci-ta" $-t i-\bar{o}^{\prime}-$-nis. In some combinations there are four accents; as, $e x-c r^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}-c i-t a^{\prime \prime \prime}-t i-o n^{\prime \prime}-i-b u s^{\prime}-q u e$.

## DIVISION OF WORDS INTO SYLLABLES.

## VOWELS.

§17. 1. Every Latin word is to be divided into as many syllables as it has separate vowels and diphthongs.
Remark 1. In the following rules, the term vowel includes not only single vowels, but diphthongs; ; and when a particular vowel is mentioned, a diphthong ending with that vowel is intended also.

## CONSONANTS.

Rem. 2. In the division of words into syllables, $c h, p h$, and $t h$, are con. sidered, not as separate letters, but as single aspirated mutes, and hence are never separated.

## 1. Simple Words.

§ 18. A.-A single consonant, or a mute with $l$ or $r$, between two vowels.
2. A single consonant, or a mute with $l$ or $r$ between the last two vowels of a word, or between the vowels of any two unaccented syllables, must be joined to the vowel that follows it; as, $t$ in $p a^{\prime}$-ter and au ${ }^{\prime}$-tem ; th ${ }^{*}$ in $a^{\prime}$-ther; cl in $\boldsymbol{H i}$-er ${ }^{\prime}$-ŏ-cles ; $q$ in $a^{\prime}-q u a ; c r$ in $a^{\prime}-c r i s$ and $v o l^{\prime}-u^{\prime}$-cris; chr ${ }^{*}$ in $a^{\prime}$-chras ; $r$ in tol ${ }^{\prime \prime}-e-r a-b i l^{\prime \prime-}-i-u s$; and $g r$ in $p e r^{\prime}-e-g r i-n a^{\prime}-t i-o$.

Exception (a.) Tib'-i and sib'-i are commonly excepted.
$\$ 19$. 3. A single consonant, or a mute with $l$ or $r$ before the vowel of an accented syllable, must be joined to the accented vowel ; as, $t$ in $i$-tin'- $-\stackrel{-}{\prime}-r a$; $t h h^{*}$ in $a-t h c^{\prime}-r i-u s ; c l$ in $E u$ -
 $q$ in $a-q u a^{\prime}-r i-u s ; ~ c l$ in $H e r^{\prime \prime}-a-c l \overline{e ́}^{\prime}-a$; and $p h r{ }^{*}$ in $\operatorname{Eu} u$ - $h r a^{\prime}-t e s$.

## Exception to the 2d and 3d Rules.

Exc. (b.) $G l, t l$, and $t h l{ }^{*}$ between any two vowels, are separated; as, $g l$ in $A E g^{\prime}$-le, and $A g^{\prime}$-lau-ros; $t l$ in $A t^{\prime}$-las ; and thl in ath-lat $l^{\prime}$--c-cus.
§20. 4. A single consonant after the vowel of any accented syllable, except a penult, must be joined to the accented vowel; as, $m$ in dom'-i-nus and dom $^{\prime \prime}-i-n \bar{a}^{\prime}-t u s$; $t$ in pat $t^{\prime}-\breve{e}-r a$; $t h^{*}$ in Scyth ${ }^{\prime}-i-a$; and $q$ in $a q^{\prime}-u i-l a$ and $A q^{\prime \prime}-u i-t a^{\prime}-n i-a$, (pronounced $a k^{\prime}-w e-l a h$ and $A k^{\prime \prime}-w e-t a^{\prime}-n e-a h$.)

Exc. (c.) $H$, standing alone between two vowels, is always joined to the vowel that follows it ; as, $m i^{\prime}-h i$, tra ${ }^{\prime}$-hě-re.
5. A mute with $l$ or $r$ after the vowel of any accented syllable, except a penult, must be separated; as, $c r$ in $a c^{\prime}-r_{\text {ri-ter }}$; $t r$ in det ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ - $r$ r-men ${ }^{\prime}$-tumı ; $p r$ in cap'-rǐ-pes; phl ${ }^{*}$ in Paph ${ }^{\prime \prime}$-la-gol-ni-a; and phr* in Aph-ro-dis'-i-a.

## Exceptions to the 4 th and 5 th Rules.

Exc. (d.) A single consonant, or a mute with $l$ or $r$, (except $g l$, $t l$, and $t h l,{ }^{*}$ ) after an accented $a, e$, or $o$, and before two vowels, the first of which is $e, i$, or $y$, must be joined to the syllable following the accent; as, $d$ in $r a^{\prime}-d i-u s, s u a^{\prime}-d e-o, t e^{\prime}-d i-u m$, and $m e^{\prime \prime}-d i-a^{\prime}-t o r ; r$ in $h e^{\prime}-r e-o$ and $C a^{\prime \prime}-r y-$ $\tilde{a}^{\prime}$-tes; ch ${ }^{*}$ in $b r a^{\prime}$-chi-um; $q$ in re ${ }^{\prime}$-qui-es and rellqui-cs'-co; and $t r$ in pal-tri-us and $\not{ }^{\prime} E-n o o^{\prime}-t r i-a$.

Exc. (e.) A single consonant, or a mute with $l$ or $r$, after an accented $u$, must be joined to the vowel that follows it ; as, $r$ in $l u^{\prime}-r r-d u s$ and $a u^{\prime}-$ re-us; cr in Eu'-crǐ-tus; and plin Nau'-pli-us, du'-plĭ-co, and du ${ }^{\prime \prime}$-pli-ca'-ti-o.

Rem. 3. $B l$, after $u$, are always separated; as, Pub'-li-us, Pub-lic' ${ }^{\prime}$ ö-la, res-pub'-ľ̌-ca.
§21. 6. $X$, when alone between two vowels, in writing syllables is united to the vowel that precedes it, but in pronouncing them it is divided; as, sax'-um, ax-il'-la, ex-em'-plum; pronounced sac'-sum, ac-sil'-lah, and eg-zem'-plum.
B.-Two consonants between two vowels.
7. Any two consonants (except a mute with $l$ or $r$ in the cases before mentioned $t$ ), when standing between two vowels, must be separated; as, $r p$ in cor'-pus ; rm in ger-m $\bar{a}^{\prime}$-nus ; rv in ca-ter'-va; sc in ad ${ }^{\prime \prime}$-o-les'-cens ; $n n$ in ant-nus; and plith ${ }^{*}$ in aph ${ }^{\prime}$-tha.
§ 22. C.-Three or four consonants between two vowels.
8. When three consonants stand between any two vowels, the two last, if a mute with $l$ or $r$, are joined to the latter vowel, otherwise the last anly ; as, str in fe-nes'-tra; mpl in ex-em'-plum ; rthr* in ar-thrí'-tis; and mpt in emp ${ }^{\prime}$-tō-res.
9. When four consonants come between two vowels, two are joined to each vowel ; as, nstr in trans'-trum.

## 2. Compound Words.

§23. 10. Compound and simple words are divided into syllables
 met, res ${ }^{\prime \prime}$-o-n $\bar{a}^{\prime}$-re.

Exc. (f.) In dividing a compound word into syllables, a consonant or consonants, after the last vowel in the former part of the compound word, must not be separated from such vowel; as, ab-es'-se, in'-ers, cirll-cum-


[^2]$\dagger$ See Rules 2 and 3, and Exceptions (d.) and (e.).

## ETYMOLOGY.

\$24. Etymology treats of the different classes of words, their derivation, and various inflections.

The different classes, into which words are divided, are called Parts of Speech.

The parts of speech in Latin are elght—Substantive or Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection.

The first four are inflected; the last four are not inflected, except that some adverbs change their termination to express comparison.

Substantives and adjectives are often included by grammarians under the general term nouns; but, in this Grammar, the word noun is used as synonymous with substantive only.
§25. To verbs belong Participles, Gerunds, and Supines, which partake of the meaning of the verb, and the inflection of the noun.

Infection, in Latin grammar, signifies a change in the termination of a word. It is of three kinds-declension, conjugation, and comparison.

Nouns, adjectives, pronouns, participles, gerunds, and supines, are declined; verbs are conjugated, and adjectives and adverbs are compared.

## NOUNS.

§ 26. A substantive or noun is the name of an object
A proper noun is the name of an individual object; as, Cesar ; Roma, Rome ; Tibĕris, the Tiber.

A common noun is the name of a class of objects, to each of which it is applicable ; as, homo, a man ; avis, a bird ; quercus, an oak ; lapis, a stone.

A collective noun is one which, in the singular number, denotes a collection of individuals ; as, popülus, a people; exercitus, an army.

An abstract noun is the name of a quality, action, or other attribute ; as, bonitas, goodness; gaudium, joy ; festnnatio, haste.

A material noun is the name of a substance considered in the gross ; as, lignum, wood ; ferrum, iron ; cibus, food.
Rexark. Proper, abstract, and material nouns become common, when employed to denote one or more of a class of objects. A verb in the infinitive mood is often used as an abstract noun.

To nouns belong gender, number, and case.

## GENDER.

§ 27. The gender of a noun is its distinction in regard to sex.

Nouns have three genders-masculine, feminine, and neuter.

The gender of Latin nouns is either natural or grammatical.
Those words are naturally masculine or feminine, which are used to designate the sexes.

Those are grammatically masculine or feminine, which, though they denote objects that are neither male nor female, take adjectives of the form appropriated to nouns denoting the sexes: thus, domĭnus, a lord, is naturally masculine, because it denotes a male; but sermo, speech, is grammatically masculine, because it takes an adjective of that form which is annexed to nouns denoting males.

The grammatical gender of Latin nouns depends either on their signification, or on their declension and termination. The following are the general rules of gender, in reference to signification. Many exceptions to them, on account of termination, occur : these will be specified under the several declensions.
§ 28. Masculines. 1. Names and appellations of all male beings are masculine; as, Homèrus, Homer ; pater, a father; consul, a consul; equus, a horse.

As proper names usually follow the gender of the general name under which they are comprehended; hence,
2. Names of rivers, winds, and months, are masculine, because fluvius, ventus, and mensis, are masculine ; as, Tibéris, the Tiber; Aquillo, the north wind; Aprilis, April.
3. Names of mountains are sometimes masculine, because mons is masculine; as, Othrys, a mountain of Thessaly; but
they usually follow the gender of their termination; as, hic* Atlas, hac Ida, hoc Soracte.
§29. Feminines. 1. Names and appellations of all female beings are feminine ; as, Helëna, Helen; mater, a mother ; juvenca, a heifer.
2. Names of countries, towns, trees, plants, ships, islands, poems, and gems, are feminine ; because terra, urbs, arbor, planta, navis, insüla, fabŭla, and gemma, are feminine; as,

Egyptus, Egypt ; Corinthus, Corinth; pirus, a pear-tree ; nardus, spikenard; Centaurus, the ship Centaur ; Samos, the name of an island; Eunūchus, the Eunuch, a conedy of Terence ; amethystus, an amethyst.
§30. Common and Doubtful Gender. Some words are either masculine or feminine. These, if they denote things animate, are said to be of the common gender ; if things inanimate, of the doubtful gender.

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

The following nouns are of the common gender:-

Adolescens, $a$ youth
Affīnis, a relation by
marriage.
Antistes, a chief priest. Auctor, an author.
Augur, an augur. Bos, an ox or cow. Canis, a dog. Civis, a citizen.
Comes, a companion.
Conjux, a spouse. Consors, a consort. Conviva, a guest. Custos, a keeper.

Dux, a leader.
Exul, an exile.
Hospes, a guest, a host.
Hostis, an enemy.
Infans, an infant.
Interpres, an interpreter. Judex, a judge. Juvĕnis, a youth. Miles, a soldier. Municeps, a burgess. Nemo, nobody. Obses, a hostage. Patruêlis, a cousin. Palumbes, a wood-pigeon. Vindex, an avenger.

The following hexameters contain nearly all the above nouns :-
Conjux, atque parens, princeps, patruēlis, et infans,
Affinis, vindex, judex, dux, miles, et hostis, Augur, et antistes, juvènis, conviva, sacerdos, Munخ-que-ceps, vates, adolescens, civis, et auctor, Custos, nemo, comes, testis, sus, bos-que, canis-que, Pro consorte tori par, prasul, verna, satelles, Atque obses, consors, interpres, et exul, et hospes.

[^3]§31. When nouns of the common gender denote males, they take a masculine adjective; when they denote females, a feminine.

The following are either masculine or feminine in sense, but masculine only in grammatical construction :-

| tufex, an artist. | Fur, a thief. | Opĭfex, a workman. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Auspex, a soothsayer | Heres, an heir |  |
| Cocles, a person having | Homo, a man or wooman. | $\stackrel{\text { Pugil, }}{ }$ |
| ques, $a$ hors | Latro, a robber. |  |
| Exlex, an outlaro. | Libêri, children. |  |

To these may be added personal appellatives of the first declension; as, advĕna, a stranger ; aurĭga, a charioteer; incŏla, an inhabitant: also some gentile nouns; as, Persa, a Persian ; Arcas, an Arcadian.
§32. The following, though masculine or feminine in sense, are feminine only in construction :-


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

$$
\left.\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Acroāma, a jester. } \\
\text { Auxilia, auxiliary troops. } & \text { Mancipium, }\} \text { Servitium, }
\end{array}\right\} \text { a slave. } .
$$

§33, Epicenes. Names of animals which include both sexes, but which admit of an adjective of one gender only, are called epicene. Such nouns commonly follow the gender of their terminations. Thus, passer, a sparrow, corvus, a raven, are masculine; aquĭla, an eagle, vulpes, a fox, are feminine; though each of them is used to denote both sexes.

This class includes the names of animals, in which the distinction of sex is seldom attended to. When it is necessary to mark the sex, mas or feminna is usually added.
§34. Neuters. Nouns which are neither masculine nor feminine, are said to be of the neuter gender; such are,

1. All indeclinable nouns; as, fas, nefas, nihil, gummi, pondo.
2. Names of letters; as, $\boldsymbol{A}, \boldsymbol{B}, \boldsymbol{C}, \& \mathrm{c}$.
3. Words used merely as such, without reference to their meaning; as, pater est dissyllăbum; pater is a dissyllable.
4. All infinitives, imperatives, clauses of sentences, adverbs,
and other particles, used substantively ; as, scire tuum, your knowledge; ultĭmum vale, the last farewell.
Remark. Words derived from the Greek retain the same gender which they have in that language.

## NUMBER.

§35. Latin nouns have two numbers,-the singular and the plural,-which are distinguished by their terminations.

The singular number denotes one object; the plural, more than one.

## CASES.

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

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

But though there is this number of cases, no noun has so many different terminations in each number.
§ 3\%. The nominative indicates the relation of a subject to a finite verb.

The genitive is used to indicate origin, possession, and many other relations, which, in English, are denoted by the preposition of.

The dative denotes that to or for which any thing is, or is done.

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

The vocative is the form appropriated to the name of any object which is addressed.

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

All the cases, except the nominative; are usually called oblique cases.

## DECLENSIONS.

$\$ 38$. The change of termination, by which the different cases and numbers of nouns are expressed, is called declension.

There are, in Latin, five different modes of declining nouns, called the first, second, third, fourth, and fifth declensions. These may be distinguished by the termination of the genitive singular, which, in the first declension, ends in $\mathscr{}$, in the second in $i$, in the third in $i s$, in the fourth in $\hat{u} s$, and in the fifth in $e i$.
§ 39. The following table exhibits a comparative view of the five declensions.

Terminations.
Singular.


## Plural.

| Nom. | æ, | ¢, | es, |  | es, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G | ārum, | ōrum, | um, or ium | uum, | ērum, |
| Dat. | is, | is, |  | ĭbus, or ŭbus, | èbus, |
| oc. | as, |  | es, ${ }_{\text {es, }}^{\text {aba }}$, iă, | ă, | es, |
| oc. | is. |  | es, ${ }_{\text {inbus. }}^{\text {ă, iă, }}$ |  | es, |

## Remarks.

\$40. 1. The terminations of the nominative, in the third declension, are very numerous, and are therefore omitted in the table.
2. The accusative singular ends always in $m$, except in some neuters.
3. The vocative singular is like the nominative in all Latin nouns, except those in $u s$ of the second declension.
4. The nominative and vocative plural end always alike.
5. The genitive plural ends always in um.
6. The dative and ablative plural end always alike ;-in the 1st and 2 d declensions, in is ; in the $3 \mathrm{~d}, 4$ th, and 5 th, in bus
7. The accusative plural ends always in $s$, except in neuters.
8. Nouns of the neuter gender have the accusative and vocative like the nominative, in both numbers; and these cases, in the plural, end always in $a$.
9. The 1st and 5th declensions contain no nouns of the neuter gender and the 4th and 5 th contain no proper names.
10. Every inflected word consists of two parts-a root, and a termination. The root is the part which is not changed by inflection. The termination is the part annexed to the root. The preceding table exhibits terminations only. In the fifth declension, the $e$ of the final syllable, though unchanged, is considered as belonging to the termination.

## FIRST DECLENSION.

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

Latin nouns of this declension end only in $a$, and are thus declined :-

Singular.
$\begin{array}{llr}\text { Nom. } & \mathrm{Mu}^{\prime}-\mathrm{sa}, \quad \text { a muse; } \\ \text { Gen. } & \mathrm{mu}^{\prime}-\mathrm{s} æ, \quad \text { of a muse; } \\ \text { Dat. } & \mathrm{mu}^{\prime}-\mathrm{s} æ, \quad \text { to a muse; } \\ \text { Acc. } & \mathrm{mu}^{\prime}-\mathrm{sam}, \quad \text { a muse; } \\ \text { Voc. } & \mathrm{mu}^{\prime}-\mathrm{sa}, \quad \text { O muse; } \\ \text { Abl. } & \mathrm{mu}^{\prime}-\mathrm{sa}, \quad \text { with a muse. }\end{array}$

Plural.
Nom. mu'sæ, muses; Gen. mu-sä'-rum, of muses; Dat. mu'-sis, to muses; Acc. mu'sas, muses; Voc. mu'-sæ, $\quad$ Omuses; Abl. mu'-sis, with muses

In like manner decline

Au'-la, a hall.
Cu -ra, care. Ga'-le-a, a helmet. In'-sü-la, an island. Lit'-è-ra, a letter.

Lus-cin'-i-a, a nightingale.
Mach'i-ina, a machine.
Pen'-na, a quill, a wing.

Sa-git'-ta, an arrow.
Stel'la, a star.
To'-ga, a gown.
$\mathrm{Vi}^{\prime}-\mathrm{a}, \boldsymbol{a}$ way.

Exceptions in Gender.
§42. 1. Appellatives of men, and names of rivers in $a$, are masculine, according to $\$ 28,1$ and 2 . But the poets have used the following names of rivers as feminine : Albŭla, Allia, Druentia, Gáarumna, Matrŏna, Mosella. Names of rivers in $e$ are also feminine ; as, Lethe.

Ossa and CEta, names of mountains, are masculine or feminine.
2. Hadria, the Adriatic sea, is masculine. Virgil uses dama twice and talpa once as masculine.

## Exceptions in Declension.

§43. Genitive singular. 1. The poets sometimes formed the genitive singular in $\bar{a} \bar{i}$; as, aula, a hall ; gen. auläi.
2. Familia, after pater, mater, filius, or filia, usually forms its genitive in as; as, mater-familias, the mistress of a family; gen. matris-familias; nom. plur. matres-familias or familiärum. Some other words anciently formed their genitive in the same manner.

Genitive plural. The genitive plural is sometimes contracted by omitting ar; as, Coelicŏlûm, for Colicolārum.

Dative and Ablative plural. The following nouns have generally $\bar{a} b u s$ in the dative and ablative plural, to distinguish them from the same cases of masculines in us of the second declension having the same root.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Dea, a goddess. } & \text { Equa, a mare. } \\
\text { Filia, a daughter. } & \text { Mula, a she mule. }
\end{array}
$$

The use of a similar termination in aňma, aš̌na, dom̌na, liberta, nata, serva, conseroa, and socia, rests on inferior authority.

## Greer Nouns.

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

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

| N. Pe-nel'-̌-pe, | J. $\notin-\mathrm{ne}{ }^{\prime \prime}$-as, | N. An-chī'-ses, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G. Pe-nel'б-pes, | G. $\mathbb{E}$-nê'-x, | G. An-chī'-sæ, |
| D. Pe-nell-ŏ-pæ, | D. $\not \subset$-nē'-m, | D. An-chī'-sm, |
| Ac. Pe -nel'-ǒ-pen, | Ac. E.-nē' am , or an, | Ac. An-chì'-sen, |
| $V$ V. Pe -nel ${ }^{\text {l }}$-oc-pe, | $V_{0} A_{1}^{1}-\mathrm{nēe}^{\prime}-\mathrm{a},$ | $V$. An-chì'-se, |
| Ab. Pe-nel'-ŏ-pe. |  | $A b$. An-chī ${ }^{-1}$ se |

§45. In like manner decline

Al'-o-e, aloes.
E-pit'-ǒ-me, an abridgment.
This'-be.
Bo'-re-as, the north wind. $\mathrm{Mi}^{\prime}$-das.

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

Patronymics in des have sometimes $e m$ for en in the accusative: as, Priamidem.

Greek nouns which admit of a plural, are declined in that number like the plural of musa.

The Latins frequently change the terminations of Greek nouns in es and $e$ into $a$; as, Atrides, Atrida, a son of Atreus; Perses, Persa, a Persian; geometres, geometra, a geometrician; Circe, Circa; epitöme, epitŏma; grammať̌ce, grammať̌ca, grammar; rhetorice, rhetorǐca, oratory.

## SECOND DECLENSION.

§46. Nouns of the second declension end in er, ir, $u s, u m, o s, o n$. Those ending in $u m$ and on are neuter; the rest are masculine.

Nouns in $e r, u s$, and $u m$, are thus declined :-

| Singular. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| A lord. | A son-in-lav. | A ficld. | A kingdom. |
| $N$. Dom'il-nus, | Ge'-ne | $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$-ger, | Reg'-num |
| $\boldsymbol{G}$. dom'i- ${ }^{\text {-ni, }}$ | gen'-è-ri, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-gri, | reg'ni, |
| D. dom-ǐ-no, | gen'e-e-ro, | $\mathrm{a}^{\text {a'gro, }}$ | reg'-n |
| Ac. dom $^{\prime}$-i-num, | gen'-ĕ-rum, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-grum | -num, |
| $\boldsymbol{V}$. dom'-ǐne, Ab. dom'-ǐno. | ge'-ner, gen'ĕer-rc | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-ger, $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-gro. | reg'-num, reg'no. |
| Plural. |  |  |  |
| N. dom'ıi-ni, | gen'èe-ri, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-gri |  |
| G. dom-i-nō'rum, | gen-e-ro'-rum, | a-grō'-rum, | reg-nó'-ru |
| D. dom'ǐnnis, | gen'-è-ris | $\mathrm{a}^{\text {a }}$-gris | $\mathrm{reg}^{\prime}$ - |
| Ac. dom'i-inos, | gen'-è-ros | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-gros, | reg'na, |
|  | gen'-ĕ-ri, | $\mathrm{a}^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{a}$ gri, | reg'na, |
| $\boldsymbol{A}$. dom'ǐ-nis. | gen'-ě-ris. |  |  |

Like domĭnus decline
An'-i-mus, the mind. Fo'-cus, a hearth. Nu'-mě-rus, a number. Clyp'-e-us, a shield. Cor'-vus, a raven.

Gla'-di-us, a sword.
Lu'-cus, a grove.

O-ce'-ă-nus, the ocean. Tro'-chus, a top.
§47. Some nouns in er, like gener, add the terminations to the nominative singular, as a root. They are the compounds of gero and fero; as, armĭger, -ĕri, an armor-bearer ; Luč̆fer, $-e ̆ r i$, the morning star ; and the following:-A-dul'-ter, ěri, an adul: I'-ber, ēri, a Spaniard. So'-cer, ěri, a father-interer. Li'-ber, èri, Bacchus. Cel'-tǐ-ber, êri, a Celti- Pu'-er, ěri, a boy. berian.
lav.
Ves'-per, ěri, the even ing.

Mulciler, Vulcan, sometimes has this form
\＄48．All other nouns in er．reject the $e$ ，in adding the terminations，and are declined like ager；thus，

| $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$－p | Li＇－ber，a book． | Al－ex－an＇－der． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Aus＇－ter，the south wind． | Ma－gis＇－ter，a master． | Teu＇－cer． |
| Fa＇－ber，a workman． | On＇－㐅⿸⿻口丿乚丶－ger，a wild ass． | Is＇－ter． |

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

Like regnum decline

An－trum，a cave．
$\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$－tri－um，a hall．
Bel＇lum，war．
Ex－em＇－plum，an example．

Ne －go＇－ti－um，＊a busi－Præ－sid ${ }^{\prime}$－i－um，a defence． ness．
$\mathrm{Ni}^{1}$－trum，nitre．

Sax＇um，a rock．
Scep＇－trum，a sceptre．

## Exceptions in Gender．

§ 49．1．The following nouns in us are feminine ：－

Abyssus，a bottomless Carbăsus，a sail．
pit．
Alvus，the belly．
Antidōtus，an antidote．
Arctus，the Northern Bear．

Dialectus，a dialect．
Domus，a house．
Erëmus，a desert．
Humus，the ground．

Miltus，vermilion．
Pharus，a woatch－tower． Plinthus，the foot of a pillar．
Vannus，a sieve．

2．Greek nouns in phthongus，odus，and metros，are likewise feminine；as，diphthongus，a diphthong；synŏdus，an assembly； diamétros，a diameter．
§50．3．Names of countries，towns，trees，plants，\＆c．are feminine，according to § 29， 2.

Yet the following names of plants are masculine ：－

Acanthus，bear＇s－foot．
Asparăgus，asparagus．
Calămus，a reed．
Carduus，a thistle．

Dumus，a thicket．
Hellebơrus，hellelore．
Inty̆bus，endive．
Juncus，a bulrush．

Raphănus，a radish．
Rhamnus，black－thorn．
Rubus，a bramble．
Tribŭlus，a thistle．

And sometimes

| Amarăcus，marjoram． | Cytisus， hadder． |
| :--- | :--- |
| Cupressus，cypress． | Lotos， a lote－tree． |

Names of trees in aster are also masculine；as，oleaster，a wild olive．

The following names of gems are also masculine ：－

Beryllus，a beryl．
Carbuncŭlus，a carbun－ cle．
Chrysolithus，chryso－
lite．

Chrysoprăsus，chryso－Pyrōpus，pyrope．
prase．Smaragdus，an emerald．
Opalus，opal．

Names of trees and plants in $u m$ are generally neuter.
'I'hese names of countries and towns are masculine: Canöpus, Pontus, and all plurals in $i . A b \bar{y} d u s$ and Lesbos are either masculine or feminine. Ilion is either neuter or feminine.

Names of towns ending in $u m$, or, if plural, in $a$, are neuter.
§51. 4. The following are doubtful, but more frequently masculine:-
Balănus, a date. $\quad$ Grossus, a green fig. $\quad$ Phaselus, a little slip.
Barbǐtus, a harp. Pampinus, a vine-leaf.
Atbmus, an atom, and colus, a distaff, are doubtful, but more frequently feminine.
5. Pelăgus, the sea, and virus, poison, are neuter.

Vulgus, the common people, is generally neuter, but sometimes masculine.

## Exceptions in Declension.

§52. Genitive singular. When the genitive singular ends in $i i$, the poets sometimes contract it into $\hat{\imath}$; as, ingĕn $\hat{\imath}$, for ingenii.

Vocative singular. The vocative of nouns in $u s$ is sometimes like the nominative, especially in poetry; as, fluvius, Latīnus, in Virgil. So, audi tu, popŭlus; Liv.
Proper names in ius omit $e$ in the vocative; as, Horatius, Horãti ; Virgilius, Virgı̆li.

Filius, a son, and genius, a guardian angel, make also fili and geni. Other nouns in ius, including patrials and possessives derived from proper names, form their vocative regularly in e; as, Delius, Delie; Tirynthius, Tirynthie; Laertius, Laertie.
§53. Genitive plural. The genitive plural of some words, especially of those which denote money, measure, and weight, is commonly formed in $\hat{u} m$, instead of $\bar{o} r u m$.
Such are particularly nummîm, sestertî̀m, denariûm, medimnûm, jugèrî̀m, modiûm, talentîm. The same form occurs in other words, especially in poetry; as, deûm, liběrùm, Danaûm, \&c.

Deüs, a god, is thus declined :-

| Singular. | Plura |
| :---: | :---: |
| $N$. De ${ }^{\prime}$-us, | $N$. Di'il , îi, or $\mathrm{De}^{\prime}-\mathrm{i}$, |
| G. De'in, | G. De-ō'-rum, |
| D. De ${ }^{\prime}-0$, | D. Di'-is, Dîs, or $\mathrm{De}^{\prime}-\mathrm{is}$, |
| Ac. De'-um, | Ac. De'-os, |
| $V . \mathrm{De}$-us, | $V$. Di'il ${ }^{\text {din }}$, or |
| Ab. De'oo. | Ab. Di'-is, Dîs, or |

Jesus, the name of the Savior, has $u m$ in the accusative, and $u$ in al the other oblique cases.

## Greek Nouns.

§54. Os and on, in the second declension, are Greek terminations, and are often changed, in Latin, into $u s$ and $u m$; as, Alphēos, Alphēus; Ilion, Ilium. Those in ros are generally changed into er; as, Alexandros, Alexander; Teucros, Teucer.

Greek nouns are thus declined :-

Singular.
N. De'-los, An-dro'-ge-os,
G. De'-li, An-dro'-ge-o, or i,
D. De ${ }^{\prime}$-lo, An-dro'-ge-o,

Ac De'-lon, An-dro'-ge-o, or on,
V. De'-le, An-dro'-ge-os,

Ab. De'lo. An-dro'-ge-o.

Barbiton, a lyre.
Singular. Plural. N. bar'-bī-ton, bar'-bĭ-ta, G. bar'-bĭ-ti, D. bar'-bĭ-to, Ac. bar'-bĭ-ton, $V$. bar'-bĭ-ton, $A b$. bar'-bĭ-to. bar'-bĭ-tôn, bar'-bĭ-tis, bar'-bī-ta, bar'-bĭ-ta, Anciently, some nouns in os had the genitive in $u$; as, Menandru. Ter.
Greek proper names in eus are generally declined like dom̌̌nus, except in the vocative, which ends in eu: in this case, and sometimes in the genitive, dative, and accusative, they retain the Greek form, and are of the third declension. See § 86 .

Panthu occurs in Virgil as the vocative of Panthus

## THIRD DECLENSION.

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

## Mode of declining Nouns of the Third Declension.

In this declension the oblique cases cannot always be determined from the nominative, nor, on the other hand, the nominative from the oblique cases. To decline a word properly, in this declension, it is necessary to know its gender, its nominative singular, and one of its oblique cases; since the root of the cases is not always found entire and unchanged in the nominative. The case usually selected for this purpose is the genitive singular. The formation of the accusative singular, and of the nominative, accusative, and vocative plural, depends upon the gender: if it is masculine or feminine, these cases have one form; if neuter, another.
§56. The student should first fix well in his memory the terminations of one of these forms. He should next learn the nominative and genitive singular of the word which is to be declined. If is is removed from the genitive, the remainder will always be the root of the oblique cases, and by annexing their terminations to this root, the word is declined; thus, rupes, genitive (found in the dictionary) rupis, root rup, dative rupi, \&c.: so ars, gen. artis, root art, dat. arti, \&c.; opus, gen. operis, root oper, dat. operi, \&c.

Where two forms are used in the same case, recourse must be had to the rules for the different cases, § 79-85.

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

## Singular.

Masc. and Fem. Neut.


## Plural.

Masc. and Fem. Neut

| $N$. | es, | a, or ia, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $G$. | , or i | um, or |
| D. | ĭbus, | íbus, |
| Ac. | es, | a, or ia, |
| $V$. | es, | a, or ia, |

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

Honor, honor ; masc.
Singular. Plural. $N$. ho'-nor, ho-nö'res, G. ho-nō'ris, ho-nö'rum, D. ho-nō'ri, ho-nor'-i-bus, Ac. ho-nö'-rem, ho-nö'-res, V. ho-nor, ho-nō'-res, Ab. ho-no's're. ho-nor'-ĭ-bus.

Rupes, a rock; fem. Singular. Plural.


Ars, art; fem.
Singular
N. ars,
G. ar'tis,
D. ar'-ti, Ac. ar'-tem, $\boldsymbol{V}$. ars, Ab. ar'-te.

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

Sermo, speech ; masc,
Singular.
Plural.
$N$. ser'mo ser-mö'-nes, G. ser-mō -nis, ser-mō'-num, D. ser-mō -ni, ser-mon'-i-bus, Ac. ser-mo ${ }^{-1}$-nem, ser-mo ${ }^{\prime}$-nes, $\boldsymbol{V}$. ser'-mo, ser-mö'-nes, Ab. ser-mō'-ne. ser-mon'-i-bus.

Turris, a tower; fem.

Singular.
$N$. tur'-ris,
G. tur'-ris,
D. tur'-ri,

Ac. tur'-rem, rim. tur'-res,
$V$. tur'-ris, tur'-res,
$A b$. tur'-re, or ri. tur'-rī-bus.
Nox, night; fem.
Singular.
$N$. nox,
G. noc'-tis,
D. noc'ti,

Ac. noc'-tem,
$V$. nox,
Ab. noc'-te.
Plural. tur'-res, turi-ri-um, tur'-rĭ-bus,

| Nox, night; fem. |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Singular. | Plural. |
| $N$. nox, | noc'-tes, |
| $\boldsymbol{G}$. noc'-tis, | noc'-ti-um,* |
| D. noc'-ti, | noc'-tiobus, |
| Ac. noc'-tem, | noc'-tes, |
| $V$. nox, | noc'-tes, |
| Ab. noc'te. | noc'-tĭ-bus |

[^4]Miles, a soldier ; com. gen.

Singular.
$N$. mi'-les,
G. mil-i-1-tis,
D. mil-i-ti, Ac. mil'-1-tem, V. mi'-les, $A b$. mil'i-1-te.

Plurat. mil-i-i-tes, mil-ǐ-tum, mi-lit'-i-bus, mil-ĭ-tes, mil-1̈-tes, mi-lit-1-1-bus.

Pater, a father; masc.

Singular.
N. pa'-ter,

Plural.
$G$ pa'-tris,
D. $\mathrm{pa}^{\prime}$-tri,

Ac. $\mathrm{pa}^{\prime}$-trem,
V. pa'-ter,

Ab. $\mathrm{pa}^{\prime}$-tre.
$\mathrm{pa}^{\prime}$-tres, pa'trum, pat'-rĭ-bus, pa'tres, pa'-tres, ${ }^{\text {, }}$ pat'-rǐ-bus.

Sedile, a seat ; neut.

Singular.
$N$. se-di'-le,
$\boldsymbol{G}$. se-di'-lis,
D. se-di-li,
$\boldsymbol{A c}$. se-di${ }^{-}$-le,
$\boldsymbol{V}$. se-di'-le,
$A b$. se-di-li.

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

Carmen, a verse; neut. Singular.

Plural.
$N$. car'men, car'mĭ-na, G. car'-mĭ-nis, car'-mĭ-num, D. car'-mĭ-ni, car-min'-ĭ-bus, Ac.car'men, car'-mĭ-na, V. car'-men, car'mĭ-na, $A b$. car'-mĭ-ne. car-min'i-i-bus.

Iter, a journey; neut. Singular.

Plural.
N. i'ter, i-tin'-ë-ra, G. i-tin'-ĕ-ris, i-tin'-ĕ-rum,
D. i-tin'ệ-ri, iti-i-ner'i-i-bus, Ac. i'-ter,
V. i'ter, Ab. i-tin'-ë-re. it-i-ner'-i-bus.

Lapis, a stone ; masc.
Singular. Plural.
N. la'-pis, lap'-i-des, G. lap'-i-dis, lap'ī-dum, D. lap'i-i-di, la-pid'-i-bus, Ac. lap'ī-dem, lap'-í-des, V. la'-pis, $\boldsymbol{A} b$. lap'-1-1-de.
lap'-1-des, la-pid'-i-bus.

Virgo, a virgin; fem. Singular.
N. vir'-go,
G. vir-gĭ-nis,
D. vir'-gĭ-ni,

Ac. vir'-gi-nem, vir'-gï-nes,
V. vir'-go,
$A b$. vir'ggi-ne.
Plural. vir'-gǐ-nes, vir'-gí-num, vir-gin'ī-bus, vir-gitnes, vir-gin'-i-bus.

Animal, an animal; neut. Singular. Plural.
$N$. an'-i-mal, an-i-mai-li-a,
$\boldsymbol{G}$. an-j-mā'-lis, an-i-ma'-li-um,
D. an-i-mā'li, an-i-mal'-í-bus

Ac. an'-i-mal, an-i-ma'-li-a,
V. an'i-mal,
$A b$. an-i-mā'li. an-i-mal'-1-bus
Opus, a work; neut. Singular.

Plural.
$N$. o'-pus, , op'-ĕ-ra,
G. op'èe-ris, op'èe-rum,
D. op'-ë-ri, o-per'ī-bus,

Ac. o'-pus, op'è-ra,
V. o'pus, op'-ĕ-ra,

Ab. op'-ë-re. o-per'-i-bus.
Caput, a head; neut. Singular.

Plural.
N. ca'-put, cap'-ī-ta,
G. cap'-i-tis, cap'-i-tum,
D. cap'-1-ti, ca-pit'i-i-bus,

Ac. ca'-put, cap'ĭ-1-ta,
V. ca'-put,

Ab. cap ${ }^{\prime}$-i-te.
cap'-i-ta, ca-pitt-i-bus.

Poëma, a poem; neut.

Singular.
Plural.
N. po-é-ma,
po-em'-ă-ta,
$\boldsymbol{G}$. po-em'-ă-tis,
po-em'-ă-tum,
D. po-em'ă-ti,

Ac. po-è'-ma, V. po-é'-ma, Ab. po-em'-ă-te.
po-e-mat'-i-lbus, or po-em'-ă-tis,
po-em'-ă-ta, po-em'ă-ta, po-e-mat'-1-1-bus, or po-em'-ă-tis.

Rules for the Gender of Nouns of the Third Declension.
§58. Nouns whose gender is determined by their signification, according to the general rules, $\$ 28-34$, are not included in the following rules and exceptions.

## masculines.

Nouns ending in $o, e r$, or, es increasing in the genitive, and $o s$, are masculine ; as,
sermo, speech ; dolor, pain ; flos, a flower ; carcer, a prison; pes, a foot.

## Exceptions in 0.

§59. 1. Nouns in io are feminine, when they signify things incorporeal; as, ratio, reason.
2. Nouns in $d_{0}$ and $g o$, of more than two syllables, are feminine ; as, arundo, a reed ; imägo, an image. So also grando. hail. But comĕdo, a glutton; unĕdo, a kind of fruit; and harpăgo, a hook, are masculine.
Margo, the brink of a river, is either masculine or feminine. Cupido, desire, is often masculine in poetry, but in prose is always feminine.
3. Caro, flesh, and Greek nouns in o, are feminine ; as, echo, an echo. Sulmo, the name of a river, is masculine.

Exceptions in ER.
§ 60. 1. Tuber, the tuber-tree, is feminine; but when it denotes the fruit, it is masculine. Linter, a boat, and laver, water-cresses, are feminine;* siser, a carrot, is neuter.*
2. The following, in er, are neuter :-

Acer, a maple-tree.
Cadâver, a dead body.
Cicer, a vetch.
Iter, a journey.
Laser, benzoin.

Papāver, a poppy.
Piper, pepper.
Siler, an osier.
Spinther, a clasp.
Suber, a cork-tree.

Tuber, a swelling.
Uber, a teat.
Ver, the spring.
Verber, a scourge.
Zingiber, ginger

## Exceptions in OR.

\$61. Arbor, a tree, is feminine : ador, fine wheat; aquor, the sea; marmor, marble ; and cor, the heart, are neuter.

## Exceptions in es increasing in the genitive.

1. The following are feminine :-

Compes, a fetter. Merces, a reward.

Quies, and Requies, rest.
Teges, a mat.
Inquies, want of rest. Merges, a sheaf of corn.

Seges, growing corn.
2. Ales, a bird ; comes, a companion ; heres, an heir; hospes, a guest ; interpres, an interpreter; miles, a soldier ; obses, a hostage ; and satelles, a life-guard, are masculine or feminine. JEs, brass, is neuter.

## Exceptions in OS.

Arbos, a tree; cos, a whetstone; dos, a dowry; and eos, the morning, are feminine : os, the mouth, and os, a bone, are neuter; as are also the Greek words epos, epic poetry; and melos, melody.

## FEMININES.

\$62. Nouns ending in as, es not increasing in the genitive, is, $y s, s$ preceded by a consonant, and $x$, are feminine ; as,
atas, age ; nubes, a cloud; avis, a bird; chlamys, a cloak; trabs, a beam ; pax, peace.

## Exceptions in AS.

1. As, a piece of money, or any thing divisible into twelve parts, is masculine. Greek nouns in as, antis, are also masculine; as, adămas, adamant.
2. Vas, a vessel, and Greek nouns in as, ătis, are neuter ; as, artocreas, a pie; bucĕras, a species of herb.

## Exceptions in ES not increasing in the genitive.

Acinăces, a cimeter, and coles, a stalk, are masculine. Antistes, palumbes, vates, and vepres, are masculine or feminine. Cacoêthes, hippomăncs, nepentics, and panăces, Greek words, are neuter.

## Exceptions in IS.

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

## Masculine.

Crinis, hair. Ignis, fire. Panis, bread. Manes (plur.), departed spirits.
Masculine or Feminine.

| Amnis, a river. | Clunis, the haunch. | Funis, a rope |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Cinis, ashes, pl. m. | Finis, an end. | Canis, a dog. |

Fines, (plur.), boundaries, is always mascaline.
2. The following also are masculine or feminine :-

|  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |
| Cenchris, a serpent. | Scrobis, a ditch. | Pollis, fine flour |

3. The following are masculine :-

Axis, an axletree.
Aquālis, a water-pot.
Callis, a path. ${ }^{a}$
Cassis, a net.
Caulis, or
Colis, a stalk.
Centussis, a compound of as.
Collis, a hill.
Cossis, a worm.
Cucŭmis, a cucumber.
Decussis, a compound of as.

## Exceptions in s preceded by a consonant.

§64. 1. Dens, a tooth; fons, a fountain; mons, a mountain; and pons, a bridge, are masculine. So also are chalybs, steel; cllops, a kind of fish; epops, a lapwing ; gryps, a griffin ; hydrops, the dropsy ; merops, a woodpecker, and rudens, a cable. ${ }^{a}$
2. Some nouns in $n s$, originally participles, and the compounds of dens, which are properly adjectives, are masculine; as, confluens, a confluence; occidens, the west; oriens, the east; torrens, a torrent; bidens, a twopronged hoe; but bidens, a sheep, and profluens, a stream, are feminine To these add sextans, quadrans, triens, dodrans, dextans, parts of as.
3. The following are either masculine or feminine :Adeps, fatness. Seps, a kind of serpent. Serpens, a serpent. Forceps, pincers. Scrobs, a ditcil. Stirps, the trunk of a tree.

Anťmans, an animal, is feminine or neuter, and sometimes mascúline.

## Exceptions in X.

§ 65. 1. AX. Corax, a raven; cordax, a kind of dance; dropax, an ointment; styrax, a kind of tree; and thorax, a breastplate, are masculine; limax, a snail, is masculine or feminine.
2. EX. Nouns in ex are masculine, except fax, dregs, forfex, scissors, lex, a law, nex, death, prex, (obs.) prayer, and supellex, furniture, which are feminine, and atriplex, golden-herb, which is neuter.

Cortex, bark; imbrex, a gutter-tile; obex, a bolt; rumex, sorrel; and silex, a flint, are either masculine or feminine : grex, a herd, and pumex pumice-stone, are very rarely found feminine.
3. IX. Calix, a cup; fornix, an arch; phenix, a kind of bird; ans spadix, a palm-branch, are masculine : larix, the larch-tree, is masc. or fem
Perdix, a partridge, and varix, a swollen vein, are masculine or feminine
4. OX. Box and esox, names of marine animals, are masculine.
5. UX. Tradux, a vine-branch, is masculine.
6. YX. Bombyx, a silk-worm ; calyx, the bud of a flower; $\operatorname{coc} c y x$, a cuckoo; and oryx, a wild goat, are masculine. Onyx and sardönyx, names of stones; also, calx, the heel, and calx, lime; lynx, a lynx, and sandyx, a kind of color, are masculine or feminine.

Note. Bombyx, when it signifies silk, is feminine.
7. Quincunx, septunx, decunx, deunx, parts of as, are masculine.

> NEUTERS.
§66. Nouns ending in $a, e, i, y, c, l, n, t, a r, u r$, and $u s$, are neuter; as,
diadēma, a crown; rete, a net; hydromĕli, mead; lac, milk; vectigal, revenue; flumen a river; caput, the head; calcar, a spur ; guttur, the throat, and pectus, the breast.

## Eacceptions in L and E.

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

## Exceptions in N.

Nouns in $n$, except those in men, are masculine ; as, canon, a rule.
But four in on are feminine-aed don, a nightingale; halcyon, a kingfisher; icon, an image; sindon, fine linen: and four in en are neutergluten, glue; inguen, the groin; pollen, fine flour; and unguen, ointment.

## Exceptions in AR and UR.

§67. Furfur, bran; salar, a trout; turtur, a turtle dove; and vultur, a vulture, are masculine. Baccar and robur, names of plants, are neuter. § 29. Tibur, a city, is masculine.

## Exceptions in US.

Lepus, a hare; and Greek nouns in pus ( $\pi$ oṽs), are masculine; as, tripus, a tripod; but lagöpus, a white partridge, is feminine.

Nouns in $u s$, having $\bar{u} t i s$, or $\bar{u} d i s$, in the genitive, are feminine; as, juventus, youth; incus, an anvil.

Pecus,-udis, a brute animal ; tellus, the earth; fraus, fraud; and laus, praise, are feminine. Pessinus, -untis, is feminine, and rarely masculine.

Grus, a crane, mus, a mouse, and sus, a swine, are masculine or feminine.
Rhus, sumach, is masculine, and rarely feminine.
Rules for the Oblique Cases of Nouns of the Third Declension.

GENITIVE SINGULAR.
§68. Nouns in $a$ form their genitive in $\breve{a} t i s$; as, $d i-a-d e^{\prime}-$ $m a, d i-a-d c m^{\prime}-\breve{a}-t i s$, a crown ; $\operatorname{dog}^{\prime}-m a$, $\operatorname{dog}^{\prime}-m a ̆-t i s$, an opinion

## E.

Nouns in $e$ change $e$ into $i s$; as, $r e^{\prime}-t e, r e^{\prime}-t i s$, a net ; se-diti-le, se-dī-lis, a seat.

## I.

Nouns in $i$ are of Greek origin, and are generally indeclinable; but $h y$-drom'-é-li, mead, has hyd-ro-mel-i-i-tis in the genitive.

## 0.

§ 69. Nouns in $o$ form their genitive in $\bar{o} n i s$; as, $s e r^{\prime}-m o$, ser-mio'-nis, speech; pa'-vo, pa-vō'-nis, a peacock.
Remark. Patrials in o have őnis; as, Macèdo,-ŏnis; except Eburōnes, Lacōnes, Iönes, Nasamōnes, Suessōnes, \&c. See p. 267, Exc. Incr. in O, 3.

Exc. 1. Nouns in $d o$ and $g o$, of more than two syllables, form their genitive in $\mathrm{znis}^{\prime}$; as, $a$-run' $-d 0, a$-run $n^{\prime}-d \imath \imath-n i s$, a reed; $i-m \bar{a}-g o, i-m a g^{\prime}-\bar{i}-n i s$, an image.

But comědo, a glutton; unědo, a kind of fruit; and harpăgo, a hook, have onis.

Cardo, a hinge ; ordo, order ; grando, hail ; virgo, a virgin ; and margo, the brink of a river, also have rnis in the genitive.

Exc. 2. The following, also, have rnis:-Apollo; homo, a man; nemo, nobody; and turbo, a whirlwind.

Caro, flesh, has, by syncope, carnis. Anio, the name of a river, has Aniēuis; Nerio, the wife of Mars, Nerienis; from the old nominatives, Anien, Nerien.

Exc. 3. Some Greek nouns in $o$ form their genitive in $\hat{u} s$, and their other cases singular, in o; as, Dido, gen. Didûs, dat. Dido, \&c.; Argo, -us ; but they are sometimes declined regularly; as, Dido, Didōnis,

## C.

§70. The only nouns in $c$ are $h a^{\prime}-l e c, h a-l e^{\prime}-c \imath s$, a pickle, and lac, lac'-tis, milk.

## L. N. R.

Nouns in $l, n$, and $r$, form their genitive by adding is; as, con'-sul, con'-sŭ-lis, a consul ; ca'-non, can'-ŏ-nis, a rule ; ho ${ }^{\prime}$-nor, ho-nö'ris, honor.

> So, An'ī-mal, an-i-mā'-lis, an animal.
> $\mathrm{Vi}^{\prime}$-gil, vig'-ī-lis, a watchnan.
> Ti'-tan, Ti-ta'-nis, Titan.
> $\mathrm{Si}^{\prime}$-ren, si-rē'-nis, a siren.
> Del'-phin, del-phi'-nis, a dolphin.

Cal'-car, cal-cā'-ris, a spur.
Car'-cer, car'-cě-ris, a prison.
Gut'-tur, gut'-tŭ-ris, the throat.
Mar'-tyr, mar'-ty̌-ris, a martyr.

## Exceptions in L.

Fel, gall and mel, honey, double $l$ before is; as, fellis, mellis.

## Exceptions in N.

§91. 1. Neuters in en form their genitive in $\mathbf{~ \imath n i s}$; as, $f u^{\prime}-m e n, f l u^{\prime}-m \bar{u}-n i s$, a river; glu'ten, glu${ }^{\prime}-t \check{l}-n i s$, glue.

The following, also, form their genitive in rnis :-oscen, a bird which foreboded by singing; pecten, a comb; tibīcen, a piper; and tubicen, a trumpeter.
2. Some Greek nouns in $\bar{o} n$ form their genitive in ontis; as, Laomědon, Laomedontis. Some in $\bar{y} n$ have $\bar{y} n i s$, or $\bar{y} n o s ;$ as, Trachyn, Trach $\bar{y} n o s$.

## Exceptions in R.

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

But crater, a cup; soter, a savior ; and later, a tile, retain $e$ in the genitive.
2. Far, corn, has farris; hepar, the liver, hepătis; iter, a journey, itinĕris ; Jup̌̆ter, Jovis; and cor, the heart, cordis.
3. These four in ur have orris in the genitive :-ebur, ivory ; femur, the thigh ; jecur, the liver; robur, strength.
Jecur has also jecinơris, and jocinơris.

## AS.

§72. Nouns in as form their genitive in ätis; as, $a^{\prime}$-tas, ${ }^{c}-t \bar{t}^{\prime}-t i s$, age ; pi'-ĕ-tas, pi-e-t $\vec{a}^{\prime}-t i s$, piety.

Exc. 1. As has assis; mas, a male, maris; vas, a surety, vadis; and vus, a vessel, vasis. Anas, a duck, has anătis.

Exc.2. Greek nouns in as form their genitive according to their gender; the masculines in antis, the feminines in $\breve{a} d i s$ or $\breve{a} d o s$, and the neuters in ătis; as, adămas, -antis, adamant; lampas, -ădis, a lamp; bucĕ-ras,-ătis, a species of herb. Arcas, an Arcadian, and Nomas, a Numidian, which are of the common gender, form their genitive in ădis. Melas, the name of a river, has Melănis.

## ES.

§73. Nouns in es form their genitive by changing es into $i s, \stackrel{\imath t}{t} i s$, or $e t i s$; as, $r u^{\prime}-p e s, r u^{\prime}-p i s$, a rock ; mi'-les, mili'-i-tis, a soldier; se'-ges, seg'-ë-tis, growing corn.

A few Greek proper names in es (gen. is) sometimes form their genitive in $i$, after the second declension; as, Achilles,-is, or $-i$.

Those which make xtis are, Ales, a bird. $\quad$ Gurges, a whirlpool. Poples, the ham. Ames, a fovoler's staff. Antistes, a priest. Cespes, a turf. Comes, a companion. Eques, a horseman. Fomes, fuel.

Hospes, a guest. Limes, a limit. Merges, a sheaf of corn. Termes, an olive bourh. Miles, a soldier. Trames, a path.
Palmes, a vine-branch. Tudes, a hammer. [dier
Pedes, a footman. Veles, a light armed sol-

The following have ettis:-alies, a fir-tree; aries, a ram; indrges, a man deified; interpres, an interpreter; paries, a wall; seges, growing corn ; und teges a mat.

The following have etis:--Cres, a Cretan ; lebes, a caldron; magnes, a loadstone; quies and requies, rest; and tapes, tapestry. But requies is sometines of the fifth declension.

Some Greek proper names have either etis or is in the genitive; as, Chrenes,-ētis, or -is. Dares,-ētis, or -is.
Exc. 1. Obses, a hostage, and prases, a president, have 1 dis.
Exc. 2. Heres, an heir, and merces, a reward, have ēdis; pes, a foot, and its compounds, have édis.

Exc. 3. Ceres has Cerěris; bes, bessis; and pras, a surety, predis. JEs, brass, has aris.

## IS.

§74. Nouns in is have their genitive the same as the nominative; as, au'-ris, au'ris, the ear; $a^{\prime}-v i s, a^{\prime}-v i s$, a bird.
Exc. 1. The following have the genitive in ěris :-cinis, ashes; cucŭmis, a cucumber: pulvis, dust; vomis or vomer, a ploughshare.

Exc. 2. The following have rdis:-capis, a cup; cassis, a helmet; cuspis, the point of a spear; lapis, a stone ; and promulsis, an antepast.

Exc. 3. Two have rinis :-pollis, fine flour, and sanguis, blood.
Exc. 4. Four have $\overline{\text { Itis }}$ :-Dis, Pluto; lis, strife ; Quiris, a Roman ; and Samnis, a Samnite.

Exc.5. Glis, a dormouse, has gliris; semis, a half, semissis. Greek nouns in is form their genitive,

1. in is, or eos; as,

Basis, the foot of a pillar.
Hærésis, heresy.
Metroporlis, a chief city.
Phrasis, a phrase.
Phthisis, a consumption.
Poèsis, poetry.
2. in $\check{2} d i s$, or $\begin{aligned} & \text { d } \\ & \text { dos } \text { as, }\end{aligned}$

Ægis, a shield.
た
Aspis, an asp.
Ephemëris, a day-book.
Iris, the rainbow.
Nerēis, a Jereid.
Pyrămis, a pyramid.
Tigris, a tiger.
Tyrannis, tyranny.
3. in inis; as,

Delphis or
Delphin.
Salămis.
4. in entis; as, Simǒis.

Tigris has sometimes the genitive like the nominative. Charis, one of the Graces, has rtis.

OS.
\$75. Nouns in os form their genitive in öris or ötis; as, flos, $f t 0^{\prime}-r i s$, a flower; ne $e^{\prime}-p o s, n e-p \bar{o}^{\prime}-t i s$, a grandchild.

The following have ōris :-

Flos, a flover.
Glos, a husband's sister.
Honos or honor, honor.

Labos or labor, labor. Os, the mouth.
Lepos or lepor, wit. Ros, dew.
Mos, a custom.

Arbos or arbor, a tree, has orris.
The following have otis:-
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { Cos, a wehetstone. } & \begin{array}{l}\text { Monocĕros, a u unicorn. } \\ \text { Dos, a donory. }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { Nepos, a grandchild. } \\ \text { Rhinocęros, a rlinoceros. }\end{array} \\ \text { Sacerdos, a priest. }\end{array}$

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

Exc. 2. Some Greek substantives in os have ois in the genitive; as, keros, a hero; Minos; Tros, a Trojan.

## US.

§ 76. Nouns in us form their genitive in ĕris or ŏris; as, ge'-nus, gen'-ӗ-ris, a kind ; tem'-pus, tem'-pŏ-ris, time.

Those which make $\begin{aligned} & \\ & \text { ris } \text { are, }\end{aligned}$

| Corpus, a body. | Lepus, a hare. | Pectus, the breast. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Decus, honor. | Littus, a shore. | Pignus, a pledge. |
| Dedẽcus, , isgrace. | Nemus, a grove. | Stercus, dung. |
| Facinus, an exploit. | Pecus, cattle. | Tempus, time. |
| Fenus, interest. | Penus, provisions. | Tergus, a hide. |
| Frigus, cold. |  |  |

Exc. 1. These three have $\bar{u} d i s:-i n c u s$, an anvil ; palus, a morass ; and subscus, a dove-tail. Pecus, a brute animal, has pecüdis.

Rhus, sumach, has rhois, and rarely roris.
Exc. 2. These five have $\bar{u} t i s:-j u v e n t u s, ~ y o u t h ; ~ s a l u s, ~ s a f e t y ; ~ s e n e c t u s, ~$ old age ; servitus, slavery ; virtus, virtue.

Exc. 3. Monosyllables in us have uris ; as, crus, the leg ; jus, right; mus, a mouse ; pus, matter ; rus, the country; thus, frankincense; except grus, a crane, and sus, a swine, which have gruis, and suis.

Tellus, the earth, has tellüris; and Ligus or ur, a Ligurian, has Ligüris.
Exc.4. Fraus, fraud, and laus, praise, have fraudis, laudis.
Exc. 5. Greek nouns in pus ( $\pi$ oṽs ) have ŏdis; as, tripus, tripŏdis, a tripod ; $\boldsymbol{E d} d p u s$, -ŏdis, which is sometimes of the second declension.

Exc. 6. Some Greek names of cities in us have urtis; as, Trapēzus, Trapezuntis; Opus, -untis; Pessinnus, -untis.

Exc. 7. Nouns ending in eus are all proper names, and have their genitive in eos; as, Orpheus, -eos. But these nouns are found also in the second declension ; as, Orpheus, -ĕi or -i.

## YS.

§77. Nouns in $y s$ are Greek, and, in the genitive, some have yis or yos, some $\check{y} d i s$ or $\check{y} d o s$; as,
Cal $^{\prime}$-pys, Ca ${ }^{\prime}$-py-is or -os, chla ${ }^{\prime}$-mys, chlam ${ }^{\prime}$ - ${ }^{-1}$-dis or -dos, a cloak.

## S preceded by a consonant.

Nouns in $s$, with a consonant before it, form their genitive by changing $s$ into is or tis; as, trabs, tra'-bis, a beam ; $h i^{\prime}-$ ems, li'-ĕ-mis, winter ; pars, par'-tis, a part; frons, fron'-tis, the forehead.

Those in $b s, m s$, and $p s$, change $s$ into is; except gryps, a grifin, which has gryphis.

Remark. Those in eps also change e into $i$; as, princeps, princtipis, a prince. But seps has sepis, and auceps, aucŭpis.

Those in $l s, n s$, and $r s$, change $s$ into tis.

Exc. 1. The following in $n s$ change $s$ into dis:-frons, a leaf; glans, an acorn; juglans, a walnut; lens, a nit; and librïpens, a weigher.

Exc. 2. Tiryns, a Greek proper name, has Tirynthis in the genitive.

## T.

§78. Nouns in $t$ form their genitive in $\mathrm{r} t i s$. They are, caput, the head, gen. cap ${ }^{-}-\mathrm{r}-\mathrm{ttis}$; and its compounds, occĭput and sincĭput.

## X.

Nouns in $x$ form their genitive by changing $x$ into cis or gis; as, vox, vo'-cis, the voice; con'j ${ }^{\prime} \dot{u x}$, con' ${ }^{\prime} j{ }^{\prime}-$-gis, a spouse.

So, for'-nax, for-nä'-cis, a furnace; ca'-lix, cal'-̌-cis, a cup; cer ${ }^{\prime}$-vix, cer-vì'cis, the neck.

Those which make gis are, conjux, a spouse; grex, a flcck; lex, a law ; remex, -tgis, a rower; rex, a king.
Also the following :-
Allŏbrox, -ŏgis, an Allo- Dumnŏrix, -ĭgis. Phalanx, -gis, a phalanx.
brogian. $\quad$ Eporedŏrix, -igis. Phryx,-gis, a Phrygian.
Ambiörix, -igis. Exlex, -ēgis, ar outlaw. Sphinx, -gis, a sphinx. Aquillex, -ĕgis, a spring Frux, -gis, fruit.
hunter.
Bitŭrix, -iggis, a Biturigian.

Iāpyx, -鸟gis, the north- Styx, -gis, the river Styx.
west wind. Syrinx, -gis, Syrinx.
Orgetörix,-igis. Vercingetŏrix,-ĭgis.

Coccyx, $-\overline{\mathrm{y}}$ gis, a cuckoo. Oryx, $-\overline{\mathrm{y}}$ gis, a wild goat.
Exc. 1. Nouns in $e x$, of more than one syllable, form their genitive in $\breve{c}$ cis; as, pollex, -乞̆cis, the thumb.

Except fenĭsex, a mower; narthex, a shrub; resex, a vine-branch; vervex, a wether; and aquilex, exlex, and remex.

Exc. 2. Supellex, furniture, has supellectllis; senex, an old man, senis; obex, a bolt, ob̌̌cis, or objiccis. Nix, snow, has nivis; and nox, night, noctis.

Exc. 3. Some Greek proper names in ax form their genitive in actis; as, Astyănax, actis. So Hylax, Bibrax, Demōnax.
Exc. 4. Onyx and sardŏnyx have y̆chis in the genitive; as, onyx, ony̆clis.

## DATIVE SINGULAR.

§79. The dative singular ends in $i$; as, sermo, dat. sermōni. Anciently it also ended in e; as, morte datus. Varr. apud Gell.

## ACCUSATIVE SINGULAR.

The accusative singular, with the exception of neuters, ends in em. Yet some Latin words in $i s$, which do not increase in the genitive, have $i m$, and some Greek words have $i m$, in, or $a$.

1. Many proper names in is, denoting places, rivers, or gods, have the accusative singular in in; as, Hispälis, Tiběris, Anäbis; so also Albis, Athẽsis, Betis, Aräris, Bilbřlis, Apis, Osiris, Syrtis, \&c. These sometimes, also, make the accusative in in; as, Albin.
2. The following also have the accusative in im :-

Amussis, a mason's rule. Mephîtis, foul air. Sitis, thirst.
Buris, a plough-tail. Ravis, hoarseness. Tussis, a cough.
Cannăbis, hemp. $\quad$ Sinăpis, mustard. Vis, strength.
Cucŭmis, a cucumber.
3. These have $i m$, and sometimes $e m$ :-

Febris, a fever. $\quad$ Restis, a rope. Turris, a tower.
Puppis, the stern. Secüris, an axe.
But these have em , and rarely im :-
Bipennis, a battle-axe. Navis, a ship. Præsēpis, a stall.
Clavis, a key. Ovis, a sheep.
Messis, a harvest.
Pelvis, a basin. Sementis, a sowing Strigilis, a flesh-brush.

Crates, a hurdle, and lens, a lentil, have also sometimes im , as if from cratis and lentis.

The ancients formed the accusative of some other nouns in im.

## Accusative of Greek Nouns.

§80. The accusative singular of Greek nouns sometimes retains the Greek terminations in and $a$, but often ends, as in Latin, in em or im.
I. Greek nouns, whose genitive increases in is or os, impure, that is, with a consonant going before, have their accusative in em or a; as, lampas (lampădis or -dos), lampăda; chlamys, chlamy̆dem, or -y̆da; pyrămis, pyramǐdem.

In like manner these three, which have is pure in the genitive-Tros, Trois, Troem, and Troa, a Trojan; heros, a hero; and Minos, a king of Crete.
Aer, the air ; ather, the sky; delphin, a dolphin; and paan, a hymn, have usually $a$; as, aĕra, athěra, delphīna, paäna. Pan, a god, has only $a$.
Exc. 1. Masculines in is, whose genitive increases in is or os impure, have their accusative in im or in; sometimes in 冗̌dem; Paris, Pařdis or Paridos; Parim, Parin or Pař̌dem.
Exc. 2. Feminines in is, increasing impurely in the genitive, though they usually follow the rule, have sometimes im or in ; as, Elis, Elüdis; Elĩdem, seldom Elin.

So Tigris, signifying a river or a beast, has tigrtdem or tigrim; signifying a beast, it has tigrin also.
II. Greek nouns in is and $y s$, having is or os pure in the genitive, form their accusative by changing the $s$ of the nominative into $m$ or $n$; as, Charybdis, (gen. Lat. -is, Gr. - $\varepsilon \omega \mathrm{s}$ or - $\mathrm{\varepsilon} 0 \mathrm{~s}$, ) acc. Charybdim or -in; Halys, -yis or -yos, Halym or -yn.
III. Nouns ending in the diphthong eus have the accusative in ea; as, Theseus, Thesea; Tydeus, Tydea. See §54.
Demosthěnes and Ganymédes, have sometimes in the accusative, besides $e m$, the terminative ea. Diomēde is contracted from -ea, Virg.

JV. Some Greek proper names in $e s$, whose genitive is in is, have in Latin, along with the accusative in $e m$, the termination $e n$, as if of the
first declension; as, Achilles, Achillen; Xerxes, Xerxen; Sophöcles, Sophöclen. Some also, which have either étis or is in the genitive, have, besides étem, êta, or em, the termination en; as, Cremes, Thales.

## VOCATIVE SINGULAR.

## §81. The vocative is like the nominative.

Many Greek nouns, however, particularly proper names, drop $s$ of the nominative to form the vocative; as, Daphnis, Daphni ; Tethys, Tethy; Melampus, Melampu ; Orpheus, Orphcu. Proper names in es (gen. is) sometimes have their vocative in é ; as, Socrătes, Socrăte.

## ABLATIVE SINGULAR.

§82. The ablative singular ends in $e$.
Exc. 1. Neuters in $e, a l$, and $a r$, have the ablative in $i$; as, sedīle, sedīli; anı̆mal, animāli; calcar, calcāri.

But names of towns in $e$, and the following neuters in ar, have $e$ in the ablative; viz. bacchar, an herb ; far, corn; hepar, the liver; jubar, a sunbeam; nectar, nectar ; par, a pair ; sal, salt. Rete, a net, has either e or $i$; and mare, the sea, has in poetry mare in the ablative.

Exc. 2. Nouns which have $i m$ or $i n$ in the accusative, and names of months in $e r$ or $i s$, have $i$ in the ablative; as, $v i s, v i m$, $v i ;$ December, Decembri; Aprīlis, Aprīli.

## But Bctis, cannăbis, and tigris, have $e$ or $i$.

Exc. 3. Nouns which have em or im in the accusative, have their ablative in $e$ or $i$; as, turris, turre or turri.

But restis, and Greek nouns which have idis in the genitive, have e only ; as, Paris, -rdis, -rde.

Exc. 4. Adjectives in is, used as nouns, have commonly $i$ in the ablative, but sometimes $e$; as, familiäris, a friend; natālis, a birthday; sodālis, a companion ; trirēmis, a trireme.

When such adjectives become proper names, they always have $e$; as, Jưenälis, Juvenäle. Also, aff inis and adīlis have generally $e$; as have always juvĕnis, a youth ; rudis, a rod; and volucris, a bird.

Exc. 5. The following, though they have only $e m$ in the accusative, have $e$ or $i$ in the ablative, but oftener $e:-$

| Amnis, | Classis, | Ignis, | Pars, | Supellex, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Anguis, | Collis, | Imber, | Postis, | Tridens, |
| Avis, | Finis, | Mugilis, | Pugil, | Unguis, |
| Civis, | Fustis, | Orbis, | Sors, | Vectis. |

Occrput, rus, and vesper have also $e$ or $i$.
So also names of towns, denoting the place where any thing is said to be, or to be done, have sometimes the ablative in $i$; as, Carthaǧni, at Carthage ; and, in the most ancient writers, many other nouns occur with this termination in the ablative. Canālis has $i$, and very rarely $e$.

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

## NOMINATIVE PLURAL.

§83. The nominative plural of masculines and feminines ends in es ; as, sermönes, rupes; -but neuters have $a$, and those whose ablative singular ends in $i$ have $i a$; as, caput, cap̌̌ta; sedīle, sedilia. Aplustre has both $a$ and ia.
Some Greek neuters have $e$ in the nominative plural; as, melos; nom. plural, mele. So Tempe.

## GENITIVE PLURAL.

The genitive plural commonly ends in um; sometimes in ium.

1. Nouns which, in the ablative singular, have $i$ only, or $e$ and $i$, make the genitive plural in ium ; as, sedīle, sedili, sedilium ; turris, turre or turri, turrium.
2. Nouns in $e s$ and $i s$, which do not increase in the genitive singular, have ium; as, nubes, nubium ; hostis, hostium.
Exc. Canis, jǔēnis, muglilis, proles, strues, vates, have um; so oftener have apis, strigilis, volücris; less frequently mensis, panis, sedes, and, in the poets only, cedes, clades, ambāges, coclestes, and the adjectives virirdis and agrestis.
3. Monosyllables ending in two consonants have ium in the genitive plural ; as, urbs, urbium; gens, gentium ; arx, arcium.
Exc. Lynx and ops (obsolete) have um.
The following, also, have ium:-as, mas, glis, lis, os (ossis), faux, nix, nox, strix, dos, generally fraus and mus, and sometimes lar.
4. Nouns of two or more syllables, in $n s$ or $r s$, and namen of nations in as, have commonly ium; as, cliens, clientium. Arpinas, Arpinatiun.

Other nouns in as have sometimes ium; as, atas, atātium. Penātw and optimãtes have usually ium.
5. The following have ium:-caro, linter, imber, uter, venter, Samnis Quiris, and usually Insüber. Fornax, lar, and palus, have sometimes ium
6. Greek nouns have generally um; as, Thrux, Thracum ;-but a few, used as titles of books, have sometimes on; as, Epigramma, epigrammătòn ; Metamorphōsis, -eôn.
Remark 1. Bos has boum in the genitive plural.
Remark 2. Nouns which want the singular, form the genitive plural as if they were complete; as, manes, manium; calXtes, colǐtum; as if from manis and coles. So also names of feasts in alia; as, Saturnalia, Saturnalium; but these have sometimes örum after the second declension. Ales has sometimes, by epenthesis, alituum. See §§ 322, 333.

## DATIVE AND ABLATIVE PLURAL.

§84. The dative and ablative plural end in $\grave{\imath} b u s$.
Exc. 1. Bos has bobus and bubus, by contraction for bovǐlus; sus has subus for sư̌bus

Exc. 2. Greek nouns in $m a$ have the dative and ablative plural more frequently in is than in tbus; as, poéma, poemătis, or poemať̆bus.

The poets sometimes form the dative plural of Greek nouns, that increase in the genitive, in si, and, before a vowel, in sin; as, herōis, herotdis, herotsi, or herotsin. So in Quintilian, Metamorphosěsi.

## ACCUSATIVE PLURAL.

§85. The accusative plural ends, like the nominative, in es, $a$, or $i a$.

Exc. 1. Masculine and feminine nouns which have ium in the genitive plural, have sometimes in the accusative plural eis, or $i s$, instead of es; as, partes, gen. partium, acc. partes, parteis or partis.

Exc. 2. When the accusative singular of Greek nouns not neuter ends in $a$, the accusative plural ends in ăs; as, lampas, lampăda, lampădas. So, also, in some barbarian names of nations; as, Brigantas.

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

Singular.
N. Ju'pī-ter,
G. Jo'-vis,
D. Jo'vi,

Ac. Jo'vem, V. Ju'pir-ter, Ab. Jo'-ve.

Singular. $N$. vis, vi'-res, G. vis, vir'i-um, D. - vir'ī-bus, Ac. vim, vi'-res, $V$. vis, vi'res, Ab. vi. vir'-i-bus.

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

| S. | $\begin{gathered} \text { Nom. } \\ \text { Lampas, } \end{gathered}$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{c} G c n . \\ \left.\left\{\begin{array}{l} G \text { ădis, } \\ \text {-ădos, } \end{array}\right\} \right\rvert\, \end{array}\right.$ | $\stackrel{D a t .}{\text { Dădi, }}$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{c} A c c . \\ \left\{\begin{array}{c} \text {-ădem, } \\ \text {-ăda, } \end{array}\right\} \end{array}\right\}$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} V o c . \\ -\mathrm{as}, \end{array}\right.$ | $\left\lvert\, \begin{gathered} A b l . \\ - \text { ăde. } \end{gathered}\right.$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | -ădes, | um | -adíbus, | \{-ădes, $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text {-ădas, }\end{array}\right\}$ | -ădes, | adǐbus. |
| $\boldsymbol{S}$ | Heros, | is, | -ōi, |  |  | -ōe. |
| Pl. | -ōes, | -ōum, | -oĭbus, |  | -öes, | irb |
|  | Chelys, |  | -yi, | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} -\mathrm{ym}, \\ \text {-yn, }, \end{array}\right.$ |  | eor y |
|  | Poēsis, | $\left.\begin{array}{c} \mathrm{s}, \text {-ios, } \\ -\mathrm{eos}, \end{array}\right\}$ | -i, | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} -\mathrm{im}, \\ \text {-in, } \end{array}\right.$ |  |  |
|  | Achilles, | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text {-is, -ei, -i } \\ \text {-cos, }\end{array}\right\}$ | -i, |  |  |  |
|  | Orpheus, Aër, Dido, | -ěos, -ĕris, -ûs, | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} -\mathrm{eci}, \\ -\mathrm{erri}, \\ -0, \end{array}\right.$ | -ĕa, <br> -ĕra, <br> -0, | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & -\mathrm{eu}, \\ & \mathrm{erer}, \end{aligned}\right.$ | See § 54 -erre. |

## FOURTH DECLENSION.

\$87. Nouns of the fourth declension end in $u s$ and $u$. Those in $u$ s are masculine; those in $u$ are neuter, and indeclinable in the singular number, except in the genitive.

Nouns of this declension are thus declined :-

Fructus, fruit.
Singular. $N$. fruc'tus, G. fruc'tûs,

Plural. D. fruc'tu-i,* Ac. fruc'tum, $V$. fruc'tus, $\boldsymbol{A} b$. fruc'tu.
fuc'tus, fruc'-tu-um,* fruc'tǐi-bus, fruc'tus, fruc'tus, fruc'tĭ-bus.

Cornu, a horn.
Singular. Plural. $N$. cor'-nu, cor'nu-a, G. cor'-nûs, cor'-nu-um, D. cor'-nu, cor'-nĭ-bus, Ac. cor'-nu, cor'-nu-a, V. cor'-nu, cor'-nu-a, Ab. cor'-nu. cor'-nĭ-bus.

In like manner decline

| Can'-tus, a song. | Fluc'-tus, a wave. | Se-nā'-tus, the senate. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Cur'-rus, a chariot. | Luc'-tus, grief. | $\mathrm{Ge}^{\prime}-\mathrm{lu}$, ice. |
| Ex-er'-cí-tus, an army. | $\mathrm{Mo}^{\prime}$-tus, motion. | $\mathrm{Ve}^{\prime} \mathrm{su}^{\prime}$, a spit. |

## Exceptions in Gender.

\$88. 1. The following are feminine :-
Acus, a needle.
Domus, a house.
Ficus, a fig.
Manus, a hand.
Portǐcus, a gallery.
Tribus, a tribe.

The plurals quinquātrus, a feast of Minerva, and idus, the ides, are also feminine. So also noctu, by night, found only in the abl. sing.

Penus, a store of provisions, when of the fourth declension, is masculine or feminine. Secus, sex, is neuter; see § 94.

Specus, a den, is very rarely feminine or neuter.
2. Some personal appellatives, and names of trees, are feminine by signification. See $\oint 29,1$ and 2 .

## Exceptions in Declension.

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

Singular.
N. Do'-mus,
G. do'-mus, or do' ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{mi}$,
D. $\operatorname{dom}^{\prime}-\mathrm{u}-\mathrm{i}$, or $\mathrm{do}^{\prime}-\mathrm{mo}$,

Ac. do'-mum,
$V$. do'-mus,
Ab. do'-mo.

Plural.
do'-mus,
dom'-u-um, or do-mō'-rum, dom'ī-bus, do'-mus, or do'-mos, do'-mus, dom'ri-bus.

[^5]Domûs, in the genitive, signifies, of a house ; domi commonly signifies, at home. The ablative domu is found in Plautus, in some copies of Livy, and in ancient inscriptions.

Cornus, a cornel-tree; ficus, a fig-tree; laurus, a laurel; and myrtus a myrtle, are sometimes of the second declension. Penus is sometimes of the third.

Some nouns in $u$ have also forms in $u s$ and $u m$; as, cornu, cornus, or cornum. Adjectives, compounds of manus, are of the 1st and 2d declensions.

Remark. Nouns of this declension anciently belonged to the third, and were formed by contraction, thus :-

Singular.
N. Fructus,
G. fructuis, -us,
D. fructui, -u,

Ac. fructuem, -um,
$V$ fructus,
. 16 . fructue, -u .

Plural. fructues, -us, fructuum, -am, fructuŭbus, -ŭbus, or -ǐbus, fructues, -us, fructues, -us, fructư̌bus, -übus, or -ǐbus.
2. The genitive singular in is is sometimes found in ancient authors. A genitive in $i$, after the second declension, also occurs; as, senātus, senäti ; tumultus, tumulti.
3. The contracted form of the dative in $u$ is not often used; yet it sometimes occurs, especially in Cæsar, and in the poets.
4. The contracted form of the genitive plural in $\hat{u} m$ rarely occurs.
5. The following nouns have $\breve{u} b u s$ in the dative and ablative plural :-

Acus, a needle. Arcus, a bovo. Artus, a joint.

Lacus, a lakc. Partus, a birth. Pecu; a flock.

Specus, a den.
Tribus, a tribe.

Geru, a knee ; portus, a harbor; tonitrus, thunder ; and veru, a spit, have tbus or ŭbus.

## FIFTH DECLENSION.

\$90. Nouns of the fifth declension end in es, and are of the feminine gender.

They are thus declined -

Res, a thing.
Singular. Plural.
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { N. res, } & \text { res, } \\ \text { G. re'-i, } & \text { re'-rum, } \\ \text { D. re'i, } & \text { re'bus, } \\ \text { Ac. rem, } & \text { res, } \\ \text { V. res, } & \text { res, } \\ \text { Ab. re. } & \text { re'-bus. }\end{array}$

Dies, a day. Singular. Plural.
$N$. di'-es, di'es,

D. di-è'íl, dieē'bus,

Ac. di'-em, di'es,
$\boldsymbol{V}$. di'-es, di'-es, Ab. di'-e. di-ē'-bus.

## Exceptions in Gender.

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

## Exceptions in Declension.

The genitive and dative singular sometimes end in $e$; as, die for diex. The genitive is sometimes also found in es; as, rabies, gen. rabies, Lucr., and the genitive and dative in $i$; as, gen. dii, Virg.; dat. pernicii, Nep.
Remark 1. There are only about eighty nouns of this declension, and of these only two, res and dies, are complete in the plural. Acies, effigies, eluvies, facies, glacies, progenies, series, species, spes, want the genitive, dative, and ablative plural, and the rest want the plural altogether.
2. All nouns of this declension end in ies, except four-fides, faith, res, a thing; spes, hope; and plebes, the common people ;-and all nouns in ies are of this declension, except alies, aries, paries, and quies, which are of the third declension, and requies, which is of the third and fifth.

## Declension of Compound Nouns.

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

## Singular.

N. res-pub-lǐ-ca,
G. re-i-pub-li-c ,
D. re-i-pub-lì-cæ,

Ac. rem-pub'li-cam,
V. res-pub'-lǐ-ca,
$A b$. re-pub'-lĭ-câ.

Singular.
N. jus-ju-ran'-dum, ju-ra-ju-ran'-da,
G. ju-ris-ju-ran -di,
D. ju-ri-ju-ran'-do,

Ac. jus-ju-ran'-dum,
V. jus-ju-ran'-dum,

Plural.
$\overline{\text { ju-ra-ju-ran'-da, }}$ ju-ra-ju-ran'da.

## Singular.

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

Ac. ma-trem-fa-mil'-i-as,
$V$. ma-ter-fa-mil'-i-as, $A b$. ma-tre-fa-mil-i-as, \&c.

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

## IRREGULAR NOUNS.

§92. Irregular nouns are divided into three classesVariable, Defective, and Redundant.

## I. VARIABLE NOUNS.

Nouns are variable either in gender or declension, or in both. Those which vary in gender are called heterogeneous; those which vary in declension are called hetcroclites.

## Heterogeneous Nouns.

1. Masculine in the singular, and neuter in the plural ; such are,

| Avernus, | Ismarus, | Mæňlus, <br> Dindy̆mus, | Tartărus, <br> Massicus, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Plural, Averna, \&c.
2. Masculine in the singular, and masculine or neuter in the plural; as, jocus, a jest; plur. joci, or joca;-locus, a place; plur. loci, passages in books, topics, places; loca, places; sibàlus, a hissing ; plur. sibŭla, rarely sibŭli.
3. Feminine in the singular, and neuter in the plural; as, carbăsus, a species of flax; plur. carbăsa, very rarely carbăsos, sails, \&c., made of it ;-Hierosoly̆ma, -a, Jerusalem; plur. Hierosoly̆ma, -ōrum.
4. Neuter in the singular, and masculine in the plural; as, colum, heaven; plur. coli;-Elysium ; plur. Elysii;-Argos; plur. Argi. So siser, n., plur. sisĕres, m.
5. Neuter in the singular, and masculine or neuter in the plural; as, frenum, a bridle; plur. freni or frena;-rastrum, a rake; plur. rastri, or rastra;-pugillar, a writing tablet; plur. pugillāres, or pugillaria.
6. Neuter in the singular, and feminine in the plural; as, ерйlum, a feast; plur. epŭle; -balneum, a bath; plur. balnea, rarely balnea ;—nundĩnum, a market-day; plur. nundĭne, a fair.
7. Feminine or neuter in the singular, and feminine in the plural ; as, delicia or delicium, delight ; plur. delicia.

## Heteroclites.

§93. 1. Second or third declension in the singular, and third in the plural; as, jugĕrum, an acre; gen. jugĕri, or jugĕris; abl.jugĕre ; plur., nom., and acc.jugĕra; gen. jugĕrum; abl. jugĕris and jugeribbus, from the obsolete jugus or juger.
2. Third declension in the singular, and second in the plural :
as, vas, a vessel ; plur. vasa, ōrum. Ancīle, a shield, has sometimes anciliörum, in the genitive plural.
Note. Variable nouns seem anciently to have been redundant, and to have retained a part of each of their original forms. Thus, vasa, -örum, properly comes from vasum, $-i$, but the latter, together with the plural of ras, vasis, became obsolete.

## II. DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

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

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

Such are pondo, pounds, used only in the plural : most nouns in $i$ : foreign words: semis, a half: git, a seed: cepe, an onion : the singular of mille, a thousand : words put for nouns; as, velle suum, for sua voluntas, his own inclination : and names of the letters of the alphabet.

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

The following list contains most nouns defective in case :-

Abactus, acc. pl.; a driving avay.
Accītu, abl.; a calling for.
Admissu, abl.; admission.
Admonǐtu, all.; admonition.
$\nVdash s$, not used in gen. pl.
Affătu, all.; an addressing ;-pl. affatus, -íbus.
Algus, nom.; algum, acc.; algu, or -o, abl. ; cold.
Ambăge, abl.; a winding story;pl. entire.
Amissum, acc.; a loss.
Aplustre, nom. and acc.; the flag of a ship;-pl.aplustria, or aplustra.
Arbitrātus, nom.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; judgment.
Arcessitu, abl.; a sending for.
Astu, nom., acc.; a city.
Astus, nom. ; astu, abl.; craft ;astus, acc. pl.
Cacoēthes, nom., acc. ; an evil cus-tom;-cacoẽthe, nom. pl.; -e, and -es, acc. pl.
Cetos, acc.; a whale;-cete, nom. and acc. pl.
Chaos, nom., acc. chao, abl.; chaos;
Cassem, acc.; casse, abl.; a net; pl. entire. [looking around.
Circumspectus, nom.;-um; -u; a
Coactu, abl.; constraint.

Cœlite, all.; pl. entire, inhabitants of heaven.
Commutatum, acc.; an alteration.
Compědis, gen.; compěde, abl.; a fetter;-pl.compĕdes,-ium,-ibus.
Concessu, abl.; permission.
Condiscipulătu, abl.; companionship at school.
Cratim, or -em, acc.; -e, abl.; a hurdle; -pl. crates, -ium, -ibus.
Daps, nom., scarcely used; dapis, gen. \&c.; a feast.
Datu, abl.; a giving.
Derisui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; ridicule.
Despicatui, dat.; contempt.
Dica, nom.; dicam, acc.; a legal process;-dicas, acc. pl.
Dicis, gen.; as, dicis gratia, for form's sake.
Ditiōnis, gen.; -i, dat.; -em, acc.; -e, all.; power.
Diu, abl.; in the day time.
Divisui, dat.; a dividing.
Ebur, ivory;-not used in the gen., dot., and abl. pl.
Efflagitātu, abl.; importunity.
Ejectus, nom.; a throwing out.
Epos, acc.; an epic poem.
Ergo, all.; for the sake.

Evectus, nom. ; a conveyance.
Fæx, dregs, wants gen. pl.
Far, corn, not used in the gen., dat., and abl. pl.
Fas, nom., acc.; right.
Fauce, abl.; the throat ;-plural, entire.
Fax, a torch, wants gen. pl.
Feminnis, gen.; -i, dat.; -e, abl.; the thigh ;-pl. feminna, -ǐbus.
Flictu, abl.; a striking.
Foris, nom. and gen.; -em, acc., -e, abl.; a door; -pl. entire.
Fors, nom.; -tis, gen.; -tem, acc.; -te, abl.; chance.
Frustratui, abl. ; a deceiving.
Frux, fruit, nom., scarcely used ;frugis, gen., \&c.
Gausăpe, nom., acc., abl.; a rough garment ;-gausăpa, acc. pl.
Glos, nom., voc.; a husband's sister.
Grates, acc. pl.;-gratǐbus, abl.; thanks.
Hiems, winter, not used in gen., dat., and abl. pl.
Hippomănes, nom.
Hir, nom. and acc.; the palm of the hand.
Hortātu, abl.; an exhorting ;-pl. hortatíbus:
Impětis, gen.; -e, all.; a shock;-pl. impetíbus.
Inconsultu, abl.; without advice.
Incitas, or -a, acc. pl.; as, ad incĭtas redactus, reduced to a strait.
Indultu, abl.; indulgence.
Inferiæ, nom. pl.; -as, acc. ; sacrifices to the dead.
Inficias, acc.pl.; a denial; as, ire inficias, to deny.
Ingratiis, abl. pl.; against one's will.
Injussu, abl.; without leave.
Inquies, nom.; disquiet.
Instar, nom., acc.; a likeness.
Interdiu, abl.; in the day time.
Invitatu, abl.; an invitation.
Jovis, nom., rarely used ;-pl. Joves.
Irrisui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; derision.
Jugěris, gen.; -e, abl.; an ucre;-pl. jugèra, -um, -ĭbus.
Jussu, abl.; cemmand.
Lakes, a spot, wants gen. pl.
Lucu, abl.; light.
Ludificatui, dat. ; a mockery.

Lux, light, wants the gen. pl.
Mandàtu, abl.; a command.
Mane, nom., acc.; mane, or -i, abl., morning.
Mel, honey, not used in gen., dat., and $a b l . p l$.
Melos, acc.; melody ;-mele, nom., acc. pl.
Metus, fear, not used in gen., dat., and abl. pl.
Missu, abl.; despatch ;-pl. missus, -ïbus.
Monĭtu, abl.; admonition;-pl. monĭtus.
Natu, abl.; by birth.
Nauci, gen.; as, res nauci, a thing of no value.
Nefas, nom., acc. ; wickedness.
Nemo, nobody, wants the roc. and the $p l$.
Nepenthes, nom. ; an herb.
Nex, death, wants the voc.;-neces, nom., acc. pl.
Nihil, or nihỉlum, nom. and acc.; -i, gen. ; -o, abl.; nothing.
Noctu, abl. ; by night.
Nuptui, dat.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; marriage.
Obex, nom.; -ǐcem, acc.; -ice, or -jíce, abl.; a bolt;-pl. obĭces, -jicichus.
Objectum, acc.; -u, abl.; an interposition ;-pl. objectus.
Obtentui, dat.; -u, abl. ; a pretcxt.
Opis, gen.; opem, acc.; ope, abl.; help ;-pl. entire.
Oppositu, abl.; an opposing ;-pl. oppositus.
Opus, nom., acc. ; need.
Os , the mouth, wants the gen. pl.
Panăces, nom. ; an herl.
Pax, peace, wants gen. pl.
Peccatu, abl.; sinning.
Pecŭdis, gen.; -i, dat.; -em, acc., -e, abl. ;-pl. entire.
Pelăge, nom., acc. pl. of pelăgus; the sea. [promptu.
Permissu, abl.; permission. - so
Piscātus, nom.; -i, gen.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; a fishing.
Pix, pitch, warts gen pl.
Pondo, abl.; in weight.
Precı, dat.; -em, acc.; -e, abl.; prayer; $-p l$. entire.
Procěrem, acc.; a peer;-pl. entire.
Proles, offspring, wants gen. pl.

Relătu, all.; a relation.
Repetundărum, gen. pl.; -is, abl.; extortion.
Rogātu, abl.; a request.
Rus, the country, wants gen., dat., and abl. pl.
Satias, nom.; -ătem, acc.;-āte, abl.; satiety.
Secus, nom., acc.; sex.
Situs, nom.; -um, acc.; -u, abl.; situation;-situs, nom. and acc. pl.; -ĭbus, abl.
Situs, nom.; -as, gen.; -um, acc.; -u, abl. ; rust ;-situs, acc. pl.
Sobǒles, offspring, wants gen: pl.
Sol, the sun, wants gen. pl.
Sordis, gen.; -em, acc.; -e, abl.; filth ;-pl. sordes, -ium, \&c.
Spontis, gen.; -e, abl. ; of one's own accord.
Suppetiæ, nom. pl.; -as, acc.; supplies.
Tabum, nom.; -i, gen.; -o, abl.; gore.
'Tempe, nom., acc., voc. pl.; a vale in Thessaly.

Thus wants gen., dat., and abl. pl.
Venui and -0, dat.; um, acc.; -0, abl., sale.
Veprem, acc.; -e, abl.; a brier ;-pl. entire.
Verběris, gen.; -e, abl.; a stripe;pl. verbĕra, um, "ĭbus.
Vesper, nom.; -e or -i, abl.; the evening.
Vespěra, nom.; -am, acc; -errâ, abl.; the evening.
Vespěrus, nom.; -o, dat.; -um, acc. -o, abl. ; the evening.
Vicis, gen.; -i, dat.; -em, acc., -e, abl.; change ;--pl. entire, except gen.
Virus, nom., -i, gen.; us, acc.; -o, abl.; poison.
Vis, strength, wants the dat sing.;pl. vires, -ium, \&c. See § 85
Viscus, nom.; -ěris, gen.; -ěre, abl.; an internal organ. pl. viscèra, \&c
Vocātu, abl.; a calling;-vocatus, acc. pl.
Volŭpe, or volup', nom., acc.; pleasure.

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

For the use of the vocative, also, of many words, no classical authority can be found.
§95. 2. Nouns defective in number, want either the plural or the singular.
(a.) Many nouns want the plural from the nature of the things which they express. Such are names of persons, most names of places (except those which have only the plural), the names of virtues, vices, arts, herbs, metals, minerals, liquors, and corn, most abstract nouns, and many others.

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

Aconītum, wolfslane, p.
Adorea, corn.
Aêr, the air, p .
Æs, brass, money, p.
Ather, the sky.
Ævum, an age, p.
Album, an album.
Allium, garlic, p.
Amicitia, friendship, p. Calor, heat, p.

Argilla, white clay.
Avểna, oats, p.
Balsămum, balsam, p.
Balaustium, the flower of a pomegranate.
Barathrum, a gulf.
Callum, hardness of skin. p

Carduus, a thistle.
Caro, flesh, p.
Cera, wax, p .
Cestus, the girdle of Venus.
Cicuta, hemlock, p.
Cœnum, mud.
Contagium, a contagion, $\mathbf{p}$.

Crocum, saffron.
Crocus, saffron, p.
Cruor, blood, p.
Cutis, the shin, p.
Diluculum, the dawn.
Ebur, ivory, p.
Electrum, amber, p.
Far, curn, p.
Fel, gall.
Fervor, heat, p.
Fides, fuith.
Fimus, dung.
Fuga, flight, p.
Fumus, smoke, p.
Furor, madness, p.
Galla, an oak apple.
Gelu, frost.
Glarea, gravel.
Gloria, glory, p.
Glastum, woad.
Gluten, or
Glutĭnum, glue.
Gypsum, white plaster.
Hepar, the liver.
Hesperrus, the evening star.
Hilum, the black speck of a bean.
Hordeum, barley, p.
Humus, the ground.
Indǒles, the disposition.
Ira, anger, p .
Jubar, a sunbeam.
Jus, justice lawo [tion Prows, the
lustitium, la, p. [tion. Prlub, the death.
Ustium, a law vaca-
Lac, milk.
Lætitia, joy, p.
Languor, faintness, p .
Lardum, bacon. p.
Latex, liquor, p.

Letum, death.
Lignum, wood, p.
Lirnus, mud.
Liquor, liquor, p.
Lues, a plague.
Lutum, clay.
Lux, light, p.
Macellum, the shambles.
Mane, the morning.
Marmor, marble, p.
Mel, honey, p.
Meridies, mid-day.
Mors, death, p .
Munditia, neatness, p .
Mundus, female ornaments.
Muscus, moss.
Nectar, nectar.
Nemo, no man.
Nequitia, wickedness, $\mathbf{p}$.
Nihil, nil, nihǐlum, nothing.
Nitrum, nitre.
Oblivio, forgetfulness, $\mathbf{p}$.
Omāsum, fat tripe.
Opium, opium.
Palea, chaff, p.
Pax, peace, p.
Penum, and
Penus, provisions.
Piper, pepper.
Pix, pitch, $\mathbf{p}$.
Pontus, the sea.
Pubes, the youth.
Pulvis, dust, p.
Purpŭra, purple, p .
Quies, rest, p .
Ros, dew, p.
Rubor, redness, $\mathbf{p}$.

Sabŭlo, gravel.
Sabǔlum, sand.
Sal (neut.), salt; (masc.), p .
Salum, the sea.
Salus, safety.
Sol, the sun, a day, $\mathbf{p}$
Sanguis, blood.
Scrupŭlum, a scruple.p.
Senium, old age.
Siler, an osier.
Sinăpi, mustard.
Siser, a carrot, p.
Sitis, thirst.
Sopor, slecp, p.
Specimen, an example.
Spuma, foam, p.
Sulphur, sulphur, p.
Supellex, furniture.
Tabes, a consumption.
Tabum, gore.
Tellus, the earth.
Terror, terror, p
Thymum, thyme, $\mathbf{p}$.
Tribŭlus, a thistle, p.
Tristitia, sadness, p.
Ver, spring.
Verbēna, vervain, p.
Vespĕra, the evening.
Veternum, and
Veternus, lethargy.
Vigor, strength, p.
Vinum, wine, p.
Virus, poison.
Viscum, and
Viscus, birdlime.
Vitrum, wooad
Vulgus, the common people.
Zingǐber, ginger.
§96. (b.) The names of festivals and games, and several names of places and books, want the singular; as, Bacchanalia, a festival of Bacchus; Olympia, the Olympic games; Bucolĭca, a book of pastorals; and the following names of places:-

| Acroceraunia, | Ecbatăna, | Gemoniæ scalæ, | Susa, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Arȳ̄clæ, | Esquiliæ, | Locri, | Syracusæ, |
| Artax̌a, | Fundi, | Parisi, | Thermopy̆læ, |
| Athênæ, | Gabii, | Philippi, | Veii, |
| Baiæ, | Gades, | Puteöli, | Venetiæ. |

Ceraunia,
Those in $\boldsymbol{i}$ more properly signify the people

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

Acta, acts.
Adversaria, a memo-randum-book.
Fistīva, sc. castra, summer quarters.
Alpes, the Alps, s.
Annāles, annals, s.
Antæ, doorposts, s.
Antes, fore ranks.
Antiæ, a forelock.
Apĭnæ, trifles.
Argutiæ, witticisms, s.
Arma, arms.
Artus, the joints, s.
Bellaria, sweetmeats.
Bigæ, a two-horse chariot, s.
Braccæ, breeches.
Branchiæ, the gills of a fish.
Brevia, shallow places.
Calendæ, Calends.
Cancelli, balustrades.
Cani, gray hairs.
Casses, a hunter's net, s.
Caulæ, sheep-folds.
Celĕres, light horse.
Cœlĭtes, the gods, s.
Cibaria, victuals.
Clitellæ, panniers.
Codicilli, writings.
Crepundia, bawobles.
Cunabŭla; and
Cunæ, a cradle.
Cyclades, the Cycladian islands, s.
Decĭmæ, tithes, s.
Diræ, the Furies, s.
Divitiæ, riches.
Druĭdes, the Druids.
Dryǎdes, the Dryads, s.
Epŭlæ, a banquet, s.
Eumenĭdes, the Fu ries, s .
Excubiæ, woatches.
Exequiæ, funeral rites.
Exta, entrails.
Exuviæ, spoils.
Facetiæ, pleasant say: in ings, s.

Ferix, holidays.
Fides, a stringed instrument, s.
Flabra, blasts.
Fraga, strawoberries, s.
Fraces, the lees of oil.
Gemĭni, twins, s.
Genæ, cheeks, s.
Gerre, trifles.
Grates, thanks.
Habēnæ, reins, s.
Hyădes, the Hyades, s.
Hyberna, sc. castra, winter quarters.
Idus, the ides of a month.
Ilia, the flank.
Incunabŭla, a cradle.
Indutiæ, a truce.
Induvix, clothes.
Ineptiæ, silly wit, s.
Inféri, the gods below.
Inferim, sacrifices to the dead.
Insecta, insects.
Insidiæ, snares.
Justa, funeral rites.
Lactes, small entrails.
Lamenta, lamentations.
Lapicidinæ, a stonequarry.
Latebræ,lurking places, s.

Laurǐces, young rabbits.
Lautia, presents to foreign ambassudors.
Lemüres, hobgoblins.
Lendes, nits.
Libĕri, children, s.
Lucęres, a tribe of the Romans.
Magalia, cottages.
Majōres, ancestors, s.
Manes, the shades, s.
Manubiæ, spoils of war.
Mapalia, huts, s.
Minacix, and
Minæ, threats.
Minōres, successors.
Mœnia, the wolls of a city.

Multitia, garmentsfinoly wrought.
Munia, offices.
Naiǎdes, fountain nymphs, s.
Nares, the nostrils, s.
Natāles, parentage.
Nates, the haunches, s.
Nome, corroding sores, s.

Nonæ, the nones of a month.
Nugæ, trifles.
Nundinæ, a fair, a mart.
Nuptiæ, a marriage.
Oblivia,forgetfulness, s
Offuciæ, cheats, s.
Optimātes, nobles, s.
Pandecte, pandects.
Palearia, the dewlap, s.
Parietinæ, old walls.
Partes, a party.
Pascua, pastures, s.
Penătes, houschold gods, s .
Phalĕræ, trappings, s.
Philtra, love potions.
Pleixdes, the seven stars, s .
Posteri, posterity.
Præbia, an amulet.
Precordia, the parts about the heurt.
Primitiæ, first fruits.
Procĕres, nobles, s.
Pugillaria, or -ares, $a$ note-book, s.
Quadrīgæ, a four horse chariot, s .
Quirītes, citizens of Rome, s.
Quisquiliæ, refuse.
Reliquiæ, a remainder,
Salebræ, rugged places, s.

Salīnæ, a salt pit.
Scalæ, a ladder. s.
Scatebre, a spring s.

Scopæ, a broom.
Scruta, old clothes.
Sentes, thorns, s.
Sponsalia, espousals.
Statīva, sc. castra, piched camp.
Supĕri, the gods above.

Tenebræ, darkness. Utensilia, utensils.
Tesqua, rough places.
Thermæ, hot baths.
Torminna, colic pains.
Transtra, seats for rowers, s.
Tricæ, trifles, toys.

Valvæ, folding doors.
Vepres, brambles, s.
Vergiliæ, the seven stars.
Vindiciæ, a claim of liberty.
Virgulta, bushes.

Talaria, winged shoes.
§ 9\%. The following differ in meaning in the different numbers:-

Ædes, -is, a temple.
Edes, -ium, a house.
Auxilium, aid.
Auxilia, auxiliary troops.
Bonum, a good thing.
Bona, property.
Carcer, a prison.
Carcères, a goal.
Castrum, a castle.
Castra, a camp.
Comitium, a part of the Riman forum.
Comitia, an asscmbly for election.
Cupedia, - $x$, daintiness.
Cupediæ, -ărum, and
Cupedia, -ōrum, dainties.
Copia, plenty.
Copie, forces.
Facultas, ability.
Facultâtes, wealth.

Ludus, pastime.
Ludi, public games.
Fastus, -ùs, pride.
Fastus, -uum, and
Fasti,-ōrum, a calendar.
Nātalis, a birthday.
Nātāles, birth, lineage.
Fortūna, Fortune.
Fortūnæ, wealth.
Furfur, bran.
Furfŭres, dandruff.
Gratia, favor.
Gratiæ, thanks.
Impedimentum, a hinderance.
Impedimenta, baggage.
Litëra, a letter of the alphabet.
Litěræ, an epistle.
Lustrum, a space of five years.
Lustra, dens of wild beasts.

Mos, custom.
Mores, manners.
Opis, gen. help.
Opes, -um, power, wealth.
Opěra, labor. .
Opěræ, vorkmen.
Plaga, a climate.
Plagæ, nets, toils.
Principium, a beginning.
Principia, the general's quarters.
Rostrum, a beak.
Rostra, a pulpit or tribunal.
Rus, the country.
Rura, fields.
Sal, salt.
Sales, witticisms.
Torus, a bed, a cord.
Tori, brawny muscles.
Toni, bawny muscles.
§98. The following plurals are sometimes used in poetry for the singular :-

Alta, the sea.
Anĭmi, courage.
Auræ, the air.
Carīnæ, a keel.
Cervices, the neck.
Colla, the neck.
Come, the huir.
Connubia, marriage.
Corda, the heart.
Corpòra, a body.
Crepuscŭla, twoilight.
Currus, a chariot.
Exilia, banishment.
Frigorra, cold.
Gaudia, joy.
Gramina, grass.

Guttŭra, the throat.
Hymenæi, marriage.
Jejunia, fasting.
Ignes, love.
Inguĭna, the groin.
Jubæ, a mane.
Limǐna, a threshold.
Litŏra, a shore.
Mensæ, a service or course of dishes.
Næniæ, a funeral dirge.
Numina, the divinity.
Odia, hatred.
Ora, the mouth, the countenance.
Oræ, confines.

Ortus, a rising, the east.
Otia, ease, leisure.
Pectorra, the breast.
Rictus, the jaws.
Robřra, oaki, strength.
Silentia, silence.
Sinus, the breast of a Roman garment.
Tædæ, a torch.
Tempŏra, time.
Thalămi, marriage, or marriage-bed.
Thura, frankincense.
Tori, a bed, a couch.
Viæ, a journey.
Vultus, the countenance

## III. REDUNDANT NOUNS.

§99. Nouns are redundant either in termination, in declension, in gender, or in two or more of these respects.

1. In termination: (a.) of the nominative; as, arbor, and arbos, a tree : (b.) of the oblique cases; as, tigris; gen. tigris, or -ïdis; a tiger.
2. In declension; as, laurus; gen. $-i$, or $-\hat{u} s$; a laurel.
3. In gender; as, vulgus, masc. or neut.; the common people.
4. In termination and declension ; as, senecta, $-a$, and senectus, -ūtis; old age.
5. In termination and gender ; as, pileus, masc., and pileum, neut. ; a hat.
6. In declension and gender ; as, penus, $-i$ or $-\hat{u} s$, masc. or fein., and penus, -ŏris, neut. ; a store of provisions. Specus, $-\hat{u} s$ or $-i$, masc., fem., or neut.
7. In termination, declension, and gender ; as, menda, $-a$, fem., and mendum, -i, neut.; a fault.

