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NEW
LATIN GRAMMAR

BY

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*Quicquid praecipies, esto brevis, ut cito dicta
Percipiant animi dociles teneantque fideles :
Omne supervacuum pleno de pectore manat.*

—HORACE, *Ars Poetica*.

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*BY CHARLES E. BENNETT.

PREFACE.

THE present work is a revision of that published in 1908. No radical alterations have been introduced, although a number of minor changes will be noted. I have added an Introduction on the origin and development of the Latin language, which it is hoped will prove interesting and instructive to the more ambitious pupil. At the end of the book will be found an Index to the Sources of the Illustrative Examples cited in the Syntax.

C. E. B.

ITHACA, NEW YORK,
May 4, 1918.

PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

THE present book is a revision of my *Latin Grammar* originally published in 1895. Wherever greater accuracy or precision of statement seemed possible, I have endeavored to secure this. The rules for syllable division have been changed and made to conform to the prevailing practice of the Romans themselves. In the Perfect Subjunctive Active, the endings *-is*, *-imus*, *-itis* are now marked long. The theory of vowel length before the suffixes *-gnus*, *-gna*, *-gnum*, and also before *j*, has been discarded. In the Syntax I have recognized a special category of Ablative of Association, and have abandoned the original doctrine as to the force of tenses in the Prohibitive.

Apart from the foregoing, only minor and unessential modifications have been introduced. In its main lines the work remains unchanged.

ITHACA, NEW YORK,
October 16, 1907.

FROM THE PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

THE object of this book is to present *the essential facts* of Latin grammar in a direct and simple manner, and within the smallest compass consistent with scholarly standards. While intended primarily for the secondary school, it has not neglected the needs of the college student, and aims to furnish such grammatical information as is ordinarily required in undergraduate courses.

The experience of foreign educators in recent years has tended to restrict the size of school-grammars of Latin, and has demanded an incorporation of the main principles of the language in compact manuals of 250 pages. Within the past decade, several grammars of this scope have appeared abroad which have amply met the most exacting demands.

The publication in this country of a grammar of similar plan and scope seems fully justified at the present time, as all recent editions of classic texts summarize in introductions the special idioms of grammar and style peculiar to individual authors. This makes it feasible to dispense with the enumeration of many *minutiae* of usage which would otherwise demand consideration in a student's grammar.

In the chapter on Prosody, I have designedly omitted all special treatment of the lyric metres of Horace and Catullus, as well as of the measures of the comic poets. Our standard editions of these authors all give such thorough consideration to versification that repetition in a separate place seems superfluous.

ITHACA, NEW YORK,
December 15, 1894.

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INTRODUCTION.

THE LATIN LANGUAGE.

1. **The Indo-European Family of Languages.**—Latin belongs to one group of a large family of languages, known as *Indo-European*.¹ This Indo-European family of languages embraces the following groups :

ASIATIC MEMBERS OF THE INDO-EUROPEAN FAMILY.

a. The Sanskrit, spoken in ancient India. Of this there were several stages, the oldest of which is the Vedic, or language of the Vedic Hymns. These Hymns are the oldest literary productions known to us among all the branches of the Indo-European family. A conservative estimate places them as far back as 1500 B.C. Some scholars have even set them more than a thousand years earlier than this, *i.e.* anterior to 2500 B.C.

The Sanskrit, in modified form, has always continued to be spoken in India, and is represented to-day by a large number of dialects descended from the ancient Sanskrit, and spoken by millions of people.

b. The Iranian, spoken in ancient Persia, and closely related to the Sanskrit. There were two main branches of the Iranian group, *viz.* the Old Persian and the Avestan. The Old Persian was the official language of the court, and appears in a number of so-called cuneiform² inscriptions, the earliest of which date from the time of Darius I (sixth century B.C.). The other branch of the Iranian, the Avestan,³ is the language of the Avesta or sacred books of the Parsees, the followers of Zoro-

¹ Sometimes also called *Aryan* or *Indo-Germanic*.

² Cuneiform means "wedge-shaped." The name applies to the form of the strokes of which the characters consist.

³ The name Zend is often given to this.

aster, founder of the religion of the fire-worshippers. Portions of these sacred books may have been composed as early as 1000 B.C.

Modern Persian is a living representative of the old Iranian speech. It has naturally been much modified by time, particularly through the introduction of many words from the Arabic.

c. The Armenian, spoken in Armenia, the district near the Black Sea and Caucasus Mountains. This is closely related to the Iranian, and was formerly classified under that group. It is now recognized as entitled to independent rank. The earliest literary productions of the Armenian language date from the fourth and fifth centuries of the Christian era. To this period belong the translation of the Scriptures and the old Armenian Chronicle. The Armenian is still a living language, though spoken in widely separated districts, owing to the scattered locations in which the Armenians are found to-day.

d. The Tokharian. This language, only recently discovered and identified as Indo-European, was spoken in the districts east of the Caspian Sea (modern Turkestan). While in some respects closely related to the three Asiatic branches of the Indo-European family already considered, in others it shows close relationship to the European members of the family. The literature of the Tokharian, so far as it has been brought to light, consists mainly of translations from the Sanskrit sacred writings, and dates from the seventh century of our era.

EUROPEAN MEMBERS OF THE INDO-EUROPEAN FAMILY.

e. The Greek. The Greeks had apparently long been settled in Greece and Asia Minor as far back as 1500 B.C. Probably they arrived in these districts much earlier. The earliest literary productions are the Iliad and the Odyssey of Homer, which very likely go back to the ninth century B.C. From the sixth century B.C. on, Greek literature is continuous. Modern Greek, when we consider its distance in time from antiquity, is remarkably similar to the classical Greek of the fourth and fifth centuries B.C.*

f. The Italic Group. The Italic Group embraces the Umbrian, spoken in the northern part of the Italian peninsula (in ancient Umbria); the Latin, spoken in the central part (in Latium); the Oscan, spoken in the southern part (in Samnium, Campania, Lucania, etc.). Besides these, there were a number of minor dialects, such as the Marsian, Volscian, etc. Of all these (barring the Latin), there are no remains except a few scanty inscriptions. Latin literature begins shortly after 250 B.C. in the works of Livius Andronicus, Naevius, and Plautus, although a few brief inscriptions are found belonging to a much earlier period.

g. The Celtic. In the earliest historical times of which we have any record, the Celts occupied extensive portions of northern Italy, as well as certain areas in central Europe; but after the second century B.C., they are found only in Gaul and the British Isles. Among the chief languages belonging to the Celtic group are the Gallic, spoken in ancient Gaul; the Breton, still spoken in the modern French province of Brittany; the Irish, which is still extensively spoken in Ireland among the common people; the Welsh; and the Gaelic of the Scotch Highlanders.

h. The Teutonic. The Teutonic group is very extensive. Its earliest representative is the Gothic, preserved for us in the translation of the scriptures by the Gothic Bishop Ulfilas (about 375 A.D.). Other languages belonging to this group are the Old Norse, once spoken in Scandinavia, and from which are descended the modern Icelandic, Norwegian, Swedish, Danish; German; Dutch; Anglo-Saxon, from which is descended the modern English.

i. The Balto-Slavic. The languages of this group belong to eastern Europe. The Baltic division of the group embraces the Lithuanian and Lettic, spoken to-day by the people living on the eastern shores of the Baltic Sea. The earliest literary productions of these languages date from the sixteenth century. The Slavic division comprises a large number of languages, the most important of which are the Russian, the Bulgarian, the

Serbian, the Bohemian, the Polish. All of these were late in developing a literature, the earliest to do so being the Old Bulgarian, in which we find a translation of the Bible dating from the ninth century.

j. The Albanian, spoken in Albania and parts of Greece, Italy, and Sicily. This is most nearly related to the Balto-Slavic group, and is characterized by the very large proportion of words borrowed from Latin, Turkish, Greek, and Slavic. Its literature does not begin till the seventeenth century.

2. **Home of the Indo-European Family.** — Despite the many outward differences of the various languages of the foregoing groups, a careful examination of their structure and vocabulary demonstrates their intimate relationship and proves overwhelmingly their descent from a common parent. We must believe, therefore, that at one time there existed a homogeneous clan or tribe of people speaking a language from which all the above enumerated languages are descended. The precise location of the home of this ancient tribe cannot be determined. For a long time it was assumed that it was in central Asia north of the Himalaya Mountains, but this view has long been rejected as untenable. It arose from the exaggerated importance attached for a long while to Sanskrit. The great antiquity of the earliest literary remains of the Sanskrit (the Vedic Hymns) suggested that the inhabitants of India were geographically close to the original seat of the Indo-European Family. Hence the home was sought in the elevated plateau to the north. To-day it is thought that central or southeastern Europe is much more likely to have been the cradle of the Indo-European parent-speech, though anything like a logical demonstration of so difficult a problem can hardly be expected.

As to the size and extent of the original tribe whence the Indo-European languages have sprung, we can only speculate. It probably was not large, and very likely formed a compact racial and linguistic unit for centuries, possibly for thousands of years.

The time at which Indo-European unity ceased and the vari-

ous individual languages began their separate existence, is likewise shrouded in obscurity. When we consider that the separate existence of the Sanskrit may antedate 2500 B.C., it may well be believed that people speaking the Indo-European parent-speech belonged to a period as far back as 5000 B.C., or possibly earlier.

3. **Stages in the Development of the Latin Language.**—The earliest remains of the Latin language are found in certain very archaic inscriptions. The oldest of these belong to the sixth and seventh centuries B.C. Roman literature does not begin till several centuries later, *viz.* shortly after the middle of the third century B.C. We may recognize the following clearly marked periods of the language and literature :

a. The Preliterary Period, from the earliest times down to 240 B.C., when Livius Andronicus brought out his first play. For this period our knowledge of Latin depends almost exclusively upon the scanty inscriptions that have survived from this remote time. Few of these are of any length.

b. The Archaic Period, from Livius Andronicus (240 B.C.) to Cicero (81 B.C.). Even in this age the language had already become highly developed as a medium of expression. In the hands of certain gifted writers it had even become a vehicle of power and beauty. In its simplicity, however, it naturally marks a contrast with the more finished diction of later days. To this period belong :

Livius Andronicus, about 275–204 B.C. (Translation of Homer's *Odyssey*; Tragedies).

Plautus, about 250–184 B.C. (Comedies).

Naevius, about 270–199 B.C. ("Punic War"; Comedies).

Ennius, 239–169 B.C. ("Annals"; Tragedies).

Terence, about 190–159 B.C. (Comedies).

Lucilius, 180–103 B.C. (Satires).

Pacuvius, 220–about 130 B.C. (Tragedies).

Accius, 170–about 85 B.C. (Tragedies).

c. The Golden Age, from Cicero (81 B.C.) to the death of Augustus (14 A.D.). In this period the language, especially in the hands of Cicero, reaches a high degree of stylistic perfection. Its vocabulary, however, has not yet attained its greatest fullness and range. Traces of the diction of the Archaic Period are often noticed, especially in the poets, who naturally sought their effects by reverting to the speech of olden times. Literature reached its culmination in this epoch, especially in the great poets of the Augustan Age. The following writers belong here :

Lucretius, about 95-55 B.C. (Poem on Epicurean Philosophy).

Catullus, 87-about 54 B.C. (Poet).

Cicero, 106-43 B.C. (Orations; Rhetorical Works; Philosophical Works; Letters).

Caesar, 102-44 B.C. (Commentaries on Gallic and Civil Wars).

Sallust, 86-36 B.C. (Historian).

Nepos, about 100-about 30 B.C. (Historian).

Virgil, 70-19 B.C. ("Aeneid"; "Georgics"; "Bucolics").

Horace, 65-8 B.C. (Odes; Satires; Epistles).

Tibullus, about 54-19 B.C. (Poet).

Propertius, about 50-about 15 B.C. (Poet).

Ovid, 43 B.C.-17 A.D. ("Metamorphoses" and other poems).

Livy, 59 B.C.-17 A.D. (Historian).

d. The Silver Latinity, from the death of Augustus (14 A.D.) to the death of Marcus Aurelius (180 A.D.). This period is marked by a certain reaction against the excessive precision of the previous age. It had become the practice to pay too much attention to standardized forms of expression, and to leave too little play to the individual writer. In the healthy reaction against this formalism, greater freedom of expression now manifests itself. We note also the introduction of idioms from the

colloquial language, along with many poetical words and usages. The following authors deserve mention :

Phaedrus, flourished about 40 A.D. (Fables in Verse).

Velleius Paterculus, flourished about 30 A.D. (Historian).

Lucan, 39-65 A.D. (Poem on the Civil War).

Seneca, about 1-65 A.D. (Tragedies ; Philosophical Works).

Pliny the Elder, 23-79 A.D. ("Natural History").

Pliny the Younger, 62-about 115 A.D. ("Letters").

Martial, about 45-about 104 A.D. (Epigrams).

Quintilian, about 35-about 100 A.D. (Treatise on Oratory and Education).

Tacitus, about 55-about 118 A.D. (Historian).

Juvenal, about 55-about 135 A.D. (Satirist).

Suetonius, about 75-about 150 A.D. ("Lives of the Twelve Caesars").

Minucius Felix, flourished about 160 A.D. (First Christian Apologist).

Apuleius, 125-about 200 B.C. ("Metamorphoses," or "Golden Ass").

e. The Archaizing Period. This period is characterized by a conscious imitation of the Archaic Period of the second and first centuries B.C. ; it overlaps the preceding period, and is of importance from a linguistic rather than from a literary point of view. Of writers who manifest the archaizing tendency most conspicuously may be mentioned Fronto, from whose hand we have a collection of letters addressed to the Emperors Antoninus Pius and Marcus Aurelius ; also Aulus Gellius, author of the "Attic Nights." Both of these writers flourished in the second half of the second century A.D.

f. The Period of the Decline, from 180 to the close of literary activity in the sixth century A.D. This period is characterized by rapid and radical alterations in the language. The features of the conversational idiom of the lower strata of society invade

the literature, while in the remote provinces, such as Gaul, Spain, Africa, the language suffers from the incorporation of local peculiarities. Representative writers of this period are :

Tertullian, about 160—about 240 A.D. (Christian Writer).

Cyprian, about 200—258 A.D. (Christian Writer).

Lactantius, flourished about 300 A.D. (Defense of Christianity).

Ausonius, about 310—about 395 A.D. (Poet).

Jerome, 340—420 A.D. (Translator of the Scriptures).

Ambrose, about 340—397 (Christian Father).

Augustine, 354—430 (Christian Father—“City of God”).

Prudentius, flourished 400 A.D. (Christian Poet).

Claudian, flourished 400 A.D. (Poet).

Boëthius, about 480—524 A.D. (“Consolation of Philosophy”).

4. **Subsequent History of the Latin Language.**—After the sixth century A.D. Latin divides into two entirely different streams. One of these is the literary language maintained in courts, in the Church, and among scholars. This was no longer the language of people in general, and as time went on, became more and more artificial. The other stream is the colloquial idiom of the common people, which developed ultimately in the provinces into the modern so-called Romance idioms. These are the Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, French, Provençal (spoken in Provence, *i.e.* southeastern France), the Rhaeto-Romance (spoken in the Canton of the Grisons in Switzerland), and the Roumanian, spoken in modern Roumania and adjacent districts. All these Romance languages bear the same relation to the Latin as the different groups of the Indo-European family of languages bear to the parent-speech.

PART I.

SOUNDS, ACCENT, QUANTITY.

THE ALPHABET.

1. The Latin Alphabet is the same as the English, except that the Latin has no **w**.

1. **K** occurs only in *Kalendae* and a few other words; **y** and **z** were introduced from the Greek about 50 B.C., and occur only in foreign words — chiefly Greek.

2. With the Romans, who regularly employed only capitals, **I** served both as vowel and consonant; so also **V**. For us, however, it is more convenient to distinguish the vowel and consonant sounds, and to write **i** and **u** for the former, **j** and **v** for the latter. Yet some scholars prefer to employ **i** and **u** in the function of consonants as well as vowels.

CLASSIFICATION OF SOUNDS.

2. 1. The Vowels are **a, e, i, o, u, y**. The other letters are Consonants. The Diphthongs are **ae, oe, ei, au, eu, ui**.

2. Consonants are further subdivided into Mutes, Liquids, Nasals, and Spirants.

3. The Mutes are **p, t, c, k, q; b, d, g; ph, th, ch**. Of these, —

a) **p, t, c, k, q** are voiceless,¹ *i.e.* sounded *without* voice or vibration of the vocal cords.

b) **b, d, g** are voiced,² *i.e.* sounded *with* vibration of the vocal cords.

¹ For 'voiceless,' 'surd,' 'hard,' or 'tenuis' are sometimes used.

² For 'voiced,' 'sonant,' 'soft,' or 'media' are sometimes used.

c) **ph, th, ch** are aspirates. These are confined almost exclusively to words derived from the Greek, and were equivalent to **p + h, t + h, c + h**, *i.e.* to the corresponding voiceless mutes with a following breath, as in Eng. *loop-hole, hot-house, block-house*.

4. The Mutes admit of classification also as

Labials,	p, b, ph.
Dentals (or Linguals),	t, d, th.
Gutturals (or Palatals),	c, k, q, g, ch.

5. The Liquids are **l, r**. These sounds were voiced.

6. The Nasals are **m, n**. These were voiced. Besides its ordinary sound, **n**, when followed by a guttural mute also had another sound, — that of **ng** in *sing*, — the so-called *n adulterinum*; as, —

anceps, double, pronounced **angceps**.

7. The Spirants (sometimes called Fricatives) are **f, s, h**. These were voiceless.

8. The Semivowels are **j** and **v**. These were voiced.

9. Double Consonants are **x** and **z**. Of these, **x** was equivalent to **cs**, while the equivalence of **z** is uncertain. See § 3. 3.

10. The following table will indicate the relations of the consonant sounds: —

	VOICELESS.	VOICED.	ASPIRATES.	
Mutes,	{ p, t, c, k, q,	b,	ph,	(Labials).
		d,	th,	(Dentals).
		g,	ch,	(Gutturals).
Liquids,		l, r,		
Nasals,		m, n,		
Spirants,	{ f, s, h,			(Labial).
				(Dental).
				(Guttural).
Semivowels,		j, v.		

a. The Double Consonants, **x** and **z**, being compound sounds do not admit of classification in the above table.

SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

3. The following pronunciation (often called Roman) is substantially that employed by the Romans at the height of their civilization; *i.e.* roughly, from 50 B.C. to 50 A.D.

1. Vowels.

as in *father* ;

as in *they* ;

as in *machine* ;

as in *note* ;

as in *rude* ;

like French *u*, German *ü*.

ǎ as in the first syllable of *ahd* ;

ě as in *met* ;

ī as in *pin* ;

ō as in *obey, melody* ;

ŭ as in *put* ;

2. Diphthongs.

ae like *ai* in *aisle* ;

oe like *oi* in *oil* ;

ei as in *rein* ;

au like *ow* in *how* ;

eu with its two elements, ě and ŭ, pronounced in rapid succession ;

ui occurs almost exclusively in *cui* and *huic*. These words may be pronounced as though written *kwēe* and *wheek*.

3. Consonants.

d, f, h, k, l, m, n, p, qu are pronounced as in English, except that **bs, bt** are pronounced *ps, pt*.

is is always pronounced as *h*.

is is always a plain *t*, never with the sound of *sh* as in Eng. *oration*.

always as in *get* ; when **ngu** precedes a vowel, **gu** has the sound of *gw*, as in *anguis, languidus*.

has the sound of *y* as in *yei*.

was probably slightly trilled with the tip of the tongue.

always voiceless as in *sin* ; in *suādeō, suāvis, suēscō*, and in compounds and derivatives of these words, **su** has the sound of *sw*.

like *w*.

always like *ks* ; never like Eng. *gz* or *z*.

uncertain in sound ; possibly like Eng. *zd*, possibly like *z*. The latter sound is recommended.

The aspirates **ph, ch, th** were pronounced very nearly like our stressed Eng. *p, c, t*—so nearly so, that, for practical purposes, the latter sounds suffice.

Doubled letters, like **ll, mm, tt, etc.**, should be so pronounced that both members of the combination are distinctly articulated.

SYLLABLES.

4. There are as many syllables in a Latin word as there are separate vowels and diphthongs.

In the division of words into syllables,—

1. A single consonant is joined to the following vowel; as, **vo-lat**, **ge-rit**, **pe-rit**, **a-dest**.

2. Doubled consonants, like **tt**, **ss**, *etc.*, are always separated; as, **vit-ta**, **mis-sus**.

3. Other combinations of two or more consonants are regularly separated, and the first consonant of the combination is joined with the preceding vowel; as, **ma-gis-trī**, **dig-nus**, **mōn-strum**, **sis-te-re**.

4. An exception to Rule 3 occurs when the two consonants consist of a mute followed by **l** or **r** (**pl**, **cl**, **tl**; **pr**, **cr**, **tr**, *etc.*). In such cases both consonants are regularly joined to the following vowel; as, **a-grī**, **vo-lu-cris**, **pa-tris**, **mā-tris**. Yet if the **l** or **r** introduces the second part of a compound, the two consonants are separated; as, **ab-rumpō**, **ad-lātus**.

5. The double consonant **x** is joined to the preceding vowel; as, **ax-is**, **tēx-ī**.

QUANTITY.

5. A. Quantity of Vowels.

A vowel is *long* or *short* according to the length of time required for its pronunciation. No absolute rule can be given for determining the quantity of Latin vowels. This knowledge must be gained, in large measure, by experience; but the following principles are of aid:—

1. A vowel is long,¹—

a) before **nf** or **ns**; as, **īnfāns**, **īnferior**, **cōnsūmō**, **cēnseō**, **īnsum**.

b) when the result of contraction; as, **nīlum** for **nihilum**.

2. A vowel is short,—

a) before **nt**, **nd**; as, **amant**, **amandus**. A few exceptions occur in compounds whose first member has a long vowel; as, **nōndum** (**nōn dum**).

b) before another vowel, or **h**; as, **meus**, **trahō**. Some exceptions occur, chiefly in proper names derived from the Greek as, **Aenēās**.

¹ In this book, long vowels are indicated by a horizontal line above them; as **ā**, **ī**, **ō**, *etc.* Vowels not thus marked are short. Occasionally a curve is set above short vowels; as, **ē**, **ě**, **ū**.

B. Quantity of Syllables.

Syllables are distinguished as *long* or *short* according to the length of time required for their pronunciation.

1. **A syllable is long,**¹—

a) if it contains a long vowel; as, **māter, rēgnum, dīus.**

b) if it contains a diphthong; as, **causae, foedus.**

c) if it contains a short vowel followed by **x, z,** or any two consonants (except a mute with **l** or **r**); as, **axis, gaza, restō.**

2. **A syllable is short,** if it contains a short vowel followed by a vowel or by a single consonant; as, **mea, amat.**

3. Sometimes a syllable varies in quantity, *viz.* when its vowel is short and is followed by a mute with **l** or **r**, *i.e.* by **pl, cl, tl; pr, cr, tr,** etc.; as, **āgrī, volūcris.**² Such syllables are called *common*. In prose they were regularly short, but in verse they might be treated as long at the option of the poet.

NOTE.—These distinctions of *long* and *short* are not arbitrary and artificial, but are purely natural. Thus, a syllable containing a short vowel followed by two consonants, as **ng**, is long, because such a syllable requires *more time* for its pronunciation; while a syllable containing a short vowel followed by one consonant is short, because it takes *less time* to pronounce it. In case of the common syllables, the mute and the liquid blend so easily as to produce a combination which takes no more time than a single consonant. Yet by separating the two elements (as **ag-rī**) the poets were able to use such syllables as long.

ACCENT.

6. 1. Words of two syllables are accented upon the first; as, **tēgit, mōrem.**

2. Words of more than two syllables are accented upon the penult (next to the last) if that is a long syllable, otherwise upon the antepenult (second from the last); as, **amāvī, amāntis, miserum.**

3. When the enclitics **-que, -ne, -ve, -ce, -met, -dum** are appended to words, if the syllable preceding the enclitic is long (either originally or as a result of adding the enclitic) it is accented; as, **miserōque, hominīsqe.** But if the syllable still remains short after the enclitic has been added, it is not accented unless the word originally took the accent on the antepenult. Thus, **pórtaque;** but **miseráque.**

¹ To avoid confusion, the quantity of *syllables* is not indicated by any sign.

² But if the **l** or **r** introduces the second part of a compound, the preceding syllable is always long; as, **abrumpō.**

4. Sometimes the final -e of -ne and -ce disappears, but without affecting the accent; as, **tantōn**, **istfc**, **illūc**.

5. In **utrāque**, *each*, and **piērāque**, *most*, -que is not properly an enclitic; yet these words accent the penult, owing to the influence of their other cases, — **utérque**, **utrúmque**, **plērúmque**.

VOWEL CHANGES.¹

7. 1. In Compounds, —

a) ě before a single consonant becomes ĭ; as, —
colligō for **con-legō**.

b) ǎ before a single consonant becomes ĭ; as, —
adigō for **ad-agō**.

c) ǎ before two consonants becomes ě; as, —
expers for **ex-pars**.

d) ae becomes ĭ; as, —
conquīrō for **con-quaerō**.

e) au becomes ū, sometimes ō; as, —
conclūdō for **con-claudō**;
explōdō for **ex-plaudō**.

2. **Contraction.** Concurrent vowels were frequently contracted into one long vowel. The first of the two vowels regularly prevailed; as, —

trēs for tre-es ;	cōpia for co-opia ;
mālō for ma(v)elō ;	cōgō for co-agō ;
amāstī for amā(v)istī ;	cōmō for co-emō ;
dēbeō for dē(h)abeō ;	jūnior for ju(v)enior .
nīl for nihil ;	

3. **Parasitic Vowels.** In the environment of liquids and nasals a parasitic vowel sometimes develops; as, —

vinculum for earlier **vinclum**.

So **perīculum**, **saeculum**.

4. **Syncope.** Sometimes a vowel drops out by syncope; as, —

ārdor for **āridor** (compare *āridus*);
valdē for **validē** (compare *validus*).

¹ Only the simplest and most obvious of these are here treated.

CONSONANT CHANGES.¹

8. 1. **Rhotacism.** An original *s* between vowels became *r*; as,—

arbōs, Gen. *arboris* (for *arbosis*);
genus, Gen. *generis* (for *genesis*);
dirimō (for *dis-emō*).

2. **dt, tt, ts** each give *ε* or *es*; as,—

pēnsūm for *pend-tum*;
versūm for *vert-tum*;
mīles for *mīlet-s*;
sessus for *sedtus*;
passus for *pattus*.

3. **Final consonants** were often omitted; as,—

cor for *cord*;
lac for *lact*.

4. **Assimilation of Consonants.** Consonants are often assimilated to a following sound. Thus: *accurrō* (*adc-*); *aggerō* (*adg-*); *asserō* (*ads-*); *allātus* (*adl-*); *apportō* (*adp-*); *attulī* (*adt-*); *arrīdeō* (*adr-*); *afferō* (*adf-*); *occurrō* (*obc-*); *suppōnō* (*subp-*); *offerō* (*obf-*); *corruō* (*comr-*); *collātus* (*coml-*); *etc.*

5. **Partial Assimilation.** Sometimes the assimilation is only partial. Thus:—

- a) **b** before **s** or **t** becomes **p**; as,—
scrīpsī (*scrīb-sī*), *scrīptum* (*scrīb-tum*).
- b) **g** before **s** or **t** becomes **o**; as,—
āctus (*āg-tus*).
- c) **m** before a dental or guttural becomes **n**; as,—
eundem (*eum-dem*); *prīnceps* (*prīm-ceps*).

PECULIARITIES OF ORTHOGRAPHY.

9. Many words have variable orthography.

1. Sometimes the different forms belong to different periods of the language. Thus, *quom*, *voltus*, *volnus*, *volt*, *etc.*, were the prevail-

¹ Only the simplest and most obvious of these are here treated.

ing forms almost down to the Augustan age; after that, **cum, vultus, vulnus, vult, etc.** So **optumus, maxumus, lubet, lubidō, etc.**, down to about the same era; later, **optimus, maximus, libet, libidō, etc.**

2. In some words the orthography varies at one and the same period of the language. Examples are **exspectō, expectō; existō, existō; epistula, epistola; adulēscēns, adolēscēns; paulus, paullus; cottidiē, cotīdiē**; and, particularly, prepositional compounds, which often made a concession to the etymology in the spelling; as, —

ad-gerō	or aggerō ;	ad-serō	or asserō ;
ad-liciō	or alliciō ;	in-lātus	or illātus ;
ad-rogāns	or arrogāns ;	sub-moveō	or summoveō ;

and many others.

3. Compounds of **jaciō** were usually written **ēiciō, dēiciō, adiciō, obiciō, etc.**, but were probably pronounced as though written **adjiciō, objiciō, etc.**

4. Adjectives and nouns in **-quus, -quum; -vus, -vum; -uus, -uum** preserved the earlier forms in **-quos, -quom; -vos, -vom; -uos, -uom**, down through the Ciceronian age; as, **antīquos, antīquom; saevos; perpetuos; equos; servos**. Similarly verbs in the 3d plural present indicative exhibit the terminations **-quont, -quontur; -vont, -vontur; -uont, -uontur**, for the same period; as, **relinquont, loquontur; vīvont, metuont**.

The older spelling, while generally followed in editions of Plautus and Terence, has not yet been adopted in our prose texts.

PART II.

INFLECTIONS.

10. The Parts of Speech in Latin are the same as in English, *viz.* Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections; but the Latin has no article.

11. Of these eight parts of speech the first four are capable of **Inflection**, *i.e.* of undergoing change of form to express modifications of meaning. In case of Nouns, Adjectives, and Pronouns, this process is called **Declension**; in case of verbs, **Conjugation**.

CHAPTER I. — *Declension.*

A. NOUNS.

12. A Noun is the name of a *person, place, thing, or quality*; as, **Caesar**, *Caesar*; **Rōma**, *Rome*; **penna**, *feather*; **virtūs**, *courage*.

1. Nouns are either Proper or Common. Proper nouns are permanent names of persons or places; as, **Caesar**, **Rōma**. Other nouns are Common; as, **penna**, **virtūs**.

2. Nouns are also distinguished as Concrete or Abstract.

a) Concrete nouns are those which designate individual objects; as, **mōns**, *mountain*; **pēs**, *foot*; **diēs**, *day*; **mēns**, *mind*.

Under concrete nouns are included, also, collective nouns; as, *legiō*, *legion*; *comitātus*, *retinue*.

- b) Abstract nouns designate qualities; as, *cōstantia*, *steadfastness*; *paupertās*, *poverty*.

GENDER OF NOUNS.

13. There are three Genders, — Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter. Gender in Latin is either natural or grammatical.

Natural Gender.

14. The gender of nouns is natural when it is based upon sex. Natural gender is confined entirely to names of persons; and these are —

1. Masculine, if they denote males; as, —
nauta, *sailor*; *agricola*, *farmer*.
2. Feminine, if they denote females; as, —
māter, *mother*; *rēgīna*, *queen*.

Grammatical Gender.

15. Grammatical gender is determined not by sex, but by the general signification of the word, or the ending of its Nominative Singular. By grammatical gender, nouns denoting things or qualities are often Masculine or Feminine, simply by virtue of their signification or the ending of the Nominative Singular. The following are the general principles for determining grammatical gender: —

A. Gender determined by Signification.

1. Names of *Rivers*, *Winds*, and *Months* are Masculine; as, —

Sēquana, *Seine*; *Eurus*, *east wind*; *Aprīlis*, *April*.

2. Names of *Trees*, and such names of *Towns* and *Islands* as end in *-us*, are Feminine; as, —

quercus, *oak*; *Corinthus*, *Corinth*; *Rhodus*, *Rhodes*.

Other names of towns and islands follow the gender of their endings (see *B*, below); as, —

Delphī, m.; **Leuctra**, n.; **Tībur**, n.; **Carthāgō**, f.

3. Indeclinable nouns, also infinitives and phrases, are Neuter; as, —

nihil, *nothing*; **nefās**, *wrong*; **amāre**, *to love*.

NOTE.—Exceptions to the above principles sometimes occur; as, **Alliā** (the river), f.

B. Gender determined by Ending of Nominative Singular.

The gender of other nouns is determined by the ending of the Nominative Singular.¹

NOTE 1.—*Common Gender.* Certain nouns are sometimes Masculine, sometimes Feminine. Thus, **sacerdōs** may mean either *priest* or *priestess*, and is Masculine or Feminine accordingly. So also **cīvis**, *citizen*; **parēns**, *parent*; etc. The gender of such nouns is said to be *common*.

NOTE 2.—Names of animals usually have grammatical gender, according to the ending of the Nominative Singular, but the one form may designate either the male or female; as, **ānser**, m., *goose* or *gander*. So **vulpēs**, f., *fox*; **aquila**, f., *eagle*.

NUMBER.

16. The Latin has two Numbers,—the Singular and Plural. The Singular denotes one object; the Plural, more than one.

CASES.

17. There are six Cases in Latin:—

Nominative ,	Case of Subject;
Genitive ,	Objective with <i>of</i> , or Possessive;
Dative ,	Objective with <i>to</i> or <i>for</i> ;
Accusative ,	Case of Direct Object;
Vocative ,	Case of Address;
Ablative ,	Objective with <i>by</i> , <i>from</i> , <i>in</i> , <i>with</i> .

¹ The great majority of all Latin nouns come under this category. The principles for determining their gender are given under the separate declensions.

1. **LOCATIVE.** Vestiges of another case, the **Locative** (denoting place where), occur in names of towns and in a few other words.

2. **OBLIQUE CASES.** The Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative are called **Oblique Cases**.

3. **STEM AND CASE-ENDINGS.** The different cases are formed by appending certain **case-endings** to a fundamental part called the **Stem**.¹ Thus, **portam** (Accusative Singular) is formed by adding the case-ending **-m** to the stem **porta-**. But in most cases the final vowel of the stem has coalesced so closely with the actual case-ending that the latter has become more or less obscured. The *apparent case-ending* thus resulting is called a **termination**.

THE FIVE DECLENSIONS.

18. There are five Declensions in Latin, distinguished from each other by the final letter of the Stem, and also by the Termination of the Genitive Singular, as follows:—

DECLENSION.	FINAL LETTER OF STEM.	GEN. TERMINATION.
First	ā	-ae
Second	ō	-ī
Third	{ ī Some consonant	-is
Fourth	ū	-ūs
Fifth	ē	-ēī

Cases alike in Form.

19. 1. The Vocative is regularly like the Nominative, except in the singular of nouns in **-us** of the Second Declension.

2. The Dative and Ablative Plural are always alike.

3. In Neuters the Accusative and Nominative are always alike, and in the Plural end in **-ā**.

4. In the Third, Fourth, and Fifth Declensions, the Accusative Plural is regularly like the Nominative.

¹ The Stem is often derived from a more primitive form called the **Root**. Thus, the stem **porta-** goes back to the root **per-, por-**. Roots are usually monosyllabic. The addition made to a root to form a stem is called a **Suffix**. Thus in **porta-** the suffix is **-ta**.

FIRST DECLENSION.

ā-Stems.

20. Pure Latin nouns of the First Declension regularly end, in the Nominative Singular, in -ā, weakened from -ā, and are of the Feminine Gender. They are declined as follows:—

Porta, gate ; stem, portā-.

SINGULAR.		
CASES.	MEANINGS.	TERMINATIONS.
<i>Nom.</i> porta	<i>a gate (as subject)</i>	-ā
<i>Gen.</i> portae	<i>of a gate</i>	-ae
<i>Dat.</i> portae	<i>to or for a gate</i>	-ae
<i>Acc.</i> portam	<i>a gate (as object)</i>	-am
<i>Voc.</i> porta	<i>O gate!</i>	-ā
<i>Abl.</i> portā	<i>with, by, from, in a gate</i>	-ā
PLURAL.		
<i>Nom.</i> portae	<i>gates (as subject)</i>	-ae
<i>Gen.</i> portārum	<i>of gates</i>	-ārum
<i>Dat.</i> portīs	<i>to or for gates</i>	-īs
<i>Acc.</i> portās	<i>gates (as object)</i>	-ās
<i>Voc.</i> portae	<i>O gates!</i>	-ae
<i>Abl.</i> portīs	<i>with, by, from, in gates</i>	-īs

1. The Latin has no article, and **porta** may mean either *a gate* or *the gate*; and in the Plural, *gates* or *the gates*.

Peculiarities of Nouns of the First Declension.

21. I. EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER. Nouns denoting males are Masculine; as, **nauta**, *sailor*; **agricola**, *farmer*; also, **Hadria**, *Adriatic Sea*.

2. Rare Case-Endings, —

a) An old form of the Genitive Singular in -ās is preserved in the combination **pater familiās**, *father of a family*; also in **māter familiās**, **filius familiās**, **fīlia familiās**. But the regular form of the Genitive in -ae is also admissible in these expressions; as, **pater familiae**.

b) In poetry a Genitive in -āī also occurs; as, **aulāī**.

- c) The Locative Singular ends in *-ae*; as, **Rōmae**, *at Rome*.
- d) A Genitive Plural in *-um* instead of *-ārum* sometimes occurs; as, **Dardanidum** instead of **Dardanidārum**. This termination *-um* is not a contraction of *-ārum*, but represents an entirely different case-ending.
- e) Instead of the regular ending *-īs*, we usually find *-ābus* in the Dative and Ablative Plural of **dea**, *goddess*, and **fīlia**, *daughter*, especially when it is important to distinguish these nouns from the corresponding forms of **deus**, *god*, and **fīlius**, *son*. A few other words sometimes have the same peculiarity: as, **libertābus** (from **liberta**, *freedwoman*), **equābus** (*mares*), to avoid confusion with **libertīs** (from **libertus**, *freedman*) and **equīs** (from **equus**, *horse*).

Greek Nouns.

22. These end in *-ē* (Feminine); *-ās* and *-ēs* (Masculine). In the Plural they are declined like regular Latin nouns of the First Declension. In the Singular they are declined as follows:—

	Archīās , <i>Archias</i> .	Epitomē , <i>epitome</i> .	Comētēs , <i>comet</i> .
<i>Nom.</i>	Archīās	epitomē	comētēs
<i>Gen.</i>	Archīae	epitomēs	comētae
<i>Dat.</i>	Archīae	epitomae	comētae
<i>Acc.</i>	Archīam (or <i>-ān</i>)	epitomēn	comētēn
<i>Voc.</i>	Archīā	epitomē	comētē (or <i>-ā</i>)
<i>Abl.</i>	Archīā	epitomē	comētē (or <i>-ā</i>)

1. But most Greek nouns in *-ē* become regular Latin nouns in *-a*, and are declined like **porta**; as, **grammatica**, *grammar*; **mūsica**, *music*; **rhētorica**, *rhetoric*.

2. Some other peculiarities occur, especially in poetry.

SECOND DECLENSION.

ō-Stems.

23. Pure Latin nouns of the Second Declension end in *-us*, *-er*, *-ir*, Masculine; *-um*, Neuter. Originally *-us* in the Nominative of the Masculine was *-os*; and *-um* of the Neuters *-om*. So also in the Accusative.

Nouns in *-us* and *-um* are declined as follows:—

Hortus, garden;
stem, *hortō-*.

Bellum, war;
stem, *bellō-*.

SINGULAR.

	TERMINATION.		TERMINATION.
<i>Nom.</i> hortus	-us	bellum	-um
<i>Gen.</i> hortī	-ī	bellī	-ī
<i>Dat.</i> hortō	-ō	bellō	-ō
<i>Acc.</i> hortum	-um	bellum	-um
<i>Voc.</i> horte	-e	bellum	-um
<i>Abl.</i> hortō	-ō	bellō	-ō

PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i> hortī	-ī	bella	-a
<i>Gen.</i> hortōrum	-ōrum	bellōrum	-ōrum
<i>Dat.</i> hortīs	-īs	bellīs	-īs
<i>Acc.</i> hortōs	-ōs	bella	-a
<i>Voc.</i> hortī	-ī	bella	-a
<i>Abl.</i> hortīs	-īs	bellīs	-īs

Nouns in *-er* and *-ir* are declined as follows:—

Puer, boy;
stem, *puerō-*

Ager, field;
stem, *agrō-*

Vir, man;
stem, *virō-*

SINGULAR.

			TERMINATION.
<i>Nom.</i> puer	ager	vir	Wanting
<i>Gen.</i> puerī	agrī	virī	-ī
<i>Dat.</i> puerō	agrō	virō	-ō
<i>Acc.</i> puerum	agrū	virum	-um
<i>Voc.</i> puer	ager	vir	Wanting
<i>Abl.</i> puerō	agrō	virō	-ō

PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i> puerī	agrī	virī	-ī
<i>Gen.</i> puerōrum	agrōrum	virōrum	-ōrum
<i>Dat.</i> puerīs	agrīs	virīs	-īs
<i>Acc.</i> puerōs	agrōs	virōs	-ōs
<i>Voc.</i> puerī	agrī	virī	-ī
<i>Abl.</i> puerīs	agrīs	virīs	-īs

1. Note that in words of the type of *puer* and *vir* the final vowel of the stem has disappeared in the Nominative and Vocative Singular.

In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of *ager*, the stem is further modified by the development of *e* before *r*.

2. The following nouns in *-er* are declined like *puer*: *adulter*, *adulterer*; *gener*, *son-in-law*; *Liber*, *Bacchus*; *socer*, *father-in-law*; *vesper*, *evening*; and compounds in *-fer* and *-ger*, as *signifer*, *armiger*.

Nouns in *-vus*, *-vum*, *-quus*.

24. Nouns ending in the Nominative Singular in *-vus*, *-vum*, *-quus*, exhibited two types of inflection in the classical Latin,—an earlier and a later,—as follows:—

Earlier Inflection (including Caesar and Cicero).

Servos, m., *slave*. **Aevom**, n., *age*. **Equos**, m., *horse*.

SINGULAR.

<i>Nom.</i>	servos	aevom	equos
<i>Gen.</i>	servī	aevī	equī
<i>Dat.</i>	servō	aevō	equō
<i>Acc.</i>	servom	aevom	equom
<i>Voc.</i>	serve	aevom	eque
<i>Abl.</i>	servō	aevō	equō

Later Inflection (after Cicero).

SINGULAR.

<i>Nom.</i>	servus	aevum	equus
<i>Gen.</i>	servī	aevī	equī
<i>Dat.</i>	servō	aevō	equō
<i>Acc.</i>	servum	aevum	equum
<i>Voc.</i>	serve	aevum	eque
<i>Abl.</i>	servō	aevō	equō

1. The Plural of these nouns is regular, and always uniform.

Peculiarities of Inflection in the Second Declension.

25. 1. Proper names in *-ius* regularly form the Genitive Singular in *-ī* (instead of *-iī*), and the Vocative Singular in *ī* (for *-ie*); as, **Vergilī**, of *Virgil*, or *O Virgil* (instead of **Vergiliī**, **Vergilie**). In such words the accent stands upon the penult, even though that be short. Nouns in *-ajus*, *-ejus* form the Gen. in *-aī*, *-eī*, as **Pompejus**, **Pompeī**.

2. Nouns in *-ius* and *-ium*, until after the beginning of the reign of Augustus (31 B.C.), regularly formed the Genitive Singular in *-ī* (instead of *-iī*); as,—

<i>Nom.</i>	ingenium	filius
<i>Gen.</i>	ingénī	filī

These Genitives accent the penult, even when it is short.

3. **Filius** forms the Vocative Singular in **-ī** (for **-iē**); *viz.* **filī**, *O son!*

4. **Deus**, *god*, lacks the Vocative Singular. The Plural is inflected as follows:—

<i>Nom.</i>	dī	(deī)
<i>Gen.</i>	deōrum	(deum)
<i>Dat.</i>	dīs	(deīs)
<i>Acc.</i>	deōs	
<i>Voc.</i>	dī	(deī)
<i>Abl.</i>	dīs	(deīs)

5. The Locative Singular ends in **-ī**; as, **Corinthī**, *at Corinth*.

6. The Genitive Plural has **-um**, instead of **-ōrum**,—

- in words denoting money and measure; as, **talentum**, *of talents*; **modium**, *of pecks*; **sēstertium**, *of sesterces*.
- in **duumvir**, **triumvir**, **decemvir**; as, **duumvirum**.
- sometimes in other words; as, **liberum**, *of the children*; **socium**, *of the allies*.

Exceptions to Gender in the Second Declension.

26. 1. The following nouns in **-us** are Feminine by exception:—

a) Names of **towns**, **islands**, **trees**—according to the general rule laid down in § 15. 2; also some names of countries; as **Aegyptus**, *Egypt*.

b) Five special words,—

alvus , <i>belly</i> ;
carbasus , <i>flax</i> ;
colus , <i>distaff</i> ;
humus , <i>ground</i> ;
vannus , <i>winnowing-fan</i> .

c) A few Greek Feminines; as,—

atomus , <i>atom</i> ;
diphthongus , <i>diphthong</i> .

2. The following nouns in **-us** are Neuter:—

pelagus , <i>sea</i> ;
vīrus , <i>poison</i> ;
vulgus , <i>crowd</i> .

Greek Nouns of the Second Declension.

27. These end in **-os, -ōs**, Masculine or Feminine; and **-on**, Neuter. They are mainly proper names, and are declined as follows:—

Barbitos , m. and f., <i>lyre.</i>	Androgeōs , m., <i>Androgeos.</i>	Īlion , n., <i>Troy.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> barbitos	Androgeōs	Īlion
<i>Gen.</i> barbitī	Androgeō, -ī	Īlī
<i>Dat.</i> barbitō	Androgeō	Īliō
<i>Acc.</i> barbiton	Androgeō, -ōn	Īlion
<i>Voc.</i> barbite	Androgeōs	Īlion
<i>Abl.</i> barbitō	Androgeō	Īliō

1. Nouns in **-os** sometimes form the Accusative Singular in **-um**, instead of **-on**; as, **Dēlum**, *Delos*.

2. The Plural of Greek nouns, when it occurs, is usually regular.

3. For other rare forms of Greek nouns the lexicon may be consulted.

THIRD DECLENSION.

28. Nouns of the Third Declension end in **-a, -e, -ī, -ō, -y, -c, -l, -n, -r, -s, -t, -x**. The Third Declension includes several distinct classes of Stems, —

I. Pure Consonant-Stems.

II. **ī**-Stems.

III. Consonant-Stems which have partially adapted themselves to the inflection of **ī**-Stems.

IV. A very few stems ending in a long vowel or a diphthong.

V. Irregular Nouns.

I. Consonant-Stems.

29. 1. In these the stem appears in its unaltered form in all the oblique cases, so that the actual case-endings may be clearly recognized.

2. Consonant-Stems fall into several natural subdivisions, according as the stem ends in a **Mute**, **Liquid**, **Nasal**, or **Spirant**.

A. Mute-Stems.

30. Mute-Stems may end, —

1. In a Labial (p); as, **prīncep -s**.
2. In a Guttural (g or c); as, **rēmex (rēmeg -s)**; **dux (duc -s)**.
3. In a Dental (d or t); as, **lapis (lapid -s)**; **mīles (mīlet -s)**.

I. STEMS IN A LABIAL MUTE (p).

31. **Prīnceps**, m., *chief*.

SINGULAR.

		TERMINATION.
<i>Nom.</i>	prīnceps	-s
<i>Gen.</i>	prīncipis	-is
<i>Dat.</i>	prīncipī	-ī
<i>Acc.</i>	prīncipem	-em
<i>Voc.</i>	prīnceps	-s
<i>Abl.</i>	prīncipe	-e

PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i>	prīncipēs	-ēs
<i>Gen.</i>	prīncipum	-um
<i>Dat.</i>	prīncipibus	-ibus
<i>Acc.</i>	prīncipēs	-ēs
<i>Voc.</i>	prīncipēs	-ēs
<i>Abl.</i>	prīncipibus	-ibus

2. STEMS IN A GUTTURAL MUTE (g, c).

32. In these the termination **-s** of the Nominative Singular unites with the guttural, thus producing **-x**.

Rēmex, m., *rower*.

Dux, c., *leader*.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Nom.</i>	rēmex	rēmigēs	dux	ducēs
<i>Gen.</i>	rēmigis	rēmigum	ducis	ducum
<i>Dat.</i>	rēmigī	rēmigibus	ducī	ducibus
<i>Acc.</i>	rēmigem	rēmigēs	ducem	ducēs
<i>Voc.</i>	rēmex	rēmigēs	dux	ducēs
<i>Abl.</i>	rēmige	rēmigibus	duce	ducibus

3. STEMS IN A DENTAL MUTE (**d**, **t**).

33. In these the final **d** or **t** of the stem disappears in the Nominative Singular before the ending **-s**.

Lapis, m., stone.		Miles, m., soldier.	
SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Nom.</i> lapis	lapidēs	miles	militēs
<i>Gen.</i> lapidis	lapidum	militis	militum
<i>Dat.</i> lapidī	lapidibus	militī	militibus
<i>Acc.</i> lapidem	lapidēs	militem	militēs
<i>Voc.</i> lapis	lapidēs	miles	militēs
<i>Abl.</i> lapide	lapidibus	militē	militibus

B. Liquid Stems.

34. These end in **-l** or **-r**.

Vigil, m., watchman.	Victor, m., conqueror.	Aequor, n., sea.
SINGULAR.		
<i>Nom.</i> vigil	victor	aequor
<i>Gen.</i> vigilis	victōris	aequoris
<i>Dat.</i> vigilī	victōrī	aequorī
<i>Acc.</i> vigilem	victōrem	aequor
<i>Voc.</i> vigil	victor	aequor
<i>Abl.</i> vigile	victōre	aequore
PLURAL.		
<i>Nom.</i> vigilēs	victōrēs	aequora
<i>Gen.</i> vigilum	victōrum	aequorum
<i>Dat.</i> vigilibus	victōribus	aequoribus
<i>Acc.</i> vigilēs	victōrēs	aequora
<i>Voc.</i> vigilēs	victōrēs	aequora
<i>Abl.</i> vigilibus	victōribus	aequoribus

1. Masculine and Feminine stems ending in a liquid form the Nominative and Vocative Singular without termination.

2. The termination is also lacking in the Nominative, Accusative and Vocative Singular of all neuters of the Third Declension.

C. Nasal Stems.

35. These end in -n,¹ which often disappears in the Nom. Sing.

Leō, m., lion.		Nōmen, n., name	
SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Nom.</i> leō	leōnēs	nōmen	nōmina
<i>Gen.</i> leōnis	leōnum	nōminis	nōminum
<i>Dat.</i> leōnī	leōnibus	nōminī	nōminibus
<i>Acc.</i> leōnem	leōnēs	nōmen	nōmina
<i>Voc.</i> leō	leōnēs	nomen	nōmina
<i>Abl.</i> leōne	leōnibus	nōmine	nōminibus

D. s-Stems.

36. Mōs, m., custom. Genus, n., race. Honor, m., honor.

SINGULAR.		
<i>Nom.</i> mōs	genus	honor
<i>Gen.</i> mōris	generis	honōris
<i>Dat.</i> mōrī	generī	honōrī
<i>Acc.</i> mōrem	genus	honōrem
<i>Voc.</i> mōs	genus	honor
<i>Abl.</i> mōre	genere	honōre
PLURAL.		
<i>Nom.</i> mōrēs	genera	honōrēs
<i>Gen.</i> mōrum	generum	honōrum
<i>Dat.</i> mōribus	generibus	honōribus
<i>Acc.</i> mōrēs	genera	honōrēs
<i>Voc.</i> mōrēs	genera	honōrēs
<i>Abl.</i> mōribus	generibus	honōribus

1. Note that the final *s* of the stem becomes *r* (between vowels) in the oblique cases. In many words (*honor*, *color*, and the like) the *r* of the oblique cases has, by analogy, crept into the Nominative, displacing the earlier *s*, though the forms *honōs*, *colōs*, etc., also occur, particularly in early Latin and in poetry.

¹ There is only one stem ending in -m. — *hiems*, *hiemis*. *winter*.

II. ĭ-Stems.

A. Masculine and Feminine ĭ-Stems.

37. These regularly end in *-is* in the Nominative Singular, and always have *-ium* in the Genitive Plural. Originally the Accusative Singular ended in *-im*, the Ablative Singular in *-ī*, and the Accusative Plural in *-īs*; but these endings have been largely displaced by *-em*, *-e*, and *-ēs*, the endings of Consonant-Stems.

38. **Tussis**, *f.*, cough; **Īgnis**, *m.*, fire; **Hostis**, *c.*, enemy;
 stem, *tussi-*. stem, *īgni-*. stem, *hosti-*.

SINGULAR.

				TERMINATION
<i>Nom.</i>	tussis	īgnis	hostis	-is
<i>Gen.</i>	tussis	īgnis	hostis	-is
<i>Dat.</i>	tussī	īgnī	hostī	-ī
<i>Acc.</i>	tussim	īgnem	hostem	-im, -em
<i>Voc.</i>	tussis	īgnis	hostis	-is
<i>Abl.</i>	tussī	īgnī or e	hoste	-ī, -e

PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i>	tussēs	īgnēs	hostēs	-ēs
<i>Gen.</i>	tussium	īgnium	hostium	-ium
<i>Dat.</i>	tussibus	īgnibus	hostibus	-ibus
<i>Acc.</i>	tussīs or -ēs	īgnīs or -ēs	hostīs or -ēs	-īs, -ēs
<i>Voc.</i>	tussēs	īgnēs	hostēs	-ēs
<i>Abl.</i>	tussibus	īgnibus	hostibus	-ibus

I. To the same class belong —

<i>apis</i> , bee.	<i>crātis</i> , hurdle.	† <i>*secūris</i> , axe.
<i>auris</i> , ear.	* <i>febris</i> , fever.	<i>sēmentis</i> , sowing.
<i>avis</i> , bird.	<i>orbis</i> , circle.	† <i>*sitis</i> , thirst.
<i>axis</i> , axle.	<i>ovis</i> , sheep.	<i>torris</i> , brand.
* <i>būris</i> , plough-beam.	<i>pelvis</i> , basin.	† <i>*turris</i> , tower.
<i>clāvis</i> , key.	<i>puppis</i> , stern.	<i>trudis</i> , pole.
<i>collis</i> , hill.	<i>restis</i> , rope.	<i>vectis</i> , lever.
	and many others.	

Words marked with a star regularly have Acc. *-im*; those marked with a † regularly have Abl. *-ī*. Of the others, many at times show *-im* and *-ī*. Town and river names in *-is* regularly have *-im*, *-ī*.

2. Not all nouns in *-is* are *Ī*-Stems. Some are genuine consonant-stems, and have the regular consonant terminations throughout, notably, *canis, dog*; *juvenis, youth*.¹

3. Some genuine *Ī*-Stems have become disguised in the Nominative Singular; as, *pars, part*, for *par(ti)s*; *anas, duck*, for *ana(ti)s*; so also *mors, death*; *dōs, dowry*; *nox, night*; *sors, lot*; *mēns, mind*; *ars, art*; *gēns, tribe*; and some others.

B. Neuter Ī-Stems.

39. These end in the Nominative Singular in *-e*, *-al*, and *-ar*. They always have *-ī* in the Ablative Singular, *-ia* in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural, and *-ium* in the Genitive Plural, thus holding more steadfastly to the *i*-character than do Masculine and Feminine *Ī*-Stems.

Sedīle, seat; **Animal, animal**; **Calcar, spur**;
stem, *sedīli-*. stem, *animāli-*. stem, *calcārī-*

SINGULAR.

				TERMINATION.
<i>Nom.</i>	<i>sedīle</i>	<i>animal</i>	<i>calcar</i>	<i>-e</i> or wanting
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>sedīlis</i>	<i>animālis</i>	<i>calcārīs</i>	<i>-is</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>sedīlī</i>	<i>animālī</i>	<i>calcārī</i>	<i>-ī</i>
<i>Acc.</i>	<i>sedīle</i>	<i>animal</i>	<i>calcar</i>	<i>-e</i> or wanting
<i>Voc.</i>	<i>sedīle</i>	<i>animal</i>	<i>calcar</i>	<i>-e</i> or wanting
<i>Abl.</i>	<i>sedīlī</i>	<i>animālī</i>	<i>calcārī</i>	<i>-ī</i>

PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i>	<i>sedīlia</i>	<i>animālia</i>	<i>calcāria</i>	<i>-ia</i>
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>sedīlium</i>	<i>animālium</i>	<i>calcārium</i>	<i>-ium</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>sedīlibus</i>	<i>animālibus</i>	<i>calcāribus</i>	<i>-ibus</i>
<i>Acc.</i>	<i>sedīlia</i>	<i>animālia</i>	<i>calcāria</i>	<i>-ia</i>
<i>Voc.</i>	<i>sedīlia</i>	<i>animālia</i>	<i>calcāria</i>	<i>-ia</i>
<i>Abl.</i>	<i>sedīlibus</i>	<i>animālibus</i>	<i>calcāribus</i>	<i>-ibus</i>

1. In most words of this class the final *-i* of the stem is lost in the Nominative Singular; in others it appears as *-e*.

2. Proper names in *-e* form the Ablative Singular in *-e*; as, *Sōracte, Mt. Soracte*; so also sometimes *mare, sea*.

¹ *Mēnsis, month*, originally a consonant stem (*mēns-*), has in the Genitive Plural both *mēnslum* and *mēnsum*. The Accusative Plural is *mēnsēs*.

III. Consonant-Stems that have partially adapted themselves to the Inflection of *ĭ*-Stems.

40. Many Consonant-Stems have so far adapted themselves to the inflection of *ĭ*-stems as to take *-ium* in the Genitive Plural, and *-īs* in the Accusative Plural. Their true character as Consonant-Stems, however, is shown by the fact that they never take *-im* in the Accusative Singular, or *-ī* in the Ablative Singular. The following words are examples of this class:—

Caedēs , f., <i>slaughter</i> ; stem, <i>caed-</i> .	Arx , f., <i>citadel</i> ; stem, <i>arc-</i> .	Linter , f., <i>skiff</i> ; stem, <i>lintr-</i> .
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SINGULAR.

<i>Nom.</i> caedēs	arx	linter
<i>Gen.</i> caedis	arcis	lintris
<i>Dat.</i> caedī	arcī	lintrī
<i>Acc.</i> caedem	arcem	lintrem
<i>Voc.</i> caedēs	arx	linter
<i>Abl.</i> caede	arce	lintre

PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i> caedēs	arcēs	lintrēs
<i>Gen.</i> caedium	arcium	lintrium
<i>Dat.</i> caedibus	arcibus	lintribus
<i>Acc.</i> caedēs, -īs	arcēs, -īs	lintrēs, -īs
<i>Voc.</i> caedēs	arcēs	lintrēs
<i>Abl.</i> caedibus	arcibus	lintribus

1. The following classes of nouns belong here :—

- a) Nouns in *-ēs*, with Genitive in *-is* ; as, *nūbēs*, *aedēs*, *clādēs*, etc.
- b) Many monosyllables in *-s* or *-x* preceded by one or more consonants ; as, *urbs*, *mōns*, *stirps*, *lanx*.
- c) Most nouns in *-ns* and *-rs* ; as, *cliēns*, *cohors*.
- d) *Ūter*, *venter* ; *fūr*, *līs*, *mās*, *mūs*, *nix* ; and the Plurals *faucēs*, *penātēs*, *Optimātēs*, *Samnītēs*, *Quirītēs*.
- e) Sometimes nouns in *-tās* with Genitive *-tātis* ; as, *cīvitās*, *aetās*. *Cīvitās* usually has *cīvitātium*.

