NEW LATIN GRAMMAR

ALLEN AND GREENOUGH

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NEW

LATIN GRAMMAR

FOR

SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

FOUNDED ON COMPARATIVE GRAMMAR

EDITED BY

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A. A. HOWARD  BENJ. L. D'OOGGE

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PREFACE

The present book is a careful revision of the edition of 1888. This revision was planned and actually begun in the lifetime of Professor Greenough and has been carried out in accordance with principles that met with his full approval. The renumbering of the sections has made it possible to improve the arrangement of material in many particulars and to avoid a certain amount of repetition which was inevitable in the former edition. Thus, without increasing the size of the volume, the editors have been able to include such new matter as the advance in grammatical science has afforded. The study of historical and comparative syntax has been pursued with considerable vigor during the past fifteen years, and the well-established results of this study have been inserted in their appropriate places. In general, however, the principles and facts of Latin syntax, as set forth by Professor Greenough, have stood the test both of scientific criticism and of practical use in the class-room, and accordingly the many friends of Allen and Greenough’s Grammar will not find the new edition strange or unfamiliar in its method or its contents. The editors have seen no occasion to change long-settled nomenclature or to adopt novel classifications when the usual terms and categories have proved satisfactory. On the other hand, they have not hesitated to modify either doctrines or forms of statement whenever improvement seemed possible.

In the matter of “hidden quantity” the editors have been even more conservative than in the former revision. This subject is one of great difficulty, and the results of the most recent investigations are far from harmonious. In many instances the facts
are quite undiscoverable, and, in general, the phenomena are of comparatively slight interest except to special students of the arcana of philology. No vowel has been marked long unless the evidence seemed practically decisive.

The editors have been fortunate in securing the advice and assistance of Professor E. S. Sheldon, of Harvard University, for the first ten pages, dealing with phonetics and phonology. They are equally indebted to Professor E. P. Morris, of Yale University, who has had the kindness to revise the notes on historical and comparative syntax. Particular acknowledgment is also due to Mr. M. Grant Daniell, who has coöperated in the revision throughout, and whose accurate scholarship and long experience as a teacher have been of the greatest service at every point.

September 1, 1903.
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LATIN GRAMMAR

Latin Grammar is usually treated under three heads: 1. Words and Forms; 2. Syntax; 3. Prosody. Syntax treats of the function of words when joined together as parts of the sentence; Prosody of their arrangement in metrical composition.

PART FIRST—WORDS AND FORMS

THE ALPHABET

1. The Latin Alphabet is the same as the English (which is in fact borrowed from it) except that it does not contain J, U, and W.

Note 1.—The Latin alphabet was borrowed in very early times from a Greek alphabet (though not from that most familiar to us) and did not at first contain the letters G and Y. It consisted of capital letters only, and the small letters with which we are familiar did not come into general use until the close of the eighth century of our era.

Note 2.—The Latin names of the consonants were as follows:—B, be (pronounced bay); C, ce (pronounced key); D, de (day); F, ef; G, ge (gay); H, ha; K, ka; L, el; M, em; N, en; P, pe (pay); Q, qu (koo); R, er; S, es; T, te (tay); X, ix; Z, zeta (the Greek name, pronounced dzaeta). The sound of each vowel was used as its name.

a. The character C originally meant G, a value always retained in the abbreviations C. (for Gaius) and CN. (for Gnaeus).

Note.—In early Latin C came also to be used for K, and K disappeared except before a in a few words, as Cal. (kaleneae), Karthagö. Thus there was no distinction in writing between the sounds of g and k. Later this defect was remedied by forming (from C) the new character G. This took the alphabetic place formerly occupied by Z, which had gone out of use. In Cicero's time (see N. D. iii.93), Y (originally a form of V) and Z were introduced from the ordinary Greek alphabet to represent sounds in words derived from the Greek, and they were put at the end of the Latin alphabet.

b. I and V were used both as vowels and as consonants (see §5).

Note.—V originally denoted the vowel sound u (oo), and F stood for the sound of our consonant w. When F acquired the value of our f, V came to be used for the sound of w as well as for the vowel u.

In this book i is used for both vowel and consonant i, u for vowel u, and v for consonant u:—ius, vir, juvenis.
Classification of Sounds

2. The simple Vowels are a, e, i, o, u, y.

The Diphthongs are ae, au, ei, eu, oe, ui, and, in early Latin, ai, oi, ou. In the diphthongs both vowel sounds are heard, one following the other in the same syllable.

3. Consonants are either voiced (sonant) or voiceless (surd). Voiced consonants are pronounced with the same vocal murmur that is heard in vowels; voiceless consonants lack this murmur.

1. The voiced consonants are b, d, g, l, r, m, n, z, consonant i, v.
2. The voiceless consonants are p, t, c (k, q), f, h, s, x.

4. Consonants are further classified as in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LABIALS</th>
<th>DENTALS</th>
<th>PALATALS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mutes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voiced (mediae)</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voiceless (teuues)</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aspirates</td>
<td>ph</td>
<td>th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasals</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liquida</td>
<td>l, r</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricatives (Spirants)</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>s, z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sibilants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semivowels</td>
<td>v</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Double consonants are x (= cs) and z (= dz); h is merely a breathing.

1. Mutes are pronounced by blocking entirely, for an instant, the passage of the breath through the mouth, and then allowing it to escape with an explosion (distinctly heard before a following vowel). Between the explosion and the vowel there may be a slight puff of breath (h), as in the Aspirates (ph, th, ch).2

2. Labials are pronounced with the lips, or lips and teeth.

3. Dentals (sometimes called Linguals) are pronounced with the tip of the tongue touching or approaching the upper front teeth.

4. Palatalis are pronounced with a part of the upper surface of the tongue touching or approaching the palate.3

5. Fricatives (or Spirants) are consonants in which the breath passes continuously through the mouth with audible friction.

6. Nasals are like voiced mutes, except that the mouth remains closed and the breath passes through the nose.

1 Strictly a labio-dental, pronounced with the lower lip touching the upper teeth.
2 The aspirates are almost wholly confined to words borrowed from the Greek. In early Latin such borrowed sounds lost their aspiration and became simply p, t, c.
3 Palatale are often classed as (1) velars, pronounced with the tongue touching or rising toward the soft palate (in the back part of the mouth), and (2) palatale, in which the tongue touches or rises toward the hard palate (farther forward in the mouth). Compare the initial consonants in key and cool, whispering the two words, and it will be observed that before e and i the k is sounded farther forward in the mouth than before a, o, or u.
5. The vowels i and u serve as consonants when pronounced rapidly before a vowel so as to stand in the same syllable.\(^1\) Consonant i has the sound of English consonant y; consonant u (v) that of English consonant w.

Consonant i and u (v) are sometimes called Semivowels.

**Note 1.**—The Latin alphabet did not distinguish between the vowel and consonant sounds of i and u, but used each letter (I and V) with a double value. In modern books i and u are often used for the vowel sounds, j and v for the consonant sounds; but in printing in capitals J and U are avoided: — IVLIVS (Iulius). The characters J and U are only slight modifications of the characters I and V. The ordinary English sounds of j and v did not exist in classical Latin, but consonant u perhaps approached English v in the pronunciation of some persons.

**Note 2.** —In the combinations qu, qu, and sometimes su, u seems to be the consonant (w). Thus, aqua, anguis, consuetus (compare English quart, anguish, suave). In these combinations, however, u is reckoned neither as a vowel nor as a consonant.\(^2\)

### ORTHOGRAPHY

6. Latin spelling varied somewhat with the changes in the language and was never absolutely settled in all details.

Thus, we find lubet, vertō, as earlier, and libet, vertō, as later forms. Other variations are optumus and optimus, gerundus and gerundus.