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

Abusio, and -us, -îs, an abuse.
Acinnus, and -um, a grape-stone.
Adagium, and -io, a proverl.
Admonitio, and -us, - us , an advising.
A'thra, and Æther, the clear sky.
Affectio, und -us, -̂ts, affection.
Agamemno, and -on, Agamemnon.
A labaster, -tri, and -trum, an alabaster box.
Alimonia, and -um, aliment.
Alluvio, and -es, a flood.
Alvearium, and -ăre, a bee-hive.
A marăcus, und -um, sweet marjoram.
Anfractum, and -us, -uis, a winding.
Angiportum, and -us, - $\hat{s} s$, a narrow
vouy.
Antidŏtus, and -um, an antidote.
4 ranea, and -us, a spider.
Arar, and -aris, the river Arar.
Arbor, and -os, a tree.
Architectus, and -on, an architect.
Attagena, and -gen, a woodcock.
Avaritia, and -ies, avarice.
Auginentum, and-men, increase.
Baccar, and -̌ris, a kind of herb.
Bacŭlus, and-um, a staff.
Balteus, and -um, a belt.

Barbaria, and -ies, barbarism.
Barbĭtus, and -on, a harp.
Batillus, and -um, a fire shovel.
Blanditia, and -ies, flattery.
Buccĭna, and -um, a trumpet.
Bura, and -is, a plough-tail.
Buxus, and-um, the box-tree.
Calamister, -tri, and -trum, a crisp-ing-pin.
Callus, and-um, hardness of the skin.
Cancer, -ěri, or -ěris, a crab.
Canitia, and -ies, hoariness.
Capus, and Capo, a capon.
Cassida, and Cassis, a helmet.
Catīnus, and -um, a platter.
Cepa, and -e, an onion.
Chirogrăphus, and -um, a hand writing.
Cingŭla, -us, and -um, a girdle.
Clypeus, and -um, a shield.
Cochlearium, -ar, and -ăre, a spoon.
Colluvio, and -ies, filth.
Commentarius, and -um, a journal.
Compáges, and -o, a joining.
Conâtum, and us, -ils, an attempt.
Concinnitas, and -tudo, neatness.
Consortium, and -io, partnership.

Contagium, -io, and -es, contact.
Cornus, $-i$, or - $k s, a$ cornel-tree.
Costus, and -um, a kind of shrub.
Crocus, and -um, saffron.
Crystallus, and -um, crystal.
Cubitus, and -um, a cubit.
Cupidìtas, and -pìdo, desire.
Cupressus, $-i$, or -ûs, a cypress-tree
Culeus, and -um, a leathern bag.
Delicia, and -um, a delight.
Delphnus, and Delphin, a dolphin.
Desidia, and -es, sloth.
Dictamnus, and -um, dittany.
Diluvium, and -ies, a deluge.
Domus, $-i$, or $-\hat{u} s$, a house.
Dorsus, and-um, the back.
Duritia, and -ies, hardness.
Eběnus, and -um, elony.
Effigia, and -ies, an image.
Elegeia, and -us, an elegy.
Elephantus, and -phas, an elephant.
Essēda, and -um, a chariot.
Evander, -dri, and -drus, Evander.
Eventum, and -us, - $\hat{u}$, an event.
Exemplar, and -âre, a copy.
Ficus, $-i$, or - $\hat{s}$, a fig-tree.
Fimus, and -un, dung.
Fretum, and -ue, -tis, a strait.
Fulgetra, and -um, lightning.
Galêrus, and -um, a hat.
Ganea, and -um, a subterrancous room.
Gibba, -us, and -er, -ěri, a bunch.
Glomus, $-i$, or -ěris, a ball of thread.
Glutǐnum, and -ten, glue.
Gobius, and -io, a gudgeon.
Gruis, and Grus, a crane.
Hebdomăda, and -mas, a weell.
Hellebŏrus, and -um, hellebore.
Honor, and -os, honor.
Hyssōpus, and -um, hyssop.
Ilios, and -on, Troy.
Incestum, and -us, - 1 s , incest.
Intŭbus, and-um, endive.
Jugŭlus, and -um, the throat.
Juventa, -us, and -as, youth.
Labor, and -os, labor.
Lacerta, and-us, a lizard.
Laurus, $-i$, or -us, a laurel.
Lepor, and -os, wit.
Libraria, and -um, a book-case.
Ligur, and -us, -üris, a Ligurian.
Lapinus, and -um, a lupine.
Luxuria, and -ies, luxury.
Mæander, -dri, and -drus, Meander.

Materia, and -ies, materials.
Medimnus, and -um, a measure.
Menda, and -um, a fault.
Milliarium, and -ăre, a mile.
Modius, and-um, a measure.
Mollitia, and -ies, sofiness.
Momentum, and -men, motion.
Mugil, and -ilis, a mullet.
Mulcĭber, -ĕri, or -ĕris, Vulcan.
Mulctra, and -um, a milk-pail.
Munditia, and -ies, neatness.
Muria, and -ies, lrine or pickle.
Myrtus, $-i$, or $-\hat{u} s$, a myrtle.
Nardus, and -um, spilienard.
Nasus, and -um, the nose.
Necessittas, and -üdo, necessity.
Nequitia, and -ies, wickedness.
Notitia, and -ies, knowledge.
Oblivium, and -io, forgetfulness.
Obsidium, and -io, a siege.
©dĭpus, -i, or -ŏdis, ELdipus.
Orpheus, -ei, or -eos, Orpheus.
Palatus, and -um, the palate.
Palumba, -es, and -us, -ûs, a pigeon.
Papỹrus, and -um, papyrus.
Paupertas, and -ies, poverty.
Pavus, and -o, a peacock.
Penus, -or $r s,-i$, or - $1 s$, and Penum, provisions.
Peplus, and -um, a vcil.
Perseus, -ei, or -cos, Perseus.
Pileus, and -um, a hat.
Pinus, $-i$, or - $4 s$, a pine-tree.
Pistrīna, and -um, a bake-house.
Planitia, and -ies, a plain.
Plato, and -on, Plato.
Plebs, and Plebes, -ci, the common people.
Postulātum, and -io, a request.
Præsēpes, -is, and -e, a stavle.
Prætextum, and -us, - $\hat{1} s$, a pretext.
Prosapia, and -ies, lineage.
Rapa, and -um, a turnip.
Requies, -ētis, or -ēt, rest.
Rete, and -is, a net.
Reticŭlus, and -um, a small net.
Rictum, and -us, -uts, the mouth.
Ruscus, and -um, butcher's broom
Sævitia, and -ies, cruelty.
Sagus, und -um, a soldier's cloak.
Sanguis, and -guen, blood.
Satrăpes, and Satraps, a satrap.
Scabritia, and -ies, roughess.
Scobis, and Scobs, sawodust.
Scorpius, and -io, a scorpion

Scrobis, and Scrobs, a ditch.
Segmentum, and -men, a piece.
Segnitia, and -ies, sloth.
Senecta, and -us, old age.
Sensum, and -us, - ths, sense.
Sequester, -tri, or tris, an umpire.
Sesăma, and -um, sesame.
Sibilus, and -um, a hissing.
Sinăpi, and -is, mustard.
Sinus, and -um, a milk-pail.
Sparus, and -um, a spear.
Spurcitia, and -ies, filthiness.
Squalitüdo, and Squalor, filthiness.
Stramentum, and -men, straw.
Suffimentum, and -men, a perfume.
Suggestus, and -um, a pulpit.
Suppărus, and -um, a veil.
Supplicium, and -icatio, a suppli-

Tabus, and -um, gore.
Tapētum, -ēte, and -es, tapestry.
Tenerítas, and -tūdo, softness.
Tiāra, and -as, a turban.
Tignus, and -um, a plank.
Tigris, - $i s$, or - -ddis , a tiger.
Titănus, and Titan, Titan.
Tonitruum, and -trus, thunder.
Torâle, and -al, a bed covering.
Trabes, and Trabs, a beam.
Tribŭla, and -um, a threshing machine.
Vespěra, -pěrus, and -per, the evening.
'inaceus, and -um, a grape-stone.
Viscus, and -um, birdlime.
Vulgus, masc.and neut., the common people.
cation.
To these may be added some other verbals in $u s$ and io, and Greek nouns in o and ón; as, Dio and Dion; also some Greek nouns in es and $e$, which have Latin forms in $a$; as, Atrìdes and Atrida. See § 45.

Some proper names of places also are redundant in number; as, Argos and Argi; Cuma and Cume; Fidēna and Fidëne; Thebe and Thebo.

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

## DERIVATION OF NOUNS.

$\$ 100$. Nouns are derived from other nouns, from adjectives, and from verbs.
I. From nouns are derived the following classes :-

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

Patronymics are properly Greek nouns, and have been borrowed from that language by the Latin poets.

Most masculine patronymics end in ŭdes; as, Priamı̆des, a son of Priam; Romulida, the Romans, from their first king, Romŭlus. Those from nouns in eus usually contract eŭdes into $\bar{i} d e s$; as, Atrides, from Atreus. Those from nouns in as and $e s$, of the first declension, end in $\breve{a} d e s$; as, AEneădes, from ALnēas; but some, from nouns of this and of other declensions, end in iădes; as, Anchisiădes, from Anchīses, Abantiădes, from Abas.

To masculine patronymics in ides, eйdes, ades, and iădes, correspond feminines in is, eis, as, and ias; as, Tyndăris, the daughter of Tyndărus; Nereis, the daughter of Nereus; Thestias, the daughter of Thestius; ALetias, the daughter of EEētes.

A feminine in ine is also found; as, Nerine, from Nereus.
Patronymics in des and ne are of the first declension; those in is and as, of the third.
2. A patrial or gentile noun is derived from the name of a country, and denotes an inhabitant of that country; as, Tros, a Trojan man; Troas, a Trojan woman; Macĕdo, a Macedonian; Samnis, a Samnite; from Troja, Macedonia, and Samnium.

Most patrials are properly adjectives, relating to a noun understood; as, homo, civis, \&c.
3. A diminutive signifies a small thing of the kind denoted by the primitive.

Diminutives generally end in lus, la, or lum, according as the primitive is masculine, feminine, or neuter. These terminations are usually added either to the nominative or to the root of the primitive : commonly $\breve{u}$ or $c \breve{u}$ is inserted before them; as, adolescentŭlus, a very young man, from adolescens, a youth; arŭla, a little altar, from ara; scutŭlum, a little shield, from scutum; fratercŭlus, mulicrcŭla, opuscŭlum, from frater, mulier, and opus.

In some, $\check{o}$ is inserted instead of $\breve{u}$; as, filiŏlus, from filius.
A few diminutives end in leus; as, equuleus, from equus, a horse.

Sometimes the root of the primitive is variously modified; as, homuncŭlus, asellus, libellus, from homo, asĭnus, and liber.

Some diminutives differ in gender from their primitives; as, ranuncŭlus, scamillus, from rana and scamnum.
4. Amplificatives are personal appellations, denoting an excess of what is expressed by their primitives; as, capĭto, one who has a large head, from caput, the head; naso, one who has a large nose, from nasus, the nose.
5. The termination ium or itium, added to the root of a noun, indicates an assemblage of the individuals denoted by the primitive, or their office or employment; as, collegium, an assembly of colleagues; servitium, a collection of servants; sacerdotium, the priesthood ; ministcrium, a ministry ; from collēga, servus, sacerdos, and minister.
6. The termination imonium is added to the root of a few nouns, denoting that which gives to the primitives their character; as, testimonium, testimony; vadimonium, obligation; from testis and vas (vadis).
7. The termination ètum, added to the root of names of plants, denotes a place where they grow in abundance; as, quercētum, laurētum, from quercus, an oak, and laurus, a laurel.

But some are irregular ; as, arbustum, salictum; from arbos, a tree, and salix, a willow.
8. The termination arium, added to the root of a noun, denotes the place where the things signified by the primitive are kept; as, aviarium, plantarium; from avis, a bird, and planta, a plant.
9. The termination $\bar{l} l e$, also, added to the root of words denoting animals, marks the place where they are kept ; as, bovìle, caprìle, ovile; from bos, an ox, caper, a goat, and ovis, a sheep.

This and the preceding class are properly neuter adjectives.
\$ 101. II. From adjectives are derived the following forms of abstract nouns. See § 26.

1. The terminations $\bar{t} t a s, i a$, itūdo, and $\bar{e} d o$, are added to the root of the primitive; as, cupidittas, desire; audacia, boldness ; magnitūdo, greatness; albēdo, whiteness; from cupǔdus, audax, magnus, and albus.
So atrocitas, crudelitas, from atrox and crudēils ; concordia, perfidia, from concors and perf $\backslash$ dus ; similitüdo, longitüdo, from similis and longus; dulcèdo, pinguèdo, from dulcis and pinguis.

When the root ends in $i$, the abstract is formed in ĕtas ; as, piĕtus, piety ; anxiëtas, anxiety; from pius and anxius.

Libertas, liberty, is contracted from liberitas. So juventas, paupertas; and difficultas, difficulty, from difficiñtas.

A few abstracts are formed in itus or tus, instead of ǐtas; as, servĭtus, slavery; juventus, youth; from servus and juvĕnis.

Instead of $i a$, some adjectives in $u s$ and is add itia, or ities, to the root; as, avaritia, avarice; justitia, justice; from avàrus and justus;-durities, hardness; savities, cruelty; from durus and savus; segnitia and segnities, from segnis.

Consuctūdo, desuctūdo, mansuetūdo, and sollicitūdo, omit it in the termination, as their root ends in $t$.
2. A few adjectives form abstracts in imonia; as, acrimonia, tartness ; sanctimonia, sanctity ; from acer and sanctus.
Abstracts are sometimes formed from the same adjective with different terminations; as, clarïtas and claritūdo, from clarus.

Adjectives, as distinguished from the abstracts which are formed from them, are called concretes.
§ 102. III. Nouns derived from verbs are called verbal nouns.

The following are the principal classes :-

1. The termination or, added to the first root of a verb, espe-
cially of a neuter verb, denotes the action or state of the verb abstractly; as, amor, love; favor, favor; meror, grief; splendor, brightness; from amo, faveo, mareo, and splendeo.
2. From many verbs abstracts are formed by adding ium to the first root; as, colloquium, a conference; gaudium, joy ; exordium, a beginning; from collŏquor, gaudeo, and exordior.

Some words of this class are formed by changing final $u$, in the third root of the verb, into ium; as, exitium, destruction; solatium, consolation ; from exeo (exitu) and solor (solätu).
3. Some verbal nouns are formed by adding èla, imonia, or imonium, to the first root of the verb; as loquēla, speech; querēla, a complaint; suadēla, persuasion; from loquor, queror, and suadeo;-alimonia and alimonium, nutriment, from alo ;querimonia, a complaint, from queror.
4. The termination mentum, added to the first root of the verb, generally with a connecting vowel, denotes a means for the performance of the action of the verb; as, documentum, a means of teaching ; from doceo. So blandimentum, experimentum, etc.; and so fomentum, momentum, for fovimentum, etc., from foveo, etc.

The termination men has sometimes a similar signification; as, tegmen, a covering; from tego.

Some words of this class have no primitive verb in use; as, atramentum, capillamentum, \&c.
5. The terminations $\breve{u} l u m, b \breve{u} l u m$, and $c u ̆ l u m$, added to the first root of a verb, the two last with a connecting vowel, denote a means or instrument ; as, cingŭlum, a girdle; jacŭlum, a javelin; vehicŭlum, a vehicle; venabŭlum, a hunting-spear; from cingo, jacio, veho, and venor.

Some words of this kind are formed from nouns; as, acetabŭlum, a vinegar cruet; thuribŭlum, a censer; from acētum and thus.
6. Nouns formed by changing final $u$, in the third root of the verb, into or and $r i x$, denote respectively the male and female agent of the action expressed by the verb; as, adjütor, adjütrix, an assistant; fautor, fautrix, a favorer; victor, victrix, a conqueror ; from adjüvo (adjūtu), faveo (fautu), vinco (victu).

The feminine form is less common than the masculine.
Some nouns in tor are formed immediately from other nouns; as, viätor, a traveller ; janŭtor, a door-keeper; from via and $j a n u a$. In merětrix from mereo, $i$ of the third root becomes $e$.
7. Many abstract nouns are formed by changing final $\boldsymbol{u}$, in the thira root of a verb, into io and us; as, actio, an action;
cautio, caution ; lectio, reading; from ago (actu), caveo (cautu), lego (lectu) ;-cantus, singing; visus, sight; usus, use; from cano (cantu), video (visu), utor (usu).

Nouns of both forms, and of the same signification, are frequently derived from the same verb; as, concursio and concursus, a running together ; motio and motus, \&c.

The termination $r a$, added to the third root of a verb, sometimes has the same signification as $i o$ and $u$, and sometimes denotes the result of an action ; as, positūra, position; vinctū$r a$, a binding together; from pono (posǐtu), and vincio (vinctu); -conjectūra, a conjecture; pictūra, a picture; from conjicio (conjectu) and pingo (pictu).
One of the forms in $i o, u s$, and $\bar{u} r a$, is generally used to the exclusion of the others, and when two or more are found, they are usually employed in somewhat different senses.
8. The termination orium, added to the third root of a verb, after $u$ is removed, denotes the place where the action of the verb is performed; as, auditorium, a lecture-room ; conditorium, a repository; from audio and condo.

## COMPOSITION OF NOUNS.

§103. Compound nouns are formed variously :-

1. Of two nouns; as, rupicăpra, a wild goat, of rupes and capra. In some words, compounded of two nouns, the former is a genitive ; as, senatusconsultum, a decree of the senate; $j u$ risconsultus, a lawyer. In others, both parts are declined; as, respublica, jusjurandum. See § 91 .
2. Of a noun and a verb; as, artı̆fex, an artist, of ars and facio; fidĭcen, a harper, of fidis and cano; agricŏla, a husbandman, of ager and colo; patricida, a patricide, of pater and cado.
3. Of an adjective and a noun ; as, aquinoctium, the equinox, of aquus and nox; millepĕda, a millepede, of mille and pes.

In duumvir, triumvir, decemvir, centumvir, the numeral adjective is in the genitive plural.

Remari. When the former part of the compound is a noun or an adjective, it usually ends in $\breve{\imath}$. If the second word begins with a vowel, an elision takes place; as, quinquennium, of quinque and annus.
4. Of an adverb and a noun; as, nefas, wickedness; nemo, nobody ; of ne, fas, and homo. So biduum, of bis and dies.
5. Of a preposition and a noun ; as, incuria, want of care, of
in and cura. So intervallum, the space between the ramparts pracordia, the vitals ; proverbium, a proverb; subsellium, a seat , superficies, a surface.

When the former part is a preposition, its final consonant is sometimes changed, to adapt it to that which follows it: as, immortatitas, imprudentia. See § 196.

## ADJECTIVES.

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

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

1. Quality ; as, bonus, good ; albus, white.
2. Quantity ; as, magnus, great ; totus, the whole.
3. Matter; as, abiegnus, made of fir ; aureus, golden.
4. Time ; as, annuus, yearly ; hesternus, of yesterday.
5. Place; as, altus, high; vicinus, near.
6. Relation ; as, amìcus, friendly ; aptus, fit.
7. Number; as, unus, one; secundus, second. These are called numerals.
8. Possession; as, herìlis, a master's ; paternus, of a father. These are called possessives.
9. Country; as, Romānus, Roman; Arpinas, of Arpinum These are called patrials.
10. Part ; as, ullus, any one ; alter, another. These are called partitives.
11. Interrogation ; as, quantus, how great? qualis, of what kind? These are called interrogatives; when not used interrogatively, they are called indefinites.
12. Diminution ; as, parvŭlus, from parvus, small; misellus, from miser, miserable. These are called diminutives.
13. Amplification; as, vinösus and vinolentus, much given to wine; auritus, having long ears These are called amplificatives.

## DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 105. Adjectives are declined like substantives, and are either of the first and second declension, or of the third onlv.

## ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSION.

The masculine of adjectives that belong to the first and second declension, ends either in $u s$ or $e r$. Those in $u s$ change $u s$ into $a$ for the feminine, and into $u m$ for the neuter. Those in er add $a$ for the feminine, and $u m$ for the neuter. The masculine in $u s$ is declined like domĭnus; that in er like gener, or ager; the feminine always like musa; and the neuter like regnum.

Remark. One adjective, satur, -ŭra, -urrum, full, ends in $u r$, and the masculine is declined like gener.

1. Bonus, good.

Singular.

|  | Masc. | Fem. | Neut. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $N$. | bo'-nus, | $\mathrm{bo}^{\prime}-\mathrm{na}$, | bo'-num, |
| $\boldsymbol{G}$. | bo'-ni, | $\mathrm{bo}^{\prime}-\mathrm{næ}$, | bo'-ni, |
| D. | bo'-no, | $\mathrm{bo}^{\prime}-\mathrm{næ}$, | bo'-no, |
| Ac. | bo'-num, | bo'-nam, | bo'-num, |
| $V$. | bo'-ne, | bo'-na, | bo'-num, |
| $A b$. | bo'-no. | bo'-nâ. | bo'-no. |


| $\boldsymbol{N}$. | bo'-ni, | bo'-næ, | bo'-na, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\boldsymbol{G}$. | bo-nō'-rum, | bo-nā'-rum, | bo-nō'-rum, |
| $\boldsymbol{D}$. | bo'-nis, | bo'-nis, | bo'-nis, |
| $\boldsymbol{A c}$. | bo'-nos, | bo'-nas, | bo $^{\prime}$ na, |
| $\boldsymbol{V}$. | bo'-ni, | bo'-næ, | bo'-na, |
| $\boldsymbol{A b}$. | bo'-nis. | bo'-nis. | bo'-nis. |

In like manner decline

Al'-tus, high.
A-và'-rus, covetous. Be-nig'-nus, kind.

Fi'dus, faithful.
Im'-prö-bus, wicked.
In-i 1 -quus, unjust.

Lon'-gus, long.
Ple'-nus, full.
Tac'-ītus, silent.

Like bonus are also declined all participles in us.

## 2. Tener, tender.

Singular.
Masc.
N. te'-ner,
G. ten'è-ri,
D. ten'ĕ-ro,

Ac. ten'-ĕ-rum,
V. te'-ner,

Ab. ten'-è-ro

Fem.
ten'è-ra, ten'ë-ræ, ten'ē-ræ, ten'-è-ram, ten'èe-ra, ten'-ĕ-râ.

Neut.
ten'-ĕ-rum, ten'-ĕ-ri, ten'-ĕ-ro, ten'-ĕ-rum, ten'-ĕ-rum, ten'-c̆-ro

## Plural.



In like manner are declined
As'-per, rough. Gib'-ber, crook-backed. Mi'-ser, wretched. Ex'ter, foreign. La'-cer, torn. Pros'-per, prosperous. Li'-ber, frce. Sa'-tur, full.
So also sem久fer, and the compounds of gero and fero; as, lanrger, bearing wool ; opŭfer, bringing help.

Note. Exter is scarcely used in the nominative singular masculine.
§ 106. The other adjectives in $o r$ (except alter) drop the $e$ in declension.

## Piger, slothful.

Singular.
Masc. Fem. Neut.

| $\boldsymbol{N}$. | pi'-ger, | pi'-gra, | pi'-grum, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\boldsymbol{G}$. | pi'-gri, | pi'-græ, | pi'-gri, |
| $\boldsymbol{D}$. | pi'-gro, | pi'-græ, | $\mathrm{pi}^{\prime}$-gro, |
| $\boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{c}$. | pi'-grum, | pi'-gram, | $\mathrm{pi}^{\prime}$-grum, |
| $\boldsymbol{V}$. | pi'-ger, | pi'-gra, | pi'-grum, |
| $\boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{b}$. | pi'-gro. | pi'-grâ. | pi'-gro. |

Plural.

| $\boldsymbol{N}$. | pi'-gri, | pi'-græ, | pi'-gra, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\boldsymbol{G}$. | pi-grō'-rum, | pi-gra'-rum, | pi-gro'-rum, |
| $\boldsymbol{D}$. | pi'-gris, | pi'-gris, | pi'-gris, |
| $\boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{c}$. | pi'-gros, | pi'-gras, | pi'-gra, |
| $\boldsymbol{V}$. | pi'-gri, | pi'-græ, | pi'-gra, |
| $\boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{b}$. | pi'-gris. | pi'-gris. | pi'-gris. |

In like manner decline

| A ${ }^{\prime}$-ger, sick. | Ma'-cer, lean. | Sca'-ber, rough. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| A'ter, black. | Ni'-ger, black. | Si-nisher, lef |
| Cre'-ber, frequent. | Pul'-cher, fair. | 'Te'-ter, foul. |
| Gla'-ber, smooth. | Ru'-ber, red. | Val-fer, crafty. |
| In'-tē-ger, entire. | Sa'-cer, sacre |  |

Dexter, right, has -tra, -trum, or -těra, -těrum.
§107. Six adjectives in $u s$, and three in $e r$, have their genitive singular in ius, and the dative in $i$, in all the genders :Alius, another. Totus, whole. Alter, -těra, -těrum, the other. Nullus, no one. Ullus, any. Uter, -tra, -trum, which of the two. Solus, alone. Unus, one. Neuter, -tra,-trum, neither.

To these may be added the other compounds of uter,-namely, uterque, each; utercumque, uterlxbet, and utervis, which of the two you please ; gen. utriusque, \&c ;-also, alterŭter, one of two; gen. alterutrius, and sometimes alterius utrius ; dat. alterŭtri. So alteruterque.

## Example.

Singular.

|  | Masc. | Fem. | Neut. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $N$. | u'nus, | $u^{\prime}-\mathrm{na}$, | u'num, |
| $\boldsymbol{G}$. | u-nı'-us,* | u-nî'-us, | u-nî'-us, |
| D. | $\mathrm{u}^{\prime}-\mathrm{ni}$, | $u^{\prime}-n i$, - | $u^{\prime}-n i$, |
| Ac. | $\mathrm{u}^{\prime}$-num, | $\mathrm{u}^{\prime}$-nam, | $\mathrm{u}^{\prime}$-num, |
| $V$. | $\mathrm{u}^{\prime}$-ne, | $\mathbf{u}^{\prime}$-na, | $\mathrm{u}^{\prime}$-num, |
| $A b$. | $\mathrm{u}^{\prime}$-no. | $u^{\prime}$-nâ. | $\mathbf{u}^{\prime}$-no. |

The plural is regular, like that of bonus.
Remari 1. Alius has aliud in the nom. and acc. sing. neuter, and in the genitive aliuss, contracted for aliius.
2. Some of these adjectives, in ancient authors, form their genitive and dative regularly, like bonus, tener, or piger.

## ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

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

Acer, sharp.
Singular.

|  | Masc. | Fem. | Neut. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $N$. | a'-cer, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cris, | $\mathrm{a}^{\text {a }}$-cre, |
| $G$. | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-eris, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cris, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cris, |
| D. | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cri, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cri, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cri, |
| Ac. | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-crem | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-crem, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cre, |
| $\stackrel{V}{\text { V }}$ | ${ }^{\text {a }}$-cer, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cris, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cre, |
| $A b$. | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cri. | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cri. | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cri. |

## Plural.

| $N$. | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cres, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cres, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cri-a, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G. | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cri-um, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cri-um, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cri-um, |
| D. | ac'-rĭ-bus, | ac'rĭ-bus, | ac'-rĭ-bus, |
| Ac. | a'cres, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cres, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cri-a, |
| $V$. | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cres, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cres, | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-cri-a, |
| $A b$. | ac'rir-bus. | ac'rí-bus. | ac'-rĭ-bus |

In like manner are declined the following only :-
Al'-㐅-cer, cheerful. $\quad$ Pa-lus'-ter, marshy. Sil-ves'-ter, woody.
Cam-pes'-ter, of a plain. Pe=des'-ter, on foot. Ter-res'-ter, terrestrial. Cel'-è-ber, famous. Puter, rotten. E-ques'-ter, equestrian. Sa-lū'-ber, wholesome. Celer, swift, has celěris, celëre; gen. celěris, \&c.
Remari 1. The nominative singular masculine sometimes ends in is, like the feminine; as, salüber, or salübris.
2. Volücer has $u m$ in the genitive plural. See § 114.
§ 109. II. Adjectives of two terminations end in is for the masculine and feminine, and $e$ for the neuter, except comparatives, which end in or and us.

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

Singular.
M. \& F.
N. mi'tis, mi'te
G. mi'-tis,
D. mi'ti,

Ac. mi'-tem,
V. mi'-tis,

Ab. mi'ti.
$N$.
mi'te,
mi'-tis, mi'ti,
mi'-te,
mi'te,
mi'ti.

Plural.
M. \& F.
$N$. $N$. mi'-tes, mit'-i-a,* G. mit'-i-um,* mit'-i-um, D. mit'-ĭ-bus, Ac. mi'-tes, V. mi'-tes, Ab. mit'-ī-bus.
mit'-1̆-bus, mit'-i-a, mit'-i-a, mit'-1̆-bus.

In like manner decline
$\mathrm{Ag}^{1-\mathrm{i}-\mathrm{l}} \mathrm{lis}$, active. Bre'-vis, short.
Cru-dè'-lis, cruel.

Dul'-cis, sweet. For'tis, brave. Gra'-vis, heayy.

In-col-ŭ-mis, safe. Mi-rab'-ĭ-lis, wonderful. $\mathrm{Om}^{\prime}$-nis, all.

Tres, three, is declined like the plural of mitis.
§ 110. All comparatives except plus, more, are thus de-clined:-

Mitior,* milder.
Singular.
M. \& $F$.
N. mit'-i-or,
$\boldsymbol{G} . \quad$ mit-i-ö'-ris,
D. mit-i-ō'rí,

Ac. mit-i-ō'-rem,
V. mit'-i-or,

Ab. mit-i-ō'-re, or ri.
$\mathcal{N}$. mit'-i-us, mit-i-ö'-ris, mit-i-ō'-ri, mit'-i-us, mit'-i-us, mit-i-ō'-re, or ri.

[^6]
## Plural.

M. \& $F$.
N. mit-i-ō'-res,
$\boldsymbol{G}$. mit-i- $\bar{o}^{\prime}$-rum,
D. mit-i-or'il-bus,

Ac. mit-i- ${ }^{\prime}$ '-res,
V. mit-i-ö'-res,

Ab. mit-i-or'-ī-bus.
N. mit-i-ö'-ra, mit-i-o '-rum, mit-i-or'-ĭ-bus, mit-i-ō'ra, mit-i-ō'-ra, mit-i-or'-ī-bus.

In like manner decline

Al'-ti-or, higher. Fe-lic'-i-or, happier. Pru-den'ti-or, more prus Bre'-vi-or, shorter. For'ti-or, braver.
dent.
U-be'-ri-or, more fertile. Cru-de'-li-or, more cruel. Gra'-vi-or, heavier. Dul-ci-or, sweeter.

Plus, more, is thus declined :-
Singular.
$\mathcal{N}$.
Plural.

| $\mathcal{N}$. | M. \& $F$. | $\mathcal{N}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N. plus, | N. plu'-res, | plu'-ra, rarely pluria, |
| G. plu'-ris, | G. plu'-ri-um, | plu'-ri-um, |
| D. | D. plu'-rĭ-bus, | plu'-rǐ-bus, |
| Ac. plus, | Ac. plu'-res, | plu'-ra, |
| $V$ Ab. $\longrightarrow$ | $V$. | pl |

So, in the plural number only, complüres, a great many.
§111. III. Other adjectives of the third declension have but one termination in the nominative singular for all genders, and they all increase in the genitive.*

They are thus declined :-

> Felix, happy.
> Singular.

|  | M. \& F. | $\mathcal{N}$. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $N$. | fe'lix, | fe'-lix, |
| $\boldsymbol{G}$. | fe-li'-cis, | fe-li'-cis, |
| D. | fe-li'ci, | fe-li'-ci, |
| Ac. | fe-li'-cem, | fe'-lix, |
| $V$. | fe'-lix, | fe'-lix, |
| Ab. | fe-li'sce, or ci. <br> Plural. | fe-li'-ce, or ci. |
| $N$. | fe-li'-ces, | fe-lic'-i-a, $\dagger$ |
| $G$. | fe-lic'-i-um, $\dagger$ | fe-lic'-i-um, |
| D. | fe-lic'-ǐ-bus, | fe-lic'-ǐ-bus, |
| Ac. | fe-li'-ces, | fe-lic'-i-a, |
| $V$. | fe-li'-ces, | fe-lic'-i-a, |
| Ab. | fe-lic'-ǐ-bus. | fe-lic'-ǐ-bus. |

[^7]Præsens, present.
Singular.

|  | M. \& F F | N. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $N$. | pre'sens, | pros |
| $\underset{\sim}{G}$. | pre-sen'tis, | pra-sen'tis, |
| D. | præ-sen'tit, | pre-sen' |
| $V$ V. | pre-sen-tem, prestsens, | præ'sesens, |
| $\boldsymbol{A}$ b. | pre-sen'te, or ti. | pre-sen'-te, or |

Plural.

| $N$. | præ-sen'-tes, | pre-sen'-ti-a,* |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\boldsymbol{G}$. | præ-sen'-ti-um, | pre-sen'-ti- |
| $D$. | pre-sen'tith-bus, | pre- |
| $A c$. | pre-sen'-tes, | pre- |
| $V$. | pre-sen'-tes, | pre-sen |
| $A b$. | præ-sen'tith-bus. | præ-sen'til |

In like manner decline
$\mathrm{Au}^{\prime}$-dax, -ăcis, bold.

Fe'-rox, -ōcis, fierce.
In'-gens, -tis, huge.

Par'-tǐ-ceps,-1̆pis, participant.
Præ'-pes, -ětis, swift. So'-lers, -tis, shrewd.

Sos'-pes, -Ytis, safe.
Sup'-plex, -ǐcis, suppliant.

All present participles are declined like prasens.

Rules for the Oblique Cases of Adjectives of the Third Declension.

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

## The following may here be specified :-

Of those in es, (compare § 73)
Some have étis ; as, hebes, dull ; perpes, perpetual ; prapes, swift ; and teres, slender ;-(Locŭples, rich, has ētis;)-
Some rtis; as, dives, rich; sospes, safe ; and superstes, surviving ;
Some $\begin{aligned} & \text { ddis ; as, deses, slothful ; and reses, sluggish. [běris. }\end{aligned}$
Bipes, two-footed, and tripes, three-footed, have pědis. Pubes, has vu-
Compos, master of, and impos, unable, have oftis. (§ 75)
Pernox, lasting all night, has noctis. (§ 78, Exc. 2) [§ 76, Exc. 2)
Calels, unmarried, has $\begin{aligned} & \\ & \text { bis ; intercus, intercutaneous, } \\ & \text { ŭtis. ( } 77 \text { and }\end{aligned}$
Those in ceps, compounds of caput, have cipxtis; as, anceps, doubtful ; preceps, headlong. (§78)
[(§ 71, Exc. 2)
Those in cors, compounds of cor, have cordis ; as, concors, agreeing.

[^8]
## ABLATIVE SINGULAR.

§113. 1. Adjectives of the third declension, of two or three terminations, except comparatives in or, have always $i$ in the ablative.
2. Comparatives, and participles in $n s$ used as participles, have rather $e$ than $i$; and such participles in the ablative absolute have always $e$.
3. Adjectives of one termination have $e$ or $i$ in the ablative.

## NOMINATIVE AND GENITIVE PLURAL.

The neuter of the nominative plural ends in $i a$, and the genitive plural of all genders in ium; but comparatives in or, with vetus, old, and uber, fertile, have a, and um.

Exceptions in the Ablative Singular and Genitive Plural.
§114. 1. The following adjectives have $e$ in the ablative singular, and $u m$ in the genitive plural :-

Bicorpor, two-bodied. Impūbes, leardless. Bipes, two-footed. Cælebs, unmarried. Compos, master of. Discōlor, particolored. Impos, urable.

Juvěnis, young. Pauper, poor. Princeps, chief. Puber, or -es, Senex, old.
2. The following, which have $e$ or $i$ in the ablative singular, have $u m$ in the genitive plural :-

Ales, zoinged.
Artiffex, skilful.
Cicur, tame. Compar, equal. Dispar, unequal.

Dives, rich.
Degěner, degenerate.
Impar, unequal. Inops, poor. Præpes, swift.

Sospes, safe. Superstes, surviving. Tricorpor, three-budied. Tricuspis, thrce-forked.

To these may be added locŭples, rich; sons, guilty; and insons, innocent; which have um or ium in the genitive plural. Volŭcer, winged, though its ablative is in $i$, has $u m$ in the genitive plural.
3. Memor, mindful ; immĕmor, unmindful ; par, equal; and uber, fertile, have $i$ only in the ablative; but all, except par, have um in the genitive plural: dis, ditis, rich, has $i$ in the abl. and $u m$ or $i u m$ in the gen. plural.

Note. The accusative plural of adjectives of the third declension, as of nouns, sometimes ends in eis, is, or $a s$, instead of es. See § 85 .

## IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES.

\$ 115. Some adjectives are defective, others redundant.

## DEFECTIVE ADJECTIVES.

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

| Bicorpor, | Değner, | Inops, | Memor, | Redux, | Supplex, <br> Bipes, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Dives, | Insons, | Pauper, | Senex, <br> Tricorpor, |  |  |
| Cælebs, | Impos, | Invitus, | Particeps, | Sons, | Vigil. |
| Consors, | Impubes, | Juvenis, | Princeps, | Sospes, |  |
| Compos, | Industrius, | Locuples, | Puber, or -es, | Superstes, |  |

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

Concŏlor, deses, hebes, perpes, reses, teres, versicŏlor.
3. Some adjectives are wholly indeclinable.

Such are frugi, temperate ; nequam, worthless ; sat or satis, sufficient semis, half; the plúrals alzquot, tot, quot, toť̌dem, quotquot; and the cards nal numbers from quatuor to centum inclusive, and also mille.
4. The following adjectives are used only in certain cases :-

Bilīcem, acc. ; doubly-tissued.
Ceterra, cetěrum, the rest, wants the nom. sing. masc.
Decemplĭcem, acc.; tenfold.
Exspes, nom.; hopeless.
Inquies, nom.; -êtem, acc.; -ēte, abl.; restless.
Mactus, and macte, nom.; macte, acc.; increased;-macti, and mactæ, nom. pl.
Necesse, and necessum, nom., acc.; necessary.
Plus, nom., acc.; pluris, gen.; more;
-pl. plures, -a, nom., acc. ; -ium gen. ; ǐbus, dat., abl. § 110.
Potis, nom. sing. and pl., ail genders; able.
Pote, nom. sing., for potest ; possible.
Septemplicis, gen.;-ce, abl.; sevenfold.
Siremps, nom.; sirempse, abl.; alike.
Tantundem, nom., acc.; tantīdem, gen. ; so much.
Trilicem, acc.; trebly-tissued; tri lìces, acc. $p l$.

## REDUNDANT ADJECTIVES.

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

Acclīvis, and -us, r, ascending. Auxiliăris, and -ius, auxiliary. Bijŭgis, and -us, twoo-yoked.
Declivis, and -us, $r$, descending.
Exanïmis, and -us, $r$, lifeless.
Hilaris, and -us, cheerful.
Imbecillis, $r$, and -us, weak. [less.
Impūbes, and -is, -is or -erris, beardInermis, and -us, unarmed. Infrēnis, and -us, unbridled. Inquies, and -étus, restless. Jocularis, and -ius, r, laughable. Multijŭges, $r, a n d-i \quad$ (plur.), manyyoked.
To the above may be added some adjectives in er and is; as, salūber and -bris, celěber and -bris.

## NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

\$117. Numeral adjectives are divided into three principal classes-Cardinal, Ordinal, and Distributive.
I. Cardinal numbers are those which answer the question 'How many?' They are,

| Unus, | one. | 1. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Duo, | two. | II. |
| Tres, | three. | III. |
| Quatuor, | four. | IIII. or IV. |
| Quinque, | five. | V . |
| Sex, | six. | VI. |
| Septem, | seven. | VII. |
| Octo, | eight. | VIII. |
| Novem, | nine. | VIIII. or 1X. |
| Decem, | ten. | X. |
| Undĕcim, | eleven. | XI. |
| Duodĕcim, | twelve. | XII. |
| Tredĕcim, | thirteen. | $\xrightarrow{\text { XIII. }}$ |
| Quatuorděcim, | fourteen. | XIIII, or XIV. |
| Quinděcim, | fifteen. | XVV. |
| Sedĕcim, or sexděcim, | sixteen. | XVI. |
| Septenděcim, | seventeen. | XVII. |
| Novenděcim, | nineteen. | XVIIII or XIX. |
| Viginti, | twenty. | XX. |
| $\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { Viginti unus, or } \\ \text { unus et viginti, }\end{array}\right\}$ | twenty-one. | XXI. |
| $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Viginti duo, or } \\ \text { duo et viginti, \&c. }\end{array}\right\}$ | twenty-tioo. | XXII. |
| Triginta, | thirty. | XXX. |
| Quadraginta, | forty. | XXXX. or XL. |
| Quinquaginta, | fifty. | ${ }^{\text {L }}$. |
| Sexaginta, | sixty. | LX. |
| Septuaginta, | seventy. | LXX. |
| Octoginta, | eighty. | LXXX |
| Nonaginta, | nincty. | $\mathrm{LXXXX} . \text { or } \mathrm{XC} .$ |
| Centum, $\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { Centum unus, or } \\ \text { centum et unas, \&e. }\end{array}\right\}$ | a hundred. a hundred and one. | C. <br> Cl. |
| Ducenti, -m, -a, | two hundred. | CC. |
| Trecenti, | three hundred. | CCC. |
| Quadringenti, | four hundred. | CCCC, or CD. |
| Quingenti, | five hundred. | 10 , or D . |
| Sexcenti, | six hundred. | 1 DCC or DC. |
| Septingenti, | seven hundred. | 1 DCC , or DCC. |
| Octingenti, | eight hundred. | INCCC, or DCCC. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Nongenti, } \\ & \text { Mille } \end{aligned}$ | nine hundred. a thousand. | 1.)CCCC, or DCCCC. CID, or M. |

Duo millia, or $\}$ bis mille, $\}$
Quinque millia, or $\}$ 。 quinquies mille, $\}$
Decem millia, or decies mille,
Quinquaginta millia, or quinquagies mille, $\}$
Centum millia, or centies mille, \}
two thousand.
five thousand.
ten thousand.
fifty thousand.
a hundred thousand.

CIDCID, or MM.
IDN.
CCID,
IDOD.
CCCIDO.

## Remarks.

§ 118. 1. The first three cardinal numbers are declined; those from four to a hundred inclusive are indeclinable; those denoting hundreds are declined like the plural of bonus.

For the declension of unus and tres, see $\$ \$ 107$ and 109.
Duo is thus declined :-

## Plural.

|  | M. | $F$. | N. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N. | du'oo, | du'-æ, | du'- |
| $G$. | du-ó-rum, | du-ä'-rum, | du-ô'rum |
| D. | du-ô'-bus, | du-a't-bus, | du-ól-bus |
| $\stackrel{A c}{ }$. | $\mathrm{du}^{\prime}-\mathrm{os}$, or du'-o, | du'-as, | du'-o, |
| $\stackrel{V}{\text { ab }}$. | du' ${ }^{\text {d }}$, du- $\mathrm{o}^{\prime}$-bus. | du'- ${ }^{2}$, du-á-bus | du'-o, du-ó'l |

Duठrum, duärum, are often contracted into $d u u \hat{u}$, especially when joined with millium.

Ambo, both, is declined like duo.
2. The cardinal numbers, except unus and mille, are used in the plural only.
The plural of unus is used with nouns which have no singular, or whose singular has a different sense from the plural ; as, una castra, one camp, unce edes, one house. So also with nouns denoting several things considered as one whole; as, una vestimenta, one suit of clothes.
3. Thirteen, sixteen, seventeen, and eighteen, are often expressed by two numbers united by et; thus, decem et tres, decem et sex, decem et septem, decern et octo; in which the larger number usually precedes.

From twenty to a hundred, the smaller number with et is put first, or the larger generally without et; as, unus et viginti, or viginti unus. Above one hundred, the larger precedes, with or without et ; as, centum et unus, or centum unus ; trecenti sexaginta sex, or trecenti et sexaginta sex. Et is never twice used.
4. For eighteen, twenty-eight, \&c., and for nineteen, twenty-nine, \&o. (excenting sixty-eight and sixty-nine), a subtractive expression is more frequent than the additive form ; as, duodeviginti, two from twenty; undeviginti, one from twenty; duodetriginta, undetriginta, \&c. Neither un (unus) nor duo can be declined in these expressions.
5. The poets sometimes make use of numeral adverbs in expressing small cardinal numbers; as, lis sex, for duoděcim; bis centum, for ducentêt

Numbers above a hundred thousand are always expressed in this way; as, decies centum millia; but the cardinal numbers after the adverbs are sométimes omitted; as, decies centēna, i. e. millia; decies, i. e. centum millia.
6. Mille is used either as a substantive or an adjective.

When taken substantively, it is indeclinable in the singular number, and, in the plural, has millia, millium, millǐus, \&c. ; as, mille hominum, a thousand men ; duo millia hominum, two thousand men, \&c. When mille is declined in the plural, the things numbered are put in the genitive, as in the preceding examples, unless a declined numeral comes between; as, habuit tria millia trecentos miľtes.

As an adjective, mille is plural only, and indeclinable ; as, mille homǐnes, a thousand men; bis mille homiňbus, with two thousand men.
7. Capitals were used by the Romans to mark numbers. The letters employed for this purpose were C. I. L. V. X., which are, therefore, called Numeral Letters. I. denotes one; V.five; X. ten; L.fifty; and C. a hundred. By the various combinations of these five letters, all the different numbers are expressed.

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

When a letter of a less value is placed before a letter of a greater, the less takes away what it stands for from the greater; but being placed after, it adds what it stands for to the greater ; thus,

| IV. Four. | V. Five. | VI. Six. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| IX. Nine. | X. Ten. | XI. Eleven. |
| XL. Forty. | L. Fifty. | LX. Sixty. |
| XC. Ninety. | C. A hundred. | CX. A hundred and ten. |

A thousand was marked thus, CID, which, in later times, was contracted into M. Five hundred is marked thus, ID, or, by contraction, D.

The annexing of $D$ to ID makes its value ten times greater; thus, IDD marks five thousand; and IDPO, fifty thousand.

The prefixing of C , together with the annexing of D , to the number ClD, makes its value ten times greater; thus, CCIDO denotes ten thousand; and CCCIDOD, a hundred thousand. The Romans, according to Pliny, proceeded no further in this method of notation. If they had occasion to express a larger number, they did it by repetition; thus, CCCIDO, CCCIDD, signified two hundred thousand, \&c.

We sometimes find thousands expressed by a straight line drawn over the top of the numeral letters. Thus, $\overline{\mathrm{III}}$. denotes three thousand; $\overline{\mathrm{X}}$., ten thousand.
§ 119. II. Ordinal numbers are such as denote order or rank. They all end in us, and are declined like bonus; as, primus, first; secundus, second.
III. Distributive numbers are those which indicate an equal division among several persons or things; as, singŭli, one by one, or each ; bini, two by two, or two to each, \&c. They are declined like the plural of bonus, except that they usually have um for orum in the genitive plural.

The following table contains the ordinal and distributive numbers, and the corresponding numeral adverbs :-

| Ordinal. | Distrilutive. | Numeral Adverbs. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. Primus, first. | Singǔli. | Semel, once. |
| 2. Secundus, second, \&c. | Bini. | Bis, twice. |
| 3. Tertius. | Terni, or trini. | Ter, thrice. |
| 4. Quartus. | Quaterni. | Quater, fourtimes. |
| 5. Quintus. | Quini. | Quinquies, \&c. |
| 6. Sextus. | Seni. | Sexies. |
| 7. Septĭmus. | Septēni. | Septies. |
| 8. Octāvus. | Octōni. | Octies. |
| 9. Nonus. | Novēni. | Novies. |
| 10. Deč̌mus. | Deni. | Decies. |
| 11. Undecĭmus. | Undēni. | Undecies. |
| 12. Duodecĭmus. | Duodēni. | Duodecies. |
| 13. Tertius decĭmus. | Terni deni. | Terdecies. |
| 14. Quartus decǐmus. | Quaterni deni. | Quatuordecies. |
| 15. Quintus decĭmus. | Quini deni. | Quindecies. |
| 16. Sextus decĭmus. | Seni deni. | Sedecies. |
| 17. Septìmus decĭmus. | Septēni deni. | Decies et septies. |
| 18. Octãvus decĭmus. | Octōni deni. | Duodevicies. |
| 19. Nonus decĭmus. | Novēni deni. | Undevicies. |
| $20 .\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { Vicesimus, or } \\ \text { vigesimus. }\end{array}\right\}$ | Vicēni. | Vicies. |
| 21. Vicesimus primus. | Vicēni singurli. | Semel et vicies. |
| 22. Vicesimus secundus. | Vicēni bin |  |
| $30 .\left\{\begin{array}{c} \text { Tricesimus, or } \\ \text { trigesimus. } \end{array}\right\}$ | Tricēni. | Tricies. |
| 40. Quadragesimus. | Quadragēni. | Quadragies. |
| In. Quinquagesimus. | Quinquagẽni. | Quinquagies. |
| 00. Sexagesimus. | Sexagēni. | Sexagies. |
| 70. Septuagesimus. | Septuagèni. | Septuagies. |
| 80. Octogesimus. | Octogēni. | Octogies. |
| 90 Nonagesimus. | Nonagēni. | Nonagies. |
| 100. Centesimus. | Centêni. | Centies. |
| 200. Ducentesimus. | Ducēni. | Ducenties. |
| 300. Trecentesimus. | Trecēni, or trecenténi. | Trecenties, or $\}$ |
| 400. Quadringentesimus. | Quadringēni, or $\}$ quadringentēni. | tricenties. |
| 500. Quingentesimus. | Quingēni. | Quingenties. |
| 600. Sexcentesimus. | Sexcêni, or sexcentēni. | Sexcenties. |
| 700. Septingentesimus. | Septìngēni. | Septingenties |
| 800. Octingentesimus. | Octingėni. | Octingenties. |
| 900. Nongentesimus. | Nongểni. | Noningenties. |
| 1000. Millesimus. | $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { Millềni, or } \\ \text { singưla millia. }\end{array}\right\}$ | Millies. |
| 200. Bis millesimus. | $\left\{\begin{array}{r} \text { Bis millēni, or } \\ \text { bina millia. } \end{array}\right\}$ | Bis millies. |

## Remarks.

\$120. 1. Instead of primus, prior is used, if two only are spoken of. Alter is often used for secundus.
2. From thirteenth to nineteenth, the smaller number is usually put first, withcut et ; as, tertius dectmus -sometimes the larger, with or without et; as, decimus et tertius, or decìmus tertius.

Twenty-first, thirty-first, \&c., are often expressed by unus $\epsilon t$ vicesimus
unus et triceš̌mus, \&c.; and twenty-second, \&cc., by duo, or alter et vicesi$m u s, \& c$. , in which duo is not changed. In the other compound numbers, the larger precedes without et, or the smaller with et; as, vicesimus quartus, or quartus et vicesimus.

For eighteenth, \&c., to fifty-eighth, and for nineteenth, \&c., to fiftyninth, duodevicestmus, \&c., and undevicesimus, \&c., are often used.
3. In the distributives, eighteen, thirty-eight, forty-eight, and nineteen and twenty-nine, are often expressed by duodevicēni, \&cc., and undevicēni, \&c.
4. Distributives are sometimes used by the poets for cardinal numbers; as, bina spicüla, two darts. So likewise in prose, with nouns that want the singular; as, bine nuptic, two weddings.
The singular of some distributives is used in the sense of a multiplicative ; as, binus, twofold. So ternus, quinus, septēnus.
5. For twenty-eight times and thirty-nine times, duodetricies and undequadragies are found.
§121. To the preceding classes may be added the following :-

1. Multiplicatives, which denote how many fold. They all end in plex, and are declined like felix ; as,

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Simplex, single. } & \text { Quadrŭplex, fourfold. } \\
\text { Duplex, twoofold, or double. } & \text { Quincŭplex, fioffold. } \\
\text { Triplex, threefold. } & \text { Centŭplex, a hundred fold. }
\end{array}
$$

2. Proportionals, which denote how many times one thing is greater than another ; as, duplus, twice as great; triplus, quadrŭplus, octŭplus, decŭplus. They are declined like bonus.
3. Temporals, which denote time; as, bimus, two years old; trimus, three years old ; quadrimus, \&c. Also, biennis, of two years' continuance; quadriennis, quinquennis, \&c. So bimestris, of two months' continuance; trimestris, \&c., biduus, \&c.
4. Those which denote how many parts a thing contains; as, binarius, of two parts ; ternarius, \&c.
5. Interrogatives; as, quot, how many? quotus, of what number? quotēni, how many each? quoties, how many times? Their correlatives are, tot, totı̆dem, so many; aľ̆quot, some; which, with quot, are indeclinable; toties, so often; aliquoties, several times.

## COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

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

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

The relations of inferiority, equality, or superiority, which different objects bear to each other, in regard to variable qualities, are expressed in Latin in different ways.

Inferiority may be denoted by prefixing to an adjective the adverbs minùs, less, and minı̆mè, least ; as, jucundus, pleasant ; minùs jucundus, less pleasant ; minŭmè jucundus, least pleasant.

A small degree of a quality is indicated by sub prefixed to an adjective; as, diffcŭlis, difficult; subdifficulis; somewhat difficult.

Equality may be denoted by tam followed by quàm; aque followed by ac, \&c.; as, hebes aque ac pecus, as stupid as a brute.
§ 123. The relation of superiority, to which alone the name of comparison is commonly applied, is denoted either by prefixing to an adjective certain adverbs or prepositions, or by peculiar terminations. Various degrees of superiority are denoted with different degrees of precision, by the prepositions per and pra prefixed to adjectives, and by different adverbs, and other qualifying clauses. The terminational comparison, and its equivalent form, expressed by the adverbs magis, more, and maximè, most, prefixed to the adjective, denote not a precise, but only a relative, degree of superiority.

That form of an adjective which simply denotes a quality, without reference to other degrees of the same quality, is called the positive degree ; as, altus, high ; mitis, mild.

The degrees of relative superiority are two-the comparative and the superlative.

The comparative denotes that the quality belongs to one of two objects, or sets of objects, in a greater degree than to the other; as, altior, higher ; mitior, milder.

The superlative denotes that the quality belongs to one object, or set of objects, in a greater degree than to any of the rest ; as, altissimus, highest ; mitissimus, mildest

## Remarks.

1. The comparative is also used to denote that, at different times, or in different circumstances, a quality belongs to the same object in different degrees; as, est sapicntior quàm olim fuit, he is wiser than he was formerly.
2. The comparative sometimes expresses the proportion between two qualities of the same object; as, est doctior quàm sapientior, he is more learned than wise ; that is, his learning is greater than his wisdom.
§124. The terminational comparative ends in ior, ior, ius; the terminational superlative in issĭmus, issĭma, isš̆mum. These terminations are added to the root of the positive; as, altus, altior, altissimus; high, higher, highest. mitis, mitior, mitissimus; mild, milder, mildest. felix, gen. felīcis, felicior, felicissimus; happy, happier, happiest

In like manner compare
Arc'-tus, strait. $\quad$ Ca'-rus, dear. $\quad$ Cle'-mens, gen. -tis, merciful. $\mathbf{C a}^{\prime}$-pax, capacious. Cru-dè'-lis, cruel. In'-ers, gen. -tis, sluggish. §23.

## IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

§ 125. 1. Adjectives in $e r$ form their superlative by adding rimus to that termination; as, acer, active; gen. acris; comparative, acrior ; superlative, acerrimus.

In like manner pauper, pauperrzmus. Vetus has a similar superlative, veterřmus, as if from veter.
2. Seven adjectives in lis form their superlative by adding lemus to the root:-

| Facčlis, | facilior, | facillimus, |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Difficilis, | difficilior, | difficillimus, | difficult. |
| Gracillis, | gracilior, | gracillim | slender. |
| Humilis, | humilior, | humillimus, | owo |
| Imbecillis, | imbecillior, | imbecillimus, | w |
| Simillis, | similior, | simillimus, |  |
| Dissimilis, | dissimilior, | dissimillĭnus, | unlike. |

3. Five adjectives in fǔcus derive their comparatives and superlatives from obsolete adjectives in ens :-

| BenefYcus, | beneficentior, | beneficentissimus, | beneficent. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Honorificus, | honorificentior, | honorificentissimus, | honorealle |
| Magnificus, | magnificentior, | magnificentissimus, | splendid. |
| Munificus, | munificentior, | munificentissimus, | liberal. |
| Maleficus, |  | maleficentissimus, | hurtul. |

Adjectives in dicens and volens form their comparatives and superlatives regularly; but instead of those positives, forms in dicus and volus are more common ; as,
Benevollens, or benevǒlus, benevolentior, benevnlentissĭmus, benevolent.
4. These five have regular comparatives, but irregular super-latives:-

| Dexter, |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Extëra, (fem.) | dexterior, <br> exterior, | dextímus, |
| extimus, or extrēmus, | right. <br> outward |  |


| Postĕra, (fem.) | posterior, <br> inferior, | postrēmus, or postŭmus, <br> infimus, or imus, | hind. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Infĕrus, | lowo. |  |  |
| Supěrus, | superior, | suprēmus, or summus, | high. |

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

| Bonus, | melior, | optĭmus, | good, | bet | best. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Malus, | pejor, | pessimus, |  | wors |  |
| Magnus, | major, | maxĭmus, | great, | greater, | reatest |
| Parvus, | minor, | minĭmus, | little, | less, | east |
| Multus, |  | plurimus, |  |  |  |
| Multa, | plus | plurima, plurimum, | much, | more | most. |
| Nequam, | nequior, | nequissimus, |  |  |  |
| Frugi, | frugalior, | frugalissimus, | frug |  |  |

All these form their comparatives and superlatives from obsolete adjectives, except magnus, whose regular forms are contracted.

## DEFECTIVE COMPARISON

\$126. 1. Seven adjectives want the positive :-

Citerior, citĭmus, nearer. Deterior, deterrimus, worse. Interior, intǐmus, inner. Ocior, ocissimus, swifter.

Prior, primus, formerd Propior, proximus, nearer. Ulterior, ultìmus, farther.
2. Eight want the terminational comparative :-

Consultus, consultissimus, skilful. Falsus, falsissimus, false. Incly̆tus, inclytissimus, renowned. Invictus, invictissimus, invincible. Meritus, meritissimus (rarely used), deserving.

Par, parissimus, equal.
Persuasus, persuasissímum (neuter), persuaded.
Sacer, sacerrimus, sacred.
3. Eight have very rarely the terminational comparative :-

Aprīcus, apricissĭmus, sunny.
Bellus, bellissimus, fine.
Comis, comissimus, courteous.
Diversus, diversissimus, different.

Fidus, fidissĭmus, faithful.
Invītus, invitissimus, unwilling.
Novus, novissimus, new.
Vetus, veterrimus, old.
4. The following want the terminational superlative :-

Adolescens, adolescentior, $\}$ young.
Juvěnis, junior, Alăcer, alacrior, active. Cœecus, cœeior, blind.
Diuturnus, diuturnior, lasting Jejūnus, jejunior, fasting. Infinītus, infinitior, unlimited.

Ingens, ingentior, great.
Licens, licentior, extravagant.
Longinquus, longinquior, distant.
Opimus, opimior, rich.
Proclīvis, proclivior, $\}$ inclined
Pronus, pronior, $\}$ downwards.

- sequior, worse.

Propinquus, propinquior, neighboring.
Salutăris, salutarior, salutary.
Satis, sufficient ; satius, preferalle.
Satur, saturior, full.

Senex, senior, old.
Silvester, or silvestris, silvestrior, woody.
Sinister, sinisterior, left.
Supinnus, supinior, lying on the back.

The superlative of juvernis and adoiescens is supplied by minx̀mus natu, youngest; and that of senex by maxtmus natu, oldest. The comparatives minor nutu and major natu sometimes also occur.

Most adjectives also in $\overline{\imath l i s}, \tilde{a} l i s$, and $b x l i s$, and many in $\bar{a} n u s, \tilde{\tau} v i s$, and inquas, have no terminational superlative.
5. Many adjectives have no terminational comparative or superlative. Such are,
(a.) Adjectives in bundus, imus, inus (except divinus), orus, most in ivus, and in us pure (except quus). Yet arduus, assiduus, egregius, exiguus, industrius, perpetuus, pius, strenuus, and vacuus, have sometimes a terminational comparison. So, dropping i, noxior, innoxior, sobrior.
(b.) The following-almus, calvus, canus, cicur, claudus, degëner, delirus, dispar, egénus, impar, inv̌dus, lacer, menor, mirus, praditus, pracox, rudis, salvus, sospes, vulgāris, imp̌ger, superstes, nudus, and some others.
$\$ 12 \%$. The comparative and superlative may also be formed by prefixing to the positive the adverbs magis, more, and maxı̆mè, most; as, idoneus, fit; magis idoneus, maxĭmè idoneus.

Valde, imprīmis, apprīme, admŏdum, \&c., and the prepositions pree and per, and sometimes perquam, prefixed to an adjective, denote a high degree of the quality.

The force of the comparative is increased by prefixing etiam, even, or yet ; and that of both comparative and superlative, by prefixing longè, or multo, much, far; as, longè nobilissĭmus, longe melior ; iter multo facilius, multo maxĭma pars.

Quàm before the superlative renders it more emphatic; as, quàm doctissĭmus, extremely learned; quàm celerrĭme, as speedily as possible.

All adjectives whose signification admits of different degrees, if they have no terminational comparison, may be compared by means of adverbs.

Instead of the comparative and superlative degrees, the positive, with the prepositions pra, ante, prater, or supra, is sometimes used ; as, prox nobis beatus (Cic.), happier than we ; ante alias pulchritudĭne insignis (Liv.), most beautiful. Sometimes the preposition is used in connection with the superlative; as, ante alios pulcherrǐmus omnes (Virg.)

Among adjectives which denote an invariable quality or limitation, and which, therefore, cannot be compared, are those denoting matter, time, number, possession, country, part, interrogation; also compounds of jugum, somnus, gero, and fero, and many others.

## DERIVATION OF ADJECTIVES.

\$128. Derivative adjectives are formed chiefly from nouns, from other adjectives, and from verbs.
I. Those derived from nouns and adjectives are called denominatives. The following are the principal classes:-

1. The termination eus, added to the root, denotes the material of which a thing is made ; as, aureus, golden; argenteus, of silver; ligneus, wooden ; vitreus, of glass; from aurum, argentum, \&c.

The termination inus has sometimes the same meaning; as, adamantĭnus, of adamant; cedrĭnus, of cedar; from adămas and cedrus. So ènus; as, terrènus, of earth, from terra.

The termination ēüs is found only in possessives of Greek origin; as, Achillëüs, of Achilles; Sophoclëus, \&c.
2. The terminations älis, $\bar{a} r i s$, elis, ilis, atīlis, icius, ăcus, ius, $e u s$, and $\grave{n} u s$, denote belonging or relating to; as, capitälis, relating to the life; from caput.

So comitiälis, regālis ; Apollināris, consulāris, populāris ; civīlis, hostīlis, juvenı̄lis ; aquaťlis, fluviatı̂lis; tribunicius, patricius ; belľ̌cus, civ̌̌cus, Germaň̌cus; accusatorius, imperatorius, regius ; caninnus, equīnus, ferinus ; from comitia, rex, Apollo, consul, popŭlus, civis, \&c.

The termination ilis sometimes expresses character; as, hostīlis, hostile ; puerīlis, boyish ; from hostis and puer.
3. The termination arius generally denotes profession or occupation; as, argentarius, a silversmith; from argentum; coriarius, statuarius; from corium and statua. When added to numeral adjectives, it denotes how many parts a thing contains. See § 121, 4.
Some of this class are properly substantives.
4. The terminations $\bar{o}$ sus and lentus denote abundance, fulness; as, animösus, full of courage; fraudulentus, given to fraud; from anĭmus and fraus. So lapidōsus, vinōsus, turbulentus, violentus. Before lentus, a connecting vowel is inserted, which is commonly $u$.
Adjectives of this class are called amplifcatives. See § 104,13 .
5. From adjectives are formed diminutives in the same manner as from nouns; as, dulcicŭlus, sweetish ; duriuscŭlus, somewhat hard; from dulcis and durus. So lentŭlus, misellus, par$v u ̆ l u s, \& c$. See § 100,3 , and § $104,12$.
6. From the names of places, and especially of towns, are derived adjectives in ensis, ìnus, as, and änus, denoting of or belonging to such places

Thus from Athēnce is formed Atheniensis, Athenian; from Canne, Cannensis. In like manner, from castra and circus come castrensis, circensis.

Those in inus are formed from names of places ending in ia and ium; as, Aricua, Aricinus; Caudium, Caudinus ; Capitolium, Capitolinus; Latium, Latīnus. Some names of towns, of Greek origin, with other terminations, also form adjectives in inus ; as, Tarentum, Tarentinus.

Most of those in as are formed from nouns in um; some from nouns in $a ;$ as, Arpīnum, Arpīnas; Capēna, Capēnas.

Those in änus are formed from names of towns of the first declension, or from certain common nouns; as, Alba, Albänus; Roma, Romānus; Cume, Cumānus; Theba, Thebänus;-fons, fontänus; mons, montänus; urbs, urbānus; oppı̄dum, oppidānus.

Adjectives with the terminations $\bar{a} n u s$ and $\bar{i} n u s$ are also formed from names of men; as, Sulla, Sullänus; Jugurtha, Jugurthīnus.

Names of towns in polis form adjectives in politänus; as, Neapŏlis, Neapolitānus.

Greek names of towns generally form adjectives in ius; as, Rhodus, Rhodius; Lacedamon, Lacedæmonius;-but those in a form them in aus; as, Larissa, Larissaus; Smyrna, Smyrnøus.
7. A large class of derivative adjectives, though formed from nouns, have the terminations of perfect participles. They generally signify wearing or furnished with; as,
alātus, winged; barbätus, bearded; galeätus, helmeted; aurītus, longeared; turritus, turreted; cornütus, horned; from ala, barba, galea, auris, \&c.
\$129. II. Adjectives derived from verbs are called verbal adjectives. Such are the following classes:-

1. The termination bundus, added to the first root of the verb, with a connecting vowel, which is commonly that of the verb, has the general meaning of the present participle; as,
errabundus, moribundus, from erro, morior, and equivalent to errans, moriens. In many the meaning is somewhat strengthened; as, gratulabundus, full of congratulations; lacrimabundus, weeping profusely.

Most verbals in bundus are from verbs of the first conjugation, a few from those of the third, and but one from the second and fourth respectively.

Some verbal adjectives in cundus have a similar sense ; as, rubicundus, verecundus, from rubeo and vereor.
2. The termination $\check{\imath} d u s$, added to the root, especially of neuter verbs, denotes the quality or state expressed by the verb; as,
alǧ̌dus, cold; caľ̌dus, warm; maďdus, moist ; rap̌̌dus, rapid; from algeo, caleo, madeo, rapio.
3. The termination burlis, added to the root of a verb, with its connecting vowel, denotes passively, capability, or desert ; as,
amabrlis, worthy to be loved; credibrlis, deserving credit; placabrlis, easy to be appeased; from amo, credo, placo. It is rarely active; as, aer meabrlis. Plin.

In adjectives of this form, derived from verbs of the third conjugation, the connecting vowel is $i$; sometimes also in those from verbs of the second conjugation, $i$ is used instead of $e$; as, horribllis, terriblis, from horreo and terreo.

This termination is sometimes added to the third root, with a change of $u$ into $i$; as, fleaibllis, coctibllis, sensibxlis, from flecto (flexu), \&c.
4. The termination $\mathrm{u} l i s$, added either to the first root of a verb, or to the third root, after $u$ is removed, has usually a passive, but sometimes an active sense; as,
aǧ̀lis, active ; flex̌lis, easy to be bent; ducťlis, ductile ; suť̌lis, sewed; coctillis, baked ; ferttlis, fertile; from ago, \&c.
5. The termination icius or itius, added to the third root of the verb, after $u$ is removed, has a passive sense, as fictitius, feigned; conductitius, to be hired; supposititius, substituted, from fingo (fictu), \&c.
6. The termination $\alpha x$, added to the root of a verb, denotes an inclination, often one that is faulty; as, audax, audacious; loquax, talkative ; rapax, rapacious; from audeo, loquor, rapio.
§130. III. Adjectives derived from participles, and retaining their form, are called participials; as, amans, fond of; doctus, learned.
IV. Some adjectives are derived from adverbs, and are called adver bials ; as, crastĭnus, of to-morrow ; hodiernus, of this day ; from cras and hodie.
V. Some adjectives are derived from prepositions, and may be called prepositionals; as, contrarius, contrary, from contra; postĕrus, subsequent, from post.

## COMPOSITION OF ADJECTIVES.

§131. Compound adjectives are formed variously :-

1. Of two nouns; as, caprĭpes, goat-footed-of caper and pes; ignicŏmus, having fiery hair-of ignis and coma.
2. Of a noun and an adjective ; as, noctivăgus, wandering in the night-of nox and vagus.
3. Of a noun and a verb; as, corňger, bearing horns-of cornu and gero; leť̆fer, bringing death-of letum and fero. So carnivŏrus, causidĭcus, ignivŏmus, lucifŭgus, partăceps.
4. Of an adjective and a noun ; as, aquavus, of the same age-of aquus and avum; celerïpes, swift-footed-of celer and pes. So centimănus, decennis, magnanĭmus, miserĭcors, unanĭmis.
5. Of two adjectives; as, contumgemĭnus, having a hundred arms ; multicăvus, having many cavities.
6. Of an adjective and a verb; as, brevilöquens, speaking briefly-of brevis and loquor; magnifĩcus, magnificent-of magnus and facio.
7. Of an adjective and a termination; as, qualiscunque, quotcunque, uterque.

Remark. When the former part of the compound is a noun or adjective, it usually adds $\imath$ to its root. If the second word begins with a vowel, an elision takes place; as, magnanimus-of magnus and anìmus.
8. Of an adverb and a noun; as, licorpor, two-bodied-of bis and corpus.
9. Of an adverb and an adjective ; as, malefïdus, unfaithful; malesänus, insane.
10. Of an adverb and a verb; as, beneficus, beneficent-of bene and facio; malevollus, malevolent-of male and volo.
11. Of a preposition and a noun; as, amens, mad-of $a$ and mens. So consors, decŏlor, deformis, implümis, inermis.
12. Of a preposition and an adjective ; as, concăvus, concave ; infīdus, unfaithful. So improvĭdus, percārus, pradīves, subalbŭdus.
13. Of a preposition and a verb; as, continuus, continual - f con and teneo; inscius, ignorant-of in and scio. So precipuus, promiscuus, superstes.
Remark. When the former part is a preposition, its final consonant is sometimes changed, to adapt it to that which follows it ; as, impradensof in and prudens. See § 196.

## PRONOUNS.

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

Ego, $\boldsymbol{I}$. Tu, thou. Sui, of himself, \&c. Ille, that or he. Ipse, himself. Iste, that or he.

Hic, this or he.
Is, that or he.
Quis? who?
Qui, who.
Meus, my.
Tuus, thy.

Suus, his, hers, its, \&c. Cujus? whose ? Noster, our. Vester, your. Nostras, of our country. Cujas? of what country?

Three of these-ego, $t u$, and sui-are substantives; the remaining fifteen, and all the compound pronouns, are adjectives.

Ego and $t u$ are a species of appellatives of general application. Ego is used by a speaker, to designate himself; $t u$, to designate the person whom he addresses. Ego is of the first person, $t u$ of the second.

Sui is also a gencral appellative, of the third person, and has always a reflexive signification. The oblique cases of cgo and tu are also used reflexively, when the subject of the proposition is of the first or second person.

The remaining pronouns are adjectives, as they serve to limit the meaning of substantives; and they are pronouns, because, like substantive pronouns, they may designate any object in certain situations or circumstances.

Meus, tuus, suus, noster, vester, and nostras, have the same extent of signification as the substantive pronouns from which they are derived, and are equivalent to the genitive cases of those pronouns.

Pronouns, like substantives and adjectives, are declined ; but they all want the vocative, except tu, meus, noster, and nostras. Sui also, from the nature of its signification, wants the nominative in both numbers.

The substantive pronouns take the gender of the objects which they denote. The adjective pronouns, like adjectives, have three genders.

## SUBSTANTIVE PRONOUNS.

§133. The substantive pronouns are thus declined :Singular.
N. e'-go, I.
G. $\mathrm{me}^{\prime}-\mathrm{i}$, of $m e$.
D. mi'hi, to me.

Ac. me, me.
$V$.
Ab. me, with me.
N. nos, we.
$\boldsymbol{G} \cdot\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { nos'-trûm } \\ \text { or nos'-tri, }\end{array}\right\}$ of us.
D. no'-bis, to us.

Ac. nos, us.
V.

Ab. no'-bis, with us.
tu, thou.
tu'i, of thee.
tib'-i,* to thee. te, thee. tu, $O$ thou. te, with thee.

## Plural.

vos, ye or you.
$\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { ves'-trûm or } \\ \text { ves'tri, }\end{array}\right\}$ of you. su'-i, of themselves. vo'-bis, to you. vos, you.
vos, $O$ ye or you.
vo'-bis, with you.

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { su'-i, of himself, her- } \\
\text { self, itself. } \\
\text { sib'-i,* to himself,\&c. } \\
\text { se, himself, \&c. }
\end{array}\right.
$$

se, with himself, \& c. sib'-i, to themselves. se, themselves.
se, with themselves.

## Remarks.

1. Me and $m \hat{\imath}$ are ancient forms for mihi. So min' for mihine, Pers.
2. The syllable met is sometimes annexed to the substantive pronouns, in an intensive sense, either with or without ipse; as, egðmet, I myself;
mihimet ipsi, for myself. It is not annexed, however, to the genitives plural, nor to $t u$ in the nominative or vocative. In these cases of $t u$, tute or tutĕmet is used. In the accusative and ablative, tete in the singular, and sese in both numbers, are employed intensively. Mepte, med, and ted, for $m e$ and $t e$, and tis for $t u i$, occur in the comic writers.
3. Jostrûm and vestrûm are contracted from noströrum, nostrārum, and veströrum, vestrārum.
4. The preposition cum is affixed to the ablatives of these pronouns in both numbers; as, mecum, nobiscum, \&c.

## ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

$\$ 134$. Adjective pronouns may be divided into the following classes :-demonstrative, intensive, relative, interrogative, indefinite, possessive, and patrial.
Note. Some pronouns belong to two of these classes.

## DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

Demonstrative pronouns are such as specify what object is meant.
They are ille, iste, hic, and is, and their compounds, and are thus declined:-

Singular.

| M. | $\boldsymbol{F}$. | $\mathcal{N}$ | M. | $\boldsymbol{F}$. | N. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $N$. il'-le, | il'-la, | il'-lud, | il'-li, | il'-læ, | il'-la, |
| G. il-li'-us,* | il-li't-us, | il-lĭ'-us, | il-10'- | il-la'- | il-lo'-rum, |
| D. il'li, | i1'-li, | il'-li, | il'-lis, | il'-lis, | il'-lis, |
| Ac. il'lum, | il'-lam, | il'-lud, | il'-los, | il'-las, | il'-la, |
| Ab. il'-lo. | il'lâ. | il'-lo. | il-lis. | il'-lis. | l'-lis. |

Iste is declined like ille.
Singular.

| M. | $F$. | $\mathcal{N}$ | M. | $F$. | N |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N. hic, | hæc, | hoc, | hi, | hæ, | hæc |
| G. hu'-jus, | hu'-jus, | hu'jus, | ho'-rum, | ha'-rum, | ho'-rum, |
| D. huict, | huic, | huic, | his, | his, | his, |
| Ac. hunc, | hanc, | hoc, | hos, | has, | hæc, |
| $A b$. hoc. | hac. | hoc. | his. | his. | his. |

Singular.


## Remarks.

1. Instead of ille, ollus was anciently used; whence olli in Virgil. Ille fem., for illius and illi, is found in Lucretius and Cato, as also hac for hee in Plautus and Terence. Eii for ei, im for eum, and ibus and izhus for iis, occur in Plautus; and ea, fem., for ei, and eābus for iis, in Cato.
2. From ecce, lo! and the accusative of ille, iste, and is, are formed eccillum, eccillam, eccillud, eccum, eccam, \&c., in both numbers. Eccillum is sometimes contracted into ellum. Ecca, nom. fem., also occurs.
3. Istic and illic are compounded of iste hic, and ille hic. The former sometimes retains the aspirate, as isthic. They are more emphatic than ille and iste.

Istic is thus declined :-

## Singular.

## Plural.



Illic is declined in the same manner.
4. Ce, intensive, is sometimes added to the several cases of hic, and rarely to some cases of the other demonstrative pronouns; as, liujusce, hosce, hasce, hisce; illäce, istāce, ejusce, istacce, iisce: in gen. pl. horunce or horunc, \&c. When ne, interrogative, is also annexed, $c e$ becomes $c i$; as, hacč̌ne, hoscine, hisčne ; istucč̌ne, istacč̌ne, istosč̌ne; illicč̌ne, illancčne.
5. To the genitives singular of the demonstrative and relative pronouns, modi, the genitive of modus, is often annexed, either with or without an intervening particle ; as, hujusmődi, or hujuscemodi, of this sort; cujus$m \not \approx d i, \& c$.
6. Dem is annexed to $i s$, forming idem, the same, which is thus declined :-

|  | Singular. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| M. | $F$. | $\mathcal{N}$ |
| N. ${ }^{\prime}$-dem, | et-ă-dem, | i'-dem, |
| G. e-jus -dem, | e-jus'-dem, | e-jus'-dem, |
| D. e-i'dem, | e-i'dem, | e-i'dem, |
| Ac. e-un'-dem, | e-an'-dem | i'-dem, |
| Ab. $\overline{\mathrm{e}-\chi^{\prime} \text {-dem. }}$ | e-as'-dem. | $e-\delta^{\prime}$-dem. |

## Plural.



Note. In compound pronouns, $m$ before $d$ is changed into $n ;$ as, eundem, \&c.

## INTENSIVE PRONOUNS.

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

To this class belong ipse, and the intensive compounds already mentioned. $\$ \$ 133,2$, and $134,4$.

Ipse is thus declined :-
Singular.
Plural.
M. N. ip'-se, ip'sa, ip'sum, G. ip-sis'-us, ip-sĭ'-us, ip-sǐ'-us, ip-sos'-rum, ip-sā'-rum, ip-sō'rum, D. ip'si, ip'si, ip'-si, ip'-sis, ip'-sis, ip'-sis, $\underset{A C}{\boldsymbol{V} c}$.

## Remarks.

1. Ipse is commonly subjoined to nouns or pronouns; as, Juptter ipse, tu ipse, Jupiter himself, \&c.
2. A nominative ipsus, and a superlative ipsissimus, his very self, are found in comic writers.
3. The compounds eapse, eampse, and reapse, are contracted for ed ipsa, eam ipsam, and re ipst.

## RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

$\$$ 136. Relative pronouns are such as relate to a preceding noun, or pronoun.

They are $q u i$, who, and the compounds quicunque and quisquis, whoever.

In a general sense, the demonstrative pronouns are often relatives; but the name is commonly appropriated to those above specified. They serve
to introduce a proposition, limiting or explaining a preceding noun or pronoun, to which they relate, and which is called the antecedent.

Qui is thus declined :-
Singular.
Plural.
$\begin{array}{llllll}\boldsymbol{M} . & \boldsymbol{F} . & \boldsymbol{N} . & \boldsymbol{M} . & \boldsymbol{F} . & \mathcal{N} \text {. }\end{array}$
$\boldsymbol{N}$. qui, quæ, quod, qui, quæ, quæ, $^{\text {que }}$
G. cu'-jus, cu'-jus, cu'-jus,
D. cui,* cui, cui,

Ac. quem,
V.
$A b$.quo. quâ. quo. quam, quod,

| quo'-rum, | qua ${ }^{\prime}$-rum, | quo'-rum, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| qui'-bus, | qui'-bus, | qui'-bus, |
| quos, | quas, | quæ, |
| $\frac{\text { qui'-bus. }}{}$ | qui'-bus. | qui'-bus. |

Remarks.

1. Quit is sometimes used for the ablative singular, in all genders, and rarely for the ablative plural. To the ablatives $q u o, q u A$, and $q u i, c u m$ is sometimes annexed; but it is usually placed before the ablative plural.
2. Queis and quiss are sometimes used in the dative and ablative plural for quibus. Cujus and cui were anciently written quojus and quoi.

Quicunque, or quicumque, is declined like qui.
Qui is sometimes separated from cunque, by the interposition of one or more words.

Quisquis is thus declined :-

Singular.

## M.

N. quis'-quis,

Ac. quem'-quem,
Ab. quo'-quo.
$F$.
$N$. Plural.

|  |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| J. quis'-quis, | quis'-quis, quid'-quid, |
| $A c$. quem'-quem, | quid'-quid, |
| Ab. quo'-quo. | , |

M.

Note. Quicquid is sometimes used for quidquid. Quiqui for quisquis occurs in Plautus.

## INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 137. Interrogative pronouns are such as serve to inquire which of a number of objects is intended.

They are

| Quis? | \}who? what? | Ecquis? |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Quisnam Qui? | \}who? what | Ecquisnam? | is any one? | Cujas ? of what |
| Quinam? | \} which 3 what? | Numquis? |  | country? |

1. Quis is commonly used substantively; qui, adjectively. $Q u i$ is declined like qui the relative.
[^9]Quis is thus declined :-
Singular.
Plural.

| M. | $F$. | N. | M. | $\boldsymbol{F}$. | $\boldsymbol{N}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N. quis, | qux, | quid, | qui, | qua, |  |
| G. cu'jus, | $\mathrm{cu}^{\prime}$-jus, | cu'-jus, | quo'-ru | qua'-rum, | quo |
| D. cui, | cui, | cui, | qui'-bus, | qui'-bus, | qui'-bus, |
| $\underset{V}{\text { Ac. }}$ quem | qua |  | qu |  |  |
| $\boldsymbol{A b}$. quo. | quâ. | quo. | qui'-bus. | qui'-bus. | qui'-bu |

## Remarks on quis and qui.

(a.) Quis is sometimes used by comic writers in the feminine, and even in the neuter. So also quisnam, quisque and quisquam occur as feminine.
(b.) Quî is used for the ablative of quis, in all genders, as it is for that of the relative qui.
(c.) Quis and qui have sometimes the signification of indefinite pronouns (some one, any one), especially after $e c$, si, ne, neu, nisi, num, quo, quanto, quum, and ubi. Sometimes they are used in the sense of qualis? what sort?
2. The compounds quisnam and quinam have the signification and declension of quis and qui respectively.
3. Ecquis and numquis, or nunquis, are declined and used like quis.

But ecqua is sometimes found in the nominative singular feminine; and the neuter plural of nunquis is nunqua.

Ecqui and nunqui also occur, declined like the interrogative qui, and, like that, used adjectively.
4. Ecquisnam is declined like ecquis; but it is found only in the singular ;-in the nominative in all genders, and in the ablative masculine.
5. Cujus is also defective:-

|  | Singular. |  | Plural. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| M. | $F$. | $N$. | $F$. |
| N. cu'-jus, | cu'-ja, | cu'jum, | N. cu-jæ, |
| Ac. cu'jum, | cu'jam, |  | Ac. cu'-jas. |

6. Cujas is declined like an adjective of one termination; cujas, cujätis. It is found in the genitive and accusative singular, and the nominative plural.

Note. The interrogative pronouns are sometimes used, in dependent clauses, when there is no question. They are then called indefinites; as, nescio quis sit, I know not who he is. Qui, in this sense, is found for quis ; as, qui sit aperrit, he discloses who he is.

## INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

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

Alĭquis, some one.
Siquis, if any.
Nequis, lest any.
Quisque, every one.

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

Quidam, a certain one.
Quilibet, \} any one you
Quivis, $\}$ please.

1. Alı̆quis is thus declined :-

Singular.

## M.

N. al'-i-quis,
G. al-i-cu'-jus,
D. al'-ì-cui,

Ac. al-i-quem,
$\underset{A b}{V}$ al-ǐ-quo.
$F$.
N.

$$
1-1
$$

al'ǐ-qua,
al-i-cu'-jus,
al'ìi-cui,
al-ī-quam,
al'-ĭ-quâ.
al'-i-quod, or quid,
al-i-cu-jus,
all-i-cui,
al'-ī-quod, or quid,
al'-ǐ-quo.

## Plural.

|  | M. | $F$. | N. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\boldsymbol{N}$. | al'-ǐ-qui, | al'-i-quæ, | al'ī-qua, |
| $\boldsymbol{G}$. | al-i-quö'-rum, | al-i-qua'-rum, | al-i-qu ${ }^{\prime}$ '-ru |
| D. | a-liq'-uı-bus,* | a-liq'-uĭ-bus, | a-liq'-uĭ-bus, |
| $\stackrel{A c}{ }$ | al-i-quos, | al'i-i-quas, | al'i-i-qua, |
| Ab. | a-liq'-uĭ-bus. | a-liq'-uĭ-bus. | a-liq'-uĭ-bus. |

## 2. Siquis and nequis are declined in the same manner.

But they sometimes have quas in the nominative singular feminine.
Aliqui, siqui, and nequi, are found for aliquis, \&c., and the ablatives alxqui and siqui also occur.

Aliquid, siquid, and nequid, like quid, are used substantively; allquod, \&c., like quod, are used adjectively.
3. Quisque, quisquam, and quispiam, are declined like quis.

But in the neuter singular, quisque has quodque, quidque, or quicque; quisquam has quidquum or quicquam; and quispiam has quodpiam, quidpiam, or quippiam.

Quisquam wants the plural, and quispiam is scarcely used in that number, except in the nominative feminine, quapiam.
4. Unusquisque is compounded of unus and quisque, and both words are declined.

Thus unusquisquc, uniuscujusque, unicuique, unumquemque, \&c. The neuter is unumquodque, or unumquidque. It has no plural.
5. Quidam, quilĩbet, and quivis, are declined like qui, except that they have quod, or quid, in the neuter.

Quidam has usually $n$ before $d$ in the accusative singular and genitive plural ; as, quendam, quorundam, \&c.

[^10]
## POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 139. The possessive are derived from the substantive pronouns, and from quis, and designate something belonging to their primitives.

They are meus, tuus, suus, noster, vester, and cujus. Meus, tuus, and suus, are declined like bonus. ( $\$ \mathbf{1 0 5}$.) Meus has in the vocative singular masculine $m i$, and very rarely meus.

Cujus is also declined like bonus; but it is defective. See § 137, 5.
Noster and vester are declined like piger. See § 106.

## Remarks.

1. The termination pte intensive is sometimes annexed to the ablative singular of the possessive pronouns ; as, suopte pondĕre, by its own weight ; suapte manu, by his own hand.
2. Suus, like its primitive sui, has always a reflexive signification. These pronouns are hence called reflexive. Meus, tuus, noster, and vester, are also used reflexively, when the subject of the proposition is of the first or second person. See § 132. Mct is sometimes annexed to meus, \&c.

## PATRIAL PRONOUNS.

These mre nostras and cujas. See $\oint 137,6$. They are declined lize adjectives of one termination ; as, nostras, nosträtis.

## VERBS

§ $\mathbf{1 4 0}$. A verb is a word by which something is affirmed of a person or thing.

That of which any thing is affirmed is called the subject of the verb.

A verb either expresses an action or state; as, puer legit, the boy reads; virtus laudātur, virtue is praised; equus currit, the horse runs; aqua calet, the water is warm;-or it connects an attribute with a subject; as, terra est rotunda, the earth is round.

All verbs belong to the former of these classes, except sum, I am, the most common use of which is, to connect an attribute with a subject. When so used, it is called a copula.
§ 141. Verbs are either active or neuter.
I. An active verb expresses such an action as requires the addition of an object to complete the sense; as, amo te, I love thee; sequütur consülem, he follows the consul.
Most active verbs may express action in two ways, and, for
this purpose, have two forms, which are called the active and passive voices.

1. A verb in the active voice represents the agent as acting upon some person or thing, called the object; as, puer legit librum, the boy is reading a book.
2. A verb in the passive voice represents the object as acted upon by the agent; as, liber leğtur a puĕro, a book is read by the boy.

Remark. By comparing the two preceding examples, it will be seen that they have the same meaning. The passive voice may thus be substituted at pleasure for the active, by making the object of the active the subject of the passive, and placing the subject of the active in the ablative case, with or without the preposition $a$ or $a b$, according as it is a voluntary or involuntary agent. The active form is used to direct the attention especially to the agent as acting ; the passive, chiefly to exhibit the object as acted upon. In the one case the object, in the other the agent, is frequently omitted, and left indefinite ; as, puer legit, the boy is reading, i. e. librum, litĕras, \&cc., a book, a letter, \&c. ; virtus laudätur, virtue is praised, i. e. ab homiň̆bus, by men.

The two voices are distinguished from each other by peculiar terminations.
§142. II. A neuter verb expresses such an action or state, as does not require the addition of an object to complete the sense ; as, equus currit, the horse runs; ego sedeo, I sit.

Many verbs, in Latin, are considered as neuter, which are usually translated by an active verb in English. Thus indulgeo, I indulge, noceo, I hurt, pareo, I obey, are reckoned among neuter verbs. In strictness, such verbs denote rather a state than an action, and their sense would be more exactly expressed by the verb to be with an adjective ; as, "I am indulgent, 1 am hurtful," \&c. Some verbs in Latin, which do not usually take an object after them, are yet active, since the object is omitted by an ellipsis. Thus credo properly signifies to intrust, and, in this sense, admits an object; as, credo tili salūtem meam, I intrust my safety to you; but it usually means to believe; as, crede mihi, believe me.

Remark 1. Neuter verbs have, in general, only the form of the active voice. They are, however, sometimes used impersonally in the passive voice.
2. The neuter verbs audeo, I dare, fido, I trust, gaudeo, I rejoice, and soleo, I am wont, have the passive form in the perfect and its cognate tenses ; as, ausus sum, I dared. These verbs are called neuter passives.
3. The neuter verbs vapŭlo, I am beaten, and veneo, I am sold, have an active form, but a passive meaning, and are called neutral passives.
4. Some verbs, both active and neuter, have only the form of the passive voice. These are called deponent verbs, from depōno, to lay aside, as having laid aside their active form, and their passive signification; as, sequor, I follow; morior, I die.

Note. Verbs are sometimes said to be transitive and intransitive, rather
than active or neuter; and verbs of motion are hy some divided into active-transitive and active-intransitive, according as they require, or do not require, an object after them.

To verbs, besides voices, belong moods, tenses, numbers, and persons.

## MOODS.

\$143. Moods are forms of the verb, denoting the manner of the action or state expressed by the verb. There are in Latin four moods-the indicative, the subjunctive, the imperative, and the infinitive.

1. The indicative mood is that form of the verb which is used in independent and absolute assertions; as, amo, I love; amäbo, I shall love.
2. The subjunctive mood is that form of the verb which is used to express an action or state simply as conceived by the mind; as, si me obsecret, redibo ; if he entreat me, I will return.
3. The imperative mood is that form of the verb which is used in commanding, exhorting, or entreating; as, ama, love thou.
4. The infinitive mood is that form of the verb which is used to denote an action or state indefinitely, without limiting it to any person or thing as its subject ; as, amäre, to love.

## TENSES.

\$ 144. Tenses are forms of the verb, denoting the times of the action or state expressed by the verb.

1. Time admits of a threefold division, into present, past, and future; and, in each of these times, an action may be represented either as going on, or as completed. From these two divisions arise the six tenses of a Latin verb, each of which is distinguished by its peculiar terminations.
2. They are called the present, imperfect, future, perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect tenses.

[^11]3. There is the same number of tenses in the passive voice, in which actions not completed are represented by simple forms of the verb, and those which are completed by compound forms.
Present $\{\text { action }\}_{\text {amor, }} \mathrm{I}$ am loved; Present tense.

Past \{not com- $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { mäbar, I was loved; Imperfect tense. }\end{array}\right.$
Future \{ pleted; amäbor, I shall be loved; Future tense. $^{\text {a }}$
Present \{action 子amātus sum, or fui, I have been loved; Perfect tense. Past $\{$ com- \{amatus eram, or fuërum, I had been loved; Pluperfect. Future $\{$ pleted ; $\}$ amātus ero, or fuĕro, I shall have been loved; Future [Perfect.
§ 145. I. The present tense represents an action as now going on, and not completed; as, amo, I love, or am loving.

1. Any existing custom, or general truth, may be expressed by this tense; as, apud Parthos, signum datur tympăno; among the Parthians, the signal is given by a drum. A general truth is sometimes also expressed by the perfect.
2. The present tense may also denote an action which has existed for some time, and which still exists; as, tot annosbella gero; for so many years I have waged, and am still waging war.
3. The present tense is often in narration used for the perfect. It is then called the historical present; as, desiliunt ex equis, provőlant in primum; they dismount, they fly forward to the front.
II. The imperfect tense represents an action as going on at some past time, but not then completed; as, amäbam, I was loving.
4. The imperfect sometimes denotes repeated or customary past action; as, legëbam, I was wont to read.
5. It may also denote an action which had existed for some time, and which was still existing at a certain past time; as, audiēbat jamdüdum vel $b a$; he had long heard, and was still hearing the words.
6. This tense is sometimes used for the present, in letters, with reference to the time of their being read; as, expectābam, I was expecting, (when I wrote).
7. The imperfect also sometimes denotes the intending, preparing, or attempting to act at a definite past time.
III. The future tense denotes that an action will be going on hereafter, without reference to its completion; amābo, I shall love or be loving.
IV. The perfect tense represents an action either as just completed, or as completed in some indefinite past time; as, amävi, I have loved, or I loved.

In the former sense, it is called the perfect definite; in the latter, it is called the historical perfect or perfect indefinite.
V. The pluperfect tense represents a past action as completed, at or before the time of some other past action or event; as, littërcs scripsěram, antĕquam nuncius venit; I kad written the letter, before the messenger arrived.
VI. The future perfect tense denotes that an action will be completed, at or before the time of some other future action or event ; as, cùm cœnavěro, proficiscar ; when Ishalh have supped, I will go.

This tense is often, but improperly, called the future subjunctive. It has the signification of the indicative mood, and corresponds to the second future in English.

Note. The present, imperfect, and future tenses passive, in English do not express the exact sense of those tenses in Latin, as denoting an action which is, was, or will be, going on at a certain time. Thus laudor signines, not "I am praised," but "I am in the act of being praised," or, if such an expression is admissible, "I am being praised."

Remark 1. The six tenses above enumerated are found only in the indicative mood.
2. The subjunctive mood has the present and past, but no future tenses.

The tenses of the subjunctive mood have less definiteness of meaning, in regard to time, than those of the indicative. Thus the present and perfect, besides their common signs, may or can, may have or can have, must, in certain connections, be translated by might, could, would, or should; might have, could have, \&cc. The tenses of this mood must often, also, be translated by the corresponding tenses of the indicative. For a more full account of the signification of the tenses of the subjunctive mood, see § 260.
3. The imperative mood has but one tense, which is called the present, but which, from its nature, has a reference to the future.
4. The infinitive mood has three tenses-the present, perfect, and future; the first of which denotes an incomplete,the second a completed action, and the last an action to be performed.

## NUMBERS.

§146. Numbers are forms of the verb, denoting the unity or plurality of its subject. Verbs, like nouns, have two numbers-the singular and the plural.

## PERSONS.

\$ 147. Persons are forms of the verb, appropriated to the diferent persons of the subjec ${ }^{*}$ and accordingly called the first, second, and third persons.

1. As the imperative mood expresses the action which a second or third person is required to perform, it has terminations corresponding to those persons only.
2. The signification of the infinitive mood not being limited to any subject, it admits no change to express either number or person.
3. The following are the terminations of the different persons of each number, in the indicative and subjunctive moods in both voices :-


These may be called personal terminations.
Remare 1. The first person singular, in the active voice, ends either in $m$ or in a vowel.
2. The perfect indicative active is irregular in the second person singular, and in one of the forms of the third person plural.
3. The passive form above given applies to the simple tenses only.
4. The pronouns of the first and second persons are seldom expressed in Latin as subjects of a finite verb, the several persons being sufficiently distinguished by the terminations of the verb.

## PARTICIPLES, GERUNDS, AND SUPINES.

§148. 1. A participle is a word derived from a verb, and partaking of its meaning, but having the form of an adjective.

Like a verb, it has different voices and tenses; like an adjective, it has declension* and gender; and like both, it has two numbers.

Active verbs have usually four participles-two in the active voice, a present and a future; as, amans, loving; amatürus, about to love ;-and two in the passive voice, a perfect and a future; as, amätus, loved, or having been loved; amandus, to be loved.

Neuter verbs have usually only the participles of the active voice.

Deponent verbs, both active and neuter, may have the partici ples of both voices.
2. Gerunds are verbal nouns, used only in the oblique cases, and expressing the action or state of the verb. Like other ab-

[^12]stract nouns, they are found only in the singular number; as, amandi, of loving, \&c.
3. Supines also are verbal nouns of the fourth declension in the accusative and ablative singular; as, amätum, to love; amätu, to be loved. The supine in $u m$ is called the former supine; that in $u$, the latter. The former is commonly used in an active, the latter in a passive sense.

## CONJUGATION.

§149. The conjugation of a verb is the regular formation and arrangement of its several parts, according to their voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons.

There are four conjugations, which are characterized by the vowel before re in the present of the infinitive active.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { In the first conjugation, it is } \bar{a} \text { long; } \\
& \text { In the second, . . . . . . . e long; } \\
& \text { In the third, . . . . . . . . . ĕ short: } \\
& \text { In the fourth, . . . . . . . . i long. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Note. Do, dare, to give, and such of its compounds as are of the first conjugation, have $\breve{a}$ short before re.
§ 150. A verb consists of two parts-the root, and the verbal termination.

1. The root of a verb consists of those letters which are not changed by inflection; as, am in amo, amäbam, amavĕrim, amätus. This may be called the general root.
2. There are three special roots, from which, by the addition of certain terminations, all the parts of the verb are readily formed. The first of these roots is found in the present of the indicative, and is the same as the general root ; the second is found in the perfect; and the third in the supine, or perfect participle.
3. In regular verbs of the first, second, and fourth conjugations, the second root is formed by adding, respectively, $\bar{a} v, \bar{e} v$, and $\bar{i} v$, to the general root; and the third root by a similar addition of $\bar{a} t, \bar{e} t$, and $\bar{i}$.
Many verbs, however, in these three conjugations, form their second and third roots irregularly, as do almost all in the second, a great part adding $u$ and $\bar{\imath} t$, instead of $e v$ and $\bar{e} t$.
4. In the third conjugation, the second root either is the same as the first, or is formed from it by adding $s$; the third root is formed by adding $t$. See $\$ 171$.

Note. In the second and fourth conjugations, $e$ and $i$ before $o$ are considered as belonging not to the root, but to the termination. In verbs whose second or third roots are formed irregularly, the general root often undergoes some change in the parts derived from them.
5. The vowel which unites the general root with the remaining letters of the verb, is called the connecting vowel. Each conjugation, except the third, is, in a great degree, distinguished by a peculiar connecting vowel, which is the same as characterizes the infinitives. See $\$ 149$.

In the third conjugation, the connecting vowel is generally $e$ or $i$. In the second and fourth conjugations, and in verbs in io of the third, a second connecting vowel is sometimes added to that which characterizes the conjugation; as, $a$ in doceant, $u$ in capiunt, \&c.

In verbs whose second and third roots are formed irregularly, the connecting vowel often disappears, or is changed in the parts derived from those roots; but it is almost always found in the parts derived from the first root.
§151. 1. From the first root are derived, in each voice, the present, imperfect, and future indicative; the present and imperfect subjunctive, the imperative, and the present infinitive From this root are derived also the present participle, the gerund, and the future participle passive.
2. From the second root are derived, in the active voice, the perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect indicative; the perfect and pluperfect subjunctive, and the perfect infinitive.
3. From the third root are derived, in the active voice, the supine in um , and the future participle, the latter of which, with the verb esse, constitutes the future infinitive.

From this root are derived, in the passive voice, the supine in $u$, and the perfect participle, from the latter of which, with the verb sum, are formed all the tenses which in the active are derived from the second root. The future infinitive passive is formed from the supine in $u m$, and $i r i$, the present infinitive passive of the verb eo, to go.
4. The present and perfect indicative, the supine in $u m,{ }^{*}$ and the present infinitive, are called the principal parts of the verb, because from the first three the several roots are ascertained, and from the last, the characteristic vowel of the conjugation. In the passive voice, the principal parts are the present indicative and infinitive, and the perfect participle.
§ 152. The following table exhibits a connected view of the verbal terminations, in all the conjugations. By annexing these to the several roots, all the parts of a verb may be formed.

[^13]


1. -ảbam, -ābas, -ābat;
2. -êbam, -êbas, -êbat;
3. -êbam, -êbas, -êbat;
4. -iebbam, -iebas, -iebat;



-iciю ャ்






-arentur. 들






## Imperfect.


 NOTE. Verbs in io of the third conjugation have two connecting vowels in all the parts in which they occur in verbs of the fourth conjugation,
and these vowels are the same in both. 1. -ăre,
2. -ēre,
3. -ĕre,
4. -īre.
V


1. -ărer, -arēris or -arēre,
2. -ērer, -erēris or -erēre,
3. -ěrer, -erēris or -erēre, -irēris or -irēre, -ind 1. -ăre or -ātor,


IMPERATIVE

-unto.
-iunto. 4. -īre or -ītor,
INFIN
Pres.
MOOD.
4. -īrer, 'วฉอาะー 10 วาะ-
-erētis,
> -erēmus,
> 든

ito; -ǐte or -itōte,
-īto; -īte or -itōte,

Terminations added to the Second and Third Roots.
 PASSIVE VOICE.-Third Root. Singular.
fuisti, \&c.
fuěras, \&c. $r$ fuĕris, \&c. -us $\operatorname{sim} \quad o r$ fuèrim, -us sis or fuěris, \&c. -us essem or fuissem, -us esses or fuisses, \&c. Perf. -us esse or fuissc.
L. SUP. -u. Perf. -us. INF. Fut. -um iri.
PART. Perf. -us.

In analyzing a verb, the voice, person, and number, are ascertained by the personal terminations. See $\S 147,3$. The conjugation, mood, and tense, are, in general, determined by the letter or letters which intervene between the root of the verb and those terminations. Thus in amabamus, mus denotes that the verb is of the active voice, plural number, and first person; $b a$ denotes that it is of the indicative mood, imperfect tense; and the connecting vowel $a$ determines it to be of the first conjugation. So in amareminni, mixi denotes the passive voice, plural number, and second person; $r e$, the subjunctive mood, imperfect tense ; and $a$, as before, the first conjugation.

Sometimes, the part between the root of the verb and the personal termination, does not precisely determine the conjugation, mood, and tense, but only within certain limits. In such cases, the conjugation may be learned, by finding the present tense in the dictionary, and if two forms are alike in the same conjugation, they can only be distinguished by the sense. Thus amēmus and docēmus have the same termination; but, as amo is of the first, and doceo of the second conjugation, the former is determined to be the subjunctive, the latter the indicative, present. Regar may be either future indicative, or present subjunctive-legðmus either present or perfect indicative.
\$153. Sum, I am, is called an auxiliary verb, because it is used, in conjunction with participles, to supply the want of simple forms in other verbs. From its denoting existence, it is sometimes called the substantive verb. It is very irregular in those parts which, in other verbs, are formed from the first root. Its imperfect and future tenses seem to have been formed from the second root of some now obsolete verb, and to have been, not, as now, an imperfect and future, but a pluperfect and future perfect. It is thus conjugated :-

## PRINCIPAL PARTS.

| Pres. Indic. | Pres. Infin. | Perf. Indic. | Fut. Part. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sum, | es'-se, | fu' $^{\prime}-\mathrm{i}$, | fu-tư'-rus |

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

## Present Tense.

## Singular.



## Plural.

su'-mus, $10 e$ are, est-tis, ye ${ }^{\text {are }}$ are, sunt, they are

## Imperfect.

1. e'-ram, I was,
2. $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}$-ras, thou wast,
3. $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}$-rat, he was ;
e-rä'-mus, we were,
e-rà'-tis, ye were,
e'-rant, they were.
[^14]Future. shall, or will.

1. $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}$-ro, I shall be,
2. $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}$-ris, thou wilt be,
3. e'-rit, he will be;
er'-i-mus, we shall be, er'-ǐ-tis, ye will be, $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}$-runt, they will be.