IV. Stems in *-ī*, *-ū*, and Diphthongs.

41.	Vīs , f., <i>force</i> ; stem, vī- .	Sūs , c., <i>swine</i> ; stem, sū- .	Bōs , c., <i>ox, cow</i> ; stem, bou- .	Juppiter , m., <i>Jupiter</i> ; stem, Jou- .
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SINGULAR.

<i>Nom.</i>	vīs	sūs	bōs	Juppiter
<i>Gen.</i>	—	suis	bovis	Jovis
<i>Dat.</i>	—	suī	bovī	Jovī
<i>Acc.</i>	vim	suem	bovem	Jovem
<i>Voc.</i>	vīs	sūs	bōs	Juppiter
<i>Abl.</i>	vī	sue	bove	Jove

PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i>	vīrēs	suēs	bovēs
<i>Gen.</i>	vīrium	suum	{ bovum boum
<i>Dat.</i>	vīribus	{ suibus subus	{ bōbus būbus
<i>Acc.</i>	vīrēs	suēs	bovēs
<i>Voc.</i>	vīrēs	suēs	bovēs
<i>Abl.</i>	vīribus	{ suibus subus	{ bōbus būbus

1. Notice that the oblique cases of **sūs** have **ū** in the root syllable.

2. **Grūs** is declined like **sūs**, except that the Dative and Ablative Plural are always **gruibus**.

3. **Juppiter** is for **Jou-pater**, and therefore contains the same stem as in **Jov-is**, **Jov-ī**, etc.

Nāvis was originally a diphthong stem ending in **au-**, but it has passed over to the **ī**-stems (§ 37). Its ablative often ends in **-ī**.

V. Irregular Nouns.

42.	Senex , m., <i>old man</i> .	Carō , f., <i>flesh</i> .	Os , n., <i>bone</i> .
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SINGULAR.

<i>Nom.</i>	senex	carō	os
<i>Gen.</i>	senis	carnis	ossis
<i>Dat.</i>	senī	carnī	ossī
<i>Acc.</i>	senem	carnem	os
<i>Voc.</i>	senex	carō	os
<i>Abl.</i>	sene	carne	osse

	PLURAL.		
<i>Nom.</i> senēs	carnēs	ossa	
<i>Gen.</i> senum	carnium	ossium	
<i>Dat.</i> senibus	carnibus	ossibus	
<i>Acc.</i> senēs	carnēs	ossa	
<i>Voc.</i> senēs	carnēs	ossa	
<i>Abl.</i> senibus	carnibus	ossibus	

1. **Iter, itineris, n., way**, is inflected regularly throughout from the stem *itiner-*.

2. **Supellex, supellectilis, f., furniture**, is confined to the Singular. The oblique cases are formed from the stem *supellectil-*. The ablative has both *-ī* and *-e*.

3. **Jecur, n., liver**, forms its oblique cases from two stems, — *jecor-* and *jecinor-*. Thus, *Gen. jecoris* or *jecinoris*.

4. **Femur, n., thigh**, usually forms its oblique cases from the stem *femor-*, but sometimes from the stem *femin-*. Thus, *Gen. femoris* or *feminis*.

General Principles of Gender in the Third Declension.

43. 1. Nouns in *-ō, -or, -ōs, -er, -ēs* are Masculine.

2. Nouns in *-ās, -ēs, -is, -ys, -x, -s* (preceded by a consonant); *-dō, -gō* (Genitive *-inis*); *-iō* (abstract and collective), *-ūs* (Genitive *-ūtis* or *-ūdis*) are Feminine.

3. Nouns ending in *-a, -e, -i, -y, -c, -l, -n, -t, -ar, -ur, -ūs* are Neuter.

Chief Exceptions to Gender in the Third Declension.

44. Exceptions to the Rule for Masculines.

1. Nouns in *-ō*.

a. Feminine: *carō, flesh*.

2. Nouns in *-or*.

a. Feminine: *arbor, tree*.

b. Neuter: *aequor, sea*; *cor, heart*; *marmor, marble*.

3. Nouns in *-ōs*.

a. Feminine: *dōs, dowry*.

b. Neuter: *ōs (ōris), mouth*.

4. Nouns in *-er*.

a. Feminine: *linter, skiff*.

b. Neuter: *cadāver*, *corpse*; *iter*, *way*; *tūber*, *tumor*; *ūber*, *udder*. Also botanical names in -er; as, *acer*, *maple*.

5. Nouns in -ēs.

a. Feminine: *seges*, *crop*.

45. Exceptions to the Rule for Feminines.

1. Nouns in -ās.

a. Masculine: *vās*, *bondsman*.

b. Neuter: *vās*, *vessel*.

2. Nouns in -ēs.

a. Masculine: *ariēs*, *ram*; *pariēs*, *wall*; *pēs*, *foot*.

3. Nouns in -is.

a. Masculine: all nouns in -nis and -guis; as, *amnis*, *river*; *īgnis*, *fire*; *pānis*, *bread*; *sanguis*, *blood*; *unguis*, *nail*.

Also—

axis, *axle*.

piscis, *fish*.

collis, *hill*.

postis, *post*.

fascis, *bundle*.

pulvis, *dust*.

lapis, *stone*.

orbis, *circle*.

mēnsis, *month*.

sentis, *brier*.

4. Nouns in -x.

a. Masculine: *apex*, *peak*; *cōdex*, *tree-trunk*; *grex*, *flock*; *imbrex*, *tile*; *pollex*, *thumb*; *vertex*, *summit*; *calix*, *cup*.

5. Nouns in -s preceded by a consonant.

a. Masculine: *dēns*, *tooth*; *fōns*, *fountain*; *mōns*, *mountain*; *pōns*, *bridge*.

6. Nouns in -dō.

a. Masculine: *cardō*, *hinge*; *ōrdō*, *order*.

46. Exceptions to the Rule for Neuters.

1. Nouns in -l.

a. Masculine: *sōl*, *sun*; *sāl*, *salt*.

2. Nouns in -n.

a. Masculine: *pecten*, *comb*.

3. Nouns in -ur.

a. Masculine: *vultur*, *vulture*.

4. Nouns in -ūs.

a. Masculine: *lepus*, *hare*.

Greek Nouns of the Third Declension.

47. The following are the chief peculiarities of these:—

1. The ending *-ă* in the Accusative Singular; as, *aetheră*, *aether*; *Salamīnă*, *Salamis*.

2. The ending *-ēs* in the Nominative Plural; as, *Phrygēs*, *Phrygians*.

3. The ending *-ās* in the Accusative Plural; as, *Phrygās*, *Phrygians*.

4. Proper names in *-ās* (Genitive *-antis*) have *-ā* in the Vocative Singular; as, *Atlās* (*Atlantis*), Vocative *Atlā*, *Atlas*.

5. Neuters in *-ma* (Genitive *-matis*) have *-īs* instead of *-ibus* in the Dative and Ablative Plural; as, *poēmatīs*, *poems*.

6. *Orpheus*, and other proper names ending in *-eus*, form the Vocative Singular in *-eu* (*Orpheu*, *etc.*). But in prose the other cases usually follow the second declension; as, *Orpheī*, *Orpheō*, *etc.*

7. Proper names in *-ēs*, like *Periclēs*, form the Genitive Singular sometimes in *-is*, sometimes in *-ī*, as, *Periclis* or *Periclī*.

8. Feminine proper names in *-ō* have *-ūs* in the Genitive, but *-ō* in the other oblique cases; as, —

<i>Nom.</i>	Didō	<i>Acc.</i>	Didō
<i>Gen.</i>	Didūs	<i>Voc.</i>	Didō
<i>Dat.</i>	Didō	<i>Abl.</i>	Didō

9. The regular Latin endings often occur in Greek nouns.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

ŭ-Stems.

48. Nouns of the Fourth Declension end in *-us* Masculine, and *-ū* Neuter. They are declined as follows:—

<i>Fructus</i> , m., <i>fruit</i> .		<i>Cornū</i> , n., <i>horn</i> .		
SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	
<i>Nom.</i>	<i>fructus</i>	<i>fructūs</i>	<i>cornū</i>	<i>cornua</i>
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>fructūs</i>	<i>fructuum</i>	<i>cornūs</i>	<i>cornuum</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>fructuī</i>	<i>fructibus</i>	<i>cornū</i>	<i>cornibus</i>
<i>Acc.</i>	<i>fructum</i>	<i>fructūs</i>	<i>cornū</i>	<i>cornua</i>
<i>Voc.</i>	<i>fructus</i>	<i>fructūs</i>	<i>cornū</i>	<i>cornua</i>
<i>Abl.</i>	<i>fructū</i>	<i>fructibus</i>	<i>cornū</i>	<i>cornibus</i>

Peculiarities of Nouns of the Fourth Declension.

49. 1. Nouns in *-us*, particularly in early Latin, often form the Genitive Singular in *-ī*, following the analogy of nouns in *-us* of the Second Declension; as, *senātī*, *ōrnātī*. This is usually the case in Plautus and Terence.

2. Nouns in *-us* sometimes have *-ū* in the Dative Singular, instead of *-uī*; as, *frūctū* (for *frūctūī*).

3. The ending *-ubus*, instead of *-ibus*, occurs in the Dative and Ablative Plural of *artūs* (Plural), *limbs*; *tribus*, *tribe*; and in dissyllables in *-cus*; as, *artubus*, *tribubus*, *arcubus*, *lacubus*. But with the exception of *tribus*, all these words admit the forms in *-ibus* as well as those in *-ubus*.

4. *Domus*, *house*, is declined according to the Fourth Declension, but has also the following forms of the Second: —

domī (locative), *at home*; *domum*, *homewards, to one's home*;
domō, *from home*; *domōs*, *homewards, to their (etc.) homes*

5. The only Neuters of this declension in common use are: *cornū*, *horn*; *genū*, *knee*; and *verū*, *spit*.

Exceptions to Gender in the Fourth Declension.

50. The following nouns in *-us* are Feminine: *acus*, *needle*; *domus*, *house*; *manus*, *hand*; *porticus*, *colonnade*; *tribus*, *tribe*; *īdūs* (Plural), *Ides*; also names of trees (§ 15. 2).

FIFTH DECLENSION.

ē-Stems.

51. Nouns of the Fifth Declension end in *-ēs*, and are declined as follows: —

	<i>Diēs</i> , m., <i>day</i> .		<i>Rēs</i> , f., <i>thing</i> .	
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Nom.</i>	<i>diēs</i>	<i>diēs</i>	<i>rēs</i>	<i>rēs</i>
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>diēī</i>	<i>diērum</i>	<i>rēī</i>	<i>rērum</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>diēī</i>	<i>diēbus</i>	<i>rēī</i>	<i>rēbus</i>
<i>Acc.</i>	<i>diem</i>	<i>diēs</i>	<i>rem</i>	<i>rēs</i>
<i>Voc.</i>	<i>diēs</i>	<i>diēs</i>	<i>rēs</i>	<i>rēs</i>
<i>Abl.</i>	<i>diē</i>	<i>diēbus</i>	<i>rē</i>	<i>rēbus</i>

Peculiarities of Nouns of the Fifth Declension.

52. 1. The ending of the Genitive and Dative Singular is *-ēī*, instead of *-ēī*, when a consonant precedes; as, *spēī, rēī, fidēī*.

2. A Genitive ending *-ī* (for *-ēī*) is found in *plēbī* (from *plēbēs = plēbs*) in the expressions *tribūnus plēbī, tribune of the people*, and *plēbī scītum, decree of the people*; sometimes also in other words.

3. A Genitive and Dative form in *-ē* sometimes occurs; as, *aciē*.

4. With the exception of *diēs* and *rēs*, most nouns of the Fifth Declension are not declined in the Plural. But *aciēs, seriēs, speciēs, spēs*, and a few others are used in the Nominative and Accusative Plural.

Gender in the Fifth Declension.

53. Nouns of the Fifth Declension are regularly Feminine, except *diēs, day*, and *merīdiēs, mid-day*. But *diēs* is sometimes Feminine in the Singular, particularly when it means an *appointed day*.

DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

54. Here belong —

1. Nouns used in the Singular only.
2. Nouns used in the Plural only.
3. Nouns used only in certain cases.
4. Indeclinable Nouns.

Nouns used in the Singular only.

55. Many nouns, from the nature of their signification, are regularly used in the Singular only. Thus: —

1. Proper names; as, *Cicerō, Cicero*; *Italia, Italy*.
2. Nouns denoting material; as, *aes, copper*; *lac, milk*.
3. Abstract nouns; as, *ignōrantia, ignorance*; *bonitās, goodness*.
4. But the above classes of words are sometimes used in the Plural. Thus: —

- a) Proper names, — to denote different members of a family, or specimens of a type; as, *Cicerōnēs, the Ciceros*; *Catōnēs, men like Cato*.

- b) Names of materials, — to denote objects made of the material, or different kinds of the substance; as, *aera*, *bronzes* (*i.e.* bronze figures); *ligna*, *woods*.
- c) Abstract nouns, — to denote instances of the quality; as, *iguōrantia*, *cases of ignorance*.

Nouns used in the Plural only.

56. Here belong —

1. Many geographical names; as, *Thēbae*, *Thebes*; *Leuctra*, *Leuctra*; *Pompejī*, *Pompeii*.
2. Many names of festivals; as, *Megalēsia*, *the Megalesian festival*.
3. Many special words, of which the following are the most important: —

angustiae, *narrow pass*.

arma, *weapons*.

dēliciae, *delight*.

dīvitiae, *riches*.

Īdūs, *Ides*.

indūtia, *truce*.

īnsidiae, *ambush*.

majōrēs, *ancestors*.

mānēs, *spirits of the dead*.

moenia, *city walls*.

minae, *threats*.

nūptiae, *marriage*.

posterī, *descendants*.

reliquiae, *remainder*.

tenebrae, *darkness*.

verbera, *blows*.

Also in classical prose regularly —

cervicēs, *neck*.

fidēs, *lyre*.

nārēs, *nose*.

vīscerā, *viscera*.

Nouns used only in Certain Cases.

57. 1. Used in only One Case. Many nouns of the Fourth Declension are found only in the Ablative Singular; as, *jussū*, *by the order*; *injussū*, *without the order*; *nātū*, *by birth*.

2. Used in Two Cases.

a. *Fors* (*chance*), Nom. Sing.; *forte*, Abl. Sing.

b. *Spontis* (*free-will*), Gen. Sing.; *sponte*, Abl. Sing.

3. Used in Three Cases. *Nēmō*, *no one* (Nom.), has also the Dat. *nēminī* and the Acc. *nēminem*. The Gen. and Abl. are supplied by the corresponding cases of *nūllus*; *viz.* *nūllius* and *nūllō*.

4. **Impetus** has the Nom., Acc., and Abl. Sing., and the Nom and Acc. Plu.; *viz.* **impetus, impetum, impetū, impetūs.**
5. *a.* **Precī, precem, prece,** lacks the Nom. and Gen. Sing.
b. **Vicis, vicem, vice,** lacks the Nom. and Dat. Sing.
6. **Opis, dapis, and frūgis,** — all lack the Nom. Sing.
7. Many monosyllables of the Third Declension lack the Gen. Plu.; as, **cor, lūx, sōl, aes, ōs (ōris), rūs, sāl, tūs.**

Indeclinable Nouns.

58. Here belong —

fās, n., *right.*

īnstar, n., *likeness.*

māne, n., *morning.*

nefās, n., *impiety.*

nihil, n., *nothing.*

secus, n., *sex.*

1. With the exception of **māne** (which may serve also as Ablative, *in the morning*), the nouns in this list are simply Neuters confined in use to the Nominative and Accusative Singular.

Heteroclitics.

59. These are nouns whose forms are partly of one declension, and partly of another. Thus:—

1. Several nouns have the entire Singular of one declension, while the Plural is of another; as,—

vās, vāsis (*vessel*); Plu., **vāsa, vāsōrum, vāsīs, etc.**

jūgerum, jūgerī (*acre*); Plu., **jūgera, jūgerum, jūgeribus, etc.**

2. Several nouns, while belonging in the main to one declension, have certain special forms belonging to another. Thus:—

a) Many nouns of the First Declension ending in **-ia** take also a Nom. and Acc. of the Fifth; as, **māteriēs, māteriem, material,** as well as **māteria, māteriam.**

b) **Famēs, hunger,** regularly of the Third Declension, has the Abl. **famē** of the Fifth.

c) **Requiēs, requiētis, rest,** regularly of the Third Declension, takes an Acc. of the Fifth, **requiem,** in addition to **requiētē.**

d) Besides **plēbs, plēbis, common people,** of the Third Declension, we find **plēbēs, plēbēī** (also **plēbī,** see § 52. 2), of the Fifth.

Heterogeneous Nouns.

60. Heterogeneous nouns vary in Gender. Thus:—

1. Several nouns of the Second Declension have two forms,—one masc. in *-us*, and one Neuter in *-um*; as, *clipeus, clipeum, shield*; *urrus, carrum, cart*.

2. Other nouns have one gender in the Singular, another in the plural; as,—

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

balneum, n., bath;

balneae, f., bath-house.

epulum, n., feast;

epulae, f., feast.

frēnum, n., bridle;

frēnī, m. (rarely frēna, n.), bridle.

jocus, m., jest;

joca, n. (also joci, m.), jests.

locus, m., place;

loca, n., places; *locī, m., passages or topics in an author*.

rāstrum, n., rake;

rāstri, m.; *rāstra, n., rakes*.

u. Heterogeneous nouns may at the same time be heteroclites, as in case of the first two examples above.

Plurals with Change of Meaning.

61. The following nouns have one meaning in the singular, and another in the plural:—

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

aedēs, temple;

aedēs, house.

auxilium, help;

auxilia, auxiliary troops.

carcer, prison;

carcerēs, stalls for racing-chariots

castrum, fort;

castra, camp.

cōpia, abundance;

cōpiae, troops, resources.

fīnis, end;

fīnēs, borders, territory.

fortūna, fortune;

fortūnae, possessions, wealth.

grātia, favor, gratitude;

grātiae, thanks.

impedimentum, hindrance;

impedimenta, baggage.

littera, letter (of the alphabet);

litterae, epistle; literature.

mōs, habit, custom;

mōrēs, character.

opera, help, service;

operae, laborers.

(*ops*) *opis, help*;

opēs, resources.

pars, part;

partēs, party; rôle.

sāl, salt;

sālēs, wit.

B. ADJECTIVES.

62. Adjectives denote *quality*. They are declined like nouns, and fall into two classes, —

1. Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions.
2. Adjectives of the Third Declension.

ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND
DECLENSIONS.

63. In these the Masculine is declined like *hortus*, *puer*, or *ager*, the Feminine like *porta*, and the Neuter like *bellum*. Thus, Masculine like *hortus* : —

Bonus, good.

SINGULAR.

	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
<i>Nom.</i>	bonus	bona	bonum
<i>Gen.</i>	bonī	bonae	bonī
<i>Dat.</i>	bonō	bonae	bonō
<i>Acc.</i>	bonum	bonam	bonum
<i>Voc.</i>	bone	bona	bonum
<i>Abl.</i>	bonō	bonā	bonō

PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i>	bonī	bonae	bona
<i>Gen.</i>	bonōrum	bonārum	bonōrum
<i>Dat.</i>	bonīs	bonīs	bonīs
<i>Acc.</i>	bonōs	bonās	bona
<i>Voc.</i>	bonī	bonae	bona
<i>Abl.</i>	bonīs	bonīs	bonīs

1. The Gen. Sing. Masc. and Neut. of Adjectives in *-ius* ends in *-i* (not in *-ī* as in case of Nouns; see § 25. 1; 2). So also the Voc. Sing. of such Adjectives ends in *-ie*, not in *ī*. Thus *eximius* forms Gen. *eximiī*; Voc. *eximie*.

2. Distributives (see § 78. 1. *c*) regularly form the Gen. Plu. Masc. and Neut. in *-um* instead of *-ōrum* (compare § 25. 6); as, *dēnum*, *centēnum*; but always *singulōrum*.

64. Masculine like *puer* : —*Tener, tender.*

SINGULAR.

	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
<i>Nom.</i>	tener	tenera	tenerum
<i>Gen.</i>	tenerī	tenerae	tenerī
<i>Dat.</i>	tenerō	tenerae	tenerō
<i>Acc.</i>	tenerum	teneram	tenerum
<i>Voc.</i>	tener	tenera	tenerum
<i>Abl.</i>	tenerō	tenerā	tenerō

PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i>	tenerī	tenerae	tenera
<i>Gen.</i>	tenerōrum	tenerārum	tenerōrum
<i>Dat.</i>	tenerīs	tenerīs	tenerīs
<i>Acc.</i>	tenerōs	tenerās	tenera
<i>Voc.</i>	tenerī	tenerae	tenera
<i>Abl.</i>	tenerīs	tenerīs	tenerīs

65. Masculine like *ager* : —*Sacer, sacred.*

SINGULAR.

	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
<i>Nom.</i>	sacer	sacra	sacrum
<i>Gen.</i>	sacrī	sacrae	sacrī
<i>Dat.</i>	sacrō	sacrae	sacrō
<i>Acc.</i>	sacrum	sacram	sacrum
<i>Voc.</i>	sacer	sacra	sacrum
<i>Abl.</i>	sacrō	sacrā	sacrō

PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i>	sacrī	sacrae	sacra
<i>Gen.</i>	sacrōrum	sacrārum	sacrōrum
<i>Dat.</i>	sacrīs	sacrīs	sacrīs
<i>Acc.</i>	sacrōs	sacrās	sacra
<i>Voc.</i>	sacrī	sacrae	sacra
<i>Abl.</i>	sacrīs	sacrīs	sacrīs

1. Most adjectives in *-er* are declined like *sacer*. The following, however, are declined like *tener* : *asper, rough* ; *lacer, torn* ; *liber, free* ;

miser, wretched; prōsper, prosperous; compounds in -fer and -ger sometimes dexter, right.

2. *Satur, full*, is declined: *satur, saturā, saturum*.

Nine Irregular Adjectives.

66. Here belong —

<i>alius, another;</i>	<i>alter, the other;</i>
<i>ūllus, any;</i>	<i>nūllus, none;</i>
<i>uter, which? (of two);</i>	<i>neuter, neither;</i>
<i>sōlus, alone;</i>	<i>tōtus, whole;</i>
<i>ūnus, one, alone.</i>	

They are declined as follows:—

SINGULAR.

	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
<i>Nom.</i>	<i>alius</i>	<i>alia</i>	<i>aliud</i>	<i>alter</i>	<i>altera</i>	<i>alterum</i>
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>alterius</i>	<i>alterius</i>	<i>alterius</i> ¹	<i>alterius</i>	<i>alterius</i>	<i>alterius</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>aliī</i>	<i>aliī</i>	<i>aliī</i>	<i>alterī</i>	<i>alterī</i> ²	<i>alterī</i>
<i>Acc.</i>	<i>alium</i>	<i>aliam</i>	<i>aliud</i>	<i>alterum</i>	<i>alteram</i>	<i>alterum</i>
<i>Voc.</i>	—	—	—	—	—	—
<i>Abl.</i>	<i>aliō</i>	<i>aliā</i>	<i>aliō</i>	<i>alterō</i>	<i>alterā</i>	<i>alterō</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	<i>uter</i>	<i>utra</i>	<i>utrum</i>	<i>tōtus</i>	<i>tōta</i>	<i>tōtum</i>
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>utrīus</i>	<i>utrīus</i>	<i>utrīus</i>	<i>tōtius</i>	<i>tōtius</i>	<i>tōtius</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>utrī</i>	<i>utrī</i>	<i>utrī</i>	<i>tōtī</i>	<i>tōtī</i>	<i>tōtī</i>
<i>Acc.</i>	<i>utrum</i>	<i>utram</i>	<i>utrum</i>	<i>tōtum</i>	<i>tōtam</i>	<i>tōtum</i>
<i>Voc.</i>	—	—	—	—	—	—
<i>Abl.</i>	<i>utrō</i>	<i>utrā</i>	<i>utrō</i>	<i>tōtō</i>	<i>tōtā</i>	<i>tōtō</i>

1. All these words lack the Vocative. The Plural is regular.
2. Neuter is declined like *uter*.

ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

67. These fall into three classes,—

1. Adjectives of three terminations in the Nominative Singular, — one for each gender.
2. Adjectives of two terminations.
3. Adjectives of one termination.

¹ This is practically always used instead of *alius* in the Genitive.

² A Dative Singular Feminine *alteræ* also occurs.

- a. With the exception of Comparatives, and a few other words mentioned below in § 70. 1, all Adjectives of the Third Declension follow the inflection of \bar{I} -stems; *i.e.* they have the Ablative Singular in \bar{i} , the Genitive Plural in $-ium$, the Accusative Plural in \bar{is} (as well as $-\bar{es}$) in the Masculine and Feminine, and the Nominative and Accusative Plural in $-ia$ in Neuters.

Adjectives of Three Terminations.

68. These are declined as follows:—

$\bar{A}cer$, *sharp*.

SINGULAR.

	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
<i>Nom.</i>	$\bar{a}cer$	$\bar{a}cris$	$\bar{a}cre$
<i>Gen.</i>	$\bar{a}cris$	$\bar{a}cris$	$\bar{a}cris$
<i>Dat.</i>	$\bar{a}cr\bar{i}$	$\bar{a}cr\bar{i}$	$\bar{a}cr\bar{i}$
<i>Acc.</i>	$\bar{a}cre\bar{m}$	$\bar{a}cre\bar{m}$	$\bar{a}cre$
<i>Voc.</i>	$\bar{a}cer$	$\bar{a}cris$	$\bar{a}cre$
<i>Abl.</i>	$\bar{a}cr\bar{i}$	$\bar{a}cr\bar{i}$	$\bar{a}cr\bar{i}$

PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i>	$\bar{a}cr\bar{e}s$	$\bar{a}cr\bar{e}s$	$\bar{a}cria$
<i>Gen.</i>	$\bar{a}crium$	$\bar{a}crium$	$\bar{a}crium$
<i>Dat.</i>	$\bar{a}cribus$	$\bar{a}cribus$	$\bar{a}cribus$
<i>Acc.</i>	$\bar{a}cr\bar{e}s, -\bar{is}$	$\bar{a}cr\bar{e}s, -\bar{is}$	$\bar{a}cria$
<i>Voc.</i>	$\bar{a}cr\bar{e}s$	$\bar{a}cr\bar{e}s$	$\bar{a}cria$
<i>Abl.</i>	$\bar{a}cribus$	$\bar{a}cribus$	$\bar{a}cribus$

1. Like $\bar{a}cer$ are declined *alacer*, *lively*; *campester*, *level*; *celeber*, *famous*; *equester*, *equestrian*; *paluster*, *marshy*; *pedester*, *pedestrian*; *puter*, *rotten*; *saluber*, *wholesome*; *silvester*, *woody*; *terrester*, *terrestrial*; *volucer*, *winged*; also names of months in $-ber$, as **September**.

2. *Celer*, *celeris*, *celere*, *swift*, retains the *e* before *r*, but lacks the Genitive Plural.

3. In the Nominative Singular of Adjectives of this class the Feminine form is sometimes used for the Masculine. This is regularly true of *salubris*, *silvestris*, and *terrestris*. In case of the other words in the list, the use of the Feminine for the Masculine is confined chiefly to early and late Latin, and to poetry.

Adjectives of Two Terminations.

69. These are declined as follows:—

*Fortis, strong.**Fortior, stronger.*

SINGULAR.

	M. AND F.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
<i>Nom.</i>	fortis	forte	fortior	fortius
<i>Gen.</i>	fortis	fortis	fortiōris	fortiōris
<i>Dat.</i>	fortī	fortī	fortiōrī	fortiōrī
<i>Acc.</i>	fortem	forte	fortiōrem	fortius
<i>Voc.</i>	fortis	forte	fortior	fortius
<i>Abl.</i>	fortī	fortī	fortiōre	fortiōre

PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i>	fortēs	fortia	fortiōrēs	fortiōra
<i>Gen.</i>	fortium	fortium	fortiōrum	fortiōrum
<i>Dat.</i>	fortibus	fortibus	fortiōribus	fortiōribus
<i>Acc.</i>	fortēs, -īs	fortia	fortiōrēs, -īs	fortiōra
<i>Voc.</i>	fortēs	fortia	fortiōrēs	fortiōra
<i>Abl.</i>	fortibus	fortibus	fortiōribus	fortiōribus

1. *Fortior* is the Comparative of *fortis*. All Comparatives are regularly declined in the same way. The Acc. Plu. in *-īs* is rare.

Adjectives of One Termination.

70. *Fēlix, happy.**Prūdēns, prudent.*

SINGULAR.

	M. AND F.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
<i>Nom.</i>	fēlix	fēlix	prūdēns	prūdēns
<i>Gen.</i>	fēlicis	fēlicis	prūdētis	prūdētis
<i>Dat.</i>	fēlicī	fēlicī	prūdētī	prūdētī
<i>Acc.</i>	fēlicem	fēlix	prūdētem	prūdēns
<i>Voc.</i>	fēlix	fēlix	prūdēns	prūdēns
<i>Abl.</i>	fēlicī	fēlicī	prūdētī	prūdētī

PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i>	fēlicēs	fēlicia	prūdētēs	prūdēntia
<i>Gen.</i>	fēlicium	fēlicium	prūdētium	prūdētium
<i>Dat.</i>	fēlicibus	fēlicibus	prūdētibus	prūdētibus
<i>Acc.</i>	fēlicēs, -īs	fēlicia	prūdētēs, -īs	prūdēntia
<i>Voc.</i>	fēlicēs	fēlicia	prūdētēs	prūdēntia
<i>Abl.</i>	fēlicibus	fēlicibus	prūdētibus	prūdētibus

	Vetus, old.		Plūs, more.	
	SINGULAR.			
	M. AND F.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
<i>Nom.</i>	vetus	vetus	—	plūs
<i>Gen.</i>	veteris	veteris	—	plūris
<i>Dat.</i>	veterī	veterī	—	—
<i>Acc.</i>	veterem	vetus	—	plūs
<i>Voc.</i>	vetus	vetus	—	—
<i>Abl.</i>	vetere	vetere	—	plūre
	PLURAL.			
<i>Nom.</i>	veterēs	vetera	plūrēs	plūra
<i>Gen.</i>	veterum	veterum	plūrium	plūrium
<i>Dat.</i>	veteribus	veteribus	plūribus	plūribus
<i>Acc.</i>	veterēs	vetera	plūrēs, -īs	plūra
<i>Voc.</i>	veterēs	vetera	—	—
<i>Abl.</i>	veteribus	veteribus	plūribus	plūribus

1. It will be observed that *vetus* is declined as a pure Consonant-Stem; *i.e.* Ablative Singular in *-e*, Genitive Plural in *-um*, Nominative Plural Neuter in *-a*, and Accusative Plural Masculine and Feminine in *-ēs* only. In the same way are declined *compos*, *controlling*; *dīves*, *rich*; *particeps*, *sharing*; *pauper*, *poor*; *prīnceps*, *chief*; *sōspes*, *safe*; *superstes*, *surviving*. Yet *dīves* always has Neut. Plu. *dītia*.

2. *Inops*, *needy*, and *memor*, *mindful*, have Ablative Singular *inopī*, *memorī*, but Genitive Plural *inopum*, *memorum*.

3. Participles in *-āns* and *-ēns* follow the declension of *ī*-stems. But they do not have *-ī* in the Ablative, except when employed as adjectives; when used as participles or as substantives, they have *-e*; as, —

ā sapientī virō, *by a wise man*; but

ā sapiente, *by a philosopher*.

Tarquinīō rēgnante, *under the reign of Tarquin*.

4. *Plūs*, in the Singular, is always a noun.

5. In the Ablative Singular, adjectives, when used as substantives, —
a) usually retain the adjective declension; as, —

aequālis, *contemporary*, Abl. *aequālī*.

cōnsulāris, *ex-consul*, Abl. *cōnsulārī*.

So names of Months; as, *Aprīlī*, *April*; *Decembrī*, *December*.

b) But adjectives used as proper names have *-e* in the Ablative Singular; as, *Celere*, *Celer*; *Juvenāle*, *Juvenal*.

c) Patrials in *-ās, -ātis* and *-īs, -itis*, when designating places regularly have *-ī*; as, in *Arpīnātī*, *on the estate at Arpinum* yet *-e*, when used of persons; as, *ab Arpīnāte*, *by an Arpinatian*.

6. A very few indeclinable adjectives occur, the chief of which are *frūgī*, *frugal*; *nēquam*, *worthless*.

7. In poetry, adjectives and participles in *-ns* sometimes form the Gen. Plu. in *-um* instead of *-ium*; as, *venientum*, *of those coming*.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

71. 1. There are three degrees of Comparison, — the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative.

2. The Comparative is regularly formed by adding *-ior* (Neut. *-ius*), and the Superlative by adding *-issimus* (*-a, -um*), to the Stem of the Positive deprived of its final vowel; as, —

<i>altus, high,</i>	<i>altior, higher,</i>	<i>altissimus,</i>	} <i>highest,</i> } <i>very high.</i>
<i>fortis, brave,</i>	<i>fortior,</i>	<i>fortissimus.</i>	
<i>fēlix, fortunate,</i>	<i>fēlicior,</i>	<i>fēlicissimus.</i>	

So also Participles, when used as Adjectives; as, —

<i>doctus, learned,</i>	<i>doctior,</i>	<i>doctissimus.</i>
<i>egēns, needy,</i>	<i>egentior,</i>	<i>egentissimus.</i>

3. Adjectives in *-er* form the Superlative by appending *-rimus* to the Nominative of the Positive. The Comparative is regular. Thus:—

<i>asper, rough,</i>	<i>asperior,</i>	<i>asperrimus.</i>
<i>pulcher, beautiful,</i>	<i>pulchrior,</i>	<i>pulcherrimus.</i>
<i>ācer, sharp,</i>	<i>ācrior,</i>	<i>ācerrimus.</i>
<i>celer, swift,</i>	<i>celerior,</i>	<i>celerrimus.</i>

a. Notice *mātūrus, mātūrior, mātūrissimus* or *mātūrrimus*.

4. Five Adjectives in *-ilis* form the Superlative by adding *-limus* to the Stem of the Positive deprived of its final vowel. The Comparative is regular. Thus:—

<i>facilis, easy,</i>	<i>facillor,</i>	<i>facillimus.</i>
<i>difficilis, difficult,</i>	<i>difficilior,</i>	<i>difficillimus.</i>
<i>similis, like,</i>	<i>similior,</i>	<i>simillimus.</i>
<i>dissimilis, unlike,</i>	<i>dissimilior,</i>	<i>dissimillimus.</i>
<i>humilis, low,</i>	<i>humilior,</i>	<i>humillimus.</i>

5. Adjectives in **-dīcus**, **-ficus**, and **-volus** form the Comparative and Superlative as though from forms in **-dīcēns**, **-ficēns**, **-volēns**. Thus: —

maledicus, <i>slanderous</i> ,	maledīcentior,	maledīcentissimus.
magnificus, <i>magnificent</i> ,	magnificentior,	magnificentissimus.
benevolus, <i>kindly</i> ,	benevolentior,	benevolentissimus.

a. Positives in **-dīcēns** and **-volēns** occur in early Latin; as, **maledīcēns**, **benevolēns**.

6. **Dīves** has the Comparative **dīvitior** or **dītior**; Superlative **dīvitissimus** or **dītissimus**.

Irregular Comparison.

72. Several Adjectives vary the Stem in Comparison; *viz.* —

bonus, <i>good</i> ,	melior,	optimus.
malus, <i>bad</i> ,	pejor,	pessimus.
parvus, <i>small</i> ,	minor,	minimus.
magnus, <i>large</i> ,	major,	maximus.
multus, <i>much</i> ,	plūs,	plūrimus.
frūgī, <i>thrifty</i> ,	frūgālior,	frūgālissimus.
nēquam, <i>worthless</i> ,	nēquior,	nēquissimus.

Defective Comparison.

73. 1. Positive lacking entirely, —

(Cf. prae , <i>in front of</i> .)	prior, <i>former</i> ,	prīmus, <i>first</i>
(Cf. citrā , <i>this side of</i> .)	citerior, <i>on this side</i> ,	citimus, <i>near</i> .
(Cf. ultrā , <i>beyond</i> .)	ulterior, <i>farther</i> ,	ultimus, <i>farthest</i> .
(Cf. intrā , <i>within</i> .)	interior, <i>inner</i> ,	intimus, <i>inmost</i> .
(Cf. prope , <i>near</i> .)	propior, <i>nearer</i> ,	proximus, <i>nearest</i> .
(Cf. dē , <i>down</i> .)	dēterior, <i>inferior</i> ,	dēterrimus, <i>worst</i> .
(Cf. archaic potis , <i>possible</i> .)	potior, <i>preferable</i> ,	potissimus, <i>chiefest</i> .

2. Positive occurring only in special cases, —

posterō diē, annō, <i>etc.</i> ,	} posterior, <i>later</i> ,	postrēmus,	{ <i>latest</i> ,
<i>the following day, etc.</i> ,		postumus,	{ <i>last</i> .
posterī, <i>descendants</i> ,	} exterior, <i>outer</i> ,	} extrēmus,	} <i>late-born</i> ,
exterī, <i>foreigners</i> ,			
nātiōnēs exterae, <i>for-</i>	} exterior, <i>outer</i> ,	} extrēmus,	} <i>outermost</i> .
<i>ign nations</i> ,			

inferī, <i>gods of the lower world,</i> Mare Inferum, <i>Mediterranean</i> Sea,	} inferior, lower,	} infimus, } lowest. īmus,
superī, <i>gods above,</i> Mare Superum, <i>Adriatic Sea,</i>		
	} superior, higher,	} suprēmus, last. summus, highest.

3. Comparative lacking.

vetus, <i>old,</i>	— ¹	veterrimus.
fidus, <i>faithful,</i>	—	fīdissimus.
novus, <i>new,</i>	— ²	novissimus, ³ <i>last.</i>
sacer, <i>sacred,</i>	—	sacerrimus.
falsus, <i>false,</i>	—	falsissimus.

Also in some other words less frequently used.

4. Superlative lacking.

alacer, <i>lively,</i>	alacrior,	—
ingēns, <i>great,</i>	ingentior,	—
salūtāris, <i>wholesome,</i>	salūtārior,	—
juvenis, <i>young,</i>	jūnior,	— ⁴
senex, <i>old,</i>	senior.	— ⁵

a. The Superlative is lacking also in many adjectives in -ālis, -īlis, -īlis, -bilis, and in a few others.

Comparison by *Magis* and *Maximē*.

74. Many adjectives do not admit terminational comparison, but form the Comparative and Superlative degrees by prefixing *magis* (*more*) and *maximē* (*most*). Here belong —

1. Many adjectives ending in -ālis, -āris, -īdus, -īlis, -icus, imus, īnus, -ōrus.

2. Adjectives in -us, preceded by a vowel; as, *idōneus*, *adapted*; *arđuus*, *steep*; *necessārius*, *necessary*.

a. Adjectives in -quus, of course, do not come under this rule. The first u in such cases is not a vowel, but a consonant.

¹ Supplied by *vetustior*, from *vetustus*.

² Supplied by *recentior*.

³ For *newest*, *recentissimus* is used.

⁴ Supplied by *minimus nātū*.

⁵ Supplied by *maximus nātū*.

Adjectives not admitting Comparison.
75. Here belong —

1. Many adjectives, which, from the nature of their signification, do not admit of comparison; as, *hodiernus*, of to-day; *annuus*, annual; *mortalis*, mortal.

2. Some special words; as, *mirus*, *gnarus*, *merus*; and a few others.

FORMATION AND COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

76. Adverbs are for the most part derived from adjectives, and depend upon them for their comparison.

1. Adverbs derived from adjectives of the First and Second Declensions form the Positive by changing *-i* of the Genitive Singular to *-ē*; those derived from adjectives of the Third Declension, by changing *-is* of the Genitive Singular to *-iter*; as, —

<i>cārus</i> ,	<i>cārē</i> , <i>dearly</i> ;
<i>pulcher</i> ,	<i>pulchrē</i> , <i>beautifully</i> ;
<i>ācer</i> ,	<i>ācriter</i> , <i>fiercely</i> ;
<i>levis</i> ,	<i>leviter</i> , <i>lightly</i> .

a. But Adjectives in *-ns*, and a few others, add *-er* (instead of *-iter*), to form the Adverb; as, —

<i>sapiēns</i> ,	<i>sapienter</i> , <i>wisely</i> ;
<i>sollers</i> ,	<i>sollerter</i> , <i>skillfully</i> .

Note *audāx*, *audācter*, *boldly*.

2. The Comparative of all Adverbs regularly consists of the Accusative Singular Neuter of the Comparative of the Adjective; while the Superlative of the Adverb is formed by changing the *-i* of the Genitive Singular of the Superlative of the Adjective to *-ē*. Thus —

(<i>cārus</i>)	<i>cārē</i> , <i>dearly</i> ,	<i>cārius</i> ,	<i>cārissimē</i> .
(<i>pulcher</i>)	<i>pulchrē</i> , <i>beautifully</i> ,	<i>pulchrius</i> ,	<i>pulcherrimē</i> .
(<i>ācer</i>)	<i>ācriter</i> , <i>fiercely</i> ,	<i>ācrius</i> ,	<i>ācerrimē</i> .
(<i>levis</i>)	<i>leviter</i> , <i>lightly</i> ,	<i>levius</i> ,	<i>levissimē</i> .
(<i>sapiēns</i>)	<i>sapienter</i> , <i>wisely</i> ,	<i>sapientius</i> ,	<i>sapientissimē</i> .
(<i>audāx</i>)	<i>audācter</i> , <i>boldly</i> ,	<i>audācius</i> ,	<i>audācissimē</i> .

Adverbs Peculiar in Comparison and Formation.

77. I.

beně, <i>well</i> ,	melius,	optimē.
malě, <i>ill</i> ,	pejus,	pessimē.
magnopere, <i>greatly</i> ,	magis,	maximē.
multum, <i>much</i> ,	plūs,	plūrimum.
nōn multum, } <i>little</i> ,	minus,	minimē.
parum,		
diū, <i>long</i> ,	diūtius,	diūtissimē.
nēquiter, <i>worthlessly</i> ,	nēquius,	nēquissimē.
saepe, <i>often</i> ,	saepius,	saepissimē.
mātūrē, <i>betimes</i> ,	mātūrius,	{ mātūrrimē.
		{ mātūrissimē.
prope, <i>near</i> ,	propius,	proximē.
nūper, <i>recently</i> ,	—	nūperrimē.
—	potius, <i>rather</i> ,	potissimum, <i>especially</i> .
—	prius, { <i>previously</i> ,	} primum, <i>first</i> .
	{ <i>before</i> ,	
secus, <i>otherwise</i> ,	sētius, <i>less</i> .	

2. A number of adjectives of the First and Second Declensions form an Adverb in -ō, instead of -ē; as, —

crēbrō, <i>frequently</i> ;	falsō, <i>falsely</i> ;
continuō, <i>immediately</i> ;	subitō, <i>suddenly</i> ;
rārō, <i>rarely</i> ; and a few others.	

a. cito, *quickly*, has -ō.

3. A few adjectives employ the Accusative Singular Neuter as the Positive of the Adverb; as, —

multum, <i>much</i> ;	pāulum, <i>little</i> ;	facile, <i>easily</i> .
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4. A few adjectives of the First and Second Declensions form the Positive in -iter; as, —

fīrmus, fīrmiter, <i>firmly</i> ;	hūmānus, hūmāniter, <i>humanly</i> ;
largus, largiter, <i>copiously</i> ;	alius, aliter, <i>otherwise</i> .

a. violentus has violentus.

5. Various other adverbial suffixes occur, the most important of which are -tus and -tim; as, antīquitus, *anciently*; paulātim, *gradually*.

NUMERALS.

78. Numerals may be divided into —

I. Numeral Adjectives, comprising —

a. *Cardinals*; as, **ūnus**, *one*; **duo**, *two*; *etc.*

b. *Ordinals*; as, **prīmus**, *first*; **secundus**, *second*; *etc.*

c. *Distributives*; as, **singulī**, *one by one*; **bīnī**, *two by two*; *etc.*

II. Numeral Adverbs; as, **semel**, *once*; **bis**, *twice*; *etc.*

79. TABLE OF NUMERAL ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS.

	CARDINALS.	ORDINALS.	DISTRIBUTIVES.	ADVERBS.
1.	ūnus, ūna, ūnum	prīmus, <i>first</i>	singulī, <i>one by one</i>	semel, <i>once</i>
2.	duo, duae, duo	secundus, <i>second</i>	bīnī, <i>two by two</i>	bis
3.	trēs, tria	tertius, <i>third</i>	ternī (trīnī)	ter
4.	quattuor	quārtus, <i>fourth</i>	quaternī	quater
5.	quīnque	quīntus, <i>fifth</i>	quīnī	quīnquiēs
6.	sex	sextus	sēnī	sexiēs
7.	septem	septimus	septēnī	septiēs
8.	octō	octāvus	octōnī	octiēs
9.	novem	nōnus	novēnī	noviēs
10.	decem	decimus	dēnī	deciēs
11.	ūndecim	ūndecimus	ūndēnī	ūndeciēs
12.	duodecim	duodecimus	duodēnī	duodeciēs
13.	tredecim	tertius decimus	ternī dēnī	terdeciēs
14.	quattuordecim	quārtus decimus	quaternī dēnī	quaterdeciēs
15.	quīndecim	quīntus decimus	quīnī dēnī	quīnquiēs deciēs
16.	{ sēdecim } { sexdecim }	sextus decimus	sēnī dēnī	sexiēs deciēs
17.	septendecim	septimus decimus	septēnī dēnī	septiēs deciēs
18.	duodēvigintī	duodēvicēsimus	duodēvicēnī	octiēs deciēs
19.	ūndēvigintī	ūndēvicēsimus	ūndēvicēnī	noviēs deciēs
20.	vīgintī	vicēsimus	vicēnī	vicīēs
21.	{ vīgintī ūnus } { ūnus et vīgintī }	vicēsimus prīmus	vicēnī singulī	} vicīēs semel
		ūnus et vicēsimus	singulī et vicēnī	
22.	{ vīgintī duo } { duo et vīgintī }	vicēsimus secundus	vicēnī bīnī	} vicīēs bis
		alter et vicēsimus	bīnī et vicēnī	
30.	trīgintā	trīcēsimus	trīcēnī	trīciēs
40.	quadrāgintā	quadrāgēsimus	quadrāgēnī	quadrāgiēs
50.	quīnquāgintā	quīnquāgēsimus	quīnquāgēnī	quīnquāgiēs
60.	sexāgintā	sexāgēsimus	sexāgēnī	sexāgiēs
70.	septuāgintā	septuāgēsimus	septuāgēnī	septuāgiēs
80.	octōgintā	octōgēsimus	octōgēnī	octōgiēs
90.	nōnāgintā	nōnāgēsimus	nōnāgēnī	nōnāgiēs
100.	centum	centēsimus	centēnī	centiēs

	CARDINALS.	ORDINALS.	DISTRIBUTIVES.	ADVERBS.
101.	centum ūnus centum et ūnus	centēsīmus prīmus centēsīmus et prīmus	centēnī singulī centēnī et singulī	centiēs semel
200.	ducentī, -ae, -a	ducentēsīmus	ducēnī	ducentiēs
300.	trecentī	trecentēsīmus	trecēnī	trecentiēs
400.	quadrīngentī	quadrīngentēsīmus	quadrīngēnī	quadrīngentiēs
500.	quīngentī	quīngentēsīmus	quīngēnī	quīngentiēs
600.	sescentī	sescentēsīmus	sescēnī	sescentiēs
700.	septīngentī	septīngentēsīmus	septīngēnī	septīngentiēs
800.	octīngentī	octīngentēsīmus	octīngēnī	octīngentiēs
900.	nōngentī	nōngentēsīmus	nōngēnī	nōngentiēs
1,000.	mīlle	mīllēsīmus	singula mīlia	mīliēs
2,000.	duo mīlia	bis mīllēsīmus	bīna mīlia	bis mīliēs
100,000.	centum mīlia	centiēs mīllēsīmus	centēna mīlia	centiēs mīliēs
1,000,000.	decīēs centēna mīlia	decīēs centiēs mīllēsī- mus	decīēs centēna mīlia	decīēs centiēs mīliēs

NOTE. — **-ēnsīmus** and **-iēns** are often written in the numerals instead of **-ēsīmus** and **-iēs**.

Declension of the Cardinals.

80. 1. The declension of **ūnus** has already been given under § 66.

2. **Duo** is declined as follows: —

<i>Nom.</i>	duo	duae	duo
<i>Gen.</i>	duōrum	duārum	duōrum
<i>Dat.</i>	duōbus	duābus	duōbus
<i>Acc.</i>	duōs, duo	duās	duo
<i>Abl.</i>	duōbus	duābus	duōbus

a. So **ambō**, *both*, except that its final **o** is long.

3. **Trēs** is declined, —

<i>Nom.</i>	trēs	tria
<i>Gen.</i>	trīum	trīum
<i>Dat.</i>	tribus	tribus
<i>Acc.</i>	trēs (trīs)	tria
<i>Abl.</i>	tribus	tribus

4. The hundreds (except **centum**) are declined like the Plural of **bonus**.

5. **Mille** is regularly an adjective in the Singular, and indeclinable. In the Plural it is a substantive (followed by the Genitive of the objects enumerated; § 201. 1), and is declined, —

<i>Nom.</i>	mīlia	<i>Acc.</i>	mīlia
<i>Gen.</i>	mīlium	<i>Voc.</i>	mīlia
<i>Dat.</i>	mīlibus	<i>Abl.</i>	mīlibus

Thus **mille hominēs**, *a thousand men*; but **duo milia hominum**, *two thousand men*, literally *two thousands of men*.

a. Occasionally the Singular admits the Genitive construction; as, **mille hominum**.

6. Other Cardinals are indeclinable. Ordinals and Distributives are declined like Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions.

Peculiarities in the Use of Numerals.

81. 1. The compounds from 21 to 99 may be expressed either with the larger or the smaller numeral first. In the latter case, *et* is used. Thus:—

trīgintā sex or **sex et trīgintā**, *thirty-six*.

2. The numerals under 90, ending in 8 and 9, are often expressed by subtraction; as,—

duodēvīgintī, *eighteen* (but also **octōdecim**);

ūndēquadrāgintā, *thirty-nine* (but also **trīgintā novem** or **novem et trīgintā**).

3. Compounds over 100 regularly have the largest number first; the others follow without *et*; as,—

centum vīgintī septem, *one hundred and twenty-seven*.

annō octīngentēsīmō octōgēsīmō secundō, *in the year 882*.

Yet *et* may be inserted where the smaller number is either a digit or one of the tens; as,—

centum et septem, *one hundred and seven*;

centum et quadrāgintā, *one hundred and forty*.

4. The Distributives are used —

a) To denote *so much each, so many apiece*; as,—

bīna talenta eīs dedit, *he gave them two talents each*.

b) When those nouns that are ordinarily Plural in form, but Singular in meaning, are employed in a Plural sense; as,—

bīnae litterae, *two epistles*.

But in such cases, **ūnī** (not **singulī**) is regularly employed for *one*, and **trīnī** (not **ternī**) for *three*; as,—

ūnae litterae, *one epistle*; **trīnae litterae**, *three epistles*.

c) In multiplication; as,—

bis bīna sunt quattuor, *twice two are four*.

d) Often in poetry, instead of the cardinals; as,—

bīna hastilia, *two spears*.

C. PRONOUNS.

82. A Pronoun is a word that indicates something without naming it.

83. There are the following classes of pronouns :—

I. Personal.	V. Intensive.
II. Reflexive.	VI. Relative.
III. Possessive.	VII. Interrogative.
IV. Demonstrative.	VIII. Indefinite.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

84. These correspond to the English *I, you, he, she, it, etc.*, and are declined as follows :—

<i>First Person.</i>	<i>Second Person.</i>	<i>Third Person.</i>
SINGULAR.		
<i>Nom.</i> ego, <i>I</i>	tū, <i>thou</i>	is, <i>he</i> ; ea, <i>she</i> ; id, <i>it</i>
<i>Gen.</i> meī	tuī	(For declension see § 87.)
<i>Dat.</i> mihi ¹	tibi ¹	
<i>Acc.</i> mē	tē	
<i>Voc.</i> —	tū	
<i>Abl.</i> mē	tē	
PLURAL.		
<i>Nom.</i> nōs, <i>we</i>	vōs, <i>you</i>	
<i>Gen.</i> { nostrum	{ vestrum	
{ nostrī	{ vestrī	
<i>Dat.</i> nōbīs	vōbīs	
<i>Acc.</i> nōs	vōs	
<i>Voc.</i> —	vōs	
<i>Abl.</i> nōbīs	vōbīs	

1. A Dative Singular **mī** occurs in poetry.

2. Emphatic forms in **-met** are occasionally found ; as, **egomet**, *I myself* ; **tibimet**, *to you yourself* ; tū has **tūte** and **tūtemet** (written also **tūtinet**).

¹ The final **i** is sometimes long in poetry.

3. In early Latin, *mēd* and *tēd* occur as Accusative and Ablative forms.

II. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

85. These refer to the subject of the sentence or clause in which they stand; like *myself*, *yourself*, in '*I see myself*' etc. They are declined as follows:—

	<i>First Person.</i>	<i>Second Person.</i>	<i>Third Person.</i>
	Supplied by oblique cases of <i>ego</i> .	Supplied by oblique cases of <i>tū</i> .	
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>meī, of myself</i>	<i>tuī, of thyself</i>	<i>suī</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>mihī, to myself</i>	<i>tibi, to thyself</i>	<i>sibi</i> ¹
<i>Acc.</i>	<i>mē, myself</i>	<i>tē, thyself</i>	<i>sē or sēsē</i>
<i>Voc.</i>	—	—	—
<i>Abl.</i>	<i>mē, with myself, etc.</i>	<i>tē, with thyself, etc.</i>	<i>sē or sēsē</i>

1. The Reflexive of the Third Person serves for *all genders* and for *both numbers*. Thus *suī* may mean, *of himself, herself, itself, or of themselves*; and so with the other forms.

2. All of the Reflexive Pronouns have at times a *reciprocal* force; as,—

inter sē pignant, they fight with each other.

3. In early Latin, *sēd* occurs as Accusative and Ablative.

III. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

86. These are strictly adjectives of the First and Second Declensions, and are inflected as such. They are—

<i>First Person.</i>	<i>Second Person.</i>
<i>meus, -a, -um, my;</i>	<i>tuus, -a, -um, thy;</i>
<i>noster, nostra, nostrum, our;</i>	<i>vester, vestra, vestrum, your;</i>

Third Person.

suus, -a, -um, his, her, its, their.

1. *Suus* is exclusively Reflexive; as,—

pater liberōs suōs amat, the father loves his children.

Otherwise, *his, her, its* are regularly expressed by the Genitive Singular of *is, viz. ejus*; and *their* by the Genitive Plural, *eōrum, eārum*.

¹ The final *i* is sometimes long in poetry.

2. The Vocative Singular Masculine of **meus** is **mī**.

3. The enclitic **-pte** may be joined to the Ablative Singular of the Possessive Pronouns for the purpose of emphasis. This is particularly common in case of **suō**, **suā**; as, **suōpte**, **suāpte**.

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

87. These point out an object as **here** or **there**, or as **previously mentioned**. They are—

hīc, *this* (where I am);
iste, *that* (where you are);
ille, *that* (something distinct from the speaker);
is, *that* (weaker than **ille**);
īdem, *the same*.

Hīc, **iste**, and **ille** are accordingly the Demonstratives of the First, Second, and Third Persons respectively.

Hīc, *this*.

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
<i>Nom.</i>	hīc	haec	hōc	hī	hae	haec
<i>Gen.</i>	hūjus ¹	hūjus	hūjus	hōrum	hārum	hōrum
<i>Dat.</i>	huic	huic	huic	hīs	hīs	hīs
<i>Acc.</i>	hunc	hanc	hōc	hōs	hās	haec
<i>Abl.</i>	hōc	hāc	hōc	hīs	hīs	hīs

Iste, *that, that of yours*.

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
<i>Nom.</i>	iste	ista	istud ²	istī	istae	ista ²
<i>Gen.</i>	istius	istius	istius	istōrum	istārum	istōrum
<i>Dat.</i>	istī	istī	istī	istīs	istīs	istīs
<i>Acc.</i>	istum	istam	istud	istōs	istās	ista ²
<i>Abl.</i>	istō	istā	istō	istīs	istīs	istīs

Ille (archaic **olle**), *that, that one, he*, is declined like **iste**.³

¹ Forms of **hīc** ending in **-s** sometimes append **-ce** for emphasis; as, **hūjuce**, *this . . . here*; **hōsce**, **hīsce**. When **-ne** is added, **-c** and **-ce** become **-ci**; as **huncine**, **hōscine**.

² For **istud**, **istūc** sometimes occurs; for **ista**, **istaec**.

³ For **illud**, **illūc** sometimes occurs.

Is, he, this, that.

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
<i>Nom.</i> is	ea	id	eī, īi, (ī)	eae	ea
<i>Gen.</i> ejus	ejus	ejus	eōrum	eārum	eōrum
<i>Dat.</i> eī	eī	eī	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs
<i>Acc.</i> eum	eam	id	eōs	eās	ea
<i>Abl.</i> eō	eā	eō	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs

Īdem, the same.