The spelling of the first century of our era, known chiefly from inscriptions, is tolerably uniform, and is commonly used in modern editions of the classics.

**a.** After v (consonant u), o was anciently used instead of u (voltus, servos), and this spelling was not entirely given up until the middle of the first century of our era.

**b.** The older que became cu in the Augustan period; in the second century of our era the spelling quu established itself in some words: —

cum, older quem;\(^3\) equos, ecus, laterequus; sequuntur, secuntur, latersequuntur; similarly exstingunt, exstingunt, later exstinguunt.

**Note.** —In most modern editions the spelling quu is adopted, except in cum.

**c.** Between consonant i and a preceding a, e, o, or u, an i was developed as a transient sound, thus producing a diphthong ai, ei, etc., before the consonant i. In such cases but one i was written: as, āīō (for āaiō), māius (for māi-ius), pēius (for pēi-ius).

\(^1\) Compare the English word Indian as pronounced in two syllables or in three.

\(^2\) In such words it is possible that the preceding consonant was labialized and that no distinct and separate consonant u was heard.

\(^3\) The spelling quum is very late and without authority.
a. Similarly in compounds of iaciō but one i was written (as, con-iciō, not con-iiciō); but the usual pronunciation probably showed consonant i followed by vowel i (see § 11. e).

Note.—Some variations are due to later changes in Latin itself, and these are not now recognized in classical texts.

1. Unaccented ti and ci, when followed by a vowel, came to be pronounced alike; hence nuntiō was later spelled with a c and dicīō with a t.

2. The sound of h was after a time lost and hence this letter was often omitted (as, arena for harēna) or mistakenly written (as, humor for ūmor).

3. The diphthong ae early in the time of the Empire acquired the value of long open e (about like English e in there), and similarly oe after a time became a long close e (about like the English ey in they); and so both were often confused in spelling with e: as, coena or caena for the correct form cēna.

Syllables

7. Every Latin word has as many syllables as it has vowels or diphthongs:—


a. In the division of words into syllables a single consonant (including consonant i and u) between two vowels is written and pronounced with the following vowel. Doubled consonants are separated:—


Note 1.—Some extend the rule for single consonants to any consonant group (as sp, st, gn) that can begin a word. In this book, dix-it, sax-um, etc. are preferred to di-xit, sa-xum; the pronunciation was probably dic-sit, sac-sum.

Note 2.—A syllable ending with a vowel or diphthong is called open: all others are called close. Thus in pa-ter the first syllable is open, the second close.

b. In compounds the parts are separated:—

ab-est, ob-lātus, dis-cernē, du-plex, di-stō.

Pronunciation

8. The so-called Roman Pronunciation of Latin aims to represent approximately the pronunciation of classical times.

Vowels: ā as in father; ā as in idea.
ē as eh? (prolonged), or a in date; ē as eh? (clipped) or e in net.
i as in machine; i as in holiest or sit.
ō as in holy; ō as in obey.
ū as oo in boot; ū as oo in foot.
y between u and i (French u or German ü).

Diphthongs: ae like ay: ei as in eight; oe like oy in boy;
eu as e'oo: au like ow in now; ui as oo'ee.
Consonants are the same as in English, except that —
  c and g are as in come, get, never as in city, gem.
  s as in sea, lips, never as in ease.
Consonant i is like y in young: v (consonant u) like w in wing.
  n in the combinations ns and nf probably indicates nasalization of the
  preceding vowel, which was also lengthened; and final m in an
  unaccented syllable probably had a similar nasalizing effect on
  the preceding vowel.
  ph, th, ch, are properly like p, t, k, followed by h (which may, for con-
  venience, be neglected); but ph probably became like (or nearly
  like) f soon after the classical period, and may be so pronounced to
  distinguish it from p.
  z is as dz in adze.
  bs is like ps; bt is like pt.

Note.—Latin is sometimes pronounced with the ordinary English sounds of the
letters. The English pronunciation should be used in Roman names occurring in
English (as, Julius Caesar); and in familiar quotations, as, e pluribus unum; viva
voce; vice versa; a fortiori; vidi, vidi, vici, etc.

Quantity

9. The Quantity of a Vowel or a Syllable is the time occupied
in pronouncing it. Two degrees of Quantity are recognized, —
long and short.

  a. In syllables, quantity is measured from the beginning of the vowel
or diphthong to the end of the syllable.

10. Vowels are either long or short by nature, and are pro-
nounced accordingly (§ 8).

  a. A vowel before another vowel or h is short: as in via, nihil.
  b. A diphthong is long: as in âedēs, foëdus. So, also, a vowel derived
from a diphthong: as in exclūdō (from ĭex-claudō).
  c. A vowel formed by contraction is long: as in nil (from nihil).
  d. A vowel before ns, nf, gn, is long: as in cōnstâns, inferō, māgnus.

Note.—But the quantity of the vowel before gn is not certain in all cases.

  e. A vowel before nd, nt, is regularly short: as in amandus, amant.
In this book all vowels known to be long are marked (â, ē, etc.), and
short vowels are left unmarked (a, e, etc.). Vowels marked with both signs
at once (â, ē, etc.) occur sometimes as long and sometimes as short.

Note.—The Romans sometimes marked vowel length by a stroke above the letter
(called an apex), as, ā; and sometimes the vowel was doubled to indicate length. An
ī made higher than the other letters was occasionally used for i. But none of these
devices came into general use.
11. The Quantity of the Syllable is important for the position of the accent and in versification.

a. A syllable containing a long vowel or a diphthong is said to be long by nature: as, má-ter, aes, au-la.

b. A syllable containing a short vowel followed by two consonants (except a mute before l or r) or by a double consonant (x, z) is said to be long by position, but the vowel is pronounced short: as, est, ter-ra, sax-um, Me-zen-ti-us.

Note. — When a consonant is doubled the pronunciation should show this distinctly. Thus in mit-tō both t’s should be pronounced as in ou-talk (not merely a single t as in better).

c. A syllable containing a short vowel followed by a mute before l or r is properly short, but may be used as long in verse. Such a syllable is said to be common.

Note 1. — In syllables long by position, but having a short vowel, the length is partly due to the first of the consonants, which stands in the same syllable with the vowel. In syllables of “common” quantity (as the first syllable of pat-rem) the ordinary pronunciation was pa-trem, but in verse pat-rem was allowed so that the syllable could become long.

Note 2. — In final syllables ending with a consonant, and containing a short vowel, the quantity in verse is determined by the following word: if this begins with a vowel the final consonant is joined to it in pronunciation; if it begins with a consonant the syllable is long by position.

Note 3. — In rules for quantity h is not counted as a consonant, nor is the apparently consonantal u in qu, gu, su (see § 5. n. 2).

d. A syllable whose vowel is a, e, o, or u, followed by consonant i, is long whether the vowel itself is long or short: as, á-iō, má-ior, pe-i-us.

In such cases the length of the syllable is indicated in this book by a circumflex on the vowel.

Note. — The length of a syllable before consonant i is due to a transitional sound (vowel i) which forms a diphthong with the preceding vowel: as, á-iō (for āi-iō), má-ior (for āi-mai-iō). See § 6. c.

e. In some compounds of iacīō (as, in-i ciō) the consonant i of the simple verb was probably pronounced (though not written). Thus the first syllable was long by position: as, in-i ciō (for in-i ciō). See § 6. d.

In such cases the length of the syllable is not indicated in this book by a circumflex on the vowel.

f. When a syllable is long by position the quantity of the vowel is not always determinable. The vowel should be pronounced short unless it is known to be long.