Perfect. have been, or was.

1. fu'-i, I have been,
2. fu-is'-ti, thou hast been,
3. fu'-it, he has been ;
$\mathrm{fu}^{\prime}-\mathrm{i}$-mus, we have been, fu-is'-tis, ye have been, fu-é-runt or -re, they have been.

## Pluperfect.

1. fu'-è-ram, I had been,
2. fu'-è-ras, thou hadst been,
3. fu'-ě-rat, he had been ;
fu-e-rä'-mus, we had been, fu-e-rā'-tis, ye had been, fu'-ĕ-rant, they had been.

Future Perfect. shall or will have.

1. fu'-è-ro, I shall have been,
2. fu'-è-ris, thou wilt have been,
3. fu'-è-rit, he woill have been;
fu-er'-1-mus, we shall have been.
fu-er-1i-tis, ye will have been,
fu'-ĕ-rint, they will have been.

## SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present. may, or can.

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

Imperfect. might, could, would, or should.

1. es'-sem, I would be,
2. es'-ses, thou wouldst be,
3. es'-set, he would be;
es-sé'-mus, we would be, es-sé'-tis, ye would be, es'-sent, they would be.

## Perfect.

1. fu'-è-rim, I may have been,
2. fu'-e-ris, thou mayst have been,
3. fu' è-rit, he may have been;
fu-er'-1̌-mus, we may have been, fu-er'-il-tis, ye may have been, fu'-è-rint, they may have been.

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

1. fu-1s'-sem, I would have been, fu-is-ses'-mus, we would have been,
2. fu-is'-ses, thou wouldst have been, fu-is-sé'-tis, ye would have been,
3. fu-is'-set, he would have been;
fu-is'-sent, they would have been.

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

2. es, or es's'to, be thou, $_{\text {2 }}$-te, or es-tó'-te, be $y e$,
3. es'-to, let him be ; $^{\prime}$
sun'-to, let them be.

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. es'-se, to be. Perfect. fu-is'-se, to have been. Future fu-tu'-rus es'-se, to be about to be.

## PARTICIPLE.

Future. fu-tū'-rus, about to be.

## Remarks.

§154. 1. A present participle ens seems to have been anciently used, and is now found in the compounds absens, prasens, and potens.
2. The perfect $f u i$, and its derivative tenses, are formed from an obsolete fun, whence come also the participle futurus, and an old subjunctive present fuam, fuas, fuat; —, —, fuant.
3. From fuo are also derived the following :-

Sulj. imperf. fo'-rem, fo'-res, fo'-ret; ——, —, fo'-rent. Inf.pres. fo'-re.
These forms seem to have been contracted from fuĕrem, \&c., and fuĕre. Forem is equivalent in meaning to essem, but fore has, in most cases, acquired a future signification, equivalent to futürus esse.
4. Siem, sies, siet, for sim, sis, sit, are found in ancient writers, as are also escit for erit, escunt for erunt, and fuvĕrint for fuĕrint.
5. Like sum are conjugated its compounds, except possum, but prosum has $d$ after pro, when the simple verb begins with $e$; as,

> Ind.pres. pro'-sum, prod'-es, prod'-est, \&c.

- imperf. prod'-ě-ram, prod'-è-ras, \&c.

6. Possum is compounded of potis, able, and sum. They are sometimes written separately, and then potis is the same in all genders and numbers. In composition, is is omitted in potis, and $t$, as in other cases, coming before $s$, is changed into $s$. In the infinitive, and imperfect subjunctive, es of the simple verb is dropped, and $f$ at the beginning of the second root. In every other respect, possum is conjugated like sum, wherever it is found; but the imperative, and parts derived from the third root, are wanting.

Pres. Ind. Pres. Inf. Perf. Ind. Pos'sum, $^{\prime} \quad$ pos' $^{\prime}-\mathrm{se}, \quad$ pot $^{\prime} \mathrm{u}-\mathrm{i}, \quad$ I can, or I am able.
indicative.
Pres. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}S . \text { pos -sum, pot'-es, pot'-est , } \\ P\end{array}\right.$ P. pos'-sŭ-mus, pot-es'-tis, pos'sunt.

Imperf. pot'-ě-ram, \&c.
Fut. pot'-è-ro, \&c.
Perf. pot'-u-i, \&c.
Plup. pot-u'-è-ram, \&c.
Fut. perf. pot-u'eè-ro, \&c.

SUBJUNCTIVE.
Pres. pos'-sim, \&c.
Imperf. pos'-sem, \&c.
Perf. pot-u'-ě-rim, \&c.
Plup. pot-u-is'-sem, \&c.

## infinitive.

Pres. pos'se.
Perf. pot-u-is'-se.

The following forms are also found;-potessim and possiem, \&c., for vossim, de. ; potesse for posse ; potestur for potest; and possitur for possit.

## § 155. FIRST CONJUGATION.

ACTIVE VOICE.
PRINCIPAL PARTS .

| Pres. Ind. | Pres. Inf. | Perf. Ind. | Supine. |
| :---: | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathbf{A}^{\prime}$ '-mo, | a-mā'-re, | a-mā'-vi, | a-mā'-tum. |

## Present.

| Sing. | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-mo, |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-mas, |
|  | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-mat, |
| Plur. | a-mã'-mus, |
|  | a-mä'-tis, |
|  | $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-mant, |

I love, thou lovest, he loves; we love, ye love, they love.

Imperfect.

| Sing. | a-mā'-bam, |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | a-mā'-bas, |
|  | a-ma'-bat, |
| Plur. | am-a-bā'-mu |
|  | am-a-bā'-tis, |
|  | a-mā-bant, |

I woas loving, thou wast loving, he was loving; we were loving, ye were loving, they were loving.
Future. shall, or will.
Sing. a-mà'bo, a-mā'-bis, a-mä'-bit,
Plur. a-mab'i-i-mus, a-mab-ī-tis, a-mā'-bunt,

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

Perfect. loved, or have loved.

Sing. a-mä'vi, am-a-vis'ti, a-mä'-vit,
Plur. a-mav'i-i-mus, am-a-vis'-tis, am-a-vé'runt or -re,

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

Pluperfect.
Sing. a-mav'è-e-ram, a-mav'ē-ras, a-mav'ĕ-rat,
Plur. am-a-ve-rā'-mus, am-a-ve-rā'-tis, a-mav'-ĕ-rant,

Future Perfect. shall or will have.

Sing. a-mav'-è-ro, I shall have loved, a-mav'-è-ris, a-mav'ë-rit,
Plur. am-a-ver'tî̀-mus, am-a-vér'ī-tis, a-mav'-ĕ-rint,
thou wilt have loved, he will have loved; we shall have loved, ye will have loved, they will have loved.

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

## SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present. may, or can.

Sing. a'-mem, $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-mes, $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-met,
Plur. a-mé'-mus, a-mē'tis, $\mathrm{a}^{\prime}$-ment,

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

Imperfect. might, could, would, or should.

Sing. a-mä'-rem, a-mā'-res, a-mä'-ret,
Plur. am-a-rē'-mus, am-a-ré'tis, a-mä'-rent, 9

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

## Perfect.

> Sing. a-mav'-ĕ-rim, a-mav'eĕ-ris, a-mav'-ě-rit,
> Plur. am-a-ver'-ǐ-mus, am-a-ver'-ī-tis, a-mav'-ĕ-rint,

I may have loved, thou mayst have loved, he may have loved; we may have loved, ye may have loved, they may have loved.

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

Sing. am-a-vis'-sem, am-a-vis'-ses, am-a-vis'-set,
Plur. am-a-vis-sē'-mus, am-a-vis-sē'-tis, am-a-vis'-sent,

I would have loved, thou wouldst have loved, he would have loved; we would have loved, ye would have loved, they would have loved.

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Sing. a'-ma, or $\mathrm{a}-\mathrm{ma} \bar{a}^{\prime}$-to, a-mā'-to,
Plur. a-mā'-te, or am-a-tō'-te, a-man'-to,
love thou, let him love; love ye, let them love.

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. a-mā'-re,
Perfect. am-a-vis'-se,
Future. am-a-tū'-rus es'-se,
to love.
to have loved.
to be about to love.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. a'-mans,
Future. am-a-tū'-rus,
loving. about to love.

GERUND.
G. a-man'-di,
D. a-man'-do,

Ac. a-man'-dum, Ab. a-man'-do,
of loving,
to or for loving,
loving,
by loving.

SUPINE.
Former. a-mā'tum, to love.

## $\$ 156$. <br> PASSIVE VOICE

PRINCIPAL PARTS.
Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Part $\mathbf{A}^{\prime}$-mor, $\quad \mathrm{a}$-mā'-ri, $\quad$ a-mä'tus.

INDICATIVE MOOD.
Present.

Sing. a'mor, a-mā'ris or -re, a-mā'tur,
Plur. a-mā'-mur, a-mam'-i-ni, a-man'tur,

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

Imperfect.

Sing. a-mä'-bar, am-a-bā'ris or -re, am-a-bā'-tur,
Plur. am-a-bā'-mur, am-a-bam'-i-ni, am-a-ban'-tur,

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

Future. shall or will be.

Sing. a-mā'-bor, a-mab'ë-ris or -re, a-mab'ĭ-tur,
Plur. a-mab'ī-mur, am-a-bim'ī-ni, am-a-bun'tur,

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

Perfect. have been, or was.

Sing. a-mā'-tus sum or fu'-i, a-mā'-tus es or fu-is'ti, a-mā̄-tus est or fu'-it,
Plur. a-mā'-ti su'-mus or fu'-i-mus, a-mà'ti es'tis or fu-is'tis, a-mā'til sunt, fu-ē'runt or -re,

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

## Pluperfect.



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

Future Perfect. shall have been.
S. a-mā'-tus e'-ro or fu'-ě-ro, a-mā'-tus e'-ris or fu'-ĕr-ris, a-mā'-tus e'-rit or fu'-ě-rit,
$\boldsymbol{P}$. a-mã'-ti er'-ǐ-mus or fu-er'-1̌-mus, a-mä'-ti er'-ï-tis or fu-er'-1̀-tis, a-mā'-ti e'-runt or fu'-ě-rint,

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

## SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present. may or can be.

> Sing. a'-mer, a-me'-ris or -re, a-mé'tur,
> Plur. a-me'smur, a-mem'-ii-ni, a-men'-tur,

I may be loved, thou mayst be loved, he may be loved; vee may be loved, ye may be loved, they may be loved.

Imperfect. might, could, would, or should be.

Sing. a-mä'-rer, am-a-ré'ris or -re, am-a-rē'tur,
Plur. am-a-rē'-mur, am-a-rem'-ì-ni, am-a-ren'tur,
$I$ would be loved, thou wouldst be loved, he would be loved; we would be loved, ye would be loved, they would be loved.

Perfect.
E. a-mä'-tus sim or fu'-ë-rim, a-mā'tus sis or fu'-ě-ris, a-mā'-tus sit or fu'-ě-rit,
$\boldsymbol{P}$. a-mā ${ }^{\prime}-t \mathrm{ti}$ si'-mus or fu-er'-1 $\mathrm{i}-\mathrm{mus}$, a-mā'-ti si'-tis or fu-er'-ì-tis, a-mā'ti sint or fu'-ĕ-rint,

Imay have been loved, thou mayst have been loved, he may have been loved; we may have been loved, ye may have been loved, they may have been loved.

Pluperfect. might, could, would, or should have been.
S. a-mā'-tus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem, a-mā'-tus es'-ses or fu-is'-ses, a-mä'tus es'-set or fu-is'-set,
$\boldsymbol{P}$. a-mä'tic es-sē'-mus or fu-is-sē'-mus, a-mä'-ti es-ses'-tis or fu-is-sē'-tis, a-mä'ti es'-sent or fu-is'-sent,
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { I would have } \\ \text { thou wouldst have } \\ \text { he would have } \\ \text { wee woold have, } \\ \text { ye weould have } \\ \text { they, pould have }\end{array}\right] \stackrel{\vdots}{\Xi}$

IMPERATIVE MOOD.
Sing. a-mā'-re, or $\mathrm{a}-\mathrm{ma}{ }^{-1}$-tor, be thou loved, a-mā'-tor,
Plur. a-mam'í-ni, a-man'-tor,
let him be loved;
be ye loved,
let them be loved.

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. a-mā'rí,
Perfect. a-mā'tus es'-se or fu-is'-se, Future. a-mā'-tum i'-ri,
to be loved.
to have been loved.
to be about to be loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Perfect. a-mā'-tus, Future. a-man'-dus,
loved, or having been loved. to be loved.

SUPINE.
Latter. a-mä'-tu, to be loved.

## Formation of the Tenses.

From the first root, am, are derived

|  | Active. | Passive. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ind. pres. <br> - imperf. | amo, amíbam, | amor, amãbar, |
| - fut. | amábo, | amábor, |
| Subj. pres. | amem, amärem, | amer, |
| Imperat. | ama, | an |
| Inf.pres. | amire, | amäri, |
| Part. pres. | amuns, |  |
| Gerund. | am | amandus. |

From the second root, From the third $a m a v$, are derived root, amat, are derived Passive. Ind. perf. amãvi, amātus sum, \&e. - plup. amavêram,«amātus eram, \&c. - fut. perf. amavěro, amảtus ero, \&c. Subj. perf. amavěrim, amảtus sim, \&c. - plup. amavissem, amảtus essem, \&c. Inf. perf. amavisse, amātus esse, \& © . From the third root, Inf. fuut. amatūrus esse, amātumiri, Part. fut. amatürus, - perf. amātus, Form. Śup. amãtum. Lat. Sup. amåtu.

## \$157. SECOND CONJUGATION.

## ACTIVF VOICE. <br> PASSIVE VOICE.

## PKINC'SPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. Mo'-ne-o, Pres. Inf. mo-nē're, Perf. Ind. mon'-u-i, Supine. mon'-ǐ-tum.

Pres. Ind. $\mathrm{mo}^{\prime}-\mathrm{ne}-\mathrm{or}$, Pres. Inf. mo-nē'ri, Perf. Part. mon'-i-tus.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

I advise.
Sing. mo'-ne-o, mo'-nes, mo'-net;
Plur. mo-nē'-mus, mo-nē'-tis, mo'-nent.

I am advised.
Sing. mo'-ne-or, mo-né-ris or -re, mo-né'tur ;
Plur. mo-nē'-mur, mo-nem'ï-ni, mo-nen'tur.

Imperfect.

I was advising.
S. mo-nē'-bam, mo-né'bas, mo-në'bat ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. mon-e-bā'-mus, mon-e-bā'-tis, mo-né'bant.

I was advised.
S. mo-né'bar, mon-e-bä'-ris or -re, mon-e-bä'-tur ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. mon-e-bā'-mur, mon-e-bam'i-i-ni, mon-e-ban'tur.

Future.

I shall or will advise.
S. mo-né'bo, mo-né'-bis, mo-né'bit;
P. mo-neb-i-mus, mo-neb'-i-tis, mo-nē'bunt.

I shall or will be advised.
S. mo-nè'-bor, mo-neb'è̈-ris or -re, mo-neb'-ï-tur ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. mo-neb-il-mur, mon-e-bim'-1-ni, mon-e-bun'tur

ACTIVE.

PASSIVE.
Perfect.
I advised, or have advised. I was or have been advised.
S. mon'u-u-i, $^{\prime}$ mon-u-is'ti, mon'-u-it ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. mo-nu'i-mus, mon-u-is'tis, mon-u-é-runt or -re.
S. mon'-i-tus sum or fu'-i, mon'ī-tus es or fu-is'ti, mon'-i-tus est or fu'it ;
P. mon'iliti su'mus or fu'i-i-mus, mon'-i-tic es'tis or fu-is'tis, mon'-i-ti sunt, fu-ē-runt or -re.

Pluperfect.

I had advised.
S. mo-nu'-ë-ram, mo-nu'-ĕ-ras, mo-nu'-è-rat ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. mon-u-e-rā̀-mus, mon-u-e-rā̄-tis, mo-nu'-ë-rant.

I had been advised.
S. mon'-ītus e'ram or fu'cè-ram, mon'-ītus e'-ras or fu'ĕ-r-ras, mon'-i-tus $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}$-rat or fu'ē-rat;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. mon' ${ }^{\prime}-1-\mathrm{t}$ ti e-rà'-mus or fu-e-rā'-mus, mon'-ī-ti e-rä'-tis or fu-e-rā'tis, mon'i-1-ti e'-rant or fu'-é-rant.

## Future Perfect.

I shall have advised.
S. mo-nu'-è-ro, mo-nu'-ë-ris, mo-nu'ë-rit;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. mon-u-er-i-mus, mon-u-er-1i-tis, mo-nu'-è-rint.

I shall have been advised.
S. mon'-i-tus e'-ro or fu'-è-ro, mon'-i-tus e'-ris or fu'ë-ris, mon'-i-tus e'rit or fu'-ĕ-rit ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. mon'ī-ti er'i-musor fu-er'i-i-mus, mon'i-i-ti er'-i-tis or fu-er'-ī-tis, mon'-i-tic e'runt or fu'-ĕ-rint.

## SUBJUNCTIIVE MOOD.

## Present.

I may or can advise.
S. mo'-ne-am, mo'-ne-as, mo'-ne-at ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. mo-ne-à'-mus, mo-ne-ā- - tis, mo'-ne-ant.

I may or can be advised.
S. mo'ne-ar, mo-ne-ā'-ris or -re, mo-ne-àt-tur ;
P. mo-ne- $\bar{a}^{\prime}$-mur, mo-ne-am'-i-ni, mo-ne-an'-tur

## ACTIVE. <br> PASSIVE. <br> Imperfect.

I might, could, would, or should advise.
S. mo-nē'-rem, mo-né'res, mo-nē'-ret ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. mon-e-rē'-mus, mon-e-rē'tis, mo-në'-rent.

I might, could, would, or should be advised.
S. mo-né'rer, mon-e-ré-ris or -re, mon-e-ré'tur ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. mon-e-rē'-mur, mon-e-rem'i-ini, mon-e-ren'tur.

Perfect.

I may hàve advised.
S. mo-nu'-è-rim, mo-nu'ë-ris, mo-nu'è-rit ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. mon-u-er-1-1-mus, mon-u-er'-ǐ-tis, mo-nu'-ě--

I may have been advised.
S. mon'-i-tus sim or fu'-ĕ-rim, mon'-ī-tus sis or fu'-ě-ris, mon'-ï-tus sit or fu'eè-rit;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. mon'-ĭti si'-mus or fu-er'î-mus, mon'-i-ti si'-tis or fu-er-1ँ-tis, mon'-i-tii sint or fu'-ë-rint.

## Pluperfect.

Imight, could, would, or should have advised.
S. mon-u-is'-sem, mon-u-is'-ses, mon-u-is'set;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. mon-u-is-ses'-mus, mon-u-is-sē'-tis, mon-u-is'sent.

I might, could, would, or should have been advised.
S. mon'-i-itus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem, mon'ī-tus es'ses or fu-is'-ses, mon'-i-tus es'-set or fu-is'-set;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. mon'-i-tic es-sē'-mus or fu-is-sēe'-mus, mon-ĭ-ti es-sē'tis or fu-is-sē'tis, mon'i-1-ti es'-sent or fu-is'-sent.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.
advise thou.
S. mo'-ne, or mo-nē'to, mo-nē'to ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. mo-nē'-te, or mon-e-tō'-te, mo-nen'to.
be thou advised.
$S$ mo-nē'-re, or mo-nē'-tor, mo-né'tor ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. mo-nem'í-ni, mo-nen'tor.

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. mo-nē'-re, to advise.
$\boldsymbol{P}_{\text {erf. }}$ mon-u-is'se, to have advised.
Fut. mon-i-tū'-rus es'-se, to be about to alvise

Pres. mo-nē̄-ri, to be advised. Perf. mon'-i-tus es'-se or fu-is'se, to have been advised. Fut. Hon'ītum i'ri, to be about to be advised

ACTIVE.
PARTICIPLES.

Pres. mo'-nens, advising. $\quad$ Perf. mon'-ǐ-tus, advised. Fut. mon-i-tū'rus, about to advise.

PASSIVE.

Fut. mo-nen'-dus, to be advised.

GERUND.
G. mo-nen'-di, of advising,
D. mo-nen'-do, \&c.

Ac. mo-nen'-dum,
Ab. mo-nen'do.
SUPINES.
Former. mon'-ĭ-tum, to advise. | Latter. mon'-1̆-tu, to be advised.
Formation of the Tenses.

From the first root, mon, are derived,

Ind. pres. - imperf. $\overline{\text { fut. }}$ Imperat. Inf. pres. Part. pres. Gerut. Gerund.

Subj. pres. monear, monear, - imperf. monėrem, monėrer,

Active. Passive. moneo, moneor, monêbam, monébar, monébo, monébor, moneam, monear, mone, monére, monère, monéri, monens, monendus.
monendi.

From the second From the third root, root, monu, are derived, Active. Ind. perf. monui, monttus sum, \&e. -plup. monuéram, monitus eram, \&re. -fut. perf. monuerro, monttus ero, \&c. Subj. perf. monuěrim, monttus sim, \&c. -plup. monuissem, monttus essem, \&o. Inf. perf. monuisse, montus esse, \&cc. From the third root, Inf. fut. monitürus esse, montum irn, Part. fut. monitürus,

Form. Sup. monitum. Lat. Sup. monǐtu.

## §158. THIRD CONJUGATION.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.
Pres. Ind. Re'-go,
Pres. Inf. reg'è̈-re,
Perf. Ind. rex'i,
Supine. rec'tum.

## ACTIVE:

I was ruling.
S. re-gē'-bam, re-gē'-bas, re-gé'-bat ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. reg-e-bā'-mus, reg-e-bä'tis, re-gé'bant.

I shall or will rule.
S. re'-gam, re'ges, re'-get;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. re-ge $^{-1}-$ mus, re-gè'-tis, re'-gent.

I ruled or have ruled.
S. rex'i, rex-is'ti, rex'it ;
P. rex'il-mus, rex-is'-tis, rex-é'runt or -re.

I shall or will be ruled.
S. re'-gar, re-gé'-ris or -re, re-gé'tur ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. re-gē'-mur, re-gem'i-ini, re-gen'tur.

Perfect.
Future.
S. re-gè'bar, reg-e-bă'-ris or -re, reg-e-bā'-tur ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. reg-e-bā'-mur, reg-e-bam'-ĭ-ni, reg-e-ban'-tur.

Imperfect

> PASSIVE.

I was ruled.
,

ACTIVE.
PASSIVE.

## SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.

I may or can rule.
$\boldsymbol{S} . \mathrm{re}^{\prime}$-gam, re'-gas, re'-gat ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. re-gā'-mus, re-gã'-tis, re'-gant.

I may or can be ruled.
S. re'-gar, re-gā'-ris or -re, re-gā'tur ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. re-gà'-mur, re-gam ${ }^{\prime}-1 /-n i$, re-gan'-tur.

Imperfect.

I might, could, would, or should rule.
S. reg'-ĕ-rem, reg'-ĕ-res, reg'-ě-ret ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. reg-e-rér'mus, reg-e-rē'tis, reg'-ě-rent.

I might, could, would, or should be ruled.
S. reg'-ĕ-rer, reg-e-ré'-ris or -re, reg-e-rē̄-tur ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. reg-e-rē'-mur, reg-e-rem'-ǐ-ni, reg-e-ren'-tur.

Perfect.

I may have ruled.
S. rex'ĕ-rim, rex'-ĕ-ris, rex'-ĕ-rit;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. rex-er-1̈-mus, rex-er'-1̌-tis, rex'ë-rint.

I may have been ruled.
S. rec'tus sim or fu'-è-rim, rec'tus sis or fu'eĕ-ris, rec'tus sit or fu'ē-rit;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. rec'ti si'-mus or fu-er'-1 1 -mus, rec'-ti si'-tis or fu-er'-ī-tis, rec'ti sint or fu'-ë-rint.

Pluperfect.
I might, could, would, or I might, could, would, or should
should have ruled.
S. rex-is'-sem, rex-is'-ses, rex-is'set;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. rex-is-sés'-mus, rex-is-ses'-tis, rex-is'sent.
have been ruled.
S. rec'-tus es'-sem or fu-is'sem, rec'-tus es'ses or fu-is'ses, rec'tus es'set or fu-is'set ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. rec'-ti es-sēé-mus or fu-is-sé'-mus, rec'-ti es-sē'-tis or fu-is-sese'tis. rec'-ti es'sent or fu-is'-sent

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

rale thou.
S. re'-ge, or reg'i-loto, reg'i-to;
P. reg'i-i-te, or reg-i-tō'te, re-gun'to.
be thou ruled.
S. reg'-ĕ-re, or reg'-ı̆-tor, reg'-ĭ-tor;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. re-gim'-í-ni, re-gun'-tor.

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. reg'-ĕ-re, to rule.
Perf. rex-is'-se, to have ruled. Fut. rec-tū'-rus es'-se, to be about to rule.

Pres. re'-gi, to be ruled.
Perf. rec'-tus es'-se or fu-is'-se,
to have been ruled.
Fut. rec'-tum i'-ri, to be about to be ruled.

## PARTICIPLES.

Pres. re'-gens, ruling.
Fut. rec-tū'rus, about to rule. $\mid$ Fut. re-gen'-dus, to be ruled.

## GERUND.

F. re-gen'-di, of ruling,
D. re-gen'-do, \&c.

Ac. re-gen'-dum,
Ab. re-gen'-do.

## SUPINES.

Former. rec'-tum, to rule. | Latter. rec'-tu, to be ruled.
Formation of the Tenses.

From the first root, reg, are derived,

| Ind. pres. <br> - imperf. | Active. rego, |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |
|  | regam, | regar, |
| bj. p | regam | regar, |
|  | regerrem | ger |
|  | rege, | regetre, |
| urt. | rege |  |
|  |  | regendus. |

From the second root, From the third rex, are derived, root, rect, are derived, Passive.
Ind. perf. rexi, rectus sum, \&re.

- plup. rexéram, rectus eram, \&c.
- fut. perf. rexěro, rectus ero, \&c.

Subj. perf. rexerim, rectus sim, \&c.
plup. rexissem, rectus essem, \&c.
Inf. perf. rexisse. rectus esse, \&c.
From the third root,
Inf. fut. rectūrus esse, rectum iri,
Part. fut. rectūrus,
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { Forf. } & \text { reetus, } \\ \text { Fup. rectum. } & \text { Lat. Nup. rectu. }\end{array}$

ACTIVE.
PASSIVE.

## § 159.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. Ca'-pi-o, to take, Pres. Inf. cap'-ĕ-re, Perf. Ind. ce'-pi, Supine. cap'-tum.<br>Pres. Ind. ca'-pi-or, to be taken,<br>Pres. Inf. ca'-pi, Perf. Part. cap'-tus.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

## Present.



Imperfect.
S. ca-pi-ē'-bam, ca-pi-è'-bas, ca-pi-è'-bat ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. ca-pi-e-bā'-mus, ca-pi-e-bä'-tis, ca-pi-é-bant.
S. ca-pi-e'-bar, ca-pi-e-bä'-ris or -re, ca-pi-e-bä'-tur ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. ca-pi-e-bā'-mur, ca-pi-e-bam'-í-ni, ca-pi-e-ban'-tur.

Future.
S. ca'-pi-am, ca'-pi-es, ca'-pi-et;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. ca-pi-é'-mus, ca-pi-ē'-tis, ca'-pi-ent.
S. ca'-pi-ar, ca-pi-ē'ris or -re. ca-pi-è'-tur;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. ca-pi- $\overline{e ́}^{\prime}$-mur, ca-pi-em'-ĭ-ni, ca-pi-en'-tur.

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


ACTIVE.
PASSIVE.
SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.
Present.
S. ca'-pi-am ca'-pi-as, ca'-pi-at ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. ca-pi-ā-mus, ca-pi-ā-tis, ca'-pi-ant.
S. ca'-pi-ar, ca-pi-ä'-ris or -re, ca-pi-ā'-tur ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. ca-pi-ä'-mur, ca-pi-am'-i-ni, ca-pi-an'-tur.

Imperfect.
S. cap'-ĕ-rem, cap'-ĕ-res, cap'-ĕ-ret ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. cap-e-ré'-mus, cap-e-rē'tis, cap'-ě-rent.
S. cap'-ĕ-rer, cap-e-rē'-ris or -re, cap-e-rē'-tur ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. сар-e-ré'-mur, cap-e-rem'-1-ni, cap-e-ren'tur.

| Perf. cep'è̈-rim. | $\boldsymbol{P}$ erf. cap'tus sim or fu'-ĕ-rim. |
| :--- | :--- | Plup. ce-pis'-sem.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.
S. ca'-pe, or cap'-1-1-to, cap'-i-to ;
P. cap'-ī-te, or cap-i-tō'-te, ca-pi-un'-to.
S. cap'-ĕ-re, or cap'-1-tor, cap'-1̆-tor;
P. ca-pim'-i-ni, ca-pi-un'-tor.

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. cap'-ĕ-re.
Perf. ce-pis'se.
Fut. cap-tū'-rus es'-se.

Pres. ca'-pi.
Perf. cap'-tus es'-se or fu-is'se Fut. cap'-tum i'-ri.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. ca'-pi-ens. Fut. cap-tū'-rus.

Perf. cap'tus.
Fut. ca-pi-en'-dus

GERUND.
ea-pi-en'-di, \&c. $\quad \mid$

## SUPINES.

tum.
1 Latter. cap'-tu.

ACTIVE.

## §160. FOURTH CONJUGATION.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. Au'-di-o, Pres. Inf. au-di'-re, Perf. Ind. au-di'-vi, Supine. au-dī-tum.

Pres. Ind. au'di-or, Pres Inf. au-di'-ri, Perf. $\boldsymbol{P}$ art. au-di'-tus

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

I hear.
S. au'di-o, au'dis, au'-dit ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-di'-mus, au-dī'tis, au'di-unt.

I am heard.
S. au'di-or, au-di'-ris or -re, au-di'tur ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-di'-mur, au-dim'-í-ni, au-di-un'tur.

Imperfect.

I was hearing.
S. au-di-é-bam, au-di-ē'-bas, au-di-é-bat ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$ : au-die--bä'-mus, au-di-e-bā'tis, au-di-é'bant.

I was heard.
S. au-di-ē'bar, au-di-e-bā'-ris or -re, au-di-e-bā'-tur ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-di-e-bà'-mur, au-di-e-bam'-i-ni, au-di-e-ban'tur.

Future.

I shall or will hear.
S. au'-di-am, au'di-es, au'-di-et ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-di-è'-mus, au-di-é'tis, au'-di-ent

I shall or will be hcard,
S. au'di-ar, au-di-è'ris or -re, au-di-ē'tur ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-di-é'-mur, au-di-em'-ǐ-ni, au-di-en'-tur
active.
PASSIVE.

## Perfect.

I heard or have heard.
S. au-di'-vi, au-di-vis'ti, au-di'-vit;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-div'ĭ-mus, au-di-vis'-tis, au-di-vē'runt or -re.

I have been or was heard.
$S$. au-di'-tus sum or fu'-i, au-di'-tus es or fu-is'ti, au-di'-tus est or fu'tit ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-di'-ti su'-mus or fu'ti-mus, au-di'-ti es'-tis or fu-is'-tis, au-di'-ti sunt, fu-é-runt or -re

Pluperfect.

I had heard.
S. au-div'ē-ram, au-div-ĕ-ras, au-div'-è-rat ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-di-ve-rā'-mus, au-di-ve-rä-tis, au-div'-ĕ-rant.

I had been heard.
S. au-di'-tus e'-ram or fu'-è-ram, au-di'-tus e'-ras or fu'-ĕ-ras, au-di'-tus e'-rat or fu'-ě-rat ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-di'-ti e-rā'-mus or fu-e-rà'-mus, au-di'-ti e-rā'-tis or fu-e-rä'-tis, au-di'til e'rant or fu'-è-rant.

Future Perfect.

I shall have heard.
S. au-div'-ĕ-ro, au-div'ë-ris, au-div'ē-rit;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-dı-ver-1-1-mus, au-di-ver-i-i-tis, au-div'-ë-rint.

I shall have been heard.
S. au-di'tus e'-ro or fu'ē-ro, au-di'-tus e'-ris or fu'-ĕ-ris, au-dī-tus e'-rit or fu'-ě-rit ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-di${ }^{\prime}-\mathrm{ti}$ er'-1-mus or fu-er-1i-mus, au-di'-ti er-i-1-tis or fu-er-i-i-tis, au-di'-ti e'runt or fu'-ĕ-rint.

## SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.

I may or can hear.
S. au'-di-am, au'di-as, au'di-at;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-di-à̀-mus, au-di-ā'tis, au'di-ant.

I may or can be heard
S. au'di-ar, au-di- $\bar{a}^{\prime}-$ ris or $-r e$, au-di-ā'-tur;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-di- $\bar{a}^{\prime}-$ mur, au-di-am'-ĭ-ni, a.u-di-an'-tur
ACTIVE.
PASSIVE.

Imperfect.

1 might, could, would, or should hear.
S. au-di'-rem, au-di'-res, au-di'-ret;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-di-rē'-mus, au-di-ré'-tis, au-di'-rent.

I might, could, would, or should be heard.
S. au-di'-rer, au-di-rē'-ris or -re, au-di-rē'tur ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-di-rē'-mur, au-di-rem'-ī-ni, au-di-ren'-tur.

## Perfect.

I may have heard.
S. au-div'-ĕ-rim, au-div'-ĕ-ris, au-div'-ě-rit ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-di-ver'-ī-mus, au-di-ver'-1̈-tis, au-div'-ĕ-rint.

I may have been heard. S. au-di'tus sim or fu'-ĕ-rim, au-di'-tus sis or fu'-ĕ-ris, au-di'-tus sit or fu'-ĕ-rit;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-di'-ti si'mus or fu-er'-í-mus, au-di'-ti si'-tis or fu-er-1ì-tis, au-di'-ti sint or fu'-ĕ-rint.

## Pluperfect.

I might, could, would, or should have heard.
S. au-di-vis'-sem, au-di-vis'-ses, au-di-vis'-set ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-di-vis-sē'-mus, au-di-vis-ses'-tis, au-di-vis'sent.

I might, could, would, or should have been heard.
S. au-di'-tus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem, au-di'tus es'-ses or fu-is'-ses, au-di'-tus es'-set or fut-is'-set ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-di'-ti es-ses'-mus or fu-is-sḕ'-mus, au-di'-ti es-ses'-tis or fu-is-sē'ttis, au-di'-ti es'-sent or fu-is'-sent.

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

hear thou.
S. au'-di, or au-di'-to, au-di'-to;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-di'-te, or au-di-tō'te, au-di-un'to.
be thou heard.
S. au-di'-re, or au-di'-tor, au-di'-tor;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. au-dim'í-ni, au-di-un'-tor

ACTIVE.
PASSIVE.

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. au-di'-re, to hear.
Perf. au-di-vis'-se, to have heard.
Fut. au-di-tū'-rus es'-se, to be about to hear.

Pres. au-di'-ri, to be heard. Perf. au-di'-tus es'-se or fu is'se, to have been heard. Fut. au-di'-tum i'-ri, to be about to be heard.

## PARTICIPLES.

Pres. au'-di-ens, hearing. $\mid$ Perf. au-di'-tus, heard. Fut. au-di-tū'-rus, about to hear. Fut. au-di-en'-dus, to be heard.

GERUND.
G. au-di-en'-di, of hearing,
D. au-di-en'-do, \&c.

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

## SUPINES.

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

## Formation of the Tenses.

From the first root, aud, are From the second root, From the third derived,

Active. Passive.
Ind. pres. audio, audior,

Imperat. Inf. pres. Part. pres. Gorund.
audi, audìre, audìre, audìri, audiens,
audiendi.

| From the second root, audiv, are derived, | From the third root, audìt, are derived, |
| :---: | :---: |
| Ind. perf. $\begin{gathered}\text { Active. } \\ \text { audivi, }\end{gathered}$ | Passive. auditus sum, \&c. |
| - plup. audivěram, | auditus eram, \&c. |
| fut. perf. audiverro, | auditus ero, \&c. |
| Subj. perf. audivěrim, | auditus sim, \&c. auditus essem, \&c. |
| Inf. perf. audivisse. | auditus esse, \&c. |
| From the third root, |  |
| Inf. fut. auditürus esse, Part. fut. auditürus, | auditum iri, |
|  | ditus, |
| orm. Sup. auditum. | at. Sup. audit | Lat. Sup. auditu.

## DEPONENT VERBS.

$\$$ 161. Deponent verbs are conjugated like the passive voice, and have also all the participles and participial formations of the active voice. Neuter deponent verbs, however,
want the future passive participle, except that the neuter in dum is sometimes used impersonally.

The following is an example of an active deponent verb of the first conjugation :-

## PRINCIPAL PARTS.

 Mi'-ror, mi-rā'-ri, mi-rā̄-tus, to admire.indicative mood.
Pres. mi'-ror, mi-rā'-ris, \&c.
$I$ admire, \&c.
Fut. mi-rä'-bar, \&c.

Perf. mi-rä'-bor,
$I$ was admiring.
I shall admire.
lauc admired.
Plup. mi-rā'-tus e'-ram or fu'cee-ram, I had admired.
Fut. perf. mi-rā'-tus e'-ro or fu'-ĕ-ro, I shall have admured SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.
Pres. mi'rer, mi-rē'ris, \&c.
I may admire, \&c.
Imperf. mi-rā'-rer,
Perf. mi-ră'-tus sim or fu'-è-rim, I may have admired.
Plup. mi-rā'-tus es'-sem or fu-is'-sem, I would have admired

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

mi-rā̀-re, or mi-rä'-tor, admire thou, \&c.

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

Pres. mi-rä'rí,
Perf. mi-rä'-tus esse or fu-is'se,
Fut. act. mir-a-tū'rus es'se,
Fut. pass. mi-rā-'tum i'-ri,
to admire.
to have admired.
to be about to admire.
to be about to be admired.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. mi'-rans, Perf. mi-rā-tus, Fut. act. mir-a-tū'rus, Fut.pass. mi-ran'-dus,
admiring. having admired. about to admire. to be admired.

GERUND.
G. mi-ran'-di, of admiring, \&c.

SUPINES.
Former. mi-rā'-tum, to admire. -Latter. mi-rā̄-tu, to be admired

## Remarks on the Conjugations.

## Of the Tenses formed from the First Root.

§162. 1. A few words in the present subjunctive of the first and third conjugations, in the earlier writers, end in im; as, edim for edam, duim for dem (from an old form, duo), creduim and perduim for credam and perdam. This was retained as the regular form in $\operatorname{sim}$ and velim, from sum and volo, and in their compounds.
2. The imperfect indicative in the fourth conjugation, sometimes, especially in the more ancient writers, ends in ibam and ibar, for iēbam and iēbar, and the future in ibo and ibor, for iam and iar; as, vestīuam, largībar, for vestiēbam, largièbar; scibo, opperībor, for sciam, opperiar. Ibam and ibor were retained as the regular forms of eo, queo, and nequeo § 182.
3. The termination re, in the second person singular of the passive voice, is rare in the present, but common in the other simple tenses.
4. The imperatives of dico, duco, facio, and fero, are usually written dic, $d u c, f a c$, and $f e r$; in like manner their compounds, except those compounds of facio which change $a$ into $i$. Scio has not sci, but scito.
5. In the second person of the imperative passive, an ancient form in mino in the singular, and minor in the plural, is very rarely found; as, fum̌no for fare, progredimðnor for progredim̌̌ni.
6. The syllable er was often addec to the present infinitive passive by the early poets; as, amarier for amäri, dicier for dici.

## Of the Tenses formed from the Second Root.

7. When the second root ends in $v$, a syncopation often occurs in the tenses formed from it, by omitting $v$, with the first vowel of the termination, when followed, in the fourth conjugation, by $s$, and in the other conjugations, by $s$ or $r$; as, audissem for audivissem, amasti for anuavisti, implérunt for implevērunt, nôram ànd nôsse for novĕram and novisse.

When the second root ends in iv, $v$ alone is often omitted; as, audiëro for audiverro; audiisse for audivisse.

When this root ends in $s$ or $x$, the syllables is, iss, and sis, are sometimes omitted in the termination of tenses derived from it ; as, evasti for evasisti, extinxti for extinxisti, divisse for divisisse; extinxem for extinxissem, surrexe for surrexisse ; accestis for accessistis, justi for jussisti. So fcxem for (fassissem,) fecissem.
S. In the third person plural of the perfect indicative active, the form in $\overline{\text { ere }}$ is less common than that in érunt, especially in prose.
9. Ancient forms of a future perfect in so, and a perfect subjunctive in $\operatorname{sim}$, sometimes occur. They may, in general, be formed by adding these 'erminations to the second root of the verb; as, recepso, emissim. But when the root ends in $x$, and frequently when it ends in $s$, only $o$ and $i m$ are added ; as, jusso, dixis. $V$, at the end of the root, is changed into $s$; as, levasso, locassim. $U$, at the end of the root, is changed into esso; as, habesso. Sometimes the vowel of the present is retained in these forms, though changed in the other parts derived from the second root; as, capso, faxo (facso), faxim (facsim).

Note. Faxo and faxim sometimes have the meaning of the future tense.
10. A future infinitive in sĕre is also sometimes found, which is formed by adding that termination to the second root, changing, as before, $v$ into $s$; as, impetrassĕre for impetratürus esse.

## Of the Tenses formed from the Third Root.

11. The supine in um, though called one of the principal parts of the verb, belongs in fact to very few verbs, the whole number which have supines not amounting to three hundred. The part called in dictionaries the supine in $u m$ must therefore, in most cases, be considered as the neuter gender of the perfect participle.
12. In the compound tenses of the indicative and subjunctive moods, the participle is always in the nominative case, but it is used in both numbers, and in all genders, to correspond with the number and gender of the subject of the verb; as, amātus, $-a,-u m$, est ; amãti, $-\infty,-a$, sunt, \&c.

Fui, fuĕram, fuĕrim, and fuissem, are seldom used in the compound tenses of deponent verbs, and not so often as sum, \&c., in those of other verbs, but they express more emphatically than the latter the completion of the action. In the pluperfect subjunctive, forem, \&c., for essem, \&c., are sometimes found.
13. The participles in the perfect and future infinitive, are used only in the nominative and accusative, but in all genders and in both numbers; as, amätus, $-a,-u m$, esse or fuisse ; amātum, $-a m,-u m$, esse or fuisse ; amāti, $-a,-a$, esse or fuisse ; amätos, $-a s,-a$, esse or fuisse ; and so of the others.

But these participles in this combination with esse, are sometimes used as indeclinable; as, cohortes ad me missum facias. Cic.

## Periphrastic Conjugations.

14. The participle in rus, joined to the tenses of the verb sum, denotes intention, or being upon the point of doing something. Hence arises what is called the periphrastic conjugation.
indicative.
amatūrus sum, amatūrus eram, amatūrus ero, amatūrus fui, amatūrus fuěram,

I am about to love. I was about to love. $I$ shall be about to love. I was or have been about to love. I had been about to love.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

amatūrus sim, I may be about to love. amatūrus essem, amatūrus fuĕrim, amatūrus fuissem,

I would be about to love. I may have been about to love. I would have been about to love

INFINITIVE.
amatūrus esso, to be about to love. amatūrus fuisse, to have been about to love.

Fuero is not found joined with the participle in rus.
15. The participle in $d u s$, with the verb sum, expresses necessity or propriety; as, amandus sum, I must be loved, or deserve to be loved. With the various moods and tenses of sum, it forms a second periphrastic conjugation;-thus:
amandus sum, amandus eram, amandus ero, amandus fui, amandus fuěram, amandus fuěro.
amandus sim, amandus essem, amandus fuěrim, amandus fuissem, amandus esse, amandus fuisse.

## Participles.

16. Neuter verbs, as they want the passive vorce, have usually only the participles of the active. Some of them, however, have perfect participles, of which a part are to be translated passively, others by past participles of English neuter verbs. Such are adultus, cessātus, clamātus, coaltitus, concrêtus, defectus, deflagrātus, emersus, errätus, interittus, obttus, occāsus, plačťus, redundātus, regnātus, requiētus, sudātus, suētus, triumphātus, ululātus, vigilätus.
The following perfect participles, from verbs which are sometimes active, are also translated by active participles:-ccenätus, having supped; potus, having drunk; pransus, having dined; and sometimes jurätus, having sworn.

Some neuter verbs, also, have future passive participles ; as, dormiendus, errandus, regnandus, vigilandus, \&c.

Note. Most passive participles of neuter verbs are indicated in the lists which follow.

For the active meaning of osus and its compounds, see § 183, 1.
17. The perfect participles of some deponent verbs have both an active and a passive sense; as, adeptus libertätem, having obtained liberty, or adeptâ libertāte, liberty having been obtained.

So abominätus, comitātus, commentātus, complexus, confessus, contestātus, detestātus, dignātus, dimensus, emensus, ementītus, emerìtus, expertus, exsecrātus, interpretātus, largītus, machinātus, meditātus, mercätus, metātus, oblītus, orsus, pactus, partītus, perfunctus, pollič̄tus, testātus, venerātus, ultus. The participle in dus, of dep. verbs is commonly passive.
13. The participles of neuter passive verbs have the signification of the active voice ; as, gavisus, having rejoiced. (See in lists.)

But ausus is used both in an active and passive sense; as, ausi omnes immāne nefas, ausōque potīti. Virg.
19. The genitive plural of participles in rus is seldom used, except that of futārus. Venturōrum is found in Ovid, Met. 15, 835.
20. In the third and fourth conjugations, the future passive participle sometimes ends in undus, especially when $i$ precedes. Potior has usually potiundus. In these conjugations the gerund also has sometimes undi, \&c.
21. Many present and perfect participles are compounded with in, sig-
nifying not, whose verbs do not admit of such composition; they thus become adjectives ; as, insciens, ignorant; imparātus, unprepared.
22. Participles, when they do not express distinctions of time, become adjectives, and as such are compared; as, amans, loving ; amantior, amantissimus. In some instances, they become substantives; as, prafectus, a commander.
Note. Many words derived from substantives, with the terminations of participles, âtus, $\overline{\text { undus, }}$, and ütus, are yet adjectives; as, alātus, winged; turritus, turreted, \&cc. See § 128, 7.

## General Rules of Conjugation.

§ 163. 1. Verbs which have $a$ in the first root have it also in the third, though it be changed in the second ; as, $f a$ cıo, factum ; habeo, habĭtum.
2. The connecting vowel is often omitted in the second root, and in such cases, if $v$ follows, it is changed into $u$. This happens in most verbs of the second conjugation.

Remark. Some verbs prefix to the second root their initial consonant, with the vowel which follows it, or with $e$; as, curro, cucurri; fallo, fefelli. This prefix is called a reduplication. Spondeo and sto lose $s$ in the second syllable, making spopondi and steti. For the verbs that take a reduplication, see $\oint \oint 165$, 168, and 171, Exc. 1, (b.)
3. Verbs which want the second root want also the third.
4. Compound verbs form their second and third roots like the simple verbs of which they are compounded; as, audio, audīvi, audītum; exaudio, exaudīvi, exaudītum.
Some compound verbs, however, are defective, whose simples are complete, and some are complete, whose simples are defective.

Exc. 1. Compound verbs omit the reduplication; but the compounds of do, sto, disco, posco, and some of those of curro, retain it.

Exc. 2. Verbs which, in composition, change $a$ into $e$ in the first root, (see $\S 189,2$, ) retain $e$ in the second and third roots of the compound; as, scando, scandi, scansum; descendo, descendi, descensum.

Exc. 3. When $a, a$, or $e$, in the first root of the simple verb, is changed in the compound into $i$, the same is retained in the second and third roots, in case the third root of the simple is a dissyllable; as, habco, habui, hab̌̆tum ; prohibeo, prohibui, prohibĭtum.

But if the third root is a monosyllable, the second root of the compound has usually the same vowel as that of the simple,
but sometimes changes $a$ or $e$ into $i$, and the third root has $e$; as, facio, feci, factum; conficio, confëci, confectum ; teneo, tenui, tentum; retineo, retinui, retentum; rapio, abripio, -rip, -rept.

Note. The compounds of cado, ago, frango, pango, and tango, retain $a$, and those of salio retain $u$, in the third root.

Exc. 4. Compounds of pario, and some of do and cubo, are of different conjugations from their simple verbs.

A few other exceptions will be noticed in the following lists.

## Formation of Second and Third Roots.

## FIRST CONJUGATION.

§ 164. In regular verbs of this conjugation, the second root ends in $\bar{a} v$, and the third in $\bar{a} t$; as, amo, amāvi, amātum. The following list contains such regular verbs of this conjugation as are of most frequent occurrence.

Note. In this and the subsequent lists, those verbs which are marked * are said to have no perfect participle; those marked t to have no present participle. A dash (一) after the present, denotes that there is no second root. The participles in rus and $d u s$, and the supines in $u m$ and $u$ which are in use, are indicated respectively by the letters $r ., d ., m$., and $u$. Abundo, for example, has no perfect participle, no supine, no participle in dus; but it has a present participle, and a participle in rus.

In the lists of irregular verbs, those compounds only are given, whose conjugation differs from that of their simples.

When $p$. is subjoined to a deponent verb, it denotes that some of the parts which have commonly an active meaning, are used either actively and passively, or passively alone. Such verbs are by some grammarians called common.
*Abundo, r.to overflow.
Accūso, m. r. d. to accuse.
$\dagger$ Adumbro, to delineate.
Ædifǐco, r. d. to build.
$\not$ Æquo r. d. to level. $^{2}$
Esť̌mo, r. d. to value.
*Ambŭlo, m. d. to voalk.
Amo, r. d. to love.
$\dagger$ Amplio, d. to enlarge.
Appello, d. to call.
Apto, d. to fit.
Aro, r. d. to plough.
${ }^{*} \dagger$ Ausculto, to listen.
*tAutŭmo, to suppose.
$\ddagger$ Basio, 一, d. to kiss.
*Bello, m. r. d. to voage war.
$\dagger$ Beo, to bless.
"Boo, to bellow.
$\dagger$ Brevio, to shorten.
$\dagger$ Cæco, to blind.
$\dagger$ Cælo, to carve.
$\dagger$ Calceo, d. to shoe.
${ }^{*} \dagger$ Calcĭtro, to kick.
Canto, m. to sing.
Capto, m. r. d.tosieze.
$\dagger$ Castīgo, m. d. to chastise.
Celebro, d. to celelrate.
Celo, d. to conceal.
Cesso, d. to cease.
Certo, r. d. to strive.
Clamo, to shout.
Cogito, d. to think.
Comparo, d. to compare.
Concilio, r. d. to reconcile.
Considĕro, r. d. to consider.

Cremo, d. to burn. concrěmo, r.
$\dagger$ Creo, r. d. to create.
Crucio, d. to torment.
Culpo, r. d. to blame.
$\dagger$ Cuneo, d. to veedge.
Curo, r. d. to care.
Damno, m. r.d.to con demn.
Decŏro, d. to adorn.

*     + Delineo, to delineate

Desiděro, r. d. to desire.
Destǐno, d. to design.
Dico, m. r. d. to dedicate.
Dicto, to dictate.
$\dagger$ Dolo, to hew.
Dono, r. d. to bestozo.
Duplíco r.d. to double.

Duro，r．to harden．
$\dagger$ Effigio，to portray．
Equito，to ride．
$\dagger$ Enucleo，to explain．
Erro，to wander．
Existimo，u．r．d．to think．
Explōro，m．d．to search．
Exŭlo，m．r．to be ban－ ished．
Fabrico，d．to frame．
$\dagger$ Fatīgo，r．d．to weary．
Festīno，r．to hasten．
Firmo，r．d．to strengthen．
Flagito，m．d．to demand．
＊Flagro，r．to be on fire． conflagro，r． deflagro．
Flo，d．to blow．
Formo，r．d．to form．
Foro，d．to bore．
$\dagger$ Fræno，to bridle．
$\dagger$ Fraudo，d．to defraud．
$\dagger$ Frio，－，to crumble．
Fugo，r．d．to put to flight．
1 Fundo，r．to found．
$\dagger$ Furio，一，to madden．
$\dagger$ Galeo，一，to put on a helmet．
Gresto，d．to bear．
Glacio，一，to congeal．
Gravo，d．to weigh down．
Gusto，d．to taste．
Habĭto，m．d．to dwell．
＊Halo，－，to breathe．
Hiĕmo，m．to winter．
${ }^{*}$ Hio，d．to gape．
$\dagger$ Humo，r．d．to bury．
Jacto，r．d．to throw．
Ignōro，r．d．to be igno－ rant．
Impĕro，r．d．to com－ mand．
$\dagger$ Impetro，r．d．to obtain．
Inchoo，r．to begin．
－ndāgo，r．d．to trace out．
ndǐco，m．r．d．to showo．
$\dagger$ Inebrio，－，to inebri－ ate．
Initio，to initiate．
Inquinno，to pollute．
Instauro，d．to renew．
Intro，r．d．to enter．
Invīto，d．to invite．
Irrīto，r．d．to irritate．

Itĕro，u．d．to do again．
Judico，r．d．to judge．
Jugo，d．to couple．
Jugŭlo，m．d．to butcher．
Juro，d．to swear．
Labōro，r．d．to labor．
Lacěro，d．to tear．
＊Lacto，to suckle．
$\dagger$ Lanio，d．to butcher．
Latro，to bark．
Laudo，r．d．to praise．
Laxo，d．to loose．
$\dagger$ Lego，to depute．
Levo，r．d．to lighten．
Liběro，r．d．to free．
Libo，d．to pour out．
Ligo，to bind．
$\dagger$ Liquo，d．to melt．
Lito，to appease．
Loco，r．d．to place．
Lustro，d．to survey．
Luxurio，to abound．
Macto，d．to slay．
Macŭlo，to stain．
Mando，r．d．to command．
Mandūco，to chew．
${ }^{*}$ Mano，to flow．
Matūro，d．to ripen．
Memöro，u．d．to tell．
${ }^{*}$ Meo，to go．
${ }^{*}$ Migro，u．r．d．to depart．
＊Milito，m．r．to serve in war．
$\dagger$ Minio，d．to paint red．
Ministro，d．to serve．
Mitĭgo，d．to pacify．
Monstro，r．to show． tdemonstro，d．
Muto，r．d．to change．
Narro，r．d．to tell．
Nato，m．r．to swim．
$\dagger$ Navĭgo，r．d．to sail．
Navo，r．d．to perform．
＊Nauseo，to loathe．
Nego，m．r．d．to deny．
${ }^{*} \mathrm{No}$ ，to swim．
Nomĭno，r．d．to name．
Noto，d．to mark．
Novo，r．d．to renevo．
Nudo，d．to make bare．
Nuncŭpo，r．d．to name．
Nuntio，m．r．to tell． renuntio，d．
＊Nuto，r．to nod．
Obsecro，m．r．d．to beseech．
Obtrunco，r．to kill．
Oněro，r．d．to load．

Opto，d．to wish．
†Orbo，r．to deprive．
Orno，r．d．to adorn．
Oro，m．r．d．to beg．
Paco，d．to subdue．
Paro，r．d．to prepare．
Patro，r．d．to perform．
${ }^{*}$ Pecco，r．d．to sin．
$\dagger$ Pio，d．to propitiate．
Placo，r．d．to appeaso．
Ploro，m．d．to bewail．
Porto，u．r．d．to carry．
Postŭlo，m．r．d．to de－ mand．
Privo，d．to deprive．
Probo，m．u．r．d．to ap． prove． comprŏbo，m．
Profligo，d．to rout．
Propëro，d．to hasten．
${ }^{*}+$ Propiño，to drink to．
Propitio，d．to appease．
Pugno，r．d．to fight．
Pulso，d．to beat．
Purgo，u．r．d．to cleanse
Puto，d．to think．
Quasso，d．to shalie．
Radio，to emit rays．
Rapto，d．to drag．
Recupěro，m．r．d．to recover．
Recūso，r．d．to refuse．
Redundo，to overflow．
Regno，r．d．to rule．
$\dagger$ Repudio，r．d．to reject．
Reserro，d．to unlock．
＊+ Retalio，一，to retali－ ate．
Rigo，to water．
Rogo，m．r．d．to ask．
Roto，to whirl：
Sacrifĭco，m．to sacrifice．
Sacro，d．to consecrate．
$\dagger$ Sagino，d．to fatten．
Salto，r．to dance．
Salūto，m．r．d．to salute．
Sano，r．d．to heal．
Satio，to satiate．
$\dagger$ Satưro，to fill．
Saucio，d．to wound．
＊Secundo，to prosper．
Sedo，m．d．to allay．
Servo，r．d．to keep．
＊＋Sibillo，to hiss
Sicco，d．to dry．
Signo，r．d．to mark out．
assigno，m．

Simǔlo, r.d.to pretend. "Supplĭco, m. to sup-

Socio, d. to associate.
*Somnio, to dream.
Specto, m. r. d. to behold.
Spero, r. d. to hope.
*Spiro, to breathe.
conspiro.
exspiro, r.
suspiro, d.
Spolio, m. d. to rob.
spumo, to foam.
Stillo, to drop.
Stimŭlo, to goad.
Stipo, to stuff.
Sudo, to sweat.
Sufföco, to strangle.
Sugillo, d. to taunt.
Superro, r. d. to over-
come.
Suppedito, to afford.
plicate.
*Susurro, to whisper.
Tardo, to delay.
Taxo, d. to rate.
Temêro, d. to defile.
Tempěro, r. d. to temper.
obtempěro, r. to obey.
Tento, m. r. d. to try.
Terebro, to bore.
Terminno, r. d. to limit.
Titŭbo, to stagger.
Tolĕro, u. r. d. to bear.
Tracto, u. d. to handle.

*     + Tripudio, to dance.

Triumpho, r. to tri-
umph.
Trucīdo, r. d. to kill.
Turbo, d. to disturb.
*Vaco, to be at leisure.
*Vapŭlo, m. d. to be beaten.
Vario, to diversify.
Vasto, d. to lay waste.
Vellico, to pluck.
Verběro, r. d. to beat.
*Vestīgo, to search for.
Vexo, d. to tease.
Vibro, d. to brandish.
Vigilo, d. to watch.
Viölo, m. r. d. to violate.
Vitio, d to vitiate.
Vito, u. d. to shun.
Ulŭlo, to hovol.
Umbro, r to shade.
Voco, r. d. to call.
*Volo, to fly.
Voro, r. to devour.
Vulgo, r. d. to publish.
Vulněro, d. to wound.
§ 165. The following verbs of the first conjugation are .rregular or defective in their second and third roots :-
*Crepo, crepui, to make a noise.
*discrépo, -ui or -āvi.
ncrĕpo, -ui or -āvi,-ĭtum.or ătum,

* $\dagger$ percrĕpo, -.
*trecrěpo, -.
*Cubo, cubui, cubĭtum (sup.), to recline.
incŭbo, -ui or -āvi, d.
Those compounds of cubo which take m before b , are of the third conjugation.
Do, dedi, datum, m. r. d. to give.
So circumdo, pessumdo, satisdo, and venumdo; the other compounds of do are of the third conjugation.
Domo, domui, domĭtum, r.d. to tame.
Frico, fricui, frictum or fricātum, d. to rub.
confrico, 一, -ātum.
infrǐco, -, -ātum.
Juvo, juvi, jutum, r. d., also juvatūrus, to help.
So adjŭvo, -jūvi, -jūtum, m. r. d.
*Labo, -, to totter.
Lavo, lavi, lavātum, lautum or lotum ; (sup.) lautum or lavātum, lavaturrus, d. to wash.
Lavo is also sometimes of the third conjugation.
-Mico, micui, to glitter.
dimĭco, -āvi or -ui, r. (-atūrus).
*emíco, -ui, r. (-aturus).
*intermĭco,-.
*promíco,-, d.
Neco, necã vi or necui, necātum, r. d. to kill.
eněco, -āvi or -ui, -ātum, or -tum, d.
†interněco, -, -ātum.
${ }^{*}+$ Nexo, - to tie.
Plico, -, plicātum, to fold.
duplíco, -āvi, -ātum, r. d.
multiplîco and replĭco have -āvi, -ātum.
*supplĭco, -āvi, m. r.
applíco, -ãvi or -ui, -ātum or -ĭtum, -itưrus. So implĭco.
complĭco, -ui, -ĭtum or -ătum.
explĭco, -āvi or -ui, -ātum or -ĭtum, r. r.
Poto, potāvi, potātum or potum, r. r. m. m. d. to drink.
tepōto, -ă vi, -um.
*perpōto, -ă vi.
Seco, secui, sectum, secatürus d to cut.
*circumsěco, -.
*intersěco, -, d.
*persěco, -ui
præsěco,-ui, -tum or -ătum. So reséco, $d$.
"Sono, sonui, -aturus, d. to sound.
*consŏno, -ui. So ex-, in-, per-, præ-sǒno.
*resŏno, -ăvi.
*assŏno, -. So circumsŏno and dissơno.
"Sto, steti, staturus, to stand.
*antesto, -stěti. So circumsto, intersto, supersto.
*consto, -stĭti, -staturus. So Veto, vetui, or ãvi,vetĭtum, to forbid.
*presto, -stiti, -staturus, d.
*adsto, -stĭti, -stiturus.
*prosto, -stititi. So resto. [persto.
*disto,- So substo and su-
*Tono, tonui, to thunder. So circumtŏno.
attŏno, -ui, -ǐtum.
intǒno, -ui, -ātum.
*retŏno, -. exto, insto, obsto, persto.
§ 166. All deponent verbs, of the first conjugation, are regular, and are conjugated like miror ; as,

Abomĭnor, d. to abhor.
Adūlor, d. to flatter.
Amŭlor, d. to rival.
*Aprīcor, to bask in the sun.
Arbitror, r. d. to think.
Aspernor, d. p. to despise.
Aucŭpor, r. p. to hunt after.
Auxilior, p. to help.
Aversor, d. to dislike.
Calumnior, to calumniate.
Causor, to allege.
*Comissor, m. to revel.
Comitor, p. to accompany.
Conciōnor, to harangae.
*Confabŭlor, m. to discourse.
Conor, d. to endeavor.
$\dagger$ Conspicor, to see.
Contemplor, d. p. to viev.
Criminnor, m. p. to blame.
Cunctor, d. p.to delay.
Deprěcor, m. r. d. p. to deprecate.
${ }^{*}+$ Digladior, to fence.
Dignor, d. p. to think worthy.
Dominor, to rule.
Epŭlor, r. d. to feast.
*Famŭlor, in. to wait on.
Fatur, (defect.) u. d. to speak. See § 183, 6.
$\dagger$ Ferior, r. to keep holiday.
*Frumentor, m. to forage.
Furor, m. to steal.
Glorior, r. d. to boast.
Gratŭlor, m. d. to congratulate.
Hortor, d. to encourage.
Imĭtor, u. r. d. to imitate.
Indignor, d. to disdain.
Infitior, d. to deny.
Insector, to pursue.
Insidior, r. d. to lie in wait.
Jacŭlor, p. to dart.
Jocor, to jest.
Lætor, r. d. p. to rejoice.
Lamentor, d. p. to bewail.

* $\dagger$ Lignor, m. to gather fuel.
Luctor, d. to wrestle.
Medĭcor, r. d. p. to heal.
Medĭtor, p. to meditate.
Mercor, m. r. d. p. to buy.
Minor, to threaten.
Miror, u. r. d.to admire.
Misěror, d. to pity.
Modĕror, u. d. to rule.
Modŭlor, d. p. to modulate.
Moror, r. d. to delay.
$\dagger$ Mutuor, p. to borrow.
Negotior, r. to traffic.
*+Nugor, to trifle.
Obtestor, p. to beseech.
Opĕror, to work.
Opinor, u. r. d. to think.
Opitūlor, m. to help.

Opsōnor, m. to cater.
$\dagger$ Otior, to be at leisure.
Pabŭlor, m. d. to graze.
Palor, to wander.
Percontor,m. to inquire.
Periclĭtor, d. p. to try.
$\dagger$ Piscor, m. to fish.
Popŭlor, r. d. p. to lay waste.
Prædor, m. to plunder.
Prœlior, to fight.
Precor, m. u. r. d. to pray.
Recordor, d. to remember.
Rimor, d. to search.
Rixor, to scold.
*Rusticor, to live in the country.
Sciscitor, m. p. to inquire.
*Scitor, m. to ask.
Scrutor, p. to search.
Solor, d. to comfort.
Spatior, to walk about.
Specŭlor, m. r. d. to view.
$\dagger$ Stipŭlor, p. to stipulate.
$\dagger$ Suavior, d. to kiss.
Suspǐcor, to suspect.
Testor, d. p. to witness. So detestor.
Tutor, d. to defend.
Vagor, to wander.
Veněror, d. p. to worship.
Venor, m. to hunt.
Versor, to be employed.
Vocifëror, to bawol.

## SECOND CONJUGATION．

§ 16\％．Verbs of the second conjugation end in eo．The second and third roots，instead of $\bar{e} v$ and $\bar{e} t$ ，commonly end in $u$ and $\check{\imath} t$ ；as，moneo，monui，monĭtum．

The following list contains most verbs so conjugated，and also some which want the second and third roots ：－
＊Aceo，to be sour．
＊Albeo，一，to be white．
＊Arceo，d．to drive away． coerceo，d．to re－ strain．
exerceo，r．d．toexer－ cise．
＊Areo，to be dry．
＊Aveo，一，to covet．
＊Caleo，r．to be warm．
＂Calleo，－，to be hard．
＊percalleo，to be hardened．
＊Calveo，－，to be bald．
＂Candeo，to be white．
＊Caneo，to be hoary．
＊Careo，r．d．to want．
＂Ceveo，一，to fawn．
＊Clareo，to be bright．
＂Clueo，－，to be famous．
＂Denseo，－，to thicken．
＊Diribeo，一，to distri－ lute．
${ }^{*}$ Doleo，r．d．to grieve．
＊Egeo，r．to voant．
${ }^{*}$ Emineo，to rise above．
＊Flacceo，to wither．
＊Flaveo，－，to be yellow．
＊Floreo，to flourish．
＊Fæteo，一，to be fetid．
＂Frigeo，－，to be cold．
＊Frondeo，－，to bear leaves．
Habeo，r．d．to have．
So ad－，ex－，pro－hi－ beo．
cohibeo，d．to re－ strain．
inhibeo，d．to hinder．
${ }^{*}+$ perhibeo，d．to re－ port．
$\dagger$ posthabeo，to post－ pone．
prebeo，r．d．to af－ ford．
debeo，r．d．to ovee．
＊Hebeo，－，to be dull．
＊Horreo，d．to be rough．
＊Humeo，一，to be moist．
${ }^{*}$ Jaceo，r．to lie．
${ }^{*}$ Lacteo，－，to suck．
${ }^{*}$ Langueo，to languish．
＊Lateo，to lie hid．
${ }^{*}$ Lenteo，－，to be slow．
${ }^{*}$ Liceo，to be valued．
＊Liveo，－，to le livid．
＊Maceo，－，to be lean．
＊Madeo，to be wet．
Mereo，r．to deserve．
tcommereo，to de－ serve．
$\dagger$ demereo，d．to earn．
temereo，to merit．
＊tpermereo，to serve in war．
promereo，to deserve．
＊Mœreo，－，to grieve．
Moneo，r．d．to advise． admoneo，m．r．d．to admonish．
commoneo，to warn．
præmoneo，to fore－ varn．
＊Muceo，一，to be mouldy．
＊Nigreo，to be black．
＊Niteo，to shine．
Noceo，m．r．to hurt．
＊Oleo，to smell．
＊Palleo，to be pale．
＊Pareo，m．r．d．to obey．
＊Pateo，to be open．
Placeo，to please．
${ }^{*}$ Polleo，－，to be able．
＊Puteo，to be nauseous
＊Putreo，to be putrid．
＊Renideo，－，to glitter．
＊Rigeo，to be stiff．
＊Rubeo，to be red．
＊Scateo，－，to overflow．
＊Sileo，d．to be silent．
＊Sordeo，to be filthy．
＊Splendeo，－，to shine．
＊Squaleo，to be foul．
＊Strideo，－to creak．
${ }^{*}$ Studeo，d．to study．
＊Stupeo，to be amazed．
Taceo，r．d．to be silent．
＊Tepeo，to be varm．
Terreo，d．to terrify．
So deterreo，to deter． tabsterreo，to deter． tconterreo， to texterreo，$\}$ fright－ tperterreo，${ }^{\text {en．}}$ ＊Timeo，d．to fcar．
＊Torpeo，to be torpid．
＊Tumeo，to swell．
＊Valeo，r．to be able．
＊Vegeo，－，to be strong．
＊Vieo，一，to bind．
＊Vigeo，to be strong．
＊Vireo，to be green．
＊Uveo，－，to be moist．
§ 168．The following list contains those verbs of the sec－ ond conjugation which do not form their second and third roots in $u$ and $\bar{i} t$ ，including those which form them regularly in $\bar{e} v$ and $\bar{e} t$ ．

Note．Some verbs of this conjugation are irregular in the second and third roots，in consequence of imitating the common forms of the third conjugation．

Aboleo, -ēvi, -ìtum, r. d. to efface.
*Algeo, alsi, to be cold.
Ardeo, arsi, arsum, r. to burn.
Audeo, ausus sum,(ausi,rare, whence ausim, § 183, R. 1,) r. d. to dare.
Augeo, auxi, auctum, r. d. to increase.
[ware.
Caveo, cavi, cautum, m. d. to be-
Censeo, censui, censum, d. to think. recenseo, -ui, -um or -îtum. *percenseo, -ui. *succenseo, -ui, d.
Cieo, civi, citum, to excite. The perfect civi seems to come from cio, of the fourth conjugation.
Compleo, -ēvi, -ētum, to fill. So the other compounds of pleo.
*Conniveo, -nīvi, to wink at.
Deleo, -ēvi, -êtum, d. to blot out.
Doceo, docui, doctum, d. to teach.
*Faveo, favi, fautürus, to favor.
"Ferveo, ferbui, to boil. It is sometimes of the third conjugation.
Fleo, flevi, fletum, r. d. to weep.
Foveo, fovi, fotum, d. to cherish.
Frendeo, -, fressum or fresum, to gnash.
*Fulgeo, fulsi, to shine. Fulgo, of the third conjugation, is also in use.
Gaudeo, gavisus sum, r. to rejoice.
*Hæreo, hæsi, hæsurus, to stick.
Indulgeo, indulsi, indultum, r. d. to indulge.
Jubeo, jussi, jussum, r. d. to order .
${ }^{*}$ Luceo, luxi, to shine. polluceo, -luxi, -luctum.
*Lugeo, luxi, d. to mourn.
*Maneo, mansi, mansum, m. r. d.to remain.

Misceo, miscui, mistum or mixtum, mistürus, d. to mix.
Mordeo, momordi, morsum, d. to bite.-Remordeo, -di, -morsum, r. Moveo, movi, motum, r. d. to move. Mulceo, mulsi, mulsum, d. to soothe.
*Mulgeo, mulsi or mulxi, to milk.
Neo, nevi, netum, to spin.
*Paveo, pavi, d. to fear. [deo,-
*Pendeo, pependi, to hang. *impenpropendeo, -, propensum.
Pleo, (obsolete.) See compleo.
Prandeo, prandi, pransum, r. to dine.
Rideo, risi, risum, m. r. d. to laugh.
*Sedeo, sedi, sessum, m. r. to sit. The compounds change e into i . *dissideo, -sēdi. So presideo.
*Seneo, senui, to be old.
Soleo, solitus sum or solui, to be accustomed.
*Sorbeo, sorbui, to suck in. *absorbeo, -sorbui or -sorpsi.
Spondeo, spopondi, sponsum, to promise.
Suadeo, suasi, suasum, r.d.to advise.
Teneo, tenui, tentum, r. d. to hold. The compounds change e into i . *attĭneo, -tinui. So pertineo.
Tergeo, tersi, tersum, to wipe.
Tergo, of the third conjugation, is also in use.
Tondeo, 一, tonsum, to shear. The compounds have the perfect tondi.
Torquee, torsi, tortum, d. to twist.
Torreo, torrui, tostum, to roast.
*Turgeo, tursi, to swell.
*Urgeo or urgueo, ursi, d. to urge.
Video, vidi, visum, m. u. r. d. to see.
Voveo, vovi, votum, d. to vow.

## § 169. Impersonal Verls of the Second Conjugation.

Decet, decuit, it becomes.
Libet, libuit or libǐtum est, it pleases.
Licet, licuit or licĭtum est, it is lawoful.
Liquet, liquit, it is clear.
Misěret, miseruit or miserǐtum est, it pitzes.
Oportet, oportuit, it behoves.

Piget, piguit or pigǐtumest, d . $i t$ grieves.
Pœnĭtet, pœnituit, pœnitūrus, d. it repents.
Pudet, puduit or pudĭtum est, d. it shames.
Tædet, tæduit or tæsum est, it wearies.

So pertædet.

Note. Lubet, \&c., are sometimes written for libet, \&c., especially in the comic writers.

## § 170. Deponent Verbs of the Second Conjugation.

Fateor, fassus, r. d. to confess.
The compounds change a into i . confiteor, confessus, d. p. to acknozoledge.

*     + diffiteor, to deny.
profiteor, professus, d. p. to declare.
Liceor, licĭtus, to bid a price.
${ }^{*}$ Medeor, d. to cure.
Mereor, merĭtus, to deserve.
Misereor, miserítus or misertus, $t \iota$ pity.
Polliceor, pollicĭtus, p. to promise.
Reor, ratus, to think.
Tueor, tuĭtus, d. p. to protect.
Vereor, verĭtus, d. to fear.


## THIRD CONJUGATION.

§171. In the third conjugation, when the first root ends with a consonant, the second root is formed by adding $s$; when it ends with a vowel, the first and second roots are the same: the third root is formed by adding $t$; as, carpo, carpsi, carptum ; arguo, argui, argūtum.

In annexing $s$ and $t$, certain changes occur in the final consonant of the root:-

1. $C, g, h$, and $q u$, at the end of the root, form with $s$ the double letter $x$ in the 2 d root; in the 3 d root, $c$ remains, and the others are changed into $c$ before $t$; as, rego (regsi), rexi, rectum; veho, vexi, vectum; coquo, coxi, coctum.

Note. In fluo, fluxi, and struo, struxi, $h$ seems to have been lost in the root of the verb.
2. $B$ is changed into $p$ before $s$ and $t$; as, scribo, scripsi, scriptum.
3. $D$ and $t$, before $s$, are either dropped, or changed into $s$; as, claudo, clausi; cedo, cessi. After $m, p$ is sometimes inserted before $s$ and $t$; as, sumo, sumpsi. $R$ is changed to $s$ before $s$ and $t$ in gero and uro.

Some other consonants are dropped, or changed into $s$, in certain verbs
Exc. 1. Many verbs whose first root ends in a consonant, do not add $s$ to form the second root.
(a.) Of these, some have the second root the same as the first ; as, $\begin{array}{lllllll}\text { Bibo, } & \text { Excūdo, } & \text { Ico, } & \text { Mando, } & \text { Scabo, } & \text { Solvo, } & \text { Verro, } \\ \text { Edo, } & \text { Fodio, } & \text { Lambo, } & \text { Prehendo, } & \text { Scando, } & \text { Strido, } & \text { Verto, } \\ \text { Emo, } & \text { Fugio, } & \text { Lego, } & \text { Psallo, } & \text { Sido, } & \text { Tollo, } & \text { Volvo; }\end{array}$ to which add the compounds of the obsolete cando, fendo, and nuo.
(b.) Some make a change in the first root. Of these, some change a vowel, some drop a consonant, some prefix a reduplication, others admit two or more of these changes; as,

| Ago, | Facio, | Frango, <br> Capio, | Jacio, <br> Findo, | Rumpo, | Scindo, <br> Linquo, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sisto, |  |  |  |  |  |$\quad$ Vinco.

Those which have a reduplication are

| Cado, | Curro, | Parco, | Pendo, | Tango, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Cado, | Disco, | Pario, | Posco, | Tendo, |
| Cano, | Fallo, | Pello, | Pungo, | Tundo. |

Exc. 2. Some add $u$ to the root of the verb; as,

| Alo, | Consŭlo, | $\begin{array}{l}\text { Gemo, } \\ \text { Geno, }\end{array}$ (obs. $)$ | Rapio, <br> Strepo, | Tremo, <br> Volo, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Compesco, | Depso, <br> Fremo, | Molo, | Texo, | Vomo. |

Meto and pono add $s u$, with a change in the root.
Exc. 3. The following add $\tau v:-$

| Arcesso, | Cupio, | Lacesso, | Rudo, <br> Capesso, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Incesso, | Peto, | Quæro, with a change of r into s. |  |

Exc. 4. The following add $v$, with a change in the root; those in sco dropping sc :-

| Cresco, | Pasco, <br> Qusco, | Scisco, <br> Quiesco, | Lino, <br> Cerno, | Sino, <br> Sero, | Sterno, <br> Sperno, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Tero. |  |  |  |  |  |

Exc. 5. The 3d roots of verbs whose root ends in $d$ or $t$, add $s$, instead of $t$, to the root, either dropping those letters, or changing them into $s$; as, claudo, clausum; defcndo, defensum; cedo, cessum. But the compounds of do add $\boldsymbol{i t}$.

The following, also, add $s$, with a change of the root :-

| Excello, | Fallo, | Pello, | Spargo, | Verro. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Percello, | Mergo, | Premo, | Vello, |  |

Exc. 6. The following add $t$, with a change of the root:-
Cerno, Fingo, Gero, Sero, Sperno, Stringo, Uro,
Colo, Frango, Rampo, Sisto, Sterno, Tero, Vinco; to which add those in sco, with the 2 d root in $v$; these drop sc before $t$, except pasco, which drops $c$ only.

Exc.7. The following have rt :-

| Bibo, | Molo, | Pono, with a change of n into s. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Geno, (obs.) | Vomo, |  |

The following have $i t$ :-

| Arcesso, | Cupio, <br> Facesso, | Peto, <br> Lacesso, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Quæro, with a change of r into s. |  |  |

Some other irregularities occur in this conjugation.
§172. The following list contains both the regular and irregular formations of the second and third roots in the third conjugation :-

Acuo, acui, acūtum, d. to sharpen.
Ago, egi, actum, r. d. to drive.
So circumăgo, cogo, and perăgo.
*ambĭgo, -, to doubt. So satăgo. The other compounds change a into i. See § 189. 2.
"prodĭgo, -ęgi, to squander.
Alo, alui, alĭtum or altum, d. to nourish.
"Ango, anxi, to strangle.
Arguo, argui, argūtum, d. to convict. Arcesso, -cessīvi, -cessitum, r. d. to call for. Pass. inf. arcessīri or arcessi.
*Batuo, batui, d. to beat.
Bibo, bibi, bibitum, d. to drink.
*Cado, cecǐdi, casūrus, to fall. The compounds change a into i , and drop the reduplication.
occĭdo, -cǐdi, -cãsum, r. to set.
Cædo, cecīdi, cæsum, r. d. to cut. The compounds change $æ$ into I , and drop the reduplication.
From candeo, of the sccond conjugation, is formed
accendo,-cendi, -censum, d. to
kindle. So the other compounds.
*Cano, cecīni, d. to sing. The compounds change a into i .
*concĭno, -cinui. So occĭno, præcĭno.
*accĭno, -. So incĭno, intercĭno, succinno, recĭno.
*Capesso, -īvi, r. d. to undertake.
Capio, cepi, captum, r. d. to take.
The compounds change a into i .
Carpo, carpsi, carptum, d. to pluck.
The compounds change a into e .
Cedo, cessi, cessum, r. to yield.
Cello, (obsolete.)
excello,-cellui, -celsum, to excel.
*antecello, -. So præcello, recello.
percello,--cŭli, -culsum, to strike.
Cerno, crevi, cretum, d. to decree.
Cerno, to see, has no second or third root.
Cingo, cinxi, cinctum, d. to gird.
*Clango, -, to clang.
Claudo, clausi, clausum, r. d. to shut.
The compounds change au into $u$.
${ }^{*}+$ Clepo, clepsi, or clepi, to steal.
Colo, colui, cultum, d. to till.
toccŭlo, -cului, -cultum, d.to hide.
Como, compsi, comptum, to deck.
*Compesco, -pescui, to restrain.
Consŭlo, -sului, -sultum, m. r. d. to consult.
Coquo, coxi, coctum, m. d. to cook.
Credo, credídi, credĭtum, r. d. to believe.
*Cresco, crevi, to grow.
concresco, -crevi, -cretum.
Cubo is of the first conjugation.
*accumbo, -cubui, to lie down.
So the other compounds which
*Cudo, -, to forge. [insert m.
excūdo,-cưdi,-cūsum, d. to stamp.
Cupio, cupīvi, cupītum, d. to desire
*Curro, cucurri, cursūrus, to run.
Concurro, circumcurro, succurro, and transcurro, drop the reduplication; the other compounds sometimes drop, and sometimes retain it.
decurro, decurri, decursum.
*Dego, degi, d. to live. [take away. Demo, dempsi, demptum, r. d. to ${ }^{\text {tDepso, }}$ depsui, depstum, to knead. Dico, dixi, dictum, u. r. d. to say.
*Disco, didǐci, discitūrus, d. to learn.
*Dispesco, -, to separate.
Divĭdo, divīsi, divīsum, r.d.to divide.
Do is of the first conjugation.
abdo, -dǐdi, -dĭtum, d. to hide. So condo, indo.
addo, -dǐdi, -dĭtum, r. d. to add. So dedo, edo, prodo, reddo, trado, vendo.
$\dagger$ dido, -dĭdi,-dĭtum, to dioide. So abdo, subdo.
perdo, -dǐdi, -dǐtum, m.r.d. abscondo, -di or -dǐdi, -dǐtum or -sum. Duco, duxi, ductum, m. r. d. to lead. Edo, edi, esum, m. u. r. d. to cat. Exuo, exui, exūtum, d.to strip off.
Emo, emi, emptum, r. d. to buy.
Facesso, -cessi, -cessitum, to executc.
Facie, feci, factum, m. u. r. d. to do.
Compoundel with a preposition it changes a into i, and has a regular passive. Compounded with other words, it retains a when of this conjugution, and has the passive, fio, factus. See § 180.
Fallo, fefelli, falsum, d. to deccive.
*refello, -felli, d. to refute.
Fendo, (obsolete.)
defendo, -fendi, -fersum, m. u. r. d. to defend.
offendo, -fendi, -fensum, d. to offend.
Fero, tuli, latum, r. d. to bear. See § 179. A perfect tetŭli is rare. *suffëro, -.
Fido, 一, fisus, to trust. Sce § 162, 18. confído, confísus sum or confidi, to rely on.
diffìdo, diffīsus sum, to distrust.
Figo, fixi, fixum, r. to fix.
Findo, fidi, fissum, d. to cleave.
Fingo, finxi, fictum, d. to feign.
Flecto, flexi, flexum, r. d. to bend.
*Fligo, flixi, to dash. So confligo.
affligo, -flixi, -flictum, to a.flict. So infligo.
profligo is of the first conjugation.
Fluo, fluxi, fluxum, r. to flow.
Fodio, fodi, fossum, d. to dig.
Frango, fregi, fractum, r. d. to lreak.
The compounds change a onto i.
*Fremo, fremui, d. to roar.
Frendo, -, fresum or fressum, to gnash.
Frigo, frixi, frictum or frixum, to roast.
＊Fugio，fugi，fugitūrus，d．to Ree．
Fundo，fudi，fusum，r．d．to pour
${ }^{*}$ Furo，一，to rage．
＊Gemo，gemui，d．to groan．
Gigno，（obsolete geno，）genui，genĭ－ tum，r．d．to beget．
＊Glisco，一，to grow．
＊Glubo，一，to peel． deglābo，－，－gluptum．
Gruo，（obsolete．）
［ingruo． ＊congruo，－grui，to agree．So
Gero，gessi，gestum，r．d．to bear．
Jacio，jeci，jactum，d．to cast．The compounds change a into i ．
Ico，ici，ictum，r．to strike．
Imbuo，imbui，imbūtum，d．to imbue．
＂Incesso，－cessīvi，or－cessi to attack．
IInduo，indui，indatum，to put on．
Jungo，junxi，junctum，r．d．to join．
Lacesso，－cessīvi，－cessītum，r．d．to provoke．
Lacio，（obsolete．）The compounds change a into i ．
allicio，－lexi，－lectum，d．to allure． So illicio，pellicio．
elicio，－licui，－－licǐtum，to draw out．
Lædo，læsi，læsum，m．r．to hurt．The compounds change æ into i ．
＊Lambo，lambi，to lick．
Lego，legi，lectum，r．d．to read．So allĕgo，perlĕgo，præeľgo，relĕ－ go，sublĕgo，and translĕgo； the other compounds change e into i ．
dilĭgo，－lexi，－lectum，to love．
intelligo，－lexi，－lectum，u．r．d．to understand．
negligo，－lexi，－lectum，r．d．to neglect．
Lingo，－，linctum，d．to lick． ＊delingo，－
Lino，livi or levi，litum，d．to daub．
＊Linquo，liqui，d．to leave．
relinquo，－líqui，－lictum，r．d．
delinquo，－līqui，－lictum． derelinquo．
Ludo，lusi，lusum，m．r．to play．
＊Luo，lui，luiturrus，d．to atone． abluo，－lui，－lūtum，r．d． diluo，－Hui，－lūtum，d．So eluo．
Mando，mandi，mansunı，d．to chew．
Mergo，mersi，mersum，r．d．to dip．
Meto，messui，messum，d．to reap．
Metuo，metui，metūtum，d．to fear．
＂Mingo，minxi，mictum，（sup．）to make woter．
Minuo minui，mmütum，d．to lessen．

Mitto，misi，missum，r．d．to send．
Molo，molui，molĭtum，to grind．
Mungo，（obsolete．）
［wipe．
emungo，－munxi，－munctum，to
Necto，nexi，nexum，d．to kntt． innecto，－nexui，－nexum．So annecto，connecto．
＊Ningo or－guo，ninxi，to snow．
Nosco，novi，notum，d to learn． agnosco，－nōvi，－nĭtum，d．to recognize．
cognosco，－nōvi，－nĭtum，u．r．d． to know．
＊dignosco，－So prænosco． ignosco，－nōvi，－nōtum，d．to pardon．［m．r．to marry． Nubo，nupsi，or nupta sum，nuptum， Nuo，（obsolete．）．
＊abnuo，－nui，－nuitūrus，d．to re－ fuse．
＊annuo，－nui．So innuo，renuo．
Pando，一，passum or pansum，to open．So expando． dispando，一，－pansum
Pago，（obs．）pepigi，pactum，to bar－ gain．
Pango，panxi，pactum，panctürus，d． to drive in． compingo，－pēgi，－pactum．So impingo．

## ＊oppango，－pēgi．

＊depango，－．So repango，sup－ pingo．
＊Parco，peperci or parsi，parsurus， to spare．
Pario，pepěri，partum，paritưrus，d． to bring forth．The compounds are of the fourth conjugation．
Pasco，pavi，pastum，m．r．d．to feed
Pecto，－，pexum，and pectitum，d． to comb．
Pello，pepŭli，pulsum，d．to drive． Compounds not reduplicated．
Pendo，pependi，pensum，r．to weigh． The compounds drop the redupli－ cation．
Peto，petīvi，petītum，m．u．r．d．to ask．
Pingo，pinxi，pictum，to paint．
Pinso，pinsi，pinsitum，pinsum or pistum，to grind．
＊Plango，planxi，plancturus，to la－ ment．
Plaudo，plausi，plausum，d．to ap－ plaud．So applaudo．The other， compounds change au into o．
Plecto，－，plexum，d．to twine．
＊Pluo，plui or pluvi，to rain

Pono, posui, positum, r. d. to place.
Pono, and its compounds, ancient-
ly had posivi in the perfect.
*Posco, poposci, d. to demand.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Prehendo, } \\ \text { Prendo, }\end{array}\right\}$-di, -sum, r. d. to seize.
Premo, pressi, pressum, r. d. to press.
The compounds change e into i .
Promo, prompsi, promptum, r. d. to bring out.
*Psallo, psalli, to play on an instrument.
Pungo, pupŭgi, punctum, to prick. compungo, -punxi, -punctum. So dispungo, expungo. interpungo, -, -punctum. *repungo, -
Quæro, quæsīvi, quæsītum, m. r. d. to seek. The compounds change æ into i .
Quatio, -, quassum, to shake. The compounds change qua into $\mathrm{cu} ; a s$, concutio, -cussi, -cussum, d. discutio, -cussi, -cussum, r. d.
Quiesco, quiēvi, quiétum, r. d. to rest.
Rado, rasi, rasum, d. to shave.
Rapio, rapui, raptum, r. d. to snatch. The compounds change a into i .
diripio, -ripui, -reptum, m. r. So eripio and preripio.
Rego, rexi, rectuin, r. d. to rule. The compounds change e ir.to i .
"pergo (for perrigo), perrexi, r. to go forward.
surgo (for surrigo), surrexi, surrectum, r. d. to rise.
*Repo, repsi, to creep.
Rodo, rosi, rosum, r. to gnaw.
ab-, ar-, e-, ob-, pre-rōde want the perfect.
*Rudo, rudivi, to bray.
Rumpo, rupi, ruptum, r. d. to break.
Ruo, rui, rutum, ruitưrus, to fall.
diruo, -rui, -rŭtum, d. So obruo. *corruo, -rui. So irruo.
*Sapio, sapivi, to be wise. The compounds change a into i . resipio, -sipīvi or -sipui.

*     + Scabo, scabi, to scratch. [grave.

Scalpo, scalpsi, scalptum, to en-
Salo or sallo,--salsum, to salt.
"Scando, -, d. to climb. The compounds change a into e; as, ascendo, ascendi, ascensum, r.d.

Scindo, scidi, scissum, d. to cut.
Scisco, scivi, scitum, d. to ordain.
Scribo, scripsi, scriptum, r. d. to write.
Sculpo, sculpsi, sculptum, d. to carve.
Sero, sevi, satum, r. d. to sow.
consěro, -sēvi, -sittum. So insěro, r., and obsero.
Sero, 一, sertum, to knit. Its como pounds have serui ; as, assěro, -serui, -sertum, r. d.
*Serpo, serpsi, to creep.
*Sido, sidi, to settle. Its compounds have generally sedi, sessum, from sedeo.
*Sino, sivi, sitürus, to permit.
desĭno, desīvi, desitum, r.
Sisto, stiti, statum, to stop.
*absisto, -stititi. So the other compounds; lut circumsisto wants the perfect.
Solvo, solvi, solütum, r. d. to loose.
Spargo, sparsi, sparsum, r. d. to spread. The compounds change a into e.
Specio, (olsolete.) The compounds change e into i ; as, aspicio, aspexi, aspectum, d. to look at.
inspicio, inspexx, inspectum, r. d.
Sperno, sprevi, spretum,d. to despisc.
${ }^{*}+$ Spuo, spui, to spit. *respuo, respui, d.
Statuo, statui, statūtum, d. to place. The compounds change a into i .
Sterno, stravi, stratum, d. to strew.
*Sternuo, sternui, to sneeze.
*Sterto, -, to snore. *tdesterto, destertui.
*Stinguo, —, to extinguish. distinguo, distinxi, distinctum. So extinguo, r. d.
*Strepo, strepui, to make a noise.
*Strido, stridi, to creak.
Stringo, strinxi, strictum, r. d. to tie hard.
Struo, struxi, structum, d. to build.
Sugo, suxi, suctum, to suck.
Sumo, sumpsi, sumptum, r. d. to take.
Suo, -, sutum, d. to sew. So consuo, dissuo.
insuo, -sui, sưtum
*assuo, -.
Tango, tetĭgi, tactum, r. d. to touch. The compounds change a into i , and drop the reduplication. contingo, contĭgi, contactum. r.

Tego，texi，tectum，r．d．to cover． ＊Temno，－，d．to despise．
contemno，－tempsi，－temptum，d． Tendo，tetendi，tensum or tentum，to stretch．The compounds drop the reduplication；as， extendo，－tendi，－tensum or－ten－ tum．So in－，os－and re－ten－ do．
detendo has tensum．The other compounds have tentum．
＊†Tergo，tersi，tersum，to wipe．Ter－ geo，of the second conjugation，has the same second and third roots．
Tero，trivi，trituin，d．to rub．
Texo，texui，textuin，d．to weave．
Tingo or tinguo，tinxi，tinctum，r．d．
to tinge．
＊Tollo，tolli，d．to raise．
sustollo，sustŭli，sublātum，r．to take away．
＊attollo，－So extollo．
Traho，traxi，tractum，r．d．to draw． ${ }^{*}$ Tremo，tremui，d．to tremble．
Tribuo，tribui，tribūtum，r．d．to ascribe．
Trudo，trusi，trusum，to thrust．

Tundo，tutŭdi，tunsum or tusum，to beat．The compounds drop the reduplication，and have tusum． Yet detunsum，obtunsum，and retunsum，are also found．
Ungo，unxi，unctum，d．to anoint．
Uro，ussi，ustum，d．to burn．
＊Vado，－，to go．So supervādo．The other compounds have vāsi；as，
＊evãdo，evāsi，r．So pervãdo； also invādo，r．d．
Veho，vexi，vectum，r．to carry．
Vello，velli or vulsi，vulsum，d to pult．
So avello，d．，divello，evello，d．， revello，revelli，revulsum．
The other compounds have velli only，except intervello，which has vulsi．
＊Vergo，versi，to incline．
Verro，－versum，d．to brush．
Verto，verti，versum，r．d．to turn． See § 174 ，Note．
Vinco，vici，victum，r．d．to conquer． ＊Viso，一，d．to visit．
＊Vivo，vixi，victurus，d．to live．
Volvo，volvi，volūtum，d．to roll．
Vomo，vomui，vomítum，r．d．to vomit．

## Inceptive Verbs．

\＄173．Inceptive verbs in general want the third rooi， and their second root，when used，is the same as that of their primitives．Of those derived from nouns and adjectives，some want the secondroot，and some form it by adding $u$ to the root of the primitive．See § 187，II． 2.

In the following list，those verbs to which $s$ is added，have a simple verb in use from which they are formed：－
＊Acesco，acui，s．to growo sour．
＊Ægresco，to grow sick．
${ }^{*}$ Albesco，－，s．to grow white．
＊Alesco，－，s．to grow．
coalesco，－alui，－alitum，to growo together．
－Ardesco，arsi，s．to take fire．
＊Aresco，－，s．to grow dry． ＊exaresco，－arui．So inaresco， peraresco．
＊Augesco，auxi，s．to increase．
＊Calesco，calui，s．to grow warm． ＊Calvesco，一，s．to become bald．
＊Candesco，candui，s．to grow white． ＊Canesco，canui，s．to become hoa－ $r y$ ．
＊Claresco，clarui，s．to become bright．
＊Condormisco，－dormīvi，s．to go to sleep．
＊Conticesco，－ticui，to become silent．
＊Crebresco，－crebui and crebrui，to increase．
＊Crudesco，crudui，to become raw．
＊Ditesco，一，to grow rich．
＊Dulcesco，－，to grow sweet．
＊Duresco，durui，to grow hard．
＊Evilesco，evilui，to become woorth－ less．
＊Extimesco，－timui，to be afraid．
＊Fatisco，一，to gape．
＊Flacceseo，flaccui，s．to grow
weak
＊Fervesco，ferbui，s．to grow warm．
＂Floresco，florui，s．to begin to flour－ ish．
＊Fracesco，fracui，to growo mouldy．
＊Frigesco，－，s．to growo cold． ＊perfrigesco，－frixi．So refri－ gesco．
＊Frondesco，－，s．to put forth leaves．
＊Fruticesco，一，to put forth fruit．
＊Gelasco，－，s．to freeze． ＊congelasco，－ā vi，s．to congeal．
＊Gemisco，—，s．to groan．
＊Gemmasco，－，to bud．
＊Generasco，－，s．to be produced．
＊Grandesco，－，to grow large．
＊Gravesco，－，to grow heavy．
${ }^{*}$ Hæresco，hæsi，s．to adhere．
${ }^{*}$ Hebesco，－，s．to grow dull．
＊Horresco，horrui，s．to grow rough．
＊Humesco，－，s．to grow moist．
＊Ignesco，－，to talke fire．
＊Indolesco，－dolui，d．to be grieved．
＊Insolesco，－，to become haughty．
＊Integrasco，－，to be renewed．
${ }^{*}$ Juvenesco，－，to grow young．
＊Languesco，langui，s．to grow lan－ guid．
${ }^{*}$ Lapidesco，—，to become stone．
＊Latesco，－，to grow broad．
＂Latesco，latui，to le concealed．s．So delitesco，－litui；oblitesco，－litui．
${ }^{*}$ Lentesco，－，to become soft．
＊Liquesco，一，s．to become liquid． ＊deliquesco，－licui．
${ }^{*}$ Lucesco，luxi，s．to grow light．
${ }^{*}$ Lutesco，－，s．to become muddy．
${ }^{\text {＊}}$＊Macesco，－，s．$\}$ to grow lean． ＊remacresco，－macrui．
＊Madesco，madui，s．to grovo moist．
＊Marcesco，marcui，s．to pine avay．
＊Maturesco，maturui，to ripen．
＊Miseresco，miserui，s．to pity．
＊Mitesco，－，to grow mild．
＊Mollesco，－，to grow soft．
＊Mutesco，－，to become silent． ＊obmutesco，obmutui．
＊Nigresco，nigrui，s．to grow black．
＊Nitesco，nitui，s．to grow bright．
＊Notesco，notui，to become known．
＊Obbrutesco，－，to become brutish．
＊Obcallesco，－callui，to become cal－ lous．
＊Obdormisco，－dormīvi，s．to fall asleep．
＊Obsurdesco，－surdui，to grow deaf．
＊Olesco（scarcely used．）
abolesco，－olēvi，－olǐtum，s．to cease．
adolesco，－olēvi，－ultum，s．to growo up．
exolesco，－olēvi，－olētum，to grow old．So obsolesco．
＊inolesco，－olēvi，d．to incrcase．
＊Pallesco，pallui，s．to grow pale．
＊Patesco，patui，s．to be open．
＊Pavesco，pavi，s．to grow fearful．
＊Pertimesco，－timui，d．to fear greatly．
＊Pinguesco，一，to grow fat．
${ }^{*}$ Pubesco，－，to come to maturity，
＊Puerasco，－，to become a boy．
＊Putesco，putui，s．\} to become pu-
＊Putresco，putrui，s．$\}$ trid．
＊Raresco，－，to become thin．
＊Rigesco，rigui，s．to grow cold．
＊Rubesco，rubui，s．to grow red． ＊erubesco，－rubui，d．
＊Resipisco，－sipui，s．to recover wis－ dom．
＊Sanesco，一，to become sound． ＊consanesco，－sanui．
＊Senesco，senui，s．d．to grow old．So consenesco．
${ }^{*}$ Sentisco，sensi，s．to perceive．
${ }^{*}$ Siccesco，－，to become dry．
＊Silesco，silui，s．to grow silent．
＊Solidesco，－，to become solid．
＊Sordesco，sordui，s．to become filthy．
＊Splendesco，splendui，s．to become bright．
＊Spumesco，一，to foam．
＊Sterilesco，－，to become barren．
＊Stupesco，stupur，s．to be aston－ ished．
Suesco，suevi，suetum，s．to become accustomed．
＊Tabesco，tabui，s．to waste away．
＊Teneresco and－asco，to lecome tender．
＊Tepesco，tepui，s．to grow warm．
＊Torpesco，torpui，s．to grow torpid
＊Tremisco，tremui，s．to begin to tremble．
＊Tumesco，tumui，s．to be inflated．
${ }^{*}$ Turgesco，tursi，s．to swell．
＊Valesco，valui，s．to become strong．
＊Vanesco，一，to vanish． ＊evanesco，evanui．
＊Veterasco，veteravi，to grow old．
＊Viresco，virui，s．to growo green．
＊Vivesco，vixi，s．to come to lifc．
＊revivisco，－vixi．
＊Uvesco，一，to become moist

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

Apiscor, aptus, to get. The com- Nascor, natus, nasciturus, u. to be
pounds change a into i.
adipiscor, adeptus. So indipiscor. Expergiscor, experrectus, to awake. Fatiscor, i. The compounds change a into e .
Fruor, fruîtus or fructus, fruiturus, Fungor, functus, r. d. to perform. Gradior, gressus, to proceed. The compounds change a into e ; as, aggredior, aggressus, r.d.
*Irascor, to be angry.
Labor, lapsus, r. to fall.
*Liquor, to melt, flowo.
Loquor, locūtus, r. d. to speak.
Miniscor, (obsolete.)
comminiscor, commentus, p. to invent.
*reminiscor, to remember.
Morior, (mori, rarely morīri,) mortuus, moritūrus, d. to die.
Nanciscor, nactus or nanctus to obtain. born.
Nitor, nixus or nisus, nisūrus, to lean upon.
Obliviscor, oblìtus, d. to forget
Paciscor, pactus, d. to bargain. Compound depeciscor.
Patior, passus, r. d. to suffer. perpetior, -pessus.

From plecto, to twine, amplector, amplexus, d. p. to embrace. complector, complexus, p. So circumplector.
Proficiscor, profectus, r. to depart.
Queror, questus, m. u. d. to complain.
*Ringor, to grin.
Sequor, secūtus, r. d. to follow.
Tuor, tutus, to protect.
*Vescor, d. to eat.
Ulciscor, ultus, m. d. p. to avenge. Utor, usus, r. d to use.

Note. Devertor, prevertor, revertor, compounds of verto, are used as deponents in the present and imperfect tenses; revertor also, sometimes, in the perfect.

## FOURTH CONJUGATION.

§175. Verbs of the fourth conjugation regularly form their second root in $\bar{\imath} v$, and the third in $\bar{i} t$; as, audio, audivi, auditum.

The following list contains most regular verbs of this conjugation :-

Audio, -īvi or-ii, m. u. r. d. to hear.
*Cio, civi, to excite.
Condio, -ivi or-ii, to season.
Custodio, -ivi or -ii, d. to keep.
*Dormio, -ivi or -ii, m. r. d. to sleep.
Erudio, -Ivi or -ii, d. to instruct.
Expedio, -ivi or -ii, d. to disentangle.
Finio, -īvi or -ii, r. d. to finish.
*Gestio, -ivi or -ii, to desire.
Impedio, -īvi or -ii, r. d. to entangle. Insanio, -ivi or -ii, to be mad. Irretio, -ivi or -ii, to ensnare. Lenio, -ivi or -ii, d. to mitigate. Mollio, -īvi or -ii, d. to soften. *Mugio, -īvi or -ii, to bellow.