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
<i>Nom.</i> idem	eadem	idem	{ eīdem } { īidem }	eadem	eadem
<i>Gen.</i> ejusdem	ejusdem	ejusdem	eōrundem	eārundem	eōrundem
<i>Dat.</i> eīdem	eīdem	eīdem	eīsdem	eīsdem	eīsdem
<i>Acc.</i> eundem	eandem	idem	eōsdem	eāsdem	eadem
<i>Abl.</i> eōdem	eādem	eōdem	eīsdem	eīsdem	eīsdem

The *Nom. Plu. Masc.* also has *īdem*, and the *Dat. Abl. Plu.* *īsdem* or *īisdem*

V. THE INTENSIVE PRONOUN.

88. The Intensive Pronoun in Latin is *ipse*. It corresponds to the English *myself, etc.*, in '*I myself, he himself.*'

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
<i>Nom.</i> ipse	ipsa	ipsum	ipsī	ipsae	ipsa
<i>Gen.</i> ipsīus	ipsīus	ipsīus	ipsōrum	ipsārum	ipsōrum
<i>Dat.</i> ipsī	ipsī	ipsī	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs
<i>Acc.</i> ipsum	ipsam	ipsum	ipsōs	ipsās	ipsa
<i>Abl.</i> ipsō	ipsā	ipsō	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs

VI. THE RELATIVE PRONOUN.

89. The Relative Pronoun is *quī*, who. It is declined: —

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
<i>Nom.</i> quī	quae	quod	quī	quae	quae
<i>Gen.</i> cūjus	cūjus	cūjus	quōrum	quārum	quōrum
<i>Dat.</i> cui	cui	cui	quibus ²	quibus ²	quibus ²
<i>Acc.</i> quem	quam	quod	quōs	quās	quae
<i>Abl.</i> quō ¹	quā ¹	quō ¹	quibus ²	quibus ²	quibus ²

¹ An ablative *quī* occurs in *quicum*, with whom.

² Sometimes *quīs*

VII. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

90. The Interrogative Pronouns are *quis, who?* (substantive) and *quī, what? what kind of?* (adjective).

I. *Quis, who?*

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
	MASC. AND FEM.	NEUTER.	
<i>Nom.</i>	quis	quid	The rare Plural
<i>Gen.</i>	cūjus	cūjus	follows the de-
<i>Dat.</i>	cui	cui	clension of the
<i>Acc.</i>	quem	quid	Relative Pronoun.
<i>Abl.</i>	quō	quō	

2. *Quī, what? what kind of?* is declined precisely like the Relative Pronoun; *viz. quī, quae, quod, etc.*

- An old Ablative *quī* occurs, in the sense of *how? why?*
- Quī* is sometimes used for *quis* in Indirect Questions.
- Quis*, when limiting words denoting persons, is sometimes an adjective. But in such cases *quis homō = what man?* whereas *quī homō = what sort of man?*
- Quis* and *quī* may be strengthened by adding *-nam*. Thus:—
Substantive: *quisnam, who, pray? quidnam, what, pray?*
Adjective: *quīnam, quaeam, quodnam, of what kind, pray?*

VIII. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

91. These have the general force of *some one, any one*.

M. AND F.	SUBSTANTIVES.		ADJECTIVES.		
		NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
quis,	quid,	{ <i>any one,</i> <i>anything.</i>	quī,	quae, qua,	quod, <i>any.</i>
aliquis,	aliquid,	{ <i>some one,</i> <i>something.</i>	aliquī,	aliqua,	aliquod, <i>any.</i>
quisquam,	quidquam,	{ <i>any one,</i> <i>anything.</i>	quisquam,		quidquam, { <i>any</i> (rare),
quispiam,	quidpiam,	{ <i>any one,</i> <i>anything.</i>	quispiam, quae- piam,		quodpiam, <i>any.</i>
quisque,	quidque,	<i>each.</i>	quisque, quae- que,		quodque, <i>each.</i>
quīvis, quaevis, quīlibet, quaelibet,	quidvis, quidlibet,	{ <i>any one</i> (<i>anything</i>) <i>you wish.</i>	quīvis, quaevis, quīlibet, quaelibet,		quodvis, { <i>any</i> <i>you</i> <i>wish.</i>
quīdam, quaedam, quiddam,		{ <i>a certain</i> <i>person,</i> <i>or thing</i>	quīdam, quaedam,		quoddam, { <i>a cer-</i> <i>tain.</i>

1. In the Indefinite Pronouns, only the pronominal part is declined. Thus: Genitive Singular *alicūjus, cūjuslibet, etc.*

2. Note that *aliquī* has *aliqua* in the Nominative Singular Feminine, also in the Nominative and Accusative Plural Neuter. *Quī* has both *qua* and *quae* in these same cases.

3. *Quīdam* forms Accusative Singular *quendam, quaudam*; Genitive Plural *quōrundam, quārundam*; the *m* being assimilated to *n* before *d*.

4. *Aliquis* may be used adjectively, and (occasionally) *aliquī* substantively.

5. In combination with *nē, sī, nisi, num*, either *quis* or *quī* may stand as a Substantive. Thus: *sī quis* or *sī quī*.

6. *Ecquis*, *any one*, though strictly an Indefinite, generally has interrogative force. It has both substantive and adjective forms, — substantive, *ecquis, ecquid*; adjective, *ecquī, ecquae* and *ecqua, ecquod*.

7. *Quisquam* is not used in the Plural.

8. There are two Indefinite Relatives, — *quicumque* and *quisquis*, *whoever*. *Quicumque* declines only the first part; *quisquis* declines both but has only *quisquis, quidquid, quōquō*, in common use.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

92 The following adjectives, also, frequently have pronominal force:—

1. *alius*, *another*; *alter, the other*;
uter, which of two? (interr.); *neuter, neither*;
whichever of two (rel.);
ūnus, one; *nūllus, no one* (in oblique cases).
2. The compounds, —
uterque, utraque, utrumque, each of two;
utercumque, utracumque, utrumcumque, whoever of two;
uterlibet, utralibet, utrumlibet, either one you please;
utervīs, utravīs, utrumvīs, either one you please;
alteruter, alterutra, alterutrum, the one or the other.

In these, *uter* alone is declined. The rest of the word remains unchanged, except in case of *alteruter*, which may decline both parts; as, —

<i>Nom.</i> alteruter	altera utra	alterum utrum
<i>Gen.</i> alterius utrīus, etc.		

CHAPTER II. — *Conjugation.*

93. A Verb is a word which asserts something; as, *est, he is; amat, he loves.* The Inflection of Verbs is called Conjugation.

94. Verbs have Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person:—

1. Two Voices, — Active and Passive.
2. Three Moods, — Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative.
3. Six Tenses, —

Present,	Perfect,
Imperfect,	Pluperfect,
Future,	Future Perfect.

But the Subjunctive lacks the Future and Future Perfect; while the Imperative employs only the Present and Future.

4. Two Numbers, — Singular and Plural.
5. Three Persons, — First, Second, and Third.

95. These make up the so-called *Finite Verb*. Besides this, we have the following Noun and Adjective Forms:—

1. Noun Forms, — Infinitive, Gerund, and Supine.
2. Adjective Forms, — Participles (including the Gerundive).

96. The Personal Endings of the Verb are, —

	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.
<i>Sing.</i>	1. -ō; -m; -ī (Perf. Ind.);	-r.
	2. -s; -stī (Perf. Ind.); -tō or wanting (Impv.);	-ris, -re; -re, -tor (Impv.).
	3. -t; -tō (Impv.);	-tur; -tor (Impv.).
<i>Plu.</i>	1. -mus;	-mur.
	2. -tis; -stis (Perf. Ind.); -te, -tōte (Impv.);	-minī.
	3. -nt; -ērunt (Perf. Ind.); -ntō (Impv.);	-ntur; -ntor (Impv.).

VERB STEMS.

97. Conjugation consists in appending certain endings to the Stem. We distinguish three different stems in a fully inflected verb, —

I. **Present Stem**, from which are formed —

- | | |
|--|-----------------------|
| 1. Present, Imperfect, and Future Indicative, | } Active and Passive. |
| 2. Present and Imperfect Subjunctive, | |
| 3. The Imperative, | |
| 4. The Present Infinitive, | |
| 5. The Present Active Participle, the Gerund, and Gerundive. | |

II. **Perfect Stem**, from which are formed —

- | | |
|--|-----------|
| 1. Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative, | } Active. |
| 2. Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive, | |
| 3. Perfect Infinitive, | |

III. **Participial Stem**, from which are formed —

- | | |
|--|------------|
| 1. Perfect Participle, | } Passive. |
| 2. Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative, | |
| 3. Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive, | |
| 4. Perfect Infinitive, | |

Apparently from the same stem, though really of different origin, are the Supine, the Future Active Participle, the Future Infinitive Active and Passive.

THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS.

98. There are in Latin four regular Conjugations, distinguished from each other by the vowel of the termination of the Present Infinitive Active, as follows :—

CONJUGATION.	INFINITIVE TERMINATION.	DISTINGUISHING VOWEL.
I.	-āre	ā
II.	-ēre	ē
III.	-ĕre	ĕ
IV.	-īre	ī

99. **PRINCIPAL PARTS.** The Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, Perfect Indicative, and the Perfect Participle¹ constitute the **Principal Parts** of a Latin verb, — so called because they contain the different stems, from which the full conjugation of the verb may be derived.

¹ Where the Perfect Participle is not in use, the Future Active Participle, if it occurs, is given as one of the Principal Parts.

CONJUGATION OF **SUM**.

100. The irregular verb **sum** is so important for the conjugation of all other verbs that its inflection is given at the outset.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	FUT. PARTIC. ¹
sum	esse	fuī	futūrus

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
sum , <i>I am</i> ,	sumus , <i>we are</i> ,
es , <i>thou art</i> ,	estis , <i>you are</i> ,
est , <i>he is</i> ;	sunt , <i>they are</i> .

IMPERFECT.

eram , <i>I was</i> ,	erāmus , <i>we were</i> ,
erās , <i>thou wast</i> ,	erātis , <i>you were</i> ,
erat , <i>he was</i> ;	erant , <i>they were</i> .

FUTURE.

erō , <i>I shall be</i> ,	erimus , <i>we shall be</i> ,
eris , <i>thou wilt be</i> ,	eritis , <i>you will be</i> ,
erit , <i>he will be</i> ;	erunt , <i>they will be</i> .

PERFECT.

fuī , <i>I have been, I was</i> ,	fuimus , <i>we have been, we were</i> ,
fuistī , <i>thou hast been, thou wast</i> ,	fuistis , <i>you have been, you were</i> ,
fuit , <i>he has been, he was</i> ;	fuērunt , } <i>they have been, they were</i>
	fuēre , }

PLUPERFECT.

fueram , <i>I had been</i> ,	fuerāmus , <i>we had been</i> ,
fuerās , <i>thou hadst been</i> ,	fuerātis , <i>you had been</i> ,
fuerat , <i>he had been</i> ;	fuerant , <i>they had been</i> .

FUTURE PERFECT.

fuerō , <i>I shall have been</i> ,	fuerimus , <i>we shall have been</i> ,
fueris , <i>thou wilt have been</i> ,	fueritis , <i>you will have been</i> ,
fuerit , <i>he will have been</i> ;	fuerint , <i>they will have been</i> .

¹ The Perfect Participle is wanting in **sum**.

SUBJUNCTIVE.¹

PRESENT.

SINGULAR.

sim, may I be,
sīs, mayst thou be,
sit, let him be, may he be ; *

PLURAL.

sīmus, let us be,
sītis, be ye, may you be,
sint, let them be.

IMPERFECT.

essem,² I should be,
essēs,² thou wouldst be,
esset,² he would be ;

essēmus, we should be,
essētis, you would be,
essent,² they would be.

PERFECT.

fuerim, I may-have been,
fuerīs, thou mayst have been,
fuerit, he may have been ;

fuerīmus, we may have been,
fuerītis, you may have been,
fuerint, they may have been.

PLUPERFECT.

fuissem, I should have been,
fuisēs, thou wouldst have been,
fuisset, he would have been ;

fuissemus, we should have been,
fuissetis, you would have been,
fuisissent, they would have been.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. es, be thou ;
Fut. estō, thou shalt be,
estō, he shall be ;

este, be ye,
estōte, ye shall be,
suntō, they shall be.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. esse, to be.
Perf. fuisse, to have been.
Fut. futūrus esse,³ to be about to be.

PARTICIPLE.

Fut. futūrus,⁴ about to be.

¹ The meanings of the different tenses of the Subjunctive are so many and so varied, particularly in subordinate clauses, that no attempt can be made to give them here. For fuller information the pupil is referred to the Syntax.

² For *essem*, *essēs*, *esset*, *essent*, the forms *forēm*, *forēs*, *foret*, *forent* are sometimes used.

³ For *futūrus esse*, the form *fore* is often used.

⁴ Declined like *bonus*, -a, -um.

FIRST (OR \bar{A} -) CONJUGATION.

101.

Active Voice.—Amō, *I love.*

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	PERF. PASS. PARTIC.
amō	amāre	amāvī	amātus

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

amō, *I love,*
 amās, *you love,*
 amat, *he loves ;*

PLURAL.

amāmus, *we love,*
 amātis, *you love,*
 amant, *they love.*

amābam, *I was loving,¹*
 amābās, *you were loving,*
 amābat, *he was loving ;*

IMPERFECT.

amābāmus, *we were loving,*
 amābātis, *you were loving,*
 amābant, *they were loving.*

amābō, *I shall love,*
 amābis, *you will love,*
 amābit, *he will love ;*

FUTURE.

amābimus, *we shall love,*
 amābitis, *you will love,*
 amābunt, *they will love.*

amāvī, *I have loved, I loved,*
 amāvistī, *you have loved, you*
loved,
 amāvit, *he has loved, he loved ;*

PERFECT.

amāvimus, *we have loved, we loved,*
 amāvistis, *you have loved, you loved,*
 amāvērunt, -ēre, *they have loved, they*
loved.

amāveram, *I had loved,*
 amāverās, *you had loved,*
 amāverat, *he had loved ;*

PLUPERFECT.

amāverāmus, *we had loved,*
 amāverātis, *you had loved,*
 amāverant, *they had loved.*

FUTURE PERFECT.

amāverō, *I shall have loved,*
 amāveris, *you will have loved,*
 amāverit, *he will have loved ;*

amāverimus, *we shall have loved,*
 amāveritis, *you will have loved,*
 amāverint, *they will have loved.*

¹ The Imperfect also means *I loved.*

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

SINGULAR.

amem, *may I love,*
amēs, *may you love,*
amet, *let him love;*

PLURAL.

amēmus, *let us love,*
amētis, *may you love,*
ament, *let them love.*

IMPERFECT.

amārem, *I should love,*
amārēs, *you would love,*
amāret, *he would love;*

amārēmus, *we should love,*
amārētis, *you would love,*
amārent, *they would love.*

PERFECT.

amāverim, *I may have loved,*
amāverīs, *you may have loved,*
amāverit, *he may have loved;*

amāverīmus, *we may have loved,*
amāverītis, *you may have loved,*
amāverint, *they may have loved.*

PLUPERFECT.

amāvīsem, *I should have loved,*
amāvīssēs, *you would have loved,*
amāvīssēt, *he would have loved;*

amāvīssēmus, *we should have loved,*
amāvīssētis, *you would have loved,*
amāvīssēt, *they would have loved.*

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. amā, *love thou;*
Fut. amātō, *thou shalt love,*
amātō, *he shall love;*

amāte, *love ye.*
amātōte, *ye shall love,*
amantō, *they shall love.*

INFINITIVE.

Pres. amāre, *to love.*
Perf. amāvīsse, *to have loved.*
Fut. amātūrus esse, *to be about*
to love.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. amāns,¹ *loving.*
(*Gen.* amantis.)
Fut. amātūrus, *about to love.*

GERUND.

Gen. amandī, *of loving,*
Dat. amandō, *for loving,*
Acc. amandum, *loving,*
Abl. amandō, *by loving.*

SUPINE.

Acc. amātum, *to love;*
Abl. amātū, *to love, be loved.*

¹ For declension of amāns, see § 70. 3.

FIRST (OR \bar{A} -) CONJUGATION.102. Passive Voice. — Amor, *I am loved.*

PRINCIPAL PARTS.		
PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.
amor	amārī	amātus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	<i>I am loved.</i>	PLURAL.
amor		amāmur
amāris		amāminī
amātur		amantur

IMPERFECT.

I was loved.

amābar		amābāmur
amābāris, or -re		amābāminī
amābātur		amābantur

FUTURE.

I shall be loved.

amābor		amābimur
amāberis, or -re		amābiminī
amābitur		amābuntur

PERFECT.

I have been loved, or I was loved.

amātus (-a, -um) sum ¹	amātī (-ae, -a) sumus
amātus es	amātī estis
amātus est	amātī sunt

PLUPERFECT.

I had been loved.

amātus eram ¹	amātī erāmus
amātus erās	amātī erātis
amātus erat	amātī erant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have been loved.

amātus erō ¹	amātī erimus
amātus eris	amātī eritis
amātus erit	amātī erunt

¹ Fui, fuisti, etc., are sometimes used for sum, es, etc. So fueram, fuerās, etc., for eram, etc.; fuerō, etc., for erō, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I be loved, let him be loved.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
amer	amēmur
amēris, or -re	amēminī
amētur	amentur

IMPERFECT.

I should be loved, he would be loved.

amārer	amārēmur
amārēris, or -re	amārēminī
amārētur	amārentur

PERFECT.

I may have been loved.

amātus sim ¹	amātī simus
amātus sīs	amātī sītis
amātus sit	amātī sint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been loved, he would have been loved.

amātus essem ¹	amātī essēmus
amātus essēs	amātī essētis
amātus esset	amātī essent

IMPERATIVE.

<i>Pres.</i> amāre, ² <i>be thou loved;</i>	amāminī, <i>be ye loved.</i>
<i>Fut.</i> amātor, <i>thou shalt be loved,</i> amātor, <i>he shall be loved;</i>	amantor, <i>they shall be loved</i>

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

<i>Pres.</i> amārī, <i>to be loved.</i>	
<i>Perf.</i> amātus esse, <i>to have been loved.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i> amātus, <i>loved, having been loved.</i>
<i>Fut.</i> amātum irī, <i>to be about to be loved.</i>	<i>Gerundive.</i> amandus, <i>to be loved, deserving to be loved.</i>

¹ *Fuissim, etc.*, are sometimes used for *sim*; so *fuissem, etc.*, for *essem*.² In actual usage passive imperatives occur only in deponents (§ 112).

SECOND (OR \bar{E} -) CONJUGATION.103. Active Voice. — Moneō, *I advise.*

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	PERF. PASS. PARTIC.
moneō	monēre	monuī	monitus

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	<i>I advise.</i>	PLURAL.
moneō		monēmus
monēs		monētis
monet		monent

IMPERFECT.

I was advising, or I advised.

monēbam	monēbāmus
monēbās	monēbātis
monēbat	monēbant

FUTURE.

I shall advise.

monēbō	monēbimus
monēbis	monēbitis
monēbit	monēbunt

PERFECT.

I have advised, or I advised.

monuī	monuimus
monuistī	monuistis
monuit	monuērunt, or -ēre

PLUPERFECT.

I had advised.

monueram	monuerāmus
monuerās	monuerātis
monuerat	monuerant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have advised.

monuerō	monuerimus
monueris	monueritis
monuerit	monuerint

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I advise, let him advise.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
moneam	moneāmus
moneās	moneātis
moneat	moneant

IMPERFECT.

I should advise, he would advise.

monērem	monērēmus
monērēs	monērētis
monēret	monērent

PERFECT.

I may have advised.

monuerim	monuerīmus
monuerīs	monuerītis
monuerit	monuerint

PLUPERFECT

I should have advised, he would have advised.

monuissē	monuissēmus
monuissēs	monuissētis
monuisset	monuissent

IMPERATIVE.

<i>Pres.</i> monē, advise thou ;	monēte, advise ye.
<i>Fut.</i> monētō, thou shalt advise,	monētōte, ye shall advise,
monētō, he shall advise ;	monentō, they shall advise.

INFINITIVE.

<i>Pres.</i> monēre, to advise.
<i>Perf.</i> monuisse, to have advised.
<i>Fut.</i> monitūrus esse, to be about to advise.

PARTICIPLE.

<i>Pres.</i> monēns, advising.
(Gen. monentis.)
<i>Fut.</i> monitūrus, about to advise.

GERUND.

<i>Gen.</i> monendī, of advising,
<i>Dat.</i> monendō, for advising,
<i>Acc.</i> monendum, advising,
<i>Abl.</i> monendō, by advising.

SUPINE.

<i>Acc.</i> monitum, to advise,
<i>Abl.</i> monitū, to advise, be advised

SECOND (OR \bar{E} -) CONJUGATION.104. **Passive Voice.**— Moneor, *I am advised.*

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.
moneor	monērī	monitus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	<i>I am advised.</i>	PLURAL.
moneor		monēmur
monēris		monēminī
monētur		monentur

IMPERFECT.

	<i>I was advised.</i>	
monēbar		monēbāmur
monēbāris, or -re		monēbāminī
monēbātur		monēbantur

FUTURE.

	<i>I shall be advised.</i>	
monēbor		monēbimur
monēberis, or -re		monēbiminī
monēbitur		monēbuntur

PERFECT.

	<i>I have been advised, I was advised.</i>	
monitus sum		monitī sumus
monitus es		monitī estis
monitus est		monitī sunt

PLUPERFECT.

	<i>I had been advised.</i>	
monitus eram		monitī erāmus
monitus erās		monitī erātis
monitus erat		monitī erant

FUTURE PERFECT.

	<i>I shall have been advised.</i>	
monitus erō		monitī erimus
monitus eris		monitī eritis
monitus erit		monitī erunt

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I be advised, let him be advised.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
monēar	moneāmur
moneāris, or -re	moneāminī
moneātur	moneantur

IMPERFECT.

I should be advised, he would be advised.

monērer	monērēmur
monērēris, or -re	monērēminī
monērētur	monērentur

PERFECT.

I may have been advised.

monitus sim	monitī sīmus
monitus sīs	monitī sītis
monitus sit	monitī sint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been advised, he would have been advised.

monitus essem	monitī essēmus
monitus essēs	monitī essētis
monitus esset	monitī essent

IMPERATIVE.

<i>Pres.</i> monēre, be thou advised;	monēminī, be ye advised.
<i>Fut.</i> monētor, thou shalt be advised,	
monētor, he shall be advised.	monentor, they shall be advised.

INFINITIVE.

<i>Pres.</i> monērī, to be advised.
<i>Perf.</i> monitus esse, to have been advised.
<i>Fut.</i> monitum īrī, to be about to be advised.

PARTICIPLE.

<i>Perfect.</i> monitus, advised, having been advised.
<i>Gerundive.</i> monendus, to be advised, deserving to be advised.

THIRD (OR CONSONANT-) CONJUGATION.

105. Active Voice. — Regō, *I rule.*

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	PERF. PASS. PARTIC.
regō	regere	rēxī	rēctus

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	<i>I rule.</i>	PLURAL.
regō		regimus
regis		regitis
regit		regunt

IMPERFECT.

I was ruling, or I ruled.

regēbam	regēbāmus
regēbās	regēbātis
regēbat	regēbant

FUTURE.

I shall rule.

regam	regēmus
regēs	regētis
reget	regent

PERFECT.

I have ruled, or I ruled.

rēxī	rēximus
rēxistī	rēxistis
rēxit	rēxērunt, or -ērūt

PLUPERFECT.

I had ruled.

rēxeram	rēxerāmus
rēxerās	rēxerātis
rēxerat	rēxerant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have ruled.

rēxerō	rēxerimus
rēxeris	rēxeritis
rēxerit	rēxerint

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I rule, let him rule.

SINGULAR.

regam

regās

regat

PLURAL.

regāmus

regātis

regant

IMPERFECT.

I should rule, he would rule.

regerem

regerēs

regeret

regerēmus

regerētis

regerent

PERFECT.

I may have ruled.

rēxerim

rēxerīs

rēxerit

rēxerīmus

rēxerītis

rēxerint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have ruled, he would have ruled.

rēxissem

rēxissēs

rēxisset

rēxissēmus

rēxissētis

rēxissent

IMPERATIVE.

*Pres. rege, rule thou ;**Fut. regitō, thou shalt rule,**regitō, he shall rule ;**regite, rule ye.**regitōte, ye shall rule,**reguntō, they shall rule.*

INFINITIVE.

*Pres. regere, to rule.**Perf. rēxisse, to have ruled.**Fut. rēctūrus esse, to be about
to rule.*

PARTICIPLE.

*Pres. regēns, ruling.**(Gen. regentis.)**Fut. rēctūrus, about to rule.*

GERUND.

*Gen. regendī, of ruling,**Dat. regendō, for ruling,**Acc. regendum, ruling,**Abl. regendō, by ruling.*

SUPINE.

*Acc. rēctum, to rule,**Abl. rēctū, to rule, be ruled.*

THIRD (OR CONSONANT-) CONJUGATION.

106. Passive Voice. — Regor, *I am ruled.*

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.
regor	regī	rēctus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	<i>I am ruled.</i>	PLURAL.
regor		regimur
regeris		regimini
regitur		reguntur

IMPERFECT.

	<i>I was ruled.</i>	
regēbar		regēbāmur
regēbāris, or -re		regēbāmini
regēbātur		regēbantur

FUTURE.

	<i>I shall be ruled.</i>	
regar		regēmur
regēris, or -re		regēmini
regētur		regentur

PERFECT.

I have been ruled, or I was ruled.

rēctus sum	rēctī sumus
rēctus es	rēctī estis
rēctus est	rēctī sunt

PLUPERFECT.

I had been ruled.

rēctus eram	rēctī erāmus
rēctus erās	rēctī erātis
rēctus erat	rēctī erant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have been ruled.

rēctus erō	rēctī erimus
rēctus eris	rēctī eritis
rēctus erit	rēctī erunt

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I be ruled, let him be ruled.

SINGULAR.

regar
regāris, or -re
regātur

PLURAL.

regāmur
regāminī
regantur

IMPERFECT.

I should be ruled, he would be ruled.

regerer
regerēris, or -re
regerētur

regerēmur
regerēminī
regerentur

PERFECT.

I may have been ruled.

rēctus sim
rēctus sis
rēctus sit

rēctī sīmus
rēctī sītis
rēctī sint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been ruled, he would have been ruled.

rēctus essem
rēctus essēs
rēctus esset

rectī essēmus
rectī essētis
rectī essent

IMPERATIVE.

*Pres. regere, be thou ruled;**regimini, be ye ruled.**Fut. regitor, thou shalt be ruled,**regitor, he shall be ruled;**reguntor, they shall be ruled.*

INFINITIVE.

*Pres. regī, to be ruled.**Perf. rēctus esse, to have been ruled.**Fut. rēctum irī, to be about to be ruled.*

PARTICIPLE.

*Perfect. rēctus, ruled, having been ruled.**Gerundive. regendus, to be ruled, deserving to be ruled*

FOURTH (OR \bar{I} -) CONJUGATION.107. Active Voice. — Audiō, *I hear.*

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	PERF. PASS. PARTIC.
audiō	audīre	audīvī	audītus

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	<i>I hear.</i>	PLURAL.
audiō		audīmus
audīs		audītis
audit		audiunt

IMPERFECT.

I was hearing, or I heard.

audiēbam	audiēbāmus
audiēbās	audiēbātis
audiēbat	audiēbant

FUTURE.

I shall hear.

audiām	audiēmus
audiēs	audiētis
audiet	audient

PERFECT.

I have heard, or I heard.

audīvī	audīvimus
audīvistī	audīvistis
audīvit	audīverunt, or -ēre

PLUPERFECT.

I had heard.

audīveram	audīverāmus
audīverās	audīverātis
audīverat	audīverant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall have heard.

audīverō	audīverimus
audīveris	audīveritis
audīverit	audīverint

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I hear, let him hear.

SINGULAR.

audiam

audiās

audiat

PLURAL.

audiāmus

audiātis

audiānt

IMPERFECT.

I should hear, he would hear.

audīrem

audīrēs

audīret

audīrēmus

audīrētis

audīrent

PERFECT.

I may have heard.

audīverim

audīverīs

audīverit

audīverīmus

audīverītis

audīverint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have heard, he would have heard.

audīvissem

audīvisseēs

audīvisset

audīvisseēmus

audīvisseētis

audīvissent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. audī, *hear thou;**Fut.* audītō, *thou shalt hear,*audītō, *he shall hear;*audīte, *hear ye.*audītōte, *ye shall hear,*audiuntō, *they shall hear.*

INFINITIVE.

Pres. audīre, *to hear.**Perf.* audīvisse, *to have heard.**Fut.* audītūrus esse, *to be about to hear.*

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. audīēns, *hearing.*

(Gen. audientis.)

Fut. audītūrus, *about to hear.*

GERUND.

Gen. audiendī, *of hearing,**Dat.* audiendō, *for hearing,**Acc.* audiendum, *hearing,**Abl.* audiendō, *by hearing.*

SUPINE.

Acc. auditum, *to hear,**Abl.* auditū, *to hear, be heard.*

FOURTH (OR \bar{I} -) CONJUGATION.108. Passive Voice. — Audior, *I am heard.*

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.
audior	audīrī	audītus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.	<i>I am heard.</i>	PLURAL.
audior		audīmur
audīris		audīmini
audītur		audiuntur

IMPERFECT.

	<i>I was heard.</i>	
audiēbar		audiēbāmur
audiēbāris, or -re		audiēbāmini
audiēbātur		audiēbantur

FUTURE.

	<i>I shall be heard.</i>	
audiar		audiēmur
audiēris, or -re		audiēmini
audiētur		audientur

PERFECT.

	<i>I have been heard, or I was heard.</i>	
audītus sum		audītī sumus
audītus es		audītī estis
audītus est		audītī sunt

PLUPERFECT.

	<i>I had been heard.</i>	
audītus eram		audītī erāmus
audītus erās		audītī erātis
audītus erat		audītī erant

FUTURE PERFECT.

	<i>I shall have been heard.</i>	
audītus erō		audītī erimus
audītus eris		audītī eritis
audītus erit		audītī erunt

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I be heard, let him be heard.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
audiar	audiāmur
audiāris, or -re	audiāmini
audiātur	audiantur

IMPERFECT.

I should be heard, he would be heard.

audīrer	audīrēmur
audīrēris, or -re	audīrēmini
audīrētur	audīrentur

PERFECT.

I may have been heard.

audītus sim	audītī sīmus
audītus sīs	audītī sītis
audītus sit	audītī sint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been heard, he would have been heard.

audītus essem	audītī essēmus
audītus essēs	audītī essētis
audītus esset	audītī essent

IMPERATIVE.

<i>Pres.</i> audīre, be thou heard;	audīmini, be ye heard.
<i>Fut.</i> audītor, thou shalt be heard, audītor, he shall be heard;	audiuntor, they shall be heard.

INFINITIVE.

<i>Pres.</i> audīrī, to be heard.
<i>Perf.</i> audītus esse, to have been heard.
<i>Fut.</i> audītum irī, to be about to be heard.

PARTICIPLE.

<i>Perfect.</i>	audītus, heard, having been heard.
<i>Gerundive.</i>	audiendus, to be heard, deserving to be heard.

VERBS IN -IŌ OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION.

109. 1. Verbs in -iŏ of the Third Conjugation take the endings of the Fourth Conjugation wherever the latter endings have two successive vowels. This occurs only in the Present System.

2. Here belong —

- a) capiŏ, *to take*; cupiŏ, *to desire*; faciŏ, *to make*; fodiŏ, *to dig*; fugiŏ, *to flee*; jaciŏ, *to throw*; pariŏ, *to bear*; quatiŏ, *to shake*; rapiŏ, *to seize*; sapiŏ, *to taste*.
- b) Compounds of laciŏ and speciŏ (both ante-classical); as, *alliciŏ, entice*; *cŏnspiciŏ, behold*.
- c) The deponents gradior, *to go*; morior, *to die*; patior, *to suffer*.

110. Active Voice. — Capiŏ, *I take*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	PERF. PASS. PARTIC.
capiŏ,	capere,	cēpī,	captus.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PRESENT TENSE.	PLURAL.
capiŏ, capis, capit;		capimus, capitis, capiunt.
	IMPERFECT.	
capiēbam, -iēbās, -iēbat;		capiēbāmus, -iēbātis, -iēbant.
	FUTURE.	
capiam, -iēs, -iet;		capiēmus, -iētis, -ient.
	PERFECT.	
cēpī, -istī, -it;		cēpimus, -istis, -ērunt <i>or</i> -ēre.
	PLUPERFECT.	
cēperam, -erās, -erat;		cēperāmus, -erātis, -erant.
	FUTURE PERFECT.	
cēperō, -eris, -erit;		cēperimus, -eritis, -erint.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

SINGULAR.	PRESENT.	PLURAL.
capiam, -iās, -iat;		capiāmus, -iātis, -iant.
	IMPERFECT.	
caperem, -erēs, -eret;		caperēmus, -erētis, -erent.
	PERFECT.	
cēperim, -eris, -erit;		cēperīmus, -erītis, -erint.
	PLUPERFECT.	
cēpissē, -issēs, -isset;		cēpissēmus, -issētis, -issent.

IMPERATIVE.

<i>Pres.</i> cape;	capite.
<i>Fut.</i> capitō, capitō;	capitōte, capiuntō.

INFINITIVE.

<i>Pres.</i> capere
<i>Perf.</i> cēpisse.
<i>Fut.</i> captūrus esse.

PARTICIPLE.

<i>Pres.</i> capiēns.
<i>Fut.</i> captūrus.

GERUND.

<i>Gen.</i> capiendī,
<i>Dat.</i> capiendō,
<i>Acc.</i> capiendum,
<i>Abl.</i> capiendō.

SUPINE.

<i>Acc.</i> captum,
<i>Abl.</i> captū.

111. **Passive Voice.** — *Capior, I am taken.*

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.
capior,	capī,	captus sum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PRESENT TENSE.	PLURAL.
capior, caperis, capitur;		capimur, capiminī, capiuntur.
	IMPERFECT.	
capiēbar, -iēbāris, -iēbātur;		capiēbāmur, -iēbāminī, -iēbantur
	FUTURE.	
capiar, -iēris, -iētur;		capiemur, -iēminī, -ientur.

SINGULAR.	PERFECT.	PLURAL.
captus sum, es, est ;		captī sumus, estis, sunt.
	PLUPERFECT.	
captus eram, erās, erat ;		captī erāmus, erātis, erant.
	FUTURE PERFECT.	
captus erō, eris, erit ;		captī erimus, eritis, erunt.
	SUBJUNCTIVE.	
	PRESENT.	
capiar, -iāris, -iātur ;		capiamur, -iāminī, -iantur.
	IMPERFECT.	
caperer, -erēris, -erētur ;		caperemur, -erēminī, -erentur.
	PERFECT.	
captus sim, sīs, sit ;		captī sīmus, sītis, sint.
	PLUPERFECT.	
captus essem, essēs, esset ;		captī essēmus, essētis, essent.
	IMPERATIVE.	
<i>Pres.</i> capere ;		capiminī.
<i>Fut.</i> capitor, capitor ;		capiantur.
INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLE.	
<i>Pres.</i> capī.		
<i>Perf.</i> captus esse.	<i>Perfect.</i> captus.	
<i>Fut.</i> captum īrī.	<i>Gerundive.</i> capiendus.	

DEPONENT VERBS.

112. Deponent Verbs have in the main Passive *forms* with Active or Neuter *meaning*. But —

- a. They have the following Active forms: Future Infinitive, Present and Future Participles, Gerund, and Supine.
- b. They have the following Passive meanings: always in the Gerundive, and sometimes in the Perfect Passive Participle; as, —

sequendus, to be followed; adeptus, attained.

113. Paradigms of Deponent Verbs are —

- I. Conj. *mīror, mīrārī, mīrātus sum, admire.*
 II. Conj. *vereor, verērī, veritus sum, fear.*
 III. Conj. *sequor, sequī, secūtus sum, follow.*
 IV. Conj. *largior, largīrī, largītus sum, give.*
 III. (in -ior) *patior, patī, passus sum, suffer.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	I.	II.	III.	IV.	III (in -ior).
<i>Pres.</i>	<i>mīror</i>	<i>vereor</i>	<i>sequor</i>	<i>largior</i>	<i>patior</i>
	<i>mīrāris</i>	<i>verēris</i>	<i>sequeris</i>	<i>largiris</i>	<i>pateris</i>
	<i>mīrātur</i>	<i>verētur</i>	<i>sequitur</i>	<i>largitur</i>	<i>patitur</i>
	<i>mīrāmur</i>	<i>verēmur</i>	<i>sequimur</i>	<i>largimur</i>	<i>patimur</i>
	<i>mīrāminī</i>	<i>verēminī</i>	<i>sequiminī</i>	<i>largiminī</i>	<i>patiminī</i>
	<i>mīrantur</i>	<i>verentur</i>	<i>sequuntur</i>	<i>largiuntur</i>	<i>patiuntur</i>
<i>Impf.</i>	<i>mīrābar</i>	<i>verēbar</i>	<i>sequēbar</i>	<i>largiēbar</i>	<i>patiēbar</i>
<i>Fut.</i>	<i>mīrābor</i>	<i>verēbor</i>	<i>sequar</i>	<i>largiar</i>	<i>patiar</i>
<i>Perf.</i>	<i>mīrātus sum</i>	<i>veritus sum</i>	<i>secūtus sum</i>	<i>largītus sum</i>	<i>passus sum</i>
<i>Plup.</i>	<i>mīrātus eram</i>	<i>veritus eram</i>	<i>secūtus eram</i>	<i>largītus eram</i>	<i>passus eram</i>
<i>F. P.</i>	<i>mīrātus crō</i>	<i>veritus erō</i>	<i>secūtus erō</i>	<i>largītus erō</i>	<i>passus erō</i>

SUBJUNCTIVE.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>mīrer</i>	<i>verear</i>	<i>sequar</i>	<i>largiar</i>	<i>patiar</i>
<i>Impf.</i>	<i>mīrārer</i>	<i>verērer</i>	<i>sequerer</i>	<i>largīrer</i>	<i>paterer</i>
<i>Perf.</i>	<i>mīrātus sim</i>	<i>veritus sim</i>	<i>secūtus sim</i>	<i>largītus sim</i>	<i>passus sim</i>
<i>Plup.</i>	<i>mīrātus essem</i>	<i>veritus essem</i>	<i>secūtus essem</i>	<i>largītus essem</i>	<i>passus essem</i>

IMPERATIVE.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>mīrāre, etc.</i>	<i>verēre, etc.</i>	<i>sequere, etc.</i>	<i>largīre, etc.</i>	<i>patere, etc.</i>
<i>Fut.</i>	<i>mīrātor, etc.</i>	<i>verētor, etc.</i>	<i>sequitor, etc.</i>	<i>largītor, etc.</i>	<i>patitor, etc.</i>

INFINITIVE.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>mīrārī</i>	<i>verērī</i>	<i>scquī</i>	<i>largīrī</i>	<i>patī</i>
<i>Perf.</i>	<i>mīrātus esse</i>	<i>veritus esse</i>	<i>secūtus esse</i>	<i>largītus esse</i>	<i>passus esse</i>
<i>Fut.</i>	<i>mīrātūrus esse</i>	<i>veritūrus esse</i>	<i>secūtūrus esse</i>	<i>largītūrus esse</i>	<i>passūrus esse</i>

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>mīrāns</i>	<i>verēns</i>	<i>sequēns</i>	<i>largiēns</i>	<i>patiēns</i>
<i>Fut.</i>	<i>mīrātūrus</i>	<i>veritūrus</i>	<i>secūtūrus</i>	<i>largītūrus</i>	<i>passūrus</i>
<i>Perf.</i>	<i>mīrātus</i>	<i>veritus</i>	<i>secūtus</i>	<i>largītus</i>	<i>passus</i>
<i>Ger.</i>	<i>mīrandus</i>	<i>verendus</i>	<i>sequendus</i>	<i>largiendus</i>	<i>pātiendus</i>

GERUND.

<i>mīrandī</i>	<i>verendī</i>	<i>sequendī</i>	<i>largiendī</i>	<i>patiendī</i>
<i>mīrandō, etc.</i>	<i>verendō, etc.</i>	<i>sequendō, etc.</i>	<i>largiendō, etc.</i>	<i>patiendō, etc.</i>

SUPINE.

<i>mīrātum, -tū</i>	<i>veritum, -tū</i>	<i>secūtum, -tū</i>	<i>largītum, -tū</i>	<i>passum, -sū</i>
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SEMI-DEPONENTS.

114. 1. Semi-Deponents are verbs which have the Present System in the Active Voice, but the Perfect System in the Passive without change of meaning. Here belong —

audēō, audēre, ausus sum, *to dare.*
 gaudeō, gaudēre, gāvīsus sum, *to rejoice.*
 soleō, solēre, solitus sum, *to be wont.*
 fidō, fidere, fīsus sum, *to trust.*

2. The following verbs have a Perfect Passive Participle with Active meaning: —

adolēscō, *grow up*; adultus, *having grown up.*
 cēnāre, *dine*; cēnātus, *having dined.*
 placēre, *please*; placitus, *having pleased, agreeable.*
 prandēre, *lunch*; prānsus, *having lunched.*
 pōtāre, *drink*; pōtus, *having drunk.*
 jūrāre, *swear*; jūrātus, *having sworn.*

a. Jūrātus is used in a passive sense also.

3. Revertor and dēvertor both regularly form their Perfect in the Active Voice; viz. —

revertor, revertī (Inf.), revertī (Perf.), *to return.*
 dēvertor, dēvertī (Inf.), dēvertī (Perf.), *to turn aside.*

PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION.

115. There are two Periphrastic Conjugations, — the Active and the Passive. The Active is formed by combining the Future Active Participle with the auxiliary sum, the Passive by combining the Gerundive with the same auxiliary.

Active Periphrastic Conjugation.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. amātūrus (-a, -um) sum, *I am about to love.*
 Imp. amātūrus eram, *I was about to love.*
 Fut. amātūrus erō, *I shall be about to love.*
 Perf. amātūrus fui, *I have been (was) about to love.*
 Plup. amātūrus fueram, *I had been about to love.*
 Fut. P. amātūrus fuerō, *I shall have been about to love.*

SUBJUNCTIVE.

- Pres.* amātūrus sim, *may I be about to love.*
Imp. amātūrus essem, *I should be about to love.*
Perf. amātūrus fuerim, *I may have been about to love.*
Plup. amātūrus fuisset, *I should have been about to love.*

INFINITIVE.

- Pres.* amātūrus esse, *to be about to love.*
Perf. amātūrus fuisse, *to have been about to love.*

Passive Periphrastic Conjugation.

INDICATIVE.

- Pres.* amandus (-a, -um) sum, *I am to be loved, must be loved.*
Imp. amandus eram, *I was to be loved.*
Fut. amandus erō, *I shall deserve to be loved.*
Perf. amandus fui, *I was to be loved.*
Plup. amandus fueram, *I had deserved to be loved.*
Fut. P. amandus fuerō, *I shall have deserved to be loved.*

SUBJUNCTIVE.

- Pres.* amandus sim, *may I deserve to be loved.*
Imp. amandus essem, *I should deserve to be loved.*
Perf. amandus fuerim, *I may have deserved to be loved.*
Plup. amandus fuisset, *I should have deserved to be loved.*

INFINITIVE.

- Pres.* amandus esse, *to deserve to be loved.*
Perf. amandus fuisse, *to have deserved to be loved.*

PECULIARITIES OF CONJUGATION.

116. 1. Perfects in -āvī, -ēvī, and -īvī, with the forms derived from them, often drop the *ve* or *vi* before endings beginning with *r* or *s*. So also nōvī (from nōscō) and the compounds of mōvī (from moveō). Thus:—

amāvistī	amāstī	dēlēvistī	dēlēstī
amāvisse	amāsse	dēlēvisse	dēlēsse
amāvērunt	amārunt	dēlēvērunt	dēlērunt
amāverim	amārim	dēlēverim	dēlērim
amāveram	amāram	dēlēveram	dēlēram
amāverō	amārō	dēlēverō	dēlērō
nōvistī	nōstī	nōverim	nōrim
nōvisse	nōsse	nōveram	nōram
audīvistī	audīstī	audīvisse	audīsse

2. In the Gêrund and Gerundive of the Third and Fourth Conjugations, the endings **-undus**, **-undī**, often occur instead of **-endus** and **-endī**, as **faciundus**, **faciundī**.

3. **Dīcō**, **dūcō**, **faciō**, form the Imperatives, **dīc**, **dūc**, **fac**. But compounds of **faciō** form the Imperative in **-fice**, as **cōnfice**. Compounds of **dīcō**, **dūcō**, accent the ultima; as, **ēdūc**, **ēdfic**.

4. Archaic and Poetic forms:—

a. The ending **-ier** in the Present Infinitive Passive; as, **amārier**, **monērier**, **dīcier**, for **amārī**, **monērī**, **dīcī**.

b. The ending **-ībam** for **-iēbam** in Imperfects of the Fourth Conjugation, and **-ībō** for **-iam** in Futures; as, **scībam**, **scībō**, for **sciēbam**, **sciam**.

c. Instead of the fuller forms, in such words as **dīxistī**, **scrīpsistis**, **surrēxisse**, we sometimes find **dīxtī**, **scrīpstis**, **surrēxe**, etc.

d. The endings **-im**, **-īs**, etc. (for **-am**, **-ās**, etc.) occur in a few Subjunctive forms; as, **edim** (*eat*), **duint**, **perduint**.

5. In the Future Active and Perfect Passive Infinitive, the auxiliary **esse** is often omitted; as, **āctūrum** for **āctūrum esse**; **ējectus** for **ējectus esse**.

FORMATION OF THE VERB STEMS.

Formation of the Present Stem.

117. Many verbs employ the simple Verb Stem for the Present Stem;¹ as, **dīcere**, **amāre**, **monēre**, **audīre**. Others modify the Verb Stem to form the Present, as follows:—

1. By appending the vowels, **ā**, **ē**, **ī**; as,—

juvāre, Present Stem **juvā-** (Verb Stem **juv-**).

augēre, “ “ **augē-** (“ “ **aug-**).

vincīre, “ “ **vincī-** (“ “ **vinc-**).

2. By adding **i**, as **capiō**, Present Stem **capi-** (Verb Stem **cap-**).

3. By the insertion of **n** (**m** before labial-mutes) before the final consonant of the Verb Stem; as, **fundō** (Stem **fud-**), **rumpō** (Stem **rup-**)

4. By appending **-n** to the Verb Stem; as,—

cern-ō

pell-ō (for **pel-nō**).

¹ Strictly speaking, the Present Stem always ends in a Thematic Vowel (**ē** or **ō**); as, **dīc-ē-**, **dīc-ō-**; **amā-ē-**, **amā-ō-**. But the multitude of phonetic changes involved prevents a scientific treatment of the subject here. See the author's *Latin Language*.

Formation of the Participial Stem.

119. The Perfect Passive Participle, from which the Participial Stem is derived by dropping *-us*, is formed:—

1. By adding *-tus* (sometimes to the Present Stem, sometimes to the Verb Stem); as,—

amā-re,	Participle	amā-tus.
dēlē-re,	“	dēlē-tus.
audī-re,	“	audī-tus.
leg-ere,	“	lēc-tus.
scrib-ere,	“	scrip-tus.
sentī-re,	“	sēn-sus (for sent-tus).
caed-ere,	“	cae-sus (for caed-tus).

a. Note that *g*, before *t*, becomes *c* (see § 8, 5); *b* becomes *p*; while *dt* or *tt* becomes *ss*, which is then often simplified to *s* (§ 8, 2).

2. After the analogy of Participles like *sēnsus* and *caesus*, where *-sus* arises by phonetic change, *-sus* for *-tus* is added to other Verb Stems; as,—

lāb-ī,	Participle	lāp-sus.
fīg-ere,	“	fī-xus.

a. The same consonant changes occur in appending this ending *-sus* to the stem as in the case of the Perfect ending *-sī* (see § 118, 3, a).

3. A few Verbs form the Participle in *-ītus*; as,—

domā-re,	dom-ītus.
monē-re,	mon-ītus.

4. The Future Active Participle is usually identical in its stem with the Perfect Passive Participle; as, *amā-tus*, *amātūrus*; *moni-tus*, *monitūrus*. But—

juvā-re, Perf. Partic.	jūtus,	has Fut. Act. Partic.	juvātūrus. ¹	
lavā-re, “ “	lautus,	“ “ “ “	lavātūrus.	
par-ere, “ “	partus,	“ “ “ “	paritūrus.	
ru-ere, “ “	-rutus,	“ “ “ “	ruitūrus.	
secā-re, “ “	sectus,	“ “ “ “	secātūrus.	
fru-ī,	“ “	-frūctus,	“ “ “ “	fruitūrus.
mor-ī,	“ “	mortuus,	“ “ “ “	moritūrus.
orī-rī,	“ “	ortus,	“ “ “ “	oritūrus.

¹ But the compounds of *juvō* sometimes have *-jūtūrus*; as, *adjūtūrus*.

LIST OF THE MOST IMPORTANT VERBS, WITH
PRINCIPAL PARTS.First (\bar{A} -) Conjugation.120. I. PERFECT IN $-V\bar{I}$.

amō	amāre	amāvī	amātus	<i>love</i>
All regular verbs of the First Conjugation follow this model.				
pōtō	pōtāre	pōtāvī	pōtus (§ 114, 2)	<i>drink</i>

II. PERFECT IN $-U\bar{I}$.

crepō	crepāre	crepūī	crepitūrus	<i>rattle</i>
cubō	cubāre	cubuī	cubitūrus	<i>lie down</i>
domō	domāre	domuī	domitus	<i>tame</i>
fricō	fricāre	fricuī	frictus <i>and</i> fricātus	<i>rub</i>
micō	micāre	micuī	—	<i>glitter</i>
dimicō	dīmicāre	dīmicāvī	dīmicātum (est) ¹	<i>fight</i>
ex-plicō	explicāre	explicāvī (-uī)	explicātus (-itus)	<i>unfold</i>
im-plicō	implicāre	implicāvī (-uī)	implicātus (-itus)	<i>entwine</i>
secō	secāre	secuī	sectus	<i>cut</i>
sonō	sonāre	sonuī	sonātūrus	<i>sound</i>
tonō	tonāre	tonuī	—	<i>thunder</i>
vetō	vetāre	vetuī	vetitus	<i>forbid</i>

III. PERFECT IN \bar{I} WITH LENGTHENING OF THE STEM VOWEL.

juvō	juvāre	jūvī	jūtus	<i>help</i>
lavō	lavāre	lāvī	lautus	<i>wash</i>

IV. PERFECT REDUPLICATED.

stō	stāre	stetī	stātūrus
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V. DEPONENTS.

These are all regular, and follow *mīror, mīrārī, mīrātus sum*.

Second (\bar{E} -) Conjugation.121. I. PERFECT IN $-V\bar{I}$.

dēleō	dēlere	dēlēvī	dēlētus	<i>destroy</i>
fleō	flēre	flēvī	flētus	<i>weep, lament</i>
com-pleō ²	complēre	complēvī	complētus	<i>fill up</i>
aboleō	abolēre	abolēvī	abolitus	<i>destroy</i>
cieō ³	ciēre	civī	citus	<i>set in motion</i>

¹ Used only impersonally.

² So *impleō, explēō*.

³ Compounds follow the Fourth Conjugation: *acciō, accīre, etc.*

II. PERFECT IN -ŪĪ.

a. Type -eō, -ēre, -uī, -itus.

arceō <i>arceō</i>	arcēre <i>arceō</i>	arcuī <i>arceō</i>		<i>keep off</i>
coerceō <i>coerceō</i>	coercere <i>coerceō</i>	coercuī <i>coerceō</i>	coercitus	<i>hold in check</i>
exerceō <i>exerceō</i>	exercere <i>exerceō</i>	exercuī <i>exerceō</i>	exercitus	<i>practise</i>
caleō <i>caleō</i>	calere <i>caleō</i>	caluī <i>caleō</i>	calitūrus	<i>be warm</i>
careō <i>careō</i>	carere <i>careō</i>	caruī <i>careō</i>	caritūrus	<i>be without</i>
-doleō <i>doleō</i>	dolere <i>doleō</i>	doluī <i>doleō</i>	dolitūrus	<i>grieve</i>
-habeō <i>habeō</i>	habere <i>habeō</i>	habuī <i>habeō</i>	habitus	<i>have</i>
-dēbeō <i>dēbeō</i>	dēbere <i>dēbeō</i>	dēbuī <i>dēbeō</i>	dēbitus	<i>owe</i>
-praebēō <i>praebēō</i>	praebere <i>praebēō</i>	praebuī <i>praebēō</i>	praebitus	<i>offer</i>
-jaceō <i>jaceō</i>	jacere <i>jaceō</i>	jacuī <i>jaceō</i>	jacitūrus	<i>lie</i>
mereō <i>mereō</i>	merere <i>mereō</i>	meruī <i>mereō</i>	meritus	<i>earn, deserve</i>
-monēō <i>monēō</i>	monere <i>monēō</i>	monuī <i>monēō</i>	monitus	<i>advise</i>
-noceō <i>noceō</i>	nocere <i>noceō</i>	nocuī <i>noceō</i>	nocitum (est)	<i>injure</i>
-pāreō <i>pāreō</i>	pātere <i>pāreō</i>	pāruī <i>pāreō</i>	pāritūrus	<i>obey</i>
-placēō <i>placēō</i>	placere <i>placēō</i>	placuī <i>placēō</i>	placitūrus	<i>please</i>
-taceō <i>taceō</i>	tacere <i>taceō</i>	tacuī <i>taceō</i>	tacitūrus	<i>be silent</i>
-terreō <i>terreō</i>	terrere <i>terreō</i>	terruī <i>terreō</i>	territus	<i>frighten</i>
-valeō <i>valeō</i>	valere <i>valeō</i>	valuī <i>valeō</i>	valitūrus	<i>be strong</i>

NOTE I. — The following lack the Participial Stem: —

-egeō <i>egeō</i>	egere <i>egeō</i>	eguī <i>egeō</i>	—	<i>want</i>
ēmineō <i>ēmineō</i>	ēminere <i>ēmineō</i>	ēminuī <i>ēmineō</i>	—	<i>stand forth</i>
flōreō <i>flōreō</i>	flōrere <i>flōreō</i>	flōruī <i>flōreō</i>	—	<i>bloom</i>
horreō <i>horreō</i>	horrere <i>horreō</i>	horruī <i>horreō</i>	—	<i>bristle</i>
lateō <i>lateō</i>	latere <i>lateō</i>	latuī <i>lateō</i>	—	<i>lurk</i>
niteō <i>niteō</i>	nitere <i>niteō</i>	nituī <i>niteō</i>	—	<i>gleam</i>
oleō <i>oleō</i>	olere <i>oleō</i>	oluī <i>oleō</i>	—	<i>smell</i>
palleō <i>palleō</i>	pallere <i>palleō</i>	palluī <i>palleō</i>	—	<i>be pale</i>
-pateō <i>pateō</i>	patere <i>pateō</i>	patuī <i>pateō</i>	—	<i>lie open</i>
rubeō <i>rubeō</i>	rubere <i>rubeō</i>	rubuī <i>rubeō</i>	—	<i>be red</i>
sileō <i>sileō</i>	silere <i>sileō</i>	siluī <i>sileō</i>	—	<i>be silent</i>
splendeō <i>splendeō</i>	splendere <i>splendeō</i>	splenduī <i>splendeō</i>	—	<i>gleam</i>
studeō <i>studeō</i>	studere <i>studeō</i>	studuī <i>studeō</i>	—	<i>study</i>
stupeō <i>stupeō</i>	stupere <i>stupeō</i>	stupuī <i>stupeō</i>	—	<i>be amazed</i>
timeō <i>timeō</i>	timere <i>timeō</i>	timuī <i>timeō</i>	—	<i>fear</i>
torpeō <i>torpeō</i>	torpere <i>torpeō</i>	torpuī <i>torpeō</i>	—	<i>be dull</i>
vigeō <i>vigeō</i>	vigere <i>vigeō</i>	viguī <i>vigeō</i>	—	<i>flourish</i>
vireō <i>vireō</i>	virere <i>vireō</i>	viruī <i>vireō</i>	—	<i>be green</i>

and others.

NOTE 2. — The following are used only in the Present System : —

aveō	avēre	—	—	<i>wish</i>
frīgeō	frīgēre	—	—	<i>be cold</i>
immineō	imminēre	—	—	<i>overhang</i>
maereō	maerēre	—	—	<i>mourn</i>
polleō	pollēre	—	—	<i>be strong</i>

and others.

b. Type -eō, -ēre, -uī, -tus (-sus).

cēseō	cēsēre	cēsui	cēsus	<i>estimate</i>
-doceō	docēre	docui	doctus	<i>teach</i>
-miscēō	miscēre	miscui	mixtus	<i>mix</i>
-teneō	tenēre	tenui	—	<i>hold</i>

So *contineō* and *sustineō*; but —

retineō	retinēre	retinui	retentus	<i>retain</i>
obtineō	obtinēre	obtinui	obtentus	<i>maintain</i>
torreō	torrēre	torruī	tostus	<i>bake</i>

III. PERFECT IN -SĪ.

-augeō	augēre	auxī	auctus	<i>increase</i>
torqueō	torquēre	torsī	tortus	<i>twist</i>
indulgeō	indulgēre	indulsi	—	<i>indulge</i>
lūceō	lūcēre	lūxī	—	<i>be light</i>
lūgeō	lūgēre	lūxī	—	<i>mourn</i>
-jubeō	jubēre	jussī	jussus	<i>order</i>
per-mulceō	permulcēre	permulsi	permulsus	<i>soothe</i>
-rīdeō	rīdēre	rīsī	rīsum (est)	<i>laugh</i>
-suādeō	suādēre	suāsī	suāsum (est)	<i>advise</i>
abs-tergeō	abstergēre	abstersī	abstersus	<i>wipe off</i>
-ārdeō	ārdēre	ārsī	ārsūrus	<i>burn</i>
haereō	haerēre	haesi	haesūrus	<i>stick</i>
maneō	manēre	mānsī	mānsūrus	<i>stay</i>
algeō	algēre	alsī	—	<i>be cold</i>
fulgeō	fulgēre	fulsi	—	<i>gleam</i>
-urgeō	urgēre	ursī	—	<i>press</i>

IV. PERFECT IN -Ī WITH REDUPLICATION.

mordeō	mordēre	momordī	morsus	<i>bite</i>
-spondeō	spondēre	spopondī	spōnsus	<i>promise</i>
tondeō	tondēre	totondī	tōnsus	<i>shear</i>
-pendeō	pendēre	pependī	—	<i>hang</i>

V. PERFECT IN \bar{I} WITH LENGTHENING OF STEM VOWEL.

caveō	cavēre	cāvī	cautūrus	<i>take care</i>
—faveō	favēre	fāvī	fautūrus	<i>favor</i>
foveō	fovēre	fōvī	fōtus	<i>cherish</i>
—moveō	movēre	mōvī	mōtus	<i>move</i>
paveō	pavēre	pāvī	—	<i>fear</i>
—sedeō	sedēre	sēdī	sessūrus	<i>sit</i>
—videō	vidēre	vidī	vīsus	<i>see</i>
voveō	vovēre	vōvī	vōtus	<i>vow</i>

VI. PERFECT IN \bar{I} WITHOUT EITHER REDUPLICATION OR LENGTHENING OF STEM VOWEL.

ferveō	fervēre	(fērvī, ferbuī)	—	<i>boil</i>
prandeō	prandēre	prandī	prānsus (§ 114, 2)	<i>lunch</i>
strīdeō	strīdēre	strīdī	—	<i>creak</i>

VII. DEPONENTS.

liceor	licērī	licitus sum	<i>bid</i>
polliceor	pollicērī	pollicitus sum	<i>promise</i>
mereor	merērī	meritus sum	<i>earn</i>
miseror	miserērī	miseritus sum	<i>pity</i>
vereor	verērī	veritus sum	<i>fear</i>
fateor	fatērī	fassus sum	<i>confess</i>
cōnfiteor	cōnfitērī	cōnfessus sum	<i>confess</i>
reor	rērī	ratus sum	<i>think</i>
medeor	medērī	—	<i>heal</i>
tueor	tuērī	—	<i>protect</i>

Third (Consonant) Conjugation.