Note. — The quantity of a vowel under these circumstances is said to be hidden. It is often determined with a greater or less degree of certainty by inscriptive evidence (see § 10. n.) or by other means. In this book, the quantity of all such vowels known to be long is marked.
§§ 12–14]  

ACCENT

Accent

12. Words of two syllables are accented on the first syllable: as, Ro’ma, fi’des, tan’gō.

Words of more than two syllables are accented on the Penult \(^1\) if that is long (as, ami’cus, mon’e’tur, contin’git); otherwise on the Antepenult (as, do’mi’nus, a’lācris, dissocia’bilis).

\(\alpha\). When an enclitic is joined to a word, the accent falls on the syllable next before the enclitic, whether long or short: as, dē’a’que, āmar’e’ve, tīb’ne, it’a’que (and ... so), as distinguished from it’a’que (therefore). So (according to some) ex’inde, cc’quandō, etc.

Exceptions: 1. Certain apparent compounds of faciō retain the accent of the simple verb: as, benefici’cit, calef’cit (see § 200. 4).

Note. — These were not true compounds, but phrases.

2. In the second declension the genitive and vocative of nouns in -īns and the genitive of those in -īum retain the accent of the nominative: as, Cornē’li, Verg’i-li, inge’ni (see § 49. 6).

3. Certain words which have lost a final vowel retain the accent of the complete words: as, illī’c for illī’ce, prōdū’c for prōdūce, satī’n for satī’sne.

Combinations

13. In some cases adjacent words, being pronounced together, are written as one: —

ūnusquisque (ūnus quisque), sīquis (sī quis), quārē (quā rē), quamobrem (quam ob rem; cf. quās ob rēs), rēspūblica (rēs pública), iūsiūrandum (iūs iūrandum), paterfamiliās (pater familiās).

Note. — Sometimes a slight change in pronunciation resulted, as, especially in the old poets, before est in homōst (homō est), periculumst (periculum est), ausust (ausus est), quālist (quālis est). Similarly there occur vin’, scīn’;or visne, sciēne, sīs (sī vis), sōdēs (sī audēs), sūlīs (sī vultīs). Compare in English somebody, to breakfast; he’s, I’ve, thou’rt.

Phonetic Changes

14. Latin, the language of the ancient Romans, was properly, as its name implies, the language spoken in the plain of Latium, lying south of the Tiber, which was the first territory occupied and governed by the Romans. It is a descendant of an early form of speech commonly called Indo-European (by some Indo-Germanic), from which are also descended most of the important languages now in use in Europe, including among others English, German, the Slavic and the Celtic languages, and further some now or formerly spoken in Asia, as Sanskrit, Persian, Armenian. Greek likewise

\(^1\) The Penult is the last syllable but one; the Antepenult, the last but two.
belongs to the same family. The Romance (or Romanic) languages, of which the most important are Italian, French, Provençal, Spanish, Portuguese, and Romanian, are modern descendants of spoken Latin.

The earliest known forms of Latin are preserved in a few inscriptions. These increase in number as we approach the time when the language began to be used in literature; that is, about a.c. 250. It is the comparatively stable language of the classical period (B.C. 80—A.D. 14) that is ordinarily meant when we speak of Latin, and it is mainly this that is described in this book.

15. Among the main features in the changes of Latin from the earliest stages of the language as we know it up to the forms of classical Latin may be mentioned the following:—

Vowel Changes

1. The old diphthong ai became the classical ae (aedilis for old aidilis), old ei became oe or ü (unus for old einos), and old ou became ü (ducō for old doucē).

2. In compound verbs the vowel a of the simple verb often appears as i or e, and ae similarly appears as i:—

faciō, factum, but conficō, confectum; caedē, but occidē, and similarly ceciē, perfect of caedē (cf. cadē, occidē; ceciē, perfect of cadē).

Note.—This change is commonly ascribed to an accentuation on the first syllable, which seems to have been the rule in Latin before the rule given above (see § 12) became established. The original Indo-European accent, however, was not limited by either of these principles; it was probably a musical accent so-called, consisting in a change of pitch, and not merely in a more forcible utterance of the accented syllable.

3. Two vowels coming together are often contracted:—

cōgō for tco-agō; prēmō for tpro-emō; nihil for nihil; dēbeō for tāh-bēbeō (tāh-habeō).

Consonant Changes

4. An old s regularly became r between two vowels (rhotacism), passing first through the sound of (English) z:—

eram (cf. est); generis, genitive of genus.1

Note.—Final s sometimes became r by analogy: as, honor (older honēs), from the analogy of homēris, etc.

5. A dental (t, d) often became s, especially when standing next to t, d, or s: as, aequēs for taequētris, cāsus for tcaētus (cf. 6, below).

6. Many instances of assimilation, partial or complete, are found:—

cessō for tced-sī; summus for tsummus; scriptus for scribētus (b unvoicing t before the voiceless t); and in compound verbs (see § 16).

1 A similar change can be seen in English: as, were (cf. was); born (cf. inocr).
Dissimilation, the opposite kind of change, prevented in some cases the repetition of the same sound in successive syllables:

Thus, parilia for palilia (from Palēs); meridiēs for ñedidiēs; nātūrālis with suffix -ālis (after r), but populāris with -āris (after l).

7. Final s was in early Latin not always pronounced: as, plēnu(s) fidēi.

Note.—Traces of this pronunciation existed in Cicero's time. He speaks of the omission of final s before a word beginning with a consonant as "contradicted" (subrasticum).

8. A final consonant often disappears: as, virgō for ñirgōn; lac for īlact; cor for ñcord.

9. G, c, and h unite with a following s to form x: as, rēx for ñrēgs; dux for ñducs; trāxi for ñtrahsi.1

10. G and h before t become c: as, rēctum for ñregtum; āctum for ñagtum; trāctum for ñtrahtum.2

11. Between m and s or m and t, a p is often developed: as, sūmpsi for ñsūmsi; ēmptum for ñēmtum.

16. In compounds with prepositions the final consonant in the preposition was often assimilated to the following consonant, but usage varied considerably.

There is good authority for many complete or partial assimilations; as, for ad, acc-, agg-, app-, att-, instead of adc-, adg-, etc. Before a labial consonant we find comb.-, comp.-, comm., but con- is the form before c, d, t, f, g, cons. i, q, s, t, cons. v; we find conl- or coll-, conr- or corr-; ēō- in cōnectō, cōniveō, cōnitor, cōnūbium. In usually changes to im- before p, b, m. Ob and sub may assimilate b to a following c, t, g, or p: before s and t the pronunciation of prepositions ending in b doubtless had p; sur-, sum-, occur for sub-, sum-. The inseparable amb- loses b before a consonant. Circum often loses its m before i. The s of dis becomes r before a vowel and is assimilated to a following f; sometimes this prefix appears as dr-. Instead of ex we find ef- before f (also exfr-). The d of red and ēdē is generally lost before a consonant. The preposition is better left unchanged in most other cases.

Vowel Variations

17. The parent language showed great variation in the vowel sounds of kindred1 words.3

a. This variation is often called by the German name Ablaut. It has left considerable traces in the forms of Latin words, appearing sometimes as a difference of quantity in the same vowel (as, u, û; e, ë), sometimes as a difference in the vowel itself (as, e, o; i, ae) :—

tegō, I cover, toga, a robe; pendō, I weigh, pondus, weight; fidēs, faith, fidēs, faithful, feudus, a treaty; miser, wretched, maestus, sad; dare, to give, dōnum, a gift; regō. I rule, rēx, a king; dux, a leader, dūcō (for older doucō), I lead. Compare English drive, dwayne (drave), driven; bind, bound, band; sing, sang, sung; etc.