Munio, -Ivi or -ii, r. d. to fortify.
Mutio, -īvi, to mutter.
Nutrio, -ivi or -ii, d. to nourish.
Partio, -ivi or -ii, r. to divide.
Polio, -īvi, d. to polish.
Punio, -īvi or -ii, d. to punish.
Redimio, -īvi, to crown.
Sarrio, -ivi, d. to weed.
Scio,-1vi, u. r. to know.
Servio, -ivi or -ii, m. r. d. to serve.
Sopio, -ivi or -ii, to lull asleep.
Stabilo, -īvi or -ii, to establish.
Tinnio, -īvi or -ii, r. to tinkle.
Vestio, -ivi or -ii, to clothe.
§ 176．The following list contains those verbs of the fourth conjugation which form their second and third roots irregularly，and those which want either or both of them ：－

Amicio，－，amictum，d．to clothe．
＊Balbutio，－，to stammer．
Bullio，一，to loil．
＊Cæcutio，一，to be dim－sighted．
＊Cambio，一，to exchange．
＊Dementio，－，to le mad．
Effutio，－，to speak foolishly．
Eo，ivi or ii，itum，ar．d．to go．The com－ pounds have only ii in the perfect， except obeo，preeo，and subeo， which have ivi or ii．All the compounds want the supine and perfect particuples，except adeo， ambio，ineo，obeo，pretereo，sub－ eo，circumeo，redeo，and transeo．
Farcio，farsi，farctum，to cram．
Fastidio，－ii，－ītum，d．to disdain．
${ }^{*}$ Ferio，一，d．to strike．
＊Ferocio，－，to be fierce．
Fulcio，fulsi，fultum，d．to prop．
${ }^{*}$ Gannio，一，to yelp．
＊Glocio，－to cluck．
＊Glutio，glutii，to swallow．
＊Grunnıo，grunnii，to grunt．
Haurio，hausi，haustum，haustūrus， hausūrus，d．to draw．
＊Hinnio，一，to neigh．
＂Ineptio，－，to trifle．
＊Lascivio，lascivii，to be voanton．
＂Ligurio，ligurii，to feed delicately．
${ }^{*}$ Lippio，－，r．to be blear－eyed．
＊Obedio，obedii，r．to obey．
Pario is of the third conjugation， but its compounds are of the fourth．
aperio，aperui，apertum，r．d．to open．So operio，d．
comperio，compěri，compertum， to find out．So reperio，r．d．
Pavio，一，to beat．
＊Prurio，－，to itch．
Queo，quivi or quii，to be able．So nequeo．
＊Rugio，一，to roar．
Sævio，sævii，ìtum，r．torage．
＊Sagio，－，to foresee．
＊Salio，salui or salii，to leap．The compounds change a into i ．
＊absilio，－．So circumsilio．
＊assilio，－ui．So dissilio，insilio．
＊desilio，－ui or－ii．So exsilio，re－ silio，subsilio．
＊transilio，－ui or－ivi，d．So pro－ silio．
Sancio，sanxi，sancītum or sanctum， d．to ratify．
Sarcio，sarsi，sartum，d．to patch．
＊Scaturio，－，to gush out．
Sentio，sensi，sensum，r．to feel．
Sepelio，sepelīvi or－ii，sepultum，r．
d．to bury．
Sepio，sepsi，septum，d．to hedge in．
${ }^{*}$ Singultio，－，to sób．
＊Sitio，sitii，to thirst．
Suffio，－ii，－itum，d．to fumigate．
＊Tussio，－，to cough．
＊Vagio，vagii，to cry．
＊VVeneo，venii，r．to be sold．
Venio，veni，ventum，r．to come．
Vincio，vinxi，vinctum，r．d．to bind．

Note．Desiderative verbs want both the second and third roots，ex－ cept these three；－esurio，－ivi，r．to desire to eat；＊nupturio，－ivi，to desire to marry ；＊parturio，－ivi，to be in travail．See § 187，II． 3.
${ }_{a}$ This is the neuter gender of the perfect participle．

## § 177．Deponent Verbs of the Fourth Conjugation．

Assentior，assensus，r．d．p．to assent． Blandior，blanditus，to flatter．
Experior，expertus，r．d．to try．
Largior，largitus，p．to lavish．
Mentior，mentitus，r．to lie．
Metior，mensus，d．to measure．
Molior，molitus，d．to move a mass．

Opperior，oppertus or opperītus，d． to wait for．
Ordior，orsus，d．p．to begin．
Orior，ortus，oritürus，d．to spring up． Except in the present infinitive， this verb seems to be of the third conjugation．

Partior, partitus, d. to divide.
Potior, potitus, r. d. to obtain. The present indicative and imperfect
subjunctive are sometimes of the third conjugation in the poets. Sortior, sortitus, r. to cast lots.

## IRREGULAR VERBS.

§ 178. Irregular verbs are such as deviate from the common forms in some of the parts derived from the first root.

They are sum, volo, fero, edo, fio, eo, queo, and their compounds.
Sum and its compounds have already been conjugated. See § 153. In the conjugation of the rest, the parts which are irregular are fully exhibited, and a synopsis of the other parts is, in general, given. Some parts of volo and its compounds are wanting.

1. Volo is irregular only in the present indicative and infinitive, and in the present and imperfect subjunctive. .s.

It is made irregular partly by syncope, and partly by a change in the vowel of the root. In the present infinitive and imperfect subjunctive, after $e$ was dropped, $r$ was changed into $l$.

| Pres. Indic. Vo'-lo, | Pres. Infin. vel'-le, | Perf. Indic. $\mathrm{vol}^{\prime}-\mathrm{u}$-i, | to be willing, to wish. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

## INDICATIVE.

Pres. S. vo'-lo, vis, vult;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. vol'-ŭ-mus, vul'-tis, vo'-lunt.
Imperf. vo-lè'-bam.
Fut. vo'-lam.
SUBJUNCTIVE.
Pres. S. ve'-lim, $\mathrm{ve}^{\prime}$-lis, $\mathrm{ve}^{\prime}$-lit;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. ve-li'-mus, ve-li'-tis, ve'-lint.
Imperf. S. vel'-lem, vel'-les, vel'-let;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. vel-lé'-mus, vel-lè'-tis, vel'-lent.

INFINITIVE.
Pres. vel'le. Perf. vol-u-is'-se.

Perf. $\quad \mathrm{vol}^{\prime}-\mathrm{u}-\mathrm{i}$
Plup. vo-lừ-ě-ram.
Fut. perf. vo-lu'-ě-ro.

Perf. vo-lu'-ě-rim.
Plup. vol-u-is'-sem.
her ancient authors.
2. Nolo is compounded of non and volo. Non drops its final $n$, and volo its $v$, and the vowels ( 00 ) are contracted into $\bar{\sigma}_{0}$

| Pres. Indic. |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| No $\mathrm{o}^{-} \mathrm{lo}$, | Pres. Infin. <br> nol'-le, | | Perf. Indic. |
| :---: |
| nol'- -i , |$\quad$ to be unwilling.

INDICATIVE.

| Pres. S | S. no'-lo, non'-vis, non'-vult; | Perf. ${ }^{\text {nol' }}$-u-i. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\boldsymbol{P}$. nol'-ŭ-mus, non-vul'-tis, no'-lunt. | Plup. no-lu'-ě̌-ram |
| Imperf. | no-lè'-bam. | Fut. perf. no-lu'-è-ro. |
| Fut. | no'-lam. |  |
|  | SUBJUNCTIVE. |  |
| Pres. | S. $\mathrm{no}{ }^{\prime}-\mathrm{lim}, \mathrm{no}{ }^{\prime}$-lis, $\mathrm{no}^{\prime}$-lit ; | $\boldsymbol{P}$ erf. no-lu'-ě-rim. |
|  | $\boldsymbol{P}$. no-li'-mus, no-li'-tis, no ${ }^{\prime}$-lint. | Plup. nol-u-is'-sem. |
| Imperf. | S. nol'-lem, nol'-les, nol'-let; |  |
|  | $\boldsymbol{P}$. nol-le' -mus, nol-lé' -tis, nol'-lent. |  |

IMPERATIVE.
S. 2. no ${ }^{\prime}-\mathrm{li}$, or no-li'-to ; $\quad \boldsymbol{P}$. 2. no-li'-te, or nol-i-tö'-te.

INFINITIVE.
Pres. nol'-le.
Perf. nol-u-is'-se.

## PARTICIPLE.

Pres. no'-lens.

Note. Nevis and nevolt, for nonvis and nonvult, occur in Plautus.
3. Malo is compounded of magis and volo. In composition, magis drops its final syllable, and volo its $v$. The vowels ( $\breve{a} \check{o}$ ) are then contracted into $\bar{a}$.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic. ${ }^{\text {. }}$
$\mathrm{Ma}^{\prime}-\mathrm{lo} \quad \mathrm{mal}{ }^{\prime}-\mathrm{le}, \quad \mathrm{mal}^{\prime}-\mathrm{u}-\mathrm{i}, \quad$ to be more willing.

## INDICATIVE.

Pres. S. $\mathrm{ma}^{\prime}-\mathrm{lo}$, $\mathrm{ma}^{\prime}$-vis, $\mathrm{ma}^{\prime}$-vult;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. mal'-ŭ-mus, ma-vul'-tis, ma'-lunt.
Imperf. ma-lè'bam.
Fut. $\mathrm{ma}^{\prime}$-lam.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. S. $\mathrm{ma}^{\prime}$-lim, $\mathrm{ma}^{\prime}-\mathrm{lis}, \mathrm{ma}^{\prime}-\mathrm{lit}$;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. ma-li'-mus, ma-li'-tis, ma'lint.

Perf. mal'-u-i. Plup. ma-lu'-ĕ-ram. Fut. perf. ma-lu'-ĕ-ro.
$\boldsymbol{P}$ erf. ma-lu'-ě-rim.
Plup. mal-u-is'-sem.

Imperf. S. mal'-lem, mal'-les, mal'-let;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. mal-lè'-mus, mal-lè'-tis, mal'-lent.

## INFINITIVE.

$$
\text { Pres. mal'-le. } \quad \text { Perf. mal-u-is'-se. }
$$

Note. Maøŏlo, mavo̊lam, mavělim, and mavellem, for malo, malam. \&c., occur in Plautus.
\$179. Fero is irregular in two respects:-1. its second and third roots are not derived from the first:-2. in the present infinitive active, and in the imperfect subjunctive, and certain parts of the present indicative and imperative, of both voices, the connecting vowel is omitted. In the present infinitive passive, $r$ is doubled.

ACTIVE VOICE.
Pres. Indic. $\mathrm{Fe}^{\prime}$-ro, (to bear.) Pres. Infin. fer'-re,
Perf. Indic. tu'-li,
Supine Perf. Indic. tu'-li,
Supine.
la'-tum.

## PASSIVE VOICE.

Pres. Indic. fe'-ror, (to be borne.)
Pres Infin. fer'-ri,
Perf. Part. la'-tus.


Pres. fe'-ram.
Imperf. fer'-rem.
Perf. tu'-le-rim.
Plup. tu-lis'sem.

## IMPERATIVE.

S. fer, or fer'-to, fer'-to;
$P$. fer'-te, or fer-to ${ }^{\prime}$-te, fe-run'-to.

Pres. fer'-re.
Perf tu-lis'-se.
Fut la-tu'-rus es'-se.
SUBJUNCTIVE.

INFINITIVE.

## INDICATIVE.

Pres. S. fe'-ror, fer'-ris or -re, fer'-tur ;
P. fer'-i-mur,
fe-rim'-ī-ni,
fe-run'-tur.
Imperf. fe-rē'-bar.
Fut. fe'-rar.
Perf. la'-tus sum or fu'-i.
$P l u p . \quad$ la'-tus e'-ram or fu'-e-ram.
Fut. perf. la'-tus e'-ro or fu'-ě-ro.
Pres. fe'rar. Imperf. fer'-rer.
Perf. la'-tus sim or fu'-e-rim.
Plup. $\quad$ la'-tus es -sem or fu-is'sem.
S. fer'-re, or fer'-tor, fer'tor,
P. fe-rim'-ī-ni,
fe-run'-tor.

| Pres. fer'-ri. <br> Perf. la'-tus es'-se or fu-is'-se. <br> Fut. la'-tum i'-ri. |
| :---: |

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. fe'rens.
Fut. la-tu'-rus.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { GERUND. } \\
\text { fe-ren'-di; \&c. }
\end{gathered}
$$

Perf. la'-tus.
Fut. fe-ren'-dus.

Former. la'tum.
SUPINES.
§ 180. Fio has the meaning of the passive voice, though the parts formed from the first root, except the present infinitive 12*
and the participle in dus, have the terminations of the active. In its other parts, it has passive terminations. It is used as the passive voice of facio, which has no regular passive.

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Part.<br>Fi'-o, fi'ě-ri, fac'-tus, to be made or to become

## indicative.



## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. fi'am.
Imp. fi'-ĕ-rem.
Perf. fac'-tus sim or fu'-è-rim.

## IMPERATIVE.

S. fi or $\mathrm{fi}^{\prime}$-to, $\mathrm{fi}^{\prime}$-to ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. fi'te or fi-tō'-te, fi-un'-to.

Plup. fac'-tus $\mathrm{es}^{\prime}$-sem or fu-is'sem.

PARTICIPLES.
Perf. fac'-tus.
Fut. fa-ci-en'-dus.

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. fi'-ě-ri.
Perf. fac'-tus es'-se or fu-is'-se. Fut. fac'-tum $i^{\prime}$-ri.

Note. The compounds of facio which retain a, have also fio in the passive; as, calefacio, to warm; passive, calefio; but those which change $a$ into $i$ form the passive regularly. Yet confit, defit, and infit, occur. See § $183,12,13,14$.
§ 181. Edo, to eat, is a regular verb of the third conjugation; but in the present of the indicative, imperative, and infinitive moods, and in the imperfect of the subjunctive, it resembles, in some of its persons, the same tenses of sum.Thus,

Inf. pres. es'-se.
Ind. pres. pass. —, —, es'tur.
Note. In the present subjunctive, edim, edis, \&c., are found, for cdam, edas, \&c.

In the compounds of edo, also, forms resembling those of sum occur.
§ 182. Eo is irregular in the parts which, in other verbs, are formed from the first root, except the imperfect subjunctive,
and the present infinitive. In these, and in the parts formed from the second and third roots, it is a regular verb of the fourth conjugation.

Note. Eo has no first root, and the parts usually derived from that root, consist, in this verb, of terminations only.

| Pres. Indic. | Pres. Infin. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{E}^{\prime}-\mathrm{o}$, | Perf. Indic. <br> $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}-\mathrm{re}$, | Perf. Part. <br> $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-tum,$\quad$ to go. |

indicative.

| P | Fut. SS. ${ }_{\text {P }} \mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-bo, |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |
| $\boldsymbol{P}$. i-bà'-mus, i-bà'tis, | Plup. iv'eè-ram. |
| i'-bant. | Fut.perf.ıv'-ě-ro. |

SUBJUNCTIVE.
Pres. S. $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}$-am, $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}$-as, $\mathrm{e}^{\prime}-\mathrm{at}$;
Perf. iv'-è-rim.
P. e-à'-mus, e-à ${ }^{\prime}$-tis, é ${ }^{\prime}$-ant.

Plup. i-vis'sem.
Imperf. S. $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-rem, $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-res, $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-ret ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. i-ré'-mus, i -ré'-tis, $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-rent.

IMPERATIVE.
S. i or $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-to, $\mathrm{i}^{\prime}$-to ;
$\boldsymbol{P}$. i'-te or i-tō'-te, e-un'-to.

PARTICIPLES.
Pres. i'-ens, (gen. e-un'-tis.)
Fut. i-tü'rus.

## INFINITIVE.

Pres. i'-re.
Perf. i-vis'-se.
Fut. i-tü'-rus es'-se.
GERUND.
e-un'-di, \&c.

## Remarks.

1. Iam, ies, iet, are sometimes found in the future. Istis, issem, and isse, are formed by contraction for ivistis, ivissem, and ivisse. See § 162, 7.
2. In the passive voice are found the infinitive iri, and the third persons singular itur, ibātur, ibxtur, itum est, \&c.; eātur, irētur, eundum est, \&c., which are used impersonally.
3. The compounds of eo, including veneo, are conjugated like the simple verb, but most of them have $i i$ in the perfect rather than ivi. § 176. Adeo, anteeo, ineo, pratereo, subeo, and transeo, being used actively, are found in the passive voice. Iniétur occurs as a future passive of ineo. Ambio is regular, like audio, but has either ambībat or ambiēbat.

Quco and nequeo are conjugated like eo, but they want the imperative mood and the gerund, and their participles rarely occur. They are some times found in the passive voice, before an infinitive passive.

## DEFECTIVE VERBS.

§ 183. Defective verbs are those which are not used in certain tenses, numbers, or persons.

There are many verbs which are not found in all the tenses, numbers, and persons, exhibited in the paradigms. Some, not originally defective, are considered so, because they do not occur in the classics now extant. Others are in their nature defective. Thus, the first and second persons of many verbs in the passive voice must be wanting, from the nature of their signification.

The following list contains such verbs as are remarkable for wanting many of their parts :-

| Odi, Ihate. | 7. Quæso, I pray. | 12. Confit, it is done. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2. Cœpi, I have begun. | 8. Ave, \} hail. | 13. Defit, it is woanting. |
| 3. Memini, Iremember. | 9. Salve, $\}$ | 14. Infit, he begins. |
| 4. Aio, $\}$ I say | 11. Apage, begone. | 15. Ovat, he rejoics. |
| 5. Inquam, <br> 6. Fari, to speak. | 11. Cedo, tell, or give |  |

1. Odi, cœpi, and memĭni, are used chiefly in the perfect and in the other parts formed from the second root, and are thence called preteritive verbs :-Thus,

Ind. perf. $\mathrm{o}^{\prime}$-di or $\mathrm{o}^{\prime}$-sus sum ; plup. od'-e-ram; fut. perf. od'-e-ro.
Subj. perf. od'-ě-rim ; plup. o-dis'-sem. Inf. perf. o-dis'-se.
Part. fut. o-sū'-rus; perf. o'-sus.
Note. Exösus and perōsus, like osus, are used actively. Odivit, for odit, occurs in Cicero.
2. Ind. perf. cœ'-pi ; plup. cœе'-е-ram ; fut. perf. cœp'-ě-ro.

Subs. perf. cœp'-è-rim; plup. cœ-pis'-sem. Inf. perf. cœ-pis'-se. Раrt. $^{\text {fut. cœр-tū'-rus; perf. cœp'-tus. }}$
Note. In Plautus are found a present, copio, present subjunctive, copiam, and infinitive capĕ̌re. Before an infinitive passive, copptus est, \&c., rather than copi, \&c., are commonly used.
3. Ind. perf. mem'-ĭ-ni ; plup. me-min'-ě-ram ; fut. perf. me-min'-e-ro. Subs. perf. me-min'-ě-rim; plup. mem-i-nis'-sem.
Inf. perf. mem-i-nis'-se.
Imperat. 2 pers. me-men'-to, mem-en-tō-te.
Note. Odi and meməni have, in the perfect, the sense of the present, and, in the pluperfect and future perfect, the sense of the imperfect and future. In this respect, novi, I know, the perfect of nosco, to learn, agrees with odi and memnni. So also, consuevi, I am wont.
4. Ind. pres. ai'-o, ${ }^{*} a^{\prime}$-is, $\dagger$ a ${ }^{\prime}$-it; - , ail-unt. ${ }^{*}$
 SubJ. pres., ai'-as, ai'-at; $\quad, \quad$, ai ${ }^{\prime}$-ant.
Imperat. a'-i. Part. pres. ai ${ }^{1}$-ens.
5. Ind. pres. $\mathrm{in}^{\prime}$-quam or in'-qui-o,in'-quis,in'-quittin'-quǐ-mus, in'-quiltis, in'-qui-unt.
—imp. - ,, in-qui-e'-bat ; —, —, —.
— fut. ——, in'-qui-es, in'-qui-et; perf. , in-quis'-ti, in'-quit; —, —,
Subu. pres. $\quad$, , in'-qui-at;,-
Imperat. in'-que, in'-quĭ-to.

> 6. Ind. pres. $\quad$, fa'-tur ; fut. fa'-bor, $\quad$, fab'-i-tur.
> Imperat. fa'-re. Part. pres. fans; perf. fa'-tus; fut. fan'-dus.
> Infin. pres. fa'ri. Gerund, gen. fan'-di; abl. fan'-do. Supine,fa'-tu.
> In like manner the compounds affāri, effäri, and profäri.
> 7. Ind. pres. quæ'-so, —, quæ'-sit ; quæs'-ü-mus, —, —. Inf. pres. quæs'-è-re.
> 8. Imperat. a'-ve, a-vè'-to; a-vè'-te. Inf. a-vē'-re.
> 9. Ind. pres. sal'-ve-o. fut. sal-vē'-bis. Inf. pres. sal-vé-re. Imperat. sal'-ve, sal-vē'-to ; sal-vē'-te.
10. 1mperat. ap’-ă-ge.
11. Imperat. sing. and plur. ce'-do; pl. cet'-te for ced'-ì-te.
12. Ind. pres. con'-fit; fut. con-fi'-et.

Subs. pres. con-fī'-at ; imperf. con-fi'-è-ret. Inf. pres. con-fi'-ð-ri.
13. Ind. pres. de'-fit ; pl. de-fí'-unt. Subj. pres. de-fī'-at. Inf. pres. de-fi'-è-ri.
14. Ind. pres. in'-fit ; pl. in- $\mathrm{f}^{\prime}$ '-unt.
15. Ind. pres. o'-vat. Subj. pres. o'-vet; imperf. o-vă'-ret. Part. pres. o'-vans; perf. o-vä'-tus. Gerund, o-van'-di.

Remark 1. Among defective verbs are sometimes, also, included the following --Forem, fores, \&c., fore, (see §154, 3.) Ausim, ausit; ausint. Faxo and faxim, faxis, faxit, faximus, faxttis, faxint. Faxem. The form in $o$ is an old future perfect; that in im a perfect, and that in em a pluperfect, subjunctive. See § 162,9 .
2. In the present tense, the first person singular, furo, to be mad, and $d o r$ and $d e r$, from do, to give, are not used.
3. A few words, sometimes classed with defectives, are formed by contraction from a verb and the conjunction si; as, sis for si vis, sultis for si rultis, sodes for si audes.

## IMPERSONAL VERBS.

\$184. Impersonal verbs are those which are used only in the third person singular, and do not admit of a personal subject.

1. Their English is generally preceded by the pronoun it, especially in the active voice; as, delectat, it delights; decet, it becomes; contingit, it happens; cvĕnit, it happens; scribütur, it is written, \&c.

They are thus conjugated :-

Ind. Pres.
Imp.
Fut.
Perf. Plup. delectavěrat, Fut. perf. delectavěrit. delectat, delectābat, delectābit, delectax vit,

1 st Conj.
$2 d$ Conj. decet, decēbat, decēbit, decuit, decuěrat, decuěrit.
$3 d$ Conj. contingit, contingēbat, continget, contĭgit, contigĕrat, contigerit.

4th Conj. evěnit, eveniēbat, eveniet, evēnit, eveněrat, eveněrit.

|  | 1st Conj. | $2 d$ Conj. | 3d Conj. | 4th Conj. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| . P | , |  | contingat, |  |
| Imp. | d |  |  |  |
| Perf. | delectavěri | decuĕr decuiss | contigęrit, | $\mathrm{t},$ |
| $P_{r}$ | delectăre, delectavisse | decu |  | eventre, evenisse |

2. As the passive voice of an active verb may be substituted for the active, (see $\$ 141$, Rem.) so that of a neuter verb may be used in the third person singular, instead of the active form, the personal subject of the latter being put in the ablative with the preposition $a$ or $a b$; as, faveo tibi, I favor thee, or favētur tibi a me, thou art favored by me.

## Indicative Mood.

| Pres. | pugnătur, | favētur, | c | venītur, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Imp. | pugnabătur, | favebatur, | currebătur, | veniebātur, |
| Fut. | pugnabitur, | favebitur, | currētur, | veniētur, |
| Perf. | pugnătum est or fuit, | fautum est or fuit, | cursum est or fuit, | ventum est or fuit, |
| Plup. | pugnatum erat | fautum erat or | cursum erat | ventum erat or |
|  | or fuerat, | fuĕrat, - | or fuĕrat, | fuĕrat, |
| Fut | pugnătum erit or fuĕrit. | fautum erit or fuĕrit. | cursumerit or fuěrit. | ventum erit or fuĕrit. |
|  |  | Subjunctive | Mood. |  |
| Pres. | pugnetur, | faveatur, | currātur, | veniatu |
| Imp. | pugnarêtur, | faveretur, | currerētur, | venirētur, |
| Perf. | pugnatum sitor | fautum sit or | cursum sit or | ventum sit |
|  | fuerrit, | fuĕrit, | fuĕrit, | fuĕrit, |
| Plup. | pugnătum esset or fuisset. | fautum esset or fuisset. | cursum esset or fuisset. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ventum esset } \\ & \text { or fuisset. } \end{aligned}$ |
|  |  | Infinitive | Mood. |  |
| Pres. | pugnări, | favēri, | curri, | venīri, |
| Perf. | pugnătum esse | fautum esse | cursum ess | ventum esse or |
| Fut. | or fuisse | or fuisse, |  | fuisse, |

In like manner the neuter gender of the participle in dus, formed from neuter verbs, is used impersonally with est, \&c., in the periphrastic conjugation ; as, moriendum est omňbbus, all must die. See § 162, 15.

## Remarks.

1. Grammarians usually reckon only ten real impersonal verbs, all of which are of the second conjugation. (See § 169.) There seems, however, to be no good reason for distinguishing those from other impersonal verbs. The following are such other verbs as are most commonlv used impersonally -
(a.) In the first conjugation;-

Constat, it is evident. Juvat, it delights. Prestat, it is better. Restat, it remains.
(b.) In the second conjugation; Appāret, it appears. Attinnet, it belongs to. Debet, it ought. Displicet, it displeases. Dolet, it grieves.

Nocet, it is hurtful. Patet, it is plain. Pertĭnet, it pertains. Placet, it pleases.
(c.) In the third conjugation;-

Acci̛dit, it happens. Incr̆pit, it begins. Sufficit, it suffices.

Spectat, it concerns. Stat, it is resolved.
Vacat, there is leisure.

Creditur, it is believed. Desinĭtur, there is an end.

Certatur, it is contended.
Peccãtur, a fault is committed.

Solet, it is usual.
Fletur, there is roceping.
Persuadētur. (Sce above, 2.)

Mittitur, it is sent. Scribĭtur, it is woritten.
(d) In the fourth conjugation;-

Convěnit, it is agreed on. Expědit, it is expedient.

Aperītur, it is opened. Sentītur, it is meant.
(e) Among irregular verbs;

Abeundum est, it is ne- Fit, it happens.
cessary to depart.
Adītur. (See above, 2.)

Intěrest, it concerns. Obest, it is hurtful.

Prodest, it avails.
Refert, it concerns. Supěrest, it remains.
(f.) To these may be added verbs aignifying the state of the weather, or the operations of nature ; as,

Fulgŭrat, it lightens. Fulminnat, it thunders. Gelat, it freezes. Grandǐnat, it hails.

Lapidat, it rains stones.
Lucescit, it grows light.
Ningit, it snows.
Pluit, it rains.

Regĕlat, it thavos. Tonat, it thunders. Vesperascit, it approaches evening.
2. Impersonal verbs, not being used in the imperative, take the subjunctive in its stead ; as, delectet, let it delight. In the passive voice, their perfect participles are used only in the neuter.
3. Most of the impersonal verbs want participles, gerunds and supines; but panťtet has a present participle, futures in rus and dus, and the gerund. Pudet and piget have also the gerund and future passive participle.
4. Most of the above verbs are also used personally, but frequently in a somewhat different sense ; as, ut Tiběris inter eos et pons interesset, so that the Tiber and bridge were between them.

## REDUNDANT VERBS.

§ 185. Redundant verbs are those which have different forms to express the same sense.

Verbs may be redundant in termination; as, fabrĭco and fabrǐcor, to frame;-in conjugation; as, lavo, -äre, and lavo, -ĕre, to wash;-or in certain tenses; as, odi and osus sum, I hate.

1. The following deponent verbs, besides their passive form, have an active in 0 , of the same meaning. The latter, however, is, in general, rarely used.

Adūlor, to flatter.
Altercor, to iispute.
Amplexor, to embrace.
Assentior, to assent.
Aucŭpor, to hunt after.
Augŭror, to foretell.
Cachinnor, to laugh aloud.
Comitor, to accompany.

Cunctor, to delay. Depascor, to feed upon. Elucubror, to elaborate. Fabricor, to frame.
Frustror, to disappoint.
Frutǐcor, to sprout. Impertior, to impart. Lachry̆mor, to zoeep. Ludifícor, to ridicule.

Medĭcor, to heal.
Mereor, to descrve.
Metor, to measure.
Palpor, to caress.
Popŭlor, to lay vaste.
Ruminnor, to ruminate.
Velifĭcor, to set sail.
Vocifěror, to bawol.
Urinor, to dive.
2. The following verbs are redundant in conjugation:-

Cieo, -ēre, \} to excite. Fulgeo, -ēre, $\}$ to Strideo, -ēre, $\}$ to
Cio, -ïre, r. \} to excite. Fulgo, -ĕre, r. \} shine.

Ferveo, -ēre, $\}$ to
Fervo, -ëre, r. $\{$ boil.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Fodio, -ĕre, } \\ \text { Fodio, -ire, r. }\end{array}\right\}$ to dig.

Lavo, -ère, r. Lino,-ĕre, to to
Linio, -īre, r. \{ anoint.
Scateo, -ëre, \} to Scato,-erre, r. \} abound.

Strido, -ěre, $\}$ cralk.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Tergeo, -ēre, } \\ \text { Tergo, -ëre, }\end{array}\right\}$ to wipe.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Tueor, } \\ \text { Tuor, -i, ri, }\end{array}\right\}$ to protect.
Tuor,-i, r.
Those marked r. are rarely used.

Morior, orior, and potior, also, are redundant in conjugation in certain parts. See in lists §§ 174 and 177.
§186. 1. Some verbs, also, are spelled alike, or nearly alike, but differ in conjugation, quantity, pronunciation, or signification, or in two or more of these respects.

Such are the following:-
Abdǐco, -ăre, to abdi- Caneo, -êre, to be white. Consterno, -âre, to ter-
cate.
Abdīco, -ère, to refuse.
Accĭdo, -ĕre, to happen.
Accìdo, -ĕre, to cut short.
Addo, -ĕre, to add.
Adeo, -irre, to go to.
Aggĕro, -ăre, to heap $u p$.
Aggêro, -ĕre, to heap upon.
Allēgo, -ăre, to depute.
Allĕgo, -ëre, to choose.
Appello, -āre, to call.
Appello, -ĕre, to drive to.
Cădo, -ĕre, to fall.
Cædo, -ĕre, to cut.
Cēdo, -ĕre, to yield.
Calleo, -ēre, to be hot.
Calleo, -êre, to be hard.
Cano, -ěre, to sing.

Careo, -ēre, to want.
Caro, -ěre, to card wool.
Cēlo, -äre, to conceal.
Cælo, -āre, to carve.
Censeo, -êre, to think.
Sentio, -ire, to feel.
Claudo, -ěre, to shut.
Claudo,-ĕre, to be lame.
Collĭgo, -āre, to tie together.
Collĭgo, -ĕre, to collect.
Cōlo, -ăre, to strain.
Cőlo, -ĕre, to cultivate.
Compello, -āre, to accost.
Compello,-ěre, to force.
Concîdo, -ĕre, to chop off.
Concǐdo,-ĕre, to fall.
Conscendo, -ěre, to climb.
Conscindo, -ěre to cut in pieces.
rify.
Consterno, -ĕre, te strew over.
Decĭdo, -ěre, to fall down.
Decido, -ĕre, to cut off.
Decipio,-ёre, to deceive.
Desipio, -ëre, to dote.
Delĭgo, -arre, to tie up.
Delĭgo, -ěre, to choose
Dilĭgo, -ěre, to love.
Dīco, -ĕre, to say.
Dĭco, -ăre, to dedicate.
Édo, -ĕre, to eat.
$\overline{\mathrm{E}} \mathrm{do}$, -ëre, to pullish.
Edŭco, -ăre, to educate.
Edūco, -ěre, to dravo out.
Effëro, -arre, to make voild.
Effëro,-re, to carry out.
Excido, -ěre, to fall out.
Excīdo, -ere, to cut off.

Ferıo, -īre, to strike.
Fëro, -re, to bear.
Feerior, -arri, to keep holiday.
Frigeo, -êre, to be cold.
Frigo, -ěre, to fry.
Fugo, -ăre, to put to flight.
Fugio, -ěre, to fly.
Fundo, -āre, to found.
Fundo,-ĕre, to pour out.
Incǐdo, -ěre, to fall into.
Incido, -ěre, to cut.
Indǐco, -ăre, to show.
Indieo, -ĕre, to proclaim.
Inficio, -ěre, to infect.
Infitior, -āri, to deny.
Intercĭdo, -ěre, to happen.
Intercìdo, -ěre, to cut asunder.
Jaceo, -êre, to lie down:
Jacio, -ĕre, to throw.
Lăbo, -āre, to totter.
Läbor, -i, to glide.
Lacto, -are, to suckle.
Lacto, -ăre, to deceive.
Lègo, -äre, to send.
Légo, -ěre, to read.
Liceo, -ēre, to be lavoful.
Liceor, -êri, to bid for.
Liquo, -ăre, to melt.
Liqueo, -ēre, to be manifest.
Liquor, -i, to melt.
Măno, -ăre, to flow.

Măneo, -êre, to stay. Prædīco, -ĕre, to foreMando, -are, to command. tell.
Mando, -erre, to eat.
Mèto, -ěre, to reap.
Mētor, -ări, to measure.
Mêtior,-īri, to measure.
Mëtuo, -ěre, to fear.
Misěror, -ări, to pity.
Misěreor, -ëri, to pity.
Moror, -ari, to delay.
Morior, - i , to die.
Niteo, -ëre, to glitter.
Nitor, -i, to strive.
Obserro, -äre, to lock up.
Obsěro, -ěre, to sow.
Occǐdo, -ěre, to fall.
Occiddo, -ëre, to kill.
Operio, -ĕre, to cover.
Opěror, -āri, to work.
Opperior, -iri, to wait for.
Pando, -are, to bend.
Pando, -ěre, to open.
Păro, -ăre, to prepare.
Păreo, -êre, to appear.
Părio, -ěre, to bring forth.
Přio, -āre, to balance.
Pendeo, -êre, to hang.
Pendo, -ĕre, to weigh.
Percōlo, -āre, to filter.
Percŏlo, -ěre, to adorn.
Permăneo, -ēre, to remain.
Permāno, -āre, to flow over.
Prædĭco, -ăre, to publish.

Prōdo, -ěre, to betray.
Prödeo, -iire, to come forth.
Recēdo, -ěre, to retire.
Recĭdo, -ěre, to fall back.
Recìdo, -ĕre, to cut off.
Reddo, -ĕre, to restore.
Redeo, -ire, to return.
Refêro, -re, to bring back.
Refêrio, -īre, to strike back.
Relēgo, -ăre, to remove.
Relĕgo, -ěre, to read over.
Sēdo, -are, to allay.
Sĕdeo, -ēre, to sit.
Sido, -ěre, to sink.
Sěro, -ĕre, to sow.
Sěro, -ëre, to knit.
Succĭdo, -ĕre, to fall down.
Succīdo, -ěre, to cut down.
Vādo, -ëre, to go.
Vădor, -arri, to give bail.
Vēneo, -ire, to be sold.
Vĕnio, -ire, to come.
Vēnor, -ări, to hunt.
Vincio, -ire, to bind.
Vinco, -ĕre, to conquer.
Völo, -āre, to fly.
Völo, velle, to be willing.
2. Different verbs have sometimes the same perfect ; as,

Aceo, acui, to be sour. Luceo, luxi, to shine. Pasco, pavi, to feed.

Acuo, acui, to sharpen.
Cresco, crevi, to grow.
Cerno, crevi, to decree.
Fulgeo, fulsi, to shine.
Fulcio, fulsi, to prop.

Lugeo, luxi, to mourn.
Mulceo, mulsi, to soothe.
Mulgeo, mulsi, to milk.

Pendeo, pependi, to hang.
Pendo, pependi, to weigh.

To these add some of the compounds of sto and sisto.
3. Different verbs have sometimes, also, the same supine or perfect participle ; as,

Frico, frictum, to rub.
Frigo, frictum, to roast.
Maneo, mansum, to remain.
Mando, mansum, to chew.
Pango, pactum, to drive in.
Paciscor, pactus, to bargain.

Pando, passum, to open.
Patior, passus, to suffer.
Teneo, tentum, to hold.
Tendo, tentum, to stretch.
Verro, versum, to brush.
Verto, versum, to turn.

## DERIVATION OF VERBS.

§ 187. Verbs are derived either from nouns, adjectives, or other verbs.
I. Verbs derived from nouns or adjectives are called denominatives.

1. Those which are active are generally of the first conjugation ; those which are neuter of the second. They are usually formed by adding $o$ or $e o$ to the root ; as,

Actives from Nouns.
Armo, to arm, (arina.) Fraudo, to defraud, (fraus.) Nomino, to name, (nomen.)
Numěro, to number, (numěrus.)
$\mathcal{N}$ euters from $\mathcal{N}$ ouns.
Floreo, to bloom, (flos.)
Frondeo, to produce leaves, (fron Luceo, to shine, (lux.)
Vireo, to flourish, (vis.)

From Adjectives.

Albo, to whiten, (albus.)
Celebro, to celebrate, (celěber.)
Libero, to free, (liber.)

Albeo, to be white, (albus.)
Calveo, to be baild, (calvus.)
Flaveo, to be yellow, (flavus.)

Sometimes a preposition is prefixed in forming the derives tive ; as,
Coacervo, to heap together, (acer- Extirpo, to extirpate, (stirps.) vus.)

Illaqueo, to insnare, (laqueus.)
Excăvo, to excavate, (cavus.)
2. Many deponents of the first conjugation, derived from nouns, expres 3 the exercise of the character, ofice, \&c. denoted by t'ie primitive; as, architector, to build ; comytor, to accompany ; furor, to sleal; from architectus, comes, and fur.
3. Such as denote resemblance or imitation are cilled imitatives; as, cornicor; to imitate a crow, from cornix; Gracor, to imitate the Greeks. Some of these end in isso; as, patrisso, to imitate a father.
II. Verbs derived from other verbs are either frequentatives, inceptives, desideratives, diminutives, or intensíves.

1. Frequentatives express the frequent repetition of the action denoted by the primitive.

They are all of the first conjugation, and are formed from the third root. In verbs of the first conjugation, $\bar{u} t u$ is changed into $九$ ĭto, and rarely $u$ into $o$; as, clamo, to cry, (clamātu,) clamìto, to cry frequently; no, to swim, (natu,) nato. In verbs of the other three conjugations, $u$ is changed into $o$, rarely into $\mathfrak{z}$ to as, curro, to run, (cursu,) curso, or cursĭto, to run frequently.

[^15]Some frequentatıves are deponent; as, miňtor, from minor (minätu); versor, from verto (versu). So sector, loqǔtor, from sequor and loquor.

Verbs of this class do not always express frequency of action, but have sometimes nearly the same meaning as their primitives.
2. Inceptives, or inchoatives, mark the beginning, or increased degree of the action or state expressed by the primitive.

They all end in sco, and are formed by adding that termination to the root of the primitive, with its connecting vowel which, in the third conjugation, is $i$; as, caleo, to be hot; calesco, to grow hot.

So lalo, labasco ; ingěmo, ingemisco; obdormio, obdormisco. Hisco is contracted for hiasco, from hio.

Most inceptives are formed from verbs of the second conjugation.
Some inceptives are formed from nouns and adjectives, by adding asco or esco to the root; as, puerasco, from puer ; juvenesco, from juvénis.

Some inceptives have the same meaning as their primitives; as, adhcresco.

Note. Inceptives are all neuter, and of the third conjugation. See § 173
Some verbs in sco which are not inceptives are active ; as, disco, posco.
3. Desideratives express a desire of doing the act denoted by the primitive.
"They are formed from the third root, by adding ürio; as, cœno, to sup, (cœenāt,) cænaturio, to desire to sup.

Desideratives are all of the fourth conjugation. See § 176, Note.
Verbs in urio, having $u$ long, are not desideratives; as, prürio, decūrio.
4. Diminutives denote a feeble or trifling action. They are formed by adding illo to the root of the primitive; as, cantillo, to sing a little-from canto.

They are few in number, and are all of the first conjugation.
5. Intensives denote eager action. They are usually formed by adding so, esso, or isso to the root of the primitive; as, facesso, to act earnestly-from facio.

So capesso, inccsso, from copio and incēdo. Concupisco, to desire greatly, is also an intensive.

## COMPOSITION OF VERBS.

§ 188. Verbs are compounded variously :-

1. Of a noun and a verb; as, adifǐco, belligĕro, lucrifacio.
2. Of an adjective and a verb; as, amplifüco, multiplico, vilipendo.
3. Of two verbs; as, calefacio, madefacio, patefacio.
4. Of an adverb and a verb; as, benefacio, maledǐco, satăgo, nolo, neglĭgo.
5. Of a preposition and a verb; as, addūco, excŏlo, prodo, subrēpo, discerno, sjungo.
6. Of a preposition and a noun; as, pernocto, irretio.
\$189. In composition, certain changes often occur in the radical letters of the simple verb.
7. The following simple verbs in composition change $a$ into $e$ :

| Arceo, | Carpo, | Farcio, | Jacto, | Pario, | Patro, | Spargo, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Candeo, | Damno, | Fatiscor, | Lacto, | Partio, | Sacro, | Tracto. |
| Capto, | Fallo, | Gradior, | Mando, | Patior, | Scando, |  |

Exc. $A$ is retained in amando, pramando, desacro, and retracto; pra damno and pertracto sometimes also occur. $A$ is also changed into $e$ in depeciscor from paciscor, occento from canto, and anhēlo from halo; comperco also is found.
2. The following change $a, a$, and $e$, into $i$ :

| Ago, | Capio, | Habeo, | Pango, | Rego, | Statuo |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Apiscor, |  | Jacio, | Pla | Saino, (to leap,) |  |
| Cado, | Emo, | Lacio, | Prem | Sapio, | Ta |
| Cædo, | Fateor, | Lædo, | Quæro, | Sedeo, | T |
| Cano, | Frango, | Lateo, | Rapio, | Specio, |  |

Exc. $A$ is retained in circumăgo, perăgo, satăgo; antehabeo, posthabeo, depango, repango ; complaceo and perplaceo. Occăno and recăno also sometimes occur. E is retained in coèmo, circumsedeo, and supersedeo. Antecapio and antictpo are both used; so also are superjacio and superjicio.

Cogo and dego are formed, by contraction, from con, de, and ago ; demo, promo, and sumo, from de, pro, sub, and emo ; prebeo, and perhaps debeo, from pre, de, and habeo; pergo and surgo, from per, sub, and rego.

Note 1. Facio, compounded with a preposition, changes $a$ into $i$; as, afficio. Some compounds of facio with nouns and adjectives, change $a$ into $i$, and also drop $i$ before $\boldsymbol{o}$, and are of the first conjugation; as, significo, latifico, magnif rco. Specio forms some compounds in the same manner; as, conspricor and suspicor.

Note 2. Lego, compounded with con, de, di, e, inter, nec, and se, changes $\bullet$ into $i$; as, colligo, negltgo, \&c.; but with ad, pra, per, re, sub, and trans, it retains $e$; as, allégo.

Note 3. Caleo and salto, in composition, change $a$ into $u$; as, inculeo, insulto. Plaudo changes au into $\bar{o}$; as, explōdo; except applaudo. Audio changes au into ē in obedio. Causo, claudo, and quatio, $\operatorname{drop} a ;$ as, accūso, reclüdo, percutio. Juro changes $u$ into $e$ in dejěro and pejëro.

Note 4. The simple verbs with which the following are compounded are not used :-

| Defendo, | Impedio, | Confuto, | Instīgo, | Conniveo, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Offendo, | Imbuo, | Refüto, | Impleo, | Percello, |
| Ond |  |  |  |  |
| Experior, | Compello, (-arre, | Ingruo, | Compleo, | Induo, and some |
| Expedio, | Appello, (-ăre,) | Congruo, | Renideo, | Exuo, |
| others. |  |  |  |  |

For the changes produced in prepositions by composition with verbs: see § 196, I.

## PARTICLES.

\$190. 'The parts of speech which are not inflected, are called by the general name of particles. They are adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections. A word may sometimes belong to two or more of these classes, according to its connection.

## ADVERBS.

An adverb is a particle used to modify or limit the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb; as, benè et sapienter dixit, he spoke well and wisely; egregiè fidelis, remarkably faithful; valdè benè, very well.

Remark. The modifications of adjectives and verbs which are effected by adverbs, may also generally be made by means of the oblique cases of nouns and adjectives; and many modifications may be denoted by these, for expressing which no adverbs are in use. In general, those modifications which ire most common are expressed by adverbs. Thus, for cum sapientia, sapienter is used; hìc, for in hoc loco; lend, for in bono modo; nunc, for hoc tempore, \&c.

Adverbs are divided into various classes, according to the nature of the modification denoted by them; as adverbs of place, time, manner, \&c.
§ 191. The following lists contain a great part of the more common adverbs, except those which are formed, with certain regular terminations, from nouns, adjectives, and participles. These will be noticed subsequently.
I. Adverbs of Place and Order.

Alià, by another way. Alĭbi, elsewhere. Alicúbi, somewhere.
Alicunde, from some place.
Alio, to another place.
Alïquò, to some place.
Aliunde, from elsewhere.
Dehinc, henceforth.
Deinceps, successively.
Deinde, after that.
Denĭque, finclly.
Denuo, again.
Deorsum, dovonvard.
Dextrorsum, towards the right.
Eà, that wouy.

Eठ, to that place.
Eodem, to the same place.
Exinde, after that.
Foras, out of doors.
Foris, without.
Hàc, this way.
Hic, here.
Hinc, hence.
Huc, hither.
Horsum, hitherward.
Ibi, there. [place. Ibìdem, in the same
Illàc, that way.
Illic, there.
Illine, thence.
Illorsum, thitherioard. 1lloे, thither.

Illuc, thither.
Inde, then, thence.
Indǐdem, from the same place.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Intrò, } \\ \text { Introrsum, }\end{array}\right\}$ within.
Intus, within.
Istàc, that woay.
Istic, there.
Istinc, thence.
Istò,
Istuc, thither.
Necŭbi, lest any rohers.
Neutrò, neither way.
Nusquam, no where.
Porro, moreover.
Prorsum, forward.
Quà ? by wolich way?

Quò? whither?
Quorsum? whitherward?
Retro,
Retrorsum, backzoard.
Rursum,
Sicŭbi, if any where.
Sicunde, if from any
place.

Sinistrorsum, towards the left.
Sursum, upward.
Ubi? where?
Ubīque, every where.
Ubĭvis, any where.
Unde? whence?

Uspiam, $\}$ axy wherere. U trinque, on both sides. Utrò? which way? Utrŏbi ? in which place? Utrobīque, in both places.

Remark 1. Most adverbs of place which answer the questions where? whence? whither? by which way? and whitherward? have a mutual relation and resemblance:-Thus,

| Ubi? | Unde ? | Quà ? | Quà ? | Quorsum? |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Hic, | Hine, | Huc, | Hàc, | Horsum, |
| Illic, | Illinc, | Illuc, | Illàc, | Illorsum, |
| Istic, | Istine, | Istuc, | Istà | Istorsum, |
| Ibīdem, | Indídem, | Eödem, | Eadem, |  |
| Alĭbi, | Aliunde, | Aliò, | Alià, | Aliorsum, |
| Alicŭbi, | Alicunde, | Alĭquò, | Alĭquà, | Aliquovers |

Rem. 2. Hic, hinc, huc, refer to the place of the speaker; istic, istinc, istuc, to the place of the person addressed; and illic, illine, illuc, to that of the person or thing spoken of.

## II. Adverbs of Time.

Aliquando, sometimes.
Aliquoties, several times.
Bis, (see § 119,) twice.
Cras, to-morrow.
Cùm, when.
Demum, at length.
Diu, long.
Dudum, heretofore.
Heri, yesterday.
Hodie, to-day.
Identîdem, now and then.
Illĭco, immediately.
Interdum, sometimes.
Intěrim, in the mean time.
Itěrum, again.
Jam, now. Jamdiu, $\left.{ }_{\text {Jamdüdum, }}\right\}$ long ago.

Jamjam, presently.
Jamprīdem, long since.
Mox, immediately.
Nondum, not yet.
Nonnunquam, sometimes.
Nudius tertius, three days ago.
Nunc, now.
Nunquam, never.
Nuper, lately.
Olim, formerly.
Parumper, a little while.
Perendie, two days hence.
Postridie, the day after.
Pridem, heretofore.
Pridie, the day before.
Protǐnus, instantly.
Quamdiu? how long?

Quater, four times.
Quondam, formerly.
Quotidie, daily.
Quoties? how often?
Rarò, seldom.
Rursus, again.
Sæpe, often.
Semel, once.
Semper, always.
Statim, immediately.
Subinde, now and then, frequently.
Tamdiu, so long.
Tandem, at length.
Ter, thrice.
Toties, so often.
Tum, \} then.
Tunc, $\}$
Vicissim, by turns.
Unquam, ever.

Quando? when?
Rem. 3. Some adverbs are used to denote either place, time, or ordex according to the connection:-Thus,

Ubi may signify either where or when; inde, from that place or time; hactënus, hitherto, in regard to place or time.

Rem. 4. The interrogative adverbs, like the interrogative pronouns, are often used indefinitely; as, nescio ubi sit, I know not where he is.
(See § 137, Note.) They are made general by adding vis, libet, or que;
as, ubrvis, ubique, every where; undeľbet, from every where. The termination cunque is equivalent to the English soever ; as, ubicunque, wheresoever. The repetition of an adverb has sometimes the same effect; as, quoqud, whithersoever ; ubiŭbi, wheresoever.

## III. Adverbs of Manner, Quality, \&c.

Adeò, so, to such a pass. Admö́dum, very much. Alĭter, otherwise.
Certe, certainly.
Ceu, as, like as.
Cur? why?
D) untaxat, only, at least.

Etiam, truly, yes.
Fere, almost.
Ferme, almost, nearly.
Fortasse, perhaps.
Frustra, in vain.
Gratis, freely.
Haud, not.
Immo, yes, truly.
Ita, so.
Itǐdem, in like manner.
Juxta, alike.
Magis, more.
Modó, only.
$\mathrm{N} æ$, verily.
Ne, not.
Nedum, much less.
Nempe, to wit, truly.
Nequäquam, \} by no
Neutĭquam, $\}$ meuns.
Nimīrum, certainly.
Nimis, too much.

Nimium, too much.
Non, not.
Num? whether?
Omnino, altogether,only.
Palam, openly.
Parĭter, equally.
Parùm, little.
Paulatim, by degrees.
Paulò,
Paulùm, $\}$ a little.
Pæne, almost.
Penĭtùs, within, woholly.
Perquam, very much.
Plerùmque, for the most part.
Potiùs, rather.
Præsertim, especially.
Profectò, truly.
Propè, almost, near.
Propemŏdum, almost.
Prorsus, wholly.
Quàm, as.
Quamobrem, wherefore.
Quarè? why? wherefore?
Quasi, as if, almost.
Quemadmődum, as.

Quomǒdo? how? in what manner?
Sanè, truly.
Satis, enough.
Satiùs, rather.
Scilĭcet, truly.
Secus, otherwisc.
Seorsum, separately.
Sic, so.
Sicut,
Sicŭti, $\}$ as.
Sigillătim, one by one.
Simul, together.
Solùm, only.
Tam, so.
Tanquam, as if.
Tantùm, $\left.{ }^{\text {Tantummódo, }}\right\}$ only.
Unà, together.
Ut , as.
Uti, as.
Utíque,therefore, verily.
Utpôte, as, inasmuch as.
Valdè, very much.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Velut, } \\ \text { Velŭti, }\end{array}\right\}$ as, like as.
Videlícet, certainly.
Vix, scarcely.

Rem. 5. Adverbs denoting quality, manner, \&c., are sometimes divided into those of, 1. Quality ; as, benè, malè. 2. Certainty; as, certè, planè. 3. Contingence ; as, forte. 4. Negation; as, haud, non. 5. Prohibition; as, ne. 6. Swearing; as, hercle. 7. Explaining; as, videlicet, utpote. 8. Separation; as, seorsum. 9. Joining together; as, simul, unà. 10. Interrogation; as, cur ? quarè? 11. Quantity or degree; as, satis, aded. 12. Excess; as, valdê, max̌me. 13. Defect; as, parùm, pane. 14. Preference; as, potiius, satiìs. 15. Likeness; as, ita, sic. 16. Unlikeness; as, alxter. 17. Exclusion; as, tantùm, solùm.

## DERIVATION OF ADVERBS.

§ 192. Adverbs are derived from nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and participles.

## I. From nouns.

1. Of these a few end in im, and denote manner; as, gregätim, in herds ; membrätim, limb by limb ; partim, by parts; vicissim, by turns; from grex, membrum, pars, and vicis.
2. Some end in ìtus, and denote manner or origin ; as, celititus, from heaven; fundrtus, from the bottom; radicitus, by the roots; from colum, fundus, and radix.
3. Some are ablative cases of nouns used adverbially; as, modò, only ; vulgò, commonly.

## II. From adjectives.

1. Those which are derived from adjectives of the first and second declension, are generally formed by adding $e$ to the root; as,
agrè, scarcely ; altè, high ; liběrè, freely ; longè, far ; misĕrè, miserably; plene, fully; from ager, altus, liber, longus, miser, and plenus. Benè, well, is from bonus, or an older form benus.

navzter, actively; alyter, otherwise; antiqư̌tus, anciently; divinytus, divinely ; privātin, privately ; singulātim, severally; from navus, alius, antiquus, divīnus, privätus, and singūli.

Some adverbs are formed with two or more of the above terminations with the same meaning ; as, dure and durtter, harshly : so cautè and cau tim; humānè, humanťter, and humanttus; publicee and publicitus.
2. Adjectives of the third declension form adverbs by adding ǐter to the root, except when it ends in $t$, in which case $e r$ only is added; as,
acřter, sharply; feličter, happily; turpzter, basely ;-eleganter, elegantly ; prudenter, prudently ; from acer, felix, turpis, elegans, and prudens. From audux, comes by syncope audacter: from fortis comes forttter.

From omnis is formed omnĩno ; and from nequam, nequïìer.
3. From the cardinal numerals are formed numeral adverbs in ies; as,
quinquies, decies, from quinque and decem. So toties and quoties, from tot and quot. See § 119.
4. Some adverbs are merely certain cases of adjectives. Such are,
(a.) Ablatives in o or $a$; as, cito, quickly ; continud, immediately ; falso, falsely ; recta, straight on; und, together. In like manner, repenté, suddenly, from repens.
(b.) Nominatives or accusatives neuter, in the singular, and sometimes in the plural; as, solim, only ; perfidum, perfidiously ; sublime, on high; facile, easily ; multa, much ; tristia, sadly.
(c.) From some adjectives of the first and second declension, chiefly ordinal adjectives, forms both in um and $o$ are used; as, primùm and primoे, first ; postrēmìm and postrēmd, finally.

Note 1. These adverbs are properly adjectives agreeing with some noun understood, either definite, as, recta, sc. vid, or indefinite. Those in $o$ are the most numerous. The plural forms occur chiefly in poetry.

Note 2. Some adjectives, from the nature of their signification, have no corresponding adverbs Of some others, also, none occur in the classics.
III. From the adjective pronouns are derived adverbs of place, \&c. (See § 191, Rem. 1.)
The ablative in $o$ is used to denote a place whither, instead of the accusative with a preposition; as, ed for ad eum locum ; and the ablative in $a$, to denote by or through a place ; as, ea; via or parte being understood.
IV. From participles are derived adverbs denoting manner. Those from present participles are formed by adding er to the root; those from perfects by adding $e$, and sometimes $i m$; as,
amanter, lovingly ; properanter, hastily ; from antans and propërans; docte, learnedly ; ornätè, elegantly ; raptim, by rapine; strictim, closely ; from doctus, ornätus, raptus, and strictus.

The ablative in $o$ of some perfect participles, like that of adjectives, is used adverbially ; as, auspicātò, auspiciously ; consultò, designedly.

Note. A few adverbs are derived from prepositions; as, clancülum, privately; from clam;-subtus, beneath; from sub.

## COMPOSITION OF ADVERBS.

## § 193. Adverbs are compounded variously :-

1. Of an adjective and a noun; as, postridie, magnopère, summopěre, multimŏdis, quotannis-of postěro die, magno opěre, summo opěre, multis modis, quot annis.
2. Of a pronoun and a noun; as, hodie, quare, quomordd-of hoc die, qut re, \&c.
3. Of an adverb and a noun; as, nudius, sapenuměro-of nunc dies, \&c.
4. Of a preposition and a noun; as, comǐnus, emĭnus, ilľico, obviam, postmŏdo, propediem-of con, e, and manus; in and loco; ob and viam, \&c.
5. Of an adjective and a pronoun ; as, aliōqui, ceterōqui-of alius, ceterus, and qui.
6. Of a pronoun and an adverb; as, aliquandiu, alicŭbi-of aliqzis, diu, and uli; neqüäquam-of ne and quisquam.
7. Of two verbs; as, ilicet, scilicet, videlǐcet-of ire, scire, vidère, and licet.
8. Of a verb and an adverb ; as, quolkbet, ubtivis, undelybet. So dein-ceps-from dein and capio.
9. Of a participle with various parts of speech; as, deorsum, dextrorsum, horsum, retrorsum, sursum-of de, dexter, hic, retro, super, and vorsus or versus.
10. Of two adverbs; as, jamdūdum, quousque, sicut.
11. Of a preposition and an adjective; as, denuo, imprimis-of de novo, in primis.
12. Of a preposition and a pronoun; as, quapropter, postea, interea, pre-terea-of propter que, post ea, \&c.
13. Of a preposition and an adverb; as, abhinc, adhuc, derepente, persape.

14．Of two or three prepositions；as，insŭper，proťinus，inde，dein， deinde，perinde．
15．Of a conjunction and an adverb as，necŭbi，sicŭbi－of $n e, s i$ ，and alicŭbi．

16．Of an adverb and a termination scarcely used except in composition； as，ilxdem，parumper，quandocunque， $\boldsymbol{\text { ¢ }}$ 位que，utcunque．

17．Of three different parts of speech；as，forsitan－of fors，sit，an ， quemadmŏdum，quamobrem，\＆c．

## COMPARISON OF ADVERBS．

§194．Adverbs derived from adjectives with the termina－ tions $e$ and ter，and most of those in $o$ ，are compared like their primitives．The comparative，like the neuter comparative of the adjective，ends in ius；the superlative is formed from the superlative of the adjective by changing $u s$ into $e$ ；as，
durè，duriùs，durissime ；fačlè，faciliùs，facilľmè ；acrı̌ter，acriùs，accr－ rïmè ；rarò，rariùs，rarisš̌mé ；matüè，maturiùs，maturisš̌mè or maturrĭmè．

Some adverbs have superlatives in o or $u m$ ；as，meritissìmò，plurǔmùm， primò or primùm，potissimùm．

If the comparison of the adjective is irregular or defective， that of the adverb is so likewise；as，
bene，meliùs，optǐme ；male，pejùs，pessǐmè ；parum，minùs，miň̆med ； multò or multùm，plùs，plurìmùm；一，prìus，primò or primìm；一，ociùs， ocissimè ；meř̌tó，一，meritissìmò ；satìs，satiùs，－．Magis，maximè， （from magnus，）has no positive；nuper，nuperrime，has no comparative． Prope，propius，prox̌me；the adjective propior has no positive．

Diu and sape，though not derived from adjectives，are yet compared；－ diu，diutius，diutissime ；sape，sapius，sapissĭme．A comparative tempe－ rius，from tempĕri or tempŏri，also sometimes occurs．So secus，secius．

Adverbs，like adjectives，are sometimes compared by prefix－ ing magis and maximè ；as，magis apertè，maxı̆mè accommodātè．

## PREPOSITIONS．

§ 195．A preposition is a particle which expresses the relation between a noun or pronoun and some preceding word．

Twenty－six prepositions have an accusative after them ：－
Ad，te，，ut，for，before．Circa，\} around, Erga, towards, opposite. Advers ss，${ }^{\text {against，}}$ Adversı． $\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{\}}$ towards． Ante，brfore．
Apud，at，with，among， before．

Circum，$\}_{\text {about．}}^{\text {ar }}$ Circǐter，about，near．
Cis，$\quad$ on this side， Citra，$\}$ woithout．
Contra，against，opposite．

Extra，without，beyond， besides．
Infra，under，beneath． Inter，between，among， $a t$ ，in time of．

Intra, within.
Juxta, near. Ob, for, on account of, before.
Penes, in the power of. Per, through, by,during. Ponè, lehind.

Post, after, since, be- Secundùm, according hind.
Preter, beyond, except, contrary to, lefore.
Prope, nigh, by, beside.
Propter, for, on account of, near.
to, along, next to, for.
Supra, above.
Trans, over, beyond.
Ultra, beyond.

Eleven prepositions have an ablative after them :-
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\mathrm{A} \\ \mathrm{Ab}, \\ \mathrm{Abs},\end{array}\right\}$ from, by, after.
Absque, woithout, but for.
Coram, before, in presence of.

Cum, with.
De, of, concerning, from, after, for.
E,$\}$ from, of, out of,
Ex, $\}^{\text {by }}$,for, since.
Palam, before, woith the knowoledge of.

Præ, before, for, on account of, in comparison of.
Pro, for, before, considering, according to. Sine, without.
Tenus, as far as, up to.

Five prepositions take after them sometimes an accusative, and sometimes an ablative :-

In, in, into. Sub, under, near. Super, above. Subter, under, boneath. Clam, without the knowledge of.
Remark 1. Prepositions are so called, because they are generally mlaced before the noun or pronoun whose relation they express. They sometimes, however, stand after it.

Rem. 2. $A$ is used only before consonants; $a b$ before vowels, and sometimes before consonants; abs before $q$ and $t$.
$E$ is prefixed only to consonants, $e x$ both to vowels and consonants.
Rem. 3. Versus, usque, and exadversus (-um) sometimes take an accusative, simul and procul, an ablative, and are then by some called prepositions. Secus, with an accusative, occurs in Pliny and Cato.

## PREPOSITIONS IN COMPOSITION.

§196. Prepositions are compounded with various parts of speech. In composition, they may be considered either in reference to their form, or their force.

1. Prepositions in composition sometimes retain their final consonants, and sometimes change them, to adapt them to the sounds of the initial consonants of the words with which they are compounded. In some words, both forms are in use; in others, the final consonant or consonants are omitted.
2. $A$, in composition, is used only before $m$ and $v$; as, amoveo, avello. $A b$ is used before vowels, and before $d, f, h, j, l, n, r$, and $s$; as, abjuro, abrögo, \&c. Abs occurs only before $c, q$, and $t$; as, abscondo, absque, alstineo: In asporto, $b$ is dropped; in aufero and aufugio, it is changed into $u$.
3. Ad often changes $d$ into $c, f, g, l, n, p, r, s, t$, before those letters respectively; as, accédo, affèro, aggredior, allégo, annitor, appōno, arrigo, asséquor, attollo. $D$ is usually omitted before $s$ followed by a consonant,
and before $g n$; as, aspergo, aspicio, agnosco, agnätus. Before $q, d$ is changed inte $c$; as, acquiro.
4. Circùm usually omits $m$ before a vowel ; as, circueo, circǔtus. It sometimes changes $m$ into $n$ before $d$; as, circundo.
5. Cum (in composition, com) retains $m$ before $b, m, p$; as, combrbo, committo, compōno: before $l, n, r$, its $m$ is changed into those letters respectively; as, colligo, connittor, corripio : before other consonants, it becomes $n$; as, condüco, conjungo, \&c. Before a vowel, $g n$ or $h, m$ is commonly omitted; as, coëo, coopto, cogo (com ago), cognosco, cohubǐto ; but it is sometimes retained; as, comędo, comes, comytor. In combunro, b is inserted.
6. Ex is prefixed to vowels, and to $c, h, p, q, s, t$; as, exeo, exigoo, excurro, exhileo, expedio, \&c. Before $f, x$ is changed into $f$; as, effèro : $s$ after $x$ is often omitted; as, exěquor. $E$ is prefixed to the other consonants; as, ebǐbo, edico, \&c. These, with the exception of $n$ and $r$, are also very rarely preceded by ex; as, exmoveo. $P$ is sometimes preceded by $c$; as, epōto.
7. In, before $b, m, p$, changes $n$ into $m$; as, imbuo, immitto, impōno: before $l$ and $r$, it changes $n$ into those letters respectively; as, illig go, irretio: before $g n, n$ is omitted; as, ignärus. In some compounds, in retains $d$ before a vowel, from an ancient form endu or indu; as, indāgo, indigeo, indolesco. So anciently enduperātor, or induperātor.
8. $O b$ changes $b$ into $c, f, g, p$, before those letters respectively; as, occurro, officio, ogganio, oppetto. In omitto, $b$ is dropped.
9. Per changes $r$ into $l$ in pellicio and pelluceo.
10. Pro sometimes takes $d$ before a vowel; as, prodeo, prodesse.
11. Sub sometimes changes $b$ into $c, f, g, m, p, r$, before those letters respectively; as, succēdo, suffèro, suggĕro, summoveo, suppľ̌co, surripio. Before $c, p$, and $t, b$ is sometimes changed into $s$; as, suscipio, suspendo, sustollo : it is omitted before $s$, followed by a consonant; as, suspicio.
12. Trans omits $s$ before $s$; as, transcendo: before other consonants, it often omits $n s$; as, trajicio, tramitto, trano, \&c.

The following words are called inseparable prepositions, because they are found only in composition :-

Amb, around, about.
Dis or di, asunder.

Red or re, again, back. $\quad \mathrm{Ve}$, not. Se, apart, aside.
12. Amb before a vowel is unchanged; as, ambarvãles, ambio, ambustus : before consonants, $b$ is omitted, and $m$, except before $p$, is changed into $n$; as, anfractus, anquīro, ampŭto.
13. Dis is prefixed to words beginning with $c, p, q, s, t$; as, discutio, dispōno, disquïro, dissěro, distendo: before $f, s$ is changed into $f$; as, différo : in dirǐmo, $s$ becomes $r$. Di is prefixed to the other consonants, and to $s$ when followed by a consonant; as, didūco, dimitto, distinguo, dispicio. But both dis and di are used before $j$ and $r$; as, disjungo, dijudǐco, disrumpo or dirumpo.
14. Red is used before a vowel or $h$; re before a consonant ; as, redămo, redeo, redhibeo, redtgo, redoleo, redundo;-rejicio, repōno, revertor. But red is used before do ; as, reddo.
15. Se and ve are prefixed without change ; as, secédo, secürus; vegrandis, vecors.
§ 197. II. Prepositions in composition usually add their own signification to that of the word with which they are united; but sometimes they give to the compound a meaning different from that of its simples. The following are their most common significations :-

1. $A$, or $a b$, away, from, down; entirely; un-. It sometimes denotes privation.
2. $A d$, to, toward ; at, by. It is sometimes augmentative, rarely inchoative.
3. Ambi, around, about, on both sides.
4. Circum, around, about, on all sides.
5. Contra, against, opposite.
6. De, off, away, through, over, down; entirely, completely; very, extremely. It denotes also the cessation or removal of the fundamental idea, and henee negation.
7. Dis, asunder, apart, in pieces, in two ; dis-, un-; very, greatly.
8. $E$, or ex, out, forth, away, upward ; utterly, completely, very. It sometimes denotes a negation of the principal idea.
9. In, in, on, at ; into, against. With adjectives, un-, in-, not. Some of its compounds have contrary significations, according as they are participles or adjectives.
10. Inter, between, among, at intervals.
11. $O b$, toward, against, at, before ; around.
12. Per, through, thoroughly, perfectly, quite, much, very.
13. Post, after, behind.
14. Pra, before. With adjectives, very, extremely.
15. Prater, past, by, beyond, besides.
16. Pro, before, forward, forth; for.
17. Re, again, against, back, re-, un-; greatly.
18. $S e$, without, aside.
19. Sub, under, from beneath, from below upwards; secretly, clandestinely ; somewhat, a little, rather.
20. Subter, beneath, under, from under, secretly, privately.
21. Super, above, over, left over, remaining.
22. Trans, over, across, through; beyond.
23. $V e$, not ; very.

Remark. Prepositions in composition seem often to add nothing to the signification of the words with which they are compounded.

## CONJUNCTIONS.

\$198. A conjunction is a particle which connects words or propositions.

The most usual conjunctions are,

Ac, and, as, than. Ideo, therefore.
An, whether.
Anne, whether.
Annon, whether or not.
At, ast, but.
Atque, and, as, than.
Atqui, but.
Attamen, yet.
Aut, either, or.
Autem, but.
Cetĕrùm, but, hovoever.
Cùm, quum, since.
Cùm...tum, both...and.
Dum, provided, while.
Dummŏdo, so that.
Enim, for.
Equĭdem, indeed.
Ergo, therefore.
Et, and.
Et...et, both...and.
Etiam, also.
Etiamsi, although.
Etsi, though.
'Idcirco, therefore.
Igĭtur, therefore.
Itaque, therefore.
Licet, though.
Modò, provided.
Nam, namque, for.
Ne , lest.
-Ne, whether.
Nec, neither, nor.
Necne, or not.
Neque, neither, nor.

Ni , nisi, unless.
Num, whether.
Quam, than.
Quamvis, although.
Quando, quandoquĭdem, whereas, since.
Quanquam, although.
Que...-que, both...and.
Quia, because.
Quin, but that.

Ne, Ni, $f$.-Quasi, as if.
Nec...neque, neither...nor. Sin, but if.

Neu, neither, nor, and not. Tamen, hovever.
Neu...neve, neither...nor. Tametsi, although.

Quippe, because.
Quc, in order that.
Quod, because.
Quoniam, since.
Quoque, also.
Sed, but.
Seu or sive, or.
Seu...sive, whether...or.
Si, if.-Quasi, as if.
Siquĭdem, if indeed, since.

Tametsi, although.
Tum...tum, both...and.
Ut , that.
Uti, that, to the end that
Utrùm, whether.
-Ve, either, or.
Vel, either, or.
Verò, truly.
Verùm, but.
Veruntaxmen, notwithstanding.

Conjunctions, according to their different significations, may be divided into the following classes :-

1. Copulatives, or such as connect things that are to be considered jointly; as, ac, atque, et, etiam, que, quoque, and the negative nec or neque.
2. Disjunctives, or such as connect things that are to be considered separately; as, aut, seu, sive, ve, vel, and the negative neve or neu.
3. Concessives, or such as express a concession; as, etsi, etiamsi, tametsi, licet, quanquam, quamois.
4. Adversatives, or such as express opposition; as, at, atqui, autem, cetërùm, sed, tamen, attămen, veruntämen, vero, verı̀m, $\sin$.
5. Causals, or such as express a cause or reason; as, en⿱̆m, etënim, nam, namque, quando, quandoquі̆dem, quia, quippe, quod, quoniam, quum or cùm, siqǔ̀dcm.
6. Illatives, or such as express an inference ; as, ergo, idcirco, ideo, igxtur, ilaque, proinde, quapropter, quare, quamobrem, quocirca.
7. Finsiss, or such as denote a purpose, object. or result; as, ne, quin, qud, quominus, ut, uti.

8 Conditionals, or such as express a condition; as, $s i, \sin , n i s i$ or $n i$, dummŏdo, or separately either dum or modó.
9. Suspensives, or such as express doubt; as, an, anne, annon, -ne, necne, num, utrum.

Remark 1. Ac rarely stands before vowels or $h$; atque chiefly before vowels, but also before consonants.

Rem. 2. The conjunctions -ne, -que, -ve, are not used alone, but are always annexed to some other word. They are called enclitics.

Rem. 3. Some words here classed with conjunctions are also used as adverbs, and many classed as adverbs are likewise conjunctions; that is, they at the same time qualify verbs, \&c., and connect propositions; as, Catëris in rebus, cum venit calamrtas, tum detrimentum accipǐtur; In other concerns, when misfortune comes, then damage is received.

Rem. 4. Conjunctions, like adverbs, are variously compounded with other parts of speech, and with each other; as, atque, idcirco, ideo, namque.

In some, compounded of an adverb and a conjunction, each of the simples retains its meaning, and properly belongs to its own class; as, etiam (et jam), and now ; ităque, and so; neque or nec, and not.

## INTERJECTIONS.

§ 199. An interjection is a particle used in exclamation, and expressing some emotion of the mind.

The most usual interjections are,

Ah! ah! alas!
Atat! ha! indeed!
Au! hush! whist!
Ecce! lo! behold!
Ehem! O strange!
Eheu! alas!
Eho! ehōdum! soho!
Eja! on!
En! lo! behold!
Eu! bravo!

Euge! woll done!
Evax! \} huzza!
Ha! ha! he! ha! ha!
Hei! woo! alas!
Hem! ho! hold! how!
lo! bravo!
Heu! voo! alas!
Heus! ho there! mark!
Hui! avoay! ho!

Io! huzza!
O! oh!
Oh! oh! alas!
Ohe! ho! hold!
Oi! hoy! alas!
Papæ! 0 strange!
Proh! oh! alas!
St! hush!
Væ! wo!
Vah!ha!alas! bravo!

Remark 1. An interjection sometimes denotes several different emotions. Thus, vah is used to express wonder, grief, joy, and anger.

Rem. 2. Other parts of speech may sometimes be regarded as interjections; as, pax! be still! So indignum, infandum, misěrum, miserab̌le, nefas, when used as expressions of grief or horror.

## SYNTAX.

\$200. Syntax treats of the construction of propositions, their connection and dependence.

A proposition is a thought expressed in words. It consists of a subject and a predicate.

The subject of a proposition is that of which something is affirmed.

The predicate is that which is affirmed of the subject.
Thus, in the proposition, Equius currit, The horse runs, equus is the subject, and currit is the predicate.

Note. The word affirm, as used by grammarians, must be understood to include all the various significations of the verb, as expressed in the different moods.

## SUBJECT.

\$201. I. The subject is either grammatical or logical.
The grammatical subject is either a noun, or some word standing for a noun. The logical subject consists of the grammatical subject, with its modifications.

Thus, Conscientia benè actæ vitæ est jucundisstma, The consciousness of a woell-spent life is very pleasant. Here conscientia is the grammatical, and conscrentia benè acte vita the logical, subject.

Notr. If the grammatical subject is not modified, it is the same as the logical subject.
II. The subject is also either simple or compound.

A simple subject is a single noun or word standing for a noun, either alone or variously-modified ; as,

Vita brevis est, Life is short. Longissima hominnis vita brevis est, The longest life of man is short. Fugaces labuntur anni.

A compound subject consists of two or more simple subjects, to which one predicate belongs; as,
Luna et stellæ fulgébant, The moon and stars were shining. Grammatĭce ac musice juncte fuérunt, Grammar and music were united.

Remark. Words are said to modify or limit others, when they serve to explain, describe, enlarge, restrict, or otherwise qualify their meaning.

## Modified Subject.

III. A grammatical subject may be modified or limited in different ways:-

1. By a noun in the same case, annexed to it for the sake of explanation or description; as,
Nos consŭles desŭmus, We consuls are remiss. Mucius augur multa narrävit, Mucius the augur related many things.
2. By the oblique case of a noun or pronoun to which the subject has some relation; as,

Amer multitudinnis commovētur, The love of the mulitude is excited, De victoriâ Cæsaris fama perfertur, A report of the victory of Casar is brought. Oppĭda sine prosidio, Towns without a garrison.
3. By an adjective, adjective pronoun, or participle ; as,

Fugit invĭda atas, Envious tıme flies. Ducit agm̌̆na Penthesilēa furens, Penthesilea raging leads on her troops.
4. By the relative qui and the words connected with it ; as,

Leve fit quod bene fertur onus, The burden which is well borne becomes light. Litërre, quas scripsisti, accepte sunt.

Remark 1. A noun or pronoun, in any case, may be modified in either of the ways above mentioned.

Rem. 2. An adjective modifying a noun may itself be modified :-
(1.) By an adverb; as,

Erat expectatio valdè magna, There was very great expectation.
(2.) By a noun in an oblique case; as,

Major pietāte, Superior in piety. Contentiōnis cupydus, Fond of contention.
(3.) By a relative or other dependent clause ; as,

Vidētur, qui impĕret, dignus; He seems worthy to command.
(4.) By an infinitive mood, a gerund, or a supine; as,

Insuétus vera andire, Unused to hear the truth. 'Promptus ad agendum, Ready to act. Miraïrle dictu, Wonderful to be spoken.

Rem. 3. A participle may be modified like a verb. See § 202, III.

Rem. 4. An adverb may be modified :-
(1.) By another adverb; as,

Magis apertè, More openly. Valdè $\boldsymbol{z c h e m e n t e r , ~ V e r y ~ v e h e m e n t l y . ~}$
(2.) By a noun, pronoun, or adjective, in an oblique case; as,

Congruenter naturæ, Agreeably to nature. Optīnè omnium, Best of all.
Rem. 5. A preposition may be modified by an adverb, or by a noun in an oblique case; as,

Longè ultra, Far beyond. Multò ante noctem, Long before night. Sexennio post Veios captos.

Rem. 6. A modified grammatical subject, considered as one complex idea, may itself be modified; as,

Omnia tua consilia, All thy counsels. Here omnia modifies, not consilia, but the complex idea tua consilia. So Ominiu tua prava consilia.
IV. 1. An infinitive, either alone or with the words connected with it, and also an entire clause, may be the logical subject of a proposition ; as,

Mentīri est turpe, To lie is base. Virtus est vitium fugěre, To shun vice is a virtue. E celo descendit, "Nosce te ipsum." AEquum est ut hoc facias.

In such cases, the verb, or, if that be esse, the verb with its predicate noun or adjective, may be considered as the grammatical subject; as,

Oratōrem irasci non decet. Non satıs est, pulchra esse poëmăta.
2. In consequence of the various modifications of the grammatical subject of a proposition, the logical subject may be greatly extended.
3. The noun or pronoun which is the subject of a proposition, is put in the nominative case, except that, when the verb of the predicate is an infinitive mood, it is put in the accusative.

Note. In the following pages, when the term sulject alone is used, the grammatical subject is intended.

## PREDICATE.

§202. I. The predicate, like the subject, is either grammatical or logical.

The grammatical predicate is either a verb alone, or the copula sum with a noun, adjective, or adverb. The logical predicate consists of the grammatical predicate with its modifications.

Thus, Scipio fudit Annibălis copias, Scipio routed the forces of Hanni6nl. Here fudit is the grammatical, and fudit Annibălis copias the logical, predicate. Romŭlus Romãnæ condĭtor urbis erat.

Note. If the grammatical predicate is not modified, it is the same as the logical predicate.
II. The predicate also, like the subject, is either simple or compound.

A simple predicate is one which contains a single finite* verb; as,
Brevis est voluptas, Pleasure is brief. Mors venit, Death comes. Mors æquo pulsat pede paupěrum tabernas, regumque turres.

A compound predicate consists of two or more simple predicates belonging to the same subject ; as,

Probrtas laudātur et alget, Honesty is praiscd and neglected.

[^16]
## Modified Predicate.

III. A grammatical predicate may be modified or limited in different ways:-

1. By a noun or adjective in the same case as the subject. This occurs after certain neuter verbs, and verbs passive of naming, calling, \&c. (see §210, Rem. 3); as,

Incèdo regina, I walk queen. Aristìdes justus est appellätus.
2. By a noun in an oblique case; as,

Dens regit mundum, God rules the woorld. Ago tibi gratias. Ex voluntate fecit. Spe virìmus. Venit ad urbem.
3. By adverbs ; as,

Sæpe venit, He often came. Litěre facille discuntur.
4. By an infinitive mood, or other dependent clause; as,

Cupit discëre, He desires to learn. Vereor ne reprehendar. Fac cogites
Rem. 1. An infinitive may be modified like the verb of a predicate.

Rem. 2. All other words used to modify verbs, may themselves also be modified in the ways mentioned under the article Modified Subject, § 201, III.

## SENTENCES.

§203. 1. A sentence may consist either of one proposition, or of two or more propositions connected together.

A sentence consisting of one proposition is called a simple sentence.

A sentence consisting of two or more propositions, is called a compound sentence, and the propositions of which it is composed are called members, or clauses.
2. The members of a compound sentence are either independent or dependent.

An independent clause is one which makes complete sense by itself. A dependent clause is one which makes complete sense only in connection with another clause.

Thus, Phocion fuit perpetud pauper, cìm ditissimus esse posset; Phocion was always poor, though he might have been very rich. Here the former clause is independent, the latter dependent.
3. That member of a compound sentence on which the other members depend, is called the leading clause; its subject, the leading subject; and its verb, the leading vert.

The leading verb is usually either in the indicative or imperative nood, but sometimes in the subjunctive.
4. The members of a compound sentence may be connected by relative words, conjunctions, or adverbs.

An infinitive with its subject may be united with another clause without a connective.
5. Instead of a dependent clause connected by a conjunction, a noun and participle, or two nouns, sometimes stand as an abridged proposition ; as,

Bello confecto, discessit, i. e. quum bellum confectum esset, discessit; The war being finished, or when the war was finished, he departed. Nil desperandum, Teucro duce. Hor.
6. Agreement is the correspondence of one word with another in gender, number, case, or person.
7. A word is said to govern another, when it requires it to be put in a certain case or mood.
8. A word is said to depend on another, when its case, gender, number, mood, tense, or person, is determined by that word.
9. A word is said to follow another, when it depends upon it in construction, whatever may be its position in the sentence.

## APPOSITION.

§ 204. A noun, annexed to another noun or to a pronoun, and denoting the same person or thing, is put in the same case; as,

Urbs Roma, The city Rome. Nos consĭles, We consuls. So Apud Herodot̀tum, patrem historia, sunt innumerabbles fabüle; In Herodotus, the father of history, \&c. Cic. Lapides silices, flint stones. Liv. Fons cui nomen Arethüsa est. Cic.

Remare 1. A noun, thus annexed to another, is said to be in apposition to it. It is generally added for the sake of explanation or description, sometimes it denotes character or purpose ; as, Ejus fuga comitem me adjunxi, I added myself, as a companion of his flight; and sometimes the time, cause, reason, \&c., of an action ; as, Alcxander puer, when a boy. Both nouns must belong to the same part of the sentence, either subject or predicate. In cases of apposition, there seems to be an ellipsis of the ancient participle ens, being ; qui est, who is ; qui rocatur, who is called ; or the like.
Rem. 2. If the annexed noun has a form of the same gender as the other noun, it takes that form ; as, Usus magister egregius. Plin. Philosophia magistra vite. Cic.; and if a noun of the common gender, it agrees in gender with the preceding noun ; as, Laurus fidissima custos.
Rem. 3. The annexed noun sometimes differs from the other in gender ; as, Duo fulminna belli, Scipiădas; The Scipios, two thunderbolts in war (Cic.) ;-sometimes in number ; as, Tulliolla, deliciæ nostre (Cic.) ;-and sometimes in both ; as, Nate, mece vires. Virg.
Rem. 4. The substantive pronoun is sometimes omitted before the
word in apposition to it ; as, Consul dixi, sc. ego; (I) the consul said. Instead of the substantive pronoun, a possessive adjective pronoun is sometimes used; as, Tua domus, talis viri. Cic. See § 211, R. 2

Rem. 5. A noun in apposition to two or more nouns, is usually put in the plural ; as, M. Antonius, C. Cassius, tribuni plebis; M. Antony, C. Cassius, tribunes of the people. Cæs. Publius et Servius Sulle. Sall.

So when the nouns are connected by cum, the annexed noun taking the case of the former ; as, Dicaurchum verò cum Aristoxĕno, doctos sane homines, omittämus. Cic.

If the nouns are proper names of different genders, a masculine is annexed rather than a feminine, when both forms exist; as, Ad Ptolemaum Cleopatramque reges legãti missi. Liv.
Rem. 6. The annexed noun is sometimes in the genitive; as, Urbs Patavii; The city of Patavium. Virg. Amnis Eriďni. Id. Arbor fici. Cic. Nomen Mercurii est mihi. Plaut. Rupillì et Persî par. Hor.

Rem. 7. The name of a town in the genitive occurs with an ablative in apposition to it; as, Corinthi Achaie urbe; At Corinth, a city of Achaia. Tac. See §§ 221 and 254, Rem. 3.
Rem. 8. A proper name, after nomen or cognōmen, with a verb followed by a dative, is sometimes put in apposition to the dative, rather than to nomen or cognömen; as, Nomen Arctūro est mihi, I have the name Arcturus. Plaut. Cui nunc cognōmen Iūlo addztur. Virg. Cui Egerio indǐtum nomen. Liv.

Rem. 9. A clause may supply the place of one of the nouns; as, Cogrtet oratōrem institui-rem arduam ; Let him reflect that an orator is traininga difficult thing. Quinct.

Rem. 10. Sometimes the former noun denotes a whole, and its parts are expressed by the nouns in apposition with it ; as, Oneraria, pars max-乞ma ad JEgimürum,--aliæ adversùs urbem ipsam delāter sunt; The ships of burden were carried, the greatest part, to Hgimurus,-others opposite to the city itself. Liv. Pictōres et poèta suum quisque opus a vulgo consideräri vult. Cic. In the following example, quisque is in the nominative, though the word with which it is in apposition is in the ablative :Multis sibi quisque imperium petentžbus. Sall.

To this rule may be subjoined that which relates to the agreement of interrogative and responsive words.

Rem. 11. The principal noun or pronoun in the answer to a question, must be in the same case with the corresponding interrogative word ; as,

Quis herus est tibi? Amphitruo, sc. est. Who is your master? Amphitruo (is.) Plaut. Quid queris? Librum, sc. quaro. What are you looking for? A book. Quotà hord venisti? Sextâ. At what hour did you come? At the sixth.
Note 1. Instead of the genitive of a substantive pronoun, the corresponding possessive pronoun is often used, agreeing with its noun; as, Cujus est liber 3 Meus, (not Mei.) (See § 211, Rem. 3.) So cujum for gen. cujus; Cujum pecus? an Melibæi? Non; verùm JEgōnis. Virg.

Note 2. Sometimes the rules of syntax require the responsive to be in a different case from that of the interrogative; as, Quanti emisti? Viginti minis. Damnatusne es furti ? Imd alio crimĭne. See § § 252 and 217.

## ADJECTIVES.

§205. Adjectives, adjective pronouns, and participles, agree with their nouns, in gender, number, and case; as,

Bonus vir, A good man.
Benigna mater, A kind mother.
Triste bellum, A sad war.
Spe amissa, Hope being lost.

Bonos viros, Good men.
Vance leges, Useless laws.
Minacia verba, Threatening words.
Hac res, This thing.

Note 1. An adjective, participle, or pronoun, may either modify a noun, or, with the verb sum, constitute a predicate. The rule for their agreement, in both cases, is, in general, the same.

Note 2. In the following remarks, the word adjective is to be considered as including participles and adjective pronouns, unless the contrary is intimated.

Remari 1. An adjective also agrees with a substantive pronoun, taking its gender from that of the noun for which the pronoun stands; as, Ipse capellas æger ago, sc. cgo, Melibæus; (I) myself, sick, am driving my goats. Virg. Ut se totum ei tradĕret. Nep. O me miserrum (spoken by a man), misĕram me (by a woman). So salvi sumus, salve sumus, sc. nos, masculine or feminine.

In general propositions which include both sexes, the pronouns are considered masculine; as, Nos fruges consumĕre nati. Hor.

Rem. 2. An adjective, belonging to two or more nouns, is put in the plural ; as,

Lupus et agnus siti compulsi, A wolf and a lamb, constrained by thirst. Phæd. Sicilia Sardiniaque amissæ. Liv.

When the nouns are of different genders,
(1.) If they denote living things, the adjective is masculine rather than feminine ; as,
Pater milic et mater mortui sunt, My father and mother are dead. Ter. So uterque in the sing. Procumbit uterque, sc. Deucalion et Pyrrha. Ovid.
(2.) If they denote things without life, the adjective is generally neuter ; as,

His genus, atas, eloquentia prope æqualia fuēre ; Their family, age, and eloquence, were nearly equal. Sall. Regna, imperia, nobilitätes, honōres, divztie in casu sita sunt. Cic. Huic bella, rapīna, discordia civīlis, grata fuēre Sall. Anそma atque antmus, quamvis integra recens in corpus cunt. Lucr.

Note. When nouns denoting things without life are of the same gender (either masculine or feminine), but of different numbers, the adjective is sometimes neuter; as, Croso et vita et patrimonii partes, ct urbs Barce concessa sunt. Just.; sometimes also when both nouns are in the singular number; as, Veloč̌tas et regio ignāra tutāta sunt. Sall.
(3.) If one of the nouns denotes an animate, and another an inanimate thing, the adjective is sometimes neuter, and sometimes it takes the gender of that which has life; as,
Naves et captivos que ad Chium capta erant, The ships and captives which were taken at Chios. Liv. Numìdee atque signa militaria obscurāti sunt. Sall. Regem regnumque sua futura sciunt. Liv.

Exc. to Rem. 2. The adjective often agrees with the nearest noun, and is understood with the rest ; as,
Sociis et rege -ecepto, Our companions and king having been recovered. Virg. Salütem, libèros, famam, fortünas, esse carissimas. Cic.

Note. A noun in the singular, followed by an ablative with calm, has sometimes a plural adjective; as, Filiam cum filio accītos. Liv. Ilia cum Lauso de Numitöre sati. Ovid.

Rem. 3. An adjective qualifying a collective noun, is often put in the plural, taking the gender of the individuals which the noun denotes; as,

Pars certäre parâti, A part prepared to contend. Virg. Pars per agros dilapsi. .... suam quisque spem exsequentes. Liv. Supplex turba erant sine judǐce tuti. Ovid. This construction always occurs where the collective noun is the subject of a plural verb.

Sometimes, though rarely, an adjective in the singular takes the gender of the individuals; as, Pars arduus altis pulverulentus equis furit. Virg.

Some other nouns have an adjective of a different gender from their own, referring to the words which they include; as, Latium Capuăque agro mulctâtı; Latium and Capua were deprived of their land. Liv. Cupйta conjuratiōnis virgis cæsi. Id.

Rem 4. Two adjectives in the singular are sometimes joined to a plural noun; as, Maria Tyrrhēnum atque Adriatǐcum, The Tuscan and Adriatic seas. Liv. In comic writers, an adjective or participle in the singular is sometimes used with a plural pronoun; as, Nobis prasente. Plaut. Alsente nolis. Ter.

Rem. 5. A participle which should regularly agree with the subject of a proposition, when placed after the noun of the predicate, sometimes takes the gender and number of the latter; as, Non omnis errer stultitia est dicenda; Not every error is to be called folly. Cic. Gens universa Yenéti appellati. Liv.
Rem. 6. When the subject of an infinitive is omitted after a dative of the same signification, an adjective in the predicate, belonging to that subject, is sometimes put in the dative; as, Milii negligenti esse non licuit, i. e. me negligentem esse mihi non licuit. Cic. Da mihi justo sanctōque vileeri. Hor. A noun is sometimes expressed with the adjective; as, Vobis necesse est fortĭbus esse viris. Liv. The adjective often agrees with the omitted subject ; as, Expĕdit bonas esse volis, sc. vos. Ter. Si civi Romãno licet esse Gaditânum. Cic.

Rem. 7. (1.) An adjective is often used alone, especially in the plural, the noun, with which it agrees, being understood; as,

Boni sunt rari, sc. hom̃nes; Good (men) are rare. Casar suos misit, sc. milttes; Cæsar sent his (soldiers). Dextra, sc. manus; The right (hand). Pinguisque ferinnæ, sc. carnis. Immortāles, sc. Dii. Amantium, sc. homðnum. Illum indignanti sim̌̂lem, similemque minanti aspicëres, sc. hominni. Virg. Tili primas defêro, sc. partes. Cic. Respı̌ce proterĭtum, sc tempus, which is often omitted. Cognōvi ex meōrum omnium litëris, sc. amicōrum. Cic. So patrial adjectives; as, Missi ad Parthum Armeniumque legãti, sc. regen. In Tusculāno, sc. pradio.
Note 1. The noun to be supplied with masculine adjectives is commonly homines, but when they are possessives, it is oftener amīci, milltes, cives.

Note 2. The noun to be supplied is often contained in a preceding clause.
(2.) An adjective in the neuter gender, without a noun, is often used substantively, where, in English, the word thing or things is to be supplied; as,

Triste lupus stabŭlis; The wolf, a grievous (thing) to the folds. Virg. Labor omnia vincit; Labor overcomes all (things). Id. Plerīque vana mirantur. Tac. Quæ cùm ita sint. Cic.

Note. Instead of thing or things, other words may sometimes be supplied, as the sense requires. With a preposition, neuter adjectives form adverbial phrases; as, A primo, At first. Plaut. Per mutua, Mutually. Virg. Ad hoc, or Ad hac, Moreover, besides.
(3.) Adjectives used without nouns often have adjectives agreeing with them; as, Alia omnia, All other (things). Plin. Familiäris meus. Cic. Iniquus noster. Id. Justa funebria. Liv. `Jovis omnia plena. Virg. See.§ 201, III. Rem. 6.

Rem. 8. Imperatives, infinitives, adverbs, clauses, and words considered merely as such, may be used substantively, and take a neuter adjective; as, Suprēmum vale dixit, He pronounced a last farewell. Ovid. Velle suum cuique est. Pers. Cras istud quando venit? Mart. Excepto quòd non simul esses, cetëra latus. Hor.

Rem.9. Adjectives and adjective pronouns, instead of agreeing with their nouns, are sometimes put in the neuter gender, with a partitive signification, and their nouns in the genitive ; as, Multum temporris, for multum tempus; much time. Id rei, for ea res; that thing. So plus eloquentio, the other form not being admissible with plus. (See § 110.) Neuter adjectives are used in like manner in the plural ; as, Vana rerum for vanceres. Hor. Plerăque humanārum rerum. Sall. But in some such examples, the adjective seems to be used as noticed in Rem. 7, (2.); as, Acūta belli. Hor. Tellüris operta. Virg.

The adjectives thus used in the singular, for the most part, signify quantity. See § 212, Rem. 3, Note 1.

Rem. 10. A neuter adjective is sometimes used adverbially in the nominative or accusative, both singular and plural; as, Magnum stridens. Virg. Arma horrendum sonuēre. Id. Multa deos venerãti sunt. Cic. See § 192, II. 4, (b.)

Rem. 11. A noun is sometimes used as an adjective; as, Incǒla turba vocant. Ovid. Nemo miles Romānus. Liv.

An adverb is also sometimes used as an adjective; as, Heri semper lenžtas, for sempiterna. Ter.

Rem. 12. An adjective or adjective pronoun, used partitively, stands alone, and commonly takes the gender of the genitive plural, which depends upon it; but when it is preceded by a noun of a different gender, to which it refers, it usually takes that gender, but sometimes that of the genitive; as, Elephanto belluärum nulla est prudentior, No beast is wiser than the elephant. Cic. Indus, qui est omnium fuminum maxǐmus. Cic. Velocissimum omnium animalium est delphīnus. Plin. See § 212, Rem. 2.

When a collective noun follows in the genitive singular, the adjective takes the gender of the individuals which compose it; as, Vir fortissimus nostre civitãtis, The bravest man of our state. Cic. Maxĭmus stirpis. Liv.

Rem. 13. When a possessive pronoun or adjective is used instead of the genitive of its primitive or of its corresponding noun (see § 211, REM. 3 and 4), an adjective agreeing with that genitive is sometimes joined with
such possessive ; as, Solius meumpeccātum corrtgi non potest, The fault of me alone cannot be corrected. Cic. Noster duōrum eventus. Liv. Tuum ipsius studium. Cic. Pugna Romåna stabrlis suo pondëre incumbentium in hostem. Liv.

Sometimes a noun in the genitive is expressed, in apposition to the substantive pronoun for which the possessive stands; as, Pectus tuum, homĭnis simplucis. Cic.

Rem. 14. An adjective, properly belonging to the genitive, is sometimes made to agree with the noun on which the genitive depends, and vice verst; as, AEdificatiōnis tuæ consilium for tuum, Your design of building. Cic. Accusantes violāti hospitii fadus, for violātum. Liv. Ad majōra initia rerum ducenť̄bus fatis, for majōrum. Id. Iis nomiň̆bus civitātum, quibus ex civitať̄bus, \&c., for eārum civitātum. Cæs.

Rem. 15. An adjective agreeing with a noun is sometimes $u_{3}$ ed, instead of an adverb qualifying a verb, especially in poetry; as, Ecce venit Telămon propěrus; Lo, Telamon comes in haste. Ovid. Læti pac:nı agitabānus, for latè. Sall. EEnēas se matutīnus agēbat, for mane. V:rg.

So nullus is used for omnino non; as, Meminni tametsi nullus nuneas, Though you do not suggest it. Ter. Prior, primus, propior, prex mus, solus, unus, ultimus, multus, totus, princeps, and some others, are i scd instead of their neuters, adverbially ; as, Priōri Remo augurium veni is? fertur. Liv. This is sometimes done, for want of an adverb of appopopriate meaning; as, Pronus cecĭdit. Ovid. Frequentes convenĕrant. Sall.
In such expressions, $u u$, in the nominative, sometimes takes an adjective in the vocative, and vice verst ; as, Sic venias hodierne. Tibull. Salve, primus omnium parens patric appellâte. Plin.
Rem. 16. When several adjectives, each independently of the other, qualify a noun, if they precede it, they are almost always connected by one or more conjunctions ; as, Multa et variâ et copiōsd oratiōne. Cic. If they follow it, the conjunction is sometimes expressed, and sometimes omitted; as, Vir altus et excellens. Cic. Actio, varia, vehëmens, plena veritàtis. Id.

But when one of the adjectives qualifies the noun, and another the complex idea formed by the first with the noun the conjunction is always omitted; as, Periculosissimum civīle bellum, A most dangerous civil war. Cic. Malam domestĩcam disciplinam. Id. So with three or more adjectives; Externos multos claros viros nominärcm. Cic. See § 201, Jil., Rem. 6.

Rem. 17. The adjectives primus, medius, ultĭmus, extièmus, intı̆mus, infïmus, imus, summus, suprēmus, ret̃̄quus, and cetĕra, often signify the first part, the middlle part, \&c. of a thing ; as,

Mcdia nox, The middle of the night. Summa arbor, The highest part of a tree. Suprēmos montes, The tops of the mountains. But these adjectives frequently occur without this signification; as, Ab extremo complexu, From the last embrace. Cic. Infimo loco, Of the lowest rank. Id.

Rem. 18. The participle of the compound tenses of verbs, used imper sonally in the passive voice, is neuter ; as, Ventum est. Cic. Itum est in viscĕra terra. Ovid.

## RELATIVES.

§206. Rem. 19. Relatives agree with their antecedents in gender and number, but thear case depends on the construction of the clause to which they belong; as,

Puer qui legit, The boy who reads. Aňrmal quod currit, The animal
which runs. Litěra quas dedi, The letter which I gave. Non sum qualis eram, I am not such as I was. So Deus cujus munëre vivirmus, cui nullus est simǐiis, quem colǐmus, a quo facta sunt omnia, est aternus. Addictus Hermippo, et ab hoc ductus est. Aqǔllo, quantus frangit ilǐces. Hor.

Note. This rule includes all adjectives, participles, and adjective pronouns which relate to a noun in a preceding clause. Its more common application, however, is to the construction of the relative qui.

The relative may be considered as placed between two cases of the same noun, either expressed or understood, with the former of which it agrees in gender and number, and with the latter in gender, number, and case.
(1.) Sometimes both nouns are expressed; as,

Erant omnīno duo itiněra, quibus itinerĭbus domo exire possent ; There were only two routes, by which routes they could leave home. Cæs. Crudelissimo bello, quale bellum nulla unquam barbaria gessit. Cic.
(2.) Usually the antecedent only is expressed ; as,

Anĭmum rege, qui, nisi paret, impërat; Govern your passions, which rule unless they obey. Hor. Tanta multitudĭnis, quantam capit urbs nostru, concursus est ad me factus. Cic. Quot capरtum vivunt, toť̌dem studiörum millia. Hor.
(3.) Sometimes the latter noun only is expressed, generally when the relative clause precedes that of the antecedent; as,

Quibus de rebus ad me scripsisti, coram videbrmus; In regard to the things of which you wrote to me, we will consider when we meet. Cic. In quem primum egressi sunt locum, Troja vocätur. Liv. Quantà vi expĕtunt, tunto, defcndunt. Qualesque visus eram vidisse viros, ex ordïne tales aspicıo. Ovid.

To this head may be referred such examples as the following:-Qui meus amor in te est, ı. e. pro meo amōre qui in te est ; Such is my love for you. Cic. Que tua est virtus, expugnābis, i. e. pro tua virtūte, \&c.
(a.) The place of the antecedent is sometimes supplied by a demonstrative pronoun, especially when the cases are different; as, $A d$ quas res aptissimi ertmus, in iis potisšmum claloraľmus. Cic. So by ibi. Sall.
(b.) Sometimes the latter noun only is expressed, even when the relative clause does not precede; as, Quis non mulārum quas amor curas habet, hres inter obliviscťtur? Hor.
(4.) Sometimes neither noun is expressed; this happens especially when the antecedent is designedly left indefinite, or when it is a substantive pronoun; as,

Qui bene latuit, bene vixit, sc. homo ; (He) who has well escaped notice, has lived well. Ovid. Sunt quos curricülo pulvĕrem Olymp̌̌cum collegisse juvat, sc. homy̌nes; There are whom it delights, \&c. Hor. Non halleo quod te accūsem, sc. id propter quod. Cic. Non solum sapiens vidéris qui hinc absis, scd etiam bcātus, sc. tu. Cic.
(5.) The relative is sometimes either entirely omitted ; as, Urbs antïqua fuit ; Tyrii tenuēre colōni, sc. quam or cam;' There was an ancient city (which) Tyrian colonists possessed (Virg.); or, if once expressed, is afterwards omitted, even when, if supplied, its case would be different; as, Bocchus cum peditillus, quos filius ejus adduxĕrat, neque in priōre pugnd adfuërant, Romänos invädunt, for et qui non in priöre, \&c. Sall.
(6.) (a.) The relative sometimes takes the case of the antecedent, instead of its own proper case; as, Cùm scribas et alı̈quid agas eōrum, quorum consuêsti, for qua. Cic. Raptim quibus quisque potërat elātis, exībant, for iis, qua quisque efferre potërat, elātis. Liv.
(b.) The antecedent likewise sometimes takes the case of the relative; a:s, Urbem, quam statuo vestra cst, for urls. Virg. Naucrătem, quem convenire volui, in navi non erat. Plaut. Sed istum, quem queris, ego sum. Id.

These constructions are said to occur by attraction.
(7.) An adjective, which properly belongs to the antecedent, is sometimes placed in the relative clause, and agrees with the relative ; as, Inter jncos, quos incondĭtos jaciunt, for jocos incondrtos, quos, \&c.; Amidst the rude jests which they utter. Liv. Verbis, quæ magna volant. Virg. Calöre, quem multum labet. Cic.

This is the common position of the adjective, when it is a numeral, a comparative, or a superlative; as, Nocte quam in terris ultĭmam egit, The last night which he spent upon earth. AEsculapius, qui primus vulnus obligavisse dič̌tur. Cic. Consiliis pare, quæ nunc pulcherrima Nautes dat senior. Virg. Some instances occur in which an adjective belonging to the relative clause, is placed in that of the antecedent; as, Cum venissent ad vada Volaterräna, quæ nominantur. Cic.
(8.) When to the relative is joined a noun, explanatory of the antecedent, but of a different gender or number, the relative agrees with that noun; as,

Santơnes non longè a Tolosatium fiňbus absunt, quæ civĭtas est in provincid, The Santones are not far distant from the borders of the Tolosates, which state is in the province. Cæs. Ante comitia, quod tempus riaud longè abërat. Sall.
(9.) If the relative refers to one of two nouns, denoting the same object, but of different genders, it agrees with either ; as,

Flumen est Arar quod in Rhodănum influit. Cæs. Ad flumen Oxum perventum est, qui turburdus semper est. Curt.
(10.) When, in a relative clause containing the verb sum or a verb of naming, esteeming, \&c., a noun occurs of a different gender from the antecedent, the relative agrees with either; as,
Natūrce vultus quem dixēre Chaos, The appearance of nature which they called chaos. Ovid. Genus homũnum quod Helōtes vocātur. Nep. Aň mal, quem vocämus hominem ; The animal whom we call man. Cic. Locus in carcĕre, quod Tulliănum appellātur. Sall. Pecuniärum conquisitio; eos esse belli civīlis nervos dictittans Muciānus. Tac.
(11.) The relative sometimes agrees with a noun, either equivalent in sense to the antecedent, or only implied in the preceding clause; as,

Abundantia eãrum rerum, quæ mortāēes prima putant, An abundance of those things, which mortals esteem most important. Sall. Fatāle monstrum, quæ, \&c., sc. Clcopatra. Hor.
(a) A relative or demonstrative pronoun, referring to a collective noun, or to a noun which only in a figurative sense denotes a human being, sometimes takes the gender and number of the individuals which the noun denotes; as, Equitutum, quos. Sall. Genus, qui premuntur. Cic.-Senatus -ii. Sall. Monstrum, qui. Cic.
(12.) The antecedent is sometimes implied in a possessive pronoun ; as, Omnes laudāre fortūnas meas, qui natum tali ingenio praď̀tum habērem; sc. mei; All were extolling my fortune, who had a son endowed with such a disposition. Ter. Nostrum consilium laudandum est, qui, etc. Cic.; or in a possessive adjective; as, Servı̄li tumultu, quos. Cæs.
(13.) Sometimes the antecedent is a proposition, and then the relative is commonly neuter ; as, Postrēmoे, quod difficillǐmum inter mortāles, gloria invidiam vicisti; Finally, you have overcome envy with glory, which, among men, is very difficult. Sall. Eqǔ̌dem exspectäbam jam tuas litěras, idque cum multis. Cic.