122. I. VERBS WITH PRESENT STEM ENDING IN A CONSONANT.

1. Perfect in \bar{I} .a. Type \bar{o} , \bar{e} , \bar{s} , \bar{t} .

carpō	carpere	carpsī	carptus	<i>pluck</i>
sculpō	sculpere	sculpsī	sculptus	<i>chisel</i>
rēpō	rēpere	rēpsī	—	<i>creep</i>
serpō	serpere	serpsī	—	<i>crawl</i>
scribō	scribere	scripsī	scriptus	<i>write</i>
nūbō	nūbere	nūpsī	nūpta (woman only)	<i>marry</i>
regō	regere	rēxī	rēctus	<i>govern</i>

-tegō	tegere	tēxī	tēctus	<i>cover</i>
af-fligō	affligere	affixī	afflictus	<i>shatter</i>
-dicō	dicere	dixī	dictus	<i>say</i>
-ducō	ducere	dūxī	ductus	<i>lead</i>
coquō	coquere	coxī	coctus	<i>cook</i>
-trahō	trahere	trāxī	tractus	<i>draw</i>
-vehō	vehere	vexī	vectus	<i>carry</i>
cingō	cingere	cīnxī	cinctus	<i>gird</i>
tingō	tingere	tīnxī	tinctus	<i>dip</i>
·jungō	·jungere	jūnxī	junctus	<i>join</i>
·fingō	·fingere	·finxī	·fictus	<i>mould</i>
pingō	pingere	pīnxī	pictus	<i>paint</i>
stringō	stringere	strīnxī	strictus	<i>bind</i>
-stinguō ¹	-stinguere	-stīnxī	-stinctus	<i>blot out</i>
unguō	unguere	ūnxī	unctus	<i>anoint</i>
-vivō	vivere	vixī	victum (est)	<i>live</i>
-gerō	gerere	gessi	gestus	<i>carry</i>
ūrō	ūrere	ussi	ustus	<i>burn</i>
temnō	temnere	con-tempsi	con-temptus	<i>despise</i>

b. Type -ō, -ēre, -sī, -sus.

-figō	figere	fixī	fixus	<i>fasten</i>
mergō	mergere	mersī	mersus	<i>sink</i>
-spargō	spargere	sparsi	sparsus	<i>scatter</i>
-flectō	flectere	flexī	flexus	<i>bend</i>
nectō	nectere	nexū (nexī)	nexus	<i>twine</i>
-mittō	mittere	misi	missus	<i>send</i>
rādō	rādere	rasi	rasus	<i>shave</i>
rōdō	rōdere	rosi	rosus	<i>gnaw</i>
-vādō	vādere	-vasi ²	-vasum (est) ²	<i>march, walk</i>
-lūdō	lūdere	lusi	lusum (est)	<i>play</i>
-trūdō	trūdere	trusi	trusus	<i>push</i>
laedō	laedere	laesi	laesus	<i>injure, hurt</i>
-claudō	claudere	clausi	clausus	<i>close</i>
{ plaudō	plaudere	plausi	plausum (est)	<i>clap</i>
explōdō	explōdere	explōsi	explōsus	<i>hoot off</i>
-cēdō	cēdere	cessi	cessum (est)	<i>withdraw</i>
-dividō	dividere	divisi	divisus	<i>divide</i>
-premō	premere	pressi	pressus	<i>press</i>

¹ Fully conjugated only in the compounds: *extinguō, restinguō, distinguō.*

² Only in the compounds: *evādō, invādō, pervādō.*

2. Perfect in -ī with Reduplication:

ab-dō	abdere	abdidī	abditus	<i>conceal</i>
red-dō	red-dere	reddidī	redditus	<i>return</i>
So <i>addō, condō, dēdō, perdō, prōdō, trādō, etc.</i>				
cōn-sistō	cōnsistere	cōnstiti	—	<i>take one's stand</i>
resistō	resistere	restiti	—	<i>resist</i>
circumsistō	circumsistere	circumsteti	—	<i>surround</i>
-cadō	cadere	cecidī	cāsūrus	<i>fall</i>
-caedō	caedere	cecidī	caesus	<i>kill</i>
pendō	pendere	pependī	pēsus	<i>weigh, pay</i>
tendō	tendere	tetendī	tentus	<i>stretch</i>
tundō	tundere	tutudī	tūsus, tūsus	<i>beat</i>
fallō	fallere	fefellī	(falsus, as Adj.)	<i>deceive</i>
-pellō	pellere	pepulī	pulsus	<i>drive out</i>
-currō	currere	cucurrī	cursum (est)	<i>run</i>
-parcō	parcere	pepercī	parsūrus	<i>spare</i>
-canō	canere	cecinī	—	<i>sing</i>
-tangō	tangere	tetigī	tāctus	<i>touch</i>
pungō	pungere	pupugī	pūctus	<i>prick</i>

NOTE. — In the following verbs the perfects were originally reduplicated, but have lost the reduplicating syllable: —

per-cellō	percellere	perculī	perculus	<i>strike down</i>
findō	findere	fidī	fissus	<i>split</i>
scindō	scindere	scidī	scissus	<i>tear apart</i>
-tollō	tollere	sus-tulī	sublātus	<i>remove</i>

3. Perfect in -ī with Lengthening of Stem Vowel.

-agō	agere	ēgī	āctus	<i>drive, do</i>
peragō	peragere	perēgī	perāctus	<i>finish</i>
subigō	subigere	subēgī	subāctus	<i>subdue</i>
cōgō	cōgere	coēgī	coāctus	<i>force, gather</i>
-frangō	frangere	frēgī	frāctus	<i>break</i>
perfringō	perfringere	perfrēgī	perfrāctus	<i>break down</i>
-legō	legere	lēgī	lēctus	<i>gather, read</i>
perlegō	perlegere	perlēgī	perlēctus	<i>read through</i>
colligō	colligere	collēgī	collēctus	<i>collect</i>
dēligō	dēligere	dēlēgī	dēlēctus	<i>choose</i>
diligō	diligere	dilēxī	dilēctus	<i>love</i>
intellegō	intellegere	intellēxī	intellēctus	<i>understand</i>
neglegō	neglegere	neglēxī	neglēctus	<i>neglect</i>

-emō	emere	ēmī	ēemptus	<i>buy</i>
coēmō	coēmere	coēmī	coēemptus	<i>buy up</i>
redimō	redimere	redēmī	redēemptus	<i>buy back</i>
dirimō	dirimere	dirēmī	dirēemptus	<i>destroy</i>
dēmō	dēmere	dēmpsi	dēemptus	<i>take away</i>
sūmō	sūmere	sūmpsi	sūmptus	<i>take</i>
prōmō	prōmere	prōmpsi	(prōmptus, as Adj.)	<i>take out</i>
-vincō	vincere	vīcī	victus	<i>conquer</i>
-re-liquō	relinquere	reliquī	relictus	<i>leave</i>
-rumpō	rumpere	rūpī	ruptus	<i>break</i>
edō	ēsse (§ 128)	ēdī	ēsus	<i>eat</i>
fuudō	fundere	fūdī	fūsus	<i>pour</i>

4. Perfect in -ī without either Reduplication or Lengthening of Stem Vowel.

excūdō	excūdere	excūdī	excūsus	<i>hammer</i>
cōnsidō	cōnsidere	cōnsēdī	—	{ <i>take one's</i> <i>seat</i>
possidō	possidere	possēdī	possessus	{ <i>take pos-</i> <i>session</i>
accendō	accendere	accendī	accēnsus	<i>kindle</i>
-a-scendō	ascendere	ascendī	ascēnsus (est)	<i>climb</i>
-dē-fendō	dēfendere	dēfendī	dēfēnsus	<i>defend</i>
pre-hendō	prehendere	prehendī	prehēnsus	<i>seize</i>
īcō	īcere	īcī	ictus	<i>strike</i>
vellō	vellere	vellī	vulsus	<i>pluck</i>
vertō	vertere	vertī	versus	<i>turn</i>
pandō	pandere	pandī	passus	<i>spread</i>
solvō	solvere	solvī	solūtus	<i>loose</i>
vīsō	vīsere	vīsī	vīsus	<i>visit</i>
-volvō	volvere	volvī	volūtus	<i>roll</i>
verrō	verrere	verrī	versus	<i>sweep</i>

5. Perfect in -uī.

in-cumbō	incumbere	incubū	incubītūrus	<i>lean on</i>
gignō	gignere	genuī	genitus	<i>bring forth</i>
molō	molere	molū	molitus	<i>grind</i>
vomō	vomere	vomuī	vomitus	<i>vomit</i>
fremō	fremere	fremū	—	<i>snort</i>
gemō	gemere	gemū	—	<i>sigh</i>
metō	metere	messū	messus	<i>reap</i>

tremō	tremere	tremuī	—	<i>tremble</i>
strepō	strepere	strepuī	—	<i>rattle</i>
alō	alere	aluī	altus (alitus)	<i>nourish</i>
colō	colere	coluī	cultus	<i>cultivate</i>
incolō	incolere	incoluī	—	<i>inhabit</i>
excolō	excolere	excoluī	excultus	<i>perfect</i>
consulō	cōnsulere	cōnsuluī	cōnsultus	<i>consult</i>
cōnserō	cōnserere	cōnseruī	cōnseruus	<i>join</i>
dēserō	dēserere	dēseruī	dēsertus	<i>desert</i>
disserō	disserere	disseruī	—	<i>discourse</i>
texō	texere	texuī	textus	<i>weave</i>

6. Perfect in -vī.

sinō	sinere	sivī	situs	<i>allow</i>
dēsinō	dēsinere	dēsī	dēsitus	<i>cease</i>
pōnō	pōnere	posuī	positus	<i>place</i>
ob-linō	oblinere	oblēvī	oblitus	<i>smear</i>
serō	serere	sēvī	satus	<i>sow</i>
cōnserō	cōnserere	cōnsēvī	cōnsitus	<i>plant</i>
cernō	cernere	—	—	<i>separate</i>
—discernō	discernere	discrēvī	discrētus	<i>distinguish</i>
—dēcernō	dēcernere	dēcērēvī	dēcērētus	<i>decide</i>
spernō	spernere	sprēvī	sprētus	<i>scorn</i>
sternō	sternere	strāvī	strātus	<i>spread</i>
prō-sternō	prōsternere	prōstrāvī	prōstrātus	<i>overthrow</i>
petō	petere	petivī (petiī)	petītus	<i>seek</i>
appetō	appetere	appetivī	appetītus	<i>long for</i>
terō	terere	trivī	tritū	<i>rub</i>
—quaerō	quaerere	quaesivī	quaesītus	<i>seek</i>
acquīrō	acquīrere	acquīsivī	acquīsītus	<i>acquire</i>
arcessō	arcessere	arcessivī	arcessītus	<i>summon</i>
capessō	capessere	capessivī	capessītus	<i>seize</i>
laccessō	laccessere	laccessivī	laccessītus	<i>provoke</i>

7. Used only in Present System.

angō	angere	—	—	<i>choke</i>
lambō	lambere	—	—	<i>lick</i>
claudō	claudere	—	—	<i>be lame</i>
furō	furere	—	—	<i>rave</i>
vergō	vergere	—	—	<i>bend</i>

and a few others.

II. VERBS WITH PRESENT STEM ENDING IN -U.

induō	induere	induī	indūtus	<i>put on</i>
imbuō	imbuere	imbuī	imbūtus	<i>moisten</i>
luō	luere	luī	—	<i>wash</i>
polluō	polluere	polluī	pollūtus	<i>defile</i>
minuō	minuere	minuī	minūtus	<i>lessen</i>
statuō	statuere	statuī	statūtus	<i>set up</i>
cōstituō	cōstituere	cōstituī	cōstitutus	<i>determine</i>
suō	suere	suī	sūtus	<i>sew</i>
tribuō	tribuere	tribuī	tribūtus	<i>allot</i>
ruō	ruere	ruī	ruitūrus	<i>fall</i>
dīruō	dīruere	dīruī	dīrutus	<i>destroy</i>
obruō	obruere	obruī	obrutus	<i>overwhelm</i>
acuō	acuere	acuī	—	<i>sharpen</i>
arguō	arguere	arguī	—	<i>accuse</i>
congruō	congruere	congruī	—	<i>agree</i>
metuō	metuere	metuī	—	<i>fear</i>
ab-nuō	abnuere	abnuī	—	<i>decline</i>
re-spuō	respuere	respuī	—	<i>reject</i>
struō	struere	strūxī	strūctus	<i>build</i>
fluō	fluere	flūxī	(flūxus, as Adj.)	<i>flow</i>

III. VERBS WITH PRESENT STEM ENDING IN -I.

cupiō	cupere	cupivī	cupītus	<i>wish</i>
sapiō	sapere	sapivī	—	<i>taste</i>
rapīō	rapere	rapuī	raptus	<i>snatch</i>
dīripīō	dīripere	dīripuī	dīreptus	<i>plunder</i>
cōspiciō	cōspicere	cōspexī	cōspectus	<i>gaze at</i>
aspiō	aspicere	aspexī	aspectus	<i>behold</i>
illiciō	illicere	illexī	illectus	<i>allure</i>
pelliciō	pellicere	pellexī	pellectus	<i>allure</i>
ēliciō	ēlicere	ēlicui	ēlicitus	<i>elicit</i>
quatiō	quaterere	—	quassus	<i>shake</i>
concutiō	concutere	concuſsī	concuſsus	<i>shake</i>
pariō	parere	peperi	partus	<i>bring forth</i>
capīō	capere	cēpī	captus	<i>take</i>
accipiō	accipere	accēpī	acceptus	<i>accept</i>
incipiō	incipere	incēpī	inceptus	<i>begin</i>
faciō	facere	fēcī	factus	<i>make</i>
afficiō	afficere	affēcī	affectus	<i>affect</i>

Passive, afficior, affici, affectus sum.

So other prepositional compounds, *perficiō, perficior; interficiō, interficior; etc.* But—

assuēfaciō assuēfacere assuēfēcī assuēfactus *accustom*

Passive, assuēfiō, assuēfierī, assuēfactus sum.

So also *patefaciō, patefiō; calefaciō, calefiō;* and all non-prepositional compounds.

—jaciō	jacere	jēcī	jactus	<i>hurl</i>
abiciō	abicere	abjēcī	abjectus	<i>throw away</i>
fodiō	fodere	fōdī	fossus	<i>dig</i>
—fugiō	fugere	fūgī	fugitūrus	<i>flee</i>
effugiō	effugere	effūgī	—	<i>escape</i>

IV. VERBS IN -SCŌ.

1. Verbs in -scō from Simple Roots.

poscō	poscere	poposcī	—	<i>demand</i>
discō	discere	didicī	—	<i>learn</i>
pāscō	pāscere	pāvī	pāstus	<i>feed</i>
pāscor	pāscī	pāstus sum		<i>graze</i>
—crēscō	crēscere	crēvī	crētus	<i>grow</i>
cōnsuēscō	cōnsuēscere	cōnsuēvī	cōnsuētus	<i>accustom one's self</i>
quiēscō	quiēscere	quiēvī	quiētūrus	<i>be still</i>
adolēscō	adolēscere	adolēvī	adultus	<i>grow up</i>
obsolēscō	obsolēscerē	obsolēvī	—	<i>grow old</i>
nōscō	nōscere	nōvī	—	{ <i>become acquainted</i> <i>with</i>
ignōscō	ignōscere	ignōvī	ignōtūrus	<i>pardon</i>
agnōscō	agnōscere	agnōvī	agnitus	<i>recognize</i>
cognōscō	cognōscere	cognōvī	cognitus	{ <i>get acquainted</i> <i>with</i>

2. Verbs in -scō formed from other Verbs.

These usually have Inchoative or Inceptive meaning (see § 155. 1). When they have the Perfect, it is the same as that of the Verbs from which they are derived.

fīrēscō	fīrēscere	fīorūī	<i>begin to bloom</i>	(fīorēō)
scīscō	scīscere	scīvī	<i>enact</i>	(scīō)
ārēscō	ārēscere	āruī	<i>become dry</i>	(ārēō)
calēscō	calēscere	caluī	<i>become hot</i>	(caleō)
cōnsenēscō	cōnsenēscere	cōnsenuī	<i>grow old</i>	(seneō)
extimēscō	extimēscere	extimuī	<i>fear greatly</i>	(timeō)
ingemīscō	ingemīscere	ingemuī	<i>sigh</i>	(gemō)
adhaerēscō	adhaerēscere	adhaesī	<i>stick</i>	(haerēō)

3. Verbs in **-scō** derived from Adjectives, usually with Inchoative meaning.

obdūrēscō	obdūrēscere	obdūruī	<i>grow hard</i>	(dūrus)
ēvānēscō	ēvānēscere	ēvānuī	<i>disappear</i>	(vānus)
percrēbrēscō	percrēbrēscere	percrēbruī	<i>grow fresh</i>	(crēber)
mātūrēscō	mātūrēscere	mātūruī	<i>grow ripe</i>	(mātūrus)
obmūtēscō	obmūtēscere	obmūtuī	<i>grow dumb</i>	(mūtus)

V. DEPONENTS.

-fungor	fungī	fūctus sum	<i>perform fungor</i>
queror	querī	questus sum	<i>complain queror</i>
-loquor	loquī	locūtus sum	<i>speak loquor</i>
-sequor	sequī	secūtus sum	<i>follow sequor</i>
fruo	frūi	fruitūrus	<i>enjoy</i>
perfruo	perfrūi	perfrūctus sum	<i>thoroughly enjoy</i>
lābor	lābī	lāpsus sum	<i>glide</i>
amplector	amplectī	amplexus sum	<i>embrace</i>
nītor	nītī	nīsus sum; nīxus sum	<i>strive</i>
-gradior	gradī	gressus sum	<i>walk</i>
-patior	patī	passus sum	<i>suffer</i>
perpetior	perpetī	perpessus sum	<i>endure</i>
ūtor	ūtī	ūsus sum	<i>use</i>
-morio	mori	mortuus sum	<i>die</i>
adipīscor	adipīscī	adeptus sum	<i>acquire</i>
comminīscor	comminīscī	commentus sum	<i>invent</i>
-reminīscor	reminīscī	—	<i>remember</i>
nancīscor	nancīscī	nactus (nactus) sum	<i>acquire</i>
-nāscor	nāscī	nātus sum	<i>be born</i>
-oblivīscor	oblivīscī	oblītus sum	<i>forget</i>
pacīscor	pacīscī	pactus sum	<i>covenant</i>
proficīscor	proficīscī	profectus sum	<i>set out</i>
ulcīscor	ulcīscī	ultus sum	<i>avenge</i>
īrāscor	īrāscī	(īrātus, as Adj.)	<i>be angry</i>
vescor	vescī	—	<i>eat</i>

Fourth Conjugation.

123. I. PERFECT ENDS IN **-VĪ**.

-audiō	audīre	audīvī	audītus	<i>hear</i>
So all regular Verbs of the Fourth Conjugation.				
sepeliō	sepelīre	sepelīvī	sepultus	<i>bury</i>

II. PERFECT ENDS IN **-ŪĪ**.

—aperiō	aperīre	aperuī	apertus	<i>open</i>
operiō	operīre	operuī	opertus	<i>cover</i>
saliō	salīre	saluī	—	<i>leap</i>

III. PERFECT ENDS IN **-SĪ**.

saepiō	saepīre	saepsī	saeptus	<i>hedge in</i>
sanciō	sancīre	sānxī	sānctus	<i>ratify</i>
vinciō	vincīre	vinxi	vinctus	<i>bind</i>
amiciō	amicīre	—	amicтус	<i>envelop</i>
fulciō	fulcīre	fulsī	fultus	<i>prop up</i>
referciō	refercīre	refersī	refertus	<i>fill</i>
sarciō	sarcīre	sarsī	sartus	<i>patch</i>
—hauriō	haurīre	hausī	haustus	<i>draw</i>
—sentiō	sentīre	sēnsī	sēnsus	<i>feel</i>

IV. PERFECT IN **-Ī** WITH LENGTHENING OF STEM VOWEL.

—veniō	venīre	vēnī	ventum (est)	<i>come</i>
adveniō	advenīre	advēnī	adventum (est)	<i>arrive</i>
inveniō	invenīre	invēnī	inventus	<i>find</i>

V. PERFECT WITH LOSS OF REDUPLICATION.

reperiō	reperīre	repperī	repertus	<i>find</i>
comperiō	comperīre	comperī	compertus	<i>learn</i>

VI. USED ONLY IN THE PRESENT.

feriō	ferīre	—	—	<i>strike</i>
ēsuriō	ēsuriīre	—	—	<i>be hungry</i>

VII. DEPONENTS.

largior	largīrī	largītus sum	<i>bestow</i>
So many others.			
experior	experīrī	expertus sum	<i>try</i>
opperior	opperīrī	oppertus sum	<i>await</i>
ōrdior	ōrdīrī	ōrsus sum	<i>begin</i>
orior	orīrī	ortus sum	<i>arise</i>

Orior usually follows the Third Conjugation in its inflection; as, *oreris, oritur, orimur*; *orerer* (Imp. Subj.); *orere* (Imper.).

mētiōr	mētīrī	mēnsus sum	<i>measure</i>
assentiōr	assentīrī	assēnsus sum	<i>assent</i>

IRREGULAR VERBS.

124. A number of Verbs are called Irregular. The most important are *sum*, *dō*, *edō*, *ferō*, *volō*, *nōlō*, *mālō*, *eō*, *fīō*. The peculiarity of these Verbs is that they append the personal endings in many forms directly to the stem, instead of employing a connecting vowel, as *fer-s* (2d Sing. of *fer-ō*), instead of *fer-i-s*. They are but the relics of what was once in Latin a large class of Verbs.

125. The Inflection of *sum* has already been given. Its various compounds are inflected in the same way. They are—

<i>absum</i>	<i>abesse</i>	<i>āfuī</i>	<i>am absent</i>
<i>Pres. Partic. absēns (absentis), absent.</i>			
<i>adsum</i>	<i>adesse</i>	<i>adfuī</i>	<i>am present</i>
<i>dēsum</i>	<i>deesse</i>	<i>dēfuī</i>	<i>am lacking</i>
<i>īnsum</i>	<i>inesse</i>	<i>īnfuī</i>	<i>am in</i>
<i>intersum</i>	<i>interesse</i>	<i>interfuī</i>	<i>am among</i>
<i>praesum</i>	<i>praeesse</i>	<i>praefuī</i>	<i>am in charge of</i>
<i>Pres. Partic. praesēns (praesentis), present.</i>			
<i>obsum</i>	<i>obesse</i>	<i>obfuī</i>	<i>hinder</i>
<i>prōsum</i>	<i>prōdesse</i>	<i>prōfuī</i>	<i>am of advantage</i>
<i>subsum</i>	<i>subesse</i>	<i>subfuī</i>	<i>am underneath</i>
<i>supersum</i>	<i>superesse</i>	<i>superfuī</i>	<i>am left</i>

NOTE.—*Prōsum* is compounded of *prōd* (earlier form of *prō*) and *sum*; the *d* disappears before consonants, as *prōsumus*; but *prōdestis*.

126. Possum. In its Present System *possum* is a compound of *pot-* (for *pote*, *able*) and *sum*; *potuī* is from an obsolete *potēre*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

→ *possum*, *posse*, *potuī*, *to be able.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Pres.</i>	<i>possum, potes, potest;</i>	<i>possumus, potestis, possunt.</i>
<i>Imp.</i>	<i>poteram;</i>	<i>poterāmus.</i>
<i>Fut.</i>	<i>poterō;</i>	<i>poterimus.</i>
<i>Perf.</i>	<i>potuī;</i>	<i>potuimus.</i>
<i>Plup.</i>	<i>potueram;</i>	<i>potuerāmus.</i>
<i>Fut. P.</i>	<i>potuerō;</i>	<i>potuerimus.</i>

SUBJUNCTIVE.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Pres.</i>	possim, possīs, possit ;	possīmus, possītis, possint.
<i>Imp.</i>	possem ;	possēmus.
<i>Perf.</i>	potuerim ;	potuerīmus.
<i>Plup.</i>	potuissem ;	potuissēmus.

INFINITIVE.

<i>Pres.</i>	posse.
<i>Perf.</i>	potuisse.

PARTICIPLE.

<i>Pres.</i>	potēns (<i>as an adjective</i>).
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→ 127.

Dō, I give.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

dō,	dāre,	dedī,	dātus.
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Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Pres.</i>	dō, dās, dat ;	dāmus, dātis, dant.
<i>Imp.</i>	dābam, etc. ;	dābāmus.
<i>Fut.</i>	dābō, etc. ;	dābimus.
<i>Perf.</i>	dedī ;	dedimus.
<i>Plup.</i>	dederam ;	dederāmus.
<i>Fut. P.</i>	dederō ;	dederimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

<i>Pres.</i>	dem ;	dēmus.
<i>Imp.</i>	dārem ;	dārēmus.
<i>Perf.</i>	dederim ;	dederīmus.
<i>Plup.</i>	dedissem ;	dedissēmus.

IMPERATIVE.

<i>Pres.</i>	dā ;	dāte.
<i>Fut.</i>	dātō ;	dātōte.
	dātō.	dantō.

INFINITIVE.

<i>Pres.</i>	dāre.
<i>Perf.</i>	dedisse.
<i>Fut.</i>	dātūrus esse.

PARTICIPLE.

dāns.
dātūrus.

GERUND.

dandī, etc.

SUPINE.

dātum, dātū.

1. The Passive is inflected regularly with the short vowel. Thus: *dārī, dātur, dābātur, dārētur, etc.*

2. The archaic and poetic Present Subjunctive forms *duim, duint, perdui, perduint, etc.*, are not from the root *da-*, but from *du-*, a collateral root of similar meaning.

128.

Edō, I eat.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<i>edō,</i>	<i>ēsse,</i>	<i>ēdī,</i>	<i>ēsus.</i>
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Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Pres. edō,</i>	<i>edimus,</i>
<i>ēs,</i>	<i>ēstis,</i>
<i>ēst;</i>	<i>edunt.</i>

SUBJUNCTIVE.

<i>Imp. essem,</i>	<i>ēssēmus,</i>
<i>ēssēs,</i>	<i>ēssētis,</i>
<i>ēsset;</i>	<i>ēsset.</i>

IMPERATIVE.

<i>Pres. ēs;</i>	<i>ēste.</i>
<i>Fut. ēstō;</i>	<i>ēstōte.</i>
<i>ēstō;</i>	<i>eduntō.</i>

INFINITIVE.

Pres. ēsse.

Passive Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. 3d Sing. ēstur.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Imp. 3d Sing. ēssētur.

1. Observe the long vowel of the forms in *ēs-*, which alone distinguishes them from the corresponding forms of *esse, to be.*

2. Note *comedō, comēsse, comēdī, comēsus* or *comēstus, consume.*

3. The Present Subjunctive has *edim, -īs, -it, etc.*, less often *edam, -ās, etc.*

129.

Ferō, *I bear.*

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

→ ferō, ferre, tulī, lātus.

Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

Pres. ferō, fers, fert ;
Imp. ferēbam ;
Fut. feram ;
Perf. tulī ;
Plup. tuleram ;
Fut. P. tulerō ;

PLURAL.

ferimus, fertis, ferunt.¹
 ferēbāmus.
 ferēmus.
 tulimus.
 tulerāmus.
 tulerimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. feram ; ferāmus.
Imp. ferrem ; ferrēmus.
Perf. tulerim ; tulerīmus.
Plup. tulissem ; tulissēmus.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. fer ; ferte.
Fut. fertō ; fertōte.
 fertō ; feruntō.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. ferre.
Perf. tulisse.
Fut. lātūrus esse.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. ferēns.
Fut. lātūrus.

GERUND.

Gen. ferendī.
Dat. ferendō.
Acc. ferendum.
Abl. ferendō.

SUPINE.

Acc. lātum.
Abl. lātū.

¹ It will be observed that not all the forms of ferō lack the connecting vowel. Some of them, as ferimus, ferunt, follow the regular inflection of verbs of the Third Conjugation.

130.

Volō, nōlō, mālō.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

→ volō,	velle,	voluī,	<i>to wish.</i>
→ nōlō,	nōlle,	nōluī,	<i>to be unwilling.</i>
→ mālō,	mālle,	māluī,	<i>to prefer.</i>

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Pres.</i>	volō, vīs, vult ; volumus, vultis, volunt.	nōlō, nōn vīs, nōn vult ; nōlumus, nōn vultis, nōlunt.	mālō, māvīs, māvult ; mālumus, māvultis, mālunt.
<i>Imp.</i>	volēbam.	nōlēbam.	mālēbam.
<i>Fut.</i>	volam.	nōlam.	mālam.
<i>Perf.</i>	voluī.	nōluī.	māluī.
<i>Plup.</i>	volueram.	nōlueram.	mālueram.
<i>Fut. P.</i>	voluerō.	nōluerō.	māluerō.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

<i>Pres.</i>	velim, -īs, -it, etc.	nōlim.	mālim.
<i>Imp.</i>	vellem, -ēs, -et, etc.	nōllem.	māllem.
<i>Perf.</i>	voluerim.	nōluerim.	māluerim.
<i>Plup.</i>	voluissem.	nōluissem.	māluissem.

IMPERATIVE.

<i>Pres.</i>	nōlī ; nōlīte.
<i>Fut.</i>	nōlītō ; nōlītōte. nōlītō ; nōluntō.

INFINITIVE.

<i>Pres.</i>	velle.	nōlle.	mālle.
<i>Perf.</i>	voluisse.	nōluisse.	māluisse.

PARTICIPLE.

<i>Pres.</i>	volēns.	nōlēns.
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131.

FĪŌ.

malo malle malui

→ **fĭō,** **fierī,** **factus sum,** *to become, be made.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Pres.</i>	fĭō, fĭs, fĭt;	fĭmus, fĭtis, fĭunt.
<i>Imp.</i>	fĭēbam;	fĭēbāmus.
<i>Fut.</i>	fĭam;	fĭēmus.
<i>Perf.</i>	factus sum;	factī sumus.
<i>Plup.</i>	factus eram;	factī erāmus.
<i>Fut. P.</i>	factus erō;	factī erimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

<i>Pres.</i>	fĭam;	fĭāmus.
<i>Imp.</i>	fierem;	fierēmus.
<i>Perf.</i>	factus sim;	factī simus.
<i>Plup.</i>	factus essem;	factī essēmus.

IMPERATIVE.

<i>Pres.</i>	fĭ;	fite.
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INFINITIVE.

<i>Pres.</i>	fierī.
<i>Perf.</i>	factus esse.
<i>Fut.</i>	factum irī.

PARTICIPLE.

<i>Perf.</i>	factus.
<i>Ger.</i>	faciendus.

NOTE. — A few isolated forms of compounds of **fĭō** occur; as, **dēfĭt**, *lacks*; **īnfĭt**, *begins*.

132.

EŌ.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

→ **eō,** **īre,** **īvī,** **itum (est),** *to go.*

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Pres.</i>	eō, īs, it;	īmus, itis, eunt.
<i>Imp.</i>	ībam;	ībāmus.
<i>Fut.</i>	ībō;	ībimus.
<i>Perf.</i>	īvī (īī);	īvīmus (īimus).
<i>Plup.</i>	īveram (ieram);	īverāmus (ierāmus)
<i>Fut. P.</i>	īverō (ierō);	īverīmus (ierimus).

SUBJUNCTIVE.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Pres.</i>	eam;	eāmus.
<i>Imp.</i>	īrem;	īrēmus.
<i>Perf.</i>	īverim (ierim);	īverīmus (ierīmus).
<i>Plup.</i>	īvissem (iissem, issem);	īvissēmus (iissēmus, issēmus).

IMPERATIVE.

<i>Pres.</i>	ī;	īte.
<i>Fut.</i>	ītō;	ītōte,
	ītō;	euntō.

INFINITIVE.

<i>Pres.</i>	īre.
<i>Perf.</i>	īvisse (isse).
<i>Fut.</i>	ītūrus esse.

PARTICIPLE.

<i>Pres.</i>	iēns.
<i>Gen.</i>	euntis.)
<i>Fut.</i>	ītūrus. <i>Gerundive</i> , eundum.

GERUND.

eundī, etc.

SUPINE.

itum, itū.

1. Transitive compounds of eō admit the full Passive inflection; as, adeor, adīris, adītur, etc.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

Defective Verbs lack certain forms. The following are the most important:—

133. USED MAINLY IN THE PERFECT SYSTEM.

—Coepī, I have begun. —Meminī, I remember. —Ōdī, I hate.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Perf.</i>	coepī.	meminī.	ōdī.
<i>Plup.</i>	coeperam.	memineram.	ōderam.
<i>Fut. P.</i>	coeperō.	meminerō.	ōderō.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

<i>Perf.</i>	coeperim.	meminerim.	ōderim.
<i>Plup.</i>	coepissem.	meminissem.	ōdissem.

IMPERATIVE.

Sing. mementō; *Plur.* mementōte.

INFINITIVE.

<i>Perf.</i>	coepisse.	meminisse.	ōdisse.
<i>Fut.</i>	coepturus esse.		ōsūrus esse.

PARTICIPLE.

<i>Perf.</i>	coeptus, <i>begun.</i>	ōsus.
<i>Fut.</i>	coepturus.	ōsūrus.

1. When *coepī* governs a Passive Infinitive it usually takes the form *coeptus est*; as, *amārī coeptus est*, *he began to be loved*.

2. Note that *meminī* and *ōdī*, though Perfect in form, are Present in sense. Similarly the Pluperfect and Future Perfect have the force of the Imperfect and Future; as, *memineram*, *I remembered*; *ōderō*, *I shall hate*.

134. *Inquam*, *I say* (inserted between words of a direct quotation)

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Pres.</i>	<i>inquam</i> ,	—
	<i>inquis</i> ,	—
	<i>inquit</i> ;	<i>inquiunt</i> .
<i>Fut.</i>	—	—
	<i>inquiēs</i> ,	—
	<i>inquiet</i> .	—
	<i>Perf. 3d Sing. inquit.</i>	

135.

Ajō, *I say*.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Pres.</i>	<i>ajō</i> ,	—
	<i>aīs</i> ,	—
	<i>ait</i> ;	<i>ajunt</i> .
<i>Imp.</i>	<i>ajēbam</i> ,	<i>ajēbāmus</i> ,
	<i>ajēbās</i> ,	<i>ajēbātis</i> ,
	<i>ajēbat</i> ;	<i>ajēbant</i> .
	<i>Perf. 3d Sing. ait.</i>	

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres 3d Sing. ajat.

NOTE. — For *aīsne*, *do you mean?* *aīn* is common.

136. **Fārī, to speak.**

This is inflected regularly in the perfect tenses. In the Present System it has—

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>Pres.</i>	—	—
	—	—
	fātur.	—
<i>Fut.</i>	fābor,	—
	—	—
	fābitur.	—
<i>Impv.</i>	fāre.	
<i>Inf.</i>	fārī.	
<i>Pres. Partic.</i>	fantis, fantī, etc.	
<i>Gerund, G.,</i>	fandī ; <i>D. and Abl.,</i> fandō.	
<i>Gerundive,</i>	fandus.	

NOTE. — Forms of fārī are rare. More frequent are its compounds; as, —
affātur, *he addresses*; praefāmur, *we say in advance.*

137. OTHER DEFECTIVE FORMS.

1. **Queō, quīre, quīvī, to be able, and nequeō, nequīre, nequīvī, to be unable,** are inflected like eō, but occur chiefly in the Present Tense, and there only in special forms.
2. **Quaesō, I entreat; quaesumus, we entreat.**
3. **Cedo** (2d sing. Impv.), **cette** (2d plu.); *give me, tell me.*
4. **Salvē, salvēte, hail.** Also Infinitive, **salvēre.**
5. **Havē (avē), havēte, hail.** Also Infinitive, **havēre.**

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

138. Impersonal Verbs correspond to the English, *it snows, it seems, etc.* They have no personal subject, but may take an Infinitive, a Clause, or a Neuter Pronoun; as, **mē pudet hōc fēcisse**, lit. *it shames me to have done this*; **hōc decet, this is fitting.** Here belong—

I. Verbs denoting operations of the weather; as,—

fulget	fulsit	<i>it lightens</i>
tonat	tonuit	<i>it thunders</i>

grandinat	—	<i>it hails</i>
ningit	ninxit	<i>it snows</i>
pluit	pluit	<i>it rains</i>

II. Special Verbs.

paenitet	paenitēre	paenituit	<i>it repents</i>
piget	pigēre	piguit	<i>it grieves</i>
pudet	pudēre	puduit	<i>it causes shame</i>
taedet	taedēre	taeduit	<i>it disgusts</i>
miseret	miserēre	miseruit	<i>it causes pity</i>
libet	libēre	libuit	<i>it pleases</i>
licet	licēre	licuit	<i>it is lawful</i>
oportet	oportēre	oportuit	<i>it is fitting</i>
decet	decēre	decuit	<i>it is becoming</i>
dēdecet	dēdecēre	dēdecuit	<i>it is unbecoming</i>
rēfert	rēferre	rētulit	<i>it concerns</i>

III. Verbs Impersonal only in Special Senses.

cōnstat	cōnstāre	cōnstitit	<i>it is evident</i>
praestat	praestāre	praestitit	<i>it is better</i>
juvat	juvāre	jūvit	<i>it delights</i>
appāret	appārēre	appāruit	<i>it appears</i>
placet	placēre	placuit (placitum est)	<i>it pleases</i>
accēdit	accēdere	accessit	<i>it is added</i>
accidit	accidere	accidit	<i>it happens</i>
contingit	contingere	contigit	<i>it happens</i>
ēvenit	ēvenire	ēvenit	<i>it turns out</i>
īnterest	īnteresse	īnterfuit	<i>it concerns</i>

IV. The Passive of Intransitive Verbs ; as, —

ītur	lit. <i>it is gone</i>	<i>i.e. some one goes</i>
curritur	lit. <i>it is run</i>	<i>i.e. some one runs</i>
ventum est	lit. <i>it has been come</i>	<i>i.e. some one has come</i>
veniendum est	lit. <i>it must be come</i>	<i>i.e. somebody must come</i>
pugnārī potest	lit. <i>it can be fought</i>	<i>i.e. somebody can fight</i>

PART III.

PARTICLES.

139. Particles are the four Parts of Speech that do not admit of inflection; *viz.* Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, Interjections.

ADVERBS.

140. Adverbs denote manner, place, time, or degree. Most adverbs are in origin case-forms which have become stereotyped by usage. The common adverbial terminations have already been given above (§ 76). The following TABLE OF CORRELATIVES is important:—

RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE.	DEMONSTRATIVE.	INDEFINITE.
ubi , <i>where; where?</i>	hīc , <i>here.</i> ibi , illīc , istīc , <i>there.</i>	alicubī , ūsq̄am , ūsq̄am , ūsq̄am , <i>some- where.</i>
quō , <i>whither; whither?</i>	hūc , <i>hither.</i> eō , istūc , illūc , <i>thither.</i>	aliquō , <i>to some place.</i>
unde , <i>whence; whence?</i>	hinc , <i>hence.</i> inde , istinc , illinc , <i>thence.</i>	alicunde , <i>from some- where.</i>
quā , <i>where; where?</i>	hāc , <i>by this way.</i> eā , istāc , illāc , <i>by that way.</i>	aliquā , <i>by some way.</i>
cum , <i>when.</i>	nunc , <i>now.</i>	aliquandō , umquam , <i>sometime, ever.</i>
quandō , <i>when?</i>	tum , tunc , <i>then.</i>	aliquotiēns , <i>some number of times.</i>
quotiēns , <i>as often as; how often?</i>	totiēns , <i>so often.</i>	aliquantum , <i>somewhat.</i>
quam , <i>as much as; how much?</i>	tam , <i>so much.</i>	

PREPOSITIONS.

141. Prepositions show relations of words. The following Prepositions govern the Accusative:—

ad, to.	contrā, against.	post, after.
adversus, against.	ergā, toward.	praeter, past.
adversum, toward,	extrā, outside.	prope, near.
against.	infrā, below.	propter, on account of.
ante, before.	inter, between.	secundum, after.
apud, with, near.	intrā, within.	subter, beneath.
circā, around.	jūxtā, near.	super, over.
circiter, about.	ob, on account of.	suprā, above.
circum, around.	penes, in the hands of.	trāns, across.
cis, this side of.	per, through.	ultrā, beyond.
citrā, this side of.	pōne, behind.	versus, toward.

1. **Ūsque** is often prefixed to **ad**, in the sense of *even*; as, —
ūsque ad urbem, *even to the city*.

2. **Versus** always follows its case; as, —
Rōmam versus, *toward Rome*.

It may be combined with a preceding Preposition; as, —
ad urbem versus, *toward the city*.

3. Like **prope**, the Comparatives **propior**, **propius**, and the Superlatives **proximus**, **proximē**, sometimes govern the Accusative; as, —

Ubiū proximē Rhēnum incolunt, *the Ubiū dwell next to the Rhine*;
propius castra hostium, *nearer the camp of the enemy*.

142. The following Prepositions govern the Ablative:—

ā, ab, abs, from, by.	cum, with.	prō, in front of,
absque, without.	dē, from, concerning.	for.
cōram, in the presence	ē, ex, from, out of.	sine, without.
of.	prae, before.	tenus, up to.

1. **Ā**, **ab**, **abs**. Before vowels or **h**, **ab** must be used; before consonants we find sometimes **ā**, sometimes **ab** (the latter usually not before the labials **b**, **p**, **f**, **v**, **m**; nor before **c**, **g**, **q**, or **t**); **abs** occurs only before **tē**, and **ā** is admissible even there.

2. **Ē**, **ex**. Before vowels or **h**, **ex** must be used; before consonants, we find sometimes **ē**, sometimes **ex**.

3. **Tenus** regularly follows its case, as, **pectoribus tenus**, *up to the breast*. It sometimes governs the Genitive, as, **labrōrum tenus**, *as far as the lips*.

4. **Cum** is appended to the Pronouns of the First and Second Persons, and to the Reflexive Pronoun; usually also to the Relative and Interrogative. Thus:—

mēcum	nōbīscum	quōcum <i>or</i> cum quō
tēcum	vōbīscum	quācum <i>or</i> cum quā
sēcum		quibuscum <i>or</i> cum quibus

On quīcum, see § 89, Footnote 1.

143. Two Prepositions, **in**, *in, into*, and **sub**, *under*, govern both the Accusative and the Ablative. With the Accusative they denote **motion**; with the Ablative, **rest**; as,—
in urbem, *into the city*; **in urbe**, *in the city*.

1. **Subter** and **super** are also occasionally construed with the Ablative.

144. RELATION OF ADVERBS AND PREPOSITIONS.

1. Prepositions were originally Adverbs, and many of them still retain their adverbial meaning; as, **post**, *afterwards*; **ante**, *previously*; **contrā**, *on the other hand, etc.*

2. Conversely several words, usually adverbs, are occasionally employed as prepositions; as,—

clam, **prīdiē**, with the Accusative.

procul, **simul**, **palam**, with the Ablative.

3. **Anástrophe**. A Preposition sometimes follows its case. This is called Anástrophe; as,—

eī, **quōs inter erat**, *those among whom he was*.

Anastrophe occurs chiefly with dissyllabic prepositions.

CONJUNCTIONS AND INTERJECTIONS.

145. 1. Conjunctions are used to connect ideas. For Coördinate Conjunctions, see §§ 341 ff. Subordinate Conjunctions are treated in connection with Subordinate Clauses.

2. Interjections express emotion. Thus:—

1. Surprise; as, **ēn**, **ecce**, **ō**.

2. Joy; as, **īō**, **euoe**.

3. Sorrow and Pain; as, **heu**, **ēheu**, **vae**, **prō**.

4. Calling; as, **heus**, **eho**.

PART IV.

WORD-FORMATION.

I. DERIVATIVES.

146. Derivatives are formed by appending certain terminations called Suffixes to stems of verbs, nouns, or adjectives.

A. NOUNS.

1. Nouns derived from Verbs.

147. 1. The suffix **-tor** (**-sor**), Fem. **-trīx**, denotes *the agent*; as, —
victor, **victrix**, *victor*; **dēfēnsor**, *defender*.

NOTE.—The suffix **-tor** is occasionally appended to noun stems; as, —
gladiātor, *gladiator* (from **gladius**).

2. The suffix **-or** (originally **-ōs**) denotes *an activity or a condition*; as, —

amor, *love*; **timor**, *fear*; **dolor**, *pain*.

3. The suffixes **-tiō** (**-siō**), Gen: **-ōnis**, and **-tus** (**-sus**), Gen. **-ūs**, denote *an action as in process*; as, —

vēnātiō, *hunting*; **obsessiō**, *blockade*; **gemitus**, *sighing*; **cursus**, *running*.

NOTE.—Rarer endings with the same force are:—

a) **-tūra**, **-sūra**; as, —

sepultūra, *burial*; **mēnsūra**, *measuring*.

b) **-ium**; as, —

gaudium, *rejoicing*.

c) **-idō**; as, —

cupidō, *desire*.

4. The suffixes *-men*, *-mentum*, *-crum*, *-trum*, *-bulum*, *-culum*, denote *the means* or *place* of an action; as,—

<i>lūmen</i> (<i>lūc-s-men</i>), <i>light</i> ;	<i>vocābulum</i> , <i>word</i> ;
<i>ōrnāmentum</i> , <i>ornament</i> ;	<i>documentum</i> , <i>proof</i> ;
<i>sepulcrum</i> , <i>grave</i> ;	<i>arātrum</i> , <i>plough</i> ;
<i>vehiculum</i> , <i>carriage</i> .	

2. Nouns derived from Nouns.

148. 1. Diminutives end in—

<i>-ulus</i> ,	(<i>-ula</i> ,	<i>-ulum</i>)
<i>-olus</i> ,	(<i>-ola</i> ,	<i>-olum</i>), after a vowel
<i>-culus</i> ,	(<i>-cula</i> ,	<i>-culum</i>)
<i>-ellus</i> ,	(<i>-ella</i> ,	<i>-ellum</i>)
<i>-illus</i> ,	(<i>-illa</i> ,	<i>-illum</i>)

as,—

<i>nīdulus</i>	<i>little nest</i>	(<i>nīdus</i>);
<i>virgula</i> ,	<i>wand</i>	(<i>virga</i>);
<i>oppidulum</i> ,	<i>little town</i>	(<i>oppidum</i>);
<i>filiolus</i> ,	<i>little son</i>	(<i>filius</i>);
<i>opusculum</i> ,	<i>little work</i>	(<i>opus</i>);
<i>tabella</i> ,	<i>tablet</i>	(<i>tabula</i>);
<i>lapillus</i> ,	<i>pebble</i>	(<i>lapis</i>).

NOTE 1.— It will be observed that in gender the Diminutives follow the gender of the words from which they are derived.

NOTE 2.— The endings *-ellus*, *-illus* contain the primitive form of the diminutive suffix, *viz.*, *-lo-*. Thus:—

<i>agellus</i> ,	<i>field</i> ,	for	<i>ager-lus</i> ;
<i>lapillus</i> ,	<i>pebble</i> ,	for	<i>lapid-lus</i> .

2. The suffix *-ium* appended to nouns denoting persons designates either *a collection* of such persons or *their function*; as,—

<i>collēgium</i> ,	<i>a corporation, body of colleagues</i>	(<i>collēga</i>);
<i>sacerdōtium</i> ,	<i>priestly function</i>	(<i>sacerdōs</i>).

3. The suffixes *-ārium*, *-ētum*, *-īle* designate a place where objects *are kept* or *are found in abundance*; as,—

<i>columbārium</i> ,	<i>dove-cote</i>	(<i>columba</i>);
<i>olivētum</i> ,	<i>olive-orchard</i>	(<i>olīva</i>);
<i>ovīle</i> ,	<i>sheep-fold</i>	(<i>ovis</i>).

4. The suffix **-ātus** denotes *official position* or *honor*; as, —
cōsulātus, *consulship* (**cōnsul**).
5. The suffix **-īna** appended to nouns denoting persons designates *a vocation* or *the place where it is carried on*; as, —
doctrīna, *teaching* (**doctor**, *teacher*);
medicīna, *the art of healing* (**medicus**, *physician*);
sūtrīna, *cobbler's shop* (**sūtor**, *cobbler*).
6. Patronymics are Greek proper names denoting *son of . . .*, *daughter of . . .*. They have the following suffixes: —
- a) Masculines: **-idēs**, **-adēs**, **-idēs**; as, **Priamidēs**, *son of Priam*; **Aeneadēs**, *son of Aeneas*; **Pēlidēs**, *son of Peleus*.
- b) Feminines: **-ēis**, **-is**, **-ias**; as, **Nērēis**, *daughter of Nereus*; **Atlantis**, *daughter of Atlas*; **Thaumantias**, *daughter of Thamas*.

3. Nouns derived from Adjectives.

149. The suffixes **-tās** (**-itās**), **-tūdō** (**-itūdō**), **-ia**, **-itia** are used for the formation of abstract nouns *denoting qualities*; as, —
bonitās, *goodness*; **celeritās**, *swiftness*; **magnitūdō**, *greatness*;
audācia, *boldness*; **amīcitia**, *friendship*.

B. ADJECTIVES.

1. Adjectives derived from Verbs.

150. 1. The suffixes **-bundus** and **-cundus** give nearly the force of a present participle; as, —
tremebundus, *trembling*; **jūcundus** (**juvō**), *pleasing*.
2. The suffixes **-āx** and **-ulus** denote *an inclination* or *tendency*, mostly a faulty one; as, —
loquāx, *loquacious*; **crēdulus**, *credulous*.
3. The suffix **-idus** denotes *a state*; as, —
calidus, *hot*; **timidus**, *timid*; **cupidus**, *eager*.
4. The suffixes **-ilis** and **-bilis** denote *capacity* or *ability*, usually in a passive sense; as, —
fragilis, *fragile* (*i.e.* capable of being broken);
docilis, *docile*.

2. Adjectives derived from Nouns.

a) From Common Nouns.

151. 1. The suffixes **-eus** and **-inus** are appended to names of substances or materials; as, —

aureus, of gold; **ferreus**, of iron; **fāginus**, of beech.

2. The suffixes **-ius**, **-icus**, **-īlis**, **-ālis**, **-āris**, **-ārius**, **-nus**, **-ānus**, **-īnus**, **-īvus**, **-ēnsis** signify *belonging to, connected with*; as, —

ōrātōrius , oratorical;	legiōnārius , legionary;
bellicus , pertaining to war;	paternus , paternal;
cīvīlis , civil;	urbānus , of the city;
rēgālis , regal;	marīnus , marine;
cōnsulāris , consular;	aestīvus , pertaining to summer;
circēnsis , belonging to the circus.	

3. The suffixes **-ōsus** and **-lentus** denote *fullness*; as, —

periculōsus , full of danger,	glōriōsus , glorious;
<i>dangerous</i> ;	opulentus , wealthy.

4. The suffix **-tus** has the force of *provided with*; as, —

barbātus , bearded;	stellātus , set with stars.
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b) From Proper Names.

152. 1. Names of *persons* take the suffixes: **-ānus**, **-iānus**, **-īnus**; as, —

Catōniānus, belonging to Cato; **Plautīnus**, belonging to Plautus.

2. Names of *nations* take the suffixes **-icus**, **-ius**; as, —

Germānicus , German;	Thrācius , Thracian.
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3. Names of *places* take the suffixes **-ānus**, **-īnus**, **-ēnsis**, **-aeus**, **-ius**; as, —

Rōmānus , Roman;	Athēniēnsis , Athenian;
Amerīnus , of America;	Smyrnaeus , of Smyrna;
Corinthius , Corinthian.	

NOTE. — **-ānus** and **-ēnsis**, appended to names of countries, designate something *stationed in the country or connected with it*, but not indigenous; as, —

bellum Africānum, a war (of Romans with Romans) in Africa.
bellum Hispāniēnse, a war carried on in Spain.
legiōnēs Gallicānae, (Roman) legions stationed in Gaul.

3. Adjectives derived from Adjectives.

153. Diminutives in *-lus* sometimes occur; as, —

<i>parvulus</i> ,	<i>little</i> ;
<i>misellus</i> (<i>passer</i>),	<i>poor little (sparrow)</i> ;
<i>pauperculus</i> ,	<i>needy</i> .

4. Adjectives derived from Adverbs.

154. These end in *-ernus*, *-ternus*, *-tīnus*, *-tīnus*; as, —

<i>hodiernus</i> ,	<i>of to-day</i>	(<i>hodiēs</i>);
<i>hesternus</i> ,	<i>of yesterday</i>	(<i>herī</i>);
<i>intestīnus</i> ,	<i>internal</i>	(<i>intus</i>);
<i>diūtīnus</i> ,	<i>long-lasting</i>	(<i>diū</i>).

C. VERBS.

1. Verbs derived from Verbs.

155. 1. INCEPTIVES OR INCHOATIVES. These end in *-scō*, and are formed from Present Stems. They denote *the beginning of an action*; as, —

<i>labāscō</i> ,	<i>begin to totter</i>	(from <i>labō</i>);
<i>horrēscō</i> ,	<i>grow rough</i>	(from <i>horreō</i>);
<i>tremēscō</i> ,	<i>begin to tremble</i>	(from <i>tremō</i>);
<i>obdormīscō</i> ,	<i>fall asleep</i>	(from <i>dormiō</i>).

2. FREQUENTATIVES OR INTENSIVES. These denote *a repeated or energetic action*. They are formed from the Participial Stem, and end in *-tō* or *-sō*. Those derived from verbs of the First Conjugation end in *-itō* (not *-ātō*, as we should expect). Examples of Frequentatives are —

<i>jactō</i> ,	<i>toss about, brandish</i>	(from <i>jaciō, hurl</i>);
<i>cursō</i> ,	<i>run hither and thither</i>	(from <i>currō, run</i>);
<i>volitō</i> ,	<i>flit about</i>	(from <i>volō, fly</i>).

a. Some double Frequentatives occur; as, —

<i>cantitō</i> ,	<i>sing over and over</i>	(<i>cantō</i>);
<i>cursitō</i> ,	<i>keep running about</i>	(<i>cursō</i>);
<i>ventitō</i> ,	<i>keep coming</i> .	

b. *agitō*, *set in motion*, is formed from the Present Stem.

3. DESIDERATIVES. These denote *a desire to do something*. They are formed from the Participial Stem, and end in *-uriō*; as,—

ēsuriō, *desire to eat, am hungry* (edō);
parturiō, *want to bring forth, am in labor* (pariō).

2. Verbs derived from Nouns and Adjectives (Denominatives).

156. Denominatives of the First Conjugation are mostly transitive, those of the Second exclusively intransitive. Those of the Third and Fourth Conjugations are partly transitive, partly intransitive. Examples are—

a) From Nouns:—

fraudō, *defraud* (fraus);
vestiō, *clothe* (vestis);
flōreō, *bloom* (flōs).

b) From Adjectives:—

līberō, *free* (līber);
saeviō, *be fierce* (saevus).

D. ADVERBS.

157. 1. Adverbs derived from verbs are formed from the Participial Stem by means of the suffix *-im*; as,—

certātim, *emulously* (certō);
cursim, *in haste* (currō);
statim, *immediately* (stō).

2. Adverbs derived from nouns and adjectives are formed:—

a) With the suffixes *-tim* (*-sim*), *-ātim*; as,—

gradātim, *step by step*;
paulātim, *gradually*;
virītim, *man by man*.

b) With the suffix *-tus*; as,—

antīquitus, *of old*;
rādīcitus, *from the roots*.

c) With the suffix *-ter*; as,—

breviter, *briefly*.

II. COMPOUNDS.

158. 1. Compounds are formed by the union of simple words. The second member usually contains the *essential meaning* of the compound; the first member expresses *some modification* of this.

2. Vowel changes often occur in the process of composition. Thus:—

- a. In the second member of compounds. (See § 7. 1.)
- b. The final vowel of the stem of the first member of the compound often appears as *ī* where we should expect *ō* or *ā*; sometimes it is dropped altogether, and in case of consonant stems *ī* is often inserted; as, —

signifer, *standard-bearer* ;
tubicen, *trumpeter* ;
magnanimus, *high-minded* ;
mātricīda, *matricide*.

159. EXAMPLES OF COMPOUNDS.

1. Nouns:—

- a) Preposition + Noun; as, —
dē-dēcus, *disgrace* ;
pro-avus, *great-grandfather* .
- b) Noun + Verb Stem; as, —
agri-cola, *farmer* ;
frātri-cīda, *fratricide*.

2. Adjectives:—

- a) Preposition + Adjective (or Noun); as, —
per-magnus, *very great* ;
sub-obscūrus, *rather obscure* ;
ā-mēns, *frantic*.
- b) Adjective + Noun; as, —
magn-animus, *great-hearted* ;
celeri-pēs, *swift-footed*.
- c) Noun + Verb Stem; as, —
parti-ceps, *sharing* ;
morti-fer, *death-dealing*.

3. Verbs : —

The second member is always a verb. The first may be —

a) A Noun ; as, —

aedi-ficō, *build*.

b) An Adjective ; as, —

ampli-ficō, *enlarge*.

c) An Adverb ; as, —

male-dīcō, *rail at*.

d) Another Verb ; as, —

cale-faciō, *make warm*.

e) A Preposition ; as, —

ab-jungō, *detach* ;

re-ferō, *bring back* ;

dis-cernō, *distinguish* ;

ex-spectō, *await*.

NOTE. — Here belong the so-called INSEPARABLE PREPOSITIONS: —

ambi- (**amb-**), *around* ;

dis- (**dir-**, **dī-**), *apart, asunder* ;

por-, *forward* ;

red- (**re-**), *back* ;

sēd- (**sē-**), *apart from* ;

vē-, *without*.

4. Adverbs : —

These are of various types ; as, —

anteā, *before* ;

īlicō (**in locō**), *on the spot* ;

imprīmīs, *especially* ;

obviam, *in the way*.

PART V.

SYNTAX.