1 Really for ñtragshi. The h of trahō represents an older palatal sound (see § 19).
2 Really for ñtraghtum. These are cases of partial assimilation (cf. 6, above).
3 This variation was not without regularity, but was confined within definite limits.
4 In Greek, however, it is more extensively preserved.
Kindred Forms

18. Both Latin and English have gone through a series of phonetic changes, different in the two languages, but following definite laws in each. Hence both preserve traces of the older speech in some features of the vowel system, and both show certain correspondences in consonants in words which each language has inherited from the old common stock. Only a few of these correspondences can be mentioned here.

19. The most important correspondences in consonants between Latin and English, in cognate words, may be seen in the following table:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>p: pater</td>
<td>f: father, earlier fader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f from bh: ferō, frater</td>
<td>b: to bear, brother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b “ “ lubet, libet</td>
<td>v, f: love, brother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t: tũ, tennis</td>
<td>th: thou, thin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d: duo, dent-</td>
<td>t: two, tooth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f from dh: faciō</td>
<td>d: do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d “ “ medius</td>
<td>d: mid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b “ “ ruber</td>
<td>d: red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c: cord-, cornũ</td>
<td>h: heart, horn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qu: quod</td>
<td>wh: what</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g: genus, gustus</td>
<td>c, k, ch: kin, choose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h (from gh): hortus, haedus</td>
<td>y, g: yord, goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cons. i: iugum</td>
<td>y: yoke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v: ventus, ovis</td>
<td>w: wind, ewe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v from gv: vivus (for ṭ̄gyvivos), vendiō (for ṭ̄genviō).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 1. — Sometimes a consonant lost in Latin is still represented in English: as, niv. (for ṭ̄sniv.), Eng. snow; änser (for ṭ̄änser), Eng. goose.

Note 2. — From these cases of kindred words in Latin and English must be carefully distinguished those cases in which the Latin word has been taken into English either directly or through some one of the modern descendants of Latin, especially French. Thus faciō is kindred with Eng. do, but from the Latin participle (factum) of this verb comes Eng. fact, and from the French descendant (fait) of factum comes Eng. feat.

1 The Indo-European parent speech had among its consonants voiced aspirates (bh, dh, gh). All these suffered change in Latin, the most important results being, for bh, Latin f, b (English has b, v, or f); for dh, Latin f, b, d (English has d); for gh, Latin h, g (English has y, g). The other mutes suffered in Latin much less change, while in English, as in the other Germanic languages, they have all changed considerably in accordance with what has been called Grimm’s Law for the shifting of mutes.

2 The th in father is a late development. The older form fader seems to show an exception to the rule that English th corresponds to Latin t. The primitive Germanic form was doubtless in accordance with this rule, but, on account of the position of the accent, which in Germanic was not originally on the first syllable in this word, the consonant underwent a secondary change to d.

3 But to the group st of Latin corresponds also English st; as in Latin stō, English stand.
THE PARTS OF SPEECH

20. Words are divided into eight Parts of Speech: Nouns, Adjectives (including Participles), Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

a. A Noun is the name of a person, place, thing, or idea: as, Caesar; Rōma, Rome; domus, a house; virtus, virtue.

Names of particular persons and places are called Proper Nouns; other nouns are called Common.

Note. — An Abstract Noun is the name of a quality or idea: as, audacia, boldness; senectus, old age. A Collective Noun is the name of a group, class, or the like: as, turba, crowd; exercitus, army.

b. An Adjective is a word that attributes a quality: as, bonus, good; fortis, brave, strong.

Note 1. — A Participle is a word that attributes quality like an adjective, but, being derived from a verb, retains in some degree the power of the verb to assert: as, — Caesar consul creatus, Caesar having been elected consul.

Note 2. — Etymologically there is no difference between a noun and an adjective, both being formed alike. So, too, all names originally attribute quality, and any common name can still be so used. Thus, King William distinguishes this William from other Williams, by the attribute of royalty expressed in the name king.

c. A Pronoun is a word used to distinguish a person, place, thing, or idea without either naming or describing it: as, is, he; qui, who; nōs, we.

Nouns and pronouns are often called Substantives.

d. A Verb is a word which is capable of asserting something: as, sum, I am; amat, he loves.

Note. — In all modern speech the verb is usually the only word that asserts anything, and a verb is therefore supposed to be necessary to complete an assertion. Strictly, however, any adjective or noun may, by attributing a quality or giving a name, make a complete assertion. In the infancy of language there could have been no other means of asserting, as the verb is of comparatively late development.

e. An Adverb is a word used to express the time, place, or manner of an assertion or attribute: as, splendide mendax, gloriously false; hodie natus est, he was born to-day.

Note. — These same functions are often performed by cases (see §§ 214–217) of nouns, pronouns, and adjectives, and by phrases or sentences. In fact, all adverbs were originally cases or phrases, but have become specialized by use.

f. A Preposition is a word which shows the relation between a noun or pronoun and some other word or words in the same sentence: as, per agrōs it, he goes over the fields; ē pluribus ēnum, one out of many.

Note. — Most prepositions are specialized adverbs (cf. § 219). The relations expressed by prepositions were earlier expressed by case-endings.
g. A Conjunction is a word which connects words, or groups of words, without affecting their grammatical relations: as, et, and; sed, but.

Note. — Some adverbs are also used as connectives. These are called Adverbial Conjunctions or Conjunctive (Relative) Adverbs: as, ubi, where; dūne, until.

h. Interjections are mere exclamations and are not strictly to be classed as parts of speech. Thus, — heus, hallow! ő, oh!

Note. — Interjections sometimes express an emotion which affects a person or thing mentioned, and so have a grammatical connection like other words: as, vae victis, woe to the conquered (blas for the conquered)!

INFLECTION

21. Latin is an inflected language.

Inflection is a change made in the form of a word to show its grammatical relations.

a. Inflectional changes sometimes take place in the body of a word, or at the beginning, but oftener in its termination: —

vox, a voice; vocis, of a voice; vocō, I call; vocat, he calls; vocat, let him call;
vocavit, he has called; tangit, he touches; tetigit, he touched.

b. Terminations of inflection had originally independent meanings which are now obscured. They correspond nearly to the use of prepositions, auxiliaries, and personal pronouns in English.

Thus, in vocat, the termination is equivalent to he or she; in vocis, to the preposition of; and in vocet the change of vowel signifies a change of mood.

c. Inflectional changes in the body of a verb usually denote relations of tense or mood, and often correspond to the use of auxiliary verbs in English: —

fragit, he breaks or is breaking; frēgit, he broke or has broken; mordēt, he bites; monēdit, he bit.¹

22. The inflection of Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, and Participles to denote gender, number, and case is called Declension, and these parts of speech are said to be declined.

The inflection of Verbs to denote voice, mood, tense, number, and person is called Conjugation, and the verb is said to be conjugated.

Note. — Adjectives are often said to have inflections of comparison. These are, however, properly stem-formations made by derivation (p. 55, footnote).

¹ The only proper inflections of verbs are those of the personal endings; and the changes here referred to are strictly changes of stem, but have become a part of the system of inflections.
23. Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections are not inflected and are called Particles.

Note. — The term Particle is sometimes limited to such words as num, -ne, an (interrogative), nōn, nē (negative), si (conditional), etc., which are used simply to indicate the form or construction of a sentence.

24. The body of a word, to which the terminations are attached, is called the Stem.

The Stem contains the idea of the word without relations; but, except in the first part of a compound (as, arti-fex, artificer), it cannot ordinarily be used without some termination to express them.¹

Thus the stem voc- denotes voice; with -s added it becomes vox, a voice or the voice, as the subject or agent of an action; with -is it becomes vocis, and signifies of a voice.

Note. — The stem is in many forms so united with the termination that a comparison with other forms is necessary to determine it.