In such instances, id is sometimes placed before the relative pronoun referring to the idea in the antecedent clause; as, Sive, id quod constat, Platōnis studiōsus audiendi fuit. Cic. Diem consūmi volēbant, id quodfecērunt. Id.

Sometimes a relative referring to a clause, agrees with a noun following; as, Iden velle atque nolle, ea demum firma amicitia est. Sall.
(14.) Quod, relating to a preceding statement, and serving the purpose of transition, is often placed at the beginning of a sentence after a period. It is thus used especially before $s i$ and nisi, and sometimes before utinam. $u t, n e, u b i, c i m$, contra, and nunc ; as, Quod si mundum efficĕre potest concursus atomōrum, cur portīcum, cur templum, cur domum, cur urbem non potest ? In regard to which, if the concourse of atoms can produce a world, why, \&c. Cic. Quod te per genium olsecro, vita me redde priöri. Hor Quod utخ̈num illum, cujus impio facinơre in has miserias projectus sum, eădem hac simulantem videam. Sall.

Quod, in such examples, seems to be an accusative, with propter or aa understood.
(15.) If the relative refers to two or more nouns of different genders, its gender will be determined by Rem. 2; as, Ninus et Semirämis, qui Babylöna condiděrant ; Ninus and Semiramis, who had founded Babylon. Vell. Crebro funāli et tibicĭne, quæ sibi sumpsěrat. Cic. Ex summà latitid atque lascivid, quæ diuturna quies peperĕrat. Sall.
(16.) The relative adjectives quot, quantus, qualis, are construed like the relative qui. They have generally, in the antecedent clause, the corre spcuding words, tot, tantus, talis; but these are often omitted.

* (17.) Qui, at the beginning of a sentence, is often translated like a de monstrative; as, Quæ cùm ita sint, Since these (things) are so. Cic.


## DEMONSTRATIVES, INDEFINITES, \&c.

§207. REM. 20. The adjective pronouns often agree with a noun expressed, instead of another noun understood; as, Nec solos tangit Atridas iste dolor, Nor does that grief (i. e. grief on that account) affect the sons of Atreus alone. Virg.

Rem. 21. The demonstrative pronouns are sometimes used where a corresponding word in English is unnecessary; as, Quem neque fides, neque jusjuruadum, neque illum misericordia, repressit; Whom neither fidelity, nor an oath, nor pity, has restrained. Ter.

Rem. 22. The neuters of the demonstrative pronouns are sometimes used in apposition with a dependent clause; as, Hoc tibi persuadeas velim, me niaí" omisisse; I wish you to be persuaded of this-that I have omitted nothing. So also the demonstrative adverbs sic and ita.

Rem. 23. Hic refers to what is near, ille to what is remote. Hence of two things mentioned before, hic commonly refers to the latter, ille to
the former ; as, Ignavia corpus hebĕtat, labor firmat; illa matūram senectūtem, hic longam adolescentiam reddit: Sloth enervates the body, labor strengthens it; the former produces premature old age, the latter protracted youth. Cels.

Yet this rule is not always observed; as, Sic deus et virgo est; hic spe celer, illa timōre. Ovid. Sometimes hic...hic are used instead of hic...ille. So ille...ille sometimes denote " the one...the other."

When more than two persons or things are spoken of, ille refers to the most remote, iste to a nearer, and hic to the nearest object. Hence, in letters, hic and its derivatives are used of the writer; iste and its derivatives of the person addressed ; ille, \&c., of some other person or thing. See § 191, Rem. 2.

* Rem. 24. Ille is used to denote that which is of general notoriety; as, Mgno illi Alexandro simillimus, Very like Alexander the Great. Vell. Medea illa. Cic. Ille is sometimes translated this; as, Unum illud dico, This only I say. Cic.

Rem. 25. Iste often denote. contempt; as, Impediebantur ed lege, quam idem iste tulërat....the same wretch. Cic. Sometimes, on the contrary, it means so great; as, Cùm istâ sis auctoritāte, Since you are of so great authority. Cic.

Rem. 26. Is does not, like hic, ille, and iste, denote the place or order of the object to which it relates, but refers to something already mentioned or to be defined by the relative qui. Hic, is, or ille, may be used in this way before the relative, but only hic or is after it ; as, Qui docet, is discit, or hic discit, but not ille discit, unless some individual is referred to.

Is has sometimes the sense of talis, such ; as, Neque enim tu is es, qui quid sis nescias; Nor are you such a person as to be ignorant what you are. Cic.; sometimes of idem; as, vos -ii. Cic. Manil. 12.

Is with et or que is emphatic, equivalent to the English "and that too;" as, Pribãtas causas, et eas tenues aǧ̆mus; We manage private causes, and those unimportant. Cic. Erant in Torquāto plurima litěra nec eæ vulgãres. Id. So without et; Urbāna plebes, ea vero praceps iërat. Sall.

Rem. 27. Idem, as denoting a subject which stands in equal relations to two different predicates, often supplies the place of item or etiam, also, or of tamen, yet, if the things are apparently inconsistent ; as, Muš̌ci, qui crant quondam iîdem poēte; Musicians, who formerly were poets also. Cic. Euphrātes et Tigris magno aquārum divortio iter percurrunt; iidem (and yet) puulàtim in urctius coëunt.

Idem is sometimes repeated in the sense of "at once," denoting the union of qualities which might be thought incompatible; as, Fuēre quidam qui iīdem ornätè iidem versūtè dičěrent, There have been some who could speak at once elegantly and artfully. Cic.
"The same as" is variously expressed in Latin, by idem with qui, ac or atque, quasi or ut; as, Verres idem est qui fuit semper, Verres is the same as he has always been. Cic. Vita est eădemac fuit. Liv. Disputatiōncm exponťmus iisdem fere verbis ut actum est. Cic.

Rem. 28. Ipse, when used with a substantive pronoun taken reflexively, agrees either with such pronoun or with the subject of the proposition, according as either is emphatic; as, Agam per me ipse, I will do it myself. Cic. Meď̌ci ipsi se curäre non possunt. Sulpic. Se ipsos omnes natüra diligunt.

Ipse is sometimes used as reflexive without sui, as, Omnes boni, quan tum in ipsis fuit, Casărem occidérunt. Cic.

Ipse, with nouns denoting time or number, expresses exactness ; as.

Cum ipsis nonis Sextrlis, Exactly on the fifth of August. Cic. Triginta dies erant ipsi, Thirty whole days had elapsed. Id.
$\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{em}}$ 29. The relative quicunque is sometimes used as equivalent to omnis or quivis; as, Que sanāri potërunt quâcunque ratiōne sanäbo, What can be cured I will cure by every possible means. Cic. Yet possum is rather to be supplied ;-"in whatever way I can." So quisquis is occasionally used, not as a relative, but as an indefinite pronoun.

Rem. 30. Altquis and quispiam are particular, corresponding to the English some one; as, Heredittas est pecunia, que morte alicūjus ad quempiam pervĕnit jure; An inheritance is property which, at the death of some one, falls to some (other) one by law. Cic. Multi sine doctrinnd alĭquid omnium genĕrum et artium consequuntur. Id.

Rem. 31. Quisquam, any one, and ullus, any, are universal: they are used in propositions which involve a universal negative, or which expres an interrogation with a negative force, or a condition (usually with si or quasi); also, after comparatives, after the adverb vix, and the preposition sine; as, Neque ex castris Catilinne quisquam omnium discessěrat, Nor had any one departed from the camp of Catiline. Sall. Nec ullo casu potest contingëre, ut ulla intermissio fiat officii. Cic. An quisquam potest sine perturbatiōne mentis irasci? Id. Tetrior hic tyrannus Syracusānis fuit, quàm quisquam superiōrum. Id. Vix quidquam spei est. Sen.

Ullus is properly an adjective, but it may be used, like any other adjective, with a noun understood. Quisquam is commonly used without a noun, except it is a word denoting a person; as, Cuiquam civi, To any citizen. Cujusquam oratōris eloquentiam. Nemo is often used for nullus; as, nemo pictor, nemo adolescens, and even homo nemo. Cic.

Rem. 32. Alius, like ullus, though properly an adjective, is sometimes used like a pronoun. It is often repeated, or joined with an adverb derived from it, in the same proposition, which may be translated by two separate propositions, commencing respectively with "one....another;" as, Aliud aliis vidētur optimum, One thing seems best to one, another to another. Cic. Aliis aliunde pericŭlum est, Danges threatens one from one source, another from another ; or, Danger threatens different persons from different sources. Ter. Dionysium aliter cum aliis de nobis locūtum audiēbam. Cic.

Alter is commonly used when two persons are spoken of; as, Uterque numěrus alter altërâ de causâ habëtur. Cic.

Alius, repeated in different propositions, is also translated " one....another;" as, Aliud agžtur, aliud simulätur, One thing is done, another pretended. Cic.

Rem. 33. Quidam differs from alfquis by implying that a person or thing, though indefinitely described, is definitely known ; as, Quidam de collëgis nostris, A certain one of our colleagues. Cic. Scis me quodam tempöre Metapontum venisse tecum. Id.

Quidam is sometimes used for some, as opposed to the vohole, or to others; as, Excessẽrunt urbe quidam, alii mortem sibi conscivērunt; Some departed from the city, others destroyed themselves. Liv. Hence it is used as a limitation; as, Milvo est quoddam bellum naturāle cum corvo, .... a kind of warfare. Cic.

Rem. 34. Quivis and quililbet, any one you please, are universal ; as, Omnia sunt ejusmŏdi quivis ut perspicĕre possit, All are of such a nature that any one can perceive. Cic. Hic apud majōres nostros adhibebätur peritus, nunc quiľ̆bet. Id. A negative joined with them denies only the universality which they imply; as, Non cuivis homini contingit adire Co
rinthum, i. e. not to every man without distinction. Hor. Cuiquam would Lave made the regation universal.

Rem. 35. Quisgze signifies each, every one, and generally stands with eut a noun; as, Qued cuique obttgit, id quisque teneat; Let each one keep what has fallen to each. Cic.
It is often used with two superlatives ; as, Optzmum quidque rarisstrmum sst, The best things are the rarest. Cic. Ut quisque optĭmè dicit, ita maxĭmè dicendi difficultātem timet. Id.

With primus, it denotes the first possible; as, Primo quoque temporre, As soon as possible. Cic.

Rem. 36. The possessives meus, tuus, noster, vester, and suus, are joined to nouns, to indicate an action or possession of the persons denoted by their primitives; as, Tutus amor meus est tibi, My love is secure to you. Ovid. Tuam vicem dolère soleo. Cic.

But these pronouns are sometimes used when the persons to which they refer are the objects of an action, feeling, \&c.; as, Nam neque tuâ negligentia, neque odio id fecit tuo, For he did it neither through neglect nor hatred of you. Ter. See § 211, Rem. 3.

These pronouns, especially when used as reflexives, are often omitted; as, Quo revertar? in patriam? sc. meam; Whither shall I return? to (my) country? Ovid. Dextra munĕra porrexit, sc.sud. Id.

## REFLEXIVES.

§20S. Rem. 37. Sui and suus properly refer to the subject of the proposition in which they stand; as,

Oppidāni fač̌nus in se ac suos feedum consciscunt, The citizens decide on a foul crime against themselves and their friends. Liv.

They continue to be used in successive clauses, if the subject remains the same; as, Ipse se quisque diľ̌git, non ut aľ̆quam a se ipse mercēdem ex̌gat caritātis suæ, sed quòd per se sibi quisque carus est. Cic.
(1.) In dependent clauses, in which the subject does not remain the same, the reflexives commonly refer to the leading subject, when the thoughts, language, purposes, \&c., of that subject are stated; as, Ariovis tus preedicāvit, non sese Gallis, sed Gallos sibi bellum intulisse; Ariovistus declared that he had not made war upon the Gauls, but the Gauls upon him. Cæs. Homèrum Colophonii civem esse dicunt suum, The Colophonians say that Homer is their citizen. Cic. Tyrannus petĩvit ut se ad amicitiam tertium ascribĕrent. Id.
(2.) If, however, the leading subject, whose thoughts, \&c., are expressed, is indefinite, the reflexives relate to the subject of a dependent clause; as, Medēam pradǐcunt (sc. homǐnes) in fuga fratris sui membra in iis locis, qud se parens persequerētur, dissipavisse. Cic. Ipsum regem tradunt operātum his sacris se abdidisse. Liv.
(3.) When the leading verb is in the passive voice, the reflexive often refers not to its sulject, but to that which would be its subject in the active voice ; as, A Casŭre invitor ut sim sibi legātus, i. e. Casar me in ritut ; I am invited by Cæsar to become his lieutenant. Cic.

So when the subject is a thing without life, the reflexive may relate to some other word in the sentence, which denotes a thing with life; as, Canum tam fida custodia quid significat aliud, nisi se ad hominnum comm moditātcs esse generātos? Cic.
(4.) Instead of sui and suus, whether referring to a leading or a subor
dinate subject, ipse is sometimes used, to avoid ambiguity from the similarity of both numbers of sui, and to mark more emphatically than suus, the person to which it relates; as, Jugurtha legatos misit qui ipsi liberisque vitam petërent, Jugurtha sent ambassadors to ask life for himself and his children. Sall. Ea molestissimè ferre homənes debent, que ipsõrum culpa contracta sunt.
(5.) In the plural number, with inter, se only is used, if the person or thing referred to is in the nominative or accusative; se or ipse, if in any other case ; as, Fratres inter se cum formá, tum mortbus simulles; Brothers resembling each other both in person and character. Cic. Feras inter sese conciliat natüra. Cic. Incřdunt aľqqua a doctis etiam inter ipsos mutud reprehensa. Quinct.
(6.) When reference is made not to the subject of the proposition, but to some other person or thing, hic, is, or ille, is generally used, except in the cases above specified; as, Themistöcles servum ad Xerxem misit, ut ei nuntiäret, suis vervis, adversarios ejus in fugat esse; Themistocles sent his servant to Xerxes, to inform him (Xerxes), in his (Themistocles') name, that his (Xerxes') enemies were upon the point of flight. Nep. But when no ambiguity would arise, and especially when the verb is of the first or second person, sui and suus sometimes take the place of the demonstrative pronouns; as, Suam rem sibi saloam sistam, I will restore his property entire to him. Plaut.

On the contrary, the demonstratives are sometimes used for the reflexives; as, Helvetii persuādent Raurăcis, ut unà cum iis proficiscantur ; The Helvetii persuade the Rauraci to go with them. Cæs. In some instances, a reflexive and a demonstrative are used in reference to the same person; as, Ita se gessit (sc. Ligarius) ut ei pacem esse expedirct. Cic. Sometimes the reflexives refer to different subjects in the same sentence; as, Ariovistus respondit, nem̌̌nem secum sine suâ pernicie contendisse (Cæs.); where se refers to Ariovistus, and suâ to nemĭnem.
(7.) Suus often refers to a word in the predicate of a sentence, and is then usually placed after it; as, Hunc cives sui ex urbe ejecērunt, Him his citizens banished from the city. Cic. Titurius quum procul Ambioriggem, suos cohortantem, conspexisset. Cæs.

Suus, and not hujus, \&c., is used when a noun is omitted ; as, Octavium, quem sui (sc. amīci) Casărem salutābant; Octavius, whom his followers saluted as Cæsar.

Suus is also commonly used when two nouns are coupled by cum, bat not when they are connected by a conjunction; as, Ptolemaus amicos Demetrii cum suis rebus dinīsit; Ptolemy dismissed the friends of Demetrius with their effects. Just.
(8.) Suus sometimes denotes fit, favorable; as, Sunt et sua dona parenti, There are likewise for my father suitable presents. Virg. Alphēnus utebātur popŭlo sanè suo. Cic. Sometimes it signifies peculiar ; as, Molles sua thura Sabci, sc. mittunt, i. e. the frankincense for which their country was famous. Virg. Fessos sopor suus occupat artus, Id.

## NOMINA'TIVE.

SU'BJECT-NOMINATIVE AND VERB.
\$209. A verb agrees with its subject-nominative, in number and person; as,

Ego lego, I read.
Tu scribis, Thou writest.
Equus currit, The horse runs.

Nos leǧ̆mus, We read.
Vos scribrtis, You write.
Equi currunt, Horses run.

Note. The imperative singular is sometimes used in addressing several persons; as, Huc nalis adjĭce septem. Ovid. Met. 6, 182. So adde, Liv. 26, 41

Remark 1. The nominatives ego, tu, nos, vos, are seldom expressed, the termination of the verb sufficiently marking the person; as, cupio, I desire ; vivis, thou livest; habēmus, we have. See §147, 3 .

But when emphasis or distinction is intended, they are expressed; as, Ego reges ejēci, vos tyrannos introduč̃tis; I banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Auct. ad Her. Nos, nos, dico apertè, consŭles desŭmus. Cic. 'I'u es patronus, tu pater. Ter.

Rem. 2. The nominative of the third person is often omitted :-
(1.) When it has been expressed in a preceding proposition:-
(a.) As nominative; as, Mosa profiuit ex monte Vosěgo, et in oceănum influit (Cæs.) ; or (b.) in an 'oblique case; as, Cursōrem misērunt, ut id nuntiäret, sc. cursor. Nep.: or (c.) in a possessive adjective. Virg. 左n. I.672.
(2.) When it is a general word for person or thing taken indefinitely.

Thus homnes is often omitted before aiunt, dicunt, ferunt, \&xc.; as, Ut aiunt, As they say. Cic. Maxămè admirantur eum, qui pecunia non movétur. Id.

This omission of the nominative is common in the clause preceding a relative ; as, Qui Bavium non odit, amet tua carmĩna, Mavi, sc. homo; May. (he) who hates not Favius, like your verses, Mævius. Virg. Vastātur agri quod inter urbem ac Fidēnas est, sc. id spatium. Liv. Sunt quos juvat....sc. lomı̆nes; There are (those) whom it delights. Hor. Est qui nec vetĕris pocŭla Masšci spernit, sc. homo. Hor. Here sunt quos and est qui are equivalent to quidam, alrquis, or alrqui. So, Est quod gaudeas, There is (reason) why you should rejoice. Cic. Neque erat cur fallère vellent. Ovid. Ést ubi id valeat. Cic. Est, cùm non est sutius, \&c. Auct. ad Her. In the latter cases, the adverbs are equivalent to in quo, sc. loco, tempŏre.

Rem. 3. The nominative is often wanting: -
(1.) Before verbs denoting the state of the weather, or the operations of nature ; as, Fulgürat, It lightens. Plin. Ningit, It snows. Virg.
(2.) Before the third person singular of the passive of neuter verbs, and of active verbs used impersonally ; as,

Fuvētur tibi a me, Thou art favored by me. Ejus oratiōni vehementer al omn乞̆bus reclavãium est. Cic. See § 184, 2. Actum est de imperio.

A nominative, however, is expressed hefore the passive of some neuter verbs, which, in the active voice, are followed by an accusative; as, Pugna pugnäta est. Cic. See § 232, (1.)
(3.) Before the neuter of the future passive participle with est; as,

Dolendum est primùm ipsi tibi, You yourself must first grieve. Hor Orandum est, ut sit mens sana in corpŏre sano. Juv.
(4.) Before the impersonal verbs misĕret, pœnĭtet, pudet, tadet, and piget; as,

Eos ineptiārum paň̌tet, They repent of their follies. Cic. Misĕret te aliōrum, tui te nec misēret nec pudet. Plaut. Me civitātis morum piget tcedetque. Sall. In such examples, the sense will sometimes permit us to supply fortūna, conditio, memoria, \&c. So in the expression Venit in mentem, It came into mind; as, In mentem venit de specŭlo, sc. cogitatio, \&c. Plaut.

An infinitive or clause sometimes forms the subject of these verbs; as, Te id nullo modo puduit facěre, To do that by no means shamed you. Ter. Non pænйtet me, quantum profecĕrim. Cic.
(5.) When the subject of the verb is an infinitive or participle (either alone or with other words), one or more propositions, or an adverb. (See $\oint 201$, IV. 1.) The verb is then in the third person singular; as,

Vacāre culpâ magnum est solatium, To be free from fault is a great consolation. Neque est te fallěre quidquam, To deceive you in any thing is not (possible.) Virg. Mentīri non est meum. Plaut. Te non istud audivisse mirum est, That you have not heard that is wonderful. Cic. "Summum jus, summa injuria," factum est jam tritum sermōne proverlium. Id. Ni degenerātum in aliis huic quoque decŏri offecisset. Liv. Sin est ut velis manère illam apud te. Ter. Nec profuit Hydra crescĕre per damnum, geminasque resuměre vires. Ovid. Dic mihi, cras istud, Postŭme, quando venit 3 Tell me, Postumus, when does that to-morrow come? Mart. Parumne campis atque Neptūno super fusum est Latīni sangūnis? Hor.

This construction is especially common with impersonal verbs; as, Oratōrem irasci non decet ; That an orator should be angry, is not becoming. Cic. Hoc fiěri et oportet et opus est. Id. Me pedĭbus delectat claudĕre verba. Hor. Intĕrest omnium rectè facěre. Cic. Casu accĭdit, ut, id quod Romæ audiěrat, primus nuntiāret. Id. Sometimes a neuter pronoun is interposed between a proposition and its verb; as, Facĕre qua libet, id est regem esse. Sall.
(6.) Before potest, cœpit or cœptum est, inč̆pit, deš̆nit, debet, solet, and vidētur, when followed by the infinitive of an impersonal verb; as,

Pigére eum facti capit, It began to repent him (i.e. he began to repent) of his conduct. Just. Sapientia est una, qua praceptrīce, in tranquillitāte vivi potest. Cic. Tàēre solet avāros impendii. Quinct.

Rem. 4. The verb is sometimes omitted; as,
Dî meliōra piis, sc. dent; May the gods grant better things to the pious. Virg. Verium hac hactĕnus, sc. diximus. Cic. This omission is most common with the verb sum; as, Nam Polydōrus ego, sc. sum; For I am Polydorus. Virg. Omnia praclāra rara, sc. sunt. Cic. So in compound tenses; as, Agro mulctāti, sc. sunt. Liv.

Rem. 5. The nominative is sometimes found with the present infinitive; as,

Intěrim quotidıe Casar FIduos frumentum flagitåre, Meanwhile Cæsar was daily demanding corn of the A犬dui. Cæs. Nos pav̌di trepidāre metu. Virg. Id horrendum ferri. Id. In such cases, capit or capérunt is generally supposed to be understood; sometimes other verbs may be supplied,
but often the infinitive seems to be used instead of the imperfect indicative.

Rem. 6. The relative qui may refer to an antecedent either of the first, second, or third person; and its verb takes the person of the antecedent ; as,

Ego qui lego, I who read. Tu qui scribis, Thou who writest. Equus qui currit, The horse which runs.

Rem. 7. Verbs in the first person plural, and the second person singular, are sometimes used to express general truths; as,

Quàm multa factmus caust amicōrum! How many things we do (i. e. men do) for the sake of friends! Cic. Si vis me flere, dolendum est ipst tibi, Whoever wishes me, \&c. Hor.

Rem. 8. The accusative is sometimes used for the nominative by attraction. See § 206, (6.) (b)

Rem. 9. The verb sometimes agrees with the predicate nominative, especially if it precedes the verb; as, Amantium ira amorris integratio est, The quarrels of lovers are a renewal of love. Ter.; and sometimes with the nearest subject of a subordinate sentence. Sall. Cat. 25.

Rem. 10. The verb sometimes agrees, not with the principal nominative, but with a nearer noun in apposition to it ; as, Tungri, civitas Gallia, fontem habet insignem; The Tungri, a state of Gaul, has a remarkable fountain. Plin.

Rem. 11. A collective noun has sometimes a plural verb, as,

Pars epŭlis oněrant mensas, Part load the tables with food. Virg. Turba ruunt. Ovid. Pars utrăque avidi erant. Liv. Atria turba tenent; veniunt leve vulgus euntque. Ovid.
(1.) A plural verb, joined to a collective noun, usually expresses the action, \&c., of the individuals which that noun denotes. In Cicero and Livy, this construction scarcely occurs in simple sentences; but it is often used, when the subject of the verb is not expressed in its own, but in a preceding clause ; as, Hoc idem geněri humāno evĕnit, quìd in terrâ collocāti sint. Cic.
(2.) When two or more clauses have the same collective noun as their subject, the verb is frequently singular in one, and plural in another; as, Jum ne nocte quidem turba ex eo loco dilabebătur, refracturosque carcęrem minabantur. Liv. Gens eadem, quae te crudēli Daunia bello insequĭtur, nos si pellant, nihil alföre credunt. Virg.
(3.) Tintum, followed by a genitive plural, has sometimes a plural verb, like a collective noun, as, Quid huc tantum hom̌num incēdunt? Why are so many men coming hither? Plaut.
(4.) A plural verb is often used after uterque and quisque, pars...pars, and alius....alium, or alter....altérum, on account of the idea of plurality which they involve; as, Uterque eōrum ex castris exercitum edücunt, Each of them leads his army from the camp. Cæs. Intrmus quisque libertörum vincti abreptīque (sunt.) Tac. Alius alium, ut pralium incipiant, circumspectant. Liv.
This construction may be explained by the following passage, where
the plural is placed first, and then the singular, denoting its parts ; Ceter ri, suo quisque tempŏre, adërunt. Liv. See § 204, Rem. 10 .

Rem. 12. Two or more nominatives singular, not in apposition, generally have a plural verb; as,

Furor irăque mentem præcipitant, Fury and rage hurry on (my) mind. Virg. Dum atas, metus, magister, prohibēbant Ter.
(1.) If the predicate belongs to the several nominatives jointly, the verb is always plural; as, Grammatǐce quondam ac musice junctæ fuērunt. Quint.
(2.) A singular verb is often used after several nominatives singular, especially if they denote things without life ; as,

Mens enim, et ratio et consilium in sentbus est. Cic. Beneficentia, liberalìtas, bonǐtas, justitia fundžtus tollĭtur. Id. This construction sometines occurs with names of persons; as, Gorgias, Thrasymăchus, Protagŏras, Prodǐcus, Hippias in honōre fuit. Cic. Cur Lysiàs et Hyperides amātur? Id.
(3) When one of the nouns is plural, the verb is generally so ; but sometimes it is singular, when the plural noun does not immediately precede it; as, Dii te penātes patrī̄que, et putris imăgo, et domus reġa, et in domo regãle solium, et nomen Tarquinium creat vocatque regem. Liv.
(4.) When each of the nominetives is preceded by ct or tum, the verb agrees with the last; as, Hoc et ratio doctis, et necessĭtas barbăris, et mos genť̌lus, et feris natūra ipsa prescripsit; This, reason has dictated to the Yearned, and necessity to barbarikns, and custom to nations, and nature itself to wild beasts. Cic. Et ego, et Cicěro meus flagitābit. Id. Tum ætas viresque, tum avīta gloria antmum stimulabat. Liv. So when the subject consists of two infinitives; as, Et facěre, et pati fortia, Romānum est. Cic. With seu-seu, and tar,-quàm the verb is plural.

Unus et alter always takes a singular verb; as, Dicit unus et alter brevitte, Two in succession speak briefly. Cic. Un es et alter assuìtur pannus. Hor. So also senātus populusque Romãnus.
(5.) When the nominatives are connected by aut, sometimes the plural, but commonly the singular, is used; as,

Si Socrătes aut Antisthĕnes dicĕret, If Socrates or Antisthenes should say. Cic. Ut quosque studium privātim uut gratia occupavērunt. Liv.

The plural is necessary with disjunctives, if the subject includes the first or second person; as, Quòd in Decemviris neque ego neque Casar habitit essemmus. Cic.
(6.) A nominative singular, joined to an ablative by the preposition cum, sometimes has a plural verb; as, Bocchus, cum peditíbus, postrēmam Romanōrumaciem invädunt; Bocchus, with his foot soldiers, attacks the rear of the Roman army. Sall. Ipse dux, cum alíquot principĭbus, capiuntur. Liv.
(7.) If the nominatives are of different persons, the verb agrees with the first person rather than the second, and with the second rather than the third; as,

Si tu et Tullia valētis, ego et Cicero valēmus; If you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well. Cic. Hace neque ego neque tu fecimus. Ter E $_{\text {G}}$ opopulusque Ronãnus bellum judĭco facioque. Liv.
Yet sometimes the verb agrees in number and person with the nearest
nominative, and is understood with the other; as, Vos ipsi et senatus frequens restirtit. This is always the case when the action of the verb is qualified with reference to each nominative separately; as, Ego miserrè, tu feliciteter vivis.

Rem. 13. The interjections en, ecce, and $O$, are sometimes followed by the nominative ; as,

En Priămus! Lo Priam! Virg. Ecce homo Catiënus! Cic. O vir fortis atque amicus! Ter.

## PREDICATE-NOMINATIVE.

§210. A noun in the predicate, after a verb neuter or passive, is put in the same case as the subject, when it denotes the same person or thing; as,

Ira furor brevis est, Anger is a short madness. Hor. Ego vocor Lyconĭdes, I am called Lyconides. Plaut. Egro incēdo regīna, I walk a queen. Virg. Caius et Lucius fratres fuērunt. Cic.

So when the subject is in the accusative; Judicem me esse volo. Cic
Sometimes a dative, denoting the same object, both precedes and follows a verb neuter or passive. See § 227, Note 1.

If the predicate noun has a form of the same gender as the subject, it takes that form, as, Licentia corruptrix est morum.

Remark 1. Adjectives, adjective pronouns, and participles, standing in the predicate, after verbs neuter or passive, and relating to the subject, agree with it in case.

The gender and number of such adjectives, \&c. are determined by § 205.
Rem. 2. The noun in the predicate is sometimes in a different number from the subject ; as, Sanguis erant lachry̆nes, Her tears were blood. Ovid.

So when a subject in the singular is followed by an ablative with cum as, Exsŭles esse jubet L. Tarquinium cum conjŭge et libëris. Liv.

Rem. 3. The verbs which most frequently have a noun, \&c., in the predicate agreeing in case with their subject, are,
(1.) The substantive verb sum; as, Ego Jovis sum filius. Plaut. Disce esse pater. Ter. The predicate with sum may be an adverb of place, manner, \&c.; or a noun in an oblique case; as, Numen sine ture est. Ovid.
(2.) Certain neuter verbs, denoting position or motion; as, cado, eo, cvādo, existo, fugio, incēdo, jaceo, maneo, sedeo, sto, venio, \&c. Thus, Rex circuībat pedes, The king went round on foot. Plin. Quos judicābat non posse oratōres evadĕre. Cic. Ego huic cause patrōnus exstř̃̇i. Cic
(3.) The passive of verbs denoting
(a.) To name or call ; as, appellor, dicor, nomðnor, nuncŭpor, perhibeor, salūtor, vocor. Thus, Cognomr̊ne Justus cst appellātus, He was called by the surname Just. Nep. Aristeus olīve dicĭtur inventor. Cic.
(b.) To choose, render, or constitute; as, constituor, creor, declāror, designor, eľgor, fio, reddor, renuncior. Thus, Dux a Romānis electus est Q. Fubius. Postquam ephēbus factus est. Nep.
(c.) To esteem or reckon; as, censcor, credor, deprehendor, existimor, feror, habeor, jud̆̌cor, memoror, numĕror, putor, reperior, videor. Thus, Credébar sangur̃nis auctor ego. Ovid. Malim vidēri timĭdus quàm parùm prudens. Cic.

Note 1. With several passives of the last class, when followed by a predicate-nominative, \&c., an infinitive of sum is expressed or understood; as, Amens mihi fuisse videor. Cic. Atilius prudens esse putabātur. Id. So with dicor (to be said), and perhibeor; as, Verus patrice dicěris esse pater. Mart. Hoc ne locutus sine mercēde existǐmer. Phæd.

Note 2. Audio is sometimes used by the poets like appellor; as, Tu rexque paterque audisti coram. Hor.

Rem. 4. A predicate-nominative is used after many other verbs, to denote a purpose, time, or circumstance of the action; as, Comes addxtus Eolvdes, Æolides was added as a companion. Virg. Lupus obambŭlat nocturnus. Id. Appäret liqǔ̆do sublīmis in athĕre Nisus. Id. So with an active verb; Audivi hoc puer. Cic. Sapiens nil facit invītus. Id. Rempublǐcam defendi adolescens. Id.

Rem. 5. The noun opus, signifying need, is often used as a predicate after sum. It is, in such cases, translated by the adjectives needful, necessary, \&c. ; as, Dux nobis et auctor opus est. Cic. Multi opus sunt boves. Varr: (Dixit) aurum et ancillas opus esse. Ter.

Rem. 6. When the pronoun, which is the subject of an infinitive, is omitted, the case of the predicate is sometimes, in the poets, attracted into that of the subject of the verb on which the infinitive depends; as, Uxor invicti Joris esse nescis, i. e. te esse uxōrem. Hor. Retülit Ajax esse Jovis proněpos. Ovid. The dative of the end often takes the place of the pred-icate-nominative. See § 227.

## GENITIVE.

## GENITIVE AFTER NOUNS.

§ 211. A noun which limits the meaning of another noun, denoting a different person or thing, is put in the genitive ; as,
Amor gloria, Love of glory. Vitium ira, The vice of anger.
Arma Achillis, The arms of Achilles. Nemŏrum custos, The guardian of the Pater patria, The father of the country. groves.
Amor habendi, Love of possessing.
In the first example, amor denotes love in general; glorice limits the affection to the particular object, glory. Such universally is the effect of the genitive, depending upon a noun. See § 201, III.
Remark 1. The genitive denotes various relations, the most common of which are those of Source; as, Radii solis, The rays of the sun;Cause; as, Dolor podagre, The pain of the gout;-Effect; as, Artiffex mundi, The Creator of the world;-Possession ; as, Domus Casăris, The house of Cæsar ;-Оbлест ; as, Cogitatio alicūjus rei, A thought of something ;-Purpose; as, Apparätus triumphi, Preparation for a triumph ;A whole; as, Pars homǐnum, A part of men ;-Character; as, Adolescens summe audacie, A youth of the greatest boldness;-Material or component parts; as, Montes auri, Mountains of gold; Acervus scutōrum, A heap of shields;-Time; as, Frumentum dierum decem. Sall.

Rem. 2. The genitive is called subjective, when it denotes the subject of the action, feeling, \&c., implied in the noun
which it limits. It is called objective, when it denotes the object of such action, \&c.; as,

## Subjective.

Facta virōrum, Deeds of men. Dolor antmi, Grief of mind.
Junōnis ira, The anger of Juno.

## Objective.

Odium vitii, Hatred of vice.
Amor virtütis, Love of virtue.
Desiderium otii, Desire of leisure.

Whether a genitive is subjective or objective, is to be determined by the meaning of the words, and by their connection. Thus, providentia Dei signifies the providence of God, or that exercised by him; timor Dei, fear of God, or that exercised towards him. The same or similar words, in different connections, may express both significations. Thus, metus hostium, fear of the enemy, may mean that felt either by themselves or by their opponents. So vulnus Ulyssis (Virg.) denotes the wound which Ulysses had given; vulnus AEnéa, (Id.) that which Eneas had received.

When ambiguity would arise, instead of the objective genitive, a preposition, with an accusative or ablative, is commonly used; as, Amor in rempublicam, for reipublica; Love to the state. Cic. Odium erga Romannos, for Romanōrum. Nep. Cura de salūte patria, for salūtis. Cic. Pradätor ex sociis, for sociōrum. Sall.

Rem. 3. A substantive pronoun, which limits the meaning of a noun, is put in the genitive; as,

Cura mei, Care for me. Ovid. Pars tui, Part of thee. Id. Nostri nuncius, Our messenger. Virg. Magna mei imāgo. Id.

Instead of the subjective or possessive genitive of a substantive pronoun, the corresponding adjective pronoun is commonly used ; as,

Cura mea, My care, i. e. the care exercised by me. Yet the genitive sometimes occurs; as, Tui unius studio, By the zeal of yourself alone. Cic.

Sometimes, also, an adjective pronoun occurs instead of the objective genitive ; as, Mea injuria, Injury to me. Sall.

Rem. 4. Instead of the genitive of a noun, also, a possessive adjective is often used; as, Causa regia, for causa regis. Cic. Herilis filius, for heri filius. Id. Evandrius ensis, for Eoandri. Virg. Herculeus labor, for Hercülis. Hor. Civilis furor, for civium. Hor. Metus hostillis, Sall.

Rem. 5. The dative is sometimes used like the objective genitive; as,

Exitium pecorri, A destruction to the flock. Virg. Prasidium reis, A defence to the accused. Hor. Decus amīcis. Id. Erit ille mihi semper Deus. Virg. Dicor tibi frater. Mart. Auctor fui senatui. Cic. Huic causæ patrōnus exsťti. Id. Quen exttum tantis malis sperārent. Sall. Romānis impcrātor. Id. Murcna legātus Lucullo fuit. Cic.

In these cases, the noun which is limited by the dative, denotes a character, feeling, \&c., and the dative the object towards which that character, \&c., is exhibited or exercised. This construction sometimes occurs with verbal nouns, whose primitives are followed by the dative; as, Obtemperatio legibus, Obedience to laws. Cic. Traditio altěri. Id. In some instances, also, an accusative follows a verbal noun; as, Quid tibi hanc curatio est rem? Plaut.

1. Instead of the possessive and subjective genitive, also, a dative is sometimes used, as the remote object of a verb; as, Sese omnes fentes Cæsări ad pedes projecérunt; They all, weeping, cast themselves at the feet of Cæsar. Cæs. Cui corpus porrigztur, For whom the body is extended, i. $e$ whose body is extended. Virg. Transfiǧtur scutum Pulfionni. Cæs.

Rem. 6. When the limiting noun denotes a property, character, or quality, it has an adjective agreeing with it, and is put either in the genitive or ablative ; as,
Vir exempli recti, A man of correct example. Liv. Adolescens summa audacie, A youth of the greatest boldness. Sall. Fossa pedum viginti, A ditch of twenty feet. Cæs. Pulchritudine eximia femina, A woman of exquisite beauty. Cic. Maximo natu filius, The eldest son. Nep. So Quinquaginta annōrum imperium. Id. Iter unius dièi. Cic. Galba tribus et septuagintu annis. Tac. Fossam sex cubitis altam. Liv.
Sometimes both constructions occur in the same proposition; as, Len. tülum nostrunn, eximià spe, summæ virtatis adolescentem. Cic. Scrobis latus pedum duōrum, altus dupondio et dodrante. Plin.
(1.) A genitive sometimes supplies the place of the adjective; and the noun denoting the property, \&c., is then always put in the ablative; as, Est bos cervi figūrâ, .... of the form of a stag. Cæs. Uri specie et colōre tauri. Id.
(2.) The genitive, in this sense, sometimes occurs without an adjective; as, Hominem non nauci. Plaut. Homo nihĭli. Varr. So, Frutex palmi altitudĩne. Plin. Clavi digĭti pollĭcis crassitudǐne. Cæs. In which examples unius may be understood with the genitives.

Whether the genitive or ablative is preferable in partıcular eases, can only be determined by reference to classical authority.

Note. Nouns denoting extent of time or space, after other nouns, are often put in the accusative. See § 236 .

Rem. 7. The noun limited is sometimes omitted ; as, 0 misëre sortis : sc. homines; O (men) of wretched fortune! Lucan. Ad Diänce, se. adem. Ter. Hectöris Andromăche, sc. uxor. Virg. Suspiciōnis vitandee, sc. causâ. Tac. So filius or filia; as Hannžbal Gisgōnis.

The omitted noun may sometimes be supplied from the preceding words; as, Cujum pecus ? an Melibrei ? Non; verùm AEgōnis, sc. pecus. Virg. An adjective is often expressed referring to the noun omitted; as, Nullan virtus aliam mercē̃em desidërat, prater hanc (sc. mercēdens) laudis. Cic.

Rem. 8. The noun limited is often wanting in the predicate of a sentence after sum. This usually happens,
(1.) When it has been previously expressed; as,

Hac domus est Casăris, This house is Cæsar's. Nomen aura tam sape vocātum esse putans Nympha. Ovid. Naves oncrarias, quarum minor nulla erat duìm millium amphörùm, i. e. quarum minor nulla erat quam navis duìm, \&e. Cic.
(2.) When it is a general word denoting a person, an animal, \&c.; as,

Thucydrdes, qui ejusdem atātis fuit, sc. homo; Thucydides, who was of the same age. Nep. Multum ei detraxit, quod aliē̄nce erat civitātis, sc. homo or civis. Id. Summi ut sint labōris efficiunt, sc. animalia. Cas. (Claudius) somni brevissimi erat. Suet. Mira sum alacritāte. Cic. Vulgus ingenio mobǐli erat. Sall. Non est juris sui. Lucan. Potestātis suce esse. Liv. Suarumque rerum erant. Id.
(3.) When it is a general word denoting thing, for which the words part, property, duty, office, characteristic, \&c., are commonly supplied ; as,

Temeritas est florentis cetätis, prudentia senectūtis, Rashness is (the chai-
acteristic) of youth, prudence of old age. Cic. Est hoc Gallica consuetudinis. Cæs. Omnia hostium erant. A paucis emi, quod multōrum esset Sall. This happens especially when the subject of the verb is an infinitive mood, or an entire clause ; as, Adolescentis est majōres natu reverēri, It is (the duty) of a youth to reverence the aged. Ovid. Cujusvis hominis est errāre, nullius nisi insipientis, in errōre perseveräre. Cic. Paupēris est numeräre pecus Ovid. Negävit moris esse Gracōrum, ut in convivio virōrum accumbĕrent muliëres. Cic. Nihil tam aquanda libertātis esse. Liv. So when the vero is omitted; Tamen officii duxit, exorāre patrem, sc. esse. Suet.
(4.) The same construction sometimes occursafter facio, and some other verbs; as, Asia Romanörum facta est, Asia became (a possession) of the Romans. Just. Primum stipendium meruit annōrum decem septemque. Nep. Agrum suc ditiōnis fecisse. Liv.
(5.) The limited noun is sometimes wanting, when it is a general word, though not in the predicate after sum; as, Magni formī̀a labōris, sc. anخ خmal ; The ant (an animal) of great labor. Hor. So Ei venit in mentem potestātis tuc, sc. memoria, or the like. Cic.
(6.) The limited noun is wanting also, when, instead of the genitive, a possessive adjective or pronoun is used; as, Humãnum est erräre, To err is human. Ter. He partes fuērunt tuc. Cic. Non est mentïri meum. Ter. See § 211, Rem. 3, and 4.

Note. Grammarians differ in regard to the manner of supplying the word which is wanting, when it denotes a thing. Some suppose that negotium is understסod; others supply officium, munus, opus, res, causa, \&c . It seems, however, rather to be an instance of a construction common in Latin, to omit a noun when a general or indefinite idea is intended. See § 205, Rem. 7, (2.) The words to be supplied in English are various, according to the connection.

Rem. 9. The limiting noun is sometimes omitted; as, Tria millia, sc. passuum. In most cases of this kind, an adjective, adjective pronoun, or participle, is expressed in the genitive.

Rem. 10. Two genitives sometimes limit the same noun, one of which is commonly possessive or subjective, and the other objective; as, Agamemnŏnis belli gloria, Agamemnon's glory in war. Nep. Illius administratio provinciæ. Cic. Eōrum diērum consuetudĭne itiněris nostri exerč̌tus perspecta. Cæs.

Rem. 11. Opus and usus, signifying need, are rarely limited by a genitive; as, Argentí opus fuit, There was need of money. Liv. Ad consilium pensandum tempŏris opus esse. Id. Procmii non semper usus est. Quinct. Si quo opĕræ eōrum usus est. Liv. In a few instances, they are limited by an accusative; as, Puĕro opus est cibum (Plaut.); Usus est hominnem astütum (Id.); but in general they are limited by an ablative. See § 243.

Rem. 12. * The relation denoted by the genitive in Latin, is, in English generally expressed by of, or by the possessive case. The objective gen.tive may often be rendered by some other preposition; as, Remedium dolöris, A remedy for pain. Injuria patris, Injury to a father. Descensus Averni, The descent to Avernus. Ira belli, Anger on account of the war. Potestas rei, Power in or over a thing.
Note. Certain limitations of nouns are made by the accusative with a prepesition, and by the ablative, either with or without a preposition

## GENITIVE AFTER PARTITIVES.

§212. Nouns, adjectives, adjective pronouns, and adverbs, denoting a part, are followed by a genitive denoting the whole; as,

Pars civitātis, A part of the state. Nulla sorōrum, No one of the sisters. Aluquis philosophörum, Some one of the philosophers. Quis mortalium? Who of mortals? Major juvĕnum, The elder of the youths. Doctissimus Romanörum, The most learned of the Romans. Multum pecunic, Much (of) money. Satis eloquentic, Enough of eloquence. Ubinam gentium sumus? Where on earth are we ?

Note. The genitive thus governed denotes either a number, of which the partitive designates one or more individuals; or a whole, of which the partitive designates a portion. In the latter sense, it commonly follows neuter adjectives and adjective pronouns, and adverbs.

Remark 1. The nouns which denote a part are pars, nemo, nihil, \&c.; as,

Nemo nostrûm, No one of us. Omnium rerum nihil est agricultūrâ melius. Cic.

Rem. 2. Adjectives and adjective pronouns, denoting a part of a number, including partitives and words used partitively, comparatives, superlatives, and numerals, are followed by the genitive plural, or by the genitive singular of a collective noun. For the gender of the adjectives, See § 205, R. 12.
(1.) Partitives; as, ullus, nullus, solus, alius, uter, uterque, utercunquc, utervis, uterľ̆bet, neuter, alter, alterŭter, alăquis, quidam, quispiam, quisquis, quisque, quisquam, quicunque, unusquisque, quis ? qui? quot? quotus ! quotusquisque? tot, aliquot, nonnulli, plerīque, multi, pauci, medius. Thus, Qaisquis deōrum, Whoever of the gods. Ovid. Consŭlum alter, One of the consuls. Liv. Multi homĭnum, Many men. Plin. Medius omnium. Liv.
(2.) Words used partitively ; as, Expedīti militum, The light-armed soldiers. Liv. Supëri dcörum, The gods above. Hor. Sancte deōrum. Virg. Degenĕres canum. Plin. Piscium femĭna. Id.
(3.) Comparatives and superlatives; as, Doctior juøĕnum. Oratōrum prastantissimus.
(4.) Numerals, both cardinal and ordinal ; also the distributive singulli, as, Equittum centum quinquaginta interfecti, A hundred and fifty of the horsemen were killed. Curt. Sapientum octävus. Hor. Singŭlos vestrum. Curt.

Note 1. The comparative with the genitive denotes one of two individuals or classes; the superlative denotes a part of a number greater than two; as, Major fratrum, The elder of two brothers; Maximus fratrum, The eldest of three or more.

In like manner, uter, alter, and neuter, generally refer to two; quis, alius, and nullus, to more than two ; as, Uter nostrim? Which of us (two?) Quis vestrìm? Which of you (three or more?)

Note 2. Nostrìm and vestrîm are used after partitives, \&c., in preference to nostri and vestri. So also when joined with omnium.

Note 3. The partitive word is sometımes omitted; as, Fies nobilium tu quoque fontium, sc. unus. Hor. Centies sestertiulm, se. eentēna millia

Note 4. The noun denoting the whole, after a partitive word, is often put in the ablative, with the prepositions $d e, e, e x$, or $i n$, or in the accusative, with apud or inter ; as, Nemo de iis. Alter ex censoribus. Liv. Unus ex multis. Cic. Acerrimus ex sensǐbus. Id. Primus inter omnes. Virg. Crasus inter reges opulentisstmus. Sen. Apud Helvetios nobilisstmus.

Note 5. The whole and its parts are frequently placed in apposition, distributively; as, Interfectōres, pars in forum, pars Syracūsas pergunt liv. See §204, Rem. 10.

Note 6. Cuncti and omnes, like partitives, are sometimes followed by a genitive plural ; as, Attălus Macedŏnum fere omň̄bus persuāsit, Attalus persuaded almost all the Macedonians. Liv. Cunctos hominnum. Ovid. Cunctas provinciărum. Plin.

In the following passage, the genitive singular seems to be used like that of a collective noun: Totius autem injustitiæ nulla capitalior est, \&c. Cic. Off. 1, 13. The phrase Ren nullo modo probabŭlem omnium (Cic. Nat. Deor. 1, 27,) seems to be used for Rem nullo omnium modōrum probabžlem.

Rem. 3. The genitive denoting a whole, may depend on a neuter adjective or adjective pronoun. With these the genitive singular is commonly used ; as,

Plus eloquentia, More (of) eloquence. Tantum fidei, So much fidelity. Id tempŏris, That time. Ad hoc atātis. Sometimes the plural; as, Id miseriārum. Ter. Armōrum quantum. Cæs.

Note 1. Most neuter adjectives, thus used, denote quantity ; as, tantum, quantum, aliquantum, plus, minus, dimidium, multum, nimium, plurıтит, reliquum ; to which add medium, summum, ulť̌mum, aliud, \&c. The pronouns thus used are hoc, id, illud, istud, quod, and quid, with its compounds.
Most of these may either agree with their nouns, or take a genitive; but the latter is more common. Tantum, quantum, aliquantum, and plus, when they denote quantity, are used with a genitive only, as are also quid and its compounds, when they denote a part, sort, \&c., and quod in the sense of quantum. Thus, Quantum crevit Nilus, tantum spei in annum est. Sen. Quid muliěris uxōrem habes? What kind of a woman.... Ter. . 7 hquid formæ. Cic. Quid hoc rei est? What does this mean? Ter. Quod auri, quod argenti, quod ornamentōrum fuit, id Verres abstülit.

Note 2. Neuter adjectives and pronouns are scarcely used with a genitive, except in the nominative and accusative.

Note 3. Sometimes the genitive after these adjectives and pronouns is a neuter adjective, of the first and second declension, without a noun; as, Tantum boni, So much good. Si quid habes novi, If you have any thing new. Cic. Quid reliqui est? Ter. Nihil is also used with such a genitive ; as, Nihil sinceri, No sincerity. Cic. This construction sometimes, though rarely, occurs with an adjective of the third declension; as, Si quidquam non dico civīlis sed humāni esset. Liv.

Note 4. Ncuter adjectives in the plural number are sometimes followed by a genitive, either singular or plural, with a partitive signification; as, Extrēma imperii, The frontiers of the empire. Tac. Pontes et viärum angusta, The bridges and the narrow parts of the roads. Id. Opāca locōrum. Virg. Antìqua fédĕrum. Liv. Cuncta campōrum. Tac. Exerccat colles, alque horum asperrima pascunt. Virg. See § 205, Rem. 9.
Rem. 4. The adverbs sat, satis, parum, nimis, abunde, largĭ-
ter, affatim, and partim, used partitively, are often followed by a genitive; as,

Sat rationis, Enough of reason. Virg. Satis eloquentia, parum sapientia; Enough of eloquence, yet but little wisdom. Sall. Nimis insidiärum. Cic. Terröris et fraudis abunde est. Virg. Auri et argenti largiter. Plaut. Copiārum affătinn. Liv. Cùm partim illōrum mihi familiarisš̌mi cssent. Cic.

Note 1. The above words, though generally adverbs, seem, in this use, rather to be nouns or adjectives.

Note 2. The genitives gentium, terrärum, loci, and locōrum, are used after adverbs of place ; as, Usquam gentium, Any where. Plaut. Ubi terrārum sumus? Where in the world are we? Cic. Alire qù terrãrum possent. Liv. Ubi sit loci. Plin. Eo loci, In that place. Tac. Eōdem loci res est. Cic. Nescire quo loci esset. Id. But the last three examples might perhaps more properly be referred to Rem. 3.

The adverbs of place thus used are ubi, ubinam, ubicunque, ubiübi, ubrvis, usquam, nusquam, quд̀, quovis, quoquд, aľqud̀, ed, eōdem. Loci also occurs after ili and ibīdem; gentium after longè ; as, Ili loci, In that place. Plin. Abes longe gentium. Cic. Vicinia is used in the genitive after hic and huc by the comic writers; as, Hic proxima vicinice. Plaut. Huc vicinia. Ter.

Note 3. Huc, ed, qud, take also a genitive in the sense of degree; as, Ed insolentiæ furorisquc processit, He advanced to such a degree of insolence and madness. Plin. Huc enim malōrum ventum est. Curt. Huccinc rerum veň̌mus? Pers. Ed miseriārum. Sall. Qù̀ amentiæ progressi sitis. Liv.

Note 4. Loci, locōrum, and temporris, are used after the adverbs adhuc, inde, interea, posteas tum, and tunc, in expressions denoting time; as, Adhuc locōrum, Till now. Plaut. Inde loci, After that. Lucr. Interea loci, In the mean time. Ter. Postea loci, Afterwards. Sall. Tum tempŏris. Just. Tunc tempŏris. Id. Locōrum also occurs after id, denoting time; as, Ad id locörum, Up to that time. Sall.

Note 5. The genitive cjus sometimes occurs after quoad, in such connections as the following : Quoad ejus fiëri possit, As far as may be (Cic.); where some think quod, in the sense of quantum, should be read, instead of quoad.

Note 6. Pridie and postridie, though reckoned adverbs, are followed by a genitive, depending on the noun dies contained in them; as, Pridie ejus diēei, The day before that day. Cic. Pridie insidiärum. Tac. Postridie ejus diei $i$. Cæs. When they are followed by an accusative, ante or post is understood.

Note 7. Adverbs, in the superlative degree, like adjectives, are followed by a genitive; as, Optïme omnium, Best of all. Cic. Miň̌me gentium, By no means. Ter.

## GENITIVE AFTER ADJECTIVES.

## § 213. A noun, limiting the meaning of an adjective,

 is put in the genitive, to denote the relation expressed in English by of, or in respect of; as,[^17]So Nescia mens fati, A mind ignorant of fate. Virg. Impotens ire, Unable to control anger. Liv. Homǐnes expertes veritätis, Men destitute of truth. Cic. Lactis abundans, Abounding in milk. Virg. Terra ferax arbörum, Land productive of trees. Plin. Tenax propositi vir, A man tenacious of his purpose. Hor. AEger anxmi, Sick in mind. Liv* Intëger vitc scelerisque purus, Upright in life, and free from wickedness. Hor.

From the above examples, it will be seen that the genitive after an adjective is sometimes translated by other words besides of, or in respect of, though the relation which it denotes remains the same.

Remark 1. The adjectives whose signification is most frequently limited by a genitive, are,
(1.) Verbals in ax ; as, capax, edax, ferax, fugax, pervïcax, tenax, \&e
(2.) Particpials in ns, and a few in tus; as, amans, appĕtens, cuplens, patiens, impatiens, insollens, sitiens;-consultus, doctus, expertus, inexpertus, insuētus, insolïtus, solūtus.
(3.) Adjectives denoting

Desire and Disgust; as, avärus,av̌dus, cup̌dus, studiōsus; fastidiōsus.
Knowledge and Ignorance; as, callidus, conscius, gnarus, perītus, prudens; rudis, ignärus, inscius, imprī̃dens, imperitus, \&c.

Memory and Forgetfulness; as, memor ; immëmor, \&c.
Certainty and Doubt; as, certus;incertus, ambiguus, dubius, suspensus, \&c.

Care and Negligence; as, anxius, soličtus, provtdus; improoidus, secūrus, \&c.

Fear and Confidence; as, pavzdus, timídus; trepydus, impavǐdus, fidens, interritus, \&c.

Guilt and Innocence; as, noxius, reus, suspectus, compertus, manifestus ; innoxius, innŏcens, insons, \&c.

Plenty and Want; as, plenus, dives, satur, largus; inops, egenus, pauper, parcus, vacuus, \&c.

Many other adjectives are in like manner limited by a genitive, especially by aň̌mi, ingenii, mentis, ira, militic, belli, laböris, rerum, cevi, morum, and fidei.

Rem. 2. The limiting genitive, by a Greek construction, sometimes denotes a cause or source, especially in the poets; as, Lassus laböris, Weary of labor. Hor. Fessus vie. Stat. Fessus maris. Hor.

Rem. 3. Participles in ns, when used as such, take after them the same case as the verbs from which they are derived; as, Se amans, Loving himself. Cic. Mare terram appětens. Id.

Rem. 4. Instead of the genitive, denoting of, or in respect $o f$, a different construction is used after many adjectives; as,
(1.) An infinitive or clause ; as, Certus ire, Determined to go. Ovid. Cantäre perīti. Virg. Felicior unguëre tela. Id. Anxius quid facto opus sit. Sall.
(2.) An accusative with a preposition; as, Ad rem avidior. Ter. Avìdus in direptıōnes. Liv. Anïmus capax ad præcepta. Ovid. Ad casum fortunamque felix. Cic. Ad fraudem callǐdus. Id. Diľ̆gens ad custodiendun. Id. Negligentior in patrem. Just. Vir ad disciplinam perītus. Cic. Ad bella rudis. Liv. Potens in res bellícas. Id. Alăcer ad maleficia. Cic. Inter bellum et pacem nihil medium est. Id.
(3.) An accusative without a preposition, chiefly in the poets; as Vudus membra, Bare as to his limbs. Virg. Os, humerosque deo simylis Id. Cetěra fulvus. Hor. See $\$ 234$, II.
(4.) An ablative with a preposition ; as, Avydus in pecuniis, Eager ir . regard to money. Cic. Anxius de famâ. Quinct. Rudis in jure civili. Cic. Peritus de agricultūrâ. Varr. Prudens in jure civilli. Cic. Reus de vi. Id. Purus ab cultu humāno. Liv. Certior factus de re. Cic. Solič̌tus de re. Id. Super scelĕre suspectus. Sall. Inops ab amīcis. Cic. Pauper in ære. Hor. Modrcus in cultu. Plin. Ab aquis sterǐlis. Apul. Copiōsus a frumento. Cic. Ab equitātu firmus. Id.
(5.) An ablative without a preposition; as, Arte rudis, Rude in art. Ovid. Regni crimine insons. Liv. Compos mente. Virg. Prudens consilio. Just. AEger pedïbus. Sall. Prastans ingenio. Cic. Modǐcus severitāte. Tac. Níhil insidiis vacuum. Cic. Amor et melle et felle est fecundisstmus. Plaut. Medius Pollūce et Castơre. Ovid.

In many instances, the signification of the accusative and ablative after adjectives differs, in a greater or less degree, from that of the genitive.

Rem. 5. As many of the adjectives, which are followed by a genitive, admit of other constructions, the most common use of each, with particular nouns, can, in general, be determined only by recourse to the dictionary, or to the classics. Some have,
(1.) The gentive only ; as, benignus, exsors, impos, impŏtens, irř̌tus, liberālis, munif $\grave{c}$ cus, pralargus, and many others.
(2.) The genitive more frequently ; as, compos, consors, egēnus, exheres, expers, ferťlis, indðgus, parcus, pauper, prodigus, sterllis, prosper, insatiätus, insatiabrlis.
(3.) The genitive or ablative indifferently; as, copiōsus, dives,fecundus, ferax, immünis, inānis, inops, largus, modǐcus, immodǐcus, nimius, opulentus, plenus, potens, purus, refertus, satur, vacuus, uber.
(4.) The ablative more frequently; as, abundans, aliènus, cassus, extorris, firmus, fatus, frequens, gravis, grav̌dus, jejūnus, infirmus, liber, locŭples, latus, mactus, nudus, onustus, orbus, pollens, satiätus, tenuis, truncus, viduus.
(5.) The ablative only ; as, beātus, muť̌lus, tum̌dus, turǧ̌dus.

For the construction of the ablative after the preceding adjectives see § 250 .

Rem. 6. Some adjectives which are usually limited by a dative, sometimes take a genitive instead of the dative; as, simylis, dissimylis, \&c. See § 222, Rem. 2 ; or ablative § 250.

## GENITIVE AFTER VERBS.

§214. Sum, and verbs of valuing, are followed by a genitive, denoting degree of estimation; as,
A me argentum, quanti est, sumizto; Take of me so much money as (he) is worth. Ter. Magni astimäbat pecuniam, He valued money greatly. Cic. Ager nunc pluris est, quàm tunc fuit. Id.

Remark 1. This genitive may be,
(1.) A neuter adjective of quantity ; as, tanti, quanti, pluris, minōris, magni, permagni, plurimi, maximi, minimi, parvi, tantidem, quanticunque, quantivis, quantilibet, but not multi and majöris.
(2.) The nouns assis, flocci, nauci, niȟ̌li, pili, teruncii, and also pensi and hujus

Rem. 2. The verbs of valuing are asťmo, exisťmo, duco, facio, habeo, penio, puto, depŭto, taxo, to which may be added refert and intĕrest. Thus, Ut quanti quisque se ipse faciat, tanti fiat ab amicis; That as much as each one values himself, so much he should be valued by his friends. Cic. Sed quia parvi id ducĕret. Id. Honōres si magni non putēmus. Id. Non assis facis? Catull. Neque quod dixi, flocci existrmat. Plaut. Illud mea magni intĕrest, That greatly concerns me. Cic. Parvi refert jus dici. Id.

Note 1. FAqui and boni are put in the genitive after facio and consŭlo; as, Nos æqui boniqque factmus. Liv. Boni ronsuluit, He took it in good part. Plin.

Note 2. After astrmo, the ablatives magno, permagno, parvo, nihilo, are sometimes used; as, Data magno astǐmas, accepta parvo. Sen. So, Levi momento æstimāre. Cæs. So other ablatives, when definite price is denoted. Pro nihillo, also, occurs after duco, habeo, and puto. So nihil with astimo and moror.
Note 3. With refert and intërest, instead of the genitive, an adverb or neuter accusative is often used; as, Multum refert. Mart. Plurimum interěrit. Juv. Tua nihil referēbat. Ter. Quid autem illius intěrest? Cic.

Note 4. The neuter adjectives above enumerated, and hujus, may be referred to a noun understood, as pretii, cris, ponděris, momenti; and may be considered as limiting a preceding noun, also understood, and denoting some person or thing indefinite ; as, FEstǐmo te magni, i. e. homそ̌nem magni pretii. Scio ejus ordines auctoritātem somper apud te magni fuisse, i. e. rem magni momenti. The words assis, \&c., may also be considered as depending on an omitted noun, as pretio, rem, \&c.

For tanti, quanti, pluris, minöris, denoting price, see §'252.

## \$215. (1.) Miscreor, miseresco, and the impersonals

 misëret, pœnitet, pudet, tadet, and piget, are followed by a genitive of the object in respect to which the feeling is exercised ; as,Miseremǐni sociōrum, Pity the allies. Cic. Miserescy̌te regis, Pity the king. Virg. Tui me misĕret, mei piget, I pity you, and am sorry for myself. Acc. Eos ineptiārum pænچtet. Cic. Fratris me pudet pigetque. Ter. Me civitātis mozum piget tadetque. Sall. So the passive; Nunquum suscepti negotii eum pertasum est. Nep. Lenitudĭnis eorum pertesa. Tac. Miseř̌tum est me tuārum fortunārum. Ter. Cave te fratrum misereātur. Cic.

Miserescit is sometimes used in the same manner; as, Nunc te miserescat mei. Ter. Misereo, in the active voice, also occurs with a genitive; as, Ipse sui misĕret. Lucr. Pertesus ignaviam suam occurs in Suetonius.

Remark. The genitive after the above impersonals seems to depend on an indefinite subject which is omitted. See §209, Rem. 3, (4.) Instead of the genitive, an infinitive or clause is sometimes used as a subject; as, Non me hoc jam dicēre pudēbit. Cic. Non prenttet me quantum profecěrim. Id. These verbs have also sometimes a nominative, especially a neuter pronoun; as, Me quidem hac conditio non panttet. Plaut. Non te hæc pudent? Ter.

Misěret occurs with an accusative, instead of a genitıve; as, Menedémi vicem misëret me. Ter.

These verbs also take an accusative of the person exercising the feeling which they express. See § 229. Rem. 6
（2．）Satăgo is followed by a genitive denoting in what re－ spect；as，

Is satăgit rerum suārum， He is busily occupied with his own affairs． Ter．This compound is often written separately．Agito，with sut，in like manner，is followed by a genitive；as，Nunc agitas sat tute tuärum rerum． Plaut．

## § 216．Recordor，memini，reminiscor，and obliviscor，

 are followed by a genitive or accusative of the object remembered or forgotten；as，Flagitiorum suorum recordabitur．Cic．Pis．6．Omnes gradus atātis recordor tuce，I call to mind all the periods of your life．Id．Meminni vivō－ rum，I am mindful of the living．Id．Numerros memřni，I remember the measure．Virg．Cinnam memini，I remember Cinna．Cic．Reminisei vetëris famæ．Nep．Reminisci amīcos．Ovid．Injuriărum obliviscitur． Nep．Obliviscère Graios．Virg．

Remari 1．These verbs seem sometimes to be considered as active， and sometimes as neuter．As active，they take an accusative regularly； as neuter，they take a genitive，denoting that in respect to which mein－ ory，\＆c．are exercised．An infinitive or other clause sometimes follows these verbs；as，Oblīti quid deceat．Hor．Memそ̌ni te scribĕre．Cic．Quw sum passūra recordor．Ovid．

Rem．2．Recordor and mem̌ni，to remember，are sometimes followed by an ablative with de；as，Petでmus ut de suis libĕris ．．．．recordentur．Cic．

Rem．3．Memini，signifying to make mention of，has a genitive，or an ablative with de；as，Neque hujus rei meminnit poēta．Quint．Memimisti de exsulibus．Cic．For the genitive with venit in mentem，see §211， Rem．8，（5．）The genitive with recordor is very rare．
§ 21\％．Verbs of accusing，convicting，condemning， and acquitting，are followed by a genitive denoting the crime；as，

Arguit me furti，He accuses me of theft．Altĕrum accnsat probri， He accuses another of villany．Meipsum inertiæ condemno．Cic．

Remark 1．To this rule belong the verbs of
Accusing ；accūso，ago，arcesso，arguo，cito，defëro，incrĕpo，incüso， insimülo，postŭlo，and more rarely allygo，anquīro，astringo，capto，increp－ そ̀to，urgeo，interrŏgo．

Convicting ；convinco，coarguo，prehendo，teneor．
Condemning ；damno，condemno，infämo，and more rarely judǐco，noto， plector．

Acquitting；absolvo，libĕro，purgo，and rarely solvo
Rem．2．Instead of the genitive，an ablative with $d e$ is often used；as， Accusäre de negligentiâ．Cic．De vı condemnäti sunt．Id．De repetun－ dis est postulātus．Id．Sometimes with in；as，In quo te accūso（Cic．）• and after libĕro，with $a$ or $a b$ ；as，A scelĕre liberāti sumus．Cic．

With some of the above verbs，an ablative without a preposition is often used；as，Liberāre culpâ．Cic．Crimen quo argui posset．Nep．Procon－ sŭlem postularĕrat repetundis．Tac．This happens especially with general words denoting crime ；as，scelus，maleficium，peccātum，\＆c．；as，Me pec－ cāto solvo．Liv．The ablatives crimı̀ne and nomxne，without a preposition， are often inserted before the genitive；as，Arcessëre aliquem crinıine am－ b̌tû̂s．Liv．Nomĭne scclĕris conjurationisque damnāti．Cic．Sometimes a clause takes the place of the genitive；as，Eum accusābant quòd societã tem fecisset．Nep．So the infin．with the acc．Ovid．Met．13， 297.

Rem. 3. The punishment is expressed either by the genitive, the ablative, or the accusative with ad or in; as, Damnätus longi labōris (Hor.); Quadrupli condemnāri (Cic.); Damnāre pecunià (Just.), ad pœnam (Traj. in Plin.), in metallum (Plin.) ;-sometimes, though rarely, by the dative ; as, Damnātus morti. Lucr. In like manner, caput is used in the genitive or ablative; as, Duces capĭtis damnätos. Nep. Nec capĭte damnärer. Cic. So with some other verbs besides those of accusing, \&c. Quem ego capĭtis perdam. Plaut. Me capĭtis periclitātum memřni. Apul. With plecto and plector, caput is used in the ablatıve only.
Rem. 4. Accūso, incūso, insimŭlo, instead of the genitive, sometimes take the accusative, especially of a neuter pronoun; as, Si id me non accūsas. Plaut. Quæ me incusavĕras. Ter. Sic me insimuläre falsum facĭnus. Plaut. See § 231, Rem. 5.

Rem. 5. The following verbs of accusing, \&c., are not followed by a genitive of the crime, but, as active verbs, by an accusative :-calumnior, carpo, corripio, crimǐnor, culpo, excūso, multo, punio, reprehendo, sugillo, taxo, tradūco, vitupĕro; as, Culpāre infecunditātem agrōrum. Colum. Excusāre errōrem et adolescentiam. Liv.

This construction also occurs with some of the verbs before enumerated; as, Ejus avaritiam perfidiamque accusārat. Nep. Culpam arguo. Liv. With multo, the punishment is put in the ablative only, without a preposition ; as, Exsiliis, morte multantur. Cic.
§218. Verbs of admonishing are followed by a genitive denoting that in respect to which the admonition is given; as,

Milites tempŏris monet, He admonishes the soldiers of the occasion. Tac. Admonēbat alium egestātis, alium cupiditātis sua. Sall.

Remark 1. The yerbs of admonishing are moneo, admoneo, commoneo, commonefacio. Instead of the genitive, they sometimes have an ablative with de; as, De æde Tellüris me admönes (Cic.);-sometimes a neuter accusative of an adjective pronoun or adjective ; as, Eos hoc moneo (Cic.) ; lllud me admoneo (Id.) ; Multa admonémur (Id.);-and rarely a noun; as, Eam rem nos locus admonuit. Sall.

Rem. 2. These verbs, instead of the ${ }^{\text {genitive, }}$ are often followed by an infinitive or clause ; as, Soror monet succurrěre Lauso Turnum, His sister admonishes Turnus to succor Lausus. Virg. Monet, ut suspiciōnes vitet. Cæs. Monet rationem frumenti esse habendam. Hirt. Immortalia ne speres monct annus. Hor. See §§ 271-273.
§219. Refert and intĕrest are followed by a genitive of the person or thing whose concern or interest they denote ; as,

Humanitätis refert, It concerns human nature. Plin. Intĕrest omnium rectè facĕre, It concerns all to do right. Cic.

Remark 1. Instead of the genitive of the substantive pronouns, the adjective pronouns mea, tua, sua, nostra, and vestra, are used; as,
Mea nihil refert, It does not concern me. Ter. Tua et mea max̌me intërest, te valēre. Cic. Magis reipublícæ intërest quàm mea. Id.

Refert rarely occurs with the genitive, but often with the adjective pronouns.

Rem. 2. In regard to the case of these adjective pronouns, gramma-
rians differ. Some suppose that they are in the accusative plural neuter, agreeing with an indefinite noun understood; as, Intërcst mea, i. e. est inter mea; It is among my concerns. Refert tua, i. e. refert se ad tua; It refers itself to your concerns. Others think that they are in the ablative singular feminine, agreeing with re, caus $\hat{a}, \& c$., understood, or the dative.

Rem. 3. Instead of a genitive, an accusative with ad is sometimes used; as, Ad honōrem meum intĕrest quàm primùm urbem me venĩre (Cic.) ; Quid id ad me aut ad meam rem refert (Plaut.) ;-sometimes, though rarely, an accusative without a preposition; as, Quid te igर̌tur retŭlit? (Plaut.) ;-or a dative ; as, Dic quid refĕrat intra natüra fines viventi. Hor.

Rem. 4. These verbs often have a nominative, especially a neuter pronoun; as, Id mea minĭmè refert. Ter. Hoc vehementer intêrest reipublîcce. Cic. Non qud mea interesset loci natüra. Id.

For the gentives tanti, quanti, \&c., after refert and intěrest, see § 214.
§220. Many verbs which are usually otherwise construed, are sometimes followed by a genitive. This rule includes

1. Certain verbs denoting an affection of the mind ; ango, discrucior, excrucio, fallo, pendeo, which are followed by anrmi; decipior, desipio, fallor, fastudio, invideo, miror, vereor; as, Alsurde facis qui angas te anĭmi. Plaut. Me anirmi fallit. Lucr. Decip̌̌tur labōrum. Hor. Desipiēbum mentis. Plaut. Justitiæ ne prius mirer bellīne labōrum. Virg.
2. The following, in imitation of the Greek idiom; abstineo (Hor.), desinno (Id.), desisto (Virg.), laudo (Sil.), levo (Plaut.), particǐpo (Id.), pro. hibeo (Sil.), purgo (Hor.) apiscor, (Tac.) Regnāvit populörum Id. Od. $3,30,12$. for which somê manuscripts read regnātor.
3. Some verbs denoting to fill, to abound, to woant, which are commonly followed by an ablative. Such are abundo, careo, compleo, expleo, impleo, egeo, indigeo, satŭro, scateo; as, Adolescentem suce temeritatis implet, He fills the youth with his own rashness. Liv. Any̆mum explesse flammæ Virg. Egeo consilii. Cic. Non tam artis indrgent quàm labōris. Id. See §§ 249 and 250 , (2.)
4. Potior, which also is usually followed by an ablative; as, Urbis potirir, To gain possession of the city. Sall. Potīri regni (Cic.), hostium (Sall.), rerum (Cic.) Potio (active) occurs in Plautus; as, Eum nunc potivit servitutis, He has made him partaker of slavery. In the same writer, potitus est hostium signifies, "he fell into the hands of the enemy." So. Rerum adeptus est. Tac.

## GENITIVE OF PLACE.

\$221. I. The name of a town in which any thing is said to be, or to be done, if of the first or second declension and singular number, is put in the genitive ; as,

Habritat Milēti, He lives at Miletus. Ter. Quid Roma faciam? What can I do at Rome? Juv.

Remark 1. Names of islands and countries are sometimes put in the genitive, like names of towns; as, Ithăce vivĕre, To live in Ithaca. Cic. Corcȳre fuimus. Id. Pompeium Cypri visum esse. Cæs. Crete jussit considëre Apollo. Virg. Non Libyce. Id. Roma Numidiaque. Sall.

Rem. 2. Instead of the genitive, the ablative of names of towns of the first and second declension and singular number, is sometimes, though
rarely, used; as, Rex Tyro decēdit, The king dies at Tyre. Just. Et Corintho et Athēnis et Lacedamŏne nunciāta est victoria. Id. Pons quem ille Aby̆do fecěrat. Id. Hujus exemplar Romà nullum habēmus. Vitruv. Non ante Tyro. Virg.

Rem. 3. The genitives domi, militia, belli, and humi, are construed like names of towns; as,

Tenuit se domi, He staid at home. Cic. Vir domi clarus. Liv. Und semper militiæ et domi furmus, We were always together both at home and abroad. Ter. Belli spectäta domīque virtus. Hor. Militice and belli are thus used, especially when opposed to domi. Spargit humi jussos dentes. Ov.
(1.) Domi is thus used with the possessives mea, tua, sua, nostra, vestra, and aliēna; as, Domi nostræ vixit, He lived at my house. Cic. Apud eum sic fui tanquam meæ domi. Id. Sacrificium, quod aliênæ domi fierret invisĕre. Id. But with other adjectives, an ablative, with or without a preposition, is used; as, In vidud domo. Ovid. Paternad domo. Id. Sometimes also with the possessives; as, Meat in domo. Hor. In domo sud. Nep. So, instead of humi, humo is sometimes used, with or without a preposition; as, In humo arenōsa. Ovid. Sedēre humo nuda. Id.
(2.) When a genitive denoting the possessor follows, either domi or in domo is used; as, Deprehensus domi Casăris. Cic. In domo Casăris. Id. In domo ejus. Nep.
(3.) The ablative domo for domi also occurs ; as, Ego id nunc experior domo. Plaut. Bello for belli is found in Livy, Lib. 9. 26-Doni bellöque.
(4.) Terra is sometimes used like humi ; as, Sacra terræ celavrmus. Liv. Vicinia occurs in Plautus-Proximes vicinix habrtat.
(5.) The genitive of names of towns, domi, militic, \&c., are supposed by some to depend on a noun understood; as, urbe, opptdo, adrlus, solo, loco, tempŏre, \&c.

## GENITIVE AFTER PARTICLES.

II. Certain adverbs are followed by the genitive. See § 212, Rem. 4.
III. The genitive plural sometimes depends on the preposition tenus; as, Cumãrum tenus, As far as Cumæ (Cœl.) ; Crurum tenus (Virg.); Latęrum tenus (Id.) ;-sometimes, also, though rarely, the genitive singular; as, Corcȳra tenus. Liv.

## DATIVE.

## DATIVE AFTER ADJECTIVES.

§ 222. A noun limiting the meaning of an adjective, is put in the dative, to denote the object or end to which the quality is directed; as,

Utzlis agris, Useful to the fields. Juv. Jucundus amĩcis, Agreeable to his friends. Mart. Inimĩcus quiēti, Unfriendly to rest. Id. Charta inuť̃lis scribendo, Paper not useful for writing. Plin.

The dative is commonly translated by the prepositions to or for; but sometimes by other prepositions, or without a preposition.

Remark 1. Adjectives signifying advantageous, pleasant, friendly, fit, like, inclined, ready, easy, clear, equal, and their opposites, also those signifying near, many compounded with con, and verbals in bilis, are followed by the dative; as,

Felix tuis, Propitious to your friends. Virg. Oratio ingrāta Gallis, A speech displeasing to the Gauls. Cæs. Amĩcus tyrannidi, Friendly to tyranny. Nep. Laböri inhabrlis, Unsuited to labor. Colum. Patri sim̌lis, Like his father. Cic. Aptum tempŏri. Id. Malo pronus. Sen. Promptus seditiōni. Tac. Cuivis fačle est. Ter. Mihi certum est. Cic. Par fratri tuo. Id. Falsu veris finitrina sunt. Id Ocŭli concolōres corpöri Colum. Multis bonis flebrilis. Hor.

Many adjectives of other significations are also followed by a dative of the end or object.

After verbals in bilis, the dative is usually rendered by the preposition by; as, Tibi credibriis sermo, A speech credible to you, i. e. worthy to be believed by you. Ovid.

The expression dicto audiens, signifying obedient, is followed by the dative ; as, Syracusäni nobis dicto audicntes sunt. Cic. Audiens dicto fuit jussis magistratuum. Nep. In this phrase, dicto is a dativ 9 limiting audiens, and the words dicto audiens seem to form a compound equivalent to obediens, and, like that, followed by a dative; thus, Nec plebs nobis dicto audiens atque obediens sit. Liv.

Rem. 2. The adjectives aquälis, affinis, aliènus, commūnis, fidus, insū̃tus, par, dispar, proprius, propinquus, sacer, sim̌lis, consim̌lis, dissimilis, socius, vicinus, superstes, supplex, and some others, instead of a dative of the object, are sometimes followed by a genitive; as, Simŭlis tui, Like you. Plaut. Par hujus, Equal to him. Lucan. Cujusque proprium. Cic. But most of these, when thus used, seem rather to be taken substantively; as, Eqquālis ejus, His equal. Cic.

Rem. 3. Some adjectives with the dative are followed by another case denoting a different relation; as, Mcns sibi conscia recti, A mind conscious to itself of rectitude. Virg. See § 213 .

Rem. 4. Many adjectives, instead of the dative of the end or object, are often followed by an accusative with a preposition.
(1.) Adjectives signifying advantageous, fit, and the opposite, take an accusative of the purpose or end with ad, but only a dative of the person; as, Ad nullam rem utellis. Cic. Locus aptus ad insidias. Id.
(2.) Adjectives denoting motion or tendency, take an accusative with ad more frequently than a dative; as, Piger ad pœnas, ad præmia velox (Ovid.) ; Ad alĭquem morbum proclivior (Cic.) ; Ad omne facĭnus parātus (Id.) ; Pronus ad fidem (Liv.);-sometimes with in; as, Celer in pugnam. Sil.
(3.) Many adjectives, signifying an affection of the mind, sometimes have an accusative of the object with in, erga, or adversìs; as, Fidēlis in filios. Just. Mater acerba in suos partus. Ovid. Gratus erga me. Cic. Gratum adversùs te. Id. So Dissimillis in domĭnum. Tac.
(4.) Adjectives signifying like, equal, common, \&c., when plural, are often followed by the accusative with inter; as, Inter se simyles. Cic. Inter eos commũnis. Id. Inter se diversi. Id.

Rem. 5. Propior and proximus, instead of the dative, have sometimes an accusative without a preposition; as, Quod vituw propius virtatem
crat. Sall. P. Crassus prox̆̆mus more Oceănum hiemārat. Cæs. Ager, qui prox̌mus finem Megalopolitärum est. Liv.

Rem. 6. Some adjectives, instead of the dative, have at times an ablative with a preposition. Thus, par, commūnis, consentaneus, discors, with cum; as, Quem parenn cum liběris fecisti. Sall. Consentaneum cum iis litěris. Cic. Civìtas secum discors. Liv. So aliēnus and diversus with a or ab; as, Aliēnus a me (Ter.); A ratiōne diversus (Cic.); or without a preposition; as, Aliēnum nostrâ amicitiâ. Id.

Rem. 7. Idem is sometimes followed by the dative, chiefly in the poets; as, Jupそ̌ter omnĭbus idem. Virg. Invītum qui servat idem facit occidenti. Hor. In the first example, omnxbus is a dative of the object; in the second, the dative follows idem, in imitation of the Greek construction with aujios, and is equivalent to quod facit is, qui occidit. Idem is generally followed not by a case, but by qui, ac, atque, ut, or quàm; sometimes by the preposition cum; as, Eōdem mecum patre. Tac. Simxlis and par are sometimes, like idem, followed by ac and atque.

Note. Nouns are sometimes followed by a dative of the object; as, Virtutzbus hostis. Cic. Caput Italia omni. Liv. See § 211, Rem. 5. Vir ex sententia ambōbus. Sall. Tibi in promptu est, It is easy for you.

## DATIVE AFTER VERBS.

\$223. A noun limiting the meaning of a verb, is put in the dative, to denote the object or end, to or for which any thing is, or is done; as,

Mea domus tibi patct, My house is open to you. Cic. Pars optäre locum tecto, A part choose a site for a building. Virg. Tibi seris, tibi metis; You sow for yourself, you reap for yourself. Plaut. Licet nemini contra patriam ducěre exercitum, It is lawful to no one to lead an army against his country. Cic. Hoc tibi promitto, I promise this to you. Id. Haret latěri letālis arundo. Virg. Surdo falŭlam narras. Hor. Mihi responsum dedit. Virg. Sic vos non vobis fertis aratra boves. Id Omň̌bus bonis expědit salvain csse rempublicam. Cic. Aptat habendo ensem. Virg.

The dative is thus used after active and neuter verbs, both personal and impersonal, and in both voices.

Remari 1. The dative after many verbs is rendered not by to or for, but by other prepositions, or without a preposition. Many neuter verbs are translated into English by an active verb, and the dative after them is usually rendered like the object of an active verb.

Most verbs after which the signs to and for are not used with the dative, are enumerated in this and the following sections.

Rem. 2. Many verbs signifying to favor, please, trust, and their contraries, also to assist, command, obey, serve, resist, threaten, and be angry, govern the dative; as,

Illa tibi favet, She favors you. Ovid. Mihi placēbat Pomponius, mintme displicêlat. Cic. Qui sibi fidit. Hor. Non licet sui commŏdi causd nocēre altēri. Cic. Nôn invidétur illi ætāti sed etiam favêtur. Id. Despèrat salüti sua. Id. Neque mihi vestra decrēta auxiliantur. Sall. Impěrat aut seroit collecta pecunia cuique. Hor. Oledire et parëre voluntati. Cic. Quoniam factioni inimicōrum resistěre nequiněrit. Sall. Mihi minabātur Cic. Irasci inimicis. Cæs.

So Adūlor, blandior, commŏdo, faveo, gratifícor, grator, gratŭlor and its verbal gratulabundus, ignosco, indulgeo, palpor, parco, plaudo, studeo, subparasitor; amŭlor, incommŏdo, invideo, noceo.-Placeo, libet or lubet; displiceo.-Credo, fido, confido ; despēro, diffìdo.-Adminicŭlor, auxilior, medeor, medicor, opitülor, patroč̆nor.-Impĕro, mando, modĕror (to restrain), pracipio, tempĕro.-Ausculto, morigĕror, obedio,obsecundo,obsěquor, obtcmpĕro, pareo.-Ancillor, famŭlor, ministro, servio, inservio.-Refrägor, reluctor, renitor, repugno, resisto, and, chiefly in the poets, bello, certo, luctor, pugno.-Minor, commǐnor, internurnor.-Irascor, succenseo, to which may be added convicior, degenĕra, excello, nubo (to marry), prastölor, pravarǐcor, recipio (to promise), renuncio, respondeo, suadeo, persuadeo, dissuadeo, supplico, and sometimes latco and decet.
(1.) Many of the above verbs, instead of the dative, are sometimes followed by an accusative; as, adūlor, ausculto, blandior, degenĕro, despēro, indulgeo, lateo, medeor, medĩcor, modĕror, prastŏlor, provideo, \&c.; as, Adulări alĭquem. Cic. Tac. Hanc cave degenĕres. Ovid. Indulgeo me. Ter. Hujus adventum prastölans. Cees. Providēre .rem frumentarium. Id. Sometimes by a preposition and the ablative.

Others, as active verbs, have, with the dative, an accusative, expressed or understood; as, impĕro, mando, ministro, minor, commŭnor, intermı̆nor, pracipio, recipio, renuncio, \&c.; as, Equĭtes impěrat civitatĭbus. Cæs. Ministrāre victum alicui. Varr. Deflagrationem urbi et Italie toti minabātur. Cic.
(2.) Many verbs which, from their significations, might be included in the above classes, are, as active verbs, only followed by an accusative; as, delecto, juro, lado, offendo, \&c. Jubeo is followed by the accusative with an infinitive, and sometimes, though rarely, by the accusative alone, or the dative with an infinitive; as, Jubeo te bend sperāre. Cic. Lex jubet ea que facienda sunt. Id. Ubi Britannı̆co jussit exsurgĕre. Tac. Fido and confido are often followed by the ablative, with or without a preposition; as, Fiderre cursu. Ovid.
§224. Many verbs compounded with these eleven prepositions, ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, pra, pro, sub, and super, are followed by the dative; as,
Annuecæptis, Favor our undertakings. Virg. Romänis equitĭbuslitěrre afferuntur, Letters are brought to the Roman knights. Cic. Antecellĕre omnĭbus, To excel all. Id. Antetiilit iræ religiōnem. Nep. Audetque viris concurrëre virgo. Virg. Exercǐtum exercitui, duces ducǐbus comparāre. Liv. Immưnct his aër. Ovid. Pecŏri signum impressit. Virg. Nox prælió intervēnit. Liv. Interdixit histrionibus scenam. Suet. Meis commŏdis off tcis et obstas. Cic. Cùm se hostium telis objecissent. Id. Posthabui mea seria fudo. Virg. Certamǐni prasēdit. Suet. Hibernis Labiēnum praposuit. Cæs. Vobis profuit ingenium. Ovid. Misěris succurrĕre disco. Virg. Iis subsidia submittēbat. Cæs. Timĭdis supervĕnit JEgle. Virg. So

1. Accēdo, accresco, accumbo, acquiesco, adequžto, adhareo, adjaceo, adno, adnăto, adsto, adstipŭlor, adsum, adversor, affulgeo, allăbor, annuo, appareo, applaudo, appropinquo, arrideo, aspìro, assentior, assideo, assisto, assuesco, assurgo;-addo, afféro, affigo, adjicio, adjungo, adhibeo, admoveo, adverto, alligo, appōno, applxco, advolvo, aspergo.
2. Antecēdo, antecello, unteeo, antesto, antevenio, anteverto,-antefēro, antehabeo, antepōno.
3. Cohaereo, collūdo, concĭno, congruo, consentio, consŏno, convĩvo, and, chiefly in the poets, coëo, coneumbo, concurre, contendo :-compăro, compōno, confèro, conjungc
4. Inč̌do, incumbo, indormio, inhio, ingemisco, inhcereo, innascor, innītor, insideo, insidior, insto, insisto, insüdo, insulto, invädo, invig $\times$ lo, illacry̆mo, illū̀do, immineo, immorior, immŏror, impendeo, insum; ;-immisceo, impōno, imprı̈mo, infêro, ingĕro, injício, inclūdo, insĕro, inspergo, inüro.
5. Intercēdo, interč̌do, interjaceo, intermर̌co, intersum, intervenio ;-interdĩco, interpòno.
6. Obambŭlo, oberro, obeqǔ̌to, obluctor, obmurmŭro, obrēpo, olsto, obsisto, obstrĕpo, obsum, obtrecto, obvenio, obversor, occumbo, occurro, occurso, officio ;-obdūco, objicio, offēro, offundo, oppōno.
7. Postfĕro, posthabeo, postpōno, postpŭto, postscrībo.
8. Pracedo, pracurro, praeo, prasideo, praluceo, praniteo, prasum, pravaleo, pravertor ;-praféro, praficio, prapōno.
9. Procumbo, proficio, propugno, prosum, prospicio, provideo.
10. Succēdo, succumbo, succurro, sufficio, suffrägor, subcresco, suboleo, subjaceo, subrēpo, subsum, subvenio ;-subdo, suljŭgo, submitto, suppōno, substerno.
11. Supercurro, supersto, supersum, supervenio, supervĩo.

Remari 1. Some verbs, compounded with $a b, d e$, ex, circum, and contra, are occasionally followed by the dative; as, absum, desum, deläbor, exctdo, circumdo, circumfundo, circumjaceo, circumjicio, contradico, contraëo; as, Serta capǐti'delapsa, The garlands having fallen from his head. Virg. Nunqui nummi cxcidērunt tibi ${ }^{\text {P }}$ Plaut. Tigris urbi circumfundžtur. Plin.

Rem. 2. Some verbs of repelling and taking away (most of which are compounds of $a b, d e$, or $e x$ ), are sometimes followed by the dative, though more commonly by the ablative; as, ab̌̆go, abrŏgo, abscindo, aufěro, adĭmo, arceo, defendo, demo, derŏgo, detrăho, cripio, eruo, excutio, ex̌mo, extorqueo, cxträho, exuo, surripio. Thus, Ncc milii te eripient, Nor shall they take you from me. Ovid. Solstitium pecơri defendxte. Virg. Hunc arcélis pecơri. Id. So rarely abrumpo, aliēno, furor, and rapio.

Rem. 3. Some verbs of differing (compounds of di or dis) likewise occur with the dative, instead of the ablative with a preposition; as, diffèro, discrĕpo, discordo, dissentio, dissideo, disto; as, Quantum simplex hilarisque nepóti discrěpet, et quantum discordet parcus avaro. Hor. So likewise misceo ; as, Mista modestiæ gravitas. Cic.

Rem. 4. Many verbs compounded with prepositions, instead of the dative, either constantly or occasionally take the case of the preposition, which is sometines repeated. Sometimes, also, one of similar signification is used; as, Ad primam vocem timǐdas advertitis aures. Ovid. Nemo eum antecessit. Nep. Inférunt omnia in ignem. Cæs. Silex incumbēbat ad amnem. Virg. Conferte hanc pacem cum illo bello. Cic.

Rem. 5. Some neuter verbs compounded with prepositions, either take the dative, or, acquiring an active signification, are followed by the accusative; as, Helvetii relı̆quos Gallos rirtūte pracē̈dunt, The Helvetii surpass the other Gauls in valor. Cæs. Uterque Isocrătem atāte pracurrit. Cic. So praeo, prasto, praverto, pracello. See § 233.
§225. I. Verbs compounded with satis, benè, and malè, are followed by the dative; as,

Et nature et legĭbus satisfecit, He satisfied both nature and the laws. Cic. Tibi diitenefaciant onnes, May all the gods bless you. Plaut. Mal


These compounds are often written separately; and the dative always depends not on satis, bene, and male, but on the simple verb.
II. Verbs in the passive voice are sometimes followed by a dative of the agent, chiefly in the poets; as, Neque cerňtur ulli, Nor is he seen by any one. Virg. Nülla tuärum audīta mihi neque visa sorōrum. Id. But the agent after passives is usually in the ablative with a preposition. See § 248.
III. The participle in $d u s$ is followed by a dative of the agent; as,

Unda omnĭbus enaviganda, The wave which must be passed over by all. Hor. Adhibenda est nobis diligentia, We must use diligence. Cic. Vestigiu summōrum hom̌̌num sibi tuenda esse dicit. Id. Dolendum est tibi ipsi. Hor. Faciendum mihi putāvi, ut respondērem. Id.

Remark 1. The dative is sometimes wanting when the agent is indefinite; as, Orandum est, ut sit mens sana in corpŏre sano. Juv. Hìc vincendum aut moriendum, milittes, est. Liv. In such examples, tibi, vobis, nobis, hominitus, \&c., may be supplied.

Rem. 2. The participle in dus sometimes, though rarely, has, instead of the dative, an ablative with $a$ or $a b$; as, Deus est venerandus a nobis Cic.
IV. Verbs signifying motion or tendency are followed by an accusative with ad or $i n$; or by an adverb of place as,

Ad templum Pallădis ibant. Virg. Ad prætōrem homžnem traxit. Cic. Vergit ad septemtriōnes. Cæs. In conspectum venire. Nep. Huc venit.
So curro, duco, fero, festino, fugio, inclīno, lego, pergo, porto, pracipťto, propěro, tendo, tollo, vado, verto.

So likewise verbs of calling, exciting, \&c.; as, Eurum ad se vocat. Virg. Provocâsse ad pugnam. Cic. So aň̆mo, hortor, inč̌to, invīto, lacesso, stimŭlo, susč̌to ; to which may be added attineo, conformo, pertineo, and specto.

But the dative is sometimes used after these verbs; as, Clamor it colo. Virg. Dum tibi litěrre mea veniant. Cic. After venio both constructions are used at the same time; as, Venit mihi in mentem. Cic. Venit mihi in suspiciōnem. Nep. Eum venisse Germãnis in amicitiam cognověrat Cæs. Propinquo (to approach) takes the dative only.
§226. Est is followed by a dative denoting a posses sor ;-the thing possessed being the subject of the verb.

Est thus used may generally be translated by the gerb to have with the dative as its subject; as, Est mihi domi pater, I have a father at home. Virg. Sunt nobis mitia poma, We have mellow apples. Id. Gratia nobis opus est tud, We have need of your favor. Cic. Innocentiæ plus pericüli quàm honōris est. Sall. An nescis longas regĭbus esse manus? Ovid. The first and second persons of sum are not thus construed.

Remark. The dative is used with a similar signification after fore, sup. pěto, desum, and defit ; as, Pauper enim non est, cui rerum suppětit usus. Hor. Si mihi cauda foret, cercopithēcus eram. Mart. Defuit ars vobis. Ovid. Non defŏre Arsacǐdis virtūtem. 'l'ac. Lac mihi non defit. Virg.
§ 227. Sum, and several other verbs, are followed by two datives, one of which denotes the object to which the other the end for which, any thing is, or is done; as,

Mihi maxrme est curæ, It is a very great care to me. Cic. Spero nobis hanc conjunctiōnem voluptâti fore, I hope that this union will bring pleasure to us. Id. Matri puellam dono dedit. Ter. Fabio laudi datum est. Cic. Vitio id tibi vertunt. Plaut. Id tibi honōri habētur. Cic. Maturävit collēge venīre auxilio. Liv.

Remark 1. The verbs after which two datives occur, are sum, fore, fio, do, duco, habeo, relinquo, tribuo, verto ; also curro, eo, mitto, proficiscor, venio, appōno, assigno, cedo, compăro, patco, suppeditto, emo, and some others.

Rem. 2. The dative of the end is often used after these verbs, without the dative of the object; as, Exemplo est formica, The ant is (serves) for an example. Hor. Absentium bona divisui fuēre. Liv. Rel̄̃quit pignori putamina. Plaut.

Rem. 3. The verb sum, with a dative of the end, may be variously rendered; as by the words brings, affords, serves, \&c. The sign for is often omitted with this dative, especially after sum; instead of it, as, or some other particle, may at times be used; as, Ignavia erit tibi magno dedecorri, Cowardice will bring great disgrace to you. Cic. Hac res est argumento, This thing is an argument, or serves as an argument. Id. Universos curæ habuit. Suet. Una eres erat magno usui, .... was of great use. Lucil. Quod tibi magnopĕre cordi est, mihi vehementer displĭcet; What is a great pleasure, an object of peculiar interest to you, \&c. Id.

Sometimes the words fit, able, ready, \&c., must be supplied, especially before a gerund or a gerundive; as, Cüm solvendo civitātes non essent, .... not able to pay. Cic. Divïtcs, qui onĕri ferendo essent. Liv. Qua restinguendo igni forent. Liv. Radix ejus est vescendo. Plin.

Rem. 4. Instead of the dative of the end, a nominative is sometimes used ; as, Amor est exitium pecorri (Virg.) ; or an accusative, with or without a preposition ; as, Achilli comitem esse datum ad bellum. Cic. Se Remis in clientēlam dicäbant. Cæs.; or an abl. with or without pro. Sall.

Rem. 5. The dative of the object after sum, \&c. often seems rather to depend upon the dative of the end, than upon the verb; as in the example Ego omňbbus meis exitio fuĕro (Cic.), in which omň̌bus meis has the same relation to exitio that pecorri has to exitium in the above example from Virgil. For the use of the dative after a noun, see § 211, Rem. 5.

Note 1. The dative is sometimes used after the infinitive, instead of the accusative, when a dative precedes, and the subject of the infinitive is omitted ; as, Vobis necesse est forť̆bus esse viris. Liv. Max̌̆no tibi et civi et duci evadère contйgit. Val. Max. See §§ 205, Rem. 6, and 239, Rem. 1.

Note 2. In such expressions as Est mihi nomen Alexandro, Cui cognōmen Iūlo addžtur, the proper name is put in the dative in apposition with that which precedes, instead of taking the case of nomen or $\operatorname{cognn} \overline{-}$ men. See § 204, Rem. 8.

## DATIVE AFTER PARTICLES.

§228. Some particles are followed by the dative of the end or object ; as,

1. Some adverbs derived from adjectives; as, Proxymè castris, Very near to the camp. Cæs. Congruenter natūra, Agreeably to nature. Cic. Propiìs stabŭlis armenta tenërent. Virg. Vitæque homînum amīcè vivĕre. Id. Bene mihi, lene vobis. Plaut. So obviam; as, Mihi olviam venisti Cic. Sumos est exadversum Milēto. App.
2. Certain prepositions, especially in comic writers ; as, Mihi clam est, It is unknown to me. Plaut. Contra nobis. Id. But in such instances they are rather used like adjectives.
3. Certain interjections; as, Hei mihi! Ah me! Virg. Va mihi! Wo is me! Ter. Va victis!Liv. Va te! occurs in Plautus. Eccetibi. Cic.

Note. The dative of the substantive pronouns seems sometimes redundant, or to affect the meaning but little; as, Fur mihi es, .... in my opinion. Plaut. An ille mihi liber, cui mulier impĕrat? Cic. Tongiliưn mihi eduxit. Id. Ubi nunc nobis deus ille magister? Virg. Ecce tibi Sebösus! Cic. Hem tibi talentum argenti Philippřcum est. Plaut. Sibi is sometimes subjoined to suus; as, Suo sibi gladio hunc jugŭlo. Plaut. Sibi suo tempöre. Cic.-This is sometimes called the datīrus ethïcus.

## ACCUSATIVE.

## ACCUSATIVE AFTER VERBS.

\$229. The object of an active verb is put in the accusative; as,

Legātos mittunt, They send ambassadors. Cæs. Aňmus movet corpus, The mind moves the body. Cic. Da veniam hanc, Grant this favor. Ter. Eum imitatit sunt, They imitated him. Cic.

Remark 1. An active verb, with the accusative, often takes a genitive, dative, or ablative, to express some additional rela tion; as,

Te convinco amentiæ, I convict you of madness. Cic. Da locum meli oribus, Give place to your betters. Ter. Solvit se Teucria luctu, Troy frees herself from grief. Virg. See those cases respectively.

Rem. 2. Such is the difference of idiom between the Latin and English languages, that many verbs which are considered active in one, are used as neuter in the other. Hence, in translating active Latin verbs, a preposition mast often be supplied in English; as, Ut me cavēret, That he should beware of me. Cic. On the other hand, many verbs, which in Latin are neuter, and do not take an accusative, are rendered into English by active verbs.

Rem. 3. The verb is sometimes omitted :-

1. To avoid its repetition; as, Eventum senātus, quem (sc. dare) vidobitur, dabit. Liv.
2. Dico, and verbs of similar meaning, are often omitted; as, Quid multa? quid? Ne multa, sc. dicam. Quid (sc. de eo dicam) quod salus sociōrum in discrīmen vocātur? Cic. So quid? sc.ais or censes?

Rem. 4. The accusative is often omitted :-

1. When it is a reflexive pronoun; as, Nox pracipर̌tat, sc. se. Virg. Tum prora avertit. Id. Eo lavãtum, sc. me. Hor. The reflexives are usually wanting after certain verbs; as, aboleo, abstineo, augeo, celëro, continuo, declino, decŏquo, flecto, deflecto, inclīno, lavo, laxo, moveo, muto, praciptto, remitto, ruo, turbo, verto, deverto, reverto; and more rarely after moveo, converto, and many others.
2. When it is something indefinite, has been previouslv expressed in
any case, or is easily supplied; as, Ego, ad quos scribam, nescio, sc. litëras. Cic. De quo et tecum egi diligenter, et scripsi ad te. Id. Benè fecit Silius. Id. Ducit in hostem. Liv.

Rem. 5. An infinitive, or one or more clauses, may supply the place of the accusative; as,

Da mihi fallēre. Hor. Reddes dulce loqui, reddes ridēre decōrum. Id. Cupio me esse clementem. Cic. Athenienses statuērunt ut naves conscenděrent. Id. Vereor ne a doctis reprehendar. Id. Sometimes both constructions are united ; as, $D \hat{\imath}$ iram miserantur inänem ambōrum, et tantos mortal̆ibus esse labōres. Virg. Evoe, Bacche, sonat. Ovid.

In such constructions, the sulject of the clause is sometimes put in the accusative as the object of the verb; as, Nosti Marcellum, quàm tardus sit, for Nösti quàm tardus sit Marcellus. Cic. Illum, ut vivat, optant. Ter. An ablative with $d e$ may also supply the place of the accusative, by the ellipsis of some general word denoting things, facts, \&c.; as, De republǐca vcstrá paucis accipe. Sall. So also of a subject. See § 209, R. 3, (2.)

Rem. 6. The impersonal verbs misĕret, pœnĭtet, pudet, tadet, and piget, likewise miserescit, miserētur, and pertasum est, are followed by an accusative of the person exercising the feeling; as,
Eārum nos misěret, We pity them. Cic. See § 215, (1.) Veř̌tum est also occurs with such an accusative; Quos non est verítum. Cic.

Rem. 7. Juvat, delectat, fallit, fugit, pratĕrit, and decet with its compounds take an accusative of the person; as,

Te hilări anچmo esse valde me juvat, That you are in good spirits delights me. Cic. Fugit me ad te scribëre. Cic. Illud altërum quàm sit diffič̌le, non te fugit, nec verò Cæsărem fefellit. Id.

For mea, tua, sua, nostra, vestra, after refert and interest, see §219, Rem. 1 .
For the accusative by attraction, instead of the nominative, see $\S 206$, (6,) (b.)
§230. Verbs signifying to name or call, to choose, render or constitute, to esteem or reckon, are followed by two accusatives denoting the same person or thing; ( $\$ 210, R .3,(3$.$) as,$

Urbem ex Antiöchi patris nomŭne Antiochīam vocānit, He called the city Antioch, \&c. Just. Me consŭlem fecistis. Cic. Sulpicium accusatōrem suum numerābat, non competitōrem. Id. Cìm vos testes habeam. Nep.

Note. An infinitive may supply the place of one accusative, Ov. M. 13,209 ; or even of both, Ov. M. 5, 520 and 521.

Remark 1. After verbs signifying to esteem or reckon, one of the accusatives is often the subject, and the other the predicate, of esse expressed or understood; as, Ne me existimāris ad manendum esse propensiōrem. Cic. Eum avărum possŭmus existimare. Id. Mercurium omnium inventōrem artium ferunt; hunc viärum atque itinërum ducem arlitrantur. Cæs.; or an adjective supplies the place of the predicate accusative.