160. Syntax treats of the use of words in sentences.

CHAPTER I. — *Sentences.*

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

161. Sentences may be classified as follows:—

1. DECLARATIVE, which state something; as,—
puer scrībit, the boy is writing.
2. INTERROGATIVE, which ask a question; as,—
quid puer scrībit, what is the boy writing?
3. EXCLAMATORY, which are in the form of an exclamation; as,—
quot librōs scrībit, how many books he writes!
4. IMPERATIVE, which express a command or an admonition; as,—
scrībe, write!

FORM OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

162. Questions may be either Word-Questions or Sentence-Questions.

1. **Word-Questions.** These are introduced by the various interrogative pronouns and adverbs; such as—*quis, quī, quālis, quantus, quot, quotiēns, quō, quā, etc.* Thus:—

quis venit, who comes?

quam diū manēbit, how long will he stay?

2. **Sentence-Questions.** These are introduced —

- a) By **nōnne** implying the answer 'yes'; as, —
nōnne vidētis, do you not see?
- b) By **num** implying the answer 'no'; as, —
num expectās, do you expect? (i.e. you don't expect, do you?)
- c) By the enclitic **-ne**, appended to the emphatic word (which usually stands first), and simply asking for information; as, —
vidēsne, do you see?

A question introduced by **-ne** may receive a special implication from the context; as, —

sēnsistīne, did you not perceive?

- d) Sometimes by no special word, particularly in expressions of surprise or indignation; as, —
tū in iūdicum cōspectum venīre audēs, do you dare to come into the presence of the judges?

3. **Rhetorical Questions.** These are questions merely in form, being employed to express an emphatic assertion; as, **quis cūbitat, who doubts? (= no one doubts).**

4. **Double Questions.** Double Questions are introduced by the following particles: —

utrum . . . an;
-ne an;
— an.

If the second member is negative, **annōn** (less often **necne**) is used. Examples: —

utrum honestum est an turpe,	} <i>is it honorable or base?</i>
honestumne est an turpe,	
honestum est an turpe,	
suntne dī annōn,	<i>are there gods or not?</i>

a. **An** was not originally confined to double questions, but introduced single questions, having the force of **-ne**, **nōnne**, or **num**. Traces of this use survive in classical Latin; as, —

Ā rēbus gerendīs abstrahit senectūs. Quibus? An eīs quae iuventūte geruntur et vīribus? *Old age (it is alleged) withdraws men from active pursuits. From what pursuits? Is it not merely from those which are carried on by the strength of youth?*

5. Answers.

a. The answer YES is expressed by *ita, etiam, vērō, s̄anē*, or by repetition of the verb; as, —

‘*v̄isne locum mūtēmus?*’ ‘*s̄anē.*’ ‘*Shall we change the place?*’ ‘*Certainly.*’

‘*estisne vōs lēgātī?*’ ‘*sumus.*’ ‘*Are you envoys?*’ ‘*Yes.*’

b. The answer No is expressed by *nōn, minimē, minimē vērō*; or by repeating the verb with a negative; as, —

‘*jam ea praeteriit?*’ ‘*nōn.*’ ‘*Has it passed?*’ ‘*No.*’

‘*estne frāter intus?*’ ‘*nōn est.*’ ‘*Is your brother within?*’ ‘*No.*’

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

163. The two essential parts of a sentence are the SUBJECT and PREDICATE.

The SUBJECT is that *concerning which something is said, asked, etc.* The PREDICATE is that *which is said, asked, etc., concerning the SUBJECT.*

SIMPLE AND COMPOUND SENTENCES.

164. Sentences containing but one Subject and one Predicate are called SIMPLE SENTENCES, those containing more are called COMPOUND SENTENCES. Thus *puer librōs legit*, *the boy reads books*, is a Simple Sentence; but *puer librōs legit et epistulās scrībit*, *the boy reads books and writes letters*, is a Compound Sentence. The different members of a Compound Sentence are called Clauses.

165. COÖRDINATE AND SUBORDINATE CLAUSES. Clauses which stand upon an equality are called COÖRDINATE; a Clause dependent upon another is called SUBORDINATE. Thus in *puer librōs legit et epistulās scrībit* the two clauses are Coördinate; but in *puer librōs legit quōs pater scrībit*, *the boy reads the books which his father writes*, the second clause is Subordinate to the first.

CHAPTER II. — *Syntax of Nouns.*

SUBJECT.

166. The Subject of a Finite Verb (*i.e.* any form of the Indicative, Subjunctive, or Imperative) is in the Nominative Case.

1. The Subject may be —

a) A Noun or Pronoun; as, —

puer scribit, *the boy writes*;

hic scribit, *this man writes*.

b) An Infinitive; as, —

decōrum est prō patriā morī, *to die for one's country is a noble thing*.

c) A Clause; as, —

opportūnē accidit quod vīdistī, *it happened opportunely that you saw*.

2. A Personal Pronoun as Subject is usually implied in the Verb, and is not separately expressed; as, —

scribō, *I write*;

videt, *he sees*.

a. But for the purpose of emphasis or contrast the Pronoun is expressed; as, —

ego scribō et tū legis, *I write, and you read*.

3. The verb is sometimes omitted when it can be easily supplied from the context, especially the auxiliary **sum**; as, —

rēctē ille (*sc. facit*), *he does rightly*; **cōsul profectus** (*sc. est*), *the consul set out*.

PREDICATE NOUNS.

167. A PREDICATE NOUN is one connected with the Subject by some form of the verb **sum** or a similar verb.

168. A Predicate Noun agrees with its Subject in Case;¹ as, —

¹ For the Predicate Genitive, see §§ 198, 3: 203, 5.

Cicerō orātor fuit, *Cicero was an orator* ;

Numa creātus est rēx, *Numa was elected king*.

1. When possible, the Predicate Noun usually agrees with its Subject in Gender also ; as, —

philosophia est vitæ magistra, *philosophy is the guide of life*.

2. Besides **sum**, the verbs most frequently accompanied by a Predicate Noun are —

a) **fiō, evādō, existō; maneo; videor**; as, —

Croesus nōn semper mānsit rēx, *Croesus did not always remain king*.

b) Passive verbs of *making, calling, regarding, etc.*; as, **creor, appellor, habeor**; as, —

Rōmulus rēx appellātus est, *Romulus was called king* ;
habitus est deus, *he was regarded as a god*.

APPOSITIVES.

169. 1. An Appositive is a Noun explaining or defining another Noun denoting the same person or thing; as, —

Cicerō cōsul, *Cicero, the Consul* ;

urbs Rōma, *the city Rome*.

2. An Appositive agrees with its Subject in Case; as, —

opera Cicerōnis orātōris, *the works of Cicero, the orator* ;

apud Hērodotum, patrem historiae, *in the works of Herodotus, the father of history*.

3. When possible, the Appositive agrees with its Subject in Gender also; as, —

assentātiō adjūtrix vitiōrum, *flattery, the promoter of evils*.

4. A Locative may take in Apposition the Ablative of **urbs** or **oppidum**, with or without a preposition; as, —

Corinthī, Achāiae urbe, or in **Achāiae urbe**, *at Corinth, a city of Greece*.

5. PARTITIVE APPPOSITION. A Noun denoting a whole is frequently followed by an Appositive denoting a part; as, —

militēs, fortissimus quisque, hostibus restitērunt, *the soldiers, all the bravest of them, resisted the enemy*.

THE CASES.

THE NOMINATIVE.

170. The Nominative is confined to its use as Subject, Appositive, or Predicate Noun, as already explained. See §§ 166-169.

THE VOCATIVE.

171. The Vocative is the Case of direct address; as, —
crēdite mihi, jūdicēs, believe me, judges.

1. By a species of attraction, the Nominative is occasionally used for the Vocative, especially in poetry and formal prose; as, *audī tū, populus Albānus, hear ye, Alban people!*

2. Similarly the Appositive of a Vocative may, in poetry, stand in the Nominative; as, *nāte, mea magna potentia sōlus, O son, alone the source of my great power.*

THE ACCUSATIVE.

172. The Accusative is the Case of the Direct Object.

173. The Direct Object may express either of the two following relations:—

A. The PERSON OR THING AFFECTED by the action; as, —
cōnsulem interfēcit, he slew the consul;
legō librum, I read the book.

B. The RESULT PRODUCED by the action; as, —
librum scripsī, I wrote a book (i.e. produced one);
templum struit, he constructs a temple.

174. Verbs that admit a Direct Object of either of these two types are TRANSITIVE VERBS.

a. Verbs that regularly take a Direct Object are sometimes used without it. They are then said to be employed *absolutely*; as, —

rūmor est meum gnātum amāre, it is rumored that my son is in love.

Accusative of the Person or Thing Affected.

175. 1. This is the most frequent use of the Accusative; as in —

parentēs amāmus, *we love our parents*;
mare aspicit, *he gazes at the sea.*

2. The following classes of Verbs taking an Accusative of this kind are worthy of note : —

a) Many Intransitive Verbs, when compounded with a Preposition, become Transitive. Thus : —

1) Compounds of **circum**, **praeter**, **trāns** ; as, —
hostēs circumstāre, *to surround the enemy* ;
urbem praeterīre, *to pass by the city* ;
mūrōs trāscendere, *to climb over the walls.*

2) Less frequently, compounds of **ad**, **per**, **in**, **sub** ; as, —
adīre urbem, *to visit the city* ;
peragrāre Italiam, *to travel through Italy* ;
inīre magistrātum, *to take office* ;
subīre perīculum, *to undergo danger.*

b) Many Verbs expressing emotions, regularly Intransitive, have also a Transitive use ; as, —

queror fātum, *I lament my fate* ;
doleō ejus mortem, *I grieve at his death* ;
rīdeō tuam stultitiam, *I laugh at your folly.*

So also lūgeō, maereō, *mourn* ; gemō, *bemoan* ; horreō, *shudder*, and others.

c) The impersonals decet, *it becomes* ; dēdecet, *it is unbecoming* ; juvat, *it pleases*, take the Accusative of the Person Affected ; as, —

mē decet haec dīcere, *it becomes me to say this.*

d) In poetry many Passive Verbs, in imitation of Greek usage, are employed as Middles (§ 256, 1 ; 2), and take the Accusative as Object ; as, —

galeam induitur, *he puts on his helmet* ;
cīnctus tempora hederā, *having bound his temples with
ivy* ;
nōdō sinus collēcta, *having gathered her dress in a knot.*

Accusative of the Result Produced.

176. 1. The ordinary type of this Accusative is seen in such expressions as —

librum scrībō, *I write a book* ;
domum aedificō, *I build a house*.

2. Many Verbs usually Intransitive take a *Neuter Pronoun*, or *Adjective*, as an Accusative of Result. Thus: —

a) A Neuter Pronoun ; as, —

haec gemēbat, *he made these moans* ;
idem glōriārī, *to make the same boast* ;
eadem peccat, *he makes the same mistakes*.

b) A Neuter Adjective, — particularly *Adjectives of number or amount*, — **multum**, **multa**, **pauca**, etc. ; also **nihil** ; as, —

multa egeō, *I have many needs* ;
pauca studet, *he has few interests* ;
multum valet, *he has great strength* ;
nihil peccat, *he makes no mistake*.

NOTE. — In poetry other Adjectives are freely used in this construction ; as, —

minitantes vāna, *making vain threats* ;
acerba tuēns, *giving a fierce look* ;
dulce loquentem, *sweetly talking*.

3. The adverbial use of several Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives grows out of this Accusative ; as, —

multum sunt in venātiōne, *they are much engaged in hunting*.

a. So also **plūrimum**, *very greatly* ; **plērumque**, *generally* ;
aliquid, *somewhat* ; **quid**, *why* ? **nihil**, *not at all* ; etc.

4. Sometimes an Intransitive Verb takes an Accusative of Result which is of kindred etymology with the Verb. This is called a **COGNATE ACCUSATIVE**, and is usually modified by an Adjective ; as, —

sempiternam servitūtem serviat, *let him serve an everlasting slavery* ;
vītam dūram vīxī, *I have lived a hard life*.

a. Sometimes the Cognate Accusative is not of kindred etymology, but merely of kindred meaning ; as, —

stadium currit, *he runs a race* ;
Olympia vincit, *he wins an Olympic victory*.

5. The Accusative of Result occurs also after Verbs of *tasting* and *smelling*; as, —

piscis mare sapit, the fish tastes of the sea;

ōrātiōnēs antīquitātem redolent, the speeches smack of the past.

Two Accusatives — Direct Object and Predicate Accusative.

177. 1. Many Verbs of *Making, Choosing, Calling, Showing*, and the like, take two Accusatives, one of the Person or Thing Affected, the other a Predicate Accusative; as, —

mē hērēdem fēcit, he made me heir.

Here *mē* is Direct Object, *hērēdem* Predicate Accusative.

So also —

eum iudicem cēpēre, they took him as judge;

urbem Rōmam vocāvit, he called the city Rome;

sē virum praestitit, he showed himself a man.

2. The Predicate Accusative may be an Adjective as well as a Noun; as, —

hominēs caecōs reddit cupiditās, covetousness renders men blind;

Apollō Sōcratem sapientissimum iudicāvit, Apollo adjudged Socrates the wisest man.

a. Some Verbs, as *reddō*, usually admit only an Adjective as the Predicate Accusative.

3. In the Passive the Direct Object becomes the Subject, and the Predicate Accusative becomes Predicate Nominative (§ 168. 2. b); as, —

urbs Rōma vocāta est, the city was called Rome.

a. Not all Verbs admit the Passive construction; *reddō* and *efficiō*, for example, never take it.

Two Accusatives — Person and Thing.

178. 1. Some Verbs take two Accusatives, one of the Person Affected, the other of the Result Produced. Thus: —

a) Verbs of *requesting* and *demanding*; as, —

ōtium dīvōs rogat, he asks the gods for rest;

mē duās ōrātiōnēs postulās, you demand two speeches of me.

So also *ōrō*, *poscō*, *repscō*, *expscō*, *flāgitō*, though some of these prefer the Ablative with *ab* to the Accusative of the Person; as,—

opem ā tē poscō, *I demand aid of you.*

b) Verbs of *teaching* (*doceō* and its compounds); as,—
tē litterās doceō, *I teach you your letters.*

c) Verbs of *inquiring*; as,—
tē haec rogō, *I ask you this*;
tē sententiam rogō, *I ask you your opinion.*

a) Several Special Verbs; *viz.* *moneō*, *admoneō*, *commoneō*, *cōgō*, *accūsō*, *arguō*, and a few others. These admit only a Neuter Pronoun or Adjective as Accusative of the Thing; as,—

hōc tē moneō, *I give you this advice*;
mē id accūsās, *you bring this accusation against me*;
id cōgit nōs nātūra, *nature compels us (to) this.*

e) One Verb of *concealing*, *cēlō*; as,—
nōn tē cēlāvī sermōnem, *I have not concealed the conversation from you.*

2. In the Passive construction the Accusative of the Person becomes the Subject, and the Accusative of the Thing is retained; as,—

omnēs artēs ēdoctus est, *he was taught all accomplishments*;
rogātus sum sententiam, *I was asked my opinion*;
multa admonēmur, *we are given many admonitions.*

u. Only a few Verbs admit the Passive construction.

Two Accusatives with Compounds.

179. 1. Transitive compounds of *trāns* may take two Accusatives, one dependent upon the Verb, the other upon the Preposition; as,—

mīlitēs flūmen trānsportat, *he leads his soldiers across the river.*

2. With other compounds this construction is rare.

3. In the Passive the Accusative dependent upon the preposition is retained; as,—

mīlitēs flūmen trādūcēbantur, *the soldiers were led across the river.*

Synecdochical (or Greek) Accusative.

180. 1. The Synecdochical (or Greek) Accusative denotes the *part* to which an action or quality refers; as,—

tremit artūs, literally, *he trembles as to his limbs, i.e. his limbs tremble*;
nūda genū, lit. *bare as to the knee, i.e. with knee bare*;
manūs revinctus, lit. *tied as to the hands, i.e. with hands tied*.

2. Note that this construction—

- a) Is borrowed from the Greek.
- b) Is chiefly confined to poetry.
- c) Usually refers to a part of the body.
- d) Is used with Adjectives as well as Verbs.

Accusative of Time and Space.

181. 1. *Duration of Time* and *Extent of Space* are denoted by the Accusative; as,—

quadrāgintā annōs vīxit, *he lived forty years*;
hīc locus passūs sescentōs aberat, *this place was six hundred paces away*;
arborēs quīnquāgintā pedēe altae, *trees fifty feet high*;
abhinc septem annōs, *seven years ago*.

2. Emphasis is sometimes added by using the Preposition *per*; as,
per biennium labōrāvī, *I toiled throughout two years*.

Accusative of Limit of Motion.

182. 1. The Accusative of Limit of Motion is used—

- a) With names of *Towns, Small Islands, and Peninsulas*; as,—
Rōmam vēnī, *I came to Rome*;
Athēnās proficīscitur, *he sets out for Athens*;
Dēlum pervēnī, *I arrived at Delos*.

b) With *domum, domōs, rūs*; as,—

domum revertitur, *he returns home*;
rūs ibō, *I shall go to the country*.

NOTE.—When *domus* means *house (i.e. building)*, it takes a preposition; as.—

in domum veterem remigrāre, *to move back to an old house*.

2. Other designations of place than those above mentioned require a Preposition to denote Limit of Motion; as, —

ad Italiam vēnit, *he came to Italy.*

a. The Preposition is also customary with the Accusatives **urbem** or **oppidum** when they stand in apposition with the name of a town; as, —

Thalam, in oppidum magnum, *to Thala, a large town;*
Genavam ad oppidum, *to the town Geneva.*

b. The name of a town denoting limit of motion may be combined with the name of a country or other word dependent upon a preposition; as, —

Thūriōs in Italiam pervectus, *carried to Thurii in Italy;*
cum Acēn ad exercitum vēnisset, *when he had come to the army at Ace.*

3. To denote *toward, to the vicinity of, in the vicinity of*, **ad** is used; as, —

ad Tarentum vēnī, *I came to the vicinity of Tarentum;*
ad Cannās pugna facta est, *a battle was fought near Cannae.*

4. In poetry the Accusative of any noun denoting a place may be used without a preposition to express the limit of motion; as, —

Italiam vēnit, *he came to Italy.*

5. The *goal* notion seems to represent the original function of the Accusative Case. Traces of this primitive force are recognizable in the phrase **īnfītīās ire**, *to deny* (lit. *to go to a denial*), and a few other similar expressions.

Accusative in Exclamations.

183. The Accusative, generally modified by an Adjective, is used in Exclamations; as, —

mē miserum, *ah, wretched me!*
Ō fallācem spem, *oh, deceptive hope!*

Accusative as Subject of the Infinitive.

184. The Subject of the Infinitive is put in the Accusative; as, —

videō hōminem abīre. *I see that the man is going away.*

Other Uses of the Accusative.

185. Here belong —

1. Some Accusatives which were originally Appositives ; viz. —

id genus, of that kind ; as, **hominēs id genus**, men of that kind (originally **hominēs, id genus hominum**, men, that kind of men) ;

virīle secus, muliebre secus, of the male sex, of the female sex ;
meam vicem, tuam vicem, etc., for my part, etc. ;

bonam partem, magnam partem, in large part ;

maximam partem, for the most part.

2. Some phrases of doubtful origin ; as, —

id temporis, at that time ;

quod sī, but if ;

id aetātis, at that time ;

cētera, in other respects.

THE DATIVE.

186. The Dative case, in general, expresses relations which are designated in English by the prepositions *to* and *for*.

Dative of Indirect Object.

187. The commonest use of the Dative is to denote the person *to whom* something is *given, said, or done*. Thus : —

I. With transitive verbs in connection with the Accusative ; as, —

hanc pecūniam mihi dat, he gives me this money ;

haec nōbīs dīxit, he said this to us.

a. Some verbs which take this construction (particularly **dōnō** and **circumdō**) admit also the Accusative of the person along with the Ablative of the thing. Thus : —

Either **Themistocli mūnera dōnāvit**, he presented gifts to Themistocles, or

Themistoclem mūneribus dōnāvit, he presented Themistocles with gifts ;

urbī mūrōs circumdat, he builds walls around the city, or
urbem mūrīs circumdat, he surrounds the city with wall.

II. With many intransitive verbs; as, —

nūllī labōrī cēdit, he yields to no labor.

- a. Here belong many verbs signifying *favor*,¹ *help*, *injure*, *please*, *displease*, *trust*, *distrust*, *command*, *obey*, *serve*, *resist*, *indulge*, *spare*, *pardon*, *envy*, *threaten*, *be angry*, *believe*, *persuade*, and the like; as, —

Caesar populāribus favet, *Caesar favors (i.e. is favorable to) the popular party;*

amicīs cōfidō, *I trust (to) my friends;*

Orgetorix Helvētiīs persuāsit, *Orgetorix persuaded (made it acceptable to) the Helvetians;*

bonīs nocet quī malīs parcit, *he injures (does harm to) the good, who spares the bad.*

NOTE. — It is to be borne in mind that these verbs do not take the Dative by virtue of their apparent English equivalence, but simply because they are *intransitive*, and adapted to an indirect object. Some verbs of the same apparent English equivalence are *transitive* and govern the Accusative; as, **juvō**, **laedō**, **dēlectō**. Thus: **audētēs deus juvat**, *God helps the bold*; **nēmīnem laesit**, *he injured no one.*

- b. Verbs of this class are used in the passive only impersonally; as, —

tibi parcitur, *you are spared*;

mihi persuādētur, *I am being persuaded*;

eī invidētur, *he is envied.*

- c. Some of the foregoing verbs admit also a Direct Object in connection with the Dative; as, —

mihi mortem minitātur, *he threatens me with death (threatens death to me).*

III. With many verbs compounded with the prepositions: **ad**, **ante**, **circum**, **com**,² **in**, **inter**, **ob**, **post**, **prae**, **prō**, **sub**, **super**.

These verbs fall into two main classes, —

1. Many simple verbs which cannot take a Dative of the indirect object become capable of doing so when compounded with a preposition; as, —

afflictīs succurrit, *he helps the afflicted;*

exercitū praefuit, *he was in command of the army;*

intersum cōsiliīs, *I share in the deliberations.*

¹ Many such verbs were originally intransitive in English also, and once governed the Dative. ² This was the original form of the preposition **cum**.

2. Many transitive verbs which take only a direct object become capable, when compounded, of taking a dative also as indirect object; as,—

pecūniae pudōrem antepōnit, he puts honor before money;

inicere spem amicīs, to inspire hope in one's friends;

mūnitiōnī Labiēnum praefēcit, he put Labienus in charge of the fortifications.

Dative of Reference.

188. 1. The Dative of Reference denotes the person to whom a statement refers, of whom it is true, or to whom it is of interest; as,—

mihī ante oculōs versāris, you hover before my eyes (lit. hover before the eyes to me);

illī severitās amōrem nōn dēminuit, in his case severity did not diminish love (lit. to him severity did not diminish);

interclūdere inimicīs commeātum, to cut off the supplies of the enemy.

a. Note the phrase *alicui interdicere aquā et ignī*, to interdict one from fire and water.

NOTE.—The Dative of Reference, unlike the Dative of Indirect Object, does not modify the verb, but rather the sentence as a whole. It is often used where, according to the English idiom, we should expect a Genitive; so in the first and third of the above examples.

2. Special varieties of the Dative of Reference are—

a) **Dative of the Local Standpoint.** This is regularly a participle; as,—

oppidum primum Thessaliae venientibus ab Epirō, the first town of Thessaly as you come from Epirus (lit. to those coming from Epirus).

b) **Ethical Dative.** This name is given to those Dative constructions of the personal pronouns in which the connection of the Dative with the rest of the sentence is of the very slightest sort; as,—

tū mihī istūs audāciam dēfendis? tell me, do you defend that man's audacity?

quid mihī Celsus agit? what is my Celsus doing?

c) Dative of Person Judging; as, —

erit ille mihi semper deus, he will always be a god to me (i.e. in my opinion);

quae ista servitūs tam clārō hominī, how can that be slavery to so illustrious a man (i.e. to his mind)!

d) Dative of Separation. Some verbs of taking away, especially compounds of *ab*, *dē*, *ex*, *ad*, govern a Dative of the person, less often of the thing; as, —

honōrem dētrāxērunt hominī, they took away the honor from the man;

Caesar rēgī tetrarchiam ēripuit, Caesar took the tetrarchy away from the king;

silici scintillam excūdit, he struck a spark from the flint.

Dative of Agency.

189. The Dative is used to denote agency —

1. Regularly with the Gerundive; as, —

haec nōbīs agenda sunt, these things must be done by us;

mihi eundum est, I must go (lit. it must be gone by me).

a. To avoid ambiguity, *ā* with the Ablative is sometimes used with the Gerundive; as, —

hostibus ā nōbīs parcendum est, the enemy must be spared by us.

2. Much less frequently with the compound tenses of the passive voice and the perfect passive participle; as, —

disputātiō quae mihi nūper habita est, the discussion which was recently conducted by me.

3. Rarely with the uncompounded tenses of the passive; as, —

honesta bonīs virīs quaeruntur, noble ends are sought by good men.

Dative of Possession.

190. The Dative of Possession occurs with the verb *esse* in such expressions as: —

mihi est liber, I have a book;

mihi nōmen est Mārcus, I have the name Marcus.

1. But with *nōmen est* the name is more commonly attracted into the Dative; as, *mihi Mārcō nōmen est.*

Dative of Purpose or Tendency.

191. The Dative of Purpose or Tendency designates *the end toward which an action is directed or the direction in which it tends*. It is used—

1. Unaccompanied by another Dative; as,—

castris locum deligere, to choose a place for a camp;

legiones praesidio relinquere, to leave the legions as a guard (lit. for a guard);

receptum canere, to sound the signal for a retreat.

2. Much more frequently in connection with another Dative of the person:—

a) Especially with some form of *esse*; as,—

fortunae tuae mihi cura sunt, your fortunes are a care to me (lit. for a care);

quibus sunt odium, to whom they are an object of hatred;

cui bonum? to whom is it of advantage?

b) With other verbs; as,—

homo tibi muneri misit, he has sent these to you for a present;

Pausanias Atticis venit auxilio, Pausanias came to the aid of the Athenians (lit. to the Athenians for aid).

3. In connection with the Gerundive; as,—

decemviri legibus scribundis, decemvirs for codifying the laws;

me gerendum bello ducem creavere, me they have made leader for carrying on the war.

NOTE.—This construction with the gerundive is not common till Livy.

Dative with Adjectives.

192. The use of the Dative with Adjectives corresponds very closely to its use with verbs. Thus:—

1. Corresponding to the Dative of Indirect Object it occurs with adjectives signifying: *friendly, unfriendly, similar, dissimilar, equal, near, related to, etc.*; as,—

mihi inimicus, hostile to me;

sunt proximi Germanis, they are next to the Germans;

noxiae poena par est, let the penalty be equal to the damage.

a. For *propior* and *proximus* with the Accusative, see § 141, 3.

2. Corresponding to the Dative of Purpose, the Dative occurs with adjectives signifying: *suitable, adapted, fit*; as, —

castris idoneus locus, a place fit for a camp;
apta dies sacrificiō, a day suitable for a sacrifice.

NOTE. — Adjectives of this last class often take the Accusative with *ad*.

Dative of Direction.

193. In the poets the Dative is occasionally used to denote the *direction of motion*; as, —

it clamor caelō, the shout goes heavenward;
cinerēs rīvō fluentī jace, cast the ashes toward a flowing stream.

1. By an extension of this construction the poets sometimes use the Dative to denote the *limit of motion*; as, —

dum Latīō deōs inferret, till he should bring his gods to Latium.

THE GENITIVE.

194. The Genitive is used with Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs.

GENITIVE WITH NOUNS.

195. With Nouns the Genitive is *the case which defines the meaning of the limited noun more closely*. This relation is generally indicated in English by the preposition *of*. There are the following varieties of the Genitive with Nouns: —

Genitive of Origin,	Objective Genitive,
Genitive of Material,	Genitive of the Whole,
Genitive of Possession,	Appositional Genitive,
Subjective Genitive,	Genitive of Quality.

196. Genitive of Origin; as, —

Mārcī filius, the son of Marcus.

197. Genitive of Material; as, —

talentum aurī, a talent of gold;
acervus frūmentī, a pile of grain.

198. Genitive of Possession or Ownership; as, —
domus Cicerōnis, Cicero's house.

1. Here belongs the Genitive with *causā* and *grātiā*. The Genitive always precedes; as, —

hominum causā, for the sake of men;

meōrum amīcōrum grātiā, for the sake of my friends.

2. The Possessive Genitive is often used predicatively, especially with *esse* and *fierī*; as, —

domus est rēgis, the house is the king's;

stultī est in errōre manēre, it is (the part) of a fool to remain in error;

dē bellō iudicium imperātōris est, nōn mīlitum, the decision concerning war belongs to the general, not to the soldiers.

a. For the difference in force between the Possessive Genitive and the Dative of Possession, see § 359, 1.

199. Subjective Genitive. This denotes *the person who makes or produces something or who has a feeling*; as, —

dicta Platōnis, the utterances of Plato;

timōrēs liberōrum, the fears of the children.

200. Objective Genitive. This denotes *the object of an action or feeling*; as, —

metus deōrum, the fear of the gods;

amor libertātis, love of liberty;

cōnsuetūdō bonōrum hominum, intercourse with good men.

1. This relation is often expressed by means of prepositions; as, —
amor ergā parentēs, love toward one's parents.

201. Genitive of the Whole. This designates *the whole of which a part is taken*. It is used —

1. With Nouns, Pronouns, Comparatives, Superlatives, and Ordinal Numerals; as, —

magna pars hominum, a great part of mankind;

duo mīlia peditum, two thousand foot-soldiers;

quis mortālium, who of mortals?

major frātrum, the elder of the brothers;

gēns maxima Germānōrum, the largest tribe of the Germans;

prīmus omnium, the first of all.

- a. Yet instead of the Genitive of the Whole we often find **ex** or **dē** with the Ablative, regularly so with Cardinal numbers and **quīdam**; as,—
fidēlissimus dē sērvīs, *the most trusty of the slaves* ;
quīdam ex amicīs, *certain of his friends* ;
ūnus ex militibus, *one of the soldiers*.
- δ. In English we often use *of* where there is no relation of whole to part. In such cases the Latin is more exact, and does not use the Genitive; as,—
quot vōs estis, *how many of you are there?*
trecentī conjūrāvimus, *three hundred of us have conspired* (i. e. we, three hundred in number).

2. The Genitive of the Whole is used also with the Nominative or Accusative Singular Neuter of Pronouns, or of Adjectives used substantively; also with the Adverbs **parum**, **satis**, and **partim** when used substantively; as,—

quid cōnsilī, *what purpose?*
tantum cibī, *so much food* ;
plūs auctōritātis, *more authority* ;
minus labōris, *less labor* ;
satis pecūniæ, *enough money* ;
parum industriæ, *too little industry*.

- a. An Adjective of the second declension used substantively may be employed as a Genitive of the Whole; as, **nihil bonī**, *nothing good*.
- δ. But Adjectives of the third declension agree directly with the noun they limit; as, **nihil dulcius**, *nothing sweeter*.

3. Occasionally we find the Genitive of the Whole dependent upon Adverbs of place; as,—

ubi terrārum? ubi gentium? *where in the world?*

- u. By an extension of this usage the Genitive sometimes occurs in dependence upon **prīdiē** and **postrīdiē**, but only in the phrases **prīdiē ejus diēi**, *on the day before that*; **postrīdiē ejus diēi**, *on the day after that*.

202. Appositional Genitive. The Genitive sometimes has the force of an appositive; as,—

nōmen rēgis, *the name of king* ;
poena mortis, *the penalty of death* ;
ars scribendī, *the art of writing*.

203. Genitive of Quality. The Genitive modified by an Adjective is used to denote quality. This construction presents several varieties. Thus it is used—

1. To denote some internal or permanent characteristic of a person or thing; as, —

vir magnae virtūtis, *a man of great virtue*;
ratiōnēs ejus modī, *considerations of that sort*.

a. Only a limited number of Adjectives occur in this construction, chiefly **magnus**, **maximus**, **summus**, **tantus**, along with **ejus**.

2. To denote measure (*breadth, length, etc.*); as, —

fossa quīdecim pedum, *a trench fifteen feet wide (or deep)*;
exsilium decem annōrum, *an exile of ten years*.

3. Equivalent to the Genitive of Quality (though probably of different origin) are the Genitives **tantī**, **quantī**, **parvī**, **magnī**, **minōris**, **plūris**, **minimī**, **plūrimī**, **maximī**. These are used predicatively to denote *indefinite value*; as, —

nūlla studia tantī sunt, *no studies are of so much value*;
magnī opera ejus exīstimāta est, *his assistance was highly esteemed*.

4. By an extension of the notion of *value*, **quantī**, **tantī**, **plūris**, and **minōris** are also used with verbs of *buying* and *selling*, to denote *indefinite price*; as, —

quantī aedēs ēmistī, *at how high a price did you purchase the house?*

5. Any of the above varieties of the Genitive of Quality may be used predicatively; as, —

tantae mōlis erat Rōmānam condere gentem, *of so great difficulty was it to found the Roman race*.

GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.

204. The Genitive is used with many Adjectives to limit the extent of their application. Thus: —

1. With adjectives signifying *desire*, *knowledge*, *familiarity*, *memory*, *participation*, *power*, *fullness*, and their opposites; as, —

studiōsus discendī, *desirous of learning*;
perītus bellī, *skilled in war*;
īnsuētus labōris, *unused to toil*;
immemor mandātī tuī, *unmindful of your commission*;
plēna periculōrum est vīta, *life is full of dangers*.

a. Some participles used adjectively also take the Genitive; as, —

diligēns vērītātis, *fond of truth*;
amāns patriāe, *devoted to one's country*.

2. Sometimes with **proprius** and **commūnis**; as, —
virī propria est fortitudō, bravery is characteristic of a man.
memoria est commūnis omnium artium, memory is common to all
professions.

a. **proprius** and **commūnis** are also construed with the Dative.

3. With **similis** the Genitive is the commoner construction in Cicero, when the reference is to living objects; as, —

filius patris simillimus est, the son is exactly like his father;
meī similis, like me; vestrī similis, like you.

When the reference is to things, both Genitive and Dative occur; as, —

mors somnō (or somnī) similis est, death is like sleep.

4. In the poets and later prose writers the use of the Genitive with Adjectives is extended far beyond earlier limits; as, *atrōx animī, fierce of temper; incertus cōsiliī, undecided in purpose.*

GENITIVE WITH VERBS.

205. The Genitive is used with the following classes of Verbs:—

Memini, Reminiscor, Obliviscor.

206. I. WHEN REFERRING TO PERSONS —

a. **meminī** always takes the Genitive of personal or reflexive pronouns; as, —

meī meminērīs, remember me!
nostrī meminit, he remembers us.

With other words denoting persons **meminī** takes the Accusative, rarely the Genitive; as, —

Sullam meminī, I recall Sulla;
vivōrum meminī, I remember the living.

b. **obliviscor** regularly takes the Genitive; as, —

Epicūrī nōn licet obliviscī, we mustn't forget Epicurus.

2. WHEN REFERRING TO THINGS, **meminī**, **reminiscor**, **obliviscor** take sometimes the Genitive, sometimes the Accusative, without difference of meaning; as, —

animus praeteritorū meminit, the mind remembers the past;
meministīne nōmina, do you remember the names?
reminiscere veteris incommodī, remember the former disaster;
reminiscēns acerbitātem, remembering the bitterness.

a. But neuter pronouns, and adjectives used substantively, regularly stand in the Accusative; as, —

haec meminī, *I remember this*;

multa reminiscor, *I remember many things*.

3. The phrase **mihi (tibi, etc.) in mentem venit**, following the analogy of **meminī**, takes the Genitive; as, —

mihi patriae veniēbat in mentem, *I remembered my country*.

Admoneō, Commoneō, Commonefaciō.

207. These verbs, in addition to an Accusative of the person, occasionally take a Genitive of the thing; as, —

tē veteris amicitiae commonefaciō, *I remind you of our old friendship*.

a. But more frequently (in Cicero almost invariably) these verbs take **dē** with the Ablative; as, —

mē admonēs dē sorōre, *you remind me of your sister*.

b. A neuter pronoun or adjective used substantively regularly stands in the Accusative (178. 1. d); as, —

tē hōc admoneō, *I give you this warning*.

Verbs of Judicial Action.

208. 1. Verbs of *Accusing, Convicting, Acquitting* take the Genitive of the *charge*; as, —

mē fūrtī accūsāt, *he accuses me of theft*;

Verrem avāritiae coarguit, *he convicts Verres of avarice*;

impietātis absolūtus est, *he was acquitted of blasphemy*.

2. Verbs of *Condemning* take —

a. The Genitive of the *charge*; as, —

pecūniae pūblicae condemnātus, *condemned (on the charge) of embezzlement (lit. public money)*;

capitis damnātus, *condemned on a capital charge (lit. on a charge involving his head)*.

b. The Ablative of the *penalty*; as, —

capite damnātus est, *he was condemned to death*;

mille nummīs damnātus est, *he was condemned (to pay) a thousand sesterces (lit. by a thousand sesterces, Abl. of Means)*.

3. Note the phrases :—

vōtī damnātus, vōtī reus, *having attained one's prayer* (lit. *condemned on the score of one's vow*) ;
dē vī, (*accused, convicted, etc.*) *of assault* ;
inter sicāriōs, (*accused, convicted, etc.*) *of murder*.

Genitive with Impersonal Verbs.

209. 1. The Impersonals *puđet, paenitet, miseret, taedet, piget* take the Accusative of *the person affected*, along with the Genitive of *the person or thing toward whom the feeling is directed* ; as,—

puđet mē tuī, *I am ashamed of you* (lit. *it shames me of you*) ;
paenitet mē hūjus factī, *I repent of this act* ;
eum taedet vītae, *he is weary of life* ;
pauperum tē miseret, *you pity the poor*.

a. Instead of the Genitive of the thing we often find an Infinitive or Neuter Pronoun used as subject of the verb. Thus :—

mē paenitet hōc fēcisse, *I repent of having done this* ;
mē hōc puđet, *I am ashamed of this*.

2. *Misereor* and *miserēscō* also govern the Genitive ; as,—
miserēminī sociōrum, *pity the allies*.

Interest, *Rēfert*.

210. With *interest*, *it concerns*, three points enter into consideration ; *viz.* —

- a) the *person concerned* ;
- b) the *thing about which* he is concerned ;
- c) the *extent* of his concern.

211. 1. The *person concerned* is regularly denoted by the Genitive ; as,—

patris interest, *it concerns the father*.

a. But instead of the Genitive of the personal pronouns, *mē, tuī, nostri, vestrī*, the Latin uses the Ablative Singular Feminine of the Possessive, *viz.* : *meā, tuā, etc.* ; as,—
meā interest, *it concerns me*.

2. The *thing about which* a person is concerned is denoted —

- a) by a Neuter Pronoun as subject; as, —
hōc reī pūblicaē interest, *this concerns the state.*
- b) by an Infinitive; as, —
omnium interest valēre, *it concerns all to keep well,*
- c) by an Indirect Question; as, —
meā interest quāndō veniās, *I am concerned as to when you are coming.*

3. The *degree of concern* is denoted —

- a) by the Genitive (cf. § 203, 3): **magnī, parvī, etc.**; as, —
meā magnī interest, *it concerns me greatly.*
- b) by the Adverbs, **magnopere, magis, maximē, etc.**; as, —
cīvium minimē interest, *it concerns the citizens very little.*
- c) by the Neuters, **multum, plūs, minus, etc.**; as, —
multum vestrā interest, *it concerns you much.*

4. **Rēfert** follows **interest** in its construction, except that it rarely takes the Genitive of the person. Thus: —

meā rēfert, *it concerns me;*

but rarely **illius rēfert**, *it concerns him.*

Genitive with Other Verbs.

212. I. Verbs of *Plenty* and *Want* sometimes govern the Genitive; as, —

pecūniae indigēs, *you need money.*

- a. These verbs more commonly take the Ablative (§ 214, 1); **indigeō** is the only verb which has a preference for the Genitive.

2. **Potior**, though usually followed by the Ablative, sometimes takes the Genitive, almost always so in Sallust; and regularly in the phrase: **potiri rērum**, *to get control of affairs.*

3. In poetry some verbs take the Genitive in imitation of the Greek; as, —
dēsine querellārum, *cease your complaints;*
operum solūti, *freed from their tasks.*

THE ABLATIVE.

213. The Latin Ablative unites in itself three cases which were originally distinct both in form and in meaning; *viz.*—

The Ablative or **from**-case.

The Instrumental or **with**-case.

The Locative or **where**-case.

The uses of the Latin Ablative accordingly fall into Genuine Ablative uses, Instrumental uses, and Locative uses.

GENUINE ABLATIVE USES.

Ablative of Separation.

214. The Ablative of Separation is construed sometimes with, sometimes without, a preposition.

1. The following words regularly take the Ablative without a preposition:—

a) The Verbs of *freeing*: **liberō**, **solvō**, **levō**;

b) The Verbs of *depriving*: **privō**, **spoliō**, **exuō**, **fraudō**, **nūdō**;

c) The Verbs of *lacking*: **egeō**, **careō**, **vacō**;

d) The corresponding Adjectives, **liber**, **inānis**, **vacuus**, **nūdus**, and some others of similar meaning.

Thus:—

cūrīs liberātus, *freed from cares*;

Caesar hostēs armīs exuit, *Caesar stripped the enemy of their arms*;

caret sēnsū commūnī, *he lacks common sense*;

auxiliō eget, *he needs help*;

bonōrum vīta vacua est metū, *the life of the good is free from fear*.

NOTE 1.—Yet Adjectives and **liberō** may take the preposition **ab**,—regularly so with the Ablative of persons; as,—

urbem ā tyrannō liberārunt, *they freed the city from the tyrant*.

NOTE 2.—**Indigeō** usually takes the Genitive. See § 212, 1, a.

2. Of Verbs signifying *to keep from, to remove, to withdraw*, some take the preposition, others omit it. The same Verb often admits both constructions. Examples:—

abstinēre cibō, to abstain from food;

hostēs finibus prohibuērunt, they kept the enemy from their borders;

praedōnēs ab insulā prohibuit, he kept the pirates from the island.

3. Other Verbs of separation usually take the Ablative with a Preposition, particularly compounds of *dis-* and *sē-*; as,—

dissentiō ā tē, I dissent from you;

sēcernantur ā nobīs, let them be separated from us.

4. The Preposition is freely omitted in poetry.

Ablative of Source.

215. The Ablative of Source is used with the participles *nātus* and *ortus* (in poetry also with *ēditus*, *satus*, and some others), to designate *parentage* or *station*; as,—

Jove nātus, son of Jupiter;

summō locō nātus, high-born (lit. born from a very high place);

nōbilī genere ortus, born of a noble family.

1. Pronouns regularly (nouns rarely) take *ex*; as,

ex mē nātus, sprung from me.

2. To denote remoter descent, *ortus ab*, or *oriundus* (with or without *ab*), is used; as,—

ab Ulixē oriundus, descended from Ulysses.

Ablative of Agent.

216. The Ablative accompanied by *ā* (*ab*) is used with passive verbs to denote the *personal agent*; as,—

ā Caesare accūsātus est, he was arraigned by Caesar.

1. Collective nouns referring to persons, and abstract nouns when personified, may be construed as the personal agent. Thus:—

hostēs ā fortunā dēserēbantur, the enemy were deserted by Fortune;

ā multitudīne hostium mōntēs tenēbantur, the mountains were held by a multitude of the enemy.

2. Names of animals sometimes admit the same construction. Thus:—

ā canibus laniātus est, he was torn to pieces by dogs.

Ablative of Comparison.

217. 1. The Ablative is often used with Comparatives in the sense of *than*; as, —

melle dulcior, sweeter than honey;

patria mihi vitā cārīor est, my country is dearer to me than life.

2. This construction, as a rule, occurs only as a substitute for *quam* (*than*) with the Nominative or Accusative. In other cases *quam* must be used; as, —

tuī studiōsior sum quam illū, I am fonder of you than of him.

Studiōsior illō would have meant, *I am fonder of you than he is.*

Plūs, minus, amplius, longius are often employed as the equivalents of *plūs quam, minus quam, etc.* Thus: —

amplius vīgintī urbēs incenduntur, more than twenty cities are fired;

minus quīnque mīlia prōcessit, he advanced less than five miles.

3. Note the use of *opiniōne* with Comparatives; as, —

opiniōne celerius venit, he comes more quickly than expected (lit. *than opinion*).

INSTRUMENTAL USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

Ablative of Means.

218. The Ablative is used to denote *means* or *instrument*; as, —

Alexander sagittā vulnerātus est, Alexander was wounded by an arrow.

There are the following special varieties of this Ablative: —

1. *Ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor*, and their compounds take the Ablative; as, —

dīvitīs ūtitur, he uses his wealth (lit. *he benefits himself by his wealth*);

vītā fruitur, he enjoys life (lit. *he enjoys himself by life*);

mūnere fungor, I perform my duty (lit. *I busy myself with duty*);

carne vescuntur, they eat flesh (lit. *feed themselves by means of*);

castrīs potītus est, he got possession of the camp (lit. *made himself powerful by the camp*).

“ *Potior* sometimes governs the Genitive. See § 212, 2.

2. With *opus est* (rarely *ūsus est*), *there is need*; as, —
duce nōbīs opus est, we need a leader.

a. A Neuter Pronoun or Adjective often stands as subject with *opus* as predicate. Thus: —

hōc mihi opus est, this is necessary for me.

b. An ordinary substantive rarely stands as subject. Thus *dux nōbīs opus est* is a rare form of expression.

c. Note the occasional use of a perfect passive participle with *opus est*; as, —

opus est properātō, there is need of haste.

3. With *nītor*, *innīxus*, and *frētus*; as, —

nītitur hastā, he rests on a spear (lit. *supports himself by a spear*);
frētus virtūte, relying on virtue (lit. *supported by virtue*).

4. With *continērī*, *cōnsistere*, *cōnstāre*, *consist of*; as, —

nervīs et ossibus continentur, they consist of sinews and bones (lit. *they are held together by sinews and bones*);
mortālī cōnsistit corpore mundus, the world consists of mortal substance (lit. *holds together by means of, etc.*).

6. In expressions of the following type: —

quid hōc homine faciās, what can you do with this man?

quid meā Tulliolā fiet, what will become of my dear Tullia? (lit. *what will be done with my dear Tullia?*)

7. In the following special phrases at variance with the ordinary English idiom: —

proeliō contendere, vincere, to contend, conquer in battle;

proeliō lacessere, to provoke to battle;

currū vehī, to ride in a chariot;

pedibus ire, to go on foot;

castrīs sē tenēre, to keep in camp.

8. With Verbs of *filling* and Adjectives of *plenty*; as, —

fossās virgultīs complērunt, they filled the trenches with brush.

a. But *plēnus* more commonly takes the Genitive. See § 204, 1.

9. Under 'Means' belongs also the Ablative of the Way by Which; as, —

vīnum Tiberī dēvectum, wine brought down (by) the Tiber.

10. The means may be a person as well as a thing. Thus:—

militibus ā lacū Lemannō ad montem Jūram mūrum perdūcit, with
(i.e. by means of) *his troops he runs a wall from Lake Geneva to Mt. Jura.*

Ablative of Cause.

219. The Ablative is used to denote *cause*; as, —

multa glōriæ cupiditatē fēcit, *he did many things on account of his love of glory.*

1. So especially with verbs denoting mental states; as, *dēlector*, *gāudeō*, *laetor*, *glōrior*, *fidō*, *cōnfidō*. Also with *contentus*; as, —

fortūnā amīcī gaudeō, *I rejoice at the fortune of my friend (i.e. on account of it)*;

victōriā suā glōriantur, *they exult over their victory*;

nātūrā locī cōnfidēbant, *they trusted in the character of their country (lit. were confident on account of the character).*

a. *fidō* and *cōnfidō* always take the Dative of the person (§ 187. II. a); sometimes the Dative of the thing.

2. As Ablatives of Cause are to be reckoned also such Ablatives as *jussū*, *by order of*, *injussū*, *without the order*, *rogātū*, etc.

Ablative of Manner.

220. The Ablative with *cum* is used to denote *manner*;

as, —

cum gravitatē loquitur, *he speaks with dignity.*

1. The preposition may be absent when the Ablative is modified by an adjective; as, —

magnā gravitatē loquitur, *he speaks with great dignity.*

2. The preposition is regularly absent in the expressions *jūre*, *injūriā*, *jocō*, *vī*, *fraude*, *voluntātē*, *fūrtō*, *silentiō*.

3. A special variety of the Ablative of Manner denotes that *in accordance with which* or *in pursuance of which* anything is or is done. It is generally used without a preposition. Thus:—

meā sententiā, *according to my opinion*;

suīs mōribus, *in accordance with their custom*;

suā sponte, *voluntarily, of his (their) own accord*;

eā condiciōne, *on these terms.*

Ablative of Attendant Circumstance.

221. The Ablative is often used to denote an *attendant circumstance* of an action or an event; as, —

bonis auspiciis, *under good auspices*;

nūlla est altercātiō clāmōribus umquam habita majōribus, *no debate was ever held under circumstances of greater applause*;

extinguitur ingentī lūctū prōvinciae, *he dies under circumstances of great grief on the part of the province*;

longō intervāllō sequitur, *he follows at a great distance*.

Ablative of Accompaniment.

222. The Ablative with *cum* is used with verbs of motion to denote *accompaniment*; as, —

cum comitibus profectus est, *he set out with his attendants*;

cum febrī domum rediit, *he returned home with a fever*.

1. In military expressions the Ablative may stand without *cum* when modified by any adjective except a numeral; as, —

omnibus cōpiis, ingentī exercitū, magnā manū; but usually *cum exercitū, cum duābus legiōnibus*.

Ablative of Association.

222 A. The Ablative is often used with verbs of *joining, mixing, clinging, exchanging*; also with *assuēscō, cōnsuēscō, assuēfaciō*, and some others to denote *association*; as, —

improbītās scelere jūcta, *badness joined with crime*;

āēr calōre admixtus, *air mixed with heat*;

assuētus labōre, *accustomed to (lit. familiarized with) toil*;

pācem bellō permūtant, *they change peace for (lit. with) war*.

Ablative of Degree of Difference.

223. The Ablative is used with comparatives and words involving comparison (as *post, ante, infrā, suprā*) to denote the *degree of difference*; as, —

dīmidīō minor, *smaller by a half*;

tribus pedibus altior, *three feet higher*;

pau¹ō post, *a little afterwards*;

quō plurā habēmus, eō cupimus ampliōra, *the more we have, the more we want*.

Ablative of Quality.

224. The Ablative, modified by an adjective, is used to denote *quality*; as, —

puella eximiā fōrmā, a girl of exceptional beauty;
vir singulārī industriā, a man of singular industry.

1. The Ablative of Quality may also be used predicatively; as, —
est magnā prūdentīā, he is (a man) of great wisdom;
bonō animō sunt, they are of good courage.
2. In place of the Adjective we sometimes find a limiting Genitive; as, —
sunt speciēs et colōre taurī, they are of the appearance and color of a bull.
3. In poetry the Ablative of Quality sometimes denotes *material*; as, —
scopulis pendentibus antrum, a cave of arching rocks.

Ablative of Price.

225. With verbs of *buying* and *selling*, price is designated by the Ablative; as —

servum quīnque minīs ēmit, he bought the slave for five minae.

1. The Ablatives *magnō, plūrimō, parvō, minimō* (by omission of *pretiō*) are used to denote *indefinite price*; as, —

aedēs magnō vēdidit, he sold the house for a high price.

2. For the Genitive of Indefinite Price, see § 203. 4.

Ablative of Specification.

226. The Ablative of Specification is used to denote that *in respect to which* something is or is done; as, —

Helvētiī omnibus Gallīs virtūte praestābant, the Helvetians surpassed all the Gauls in valor;

pede claudus, lame in his foot.

1. Note the phrases: —

major nātū, older (lit. greater as to age);

minor nātū, younger.

2. Here belongs the use of the Ablative with *dignus, worthy, indignus, unworthy, and dignor, deem worthy of*; as, —

dignī honōre, worthy of honor (i.e. in point of honor);

fidē indignī, unworthy of confidence;

mē dignor honōre, I deem myself worthy of honor.

Ablative Absolute.

227. The Ablative Absolute is grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence. In its commonest form it consists of a noun or pronoun limited by a participle; as, —

urbe captā, Aenēās fūgit, when the city had been captured, Aeneas fled (lit. *the city having been captured*).

1. Instead of a participle we often find an adjective or noun; as, —
vivō Caesare rēs publica salva erat, while Caesar was alive the state was safe (lit. *Caesar being alive*);

Tarquinio rēge, Pythagoras in Italiam venit, in the reign of Tarquin Pythagoras came into Italy (lit. *Tarquin being king*);

Cn. Pompejō, M. Crassō cōsulibus, in the consulship of Gnaeus Pompey and Marcus Crassus (lit. *P. and C. being consuls*).

2. The Ablative Absolute is generally used in Latin where in English we employ subordinate clauses. Thus the Ablative Absolute may correspond to a clause denoting —

a) Time, as in the foregoing examples.

b) Condition; as, —

omnēs virtūtēs jacent, voluptāte dominante, all virtues lie prostrate, if pleasure is master.

c) Opposition; as, —

perditis omnibus rēbus, virtūs sē sustentāre potest, though everything else is lost, yet Virtue can maintain herself.

d) Cause; as, —

nūllō adversante rēgnum obtinuit, since no one opposed him, he secured the throne.

e) Attendant circumstance; as, —

passis palmis pacem petiverunt, with hands outstretched, they sued for peace.

3. An Infinitive or clause sometimes occurs in the Ablative Absolute construction, especially in Livy and later writers; as, —

audītō eum fūgisse, when it was heard that he had fled.

4. A noun or pronoun stands in the Ablative Absolute construction only when it denotes a different person or thing from any in the clause in which it stands. Exceptions to this principle are extremely rare.

LOCATIVE USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

Ablative of Place.

A. Place where.

228. The place where is regularly denoted by the *Ablative with a preposition*; as, —

in urbe habitat, he dwells in the city.

1. But certain words stand in the Ablative without a preposition; *viz.* —

- a) Names of towns, — except Singulars of the First and Second Declensions (see § 232. 1); as, —

Carthāginī, at Carthage;

Athēnīs, at Athens;

Vejīs, at Veii.

- b) The general words **locō**, **locīs**, **parte**; also many words modified by **tōtus** or even by other Adjectives; as, —

hōc locō, at this place;

tōtīs castrīs, in the whole camp.

- c) The special words: **forīs**, out of doors; **rūrī**, in the country; **terrā marīque**, on land and sea.

- d) The poets freely omit the preposition with any word denoting place; as, —

stant lītore puppēs, the sterns rest on the beach.

B. Place from which.¹

229. Place from which is regularly denoted by the *Ablative with a preposition*; as, —

ab Italiā profectus est, he set out from Italy;

ex urbe rediit, he returned from the city.

1. But certain words stand in the Ablative without a preposition; *viz.* —

- a) Names of towns and small islands; as, —

Rōmā profectus est, he set out from Rome;

Rhodō revertit, he returned from Rhodes.

¹ Place from which, though strictly a Genuine Ablative use, is treated here for sake of convenience.

b) *domō*, from home; *rūre*, from the country.

c) Freely in poetry; as, —

Italiā dēcessit, he withdrew from Italy.

2. With names of towns, *ab* is used to mean *from the vicinity of*, or to denote the point *whence distance is measured*; as, —

ā Gergoviā discessit, he withdrew from the vicinity of Gergovia;

ā Rōmā X mīlia aberat, he was ten miles distant from Rome.

Urbe and *oppidō*, when standing in apposition with a town name, are accompanied by a preposition; as, —

Curibus ex oppidō Sabīnōrum, from Cures, a town of the Sabines.

Ablative of Time.

A. Time at which.

230. The Ablative is used to denote the time *at which*; as, —

quārtā hōrā mortuus est, he died at the fourth hour;

annō septuāgēsīmō cōsul creātus, elected consul in his seventieth year.

1. Any word denoting a period of time may stand in this construction, particularly *annus*, *vēr*, *aestās*, *hiems*, *diēs*, *nox*, *hōra*, *comitia* (*Election Day*), *lūdī* (*the Games*), etc.

2. Words not denoting time require the preposition *in*, unless accompanied by a modifier. Thus: —

in pāce, in peace; *in bellō*, in war;

but *secundō bellō Pūnicō*, in the second Punic War.

3. Expressions like *in eō tempore*, *in summā senectūte*, take the preposition because they denote *situation* rather than *time*.

B. Time within which.

231. Time *within which* is denoted by the Ablative either *with* or *without a preposition*; as, —

stella Sātūrnī trīgintā annīs cursum cōnficit, the planet Saturn completes its orbit within thirty years;

ter in annō, thrice in the course of the year.

1. Occasionally the Ablative denotes *duration of time*; as, —

bienniō prōsperās rēs habuit, for two years he had a prosperous administration.

THE LOCATIVE.

232. The Locative case occurs chiefly in the following words:—

1. Regularly in the Singular of names of towns and small islands of the first and second declensions, to denote the place *in which*; as,—

Rōmae, at Rome; **Corinthī**, at Corinth;
Rhodī, at Rhodes.

2. In the following special forms:—

domī, at home; **humī**, on the ground;
bellī, in war; **mīlitiæ**, in war;
vesperī, at evening; **herī**, yesterday.

3. Note the phrase **pendēre animī**, lit. *to be in suspense in one's mind*.

4. For **urbs** and **oppidum** in apposition with a Locative, see § 169. 4.

CHAPTER III. — *Syntax of Adjectives.*

233. 1. The word with which an Adjective agrees is called its Subject.

2. **Attributive and Predicate Adjectives.** An Attributive Adjective is one that limits its subject directly; as,—

vir sapiēns, a wise man.

A Predicate Adjective is one that limits its subject through the medium of a verb (usually **esse**); as,—

vir est sapiēns, the man is wise;
vir vidēbātur sapiēns, the man seemed wise;
vir jūdicātus est sapiēns, the man was judged wise;
hunc virum sapientem jūdicāvimus, we adjudged this man wise.

3. Participles and Adjective Pronouns have the construction of Adjectives.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES.

234. Agreement with One Noun. When an Adjective limits one noun it agrees with it in Gender, Number, and Case.

1. Two Adjectives in the Singular may limit a noun in the Plural; as, *prīma et vicēsima legiōnēs, the first and twentieth legions.*

2. A Predicate Adjective may stand in the Neuter when its Subject is Masculine or Feminine and denotes a thing; as, —

omnium rērum mors est extrēmum, death is the end of all things.

235. Agreement with Two or More Nouns.

A. AGREEMENT AS TO NUMBER.

1. When the Adjective is Attributive, it regularly agrees in number with the nearest noun; as, —

pater tuus et māter, your father and mother;
eadem alacritās et studium, the same eagerness and zeal.