25. A Root is the simplest form attainable by analysis of a word into its component parts.

Such a form contains the main idea of the word in a very general sense, and is common also to other words either in the same language or in kindred languages.²

Thus the root of the stem voc- is voc, which does not mean to call, or I call, or calling, but merely expresses vaguely the idea of calling, and cannot be used as a part of speech without terminations. With ā- it becomes vocā-, the stem of vocāre (to call); with āv- it is the stem of vocāvit (he called); with āv- it becomes the stem of vocātus (called); with ātiōn- it becomes the stem of vocātiōnis (of a calling). With its vowel lengthened it becomes the stem of vox, voc-is (a voice: that by which we call). This stem voc-, with -ālis added, means belonging to a voice; with -ōla, a little voice.

Note. — In inflected languages, words are built up from Roots, which at a very early time were used alone to express ideas, as is now done in Chinese. Roots are modified into Stems, which, by inflection, become fully formed words. The process by which roots are modified, in the various forms of derivatives and compounds, is called Stem-building. The whole of this process is originally one of composition, by which significant endings are added one after another to forms capable of pronunciation and conveying a meaning.

Roots had long ceased to be recognized as such before the Latin existed as a separate language. Consequently the forms which we assume as Latin roots never really existed in Latin, but are the representatives of forms used earlier.

¹ Another exception is the imperative second person singular in -e (as, rege).
² For example, the root sta is found in the Sanskrit tishtāmi, Greek ὤτημ, Latin sistere and stāre, German stehen, and English stand.
26. The Stem may be the same as the root: as inductis, of a leader; fer-t, he bears; but it is more frequently formed from the root—

1. By changing or lengthening its vowel: as in scrob-s, sardust (scab, shave); rég-is, of a king (reg, direct); vóc-is, of a voice (voc, call).

2. By the addition of a simple suffix (originally another root): as in fugā-, stem of fuga, flight (fug + ā-); régi-s, you rule (reg + stem-ending ēō-); sini-t, he allows (sī + nēō-).¹

3. By two or more of these methods: as in dúci-t, he leads (duc + stem-ending ēō-).

4. By derivation and composition, following the laws of development peculiar to the language. (See §§ 227 ff.)

27. The Base is that part of a word which is unchanged in inflection: as, serv-in servus; mēns-in mēnsa; ign-in ignis.

a. The Base and the Stem are often identical, as in many consonant stems of nouns (as, rég-in rég-is). If, however, the stem ends in a vowel, the latter does not appear in the base, but is variously combined with the inflectional termination. Thus the stem of servus is servo-; that of mēnsa, mēnsā-; that of ignis, ignī-.

28. Inflectional terminations are variously modified by combination with the final vowel or consonant of the Stem, and thus the various forms of Declension and Conjugation (see §§ 36, 164) developed.

GENDER

29. The Genders distinguished in Latin are three: Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.

30. The gender of Latin nouns is either natural or grammatical.

a. Natural Gender is distinction as to the sex of the object denoted: as, puer (m.), boy; puella (f.), girl; réx (m.), king; régina (f.), queen.

Note 1.—Many nouns have both a masculine and a feminine form to distinguish sex: as, servus, serva, stag, doe; clēns, clienta, client; vīctor, vītrix, conqueror.

Many designations of persons (as nauta, sailor) usually though not necessarily male are always treated as masculine. Similarly names of tribes and peoples are masculine: as, Rōmāni, the Romans; Persae, the Persians.

Note 2.—A few neuter nouns are used to designate persons as belonging to a class: as, mancipium tuum, your slave (your chattel).

Many pet names of girls and boys are neuter in form: as, Paegnium, Glycerium.

Note 3.—Names of classes or collections of persons may be of any gender: as, exercitus (m.), aetēs (f.), and agmen (n.), army; operae (p. plur.), workmen; cōpiæ (p. plur.), troops; senātus (m.), senate; cohorts (p. c.), cohort; concilium (n.), council.

¹ These suffixes are Indo-European stem-endings.
b. Grammatical Gender is a formal distinction as to sex where no actual sex exists in the object. It is shown by the form of the adjective joined with the noun: as, lapis māgnus (m.), a great stone; manus mea (f.), my hand.

General Rules of Gender

31. Names of Male beings, and of Rivers, Winds, Months, and Mountains, are masculine: —

pater, father; Ælius, Julius; Tiberis, the Tiber; auster, south wind; Iānūarius, January; Apennīnus, the Apennines.

Note.—Names of Months are properly adjectives, the masculine noun mēnsis, month, being understood; as, Ænūarius, January.

a. A few names of Rivers ending in -a (as, Ælia), with the Greek names Lēthē and Styx, are feminine; others are variable or uncertain.

b. Some names of Mountains are feminine or neuter, taking the gender of their termination: as, Alpēs (f.), the Alps; Sēracte (n.).

32. Names of Female beings, of Cities, Countries, Plants, Trees, and Gems, of many Animals (especially Birds), and of most abstract Qualities, are feminine: —

māter, mother; Ælia, Julia; Rōma, Rome; Ætalia, Italy; rosa, rose; pīanus, pine; sapphirus, sapphire; anus, duck; vēritās, truth.

a. Some names of Towns and Countries are masculine: as, Sulpō, Gabii (plur.); or neuter, as, Tarentum, Illyricum.

b. A few names of Plants and Gems follow the gender of their termination: as, centaurēum (n.), centaury; acanthus (m.), bearsfoot; opalus (m.), opal.

Note.—The gender of most of the above may also be recognized by the terminations, according to the rules given under the several declensions. The names of Roman women were usually feminine adjectives denoting their ġēns or house (see § 108. b).

33. Indeclinable nouns, infinitives, terms or phrases used as nouns, and words quoted merely for their form, are neuter: —

fās, right; nihil, nothing; gummi, gum; scīre tuum, your knowledge (to know); triste vale, a sad farewell; hoc ipsum diū, this very “long.”

34. Many nouns may be either masculine or feminine, according to the sex of the object. These are said to be of Common Gender: as, exsul, exile; bōs, ox or cow; parēns, parent.

Note.—Several names of animals have a grammatical gender, independent of sex. These are called epicene. Thus ĭpĭus, ĭare, is always masculine, and vulpēs, fox, is always feminine.
NUMBER AND CASE

35. Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, and Participles are declined in two Numbers, singular and plural; and in six Cases, nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, ablative, vocative.

a. The Nominative is the case of the Subject of a sentence.

b. The Genitive may generally be translated by the English Possessive, or by the Objective with the preposition of.

c. The Dative is the case of the Indirect Object (§ 274). It may usually be translated by the Objective with the preposition to or for.

d. The Accusative is the case of the Direct Object of a verb (§ 274). It is used also with many of the prepositions.

e. The Ablative may usually be translated by the Objective with from, by, with, in, or at. It is often used with prepositions.

f. The Vocative is the case of Direct Address.

g. All the cases, except the nominative and vocative, are used as object-cases; and are sometimes called Oblique Cases (cāsūs oblīgāt).

h. In names of towns and a few other words appear traces of another case (the Locative), denoting the place where: as, Rōmae, at Rome; rūrī, in the country.

Note.—Still another case, the Instrumental, appears in a few adverbs (§ 215.4).

DECLENSION OF NOUNS

36. Declension is produced by adding terminations originally significant to different forms of stems, vowel or consonant. The various phonetic corruptions in the language have given rise to the several declensions. Most of the case-endings, as given in Latin, contain also the final letter of the stem.

Adjectives are, in general, declined like nouns, and are etymologically to be classed with them; but they have several peculiarities of inflection (see § 109 ff.).