Rem. 2. Many other verbs, besides their proper accusative, take a second, denoting a purpose, time, character, \&c.; as, Talem se imperatōrem prabuit, He showed himself such a commander. Nep. Quare ajus fuge comǐtem me adjungërem. Cic. Hominum opinio socium me ascrītit tuis laudibus. Id. Prasta te eum qui mihi es cognťtus. Cic. Filiam tuam mihi uxōrem posco. Plaut. Petit hanc Saturnia munus. Ovid. Such constructions may often be referred to apposition, or to an elispsis of esse
§ 231. Verbs of asking, demanding, and teaching, and celo (to conceal), are followed by two accusatives, one of a person, the other of a thing; as,

Rogo te nummos, I ask you for money. Mart. Posce deos veniam, Ask favar of the gods. Virg. Quum legent quis musicam docuërit Epaminondam, When they shall read who taught Epaminondas music. Nep. Antigŏnus iter omnes celat, Antigonus conceals his route from all. Id.

Remark 1. This rule includes the verbs of asking and demanding, flagito, efflaǧto, obsecro, oro, exōro, percontor, posco, reposco, postülo, precor, deprĕcor, rogo, and interrŏgo; of teaching, doceo, edoceo, dedoceo, and erudio, which last has two accusatives only in the poets. Cingo occurs once with two accusatives; Arma Tribunitium cingęre digna latus. Mart.; and celare with a dative of the person. Nep. Alcib. 5, 2.

Rem. 2. Instead of the accusative of a person, verbs of asking and demanding often take the ablative with $a b$ or $e x$; as, Non debēbam abs te has litĕras poscęre. Cic. Veniam orēmus ab ipso. Virg. Istud volēbam ex te percontāri. Plaut.
$\mathrm{R}_{\text {em. 3. Instead of the accusative of a thing, the ablative alone or with }}$ de is sometimes used; as, Docëre alĭquem armis. Liv. Sic ego te eisdem de rebus interrŏgem. Cic. De itinĕre hostium senātum edöcet. Sall. Bassus noster me de hoc libro celãvit. Cic. Sometimes also a dependent clause.

Rem. 4. Some verbs of asking, demanding, and teaching, are not followed by two accusatives; as, exigo, peto, quaro, scitor, sciscitor', which take an ablative of the person with a preposition; imbuo, instituo, instruo, $\& c$. , which are sometimes used with the ablative of the thing generally without a preposition, and are sometimes otherwise construed.

Rem. 5. Many other active verbs with the accusative of a person, sometimes take an accusative of nihil, of the neuter pronouns hoc, id, quid, \&c., or of adjectives of quantity ; as,

Fabius ea me monuit, Fabius reminded me of those things. Cic. Non quo me alĭquid juvāre posses. Id. Pauca pro tempŏre milites hortātus. Sall. Id adjūta me. Ter. Nec te id consŭlo. Cic. Consŭlo and admoneo are also found with a noun denoting the thing in the accusative ; as, Consŭlan hanc rem amĩcos. Plaut. Eam rem nos locus admonuit. Sall.

A preposition may often be understood before the above neuter accusatives. See § 235, Rem. 5.

By a similar construction, genus is sometimes used in the accusative, instead of the genitive; as, Scis me oratiōnes, aut aliquid id genus scribëre. Cic. Nullas hoc genus vigilias vigilärunt. Gell. So Omnes muliebre secus. Suet.
§ 232. (1.) Some neuter verbs are followed by an accusative of kindred signification to their own ; as,

Vitam vivĕre, To live a life. Plaut. Furĕre furōrem. Virg. Istam pug. nam pugnā̄bo. Plaut. Pugnāre pralia. Hor. Lusum insolentem ludère. Id. Si non servitūtem serviat. Plaut. Queror haud fač̌les questus. Stat. Jurāvi verissimum jusjurandum. Cic. Ignōtus jubet ire vias. Val. Flacc. Ut suum gaudium gauderēmus. Cœl. ad Cic. Proficisci magnum iter. Cic. This accusative is usually qualified by an adjective.
$(2)$ Verbs commonly neuter are sometimes used in an active sense, and are therefore followed by an accusative. Neuter verbs
are also sometimes followed by an accusative, depending on a preposition understood. The following are examples of both constructions :-

With oleo and sapio, and their compounds, redoleo, resipio;-Olet unguenta, He smells of perfumes. Ter. Oratiōnes redolentes antiquitātem. Cic. Mella herbam cam sapiunt, The honey tastes of that herb. Plin. Uva picem resipiens. Id. So Sitio honōres. Cic. Nec vox homĭnem sonat. Virg. Sudāre mella. Id. Morientem nomine clamat. Id. Quis pauperiem crepat? Hor. Omnes una manet nox. Id. Ingrāti aň̆mi crimen horreo. Cic. Ego meas queror fortūnas. Plaut. Pastōrem, saltāret uti Cyclōpa, rogālat. Hor. So the passive; Nunc agrestem Cyclōpa movētur. Id.' Num id lacrŭmat virgo? Does the maid weep on that account? Ter. Quicquid dèē̄rant reges, plectuntur Achīvi. Hor. Nec tu id indignäri posses. Liv. Quod dubuttas ne fecēris. Plin. Nihil labōro. Cic. Cory̆don ardēbat Alexin. Virg. Stygias juravimus undas. Ovid. Navخgat æquor. Virg. Currtmus æquor. Id. Pascuntur sylvas. Id. Multa alia peccat. Cic. Exsequias ite frequenter. Ovid. Devenēre locos. Virg.

Accusatives are found in like manner after ambŭlo, calleo, doleo, equutto, gaudeo, gemo, lateo, latro, nato, palleo, pereo, depereo, procēdo, sib̌̌lo, tremo, treptido, vado, venio, paveo, sileo, taceo, lator, glorior, \&c.

In the above and similar exanples, the prepositions ob, propter, per, ad, \&c., may often be supplied. This construction of neuter verbs is most common with the neuter accusatives id, quid, aliquid, quicquid, nikil, idem, illud, tantum, quantum, multa, pauca, alia, cetěra, and omnia.
§ 233. Many verbs are followed by an accusative depending upon a preposition with which they are compounded.
(1.) Active verbs compounded with trans have two accusatives; one depending upon the verb, the other upon the preposition; as, Omnem equitutum pontem transdūcit, He leads all the cavalry over the bridge. Cæs. Hellespontum copias trajēcit. Nep.

So Pontus scopŭlos superjăcit undam. Virg. So, also, adverto and indūco with anı̌mum; as, Id aň̌mum advertit. Cæs. Id quod anĭmum induxĕrat paulisper non tenuit. Cic. So, also, injicio in Plautus-Ego te manum injiciam.
(2.) Some other active verbs take an accusative in the passive voice depending upon their prepositions; as, Maǧ̌cas accingier artes, To be prepared for magic arts. Virg. Classis circumvehttur arcem. Liv. Vectem circumjectus fuisset. Cic. Locum pratervectus sum. Cic.

But after most active verbs compounded with prepositions which take an accusative, the preposition is repeated; as, Cesar se ad neminem adjunxit (Cic.); or a dative is used; as, Hic dies me valde Crasso adjunxit. Id. See § 224.
(3.) Many neuter verbs take an accusative when compounded with prepositions which govern an accusative, but these sometimes become active; as, Gentes que mare illud adjăcent, The nations which border upon that sea. Nep. Obequitāre agmen. Curt. Incēduntmostos locos. Tac. Transilui flammas. Ovid. Succedëre tecta. Cic. Ludōrum diēbus, qui cognitiōnem intervenërant. Tac. Adīre provinciam. Suet. Caveat ne prelium ineut. Cic. Naves purātas invènit. Cæs. Ingrědi iter pedibus. Cic. Épicüri horti quos mod̀ preteribàmus. Id. To this rule belong especially verbs of motion, and of rest in a place.

Remari 1. Some neuter verbs compounded with prepositions which take an ablative after them, are at times followed by an accusative; as, Nemĭnem convēni, I met with no one. Cic. Qui societātem coièris. Id. Aversäri honōres. Ovid. Evaditque celer ripam. Virg. Excedëre numěrum. Tac. Exire limen. Ter. Tiber praffuunt aqua. Hor.

Rem. 2. The preposition is often repeated after the verb, or a different one is used; as, In Galliam invāasit Antonius. Cic. Ad me adīre quosdum memйni. Id. Ne in senătum accedërem. Cic. Regina ad templum incessit. Virg. Juxta genitōrem astat Lavinia. Id. Circum is not repeated.

Note. Some verbal nouns and verbal adjectives in bundus are followed by an accusative, like the verbs from which they are derived; as, Quid tibi huc receptio ad te est meum virum? Wherefore do you receive my husband hither to you? Plaut. Quid tibi hanc aditio est? ld. Vitabundus castra. Liv. Meditabundus bellum. Just. Carnif ĭcem imaginabundus. App.
§234. I. When the active voice takes an accusative both of a person and thing, the passive retains the latter ; as,

Rogàtus est sententiam, He was asked his opinion. Liv. Interrogātus causam. Tac. Segĕtes alimentàque debǐta dives poscebātur humus. Ovid Motus docēri gaudet Ioñ̌cos matüra virgo. Hor. Omnes belli artes edoctus Liv. Nosne hoc celätos tam diu? Ter. Multa in extis monēmur. Cic.

Note 1. As the object of the active voice becomes the subject of the passive, the passive is not followed by an accusative of the object.

In other respects, the government of the active and passive voices is, in general, the same.

Note 2. The accusative with the infinitive after verbs of saying and commanding may become the subject of the passive voice; as, Dico regem esse justum, pass. Rex dič̌tur justus esse. See § 272.

Remark 1. Induo and exuo, though they do not take two accusatives in the active voice, are sometimes followed by an accusative of the thing in the passive ; as, Induitur atras vestes, She puts on sable garments. Ovid. Thorāca indütus. Virg. Exūta est Roma senectam. Mart. So indūcor and cingor, which occurs once in the active voice with two accusatives; as, ferrum cinǧ̌tur. Virg. See § 231, Rem. 1. So recinǧttur anguem. Ovid.

Rem. 2. The future passive participle in the neuter gender with est, is sometimes, though rarely, followed by an accusative; as, Multa novis rebus quum sit agendum. Lucr. Quam (viam) nobis ingrediendum est. Cic.
II. An adjective, verb, and participle, are sometimes followed by an accusative denoting the part to which their signification relates; as,

Nudus membra, Bare as to his limbs. Virg. Os humerosque deo sim̌lis. Id. Micat uurǐbus et tremit artus. Id. Cetĕra parce puer bello. Id. Sib̌̌la colla tumentem. Id. Explēri mentem nequit. Id. Picti scuta Labĩci. [d. Fractus membra. Hor. Maxðmam partem lacte vivint. Cæs.

This is a Greek construction, and is usually called Synecdoche or the Greele accusative. It is used instead of an ablative of the part affected, ( $\$ 250$, and occurs most frequently in poetry.
III. Some neuter verbs which are followed by an accusative, are used in the passive voice, the accusative becoming the subject, according to the general rule of active verbs; as,

Tertia vivǐtur atas. Ovid. Bellum militabǐtur. Hor. Dormìtur hiems. Mart. Multa peccantur. Cic. Adìtur Gnossius Minos. Sen. Ne ab omnübus circumsisterētur. Cæs. Hostes invādi posse. Sall. Campus obītur aquâ. Ovid. Plurcs ineuntur gratice. Cic. Ea res silètur. Cic̣.

## ACCUSATIVE AFTER PREPOSITIONS.

## § 235. (1.) Twenty-six prepositions are followed by

 the accusative.These are ad, adversùs or adversùm, ante, apud, circa or circum, circĭter, cis or citra, contra, erga, extra, infra, inter, intra, juxta, ob, penes, per, ponè, post, prater, prope, proptcr, secundùm, supra, trans, ultra; as,

Ad templum, To the temple. Virg. Adversus hostes, Against the enemy. Liv. Cis Rhenum, This side the Rhine. Cæs. Intra muros. Cic. Penes reges. Just. Propter aqua rioum. Virg. Inter agendum. Id. Ante domandum. Id.

Remark 1. Cis is generally used with names of places; citra also with other words; as, Cis Taurum. Cic. Cis Padum. Liv. Citra Veliam. Cic. Tela hostium citra. Tac.

Rem. 2. Inter, signifying betwoen, applies to two accusatives jointly, $_{\text {b }}$ and sometimes to a plural accusative alone; as, Inter me et Scipiōnem. Cic. Inter natos et parentes. Id. Inter nos. Id.
(2.) In and sub, denoting tendency, are followed by the accusative ; denoting situation, they are followed by the ablative; as,

Via ducit in urbem, The way conducts into the city. Virg. Noster in te amor. Cic. Exercitus sul jugum missus est, The army was sent under the yoke. Cæs. Magna mei sub terras ibit imăgo. Virg. Medid in urbe, In the midst of the city. Ovid. In his fuit Ariovistus. Cæs. Bella sub Iliăcis mœnı̆bus gerěre, To wage war under the Trojan walls. Ovid. Sub nocte silenti. Virg.

The most common significations of in, with the accusative, are, into, tovards, until, for, against,-with the ablative, in, upon, among. In some instances, $i n$ and sub, denoting tendency, are followed by the ablative, and, denoting situation, by the accusative; as, In conspectu meo audet venĩre. Phæd.J̌atiōnes que in amicitian popüli Romäni, ditionemque essent. Id. Sub jugo dictätor hostes misit. Liv. Hostes sub montem consedisse. Cæs.
In and sub, in different significations, denoting neither tendency nor situation, are followed sometimes by the accusative, and sometimes by the ablative; as, Amor crescit in horas. Ovid. Hostilem in modum. Cic. Quod in bono servo dici posset. Id. Sub eat conditiōne Ter. Sub pœnâ mortis. Suet.

In expressions relating to time, sub, denoting at or in, usually takes the ablative ; denoting near, about, either the accusative or ablative; as, Sub tempore, At the time. Lucan. Sub lucem (Virg.), Sub luce (Liv.), About daybreak.
(3.) Super is commonly followed by the accusative; but when it signifies either on or concerning, it takes the ablative; as,

Super labentem culmina tecti, Gliding over the top of the house. Virg. Super tenĕro prosternit graminne corpus, He stretches his body on the tender grass. Id. Multa super Priămo rogztans super Hectŏre multa, .... concerning Priain, \&c. Id. The compound desüper is found with the accusative, and insüper with the accusative and ablative.
(4.) Subter generally takes the accusative, but sometimes the ablative; as.

Subter terras, Under the earth. Liv. Subter densa testudine. Virg
(5.) Clam is followed either by the accusative or ablative; as,

Clam vos, Without your knowledge. Cic. Clam patre. Ter. Clam also occurs with a genitive-Clam patris (Ter.) ; and even with a dative -Mihi clam est. Plaut.

Rem. 3. The adverbs versus and usque are sometimes used with an accusative, which depends on a preposition understood; as, Brundusium versus. Cic. Termĭnos usque Libya. Just. Usque Ennam profecti. Cic. Versus is always placed after the accusative.

Rem. 4. Prepositions are often used without a noun depending upon them, but such noun may usually be supplied by the mind; as, Multis post annis, i. e. post id tempus. Cic. Circum Concordie, sc. adem. Sall.

Rem. 5. The accusative, in many constructions, is supposed to depend on a preposition understood. The preposition cannot, however, always be properly expressed, in such instances; nor is it easy, in every case, to say what preposition should be supplied. For the accusative without a preposition after neuter verbs, see $\S 232$. For the case of synecdoche, see §234, II. The following examples may here be added :-Homo id atātis. Cic. Quid tibi etātis videor? Plaut. Profectus est id tempŏris. Cic. Illud hora. Suet. Devenēre locos. Virg. Propior montem. Sall. Prox̌mè Pompeium sedēbam. Cic. A te bis terve summum litĕras accēpi. Id. Idne estis auctōres mihi? Ter. Vix eqǔ̌dem ausim affirmāre quod quidam auctōres sunt. Liv. In most of these, ad may be understood.

## ACCUSATIVE OF TIME AND SPACE.

§ 236. Nouns denoting duration of time, or extent of space, are put, after other nouns and verbs, in the accusative, and sometimes after verbs in the ablative; as,

Vixi annos triginta, I have lived thirty years. Decrevērunt intercalarium quinque et quadragintu dies longum, They decreed an intercalary month forty-five days long. Cic. Annos natus viginti septem, Twentyseven years old. Id. Dies totos de virtūte dissěrunt. Id. Duces qui unà cun Sertorio omnes annos fuĕrant. Cæs. Biduum Laodicēa fui. Cic. Te jam annum audientem Cratippum. Id. Duas fossas quindĕcim pedes latas pcrduxit, He extended two ditches fifteen feet broad. Cæs. Cirm abessern ab Amāno iter unius diēi. Cic. Tres patcat cali spatium non amplius ulnas. Virg. A portu stadia centum et viginti processímus. Cic. Vixit annis riginti novem, imperārit triennio. Suet. JEsculapii templum quinque millibus passuum distans. Liv. Ventidius bidui spatio abest ab eo. Cic.

Remark 1. Nouns denoting time or space, used to limit other nouns, are often put in the genitive or ablative. See § 211, Rem. 6.

Rem. 2. A term of time not yet completed, may be expressed by an ordinal number; as, Nos vicesĭmum jam diem patùmur hebescĕre aciem horum auctoritātis. Cic. Puňco bello duodecimum annum Italia urebātur. Liv.

Rem. 3. The accusative or ablative of space is sometimes omitted, while a genitive depending on it remains; as, Castra que aběrant bidui sc. spatium or spatio. Cic

Rem. 4. To denote a place by its distance from another, the ablative is commonly used ; as, Millibus passuum sex a Casăris castris consēdit. Cæs.

For abhinc, with the accusative, see $\S 253$, Rem. 2. For the ablative denoting difference of time or space, see § 256, Rem. 16.

Rem. 5. A preposition is sometimes expressed before an accusative of time or space, but it generally modifies the meaning; as, Quem per decem annos alurmus,....during ten years. Cic.

Rem. 6. $A b$ is sometimes used with the measure of distance instead of the place from which the distance is reckoned; as, $A$ millibus passuum dṻbus castra posuērunt, Two miles from the place, or, Two miles off. Cæs.

## ACCUSATIVE OF PLACE.

§237. After verbs expressing or implying motion, the name of the town in which the motion ends is put in the accusative without a preposition; as,

Reğulus Carthaginem rediit, Regulus returned to Carthage. Cic. Capuan flectit iter, He turns his course to Capua. Liv. Calpurnius Romam proficisč̌tur. Sall. Romam erat nunciātum. Cic.

Remari 1. The accusative, in like manner, is used after iter with sum, habeo, \&c.; as, Iter est mihi Lanuvium. Cic. Cosărem iter habēre Capuam. Id. So with a verbal noun ; as, Adventus Romam. Liv.

Rem. 2. The preposition to be supplied is in, denoting into, which is sometimes expressed; as, In Ephěsum abii. Plaut. Ad, when expressed before the name of a town, denotes not into, but to or near; as, Ccesar ad Genēvanı pervĕnit. Cæs. Cum ego ad Heraclēam accedĕrem. Cic.

Rem. 3. Instead of the accusative, a dative is sometimes, though rarely, used ; as, Carthagini nuncios mittam. Hor.

Rem. 4. Domus in both numbers, and rus in the singular, are put in the accusative, like names of towns; as,

Ite domum, Go home. Virg. Galli domos abiĕrant. Liv. Rus ibo. Ter.
When domus is limited by a genitive, or a possessive adjective pronoun, it sometimes takes a preposition: with other adjectives, the preposition is generally expressed ; as, Non introëo in nostram domum. Plaut. Venisse in domum Leccæ. Cic. Ad eam domum profecti sunt. Id. In domos supĕras scandĕre cura fuit. Ovid. So larem suum, App., or ad larem suum. Cic.

Domus is sometimes used in the accusative after a verbal noun; as, Domum reditiōnis spe sublatda. Cæs. So, Redĭtus Romam. Cic.

Rem. 5. Before all other names of places in which the motion ends, except those of towns, and domus and rus, the preposition is commonly used; as, Ex Asid transis in Eurōpam. Curt. Te in Epīrum venisse gaudeo. Cic. But it is sometimes omitted; as, Inde Sardiniam cum classe venit. Cic. Italiam Lavinăque venit litöra. Virg. Navigāre Ægyptum pergit. Liv. Rapldum veniémus Oaxen. Virg. The names of nations are used in the same manner; as, Nocte ad Nervios pervenērunt. Cæs Nos ibrmus Afros. Virg. So insŭlas rubri maris navĕgant. Plin.

## ACCUSATIVE AFTER ADVERBS AND INTERJEC-

## TIONS.

§238. 1. The adverbs pridie and postriaiee are often followed by the accusative; as, Pridie eum diem. Cic. Pridie idus. 1d. Postridie ludos. Id. So propiùs and proxtmé: see § 235, Rem. 5

The accusative, in such examples, depends on ante or post understood For the genitive after pridie and postridie, see § 212, Rem. 4, Note 6.
The adverb bend is sometimes followed by the accusative in forms of drinking health; as, Propīno, benè vos, benè nos, benè te, benè me, benè nostram Stephanium. Plaut. Bend Messālam. Tibull.
2. The interjections en, ecce, $O, h e u$, and pro, are sometimes followed by the accusative; as,

En quatuor aras! ecce duas tibi Daphni! Behold four altars! lo, two for thee, Daphnis! Virg. Eccum! eccos ! eccillum! for ecce eum! ecce cos! ecce illum! Plaut. O praclārum custōdem! Cic. Heu me infelǐcem! Ter. Pro Dê̂m hominumque fidem! Cic.

So also ah, eheu, and hem; as, Ah me me! Catull. Eheu me misĕrum ! Ter. Hem astutias! Id.

The accusative is also used in exclamations without an interjection; as, Misĕram me! Ter. Hom̌̌nem gravem et civem egregium! Cic.

## SUBJECT-ACCUSATIVE.

$\$ 239$. The subject of the infinitive mood is put in the accusative; as,

Molestè Pompeium id ferre constäbat, that Pompey took that ill, was evident. Cic. Eos hoc nomĭne appelläri fas est. Id. Miror te ad me nihil scriberre, I wonder that you do not write to me. Cn. Mag. in Cic. Campos jubet esse patentes. Virg.

Remark 1. The subject of the infinitive is omitted when it precedes in the genitive or dative case; as, Est adolescentis majöres natu verēri, sc. eum. Cic. Expědit bonas esse vobis, sc. vos. Ter.; or rarely in the accusative. Sall. C. 51,29 ; or when its place is supplied by a possessive pronoun expressed or understood. Sall. Cat. 4.

Rem. 2. A substantive pronoun is also sometimes omitted before the infinitive, when it is the subject of the preceding verb; as, Pollicitus sum suscepturum (esse), sc. me, I promised (that I) would undertake. Ter. Sed reddĕre posse negäbat, sc. se. Virg.

Rem. 3. The subject of the infinitive is often omitted, when it has been previously expressed, or is a general indefinite word for person or thing; as, Est aliud iracundum esse, aliud irātum, sc. hominem. Cic. See § 269, R.1.
The subject-accusative, like the nominative, is often wanting. See § 209, Rem. 3. The subject of the infinitive may be an infinitive or a clause. See § 201, IV.

For the verbs after which the subject-accusative with the infinitive is used, see § 272 . For the accusative in the predicate after infinitives neuter and passive, see § 210.

## VOCATIVE.

§ 240. The vocative is used, either with or without an interjection, in addressing a person or thing.

The interjections $O$, heu, and pro, also ah, au, ehem, eheu, eho, ehōdum, eja, hem, heus, hui, io, ohe, and vah, are often followed by the vocative ; as,

O formōse puer! O beautiful boy! Virg. Heu virgo! Id. Pro sancte

Jupŭter! Cic. Ah virgo infêlix! Virg. Heus Syre! Ter. Ohe libelle! Mart.

The vocative is sometimes omitted, while a genitive depending upon it remains; as, $O$ misěre sortis! sc. homĭnes. Lucan.

Note. The vocative forms no part of a proposition, but serves to designate the person to whom a proposition is addressed.

## ABLATIVE.

## ABLATIVE AFTER PREPOSITIONS.

\$241. Eleven prepositions are followed by the ablative.

These are $a, a b$, or $a b s$; absque, coram, cum, $d e, e$ or $e x$, palam, pra, pro, sine, tenus; as,

Ab illo tempŏre, From that time. Liv. A scribendo, From writing. Cic Cum exerctita, With the army. Sall. Certis de causis, For certain reasons. Cic. Ex fugâ, From flight. Id. Palan popŭlo. Liv. Sine labōre. Cic. Capülo terus. Virg.

For in, sub, super, subter, and clam, with the ablative, see § 235, (2,) \&c.
Remark 1. Tenus is always placed after its case. It sometimes takes the genitive, chiefly the genitive plural. See § 221, III.

Rem. 2. The adverbs procul and simul are sometimes used with an ablative, which depends on a preposition understood; as, Procul mari, sc.a; Far from the sea. Liv. Simul nobis habřtat, sc. cum. Ovid. So aque. Plaut.

Rem. 3. Some of the above prepositions, like those which are followed by the accusative, are occasionally used without a noun expressed; as, Cùm coram sumus. Cic. Cum fratre an sinc. Id.

Rem. 4. The ablative is often used without a preposition, where, in English, a preposition must be supplied. This occurs especially in poetry. In some such cases, a preposition may properly be introduced in Latin; in others, the idiom of that language does not permit it.
§242. Many verbs compounded with $a, a b, a b s, d e, e, e x$, and super, are followed by an ablative depending upon the preposition ; as,

Abesse urbe, To be absent from the city. Cic. Aliñe sedrbus, To depart from their habitations. Tac. Ut se muledictis non abstineant. Cic. Detrüdunt naves scopŭlo, They push the ships from the rock. Virg. Navi egressus est. Nep. Exced厄̈re fiň̌bus. Liv. Casar proclio supersedēre statuit. Cæs. So the adjectives exsul and extorris, with patrid and domo, Sall. J. 14, and so the verbal eruptio, Mutĭnà eruptio. Cic.

Kemari 1. The preposition is often repeated, or a different one is used; as, Detrahĕre de tuâ famá nunquam cogitãvi. Cic. Ex ocŭlis abiérunt. Liv. Exire a patria. Cic. Exire de vitd. Id.

Rem. 2. These compound verbs are often used without a noun; but, in many cases, it may be supplied by the mind; as, Equittes degressi ad pedes, sc. equis. Liv. Abire ad Deos, sc. vitâ. Cic.

Rem. 3. Some verbs compounded with $a b, d e$, and $e x$, instead of the ablative, are sometimes followed by the dative. See §224, Rem. 1 and 2. Some compounds, also, of neuter verbs, occur with the accusative. See § 233, R.m. 1

## ABLATIVE AFTER CERTAIN NOUNS, ADJECTIVES,

 AND VERBS.\$243. Opus and usus, signifying need, are usually limited by the ablative ; as,

Auctoritate tua nolvis opus est, We need your authority. Cic. Nune anı̆mis opus nunc pectorre firmo. Virg. Naves, quibus proconsŭli usus non esset ; Ships, for which the proconsul had no occasion. Cic. Nunc viribus usus, nunc manĭbus rupŭdis. Virg.

Remark 1. Opus and usus are sometimes followed by the ablative of a perfect participle; as, Ita facto et maturāto opus esse, That there was need of so doing and of hastening. Liv. Usus facto est mihi. Ter. After opus, a noun is sometimes expressed with the participle; as, Opus fuit Hirtio convento (Cic.) ; Opus silie esse domino ejus invento (Liv.) ;-or a supine is used; as, Ita dictu opus est. Ter.

For the genitive and accusative after opus and usus, see § 211, Rem. 11.
Rem. 2. Opus and usus, signifying need, are only used with the verb sum. Opus is sometimes the subject, and sometimes the predicate, of that verb; usus the subject only. Opus is rarely followed by an ablative, except when it is the subject of the verb. The thing needed may, in general, be put either in the nominative or the ablative ; as, Dux nodis opus est (Cic.), or Duce nobis opus est. The former construction is most common with neuter adjectives and pronouns, and is always used with those which denote quantity, as tantum, quantum, plus, \&c.; as, Quod non opus est, asse carum est. Cato apud Sen.

For the ablative of character, quality, \&c., limiting a noun, see §211, Rem. 6.
§ 244. Dignus, indignus, contentus, preditus, and fretus, are followed by the ablative; as,

Dignus laude, Worthy of praise. Hợ. Vox popŭli majestāte indigna, A speech unworthy of the dignity of the people. Cæs. Bestixe eo contente non quarunt amplius. Cic. Homo scelĕre pradz̆tus. Id. Plerīque ingenio freti. Id. So, Fquum est'me atque illo. Plaut.

Remark 1. Dignè also takes the ablative, and dignor the accusative with the ablative; as, Peccat cruce digniùs. Hor. Me dignor honōre. Virg.

Rem. 2. Dignus and indignus are sometimes followed by the genitive; as, Susč̂pe cogitutiōnem dignisšmam tuce virtūtis. Cic. Indignus avōrum. Virg.; and dignus, in Plautus, rarely by the accusative and by the dative.

Instead of an ablative, they often take an infinitive, or a subjunctive clause, with qui or ut; as, Erat dignus amāri. Virg. Dignus qui impĕret. Cic. Non sum dignus, ut figam palum in pariĕtem. Plaut.
\$245. I. Utor, fruor, fungor, potior, and vescor, are followed by the ablative; as,

His vocíbus usu est, She used these words. Virg. Frui voluptãte, To enjoy pleasure. Cic. Funğ̆tur officio, He performs his duty. Id. Oppĭdo potãti sunt. Liv. Vesč̆tur aurâ. Virg.

So the compounds abūtor, and rarely deūtor, perfruor, defungor, and perfungor. Utor may take a second ablative denoting character; as, Ille fačli me utētur patre, He shall have in me an indulgent father. Ter.

Rem. 1. Utor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, \&c., instead of an ablative
sometimes take an accusative; as, Quam rem medǐci utuntur. Varr. Ingenium frui. Ter. Datämes militare munus fungens. Nep. Gentem alर-quam urbem nostram potitaram putem. Cic. Sacras lauros vescar. Tibull.

Potior is, also, found with the genitive. (See § 220,4 .) Dignor is used both as active and passive, and takes an ablative of the thing.
II. Lator, gaudeo, glorior, jacto, nitor, sto, fido, confido, muto, misceo, epŭlor, vivo, assuesco, and consto (to consist of), are often followed by the ablative without a preposition; as,
Lator tud dignitāte, I rejoice in your dignity. Cic. Gaude tuo bono. Id. Sud victoriâ gloriāri. Cæs. Jactat supplicio levando. Cic. Nïti æquitāte. Id. Censōris opiniōne standum non putävit. Id. Fidëre cursu. Ovid. So assuefacio, commüto, latif 亿̌cor, and permisceo. Compotio takes the acc. of the person, and, like compos, the abl. or gen. of the thing.
Remark 1. Letor, gaudeo, and glorior, are sometimes followed by the accusative. See §232, (2.) Fido, confìdo, and assuesco, often take the dative. See § 223, Rem. 2. So also misceo.

Rem. 2. When a preposition is expressed after the above verbs, lator and gaudeo usually take de; glorior and jacto, de or in; sto, fido and confido, in; nitor and assuesco, in or ad ; misceo, cum; and consto, ex.
III. The ablative without a preposition is used after a verb, especially after sum and fore, to denote the situation or circumstances of the subject of the verb; as,

Tamen magno timōre sum, Yet I am in great fear. Cic. Quanto fuĕrim dolōre meministi. Id. Maxīmo honōre Servius Tullius erat. Liv. Turbâ atque seditionı̆bus sine cura aluntur. Sall. C. 37.

But the preposition in is often used before such ablatives, especially if an adjective or pronoun is not joined with them; as, Sum in expectatione omnium rerum. Cic. Etsi erämus in magnâ spe. Id.
\$246. Perfect participles denoting origin are often followed by the ablative of the source, without a preposition.

Such are natus, prognātus, satus, creātus, cretus, edǐtus, geň̌tus, senerātus, ortus ; to which may be added oriundus.

Thus, Nate dea! O son of a goddess! Virg. Tantălo prognātus, Descended from Tantalus. Cic. Sutus Sererde, Sprung from a Nereid. Ovid. Creãtus rege. Id. Alcanŏre creti. Virg. Edžte reğ̌lus. Hor. Diis gen\&ite. Virg. Argolĭco gencrātus Alemŏne. Ovid. Ortus nullis majorĭlus. Hor. Calesti semřne oriundi. Lucr.

Remark 1. The preposition is also rarely omitted after genëro and nascor ; as, Ut patre certo nascerēre. Cic. So, Fortes creantur fortĭbus. Hor.

Rem. 2. The prepositions $u$ or $a b, d e, e$ or $e x$, are often expressed after these participles, especially in prose.
ABLATIVE OF CAUSE, \&c.
§247. Nouns denoting the cause, manner, means, and instrument, after adjectives and verbs, are put in the ablative without a preposition ; as,

Anı̀mus ag fer avaritiâ, A mind diseased through avarice. Sall. Pallēre metu, To be pale through fear. Ovid. Quod sævitiâ tempŏris non capi potěrat. Sall.-Omň̌bus modis miser sum, I am every way miserable. Ter. Silentio auditus est, He was heard in silence. Cic. Lento gradu procēdit Val. Max.-Amicos observantià, rem parsimoniâ retinuit; He retained his friends by attention, his property by frugality. Cic. Auro oströque decoori. Virg. Vi morbi consumptus es. Cic. JEgrescit medendo. Virg. ——Trals suucia securi, A tree cut with the axe. Ovid. Cosus est virgis, Cic. Beneficio meo fratres sunt. Sall. Laniäbant dentǐbus artus. Virg.

Remari 1. When the cause is a voluntary agent, it is put in the accusative with the preposition ob, propter, or per; as, Non est equum me propter vos decīpi. Ter. These prepositions, and $a$ or $a b, d e, e$ or $e x$, and pree, are also sometimes used when the cause is not a voluntary agent; a3, Ob adulterium ceesi. Virg. Nec loqui præ mœrōre potuit. Cic.

Rem. 2. After active verbs, the cause is seldom expressed by the simple ablative, but either by a preposition, or by the ablatives causa, gratia, \& $\mathbf{d c}$., with a genitive; as, Si hoc honöris mei causà suscepĕris. Cic. With caus $a, \& \mathbf{c}$., the adjective pronoun is commonly used, for the corresponding substantive pronoun; as, Te abesse meâ causâ, mulcstè fero. Cic. Sometimes the ablative with ductus, motus, captus, \&c., is used ; as, Mihi benevolentiâ ductus tribuêbat omnia. Cic. ; but these are sometimes omitted.

Rem. 3. The manner is often expressed with cum, especially when an adjective is joined with it; as, Quum vidēret oratōres cum severitāte audıri. Cic. Magno cum metu dicěre incipio. Id. Sometimes also with $\boldsymbol{e}$ or ex ; as, Ex industrid, On purpose. Liv. Ex integro, Anew. Quinct.

Rem. 4. The means is often expressed by per with an accusative; as, Quod per scelus adeptus est. Cic. When it is a voluntary agent, it can only be so expressed, or by the ablative oper $d$ with a genitive or possessive pronoun; as, Per praconem vendëre aľ̌quid. Cic. Opěrà eōrum effectum est. Just. Non meà opērà evēnit. Ter. Yet persons are sometimes considered as involuntary agents, and as such expressed by the ablative without a preposition; as, Servos, quibus silvas pubľ̌cas depopulātus erat. Cic.

Rem. 5. The instrument is rarely used with a preposition. The poets, however, sometimes prefix to it $a$ or $a b$, and even $s u b$, and sometimes other prepositions; as, Trajectus ab ense. Ovid. Exercēre solum sub vomère. Virg. Cum, with the instrument, is seldom used except by inferior writers; as, Cum voce maxımá conclamãre. Gell.
§248. I. The voluntary agent of a verb in the passive voice is put in the ablative with $a$ or $a b$; as,
(In the active voice,) Clodius me diliggit, Clodius loves me (Cic.); (in the passive,) A Clodio diltgor, I am loved by Clodius. Laudatur ab his, salpatur ab illis. Hor.
Remark 1. The general word for persons, after verbs in the passive voice, is often understood; as, Probǐtas laudātur, se. ab hominǒbus. Juv. So after the passive of neuter verbs; as, Discurritur. Virg. Toto certātum est corporre regni. Id.

The agent is likewise often understood, when it is the same as the subject of the verb, and the expression is equivalent to the active voice with a reflexive pronoun, or to the iniddle voice in Greek; as, Cùm omnes in omni genĕre sceic̈rum volutentur, sc. a se. Cic.

Rem. 2. Neuter verbs, also, are often followed by an ablative of the voluntary agent with $a$ or $a b$ : as.
M. Marcellus periit ab Annibæle, M. Marcellus was killed by Hannibal. Plin. Ne vir ab hoste cadat. Ovid.

Rem. 3. The preposition is sometimes omitted ; as, $\operatorname{Nec}$ conjŭge captus. Ovid. Colïtur linigĕrd turbâ. Id. Pereat meis excīsus Argivis. Hor.
For the dative of the agent after the passive voice, and participles in $d u s$, see § 225 , II. and III.
II. The involuntary agent of a verb in the passive voice, is put in the ablative without a preposition, as the cause, means, or instrument; as (in the active voice), Terror conficit omnia (Lucan.) ;-(in the passive), Maximo dolōre conficior. Cic. Frangi cupiditāte. Id.

But the involuntary agent is sometimes considered as voluntary, and takes $a$ or $a b$; as, A voluptatǐbus desĕri. Cic. A naturâ dutum homĩni rivendi curricülum. Id.
$\$ 249$. I. A noun denoting that with which the action of a verb is performed, though not the instrument, is put in the ablative without a preposition.

Remark 1. This construction is used with verbs signifying to fill, to furnish, to load, to array, to adorn, to enrich, and many others of various significations; as,

Terrōre implétur Africa, Africa is filled with terror. Sil. Instruxere epülis mensas, They furnished the tables with food. Ovid. Ut ejus antmum his opinionĭbus imbuas, That you should imbue his mind with these sentiments. Cic. Naves onĕrant auro, They load the ships with gold. Virg. Cumŭlat altaria donis, He heaps the altars with gifts. Id. Terra se gramine vestit, The earth clothes itself with grass. Id. Mollibus ornābat cornua sertis. Id. Me tanto honōre honestas. Plaut. Equis Afrǐcam locupletāvit. Colum. Studium tuum nulla me novd voluptate affécit. Cic. Terram nox obruit umbris. Lucr.

Rem. 2. Several verbs, denoting to fill, instead of the ablative, sometimes take a genitive. See § 220,3 .
II. A noun denoting that in accordance with which any thing is, or is done, is often put in the ablative without a preposition ; as,

Nostro more, According to our custom. Cic. Institato suo Casar copias suas eduxit; Cæsar, according to his practice, led out his forces. Ces. Ill factum consilio meo. Ter. Pacem fecit his conditionŭbus. Nep.

The prepositions $d e, e x$, and $p r o$, are often expressed with such nouns.
III. The ablative denoting accompaniment, is usually joined with cum ; as,

Vagāmur egentes cum conjugibus et liběris; Needy, we wander with our wives and children. Cic. Sape admirari soleo cum hoc C. Lælio. Cic. Julium cum his ad te litĕris misi. Id. Ingressus est cum gladio. Id. But cum is sometimes omitted, especially before words denoting military forces, when limited by an adjective ; as, Ad castra Casăris omnübus copiis contendèrunt. Cæs. Inde toto exercĭtu profectus. Liv.
§250. A noun, adjective, or verb, may be followed by the ablative, denoting in what respect their signification is daken; as,

Pietāte filius, consiliis parens; In affection a son, in counsel a parent. Cic. Reges nomine magis quàm imperio, Kings in name rather than in authority. Nep. Opprdum nomə̌ne Bibrax. Cæs.—Jure peritus, Skilled in law. Cic. Anxius antmo, Anxious in mind. Tac. Pedǐbus ager, Lame in his feet. Sall. Crine ruber, niger ore. Mart. Fronte latus. Tac. Major natu. Cic. Max̌mus natu. Liv.-_Anrmo angi, To be troubled in mind. Cic. Contremisco totá mente et omňbus artübus, I am agitated in my whole mina and in every limb. Id. Captus mente, Affected in mind, i. e. deprived of reason. Id. Altĕro ocŭlo capttur. Liv. Ingenii laude floruit. Cic. Pollēre nobilitāte. Tac. Animòque et corpŏre torpet. Hor.

Remark 1. To this principle may be referred the following rules:-
(1.) Adjectives of plenty or want are sometimes limited by the ablative; as,

Domus plena servis, A house full of servants. Juv. Dives agris, Rich in land. Hor. Ferax sacŭlum bonis arť̌bus. Plin.-Inops verbis, Deficient in words. Cic. Orba fratribus, Destitute of brothers. Ovid. Viduum arboř̌bus solum. Colum. Nudus agris. Hor. See § 213, R. 4 and 5.
(2.) Verbs signifying to abound, and to be destitute, are followed by the ablative; as,

Scatentem belluis pontum, The sea abounding in monsters. Hor. Urbs redundat militǔbus, The city is full of soldiers. Auct. ad Her. Villa. abundat porco, hado, agno, gallinâ, lacte, caseo, melle. Cic.-_Virum qui pecunid egeat, A man who is in want of money. Id. Carēre culpa, To be free from fault. Id. Mea adolescentia indlget illorum bond existimatiōne. Id. Alundat audaciâ, consilio et ratiōne defič̌tur. Id.

To this rule belong abundo, exubëro, redundo, scateo, affluo, circumfluo, diffluo, superfluo ;-careo, egco, indigeo, vaco, deficior, destituor, \&c.

Rem. 2. The genitive is often used to denote in what respect, after adjectives and verbs; (see $\S \S 213$ and 220 ;) sometimes, also, the accusative ; see § 234, II. ; or the ablative with a preposition.

Rem. 3. The ablative denoting in respect to or concerning, is used after facio and sum, without a preposition; as, Quid hoc homĭne faciätis? What can you do with this man? Cic. Nescit quid faciat auro. Plaut. Metum cepērunt quidnam se futūrum esset. Liv. Quid me fiat parvi pendis. Ter. In this construction, the preposition de seems to be understood, and is sometimes expressed ; as, Quid de Tulliơlà med fiet. Cic.
§ 251. A noun denoting that of which any thing is deprived, or from which it is separated, is often put in the ablative without a preposition.

This construction occurs after verbs signifying to deprive, to free, to debar, to drive away, to remove, and others of similar meaning. Thus,

Nudantur arbŏres foliis, The trees are stripped of leaves. Plin. Hoc me libëra metu, Free me from this fear. Ter. Tune eam philosophiann sequĕre, qua spoliat nos judicio, privat approbatiōne, orbat sensibus? Cic. Solvit se Teucria luctu. Virg. Te illis sedỉbus arcébit. Cic. Q. Varium pellĕre possessionĭbus conātus est. Id. Quod M. Catōnem tribunătu tuo rcmovisses. Id. Me leves chori sccernunt popŭlo. Hor.

To this rule belong fraudo, nudo, orbo, privo, spolio ;-arceo, expedio, interclüdo, laxo, levo, libëro, moveo, removen, pello, prohilieo, solvo, \&c.

Remark 1. Most of the above verbs are more or less frequently followed by $a, a b, d e, e$, or ex; as, Arcem ab incendio liberävit. Cic. Solvěre belluam ex catēnis. Auct. ad Her. Rcmŏve te a suspiciōne. Cic. For arceo, \&c. with the dat., see § 224, R. 2. Arceo sometimes also takes the infinitive. Ovid. M. 3, 88.

Rem. 2. The active verbs induo, exuo, dono, impertio, adspergo, inspergo, interclüdo, circumdo, prohileo, instead of an ablative of the thing with an accusative of the person, sometimes take an accusative of the thing and a dative of the person; as, Unam (vestem) juvĕni induit, He puts one upon the youth. Virg. Donäre muněra civèbus, To present gifts to the citizens. Cic.

Interdĩco is sometimes used with a dative of the person and an ablative of the thing; as, Quibus cùm aquâ et igni interdixissent. Cæs.
Abdico takes sometimes an ablative, and sometimes an accusative of the thing renounced; as, Abdicāre se magistrātu. Cic. Abdicāre magistrā tum. Sall. In Plautus, circumdüco, to cheat, takes the abl. of the thing.

## ABLATIVE OF PRICE.

$\$ 252$. The price of a thing is put in the ablative, except when expressed by the adjectives tanti, quanti, pluris, minōris ; as,

C'um te trecentis talentis regi Cotto vendidisses, When you had sold yourself to king Cottus for three hundred talents. Cic. Vendǐdit hic nuro putriam, This one sold his country for gold. Virg. Cibus uno asse venālis. Plin. Constrtit quadringentis millïbus. Varr. Denis in diem assĭbus aň̌mam ct corpus (miľ̌tum) astimäri. Tac. Vcndo meum non pluris quàm cetërr, fortasse ctiam minōris. Cic.

Remark 1. Tantìdem, quanticunque, quantiquanti, and quantivis, compounds of tanti and quanti, are also put in the genitive; as, Tantidem frumentum emērunt quantīdem..... Cic. Majöris also is thus used in Phædrus; Multò majōris alăpa mecum vencunt.

Rem, 2. With a noun, tantus, quantus, \&c., are commonly put in the ablative; as, Quam tanto pretio mercātus est. Cic. Cùm pretio minōre redimendi captīvos copia fë̈ret. Liv. Pluris pretii coquus. Sall. Tanto, quanto, and plure, are sometimes found without a noun; as, Plure venit. Cic.

Rem. 3. The ablative of price is often an adjective without a noun; as, magno, permagno, parvo, paulŭlo, tantŭlo, minĭmo, plurümo, vili, nimio. These adjectives refer to some noun understood, as pretio, are, and the like, which are sometimes expressed ; as, Parvo pretio ea vendidisse. Cic.

Rem. 4. With valeo an accusative is sometimes used; as, Denarii dicti, quòd denos aris valēbant. Varr.

## ABLATIVE OF TIME.

§253. A noun denoting the time at or within which any thing is said to be, or to be done, is put in the ablative without a preposition ; as,

Die quinto decessit, He died on the fifth day. Nep. Hoc tempcre, At this time. Cic. Tertid vigiliầ eruptiōnem fecērunt, They made a sally at
the third watch. Cæs. Ut hième navrges, That you should sail in the winter. Cic. His ipsis diēbus hostem persĕqui. Cic. Prox̌mo triennio omnes gentes subēgit. Nep. Vel pace vel bello clarum fiëri licet. Sall. Ludis mane servum quidam egerat, On the day of the games.... Liv. So Latinis, gladiatortbus, comitiis, denote the time of the Latin festivals, the gladiatorial shows, dcc.

Remari 1. When a precise time is marked by its distance before or after another fixed time, it may be expressed by ante or post with either the accusative or the ablative ; as, Aliquot ante annos. Suet. Paucis ante diēbus. Liv. Paucos post dies. Cic. Multis annis post Decemviros. Id.

Sometimes quàm and a verb are added to post and ante with either the accusative or the ablative; as, Ante paucos quàm periret menses. Suet. Paucis post diēbus quàm Lucâ discessěrat. Cic. Post is sometimes omitted before quàm; as, Die vigesima quàm creãtus erat. Liv.

Instead of postquam, ex quo or quum, or a relative agreeing with the preceding ablative, may be used; as, Octo diēbus, quibus has litëras dabam, Eight days from the date of these letters. Cic. Mors Roscii, quatriduo quo is occīsus est, Chrysogŏno nuntiätur. Id.

Rem. 2. Precise past time is often denoted by abhinc with the accusative or ablative; as, Quastor fuisti abhinc annos quatuordĕcim. Cic. Comitiis jam ablinc triginta diêbus habřtis. Id.

Rem. 3. The time at which any thing is done, is sometimes expressed oy the neuter accusative id, with a genitive; as, Venit id temporris. Cic. So with a preposition ; Ad id diēi. Gell. See §212, Rem. 3.

Rem. 4. The time at or within which any thing is done, is sometimes expressed by in or de, with the ablative; as, In his diēbus. Plaut. In tali tempöre. Liv. De tertia vigiliâ ad hostes contendit. Cæs. Surgunt de nocte latrōnes. Hor. So with sub; Sub ipsA die. Plin.

The time within which any thing occurs, is also sometimes expressed by intra with the accusative; as, Dimidiam partem natiōnum subēgit intra miginti dies. Plaut. Intra decĭmum diem, quàm Pheras venĕrat; Within ten days after.... Liv.

For the ablative denoting duration of time, or extent of space, see § 236 .

## ABLATIVE OF PLACE.

\$254. The name of a town in which any thing is said to be, or to be done, if of the third declension or plural number, is put in the ablative without a preposition; as,

Alexander Babylōne est mortuus, Alexander died at Babylon. Cic. Thebis nutritus an Argis, Whether brought up at Thebes or at Argos. Hor. Jatus Tibŭre vel Gabiis. Id.

Remark 1. The ablative rure, or more commonly ruri, is used to denote in the country; as, Pater filium ruri habitāre jussit. Cic.

Rem. 2. The preposition in is sometimes expressed with names of towns; as, In Philippis quidam nunciāvit. Suet.

Names of towns of the first and second declension, and singular number, and also domus and humus, are in like manner sometimes put in the ablative. See § 221.

Rem. 3. Before the names of countries and of all other places in whicl. any thing is said to be or to be done, except those of towns, and domus
and rus, the preposition in is commonly used; as, Aio hoc fiĕri in Græciâ. Plaut. Lucus in urbe fuit. Virg.

But the preposition is sometimes omitted ; as, Milites stativis castris habēbat. Sall. Magnis in laudı̂lus fuit totâ Greciâ. Nep. Insidia terrâ marīque facte sunt. Cic. Javǐta puppe sedens. Ovid. Ibam forte viâ sacrâ. Hor. Urbe tota. Cic.

For names of countries in the genitive, seé § 221, Rem. 1.
§ 255. After verbs expressing or implying motion, the name of a town whence the motion proceeds, is put. in the ablative, without a preposition ; as,

Brundisio profecti sumus, We departed from Brundisium. Cic. Intěrim Româ per littěras certior fit ; sc. datas or missas. Sall. J. 82.

Remark 1. The ablatives domo, humo, and rure or ruri, are used, like names of towns, to denote the place whence motion proceeds; as,

Domo profectus, Having set out from home. Nep. Surgit humo juøĕnis, The youth rises from the ground. Ovid. Rure huc advénit. Ter. Si ruri veniet. Id. Virgil uses domus with unde; as, Qui genus? unde domo? With an adjective, rure, and not ruri, must be used.

Rem. 2. With names of towns, and domus, and humus, ab or ex is sometimes used; as, Ab Alexandrîâ prafectus. Cic. Ex domo. Id. Ab humo. Virg.

Rem. 3. With other names of places whence motion proceeds, $a b$ or ex is commonly expressed; as, Ex Asiâ transis in Eurōpam. Curt. Ex castris proficiscuntur. Cæs.

But the preposition is sometimes omitted; as, Litčra Macedoniâ allater. Liv. Classis Cypro advënit. Curt. Cessissent loco. Liv. Ite sacris, properäte sacris, laurumque capillis ponĭte. Ovid. Finĭbus omnes prosiluêre suis. Virg. Advolvunt ingentes montǐbus ornos. Id. This omission of the preposition is most common in the poets.

## ABLATIVE AFTER COMPARATIVES.

§ 256. When two objects are compared by means of the comparative degree, a conjunction, as quàm, atque, \&̌c., is sometimes expressed, and sometimes omitted.

The comparative degree is followed by the ablative, when quàm is omitted; as,

Nïhil est virtute formosius, Nothing is more beautiful than virtue. Cic. Quis C. Lælio comior? Who is more courteous than C. Lælius? Id.

Remark 1. An object which is compared with the subject of a proposition by means of the comparative degree, is usually put in the ablative without quàm; as,

Sidĕre pulchrior ille est, tu levior cortĭce. Hor. Quid magis est durum saxo, quid mollius undà? Ovid. Hoc nemo fuit minius ineptus. Ter. Albānum, Macēnas, sive Falernum te magis appositis delectat. Hor.

Rem. 2. An object compared with a person or thing addressed, is also put in the ablative without quàm; as, O fons Bandusic splendidior vitro! Hor.

Rem. 3. Quìm is sometimes used when one of the objects compared is the subject of a proposition, and then both are in the same case, either nominative or accusative ; as, Oratio quàm habr̆tus fuit miserabilior. Cie. Affirmo nullam esse laudem ampliōrem quàm eam. Id.

Rem. 4. If neither of the objects compared is the subject of a sentence or a person addressed, quàm is commonly used, and the object which follows it is put in the nominative with sum, and sometimes in an oblique case to agree with the other object; as, Non opinnor neguturrum esse te, homīni non gratiosiōri,quàm Cn. Calidius est, argentum reddidisse. Cic. Ego hom̌̃nem calliďōrem vidi nem̌̃nem quàm Phormiōnem. Ter.

The following example illustrates both the preceding constructions:Ut tibi multoे majöri, quàm Africānus fuit, tamen (me) non multò minōrear quàm Lælium adjunctum esse putiāre. Cic.
Rem. 5. But when the former object of comparison is in the accusiative, though not the subject of the verb, the latter, if a relative pronoun, is put in the ablative without quàm; as, Altălo, quo graviōrem inimīcum non habui, sorōrem dedit; He gave his sister to Attalus, than whom, \&c. Curt.

This construction is often found with other pronouns, and sometimes with a noun; as, Hoc nihil gratius facĕre potes. Cic. Causam enim suscepisti antiquiörem memoriâ tua. Id. Exëgi monumentum ære perennius. Hor. Majōra virïbus audes. Virg. Nullam sacrd vite priùs sevëris arlŏrem. Hor. Nullos his mallem ludos spectâsse. Id. § 178, 3.

Rem. 6. Plus, minus, and amplius, are often used without quàm, and yet are commonly followed by the same case as if it were expressed ; as,

Hostium plus quinque millia casi eo die, More than five thousand of the enemy were slain that day. Liv. Ferre plus dimidiāti mensis cibaria. Cic. Nón amplius quingentos cives desiderāvit. Cæs. Sedĕcim non amplius legionĭbus defcnsum imperium est. Liv. Madefactum iri minus triginta diêbus Gracinm sangừne. Cic. The ablatives in the last two examples do not depend upon the comparatives, but may be referred to § 236 .

Before the dative and vocative, quàm must be expressed after these words.
The ablative is sometimes used with these as with other comparatives ; as, Dies triginta aut plus eo in navi fui. Ter. Triennio amplius. Cic.

Rem. 7. Quàm is in like manner sometimes omitted, without a change of case, after major, minor, and some other comparatives; as, Obsides ne minōres octōnûm denîm annūrum neu majōres quỉnûm quadragēnûm,.... of not less than eighteen, nor more than forty-five years of age. Liv. Ex urlāno exerč̀tu, qui minōres quinque et triginta annis crant, in nuves imposyti sunt. The genitive and ablative, in these and similar examples, are to be referred to §211, Rem. 6. Longiùs ab urbe mille passuum. Liv. Annos natus magis quadraginta. Cic.

Rem. 8. When the second member of a comparison is an infinitive or lause, quàm is always expressed ; as, Nïhil est in dicendo majus quàm ut 'aveat oratōri audītor. Cic.
Rem. 9. Certain nouns, participles, and adjectives,-as opinione, spe, expectatiōne, fide,-dicto, solito,-aquo, credibili, and justo,-are used in the ablative after comparatives; as, Opiniōne celeriùs ventūrus esse dicitur... sooner than is expected. Cæs. Dicto citiùs tum̌da aquŏra placat. Virg. Injurias graviìs æquo habēre. Sall.
These ablatives supply the place of a clause : thus, graviics aquo is
equivalent to graviùs quàm quod aquum est. They are often omitted; as, Liberiùs vivëbat, sc. aquo. Nep. In such cases, the comparative may be translated by the positive degree, with too, quite, or ruther, as in the above example-"He lived too freely," or " rather freely." So tristior, sc. solvto, rather sad.

Rem. 10. With inferior, the dative is sometimes used, instead of the ablative; as, Vir nulla arte cuiquam inferior. Sall. The ablative is also found, but usually inferior is followed by quàm.

Rem. 11. Quàm pro is used after comparatives, to express disproportion; as, Prolium atrocius quàm pro numèro pugnantium, The battle was more severe than was to be expected, considering the number of the combatants. Liv.

Rem. 12. When two different qualities of the same object are compared, both the adjectives which express them are put in the positive degree with magis quàm, or in the comparative connected by quàm; as, Perfectam artem juris civīlis habelŭtis, mugis magnam atque uběrem, quàm difficĭlem atque obscuram. Cic. Triumphus clarior quàm gratior, A triumph more famous than acceptable. Liv.

Rem. 13. Magis is sometimes expressed with a comparative ; as, Quis magis queat esse beatior ? Virg.

So also the prepositions pree, ante, prater, and supra, are sometimes used with a comparative; as, Unus præ ceterris fortior exsurgit. Apul. Scelĕre ante alios immanior omnes. Virg. They also occur with a superlative; as, Ante alios carissimus. Nep. Yet these prepositions denote comparisor with a positive, and therefore seem redundant in such examples. See § 127.

Rem. 14. Alius may be construed like comparatives, and is sometimes, though rarely, followed by the ablative ; as, Neve putes alium sapiente bonơque beătum. Hor. Alius Lysippo. Id.

Rem. 15. Ac and atque are sometimes used after the comparative degree, like quàm; as, Arctiùs atque hedërad procēra adstringǐtur ilex. Hor.

Rem. 16. The degree of difference between objects compared is expressed by the ablative.
(1.) Alsolute difference is usually denoted by nouns; as, Minor uno mense, Younger by one month. Hor. Sesquipěde quàm tu longior. Plaut. Hibernia dimidio minor quàm Britannia. Cæs. Dimidio minōris constābit. Cic. Quàm molestum est uno digĭto plus habēre! !...to exceed by a finger, to have six fingers. Cic. Supĕrat capĭte et cervicǐbus altis. Virg.
(2.) Relative difference is denoted by neuter adjectives of quantity, and pronouns, in the singular number. Such are tunto, quanto, quo, co, hoc, multo, parvo, paulo, nimio, aliquanto, altéro tanto (twice as much); as, Quanto sumus superiōres, tanto nos submissiùs geraimus; The more eminent we are, the more humbly let us conduct ourselves. Cic. Eo gravior est dolor, quo culpa est major. Cic. Quo difficilius, hoc praclarius. Id. Iter multo fucilius. Cæs. Parvo brevius. Plin. Eo magis. Cic. Eo minus. Id. Via altěro tanto longior. Nep. Multo id max̌mum fuit. Liv. So, Multo prestat. Sall. Post paulo. Id. Multo ante lucis adventum. Id. Relative difference is also expressed by the phrase multis partĭlus. as, Numĕro multis parť̆bus esset inferior. Cæs.

Note. The accusatives tantum, quantum, and aliquantum, are sometimes used instead of the corresponding ablatives; as, Aliquantum est ad rem avidior. Ter. So the adverb longè ; as, Longè nobilissìmus. Cæs.

## ABLATIVE ABSOLUTE.

## §257. A noun and a participle are put in the abla-

 tive, called absolute, to denote the time, cause, or concomitant of an action, or the condition on which it depends; as,Pythagorras, Tarquinio Superbo regnante, in Italiam venit; Tarquinius Superbus reigning, Pythagoras came into Italy. Cic. Lupus, stimulante fame, captat ovile; Hunger inciting, the wolf seeks the fold. Ovid. Hac oratiōne habǐtâ, concilium dimīsit. Cæs. Galli, re cognîtâ, olsidiōnem relinquunt. Id. Virtūte exceptâ, nihil amicitia prastabilius putêtis. Cic.

Remark 1. This construction is an abridged form of expression, equivalent to a dependent clause introduced by cum, or some other conjunction. Thus, for Tarquinio regnante, the expression dum Tarquinius regnäbat might be used; for hac oratiōne habìta, cìm hanc oratiōnem habuisset, or cium hec oratio hab̌̌ta esset,-concilium dim̃sit. The ablative absolute may always be resolved into a proposition, by making the noun or pronoun the subject, and the participle the predicate.

Rem.2. This construction is common only with present and perfect participles. Instances of its use with participles in rus and dus are comparatively rare; as, Cæsăre ventūro, Phosphŏre, redde diem. Mart. Ir-: ruptüris tam infestis nationŭbus. Liv. Quis est enim, qui, nullis officii preceptis tradendis, philosŏphum se audeat dicére. Cic.

Rem. 3. A noun is put in the ablative absolute, only when it denotes a different person or thing from any in the leading clause.

Yet a few examples occur of a deviation from this principle; a substantive pronoun being sometimes put in the ablative absolute, though referring to the subject, or some other word in the leading clause; as, Se audiente, scribit Thucydides. Cic. Legio ex castris Varrônis, adstante ct inspectante ipso, signa sustülit. Cæs. Me duce, ad hunc voti finem, me milite, veni. Ovid. Letos fecit, se consŭle, fastos Lucan.

Rem. 4. The ablative absolute serves to mark the time of an action, by reference to that of another action. If the present participle is ased, the time of the action expressed by the principal verb, is the same as that of the participle. If the perfect is used, it denotes an action prior to that expressed by the principal verb.

Thus in the preceding examples-Pythagŏras, Tarquinio Superbo reg. nunte, in Italiam venit; Pythagoras came into Italy during the reign of Tarquinius Superbus. Galli, re cognîta, obsidiōnem relinquunt; The Gauls, having learned the fact, abandon the siege.

Rem. 5. The construction of the ablative absolute with the perfect passive participle, arises frequently from the want of a participle of that tense in the active voice. Thus, for "Cæsar, having sent forward the cavalry, was following with all his forces," we find, "Casar, equitātu præmisso, subsequelätur omň̌lus copiis."

As the perfect participle in Latin may be used for both the perfect active and perfect passive participles in English, its meaning can, in many instances, be determined only by the connection, the agent with $a$ or $a b$ not being expressed after this participle, as it usually is after the passive voice

Thus, Casar, his dictis, concilium dimisit, might be rendered, "Cæsar, having said this, or this having been said (by some other person), dismissed the assembly."

As the perfect participles of deponent verbs correspond to perfect active participles in English, no such necessity exists for the use of the ablative absolute with them; as, Casar, hæc locatus, concilium dimissit. In the following example, both constructions are united: Ităque.....agros Remōrum depopulāti, omnłbus vicis, adificiisque incensis. Cæs.

Rem. 6. The perfect participles of neuter deponent verbs, and some, also of active deponents, which admit of both an active and passive sense, are used in the ablative absolute; as, Orta luce. Cæs. Vel extincto vel elapso anĭmo, nullum residére sensum. Cic. Tam multis gloriam ejus adeptis. Plin. Litěras ad exerč̌tus, tanquam adepto principătu, misit. Tac.

Rem. 7. As the verb sum has no present participle, two nouns, or a noun and an adjective, which might be the subject and predicate of a dependent clause, are put in the ablative absolute without a participle ; as,

Quid, adolescentŭlo duce, efficęre possent; What they could do, a youth (being) their leader. Cæs. Me suasōre atque impulsōre, hoc factum. Plaut. Annibăle vivo. Nep. Invīta Minerva. Hor. With names of office, the ablative absolute often denotes the time of an event; as, Romam venit Mario consŭle, He came to Rome in the consulship of Marius. Cic.

Rem. 8. A clause sometimes supplies the place of the noun; as, Nonduin comperto quam in regiōnem venisset rex. Liv. Audĩto venisse nuncium. Tac. Vale dicto. Ovid. Haud cuiquam dubio quin hostium essent. Liv. Juxta periculōso vera an ficta proměret. Tac.

Rem. 9. The noun is, in some instances, wanting; as, In amnis transgressu, mult̀̀̀m certāto, Bardesănes vicit. Tac. Diffičlis mihi ratio, cui, errăto, nulla venia, rertè facto, exigua laus propoň̌tur. Cic. Serēno per totum diem. Liv.; or is used alone; as, Imperio populi Romani. Cæs.

This use of certāto and errāto corresponds to the impersonal construction of the passive voice of neuter verbs, while facto and serēno may be referred to some general word understood.

Rem. 10. This ablative is sometimes connected to the preceding clause by a conjunction; as, Casar, quanquam obsidiōne Massilia retardante, brevi tamen omnia subégit. Suet. Decemvtri non ante, quam perlātis legĭbus, depositūros imperium esse aiēbant. Liv.

Rem. 11. A predicate ablative is sometimes added to passive participles of naming, choosing, \&c. § 210 , (3.); as, Hasdrubăle imperatōre suffecto. Liv.

## CONNECTION OF TENSES.

§ 258. Tenses may be divided, in regard to their connection, into two classes. Those which belong to the same class are called similar; those which belong to different classes are called dissimilar.
Of the first class are the present, the perfcct definite, and the futures, with the periphrastic forms in sim and fuerrm. Of the second class are the imperfect, the perfcct indefinite, and the plupcrfcct, with the periphrastic forms in essem and fuissem.
I. Similar tenses only can, in general, be made to depend on
each other, by means of those connectives which are followed by the subjunctive mood.

1. In clauses thus connected, the present, perfect, and the periphrastic forms with sim and fuĕrim, may depend on,
(1.) The Present; as, Non sum ita hebes, ut istuc dicam. Cic. Quantum dolōrem accepěrim, tu existimāre potes. Id. Nec dubĭto quin redîtus ejus reipublǐce salutāris futurrus sit. Id.
(2.) The Perfect Definite ; as, Sutis provisum est, ut ne quid agĕre possint. Id. Quis musǐcis, quis huic studio literārum se dedĭdit, quin omnem illārum artium vim comprehendërit. Id. Defectiōnes solis prædictæ sunt, que, quanta, quando futūre sint. Id.
(3.) The Futures; as, Sic facillime, quanta oratōrum sit, semperque. fuêrit pauč̌tas, judicābit. Id. Ad quos dies reditūrus sim, scribam ad te. 1d. Si sciěris asptdem latēre uspiam, et velle aľ̀quem super eam assidēre, cujus mors tili emolumentum factūra sit, imprŏlé fecěris, nisi monuěris, ne assideat. ld.
2. So the imperfect, pluperfect, and periphrastic forms with essem and fuissem, may depend on,
(1.) The Imperfect; as, Unum illud extimescēbam, ne quid turpxter facěrem, vel jam effecissem. Cic. Non enim dubitảbam, quin eas libenter lectūrus esses. Id.
(2.) The Perfect Indefinite; as, Veni in ejus villam ut libros inde promērem. Id. Hac cìm essent nuntiāta, Valeriis classem extemplo ad ostium flumðnis duxit. Liv. Ne Clodius quidem de insidiis cogitāvit, siqǔdem exitūrus ad cadem e villd non fuisset. Cic.
(3.) The Pluperfect; as, Pavor cepěrat miľtes, ne mortifêrum esset vulnus. Liv. Ego ex ipso audiĕram, quàm a te liberaľ̃ter esset tractātus. Cic. Non satis mihi constitěrat, cum aliquâne anx̆mi mei molestia, an potius libenter te Athēnis visürus essem. Id. The perfect sometimes follows the pluperfect in clauses with $u t$ containing a conclusion. Cæs. B. G. 1, 11.

Remari 1. When the present is used in narration for the perfect indefinite, it may, like the latter, be followed by the imperfect; as, Legãtos mittunt, ut pacem impetrārent. Cæs.

Rem. 2. The perfect definite is often followed by the imperfect, even when a present action or state is spoken of, if it is not confined to the present; as, Sunt philosŏphi et fuērunt, qui omnĩno nullam habēre censērent humanārum rerum procuratiōnem Dєos. Cic.

Rem. 3. The perfect indefinite is not regularly followed by the perfect subjunctive, as the latter is not, in general, used in reference to past action indefinite. See § 260, I. Rem. 1.

These tenses are, however, sometimes used in connection, in the narrative of a past event, especially in Livy and Cornelius Nepos; as, In J\&quis varie bellătum est, adeo ut in incerto fuĕrit, vicissent, victīne essent. Liv. Factum est, ut plus quàm collēga Miltiădes valuĕrit. Nep.

The imperfect and perfect are even found together after the perfect indefinite, when one action is represented as permanent or repeated, and the other simply as a fact ; as, Adeo nihil miserǐti sunt, ut incursiōnes facěrent et Veios in antrio habuêrint oppugnäre. Liv.

Rem. 4. As present infinitives and present participles depend for their time upon the verbs with which they are connected, they are followed by suth tenses as those verbs may require ; as, Apelles pictōres quoque eos peccarre dicēbat, qui non sentīrent, quid esset satis. Cic. Ad te scripsi, te leř̀ter accūsans in eo, quòld de me cito credidisses. Id.

Rem. 5. The perfect infinitive follows the general rule, and takes after it a tense of present or past time, according as it is used in a definite or indefinite sense ; as, Arbiträmur nos ea præstitisse, que ratio et doctrina præscripsĕrit. Cic. E'st quod gaudeas te in ista loca venisse, ubi alǐquid sajĕre viderēre. Id.

But it may sometimes take a different tense, according to Rem. 2; as, lla mihi videor et esse Deos, et quales essent satis ostendisse. Cic.
II. Dissimilar tenses may be made dependent on each other, in order to express actions whose time is different.

Hence, the present may be followed by the imperfect or pluperfect, to express a contingency dependent upon some condition not actually existing ; as, Nemo dulitäre debet, quin multos, si fiëri posset, Casar ab inféris excitāret. Cic. So the perfect indefinite may be followed by the present, to express the present result of a past event ; as, Tanti sonitus fuērunt, ut ego brevior sim, quòd eos usque istinc exaudĩtos putem. Cic.

## INDICATIVE MOOD.

\$259. The indicative mood is used in independent and absolute assertions. It is often employed, also, in conditional and dependent clauses, to denote that which is supposed or admitted; as, $S i$ vales, bene est. Cic. It may likewise be used in interrogations; as, Quid agis, ecquid commŏdè vales? Plin.

Remark 1. The several tenses have already been defined, and their usual significations have been given in the paradigms. They are, however, sometimes otherwise rendered, one tense being used with the meaning of another, either in the same or in a different mood. Thus,
(1.) The present is sometimes used for the future ; as, Quàm mox navĬgo Ephĕsum? How soon do I sail for Ephesus? Plaut.
(2.) The perfect for the pluperfect; as, Sed postquam aspexi, illico cognōri, But after 1 (had) looked at it, I recognized it immediately. Ter.

This is the usual construction after postquam, ubi, ut, ut primum, ut semel, quum primum, simul ac, and simul atque, in the sense of when, as soon $a s$, in direct narration. So priùs quàm, Sall. Cat. 51.
(3.) The pluperfect for the perfect ; as, Dixĕrat, et spissis noctis se condrdit umbris, She (had) said, and hid herself in the thick shades of night. Virg. ; so for the imperfect, to denote what had been and still was.
(4.) The future for the imperative mood; as, Valēbis, Farewell. Cic.
(5.) The future perfect for the future ; as, Alio loco de oratōrum antmo et injuriis viděro, $I$ shall see (have seen).... Cic. This use seems to result from viewing a future action as if already completed.

Rem. 2. When a future action is spoken of either in the future, or in the imperative, or the subjunctive used imperatively, and another future action is connected with it, the latter is expressed by the future tense, if the actions relate to the same time, but by the future perfect, if the one must be completed before the other is performed. This verb in English is usually put in the present tense; as, Faciam si potĕro; I will do it, if I can, i.e. if $I$ shall be able. So, Ut sementem fecěris, itu metes. Cic.

Rem. 3. In expressions denoting the propriety, practicability or ad-
vantage of an action not performed, the indicative is used, while in English the potential, in such cases, is more common ; as, Possum persěqui multa oblectamenta rerum rusticärum, sed \&c., I might speak of the numerous pleasures of husbandry, but \&c. Cic. Fquius huic Turnum fuĕrat se opponĕre morti. Virg. This construction occurs with debeo, possum, decct, licet, oportct, necesse est; aquum, consentaneum, longum, melius, optimum, par, satis, satius-est, erat, \&c.; ; and in the periphrastic conjugation with participles in dus.

Rem. 4. The past tenses of the indicative are often used for the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive, in the conclusion of a conditional clause; as, Si non alium longè jactāret odōrem, laurus erat,....it would have been a laurel. Virg. Nec veni, nisi fata locum sedemque dedissent. Id. Pons sublicius iter pane hostlbus dedit, ni unus vir fuisset Horatius Cocles. Liv. Si mens non lava fuisset, impulërat. Virg. So the present ind. for the present subj.; as, Multa me dehortantur, \& c. Sall. J. 31. Sometimes also in the condition; as, At fuĕrat melius, si te puer iste tenēbat. Ovid. See § 261.

## SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

\$260. The subjunctive mood is used to express an action or state simply as conceived by the mind.

It takes its name from its being commonly used in suljoined or dependent clauses. In some cases, however, it is found in independent clauses, or at least in such as have no obvious dependence.
I. The subjunctive often implies the existence of an action or state, without directly asserting it. When this is the case, its tenses are commonly to be translated in the same manner as the corresponding tenses of the indicative; as,

Cùm esset Casar in Gallia, When Cæsar was in Gaul, not might be. Cæs. Rogas me quid tristis ego sim....why 1 am sad. Tac.

Remark 1. In this sense, its tenses have, in general, the same limitation in respect to time as those of the indicative, but the imperfect is commonly used rather than the perfect, to denote indefinite past action; as, Quo factum est, ut brevi tempöre illustrarētur; By which it happened that, in a short time, he became famous. Nep.

Rem. 2. The subjunctive, in such cases, depends upon the particles and other words to which it is subjoined, and its meaning must be carefully distinguished from that which is stated in the following rule.
II. The subjunctive is used to express what is contingent or hypothetical, including possibility, power, liberty, will, duty, and desirc. In this use, it does not imply the existence of the action or state which the verb expresses.

Remark 1. The tenses of the subjunctive, thus used, have the significations which have been given in the paradigms, and are, in general, not limited, in regard to time, like the corresponding tenses of the indicative. Thus,
(1.) The present, in this sense, may refer either to present or future time; as, Mediocribus et quîs ignoscas vitiis teneor; 1 am subject to moderate faults, and. such as you may excuse. Hor. Orat a Casäre ut det sibi veniam, He begs of Cæsar that he would give him leave. Cæs.
(2.) The imperfect mav relate either to past, present, or future time; as,

Si fata fuissent ut caděrem, If it had been my fate that I should fall. Virg. Si possern, sanior essem; If I could, I would be wiser. Ovid. Cetěros rapěrem et prosterněrem, The rest I would seize and prostrate. Ter.
(3.) The perfect relates either to past or future time ; as, Errarim fortasse, Perhaps I may have erred. Plin. Videor sperāre posse, si te vidērim, ea facllé ( $m e$ ) transitūrum.... if I can see you.... Cic.
(4.) The pluperfect relates to past time, expressing a contingency, which is usually future with respect to some past time mentioned in connection with it; as, Id respondèrunt se factūros esse, cùm ille vento Aquilōne venisset Lemnum.... when he should have come.... Nep.

Rem. 2. The imperfect subjunctive, in Latin, is sometimes employed, where, in English, the pluperfect would be used; as, Quod si quis deus dicĕret, nunquam putārem me in academid tanquam philostpphum disputatarum, lf any god had said....I never should have supposed.... Cic.

On the other hand, the pluperfect in Latin is sometimes used, where the imperfect is commonly employed in English ; as, Promīsit se scriptürum, guum primìm nuntium accepisset.... as soon as he (should have) received the news.
Rem. 3. The present and perfect subjunctive may denote a supposition or concession ; as, Vendat ades vir bonus, Suppose an honest man is selling a house. Cic. Dixerrit Epicürus, Grant that Epicurus could have said. Id.

Rem. 4. The present, imperfect, and perfect subjunctive are used to soften an assertion; as, Nemo istud tibi concēdat, or concessěrit; No one would grant you that. Volo and its compounds are often so used in the present ; as, Velim obvias mihi litĕras crebrò mittas, I could wish that you would frequently send, \&c. Cic. The perfect, used in this sense, has often the force of the present; as, Quis enim hoc tili concessěrit? Cic.
Rem. 5. The present and perfect tenses are also used in questions which imply a doubt respecting the probability or propriety of an action; as, Quis dubitet quin in virtüte divitioe sint? Who can doubt that riches consist in virtue? Cic. Quisquam numen Junōnis adōret praterea? Will any one henceforth adore the divinity of Juno? Virg. Quidni, inquit, meminěrim? Cic. So, also, the imperfect. Ovid. Her. 12, 146.

Rem. 6. The present subjunctive is often used to express a wish, an exhortation, a request, a command, or a permission ; as,

Ne sim salvus, May I perish Cic. In media arma ruāmus, Let us rush.... Virg. Ne me attingas, sceleste; Do not touch me.... Ter. Faciat quod lubet, Let him do what he pleases. Id. The perfect is often so used, and sometimes the pluperfect ; as, Ipse viděrit, Let him see to it himself. Cic. Fuisset, Be it so, or It might have been so. Virg. Viděrint sapientes. Cic.
$\mathcal{N e}$ is commonly employed as a negative, rather than non, in this use of the subjunctive.

Rem. 7. In the regular paradigms of the verb, no future subjunctive was exhibited either in the active or passive voice.
(1.) When the expression of futurity is contained in another part of the sentence, the future of the subjunctive is supplied by some other tense of that mood; as, Tantùm moneo hoc tempus si amisěris, te esse nullum unquam magis idoneum reperturum ; I only warn you, that, if you should lose this opportunity, you will never find one more convenient. Cic.
(2.) If $r .0$ other future is contained in the sentence, the place of the future subjunctive active is supplied by the participle in rus, with sim or fuĕrim, essem or fuissem; as, Non dubrtat quin breoi Troja sit peritüra, He does not doubt that Troy would soon be destroyed. Cic. See Periphrastic Conjugations, § 162, 14.
(3.) The future subjunctive passive is suppled, not by the participle in dus, but by futurum sit or esset, with $u t$ and the present or imperfect of the subjunctive ; as, Non dub̌̌to quin futūrum sit, ut laudētur; I do not doubt that he will be praised.

Rem. 8. The imperfect, when relating to past or present time, and also the pluperfect, both when they stand alone, and in conditional clauses with si, \&c., as also after utĭnam and $O!$ si, imply the non-existence of the action or state denoted by the verb; the present and perfect do not decide in regard to its existence ; as,

Nollem datum esse, I could wish it had not been paid. Ter. Nolim datum esse, I hope it has not been paid. Utrinam jam adesset, I wish he were now present. Cic. Utǐnam ea res ei voluptāti sit, I hope that thing is a pleasure to him. Id.

## PROTASIS AND APODOSIS.

§261. In a sentence containing a condition and a conclusion, the former is called the protăsis, the latter the apodŭsis.

1. In the protasis of conditional clauses with $s i$ and its compounds, the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive imply the nonexistence of the action or state supposed. In the apodosis the same tenses denote what the result would be, or would have been, had the supposition in the protasis been a valid one; as,

Nisi te satis incitätum esse confidĕrem, scribĕrem plura; Did 1 not believe that you had been sufficiently incited, I would write more (Cic.); which implies that he does believe, and therefore will not write.' Ea si de me uno cogitasset, nunquam illius lacry̆mis ac precǐbus restitissem. Id.
2. The present and perfect subjunctive are used in the protasis, when the action or state supposed may, or may not exist, or have existed ; as,

Omnia brevia tolerabilia esse debent, etiamsi maxima sint, ..... although they may be very great. Cic. Etsi id fugerrit Isocrătes, at non Thucydrdes; Although Isocrates may have avoided that..... Id.
Remark 1. The tenses of the indicative may also be used in the protasis of a conditional sentence with $s i, \& c$. ; as, Si vales, bene est. Cic. Si quis antea mirabătur quid esset, ex hoc tempöre mirētur potius.... Id.

Rem. 2. The subjunctive after $s i, \& c$., implies a greater degree of contingency than the indicative. When the imperfect or pluperfect is required to denote a past action, the indicative must be used, if its exist
ence is uncertain, as those tenses in the subjunctive would imply its nonexistence.

Rem. 3. The present and perfect subjunctive are sometimes used, both in the protasis and apodosis of a conditional sentence, in the sense of the .mperfect and pluperfect; as, $T u$, si hic sis, alyter sentias; If you were here, you would think otherwise. Ter. Quos, ni mea cura resistat, jam flamme tulërint. Virg.

Rem. 4. The protasis of a conditional sentence is frequently not expressed, but implied; as, Magno mercentur Atrida, i. e. si possint. Virg. ; or is contained in an abl. absolute. Hor. Od. 4, 8, 5.

## SUBJUNCTIVE AFTER PARTICLES.

§262. A clause denoting the purpose, object, or result of a preceding proposition, takes the subjunctive after $u t$, ne, quó, quin, and quominus; as,

Ea non, ut te instituĕrem, scripsi; I did not write that in order to instruct you. Cic. Irritant ad pugnandum, quò fiant acriōres; They stimulate them to fight, that they may become fiercer. Varr.

Remark 1. Ut, denoting a result, often relates to sic, ita, adeo,tam,talis,tantus,is,ejusmŏdi, \&c., in the preceding clause; as,

Id mihi sic erit gratum, ut gratius esse nihil possit; That will be so agreeable to me, that nothing can be more so. Cic. Non sum ita hebes, ut istuc dicam. Id. Neque tam erāmus amentes, ut explorāta nobis esset victoria. Id. 'Tantum indulsit dolōri, ut eum piëtas vincĕret. Nep. Ita and tam are sometimes omitted; as, Epaminondas fuit disertus, ut nemo ei par esset. Id.

Rem. 2. Ut, signifying although, takes the subjunctive; as,

Ut desint vires, tamen est laudunda voluntas; Though strength be wanting, yet the will is to be praised. Ovid.

Rem. 3. Ut, with the subjunctive, is used with impersonal verbs signifying it happens, it remains, it follows, \&c. ; as,

Qui fit, ut nemo contentus vivat? How does it happen that no one lives contented? Hor. Huic contĭgit, ut patriam ex servitūte in libertātem vindicaret. Nep. Sequĭtur iǧtur, ut etiam vitia sint parca. Cic. Relĭquum est, ut egŏnet mihi consŭlam. Nep. Restat igrtur, ut motus astrōrum sit voluntarius. Cic. Extrēmum illud est, at te orem et obsecrem. Id.

To this principle may be referred the following verbs and phrases :fit, fiĕri nen potest, accǐdit, incǔdit, occurrit, contingit, evĕnit, usu venit, rarum est, scquйtur, futūrum est, relüquum est, relinqǔ̆tur, restat, supĕrest, caput est, extremum est, opus est, est, aquum est, optïmum est, csto, be it that. But see § 269, R. 2.

For other uses of $u t$, with the subjunctive, see § 273.
Rem. 4. Ut is often omitted before the subjunctive, after verbs denoting, willingness, unwillingness, or permission; also after verbs of asking, advising, reminding, \&c., and the imperatives dic and fac; as,

Quid vis faciam? What do you wish (that) I should do ? Ter. Insänz feriant sine litöra fluctus. Virg. Tentes dissimulāre rogat. Ovid. Id sinas oro. Id. Se suadere, dixit, Pharnabāzo id negotii daret. Nep. Accēdat oportet actio varia. Cic. Fac cogites. Sall.

Verbs of willingness, \&c., are volo, nolo, malo, permitto, patior, sino, licet, veto, \&c.; those of asking, \&c., are rogo, oro, moneo, jubeo, mando, peto, precor, censeo, suadeo, oportet, necesseest, postülo, hortor, curo,\&c.

Rem. 5. Ne (lest) expresses a purpose negatively; as,
Cura ne quid ei desit, Take care that nothing be wanting to him. Cic. Ut ne are frequently used for ne; as, Opëra detur, ut judicia ne fiant. Id.

Rem. 6. Ne is often omitted after cave; as,
Cave putes, Take care that you do not suppose. Cic.
Rem. 7. After metuo, timeo, vereor, and other expressions denoting fear, or caution ne must be rendered by that or lest, and $u t$ by that not; as,

Milo metuēbut, ne a servis indicarētur, Milo feared that he should be betrayed by his servants. Cic. Pavor crat, ne castra hostis aggrederētur. Liv. Illa duo vereor, ut tibi possim concedëre, I fear that I cannot grant.... Cic. Me miserum! ne prona cadas.
Rem. 8. The proposition on which the subjunctive with $u t$ and $n e$ depends, is sometimes omitted; as, Ut ita dicam. Cic. Ne singŭlos nomı̌ncm. Liv.

Rem.. 9. Quò (that, in order that), especially with a comparative ; non quò, or non quod (not that, not as if), followed by sed; and quomĭnus (that not), after clauses denoting hindrance, take the subjunctive ; as,

Adjüta me, quò id fiat faciliùs; Aid me, that that may be done more easily. Ter. Non quò republı̌cà sit miki quicquam carius, sed desperātis etiam Hippocrătes vetat adhibēre medicīnam. Cic. Non quòd sola ornent, sed quòd excellant. Id. Neque recusävit, quò minùs legis panam subïret. Nep.

Rem. 10. Quin, after negative propositions and questions implying a negative, takes the subjunctive. Quin is used,

1. For a relative with non, after nemo, nullus, nihil....est, reperitur, invenītur, \&c. ; vix est, agrè reperītur, \&c.; as, Messānam nemo venit, quin vidērit, i. e. qui non vidërrit; No one came to Messana who did not see. Cic. Nego ullam pictūram fuisse...quin conquisièrit, i. e. quam non, \&c. Id. Nïhil est, quin malè narrando possit depraväri. Ter.
2. For ut non, after non dubĭto, non est dubium, facĕre non possum, fiĕri non potest ; nihil, haud multum, haud procul, or minitmum...abest; nihil protermitto, non recūso, temperare mihi non possum, vix, agrè, \&c.; as,

Facěre non possum quin ad tc mittam, i. e. ut non, \&c Cic. Ego nihil pratermīsi, quin Pomipcium a Casăris conjunctiòne avocārem. Id. Pror. sus nihil abest quin sim miserrimus. Id. Quis igytur dubztet quin in virtuite divitice positæ sint? Id. Ego vix teneor quin accurram. Id.
§263. 1. The subjunctive is used after particles of wishing, as utĭnam, uti, $O$ ! and $O!$ si; as,

Utĩnam minìs vite cupždi fuissëmus! $O$ that we had been less attached
to life! Cic. O si soľ̌te quicquam virtūtis adesset! Virg. The tense is determined by $\S 260$, II. Rem. 8.
2. Quamvis, however; licèt, although; tanquam, quasi, ac si, ut si, velut si, velŭti, sicŭti, and ceu, as if; modò, dum, and dummŏdo, provided,-take the subjunctive; as,

Quamvis ille felix sit, However happy he may be. Cic. Verttas licèt nullum defensōrem obtineat, Though truth should obtain no defender. Id. Me omnı̆lus rebus, juxta ac si meus frater esset, sustentāvit; He supported me in every thing, just as though he were my brother. Id. Omnia honesta negltgont dummodo potentiam consequantur; They disregard every honorable principle, provided they can obtain power. Id. Dum mihi antmum reddas. Hor.

Quamvis (although) has commonly the subjunctive; as, Quamvis non fuĕris suasor, approbātor certè fuisti. Cic. Sometimes also the indicative; as, Felīcem Niöben, quamvis tot funĕra vidit. Ovid.

Quamquam (although), denoting possibility, takes the subjunctive; as, $V i$ regĕre patriam quamquam possis. Sall. J. 3. Hor. Od. 4, 6, 7.
3. After antĕquam and priusquam, the imperfect and pluperfect tenses are usually in the subjunctive ; the present and perfect may be either in the indicative or subjunctive ; but when one thing is declared to be necessary or proper to precede another, the subjunctive is used ; as,

Ea causa ante mortua est, quam tu natus esses, That cause was dead before you were born. Cic. Avertit equos, priusquam pabŭla gustassent Troje, Xanthumque bibissent. Virg. Priusquam incipias, consulto opus est ; Before you begin, there is need of counsel. Sall.
4. Dum, donec, and quoad, signifying until, are followed by the subjunctive, if they refer to the attainment of an object; as,

Dum hic veniret, locum relinquĕre noluit; He was unwilling to leave the place until he (Milo) should come. Cic. Nihil puto tibi esse utilius quàm operīri quopd scire possis, quid tibi agendum sit. Id.
5. Quum or cùm, when it signifies a relation of time, takes the indicative; when it denotes a connection of thought, the subjunctive; as,

Cùm est allātum ad nos, gravzter commötus sum; When it was reported to us, I was greatly moved. Cic. Cùm tot sustineas et tanta nerotia, peccem, si morer tua tempøra, Cesar; Since you are burdened with so many and so important affairs, I should do wrong, if I should occupy your time, Cæsar. Hor.

Remari 1. Cùm, relating to time, is commonly translated when, or after; referring to a train of thought, it signifies since, though or although, because ; but may often be translated when; as, Quum in circŭlum venisset, When be had come into an assembly.

Rem. 2. In narration, cùm is usually joined with the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive, even when it relates to time, as,

Gracchus, cùm rem illam in religiōnem popǔlo venisse sentīret, ad senă. tum retülit. Cic. Alexander, cùm interemisset Clitum, vix manus a se alstinuit. Id.

In most instances of this construction, the event denoted by the subjunctive seems to relate to that expressed in the clause on which the subjunctive depends, not only in regard to time, but also as, in some sense, a cause. In general, when the attention is directed chiefly to the time at which an action occurred, the indicative in any tense may be used; when to the attion itself, the subjunctive; as, Hac cùm scribēbam jam tum existimäbam ad te oratiōnem esse perlātam. Cic. Cùm sciret Clodius iter necessarium Milōni esse Lanuvium, Româ sub̌̌to ipse profectus est. 1d.

For the subjunctive after si and its compounds, see § 261.

## SUBJUNCTIVE AFTER QUI.

§264. 1. When the relative qui follows tam, adeo, tantus, talis,-or is, ille, iste, or hic, in the sense of talis, -and is equivalent to $u t$ with a personal or demonstrative pronoun, it takes the subjunctive; as,

Quis est tam Lyncēus qui in tantis tenelris nihil offendat? i. e. ut in tantis....; Who is so quick-sighted, that he would not stumble in such darkness. Cic. Talem te esse oportet, qui ab impiōrum civium societāte sejungas. Id. At ea fuit legatio Octavii, in quâ pericŭli suspicio non subesset, i. e. ut in ed. Id. Nec tamen ego sum ille ferreus, qui fratris carissimi marōre non movear, i. e. ut ego non movear. Id.

Sometimes the demonstrative word is only implied; as,
Res paroa dictu, sed quæ studiis in magnum certämen excessěrit, i. e. talis ut....of such a kind that it issued in a violent contest. Cic. So quis sum, for num talis sum; as, Quis sum, cujus aures ladi nefas sit? Sen.
2. When the relative is equivalent to quanquam is, etsz $i s$, or dummödo is, it takes the subjunctive; as,

Laco, consilii quamvis egregii, quod non ipse afferret, inimīcus; Laco, an opponent of any measure, however excellent, provided he did not himself propose it. Tac. Tu aquam a pumice postülas, qui ipsus sitiat. Plaut. Nïhil molestum quod non desiděres, i. e. dummodo id. Cic.
3. Quod, in restrictive clauses, takes the subjunctive ; as,

Quod sine molestid tuad fiat, So far as it can be done without troubling you. Cic. Sestius non venĕrat quod sciam....so far as I know. Id.
4. The relative, after the comparative followed by quàm, takes the subjunctive; as,

Major sum, quàm cui possit fortūna nocēre, i. e. quàm ut mihi, \&c.; I am too great for fortune to be able to injure me. Ovid. Audita voce preccönis majus gaudium fuit, quàm quod universum homı̆nes capěrent; Upon the herald's voice being heard, the joy was too great for the people to contain. Liv.
5. A relative clause expressing a purpose, motive, or result, and equivalent to ut with a personal or a demonstrative pronoun, takes the subjunctive ; as,

Lacedamonii legātos Athēnas misērunt, qui eum absentem accūārent

The Lacedæmonians sent ambassadors to Athens to accuse him in his absence. Nep. Casar equitātum omnem pramittit, qui videant, quas in partes iter faciant. Cæs. Assiduè repětunt, quas perdant, Beľ̌des undas. Ov.

So with relative adverbs; as, Lampsăcum ei (Themistŏcli) rex donärat, unde vinum suměret, i. e. ex quà or ut inde, \&c. Nep.
6. A relative clause after certain indefinite general expressions, takes the subjunctive ; as,

Fuērunt eà tempestāte, qui dicĕrent; There were some at that time who said. Sall. Erant, quibus appetentior fame viderētur; There were those to whom he appeared too desirous of fame. Tac. Erunt, qui existimāri velint. Cic. Si quis erit, qui perpetuam oratiōnem desidëret, altĕr $\begin{gathered}\text { actiōne audiet. }\end{gathered}$ Id. Venient legiōnes, quæ neque me inultum, neque te impunitum patiantur. Tac. So after est, in the sense of "there is reason why;" as, Est quod gaudeas, You have cause to rejoice. Plaut. Est quod visam domum. Id. Si est quod desit, ne leătus quidem est. Cic.
The expressions included in the rule are est, sunt, adest, prasto sunt, existunt, exoriuntur, inveniuntur, reperiuntur, si quis est, tempus fuit, tempus veniet, \&c.

The same construction occurs with relative particles used indefinitely; as, Est unde hacc fiant, There are resources whence this may be done. Ter. Est ubi id isto modo valeat. Cic.

The above and similar expressions are followed by the subjunctive only when they are indefinite. Hence, after sunt quidam, sunt nonnulli, sunt multi, \&e., when referring to definite persons, the relative takes the indicative ; as, Sunt oratiōnes quedlam, quas Menocrīto dabo. Cic.

The indicative is sometimes, though rarely, used after sunt qui, even when taken indefinitely, especially in the poets; as, Sunt, quos juvat. Hor.
7. A relative clause after a general negative, or an interrogative expression implying a negative, takes the subjunctive; as,

Nemo est, qui hand intelliggat; There is no one who does not understand. Cic. Nulla res est, quæ perferre possit continuum labōrem; There is nothing which can endure perpetual labor. Quinct. Nulla pars est corpöris, quæ non sit minor. Ia. Nihil est, quod non alicübi esse cogātur. Id. In foro vix dečmus quisque est, qui ipsus sese noscat. Plaut. Quis est, qui utilia fugiat? Who is there that shuns what is useful ? Cic. An est quisquam, qui hoc ignōret? Is there any one who is ignorant of this? Id. Numquid est mali, quod non dixěris? Ter.

General negatives are nemo, nullus, nihil, unus non, alius non, non quisquam, vix ullus, nec ullus, \&c., with est ; vix with an ordinal and quisque ; nego csse quenquam, \&c. Interrogative expressions implying a negative, are quis, quantus, uter, ecquis, numquis, an quisquam, an alrquis, quotus quisque, quotus, \&c., with est ; quot, quàm multi, \&c., with sunt.

1. The same construction is used after non est, nihil est, quid est, numquid est, \&c., followed by quod, cur, or quare, and denoting " there is no reason why," " what cause?" " is there any reason ?" as, Quod timeas, non est ; There is no reason why you should fear. Ovid. Nilil est, quod adventum nostrium pertimescas. Cic. Quid est, quod de ejus civitāte dubĭtes? Id. Quid est, cur virtus ipsa per se non efficiat beätos? Id.
So after ноn habeo, or nihil habeo; as, Non habeo, quod te accōsem. Cic. Nikil habeo, qund scribam. Id.

Note. The relative clause takes the subjunctive after the expressions
included in this and the last rule, only when it expresses what is intended to be affirmed of the subject of the antecedent clause; as, Nemo est, qui nesciat; There is no one who is ignorant, i.e no one is ignorant. Cic. So Sunt, qui hoc carpant; There are some who blame this, i.e. some blame this. Vell.

If the relative clause is to be construed as a part of the logical subject, it does not require the subjunctive; as, Nihil stabile est, quod infidum est; Nothing which is faithless is firm. Cic.
8. A relative clause expressing the reason of what goes before, takes the subjunctive; as,

Peccavisse mihi videor, qui a te discesserrim; I think I have erred in having left you. Cic. Inertiam accūsas adolescentium, qui istam artem non ediscant; You blame the idleness of the young men, because they do not learn that art thoroughly. Id. O fortunāte adolescens, qui tue virtūtis Homērum pracōnem inveněris! Id.

Sometimes, instead of qui alone, ut, quippe, or utpŏte-qui, is used, generally with the subjunctive; as,

Convivia cum patre non inībat, quippe qui ne in opp $\begin{gathered}\text { dum } \\ \text { quidem } \\ \text { nisi }\end{gathered}$ rarò venisset. Cic. Neque Antonius procul abërat, utpǒte qui magno exerč̌tu sequerētur. Sall. Quippe qui omnia vicěrat, Sall.
9. After dignus, indignus, aptus, and idoneus, a relative clause takes the subjunctive; as,

Vidētur, qui aliquando impěret, dignus esse; He seems to be worthy at some time to command. Cic. Pompeius idoneus non est, qui impetret. Id. Et rem idoneam, de quâ quærātur, et homines dignos, quibuscum disserātur, putant. Id.

Note. If the relative clause does not express that of which the person or thing denoted by the antecedent is worthy, its construction is not influenced by this rule. Thus, Quis servus libertāte dignus fuit, cui nostra salus cara non esset 9 The subjunctive is here used according to No. 7 of this section.
10. A relative clause, after unus and solus, restricting the affirmation to a particular subject, takes the subjunctive ; as,

Hac est una contentio, quæ adhuc permansecrit; This is the only dispute which has remained till this time. Cic. Voluptas est sola, quæ nos vocet ad se, et alliceat suapte natüra; Pleasure is the only thing that, by its own nature, invites and allures us to itself. Id.
11. When the relative refers to a dependent clause, it often takes the subjunctive. See $\oint 266$.
12. The imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive are used in narration after relative pronouns and adverbs, when a repeated action is spoken of; as,
Semper hab̌̌ti sunt fortisšmi, qui summam imperii potirentur; Those have always been considered the bravest, who obtained the supreme dominion. Nep. Ut quisquc max̌mè laborāret locus, aut ipse occurrēbat, aut alíquos mittébat. So after si quis or qui ; as, Si qui rem malitiosiùs gessisset. dedēcus existimābant. Cic.

## SUBJUNCTIVE IN INDIRECT QUESTIONS.

## § 265. Dependent clauses, containing an indirect

 question, take the subjunctive.A question is indirect when its substance is stated without the interrogative form ; as,

Qualis sit aňmus, ipse anřmus nescit; The mind itself knows not what the mind is. Cic. Credibrle non est, quantum scribam; It is incredible how much I write. Id. Quis ego sim, me roǧtas? Do you ask me who I am? Plaut. Nec quid scribam, habeo; Nor have I any thing to write. Id. Doce me, ubi sint dii; Inform me where the gods are. Id. Quàm pridem sibi heredĩtas venisset, docet. 1d. Nunc acč̌pe, quare desipiant omnes. Hor. Id utrùm illi sentiant, an verò simŭlent, tu intelľges. Cic. Qucro, num tu senatui causam tuam permittas. Id. Vides, ut alta stet nive canď̌dum Soracte. Hor. Nescit, vitane fruătur, an sit apud manes. Ovid.

All interrogatives may be thus used in indirect questions; as,
Quantus, qualis, quot, quotus, quotuplex, uter ;quis, qui, cujas; ubi,quoे, unde, quà, quorsum, quamdiu, quamdüdum, quampridem, quoties, cur, quare, quanobrem, quemadmŏdum, quomŏdo, ut, quàm, quantopĕre, an, ne, num, utritm, anne, annon.

Remark 1. The indicative is sometimes used in such constructions; as, Vide avaritia quid facit. Ter. So Virg. Ecl. 5, 7.

Rem. 2. In double questions, the first may be introduced by utrìm, num, or the enclitic $n e$; and, in such case, the second is usually introduced by an; as, Multum intěrest, utrùm laus imminuătur, an salus deserātur. Cic. The first question is sometimes without any interrogative particle, and the second is then introduced by an or ne; as, Nunc habeam filium, necne, incertum est. Ter.

Rem. 3. Dubito an, haud scio an, nescio an, though implying some doubt, have generally a sense almost affirmative; as, Dubĭto, an hunc primum omnium ponam; I am inclined to place him first of all. Nep.

Rem. 4. Nescio quis, used nearly in the sense of alíquis, does not influence the mood of the following verb; as, Lucus, nescio quo casu, nocturnc tempŏre incensus est. Nep.

## SUBJUNCTIVE IN INTERMEDIATE CLAUSES.

§266. 1. When a proposition containing either an accusative with the infinitive, or a verb in the subjunctive, has a clause connected with it, as an essential part, either by a relative, a relative adverb, or a conjunction, the verb of the latter clause is put in the subjunctive ; as,

Quid enim potest esse tam perspicuum, quàm esse alĭquod numen, quo hac regantur? For what can be so clear as that there is some divinity by whom these things are governed? Cic. Illud sic fere definiri solct, decōrum id esse, guod consentaneum sit homǐnis excellentic. Id. Audiam quid sit, quod Epicarum non probes; I shall hear why it is that you do not approve of Epicurus. Id. Jussit ut, qua venissent, naves Eubwam petĕrent. Liv.

A clause, thus connected to a preceding dependent proposition, is sometimes called an intermediate clause.

To this rule belongs the construction of the oratio oblĩqua, or indirect discourse, that is, the relating the words or sentiments of another, not in the exact form in which they were expressed or conceived, but in that of narration. Thus, Cæsar said, "I came, I saw, I conquered," is direct,Cæsar said, that he came, saw, and conquered, is indirect discourse.
2. In the oratio obliqua, the main proposition is expressed by the accusative with the infinitive; and dependent clauses connected with it by relatives and particles, take the subjunctive.

Thus, Cicero and Quinctilian, in quoting the language of Marcus Antonius, make use, the former of the oratio directa, the latter of the oratio oblı̄qua ;-Antonius inquit, "Ars eārum rerum est, quæ sciuntur;" Antonius says, "Art belongs to those things which are known." Cic. Antonius inquit, artem eārum rerum esse, quæ sciantur; Antonius says, that art belongs to those things which are known. Quinct.

So, Socrătes dicĕre solēbat, omnes, in co quod scirent, satis esse eloquentes; Socrates was accustomed to say, that all are sufficiently eloquent in that which they understand. Cic. Cato mirāri se aiēbat, quòd non ridēret aruspex, aruspǐcem cùm vidisset. Id. Negat jus esse, qui miles non sit, pugrā̄re cum hoste. Id. Indignabuntur ibi esse imperium, ubi non esset libertus. Liv. Ităque Athenienses, quod honestum non esset, id ne uť̌le quidem (esse) putavērunt. Cic.

Remark 1. When the subjunctive would be necessary in the oratzo directa, to denote liberty, power, \&c., the same remains in the oratio oblr$q u a$, and is not changed into the infinitive with an accusative; as, Ad hac Ariovistus respondit, quum vellet, congrederētur; To this Ariovistus replied, that he might meet him when he pleased. Cas. In the aratio dirccta, this would be congrediäris. The imperative in the oratio directa is, in the oratio oblĩqua, changed into the subjunctive. Id. See $\S 273,3$.
4. Rem. 2. A writer may state his own past words or thoughts in oratio obliqqua, either preserving the first person, or adopting the third.

Rem. 3. When the words or sentiments of a third person are stated in oratio oblìqua, sui and suus are commonly used in references made to him. See § 208, (1.)

Rem. 4. The tenses to be used in changing the oratio directa into the obliqqua, depend on the tense of the verb which introduces the quotation, according to the rule, $\S 258$. But when the future perfect would be used in the direct, the pluperfect is necessary in the oblique form ; but the perfect is used after the present, perfect definite, or future.

Rem. 5. When the connected clause contains merely a descriptive circumstance, or expresses what is independent of the sentiment of the preceding clause, it takes the indicative; as, Imperävit Alexander Lysippo, ut eōrum eqū̆tum, qui apud Granīcum cecidêrant, facĕret statuas; Alexander ordered Lysippus to make statues of those horsemen who had fallen at the Granicus. Sometimes, in other cases, when it is evident from the sense, that the connected clause is an essential part of the proposition, the indicative is used, to avoid giving the appearance of contingency to the sentence.
3. A clause connected to another by a relative or causal conjunction, takes the subjunctive, (whatever be the mood
of the preceding verb,) when it contains not the sentiment or allegation of the writer, but that of some other person alluded to ; as,

Socrătes accusātus est, quòd corrumpĕret juventūtem; Socrates was accused, because (as was alleged) he corrupted the youth. Deum invocabant, cujus ad solenne venissent; They invoked the god, to whose solemnities they had come. Liv. Here the charge of corrupting the youth is not made by the writer, but by the accusers of Socrates. So, in the second example, the worshippers allege that they have come to attend upon the solemnities of the god. The indicative, in such cases, would render the writer responsible for the truth of the allegation.