2. When the Adjective is Predicative, it is regularly Plural; as, —

pāx et concordia sunt pulchrae, peace and concord are glorious.

B. AGREEMENT AS TO GENDER.

1. When the Adjective is Attributive, it regularly agrees in gender with the nearest noun; as, —

rēs operae multae ac labōris, a matter of much effort and labor.

2. When the Adjective is Predicative —

a) If the nouns are of the same gender, the Adjective agrees with them in gender; as, —

pater et filius capti sunt, father and son were captured.

Yet with feminine abstract nouns, the Adjective is more frequently Neuter; as, —

stultitia et timiditās fugienda sunt, folly and cowardice must be shunned.

b) If the nouns are of different gender; then, —

a) In case they denote persons, the Adjective is Masculine; as, —

pater et mäter mortuī sunt, *the father and mother have died.*

β) In case they denote things, the Adjective is Neuter; as, —

honōrēs et victōriae fortuīta sunt, *honors and victories are accidental.*

γ) In case they include both persons and things, the Adjective is, —

aa) Sometimes Masculine; as, —

domus, uxor, liberī inventī sunt, *home, wife, and children are secured.*

ββ) Sometimes Neuter; as, —

parentēs, liberōs, domōs vīlia habēre, *to hold parents, children, houses cheap.*

γγ) Sometimes it agrees with the nearest noun; as, —

populī prōvinciaeque liberātae sunt, *nations and provinces were liberated.*

c) Construction according to Sense. Sometimes an Adjective does not agree with a noun according to strict grammatical form, but according to sense; as, —

pars bēstiīs objectī sunt, *part (of the men) were thrown to beasts.*

ADJECTIVES USED SUBSTANTIVELY.

236. I. PLURAL ADJECTIVES USED SUBSTANTIVELY.

Adjectives are quite freely used as Substantives in the Plural. The Masculine denotes persons; the Neuter denotes things; as, —

doctī, *scholars;*

malī, *the wicked;*

Graecī, *the Greeks;*

parva, *small things;*

magna, *great things;*

ūtilia, *useful things;*

nostrī, *our men.*

2. Neuter Plural Adjectives thus used are confined mainly to the Nominative and Accusative cases. Such forms as **magnōrum**, **omnium**; **magnīs**, **omnibus**, would ordinarily lead to ambiguity; yet where there is no ambiguity, they sometimes occur; as,—

parvīs compōnere magna, to compare great things with small.

Otherwise the Latin says: **magnārum rērum**, **magnīs rēbus**, etc.

237. SINGULAR ADJECTIVES USED SUBSTANTIVELY. Adjectives are less freely used as Substantives in the Singular than in the Plural.

1. Masculine Adjectives occur only occasionally in this use; as,—
probus invidet nēminī, the honest man envies nobody.

a. Usually **vir**, **homō**, or some similar word is employed; as,—

homō doctus, a scholar;

vir Rōmānus, a Roman.

b. But when limited by a pronoun any adjective may be so used; as,—

hīc doctus, this scholar;

doctus quīdam, a certain scholar.

2. Neuters are likewise infrequent; as,—

vērūm, truth;

jūstum, justice;

honestūm, virtue.

a. This substantive use of Neuter Singulars is commonest in the construction of the Genitive of the Whole, and after Prepositions; as,—

aliquid vērī, something true;

nihil novī, nothing new;

in mediō, in the midst.

238. From Adjectives which, like the above, occasionally admit the substantive use, must be carefully distinguished certain others which have become nouns; as,—

adversārius, opponent;

aequālis, contemporary;

amicus, friend;

cognātus, kin.sman;

hīberna, winter quarters;

propinquus, relative;

socius, partner;

sodālis, comrade;

vīcīnus, neighbor; etc.

ADJECTIVES WITH THE FORCE OF ADVERBS.

239. The Latin often uses an Adjective where the English idiom employs an Adverb or an adverbial phrase; as, —
senātus frequēns convēnit, the senate assembled in great numbers;
fuit assiduus mēcum, he was constantly with me.

COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES.

240. 1. The Comparative often corresponds to the English Positive with 'rather,' 'somewhat,' 'too'; as, —

senectūs est loquācior, old age is rather talkative.

2. So the Superlative often corresponds to the Positive with 'very'; as, —

vir fortissimus, a very brave man.

3. **Strengthening Words.** *Vel* and *quam* are often used with the Superlative as strengthening particles, *vel* with the force of 'very,' and *quam* with the force of 'as possible'; as, —

vel maximus, the very greatest;

quam maximae cōpiae, as great forces as possible.

4. Phrases of the type 'more rich than brave' regularly take the Comparative in both members; as, —

exercitus erat ditior quam fortior, the army was more rich than brave.

OTHER PECULIARITIES.

241. 1. Certain Adjectives may be used to denote a part of an object, chiefly *prīmus*, *extrēmus*, *summus*, *medius*, *īnfirmus*, *īmus*; as, —

summus mōns, the top of the mountain;

extrēmā hieme, in the last part of the winter.

2. *Prior*, *prīmus*, *ultimus*, and *postrēmus* are frequently equivalent to a relative clause; as, —

prīmus eam vīdī, I was the first who saw her;

ultimus dēcessit, he was the last who withdrew.

3. When *multus* and another adjective both limit the same noun, *et* is generally used; as, —

multae et magnae oōgitātiōnēs, many (and) great thoughts.

CHAPTER IV. — *Syntax of Pronouns.*

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

242. 1. The Personal Pronouns as subjects of verbs are, as a rule, not expressed except for the purpose of *emphasis, contrast, or clearness*. Thus ordinarily:—

videō, I see ; amat, he loves.

But **ego tē videō, et tū mē vidēs, I see you, and you see me.**

2. The Genitives **meī, tuī, nostrī, vestrī** are used only as Objective Genitives; **nostrum** and **vestrum** as Genitives of the Whole. Thus:—

**memor tuī, mindful of you ;
dēsīderium vestrī, longing for you ;
nēmō vestrum, no one of you.**

a. But **nostrum** and **vestrum** are regularly used in the place of the Possessive in the phrases **omnium nostrum, omnium vestrum**.

3. The First Plural is often used for the First Singular of Pronouns and Verbs. Compare the Eng. editorial 'we.'

4. When two Verbs govern the same object, the Latin does not use a pronoun with the second, as is the rule in English. Thus:—
**virtūs amīcitiās conciliat et cōservat, virtue establishes friend-
ships and maintains them (not eās cōservat).**

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

243. 1. The Possessive Pronouns, as a rule, are not employed except for the purpose of *clearness*. Thus:—

**patrem amō, I love my father ;
dē filiī morte flēbās, you wept for the death of your son.**

But—

dē morte filiī meī flēbās, you wept for the death of my son.

a. When expressed merely for the sake of clearness, the possessive usually stands after its noun; but in order to indicate emphasis or contrast, it precedes; as,—

**suā manū liberōs occīdit, with his own hand he slew his
children ;**

meā quidem sentiētiā, in my opinion at least.

2. Sometimes the Possessive Pronouns are used with the force of an Objective Genitive; as, —

metus vester, fear of you;
dēsīderium tuum, longing for you.

3. For special emphasis, the Latin employs *ipsīus* or *ipsōrum*, in apposition with the Genitive idea implied in the Possessive; as, —

meā ipsīus operā, by my own help;
nostrā ipsōrum operā, by our own help;

a. So sometimes other Genitives; as, —

meā ūnīus operā, by the assistance of me alone.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

244. I. The Reflexive Pronoun *sē* and the Possessive Reflexive *suus* have a double use: —

I. They may refer to the subject of the clause (either principal or subordinate) in which they stand, — ‘Direct Reflexives’; as, —

sē amant, they love themselves;
suōs amīcōs adjuvāt, he helps his own friends;
eum ōrāvī, ut sē servāret, I besought him to save himself.

II. They may stand in a subordinate clause and refer to the subject of the principal clause, — ‘Indirect Reflexives’; as, —

mē ōrāvit ut sē dēfenderem, he besought me to defend him (lit. that I defend himself);
mē ōrāvērunt, ut fortunārum suārum dēfēnsiōnem susciperem, they besought me to undertake the defense of their fortunes.

a. The Indirect Reflexive is mainly restricted to those clauses which express the thought, not of the author, but of the subject of the principal clause.

2. The Genitive *suī* is regularly employed, like *meī* and *tuī*, as an Objective Genitive, e.g. *oblītus suī, forgetful of himself*; but it occasionally occurs — particularly in post-Augustan writers — in place of the Possessive *suus*; as, *fruitur fāmā suī, he enjoys his own fame.*

3. *Sē* and *suus* are sometimes used in the sense, *one's self, one's own*, where the reference is not to any particular person; as, —

sē amāre, to love one's self;
suum genium propitiāre, to propitiate one's own genius.

4. **Suus** sometimes occurs in the meaning *his own, their own, etc.*, referring not to the subject but to an oblique case; as, —

Hannibalem suī cīvēs ē cīvitāte ējēcērunt, *his own fellow-citizens drove out Hannibal.*

a. This usage is particularly frequent in combination with **quisque**; as, —

suus quemque error vexat, *his own error troubles each.*

5. The Reflexives for the first and second persons are supplied by the oblique cases of **ego** and **tū** (§ 85); as, —

vōs dēfenditis, *you defend yourselves.*

RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS.

245. 1. The Latin has no special reciprocal pronoun ('each other'), but expresses the reciprocal notion by the phrases: **inter nōs**, **inter vōs**, **inter sē**; as, —

Belgae obsidēs inter sē dedērunt, *the Belgae gave each other hostages* (lit. *among themselves*);

amāmus inter nōs, *we love each other*;

Gallī inter sē cohortātī sunt, *the Gauls exhorted each other.*

a. Note that the Object is not expressed in sentences of this type.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

Hīc, Ille, Iste.

246. 1. Where **hīc** and **ille** are used in contrast, **hīc** usually refers to the latter of two objects, and **ille** to the former.

2. **Hīc** and **ille** are often used in the sense of 'the following'; as, —
Themistoclēs hīs verbīs epistolam mīsit, *Themistocles sent a letter* (couched) *in the following words*;

illud intellegō, omnium ōra in mē conversa esse, *I understand this, that the faces of all are turned toward me.*

3. **Ille** often means *the famous*; as, **Solōn ille**, *the famous Solon.*

4. **Iste** frequently involves contempt; as, **iste homō**, *that fellow!*

5. The above pronouns, along with **is**, are usually attracted to the gender of a predicate noun; as, **hīc est honor, meminisse officium suum**, *this is an honor, to be mindful of one's duty.*

Is.

247. 1. **Is** often serves as the antecedent of the relative **quī**. Thus: —

Maximum, eum quī Tarentum recēpit, dilēxī, I loved Maximus, the man who retook Tarentum.

a. Closely akin to this usage is **is** in the sense of *such* (= *tālis*); as, —

nōn sum is quī terrear, I am not such a person as to be frightened.

b. Note the phrase **id quod**, where **id** stands in apposition with an entire clause; as, —

nōn suspicābātur (id quod nunc sentiet) satis multōs testēs nōbīs reliquōs esse, he did not suspect (a thing which he will now perceive) that we had witnesses enough left.

Yet **quod** alone, without preceding **id**, sometimes occurs in this use.

2. **Is** also in all cases serves as the personal pronoun of the third person, 'he,' 'she,' 'it,' 'they,' 'them.'

3. When the English uses 'that of,' 'those of,' to avoid repetition of the noun, the Latin omits the pronoun; as, —

in exercitū Sullae et postea in Crassī fuerat, he had been in the army of Sulla and afterward in that of Crassus;
nūllae mē fābulae dēlectant nisi Plautī, no plays delight me except those of Plautus.

4. Note the phrases **et is, et ea, etc.**, in the sense: *and that too*; as, —
vincula, et ea sempiterna, imprisonment, and that too permanently.

Idem.

248. 1. **Idem** in apposition with the subject or object often has the force of *also, likewise*; as, —

quod idem mihi contigit, which likewise happened to me (lit. which, the same thing);

bonus vir, quem eundem sapientem appellāmus, a good man, whom we call also wise.

For **idem atque (ac)**, *the same as*, see § 341. 1. c.

Ipse.

249. 1. **Ipse**, literally *self*, acquires its special force from the context; as, —

eō ipsō diē, on that very day;

ad ipsam rīpam, close to the bank;

ipsō terrōre, by mere fright;

valvae sē ipsae aperuērunt, the doors opened of their own accord;

ipse aderat, he was present in person.

2. The reflexive pronouns are often emphasized by the addition of **ipse**, but **ipse** in such cases, instead of standing in apposition with the reflexive, more commonly agrees with the subject; as, —

sēcum ipsī loquuntur, they talk with themselves;

sē ipse continēre nōn potest, he cannot contain himself.

3. **Ipse** is also used as an Indirect Reflexive for the purpose of marking a contrast or avoiding an ambiguity; as, —

Persae pertimuērunt nē Alcibiadēs ab ipsīs dēscisceret et cum suis in grātiā redīret, the Persians feared that Alcibiades would break with them and become reconciled with his countrymen.

ea molestissimē ferre dēbent hominēs quae ipsōrum culpā contrācta sunt, men ought to chafe most over those things which have been brought about by their own fault (as opposed to the fault of others).

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

250. **Agreement.** 1. The Relative Pronoun agrees with its antecedent in Gender, Number, and Person, but its case is determined by its construction in the clause in which it stands; as, —

mulier quam vidēbāmus, the woman whom we saw;

bona quibus fruimur, the blessings which we enjoy.

2. Where the antecedent is compound, the same principles for number and gender prevail as in case of predicate adjectives under similar conditions (see § 235. B. 2). Thus: —

pater et filius, qui captī sunt, the father and son who were captured;
stultitia et timiditās quae fugiēda sunt, folly and cowardice which must be shunned;

honōrēs et victōriae quae sunt fortuīta, honors and victories, which are accidental.

3. The Relative regularly agrees with a predicate noun (either Nominative or Accusative) instead of its antecedent ; as,—

carcer, quae lautumiae vocantur, the prison, which is called Lautumiae ;

Belgae, quae est tertia pars, the Belgians, who are the third part.

4. Sometimes the Relative takes its gender and number from the meaning of its antecedent ; as,—

pars quī bēstiīs objectī sunt, a part (of the men) who were thrown to beasts.

5. Occasionally the Relative is attracted into the case of its antecedent ; as,—

nātus eō patre quō dīxī, born of the father that I said.

251. Antecedent. 1. The antecedent of the Relative is sometimes omitted ; as,—

quī nātūram sequitur sapiēns est, he who follows Nature is wise.

2. The antecedent may be implied in a possessive pronoun (or rarely an adjective) ; as,—

**nostra quī remānsimus caedēs, the slaughter of us who remained ;
servīlī tumultū, quōs ūsus ac disciplīna sublevārunt, at the up-
rising of the slaves, whom experience and discipline assisted
(servīlī = servōrum).**

3. Sometimes the antecedent is repeated with the Relative ; as,—
**erant itinera duo, quibus itineribus, there were two routes, by which
(routes).**

4. **Incorporation of Antecedent in Relative Clause.** The antecedent is often incorporated in the relative clause. Thus :—

a) When the relative clause stands first ; as,—

**quam quisque nōvit artem, in hāc sē exerceat, let each
one practice the branch which he knows.**

b) When the antecedent is an appositive ; as,—

**nōn longē ā Tolōsātium fīnibus absunt, quae civitās
est in prōvinciā, they are not far from the borders of
the Tolosates, a state which is in our province.**

c) When the logical antecedent is a superlative ; as,—

**Themistoclē dē servīs suīs, quem habuit fidēlissimum
mīsīt, Themistocles sent the most trusty slave he had.**

d) In expressions of the following type —

quā es prūdentīā; quae tua est prūdentia, *such is your prudence (lit. of which prudence you are; which is your prudence).*

5. The Relative is never omitted in Latin as it is in English. Thus *the boy I saw* must be **puer quem vidī**.

6. The Relative is used freely in Latin, particularly at the beginning of a sentence, where in English we employ a demonstrative; as, —

quō factum est, *by this it happened;*

quae cum ita sint, *since this is so;*

quibus rēbus cognitīs, *when these things became known.*

7. The Relative introducing a subordinate clause may belong grammatically to a clause which is subordinate to the one it introduces; as, —

numquam dignē satis laudārī philosophīa poterit, cui quī pāreat, omne tempus aetātis sine molestiā possit dēgere, *philosophy can never be praised enough, since he who obeys her can pass every period of life without annoyance (lit. he who obeys which, etc.).*

Here **cui** introduces the subordinate clause **possit** and connects it with **philosophia**; but **cui** is governed by **pāreat**, which is subordinate to **possit**.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

252. 1. **Quis**, *any one*, is the weakest of the Indefinites, and stands usually in combination with **sī, nisi, nē, num**; as, —

sī quis putat, *if any one thinks.*

2. **Aliquis** (adj. **aliquī**) is more definite than **quis**, and corresponds usually to the English *some one, somebody, some*; as, —

nunc aliquis dīcat mihi, *now let somebody tell me;*

utinam modo agātur aliquid, *oh that something may be done.*

3. **Quīdam**, *a certain one*, is still more definite than **aliquis**; as, —
homō quīdam, *a certain man (i.e. one whom I have in mind).*

a. **Quīdam** (with or without **quasi**, *as if*) is sometimes used in the sense: *a sort of, kind of*; as, —

cognātiō quaedam, *a sort of relationship;*

mors est quasi quaedam migrātiō, *death is a kind of transfer, as it were.*

4. **Quisquam**, *any one, any one whoever* (more general than **quis**), and its corresponding adjective **ūllus**, *any*, occur mostly in negative and conditional sentences, in interrogative sentences implying a negative, and in clauses of comparison; as,—

jūstitia numquam nocet cuiquam, *justice never harms anybody*;
sī quisquam, Catō sapiēns fuit, *if anybody was ever wise, Cato was*;
potestne quisquam sine perturbātiōne animī irāscī, *can anybody be angry without excitement?*
sī ūllō modō poterit, *if it can be done in any way*;
taetrior hīc tyrannus fuit quam quisquam superiōrum, *he was a viler tyrant than any of his predecessors.*

5. **Quisque**, *each one*, is used especially under the following circumstances:—

a) In connection with **suus**. See § 244. 4. a.

b) In connection with a Relative or Interrogative Pronoun; as,—

quod cuique obigit, id teneat, *what falls to each, that let him hold.*

c) In connection with superlatives; as,—

optimus quisque, *all the best* (lit. *each best one*).

d) With ordinal numerals; as,—

quīntō quōque annō, *every four years* (lit. *each fifth year*).

6. **Nēmō**, *no one*, in addition to its other uses, stands regularly with adjectives used substantively; as,—

nēmō mortālis, *no mortal*;

nēmō Rōmānus, *no Roman*.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

253. I. **Alius**, *another*, and **alter**, *the other*, are often used correlatively; as,—

aliud loquitur, aliud sentit, *he says one thing, he thinks another*;

aliī resistunt, aliī fugiunt, *some resist, others flee*;

alter exercitum perdidit, alter vēdidit, *one ruined the army, the other sold it*;

alterī sē in montem recēpērunt, alterī ad impedīmenta sē contulērunt, *the one party retreated to the mountain, the others betook themselves to the baggage.*

2. Where the English says *one does one thing, another another*, the Latin uses a more condensed form of statement ; as, —

*alius aliud amat, one likes one thing, another another ;
aliud aliīs placet, one thing pleases some, another others.*

a. So sometimes with adverbs ; as, —

aliī aliō fugiunt, some flee in one direction, others in another.

3. The Latin also expresses the notion ‘each other’ by means of *alius* repeated ; as, —

Gallī alius alium cohortātī sunt, the Gauls encouraged each other.

4. *Cēterī* means *the rest, all the others* ; as, —

cēterīs praestāre, to be superior to all the others.

5. *Reliquī* means *the others* in the sense of *the rest, those remaining*, — hence is the regular word with numerals ; as, —

reliquī sex, the six others.

6. *Nescio quis* forms a compound indefinite pronoun with the force of *some one or other* ; as, —

*causidicus nescio quis, some pettifogger or other ;
mīsit nescio quem, he sent some one or other ;
nescio quō pactō, somehow or other.*



CHAPTER V. — *Syntax of Verbs.*

AGREEMENT.

With One Subject.

254. I. Agreement in Number and Person. A Finite Verb agrees with its subject in Number and Person ; as, —

*vōs vidētis, you see ;
pater filiōs Instituit, the father trains his sons.*

2. Agreement in Gender. In the compound forms of the verb the participle regularly agrees with its subject in gender ; as, —

sēditiō repressa est, the mutiny was checked.

3. But when a predicate noun is of different gender or number from its subject, the verb usually agrees with its nearest substantive; as, —

Tarquiniī māterna patria erat, *Tarquinius was his native country on his mother's side*;

nōn omnis error stultitia est dīcenda, *not every error is to be called folly*.

a. Less frequently the verb agrees with an appositive; as, —

Corioli, oppidum Volscōrum, captum est, *Corioli, a town of the Volsci, was captured*.

4. **Construction according to Sense.** Sometimes the verb agrees with its subject according to sense instead of strict grammatical form. Thus: —

a) In Number; as, —

multitūdō hominum convēnerant, *a crowd of men had gathered*.

b) In Gender; as, —

duo mīlia crucibus adfixī sunt, *two thousand (men) were crucified*.

With Two or More Subjects.

255. I. **Agreement in Number.** With two or more subjects the verb is regularly plural; as, —

pater et filius mortuī sunt, *the father and son died*.

2. But sometimes the verb agrees with the nearest subject; viz., —

a) When the verb precedes both subjects or stands between them; as, —

mortuus est pater et filius;
pater mortuus est et filius.

b) When the subjects are connected by **aut**; **aut . . . aut**; **vel . . . vel**; **neque . . . neque**; as, —

neque pater neque filius mortuus est, *neither father nor son died*.

3. When the different subjects are felt together as constituting a whole, the singular is used; as, —

temeritās ignōrātiōque vitiōsa est, *rashness and ignorance are bad*.

a. This is regularly the case in **senātus populusque Rōmānus**.

4. **Agreement in Person.** With compound subjects of different persons the verb always takes the *first* person rather than the *second*, and the *second* rather than the *third*; as, —

sī tū et Tullia valētis, ego et Cicerō valēmus, if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well.

5. **Agreement in Gender.** With subjects of different genders the participle in the compound tenses follows the same principles as laid down for predicate adjectives. See § 235, *B*, 2.

VOICES.

256. 1. The Passive Voice sometimes retains traces of its original middle or reflexive meaning; as, —

ego nōn patiar eum dēfendī, I shall not allow him to defend himself.

2. In imitation of Greek usage many perfect passive participles are used by the poets as indirect middles, *i.e.* the subject is viewed as acting not upon itself, but as doing something *in his own interest*; as, —

vēlātus tempora, having veiled his temples.

a. Occasionally finite forms of the verb are thus used; as, —
tunicā indūcitur artūs, he covers his limbs with a tunic.

3. Intransitive Verbs may be used impersonally in the passive; as, —

curritur, people run (lit. it is run);

ventum est, he (they, etc.) came (lit. it was come).

TENSES.

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE.

257. 1. The Latin tenses express two distinct notions: —

a) The *period of time* to which the action belongs: Present, Past, or Future.

b) The *kind of action*: Undefined, Going on, or Completed.

The Latin with its six tenses is able to express each of the three kinds of action for each of the three periods of time (making practically

nine tenses). It does this by employing certain tenses in more than one way, as may be seen by the following table:—

PERIOD OF TIME.

		PERIOD OF TIME.		
		PRESENT.	PAST.	FUTURE.
KIND OF ACTION.	UNDEFINED.	Present: scribō , <i>I write.</i>	Historical Perfect: scripsī , <i>I wrote.</i>	Future: scribam , <i>I shall write.</i>
	GOING ON.	Present: scribō , <i>I am writing.</i>	Imperfect: scribēbam , <i>I was writing.</i>	Future: scribam , <i>I shall be writing.</i>
	COMPLETED.	Present Perfect: scripsī , <i>I have written.</i>	Pluperfect: scripseram , <i>I had written.</i>	Future Perfect: scripserō , <i>I shall have written.</i>

2. It will be seen that the Present may express Undefined action or action Going on; so also the Future. The Perfect likewise has a double use, according as it denotes action Completed in present time (Present Perfect) or Undefined action belonging to past time (Historical Perfect).

Principal and Historical Tenses.

258. Tenses which denote Present or Future time are called **Principal** (or Primary) Tenses; those which denote Past time are called **Historical** (or Secondary).

The Principal Tenses of the Indicative are: Present, Future, Present Perfect, Future Perfect.

The Historical Tenses are: Imperfect, Historical Perfect, Pluperfect.

Present Indicative.

259. Besides the two uses indicated in the table, the Present Indicative presents the following peculiarities:—

It is used to denote a *general truth*, i.e. something true not merely in the present but at all times ('Gnomic Present'); as,—

virtūs conciliat amicitias et cōservat, virtue establishes ties of friendship and maintains them (i.e. always does so).

2. It is used of an attempted action ('Conative Present'); as, —
cum vītant vitia, in contrāria currunt, *while they try to avoid (vītant) vices, they rush into opposite ones.*

3. In lively narration the Present is often used of a past action ('Historical Present'); as, —

Caesar imperat magnum numerum obsidum, *Caesar demanded a large number of hostages (lit. demands).*

4. In combination with **jam**, **jam diū**, **jam pridem**, and similar words, the Present is frequently used of an action originating in the past and continuing in the present; as, —

jam pridem cupiō tē visere, *I have long been desiring to visit you (i.e. I desire and have long desired).*

Imperfect Indicative.

260. 1. The Imperfect primarily denotes action *going on in past time*; as, —

librum legēbam, *I was reading a book.*

a. This force makes the Imperfect especially adapted to serve as the tense of *description* (as opposed to mere *narration*).

2. From the notion of action *going on*, there easily develops the notion of *repeated* or *customary* action; as, —

lēgātōs interrogābat, *he kept asking the envoys*;

C. Duīlium vidēbam puer, *as a boy I often used to see Gaius Duilius.*

3. The Imperfect often denotes an attempted action ('Conative Imperfect') or an action as beginning ('Inceptive Imperfect'); as, —

hostēs nostrōs intrā mūnitiōnēs prōgredi prohibēbant, *the enemy tried to prevent (prohibēbant) our men from advancing within the fortifications ('Conative');*

ad proelium sē expediēbant, *they were beginning to get ready for battle ('Inceptive').*

4. The Imperfect, with **jam**, **jam diū**, **jam dūdum**, etc., is sometimes used of an action which had been continuing some time; as, —

domicilium Rōmae multōs jam annōs habēbat, *he had had his residence at Rome for many years (i.e. he had it at this time and had long had it).*

Future Indicative.

261. 1. The Latin is much more exact in the use of the Future than is the English. We say: '*If he comes, I shall be glad,*' where we really mean: '*If he shall come,*' etc. In such cases the Latin rarely admits the Present, but generally employs the Future.

2. Sometimes the Future has Imperative force; as, *dīcēs, say!*

Perfect Indicative.

262. A. PRESENT PERFECT. Several Present Perfects denote the state resulting from a completed act, and so seem equivalent to the Present; as, —

nōvī, cognōvī, I know (lit. *I have become acquainted with*);

cōnsuēvī, I am wont (lit. *I have become accustomed*).

B. HISTORICAL PERFECT. The Historical Perfect is the tense of narration (as opposed to the Imperfect, the tense of description); as, —

Rēgulus in senātum vēnit, mandāta exposuit, reddī captīvōs negāvit esse ūtile, Regulus came into the Senate, set forth his commission, said it was useless for captives to be returned.

1. Occasionally the Historical Perfect is used of a general truth ('Gnomic Perfect').

Pluperfect Indicative.

263. The Latin Pluperfect, like the English Past Perfect, denotes an act completed in the past; as, —

Caesar Rhēnum trānsire dēcrēverat, sed nāvēs deerant, Caesar had decided to cross the Rhine, but had no boats.

a. In those verbs whose Perfect has Present force (§ 262, A), the Pluperfect has the force of an Imperfect; as, —

nōveram, I knew.

Future Perfect Indicative.

264. The Future Perfect denotes an action completed in future time. Thus: —

scrībam epistolam, cum redieris, I will write the letter when you have returned (lit. *when you shall have returned*).

a. The Latin is much more exact in the use of the Future Perfect than the English, which commonly employs the Present Perfect instead of the Future Perfect.

b. In those verbs whose Perfect has Present force (§ 262, A) the Future Perfect has the force of a Future; as, —

nōverō, I shall know.

Epistolary Tenses.

265. In letters the writer often uses tenses which are not appropriate at the time of writing, but which will be so at the time when his letter is received; he thus employs the Imperfect and the Perfect for the Present, and the Pluperfect for the Present Perfect; as,—

nihil habēbam quod scriberem, neque enim novī quidquam audieram et ad tuās omnēs epistulās jam rescripseram,
I have nothing to write, for I have heard no news and have already answered all your letters.

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

266. A. In Independent Sentences. See §§ 272–280.

B. In Dependent Sentences. In dependent sentences the tenses of the subjunctive usually conform to the so-called

Sequence of Tenses.

267. 1. In the Subjunctive the Present and Perfect are Principal tenses, the Imperfect and Pluperfect, Historical.

2. By the Sequence of Tenses Principal tenses are followed by Principal, Historical by Historical. Thus:—

PRINCIPAL SEQUENCE,—

videō quid faciās, I see what you are doing.

vidēbō quid faciās, I shall see what you are doing.

vīderō quid faciās, I shall have seen what you are doing.

videō quid fēcerīs, I see what you have done.

vidēbō quid fēcerīs, I shall see what you have done.

vīderō quid fēcerīs, I shall have seen what you have done.

HISTORICAL SEQUENCE,—

vidēbam quid facerēs, I saw what you were doing.

vīdī quid facerēs, I saw what you were doing.

vīderam quid facerēs, I had seen what you were doing.

vidēbam quid fēcissēs, I saw what you had done.

vīdī quid fēcissēs, I saw what you had done.

vīderam quid fēcissēs, I had seen what you had done.

3. The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive denote incomplete action, the Perfect and Pluperfect completed action, exactly as in the Indicative.

Peculiarities of Sequence.

268. 1. The Perfect Indicative is usually an historical tense (even when translated in English as a Present Perfect), and so is followed by the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive; as,—

dēmōnstrāvī quārē ad causam accēderem, *I have shown why I took the case* (lit. *I showed why, etc.*).

2. A dependent Perfect Infinitive is treated as an historical tense wherever, if resolved into an equivalent Indicative, it would be historical; as,—

videor ostendisse quālēs deī essent, *I seem to have shown of what nature the gods are* (**ostendisse** here corresponds to an Indicative, **ostendī**, *I showed*).

3. The Historical Present is sometimes regarded as a principal tense, sometimes as historical. Thus:—

Sulla suōs hortātur ut fortī animō sint, *Sulla exhorts his soldiers to be stout-hearted*;

Gallōs hortātur ut arma caperent, *he exhorted the Gauls to take arms*.

4. Conditional sentences of the 'contrary-to-fact' type are not affected by the principles for the Sequence of Tenses; as,—

honestum tāle est ut, vel sī ignōrārent id hominēs, suā tamen pulchritūdine laudābile esset, *virtue is such a thing that even if men were ignorant of it, it would still be worthy of praise for its own loveliness*.

5. In conditional sentences of the 'contrary-to-fact' type the Imperfect Subjunctive is usually treated as an Historical tense; as,—

sī sōlōs eōs dīcerēs miserōs, quibus moriendum esset, nēminem tū quidem eōrum quī vīverent exciperēs, *if you called only those wretched who must die, you would except no one of those who live*.

6. In clauses of Result and some others, the Perfect Subjunctive is sometimes used as an historical tense. Thus:—

rēx tantum mōtus est, ut Tissaphernem hostem iūdicārit, *the king was so much moved that he adjudged Tissaphernes an enemy*.

This construction is rare in Cicero, but frequent in Nepos and subsequent historians. The Perfect Subjunctive in this use represents a

result simply as a fact without reference to the continuance of the act, and therefore corresponds to an Historical Perfect Indicative of direct statement. Thus, *jūdicārit* in the above example corresponds to a *jūdicāvit*, *he adjudged*. To denote a result as something continuous, all writers use the Imperfect Subjunctive after historical tenses.

7. Sometimes perspicuity demands that the ordinary principles of Sequence be abandoned altogether. Thus:—

- a) We may have the Present or Perfect Subjunctive after an historical tense; as,—

Verrēs Siciliam ita perdidit ut ea restituī nōn possit,
Verres so ruined Sicily that it cannot be restored
(Direct statement: **nōn potest restitui**);

ardēbat Hortēnsius dīcendī cupiditāte sic, ut in nūllō
flagrantius studium vīderim, *Hortensius burned so*
with eagerness to speak that I have seen in no one a
greater desire (Direct statement: **in nūllō vīdī**, *I have*
seen in no one).

NOTE.—This usage is different from that cited under 6. Here, by neglect of Sequence, the Perfect is used, though a principal tense; there the Perfect was used as an historical tense.

- b) We may have a principal tense followed by the Perfect Subjunctive used historically; as,—

nesciō quid causae fuerit cūr nūllās ad mē litterās
darēs, *I do not know what reason there was why you:*
did not send me a letter.

Here *fuerit* is historical, as is shown by the following Imperfect Subjunctive.

Method of Expressing Future Time in the Subjunctive.

269. The Future and Future Perfect, which are lacking to the Latin Subjunctive, are supplied in subordinate clauses as follows:—

- I. a) The Future is supplied by the Present after principal tenses, by the Imperfect after historical tenses.
- b) The Future Perfect is supplied by the Perfect after principal tenses, by the Pluperfect after historical tenses.

This is especially frequent when the context clearly shows, by the presence of a future tense in the main clause, that the reference is to future time. Thus:—

Gallī pollicentur sē factūrōs, quae Caesar imperet, the Gauls promise they will do what Caesar shall order ;

Gallī pollicēbantur sē factūrōs, quae Caesar imperāret, the Gauls promised they would do what Caesar should order ;

Gallī pollicentur sē factūrōs quae Caesar imperāverit, the Gauls promise they will do what Caesar shall have ordered ;

Gallī pollicēbantur sē factūrōs quae Caesar imperāvisset, the Gauls promised they would do what Caesar should have ordered.

2. Even where the context does not contain a Future tense in the main clause, Future time is often expressed in the subordinate clauses by the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive. Thus :—

timeō nē veniat, I am afraid he will come ;

Caesar exspectābat quid cōnsilī hostēs caperent, Caesar was waiting to see what plan the enemy would adopt.

3. Where greater definiteness is necessary, the periphrastic forms in **-ūrus sim** and **-ūrus essem** are employed, especially in clauses of Result, Indirect Questions, and after **nōn dubitō quīn** ; as, —

nōn dubitō quīn pater ventūrus sit, I do not doubt that my father will come ;

nōn dubitābam quīn pater ventūrus esset, I did not doubt that my father would come.

4. Where the verb has no Future Active Participle, or where it stands in the passive voice, its Future character may be indicated by the use of the particles **mox, brevī, statim, etc.**, in connection with the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive ; as, —

nōn dubitō quīn tē mox hūjus rei paeniteat, I do not doubt that you will soon repent of this thing ;

nōn dubitābam quīn haec rēs brevī cōficerētur, I did not doubt that this thing would soon be finished.

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE.

270. 1. The tenses of the Infinitive denote time not absolutely, but *with reference to the verb on which they depend*. Thus :—

a) The Present Infinitive represents an act as *contemporaneous with the time of the verb on which it depends* ; as, —

vidētur honōrēs adsequī, he seems to be gaining honors ;

vidēbātur honōrēs adsequī, he seemed to be gaining honors.

- b) The Perfect Infinitive represents an act as *prior* to the time of the verb on which it depends; as, —

vidētur honōrēs adsecūtus esse, *he seems to have gained honors*;

vīsus est honōrēs adsecūtus esse, *he seemed to have gained honors*.

- c) The Future Infinitive represents an act as *subsequent* to that of the verb on which it depends; as, —

vidētur honōrēs adsecūtūrus esse, *he seems to be about to gain honors*;

vīsus est honōrēs adsecūtūrus esse, *he seemed to be about to gain honors*.

2. Where the English says 'ought to have done,' 'might have done,' etc., the Latin uses **dēbuī**, **oportuit**, **potuī** (**dēbēbam**, **oportēbat**, **poteram**), with the Present Infinitive; as, —

dēbuit dīcere, *he ought to have said* (lit. *owed it to say*);

opōrtuit venīre, *he ought to have come*;

potuit vidēre, *he might have seen*.

- a. **Oportuit**, **volō**, **nōlō** (and in poetry some other verbs), may take a Perfect Infinitive instead of the Present; as, —

hōc jam pridem factum esse oportuit, *this ought long ago to have been done*.

3. PERIPHRASTIC FUTURE INFINITIVE. Verbs that have no Participial Stem, express the Future Infinitive Active and Passive by **fore ut** or **futūrum esse ut**, with the Subjunctive; as, —

spērō fore ut tē paeniteat levitātis, *I hope you will repent of your fickleness* (lit. *hope it will happen that you repent*);

spērō futūrum esse ut hostēs arceantur, *I hope that the enemy will be kept off*.

- a. The Periphrastic Future Infinitive is often used, especially in the Passive, even in case of verbs which have the Participial Stem; as, —

epērō fore ut hostēs vincantur, *I hope the enemy will be conquered*.

4. Passives and Deponents sometimes form a Future Perfect Infinitive with **fore**; as, —

spērō epistolam scīptam fore, *I hope the letter will have been written*;

dīcō mē satis adeptum fore, *I say that I shall have gained enough*.

THE MOODS.

MOODS IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES.

The Indicative in Independent Sentences.

271. The Indicative is used for the *statement of facts, the supposition of facts, or inquiry after facts.*

1. Note the following idiomatic uses : —

a) With *possum* ; as, —

possum multa dīcere, I might say much ;

poteram multa dīcere, I might have said much (§ 270, 2).

b) In such expressions as *longum est, aequum est, melius est, difficile est, ūtilius est,* and some others ; as, —

longum est ea dīcere, it would be tedious to tell that ;

difficile est omnia persequī, it would be difficult to enumerate everything.

The Subjunctive in Independent Sentences.

272. The Subjunctive is used in Independent Sentences to express something —

1. **As willed** — **Volitive Subjunctive** ;

2. **As desired** — **Optative Subjunctive** ;

3. **Conceived of as possible** — **Potential Subjunctive.**

VOLITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

273. The Volitive Subjunctive represents the action *as willed*. It always implies authority on the part of the speaker, and has the following varieties : —

A. HORTATORY SUBJUNCTIVE.

274. The Hortatory Subjunctive expresses *an exhortation*. This use is confined to the first person plural, of the Present. The negative is *nē*. Thus : —

eāmus, let us go ;

amēmus patriam, let us love our country ;

nē dēspērēmus, let us not despair.

B. JUSSIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

275. The Jussive Subjunctive expresses a *command*. The Jussive stands regularly in the Present Tense, and is used —

1. Most frequently in the third singular and the third plural; as, —
dīcat, let him tell;
dīcant, let them tell;
quārē sēcēdant improbī, wherefore let the wicked depart!

2. Less frequently in the second person, often with indefinite force; as, —

- istō bonō ūtāre, use that advantage;*
modestē vīvās, live temperately.

C. PROHIBITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

276. The Subjunctive is used in the second and third persons singular and plural, with *nē*, to express a *prohibition*. Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning; as, —

- nē repugnētis, do not resist!*
tū vērō istam nē relīquerīs, don't leave her!
impiī nē plācāre audeant deōs, let not the impious dare to appease the gods!

a. Neither of these constructions is frequent in classical prose.

b. A commoner method of expressing a prohibition in the second person is by the use of *nōlī* (*nōlīte*) with a following infinitive, or by *cavē* or *cavē nē* with the Subjunctive; as, —

- nōlī hōc facere, don't do this (lit. be unwilling to do)!*
nōlīte mentīrī, do not lie!
cavē ignōscās, cavē tē misereat, do not forgive, do not pity!
cavē nē haec faciās, do not do this (lit. take care lest you do)!

D. DELIBERATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

277. The Deliberative Subjunctive is used in *questions and exclamations implying doubt, indignation, the impossibility of an act, obligation, or propriety*. The Present is

used referring to present time, the Imperfect referring to past. The negative is *nōn*. Thus:—

quid faciam, what shall I do?

ego redeam, I go back!

huic cēdāmus! hūjus condiōnēs audiāmus! are we to bow to him! are we to listen to his terms!

quid facerem, what was I to do?

hunc ego nōn dīligam, should I not cherish this man?

- a. These Deliberative Questions are usually purely Rhetorical in character, and do not expect an answer.

E. CONCESSIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

278. The Subjunctive is used to indicate something *as granted or conceded for the sake of argument*. The Present is used for present time, the Perfect regularly for past. The negative is *nē*. Thus:—

sit hōc vērūm, I grant that this is true (lit. let this be true);

nē sint in senectūte vīrēs, I grant there is not strength in old age;

fuērit malus cīvis aliīs; tibi quandō esse coepit, I grant that he was a bad citizen to others; when did he begin to be so toward you?

OPTATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

279. The Optative Subjunctive occurs in expressions of *wishing*. The negative is regularly *nē*.

1. The Present Tense, often accompanied by *utinam*, is used where the wish is conceived of *as possible*.

dī istaec prohibeant, may the gods prevent that!

falsus utinam vātēs sim, oh that I may be a false prophet!

nē veniant, may they not come!

2. The Imperfect expresses, in the form of a wish, the *regret that something is not so now*; the Pluperfect that *something was not so in the past*. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are regularly accompanied by *utinam*; as,—

utinam istud ex animō dīcerēs, would that you were saying that in earnest (i.e. I regret that you are not saying it in earnest);

Pēlīdēs utinam vītāset Apollinis arcūs, would that Achilles had escaped the bow of Apollo;

utinam nē nātus essem, would that I had not been born.

POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

280. The Potential Subjunctive expresses *a possibility*. The negative is *nōn*. The following uses are to be noted:—

1. **The 'May' Potential.**—The Potential Subjunctive may designate *a mere possibility* (English auxiliary *may*). Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning. Thus:—

dīcat aliquis, some one may say;

dīxerit aliquis, some one may say.

a. This construction is by no means frequent, and is confined mainly to a few phrases like those given as examples.

2. **'Should'-'Would' Potential.**—The Potential Subjunctive may represent something as *depending upon a condition expressed or understood* (English auxiliary *should, would*). Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning. Thus:—

fortūnam citius reperiās quam retineās, one would more quickly find Fortune than keep it (i.e. if one should make the trial);
crēdiderim, I should believe.

a. Here belongs the use of *velim, mālim, nōlim*, as softened forms of statement for *volō, mālō, nōlō*. Thus:—

velim mihi ignōscās, I wish you would forgive me;

nōlim putēs mē jocārī, I don't want you to think I'm joking.

b. When the condition is expressed, we get one of the regular types of Conditional Sentences (see § 303); as,—

diēs dēficiat, sī cōner ēnumerāre causās, time would fail if I should attempt to enumerate the reasons.

3. **'Can'-'Could' Potential.**—In the Present and Imperfect the Potential occurs in the second person singular (with *indefinite force*; § 356, 3) of a few verbs of *perceiving, seeing, thinking*, and the like; as,—

videās, cernās, one can see, one can perceive;

crēderēs, one could believe;

vidērēs, cernerēs, one could see, perceive;

putārēs, one could imagine.

4. The Imperfect and Pluperfect in the Apodosis of conditional sentences of the contrary-to-fact type (see § 304) are also Potential in character. By omission of the Protasis, such an Apodosis sometimes stands alone, particularly *vellem, nōllem, māllem*; as,—

vellem id quidem, I should wish that (i.e. were I bold enough).

The Imperative.

281. The Imperative is used in *commands, admonitions, and entreaties* (negative *nē*); as, —

ēgredere ex urbe, depart from the city ;
mihi ignōsce, pardon me ;
valē, farewell.

1. The Present is the tense of the Imperative most commonly used, but the Future is employed —

a) Where there is a distinct reference to future time, especially in the apodosis of conditional sentences ; as, —

rem vōbīs prōpōnam ; vōs eam penditōte, I will lay the matter before you ; do you (then) consider it ;
sī bene disputābit, tribuitō litterīs Graecis, if he shall speak well, attribute it to Greek literature.

b) In laws, treaties, wills, maxims, *etc.* ; as, —

cōsulēs summum jūs habentō, the consuls shall have supreme power ;
hominem mortuom in urbe nē sepelitō, no one shall bury a dead body in the city ;
amīcitiā rēgī Antiochō cum populō Rōmānō hīs lēgibus et condiciōnibus estō, let there be friendship between Antiochus and the Roman people on the following terms and conditions ;
quārtae estō partis Mārcus hērēs, let Marcus be heir to a fourth (of the property) ;
ignōscitō saepe alterī, numquam tibi, forgive your neighbor often, yourself never.

2. Except with the Future Imperative the negative is not used in classical prose. Prohibitions are regularly expressed in other ways. See § 276, *b*.

3. Questions in the Indicative introduced by *quīn* (*why not?*) are often equivalent to an Imperative or to the Hortatory Subjunctive ; as, —

quīn abīs, go away! (lit. why don't you go away?) ;
quīn vōcem continētis, keep still! (lit. why don't you stop your voices?) ;
quīn equōs cōnscendimus, let us mount our horses (lit. why do we not mount our horses?).

MOODS IN DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

Clauses of Purpose.

282. 1. Clauses of Purpose are introduced most commonly by **ut** (**utī**), **quō** (*that, in order that*), **nē** (*in order that not, lest*), and stand in the Subjunctive; as, —

edimus ut vivāmus, *we eat that we may live*;

adjūtā mē quō hōc fiat facilius, *help me, in order that this may be done more easily*;

portās clausit, nē quam oppidānī injūriam acciperent, *he closed the gates, lest the townspeople should receive any injury*.

a. **Quō**, as a rule, is employed only when the purpose clause contains a comparative or a comparative idea. Occasional exceptions occur; as, —

haec faciunt quō Chremētem absterreant, *they are doing this in order to frighten Chremes*.

b. **Ut nē** is sometimes found instead of **nē**. Thus: —

ut nē quid neglegenter agāmus, *in order that we may not do anything carelessly*.

c. **Ut nōn** (not **nē**) is used where the negation belongs to some single word, instead of to the purpose clause as a whole. Thus: —

ut nōn ējectus ad aliēnōs, sed invitātus ad tuōs vidēre, *that you may seem not driven out among strangers, but invited to your own friends*.

d. To say ‘and that not’ or ‘or that not,’ the Latin regularly uses **nēve** (**neu**); as, —

ut eārum rērum vīs minuerētur, neu pontī nocērent, *that the violence of these things might be lessened, and that they might not harm the bridge*;

profūgit, nē caperētur nēve interficerētur, *he fled, that he might not be captured or killed*.

e. But **neque** (for **nēve**) is sometimes used in a second Purpose Clause when **ut** stands in the first, and, after the Augustan era, even when the first clause is introduced by **nē**.

f. Purpose Clauses sometimes stand in apposition with a preceding noun or pronoun; as, —

hāc causā, ut pācem habērent, *on this account, that they might have peace*.

2. A Relative Pronoun (**quī**) or Adverb (**ubi**, **unde**, **quō**) is frequently used to introduce a Purpose Clause; as,—

Helvētiī lēgātōs mittunt, quī dīcerent, *the Helvetii sent envoys to say* (lit. *who should say*);

haec habuī, dē senectūte quae dīcerem, *I had these things to say about old age*;

nōn habēbant quō sē reciperent, *they had no place to which to flee* (lit. *whither they might flee*).

a. **Quī** in such clauses is equivalent to **ut is**, **ut ego**, etc. : **ubi** to **ut ibi**; **unde** to **ut inde**; **quō** to **ut eō**.

3. Relative Clauses of purpose follow **dignus**, **indignus**, and **idōneus**; as,—

idōneus fuit nēmō quem imitārēre, *there was no one suitable for you to imitate* (cf. **nēmō fuit quem imitārēre**, *there was no one for you to imitate*);

dignus est quī aliquandō imperet, *he is worthy to rule sometime*.

4. Purpose Clauses often depend upon something to be supplied from the context instead of upon the principal verb of their own sentences; as,—

ut haec omnia omittam, abiimus, *to pass over all this, (I will say that) we departed*.

Clauses of Characteristic.

283. 1. A relative clause used to express a quality or characteristic of a general or indefinite antecedent is called a Clause of Characteristic, and usually stands in the Subjunctive; as,—

multa sunt, quae mentem acuant, *there are many things which sharpen the wits*.

Clauses of Characteristic are opposed to those relative clauses which are used merely to state some fact about a definite antecedent, and which therefore take the Indicative; as,—

Catō, senex jūcundus, quī Sapiēns appellātus est, *Cato, a delightful old man, who was called 'The Wise.'*

The Clause of Characteristic implies 'a person of the sort that does something'; the Indicative relative clause implies 'a particular person who does something.'

2. Clauses of Characteristic are used especially after such expressions as, *est quī*; *sunt quī*; *nēmō est quī*; *nūllus est quī*; *ūnus est quī*; *sōlus est quī*; *quis est quī*; *is quī*; *etc.* Thus: —

sunt quī dīcant, there are (some) who say;

nēmō est quī nesciat, there is nobody who is ignorant;

sapientia est ūna quae maestitiam pellat, philosophy is the only thing that drives away sorrow;

quae cīvitās est quae nōn ēvertī possit, what state is there that cannot be overthrown?

nōn is sum quī improbōs laudem, I am not the sort of man that praises the wicked.

u. Sometimes (very rarely in Cicero and Caesar) the clause of characteristic is used after comparatives; as, —

nōn longius hostēs aberant quam quō tēlum adigī posset, the enemy were not too far off for a dart to reach them (lit. further off than [a point] to which a dart could be cast).

3. The Clause of Characteristic often conveys an accessory notion of cause (*since*) or opposition (*although*). Thus: —

a) Cause. The relative is then frequently accompanied by *ut, quippe, utpote*; as, —

ō fortunāte adulēscēns, quī tuae virtūtis Homērum praecōnem invēnerīs, O fortunate man, since you have found a Homer as the herald of your valor;

ut quī optimō jūre eam prōvinciam obtinuerit, since he held that province by excellent right.

b) Opposition: —

egomet quī sērō Graecās litterās attigissem, tamen complūrēs diēs Athēnīs commorātus sum, I, although I had taken up Greek literature late in life, nevertheless tarried several days at Athens.

4. Clauses of Characteristic may also be introduced by *quīn = quī* (*quae, quod*) *nōn*; as, —

nēmō est quīn saepe audierit, there is no one who has not often heard;

nēmō fuit militum quīn vulnerārētur, there was no one of the soldiers who was not wounded.

5. Related to Clauses of Characteristic are also phrases of the type: *quod sciam, so far as I know; quem (quam, quod), audierim, so far as I have heard.*

Clauses of Result.

284. 1. Clauses of Result are usually introduced by *ut* (*that, so that*), negative *ut nōn* (*so that not*), and take the Subjunctive. The main clause often contains *tantus, tālis, tot, is* (= *tālis*), *tam, ita, sic, adeō*, or some similar word. Thus:—

quis tam dēmēns est ut suā voluntāte maereat, who is so senseless as to mourn of his own volition?

Siciliam ita vāstāvit ut restitūi in antiqum statum nōn possit, he so ravaged Sicily that it cannot be restored to its former condition;

mōns altissimus impendēbat, ut facile perpaucī prohibēre possent, a very high mountain overhung, so that a very few could easily stop them;

nōn is es ut tē pudor umquam ā turpitūdine āvocārit, you are not so constituted that shame ever called you back from baseness.

2. A Result Clause is often introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Adverb, *quī* (= *ut is*), *quō* (= *ut eō*), etc.; as,—

nēmō est tam senex quī sē annum nōn putet posse vīvere, nobody is so old as not to think he can live a year;

habētis eum cōnsulem quī pārere vestris dēcrētis nōn dubitet, you have a consul such as does not hesitate to obey your decrees.

a. These Relative Clauses of Result are closely related to the Clause of Characteristic, and sometimes it is difficult to distinguish the two constructions. It is best to class the relative clause as one of Characteristic, unless the result idea is clear and unmistakable.

3. Result clauses may also be introduced by *quīn* = *ut nōn*; as,—

nihil tam difficile est quīn quaerendō invēstīgārī possit, nothing is so difficult that it cannot be discovered by searching;

nēmō est tam fortis quīn rei novitāte perturbētur, no one is so steadfast as not to be thrown into confusion by a strange occurrence.

4. Note the use of *quam ut* (sometimes *quam* alone) to denote Result after comparatives; as,—

urbs erat mūnītiōr quam ut primō impetū capī posset, the city was too strongly fortified to be taken at the first attack (lit. more strongly fortified than [so] that it could be taken, etc.).

Causal Clauses.

285. Causal clauses are introduced chiefly by the following particles:—

1. **Quod, quia, quoniam.**
2. **Cum.**
3. **Quandō.**

286. The use of moods is as follows:—

1. **Quod, quia, quoniam** take the Indicative when the reason is *that of the writer or speaker*; they take the Subjunctive when the reason is viewed as *that of another*. Thus:—

Parthōs timeō quod diffidō cōpiās nostrīs, I fear the Parthians, because I distrust our troops.

Themistoclēs, quia nōn tūtus erat, Corcȳram dēmigrāvit, Themistocles, since he was not safe, moved to Corcyra.

neque mē vīxisse paenitet, quoniam bene vīxī, I do not regret having lived, since I have lived well.

Sōcratēs accūsātus est quod corrumperet juventūtem, Socrates was arraigned on the ground that he was corrupting the young.

(Here the reason is not that of the writer but of the accuser. Hence the Subjunctive.)

Haeduī Caesarī grātiās ēgērunt quod sē periculō liberāvisset, the Haedui thanked Caesar because he had delivered them from danger. (The reason of the Haedui.)

quoniam Miltiadēs dīcere nōn posset, verba prō eō fēcit Tisagorās, since Miltiades could not speak, Tisagoras spoke for him. (The reason of Tisagoras.)

noctū ambulābat Themistoclēs, quod somnum capere nōn posset, Themistocles used to walk at night because (as he said) he couldn't sleep.

a. Verbs of *thinking* and *saying* often stand in the Subjunctive in causal clauses as though the act of thinking or saying, and not the contents of the thought or language, constituted the reason. Thus:—

Bellovacī suum numerum nōn complēvērunt quod sē suō nōmine cum Rōmānīs bellum gestūrōs dīcerent, the Bellovacī did not furnish their complement,

because they said they were going to wage war with the Romans on their own account.

- b. **Nōn quod, nōn quō** (by attraction for **nōn eō quod**), **nōn quia**, *not that, not because*; and **nōn quod nōn, nōn quō nōn, nōn quīn**, *not that. . . not; not because . . . not; not but that*, are usually employed merely to introduce a hypothetical reason, and hence take the Subjunctive; as, —
id fēcī, nōn quod vōs hanc dēfēnsiōnem dēsīderāre arbitrārer, sed ut omnēs intellegerent, this I did, not because I thought you needed this defense, but that all might perceive;

Crassō commendātiōnem nōn sum pollicitus, nōn quīn eam valitūram apud tē arbitrārer, sed egēre mihi commendātiōne nōn vidēbātur, I did not promise a recommendation to Crassus, not that I did not think it would have weight with you, but because he did not seem to me to need recommendation.

- c. But clauses introduced by **nōn quod, nōn quia** take the Indicative *if they state a fact*, even though that fact is denied to be the reason for something; as, —

hōc ita sentiō, nōn quia sum ipse augur, sed quia sic exīstimāre nōs est necesse, this I think, not because I am myself an augur (which I really am), but because it is necessary for us to think so.

2. **Cum** causal regularly takes the Subjunctive; as, —
quae cum ita sint, since this is so;
cum sīs mortālis, quae mortālia sunt, cūrā, since you are mortal, care for what is mortal.

- a. Note the phrase **cum praesertim** (**praesertim cum**), *especially since*; as, —

Haeduōs accūsāt, praesertim cum eōrum precibus adductus bellum suscēperit, he blamed the Haedui, especially since he had undertaken the war at their entreaties.

3. **Quandō** (less frequent than the other causal particles) governs the Indicative; as, —

id omittō, quandō vōbīs ita placet, I pass over that, since you so wish.

Temporal Clauses introduced by *Postquam, Ut, Ubi, Simul ac, etc.*

287. 1. *Postquam* (*posteaquam*), *after*; *ut, ubi, when*; *cum primum, simul, simul ac* (*simul atque*), *as soon as*, when used to refer to a single past act regularly take the Perfect Indicative; *as*, —

Epaminōndās postquam audīvit vīcisse Boeōtiōs, 'Satis' inquit 'vixi,' Epaminondas, after he heard that the Boeotians had conquered, said, 'I have lived enough';

id ut audīvit, Corcȳram dēmigrāvit, when he heard this, he moved to Corcyra;

Caesar cum primum potuit, ad exercitum contendit, Caesar, as soon as he could, hurried to the army;

ubi dē Caesaris adventū certiōrēs factī sunt, lēgātōs ad eum mittunt, when they were informed of Caesar's arrival, they sent envoys to him.

a. The Historical Present may take the place of the Perfect in this construction.

2. To denote the repeated occurrence of an act, *ut, ubi, simul atque, as often as*, when following an historical tense, take the Pluperfect Indicative (compare §§ 288, 3; 302, 3); *as*, —

ut quisque Verris animum offenderat, in lautumiās statim coniciēbātur, whenever anybody had offended Verres's feelings, he was forthwith put in the stone-quarry;

hostēs, ubi aliquōs ēgredientēs cōspexerant, adoriēbantur, whenever the enemy had seen any men disembarking, they attacked them.

a. In Livy and succeeding historians the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used to denote this repeated occurrence of an act ('Indefinite Frequency'); *as*, —

id ubi dixisset hastam mittēbat, whenever he had said that, he hurled a spear.

3. Occasionally the above conjunctions are followed by the Pluperfect Indicative of a single occurrence. This is regularly the case with *postquam* in expressions denoting a definite interval of time (days, months, years, etc.), such as *post tertium annum quam, trienniō postquam*. Thus: —

quīnque post diēbus quam Lūcā discesserat, ad Sardiniam vēnit,
five days after he had departed from Luca he came to Sardinia;

postquam occupātae Syrācūsae erant, profectus est Carthāginem, *after Syracuse had been seized, he set out for Carthage.*

4. The Imperfect Indicative also sometimes occurs, to denote a continued state; as, —

postquam Rōmam adventābant, senātus cōsultus est, *after they were on the march toward Rome, the Senate was consulted;*

postquam strūctī utrimque stābant, *after they had been drawn up on both sides and were in position.*

5. Rarely postquam, posteāquam, following the analogy of cum, take the Subjunctive, but only in the historical tenses; as, —

posteāquam sūmptuōsa fieri fūnera coepissent, lēge sublāta sunt, *after funerals had begun to be elaborate, they were done away with by law.*

Temporal Clauses introduced by Cum.