37. Nouns are inflected in five Declensions, distinguished by the final letter (characteristic) of the Stem, and by the case-ending of the Genitive Singular.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>ā</td>
<td>ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>ē</td>
<td>ēi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ū</td>
<td>ūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>ē</td>
<td>ēi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>ē</td>
<td>ēi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. The Stem of a noun may be found, if a consonant stem, by omitting the case-ending; if a vowel stem, by substituting for the case-ending the characteristic vowel.
38. The following are General Rules of Declension:

a. The Vocative is always the same as the Nominative, except in the singular of nouns and adjectives in -us of the second declension, which have -e in the vocative. It is not included in the paradigms, unless it differs from the nominative.

b. In neuters the Nominative and Accusative are always alike, and in the plural end in -ā.

c. The Accusative singular of all masculines and feminines ends in -m; the Accusative plural in -s.

d. In the last three declensions (and in a few cases in the others) the Dative singular ends in -ī.

e. The Dative and Ablative plural are always alike.

f. The Genitive plural always ends in -um.

g. Final -ī, -ō, -u of inflection are always long; final -a is short, except in the Ablative singular of the first declension; final -e is long in the first and fifth declensions, short in the second and third. Final -is and -us are long in plural cases.

Case-endings of the Five Declensions

39. The regular Case-endings of the several declensions are the following:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decl. I</th>
<th>Decl. II</th>
<th>Decl. III</th>
<th>Decl. IV</th>
<th>Decl. V</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SINGULAR</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F.</td>
<td>M.</td>
<td>N.</td>
<td>M., F.</td>
<td>N.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>-a</td>
<td>-us</td>
<td>-um</td>
<td>-s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(modified stem)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>-ae</td>
<td>-ā</td>
<td>-i</td>
<td>-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>-ae</td>
<td>-ō</td>
<td>-i</td>
<td>-u(-ū)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>-am</td>
<td>-um</td>
<td>-um(-im)</td>
<td>-em(-i)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(like nom.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>-ā</td>
<td>-ō</td>
<td>-e(i)</td>
<td>-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>-a</td>
<td>-e</td>
<td>-um</td>
<td>-us</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLURAL

| N.V.    | -ae      | -i       | -a       | -ēs     | -a, -ia | -ūs    | -ua   | -ēs  |
| Gen.    | -ārum    | -ōrum    | -um, -ium | -um     | -um     | -ērum  |
| D.Ab.   | -īs      | -īs      | -ibus    | -ibus (-ibus) | -ēbus |
| Acc.    | -ūs      | -ōs      | -a       | -ēs(-īs) | -a, -ia | -ūs    | -ua   | -ēs  |

1 For ancient, rare, and Greek forms (which are here omitted), see under the several declensions.
FIRST DECLENSION (ā-STEMS)

40. The Stem of nouns of the First Declension ends in ā-. The Nominative ending is -a (the stem-vowel shortened), except in Greek nouns.

41. Latin nouns of the First Declension are thus declined:

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NOM.</td>
<td>stella</td>
<td>a star</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN.</td>
<td>stellae</td>
<td>of a star</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT.</td>
<td>stellae</td>
<td>to or for a star</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC.</td>
<td>stellam</td>
<td>a star</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABL.</td>
<td>stellā</td>
<td>with, from, by, etc. a star</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SINGULAR      CASE-ENDINGS

Plural

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NOM.</td>
<td>stellae</td>
<td>stars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN.</td>
<td>stellārum</td>
<td>of stars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT.</td>
<td>stellīs</td>
<td>to or for stars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC.</td>
<td>stellās</td>
<td>stars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABL.</td>
<td>stellīs</td>
<td>with, from, by, etc. stars</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- The Latin has no article; hence stella may mean a star, the star, or simply star.

Gender in the First Declension

42. Nouns of the first declension are Feminine.

Exceptions: Nouns masculine from their signification: as, nauta, sailor. So a few family or personal names: as, Mūrēna, Dolābeila, Scaevola¹; also, Hadria, the Adriatic.

Case-Forms in the First Declension

43. a. The genitive singular anciently ended in -āī (dissyllabic), which is occasionally found: as, aulāī. The same ending sometimes occurs in the dative, but only as a diphthong.

¹ Scaevola is really a feminine adjective, used as a noun, meaning little left hand; but, being used as the name of a man (originally a nickname), it became masculine. Original genders are often thus changed by a change in the sense of a noun.
b. An old genitive in -ās is preserved in the word familiās, often used in the combinations pater (māter, filius, filīa) familiās, father, etc., of a family (plur. patrēs familiās or familiārum).

c. The Locative form for the singular ends in -ae; for the plural in -is (cf. p. 34, footnote): as, Rōmeae, at Rome; Athēnēs, at Athens.

d. The genitive plural is sometimes found in -um instead of -ārum, especially in Greek patronymics, as, Aeneadum, sons of Aeneas, and in compounds with -cōla and -gēna, signifying dwelling and descent: as, caelicolum, celestialis; Trūjugenum, sons of Troy; so also in the Greek nouns amphorā and drachma.

e. The dative and ablative plural of dea, goddess, filia, daughter, end in an older form -ābus (deābus, filiābus) to distinguish them from the corresponding cases of deus, god, and filius, son (deīs, filīs). So rarely with other words, as, liberta, freed-woman; mūla, she-mule; equa, mare. But, except when the two sexes are mentioned together (as in formulas, documents, etc.), the form in -is is preferred in all but dea and filia.

Note 1.—The old ending of the ablative singular (-ād) is sometimes retained in early Latin: as, prāsīdā, booty (later, praeā).

Note 2.—In the dative and ablative plural -eis for -ēs is sometimes found, and -ēs (as in taenēs) is occasionally contracted to -ēs (taenēs); so regularly in words in -āia (as, Bāis from Bāiae).

Greek Nouns of the First Declension

44. Many nouns of the First Declension borrowed from the Greek are entirely Latinized (as, aula, court); but others retain traces of their Greek case-forms in the singular.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. Électra (-ā)</td>
<td>epitomē</td>
<td>múscica (-ē)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. Électrae</td>
<td>epitomēs</td>
<td>múscicae (-ēs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. Électrae</td>
<td>epitomēae</td>
<td>múscicae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. Électram (-ān)</td>
<td>epitomēn</td>
<td>músciam (-ēn)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. Électrā</td>
<td>epitomē</td>
<td>múscā (-ē)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Andromache, v.</th>
<th>Æneas, m.</th>
<th>Persian, m.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. Andromachē (-ā)</td>
<td>Aenēās</td>
<td>Persēs (-ā)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. Andromachēs (-ās)</td>
<td>Aenēāe</td>
<td>Persae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. Andromachēs</td>
<td>Aenēāe</td>
<td>Persae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. Andromachēn (-am)</td>
<td>Aenēān (-am)</td>
<td>Persēn (-am)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. Andromachē (-ā)</td>
<td>Aenēā</td>
<td>Persē (-ā)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. Andromachē (-ā)</td>
<td>Aenēā (-a)</td>
<td>Persa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Anchises, m.  
son of Aeneas, m.  
comet, m.

Nom.  Anchisēs  
Aeneadēs (-a)  
comētēs (-a)

Gen.  Anchisae  
Aeneadae  
comētēs ae

Dat.  Anchisae  
Aeneadæ  
comētēs e

Acc.  Anchīsēn (-am)  
Aeneadēn  
comētēn (-am)

Abl.  Anchīsē (-ā)  
Aeneadē (-ā)  
comētā (-ē)

Voc.  Anchīsē (-ā, -a)  
Aeneadē (-a)  
comētā

There are (besides proper names) about thirty-five of these words, several being names of plants or arts: as, crambē, cabbage; mūsicē, music. Most have also regular Latin forms: as, comētēs; but the nominative sometimes has the a long.

a. Greek forms are found only in the singular; the plural, when it occurs, is regular: as, comētēs, -ärum, etc.

b. Many Greek nouns vary between the first, the second, and the third declensions: as, Boötēs (genitive of Boōtēs, -is), Thūcēyðidēs (accusative plural of Thūcēyðidēs, -is). See § 52. a and § 81.