In the preceding cases, it is not directly said that the sentiments are those of another than the writer. In Cicero, however, the words dico, puto, arbitror, and the like, are often construed in a similar manner; as, Quum enim, Hannibălis permissu, exisset de castris, rediit paulo post, qudd se oblìtum nescio quod dicěret,.....because (as) he said, he had forgotten something. Cic.

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

§ 267. The imperative mood is used, in the second person, to express a command, an exhortation, or an entreaty ; as,

Nosce te, Know thyself. Cic. AEquam memento serväre mentem, Remember to preserve an unruffled mind. Hor. Huc ades, Come hither. Virg. Pasce capellas, et potum pastas age, et inter agendum occursäre capro cavēto. Id.

The plural form in tote is rare ; as, Facitote. Ovid. Petitote. Id.
The third person expresses only a command, and is chiefly used in enacting laws; as,

Virǧ̌nes vestāles in urbe custodiunto ignem foci pubľcı sempiternum. Cic.

Remark 1. With the imperative, not is expressed by $n e$, and nor by neve ; as,

Ne tanta aň̆mis assuescitte bella. Virg. Ne crede colōri. Id. Hominem mortuum in urbe ne sepelito, neve urito. Cic.
Rem. 2. The present and perfect subjunctive are often used instead of the imperative, to express a command in a milder form, an exhortation, or an entreaty. See § 260, II., Rem. 6. Sometimes also the future indicative. See § 259, Rem. 1, (4.)

Rem. 3. Sometimes, for the simple imperative, fac, with the subjunctive is used; as, Fac erudias, Instruct, or Take care to instruct. Cic. So noli with the infinitive, and cave with the subjunctive, with or without ne ; as, Noli putäre, Do not suppose. Cic. Cave existimes, Do not think. Id.-Non and neque occur, though rarely, with the imperative.

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

OF THE TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE.
§268. The tenses of the infinitive denote respectively an action as present, past, or future, in reference to the time ot the verbs with which they are connected ; as,

Hoc facěre possum, I am able to do this. Cic. Vidi nostros inimīcos cupěre lellum, I saw that our enemies were desiring war. Id. Nec gemère aërià cessábit turtur ab ulmo, Nor shall the turtle dove cease to coo from the lofty elm. Virg.-Victōrem victe succubuisse queror, I complain that the victor has yielded to the vanquished. Ovid. Se a senzbus audisse dicēbant, They said that they had heard (it) from the old men. Cic. Audiet cives acuisse ferrum juventus, The youth will hear that the citizens have whetted the sword. Hor.-Negat sese verbum esse factūrum, He declares that he is not about to speak. Cic. Postquam audiërat non datum iri filio uxōrem suo, After he had heard that a wife would not be given to his son. Ter. Semper existimabĭtis nihil horum wos visüros fore, You will always suppose that you are to see none of these things. Cic.

Remare 1. The present infinitive is sometimes used to denote a completed action. This is the usual construction with memini; but the expression denotes rather a recollection of the progress than of the completion of the action; as, Hoc me memヶ̌ni dicěre, I remember my saying this. Cic. Teucrum mem̌̃ni Sidōna venīre, I remember Teucer's coming to Sidon. Virg. So with memoria teneo. Cic. Phil. 8, 10.

So, also, with recordor ;-Recordor longè omntlius unum anteferre Demosthĕnem. Cic. So M. Max̌mum accepr̀mus fač̌le celāre. Id.

When the action is spoken of simply as a fact, the perfect infinitive is used with memथ̌ni ; as, Meministi me ita distribuisse causam. Cic.

Rem. 2. To express the result of an action, the perfect infinitive is sometimes used instead of the present, especially after satis habeo, \&c., or volo; as, quum illam nemo velit attigisse. Plin. The poets use the infinitive perfect when we should expect a present; as, Tendentes Pelion imposuisse Olympo. Hor.
$R_{\text {EM. }}$ 3. The present is also sometimes used for the future, especially when the verb has no future; as, Desǐne fata deîm flecti sperāre, Cease to hope that the fates of the gods will be changed. Virg. Progeniem Trojāno a sangǔ̌ne duci audiërat. Id. Cras mihi argentum dare dixit, i. e. se dutūrum esse. Ter. Cato affirmat se vivo illum non triumphāre. Cic.

Rem. 4. Instead of the future infinitive, in both voices, futürum esse or fore, followed by $u t$ and the subjunctive, is often used; the present and imperfect subjunctive, in such cases, denoting an unfinished, the perfect and pluperfect a finished, future action; as, Nunquam putāvi fore, ut supplex ad te venīrem; I never supposed (that it would happen) that I should come a suppliant to you. Cic. Suspǐcor fore, ut infringatur homĭnuin improbŭtas. Id. Credēbam fore, ut epistŏlam scripsisses.

This construction is necessarily used, when the verb has either no future active participle, or no supine; as, in such case, the regular future infinitive cannot be formed ; as, Spero fore ut sapias.
The perfect participle with fore is also used to denote a future action in the passive voice; as, Quid vidēret nomर̌ne pacis bellum involutum fcre Cic. Quos spero brevi tempŏre tecum copulatos fore. Id.

Rem. 5. The periphrastic infinitive formed by the future active participle with fuisse, denotes a future action contingent upon a condition which was not fulfilled; and, in the apodosis of a conditional sentence, corresponds to the pluperfect subjunctive; as, An censes me tantos labōres suscepturrum fuisse, si iisdem fiňbus gloriam meam quilus vitam essem terminaturus? Do you think that I should have undertaken so great labors if, \&c. Cic. Ut perspicuum sit omnı̆bus, nisi tanta acerlĭtas injuria fuisset, nunquam illos in eum locum progressurros fuisse,....that they never would have come into that place. Id.

Futūrum fuisse, also, with $u t$ and the subjunctive, is used in this sense ${ }^{\cdot}$
as, Nisi nuncii essent alläti, existimābant pleriqque futarum fuisse, ut oppरdum caperētur,.....that the town would have been taken. Cæs. This form is necessary in the passive voice.
Rem. 6. The perfect infinitive, like the past tenses of the indicative, sometimes corresponds to the pluperfect subjunctive in the apodosis of a conditional clause; as, (Dixit) sibi vitam filia suà cariōrem fuisse, si libĕre ac pudicce vivĕre lič̌tum fuisset; (He said) that the life of his daughter had been dearer to him than his own, if it had been permitted.... Liv.

This use of the perfect infinitive is necessary when the verb has no future participle; as, Si tenuisset Stesichð̆rus modum, vidētur prox̌mus amuläri Homérum potuisse; He seems to have been able, i.e. it seems that he would have been able, to rival Homer, if, \&c. Quint.
§ 269. The infinitive mood, in Latin, is often used, not indefinitely, but with a subject of its own in the accusative case. See § 239 .

The infinitive passive of a neuter verb, like the third person singular of that vorce, is sometimes used without a subject ; as, Vides toto properari litöre. You see that haste is made..... Virg. See § § 209, Rem. 3, (2), and 239, Rem. 3.

The present infinitive has sometimes, in narration, a subject in the nominative. See § 209, Rem. 5.
THE INFINITIVE AS THE SUBJECT OF A VERB.
The infinitive, either with or without a subject-accusative, may be the subject of a verb; as,

Ad rempublicam pertinnet me conservări, It concerns the state that I should be preserved. Cic. Nunguam est uť̄le peccăre, To do wrong is never useful. Id. 历Equum est, peccātis veniam poscentem reddĕre rursus. Hor. See § 201, IV.

Remark 1. In such constructions, when no subject is expressed before the infinitive, an indefinite word for person or thing, or a reflexive pronoun, is commonly implied.

Thus, in the last two examples, as the propositions are true in their widest application to moral beings, aliquem may be understood before peccāre and reddĕre.

Rem. 2. The infinitive is often the subject of a proposition when the substantive verb with an adjective forms the predicate, and also when the verb in the sentence is impersonal, or is used impersonally, either in the active or passive voice ; as, Cui verba dare difficille est. Ter. Mendācem memŏrem esse oportet. Quint. Neque est te fallĕre cuiquam, sc. pote. Virg. Non enin me hoc jam dicęre pudēhit. Cic. See §209, Rem. 3, (5.)

Rem. 3. The infinitive may itself be the subject of an infinitive; as, Audio non licēre cuiquam in nave capillos deponěre. Ter.
THE INFINITIVE AS THE OBJECT OF A VERB.
§ 2\%0. The infinitive, either with or without a subject accusative, may be the object of a verb ; as,

Hac vitāre cupřmus, We desire to avoid this. Cic. Poêtas omnĩno non conor attingĕre, I do not attempt to read the poet.s at all. Id. Sententurm valêre cupierunt, They desired that the opinion should prevail. Id. Spero te valēre, I hope that you are well. Id.

Remark 1. The infinitive alone may also depend upon an adjective, and sometimes upon a noun; as,

Dignus amãri, Worthy to be loved. Virg. Audux omnia perpěti, Resolute to endure every thing. Hor. Sollers ornăre, Skilful to adorn. Ovid. Segnes solvěre nodum. Hor. Indočlis pauperiem pati. Id. Lenis recludëre. Id. See § 213 , Rem. 4, (1.) Tempus est hujus libri facěre finem, $\mathrm{l}_{\mathrm{t}}$ is time to finish this book. Nep. Iniit consilia reges tollerre, He devised a plan to destroy the kings. Id.

Rem. 2. The infinitive with the accusative sometimes stands unconnected, especially in vehement interrogations or exclamations, where credibǔle est ? or verumne est? may be supplied ; as, Mene incepto desistěre victam? That I, vanquished, should desist from my undertaking? Virg. Me misěruṃ! te in tantas arumnas propter me incidisse! Cic.

So, in the oratio obliqua, the words signifying said, saying, \&c., are often omitted, or implied in a preceding verb or phrase ; as, Id fačlde effici posse, sc. dixit. Nep. Quem signum datürum fugicntïlus? Curt.

Rem. 3. The infinitive is sometimes to be supplied ; and csse and fuisse with a predicate adjective, and also in the compound forms of the infinitive, are commonly omitted, especially after verbs of saying, thinking, knowing, and perceiving; as, Vos cognōvi fortcs. Sall. Qucm pulsum memoravi. Tac

## THE INFINITIVE WITHOUT A SUBJECTACCUSATIVE.

§271. The infinitive, without a subject-accusative, is used after verbs denoting desire, ability, intention or endeavor; after verbs signifying to begin, continue, cease, or abstain, to dare, fear or hesitate, to be wont; and after the passive of verbs of saying, believing, reckoning, \&c.; as,

Cupio, opto, volo, nolo, malo, studeo ; possum, queo, nequeo, valeo, scio, nescio; curo, coǧ̌to, decerno, statuo, constituo, instituo, conjūro, paro; conor, nitor, tendo, contendo, tento, matūro, aggredior, persevĕro ;-capi, incipio, pergo, desǐno, desisto, intermitto, pratermitto, parco, recūso; soleo, assuesco, consuesco, insuesco; audeo, vereor, metuo, reformīdo, timeo, paveo, dubťto ; so disco, debeo ;-audior, crcdor, existïmor, feror, negor, nuntior, perhibeor, putor, trador, jubeor, videor, and cogor.

The poets, in imitation of the Greeks, use the infinitive after fuge, aufer, cave, parce, memento; horreo, refugio, obliviscor, quero, urgeo, labōro, amo, gaudeo, furo, calleo, sumo, mitto, remitto, patior, juro, pugno, natus, and some other verbs, especially to denote a wish or purpose. In this con struction, the poets are sometimes imitated by the later prose writers; as, Introiit vidēre. Ter. Non te frangere persëquor. Hor. Non populāre penätes veň̆mus. Virg.

Remark 1. Many of the verbs above enumerated, instead of the infinitive, may be followed by the subjunctive with a conjunction; and with some of them, this is the regular construction; as, Sententiam ne dicěret, recusävit. Cic.

Rem. 2. The passives in the above list may either be used personally, with the infinitive alone, or impersonally, followed by the accusative with the infinitive. The former construction is more common, especially with videor. Thus we may say, Mater Pausanice eo tempŏre vixisse dicĭtur, or Dicitur eo tempŏre matrem Pausanice vixisse; The mother of Pausanias is said to have been living.....or, It is said that the mother of Pansanias was living..... Nep.

REM. 3. The infinitive without a subject is used after a verb, only when it denotes an action or state of the subject of that verb.

Sometimes, when the subject remains the same, the infinitive takes a reflexive pronoun as its subject, especially after cupio, volo, nolo, malo, conor, and studeo; as, Cupio me esse clementem. Cic. Omnis homines, $q u i$ sese student prextâre cetëris animalìbus. Sall.

THE INFINITIVE WITH A SUBJECT-ACCUSATIVE.
§272. The infinitive with a subject-accusative follows verbs of saying, thinking, knowing, perceiving, and the like; as,

Vidēbat, id non posse fiěri; He saw that that could not be done. Nep. Credunt se negltgi, They believe themselves to be neglected. Ter. Me in cjus potestāte dixi fore. Id. Affirmant miľtum jacêre aňmos. Liv. Sape venit ad aures meas, te istud nimis crebrd dicěre. Cic. Eam pugnam ad Perusiam pugnätam (esse), quidam auctōres sunt. Liv.

Note. This rule includes all such verbs and phrases as denote the exercise of the external senses and intellectual faculties, or the communication of thought to others; but with most of these a different construction often occurs. See § 273 .

Remark 1. When ambiguity would arise from the subject and the object of the verb being both in the accusative, the passive infinitive is substituted for the active, by which means the subject is put in the ablative, or in the accusative with per; as, Ne fando quidem audĩtum est, crocodīlum violātum esse ab Ægyptio; instead of Ægyptium crocodīlum violâsse. Cic.

Rem. 2. After verbs of saying, thinking, \&cc., the conjunction that is omitted in translating from English into Latin, and the subject following that is put in the accusative, and its verb in the infinitive.

Rem. 3. The infinitive with the accusative is sometimes translated by a similar form in English, but usually either by the indicative or potential, according to its connection; as,

Te tua virtūte frui cupīmus; We wish you to enjoy, or that you may enjoy.... Cic. Miror te ad me nihil scriběre.... that you do not write.... Id. Audiĕrat non datum iri filio uxōrem suo.... that she would not be given.... Ter.

Rem. 4. A present infinitive corresponds to the imperfect indicative, when with an accusative it follows a past tense ; as, Dixit Casărem facěre, He said that Cæsar woas doing. Cæs. In like manner the perfect infinitive with an accusative after a past tense corresponds to the pluperfect indicative ; as, Dixit Casarem fecisse, He said that Cæsar had done. See § 268.

Rem. 5. The present infinitive, after verbs of sense, is often equivalent to the present participle; as,

Surgěre videt lunam, He sees the moon (to rise) rising. Virg. Arma rutilāre vident. Id. Vidēbis collucēre faces. Id. Nec Zephy̆ros audis spiräre? Do you not hear the zephyrs blowing? ld. Sacpe hoc majōres natu dicěre audivi. Cic. The two constructions are sometimes united; as, Medium video discedĕre calum, palantesque polo stellas. Virg.

## INFINITIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES.

§273. When the particle that, in English, introduces a clause denoting a purpose, object, or result, it is a sign of the subjunctive in Latin, and is to be expressed by $u t$, \&c. (see §262); but otherwise it is usually the sign of the accusative with the infinitive.

1. (a.) Verbs of endeavoring and resolving take after them either the infinitive or the subjunctive, when the subject remains the same; but when the subject is changed, they take the subjunctive only.

Such are stutuo, constituo, decerno, tento, labōro, paro, meditor, curo, nitor, contendo, consilium capio, anچmum or in anı̆mum indūco. After opĕram do, id, hoc or illud ago, nihil antiquius habeo quàm, and video for curo, the subjunctive is almost exclusively used.
(b.) Verbs of effecting are construed with $u t$ and the subjunctive.

Such are facio, efficio, perficio, evinco, pervinco, impĕtro, assĕquor, consĕquor, committo, \&c.

Facio with $u t$ is also used as a periphrasis for the indicative ; as, Invītus quidem feci, ut L. Flaminium e senātu ejicĕrem, for invìtus ejēci. Cic. -Fac, "suppose" or "granting," and efficĕre, "to prove," take the infinitive ; but the passive efficitur, "it follows," takes also the subjunctive. -Facěre, "to mtroduce" or "represent," is joined with a present or perfect participle ; as, Lalium et Scipiōnem facĭmus admirantes. Cic. In the passive the infinitive also is found.
2. Verbs signifying to request, to demand, to admonish, to advise, to encourage, to commund, and the like, to express the purpose of the request, $\mathbb{E} c$., take after them the subjunctive with $u t$ or $n e$.

Such are rogo, oro, precor, peto, moneo, admoneo, commonen, hortor, exhortor, suadeo, persuadeo, instituo, impello, mando, prascrībo, edīco, decerno, legem do, censeo, perpello, excito, incīto, impĕro, \&c.; as, Te non hortor solum, sed etiam oro, ut tota mente in rempublĭcam incumbas. Cic.

Nuntio, scribo, mitto, and even dico, are followed by the subjunctive, when they imply an injunction or intention that something should be done; as, Hac ut facias, scribo. Cic.

Jubeo and veto commonly take the infinitive with the accusative, but sometimes the subjunctive with or rarely without ut. Sometimes, with the infinitive, the person to whom the command is given is omitted.

Moneo and admoneo, " I remind," and persuadeo, "I convince," take the infinitive with the accusative.
3. In the oratio obliqqua, the construction of the accusative with the infinitive, is exchanged for that of the subjunctive, to denote possibility, liberty, duty, \&c. ; as,

Virginius unum Ap. Claudium legum expertem esse aiēbat : respicĕrent tribūnal homĭncs custellum omnium scelĕrum. Liv.

On the contrary, when the subjunctive has been used, after a verb of requesting, commanding, \&c., the construction often passes into that of the accusative with the infinitive ; the verb of saying being considered as implied in the verb of requesting, \&c.; as, Orābat ne se ut parricīdum libĕrûm a versarentur : sibi vitam filia suâ cariōrem fuisse si .... Liv. See §266,2, R.1.
4. Verbs which denote voillingness, unvilingness, permission, and necessity, commonly take the accusative and infinitive, but sometimes the subjunctive.

Such are volo, nolo, malo, opto, permitto, putior, sino, concēdo, licct, prohibeo, oportct, and neccsse est; as, Optā vit ut in currum patris tollerêtur. Cic. Quis Antonio permīsit, ut partes facĕret? Id.

An infinitive passive without a subject is sometimes used with oportet; as, Non oportuit relictas, sc. esse ancillas. Ter. Ut ut erat, mansum tamen oportuit, sc. esse. Id. Non putābant de tali viro suspicionlbus oportêre judicāri. Nep.
Some other verbs which regularly take the accusative with the infinitive after them, are occasionally followed by the subjunctive.
5. After verbs denoting joy or grief, surprise or wonder, either the accusative with the infinitive, or quod with the indicative or subjunctive, may follow.

Such are gaudeo, delector, gratum est mihi, doleo, angor, indignor, miror ; as, Angor aň̌mo non armis egēre rempublĭcam. Cic. Gaudeo tibi jucun das meas esse litĕras. Id. Gaudeo quòd te interpellāvi. Id.

After doleo, gaudeo, and other neuter verbs, the clause containing the accusative with the infinitive is not the object of the verb, but of some preposition understood, as, propter, \&c. See § 232, (2.)
6. By the infinitive, with or without an accusative, a proposition is expressed as a thought; by quod, with the indicative or the subjunctive, it is simply represented as a fact. To the latter is frequently joined hoc, id, illud, istud, or huc, \&c.; as, Illud quoque nobis accēdit incommődum, quòd M. Junius abest. Cic. Huc accedëbat, quòd, \&c. Sall. Quod generally refers to past time.

Quod, with the indicative, in the sense of as to, or with regard to, is used at the beginning of a sentence, especially in letters, in repeating an expression of a person for the purpose of answering it. See § 206, (14.)

Note. The construction of the infinitive resembles that of a noun in the singular number and neuter gender.

Thus, like a noun, it may have an adjective or pronoun agreeing with it ; as, Totum hoc philosophări displücet. Cic. See §205, Rem. 8.

It may be followed by a limiting genitive ; as, Cujus non dimicãre fuit vincěre. Val. Max.

It may be either the subject or object of a verb. See §§ 209, Rem. $^{2}$, $(5$,$) and 229$, Rem. 5 . It may also be used after neuter verbs, like an accusative, depending on a preposition understood; as, Te accepisse meas litĕras gaudeo. Ter. See $\S \S 232,(2$,$) and 273,5$.
It is also used like a predicate-nominative; as, Videre est perspicěre aľ̆quid. Cic. See § 210.

It may, like a genitive, limit the signification of an adjective or noun. See § 270, Rem. 1.

It may, like an accusative, depend on a preposition; as Prater plorare. Hor. See § 235.

It is used also like an ablative; as, Audìto regem in Siciliam tendĕre. Sall.
Sometimes, also, especially in the poets, it denotes a purpose, like a participle in dus; as, Loricam donat habēre viro. Virg.

## PARTICIPLES.

\$274. 1. Participles are followed by the same cases as their verbs; as,

Quidam, poēta nominātus; A certain one, called a poet. Cic. Catulōrum oblita leana, The lioness forgetful of her whelps. Virg. Faventes rebus Carthaginiensium, Favoring the interests of the Carthaginians. Liv. Tendens ad sidëra palmas. Virg. Accusātus rei capitālis. Cic. Omĭna doctus. Stat. Casus abies visūra marinos. Id. Caritūri arbŏre montes. Ovid. Parcendum est teněris. Juv. Utendum est ætāte. Ovid.
2. The present, perfect, and future active participles, denote respectively an action which is present, past, or future, in refer
ence to the time of the verb with which they are connected as,

Simul hoc dicens attollit se. Virg. Tum ad Thraseam in hortis agentem missus est. Tac. Turnum fugientem hac terra vidēbit. Virg. Qui missus ab Argis Itălà consedĕrat urbe. Id. Lamia munĕre adilitãtis perfunctus, petit pratūram. Cic. Jussus cum fide pœenas luam. Hor. Juvènis medios moritūrus in hostes irruit. Virg. Peritūrus injēcit sese in agmen. Id. Illa tibi venturra bella expediet. Id.

Remark 1. The present participle sometimes denotes that which is about to be done; as, Interclūsit hiems, ct terruit Auster euntes, .... as they were on the point of going. Virg.

Rem. 2. The present participle, also, sometimes denotes a purpose ; as, Ibant, orantes veniam, .... to sue for favor.... Id.

Rem. 3. The perfect participle passive often denotes the result of a past action, and thus supplies the place of a present participle passive; as, Notus cvŏlat piced tectus caliǧ̆ne .... covered with pitchy darkness. Ovid.
Rem. 4. Habeo, with perfect participles denoting knowledge and determination, forms a periphrasis, instead of the verb of the participle; as, Clodii anخmum perspectum habeo, cognĭtum, judicātum ; for perspexi. Do, reddo, curo, and facio, are sometimes so construed with participles; as, Missam iram faciet, for mittet. Ter. Hostes victos dare, for vincëre. Sall.

Rem. 5. The passive participles may supply the place of a verbal noun in io or us; as, Ante Romam condĭtam, Before the building of Rome. Cic. Consilia urbis delendæ, Plans for the destruction of the city. Id. See § 275 , II. The oblique cases only of participles in dus are thus used, and even the perfect participle is not thus used in the nominative by Cicero

Rem. 6. In the silver age, the participle in rus, especially with verbs of motion, often denotes intention or purpose ; as,
Ad Jovem Hammōnem pergit consultūrus de oriǧne sua; He goes to Jupiter Ammon, to consult him about his origin. Just.

Rem. 7. The participle in $d u s$, also, denotes a purpose, when joined with verbs signifying to give, to deliver, to agree for, to have, to receive, to undertake, \&c.

Such are do, trado, tribuo, attribuo, mando, mitto, condūco, loco, habeo, accipio, suscipio, relinquo, curo, deposco, rogo; as, Testamentum tibi tradit legendum, He delivers his will to you to read. Hor. Attribuit nos trucidandos Cethēgo. Cic. Quod utendum accepěris, redďto. Id.

Rem. 8. The participle in dus, when agreeing with the subject of a sentence, has the signification of necessity or propriety ; sometimes, though rarely, except in later writers, that of possibility ; as,
'Is venerandus a nobis et colendus est, He should be worshipped and honored by us. Cic. Delenda est Carthägo, Carthage must be destroyed. Cato. Hace speranda fuērunt. Virg. So with est used impersonally ; as, Utrìm pace nobis an bello esset utendum. Cic.
Sometimes, also, when not agreeing with the subject of a sentence, it has this signification; as, Facta narräbus dissimulanda tibi, You were relating facts which you should have concealed. Ovid. A. L. Bruto principe hujus max̌mè conservandi geněris et nom̌nis. Cic.

Rem. 9. The participle in $d u s$, in its oblique cases, supplies the place of a present participle of the passive voice, to denote a continued or incomplete action. See § $275, \mathrm{II}$.

For the dative of the agent after participles in dus, see § 225,.III.
3. Participles are often employed instead of conditional, explanatory, adversative, and other dependent clauses; as,

Curio, ad focum sedenti (as he was sitting) magnum auri pondus Samnites attulērunt. Cic. Tridui viam progressi, rursus revertērunt, for, cùm progressi essent. Cæs. Plura locuturos abire nos jussit,.... when we were going to say more.

If the participle refers to a noun not contained in the leading proposition, it is put with that noun in the ablative absolute. See § 257.

Note. In many cases, for want of a perfect participle active, and a present participle passive, this construction cannot be used. Thus, quam amavisset cannot be exchanged for a participle corresponding with the English having loved. As the perfect participles of deponent verbs, however, have an active signification, they admit of the participial construction. The want of a perfect active participle may also be supplied by the perfect passive participle in the ablative absolute. See §257, Rem. 5.

## GERUNDS AND GERUNDIVES.

## §275. I. Gerunds are followed by the same cases as

 their verbs ; as,Metus parendi sibi, Fear of obeying him. Sall. Parcendo victis, By sparing the vanquished. Liv. Efféror studio patres vestros videndi, I am transported with a desire of seeing your fathers. Cic. Petendi consulātum gratio. Sall. Venit ad recipiendum pecunias. Varr.

Remark 1. The gerund is the same in form as the oblique cases of the neuter singular of participles in dus, but it has the meaning of the active voice. It is sometimes translated by the present participle with a preposition, and sometimes by an infinitive active; as, Consilium Lacedæmönem occupandi; A design of occupying, or to occupy, Lacedæmon. Liv.

Rem. 2. The gerund is sometimes, though rarely, used in a passive sense; as, Spes restituendi nulla erat, .... of being restored. Nep. Athēnas erudiendi gratid missus, .... for the purpose of being instructed. Just. Ante domandum. Virg.

Rem. 3. As the infinitive is used as the subject or object of a verb, so the gerund supplies the genitive, dative, ablative, and, after a preposi tion, the accusative, of a verbal noun of similar meaning.
II. Instead of the gerund of an active verb with its object in the accusative, the participle in $d u s$ is often used, the object taking the case in which the gerund would have been, and the participle agreeing with it ; as,

Consilia urbis delendm (Cic.), for urbem delendi, Plans for destroying the city. Reparandārum classium causa (Suet.), for reparandi classe. Perpetiendo laböri idoneus. Colum. Ad defendendam Romam ab oppugnandâ Capuâ duces Romãnos abstrahěre. Liv.

Remark 1. The same construction is used with the future passive participles of utor, fruor, fungor, potior, and rarely of medeor, as these verbs were originally followed by the accusative; as, JEtus ad hece utenda idonea. Țer. Justitice fruendæ causâ. Cic. In munĕre fungendo. Id.

Rem. 2. When a participle is thus used for a gerund, it is called a gerundive, and is usually translated like a gerund. The gerundive cannot be substituted for the gerund, where ambiguity would arise from the gender not being distinguishable. It should not be used when the object of the gerund is a neuter pronoun or adjective ; as, Alĭquid faciendi ratio (Cic.), not alicūjus. Artem et vera et falsa dijudicandi (Id ), not verōrum dijudicandōrum.
III. Examples of the construction of gerunds, in each of their cases, have been already given, among other nouns, under the heads Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative. The following remarks specify in what connections they are used :-

Remark 1. The genitive of gerunds and gerundives may follow either nouns or adjectives; as,

Amor habendi. Cic. Patriam spes videndi. Virg. Nam habet natūra, ut aliārum omnium rerum, sic vivendi modum. Cic. Barbăra consuetūdo hom̃num immolandōrum. Id --Venandi studiōsi. .Cic. Certus eundi. Virg. Insuētus navigandi. Cæs. Perītus civitätis regenda. Nep.
(1.) The nouns after which these genitives most frequently occur are, amor, ars, causa, consilium, consuetūdo, cupiď̌tas, facultas, gratia, locus, licentia, modus, occasio, otium, potestas, spes, studium, tempus, venia, vis, voluntas, copia, lib̄̃do, sputium.
(2.) The adjectives which most frequently take after them these genitives, are such as denote desire, inowledge, remembrance, and their contraries; as, cupīdus, studiōsus, perītus, imperìtus, insuētus, certus, rudis, \&e. See § 213, Rem. 1, (3.)
(3.) The genitive plural sometimes depends upon a gerund in $d i$, instead of being joined with the gerundive ; as, Facultas agrörum condonandi. Cic. Nominandi istōrum erit copia. Plaut. In castra venērunt sui purgandi causta. Cæs. This construction is most common with pronouns.
(4.) The gerund in $d i$, for the gerundive, is sometimes found also with pronouns of the singular number and feminine gender; as, Quoniam tui ridendi est copia. Plaut. Ego ejus videndi cupŭdus rectà consĕquor. Ter. In these examples, tui and ejus are feminine.
(5.) The gerund and gerundive, after the verb sum, are sometimes found in the genitive denoting a tendency or purpose, with no noun or adjective on which they can depend ; as, Regium imperium initio conservandæ libertātis fuĕrat. Sall. Causa or gratia may sometimes be supplied. In some other cases, the word on which the gerund in di depends is not expressed; as Mancat provincialybus potentiam suam tali modo ostentandi, sc. facultas. Tac. Cüm habērem in anĭmo navigandi, sc. proposittum. Cic.

Rem. 2. The dative of gerunds and gerundives is used especially after adjectives signifying usefulness or fitness, and also after verbs, to denote a purpose; as,

Charta emporeť̌ca est inuťllis scribendo. Plin. Capessendæ reipullicce habřlis. Tac. Ut nec triumvĭri accipiundo, nec scribe referundo sufficěrent, Liv. Locum oppřdo condendo capěre. Id.
(1.) The verbs and phrases upon which this dative most frequently de-
pends are, studeo; intentus sum; impendo, consümo or insūmo tempus; opëram do, desum, sum (signifying to serve for, to be adequate to), facio, and sufficio; and, in later writers, on verbs of motion.

The dative after sum is usually supposed to depend on an adjective understood ; but see § 227 , Rem. 3.
(2.) The dative of the gerundive, denoting a purpose, is also used after names of office; as, Decemoirri legibus scribendis. Liv. So, Comitia creandis decemvirris. Id.
(3.) A purpose is more commonly expressed by $a d$ and the accusative, than by the dative; as, Pecus ad vescendum homiň̌bus apta. Cic.
(4.) Instead of the gerund or gerundive after adjectives, the poets sometimes use the infinitive, in imitation of the Greek construction; as, Audax omnia perpĕti, i. e. ad omnia perpetienda. Hor. See § 270, Rew. 1.

Rem. 3. The accusative of gerunds and gerundives follows the prepositions ad, to, or inter, during or amid, and sometimes ante, circa, or ob; as,

Ad pœnitendum propěrat, qui ciţ judǐcat. Pub. Syr. Inter bibendum, While drinking. Just. Ad castra facienda. Cic. Ob absolvendum. Id.

Rem. 4. The ablative of gerunds and gerundives follows the prepositions $a,(a b), d e, e,(e x)$, or $i n$; or it is used without a preposition, as the ablative of cause, manner, or means; as,
Aristotělem non deterruit a scribendo. Cic. Ex assentando. Ter. Non videor a defendendis hominĭbus disceděre. Cic. Crescit eundo. Virg. Rem quarunt mercatüris faciendis. Cic. Oratiōnem Latīnam legendis nostris efficies pleniörem. Id.

This ablative also occurs, though rarely, after pro and cum; as, Pro rapulando. Plaut. Cum loquendo. Quint.

## SUPINES.

§276. I. Supines in $u m$ are followed by the same cases as their verbs; as,
Non Graiis servītum matrǐbus ibo, I shall not go to serve Grecian matrons. Virg. Eurypy̆ium scitãtum oracūla Phabi mittžmus, We send Eurypylus to consult the oracle of Apollo. Id.
II. Supines in $u m$ follow verbs of motion, and serve to denote the purpose of the motion; as,

Te id admonĭtum venio. Plaut. Cubĭtum discessrmus. Cic. Ire dejectum monumenta regis. Hor. So after participles; as, Patriam defensum revocātus. Nep. Spectātum admissi. Hor.
Remark 1. Supines in am sometimes follow verbs which do not express motion; as, Do filiam nuptum. Ter. Vos ultum injurias hortor. Sall.
Rem. 2. The supine in um with eo often forms a periphrasis equivalent to the same mood and tense of the verb from which the supine is formed ; as, Ne bonos omnes perdǐtum eant (Sall.), for perdant. Ereptum eunt (Id.), for eripiunt. Lltum ivit (Tac.), for ultus est.

Rem. 3. The supine in um most frequently occurs with the infinitive iri, with which it forms the future infinitive passive; as, Brutum visum iri $a$ me puto. Cic. In this construction the accusative properly depends upon the supine, and iri is used impersonally; thus, "I suppose (that it is going by me), $i$. e. that 1 am going to see Brutus."

Rem. 4. Instead of the supine in $u m$ after a verb of motion, a gerund or gerundive in the accusative with ad, or in the genitive with causa or gratia, also the subjunctive with $u t$ or $q u i$, and a present or future participle active, may be used to express a purpose. For the gerund and gerundive, see § 275 ; for the subjunctive with $u t$, § $262,-$ with $q u i$, § 264 ; and for participles, § 274.

The infinitive, also, is sometimes used by the poets, instead of the supine, to express a purpose. See $\S 271$.
III. The supine in $u$ is used to limit the meaning of adjectives signifying wonderful, agreeable, easy or difficult, worthy or unworthy, honorable or base, and a few others; as,

Miraľ̌le dictu! Wonderful to tell, or to be told! Virg. Jucundum cogň̌tu atque audītu, Pleasant to be known and heard. Cic. Res factu fačlis, A thing easy to be done. Ter. Facilia inventu. Gell. Incredibile memorātu. Sall. Turpia dictu. Cic. Optžmum factu. Id.

Remark 1. The principal adjectives after which the supine in $u$ occurs, are afffabrlis, arduus, asper, bonus, dignus, indignus, fač̌lis, diffičlis,fodus, gravis, honestus, horrendus, incredibilis, jucundus, injucundus, memorab̌̌lis, pulcher, rarus, turpis, and uťlis.

Rem. 2. The supine in $u$ is used also after the nouns fas, nefas, and opus; as,

Hoc fas est dictu. Cic. Nefas dictu. Ovid. Dictu opus est. Ter.
Rem. 3. As the supine in $u$ is commonly translated by a passive form, it is placed under the passive voice. In many cases, however, it may with equal or greater propriety be translated actively. It seems not to differ in its nature from other verbal nouns in $u s$, of the fourth declension. In the expressions, Olsonātu redeo (Plaut.), Cubitu surgat (Cato), obsonätu and cubǐtu, though following verbs, are by some considered as supines, by others as nouns depending on a preposition understood.

The supine in $u$, even when it follows adjectives, might, as a verbal noun, be referred to § 250 .

Rem. 4. Instead of the supine in $u$, an infinitive, a gerund or gerundive with ad, or a verbal noun in the ablative, and sometimes in the dative or accusative, may be used; as, Ardua imitātu, cetërrùm cognosci utilia. Val. Max. Illud autem facile ad credendum est. Cic. Opus proscriptiōne dignum. Plin. Aqua potui jucunda. Id. Facilior ad intellectum atque imitatiōnem. Quint.

The construction with ad and the gerund, or with sum and the infinitive, is used by the best writers after facilis, diffičlis, and jucundus. The most common construction of dignus is with qui and the subjunctive. See § 264, 9 .

## ADVERBS.

§277. Adverbs modify or limit the meaning of verbs, adjectives, and sometimes of other adverbs; as,

Benè mones, You advise well. Ter. Fortisstmè urgentes, Most vigorously pressing on. Plin. Malè narrando. Ter. Longè dissim̌lis. Cic. Valde bene. Id.

Remark 1. Adverbs sometimes, also, modify nouns; as,
Homérus planè orātor. Cic. Admödurn puella. Liv. Nîhil admödum. Cic. Latè rex. Virg. Latè tyrannus. Hor.

Rem. 2. Adverbs may also modify adjective pronouns, and prepositions; as,

Plane noster. Cic. Pauld ultra eum locum. Cæs.
Rem. 3. A negative adverb, modifying another negative word, destroys the negation; as,
Non parēre noluit, He was not unwilling to obey. Nep. Haud ignära mali, Not ignorant of evil. Virg. Huud nihil est, It is something. Ter. So, nonnulli, some; nonnunquam, sometimes. Non, before a negative word, commonly heightens the affirmative sense ; as, Homo non indoctus, i. e. homo sane doctus. Non semel, i. e. scepius.

Rem. 4. When the subject and predicate of a proposition are both modified by negative words, and also when the predicate contains two negatives, the proposition is affirmative; as,
Nemo non videt, Every one sees. Cic. Do, if both the antecedent and the predicate of a relative clause are negative, the proposition is affirmative ; as, Nemo est, qui nesciat ; Every body knows. Cic.

Rem. 5. Two negatives, however, though connected as above specified, sometimes strengthen the negation; as, Neque ille haud objicict mihi. Plaut. Jura te non nocitūrum homni nemĭni. Id. Especially are neque, nec, and sometimes non, thus used after a negative, instead of aut or oel; as, Non me carminzbus vincet, nec Orpheus, nec Linus. Virg. Neminem, non re, non verbo, non vultu denrque offendí. Cic. Nullius rei neque prese, neque manceps fuctus est. Nep.

Rem. 6. Non is sometimes omitted after non modò or non solùm, when followed, in a subsequent clause, by ne quidem; as,

Mihi non modò irasci, sed ne dolēre quidem impūne licet, .... not only not to be angry, but.... Cic. Cìm senatui non solìm juoare rempublicam, sed ne lugẽre quidem licéret. Id.

Non is also rarely omitted after non modd when followed by sed or verium with etiam; as, Qui non modò ea futüra timet, verı̀m etiam fcrt, sustinetque prasentia; Who not only does not fear.... Cic.
$\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{Em} .7}$ 7. Fučlle, in the sense of undoubtedly, clearly, is joined to superlatives, and words of similar import; as, Vir unus totius Gracia fachle doctissimus. Cic. Homo regiōnis illius virtüte fač̌lè princeps. Id.

Rem. 8. Adverbs are sometimes equivalent to phrases containing an antecedent and a relative, both of which would be in an oblique case.

When thus resolved, the antecedent will be found to modify some word in its own clause, and the relative to serve both as a connective for a subsequent clause, and a modifier of some word contained in it. Hence, such adverb serves the threefold purpose of a connective and a double modifier ; as,

Eo postquam Cesar pervénit, obš̌des poposcit ; After Cæsar came thither, he demanded hostages (Cæs.) ; i. e. Obsides poposcit post id tempus, in quo ed pervenit; He demanded hostages after the time at whichs he came thither; where post id tempus modifies poposcit, and in quo serves as a connective, and also modifies pervénit.

Frequently, for greater precision, an additional adverb is introduced, which, in the resolution of the phrase, stands in, and sometimes supplies, the antecedent clause; as, Ed postquam pervēnit, tum obš̌des poposcit, .... then he demanded hostages; i. e. Obsides poposcit temporre, post id tempus in quo ed pervénit; He demanded hostages at a time subsequent to the time at which he came thither. So, Cum venit calamरtas, tum detrimentum accipztur (Cic.), i. e. Detrimentum eo tempŏre accip̌̌tur, in quo venit calamítus.

## CONJUNCTIONS.

\$278. Copulative and disjunctive conjunctions, and some others, connect words which are in the same construction.

Words are in the same construction, when they stand in the same relation to some other word or words in the sentence. Hence conjunctions connect the same cases of nouns, adjectives, and pronouns, the same moods of verbs, and adverbs and prepositions relating to the same word; as,

Pulvis et umbra sumus, We are dust and shade. Hor. Si tu et Tullia valêtis, ego et Cicēro valēmus. Cic. Aggĕre jacto turrĭbusque constitūtis. Ces. Clarus et honoratus vir, An illustrious and honorable man. Id. Casar Rcmos cohortatus, liberaliterque oratiōne prosecūtus. Cæs. Pater tuus, quem colui et dilexi. Cic. Cùm triamphum egĕris, censorque fuĕris, et obiêris legãtus. Id. Cùm ad opp̌dum accessisset, castrăque ibi ponĕret. Cæs. Ades anťmo, et omitte timōrem. Cic. Ea vidēre ac perspicēre potestis. Id. Graviter et copiōse dixisse dič̀tur. Id. Cum fratre an sine. Id. Cui carminna cordi, numerosque intendère nervis. Virg.

Remark 1. This rule includes the copulative conjunctions ar, atque, et, etiam, que, nec, neque, the disjunctives aut, sєu, sive, ve, vel, neve, neu, and also quàm, proterquam, nisi, an, nempe, quambis, nedum, sed, autem, verim, and, in general, such as, when used to connect clauses, do not imply a dependence of the following upon the preceding clause. To these may be added the adverbs of likeness, ceu, tanquam, quisi, ut, \&c.; as, Nec census, nec clarum nomen avōrum, sed probĭtas magnos ingeniumque facit. Ovid. Philosŏphi negant quenquam virum bonum esse, nisi sapientem. Cic. Gloria virtūtem tanquam umbra sequĕtur. Id.

Rem. 2. Words thus connected are sometimes in different cases, though in the same construction; as, Mea et reipublĭcre intĕrest. Cic. (See § 219.) Sive es Romæ, sixe in Epiro. Id. (See §§ 221 and 254.) In Metitii descendut judïcis aures, et patris et nostras. Hor. See § 211, Rem. 3. In like manner, Hanň̌bal non alĭter vinci potuit, quàm morâ.

Rem. 3. The above conjunctions connect not only singles words, but clauses whose construction is the same; that is,
whose subjects are in the same case, and their verbs in the same mood; as,

Concidunt venti, fugiuntque nubes; The winds subside, and the clouds disperse. Hor. Locum, quem et non coquit sol, et tangit ros. Varr. Ludi decem per dies facti sunt, neque res ulla pratermissa est. Cic. Vides, ut altà stet nive candxdum Soracte, nec jam sustineant onus silvæ laborantes, gelüque flumĭna constitěrint acûto. Hor. Intelligžis et animum ei prasto fuisse, nec consilium defuisse. Cic.

Rem.4. As the subjunctive is often used for the imperative, they may be connected by the above conjunctions; as, Disce nec invideas. Pers.

Rem. 5. The indicative and subjunctive may also be thus connected, if the clause of the latter is not dependent; as, Nec satis scio, nec, si sciam, dicěre ausim. Liv.

Rem. 6. The conjunction is often omitted; as, Cui Rome domus, uxor, libĕri, procurā̀or esset. Cic. Que vitia sunt non senectūtis, sed inertis, iğnäver, somniculōse scnectūtis. Id. Abiit, excessit, cvāsit, erūpit. Id.

Rem. 7 Copulative and disjunctive conjunctions are often used, before each of two or more connected words or clauses, in order to mark the connection more forcibly ; as, Et pecunia persuādet, et gratia, et auctoritas dicentis, et dignt̆tas, et postrḕmò asfectus. Quinct. Hoc et turpe, nec tamen tutum. Cic. Neque nata est, et aterna est. Id. Et tibi et mihi noluptāli fore. Id. Res ipsa aut invitäbit aut dehortabǐtur. Id.

In like manner nunc....nunc, simul....simul, partim....partin, quà....quà, tıin.....tum, cùm....tum, are used before words or clauses. Tum....tum not only signify both.....and, but also at one time.....at another time. Cüm..... tum generally give a greater emphasis to the latter word or clause, which is often increased by the addition of veroे, certe, pracipuè, imprimis, maxǐme, \&c.; as, Luxuria, cùm omni atātit turpis, tum maxĭmè senectüti fadissima est. Cic.

Rem. 8. To connect different names of the same person or thing, sive or seu, rather than aut or vel, is employed; as, Mars sive Muvors.

Rem. 9. Ac and atque signify as and than after adjectives and adverbs denoting similarity or dissimilarity; as, Similĭter facis ac si me roges,.....as if you should ask me. Cic. Me colit æquè atque putrōnum suum,....as much as.... Id. Si al̆ter scribo ac sentio, If 1 write otherwise than I think. Id. Illi sunt alio ingrnio atque tu. Plaut.

## ARRANGEMENT.

## I. OF WORDS.

\$279. 1. In English, after connectives, are placed, first, the sulject, and the words which modify or limit it ; next, the verb and its modifiers; then the olject of the verb; and last, prepositions, and the words depending upon them. This is called the logical or natural order.
2. In a Latin sentence, after connectives, are placed, first, the subject and its modifiers ; then the oblique cases, and other words which depend upon or modify the verb; and last of all, the verb.

This arrangement, however, though common, is by no means invariable, since it is a general rule, that the most emphatic word in a sentence is to be placed first.
3. Connectives generally stand at the beginning of a clause.

The following connectives may stand either in the first or second place, and sometimes in the third :-eqǔdem, ergo, etěnim, etiam, ideo, iǧ̌tur, ităque, licet, namque, quia, quamquam, quippe, quoniam, saltem, sed, tamen, $u t$, utpŏte, and some others.

Autem, enim, and verd (but), commonly occupy the second place, sometimes the third; as, Ille enim revocâtus resistêre capit. Cæs. Ego verò vellem, affuisses. Cic. The enclitics que, ne, ve, are usually subjoined to the first woyd in a clause.

Quidem and quoque are subjoined to the emphatic word in a clause; as, Verbo ille reus erat, re quidem verò Oppiaňcus. Cic. Me sciľcet maximè, sed proxtmed illum quoque fefellissem. 1 dd .
In negative sentences, ne precedes, and quidem follows, the emphatic word; as, Ne ad Cutōnem quidem provocäbo. Cic.
4. When a word is repeated in the same clause, so that one is opposed to, or distinguished from, the other, they must stand together ; as, Hom\#nes hominĭbus maxırmè utüles esse possunt. Cic. Eqǔ̌tes alii aliò dilapsi sunt. Liv.
5. Words used antithetically are also placed near each other ; as, Dum tacent, clamant. Cic. Fragzle corpus anĭmus sempiternus movet. Id.
6. Inquam and usually aio, introducing a quotation, follow one or more of the words quoted ; as, " Non nôsli quid pater," inquit, "Chrysippus dicat." Hor. "Quid," aio, "tua crimxna prodis?" Ovid.
7. Adjectives are commonly placed after their nouns, especially when any thing is dependent on them. When a noun is limited by another noun, as well as by an adjective, the adjective usually precedes both; as, Ulla officii precepta. Cic. Tuum erga dignitātem meam studium. Id.

Demonstratives, and the adjectives primus, medius, \&c. (see § 205, Rem. 17), usually precede their nouns ; as, Ea res. Cæs. His ipsis verlis. Cic. Media nox. Cæs. Reliqqua JEgyptus. Cic.
8. Monosyllables are usually prefixed to longer words with which they are connected; as, Vir clarissimus. Cic. Vis tempestātis. Cæs.
9. When nouns are put in apposition, the one which explains or defines the other is generally put last ; as, Marcus Tullius consul. Sall. Opes irritamenta malōrum. Ovid.

In the arrangement of names of persons, the preenōmen stands first, next the nomen, third the cognōmen, and last the agnomen; as, Publius Cornelius Scipio Africänus. The prænomen is usually denoted by a letter.
10. Oblique cases precede the words upon which they depend, but they follow prepositions; as,

Popŭli Romāni laus est. Cic. Laudis avxdi, pecunim liberäles. Sall. Cunctis esto benignus, nulli blandus, paucis familiāris, omnĭbus aquus. Sen. Monumentum ære perennius. Hor. Hanc tibi dono do. Ter.-Ad meridiem spectans. Cic. Extra pericŭlum. Id.

Genitives depending upon neuter adjectives are commonly placed last; as, Incerta fortünce. Liv. Jec tibi plus cordis, sed minus oris inest. Ovid.

When a noun which is governed by a preposition, is modified by other words which precede it, the preposition usually stands before the words by
which the noun is modified; as, A primA luce ad sextam horam. Liv. Ad privātum dolōrem fuit luctuōsum. Cic. Ad añ̌mi mei latitiam. Id.

Sometimes, however, the preposition comes between its noun and an adjective, or a genitive by which the noun is modified; as, Nulld in re. Cic. Justis de causis. Id. Suos inter aquäles. Id.

Per, in adjurations, is often separated by other words; as, Per ego te deos oro. Ter.

Tenus and versùs follow their cases, and sometimes other prepositions, especially when joined with qui or hic.
11. Infinitives precede the verbs on which they depend; as,

Jugurtha, ubi eos Africa decessisse ratus est, neque propter loci natūram Cirtann armis expugnāre possit, mania circumdat. Sall. Servīre magis quàm imperāre parāti estis. Id.
12. A word which has the same relation to several words, either precedes or follows them all ; as, Vir gravis et sapiens. Cic. Clarus et honorätus vir. Id.
13. Relatives are commonly placed after their antecedents, and as near to them as possible ; as,

Qui sim, ex eo, quem ad te misi, cognosces. Sall. Literras ad te misi,per quas gratias tibi egi. Cic.
14. Quisque is generally placed after se, suus, qui, ordinals and superlatives; as, Suos quisque debet tuēri. Cic. Satis superque est sibi suärum cuique rerum cura. Id. Severĭtas animadversiōnis infĩmo cuique gratissĭma. Id. Quisque very rarely begins a proposition.
15. An adverb is usually placed immediately before the word which it qualifies; but if the same word is modified by the oblique case of a noun, the latter commonly follows the adverb; as, Malè parta malè dilabuntur. Cic. Nïhil tam aspěrum neque tam diffičle esse, quod non cupidissĭmè factūri essent. Sall.-Imperium fach̄lè iis arť̄bus retinētur, quibus initio partum est. Id. Sed maximè adolescentium familiaritãtes appetēbat. Id. Non tam in bellis et in praeliis, quàm in promissis et fide firmiōrem. Cic.

In some phrases, custom has established a certain order, which must be observed and jmitated ; as, Ne quid respubľ̌ca detrimenti capiat. Cic.
16. Exceptions to the foregoing principles are very numerous. These may arise from a regard to the harmony of the sentence, from poetic license, or from the following rule, which sometimes modifies nearly all the preceding :-

The emphatic word is placed before the word or words connected with it which are not emphatic.
17. A sentence should not close like a hexameter verse, with a dactyl and spondee; as, Esse vidētur ; nor, in general, with a monosyllable.
18. Hiatus should be avoided; that is, a word beginning with a vowel should not follow a word ending with a vowel.
19. A concurrence of long words or long measures,-of short words or short measures,-of words beginning alike or ending alike,-should be avoided.

## II. OF CLAUSES.

§280. A compound sentence, in which the leading clause is divided by the insertion of one or more subordinate clauses, is called a period.

1. In a regular period, the leading verb is placed at the end, and the subordinate clauses between the parts of the leading clause ; as,

Pausanias, cùm semiaň̌mis de templo elātus esset, confestim anĭmam efflavit; Pausanias, when he had been carried out of the temple but just alive, immediately expired. Nep. Ego, si ab imprŏbis et perďtis civílus rempubľ̌cam tenēri vidērem, sicut et meis temporǐlus scimus, et nonnullis aliis accidisse accepæтииs, non mod̀ præmiis, quє apud me minìmum valent, sed ne pericullis quidem compulsus ullis, quibus tamen moventur etiam fortissǐmi viri, ad eōrum causam me adjungèrem. Cic.
2. If the verbs of the leading and dependent clauses have the same subject, or the same word depending on them, they are commonly formed into a period; as, Antigŏnus, quum adversìs Seleucum Lysimachumque dimicäret, in prelio ocrisus est. Nep.

So, also, when the word which depends on the verb of the ieading slause is the subject of the dependent clause; as, Manlio, quum dictātor fuisset, Marcus Pomponius tribūnus plebis diem dixit. Cic.
3. When obscurity would arise from separating the leading subject and verb by dependent words or clauses, they are often placed together at the beginning or end of the sentence; as, Latæ (sunt) deinde leges, non solum qua regni suspiciōne consŭlem absolvěrent, scd que adeo in contrarium vertërent, ut populärem ctiam facĕrent. Liv.

The position of the leading verb is also often otherwise varied, from regard to emphasis, to avoid monotony, or to prevent its meeting with the verb of the last dependent clause.
4. When one clause is interrupted by the introduction of another, the latter should be finished before the first is resumed.
5. Clauses expressing a cause, a condition, a time, or a comparison, usually precede the clauses to which they relate.
6. A short clause usually stands before, rather than after a long one.

## ANALYSIS.

§281. The analysis of a proposition, or of a compound sentence, consists in dividing it into the several parts of which it is composed, and pointing out their mutual relations.

In analyzing a proposition, it is first to be divided into its logical subject and predicate. See $\S \S 200,201,202$.

If the logical subject consists of more than one word, its grammatical subject should be pointed out, and distinguished as simple or compound. See § 201, I. II.

When the grammatical subject is determined, the words which modify or limit it should next be specified, and then the words which modify them and so on, until the logical subject is exhausted. See § 201, III.

In analyzing the logical predicate, the grammatical predicate should first be mentioned, then the words which modify or limit it, and their modifiers, until the logical predicate is exhausted. See $\S 202$.

In analyzing a proposition, the rules for the agreement and dependence of words should be given, and likewise their various inflections.

The analysis of a compound sentence requires, first, its resolution into its several component propositions; and, secondly, their analysis in the manner before mentioned. See § 203.

In resolving a sentence into its component clauses, the participial constructions equivalent to clauses should be mentioned, and ellipses supplied. See § 203, 5 .

When the compound sentence is resolved, the connection of the clauses should be pointed out, and their dependence or independence. See § 203, 2. In either case, the connective words, if any, should be mentioned, and the connection, if any exists, with the preceding sentence. See § 203,4 . When clauses are dependent, the relation in which they stand should be explained, the character of the connectives stated, and the rules for the moods of the verbs given. See $\S \S 262-266$ and 272,273 .

The following are examples of the analysis of simple and compound sentences:-

1. Saviùs ventis agitātur ingens pinus, The great pine is more violently shaken by the winds. Hor.
Ingens pinus is the logical subject; saviuls ventis agitatur is the logical predicate.

The grammatical subject is pinus: this is modified by ingens. ${ }^{a}$
The ${ }_{c}$ grammatical predicate is agitātur : this is modified by saviùs ${ }^{b}$ and ventis. ${ }^{c}$

Pinus is a common noun, ${ }^{d}$ of the second and fourth declension, ${ }^{6}$ feminine gender, $f$ and nominative case. ${ }^{g}$

Ingens is an adjective, of the third declension, and of one termination, ${ }^{\boldsymbol{A}}$ in the nominative case, feminine gender, agreeing with pinus. ${ }^{1}$

Agitātur is an active ${ }^{k}$ frequentative ${ }^{l}$ verb, of the first conj. from agito, derived from ago [Name its principal parts], formed from the 1st root, [Give the formations of that root.] It is in the passive voice, indicative mood, present tense, singular number, third person, agreeing with pinus. ${ }_{n}^{m}$

Savius is an adverb, in the comparative degree, from seve or swotter, ${ }^{n}$ derived from the adjective savus, ${ }^{\circ}$ modifying the verb agitätur. ${ }^{p}$

Ventis is a common noun, of the second declension, ${ }^{q}$ masculine gender, ${ }^{\text {r }}$ in the plural number, ablative case. ${ }^{s}$
2. Mithridätes, duärum et viginti gentium rex, totĭdcm linguis jura dixit; Mithridates, king of twenty-two nations, pronounced judicial decisions in as many languages. Plin.

> The logical subject is Mithridātes duãrum et viginti gentium rex.
> The logical predicate is toťdem linguis jura dixit.

The grammatical subject is Mithridätes: this is modified by rex. ${ }^{t}$ Rex is limited by gentium, ${ }^{2}$ which is itself limited by duärum and viginti. ${ }^{0}$ Et connects duärum and viginti. ${ }^{\text {w }}$


The grammatical predicate is dixit, which is limited by jura ${ }^{\text {a }}$ and linguis, ${ }^{\text {a }}$ and the latter by totidem.

Mithridates is a proper noun, ${ }^{b}$ of the third declension, ${ }^{c}$ masculine gender, ${ }^{d}$ and nominative case.

Rex is a common noun, 3 d dec., ${ }^{e}$ masc. gen., ${ }^{d}$ in apposition with Mithridātes..

Gentium is a com. noun., 3d dec., ${ }^{5}$ fem. gen., ${ }^{\boldsymbol{h}}$ in the genitive plural, ${ }^{\boldsymbol{b}}$ limiting rex. ${ }^{k}$

Duärum is a numeral adj., of the cardinal kind, in the genitive case, fem. gen., agreeing with gentium. ${ }^{m}$
$E t$ is a copulative conjunction. ${ }^{n}$
Viginti is a cardinal numeral adjective indeclinable, ${ }^{l}$ limiting gentium.m
Dixit is an active verb, ${ }^{\circ}$ of the third conjugation, ${ }^{p}$ from dico [Give the principal parts], ${ }^{q}$ formed from the second root [Give the formations of that root], in the act. voice., ind. mood, perf. indefinite tense, ${ }^{\text {r }}$ sing. num., 3 d pers., agreeing with Mithridätes."

Jura, a com. noun, 3d dec., ${ }^{\text {t }}$ neut. gen., ${ }^{4}$ plur. num., acc. case, the object of dixit."

Linguis, a com. noun, 1st dec., fem. gen., ${ }^{20}$ plural num., ablative case. ${ }^{*}$ Totrdem, an adj., indeclinable, ${ }^{\prime}$ in the plural number, limiting linguis
3. Romāna pubes, sedāto tandem pavōre, postquam ex tam. turbǐdo die serēna et tranquilla lux rediit, ubi vacuam sedem regiam vidit, etsi satis credēbat patrǐbus, qui proxĭmi stetĕrant, sublīmem raptum procellâ; tamen, velut orbitātis metu icta, mœstum aliquamdiu silentium obtinúit. Liv.

The preceding compound sentence constitutes a period, ${ }^{\boldsymbol{*}}$ and it may be resolved into the following clauses :-

1. Romãna pubes tamen, velut orbitātis metu icta, mastum aliquamdisu silentium obtinuit,-which is the leading clause. ${ }^{a a}$
2. sedāto tandem pavōre,
3. postquam ex tam turľ̌do die serēna et tranquilla lux rediit,
4. uli vidit,
5. vacuam (esse) sedem regiam,
6. etsi satis credēbat patribus,
7. qui prox̌mi stetěrant,
8. sublimem raptum procella.

In the preceding clauses, the predicates are printed in Italics.
The grammatical subject of the leading clause is pubes, which is limited by Romana and icta. Icta is modified by velut and metu, which last is limited by orlitātis. The grammatical predicate of that clause is obtinuit this is limited by aliquamdiu and silentium, which is itself limited by mastum.

Pubes, a collective noun, ${ }^{b b} 3 \mathrm{~d}$ dec., ${ }^{\text {cc }}$ fem. gen., da sing. num., nom. case.
Romäna, a patrial ${ }^{e \epsilon}$ adj., of the 1 st and 2 d dec.,ff fem. gen., sing. num., som. case, agreeing with pubes. ${ }^{g}$

Tamen, an adversative conjunction, ${ }^{h h}$ relating to etsi in the 6th clause,

and denoting that the predicate of this clause is true, notwithstanding the concession made in that clause.

Velut, an adverb, modifying icta. ${ }^{a}$
Icta, a perf. part. pass., from the actıve verb ico, 3 d conj. ${ }^{b}$ [Principal parts in both voices], fem. gen., sing. num., nom. case, agreeing with pubes. ${ }^{\text {e }}$

Metu, an abstract noun, ${ }^{d}$ 4th dec., ${ }^{6}$ masc. gen., sing. num., abl. case. $f$
Orbitätis, an abstract ${ }^{d}$ noun, derived from orbus, 3 d dec., ${ }^{\boldsymbol{b}}$ fem. gen., ${ }^{\boldsymbol{h}}$ sing. num., gen. case, limiting metu. ${ }^{\text {d }}$

Obtinuit, an active verb of the 2 d conj., ${ }^{k}$ from obtineo, compounded of prep. ob and teneo ${ }^{l}$ [Give the principal parts, and the formations of the second root], ${ }^{m}$ in the active voice, ind.mood., perf. indef. tense, sing. num., 3 d person, agreeing with pubes. ${ }^{n}$

Aliquamdiu, an adverb, compounded of altquis and diu, ${ }^{\circ}$ and limiting obtinuit. ${ }^{p}$

Silentium, a com. noun, 2d dec., neut. gen., ${ }^{q}$ sing. num., acc. case, the object of obtinuit. ${ }^{\text {r }}$

Mestum, an adj., 1 st and 2 d dec., neut. gen., sing num., acc. case, agreeing with silentium.s

The 2 d is a participial clause, equivalent to quum pavor tandem sedatus esset. ${ }^{t}$

Pavōre, an abstract ${ }^{d}$ verbal ${ }^{4}$ noun, from paveo, 3d dec.," masc. gen., ${ }^{\text {º }}$ sing. num., abl. case," absolute with sedāto. ${ }^{\text {. }}$

Sedäto, a perf. part. pass., from the act. verb sedo, of the 1 st conj., ${ }^{y}$ [Ptincipal parts in both voices], masc. gen., sing. num., abl. case, ${ }^{\boldsymbol{*}}$ agreeing with paxòre. ${ }^{\text {aa }}$

Tandem, an adverb of time, modifying sedäto.bb
l'ostquam, an adverb of time, compounded of post and quam, modifying obtinuit and rediit, and serving to connect the first and third clauses. ${ }^{c}$ c

The grammatical subject of the 3d clause is lux, which is limited by serena and tranquilla. The grammatical predicate is rediit, which is modified ky postquam and die. Die is modified by turľudo, which is itself modified by tam.

Lux, a com. noun, 3d dec., ${ }^{\text {dd }}$ fem. gen., ${ }^{e e}$ sing. num., nom. case.
Serēna, an adj., 1 st and 2 d dec., fem. gen., sing. num., nom. case, agreeing with lux. ${ }^{\text {c }}$

Et, a copulative conjunction, connecting serēna and tranquilla. Is
Tranquilla, like serèna.
Rediut, a neuter verb, from redeo, compounded of insep. prep. red ${ }^{\mathbf{g g}}$ and $e^{\text {hh }}$ [Prin. parts], ind. mood., perf. indef. tense, sing. num., 3 d person, agreeing with lux.ii

Die, a com. noun, 5th dec., ${ }^{k \boldsymbol{k}}$ masc. gen., sing. num., abl. case after prep. ex. ${ }^{[1}$

Turbǔdo, an adj. agreeing with dic. Tam, an adverb, modifying uırbudo. ${ }^{\text {b }}$

Uli, an adverb of time, and, like postquam, a connective, and a double modifier. It connects the fourth clause to the first, and limits the predicates vidit and obtinuit. ${ }^{\text {cc }}$

| a 8277. | $i 8211$. | r ¢ 229. | $x$ ¢ 105. | ${ }^{h / 2} \$ 182$. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ${ }^{\text {b }}$ | $k \$ 149$. | - 205. | as ${ }^{\text {¢ }} 205$. | ii 209. |
| = 205. | $l$ l 139, 2. | $t$ f 257, Rem. 1. | ${ }^{\text {bb }} 277$. | kk 900. |
| c \% 26. | $m$ \% 157. | u $102,1$. | ce 277, Rem. 8. | u $\mathrm{l}^{241}$. |
| - 87. | $\pi \bigcirc 209$. | - 70. | dd 78. |  |
| $f 8247$. | - of 193, 6. | ${ }^{2} 858$. | ee 62. |  |
| c 82. | $p$ ¢ 277. | $x<257$. | ff $<278$. | 8 |
| ${ }^{\text {h }}$ \$ 62. | ¢ $¢ 46$. | y $\$ 149$. | Eg $\$ 196,14$. |  |

The subject of the 4th clause is the same as that of the first, with which it is connected; it is therefore omitted. ${ }^{a}$

The grammatical predicate of the 4th clause is vidit : this is limited by its object, which is the 5th clause. ${ }^{b}$

Vidit, an act. verb, 2d conj. [Principal parts and formation], act. voice, ind. mood, perf. indef. tense, sing. num., 3d pers., agreeing with pubes understood. ${ }^{\text {c }}$

The 5th clause has no connective. Its grammatical subject is sedem, which is limited by regiam. Its grammatical predicate is (esse) vacuam, the former being understood. ${ }^{d}$
Sedem, a com. noun, 3d. dec., fem. gen., sing. num., acc. case. ${ }^{\text {e }}$
Regiam, a possessive adj., derived from rex, agreeing with sedem.
Vacuam, an adj., agreeing with sedem.
The 6th clause is connected to the leading clause by the concessive ${ }^{f}$ conjunction etsi, to which the adversative ${ }^{8}$ tamen corresponds in the first clause.

Its subject is the same as that of the leading clause.
Its grammatical predicate is credēbat, which is limited by satis and patribus.

Credēbat, a neut. verb, ${ }^{h} 3 \mathrm{~d}$ conj. [Principal parts, and formations of 1 st root], act. voice, ind. mood, imperf. tense, sing. num., 3d pers., agreeing with pubes understood.

Satis, an adverb of degree ${ }^{i}$ modifying credēbat. ${ }^{k}$
Patribus, a com. noun, 3d dec., masc. gen. ${ }^{m}$ plur. num., dat. case, depending upon credēbat, ${ }^{n}$ and modified by the relative clause following. ${ }^{\circ}$

The 7th clause, which is connected by $q u i^{p}$ to the preceding one, is introduced to show the situation of those senators at the time of the removal of Romulus.

Qui is its grammatical subject, and is a relative pronoun, ${ }^{q}$ masc. gen., plur. num., agreeing with patribus understood. ${ }^{r}$

Stetërant, a neut. verb, ${ }^{\text {h }}$ 1st conj., irregular in its 2 d root * [Principal parts, and formations of 2 d root], act. voice, ind. mood, plup. tense, 3d pers. plur., agreeing with qui. ${ }^{\text {c }}$

Proximi, an adj. of the superlative degree ${ }^{t}$ [Compare it], 1st and 2 d dec., masc. gen., plur. num., nom. case, agreeing with qui, and also modifying stetërant. ${ }^{4}$
The 8th clause has no connective. It depends on the verb credēbat Its subject is eum, i. e. Romŭlum understood. Its grammatical predicate is raptum (esse) which is modified by sublimem and procella.

Raptum (esse), an act. verb, 3d conj." [Principal parts in both voices, and formations of 3d root in the passive], pass. voice, infin. mood, perf. tense with the meaning of plup., depending on credèbat. ${ }^{\text {wo }}$

Sullīmem, an adj. of 3 d dec. and two terminations, ${ }^{x}$ masc. gen., sing. num., acc. case, agreeing with Romŭlum understood, ${ }^{y}$ and also modifying ruptum esse. ${ }^{\boldsymbol{u}}$

Procellá, a com. noun, 1st dec., ${ }^{\boldsymbol{x}}$ fem. gen.; sing. num., abl. case. ${ }^{a a}$

| a \% 209, Rem. 2, (1.) | $g 8198,4$. | $m 828$. | r \$ 206. | - 8272. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ¢ 2299, Rem. 5. | $h$ ¢ 142. | $n \bigcirc 223$. | 8165. | $x 8109$. |
| c 8209. | i ¢ 191, Rem. 5. | - ${ }^{\text {d 201, III. } 4}$ | . $8126,1$. | $y<205$. |
| d ${ }^{\text {270, Rem. } 3 .}$ | \% 277 . |  | $\text { us } 205, \text { Rem. } 15 .$ | $z{ }^{811}$ |
| - 239. | 1871. | $\text { q } 136 .$ | $\text { v § } 159 \text {. }$ | aa f 247 |
| $\boldsymbol{f} 1983$. |  |  |  |  |

## PROSODY.

§ 282. Prosody treats of the quantity of syllables, and the laws of versification.

## QUANTITY.

1. The quantity of a syllable is the relative time occupied in pronouncing it.
2. A syllable is either long, short, or common.

A long syllable requires double the time occupied in pronouncing a short one; as, ămărĕ.

A common syllable is one which, in poetry, may be made either long or short; as the middle syllable of tenebra.
3. The quantity of a syllable is either natural or accidental ; -natural, when it depends on the nature of its vowel; accidental, when it depends on its position.
Thus the $e$ in résisto is short by nature; while in restytitit is long by accident, being followed by two consonants:
4. The quantity of syllables is determined by certain established rules, or, in cases not included in the rules, by the authority of the poets.
5. The rules of quantity are either general or special. The former apply alike to all the syllables of a word, the latter to particular syllables.

## GENERAL RULES.

§283. I. A vowel before another vowel, or a diphthong, is short ; as, mĕus, patrice. Thus, Conscia mens recti famæ mendač̌a ridet. Ovid. Ipse etiam exim̌̌e laudis succensus amore. Virg.
So also when $h$ comes between the vowels, since $h$ is accounted only a breathing; as, nhhil. See § 2. Thus,

De ň̌hlo ňhil, in ňhrlum nil posse reverti. Pers.
Exc. 1. Fio has the $i$ long, when not followed by er; as fiunt, fièbam. Thus,

Omnia jam fient, fǐrri quæ posse negabam. ${ }^{\text {'Ovid. }}$
It is sometimes found long even before er; as, fièret (Ter.), fiěri (Plaut.)

Exc. 2. $E$ is long before $i$ in the termination of the genitive and dative of the fifth declension; as, faciēi. Thus,

> Non radii solis, neque lucǐda tela diēi. Lucr.

But it is short in spěi, and both long and short in rei and fidei.
Exc. 3. $\boldsymbol{A}$ is long in the penult of old genitives in $\bar{a} i=f$ the first declension; as, aulä̈̈, pictä̈̈.

So also are $a$ and $e$ in proper names in aius or eius; as, Cā̀us, Pomperius. Thus,

Athereum sensum, atque aurā̀ simplĭcis ignem. Virg.
Accípe, Pompē $\ell$, deductum carmen ab illo. Ovid.
Exc. 4. $\quad$ I is common in genitives in ius ; as, uñ̆us, ilľus. Thus,

Illius et nitido stillent unguenta capillo. Tibull.
Illīus puro destillent tempŏra nardo. Id.
But in alĩus it is always long.
Exc. 5. The first vowel of ēheu is long; that of Diāna, Io, and ohe, is common.

Exc. 6. In many Greek words, a vowel is long, though immediately followed by another ; as,
$\bar{a} e ̈ r$, Achãia, Achelōits, dīa, ēos, Lāertes, and words compounded with laos. See §293,3. So Greek verbs having long e or o ( $\eta$ or $\omega$.)
(1.) Words which, in Greek, are written with ei before a vowel, and in Latin with e or $i$, have the $e$ or $i$ long; as, AEnēas, Alexandría, Cassiopëa, Clĩo, Darīus, elegīa, Galatēa, Medēa, Mausolèum, Penelopēa, Thalīa.
Hence, most adjectives in eus, formed from Greek proper names, have the e long; as, Cytherēus, Pelopēus.

Exc. Academia, chorea, Malea, platea, and some patronymics and patrials in eis, have the penult common; as, Nereis.
(2.) Greek genitives in eos, and accusatives in ea, from nominatives in cus, generally shorten the $e$; as, Orphěos, Orphěa;-but the $e$ is sometimes lengthened by the Ionic dialect; as, Cephēos, Ilionēa.
(3.) Greek words in ais, ois, aius, eius, oius, aon, and ion, generally lengthen the first vowel; as, Nāis, Minōis, Grätus, Nerētus, Minōtus, Machāon, Ixion. But Thebăis, Simõis, Phăon, Deucaľon, Pygmaľon, and many others, shorten the former vowel.

Note 1. Greek words in aon and ion, with o short in the genitive, have the penult long; but with $o$ long in the genitive, they have it short, as, Amythäon, -ä̆nis; Deucaľon, -ōnis.

Note 2. Greek proper names in eus (gen. eos), as Orpheus, always have the $e u$ a diphthong in the original, and, with very few exceptions, in the Latin poets.
II. A diphthong is long; as, $\overline{a u r u m, ~ f a ̈ n u s, ~ \overline{E u b o ̈ a, ~}}$ Thus,

Thesā̄uros ignōtum argenti pondus et $\overline{a u} r i$. Virg.


Exc. 1. Pra, in composition, is short before a vowel ; as, prăustus, prĕacūtus. Thus,

Nec totâ tamen ille prior prăeunte carīnâ. Virg.
In Statius, and Sidonius Apollinaris, it is found long.
Exc. 2. A diphthong, at the end of a word, when the next word begins with a vowel, is sometimes made short; as,

> Insŭl̆̆ Ionio in magno, quas dira Celæno. Virg.

Remark. $U$, followed by another vowel, is, in prosody, not considered as a diphthong; as, quătio, quĕror, equŏr, linguă, sangǔ̌s.
III. A syllable formed by contraction is long; as, alīus for aliius ; cōgo for coăgo; n̄̄l for nihil ; jūnior for jŭvěnior. Thus,

Tity̆re cōge pecus, tu post carecta latēbas. Virg.
IV. A vowel naturally short, before two consonants, a double consonant, or the letter $j$, is long by position; as, $\bar{a} r m a$, bēllum, āxis, gāza, mäjor. Thus,

Pāscěre opōrtet oves dedūctum dicěre cārmen. Virg. Nēc myrtūs vincēt cory̆los; nēc laurea Phæbi. Id. At nobis, Pāx alma, veni, spicamque tenēto. Tibull. Rara juvant: primis sic mäjor gratia pomis. Mart.
Exc. 1. The compounds of jugum have $i$ short before $\boldsymbol{j}$; as, bŭjŭgus, quadř̆jŭgus. Thus,

Interea $b r j u ̆ g i s ~ i n f e r t ~ s e ~ L u c a ̆ g u s ~ a l b i s . ~ V i r g . ~$
Remark. The vowel is long by position when either one or both of the consonants is in the same word with it ; but when both stand at the beginning of the following word, the vowel is either long or short; as,

Tolle moras; semper nocuīt differre parătis. Lucan.
Ferte citi ferrum; date telā ; scandǐte muros. Virg.
Ne tamen ignōret, quæ sit sententiă scripto. Ovid.
A short vowel at the end of a word, before a double consonant or $\boldsymbol{j}$, is not lengthened.

Exc. 2. A vowel naturally short, before a mute followed by a liquid, is common; as, agris, pharetra, volucris, poplĭtes, cochlear. Thus,

Et primò simĭlis volŭcri, mox vera volūcris. Ovid.
Natum ante ora pătris, pätrem qui obtruncat ad aras. Id.
Nox tenëbras profert, Phæbus fugat inde tenēbras. Id.
Rem. 1. If the vowel is naturally long, it continues so; as, salabris, ambuläcrum.

Rem. 2. A mute and liquid render the preceding short vowel common only when they are such as may begin a Latin word, or a word derived from the Greek. In compound words, of which the former part ends with a mute, and the latter begins with a liquid, a short vowel before the mute is made long by position; as, àbluo, öbruo, sûblĕvo, quamōbrem.

Rem. 3. A mute and liquid at the beginning of a word seldom lengthen the short vowel of the preceding word.

Rem. 4. In Latin words, a short vowel is rendered common only before a mute with $l$ or $r$; but, in words of Greek origin, also before a mute with $m$ or $n$; as in Atlas, Tecmessa, Procne, Cycnus.

## SPECIAL RULES.

## FIRST AND MIDDLE SYLLABLES.

## I. DERIVATIVE WORDS.

§ 284. Derivative words retain the quantity of their primitives ; as,
ăň̌mal, ănخัmãtus, from ăň̆ma; gĕměbundus, from gĕměre; fămy̆lia, from fămưlus; māternus, from māter; prŏpinquus, from prơpe.

Rem. 1. Derivatives from increasing nouns of the second and third declension agree in quantity with the increment of their primitives; as,
funěbris, from funĕris; virgخ̌neus, from virǧnis; salūber, from salūtıs.
Rem. 2. In verbs, the derived tenses agree in quantity with the special root from which they are formed; as,
møัvēbam, møัvēbo, möveam, mð̆vērem, mŏve, mŏvēre, mŏvens, mŏvendus, from mŏv, the root of the present, with $\breve{0}$ short ;-mövĕram, mōvĕrim, mōvissem, mōvĕro, mōvisse, from mōv, the root of the perfect, with $\bar{o}$ long; möturus and mōtus, from mōt, the root of the supine, with $\bar{o}$ also long.

Solūtum and völütum have the first syllable short, as if from sơluo, vŏlus. So gěnui, gěň̌tum, as if from gĕno; and pŏtui, from pŏtis sum (possum).

Arätrum, simuläcrum, have their penult long, as derived from the supines arätum and simulātum; moňmentum and inytium have their antepenult short, as derived from the supines monytum and inytum.

Exc.1. Perfects and supines of two syllables have the first syllable long, even when that of the present is short ; as,
vēni, vīdi, fêci, from vĕnio, vǐdeo, făcio ; cāsum, mōtum, vīsum, from cădo, mơveo, v̌deo. But,
(1.) These seven perfects have the first syllable short:-bibbi, dĕdi, fĭdi (from findo), scĭdi, stěti, stı̆ti, tŭli. So percŭli.

The first syllable is also short before a vowel (\$283) ; as, rŭi.
(2.) These ten supines have the first syllable short:-citum (from cieo), dătum, 兀̆tum, ľ̆tum, quйtum, rătum, rŭtum, sătum, sĭtum, and stătum.

So also the obsolete fütum, from fưo, whence comes füturrus.
Exc. 2. Reduplicated polysyllabic perfects have the first two syllables short ; as,
cěč̌ni, těť̌gi, diď̌ci, from cano, tango, disco, But the second syllable is sometimes made long by position; as, mömördi, tětëndi

Cěctdi (from cado) and pexpēdi also have the second syllable long.
Exc. 3. The $o$ in porsui and porsitum, is short, though long in pōno.
Exc. 4. The $a$ in $d \bar{a}$, imperative of $d o$, is long, though short in the other parts of the verb.

Exc. 5. Desiderative verbs in urio have the $u$ short, though, in the third special root from which they are formed, it is long; as, ccenatürio from canā̄tū, the third root of cano. So partürio, esürio, nuptürio.

Exc. 6. Frequentative verbs, formed from the third special root of the first conjugation, have the $i$ short ; as, clamxto, volxto. See § 187, II. 1.

Exc. 7. Many other derivatives deviate from the quantity of their primitives.

1. Some have a long vowel from a short one in the primitive. Such are,

Dēni, from dĕcem.
Fōmes and Fōmes and \}rom Fömentum, $\}$ fơveo. Hūmānus, from hŏmo. Lăterna, from lăteo. Mâcěro, from mǎceo.

Lex (legis), from lĕgo. Mōbülis, from mŏveo. Rēgŭla, $\}$ from Rex (rēgis), $\}$ rěgo. Sēcius, from sěcus. Sēdes, from sědeo.

Sēmen, from sěro.
Stīpendium, from stips (stịpıs).
Tēgŭla, from těgo.
2. Some have a short vowel from a long one in the primitive. Such are,
Dĭcax, from dīco. Mŏlestus, from mōles. Šgax, from săgio.
Dĭsertus, from dìssěro.
Dux (dŭcis), from dūco.
Fǐdes, from fīdo.
Frăgor, $\}$ from
Frăgilis, $\}$ frango.
Some other words might, perhaps, with propriety be added to these lists; but, in regard to the derivation of most of them, grammarians are not entirely agreed.

Remark. Some of these irregularities have, perhaps, arisen from the influence of syncope and crasis. Thus mōb̌̆lis may have been mŏvibllis; mōtum, mŏvztum, \&c.

Sometimes the vowel in the derived word becomes short by dropping one of the consonants which, in the primitive, made it long by position; as, disertus, from dīssëro. So, when the vowel of the primitive is short before another vowel, it is sometimes made long by the insertion of a consonant ; as, hibernus, from hiems.

The first syllable in liquǔdus is supposed to be common, as coming from aquor or ľqueo ; as,

Crassăque conveniunt $l$ liqǔ̌dis, et līqǔ̌da crassis. Lucr.

## II. COMPOUND WORDS.

§285. Compound words retain the quantity of the words which compose them ; as,
aēféro, of dē and fęro ; ădōro, of ăd and ōro. So ăbörior, āmõvěo, circŭmêo, cơmĕdo, ēnītor, prōdūco, sŭbōrno.

The change of a vowel or diphthong in forming the compound does not aler its quantity ; as,
concido, from cădo; concīdo, from c्̄ब̄do; eř̌go, from rĕgo; reclūdo, from clāudo; inīquus, from $\overline{\boldsymbol{a}} q u u s$.

Exc. 1. A long syllable in the simple word becomes short in the following compounds :-agňtus and cogňtus, from nōtus; dejĕro and pejĕro, from jūro; hödie, from hōc die; nihilum and nihı̂l, from hīlum; semisŏpītus, from sōpio; causidricus, and other compounds ending in dǐcus, from dīco.

Exc. 2. Imbécillus, from băcillum, has the second syllable long. The participle ambītus has the penult long from řtum, but the nouns ambx̌tus and anbitio follow the rule.

Exc. 3. Innŭba, pronŭba, and subnŭba, from nūbo, have $u$ short; but in connulium, it is common.

Exc. 4. $O$ final, in the compounds of do and sto, is common, though long in the simple verbs.

Note. It may be observed, that prepositions of one syllable, which end in a vowel, are long ( $\oint \S 294,295$, and 297); those which end in a single consonant are short ( $\S \$ 299$ and 301).

Exc.5. Pro, in the following compounds, is short:-prŏcella, prŏcul, prŏfänus, prŏfäri, prŏfecto, prŏfestus, prŏficiscor, prŏfiteor, prŏfugio, prŏfü๒us, prŏfundo, prŏfundus, prŏnĕpos, prŏneptis, prŏpĕro, and prŏtervus. It is common in procūro, profundo, propāgo, propello, propīno, and propulso.

Rem. 1. The Greek preposition pro (before) is short; as, prŏphēta. In prölŏgus it is long.

Rem. 2. The inseparable prepositions $d i$ and se are long; as, dīdūco, sēpăro. But di is short in dŭsertus.
Rem. 3. The inseparable preposition re or red is short; as, rĕmitto, rĕféro, rědămo. But in the impersonal verb rēfert, re is long, as coming from res.
Rem. 4. Except in prepositions, $a$, ending the former part of a compound word, is long; $e, i, o, u$, and $y$, are short ; as,
mālo, quāpropter, trādlo (trans do) ; nĕfus, valĕdĭco, hujuscěmŏdi; bŭceps, omn兀̆pŏtens, sigň̆f ̌̌co; hŏdie, quandŏquйdem, philŏsŏphus, dŭcenti, locŭples, Trojŭgěna; Poly̆dōrus, Eury̆py̆lus, Thrasy̆lūlus, trĭdens.

Exc. 1. A. In quăsi, eădem, when not an ablatıve, and in some Greek compounds, $a$ is short; as, catăpulta, hexămĕter.

Exc.2. E. The $e$ is long in crēdo, nēmo, néquam, néquando, nēquāquam, nēquidquam, nēquis, nëquitia; mēmet, mēcum, tēcum, sēcum, sēse, vēcors, vēsānus, venēfŭcus, and vidélǐcet, (see § 295 ;)—also in words compounded with se for sex or semi; as, sēdĕcim, sēmestris, sēmodius; but in selibra it is found short in Martial.

Note. The $e$ in videlicet, as in vide, is sometimes made short. See § 295, Exc. 3.
$E$ is common in some verbs compounded with facio; as, liquefacio, patefacio, rarefacio, tabefacio, tepefacio.

Exc. 3. I. (1.) The $i$ is long in those compounds in which the first part is declined, (§ 296 ;) as, quīdam, quīvis, quīlìbet, quantīvis, quanticunque, tantīdcm, unīcuīque, eīdem, reīpubľ̌cce, qualīcunque, utrīque.
(2.) I is also long in those compounds which may be separated without
altering the sense, (§296;) as, ludimagister, lucrifacio, siquis, agricultûra.
(3.) I, ending the former part of a compound word, is sometimes made long by contraction; as, tibīcen for tilitcen, from tibia and cano. See § 283 , III.
(4.) $I$ is long in biga, quadriga, ilicet, scilicet.
(5.) In idem, when masculine, $i$ is long; but when neuter, it is short. The $i$ of $u b \bar{\imath} q u e$ and utrobique, the second in ibidem, and the first in nīmirum, are long. In ubicumque, ubinam and ubivis, as in $u b i, i$ is common.
(6.) Compounds of dies have the final $i$ of the former part long; as, līduum, trīduum, merīdies, quotīdie, quotīdiānus, prīdie, postridie.

Note. In Greek words, $i$, ending the former part of a compound, is short, unless it comes from the diphthong ei, or is made long or common by position; as, Calltmăchus.

Exc. 4. O. (1.) In compounds, the final $o$ of contro, intro, retro, and quando (except quandŏqǔ̌dem,) is long; as, contrōversia, intrōdūco, retrōcēdo, quandöque. $O$ is long also in aliōquin, ceterōquin, utrōque, utrṑīque.
(2.) $O$ is long in the compounds of quo and eo; as, quōmðdo, quōcunque, quōm̌nus, quōcirca, quōvis, quōque; eōdem, eōne; but in the conjunction $q u o ̆ q u e$, it is short.
(3.) Greek words which are written with an omĕga have the $o$ long; as, geōnetra, Minōtaurus, lagōpus.

Exc. 5. U. The $u$ is long in Jüpřter and jūdǐco. The final $u$ in the former part of usūcapio and usüvenio is regularly long. See § 298.

## III. INCREMENT OF NOUNS.

§286. 1. A noun is said to increase, when, in any of its cases, it has more syllables than in the nominative singular; as, pax, pacis; sermo, sermönis.

The number of increments in any case of a noun is equal to that of its additional syllables.
2. Nouns in general have but one increment in the singular.

But iter, supellex, compounds of caput ending in ps, and sometimes jecur, have two; as,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { iter, i-tin-ë̆-ris; anceps, an-cip } \frac{1}{2}-\hat{x}^{2}-\text {-tis ; } \\
& \text { supellex, su-pel-lec-ť̃-lis; jecur, je-cin-oั̀-ris. }
\end{aligned}
$$

The double increase of iter, \&c., in the singular number arises from their coming from obsolete nominatives, containing a syllable more than those now in use ; as, itǐner, \&c.
3. The dative and ablative plural of the third declension have one increment more than the genitive singular; as,

4. The last syllable of a word is never considered as the in-
crement. If a word has but one increment, it is the penult; if two, the antepenult is called the first, and the penult the second; and if three, the syllable before the antepenult is called the first, the antepenult the second, and the penult the third increment.
5. In the third declension, the quantity of the first increment in all the other cases is the same as in the genitive singular; as,
sermōnis, sermōni, sermōnem, sermōne, sermōnes, sermōnum, sermōnฤbus. Böbus, or $b \bar{u} b u s$, from los, bŏvis, is lengthened by contraction from bŏv̌lus.

Note. As adjectives and participles are declined like nouns, the same rules of increment apply to all of them; and so also to pronouns.

## INCREMENTS OF THE SINGULAR NUMBER.

OF THE FIRST, FOURTH, AND FIFTH DECLENSIONS.
§287. 1. When nouns of the first, fourth, and fifth declensions increase in the singular number, the increment consists of a vowel before the final vowel, and its quantity is determined by the first general rule with its exceptions. See § 283 .

INCREMENTS OF THE SECOND DECLENSION.
2. The increments of the second declension are short ; as,
gener, genĕri; satur, satŭri; tener, tenĕri; vir, v̌̆ri. Thus, O puĕri! ne tanta anìmis assuescǐte bella. Virg. Monstra sinunt : geněros externis afföre ab oris. Id.
Exc. The increment of Iber and Celtžber is long. For that of genitives in ius, see § 283, Exc. 4.

INCREMENTS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.
3. The increments of the third declension in $a$ and $o$ are long; those in $e, i, u$, and $y$, are short; as,
aň̆mal, animālis; audax, audācis; sermo, sermōnis; ferox, ferōcis; opus, opěris; celer, celĕris; milos, miľtis; supplex, suppľ̌cis; murmur, murmŭris; cicur, cicŭris. Thus,

Pronăque cùm spectent animālia cetěra terram. Ovid.
Hæc tum multiplíci popŭlos sermōne replēbat. Virg.
Incumbent genëris lapsi sarcīre ruinas. Id.
Qualem virgineo demessum pollice florem. Id.
Aspĭce, ventōsi cecidèrunt nurmŭris auræ. Id.

## Exceptions in Increments in A.

1. Masculines in al and ar (except Car and Nar) increase short ; as, Annı̆bal, Mmiluălis.

Par and its compounds, and the following-anas, mas, vas (vădis) baccar, hepar, jubar, lar, nectar, and sal-also increase short.
2. $A$, in the incrernent of nouns in $s$ with a consonant before it, is short ; as, Arabs, Arăbis.
3. Greek nouns in $a$ and $a s$ ( $\breve{a} d i s, ~ \breve{a n i s}$ or $\breve{a} t i s$ ) increase short ; as, poēma, poëmătis; lampas, lampădis ; Melas, Melănis.
4. The following in $a x$ increase short:-abax, anthrax, Atax, Atrax, climax, colax, corax, dropax, fax, harpax, panax, phylax, smilax, and styrax.

## Exceptions in Increments in 0.

1. $O$, in the increment of neuter nouns, is short ; as,
marmor, marmorris; corpus, corpðris; ebur, ebŏris. But os (the mouth), and the neuter of comparatives, like their masculine and feminine, increase long. The increment of $a d o r$ is common.
2. $O$ is short in the increment of Greek nouns in $o$ or on, which, in the oblique cases, have omicron; as,
Aèdon, Aedönis; Agamemnon, Agamemnơnis. Sidon, Orion, and JEgeon, have the increment common.
3. In the increment of gentile nouns in $o$ or on, $o$ is generally short; as,
Macēdo, Macedŏnis. So, Senð̄nes, Teutønes, \&c.
But the following have o long:-Eburones, Lacones, Iones, Nasamones, Suessönes (or-iōnē̄), Vettönes, Burgundiönes. Britones has the o common
4. Greek nouns in or increase short; as, Hector, Hectŏris, rhetor, rhetŏris; Agēnor, Agenŏris.
5. Compounds of pus ( $\pi<\tilde{v}_{\varsigma}$ ), as tripus, poly̆pus, and also arbor, memor, bos, compos, impos, and lepus, increase short.
6. $O$, in the increment of nouns in $s$ with a consonant before it, is short ; as,
scrobs, scrobis; inops, inơpis. But it is long in the increment or cercops, Cyclops, and hydrops.
7. The increment of Allobrox, Cappădox, and pracox, is also short.

## Exceptions in Increments in E.

1. Nouns in en, enis (except Hymen), lengthen their increment ; as, Siren, Sirēnis. So, Aniēnis, Neriēnis, from Anio, \&c.
2. Hares, locŭples, mansues, merces, and quies-also IVer, ver, lex, rex, and vervex-plebs, seps, and halcc-increase long.
3. Greek nouns in es and $e r$ (except aër and ather) increase long ; as, magnes, magnētis; crater, cratēris.

## Exceptions in Increments in I.

1. Verbals in trix, and adjectives in $i x$, increase long $;$ as, victrix, victrīcis ; felix, felīcis.
2. The following nouns in $i x$ also increase long:-cervix, cicätrix, cornix, coturnix, lodix, matrix, perdix, pheenix, radix, and spadix. So also vibex (vibīcis).
3. Greek nouns, whose genitive is in inis, increase long; as, delphin, delphinis; Salămis, Salaminis.
4. The following nouns in is increase long :-dis, glis, lis, vis Mesis, Quiris, and Samnis. The increment of Psophis is common.

## Exceptions in Increments in U.

1. Genitives in udis, uris, and utis, from nominatives in $u s$, have the penult long; as,
palus, palūdis; tellus, tellūris; virtus, virtūtis. But intcrcus, Ligus and pecus, increase short.
2. Fur, frux (obs.), lux, and Pollux, increase long.

## Exceptions in Increments in Y.

1. Greek nouns whose genitive is in ynis, increase long; as, Phorcyn, Phorcȳnis; Trachys, Trachȳnis.
2. The increment of coccyx, bombyx, Ceÿx, mormyr, and gryps, is long; that of Beoryx and sandyx is common.

## INCREMENTS OF THE PLURAL NUMBER.

\$288. A noun in the plural number is said to increase, when, in any case, it has more syllables than in the ablative singular.

When a noun increases in the plural number, its penult is called the plural increment; as, sa in musārum, no in dominōrum, $p i$ in rupium and rupřbus.

In plural increments, $a, e$, and $o$, are long, $i$ and $u$ are short; as,
bonārum, animābus, rērum, rēbus, generōrum, ambōbus; sermoň̀bus, lacübus. (But vis makes vires,) Thus,

Appia, longārum, terǐtur, regīna viārum. Stat.
Sunt lacry̆mæ rèrum, et mentem mortalia tangunt. Virg.
Atque alii, quörum comœdia prisca virörum est. Hor.
Portŭbus egredior, ventisque ferentzbus usus. Ovid.

## IV. INCREMENT OF VERBS.

§289. 1. A verb is said to increase, when, in any of its parts, it has more syllables than in the second person singular of the present indicative active; as, das, dă-tis; doces, do-cè-mus
2. The number of increments in any part of a verb is equal to that of its additional syllables. In verbs, as in nouns, the last syllable is never considered the increment. If a verb has but one increment, it is the penult; and this first increment, through all the variations of the verb, except in reduplicated tenses, continues equally distant from the first syllable. The remaining increments are numbered successively from the first; as,


A verb in the active voice may have three increments; in the passive, it may have four.
3. In determining the increments of deponent verbs, an active voice may be supposed, formed regularly from the same root.

Thus the increments of $l a-t \bar{a}-t u r, l a t-a-b \bar{a}-t u r$, \&c., are reckoned from the supposed verb lato, latas.
§290. In the increments of verbs, $a, e$, and $o$, are long; $i$ and $u$ are short ; as,
> amare, monēre, fačtōte, volümus, regēb̄āminni. Thus, Et cantāre pares, et respondēre parāti. Virg. Sic equĭdem ducēbam anı̆mo, rêlarque futurum. Id. Cùmque loqui potěrit, matrem factōtè salutet. Ovid. Scinditur interea studia in contraria vulgus. Virg. Nos numěros sŭmus, et fruges consumĕre nati. Id.

## Exceptions in Increments in A.

The first increment of do is short; as, dămus, dăbämus, circumdăre, circumdăbämus.

## Exceptions in Increments in E.

1. $E$ before $r$ is short in the first increment of all the present and imperfect tenses of the third conjugation, and in the second increment in bĕris and bĕre; as,
regëre (infin. and imperat.), regęris or regěre (pres. ind. pass.), regěrem


Note. Velim, velis, \&c., from vŏlo, have the $\epsilon$ short, according to § 284.
2. $\boldsymbol{E}$ is short before ram, rim, ro, and the persons formed from them; as,
amavěram, amavěrat, amavĕrim, monuĕrimus, rexĕro, audivĕrilis.
Note. In verbs which have been shortened by syncope or otherwise, $e$ before $r$ retains its original quantity; as, fêram for flēvĕram.

For the short $c$ before runt, in the perfect indicative, as, stetcrunt, see Systole, § 307 .

## Exceptions in Incremcnts in I.

1. I before $v$, in tenses formed from the second root, is long : as, petīvi, audīvi, quasīvit, audīvĭmus, audīvĕram.
2. $\boldsymbol{I}$ is long in the penult of polysyllabic supines from verbs whose perfects end in ivi ; as, petitum, quasitum. See $\$ 284$, Rem. 2. So also recensitus, oblitus.
3. The first increment of the fourth conjugation, except in imus of the perfect indicative, is long; as,
audire, audirem, venimus, but in the perfect venخmus. So in the ancient forms in ibam, ibo, of the fourth conjugation; as, nutribat, lenibunt; and also in $\bar{i} b a m$ and $\bar{i} b o$, from $e o$.

When a vowel follows, the $i$ is short, by $\S 283$; as, audiunt, audīèam.
4. $I$ is long in simus, sitis, velimus, velitits, and their compounds; as, possìmus, adsimus, malimus, nolìmus, and nolito, nolite, nolitōte.
5. I in rimus and ritis, in the future perfect and perfect subjunctive, is common; as,
viderttis (Ovid), dixertitis (Id.), fecerimus (Catull.), contigeritis (Ovid); egerimus (Virg.).

## Exceptions in Increments in U.

$\boldsymbol{U}$ is long in the increment of supines, and of participles formed from the third root of the verb; as,
secūutus, solütus, seciutūrus, solutūrus.

## RULES FOR THE QUANTITY OF THE PENULTIMATE AND antepenultimate syllables of words of certain terminations.

## I. PENULTS.

§291. 1. Words ending in acus, icus, and icum, shorten the penult; as,
amarăcus, , ÆEgyptiăcus, academ̌̌cus, rusť̌cus, triť̌cum, viattcum.
Except merâcus, opācus; amīcus, aprícus, anticus, ficus, lumbricus, mendicus, postīcus, pudī̀us, umbilīcus, vīcus, pīcus, spīcus, Dācus.
2. Words ending in abrum, ubrum, acrum, ucrum, and atrum, lengthen the penult; as,
candeläbrum, delübrum, lavōcrum, involūcrum, verätrum, lucrum.
3. Nouns in $c a$ lengthen the penult ; as,
cloāca, apothēca, lorica, phōca, lactūca.
Except alica, brassicca, dǐca, fulica, mantica, pedica, pertica, scutica, phalarica, sublica, tuň̌ca, vomíca; and also some nouns in ica, derived from adjectives in Ycus; as, fabrica, grammatica, \&c. So mantica.
4. Patronymics in ades and ides shorten the penult; as, Atlantiădes, Priamı̆des.

Except those in ides which are formed from nouns in eus or $\bar{E}$; as, Atrides, from Atreus; Ncoclides, from Neocles ; except, also, Amphiaraides. Belides, Amyclides, Lycurgides.
5. Patronymics and similar words in ais, eis, and ois, lengthen the penult ; as,

Achäis, Chryseis, Minōis. Except Phocăis and Thebăis. The penult of Nereis is common.
6. Words in do lengthen the penult; as, vädo, cēdo, formĩdo, rōdo, testūdo, altitùdo. Except solido, mődo. unědo, cădo, div̌̌do, ědo (to eat), spădo, trep̌̌do. Rudo is common.
7. Words in idus shorten the penult; those in udus lengthen it ; as, callĭdus, perfüdus; lūdus, nūdus.
Except Idus, fidus, infidus, nìdus, sidus.
8. Nouns in $g a$ and $g o$ lengthen the penult; as,
collē̆ga, säga, rūga, imägo, calīgo, arū̄go. Except caliga, töga, harpăgo, liggo, plăga, (ă region), fŭga, stëga, eclogga, égo.

9 . Words in le, les, and lis, lengthen the penult; as,
crinäle, mantèle, ancile ; âles, mĩles, pröles ; annālis, crudēlis, civzlis, curulis.-Except verbals in ilis; as, agilis, amabzlis;-adjectives in atzlis, as, aquaťlis, umbraťlis ;-so also, periscélis, dapsilis, dacty̆lis, gračlis, humìlis, pař̌lis, sim̌lis, sterilis, indöles, soböles, muǧ̌lis, strigzlis, metropơlis, oxălis, pardălis, măle.
10. Words in elus, ela, elum, lengthen the penult; as, phasēlus, querēla, prēlum. Except gĕtus, gĕlum, scĕlus.
11. Diminutives in olus, ola, olum, ulus, ula, ulum, also words in ilus, and those in ulus, ula, and ulum, of more than two syllables, shorten the penult ; as,
urceölus, fliölla, tuguriölum, lectŭlus, ratiuncüla, corcŭlum; rutťlus, garrülus, fabüla. Exc. asilus.
12. Words in $m a$ lengthen the penult ; as,
fàma, poèma, rìma, axiòma, plüma. Exc. anĭma, cŏma, lacry̆ma, vicť̌ma, argèma, hăma, propŏma, thĕma.
13. A vowel before final men or mentum is long; as,
levāmen, grämen, crimen, fūmen, jūmentum, atrāmentum.
Except tămen, colŭmen, Hymen, elëmentum, and certain verbal nouns of the second and third conjugations; as, docümentum, regæmen, tegخmen, \&c.
14. Words ending in imus or ymus shorten the penult; as, anخ̌mus, finiťmus, fortisš̌mus, maxخmus, thy̆mus.
Except tīmus, lìmus, mìmus, opīmus, quadrimus, sìmus, trimus, patrimus, matrimus, and two superlatives, ìmus and primus.

Note. When an adjective ends in umus for imus, the quantity remains the same ; as, decŭmus, optŭmus, maxŭmus, for dectmus, \&c.
15. A, e, o, and $u$, before final mus and mum, are long; as, rämus, rēmus, extrḕ̄us, prömus, dūmus, pōmum, volēmum.
Except atömus, balsămum, cinnămum, dŏmus, glŏrnus, hŭmus, postümus, thalämus, tōmus, calămus, nèmus, monogămus.
16. Words in $n a, n e, n i$, and $n i s$, lengthen the penult; as,
lāna, arēna, carīna, matrōna, lūna, māne, anemঠ̃ne, septēni, octōni, inā nis, fīnis, immūnis. Exc advĕna, cottăne, ptisăna, destĭna, mĭna, běne.
 fisčna, femĭna, fusč̌na, lam̌̌na, machǐna, pagǐna, pať̌na, sarč̌na, truťna. So compounds of gěno; as, indigĕna, Majugĕna.
17. Adjectives in inus, derived from names of trees, plants, and stones, and from adverbs of time, shorten the penult; as,
cedř̌nus, faǧ̃nus, croctnus, hyacin̄thǐnus, adamanť̌nus, crystallinus; crastïnus, diutĩnus ; also annotĩnus, bombycĭnus, and elephantïnus.

Other adjectives and words in inus lengthen the penult; as, canīnus, bīnus, festīnus, peregrīnus, marinnus, clandestīnus, supīnus.
Except ač̌nus, asǐnus, copȟ̌nus, domənus, earǐnus, fač̌nus, fràănus, pamp̌̌nus, sinus, term̌̌nus, gem̌̌nus, cirč̌nus, luscǐnus, m̌̆nиs.
18. $A, e, o$, and $u$, before final nus and num, are long; as, urbänus, serēnus, prōnus, mūnus. Exc. limigěnus, penus, abrotŏnum, peucedănum, galbănus, mănus, oceănus, platănus, tympănum ; ebĕnus, gĕnus, tẽnus, Vĕnus; bŏnus, ŏnus, sŏnus, tŏnus, thrŏnus, ănus, lagănum, popănum.
19. Words ending in $p a$ shorten the penult; as, alăpa, nĕpa, cř̆pa. Exc. stūpa, ràpa, rīpa, cēpa, scōpa, cūpa, pūpa.
20. Words in aris and are lengthen the penult; as, alāris, altāre. Except hilăris, canthăris, cappăris, and măre.
21. Before final ro or ror, $e$ is short; $i, o$, and $u$, are long; as, tempĕro, celĕro, quĕror; spīro, ōro, figūro, mīror.
Except spēro, fŏro, mŏror, vŏro, fŭro, satŭro; and derivatives from genitives increasing short; as, decơro, тurmŭro, \&c.; also pēro, söror.
22. Before final rus, ra, rum, $e$ is short; the other vowels are long; as,
mĕrus, hedĕra, cctĕrum ; cârus, mĩrus, mōrus, mürus ; hära, spīra, ōra, natūra, lōrum.