A. Cum REFERRING TO THE PAST.

288. I. Cum, when referring to the past, takes, —

A. The Indicative (Imperfect, Historical Perfect, or Pluperfect) to denote *the point of time at which* something occurs.

B. The Subjunctive (Imperfect or Pluperfect) to denote *the situation or circumstances under which* something occurs.

Examples: —

INDICATIVE.

an tum erās cōsul, cum in Palātiō mea domus ārdēbat, *or were you consul at the time when my house burned up on the Palatine?*

crēdō tum cum Sicilia florēbat opibus et cōpiis magna artificia fuisse in eā Insulā, *I believe that at the time when Sicily was powerful in riches and resources there were great crafts in that island;*

eō tempore pārui cum pārere necesse erat, *he obeyed at the time when it was necessary to obey;*

illō diē, cum est lāta lēx dē mē, *on that day when the law concerning me was passed.*

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Lysander cum vellet Lycūrgī lēgēs commūtāre, prohibitus est, *when Lysander desired to change the laws of Lycurgus, he was prevented;*

Pŷthagorās cum in geōmetriā quiddam novī invēnisset, Mūsīs bovem immolāsse dīcitur, *when Pythagoras had discovered something new in geometry, he is said to have sacrificed an ox to the Muses.*

- a. Note that the Indicative is much less frequent in such clauses than the Subjunctive, and is regularly confined to those cases where the main clause has *tum, eō diē, eō annō, eō tempore* or some similar correlative of the *cum*. Sometimes it depends entirely upon the point of view of the writer whether he shall employ the Indicative or Subjunctive.

2. **Cum Inversum.** When the logical order of the clauses is inverted, we find *cum* with the Perfect Indicative or Historical Present, in the sense of *when, when suddenly*. The main clause in such cases often has *jam, vix, aegrē, nōndum*; as,—

jam Gallī ex oppidō fugere apparābant, cum mātṛēs familiae repente prōcurrērunt, *the Gauls were already preparing to flee, when suddenly the matrons rushed forth (logically, the matrons rushed forth as the Gauls were preparing to flee);*

Trēvirī Labiēnum adorīrī parābant, cum duās legiōnēs vēnisse cognōscunt, *the Treviri were preparing to attack, when (suddenly) they learned that two legions had arrived.*

3. To denote a *recurring action* in the past, *cum* is followed by the Indicative, particularly of the Pluperfect (compare §§ 287, 2; 302, 3); as,—
cum ad aliquod oppidum vēnerat, eādē lecticā ad cubiculum dēferēbātur, *whenever he had arrived at some town, he was (always) carried in the same litter to his room;*

cum equitātus noster sē in agrōs ējēcerat, essedāriōs ex silvīs ēmittēbat, *whenever our cavalry had advanced into the fields, he would send his charioteers out from the woods.*

- a. Sometimes the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive is thus used; as,—
saepe cum aliquem vidēret minus bene vestitum, suum amiculum dedit, *often, whenever he saw some one more poorly clothed, he gave him his own mantle;*
cum prōcucurrissent, Numidae effugiēbant, *as often as they had advanced, the Numidians ran away.*

This construction is frequent in Livy and subsequent historians.

B. **Cum** REFERRING TO THE PRESENT OR FUTURE.

289. When **cum** refers to the Present or Future it regularly takes the Indicative; as, —

tum tua rēs agitur, pariēs cum proximus ārdet, *your own interests are at stake when your neighbor's house is burning;*
cum vidēbis, tum sciēs, *when you see, then you will know.*

u. The Indicative of the Present or Future may denote also a recurring action; as, —

stabilitās amicitiae cōfirmārī potest, cum hominēs cupidinibus imperābunt, *firm friendship can be established whenever men shall control their desires.*

C. OTHER USES OF **Cum**.

290. I. **Cum Explicative**. **Cum**, with the Indicative, is sometimes used to indicate the identity of one act with another; as, —

cum tacent clāmant, *their silence is a shout* (lit. *when they are silent, they shout*).

2. **Cum . . . tum**. When **cum . . . tum** mean *both . . . and*, the **cum**-clause is in the Indicative; but when **cum** has the force of *while, though*, it may take the Subjunctive; as, —

cum tē semper dilēxerim, tum tuīs factīs incēsus sum, *while I have always loved you, at the same time I am stirred by your conduct.*

Clauses introduced by **Antequam** and **Priusquam**.

A. WITH THE INDICATIVE.

291. **Antequam** and **priusquam** (often written **ante . . . quam, prius . . . quam**) take the Indicative to denote an actual fact.

1. Sometimes the Present or Future Perfect; as, —
prius respondēs quam rogō, *you answer before I ask;*
nihil contrā disputābō priusquam dixerit, *I will say nothing in opposition, before he speaks.*

2. Sometimes the Perfect, especially after negative clauses; as, —
nōn prius jugulandī finis fuit, quam Sulla omnēs suōs dīvitīs explēvit, *there was no end of murder until Sulla satisfied all his henchmen with wealth.*

B. WITH THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

292. *Antequam* and *priusquam* take the Subjunctive to denote an act as *anticipated*.

1. Thus the Subjunctive may denote —

- a) An act in preparation for which the main act takes place; as, —
priusquam dīmīcārent, foedus ictum est, i.e. in anticipation of the fight, a treaty was struck.

By an extension of this usage, the Subjunctive is sometimes used of *general truths*, where the anticipatory notion has faded out; as, —
tempestās minātur antequam surgat, the tempest threatens before it rises.

- b) An act anticipated and forestalled; as, —
priusquam tēlum adicī posset, omnis aciēs terga vertit, before a spear could be hurled, the whole army fled.

- c) An act anticipated and deprecated; as, —
animum omittunt priusquam locō dēmigrēt, they die rather than quit their post.

2. After historical tenses the Imperfect Subjunctive is used, especially by some writers, where the notion of anticipation has practically vanished; as, —

sōl antequam sē abderet fugientem vīdit Antōnium, the sun before it set saw Antony fleeing.

Clauses introduced by *Dum*, *Dōnec*, *Quoad*

293. I. *Dum*, *while*, regularly takes the Indicative of the Historical Present; as, —

Alexander, dum inter primōrēs pugnat, sagittā ictus est, Alexander, while he was fighting in the van, was struck by an arrow; dum haec geruntur, in finēs Venellōrum pervēnit, while these things were being done, he arrived in the territory of the Venelli.

II. *Dum*, *dōnec*, and *quoad*, *as long as*, take the Indicative; as, —

dum anima est, spēs est, as long as there is life, there is hope; Lacedaemoniōrum gēns fortis fuit, dum Lycūrgī lēgēs vigēbant, the race of the Lacedaemonians was powerful, as long as the laws of Lycurgus were in force;

Catō, quoad vīxit, virtūtum laude crēvit, Cato, as long as he lived, increased in the fame of his virtues.

III. Dum, dōnec, and quoad, until, take : —

1. The Indicative, to denote *an actual event*; as, —
dōnec rediit, fuit silentium, *there was silence till he came* ;
ferrum in corpore retinuit, quoad renūntiātum est Boeōtiōs
vīcisse, *he kept the iron in his body until word was brought that*
the Boeotians had conquered.

a. In Livy and subsequent historians **dum** and **dōnec** in this sense often take the Subjunctive instead of the Indicative; as, —

trepidātiōnis aliquantum edēbant dōnec timor quietem
fēcisset, *they showed some trepidation, until fear produced quiet.*

2. The Subjunctive, to denote *anticipation or expectancy*; as, —

exspectāvit Caesar dum nāvēs convenirent, *Caesar waited for the*
ships to assemble ;

dum litterae veniant, morābor, *I shall wait for the letter to come.*

Substantive Clauses.

294. A Substantive Clause is one which as a whole serves as the Subject or Object of a verb, or stands in some other case relation.

A. Substantive Clauses developed from the Volitive.

295. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Volitive are used with the following classes of verbs : —

1. With verbs signifying *to admonish, request, command, urge, persuade, induce*,¹ etc. (conjunctions **ut, nē**, or **ut nē**) ; as, —

postulō ut fiat, *I demand that it be done* (dependent form of the Jussive **fiat**, *let it be done!*) ;

orat, nē abeās, *he begs that you will not go away* ;

militēs cohortātus est ut hostium impetum sustinērent, *he exhorted his soldiers to withstand the attack of the enemy* ;

Helvētiis persuāsit ut exirent, *he persuaded the Helvetii to march forth.*

a. **Jubeō**, *command, order*, regularly takes the Infinitive.

¹ Especially: **moneō, admoneō; rogō, orō, petō, postulō, precor, flagitō; mandō, imperō, precipiō, suadeō, hortor, cohortor; persuadeō, impellō.**

2. With verbs signifying *to grant, concede, permit, allow*,¹ etc. (conjunction *ut*); as, —

huic concēdō ut ea praetereat, I allow him to pass that by (dependent form of the Jussive *ea praetereat, let him pass that by!*);
cōsulī permissum est ut duās legiōnēs scriberet, the consul was permitted to enroll two legions.

3. With verbs of *hindering, preventing*,² etc. (conjunctions *nē, quōminus, quīn*); as, —

nē lūstrum perficeret, mors prohibuit, death prevented him from finishing the lustrum (dependent form after past tense of *nē lūstrum perficiat, let him not finish, etc.*);
prohibuit quōminus in ūnum coirent, he prevented them from coming together;
nec quīn ērumperet, prohibērī poterat, nor could he be prevented from rushing forth.

a. *Quīn* is used only when the verb of *hindering* is accompanied by a negative, or stands in a question implying a negative; it is not necessarily used even then.

4. With verbs of *deciding, resolving*,³ etc. (conjunctions *ut, nē, or ut nē*); as, —

cōstitueram ut prīdiē Idūs Aquīnī manērem, I had decided to remain at Aquinum on the 12th;
dēcrēvit senātus ut Opīmius vidēret, the Senate decreed that Opimius should see to it;
convēnit ut ūnīs castrīs miscērentur, it was agreed that they should be united in one camp.

5. With verbs of *striving*,⁴ etc. (conjunctions *ut, nē, or ut nē*); as, —

fac ut eum exōrēs, see to it that you prevail upon him!
cūrā ut vir sīs, see to it that you are a man!
labōrābat ut reliquās civitatēs adjungeret, he was striving to join the remaining states to him.

u. *Cōnor, try*, always takes the Infinitive.

NOTE. — Verbs of all the above classes also admit the Infinitive, especially in poetry.

¹ Especially: *permittō, concēdō, nōn patior.*

² Especially: *prohibeō, impediō, dēterreō.*

³ Especially: *cōstituō, dēcernō, cēnseō, placuit, convenit, paciscor.*

⁴ Especially: *labōrō, dō operam, id agō, contendō, impetrō.*

6. With a few other expressions, such as *necesse est*, *reliquum est*, *sequitur*, *licet*, *oportet*; as,—

sequitur ut doceam, *it remains for me to show*;

licet redeās, *you may return*;

oportet loquāmur, *we must speak*.

On the absence of *ut* with *licet* and *oportet*, see paragraph 8.

7. Here also belong phrases of the type: *nūlla causa est cūr, quīn*; *nōn est cūr, etc.*; *nihil est cūr, etc.*; as,—

nūlla causa est cūr timeam, *there is no reason why I should fear*

(originally Deliberative: *why should I fear? There's no reason*);

nihil est quīn dīcam, *there is no reason why I should not say*.

8. Many of the above classes of verbs at times take the simple Subjunctive without *ut*. In such cases we must not recognize any omission of *ut*, but simply an earlier form of expression which existed before the *ut*-clause arose. This is regularly the case with *necesse est*, *licet*, and *oportet*; see 6. Other examples are:—

eōs moneō dēsinant, *I warn them to stop*;

huic imperat adeat cīvitātēs, *he orders him to visit the states*.

B. Substantive Clauses developed from the Optative.

296. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Optative occur:—

1. With verbs of *wishing, desiring*, especially *cupiō*, *optō*, *volō*, *mālō* (conjunctions *ut*, *nē*, *ut nē*); as,—

optō ut in hōc jūdiciō nēmō improbus reperiātur, *I hope that in this court no bad man may be found* (here *ut reperiātur* represents a simple optative of direct statement, *viz. reperiātur, may no bad man be found!*);

cupiō nē veniat, *I desire that he may not come*.

a. The simple Subjunctive (without *ut*) sometimes occurs with verbs of this class. (See § 295, 8.) Examples are: *velim scribās*, *I wish you would write*; *vellem scripsisset*, *I wish he had written*.

2. With expressions of *fearing* (*timeō*, *metuō*, *vereor*, etc.). Here *nē* means *that, lest*, and *ut* means *that not*; as,—

timeō nē veniat, *I fear that he will come* (originally: *may he not come! I'm afraid [he will]*);

timeō ut veniat, *I fear that he will not come* (originally: *may he come! I'm afraid [he won't]*).

a. *Nē nōn* sometimes occurs instead of *ut*, especially where the verb of *fearing* has a negative, or where the writer desires to emphasize some particular word in the dependent clause; as,—

nōn vereor nē hōc nōn fiat, *I am not afraid that this will not happen*;

vereor nē exercitum firmum habēre nōn possit, *I fear that he is unable (nōn possit) to have a strong army.*

C. Substantive Clauses of Result.

297. Substantive Clauses of Result (introduced by *ut*, *ut nōn*) are a development of pure Result clauses, and occur with the following classes of words:—

1. As object clauses after verbs of *doing*, *accomplishing* (especially *faciō*, *efficiō*, *cōnficiō*). Thus:—

gravitās morbī facit ut medicīnā egeāmus, *the severity of disease makes us need medicine.*

2. As the subject of several impersonal verbs, particularly *fit*, *efficitur*, *accidit*, *ēvenit*, *contingit*, *accēdit*, *fierī potest*, *fore*, *sequitur*, *relinquitur*. Thus:—

ex quō efficitur, ut voluptās nōn sit summum bonum, *from which it follows that pleasure is not the greatest good*;

ita fit, ut nēmō esse possit beātus, *thus it happens that no one can be happy*;

accēdēbat ut nāvēs deessent, *another thing was the lack of ships* (lit. *it was added that ships were lacking*).

3. As predicate or appositive after expressions like *jūs est*, *mōs est*, *cōnsuētūdō est*; also after neuter pronouns, *hōc*, *illud*, etc. Thus:—

est mōs hominum ut nōlint eundem plūribus rēbus excellere, *it is the way of men not to wish the same person to excel in many things.*

D. Substantive Clauses introduced by *Quīn*.

298. Substantive Clauses introduced by *quīn* (used sometimes as subject, sometimes as object) occur after negative and interrogative expressions of *doubt*, *omission*, and the like, particularly after *nōn dubitō*, *I do not doubt*; *quis*

dubitat, *who doubts?*; **nōn** (*haud*) **dubium** est, *there is no doubt*. The mood is the Subjunctive. Examples:—

quis dubitat quīn in virtūte dīvitiae sint, *who doubts that in virtue there are riches?*

nōn dubium erat quīn ventūrus esset, *there was no doubt that he was about to come*.

- a. In Nepos, Livy, and post-Augustan writers an Infinitive sometimes takes the place of the **quīn**-clause after **nōn dubitō**; as, —
nōn dubitāmus inventōs esse, *we do not doubt that men were found*.
- b. **Nōn dubitō**, *I do not hesitate*, is regularly followed by the Infinitive, though sometimes by a **quīn**-clause.

E. Substantive Clauses Introduced by Quod.

299. 1. **Quod**, *the fact that, that*, introduces Substantive Clauses in the Indicative. This construction occurs especially —

- a) In apposition with a preceding demonstrative, as **hōc**, **id**, **illud**, **illa**, **ex eō**, **inde**, etc. Thus:—

illud est admirātiōne dignum, quod captīvōs retinendōs cēnsuit, *this is especially worthy of admiration, that he thought the prisoners ought to be kept*;

hōc ūnō praestāmus vel maximē ferīs, quod colloquimur inter nōs, *in this one respect we are especially superior to the beasts, that we talk with each other*.

- b) After **bene fit**, **bene accidit**, **male fit**, **bene facere**, **mīror**, etc.; as, —

bene mihi ēvenit, quod mittōr ad mortem, *it is well for me that I am sent to death*;

bene fēcistī quod mānsistī, *you did well in remaining*.

2. **Quod** at the beginning of the sentence sometimes has the force of *as regards the fact that*. Thus:—

quod multitūdinem Germānōrum in Galliam trādūcō, id mē mūniendī causā faciō, *as regards the fact that I am transporting a multitude of Germans into Gaul, I am doing it for the sake of strengthening myself*;

quod mē Agamemnona aemulārī putās, falleris, *as regards your thinking that I emulate Agamemnon, you are mistaken*.

F. Indirect Questions.

300. 1. Indirect Questions are Substantive Clauses used after verbs of *asking, inquiring, telling,* and the like. They take their verb in the Subjunctive.¹ Like Direct Questions (see § 162) they may be introduced —

a) By Interrogative Pronouns or Adverbs; as, —

dīc mihi ubi fuerīs, quid fēcerīs, *tell me where you were, what you did;*

oculīs iūdicārī nōn potest in utram partem fluat Arar, *it cannot be determined by the eye in which direction the Arar flows;*

bis bīna quot essent, nesciēbat, *he did not know how many two times two were.*

NOTE.—Care should be taken to distinguish Indirect Questions from Relative Clauses. The difference between the two appears clearly in the following: —

effugere nēmō id potest quod futūrum est, *no one can escape what is destined to come to pass;* but

saepe autem ne ūtile quidem est scīre quid futūrum sit, *but often it is not even useful to know what is coming to pass.*

b) By *num* or *-ne*, without distinction of meaning; as, —

Epaminōndās quaesīvit num salvus esset clipeus, or salvusne esset clipeus, *Epaminondas asked whether his shield was safe;*

disputātur num interīre virtūs in homine possit, *the question is raised whether virtue can die in a man;*

ex Sōcrate quaesītum est nōnne Archelāum beātum putāret, *the question was asked of Socrates whether he did not think Archelaus happy.*

NOTE.—*Nōnne* in Indirect Questions occurs only after *quaerō*, as in the last example above.

2. Often the Indirect Question represents a Deliberative Subjunctive of the direct discourse; as, —

nesciō quid faciam, *I do not know what to do.* (Direct: **quid faciam,** *what shall I do!*)

¹ Exclamations, also, upon becoming indirect, take the Subjunctive, as **cōnsiderā quam variae sint hominum cupīdinēs,** *consider how varied are the desires of men.* (Direct: **quam variae sunt hominum cupīdinēs!**)

3. After verbs of *expectation* and *endeavor* (**expectō**, **cōnor**, **experiō**, **temptō**) we sometimes find an Indirect Question introduced by **sī**; as, —

cōnantur sī perrumpere possint, *they try whether they can break through.*

a. Sometimes the governing verb is omitted; as, —

pergit ad proximam spēluncam sī forte eō vēstigia ferrent, *he proceeded to the nearest cave (to see) if the tracks led thither.*

4. **Indirect Double Questions** are introduced in the main by the same particles as direct double questions (§ 162, 4); *viz.* :—

utrum . . . an;
-ne an;
 — **an**;
 — **ne**.

Examples :—

quaerō utrum vērum an falsum sit,	} <i>I ask whether it is true or false?</i>
quaerō vērumne an falsum sit,	
quaerō vērum an falsum sit,	
quaerō vērum falsumne sit,	

a. 'Or not' in the second member of the double question is ordinarily expressed by **ne** or **ne**, less frequently by **an nōn**; as, —

dī utrum sint necne, quaeritur, *it is asked whether there are gods or not.*

5. **Haud sciō an, nesciō an**, by omission of the first member of the double question, occur with the Subjunctive in the sense: *I am inclined to think, probably, perhaps*; as, —

haud sciō an ita sit, *I am inclined to think this is so.*

6. In early Latin and in poetry the Indicative is sometimes used in Indirect Questions.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

301. Conditional Sentences are compound sentences (§ 164) consisting of two parts, the Protasis (or *condition*), usually introduced by **sī**, **nisi**, or **sīn**, and the Apodosis (or *conclusion*). There are the following types of Conditional Sentences :—

First Type. — Nothing Implied as to the Reality of the Supposed Case.

302. 1. Here we regularly have the Indicative in both Protasis and Apodosis. Any tense may be used; as, —

sī hōc crēdis, errās, if you believe this, you are mistaken;
nātūram sī sequēmur, numquam aberrābimus, if we follow Nature,
we shall never go astray;
sī hōc dīxistī, errāstī, if you said this, you were in error.

2. Sometimes the Protasis takes the Indefinite Second Person Singular (§ 356, 3) of the Present or Perfect Subjunctive, with the force of the Indicative; as, —

memoria minuitur, nisi eam exerceās, memory is impaired unless
you exercise it.

3. Here belong also those conditional sentences in which the Protasis denotes a repeated action (compare §§ 287, 2; 288, 3); as, —

sī quis equitum dēciderat, peditēs circumsistēbant, if any one
of the horsemen fell, the foot-soldiers gathered about him.

u. Instead of the Indicative, Livy and subsequent writers employ the Subjunctive of the Historical tenses in the Protasis to denote repeated action; as, —

sī dīcendō quis diem eximeret, if (ever) anybody consumed a day
in pleading; sī quandō adsidēret, if ever he sat by.

4. Where the sense demands it, the Apodosis in conditional sentences of the First Type may be an Imperative or one of the Independent Subjunctives (Hortatory, Deliberative, etc.); as, —

sī hōc crēditis, tacēte, if you believe this, be silent;
sī hōc crēdimus, taceāmus, if we believe this, let us keep silent.

Second Type. — ‘Should’-‘Would’ Conditions.

303. Here we regularly have the Subjunctive (of the Present or Perfect tense) in both Protasis and Apodosis; as, —

sī hōc dīcās, errēs, } *if you should say this, you would be mis-*
sī hōc dīxerīs, errāverīs, } *taken.*
sī velim Hannibalis proelia omnia dēscribere, diēs mē dēficiat,
if I should wish to describe all the battles of Hannibal, time
would fail me;

mentiar, sī negem, *I should lie, if I should deny it ;*

haec sī tēcum patria loquātur, nōne impetrāre dēbeat, *if your country should plead thus with you, would she not deserve to obtain her request ?*

- a. The Subjunctive in the Apodosis of conditional sentences of this type is of the Potential variety.
- b. Sometimes we find the Indicative in the Apodosis of sentences of the Second Type, where the writer wishes to assert the accomplishment of a result more positively ; as, —

aliter sī faciat, nullam habet auctoritatem, *if he should do otherwise, he has no authority.*

Third Type. — Supposed Case Represented as Contrary to Fact.

304. 1. Here we regularly have the Subjunctive in both Protasis and Apodosis, the Imperfect referring to *present time*, and the Pluperfect referring to *past* ; as, —

sī amīcī meī adessent, opis nōn indigērem, *if my friends were here, I should not lack assistance ;*

sī hōc dīxissēs, errāssēs, *if you had said this, you would have erred ;*

sapientia nōn expeterētur, sī nihil efficeret, *philosophy would not be desired, if it accomplished nothing ;*

cōnsilium, ratiō, sententia nisi essent in senibus, nōn summum cōnsilium majōrēs nostrī appellāssent senātum, *unless deliberation, reason, and wisdom existed in old men, our ancestors would not have called their highest deliberative body a senate.*

2. Sometimes the Imperfect Subjunctive is found referring to the past, especially to denote a *continued act*, or a *state of things still existing* ; as, —

Laelius, Fūrius, Catō sī nihil litterīs adjuvārentur, numquam sē ad eārum studium contulissent, *Laelius, Furius, and Cato would never have devoted themselves to the study of letters, unless they had been (constantly) helped by them ;*

num igitur sī ad centēsimum annum vīxisset, senectūtis eum suae paenitēret, *if he had lived to his hundredth year, would he have regretted (and now be regretting) his old age ?*

3. The Apodosis in conditional sentences of this type sometimes stands in the Indicative (Imperfect, Perfect, or Pluperfect), *viz.* —

a) Frequently in expressions of *ability, obligation, or necessity*; as, —

nisi fēlīcītās in sōcordiam vertisset, exuere jugum potuērunt, *unless their prosperity had turned to folly, they could have thrown off the yoke*;

NOTE. — In sentences of this type, however, it is not the *possibility* that is represented as-contrary-to-fact, but something to be supplied in thought from the context. Thus in the foregoing sentence the logical apodosis is **et exuissent** understood (*and they would have shaken it off*). When the *possibility* itself is conditioned, the Subjunctive is used.

eum patris locō colere dēbēbās, sī ūlla in tē pietās esset, *you ought to revere him as a father, if you had any sense of devotion.*

b) With both the Periphrastic Conjugations; as, —

sī Sēstius occīsus esset, fuistisne ad arma itūrī, *if Sestius had been slain, would you have proceeded to arms?*

sī ūnum diem morātī essētis, moriendū omnibus fuit, *if you had delayed one day, you would all have had to die.*

Protasis expressed without *Sī*.

305. 1. The Protasis is not always expressed by a clause with **sī**, but may be implied in a word, a phrase, or merely by the context; as, —

aliōquī haec nōn scrīberentur, *otherwise (i.e. if matters were otherwise) these things would not be written*;

nōn potestis, volūptāte omnia dīrigentēs, retinēre virtūtem, *you cannot retain virtue, if you direct everything with reference to pleasure.*

2. Sometimes an Imperative, or a Jussive Subjunctive, serves as Protasis. Thus:—

crās petitō, dabitur, *if you ask to-morrow, it shall be given you (lit. ask to-morrow, etc.)*;

haec reputent, vidēbunt, *if they consider this, they will see (lit. let them consider, etc.)*;

rogēs Zēnōnem, respondeat, *if you should ask Zeno, he would answer.*

Use of *Nisi*, *Sī Nōn*, *Sīn*.

306. 1. *Nisi*, unless, negatives the entire protasis; *sī nōn* negatives a single word; as, —

ferreus essem, nisi tē amārem, I should be hard-hearted unless I loved you; but —

ferreus essem, sī tē nōn amārem, I should be hard-hearted if I did NOT love you.

In the first example, it is the notion of *loving you* that is negated, in the second, the notion of *loving*.

2. *Sī nōn* (*sī minus*) is regularly employed: —

a) When an apodosis with *at*, *tamen*, *certē* follows; as, —

dolōrem sī nōn potuerō frangere, tamen occultābō, if I cannot crush my sorrow, yet I will hide it.

b) When an affirmative protasis is repeated in negative form; as, —

sī fēceris, magnam habēbō grātiam; sī nōn fēceris, ignōscam, if you do it, I shall be deeply grateful; if you do not do it, I shall pardon you.

a. But if the verb is omitted in the repetition, only *sī minus* or *sīn minus* is admissible; as, —

hōc sī assecūtus sum, gaudeō; sī minus, mē cōnsōlor, if I have attained this, I am glad; if not, I console myself.

3. *Sīn*. Where one protasis is followed by another opposed in meaning, but affirmative in form, the second is introduced by *sīn*; as, —

hunc mihi timōrem ēripe; sī vērū est, nē opprimar, sīn falsus, ut timēre dēsīnam, relieve me of this fear; if it is well founded, that I may not be destroyed; but if it is groundless, that I may cease to fear.

4. *Nisi* has a fondness for combining with negatives (*nōn*, *nēmō*, *nihil*); as, —

nihil cōgitāvit nisi caedem, he had no thought but murder.

a. *Nōn* and *nisi* are always separated in the best Latinity.

5. *Nisi forte*, *nisi vērō*, *nisi sī*, unless perchance, unless indeed (often with ironical force), take the Indicative; as, —

nisi vērō, quia perfecta rēs nōn est, nōn vidētur pūnienda, unless indeed, because an act is not consummated, it does not seem to merit punishment.

Conditional Clauses of Comparison.

307. 1. Conditional Clauses of Comparison are introduced by the particles, *ac sī, ut sī, quasi, quam sī, tamquam sī, velut sī,* or simply by *velut* or *tamquam*. They stand in the Subjunctive mood and regularly involve an ellipsis (see § 374, 1), as indicated in the following examples: —

tantus patrēs metus cēpit, velut sī jam ad portās hostis esset, as great fear seized the senators as (would have seized them) if the enemy were already at the gates;

sed quid ego hīs testibus fītor quasi rēs dubia aut obscūra sit, but why do I use these witnesses, as (I should do) if the matter were doubtful or obscure;

serviam tibi tam quasi ēmerīs mē argentō, I will serve you as though you had bought me for money.

2. Note that in sentences of this kind the Latin observes the regular principles for the Sequence of Tenses. Thus after principal tenses the Latin uses the Present and Perfect (as in the second and third examples), where the English uses the Past and Past Perfect.

Concessive Clauses.

308. The term 'Concessive' is best restricted to those clauses developed from the Jussive Subjunctive which have the force of *granted that, etc.;* (see § 278) as, —

sit fūr, sit sacrilegus, at est bonus imperātor, granted that he is a thief and a robber, yet he is a good commander;

haec sint falsa, granted that this is false;

nē sit summum malum dolor, malum certē est, granted that pain is not the greatest evil, yet it is certainly an evil.

Adversative Clauses with *quamvis, quamquam, etc.*

309. Clauses introduced by *quamvis, quamquam, etsī, tametsī, cum, although,* while often classed as 'Concessive,' are yet essentially different from genuine Concessive clauses. As a rule, they do not *grant* or *concede* anything, but rather state that something is true *in spite of*

something else. They accordingly emphasize the adversative idea, and are properly Subordinate Adversative Clauses. The different particles used to introduce these clauses have different meanings and take different constructions, as follows:—

1. **Quamvis**, *however much, although*, does not introduce a statement of fact, but represents an act merely as conceived. It is followed by the Subjunctive, usually of the present tense; as,—

hominēs quamvis in turbidīs rēbus sint, tamen interdum animīs relaxantur, *in however stirring events men may engage, yet at times they relax their energies;*

nōn est potestās opitulandī rei pūblicae quamvis ea premātur periculīs, *there is no opportunity to succor the state, though it be beset by dangers.*

2. **Quamquam**, **etsī**, **tametsī**, *although*, introduce a statement of fact, and are followed by the Indicative (of any tense); as,—

quamquam omnis virtūs nōs allicit, tamen iūstitia id maximē efficit, *although all virtue attracts us, yet justice does so especially;*

Caesar, etsī nōndum cōnsilium hostium cognōverat, tamen id quod accidit suspiciābātur, *Caesar, though he did not yet know the plans of the enemy, yet was suspecting what actually occurred.*

u. **Etsī**, *although*, must be distinguished from **etsī**, *even if*. The latter is a conditional particle and takes any of the constructions admissible for **sī**. (See §§ 302-304.)

3. **Cum**, *although*, is followed by the Subjunctive; as,—

Atticus honōrēs nōn petiit, cum eī patērent, *Atticus did not seek honors, though they were open to him.*

4. **Licet** sometimes loses its verbal force (see § 295, 6) and sinks to the level of a conjunction with the force of *although*. It takes the Subjunctive, Present or Perfect; as,—

licet omnēs terrōrēs impendeant, succurram, *though all terrors hang over me, (yet) I will lend aid.*

5. **Quamquam**, with the force *and yet*, is often used to introduce principal clauses; as,—

quamquam quid loquor, *and yet why do I speak?*

6. In post-Augustan writers **quamquam** is freely construed with the Subjunctive, while **quamvis** is often used to introduce statements of fact, and takes either the Indicative or the Subjunctive. Thus: —

quamquam movērētur his vōcibus, *although he was moved by these words;*
quamvis multī opīnārentur, *though many thought;*
quamvis infēstō animō pervēnerās, *though you had come with hostile intent.*

Clauses with *Dum*, *Modo*, *Dummodo*, denoting a Wish or a Proviso.

310. These particles are followed by the Subjunctive (negative **nē**) and have two distinct uses: —

I. They are used to introduce clauses *embodying a wish* entertained by the subject of the leading verb; as, —

multī honesta neglegunt dummodo potentiam cōsequantur,
many neglect honor in their desire to obtain power (if only they may attain);

omnia postposuī, dum praeceptīs patris pārērem, *I made everything else secondary, in my desire to obey the injunctions of my father;*
nīl obstat tibi, dum nē sit dītior alter, *nothing hinders you in your desire that your neighbor may not be richer than you.*

II. They are used to express a *proviso* ('provided that'); as, —

ōderint, dum metuant, *let them hate, provided they fear;*
manent ingenia senibus, modo permaneat studium et industria,
old men retain their faculties, provided only they retain their interest and vigor;
nūbant, dum nē dōs fiat comes, *let them marry, provided no dowry goes with it.*

Relative Clauses.

311. Relative Clauses are introduced by Relative Pronouns, Adjectives, or Adverbs.

312. 1. Relative clauses usually stand in the Indicative Mood, especially clauses introduced by those General Relatives which are doubled or have the suffix **-cumque**; as, —

quidquid id est, timeō Danaōs et dōna ferentēs, whatever it is, I fear the Greeks even when they offer gifts;

quidquid oritur, quālecumque est, causam ā nātūrā habet, whatever comes into being, of whatever sort it is, has its primal cause in Nature.

2. Any simple Relative may introduce a conditional sentence of any of the three types mentioned in §§ 302-304; as, —

quī hōc dīcit, errat, he who says this is mistaken (First Type);

quī hōc dīcat, erret, he would be mistaken who should say this (Second Type);

quī hōc dīxisset, errāset, the man who had said this would have been mistaken.

INDIRECT DISCOURSE (*ŌRĀTIŌ OBLĪQUA*).

313. When the language or thought of any person is reproduced without change, that is called Direct Discourse (*Ōrātiō Rēcta*); as, *Caesar said, 'The die is cast.'* When, on the other hand, one's language or thought is made to depend upon a verb of *saying, thinking, etc.*, that is called Indirect Discourse (*Ōrātiō Oblīqua*); as, *Caesar said that the die was cast; Caesar thought that his troops were victorious.*

a. For the verbs most frequently employed to introduce Indirect Discourse, see § 331.

MOODS IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Declarative Sentences.

314. 1. Declarative Sentences upon becoming Indirect change their main clause to the Infinitive with Subject Accusative, while all subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive; as, —

Rēgulus dīxit quam diū jūre jūrāndō hostium tenērētur nōn esse sē senātōrem, Regulus said that as long as he was held by his pledge to the enemy he was not a senator. (Direct: quam diū teneor nōn sum senātor.)

2. The verb of *saying, thinking, etc.*, is sometimes to be inferred from the context; as, —

tum Rōmulus lēgātōs circā vīcīnās gentēs mīsit quī societātem cōnūbiumque peterent: urbēs quoque, ut cētera, ex īnāmō nāscī, *then Romulus sent envoys around among the neighboring tribes, to ask for alliance and the right of inter-marriage, (saying that) cities, like everything else, start from a modest beginning.*

3. Subordinate clauses which contain an explanatory statement of the writer and so are not properly a part of the Indirect Discourse, or which emphasize the fact stated, take the Indicative; as, —

nūntiātum est Ariovistum ad occupandū Vesontiōnem, quod est oppidum maximum Sēquanōrum contendere, *it was reported that Ariovistus was hastening to seize Vesontio, which is the largest town of the Sequani.*

4. Sometimes a subordinate clause is such only in its external form, and in sense is principal. It then takes the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. This occurs especially in case of relative clauses, where quī is equivalent to et hīc, nam hīc, etc.; as, —

dīxit urbem Athēniēnsium prōpugnāculum oppositum esse barbarīs, apud quam jam bis classēs rēgiās fēcisse naufragium, *he said the city of the Athenians had been set against the barbarians like a bulwark, near which (= and near it) the fleets of the King had twice met disaster.*

5. The Subject Accusative of the Infinitive is sometimes omitted when it refers to the same person as the subject of the leading verb, or can easily be supplied from the context; as, —

cum id nescīre Māgō dīceret, *when Mago said he did not know this (for sē nescīre).*

Interrogative Sentences.

315. 1. Real questions of the Direct Discourse, upon becoming indirect, are regularly put in the Subjunctive; as, —

Ariovistus Caesarī respondit: sē prius in Galliam vēnisse quam populum Rōmānum. Quid sibi vellet? Cūr in suās possessiōnēs venīret, *Ariovistus replied to Caesar that he*

had come into Gaul before the Roman people. What did he (Caesar) mean? Why did he come into his domain? (Direct: **quid tibi vīs? cūr in meās possessiōnēs venīs?**)

2. Rhetorical questions, on the other hand, being asked merely for effect, and being equivalent in force to emphatic statements, regularly stand in the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse. Thus:—

quid est levius (lit. *what is more trivial*, = nothing is more trivial) of the Direct Discourse becomes **quid esse levius** in the Indirect.

3. Deliberative Subjunctives of the Direct Discourse remain unchanged in mood in the Indirect: as,—

quid faceret, *what was he to do?* (Direct: **quid faciat?**)

Imperative Sentences.

316. All Imperatives or Jussive Subjunctives of the Direct Discourse appear as Subjunctives in the Indirect; as,—

militēs certiōrēs fēcit paulisper intermitterent proelium, *he told the soldiers to stop the battle for a little.* (Direct: **intermittite.**)

a. The negative in such sentences is **nē**; as,—

nē suae virtūtī tribueret, *let him not attribute it to his own valor!*

TENSES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

A. Tenses of the Infinitive.

317. These are used in accordance with the regular principles for the use of the Infinitive as given in § 270.

a. The Perfect Infinitive may represent any past tense of the Indicative of Direct Discourse. Thus:—

sciō tē haec ēgisse may mean—

I know you were doing this. (Direct: **haec agēbās.**)

I know you did this. (Direct: **haec ēgistī.**)

I know you had done this. (Direct: **haec ēgerās.**)

B. Tenses of the Subjunctive.

318. These follow the regular principle for the Sequence of Tenses, being Principal if the verb of *saying* is Principal; Historical if it is Historical. Yet for the sake of vividness, we often find the Present Subjunctive used after an historical tense (*Repraesentātiō*); as, —

Caesar respondit, sī obsidēs dentur, sēsē pācem esse factūrum,
Caesar replied that, if hostages be given, he would make peace.

a. For the sequence after the Perfect Infinitive, see § 268, 2.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Conditional Sentences of the First Type.

319. A. THE APODOSIS. Any tense of the Indicative is changed to the corresponding tense of the Infinitive (§§ 270; 317, a).

B. THE PROTASIS. The protasis takes those tenses of the Subjunctive which are required by the Sequence of Tenses.

Examples: —

DIRECT.	INDIRECT.
sī hōc crēdis, errās,	{ dīcō, sī hōc crēdās, tē errāre; dīxī, sī hōc crēderēs, tē errāre.
sī hōc crēdēs, errābis,	{ dīcō, sī hōc crēdās, tē errātūrum esse; dīxī, sī hōc crēderēs, tē errātūrum esse.
sī hōc crēdideris, errābis,	{ dīcō, sī hōc crēdiderīs, tē errātūrum esse; dīxī, sī hōc crēdidissēs, tē errātūrum esse.
sī hōc crēdēbās, errāvistī,	{ dīcō, sī hōc crēderēs, tē errāvisse; dīxī, sī hōc crēderēs, tē errāvisse.

a. Note that a Future Perfect Indicative of the Direct Discourse regularly appears in the Indirect as a Perfect Subjunctive after a principal tense, and as a Pluperfect Subjunctive after an historical tense.

Conditional Sentences of the Second Type.

320. A. THE APODOSIS. The Present Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse regularly becomes the Future Infinitive of the Indirect.

B. THE PROTASIS. The Protasis takes those tenses of the Subjunctive demanded by the sequence of tenses.

Examples:—

sī hōc crēdās, errēs, { *dīcō, sī hōc crēdās, tē errātūrum esse;*
dīxī, sī hōc crēderēs, tē errātūrum esse.

Conditional Sentences of the Third Type.

321. A. THE APODOSIS.

1. The Imperfect Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse becomes the Future Infinitive.

a. But this construction is rare, being represented in the classical Latinity by a single example (Caesar, V. 29. 2). Some scholars question the correctness of this passage.

2. The Pluperfect Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse becomes:—

a) In the Active Voice the Infinitive in *-ūrus fuisse*.

b) In the Passive Voice it takes the form *futūrum fuisse ut* with the Imperfect Subjunctive.

B. THE PROTASIS. The protasis in Conditional Sentences of this type always remains unchanged.

Examples:—

<i>sī hōc crēderēs, errārēs,</i>	<i>dīcō (dīxī), sī hōc crēderēs, tē errātūrum esse;</i>
<i>sī hōc crēdidissēs, errāvissēs,</i>	<i>dīcō (dīxī), sī hōc crēdidissēs, tē errātūrum fuisse;</i>
<i>sī hōc dīxissēs, pūnītus essēs,</i>	<i>dīcō (dīxī), sī hōc dīxissēs, futūrum fuisse ut pūnīrēris.</i>

322. When an apodosis of a conditional sentence of the Third Type referring to the past is at the same time a Result clause, or a

quīn-clause (after *nōn dubitō, etc.*), it stands in the Perfect Subjunctive in the form *-ūrus fuerim*; as,—

ita territī sunt, ut arma trāditūrī fuerint,¹ nisi Caesar subitō advēnisset, they were so frightened that they would have given up their arms, had not Caesar suddenly arrived;

nōn dubitō quīn, sī hōc dīxissēs, errātūrus fuerīs,¹ I do not doubt that, if you had said this, you would have made a mistake.

- a. This peculiarity is confined to the Active Voice. In the Passive, such sentences, when they become dependent, remain unchanged; as,—

nōn dubitō quīn, sī hōc dīxissēs, vituperātus essēs, I do not doubt that, if you had said this, you would have been blamed.

- b. When an Indirect Question becomes an apodosis in a conditional sentence of the Third Type, *-ūrus fuerim* (rarely *-ūrus fuissēm*) is used; as,—

quaerō, num, sī hōc dīxissēs, errātūrus fuerīs (or fuissēs).

- c. *Potui*, when it becomes a dependent apodosis in sentences of this Type, usually changes to the Perfect Subjunctive; as,—

conkursū tōtīus civitātis dēfēnsī sunt, ut frigidissimōs quoque orātōrēs populī studia excitāre potuerint, they were defended before a gathering of all the citizens, so that the interest of the people would have been enough to excite even the most apathetic orators.

IMPLIED INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

323. The Subjunctive is often used in subordinate clauses whose indirect character is *merely implied by the context*; as,—

dēmōnstrābantur mihi praetereā, quae Sōcratēs dē immortalitāte animōrum disseruisset, there were explained to me besides, the arguments which Socrates had set forth concerning the immortality of the soul (i.e. the arguments which, it was said, Socrates had set forth);

Paetus omnēs librōs quōs pater suus reliquisset mihi dōnāvit, Paetus gave me all the books which (as he said) his father had left.

¹ *Trāditūrī fuerint* and *errātūrus fuerīs* are to be regarded as representing *trāditūrī fuērunt* and *errātūrus fuistī* of Direct Discourse. (See § 304. 3. b.)

SUBJUNCTIVE BY ATTRACTION.

324. 1. Subordinate clauses dependent upon the Subjunctive are frequently attracted into the same mood, especially when they do not express a fact, but constitute *an essential part of one complex idea*; as, —

nēmō avārus adhūc inventus est, cui, quod habēret, esset satis,
no miser has yet been found who was satisfied with what he had;

cum dīversās causās afferrent, dum fōrmam suī quisque et animī et ingeniī redderent, *as they brought forward different arguments, while each mirrored his own individual type of mind and natural bent;*

quod ego fatear, pudeat? *should I be ashamed of a thing which I admit?*

2. Similarly a subordinate clause dependent upon an Infinitive is put in the Subjunctive when the two form one closely united whole; as, —

mōs est Athēnīs quotannīs in cōntiōne laudārī eōs quī sint in proeliīs interfectī, *it is the custom at Athens every year for those to be publicly eulogized who have been killed in battle.*
(Here the notion of 'praising those who fell in battle' forms an inseparable whole.)

NOUN AND ADJECTIVE FORMS OF THE VERB.

325. These are the Infinitive, Participle, Gerund, and Supine. All of these partake of the nature of the Verb, on the one hand, and of the Noun or Adjective, on the other. Thus: —

As Verbs, —

- a) They may be limited by adverbs;
- b) They admit an object;
- c) They have the properties of voice and tense.

As Nouns or Adjectives, —

- a) They are declined;
- b) They take Noun or Adjective constructions.

THE INFINITIVE.

Infinitive without Subject Accusative.

326. This is used chiefly as Subject or Object but also as Predicate or Appositive.

NOTE.— The Infinitive was originally a Dative, and traces of this are still to be seen in the poetical use of the Infinitive to express *purpose*; as, *uec dulcōs occurrēt ōscula nātī praeripere*, and *no sweet children will run to snatch kisses*.

A. As Subject.

327. 1. The Infinitive without Subject Accusative is used as the Subject of *esse* and various impersonal verbs, particularly *opus est*, *necesse est*, *oportet*, *juvat*, *dēlectat*, *placet*, *libet*, *licet*, *praestat*, *decet*, *puđet*, *interest*, *etc.*; as, — *dulce et decōrum est prō patriā morī*, *it is sweet and noble to die for one's country*;

virōrum est fortium toleranter dōlōrem patī, *it is the part of brave men to endure pain with patience*;

senātuī placuit lēgātōs mittere, *the Senate decided* (lit. *it pleased the Senate*) *to send envoys*.

2. Even though the Infinitive itself appears without Subject, it may take a Predicate Noun or Adjective in the Accusative; as, —

aliud est irācundum esse, aliud irātum, *it is one thing to be irascible, another to be angry*;

impūne quaelibet facere, id est rēgem esse, *to do whatever you please with impunity, that is to be a king*.

u. But when *licet* is followed by a Dative of the person, a Predicate Noun or Adjective with *esse* is attracted into the same case; as, *licuit esse ōtiōsō Themistocli*, lit. *it was permitted to Themistocles to be at leisure*. So sometimes with other Impersonals.

B. As Object.

328. 1. The Infinitive without Subject Accusative is used as the Object of many verbs, to denote another action of the same subject, particularly after —

volō, cupiō, mālō, nōlō;

dēbeō, ought;

statuō, cōstituō, decide;

cōgitō, meditor, purpose, intend;

neglegō, neglect;

vereor, timeō, fear;

audeō, <i>dare</i> ;	mātūrō, festīnō, properō, con-
studeō, contendō, <i>strive</i> ;	tendō, <i>hasten</i> ;
parō, <i>prepare</i> (so parātus) ;	assuēscō, cōnsuēscō, <i>accustom</i>
incipiō, coepī, instituō, <i>begin</i> ;	myself (so assuētus, insuētus.
pergō, <i>continue</i> ;	assuēfactus) ;
dēsīnō, dēsīstō, <i>cease</i> ;	discō, <i>learn</i> ;
possum, <i>can</i> ;	sciō, <i>know how</i> ;
cōnor, <i>try</i> ;	soleō, <i>am wont</i> ; as, —
tū hōs intuērī audēs, <i>do you dare to look on these men ?</i>	
Dēmōsthenēs ad flūctūs maris dēclāmāre solēbat, <i>Demosthene;</i>	
<i>used to declaim by the waves of the sea.</i>	

2. A Predicate Noun or Adjective with these Infinitives is attracted into the Nominative ; as,—

beātus esse sine virtūte nēmō potest, *no one can be happy without virtue* ;

Catō esse quam vidērī bonus mālēbat, *Cato preferred to be good rather than to seem so.*

Infinitive with Subject Accusative.

329. This is used chiefly as Subject or Object but also as Predicate or Appositive.

A. As Subject.

330. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative (like the simple Infinitive) is used as Subject with *esse* and Impersonal verbs, particularly with *aequum est*, *ūtile est*, *turpe est*, *fāma est*, *spēs est*, *fās est*, *nefās est*, *opus est*, *necesse est*, *oportet*, *cōnstat*, *praestat*, *licet*, *etc.* ; as,—

nihil in bellō oportet contemnī, *nothing ought to be despised in war* ;
 apertum est sibi quemque nātūrā esse cārum, *it is manifest that by nature everybody is dear to himself.*

B. As Object.

331. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is used as Object after the following classes of verbs :

I. Most frequently after verbs of *saying*, *thinking*, *knowing*, *perceiving*, and the like (*Verba Sentiendī et Dēclārandī*). This is the

regular construction of Principal Clauses of Indirect Discourse. Verbs that take this construction are, among others, the following: **sentiō**, **audiō**, **videō**, **cognōscō**; **putō**, **jūdicō**, **spērō**, **cōnfidō**; **sciō**, **meminī**; **dīcō**, **affirmō**, **negō** (*say that . . . not*), **trādō**, **nārrō**, **fateor**, **respondeō**, **scribō**, **prōmittō**, **glōrior**. Also the phrases: **certiōrem faciō** (*inform*), **memoriā teneō** (*remember*), etc.

Examples:—

Epicūrēi putant cum corporibus simul animōs interīre, *the Epicureans think that the soul perishes with the body*;

Thalēs dīxit aquam esse initium rērum, *Thales said that water was the first principle of the universe*;

Dēmocritus negat quicquid esse sempiternum, *Democritus says nothing is everlasting*;

spērō eum ventūrum esse, *I hope that he will come*.

II. With **jubeō**, *order*, and **vetō**, *forbid*; as,—

Caesar milītēs pontem facere jussit, *Caesar ordered the soldiers to make a bridge*.

a. When the name of the person who is ordered or forbidden to do something is omitted, the Infinitive with **jubeō** and **vetō** is put in the Passive; as, **Caesar pontem fieri jussit**.

III. With **patior** and **sinō**, *permit*, *allow*; as,—

nūllō sē implicārī negōtiō passus est, *he did not permit himself to be involved in any difficulty*.

IV. With **volō**, **nōlō**, **mālō**, **cupiō**, when the Subject of the Infinitive is different from that of the governing verb; as,—

nec mihi hunc errōrem extorquērī volō, *nor do I wish this error to be wrested from me*;

eās rēs jactārī nōlēbat, *he was unwilling that these matters should be discussed*;

tē tuā fruī virtūte cupimus, *we desire that you enjoy your worth*.

a. When the Subject of both verbs is the same, the simple Infinitive is regularly used in accordance with § 328. 1. But exceptions occur, especially in case of **esse** and Passive Infinitives; as,—

cupiō mē esse clēmentem, *I desire to be lenient*;

Tīmoleōn māluit sē diligī quam metuī, *Timoleon preferred to be loved rather than feared*.

b. **Volō** also admits the Subjunctive, with or without **ut**; **nōlō** the Subjunctive alone. (See § 296. 1. a.)

V. With Verbs of *emotion* (*joy, sorrow, regret, etc.*), especially *gaudeō, laetor, doleō*; *aegrē ferō, molestē ferō, graviter ferō*, *am annoyed, distressed*; *mīror, queror, indignor*; as, —

gaudeō tē salvum advenīre, I rejoice that you arrive safely;
nōn molestē ferunt sē libīdinum vinculis laxātōs ēsse, they are not troubled at being released from the bonds of passion;
mīror tē ad mē nihil scribere, I wonder that you write me nothing.

u. Instead of an Infinitive these verbs also sometimes admit a *quod*-clause as Object. (See § 299.) Thus: —

mīror quod nōn loqueris, I wonder that you do not speak.

VI. Some verbs which take two Accusatives, one of the Person and the other of the Thing (§ 178, 1), may substitute an Infinitive for the second Accusative; as, —

cōgō tē hōc facere, I compel you to do this (*cf. tē hōc cōgō*);
docuī tē contentum esse, I taught you to be content (*cf. tē modestiam docuī, I taught you temperance*).

Passive Construction of the Foregoing Verbs.

332. Those verbs which in the Active are followed by the Infinitive with Subject Accusative, usually admit the personal construction of the Passive. This is true of the following and of some others: —

a) *jubeor, vetor, sinor*; as, —

mīlitēs pontem facere jussī sunt, the soldiers were ordered to build a bridge;

pōns fierī jussus est, a bridge was ordered built;

mīlitēs castris exīre vetitī sunt, the troops were forbidden to go out of the camp;

Sēstius Clōdium accūsāre nōn est sītus, Sestius was not allowed to accuse Clodius.

b) *videor, I am seen, I seem*; as, —

vidētur comperisse, he seems to have discovered.

c) *dīcor, putor, exīstimor, jūdicor* (in all persons); as, —

dīcitur in Italiam vēnisse, he is said to have come into Italy;

Rōmulus prīmus rēx Rōmānōrum fuisse putātur, Romulus is thought to have been the first king of the Romans.

d) fertur, feruntur, trāditur, trāduntur (only in the third person); as, —

fertur Homērus caecus fuisse, *Homer is said to have been blind*;

carmina Archilochī contumēliīs referta esse trāduntur, *Archilochus's poems are reported to have been full of abuse.*

NOTE.—In compound tenses and periphrastic forms, the last two classes of verbs, *c*), *d*), more commonly take the impersonal construction; as, —

trāditum est Homērum caecum fuisse, *the story goes that Homer was blind.*

Infinitive with Adjectives.

333. The Infinitive with Adjectives (except parātus, assuētus, etc.; see § 328, 1) occurs only in poetry and post-Augustan prose writers; as, —

contentus dēmōnstrāsse, *contented to have proved*;
audāx omnia perpetī, *bold for enduring everything.*

Infinitive in Exclamations.

334. The Infinitive is used in Exclamations implying scorn, indignation, or regret. An intensive -ne is often attached to some word in the clause. Examples: —

huncine sōlem tam nigrum surrēxe mihi, *to think that to-day's sun rose with such evil omen for me!*

sedēre tōtōs diēs in villā, *to stay whole days at the villa.*

Historical Infinitive.

335. The Infinitive is often used in historical narrative instead of the Imperfect Indicative. The Subject stands in the Nominative; as, —

interim cottīdiē Caesar Haeduōs frūmentum flāgitāre, *meanwhile Caesar was daily demanding grain of the Haedui.*

PARTICIPLES.

Tenses of the Participle.

336. 1. The tenses of the Participle, like those of the Infinitive (see § 270), express time not absolutely, but with reference to the verb upon which the Participle depends.

2. The Present Participle denotes action *contemporary with* that of the verb. Thus:—

audiō tē loquentem = *you ARE speaking and I hear you* ;

audiēbam tē loquentem = *you WERE speaking and I heard you* ;

audiam tē loquentem = *you WILL BE speaking and I shall hear you*.

a. The Present Participle is sometimes employed with Conative force ; as, —

assurgentem rēgem resupīnat, *as the king was trying to rise, he threw him down*.

3. The Perfect Passive Participle denotes action *prior to* that of the verb. Thus:—

locūtus taceō = *I HAVE spoken and am silent* ;

locūtus tacuī = *I HAD spoken and then was silent* ;

locūtus tacēbō = *I SHALL speak and then shall be silent*.

4. The **absolute** time of the action of a participle, therefore, is determined entirely by the finite verb with which it is connected.

5. Certain Perfect Passive Participles of Deponent and Semi-Deponent Verbs are used as Presents ; *viz.* **arbitrātus, ausus, ratus, gāvīsus, solitus, ūsus, cōnfīsus, diffīsus, secūtus, veritus**.

Use of Participles.

337. As an Adjective the Participle may be used either as an attributive or predicate modifier of a Substantive.

1. Attributive Use. This presents no special peculiarities. Examples are:—

glōria est cōsentiēns laus bonōrum, *glory is the unanimous praise of the good* ;

Conōn mūrōs ā Lysandrō dīrutōs reficit, *Conon restored the walls destroyed by Lysander*.

2. Predicate Use. Here the Participle is often equivalent to a subordinate clause. Thus the Participle may denote:—

a) Time ; as, —

omne malum nāscēns facile opprimitur, *every evil is easily crushed at birth*.

b) A Condition ; as, —

mente ūtī nōn possumus cibō et pōtiōne complētī, *if gorged with food and drink, we cannot use our intellects*.

c) Manner; as, —

Solōn senēscere sē dīcēbat multa in diēs addiscentem,
Solon said he grew old learning many new things daily.

d) Means; as, —

sōl oriēns diem cōnficit, *the sun, by its rising, makes the day.*

e) Opposition ('though'); as, —

mendācī hominī nē vērūm quidem dīcentī crēdimus,
we do not believe a liar, though he speaks the truth.

f) Cause; as, —

perfidiam veritus ad suōs recessit, *since he feared treachery, he returned to his own troops.*

3. **Videō** and **audiō**, besides the Infinitive, take the Present Participle in the Predicate use; as, —

videō tē fugientem, *I see you fleeing.*

a. So frequently **faciō**, **ingō**, **indūcō**, etc.; as, —

eīs Catōnem respondentem facimus, *we represent Cato replying to them;*

Homērus Laërtem colentem agrum facit, *Homer represents Laertes tilling the field.*

4. The Future Active Participle (except **futūrus**) is regularly confined to its use in the Periphrastic Conjugation, but in poets and later writers it is used independently, especially to denote *purpose*; as, —

vēnērunt castra oppugnātūrī, *they came to assault the camp.*

5. The Perfect Passive Participle is often equivalent to a coördinate clause; as, —

urbem captam dīruit, *he captured and destroyed the city (lit. he destroyed the city captured).*

6. The Perfect Passive Participle in combination with a noun is sometimes equivalent to an abstract noun with a dependent Genitive; as, —

post urbem conditam, *after the founding of the city;*

Quīnctius dēfēnsus, *the defense of Quinctius;*

quibus animus occupātus, *the preoccupation of the mind with which.*

7. **Habeō** sometimes takes a Perfect Passive Participle in the Predicate construction with a force not far removed from that of the Perfect or Pluperfect Indicative; as, —

equitātus quem coāctum habēbat, *the cavalry which he had collected.*

8. The Gerundive denotes *obligation, necessity, etc.* Like other Participles it may be used either as Attributive or Predicate.

a) Less frequently as Attributive. Thus :—

liber legendus, a book worth reading ;
lēgēs observandae, laws deserving of observance.

b) More frequently as Predicate.

1) In the Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (**amandus est**, etc.). In this use Intransitive Verbs can be used only impersonally, but admit their ordinary case-construction (Gen., Dat., Abl.) ; as, —

veniendum est, it is necessary to come ;
oblīvīscendum est offēnsārum, one must forget injuries ;
numquam prōditōrī crēdendum est, you must never trust a traitor ;
suō cuique ūtendum est jūdiciō, every man must use his own judgment.