Note.—The Greek accusative Scipiadēs, from Scipiaēs, descendant of the Scipios, is found in Horace.

SECOND DECLENSION (o-STEMS)

45. The Stem of nouns of the Second Declension ends in o: as, viro- (stem of vir, man), servo- (stem of servus or servōs, slave), bello- (stem of bellum, war).

a. The Nominative is formed from the stem by adding s in masculines and feminines, and m in neuters, the vowel o being weakened to ë (see §§ 6. a, 46. x.1).

b. In most nouns whose stem ends in rē- the s is not added in the Nominative, but o is lost, and ë intrudes before rē, if not already present: as, ager, stem agrē-2; cf. puer, stem puero.

Exceptions: erus, hesperus, iūniperus, mērus, numerus, taurus, umerus, uterus, virus, and many Greek nouns.

c. The stem-vowel ë has a variant form ë,3 which is preserved in the Latin vocative singular of nouns in -us: as, servē, vocative of servus, slave.

Note. — In composition this ë appears as i. Thus, — belli-ger, warlike (from bene/-, stem of bello, war).

46. Nouns of the Second Declension in -us (-0e) and -um (-om) are thus declined: —

1 Compare the English chamber from French chambre.
2 Compare Greek ἄγρα, which shows the original o of the stem.
3 By so-called Ablaut (see § 17. a).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>servus, m., slave</th>
<th>bellum, n., war</th>
<th>Pompēius, m., Pompey</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stem servo-</td>
<td>Stem bello-</td>
<td>Stem Pompēio-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Singular**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>servus (-os)</th>
<th>case-endings</th>
<th>bellum</th>
<th>case-endings</th>
<th>Pompēius</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>servī</td>
<td>-ī (-os)</td>
<td>bellī</td>
<td>-ī</td>
<td>Pompēī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>servō</td>
<td>-ō</td>
<td>bellō</td>
<td>-ō</td>
<td>Pompēīō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>servum (-om)</td>
<td>-um (-om)</td>
<td>bellum</td>
<td>-um</td>
<td>Pompēīum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>servō</td>
<td>-ō</td>
<td>bellō</td>
<td>-ō</td>
<td>Pompēīō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>serve</td>
<td>-ē</td>
<td>bellum</td>
<td>-um</td>
<td>Pompēī (-ēī)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>servī</th>
<th>case-endings</th>
<th>bella</th>
<th>case-endings</th>
<th>Pompēī</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>servōrum</td>
<td>-īrum</td>
<td>bellōrum</td>
<td>-īrum</td>
<td>Pompēīōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>servīs</td>
<td>-īs</td>
<td>bellīs</td>
<td>-īs</td>
<td>Pompēīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>servōs</td>
<td>-ōs</td>
<td>bella</td>
<td>-ā</td>
<td>Pompēīōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>servīs</td>
<td>-īs</td>
<td>bellīs</td>
<td>-īs</td>
<td>Pompēīs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note 1.** — The earlier forms for nominative and accusative were -os, -om, and these were always retained after u and v up to the end of the Republic. The terminations s and m are sometimes omitted in inscriptions: as, Cornēlio for Cornīliōs, Cornēliōm.

**Note 2.** — Stems in qu-, like equo-, change qu to c before u. Thus,—ecus (earlier equos), equi, equo, ecum (earlier equem), eque. Modern editions disregard this principle.

**47. Nouns of the Second Declension in -er and -ir are thus declined:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>puer, m., boy</th>
<th>ager, m., field</th>
<th>vir, m., man</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stem puer-</td>
<td>Stem agro-</td>
<td>Stem viro-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Singular**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>puer</th>
<th>ager</th>
<th>vir</th>
<th>case-endings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>puerī</td>
<td>agrī</td>
<td>virī</td>
<td>-ī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>puerō</td>
<td>agrō</td>
<td>virō</td>
<td>-ō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>puerum</td>
<td>agrum</td>
<td>virum</td>
<td>-um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>puerō</td>
<td>agrō</td>
<td>virō</td>
<td>-ō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>puerī</th>
<th>agrī</th>
<th>virī</th>
<th>case-endings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>puerōrum</td>
<td>agrōrum</td>
<td>virōrum</td>
<td>-ōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>puerīs</td>
<td>agrīs</td>
<td>virīs</td>
<td>-īs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>puerōs</td>
<td>agrōs</td>
<td>virōs</td>
<td>-ōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>puerīs</td>
<td>agrīs</td>
<td>virīs</td>
<td>-īs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** — When e belongs to the stem, as in puer, it is retained throughout; otherwise it appears only in the nominative and vocative singular, as in ager.
Gender in the Second Declension

48. Nouns ending in -us (-os), -er, -ir, are Masculine; those ending in -um (-on) are Neuter.

Exceptions: Names of countries and towns in -us (-os) are Feminine: as, Aegyptus, Corinthus. Also many names of plants and gems, with the following: alveus, belly; carbasus, linen (pl. carbasea, sails, n.); colus, distaff; humus, ground; vannus, winnowing-shovel.

Many Greek nouns retain their original gender: as, arctus (r.), the Polar Bear; methodus (r.), method.

a. The following in -us are Neuter; their accusative (as with all neutrals) is the same as the nominative: pelagus, sea; virus, poison; vulgus (rarely m.), the crowd. They are not found in the plural, except pelagus, which has a rare nominative and accusative plural pelage.

Note. — The nominative plural neuter cete, sea monsters, occurs; the nominative singular cetus occurs in Vitruvius.

Case-Forms in the Second Declension

49. a. The Locative form of this declension ends for the singular in -i: as, humi, on the ground; Corinthi, at Corinth; for the plural, in -is: as, Philippis, at Philippi (cf. p. 34, footnote).

b. The genitive of nouns in -ius or -ium ended, until the Augustan Age, in a single -i: as, fili, of a son; Pompeii, of Pompey (Pompeius); but the accent of the nominative is retained: as, ingeni, of genius.¹

c. Proper names in -ius have -i in the vocative, retaining the accent of the nominative: as, Vergili. So also, filius, son; genius, divine guardian: as, audi, mi fili, hear, my son.

Adjectives in -ius form the vocative in -ie, and some of these are occasionally used as nouns: as, Lacedemonie, O Spartan.

Note. — Greek names in -ius have the vocative -ie: as, Lyricus, vocative Lyricē.

d. The genitive plural often has -um or (after v) -om (cf. § 6. a) instead of -orum, especially in the poets: as, deum, superum, divum, of the gods; virum, of men. Also in compounds of vir, and in many words of money, measure, and weight: as, Sēvirum, of the Seciri; nummum, of coins; iugurum, of acres.

e. The original ending of the ablative singular (-ōd) is sometimes found in early Latin: as, Gnaivōd (later, Gnaēō), Cneius.

f. Proper names in -āius, -ēius, -ēus (as, Aurunculeius, Bōi), are declined like Pompeius.

¹ The genitive in -i occurs once in Virgil, and constantly in Ovid, but was probably unknown to Cicero.
\section*{SECOND DECENSION (O-STEMS)}

\textbf{g. Deus \textit{(M.)}, god, is thus declined:—}

\begin{center}
\begin{tabular}{ll}
\textbf{SINGULAR} & \textbf{PLURAL} \\
Nom. deus & dei (déi), dì \\
Gen. deī & deōrum, deum \\
Dat. deō & deīs (diēs), diēs \\
Acc. deum & deōs \\
Abl. deō & deīs (diēs), diēs
\end{tabular}
\end{center}

\textit{Note. — }The vocative singular of \textit{deus} does not occur in classic Latin, but is said to have been \textit{dee}; \textit{deus} (like the nominative) occurs in the Vulgate. For the genitive plural, \textit{divum} or \textit{divem} (from \textit{divus}, \textit{divine}) is often used.