Except, 1. austērus, galērus, plērus, sērus, sevērus, vērus, pēra, cēra, panthēra, statēra, procērus, sincérus.

Exc. 2. barbărus, cammărus, camŭrus, canthărius, chŏrus, fŏrus, hellebŏrus, lamy̆rus, lărus, nŭrus, phosphŏrus, pırrus, porrus (a passage), sat ̛̆rus, scărus, spărus, tartărus, tơrus, zephy̆rus; amphơra, anchŏra, cinăra, cithăra, ly̆ra, möra, purpŭra, phily̆ra, p ̆̌ra, sať̌ra; fŏrum, gărum, părum, sacchărum, suppărum.
23. Adjectives in osus lengthen the penult; as, fumōsus, perniciōsus.
24. Nouns in etas and itas shorten the penult; as, piĕtas, civǐtas.
25. Adverbs in tim lengthen the penult, those in iter shorten it ; as,
oppidātim, virūtim, tribūtim; acrǐtcr. Except stătim, affătim, perpětim.
26. Words in ates, itis, otis, and eta, lengthen the penult; as,
rātes, penātes, vĩtis, mĩtis, caryōtis, Icariōtis, mẽta, poēta. Except sťtis, pŏtis, drapěta.
27. Nouns in atum, etum, itum, utum, lengthen the penult; as, lupātum, arborētum, aconītum, verūtum.
Except frĕtum, defrŭtum, pulp̌tum, petorǐtum, lŭtum (mud), compťum
28. Words ending in tus lengthen the penult; as,
burbātus, grātus, bolētus, facētus, crinītus, peritus, agrōtus, tötus, argütus, hirsütus.

Exc. cătus, lătus (-ĕris), impĕtus, mĕtus, veg̣ĕtus, větus; anheľ̌tus, digǐtus, gratuřtus, haľ̌tus, hospĭtus, serv̌̌tus, spiř̆tus; antidŏtus, nŏtus, quŏtus, tơtus (so great) ; arbŭtus, pŭtus ; incly̆tus; adverbs in itus, and derivatives from supines with a short penult; as, habřtus.
29. A penultimate vowel before $v$ is long; as,
clāva, olìva, dīves, nāuis, civis, papāver, pāvo, privo, ōvum, prāvus, astīvus, fugitivus.

Except ăvis, brěvis, grăvis, lěvis, ǒvis; căvo, grăvo, jŭvo, lăvo, lěoo, бัvо; ăvus, căvus, făvus, nŏvus, făvor, păvor, nŏvem.
30. Words ending in dex, dix, mex, nix, lex, rex, lengthen the penult; as,
cōdex, jū̀dex; lōdix, rādix; cimex, pūmex; jānix; ìlex; cärex, mürex. Except cülex, silex, rümex.

## II. ANTEPENULTS.

§292. 1. Adjectives in aceus and aneus lengthen the antepenult; as,
cretāceus, testāceus, momentāneus, subitāneus.
2. Numerals in ginti, ginta, gies, and esïmus, lengthen the antepenult ; as,
vīginti, quadräginta, quinquāgies, trigessimus.
3. $O$ and $u$ before final lentus are short; as,
vinōlentus, fraudülentus.
4. A vowel before final nea, neo, nia, nio, nius, nium, is long; as,
arānea, linea, cāneo, mãnia, pünio, Favōnius, patrimōnium.
Exc. castănea, ť̌nea, cŭneo, măneo, mไ̌neo, mơneo, sěneo, tëneo, ignomǐnia, lusč̌nia, mănia, vénia, lănio, ľ̌nio, věnio, ingĕnium, gènius, sēnius; and words in cinium, as, lenocinium.
5. Words ending in areo, arius, arium, erium, orius, lengthen the antepenult; as,
āreo, cibārius, plantārium, dictērium, censōrius. Except căreo, vărius, desidérium, impérium, magistěrium, ministěrium.
6. Adjectives in atĭcus, atillis, lengthen the antepenult; as,
aquätecus, pluviâtlis. Except some Greek words in măticus; as, grammătrcus.
7. I before final tudo is short ; as, altǔtūdo, longĭtūdo.

## III. PENULT OF PROPER NAMES.

§ 293. 1. Proper names of more than two syllables, found in the poets with the following terminations, shorten the penult -


1. Marīca, Nasīca, Ustīca.
2. Eriphȳla, Messála, Philomèla.
3. Alcmèna, Amphisibēna, Athēnæ, Cæsēna, Camẽna, Mycē-
næ, Picēnæ, Sophēnæ, Murēna.
4. Berenīce, Elȳce.
5. Eriphȳle, Neobule, Perimēle.

6 Eurōpe, Sinōpe.
7. Alēmon, Cythēron, Chalcêdon, Damasîton, Iǎson, Philēmon, Sarpēdon, Thermōdon, Polygîton, Polyphēmon, Anthēdon.
8. Carthăgo, Cupāvo, Theăno.
9. Meleăger.
10. Bessālis, Eumēlis, Juvenālis, Martialis, Phasēlis, Stymphālis.
11. Cercȳros, Cotȳtos, Pharsālos, Serīphos, Peparēthos.
12. Benăcus, Caȳcus, Granīcus, Mossyneci, Olympionicus,

Stratonīcus, Trivīcus, Numī-
13. Ophiūchus.
[cus.
14. Abȳdus, Andrōdus.
15. Cethēgus.
16. Names in -clus, -olus (except Eŏlus Naubŏlus) -bulus (except Bibŭlus), Orbēlus, Eumêlus, Gætūlus, Iulus, Pharsâlus, Sardanapālus, Stymphâlus.
17. Some in dēmus and phēmus; as, Acadēmus, Charidêmus, Euphēmus, Menedēmus, Philodēmus, Polyphēmus.
18. Serȳphus.
19. Homẽrus, Ibērus.
20. Arātus, Cærātus, Torquătus.
21. Heraclìtus, Hermaphroditus.
22. Buthrōtus. [Caphăreus.
23. Enīpeus, Menēceus, Oīleus,

24 Amăsis.
2. Proper names of more than two syllables, found in the poets with the following terminations; lengthen the penult :-

| ana, ${ }^{1}$ | sa, | num, ${ }^{7}$ | tas, | nus, ${ }^{12}$ | urus, | ${ }^{17}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ina, ${ }^{2}$ | ta, ${ }^{4}$ | tum, | des, ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | pus, ${ }^{13}$ | esus, ${ }^{16}$ |  |
| ona, ${ }^{3}$ | tm, ${ }^{5}$ | or, ${ }^{8}$ | tes, ${ }^{10}$ | irus, ${ }^{14}$ | -isus, | ytus, ${ }^{18}$ |
| yna, | ene, ${ }^{6}$ | nas, | tis, ${ }^{11}$ | orus, ${ }^{15}$ | ysus, | vus. |

## Exceptions.

1. Sequăna.
2. Asina, Mutinna, Proserpinna, Rasina, Ruspina, Sarsĭna.
3. Axǒna, Matrơna.
4. Dalmăta, Massageta, Prochy̆ta, Sarmăta, Sostrăta.
5. Galătæ, Jaxamětæ, Lapǐthæ, Macětæ, Sauromătæ.
6. Clyměne, Helěne, Melpoměne, Nyctimẽne
7. Ariminum, Drepanum, Peucedănum.
8. Numĭtor.
9. Miltiădes, Pylădes, Sotǎdes, Thucydides; patronymics in des, ( $\S 291,4$, ) and plurals in ades.
10. Antiphates, Amody̆tes, Cerĭtes, CharY̌tes, Eterětes, Eurybătes, Ichnobătes, Euergètes, Anaxarětes, Massagĕtes, and all names in -crates.
11. Dercětis.
12. Apŏnus, Apidănus, Carănus, Chrysogănus, Cimĭnus, Clibănus, Clymềnus, Cœrănus, Concănus, Dardănus, Diaduměnus, Durănus, Earǐnus, Eridănus, Fucĭnus, Helěnus, Libănus, Morĭni, Mycŏnus, Myrsinnus, Nebrophŏnus, Olènus, Periclyměnus, Rhodănus, Santŏnus, Sequăni, Stephănus, Telegŏnus, Termǐnus,
and names in -gonus and -xenus.
13. OEdīpus.
14. Lamîrus.
15. Pacorrus, and those in chorus and phorus; as, Bosphorrus,

Carpophơrus, Mastigophŏrus, Phosphơrus, Stesichơrus.
16. Ephěsus, Vogěsus, Volĕsus.
17. Iapětus, Taygětus, Venětus.
18. ※py̆tus, Any̆tus, Eury̆tus,

Hippoly̆tus.
3. The penultimate vowel of the following proper names, and adjectives derived from proper names, though followed by a vowel, is long. See $\S 283$, Exc. 6.

Alexandrīa, Alphēus, Achelōus, Achillēus, Achillēa, Amphiarãus, Amphīon, Ænēeas, Arīon, Álcyonēus, Alōeus, Anchisēus, Atlantēus, Æthīon, Aminēus, Amphigenīa, Amythāon, Antiochīa, Bionēus, Cymodocèa, Calliopēa, Cassiopēa, CYydonēus, Cæsarēa, Calauréus, Chremetãon, Cleanthēas, Cytherēa, Deidamīa, Didymãon, Dolicãon, Darīus, Elēi, Enȳo, Eōus, Echīon, Elēus, Endymionēus, Erebēus, Erecthēus, Hyperion, Galatêa, Gigantēus, Heraclēa, Hippodamīa, Hypetãon, Iolāus, Iphigenīa, Ixīon, Ilithyīa, Imãon, Laodamīa, Lycāon, Latōus, Lesbōus, Machãon, Mausolēum, Medēa, Menelāus, Mathīon, Methīon, Myrtōus, Orīon, Orithyia, Orphēus, Ophȳon, Pallantēum, Penēus, Penthesilêa, Phœebēus, Pandīon, Protesilăus, Pyrenēus, Sardōus, Paphagēa, Poppēa, Thalīa.

Note. Eus, in the termination of Greek proper names, is commonly a diphthong; as, Briäreus, Ceneus, Enīpeus, Idomĕneus, Macăreus, Menĕceus, Mctëreus, Orpheus, Penthesilleus, Perseus, Theseus, Typhöeus. § 283, Exc. 6, Note 2. But in those which in Greek are written etos (eios), eus forms two syllables; as, Alphēus. So also in adjectives in eus, whether of Greek or Latin origin ; as, Erebēus, Erecthēus, Orphēus.

## QUANTITY OF FINAL SYLLABLES.

## A final.

§294. 1. A final, in words declined, is short; as, musă, templ̆̆, capittă, Tydeă. Thus,

Musă mihi causas memorra; quo numĭne læso..... Virg.
Exc $A$ final is long in the ablative of the first declension, and in the vocative of Greek nouns in as and es; as,

Musa, fundà; O FEnēā, O Pallā, O Anchīsā.
2. A final, in words not declined, is long; as, $a m \bar{a}$, frustrā, ante $\bar{a}, \operatorname{erg} \bar{a}, i n t r \bar{a}$. Thus,

Extrā fortūnam est quidquid donātur amícis. Mart.
Exc. $A$ final is short in $\varepsilon j \check{a}, i t a ̆, q u i a ̆$, and in $p u t a ̆$, when used adverbially. It is sometimes short in the preposition contra, and in numerals ending in ginta ; as, triginta, \&c. In postea, it is common.
$A$ final is also short in the names of Greek letters; as, alphad, betă \&c.

## E final.

\$295. $E$ final is short; as, natĕ, patrĕ, ipsē, currĕ, regërĕ, nempĕ, antĕ. Thus, Inčpé, parvé puer, risu cognoscèrě matrem. Virg.
Exc. 1. $\boldsymbol{E}$ final is long in nouns of the first and fifth declensions; as,
Calliop é, Tydide, fide. So also re and dié, with their compounds quaré, hodié, pridié, postridiē, quotidié. In like manner Greek vocatives in e, from nouns in es, of the third declension; as, Acchille, Hippoméné. The $e$ is also long in the ablative fame, originally of the fifth declension.

Exc. 2. E final is long in Greek neuters piural; as, ceté, melé, pelăgé, Tempé.

Exc. 3. In the second conjugation, $e$ final is long in the second person singular of the imperative active; as, doce $\bar{e}$, mone ${ }^{-}$;-but it is sometimes short in cave, vale, and vide.
Exc. 4. In monosyllables, $e$ final is long; as,
$\bar{e}, m \bar{e}, t e, s e \bar{e}, n \bar{e}$ (lest or not); but the enclitics $q u e, n e, v e, ~ c e, \& c$. , as they are not used alone, have $e$ short, according to the rule; as, nequé, hujuscě, suaptě.

Exc. 5. $E$ final is long in adverbs formed from adjectives of the first and second declensions; as,
plačdē, pulchrè, valdē for vaľ̌dè, max̌̀mē; but it is short in beně, malě, inferně, and superně.

Exc. 6. Ferē, fermé, and ohē, have the final $e$ long.

$$
\mathbf{I} \text { final. }
$$

§296. I final is long; as, dominī, filī, classī, docērī, sì. Thus,

Quid dominñ facient, audent cùm talia fures. Virg.
Exc. 1. I final is common in mihi, tibi, sibi, ibi, and ubi.
In nisi, quasi, and cui, when a dissyllable, it is also common, but usually short. In utitnam and uutque, it is short, and rarely in uti.

Exc. 2. I final is short in the dative singular of Greek nouns of the third declension, which increase in the genitive; as, Pallădř, Minơdrt, Tethy̌.

Exc. 3. I final is short in Greek vocatives singular of the third declension; as, Alext; Daphnt, Part. But it is long in vocatives from Greek nouns in is, -entos; as, Simoì.

Exc. 4. I final is short in Greek datives and ablatives plural in si. or, before a vowel, -sin; as, Dryăsť, heroǔsĭ, Troăšn.

$$
\mathbf{O} \text { final. }
$$

§297. $O$ final is common; as, virgo, amo, quando. Thus,

Exc. 1. Monosyllables in o are long ; as, $\bar{o}, d \bar{o}, ~ p r o ̄ . ~$.
Exc. 2. $O$ final is long in the dative and ablative singular ; as, domĭnō, regnō, bonō, suō, illō, eō.

It is also long in ablatives used as adverbs; as, certō, falsō, merǐtō, eঠ, $q u \bar{o}$; to which may be added ergo (for the sake of).

Rem. 1. The gerund in do, in the later poets, has sometimes o short; as, vigilandô. Juv.

Rem. 2. The final $o$ in cito is short: in modo, it is common, but short in its compounds; as, dummódð, postmødð, \&c. It is also common in adeo, ideo, postrēmo, sero, and vero. In illico, profecto, and subर̌to, it is found short.

Exc. 3. $O$ final is short in immr, and common in idcirco, porro, and retro.

Exc. 4. $O$ final, in Greek nouns written with an oméga, is long; as, Cliō, Didō ; Athō and Androgeō (gen).

Note. The final $o$ of verbs is almost always long in poets of or near the Augustan age; they, however, shorten it in scio, nescio, and spondco. Later poets make the $o$ short in many other verbs.

## $\mathbf{U}$ final.

§298. 1. U final is long; as, vultū, cornū, Panth $\bar{u}$, dictū. Thus,

Vultū quo cœelum tempestatesque serēnat. Virg
Exc. Indu and nenu, ancient forms of $i n$ and $n o n$, have $u$ short. $U$ is also short in terminations in us short, when $s$ is removed by elision; as, contentŭ', for contentŭs. See § 305, 2 .

## $\mathbf{Y}$ final.

2. $Y$ final is short ; as, Mol̆y, Tiphy̆. Thus, Moly̆ vocant supěri : nigrâ radīce tenētur. Ovid.
$\boldsymbol{Y}$, in the dative Tethy, being formed by contraction, is long. $\S \mathbf{2 8 3}$, III.

## $\mathbf{B}, \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{L}, \mathbf{N}, \mathbf{R}, \mathbf{T}$, final.

$\$ 299$. 1. Final syllables ending in $b, d, l, n, r$, and $t$, are short; as, $\vec{a} b, i l l \breve{u} d$, consŭl, carmën, patër, capŭt. Thus,

Ipse docet quǔd agam. Fas est ĕt ăb hoste docēri, Ovid.
Obstupuit simŭl ipse, simul perculsus Achātes. Virg.
Noměn Arionium Sicŭlas implevĕrăt urbes. Ovid.
Dum loquŏr, horrŏr habet; parsque est meminisse dolōris. Id.
Exc. 1. L Sal, sol, and nil, are long.
Exc. 2. N. En, lien, non, quin, and sin, are long.
Exc. 3. In Greek nouns, nominatives in $n$ (except those in on, written with an omicron), masculine or feminine accusatives in $a n$ or $e n$, and genitives plural in ofn, lengthen the final syllable; as,

Tïtān, splēn, Salăminn, Oriōn, Phorcȳn; AEnēān, Anchīsēn, Calliópēn; epigrammătōn.

Exc. 4. R. Aër, ather, and nouns in $e r$ which form their genitive in $\bar{e} r i s$, lengthen the final syllable; as,
cratér, vēr. So also Ibēr; but the compound Celťber has its last syllable common.

Exc. 5. Far, lar, Nar, par, cur, and fur, are long.
Rem. A final syllable ending in $t$, may be rendered long by a diphthong, by contraction, or by position; as, aut, abit for abiit, amant. See § 283, II, III, IV.

## M final.

2. Final $m$, with the preceding vowel, is almost always cut off, when the next word begins with a vowel. See Ecthlipsis, § 305, 2.

Final syllables ending in $m$, when it is not cut off, are short; as, Quam laudas, plumâ ? cocto nŭm adest honor idem. Hor.
Hence, the final syllables of cum and circum, in composition, are short; as, cŏmĕdo, circŭmăgo.

## $\mathbf{C}$ final.

3. Final syllables ending in $c$ are long; as, $\bar{a} c$, illūc. Thus,

Macte novâ virtūte, puer; sic itur ad astra. Virg.
Exc. Nec, donec, fac, are short, and sometimes the pronouns hic and $h o c$ in the nominative and accusative.

## AS, ES, and OS, final.

§300. Final syllables in as, es, and os, are long; as, piětās, amās, quiēs, monēs, honōs, virōs. Thus,

Hās autem terrās, Italique hanc littöris oram. Virg.
Si modò dēs illis cultus, similēsque parâtus. Ovid.
Nec nōs ambitio, nec amor nōs tangit habendi. Id.
Exc. 1. AS. As is short in anăs, in Greek nouns whose genitive ends in ădis or $\breve{a} d o s$, and in Greek accusatives plural of the third declension; as, Arcăs, Pallăs, herōăs, lampădăs.

To these may be added Latin nouns in as, ădos, formed like Greek patronymics ; as, Appiăs.

Exc. 2. ES. Final es is short in nouns and adjectives of the third declension which increase short in the genitive; as, hospĕs, limĕs, hcbĕs.

But it is long in abies, aries, Ceres, paries, and pes.
$E s$, in the present tense of sum, and in the preposition penes, is short.
$E s$ is short in Greek neuters, and in Greek nominatives and vocatives plaral from nouns of the third declension, which increase in the genitive ctherwise than in cos ; as, cacoēthĕs, Arcădĕs, Trǒ̌s, Amazŏnĕs.

Exc. 3. OS. Os is short in compos, impos, and os (ossis).
In Greek nouns, os is short in words of the second declension (except those whose genitive is in o), in neuters, and in genitives singular ; as. lliŏs Tyrŏs (but Athōs) ; chaŏs, epŏs, Pallădŏs, Tethyŏs.

## IS, US, and YS, final.

§301. Final syllables in $i s, u s$, and $y s$, are short; as, turrıs, milltts, amäľ̌s; pectüs, bonŭs, amāmūs; Capy̆s, Tethy̆s. Thus,

Non apırs inde tulit collectos sedŭla flores. Ovid. Seriüs aut citiùs sedem properāmŭs ad unam. Id. At Capy̆s, et quorum melior sententia menti. Virg,
Exc. 1. IS. Is is long in plural cases; as, musīs, nobīs; omnīs, urbīs, for omnēs, urbēs; quīs, for queis or quibus. Is is long in nouns whose genitives end in itis, inis, or entis; as, Saminiss, Salămīs, Simoīs.
$I s$ is long in the second person singular of the present indicative active of the fourth conjugation; as,
$a u d i s$, nescis. So also in the second persons, fis, is, sis, vis, velis, and their compounds ; as, possīs, quamvìs, malīs, nolīs, \&c.

Ris, in the future perfect tense, is common; as, viderris.
In the nouns glis and vis, and the adverbs gratis and foris, is is long.
Exc. 2. US. Monosyllables in us are long; as, grūs, rūu, plūs.
$U_{s}$ is long in nouns of the third declension which increase long, and in the genitive singular, and the nominative, accusative, and vocative plural of the fourth declension ( $\$ \oint 89$, Rem., and 283, III.) ; as,
tellūs, virtūs, incūs;-fructūs. But palŭs, with the us short, occurs in Horace, Art. Poet. 65.

Us is long in Greek nouns written in the original with the diphthong oṽs (ous), whether in the nominative or genitive; as, nom. Amăthūs, Opūs, (Edūpūs, tripūs, Panthūs; gen. Didūs, Sapphūs. But compounds of pus ( $\pi o v_{s}$ ), when of the second declension, have us short ; as, poly̆pŭs.

Note. The last syllable of every verse (except the anapæstic, and the Ionic a minōre) may be either long or short, at the option of the poet.

By this is meant, that, although the measure require a long syllable, a short one may be used in its stead; and a long syllable may be used where a short one is required; as in the following verses, where the short syllable $m a$ stands instead of a long one, and the long syllable $c u$ instead of a short one :-

Sanguineâque manu crepitantia concŭtit armă. Ovid.
Non eget Mauri jacŭlis, nec arcū. Hor.

## VERSIFICATION.

FEET.
\$302. A foot is a combination of two or more syllables of a certain quantity.

Feet are either simple or compound. Simple feet consist of two or three syllables; compound feet of four.

## I. SIMPLE FEET.

## 1. Of two Syllables.



## 2. Of three Syllables.



## II. COMPOUND FEET.



Those feet are called isochronous, which consist of equal times; as the spondee, the dactyl, the anaprst, and the proceleusmatic, one long time being considered equal to two short.

## METRE.

§ 303. Metre is an arrangement of syllables and feet according to certain rules.

In this general sense, it comprehends either an entire verse, a part of a verse, or any number of verses.

Metre is divided into dactylic, anapastic, iambic, trochaic, choriambic, and Ionic. These names are derived from the original or fundamental foot employed in each.

A metre, or measure, in a specific sense, is either a single foot, or a combination of two feet. In dactylic, choriambic, and Ionic metre, a measure consists of one foot; in the remainder, of two feet.

## VERSES.

§ 304. A verse is a certain number of feet; arranged in a regular order, and constituting a line of poetry.

1. Two verses are called a distich; a half verse, a hemistich.
2. Verses are of different kinds, denominated sometimes, like the different species of metre, from the foot which chiefly predominates in them; as, dactylic, iambic, \&c. ;-sometimes from the number of feet or metres which they contain; as, senarius, consisting of six feet; octonarius, of eight feet; monomĕter, consisting of one measure; dimĕter, of two; trimĕter, tetramĕter, pentamĕter, hexamĕter;-sometimes from a celebrated author who used a particular species ; as, Sapphic, Anacreontic, Alcaic, Asclepiadic, \&c.;-and sometimes from other circumstances.
3. A verse, with respect to the metres which it contains, may be complete, deficient, or redundant.
A verse which is complete is called acatalectic.
A verse which is deficient, if it wants one syllable at the end, is called catalectic; if it wants a whole foot or half a metre, it is called brachycatalectic.

A verse which wants a syllable at the beginning, is called acephalous.

A verse which has a redundant syllable or foot, is called hypercatalectic or hypermeter.
4. Hence, the complete name of every verse consists of three terms-the first referring to the species, the second to the number of metres, and the third to the ending; as, the dactylic trimeter catalectic.
5. A verse or portion of a verse (measured from the beginning of a line) which contains three half feet, or a foot and a half, is called the triemimëris; if it contains five half feet, or two feet and a half, it is called the penthemimëris; if seven half feet, or three feet and a half, the hepthemimĕris; if nine half feet, or four feet and a half, the ennehemimëris.
6. Scanning is the dividing of a verse into the feet of which it is composed.

In order to scan correctly, it is necessary to know the quantity of each syllable, and also to understand the following poetic usages, which are sometimes called

## FIGURES OF PROSODY.

## SYNALOEPHA.

§305. 1. A final vowel or diphthong is cut off in scanning, when the following word begins with a vowel. This is called synalopha.

Thus, terra antīqua is read terr' antĩqua ; Dardaň̌de infensi, Dardanid' infensi; vento huc, vent' uc. So,

Quidve moror? si omnes uno ordĭne habētis Achīvos,.... Virg.
which is scanned thus-
Quidve moror? s' omnes un' ordin' habētis Achīvos.
The interjections $O$, heu, ah, proh, va, vah, are not elided; as, $\bar{O}$ et de Latiâ, $\bar{O}$ et de gente Sabīná. Ovid.
But $O$, when not elided, is sometimes made short; as,
Te Cory̆ don $\check{\text { O Alexi ; trahit sua quemque voluptas. Virg. }}$
Other long vowels and diphthongs sometimes remain unelided, in which case they are commonly made short; as,

> Victor apud rapǐdum Simoënta sub Iliö alto. Virg.Anni tempŏre eo qu冗 Etesiĕ esse feruntur. Lucr. Ter sunt conāt $\bar{\imath}$ imponĕre Peliŏ Ossam. Virg. ©́laucō̄ et Panopēॅé, et Inōo Melicertæ. Id.

Rarely a short vowel, also, remains without elision; as,
Et vera incessu patuit deă. Ille ubi matrem.... Virg.
For synalœpha at the end of a line, see Synapheia, § 307, 3.

## ECTHLIPSIS.

2. Final $m$, with the preceding vowel, is cut off when the following word begins with a vowel. This is called ecthlipsis. Thus,

O curas homĭnum, O quantum est in rebus inane! Pers.
which is thus scanned,
$\mathbf{O}$ curas homĭn' O quant' est in rebus ināne.
Monstrum horrendum, informe, ingens, cui lumen ademptum. Virg.
This elision was sometimes omitted by the early poets; as,
Corpør ŭm officium est quoniam preměre omnia deorsum. Lucr.
See § 299,2
Final $s$, also, with the preceding vowel, is sometimes elided by the early poets before a vowel, and sometimes $s$ alone before a consonant ; as, content' atque (Enn.), for contentus atque ; omň̌bu' rebus. (Lucr.) So,

Tum lateräli' dolor, certisstmu' nunciu' mortis. Lucil.
For ecthlipsis at the end of a line, see Synapheia, § 307, 3.

## SYNARESIS．

§306．1．Two vowels which are usually separated，are sometimes contracted into ore syllable．This is called synar－ ěsis．

Thus，in such case，
Phaethon is pronounced Phathon；alveo，alvo；Orphea，Orpha．So， Aured percussum virgâ，versumque venēnis．Virg． Eosdem habuit secum，quibus est elãta，capillos．Prop．
（1．）Synæresis is frequent in ii，ĩdem，iisdem，dii，diis，dein，deinceps， deinde，deest，de厄̌rat，deëro，de厄̈rit，deesse；as，

Præcipitātur aquis，et aquis nox surgit ab isdem．Ovid．
Sint Mæcenātes ；non deĕrunt，Flacce，Marōnes．Mart．
Cui and huic are usually monosyllables．
（2．）When two vowels in compound words are read as one syllable，the former may rather be considered as elided than as united with the latter； as，$e$ in anteambülo，antē̃re，antěhac，dehinc，mehercŭle，\＆c．，and $a$ in con－ traīre．
（3．）The syllable formed by the union of two vowels often retains the quantity of the latter vowel，whether long or short；as，aliëte，ariĕte， abiègne，vindemiātor，omnia；genua，tcnuis，pituīta，fluviōrum，\＆c．In such examples，the $i$ and $u$ are pronounced like initial $y$ and $v o$ ；as，abyěte， omn－ya，tenwois，pitwīta，\＆c．；and，like consonants，they have，with another consonant，the power of lengthening a preceding short vowel，as in the above examples．

In Statius，the word tenuiōre occurs，in which three vowels are united in pronunciation；thus，ten－wiō－re．
（4．）Sometimes，after a synalœpha or echthlipsis，two vowels suffer synæresis ；as，stellio et，pronounced stell－yet ：consilium et，－consil－yet．
（5．）If only one of the vowels is written，the contraction is called crasis ；as，$d \hat{\imath}$, consilî，for dii，consilii．

## DIERESIS．

2．A syllable is often divided into two syllables．This is called diarĕsis．Thus，
aulā̃，Trờ̛a，silŭa，sŭddent；for aula，Trō̄a or Troja，silva，suadent． So，

不thereum sensum，atque aurā̃ simplĭcis ignem．Virg．
Et claro silŭas cernes Aquilōne movēri．Id．
Grammatīci certant；et adhuc sub iudřce lis est．Hor．
So in Greek words originally written with a diphthong；as，elegeè $a$ ，for elegĩa．

## SYSTOLE．

§ 30\％．1．A syllable which is long by nature or by posi－ tion，is sometimes shortened．This is called systolle；as，
vide＇n，for videsne，in which $e$ is naturally long；saty＇n，for satisne，in which $i$ is long by position ；－hŏdie，for hoc die；mulť̃ mŏdis，for multts modis．So，

Ducěre multrmơdis voces，et flecterre cantus．Lucr．
（1．）By the omission of $j$ after $a b, a d, o b, s u b$ ，and $r e$ ，in compound
words, those prepositions retain their short quantity, which would otherwise be made long by position; as, ăbrci, ădiccit, ollı̌̌cis, \&c. Thus,

Si quid nostra tuis adicit vexatio rebus. Mart.
In like manner, by rejecting the consonant of the preposition, ăperio, operio, omitto, \&c., are formed by systole.
(2.) The third person plural of certain perfects is said by some to be shortened by systole; as, stetěrunt, tulěrunt, \&̌c.; but others believe that these irregularities have arisen from the errors of transcribers, or the carelessness of writers.

## DIASTOLE.

2. $\Lambda$ syllable naturally short, is sometimes lengthened. This is called diastŏle.

It occurs most frequently in proper names and in compounds of re; as, Priam̌des, rēligio, \&c. Thus, Hanc tibi Prīam̌̌des mitto, Ledæa, salūtem. Ovid. Religiōne patrum multos servāta per annos. Virg.
Some editors double the consonant after $r e$.
Diastole is sometimes called ectăsis.

## SYNAPHEIA.

3. Verses are sometimes connected together so that the first syllable of a verse has an influence on the final syllable of that which precedes, either by position, synalœpha, or ecthlipsis. See $\$ \$ 283$ and 305 . This is called synapheia.

This figure was most frequent in anapæstic verse, and in the Ionic a minōre.

The following lines will illustrate its effect:-
Præcèps silvas montesque fugit
Citus Actæon. Sen.
The $i$ in the final syllable of fugit, which is naturally short, is made long by position before the following consonants.

Omnia Mercurio siminlis vocemque coloremque
Et crines flavos.....Virg.
Dissǐdens plebi numěro beatōrum
Exĭmit virtus. Hor.
In the former of these examples, synapheia and synalœpha are combined; in the latter, synapheia and ecthlipsis.

By synapheia, the pasts of a compound word were sometimes divided between two verses; as,

Quemque poetãrum limæ labor et mora.... Hor.
Rem. The poets, also, often make use of some other figures, which, however, are not peculiar to them. Such are prosthësis, apharěsis, syncrppe, cpenthĕsis, apocŏpe, paragöge, tmesis, antithěsis, and metathěsis. . See § $32 \%$.

## ARSIS AND THESIS.

§ 308. In pronouncing the syllables of verse, the voice rises and falls alternately at regular intervals. This regular
alternate elevation and depression of the voice is called rhythm. The elevation of the voice is called arsis, its depression thesis. These terms sometimes, also, designate the parts of a foot on which the elevation or depression falls.

1. The natural arsis is on the long syllable of a foot: consequently, in a foot composed wholly of long, or of short syllables, considered in itself, the place of the arsis is undetermined. But when another foot is substituted for the fundamental foot of a metre, the arsis of the former is determined by that of the latter.

Hence, a spondee, in trochaic or dactylic metre, has the arsis on the first syllable; but in iambic or anapæstic metre, it has it on the last.
2. The arsis is either equal in duration to the thesis, or twice as long.

Thus, in the dactyl, - し , and anapæst, $\smile \smile-$, they are equal ; in the trochee, $-\smile$, and iambus, $\smile-$, they are unequal. This difference in the duraticn of the arsis and thesis constitutes the difference of rhythm.
3. The stress of voice which falls upon the arsis of a foot, is called the ictus. When a long syllable in the arsis of a foot is resolved into two short ones, the ictus falls upon the former.

Note 1. Some suppose that the terms arsis and thesis, as used by the ancients, denoted respectively the rising and falling of the hand in beating time, and that the place of the thesis was the syllable which received the ictus.

Note 2. As the ancient pronunciation of Latin is not now understood, writers differ in regard to the mode of reading verse. According to some, the accent of each word should always be preserved; while others direct that the stress of voice should be laid on the arsis of the foot, and that no regard should be paid to the accent.
It is generally supposed that the final letters elided by synalœpha and ecthlipsis, though omitted in scanning, were pronounced in reading verse.

## Cessura.

\$309. Cesura is the separation, by the ending of a word, of syllables rhythmically or metrically connected.

Cæsura is of three kinds:-1, of the foot ; 2, of the rhythm; and 3 , of the verse.

1. Cæsura of the foot occurs when a word ends before a foot is completed ; as,

Silves-| trem tenu-|i Mu-| sam medi-| taris a-| vêna. Virg.
2. Cæsura of the rhythm is the separation of the arsis from the thesis by the ending of a word, as in the second, third, and fourth feet of the preceding line.

Cæsura of the rhythm allows a final syllable naturally short, to stand instead of a long one, it being lengthened by the ictus; as,

Pectorī-| lŭs inhi-| ans spi-| rantia | consŭlit | exta. Virg.
This occurs chiefly in hexameter verse.
Cæsura of the foot and of the verse do not of themselves lengthen a short syllable, but they often coincide with that of the rhythm.
3. Cæsura of the verse is such a division of a line into two parts, as affords to the voice a convenient pause or rest, without injury to the sense or harmony.

The cæsura of the verse is often called the casural pause. In several kinds of verse, its place is fixed ; in others, it may fall in more than one place, and the choice is left to the poet. Of the former kind is the pentameter, of the latter the hexameter.

The proper place of the cæsural pause will be treated of, so far as shan be necessary, under each species of verse.

Remark. The effect of the cæsura is to connect the different words harmoniously together, and thus to give smoothness, grace, and sweetness, to the rerse.

## DIFFERENT KINDS OF METRE.

## DACTYLIC METRE.

§310. I. A hexameter, or heroic verse, consists of six feet. Of these the fifth is a dactyl, the sixth a spondee, and each of the other four either a dactyl or a spondee; as,
 Īntōn- | sī crī-| nēs lōn-| gã cēr-| vīcě flŭ-| ēbānt. Tỉull.


1. The fifth foot is sometimes a spondee, and the verse in such case is called spondaic; as,

Cāră dě-| ūm sǒbŏ-| lēs mãg-| nūm Jŏvĭs | īncrē-| mēntūm. Virg.
In such verses, the fourth foot is commonly a dactyl, and the fifth should not close with the end of a word. Spondaic lines are thought to be especially adapted to the expression of grave and solemn subjects.
2. A light and rapid movement is produced by the frequent recurrence of dactyls; a slow and heavy one by that of spondees ; as,

Quadrupe-| dante pu-| trem sonĭ-| tu quatit | ungŭla | campum. Virg. Illi in-| ter se-| se mag-| nâ vi | brachia|tollunt. Id.
Variety in the use of dactyls and spondees in successive lines, has an agreeable effect. Hexameter verse commonly ends in a word of two or three syllables.
3. The beauty and harmony of hexameter verse depend much on due attention to the casura. (See §309.) A line in which it is neglected is destitute of poetic beauty, and can hardly be distinguished from prose; as,

Romæ | mœnia | terruit | impĭger | Hannĭbal | armis. Enn.
4. The cæsural pause most approved in heroic poetry is that which occurs after the arsis in the third foot. This is particularly distinguished as the heroic casura. Thus,

At domus | interı-| or || re-| gãli| splendĭda | luxu. Virg.
5. Instead of the preceding, a cæsura in the thesis of the third foot, or after the arsis of the fourth, was also approved as heroic ; as,

Infan-| dum re-| gīna $|\mid$ ju-| bes reno-| vãre do-| lōrem. Virg.
Inde to-| ro pater | Ænē | as || sic |orsus ab |alto. Id.
When the cæsural pause occurs, as in the latter example, after the arsis of the fourth foot, another but slighter one is often found in the second foot ; as,
Prima te-| net, || plau-| süque vo-| lat || fremi-| tūque se-| cundo. Virg.
6. The cæsura after the third foot was least approved; as, Cui non | dictus Hy-| las puer || et La-| tonia | Delos. Virg.
The cæsural pause between the fourth and fifth feet is termed the bucolic cæsura.

Note 1. The cæsura after the arsis is sometimes called the masculine sæsura; that in the thesis, the fominine or trochaic, as a trochee immediately precedes.

Note 2. In the principal cæsura of the verse, poets frequently introduce a pause in the sense, which must be attended to, in order to determine the place of the cæsural pause. For in the common place for the cæsura in the third foot, there is often a cæsura of the foot ; while, in the fourth foot, a still more marked division occurs. In this case, the latter is to be considered as the principal cæsura, and distinguished accordingly; as,

Belli | ferrā-| tos pos-| tes, || por-| tasque re-| frēgit. Hor.
II. The Priapean is usually accounted a species of hexameter. It is so constructed as to be divisible into two portions of three feet each, having generally a trochee in the first and fourth foot, and an amphimacer in the third; as,
$\bar{o}$ cǒ- | lōnĭă | qū̄̄ cŭpīs || pōntě | lüděré | lōngō. Catull.
It is, however, more properly considered as choriambic metre, consisting of alternate Glyconics and Pherecratics. See § 316, IV. V.

Note. A regular hexameter verse is termed Priapéan, when it is so constructed as to be divisible into two portions of three feet each; as,

Tertia | pars pa-| tri data | pars data | tertia | patri. Catull.
See above, 6 .
§311. III. A pentameter verse consists of five feet.
It is generally, however, divided, in scanning, into two hemistichs, the first consisting of two feet, either dactyls or spondees,
followed by a long syllable ; the last of two dactyls, also followed by a long syllable ; as,

> Nâta-| ræ̈ sěquĭ-| tar || sêminna | quisquě sǔ-| | m. Prop. |
| :---: | Carminnĭ-| būs vī-| vēs || têmpŭs în | ōmně mě- $\mid$ ìs. Ovid.

1. According to the more ancient and correct mode of scanning pentameter verse, it consists of five feet, of which the first and second may each be a dactyl or a spondee; the third is always a spondee; and the fourth and fifth are anapæsts; as,
Cârmĭnĭ-| būs vī-| vēs || tēm- | pŭs ǐn ōm-| ně mêìs.
2. The cæsura, in pentameter verse, always occurs after the penthemimeris, $i$. e. at the close of the first hemistich. It very rarely lengthens a short syllable.
3. The pentameter rarely ends with a word of three syllables. In Ovid, it usually ends with a dissyllable.

This species of verse is seldom used, except in connection with hexameter, a line of each recurring alternately. This combination is called elegiac verse. Thus,

Flebĭlis indignos, Elegera, solve capillos. Ah nimis ex vero nunc tibi nomen erit! Ovid.
§312. IV. The tetrameter a priöre, or Alcmanian dactylic tetrameter, consists of the first four feet of a hexameter, of which the fourth is always a dactyl ; as,

> Gãrrŭlă | pēr rā-| mōs åvǐs | ōbstrěpŭt. Sen.
V. The tetrameter a posteriōre, or spondaic tetrameter, consists of the last four feet of a hexameter ; as,

$$
\text { Ībĭmŭs, | } \overline{\mathbf{o}} \text { sǒcǐ-| } \overline{\mathrm{i}} \text {, cǒmì-| tēsque. Hor. }
$$

VI. The dactylic trimeter consists of the last three feet of a hexameter; as,

## Grātō | Pȳrrhă sŭb \| antro. Hor.

But this kind of verse is more properly included in choriambic metre. See § $316, \mathrm{~V}$.
VII. The trimeter catalectic, or Archilochian penthemimeris, consists of the first five half feet of a hexameter, but the first two feet are commony dactyls; as,

Pūlv̌̆s ět | ùmbră sú-| mus. Hor.
VIII. The dactylic dimeter, or Adonic, consists of two feet, a dactyl and a spondee; as,

Rísitt $\widehat{\text { A }}$ - | pöllo. Hor.
ANAPESTIC METRE.
\$313. I. The anapæstic monometer consists of two anapæsts; as,

Ŭlŭlās-| sĕ cănēs. Scn.
II. The anapastic dimeter consists of two measures, or four anapæsts; as,

Phărĕtrē्ल-| quě grăvēs | dătě s̄̄̄-| vă fëro...... Scn.
The first foot in each measure of anapæstic metre was very often changed to a dactyl or a spondee, and the second foot often to a spondee, and, in a few instances, to a dactyl.

Anapæstic verses are generally so constructed that each measure ends with a word, so that they may be written and read in lines of one, two, or more measures.

## IAMBIC METRE.

\$314. I. The iambic trimeter, or senarius, consists of three iambic measures, or six iambic feet ; as,

Phăsē- ! lŭs īl- [ ľ, || quēm | vĭdē- | tŭs, hōs- | pĭtēs..... Catull.
The cæsura commonly occurs after the fifth semi-foot.
The pure iambic measure was seldom used. To give to this metre greater slowness and dignity, spondees were introduced into the first, third, and fifth places; and in every foot except the last, which was always an iambic, a long syllable was often changed into two short ones, so that an anapæst or a dactyl was used for a spondee, and a tribrach for an iambus; as,

Quō, quō | scělēs-| tī rŭŭ-| tǐs? aût | cūr dēx-| těrīs.... Hor.
Ālĭtì- | bŭs āt-| quě cǎnĭ- | bŭs hŏmĭ- | cīda Hêc- | tơrēm...... Id.
Sometimes, also, a proceleusmatic was used in the first place for a spondee. The writers of comedy, satire, and fable, admitted the spondee and its equivalents (the dactyl and anapæst) into the second and fourth places, as well as the first, third, and fifth.
II. The scazon, or choliambus (lame iambic), is the iambic trimeter, with a spondee in the sixth foot, and generally an iambus in the fifth; as,

Cŭr in | thěă- | trüm, Catơ, | sěvē- | rě vē-| nīstī ? Ăn ǐdè-|ŏ tăn- | tūm vên-| èrās | ưt êx-|îrēs? Mart.
This species of verse is also called Hipponactic trimeter.
III. The iambic tetrameter, or octonarius, called also quadratus, a measure used by the comic poets, consists of four iambic measures, subject to the same variations as the iambic trimeter (I.) ; as,

IV. The iambic tetrameter catalectic, or Hipponactic, is the iambic tetrameter, wanting the last syllable, and naving always an iambus in the seventh place, but admitting in the other places the same variations as the trimeter and tetrameter; as,

V. The iambic trimeter catalectic, or Archilochian, is the iambic trimeter (I.), wanting the final syllable. Like the common iambic trimeter, it admits a spondee into the first and third places, but not into the fifth; as,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Vơcā-| tüs ăt-| quẽ nōn | vơcâ-| tŭs aū-| dit. Hor. }
\end{aligned}
$$

VI. The iambic dimeter consists of two iambic measures, with the same variations as the iambic trimeter (I.); as,

Förtī | séquēe I mür pêc-| tơre. Hor.


The iambic dimeter is also called the Archilochian dimeter.
VII. The iambic dimeter hypermeter, called also Archilochian, is the iambic dimeter, with an additional syllable at the end ; as,

Rědē-| gĭt ăd | vērōs | tĭmō- | rês. Hor.
Horace always makes the third foot a spondee.
VIII. The iambic dimeter acephalous is the iambic dimeter, wanting the first syllable ; as,
Nōn | ĕbūr | něque āū-| rěum..... Hor.

This kind of verse is sometimes scanned as a catalectic trochaic dimeter. See § 315, IV.
IX. The iambic dimeter catalectic, or Anacreontic, is the iambic dimeter, wanting the final syllable, and having always an iambus in the third foot; as,

Ǔt tī- $\mid$ gris ōr- \| b̆ gnā- | tīs. Sen.
X. The Galliambus consists of two iambic dimeters catalectic, the last of which wants the final syllable.

The first foot is generally a spondee or an anapæst ; the catalectic syllable at the end of the first dimeter is long, and the second foot of the second dimeter is commonly a tribrach; as,

Sŭpěr âl-| tă vēc-| tưs $\overline{\mathbf{A}}-\mid$ ty̆s || célěrī | rătě mă-| rǐa. Catull.
The cæsura uniformly occurs at the end of the first dimeter.

## TROCHAIC METRE.

\$315. Trochaic verses bear a near affinity to iambics. The addition or retrenchment of a syllable at the beginning of a pure iambic verse, renders it pure trochaic, and the addition or retrenchment of a syllable at the beginning of a pure trochac line, renders it pure rambic, with the deficiency or redundancy of a syllable in each case at the ena of the verse.
I. The trochaic tetrametcr catalectic is the most common trochaic metre. It consists of seven feet, followed by a cata lectic syllable. In the odd places, it admits a tribrach, but in the seventh a trochee only. In the even places, besides the
tribrach, it admits also a spondee, a dactyl, an anapæst, and sometimes a proceleusmatic ; as,

Jūssŭs | ēst ĭn-| ērmĭs | īrĕ : || pūrŭs | īrě | jūssŭs | ēst. Catull.
Rōmŭ-| l̄̄̄̄s | īpsă | fêcīt || cūm Să-| bīnīs | nụptĭ-| ās. Id.
Dănǎĭ-| dēs, cơ-| ītě; | vēstrās || hīc dǐ-| ēs quǣ®-| rīt mă-| nūs. Sen.
The pure trochaic verse was rarely used. The cæsural pause uniformly occurs after the fourth foot. The comic writers introduced the spondee and its equivalent feet into the odd places.

The complete trochaic tetrameter properly consists of eight feet, all trochees, subject, however, to the same variations as the catalectic tetrameter; as,

II. The Sapphic verse, invented by the poetess Sappho, consists of five feet-the first a trochee, the second a spondee, the third a dactyl, and the fourth and fifth trochees; as,

Sappho, and, after her example, Catullus, sometimes made the second foot a trochee.

Those Sapphics are most harmonious which have the cæsura after the fifth semi-foot.

Note. In the composition of the Sapphic stanza, a word is sometimes divided between the end of the third Sapphic, and the beginning of the Adonic which follows; as,

> Lăbǐ-| tūr rīl| pă Jŏvě | nōn prǒ-| bānte uxorǐ̆s | ámnis. Hor.

This occurs only in Catullus and Horace; and it has been thought by some that such lines should be considered as one verse of seven feet, the fifth foot being either a spondee or a trochee.
III. The Phalacian verse consists of five feet-the first a spondee, the second a dactyl, and the three others trochees; as, Nōn ēst | vīverrě, | sēd vă- | lêré | vītǎ. Murt.
Instead of a spondee as the first foot, Catullus sometimes uses a trochee or an iambus. This writer also sometimes uses a spondee in the second place.

The Phalacian verse is sometimes called hendecasyllabic, as consisting of eleven syllables; but that name does not exclusively belong to it.
IV. The trochaic dimeter catalectic consists of three feet, properly all trochees, but admitting in the second place a spondee or a dactyl; as,

> Nōn ě- | būr ně- | que āūrĕ- | um. Hor.

Note. This measure is the same as the acephalous iambic dimeter (see §314, VIII.), and it is not important whether it be regarded as iambic or trochaic.

## CHORIAMBIC METRE.

\$316. I. The choriambic pentameter consists of a spondee, three choriambi, and an iambus; as,

II. The choriambic tetrameter consists of three choriambi, or feet of equal length, and a Bacchius; as,

In this verse Horace substituted a spondee for the iambus contained in the first choriambus; as,

III. The Asclepiadic tetrameter (invented by the poet Asclepiădes) consists of a spondee, two choriambi, and an iambus; as,

> Mǣcē- | nãs, a atǎ vīs || êdĭtě rēg-| ĭbus. Hor.

This form is invariably observed by Horace ; but other poets sometimes, though rarely, make the first foot a dactyl.

The cæsural pause occurs at the end of the first choriambus.
This measure is sometimes scanned as a dactylic pentameter catalectic. See $\$ 311$, III. Thus,

> Mæccē-| nãs, ǎtă-| vīs || êdǐtě | rêgĭbŭs.
IV. The choriambic trimeter, or Glyconic (invented by the poet Glyco), consists of a spondee, a choriambus, and an iambus; as,

Sic té \| diva pottens | Cy̆prī.... Hor.
The first foot is sometimes an iambus or a trochee.
When the first foot is a spondee, the other feet are sometimes scanned as dactyls. Thus,

> Sice tẽ | dīvă px̌| tēns Č̌pri.
V. The choriambic trimeter catalectic, or Pherecratic (so called from the poet Pherecrătes), is the Glyconic deprived of its final syllable, and consists of a spondee, a choriambus, and a catalectic syllable; as,

Grãtō | P̄̄ rrhă sŭb ăn-| trō. Hor.
The first foot was sometimes a trochee or an iambus.
When the first foot is a spondee, this measure is sometimes seanned as a dactylic trimeter. See § 312, VI.

The Pherecratic subjoined to the Glyconic produces the Priapean verse. See § 310, II.
VI. The choriambic dimeter consists of a choriambus and a Bacchius; as,

Lȳ dĭ̌ dīe | pèr ōmnēs. Hor.

## IONIC METRE.

§317. I. The Ionic a majōre, or Sotadic (from the poet Sotădes), consists of three greater Ionics and a spondee.

The Ionic feet, however, are often changed into ditrochees, and a long syllable into two short ones; as,


II. The Ionic a minöre consists generally of three or four feet, which are all smaller Ionics as,


## COMPOUND METRES.

§318. Compound metre is the union of two species of metre in the same verse.
I. The dactylico-iambic metre consists of a dactylic trimeter catalectic ( $\$ 312$, VII.) and an iambic dimeter ( $\$ 314$, VI.) ; as,

Scrīběrĕ | vêrsičư- | lōs || àmō-| rĕ pêr-| câlsūm | grăvī.... Hor.
II. The iambico-dactylic metre consists of the same members as the preceding, but in a reversed order; as,
Nîvès-| quĕ dẽ-| dūcunt | Jơvêm: || nūnc mărě, | nŭnc silŭ- | æ. Hor.
Note. The members composing this and the preceding species of verse are often written in separate verses.
III. The greater Alcaic consists of two iambic feet, and a long catalectic syllable followed by a choriambus, and an iambus; as,

> Vĭdēs | ŭt ăl-| ta || stēt nĭvě cān-| dĭdum. Hor.

The first foot is oflen a spondee.
The cessura uniformly occurs after the catalectic syliable.
This verse is sometimes so scanned as to make the last two feet dactyls.
IV. The dactylico-trochaic, or Archilochian heptameter, consists of the dactylic tetrameter a priöre ( $\$ 312$ ), followed by three trochees ; as,

Sōlv̌̌tưr | acrĭs hî- | ēms grā-| tã vǐcĕ || vērìs | èt Fă-| vōnî. Hor.
The cæsura occurs between the two members.
V. The dactylico-trochaic tetrameter, or lesser Alcaic, consists of two dactyls, followed by two trochees; as, Lēvǐa | pērsōnŭ- | ērẽ | săxa. Hor.

## COMBINATION OF VERSES IN POEMS.

\$319. A poem may consist of one or more kinds of verse.
A poem in which only one kind of verse is employed, is called carmen monocōlon; that which has two kinds, dicōlon; that which has three kinds, tricōlon.

When the poem returns, after the second line, to the same verse with which it began, it is called diströphon; when after the third line, tristrŏphon; and when after the fourth, tetrastrŏphon.
The several verses which occur before the poem returns to
the kind of verse with which it began, constitute a stanza or strophe.

A poem consisting of two kinds of verse, when the stanza contains two verses, is called dicōlon distrophon, (see § 320 , Syn. 3 ;) when it contains three, dicōlon tristrophon, (Auson. Profess. 21 ;) when four, dicōlon tetrastrorphon, (Syn. 2;) and when five, dicōlon pentastrơphon.

A poem consisting of three kinds of verse, when the stanza contains three verses, is called tricolon triströphon, (Syn. 15 ;) when four, tricolon tetraströphon, (Syn. 1.)

## HORATIAN METRES.

§ 320. The different species of metre used by Horace in his lyric compositions are twenty. The various forms in which he has employed them, either separate or in conjunction, are nineteen, arranged, according to the order of preference given to them by the poet, in the following

## SYNOPSIS.

1. Two greater Alcaics ( $\$ 318$, III.), one Archilochian iambic dimeter hypermeter ( $\$ 314$, VII.), and one lesser Alcaic (§ 318, V.) ; as,

> Vĭdēs, ŭt âltả stēt nĭvě cāndĭdum Sōrāctě, nēc jām sūstĭněānt ǒnŭs
> Sīlvǣ lăbōrāntēs, gělūquě
> Flūmĭnă cōnstītěrīnt ăcūto. (Lib. 1, 9.)

This is called the Horatian stanza, because it seems to have been a favorite with Horace, being used in thirty-seven of his odes.
2. Three Sapphics (§315, II.) and one Adonic (§312, VIII.) ; as,

> Jãm sǎtīs têrrīs nĭvǐs âtquě dīræ
> Grāndĭnīs mīsīt pătěr, êt, rŭbēntě
> Dēxterrâ sâcrăs jăcưlâtứs âces, Tērrŭ̆̀ ürbem.
> (Lib. 1, 2.)
3. One Glyconic ( $\$ 316$, IV.) and one Asclepiadic (§316, III.) ; as,

> Sīc tē Dīvă pơtēns Cy̆pri,
> Sic frâtrês Hělěnæ̈, lucǐdă sīděra.... (Lib. 1, 3.)
4. One iambic trimeter ( $\$ 314, \mathrm{I}$ ) and one iambic dimeter (§ 314, VI.) ; as,

> Ībīs Ľ̌būrnīs īntĕr ăltă nāvǐum, Âmīcê, prōpūgnãcưla.
(Epod. 1.)
5. Three Asclepiadics ( $\$ 316$, III.) and one Glyconic (§ 316 , IV.) ; as,

> Scrībērīs Varīō förtĭs, ět hōstíum
> Víctōr, Mळơnĭì cârmĭnĭs ālĭti,
> Quām rẻm cūmquĕ fěrōx nāvỉbŭs aut êquis Mîlēs, tē dưcé, gēssěrit.
> (Lib. 1, 6.)
6. Two Asclepiadics (\$ 316, III.), one Pherecratic (\$316, V.), and one Glyconic (\$316, IV.); as,

Dīănåm, těněræ, dīcǐtě vìrgĭnes: İntōnsüm, pŭěrī, dīcĭté $\mathbf{C} \overline{\mathrm{y}}$ nthĭum,

Látōnãmquě sŭprēmo
Dĩlēctãm pěnĭtūs Jŏvi.
(Lib. 1, 21.)
7. The Asclepiadic (\$316, III.) alone ; as, Mø̄cēnăs a xtavis editité regibus.
(Lib. 1, 1.)
8. One dactylic hexameter ( $\$ 310, \mathrm{I}$.) and one dactylic tetrameter a posteriōre (§ 312, V.) ; as,

9. The choriambic pentameter ( $\$ 316$, I.) alone ; as,

Tu nê quēsièřiss, scîrè néfàs, quèm mĭhí, quêm tỉbi.... (Lib. 1, 11.)
10. One dactylic hexameter ( $\$ 310$, I.) and one iambic dimeter (\$314, VI.) ; as,

> Nōx êrăt, ēt ceêlō fūlgēbāt lunnă sěrēno Intēr minnūră sīděra.
(Epod. 15.)
11. The iambic trimeter (§ 314, I.) alone; as, Jam, jan êfficcacici dō mảnus scièntị̂.
(Epod. 17.)
12. One choriambic dimeter ( $\$ 316$, VI.) and one choriambic tetrameter (§316, II.) with a variation; as,

> Lȳd̆ŭ, dīc, pêr ōmnes
> Tē Dēōs ōrō, Sy̆ bărīn cūr prơpĕrās ămãndo.... (Lib. 1, 8.)
13. One dactylic hexameter ( $\$ 310$, I.) and one iambic trimeter ( $\$ 314, \mathrm{I}$ ) ; as,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Sŭis ět īpsă Rōmă vīríbūs rŭit. }
\end{aligned}
$$

(Epod. 16.)
14. One dactylic hexameter ( $\$ 310$, I.) and one dactylic trimeter catalectic (§312, VII.) ; as,

> Dīffuggērè nǐvēs : rěděưnt jãm grămĭnă cāmpīs,
> Ārboribūsquê cơmæ.
> (Lib. 4. 7.)
15. One iambic trimeter ( $\$ 314, \mathrm{I}$.), one dactylic trimeter catalectic ( $§ 312$, VII.), and one iambic dimeter (§314, VI.) ; as,

Pēttí, nĭhīl mē, sīcŭt ăntēã, jŭvat
Scrīběrě vērsǐcŭlos, Amōre pērrcūlsūm grǎvi.
(Epod. 11.)
Note. The second and third lines are often written as one verse. See § 318, I.
16. One dactylic hexameter ( $\$ 310, \mathrm{I}$ ), one iambic dimeter (§ $314, \mathrm{VI}$. ), and one dactylic trimeter catalectic ( $§ 312, \mathrm{VII}$.$) ;$ as,

Hōrrĭdă tēmpēstās cōlūm cōntrãxǐt; ět ìmbres
Nĩvēsquě dēdūcûnt Jǒvem :
Nūnc mărě, nūnc sĭlŭæ....
(Epod. 13.)

Note. The second and third lines of this stanza, also, are often written as one verse. See § 318, II.
17. One Archilochian heptameter ( $\$ 318$, IV.) and one iambic trimeter catalectic ( $\$ 314, \mathrm{~V}$.) ; as,

> Sōlvǐtŭr ăcrǐs hêēms grâtă vǐcẽ vērǐs êt Faxōni,
> Trăhưntquĕ sīccās mãchĭn̄̄ cărīnas.
> (Lib. 1, 4.)
18. One iambic dimeter acephalous ( $\$ 314$, VIII.) and one iambic trimeter catalectic ( $\$ 314, V$.$) ; as,$

> Nōn ěbūr něque āūrěum Mêã rěnī̀ét in dǒmō lăcunar.
(Lib. 2, 18.)


## §321. A METRICAL KEY TO THE ODES OF HORACE,

Containing, in alphabetic order, the first words of each, with a
reference to the numbers in the preceding Synopsis, where the
metre is explained.

$$
\text { Ali, vetusto......................No. }{ }^{\text {II }} \mid \text { Icci, beātis ............................ } 1
$$

Æquam memento.
Albi, ne doleas ..................... 5
Altěra jam terǐtur ................. 13
Angustam, amīci ................. 1
At, O deōrum . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 4
Audivēre, Lyce .................... 6
Bacchum in remōtis ............. 1
Beătus ille ....................... 4
Cœlo supinas . ...................... 1
Cœlo tonantem . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1
Cùm tu, Lydia .................... 3
Cur me querēlis ................... 1
Delicta majōrum ................... 1
Descende ccelo . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1
Diănam, teněræ.................... 6
Diffugēre nives .................... 14
Dive, quem proles ................. 2
Divis orte bonis ................... 5
Donārem patęras................. 7
Donec gratus eram ............... 3
Cheu! fugāces...................... 1
Est mihi nonum ................ 2
Et thure et fidĭbus................. 3
Exēgi monumentum ............... 7
Extrêmum Tanaim . . . . . . . . . . . . 5
Faune, nymphārum ............. 2
Festo quid potius die ............. 3
Hercŭlis ritu . . . . . . . . . ............. 2
Horrída tempestas . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 16
Ibis Liburnis ..................... $4 \mid$
Ille et nefasto..................... 1
Impios parræ . .................... 2
Inclüsam Danaën ................ 5
Intactis opulentior ................. 3
Intĕger vita ........................ 2
Intermissa, Venus, diu .......... 3
Jam jam efficăci . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 11
Jam pauca aratro ................. 1
Jam satis terris..................... . 2
Jam veris comites ................. 5
Justum et tenācem ................ 1
Laudābunt alii ...................... 8
Lupis et agnis ...................... 4
Lydia, dic, per omnes ............ 12
Mæcēnas atăvis ................. 7
Malâ soluta ......................... 4
Martiis cælebs.................... 2
Mater sæva Cupidĭnum .......... 3
Mercŭri, facunde .................. ${ }_{2}^{2}$
Mercŭri, nam te..................... 2
Miserarum est ......................... 19
Mollis inertia...................... 10
Montium custos . .................. 2
Motum ex Metello................. 1
Musis amīcus ....................... 1
Natis in usum.................... . 1
Ne forte credas................... 1
Ne sit ancillæ .................... . 2
Nolis longa feræ.................. . 5
Nondum subacta.................. 1
Non ebur neque aureum . . . No. 18 Quando repostum ..... No. 4
Non semper imbres ..... 1
Non usitátaQuantum distet ab Inăcho.3
Non vides, quanto
Nox erat ..... 2Quem tu, Melpoměne3
10
Nullam, Vare, sacrâ ..... 9
Nullus argento ..... 2
Nunc est bibendum ..... 1
O crudèlis adhuc ..... 9
O diva, gratum ..... 1
O fons Bandusiæ ..... 6
O matre pulchrâ ..... 1
O nata mecum ..... 1
O navis, refërent ..... 6
O sæpe mecum ..... 1
O Venus, regina ..... 2
Odi profănum ..... 1
Otium Divos ..... 2
Parciùs junctas ..... 2
Parcus Deōrum ..... 1
Parentis olim
Quem virum aut herōa ..... 2
Quid bellicōsus ..... 1
Quid dedicātum ..... 1
Quid fles, Asterie ..... 6
Quid immerentes ..... 4
Quid obserātis ..... 11
Quid tibi vis ..... 8
Quis desiderio. ..... 5
Quis multa gracǐlis ..... 6
Quo me, Bacche ..... 3
Quo, quo, scelesti ruĭtis ..... 4
Rectius vives. ..... 2
Rogāre longo ..... 4
Scribēris Vario. ..... 5
Septĭmi, Gades ..... 2
Sic te Diva potens. ..... 3
Solvǐtur acris hiems. ..... 17
Te maris et terræ. ..... 8
Pastor quum trahěret Tu ne quæsiěris ..... 9
Percĭcos odi, puer Tyrrhēna regum ..... 1
Petti, nihil me ..... 15
Ulla si juris. ..... 2
Phœbe, silvarumque ..... 2
Uxor paupĕris Iby̆ci ..... 3
Phœbus volentem
Phœbus volentem
Pindărum quisquis.
Velox amœnum. ..... 1 ..... 2
Vides, ut altâ ..... 1
Poscimur : siquid.
Quæ cura patrum. Vitas hinnuleo. ..... 6Vile potãbis2
Qualem ministrum.
Vixi puellis ..... 1

The following are the single metres used by Horace in his lyric compositions, viz. :-

1. Dactylic Hexameter.
2. Dactylic Tetrameter a posteriori.
3. Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic.
4. Adonic.
5. Trimeter Iambic.
6. Iambic Trimeter Catalectic.
7. Iambic Dimeter.
8. Archilochian Iambic Dimeter Hypermeter.
9. Iambic Dimeter Acephalous. 10. Sapphic.
10. Choriambic Pentameter.
11. Choriambic Tetrameter.
12. Asclepiadic Tetrameter.
13. Glyconic.
14. Pherecratic.
15. Choriambic Dimeter.
16. Ionic a minore.
17. Greater Alcaic.
18. Archilochian Heptameter.
19. Lesser Alcaic.

## APPENDIX.

## GRAMMATICAL FIGURES.

§322. Certain deviations from the regular form and construction of words, are called grammatical figures. These may relate either to Orthography and Etymology, or to Syntax.

## I. FIGURES OF ORTHOGRAPHY AND ETYMOLOGY.

These are distinguished by the general name of metaplasm.

1. Prosthersis is the prefixing of a letter or syllable to a word; as, gnatus, for nutus; tctŭli, for tuli. Yet these were anciently the customary forms, from which those now in use were formed by aphærěsis.
2. Apharersis is the taking of a letter or syllable from the beginning of a word; as, 'st, for est; rhabōnem, for arrhabōnem.
3. Epenthésis is the insertion of a letter or syllable in the middle of a word; as, alituum, for alytum.
4. Syncope is the omission of a letter or syllable in the middle of a word, as, deîm, for deōrum; meîm factùm, for meōrum factōrum; sacla, for secŭla ; flesti, for flevisti ; repostus, for reposǐtus ; aspris, for aspĕris.
5. Crasis is the contraction of two vowels into one ; as, cogo, for coăgo ; nil, for nikil.
6. Paragoge is the addition of a letter or syllable to the end of a word; as, med, for me; claudier, for claudi.

7; Apocðpe is the omission of the final letter or syllable of a word; as, men', for mene ; Antōni, for Antonii.
8. Antithessis is the substitution of one letter for another; as, olli, for illi ; optümus, for optzinus ; afficio, for adficio. $O$ is often thus used for $u$, especially after $v$; as, voltus, for vultus ; scrvom, for servum. So after $q u$; as, aquom, for aquum.
9. Metathěsis is the changing of the order of letters in a word; as, pistris, for pristis.

## II. FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

§323. The figures of Syntax are ellipsis, pleonasm, enallăge, and hyperbăton.

1. Ellipsis is the omission of some word or words in a sentence ; as,

Aiunt, sc. homines. Darius Hystaspis, sc. flius. Cano, sc. ego. Quid multa? sc. dicam. Ex quo, sc. tempöre. Ferina, sc. caro.

Ellipsis includes asyndĕton, zeugma, syllepsis, prolepsis. and synpclŏche
(1.) Asynděton is the omission of a conjunction; as, aliiut, excessit, evāsit, erūpit, sc. et. Cic.
(2.) Zeugma is the uniting of two nouns, or two infinitives, to a verb, which is applicable only to one of them; as, Pacem an bellum gerens (Sall.), where gerens is applicable to bellum only. Semperne in sangǔ̌ne, ferro, fugd versalimur 3 (Id.) where the verb does not properly apply to ferro.

Nego is often thus used with two propositions, one of which is affirmative; as, Negant Casărem mansürum, postulatăque interposita esse, for dicuntque postulāta... Cic.

When an adjective or verb, referring to two or more nouns, agrees with one, and is understood with the rest, the construction is also sometimes called zeugma; as, Et genus, et virtus, nisi cum re, vilior alga est. Hor. Caper tibi salvus et hedi. Virg. Quamvis ille niger, quamvis tu candrda esses. Id.
(3.) Syllepsis is when an adjective or verb, belonging to two or more nouns of different genders, persons, or numbers, agrees with one rather than another; as, Attonitti novitāte pavent Baucis, timidusque Philèmon. Ovid Procumbit uterque pronus humi, i. e. Deacalion et Pyrrha. Id.Sustulimus manus et ego et Balbus. Cic. So, Ipse cum fratre adesse jussi sumus. Id.-Projectisque amicŭlo et litěris. Curt. See §§205, Rem. 2, and $\mathbf{2 0 9 ,}$ Rem. 12, (3,) and (7.)

Zeugma, in the latter sense above mentioned, is by some included under syllepsis.
(4.) Prolensis is when the parts, differing in number or person from the whole, are placed after it, the verb or adjective not being repeated; as, Principes utrinque pugnam ciēbant, ab Sabinis Mettius Curtius, ab Romānis Hostus Hostilius. Liv. Boni quoniam convenǐmus ambo, tu calămos infläre, ego dicěre versus. Virg.
(5.) Synecdöche is the use of an accusative of the part affected, instead of an ablative ; as, Explēri mentem nequit. Virg. See § 234, II.
2. Pleonasm is using a greater number of words than is necessary to express the meaning ; as,

Sic ore locūta est. Virg. Qui magis verè vincëre quàm diu imperāre malit. Liv. Nemo unus. Cic. Forte fortūna. Id. Prudens sciens. Ter.

Under pleonasm are included parelcon, polysyndĕton, hendi$\breve{a} d y s$, and periphrăsis.
(1.) Parelcon is the addition of an unnecessary syllable or particle to pronouns, verbs, or adverbs; as, egŏmet, agĕdum, fortassean. Such additions, however, usually modify the meaning in some degree.
(2.) Polysyndĕton is a redundancy of conjunctions; as, Undे Eurusque Notusque ruunt creberque procollis Africus. Virg.
(3.) Hendiădys is the expression of an idea by two nouns connected by $e t,-q u e$, or atque, instead of a noun and a limiting adjective or genitive; as, Patêris libāmus et auro, for aureis patëris. Virg. Libro et silvestri subĕre clausam, for libro suběris. Id. Cristis et auro. Ovid. Met. III, 32.
(4.) Periplırăsis is a circuitous mode of expression; as, Teněri fotus ovium, i. e. agni. Virg.
3. Enallăge is a change of words, or a substitution of one gender, number, case, person, tense, mood, or voice of the same word for another.

Enallăge includes antimeria, heterōsis, antiptōsis, synĕsis, and anacolüthon.
(1.) Antimcria is the use of one part of speech for another; as, Nostrum istud vivěre triste, for nostra vita. Pers. Aliud cras. Id.. Conjugium vidébit? for conjŭgem. Virg. Plačtam paci nutritor olivam, for nutrito. Id.
(2.) Heterösis is the use of one form of a noun, pronoun, verb, \&c., for another; as, Ego quoque unà pereo, quod mili iest carius, for qui mihi sum carior. Ter. Romănus preelio victor, for Romāni victōres. Liv. Many words are used by the poets in the plural instead of the singular ; as, colla, corda, ora, \&c. See §98. Me truncus illapsus cerelro sustulĕrat, for sustulisset. Hor.
(3.) Antiptōsis is the use of one case for another ; as, Cui nunc cogn $\bar{\delta}$ men Iulo, for Iülus. Virg. Uxor invicti Jovis esse nescis, for te esse uxঠ̄rem. Hor.
(4.) Syněsis, or synthěsis, is adapting the construction to the sense of a word, rather than to its gender or number; as, Subeunt Tegcea juventus auxilio tardi. Stat. Concursus popŭli mirantium quid rei est. Liv. Pars in crucem acti. Sall. Ubi illic est scelus, qui me perdrdit ? Ter. Id mea miňme refcrt, qui sum natu maxtmus. Id. See also § 206,(12.)
(5.) Anacoluthon is when the latter part of a sentence does not agree in construction with the former; as, Nam nos omnes, quibus cst alicunde alíquis objectus labos, omne quod est interea tempus, priusquam id rescitum est, lucro est. Ter. In this example, the writer began as if he intended to say lucro habēmus, and ended as if he had said nobis omntbus.
4. Hyperbăton is a transgression of the usual order of words or clauses.

Hyperbaton includes anastrŏphe, hystĕron protĕron, hypallăge, synchy̆sis, tmesis, and parenthĕsis.
(1.) Anastrŏphe is an inversion of the order of two words; as, Transtra per et remos, for per transtra. Virg. Collo dare brachia circum, for circumdăre. Id. Nox erit una super, for superĕrit. Ovid. Et facit arc, for arefăcit. Lucr.
(2.) Hystëron protëron is reversing the natural order of the sense ; as, Moriamur, et in media arma ruāmus. Virg. Valet atque vivit. Ter.
(3.) Hypallăge is an interchange of constructions; as, In nova fcrt añ̌mus mutätas dicëre formas corpŏra, for corpŏra mutāta in novas formas. Ovid. Dare classǐbus Austros, for dare classes Austris. Virg.
(4.) Synchy̆sis, is a confused position of words; as, Saxa vocant ltăli, mediis qua in flucťbus, aras, for que saxa in mediis flucť̌bus, Ităli vocant aras. Virg.
(5.) Tmesis is the separation of the parts of a compound word; as, Septem subjecta triöni gens, for septentriōni. Virg. Que me cunque vocant terre. Id. Per mihi, per, inquam, gratum fecĕris. Cic.
(6.) Parenthesis is the insertion of a word or words in a sentence which interrupt the natural connection; as, Tity̆re dum redeo, (brevis est via,) pasce capollas. Virg.

Remark. To the above may be added archaism and Hellenism, which belong both to the figures of etymology and to those of syntax.
(1.) Archaism is the use of ancient forms or constructions; as, aulak
for aula ; senāti, for senātûs ; fuat, for sit ; prohibesso, for prohibuĕro; im. petrassĕre, for impetratūrum esse; fařer, for fari; nenu, for non; endo, for in;—Opĕram abutytur, for opěra. Ter. Quid tibi hanc curatio est rem? Plaut.
(2.) Hellenism is the use of Greek forms or constructions; as, Helĕne, for Helěna; Antťphon, for Anttpho; aurds (gen.), for aurc ; Pallădos, Pallăda, for Pallădis, Pallădem; Troăsin, Troădas, for Troaďlus, Troă-des;-Abstinēto irãrum. Hor. Tempus desistëre pugna. Virg.
§324. To the grammatical figures may not improperly be subjoined certain others, which are often referred to in philological works, and which are called

## TROPES AND FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

A rhetorical figure is a mode of expression different from the direct and simple way of expressing the same sense. The turning of a word from its original and customary meaning, is called a trope.

1. A metaphor is the transferring of a word from the object to which it properly belongs, and applying it to another, to which that object has some analogy ; as, Ridet ager, The field smiles. Virg. JEtas aurea, The golden age. Ovid.

Catachrēsis is a bold or harsh metaphor; as, Vir gregis ipse caper. Virg. Eurus per Sicülas equitāvit undas. Hor.
2. Metonymy is substituting the name of an object for that of another to which it has a certain relation; as the cause for the effect, the container 'or what is contained, the property for the substance, the sign for the thing signified, and their contraries; the parts of the body for certain affections, \&c.; as, Amor duri Martis, i. e. belli. Virg. Pallída mors. Hor. Hausit patěram, i. e. vinum. Virg. Vina corōnant, i. e. patëram. Id. Necte ternos colōres, i. e. tria fila diversi colōris. Id. Cedant arma togæ, i. e. bellum paci. Cic. Sæcŭla mitescent, i. e. hom̌nes in sacŭlis. Virg. Vivat Pacuvius vel Nestorra totum. Juv.
3. Synecd̈che is putting a genus for a species, a whole for a part, a singular for a plural, and their contraries; also the material for the thing made of it; as, Mortāles, for homınes. Virg. Fontem ferēbant. Id. Tectum, for domus. Id. Armāto milĭte complent, for armātis miliťlbus. Id. Ferrum, for gladius.
4. Irony is the intentional use of words which express a sense contrary to that which the writer or speaker means to convey ; as, Salve, bone vir, curâsti probè. Ter. Egregiam verd laudem, et spolia ampla refertis, tuque, puerque tuus. Virg.
5. Hyperbŏle is the magnifying or diminishing of a thing beyond the truth; as, Ipse arduus, altăque pulsat siděra. Virg. Ocior Euro. Id.
6. Metalepsis is the including of several tropes in one word; as, Post alíquot aristas. Virg. Here aristas is put for messes, this for astätes, and this for annos.
7. Allegory is a consistent series of metaphors, designed to illustrate one subject by another ; as, Claudǐte jam rivos, puĕri: sat prata bibérunt. Virg. $O$ navis, vefěrent in mare te novi fluctus. Hor.

An obscure allegory or riddle is called an anigma.
8. Antonomasia is using a proper noun for a common one, and the contrary; as, Irus et est subĭtd, qui modò Crœsus erat, for pauper and divcs, Ovid. So, by periphrasis, potor Rhodăni, for Gallus. Hor.
9. Litortes is a mode of expressing something by denying the contrary ; as, Non laudo, I blame. Ter. Non innoxia verba. Virg.
10. Antiphrăsis is using a word in a sense opposite to its proper meaning; as, Auri sacra fames. Virg.
11. Euphemism is the use of softened language to express what is offensive or distressing; as, Si quid accidisset Casări, i. e. si mortuus esset. Vell.
12. Antanaclāsis is the use of the same word in different senses; as, Quis neget AEnēe natum de stirpe Nerōnem? Sustŭlit lic matrem, sustŭlit ille patrem. Epigr. Amări jucundum est, si curētur ne quid ınsit amāri. Cic.
13. Anaphorra, or epanaphŏra, is the repetition of a word at the beginnıng of successive clauses; as, Nihilne te nocturnum prasidium palatii, nihil urlis vigilia, nihil timor popŭli, \&c. Cic. Te, dulcis conjux, te, solo in litŏre secum, te, veniente die, te, decedente, canēbat. Virg.
14. Epistrobphe is the repetition of a word at the end of successive clauses; as, Panos popŭlus Romãnus justitid vicit, armis vicit, lilıeralitâte vicit. Cic.
15. Symploce is the repetition of a word at the beginning, and of another at the end, of successive clauses; as, Quis legem tulit 3 Rullus: Quis majōrcm popŭli partcm suffragiis privãvit? Rullus: Quis comitiis prefuit? Idem Rullus. Cic.
16. Epanalepsis is a repetition of the same word or sentence after a parenthesis. Virg. Geor. II. 4-7.
17. Anadiplosis is the use of the same word at the end of one clause, and the beginning of another; as, Hic tamen vivit: Vivit? imo verd, etiam in scnätum venit. Cic. This is sometimes called epanastrŏphe.
18. Epanadiplosis is the use of the same word both at the beginning and end of a sentence; as, Crescit amor nummi, quantum ipsa pecumia crescit. Juv.
19. Epanădos is the repetition of the same words in an inverted order; as, Crudēlis mater magis, an puer imprőbus ille? Imprőbus ille puer, crudèlis tu quoque, mater. Virg.
20. Epizeuxis is a repetition of the same word for the sake of emphasis; as, Excitāte, excitāte eum ab infĕris. Cic. Ah Cory̆don, Cory̆ don, qua te dementic cepit? Virg. Ib̌̆mus, ib̆̆mus. Hor.
21. Climax is when each successive clause of a sentence begins with the conclusion of the preceding, the sense being thus gradually anplified; as, Que reľ̆qua spes manet libertātis, si illis ct quod libet, licet; et quod licet, possunt; et quod possunt, audent; et quod audent, vobis molestum non est? Cic.
22. Incrementum is an amplification without a strict climax ; as, Facrnus est, vincīri civem Romānum; scelus, verlerrāri ; prope parricidium, necāri; quid dican in crucem tolli? Cic. When the sense is gradually heightened, it is called anabăsis, and when it falls or decreases, catabăsis.
23. Polyptoton is a repetition of the same word in different cases, genders, numbers, \&c.; as, Jam clypcus clypeis, umböne repellitur umbo; cnse minux ensis, pede pes, et cuspuxle cuspis. Stat.
24. Paregmĕnon is the use of several words of the same origin, in one sentence; as, Alesse non potest, quin cjusdem homı̃nis sit, qui imprŏbos probet, probos improbāre. Cic.
25. Paronomasia is the use of words which resemble each other in sound; as, Amor et melle ct felle est foccundissimus. Plaut. Civem bonārum artium, bonärum partium. Cic. Amantes sunt amentes. Ter. This figure is sometimes called agnominatio.

## APPENDIX.-TROPES AND FIGURES OF RHETORIC. 303

26. Homcoprophĕron, or alliteration, is when several words beginning with the same letter occur in a sentence; as, $O$ Tite, tute Tati, tibi tanta, tyranne, tulisti. Enn. Neu patria vaľ̌das in viscĕra vertřte vires. Virg.
27. Antithĕsis is the placing of different or opposite words or sentiments in contrast; as, Hujus oratiōnis difficilius est exĭtum quàm principium inveñ̄re. Cic. Cæsar beneficiis ac munificentiâ magnus habebätur ; integritāte vitæ Cato. Sall.
28. Oxymōron unites words of contrary significations, thus producing a seeming contradiction; as, Concordia discors. Hor. Cùm tacent, clamant. Cic.
29. Synonymia is the use of different words or expressions having the same import; as, Non feram, non patiar, non sinam. Cic. Promitto, recipio, spondeo. Id.
30. Parabola, or simxle, is the comparison of one thing with another; as, Repentè te, tanquam serpens e latilū̆lis, ocŭlis eminentưbus, inflāto collo, tum̌̃dis cervič̂bus, intulisti. Cic.
31. Erotēsis is an earnest question, and often implies a strong affirmation of the contrary; as, Credǐtis avectos hostes? Virg. Heu! qua me aquŏra possunt accipĕre? Id.
32. Epanorthösis is the recalling of a word, in order to place a stronger or more significant one in its stead; as, Filium unťcum adolescentŭlum habeo: ah! quid dixi? me habēre? Ind habui. Ter.
33. Aposiopēsis is leaving a sentence unfinished in consequence of some emotion of the mind; as, Quos ego-sed motos prastat componerre fluctus. Virg.
34. Prosopopœia, or personification, represents inanimate things as acting or speaking, and persons dead or absent as alive and present; as, Quce (patria) tecum Catilīna sic agit. Cic. Virtus sumit aut ponit secūres. Hor.
35. Apostrŏphe is a turning off from the regular course of the subject, to address some person or thing; as, Vi poťtur : quid non mortalia pectora cogis, auri sacra fames! Virg.
$\oint 325$. To the figures of rhetoric may be subjoined the following terms, used to designate defects or blemishes in style :-
36. Barbarism is either the use of a foreign word, or a violation of the rules of orthography, etymology, or prosody ; as, rigorōsus, for riǧdus or scvērus ; domm̌̌nus, for domı̆nus; davi, for dedi; alterīus, for alteř̌us.
37. Solecism is a violation of the rules of syntax; as, Venus pulcher; vos invidēmus.
38. Neoterism is the use of words or phrases introduced by authors living subsequently to the best ages of Latinity; as, murdrum, a murder; constabularius, a constable.
39. Tautology is a repetition of the same meaning in different words; as, Jam vos aciem, et prœlia, et hostem poscitis. Sil.
40. Amphibolia is the use of equivocal words or constructions; as, Gallus, a Gaul, or a cock. Aio te, $\not \boldsymbol{E A c ̌ ̌ d a , ~ R o m a ̄ n o s ~ v i n c e ̌ r e ~ p o s s e . ~ Q u i n c t . ~}^{\text {a }}$
41. Idiotism is a construction peculiar to one or more languages: thus, the ablative after comparatives is a Latinism. When a peculiarity of one language is imitated in another, this is also called idiotism. Thus, Mitte mihi verbum, instead of Fac me certiōrem, is an Anglicism.

## ROMAN MODE OF RECKONING.

## I. OF TIME.

§326. 1. The calendar of the Romans agreed with our own in the number of months, and of the days in each; but, instead of reckoning in an uninterrupted series from the first to the last day of a month, they had three points from which their days were counted-the calends, the nones, and the ides. The calends were always the first day of the month. The nones were the fifth, and the ides the thirteenth; except in March, May, July, and October, in which the nones occurred on the seventh day, and the ides on the fifteenth.
2. They always counted forwards, from the day whose date was to be determined to the next calends, nones, or ides, and designated the day by its distance from such point. After the first day of the month, therefore, they began to reckon so many days before the nones; after the nones, so many days before the ides; after the ides, so many before the calends, of the next month.

Thus, the second of January was denoted by quarto nonas Januarias, or Januarii, sc. die ante; the third, tertio nonas; the fourth, pridie nonas; and the fifth, nonis. The sixth was denoted by ocfävo idus; the seventh, septimo idus; and so on to the thirteenth, on which the ides fell. The fourteenth was denoted by undevigesimo calendas Februarias, or Februarii; and so on to the end of the month.
3. The day preceding the calends, nones, and ides, was termed pridie calendas, \&c., sc. ante: in designating the other days, both the day of the calends, \&c., and that whose date was to be determined, were reckoned; hence the second day before the calends, \&c., was called tertio, the third quarto, \&c.
4. To reduce the Roman calendar to our own, therefore, it is necessary to take one from the number denoting the day, and to subtract the remainder from the number of the day on which the nones or ides fell.

Thus, to determine the day equivalent to IV. nnnas Januarias, we take 1 from 4, and subtract the remainder, 3 , from 5 , the day on which the nones fell : this gives 2, or the second of January, for the day in question. So VI. idus Aprīis: the ides of April falling upon the 13th, we take 5 from 13, which leaves 8: the expression, therefore, denotes the 8th of April.

In reckoning the days before the calends, as they are not the last day of the current month, but the first of the following, it is necessary to add one to the number of days in the month.

Thus, $X V$. cal. Quintīles is $(30+1) 31-14=17$, or the 17 th of June.

## APPENDIX.-ROMAN MODE OF RELKONING; TIME. 305

To reduce our calendar to the Roman, the same method is to be pursued.

Thus, the 22 d of December is $(31+1) 32-21=11$, i. e. XI. cal. Jan.
5. In leap-year, both the 24th and 25th of February were denoted by sexto calendas Martias or Martii. The latter of these was called dies bissextus, and the year itself annus bissextus.

The day after the calends, \&c., was sometimes called postridie calendas, \&c.

The names of the months are properly adjectives, though often used as nouns, mensis being understood. Before the times of the emperors, July was called Quintīlis, and August, Sextīlis. The names Julius and Augustus were given in honor of the Cæsars.
6. The correspondence of our calendar with that of the Romans is exhibited in the following

TABLE.

| Days of our months. | $\begin{array}{ll} \hline \text { Mar. } & \text { Mai. } \\ \text { Jul. } & \text { Oct. } \\ \hline \end{array}$ | Jan. Aug. Dec. | Apr. Jun. Sept. Nov. | Febr. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Calendx. | Calendæ. | Calendæ. | Calendæ. |
| 2 | VI. nonas. | IV. nonas. | IV. nonas. | IV. nonas. |
| 3 | V. " | III. " | III. " | III. " |
| 4 | IV. " | Pridie " | Pridie " | Pridie " |
| 5 | III. " | Nonæ. | Nonæ. | Nonæ. |
| 6 | Pridie " | VIII. idus. | VIII. idus. | VIII. idus. |
| 7 | Nonæ. | VII. " | VII. " | VII. " |
| 8 | VIII. idus. | V1. " | VI. " | VI. " |
| 9 | Vil. " | V. " | V. | V. " |
| 10 | VI. " | -IV. " | IV. " | IV. " |
| 11 | V. " | III. " | III. " | III. " |
| 12 | IV. | Pridie " | Pridie " | Pridie " |
| 13 | III. " | Idus. | Idus. | Idus. |
| 14 | Pridie " | XIX. cal. | XVIII. cal. | XVI. cal. |
| 15 | Idus. | XVIII." | XVII. " | XV. " |
| 16 | XVII. cal. | XVII. " | XVI. " | XIV. " |
| 17 | XVI. " | XVI. " | XV. " | XIII. " |
| 18 | XV. " | XV. " | XIV. " | XII.* " |
| 19 | XIV. | XIV. " | XIII. " | XI. " |
| 20 | XIII. | XIII. " | XII. " | X. " |
| 21 | XII. | X1I. " | XI. " | IX. " |
| 22 | X1. | XI. | X. " | VIII. " |
| 23 | $\mathbf{x}$. | X. " | IX. " | VII. " |
| 24 | IX. | IX. " | VIII. " | VI. " |
| 25 | VIII. | VIII. " | VII. " | V. " |
| 26 | VII. | VII. " | VI. " | IV. " |
| 27 | VI. " | VI: " | V. " | III. " |
| 28 | V. " | V. " | IV. " | Pridie "Mar |
| 29 | IV. " | IV. " | III. " |  |
| 30 | III. " | 11I. " | Pridie " |  |
| 31 | Pridie " | Pridie " |  |  |
|  | 26* |  |  |  |

7. The Latins not only said tertio, pridie, \&c., calendas, \&c., but also ante diem tertium, \&c., calendas, \&c.; and the latter form in Cicero and Livy is far more common than the former, and is usually written thus, a. d. III. cal., \&c.

The expression ante diem was used as an indeclinable noun, and is joined with in and $e x$; as,

Consul Latīnas ferias in ante diem tertium idus Sextīlis edixit, The con sul appointed the Latin festival for the third day before the ides of August. Liv. Supplicatio indicta est ex ante diem quintum idus Octōbres. Id. So, Ad pridie nonas Maias. Cic.

## II. OF MONEY.

§32\%. 1. The Romans reckoned their copper money by asses, their silver money by sestertii, and their gold money by Attic talents.
2. The as was originally a pound of copper, but its weight was gradually diminished in succeeding ages, until, in the later days of the republic, it amounted to only $\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{4}$ of a pound. It is divided into twelve parts, called uncia.

The names of the several parts are, uncia, $\frac{1}{12}$; sextans, $\frac{2}{12} ;$ quadrans, $\frac{3}{12}$; tricns, $\frac{4}{12} ;$ quincunx, $\frac{5}{12}$; semis, or semissis, $\frac{6}{12} ;$ septunx, $\frac{7}{12}$; bes, or bessis, $\frac{8}{12} ;$ dodrans, $\frac{9}{12} ;$ dcxtans, $\frac{10}{12} ;$ deunx, $\frac{11}{12}$.
3. The denarius was a silver coin, originally equal in value to ten asses, whence its name; but, after the weight of the as was reduced, the denarius was equal to sixteen asses. Its value is usually estimated at about $14 \frac{1}{3}$ cents of our money.

The sestertius, or sesterce, was one fourth of the denarius, or two asses and a half (semistertius), and was hence denoted by IIS, or HS. When the denarius was worth 16 asses, the sestertius was worth 4. The sestertius was called emphatically nummus, as in it all large sums were reckoned after the coining of silver money.

Half a denarius was a quinarius; one tenth of a denarius, a libella.
The aureus (a gold coin), in the time of the emperors, was equal to 25 denarii, or 100 sesterces.

The talent is variously estimated, from $\$ 860$ to $\$ 1020$.
4. In reckoning money, the Romans called any sum under 2000 sesterces so many sestertii; as, decem sestertii, ten sesterces; centum sestertii, a hundred sesterces.
5. Sums from 2000 sesterces (inclusive) to $1,000,000$, they denoted either by mille, millia, with sestertiûm (gen. plur.), or by the plural of the neuter noun sestertium, which itself signified a thousand sesterces. Thus they said quadraginta millia
sestertiûm, or quadraginta sestertia, to denote $\mathbf{4 0 , 0 0 0}$ sesterces. With the genitive sestertiûm, millia was sometimes omitted; as, sestertiûm centum, sc. millia, 100,000 sesterces.

6 To denote a million, or more, they used a combination; thus, decies centēna millia sestertiûm, $\mathbf{1 , 0 0 0 , 0 0 0}$ sesterces. The words centēna millia, however, were generally omitted ; thus, decies sestertiûm, and sometimes merely decies. See $\S 118,5$. So, centies, $\mathbf{1 0}$ millions; millies, $\mathbf{1 0 0}$ millions.

Some suppose that sestertium, when thus joined with the numeral adverbs, is always the neuter noun in the nominative or accusative singular: The genitive and ablative of that noun are thus used ; as, Decies sestertii dote, With a dowry of $1,000,000$ sesterces. Tac. Quinquagies sestertio, $5,000,000$ sesterces. Id. But this usage does not occur in Cicero.

The different combinations were thus distinguished :-HS. X. denoted decem sestertii ; HS. $\overline{\mathbf{X}}$, decem sestertia; $\overline{\mathrm{HS} . \mathbf{X}}$, decies sestertium. But this distinction was not always observed.

## ABBREVIATIONS.

§328. The following are the most common abbreviations of Latin words :-
A., Aulus.
C., Caius.

Cn., Cncus.
D., Decĭmus.
L., Lucius.
M., Marcus.
A. d., ante diem.
A. U. C., anno urbis condxta.
Cal., or kal., calendce.
Cos., Consul.
Coss., Consüles.
D., Divus.
D. D., dono dedit.
D. D. D., dat, dicat, dedïcat, or dono dicat, deditcat.
Des., designătus.
D. Mi., diis manybus.

Eq. Rom., eques Romānus.
M. T. C., Marcus Tullius Cicĕro.
M'., Manius.
Mam., Mamercus.
N., Numerius.
P., Publius.
F., Filius; as, M. F., Pont. Max., pontरfex Marci filius.
Ictus, jurisconsultus.
Id., idus.
Imp., imperātor.
J. O. M., Jovi, optrmo maxĭтo.
N., nepos.

Non., nona.
P. C., patres con. scripti.
Pl., plelis.
Pop., popŭlus.
P. R., popŭlus Romānus.
Q., or $\mathrm{Qu} .$, Quintus.

Ser., Servius.
S., or Sex., Scxtus.

Sp., Spurius.
T., Titus.

Ti., or Tib., Tiberius maximus.
Pr., prator.
Proc., proconsul.
Resp., respullǐca.
S., salūtem, sacrum, or senātus.
S. D. P., salūtem diait plurimam.
S. P. Q. R., Senāturs populusque Romū̄nus.
S. C., senātus consultum.
Tr., tribinnus.

To these may be added terms of reference ; as, c., caput, chapter; cf., confer, compare; l.c., loco citāto; l. l., loco laudäto, in the place quoted; .., versus, verse.

## different ages of roman literature.

§329. 1. Of the Roman literature for the first five centuries after the foundation of the city, hardly a vestige remains. The writers of the succeeding centuries have been arranged in four ages, in reference to the purity of the language in the period in which they flourished. These are called the galden, silver, brazen, and iron ages.
2. The golden age is generally reckoned from about the year 514 of the city to the death of Augustus, A. D. 14, a period of a little more than 250 years. The writers of the early part of this age are valued rather on account of their antiquity, than as models of style. It was not till the age of Cicero, that Roman literature reached its highest elevation. The era comprehending the generation immediately preceding, and that immediately succeeding, that of Cicero, as well as his own, is the period in which the most distinguished writers of Rome flourished; and their works are the standard of purity in the Latin language.
3. The silver age extended from the death of Augustus to the death of Trajan, A. D. 118, a period of 104 years. The writers of this age were inferior to those who had preceded them; yet several of them are worthy of commendation.
4. The brazen age comprised the interval from the death of Trajan to the time when Rome was taken by the Goths, A. D. 410. From the latter epoch commenced the iron age, during which the Latin language was much adulterated with foreign words, and its style and spirit essentially injured.

## Latin writers in the different ages.

(From the Lexicon of Facciolatus.)

> WRITERS OF THE GOLDEN AGE.

Livius Andronicus.
Lævius.
C. Nævius.

Statius Cæcilius.
Q. Ennius.
M. Pacuvius.
L. Accius.
C. Lucilius.

Sex. Turpilius.
L. Afranius.
L. Cornelius Sisenna.
P. Nigidius Figŭlus.
C. Decius Laberius.
M. Verrius Flaccus. Varro Attacinus. Titinius.
L. Pomponius.
A. Serēnus.
C. Sempronius Asellio.
C. Sempronius Gracchus. Santra.
Cn. Matius.
Q. Novius.

Atta.
Cassius Hemina.

## Fenestella.

Claud. Quadrigarius.
Cælius, or Cælius.
Fabius Pictor.
Cn. Gellius.
L. Piso.

Valerius Antias.
Tiro Tullius, and others.

Of the works of the preceding writers, only a few fragments remain.
M. Porcius Cato.
M. Accius Plautus.
M. Terentius Afer.
T. Lucretius Carus.
C. Valerius Catullus.
P. Syrus.
C. Julius Cæsar. Cornelius Nepos.
M. Tullius Cicěro.

Sex. Aurelius Propertius.
C. Sallustius Crispus.
M. Terentius Varro.

Albius Tibullus.
P. Virgilius Maro.
T. Livius.
M. Manilius.
P. Ovidius Naso.
Q. Horatius Flaccus.
C. Pedo Albinovanus. Gratius Faliscus. Phædrus.
C. Cornificius.
A. Hirtius, or Oppius. P. Cornelius Sevērus.

To these may be added the following names of lawyers, whose opinions are found in the digests:-
Q. Mutius Scævola. M. Antistius Labeo. Masurius Sabinus.

Alfenus Varus.
Of the writers of the golden age, the most distinguished are Terence, Catullus, Cæsar, Nepos, Cicero, Virgil, Horace, Ovid, 'T. Livy, and Sallust.

## WRITERS OF THE SILVER AGE.

A. Cornelius Celsus.
P. Velleius Patercŭlus.
L. Junius Moderātus Columella.
Pomponius Mela.
A. Persius Flaccus.
Q. Asconius Pediănus.
M. Annæus Seněca.
L. Annæus Seněca.
M. Annæus Lucānus. T. Petronius Arbĭter. C. Plinius Secundus.
C. Silius Italĭcus.
C. Valerius Flaccus.
C. Julius Solinnus.
D. Junius Juvenălis.
P. Papinius Statius. M. Valerius Martialis.
M. Fabius Quintilianus.
Sex. Julius Frontīnus.
C. Cornelius Tač̌tus.
C. Plinius Cæcilius Secundus.
L. Annæus Florus.
C. Suetonius Tranquil lus

The age to which the following writers should be assigned is somewhat uncertain:-

| Q. Curtius Rufus. | Scribonius Largus. <br> Sulpitia. | L. Fenestella. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Valer. Probus. | Atteius Capito. |  |

Of the writers of the silver age, the most distinguished are Celsus, Velleius, Columella, the Senecas, the Plinies, Juvenal, Quintilian. Tacitus, Suetonius, and Curtius.

## WRITERS OF THE BRAZEN AGE.

A. Gellius.
L. A puleius.
Q. Septinius Tertullianus.
Q. Serēnus Sammonĭcus.

Censorīnus.
Thascius Cæcilius Cypriănus.
T. Julius Calpurnius.
M. Aurelius Nemesiānus.

Ælius Spartiānus.
Julius Capitolinnus.
Ælius Lampridius.
Vulcatius Gallicãnus.
Trebellius Pollio.
Flavius Vopiscus.
Celius Aureliānus.
Flavius Eutropius.
Rhemnius Fannius.
Arnobius Afer.
L. Ceelius Lactantius. Alius Donatus.
C. Vettus Juvencus. Julius Firmicus.
Fab. Marius Victorīnus.
Sex. Rufus, or Rufus Festus. Ammiãnus Marcellīnus. Vegetius Renãtus.
Aurel. Theodōrus Macrobius.
Q. Aurelius Symmǎchus.
D. Magnus Ausonius.

Paulīnus Nolanus.
Sex. Aurelius Victor.
Aurel. Prudentius Clemens.
Cl. Claudiānus.

Marcellus Empirǐcus.
Falconia Proba.

Of an Age not entirely certan.

Valerius Maximus.
Justinus.
Terentianus Maurus.

Minutius Felix.
-oeipater Charisius.

Fl. Aviēnus, or Aviānus.

The opinions of the following lawyers are found in the digests :-

Licinius Procŭlus.
Neratius Priscus.
P. Juventius Celsus.

Priscus Jabolênus.
Domitius Ulpiãnus.

Salvius Juliannus.
Caius.
Callistrătus.
Nemilius Papiniannus.
Julius Paulus.

Sex. Pomponius.
Venuleius Saturninus. Ælius Marciānus.
flius Gallus, and others.

Herennius Modestinnus.
Of the writers of the brazen age, Justin, Terentianus, Victor, Lactantius, and Claudian, are most distinguished.

The age to which the following writers belong is uncertain. The style of some of them would entitle them to be ranked with the writers of the preceding ages, while that of others would place them even below those of the iron age.
Palladius Rutilius Tau- Catalecta Virgilii et Interpres Darētis Phry-
rus Etmiliánus.
Æmilius Macer.
Messala Corvinus.
Vibius Sequester.
Julius Obsěquens.
L. Ampelius.

Apicius Colius.
Sex. Pompeius Festus.
Probus (auctor Notarum.)
Fulgentius Planciaxdes.
Hyginus.
C. Cæsar Germanǐcus.
P. Victor.
P. Vegetius.

Auctöres Priapeiōrum.

Ovidii.
Auctor oratiōnis Sallustii in Cic. et Ci cerōnis in Sall.; item illius Antěquam iret in exsilium.
Auctor Epistǒlæ ad Octavium.
Auctor Panegyrici ad Pisōnem.
Declamatiōnes quæ tribuuntur Quintiliano, Porcio Latrōni, Calpurnio Flacco.
gii, et Dictyos Cretensis.
Scholiastæ Vetěres. Grammatĭci Antīqui. Rhetŏres Antiqui. Medĭci Antīqui. Catalecta Petroniāna. Pervigilium Venerris.
Poematia et Epigrammăta vetěra a Pi thæo collecta.
Monumentum Ancyrănum.
Fasti Consulāres.
Inscriptiōnes Vetĕres.

## WRITERS OF THE IRON AGE.

Cl. Rutilius Numatianus.
Servius Honoratus.
D. Hierony̆ mus.
D. Augustinus.

Sulpicius Sevērus.
Yaulus Orosius.
Celius Sedulius.
Codex Theodosiǎnus.
Martiánus Capella.
Claudiānus Mamertus.
Sidonius Apollinâris.

Latīnus Pacâtus.
Claudius Mamertinus, et alii, quorum sunt Panegyricci vetěres.
Alcǐmus Avītus.
Manl. Severīnus Boêthius.
Prisciãnus.
Nonius Marcellus.
Justiniāni Institutiōnes et Codex.

Arātor.
M. Aurelius Cassidórus.
Fl. Cresconius Corippus.
Venantius Fortunātus. Isidorus Hispalensis.
Anony̆mus Ravennas Aldhelmus or Althelmus.
Paulus Diacornus.

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THE END.


breazaounase


[^0]:    THIs edition has been revised, and the errors noticed in former editions carefully corrected. A few passages have been remodelled, and occasional deficiencies supplied. The present editor, now the sole surviving author of the work, gladly avails himself of this renewed opportunity to express his gratitude to the public for the favor so long and so liberally bestowed upon it, and his hope that it will continue hereafter to meet with similar indulgence.

    New Britain, Conn., April, 1854.
    E. A. A.

[^1]:    *These are te, met, pte, ce, cǐne, and dem; as, tute, egormet, meapte, hicce, hiccìne, idem.

[^2]:    * See Remark 2d.

[^3]:    * To distinguish the gender of Latin nouns, grammarians write hic pefore the masculine, hoec before the feminine, and hoc before the neuter.

[^4]:    * Pronounced arl-she-um, noc'-she-um. Ses § 12.

[^5]:    * Pronounced fruct'-yu-i, or fruc'-tshu-i, \&c. \$20. Exc. (c.)

[^6]:    *Pronounced mish'e-um, \&c. See $\$ 12$.

[^7]:    * Senex, senis, old, had anciently seň̌cis or seněcis.
    $\dagger$ Pronounced fe-lish'-e-um, \&c. See §§ 10, Exc., and 7
    $\dagger$ The ablative plure is obsolete.

[^8]:    * Pronounced prewen'-she-a, \&ce.

[^9]:    * Pronounced ki

    See $\$ 9$.

[^10]:    * Pronounced $\alpha$-lik'-we-bus. See $\wp \delta 9$ 9, and 19, 4.

[^11]:    Present \{action $\boldsymbol{a}$ amo, I love, or am loving; Present tense.
    
    Future \{ pleted; amābo, I shall love, or be loving; Future tense.
    Present \{action )amävi, I have loved; Perfect tense.
    Past $\{$ com- \}anavěram, I had loved; Pluperfect tense.
    Future ( pleted; $\}$ amavěro, I shall have loved; Future perfect tense.
    8

[^12]:    * See $\$ 105$ and 111.

[^13]:    * As the supine in um is wanting in most verbs, the third root must often be determined from the perfect participle, or the future participle active.

[^14]:    * In the second person singular in English, the plural form you is commonly used, except in solemn discourse; as, tu es, you are.
    $\dagger$ The plural pronoun of the second person is either ye or you.

[^15]:    Some are derived from the present, or perhaps from an obsolete thira root - as, ago, (agitu,) agǐto.

[^16]:    * A verb in any mood except the infinitive, is called a finite verb

[^17]:    Avidus laudis, Desirous of praise.
    Appětens glorice, Desirous of glory.
    Menor nirtatis, Mindful of virtue.
    Plena timōris, Full of fear.
    Egenus aque, Destitute of water.
    Doctus fandi, Skilful in speaking.