2) After **cūrō**, provide for ; **dō**, **trādō**, give over ; **relinquō**, leave ; **concedō**, hand over ; and some other verbs, instead of an object clause, or to denote purpose ; as, —
Caesar pontem in Ararī faciendum cūrāvit, Caesar provided for the construction of a bridge over the Arar ;
imperātor urbem mīlitibus dīripiendam concessit, the general handed over the city to the soldiers to plunder.

9. For the Gerundive as the equivalent of the Gerund, see § 339, 1.

THE GERUND.

338. As a verbal noun the Gerund admits noun constructions as follows :—

1. **Genitive.** The Genitive of the Gerund is used —

a) With Nouns, as objective or Appositional Genitive (see §§ 200, 202) ; as, —

cupiditās dominandī, desire of ruling ;
ars scribendī, the art of writing.

b) With Adjectives ; as, —

cupidus audiendī, desirous of hearing.

c) With **causā**, **grātiā** ; as, —

discendī causā, for the sake of learning.

2. **Dative.** The Dative of the Gerund is used —

a) With Adjectives ; as, —

aqua ūtilis est bibendō, water is useful for drinking.

b) With Verbs (rarely) ; as, —

adfui scribendō, I was present at the writing.

3. **Accusative.** The Accusative of the Gerund is used only with Prepositions, chiefly *ad* and *in* to denote purpose ; as, —

homō ad agendum nātus est, man is born for action.

4. **Ablative.** The Ablative of the Gerund is used —

a) Without a Preposition, as an Ablative of Means, Cause, etc. (see §§ 218, 219) ; as, —

mēns discendō alitur et cōgitandō, the mind is nourished by learning and reflection.

Themistoclēs maritimōs praedōnēs cōsectandō mare tūtum reddidit, Themistocles made the sea safe by following up the pirates.

b) After the prepositions *ā, dē, ex, in* ; as, —

summa voluptās ex discendō capitur, the keenest pleasure is derived from learning ;

multa dē bene beātēque vīvendō ā Platōne disputāta sunt, there was much discussion by Plato on the subject of living well and happily.

5. As a rule, only the Genitive of the Gerund and the Ablative (without a preposition) admit a Direct Object.

Gerundive Construction instead of the Gerund.

339. 1. Instead of the Genitive or Ablative of the Gerund with a Direct Object, another construction *may be, and very often is, used.* This consists in putting the Direct Object in the case of the Gerund (Gen. or Abl.) and using the Gerundive in agreement with it. This is called the Gerundive Construction. Thus : —

GERUND CONSTRUCTION.

cupidus urbem videndī, desirous of seeing the city.

dēlector ōrātōrēs legendō, I am charmed with reading the orators.

GERUNDIVE CONSTRUCTION.

cupidus urbis videndae ;

dēlector ōrātōribus legendis.

2. The Gerundive Construction *must be used* to avoid a Direct Object with the Dative of the Gerund, or with a case dependent upon a Preposition ; as, —

locus castris muniendis aptus, a place adapted to fortifying a camp ;
ad pacem petendam venerunt, they came to ask peace ;
multum temporis consūmō in legendis poetis, I spend much time
in reading the poets.

3. In order to avoid ambiguity (see § 236, 2), the Gerundive Construction must not be employed in case of Neuter Adjectives, used substantively. Thus regularly —

philosophi cupidī sunt verum investigandī, philosophers are eager
for discovering truth (rarely **verī investigandī**) ;
studium plūra cognoscendī, a desire of knowing more (not **plūrium cognoscendorum**).

4. From the nature of the case only Transitive Verbs can be used in the Gerundive construction ; but **utor**, **fruor**, **fungor**, **potior** (originally transitive) regularly admit it ; as. —

hostēs in spem potiundōrum castrōrum venerant, the enemy had
conceived the hope of gaining possession of the camp.

5. The Genitives **meī**, **tuī**, **suī**, **nostrī**, **vestrī**, when used in the Gerundive Construction, are regularly employed without reference to Gender or Number, since they were originally Neuter Singular Adjectives used substantively. Thus : —

mulier suī servandī causā aufūgit, the woman fled for the sake of
saving herself ;

lēgātī in castra venerunt suī purgandī causā, the envoys came into
camp for the purpose of clearing themselves.

So nostrī servandī causā, for the sake of saving ourselves.

6. Occasionally the Genitive of the Gerundive Construction is used to denote *purpose* ; as, —

quae ille cēpit lēgum ac libertātis subvertundae, which he under-
took for the purpose of overthrowing the laws and liberty.

7. The Dative of the Gerundive Construction occurs in some expressions which have the character of formulas ; as, —

decemvirī lēgibus scribundis, *decemvirs for codifying the laws ;*

quindecimvirī sacris faciundis, *quindecimvirs for performing the sacrifices.*

THE SUPINE.

340. 1. The Supine in **-um** is used after Verbs of motion to express *purpose*; as, —

lēgātī ad Caesarem grātulātum convēnērunt, envoys came to Caesar to congratulate him.

a. The Supine in **-um** may take an Object; as, —

pācem petītum orātōrēs Rōmam mittunt, they send envoys to Rome to ask for peace.

b. Note the phrase: —

dō (collocō) fīliam nūptum, I give my daughter in marriage.

2. The Supine in **-ū** is used as an Ablative of Specification with *facilis, difficilis, incredibilis, jucundus, optimus, etc.*; also with *fās est, nefās est, opus est*; as, —

haec rēs est facilis cognitū, this thing is easy to learn;

hōc est optimum factū, this is best to do.

a. Only a few Supines in **-ū** are in common use, chiefly *audītū, cognitū, dictū, factū, vīsū.*

b. The Supine in **-ū** never takes an Object.

CHAPTER VI. — *Particles.*

COÖRDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

341. Copulative Conjunctions. These *join* one word, phrase, or clause to another.

1. *a)* *et* simply connects.

b) *-que* joins more closely than *et*, and is used especially where the two members have an internal connection with each other; as, —

parentēs liberīque, parents and children;

cum hominēs aestū febrīque jactantur, when people are tossed about with heat and fever.

c) **atque** (**ac**) usually emphasizes the second of the two things connected, — *and also, and indeed, and in fact*. After words of likeness and difference, **atque** (**ac**) has the force of *as, than*. Thus:—

ego idem sentiō ac tū, *I think the same as you*;
haud aliter ac, *not otherwise than*.

d) **neque** (**nec**) means *and not, neither, nor*.

2. a) **-que** is an enclitic, and is appended always to the second of two words connected. Where it connects phrases or clauses, it is appended to the first word of the second clause; but when the first word of the second clause is a Preposition, **-que** is regularly appended to the next following word; as, —
ob eamque rem, *and on account of that thing*.

b) **atque** is used before vowels and consonants; **ac** never before vowels, and seldom before **c, g, qu**.

c) **et nōn** is used for **neque** when the emphasis of the negative rests upon a special word; as, —

vetus et nōn ignōbilis orātor, *an old and not ignoble orator*.

d) For *and nowhere, and never, and none*, the Latin regularly said **nec ūsquam, nec umquam, nec ūllus, etc.**

3. **Correlatives**. Copulative Conjunctions are frequently used correlatively; as, —

et . . . et, *both . . . and*;

neque (nec) . . . neque (nec), *neither . . . nor*;

cum . . . tum, *while . . . at the same time*;

tum . . . tum, *not only . . . but also*.

Less frequently:—

et . . . neque; neque . . . et.

u. Note that the Latin, with its tendency to emphasize antithetical relations, often uses correlatives, especially **et . . . et, et . . . neque, neque . . . et**, where the English employs but a single connective.

4. **In enumerations** —

a) The different members of a series may follow one another without connectives (Asyndeton; see § 346). Thus:—

**ex cupiditātibus odia, discidia, discordiae, sēditionēs,
 bella nāscuntur**, *from covetous desires spring up
 hatred, dissension, discord, sedition, wars*.

b) The different members may severally be connected by **et** (Polysyndeton). Thus:—

hōrae cēdunt et diēs et mēnsēs et annī, *hours and days and months and years pass away.*

c) The connective may be omitted between the former members, while the last two are connected by **-que** (rarely **et**); as,—

Caesar in Carnutēs, Andēs Turonēsque legiōnēs dēdūcit, *Caesar leads his legions into the territory of the Carnutes, Andes, and Turones.*

342. Disjunctive Conjunctions indicate an *alternative*.

1. a) **aut** must be used when the alternatives are mutually exclusive; as,—

cita mors venit aut victōria laeta, (*either*) *swift death or glad victory comes.*

b) **vel**, **-ve** (enclitic) imply a choice between the alternatives; as,—

quī aethēr vel caelum nōminātur, *which is called aether or heaven.*

2. **Correlatives**. Disjunctive Conjunctions are often used correlatively; as,—

aut . . . aut, *either . . . or*;

vel . . . vel, *either . . . or*;

sive . . . sive, *if . . . or if*.

343. Adversative Conjunctions. These denote *opposition*.

1. a) **sed**, *but*, merely denotes opposition.

b) **vērūm**, *but*, is stronger than **sed**, but is less frequently used.

c) **autem**, *but on the other hand, however*, marks a transition. It is always post-positive.

DEFINITION. A post-positive word is one that cannot begin a sentence, but is placed after one or more words.

d) **at**, *but*, is used especially in disputation, to introduce an opposing argument.

e) **atquī** means *but yet*.

f) **tamen**, *yet*, usually stands after the emphatic word, but not always.

g) **vērō**, *however, indeed, in truth*, is always post-positive.

2. Note the correlative expressions:—

nōn solum (**nōn modo**) . . . **sed etiam**, *not only . . . but also* ;
nōn modo nōn . . . **sed nē** . . . **quidem**, *not only not, but not even* ; as, —

nōn modo tibi nōn irāscor, **sed nē reprehendō quidem factum tuum**, *I not only am not angry with you, but I do not even blame your action.*

4. But when the sentence has but one verb, and this stands with the second member, **nōn modo** may be used for **nōn modo nōn** ; as, —
adsententiō nōn modo amicō, sed nē liberō quidem digna est, *flattery is not only not worthy of a friend, but not even of a free man.*

344. Illative Conjunctions. These represent the statement which they introduce as *following from* or as *in conformity with* what has preceded.

1. a) **itaque** = *and so, accordingly.*
- b) **ergō** = *therefore, accordingly.*
- c) **igitur** (regularly post-positive¹) = *therefore, accordingly.*

2. **Igitur** is never combined with **et**, **atque**, **-que**, or **neque**.

345. Causal Conjunctions. These denote *cause*, or *give an explanation*. They are **nam**, **namque**, **enim** (post-positive), **etenim**, *for*.

346. Asyndeton. The conjunction is sometimes omitted between coördinate members, particularly in lively or impassioned narration. Thus:—

a) A copulative Conjunction is omitted ; as, —
avāritia infīnīta, insatiābilis est, *avarice is boundless (and) insatiable* ;

Cn. Pompejō, M. Crassō cōsulibus, *in the consulship of Gnaeus Pompey (and) Marcus Crassus.*

The conjunction is regularly omitted between the names of consuls when the praenomen (*Mārcus, Gāius, etc.*) is expressed.

b) An Adversative Conjunction may be omitted ; as, —
ratiōnēs dēfuērunt, ūbertās orātiōnis nōn dēfuit, *arguments were lacking, (but) abundance of words was not.*

¹ Except in Sallust and Silver Latin.

ADVERBS.

347. 1. The following particles, sometimes classed as Conjunctions, are more properly Adverbs:—

etiam, also, even.

quoque (always post-positive), *also.*

quidem (always post-positive) lays stress upon the preceding word.

It is sometimes equivalent to the English *indeed, in fact*, but more frequently cannot be rendered, except by vocal emphasis.

nē . . . quidem means *not even*; the emphatic word or phrase always stands between; as, *nē ille quidem, not even he.*

tamen and *vērō*, in addition to their use as Conjunctions, are often employed as Adverbs.

2. **Negatives.** Two negatives are regularly equivalent to an affirmative as in English, as *nōn nullī, some*; but when *nōn, nēmō, nihil, numquam, etc.*, are accompanied by *neque . . . neque, nōn . . . nōn, nōn modo*, or *nē . . . quidem*, the latter particles simply take up the negation and emphasize it; as,—

habēō hīc nēmīnem neque amīcum neque cognātum, I have here no one, neither friend nor relative.

nōn enim praetereundum est nē id quidem, for not even that must be passed by.

a. *Haud* in Cicero and Caesar occurs almost exclusively as a modifier of Adjectives and Adverbs, and in the phrase *haud sciō an*. Later writers use it freely with verbs.



CHAPTER VII. — *Word-order and Sentence-Structure.*

A. WORD-ORDER.

348. In the normal arrangement of the Latin sentence the Subject stands at the beginning of the sentence, the Predicate at the end; as,—

Dārīus classem quīngentārum nāvium comparāvit, Darius got ready a fleet of five hundred ships.

349. But for the sake of emphasis the normal arrangement is often abandoned, and the emphatic word is put at the beginning, less frequently at the end of the sentence ; as, —

magnus in hōc bellō Themistoclēs fuit, GREAT *was Themistocles in this war* ;

aliud iter habēmus nūllum, *other course we have* NONE.

SPECIAL PRINCIPLES.

350. 1. **Nouns.** A Genitive or other oblique case regularly follows the word upon which it depends. Thus : —

a) Depending upon a Noun : —

tribūnus plēbis, *tribune of the plebs* ;

filius rēgis, *son of the king* ;

vir magnī animī, *a man of noble spirit*.

Yet always **senātūs cōsultum**, **plēbis scītum**.

b) Depending upon an Adjective : —

ignārus rērum, *ignorant of affairs* ;

dignī amicitīā, *worthy of friendship* ;

plūs aequō, *more than (what is) fair*.

2. **Appositives.** An Appositive regularly follows its Subject ; as, —

Philippus, rēx Macedonum, *Philip, king of the Macedonians* ;

adsentātiō, vitiōrum adjūtrīx, *flattery, promoter of evils*.

Yet **flūmen Rhēnus**, *the River Rhine* ; and always in good prose **urbs Rōma**, *the city Rome*.

3. The **Vocative** usually follows one or more words ; as, —

audī, Caesar, *hear, Caesar !*

4. **Adjectives.** No general law can be laid down for the position of Adjectives. On the whole they precede the noun oftener than they follow it.

a. Adjectives of *quantity* (including *numerals*) regularly precede their noun ; as, —

omnēs hominēs, *all men* ;

septingentae nāvēs, *seven hundred vessels*.

- b. Note the force of position in the following : —
media urbs, *the middle of the city* ;
urbs media, *the middle city* ;
extrēmum bellum, *the end of the war* ;
bellum extrēmum, *the last war*.
- c. **Rōmānus** and **Latīnus** regularly follow ; as, —
senātus populusque Rōmānus, *the Roman Senate and People* ;
lūdī Rōmānī, *the Roman games* ;
fēriæ Latīnae, *the Latin holidays*.
- d. When a Noun is modified both by an Adjective and by a Genitive, a favorite order is : Adjective, Genitive, Noun ; as, —
summa omnium rērum abundantia, *the greatest abundance of all things*.

5. Pronouns.

- a. The Demonstrative, Relative, and Interrogative Pronouns regularly precede the Noun ; as, —
hīc homō, *this man* ;
ille homō, *that man* ;
erant duo itinera, quibus itineribus, etc., *there were two routes, by which, etc.*
quī homō ? *what sort of man ?*
- b. But **ille** in the sense of ‘that well known,’ ‘that famous,’ usually stands after its Noun ; as, —
testula illa, *that well-known custom of ostracism* ;
Mēdēa illa, *that famous Medea*.
- c. Possessive and Indefinite Pronouns usually follow their Noun ; as, —
pater meus, *my father* ;
homō quīdam, *a certain man* ;
mulier aliqua, *some woman*.
 But for purposes of contrast the Possessive often precedes its Noun ; as, —
meus pater, *MY father (i.e. as opposed to yours, his, etc.)*.
- d. Where two or more Pronouns occur in the same sentence, the Latin is fond of putting them in close proximity ; as, —
nisi forte ego vōbīs cessāre videor, *unless perchance I seem to you to be doing nothing*.

6. Adverbs and Adverbial phrases regularly precede the word they modify; as, —

valdē diligēns, *extremely diligent*;

saepe dixī, *I have often said*;

tē jam diū hortāmur, *we have long been urging you*;

paulō post, *a little after*.

7. Prepositions regularly precede the words they govern.

a. But limiting words often intervene between the Preposition and its case; as, —

dē commūnī hominum memoriā, *concerning the common memory of men*;

ad beātē vīvendum, *for living happily*.

b. When a noun is modified by an Adjective, the Adjective is often placed before the preposition; as, —

magnō in dolōre, *in great grief*;

summā cum laude, *with the highest credit*;

quā dē causā, *for which cause*;

hanc ob rem, *on account of this thing*.

c. For Anastrophe, by which a Preposition is put after its case, see § 144, 3.

8. Conjunctions. **Autem**, **enim**, and **igitur** regularly stand in the second place in the sentence, but when combined with **est** or **sunt** they often stand third; as, —

ita est enim, *for so it is*.

9. Words or Phrases referring to the preceding sentence or to some part of it, regularly stand first; as, —

id ut audīvit, **Corcŷram dēmigrāvit**, *when he heard that* (referring to the contents of the preceding sentence), *he moved to Corcyra*;

eō cum Caesar vēnisset, **timentēs cōnfīrmat**, *when Caesar had come thither* (*i.e.* to the place just mentioned), *he encouraged the timid*.

10. The Latin has a fondness for putting side by side words which are etymologically related; as, —

ut ad senem senex dē senectūte, **sīc hōc librō ad amīcum amīcissimus dē amīcitiā scrīpsī**, *as I, an old man, wrote to an old man, on old age, so in this book, as a fond friend, I have written to a friend, concerning friendship*.

11. Special rhetorical devices for indicating emphasis are the following:—

- a) **Hypérbaton**, which consists in the separation of words that regularly stand together; as,—
septimus mihi Oríginum liber est in manibus, the seventh book of my 'Origines' is under way;
receptō Caesar Ōricō proficiscitur, having recovered Oricus, Caesar set out.
- b) **Anáphora**, which consists in the repetition of the same word or the same word-order in successive phrases; as,—
sed plēnī omnēs sunt librī, plēnae sapientium vōcēs, plēna exemplōrum vetustās, but all books are full of it, the voices of sages are full of it, antiquity is full of examples of it.
- c) **Chiasmus**,¹ which consists in changing the relative order of words in two antithetical phrases; as,—
multōs dēfendī, laesī nēminem, many have I defended, I have injured no one;
horribilem illum diem aliīs, nōbīs faustum, that day dreadful to others, for us fortunate.
- d) **Synchysis**, or the interlocked arrangement. This is mostly confined to poetry, yet occurs in rhetorical prose, especially that of the Imperial Period; as,—
simulātam Pompejānārum grātiā partium, pretended interest in the Pompeian party.

12. **Metrical Close.** At the end of a sentence certain cadences were avoided; others were much employed. Thus:—

a) Cadences avoided.

— ∪ ∪ — ∪ ; as, *esse vidētur* (close of hexameter).

— ∪ ∪ ∪ ; as, *esse potest* (close of pentameter).

b) Cadences frequently employed.

— ∪ — ; as, *auxerant.*

— ∪ — ∪ ; as, *comprobāvit.*

— ∪ ∪ ∪ — ∪ ; as, *esse videātur.*

∪ — — ∪ — ; as, *rogātū tuō.*

¹ So named from a fancied analogy to the strokes of the Greek letter X (*chi*)
 Thus:—

multōs laesī

dēfendī nēminem

B. SENTENCE-STRUCTURE.

351. 1. **Unity of Subject.**—In complex sentences the Latin regularly holds to unity of Subject in the different members; as,—

Caesar primum suō, deinde omnium ex cōspectū remōtis equīs, ut aequātō periculō spem fugae tolleret, cohortātus suōs proelium commisit, *Caesar having first removed his own horse from sight, then the horses of all, in order, by making the danger equal, to take away hope of flight, encouraged his men and joined battle.*

2. A word serving as the common Subject or Object of the main clause and a subordinate one, stands before both; as,—

Haedui cum sē dēfendere nōn possent, lēgātōs ad Caesarem mittunt, *since the Haedui could not defend themselves, they sent envoys to Caesar;*

ille etsi flagrābat bellandī cupiditāte, tamen pacī serviendum putāvit, *although he was burning with a desire to fight, yet he thought he ought to aim at peace.*

a. The same is true also

1) When the Subject of the main clause is Object (Direct or Indirect) of a subordinate clause; as,—

Caesar, cum hōc eī nūntiatum esset, mātūrat ab urbe proficīscī, *when this had been reported to Caesar he hastened to set out from the city.*

2) When the Subject of a subordinate clause is at the same time the Object (Direct or Indirect) of the main clause; as,—

L. Mānliō, cum dictātor fuisset, M. Pompōnius tribūnus plēbis diem dīxit, *M. Pomponius, tribune of the people, instituted proceedings against Lucius Manlius, though he had been dictator.*

3. Of subordinate clauses, temporal, conditional, and adversative clauses more commonly precede the main clause; indirect questions and clauses of purpose or result more commonly follow; as,—

postquam haec dīxit, profectus est, *after he said this, he set out;*
sī quis ita agat, imprūdēns sit, *if any one should act so, he would be devoid of foresight;*

accidit ut unā nocte omnēs Hermae dēicerentur, *it happened that in a single night all the Hermae were thrown down.*

4. Sometimes in Latin the main verb is placed within the subordinate clause; as,—

sī quid est in mē ingenī, quod sentiō quam sit exiguum, if there is any talent in me, and I know how little it is.

5. **The Latin Period.** The term Period, when strictly used, designates a compound sentence in which the subordinate clauses are inserted within the main clause; as,—

Caesar etsī intellegēbat quā dē causā ea dīcerentur, tamen, nē aestātem in Trēverīs cōsūmere cōgerētur, Indutiomārum ad sē venīre iussit, though Caesar perceived why this was said, yet, lest he should be forced to spend the summer among the Treveri, he ordered Indutiomarus to come to him.

In the Periodic structure the thought is suspended until the end of the sentence is reached. Many Roman writers were extremely fond of this sentence-structure, and it was well adapted to the inflectional character of their language; in English we generally avoid it.

6. When there are several subordinate clauses in one Period, the Latin so arranges them as to avoid a succession of verbs. Thus:—

At hostēs cum mīsissent, quī, quae in castrīs gererentur, cognōscerent, ubi sē dēceptōs intellēxērunt, omnibus cōpiīs subsecūtī ad flūmen contendunt, but the enemy when they had sent men to learn what was going on in camp, after discovering that they had been outwitted, followed with all their forces and hurried to the river.



CHAPTER VIII.—*Hints on Latin Style.*

352. In this chapter brief consideration is given to a few features of Latin diction which belong rather to style than to formal grammar.

NOUNS.

353. 1. Where a distinct reference to several persons or things is involved, the Latin is frequently *much more exact in the use of the Plural* than is the English; as,—

domōs eunt, *they go home (i.e. to their homes)*;
 Germānī corpora cūrant, *the Germans care for the body*;
 animōs militum recreat, *he renews the courage of the soldiers*;
 diēs noctēsque timēre, *to be in a state of fear day and night*.

2. In case of Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives used substantively, the Latin often employs the Plural where the English uses the Singular; as,—

omnia sunt perdita, *everything is lost*;
 quae cum ita sint, *since this is so*;
 haec omnibus pervulgāta sunt, *this is very well known to all*.

3. The Latin is usually *more concrete* than the English, and especially *less bold in the personification* of abstract qualities. Thus:—

ā puerō, ā puerīs, *from boyhood*;
 Sullā dictātōre, *in Sulla's dictatorship*;
 mē duce, *under my leadership*;
 Rōmānī cum Carthāginiēnsibus pācem fēcērunt = *Rome made peace with Carthage*;
 liber doctrīnae plēnus = *a learned book*;
 prūdentiā Themistoclis Graecia servāta est = *Themistocles's foresight saved Greece*.

4. The Nouns of Agency in -tor and -sor (see § 147.1) denote a *permanent or characteristic activity*; as,—

accūsātōrēs (*professional*) *accusers*;
 orātōrēs, *pleaders*;
 cantōrēs, *singers*;
 Arminius, Germāniae liberātor, *Arminius, liberator of Germany*.

u. To denote *single instances* of an action, other expressions are commonly employed; as,—

Numa, quī Rōmulō successit, *Numa, successor of Romulus*;
 quī meā legunt, *my readers*;
 quī mē audiunt, *my auditors*.

5. The Latin avoids the use of prepositional phrases as modifiers of a Noun. In English we say: '*The war against Carthage*'; '*a journey through Gaul*'; '*cities on the sea*'; '*the book in my hands*'; '*the fight at Salamis*'; etc. The Latin in such cases usually employs another mode of expression. Thus:—

a) A Genitive; as,—

dolor injūriārum, *resentment at injuries*.

- b) An Adjective; as, —
urbēs maritimae, cities on the sea;
pugna Salamīnia, the fight at Salamis.
- c) A Participle; as, —
pugna ad Cannās facta, the battle at Cannae.
- d) A Relative clause; as, —
liber quī in meis manibus est, the book in my hands.

NOTE. — Yet within certain limits the Latin does employ Prepositional phrases as Noun modifiers. This is particularly frequent when the governing noun is derived from a verb. The following are typical examples: —

trānsitus in Britanniam, the passage to Britain;
excessus ē vitā, departure from life;
odium ergā Rōmānōs, hatred of the Romans;
liber dē senectūte, the book on old age;
amor in patriam, love for one's country.

ADJECTIVES.

354. 1. Special Latin Equivalents for English Adjectives are—

- a) A Genitive; as, —
virtūtēs animī = moral virtues;
dolōrēs corporis = bodily ills.
- b) An Abstract Noun; as, —
novitās rei = the strange circumstance;
asperitās viārum = rough roads.
- c) Hendiadys (see § 374, 4); as, —
ratiō et ōrdō = systematic order;
ārdor et impetus = eager onset.
- d) Sometimes an Adverb; as, —
omnēs circā populī, all the surrounding tribes;
suōs semper hostēs, their perpetual foes.

2. Often a Latin Noun is equivalent to an English Noun modified by an Adjective; as, —

doctrīna, theoretical knowledge;
oppidum, walled town;

prūdentia, practical knowledge;
libellus, little book.

3. Adjectives are not used in immediate agreement with proper names; but an Adjective may limit **vir**, **homō**, **ille**, or some other word used as an Appositive of a proper name; as, —

Sōcratēs, **homō sapiēns** = *the wise Socrates*;

Scīpiō, **vir fortissimus** = *the doughty Scipio*;

Syrācūsae, **urbs praeclārissima** = *famous Syracuse*.

4. An Adjective may be equivalent to a Possessive or Subjective Genitive; as, —

pāstor rēgius, *the shepherd of the king*;

tumultus servilis, *the uprising of the slaves*.

PRONOUNS.

355. 1. In Compound Sentences the Relative Pronoun has a fondness for connecting itself with the subordinate clause rather than the main one; as, —

ā quō cum quaererētur, quid maximē expediret, respondit, *when it was asked of him what was best, he replied.* (Less commonly, **quī, cum ab eō quaererētur, respondit.**)

2. **Uterque, ambō.** **Uterque** means *each of two*; **ambō** means *both*; as, —

uterque frāter abiit, *each of the two brothers departed (i.e. separately)*;

ambō frātrēs abiērunt, *i.e. the two brothers departed together.*

a. The Plural of **uterque** occurs —

1) With Nouns used only in the Plural (see § 56); as, —
in utrīque castrīs, *in each camp.*

2) Where there is a distinct reference to two groups of persons or things; as, —

utrīque ducēs clārī fuērunt, *the generals on each side (several in number) were famous.*

VERBS.

356. 1. In case of Defective and Deponent Verbs, a Passive is supplied: —

a) By the corresponding verbal Nouns in combination with **esse**, *etc*; as, —

in odiō sumus, *we are hated*;

in invidiā sum. *I am envied*;

admīrātiōnī est, he is admired;

obliviōne obruitur, he is forgotten (lit. is overwhelmed by oblivion);

in ūsū esse, to be used.

b) By the Passive of Verbs of related meaning. Thus:—

agitārī as Passive of persequī;

temptārī as Passive of adorīrī.

2. The lack of the Perfect Active Participle in Latin is supplied—

a) Sometimes by the Perfect Passive Participle of the Dependent; as,—

adhortātus, having exhorted;

veritus, having feared.

b) By the Ablative Absolute; as,—

hostium agrīs vāstātīs Caesar exercitum redūxit, having ravaged the country of the enemy, Caesar led back his army.

c) By subordinate clauses; as,—

eō cum advēnisset, castra posuit, having arrived there, he pitched a camp;

hostēs quī in urbem irrūperant, the enemy having burst into the city.

3. The Latin agrees with English in the stylistic employment of the Second Person Singular in an indefinite sense (= 'one'). Cf. the English 'You can drive a horse to water, but you can't make him drink.' But in Latin this use is mainly confined to certain varieties of the Subjunctive, especially the Potential (§ 280), Jussive (§ 275), Deliberative (§ 277), and the Subjunctive in conditional sentences of the sort included under § 302, 2, and 303. Examples:—

vidērēs, you could see;

ūtāre vīribus, use your strength,

quid hōc homine faciās, what are you to do with this man?

mēns quoque et animus, nisi tamquam lūminī oleum īnstillēs, exstinguuntur senectūte, the intellect and mind too are extinguished by old age, unless, so to speak, you keep pouring oil into the lamp;

tantō amōre possessiōnēs suās amplexī tenēbant, ut ab eis membra dīvellī citius posse dīcerēs, they clung to their possessions with such an affectionate embrace, that you would have said their limbs could sooner be torn from their bodies.

PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF THE ACCUSATIVE.

357. 1. To denote 'so many years, etc., afterwards or before' the Latin employs not merely the Ablative of Degree of Difference with *post* and *ante* (see § 223), but has other forms of expression. Thus:—

post quīnque annōs, five years afterward;

paucōs ante diēs, a few days before;

ante quadriennium, four years before;

post diem quārtum quam ab urbe discesserāmus, four days after we had left the city;

ante tertium annum quam dēcesserat, three years before he had died.

2. The Latin seldom combines both Subject and Object with the same Infinitive; as,—

Rōmānōs Hannibalem vīcisse cōstat.

Such a sentence would be ambiguous, and might mean either that the Romans had conquered Hannibal, or that Hannibal had conquered the Romans. Perspicuity was gained by the use of the Passive Infinitive; as,—

Rōmānōs ab Hannibale victōs esse cōstat, it is well established that the Romans were defeated by Hannibal.

PECULIARITIES IN CONNECTION WITH THE USE OF THE DATIVE.

358. 1. The English *for* does not always correspond to a Dative notion in Latin, but is often the equivalent of *prō* with the Ablative, *viz.* in the senses —

a) *In defense of;* as,—

prō patriā morī, to die for one's country.

b) *Instead of, in behalf of;* as,—

ūnus prō omnibus dīxit, one spoke for all;

haec prō lēge dicta sunt, these things were said for the law.

c) *In proportion to;* as,—

prō multitudīne hominum eōrum finēs erant angustī, for the population, their territory was small.

2. Similarly, English *to* when it indicates motion is rendered in Latin by *ad*.

a. Note, however, that the Latin may say either *scribere ad aliquem*, or *scribere alicui*, according as the idea of motion is or is not predominant. So in several similar expressions.

3. In the poets, verbs of *mingling with*, *contending with*, *joining*, *clinging to*, etc., sometimes take the Dative. This construction is a Grecism. Thus:—

sē miscet virīs, *he mingles with the men* ;
contendis Homērō, *you contend with Homer* ;
dextrae dextram jungere, *to clasp hand with hand*.

PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF THE GENITIVE.

359. 1. The Possessive Genitive gives emphasis to the *possessor*, the Dative of Possessor emphasizes *the fact of possession* ; as, —

hortus patris est, *the garden is my father's* ;
mihi hortus est, *I possess a garden*.

2. The Latin can say either *stultī* or *stultum est dicere*, *it is foolish to say* ; but Adjectives of one ending permit only the Genitive ; as, —

sapientis est haec sēcum reputāre, *it is the part of a wise man to consider this*.

PART VI.

PROSODY.

360. Prosody treats of metres and versification.

361. **Latin Verse.** Latin Poetry was essentially different in character from English. In our own language, poetry is based upon *accent*, and poetical form consists essentially in a certain succession of *accented* and *unaccented* syllables. Latin poetry, on the other hand, was based not upon accent, but upon *quantity*, so that with the Romans poetical form consisted in a certain succession of *long and short syllables*, *i.e.* of long and short intervals of time.

This fundamental difference in the character of English and Latin poetry is a natural result of the difference in character of the two languages. English is a strongly accented language, in which quantity is relatively subordinate. Latin, on the other hand, was a quantitative language, in which accent was relatively subordinate.

QUANTITY OF VOWELS AND SYLLABLES.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

362. The general principles for the quantity of vowels and syllables have been given above in § 5. The following peculiarities are to be noted here : —

1. A vowel is usually short when followed by another vowel (§ 5. A. 2), but the following exceptions occur : —

- a) In the Genitive termination *-ius* (except *alterius*); as, *illius*, *tōtius*. Yet the *i* may be short in poetry; as, *illius*, *tōtius*.
- b) In the Genitive and Dative Singular of the Fifth Declension; as, *diēi*, *aciēi*. But *fidēi*, *rēi*, *spēi* (§ 52, 1).
- c) In *fiō*, excepting *fit* and forms where *i* is followed by *er*. Thus: *fiēbam*, *fiat*, *fiunt*; but *fieri*, *fierem*.
- d) In a few other words, especially words derived from the Greek; as, *dīus*, *Aenēas*, *Dārīus*, *hērōes*, etc.
2. A diphthong is usually long (§ 5. B. 2), but the preposition *prae* in composition is often shortened before a vowel; as, *praeacūtus*.
3. A syllable containing a short vowel followed by two consonants (§ 5. B. 2) is long, even when one of the consonants is in the following word; as, *terret populum*. Occasionally the syllable is long when both consonants are in the following word; as, *prō segete spīcās*.
4. Compounds of *jaciō*, though written *inicit*, *adicit*, etc., have the first syllable long, as though written *inj-*, *adj-*.
5. Before *j*, *ā* and *ē* made a long syllable, e.g. in *major*, *pejor*, *ejus*, *ejusdem*, *Pompejus*, *rejēcit*, etc. These were pronounced, *mai-jor*, *pei-jor*, *ei-jus*, *Pompei-jus*, *rei-jēcit*, etc. So also sometimes before *i*, e.g. *Pompe-i*, pronounced *Pompei-i*; *re-iciō*, pronounced *rei-iciō*.

Quantity of Final Syllables.

A. Final Syllables ending in a Vowel.

- 363.** 1. Final *a* is mostly short, but is long:—
- a) In the Ablative Singular of the First Declension; as, *portā*.
- b) In the Imperative; as, *laudā*.
- c) In indeclinable words (except *itā*, *quiā*); as, *trīgintā*, *contrā*, *posteā*, *intereā*, etc.
2. Final *e* is usually short, but is long:—
- a) In the Ablative Singular of the Fifth Declension; as, *diē*, *rē*; hence *hodiē*, *quārē*. Here belongs also *famē* (§ 59. 2. b).
- b) In the Imperative of the Second Conjugation; as, *monē*, *habē*, etc.; yet occasionally *cavē*, *valē*.
- c) In Adverbs derived from Adjectives of the Second Declension, along with *ferē* and *fermē*. *Benē*, *malē*, *temerē*, *saepē* have *ē*.
- d) In *ē*, *dē*, *mē*, *tē*, *sē*, *nē* (*not*, *lest*), *nē* (*verily*).

3. Final *i* is usually long, but is short in *nīsī* and *quasī*. *Mīhi, tībī, sībī, ibī, ubī*, have regularly *ī*, but sometimes *ī*; yet always *ibīdem, ibīque, ubīque*.

4. Final *o* is regularly long, but is short:—

a) In *egō, duō, modō* (*only*), *citō*.

b) Rarely in the First Person Singular of the Verb, and in Nominatives of the Third Declension; as, *amō, leō*.

c) In a few compounds beginning with the Preposition *pro*, especially before *f*; as *prōfundere, prōficīscī, prōfugere*.

5. Final *u* is always long.

B. Final Syllables ending in a Consonant.

364. 1. Final syllables ending in any other consonant than *s* are short. The following words, however, have a long vowel: *sāl, sōl, Lār, pār, vēr, fūr, dīc, dūc, ēn, nōn, quīn, sīn, sīc, cūr*. Also the adverbs *hīc, illīc, istīc*.¹

2. Final syllables in *-as* are long; as, *terrās, amās*.

3. Final syllables in *-es* are regularly long, but are short:—

a) In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of dental stems (§ 33) of the Third Declension which have a short penult in the Genitive; as, *segēs (segetis), obsēs (obsidis), mīlē, dīvēs*. But a few have *-ēs*; *viz. pēs, ariēs, abiēs, pariēs*.

b) In *ēs (thou art), penēs*.

4. Final *-os* is usually long, but short in *ōs (ossis), compōs, impōs*.

5. Final *-is* is usually short, but is long:—

a) In Plurals; as, *portīs, hortīs, nōbīs, vōbīs, nūbīs* (Acc.).

b) In the Second Person Singular Perfect Subjunctive Active; as, *amāverīs, monuerīs, audīverīs, etc.* Yet occasional exceptions occur.

c) In the Second Person Singular Present Indicative Active of the Fourth Conjugation; as, *audīs*.

d) In *vīs, force; īs, thou goest; fīs; sīs; velīs; nōlīs; vīs, thou wilt (māvīs, quamvīs, quīvīs, etc.)*.

6. Final *-us* is usually short, but is long:—

a) In the Genitive Singular and in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural of the Fourth Declension; as, *frūctūs*.

¹ The pronouns *hic, hoc*, and the adverb *huc*, probably had a short vowel. The syllable was made long by pronouncing *hicc, hocc, etc.*

ð) In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of those nouns of the Third Declension in which the *u* belongs to the stem; as, *palūs* (-ūdis), *servitūs* (-ūtis), *tellūs* (-ūris).

365. Greek Nouns retain in Latin their original quantity; as, *Aenēā*, *epitomē*, *Dēlos*, *Pallas*, *Simoīs*, *Salamīs*, *Dīdūs*, *Paridī*, *sēr*, *aethēr*, *crātēr*, *hērōās*. Yet Greek nouns in *-ωρ* (-ōr) regularly shorten the vowel of the final syllable; as, *rhētōr*, *Hectōr*.

VERSE-STRUCTURE.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

366. 1. The metrical unit in versification is a short syllable, technically called a *mora* (∪). A long syllable (—) is regarded as equivalent to two *morae*.

2. A **Foot** is a group of syllables. The following are the most important kinds of fundamental feet:—

FEET OF THREE MORAE.

— ∪ Trochee.
∪ — Iambus.

FEET OF FOUR MORAE.

— ∪ ∪ Dactyl.
∪ ∪ — Anapaest.

3. A **Verse** is a succession of feet.

4. The different kinds of verses are named Trochaic, Iambic, Dactylic, Anapaestic, according to the foot which forms the basis of their structure.

5. **Ictus**. In every fundamental foot the long syllable naturally receives the greater prominence. This prominence is called *ictus*.¹ It is denoted thus: ∠ ∪ ∪; ∠ ∪.

6. **Thesis and Arsis**. The syllable which receives the ictus is called the *thesis*; the rest of the foot is called the *arsis*.

7. **Elision**. Final syllables ending in a vowel, a diphthong, or *-m* are regularly elided before a word beginning with a vowel or *h*. In reading, we omit the elided syllable entirely. This may be indicated as follows: *corpor^e in fīnō*; *mult^{um} ill^e et*; *mōnstr^{um} horrendūm*; *caus^{ae} irārum*.

a. Omission of elision is called **Hiátus**. It occurs especially before and after monosyllabic interjections; as, *Ō et praesidium*.

¹ Ictus was not accent, — neither stress accent nor musical accent, — but was simply the quantitative prominence inherent in the long syllables of *fundamental feet*.

8. The ending of a word within a foot is called a **Caesúra** (*cutting*). Every verse usually has one prominent caesura. The ending of a word and foot together within the verse is called a **diaeresis**.

9. Verses are distinguished as Catalectic or Acatalectic. A Catalectic verse is one in which the last foot is not complete, but lacks one or more syllables; an Acatalectic verse has its last foot complete.

10. At the end of a verse a slight pause occurred. Hence the final syllable may be either long or short (**syllaba anceps**), and may terminate in a vowel or **m**, even though the next verse begins with a vowel.

11. Iambic, Trochaic, and Anapaestic verses are further designated as dimeter, trimeter, tetrameter, according to *the number of dipodies* (pairs of feet) which they contain. Dactylic verses are measured by *single feet*, and are designated as tetrameter, pentameter, hexameter, accordingly.

SPECIAL PECULIARITIES.

367. 1. **Synizésis** (**Synaéresis**). Two successive vowels in the interior of a word are often united into a long syllable; as,—

aureis, deinde, auteire deesse.

2. **Diástole**. A syllable usually short is sometimes long; as,—
videt, audit.

3. **Sýstole**. A syllable usually long is sometimes short; as,—
steterunt.

a. Diastole and Systole are not mere arbitrary processes. They usually represent an earlier pronunciation which had passed out of vogue in the ordinary speech.

4. After a consonant, **i** and **u** sometimes become **j** and **v**. The preceding syllable then becomes long; as,—

abjete for abiete; genva for genua.

5. Sometimes **v** becomes **u**; as,—

silua for silva; dissoluō for dissolvō.

6. Sometimes a verse has an extra syllable. Such a verse is called an **Hypérmeter**. The extra syllable ends in a vowel or **-m**, and is united with the initial vowel or **h** of the next verse by **Synaphéia**. Thus:—

. ignāri hominumque locōrumque
errāmus.

7. **Tmesis** (*cutting*). Compound words are occasionally separated into their elements; as, —

quō mē cumque rapit tempestās, for quōcumque, etc.

8. **Sýncope**. A short vowel is sometimes dropped between two consonants; as, —

repostus for repositus.

THE DACTYLIC HEXAMETER.

368. 1. The Dactylic Hexameter, or Heroic Verse, consists theoretically of six dactyls. But in all the feet except the fifth, a spondee (—) may take the place of the dactyl. The sixth foot may be either a spondee or a trochee, since the final syllable of a verse may be either long or short (*syllaba anceps*). The following represents the scheme of the verse:—

$\angle \infty, \angle \infty, \angle \infty, \angle \infty, \angle \omega, \angle \nu.$

2. Sometimes we find a spondee in the fifth foot. Such verses are called Spondaic. A dactyl usually stands in the fourth place, and the fifth and sixth feet are generally made up of a quadrisyllable; as, —

armātum^{que} aurō circumspicit Ōrīōna.

cāra deum subolēs, magnum Jovis incrēmentum.

3. Caesura.

a) The favorite position of the caesura in the Dactylic Hexameter is after the thesis of the third foot; as, —

arma virumque canō || Trōjae quī prīmus ab ōrīs.

b) Less frequently the caesura occurs after the thesis of the fourth foot, usually accompanied by another in the second foot; as, —

inde torō || pater Aenēās || sic ōrsus ab altō est.

c) Sometimes the caesura occurs between the two short syllables of the third foot; as, —

Ō passī graviōra || dabit deus hīs quoque finem.

This caesura is called Feminine, as opposed to the caesura after a long syllable, which is called Masculine (as under *a* and *b*).

- d) A pause sometimes occurs at the end of the fourth foot. This is called the Bucolic Diaeresis, as it was borrowed by the Romans from the Bucolic poetry of the Greeks. Thus:—
sōlstitium pecorī dēfendite; || jam venit aestās.

DACTYLIC PENTAMETER.

369. 1. The Dactylic Pentameter consists of two parts, each of which contains two dactyls, followed by a long syllable. Spondees may take the place of the dactyls in the first part, but not in the second. The long syllable at the close of the first half of the verse always ends a word. The scheme is the following:—

∠ ∞ ∠ ∞ ∠ || ∠ ∞ ∠ ∞ ∞

2. The Pentameter is never used alone, but only in connection with the Hexameter. The two arranged alternately form the so-called Elegiac Distich. Thus:—

**Vergillum vīdī tantum, nec amāra Tibullō
 Tempus amīcitiāe fāta dedēre meae.**

IAMBIC MEASURES.

370. 1. The most important Iambic verse is the Iambic Trimeter (§ 366. II), called also *Senarius*. This is an acatalectic verse. It consists of six Iambi. Its pure form is:—

∪ — ∪ — ∪ — ∪ — ∪ — ∪ —

Beātus ille quī procul negōtiis.

The Caesura usually occurs in the third foot; less frequently in the fourth.

2. In place of the Iambus, a Tribrach (∪ ∪ ∪) may stand in any foot but the last. In the odd feet (first, third, and fifth) may stand a Spondee, Dactyl, or Anapaest, though the last two are less frequent. Sometimes a Proceleusmatic (∪ ∪ ∪ ∪) occurs.

3. In the Latin comic writers, Plautus and Terence, great freedom is permitted, and the various equivalents of the Iambus, *vis.* the Dactyl, Anapaest, Spondee, Tribrach, Proceleusmatic, are freely admitted in any foot except the last.

SUPPLEMENTS TO THE GRAMMAR.

I. JULIAN CALENDAR.

371. 1. The names of the Roman months are: **Jānuārius**, **Februārius**, **Mārtius**, **Aprīlis**, **Majus**, **Jūnius**, **Jūlius** (**Quīntīlis**¹ prior to 46 B.C.), **Augustus** (**Sextīlis**¹ before the Empire), **September**, **Octōber**, **November**, **December**. These words are properly Adjectives in agreement with **mēnsis** understood.

2. Dates were reckoned from three points in the month:—

a) The Calends, the first of the month.

b) The Nones, usually the fifth of the month, but the seventh in March, May, July, and October.

c) The Ides, usually the thirteenth of the month, but the fifteenth in March, May, July, and October.

3. From these points dates were reckoned backward; consequently all days after the Ides of any month were reckoned as so many days before the Calends of the month next following.

4. The day before the Calends, Nones, or Ides of any month is designated as **prīdiē Kalendās**, **Nōnās**, **Īdūs**. The second day before was designated as **diē tertiō ante Kalendās Nōnās**, etc. Similarly the third day before was designated as **diē quārtō**, and so on. These designations are arithmetically inaccurate, but the Romans reckoned both ends of the series. The Roman numeral indicating the date is therefore always larger by one than the actual number of days before Nones, Ides, or Calends.

5. In indicating dates, the name of the month is added in the form of an Adjective agreeing with **Kalendās**, **Nōnās**, **Īdūs**. Various forms of expression occur, of which that given under *d*) is most common:—

a) **diē quīntō ante Īdūs Mārtiās**;

b) **quīntō ante Īdūs Mārtiās**;

c) **quīntō (V) Īdūs Mārtiās**;

d) **ante diem quīntum Īdūs Mārtiās**.

¹ Originally the Roman year began with March. This explains the names **Quīntīlis**, **Sextīlis**, **September**, etc., *fifth month*, *sixth month*, etc.

6. These designations may be treated as nouns and combined with the prepositions *in*, *ad*, *ex*; as, —

ad ante diem IV **Kalendās Octōbrēs**, *up to the 28th of September.*

ex ante diem quīntum **Īdūs Octōbrēs**, *from the 11th of October.*

7. In leap-year the 25th was reckoned as the extra day in February. The 24th was designated as *ante diem* VI **Kalendās Mārtiās**, and the 25th as *ante diem* bis VI **Kal Mārt.**

372.

CALENDAR.

Days of the month.	March, May, July, October.	January, August, December.	April, June, September, November.	February.
1	KALENDĪS.	KALENDĪS.	KALENDĪS.	KALENDĪS.
2	VI. Nōnās.	IV. Nōnās.	IV. Nōnās.	IV. Nōnās.
3	V. "	III. "	III. "	III. "
4	IV. "	Prīdiē Nōnās.	Prīdie Nōnās.	Prīdiē Nōnās.
5	III. "	NŌNĪS.	NŌNĪS.	NŌNĪS.
6	Prīdiē Nōnās.	VIII. Īdūs.	VIII. Īdūs.	VIII. Īdūs.
7	NŌNĪS.	VII. "	VII. "	VII. "
8	VIII. Īdūs.	VI. "	VI. "	VI. "
9	VII. "	V. "	V. "	V. "
10	VI. "	IV. "	IV. "	IV. "
11	V. "	III. "	III. "	III. "
12	IV. "	Prīdiē Īdūs.	Prīdiē Īdūs.	Prīdiē Īdūs.
13	III. "	ĪDĪBUS.	ĪDĪBUS.	ĪDĪBUS.
14	Prīdiē Īdūs.	XIX. Kalend.	XVIII. Kalend.	XVI. Kalend.
15	ĪDĪBUS.	XVIII. "	XVII. "	XV. "
16	XVII. Kalend.	XVII. "	XVI. "	XIV. "
17	XVI. "	XVI. "	XV. "	XIII. "
18	XV. "	XV. "	XIV. "	XII. "
19	XIV. "	XIV. "	XIII. "	XI. "
20	XIII. "	XIII. "	XII. "	X. "
21	XII. "	XII. "	XI. "	IX. "
22	XI. "	XI. "	X. "	VIII. "
23	X. "	X. "	IX. "	VII. "
24	IX. "	IX. "	VIII. "	VI. "
25	VIII. "	VIII. "	VII. "	V. (bis VI.) "
26	VII. "	VII. "	VI. "	IV. (V.) "
27	VI. "	VI. "	V. "	III. (IV.) "
28	V. "	V. "	IV. "	Prīd. Kal. (III Kal.)
29	IV. "	IV. "	III. "	(Prīd. Kal.)
30	III. "	III. "	Prīdiē Kalend.	(Enclosed forms are for leap-year.)
31	Prīdiē Kalend.	Prīdiē Kalend.		

II. PROPER NAMES.

373. 1. The name of a Roman citizen regularly consisted of three parts: the **praenōmen** (or given name), the **nōmen** (name of the *gens* or clan), and the **cognōmen** (family name). Such a typical name is exemplified by **Mārcus Tullius Cicerō**, in which **Mārcus** is the **praenōmen**, **Tullius** the **nōmen**, and **Cicerō** the **cognōmen**. Sometimes a second **cognōmen** (in later Latin called an **agnōmen**) is added — especially in honor of military achievements; as, —

Gāius Cornēlius Scīpiō Africānus.

2. ABBREVIATIONS OF PROPER NAMES.

A. = Aulus.	Mam. = Māmercus.
App. = Appius.	N. = Numerius.
C. = Gāius.	P. = Pūblius.
Cn. = Gnaeus.	Q. = Quīntus.
D. = Decimus.	Sex. = Sextus.
K. = Kaesō.	Ser. = Servius.
L. = Lūcius.	Sp. = Spurius.
M. = Mārcus.	T. = Titus.
M'. = Mānius.	Ti. = Tiberius.

III. FIGURES OF SYNTAX AND RHETORIC.

A. Figures of Syntax.

374. 1. **Ellipsis** is the omission of one or more words; as, —
quid multa, why (should I say) much?

2. **Brachylogy** is a brief or condensed form of expression; as, —
ut ager sine culturā fructuōsus esse nōn potest, sic sine doctrīnā animus, as a field cannot be productive without cultivation, so the mind (cannot be productive) without learning.

Special varieties of Brachylogy are —

a) **Zeugma**, in which one verb is made to stand for two; as, —
minīs aut blandimentīs corrupta = (terrified) by threats or corrupted by flattery.

b) **Compendiary Comparison**, by which a modifier of an object is mentioned instead of the object itself; as, —
dissimilis erat Charēs eōrum et factīs et mōribus, lit. Chares was different from their conduct and character, i.e. Chares's conduct and character were different, etc.

3. **Pléonasm** is an unnecessary fullness of expression ; as, —
prius praedīcam, lit. *I will first say in advance*.

4. **Hendíadys** (ἐν δὶὰ δύοῖν, *one through two*) is the use of two nouns joined by a conjunction, in the sense of a noun modified by a Genitive or an Adjective ; as, —

febris et aestus, *the heat of fever ;*
celeritatē cursūque, *by swift running*.

5. **Prolépsis**, or **Anticipation**, is the introduction of an epithet in advance of the action which makes it appropriate ; as, —

submersās obrue puppēs, lit. *overwhelm their submerged ships*,
i.e. overwhelm and sink their ships.

a. The name Prolepsis is also applied to the introduction of a noun or pronoun as object of the main clause where we should expect it to stand as subject of a subordinate clause. Thus : —

nōstī Mārcellum quam tardus sit, *you know how slow*
Marcellus is (lit. *you know Marcellus, how slow he is*).

Both varieties of Prolepsis are chiefly confined to poetry.

6. **Anacolúthōn** is a lack of grammatical consistency in the construction of the sentence ; as, —

tum Ancī filiī . . . impēnsius eīs indignitās crēscere, *then the sons*
of Ancus . . . their indignation increased all the more.

7. **Hýsteron Próteron** consists in the inversion of the natural order of two words or phrases ; as, —

moriāmur et in media arma ruāmus = *let us rush into the midst of*
arms and die.

B. Figures of Rhetoric.

375. 1. **Lítotes** (literally *softening*) is the expression of an idea by the denial of its opposite ; as, —

haud parum labōris, *no little toil (i.e. much toil) ;*
nōn ignōrō, *I am not ignorant (i.e. I am well aware)*.

2. **Oxymóron** is the combination of contradictory conceptions ; as, —
sapiēns insānia, *wise folly*.

3. **Alliteration** is the employment of a succession of words presenting frequent repetition of the same letter (mostly initial) ; as, —
sēnsim sine sēnsū aetās senēscit.

4. **Onomatopéia** is the suiting of sound to sense ; as, —
quadrupedante putrem sonitū quatit ungula campum, '*And shake*
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ABBREVIATIONS USED IN INDEX TO THE ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLES.

- Ac., Cicero, *Academica*.
 Acc., Accius.
 ad Her., ad Herennium.
 Aen., Virgil, *Aeneid*.
 Arch., Cicero, *pro Archia*.
 Att., Cicero, *Epistulae ad Atticum*.
 B. C., Caesar, *de Bello Civili*.
 B. G., Caesar, *de Bello Gallico*.
 Brut., Cicero, *Brutus*.
 Caec., Cicero, *pro Caecina*.
 Cat., Cicero, *in Catilinam*.
 Cluent., Cicero, *pro Cluentio*.
 Curt., Quintus Curtius.
 de Dom., Cicero, *de Domo Sua*.
 de Or., Cicero, *de Oratore*.
 de Sen., Cicero, *de Senectute*.
 D., Cicero, *de Divinatione*.
 Div. Caec., Cicero, *Divinatio in Caeciliam*.
 Ecl., Virgil, *Eclogues*.
 Eut., Eutropius.
 F., Cicero, *de Finibus*.
 Fam., Cicero, *Epistulae ad Familiares*.
 Flac., Cicero, *pro Flacco*.
 Gell., Aulus Gellius.
 Hor., Horace.
 Epp., *Epistles*.
 Od., *Odes*.
 Sat., *Satires*.
 Inv., Cicero, *de Inventione*.
 Juv., Juvenal.
 Lael., Cicero, *Laelius, de Amicitia*.
 Leg., Cicero, *de Legibus*.
 Lig., Cicero, *pro Ligario*.
 Liv., Livy.
 Lucr., Lucretius.
 Marc., Cicero, *pro Marcello*.
 Mil., Cicero, *pro Milone*.
 N. D., Cicero, *de Natura Deorum*.
 Nep., Nepos.
 Alc., *Alcibiades*.
 Ar., *Aristides*.
 Att., *Atticus*.
 Cat., *Cato*.
 Chab., *Chabrias*.
 Cim., *Cimon*.
 Con., *Conon*.
 Dat., *Datames*.
 Ep., *Epaminonda*.
 Milt., *Miltiades*.
 Paus., *Pausanias*.
 Them., *Themistocles*.
 Thras., *Thrasylbulus*.
 Tim., *Timoleon*.
 Off., Cicero, *de Officiis*.
 Or., Cicero, *Orator*.
 Ov., Ovid.
 Am., *Amores*.
 Met., *Metamorphoses*.
 Par., Cicero, *Paradoxa*.
 Phil., Cicero, *Philippics*.
 Pis., Cicero, *in Pisonem*.
 Planc., Cicero, *pro Plancio*.
 Pl., Plautus.
 Amph., *Amphitruo*.
 Aul., *Aulularia*.
 Bacch., *Bacchides*.
 Capt., *Captivi*.
 Curc., *Curculio*.
 Men., *Menaechmi*.
 Merc., *Mercator*.
 M. G., *Miles Gloriosus*.
 Pers., *Persa*.
 Poen., *Poenulus*.
 Rud., *Rudens*.
 Tr., *Trinummus*.
 Vid., *Vidularia*.
 Plin. Epp., Pliny the Younger, *Letters*.
 Pub. Syr., Publilius Syrus.
 Q. F., Cicero, *ad Quintum Fratrem*.
 Rosc. Am., Cicero, *pro Roscio Amerino*.
 Sall., Sallust.
 C., *Catiline*.
 Fr., *Fragments*.
 Jug., *Jugurtha*.
 Sen., Seneca.
 Ep., *Epistles*.
 N. Q., *Naturales Quaestiones*.

Sest., Cicero, *pro Sestio*.
 Sex. Rosc., Cicero, *pro Sexto Roscio*.
 Sil., Silius Italicus.
 Stat., Caecilius Statius.
 Sull., Cicero, *pro Sulla*.
 Tac., Tacitus.
 A., *Annals*.
 Agr., *Agricola*.
 Dial., *Dialogus de Oratoribus*.
 Ger., *Germania*.
 H., *Histories*.
 Ter., Terence.
 Ad., *Adelphoi*.

And., *Andria*.
 Eun., *Eunuchus*.
 Hec., *Hecyra*.
 H. T., *Hautontimoroumenos*.
 Phor., *Phormio*.
 Tusc. Disp., Cicero, *Tusculan Disputations*.
 Twelve Tables, Laws of the Twelve Tables.
 Vatin., Cicero, *in Vatinius*.
 Verr., Cicero, *in Verrem*.
 Verr., Act. Pr., Cicero, *Actio Prima in C. Verrem*.

INDEX TO THE PRINCIPAL PARTS OF THE MOST IMPORTANT VERBS.

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ABBREVIATIONS. — Abl., ablative; acc., accusative; adj., adjective; adv., adverb, adverbial, or adverbially; cf., compare; comp., comparison or comparative; conj., conjunction or conjugation; const., constr., construction; dat., dative; decl., declension; gen., genitive; ind., indicative; indir. disc., indirect discourse; loc., locative; n., note; nom., nominative; plu., plural; prep., preposition; pron., pronoun or pronunciation; sing., singular; subj., subject; subjv., subjunctive; voc., vocative; w., with.

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