\section*{50. The following stems in \textit{ero-}, in which \textit{e} belongs to the stem, retain the \textit{e} throughout and are declined like \textit{puer} (§ 47): —}

adulter, adulterer; gener, son-in-law; puer, boy;
socer, father-in-law; vesper, evening; Liber, Bacchus.

Also, the adjective 	extit{liber}, \textit{free}, of which 	extit{liberi}, children, is the plural (§ 111. \textit{a}), and compounds in -\textit{er} and -\textit{ger} (stem \textit{ero-}, \textit{gero}): \textit{as, lucifer}, morning star; \textit{armiger, squire}.

\section*{a.} An old nominative 	extit{socerus} occurs. So vocative \textit{puere}, boy, as if from \textit{†puerus} (regularly \textit{puer}).

\section*{b.} \textit{Vir}, man, has genitive \textit{virī}; the adjective \textit{satur}, 	extit{sated}, has \textit{saturī}; \textit{vesper}, evening, has ablative \textit{vespere} (locative \textit{vesperī}, \textit{in the evening}).

\section*{c.} \textit{Mulciber}, \textit{Vulcan}, has -\textit{berī} and -\textit{brī} in the genitive. The barbaric names \textit{Hibēr} and \textit{Celtibēr} retain \textit{ē} throughout.

\section*{51. The following, not having \textit{e} in the stem, insert it in the nominative singular and are declined like \textit{ager} (§ 47): —}

\begin{center}
\begin{tabular}{llll}
ager, field, stem agro- & coluber, snake; & magister, master; \\
aper, boar; & conger, sea eel; & minister, servant; \\
archer, judge; & culter, knife; & oleaster, wild olive; \\
auster, south, wind; & faber, smith; & onager (-grus), wild ass; \\
cancer, crab; & fiber, beaver; & scomber (-brus), mackerel; \\
caper, goat; & liber, book;
\end{tabular}
\end{center}

\section*{Greek Nouns of the Second Declension}

\textbf{52. Greek nouns of the Second Declension end in -\textit{os}, -\textit{vs}, masculine or feminine, and in -\textit{on} neuter.}

\textbf{They are mostly proper names and are declined as follows in the Singular, the Plural, when found, being regular: —}
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>mýthos, m.</th>
<th>Athós, m.</th>
<th>Dēlos, r.</th>
<th>Ílion, n.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fable</td>
<td>Athos</td>
<td>Delos</td>
<td>Ilion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SINGULAR**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>mýthos</th>
<th>Athós (-ō)</th>
<th>Dēlos</th>
<th>Ílion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>mýthi</td>
<td>Athō (-ī)</td>
<td>Dēlī</td>
<td>Ílī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>mýthō</td>
<td>Athō</td>
<td>Dēlō</td>
<td>Ílō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>mýthoun</td>
<td>Athōn (-um)</td>
<td>Dēlon (-um)</td>
<td>Ílion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>mýthō</td>
<td>Athōs</td>
<td>Dēle</td>
<td>Ílion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>mýthe</td>
<td>Athōs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**a.** Many names in -ēs belonging to the third declension have also a genitive in -ī: as, Thúcýdidēs, Thúcýdīdī (compare § 44. b).

**b.** Several names in -er have also a nominative in -us: as, Teucer or Teuctrus. The name Panthūs has the vocative Panthū (§ 81. 3).

**c.** The genitive plural of certain titles of books takes the Greek termination -ōn: as, Geōgicōn, of the Georgics.

**d.** The termination -oe (for Greek -oa) is sometimes found in the nominative plural: as, Adelphoe, the Adelphi (a play of Terence).

**e.** Greek names in -eus (like Orpheus) have forms of the second and third declensions (see § 82).

**THIRD DECLENSION (CONSONANT AND I-STEMS)**

53. Nouns of the Third Declension end in a, e, i, ö, y, c, l, n, r, s, t, x.

54. Stems of the Third Declension are classed as follows:—

- I. Consonant Stems
  - b. Liquid and Nasal stems.
- II. I-Stems
  - a. Pure i-stems.
  - b. Mixed i-stems.

55. The Nominative is always derived from the stem.

The variety in form in the Nominative is due to simple modifications of the stem, of which the most important are—

1. Combination of final consonants: as of c (or g) and s to form x; dúx, ducis, stem duc-; réx, régis, stem rég-.
2. Omission of a final consonant: as of a final nasal; leō, leōnis, stem leōn-; ὀρᾶτίο, ὀρᾶτίonis, stem ὀρᾶτιον-.
3. Omission of a final vowel: as of final i; calcar, calcāris, stem calcāri-
4. Change of vowel in the final syllable: as of a to e; princeps (for -caps), principis, stem princip- (for -cap-).
CONSONANT STEMS

Mute Stems

56. Masculine and Feminine Nouns with mute stems form the Nominative by adding s to the stem.

A labial (p) is retained before s: as, princeps-s.
A lingual (t, d) is dropped before s: as, miles (stem milit-), custos (stem custod-).
A palatal (c, g) unites with s to form x: as, dux (for †duc-s), rex (for †reg-s).

a. In dissyllabic stems the final syllable often shows e in the nominative and i in the stem: as, princeps, stem princip- (for -cap-).

57. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>princeps, c., chief</th>
<th>radix, r., root</th>
<th>miles, m., soldier</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stem princip-</td>
<td>Stem radic-</td>
<td>Stem milit-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Singular**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>princeps</td>
<td>princeps</td>
<td>principis</td>
<td>principi</td>
<td>principem</td>
<td>princepe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>radix</td>
<td>radicis</td>
<td>radici</td>
<td>radicem</td>
<td>radice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>miles</td>
<td>militis</td>
<td>militi</td>
<td>militem</td>
<td>milite</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Case-Endings**

- Nom.: -s
- Gen., Dat., Abl.: -is
- Acc.: -i
- Voc.: -em
- Abl. Voc.: -e

**Plural**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>principes</td>
<td>principis</td>
<td>principum</td>
<td>principibus</td>
<td>principes</td>
<td>principibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>radicēs</td>
<td>radicis</td>
<td>radicum</td>
<td>radicibus</td>
<td>radicēs</td>
<td>radicibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>militēs</td>
<td>militis</td>
<td>militum</td>
<td>militibus</td>
<td>militēs</td>
<td>militibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Case-Endings**

- Nom.: -ēs
- Gen.: -um
- Dat.: -ibus
- Acc.: -ēs
- Abl.: -ibus

**cūstōs, c., guard**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cūstōs</td>
<td>cūstōdis</td>
<td>cūstōdi</td>
<td>cūstōdem</td>
<td>cūstōde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dux</td>
<td>ducis</td>
<td>duci</td>
<td>ducem</td>
<td>duce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēx</td>
<td>rēgis</td>
<td>rēgi</td>
<td>rēgem</td>
<td>rēge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Case-Endings**

- Nom.: -s
- Gen.: -is
- Dat.: -ī
- Acc.: -em
- Abl.: -e
### DECLENSION OF NOUNS

#### Plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>cūstōdēs</th>
<th>ducēs</th>
<th>rēgēs</th>
<th>-ēs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>cūstōdum</td>
<td>ducum</td>
<td>rēgum</td>
<td>-um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>cūstōdibus</td>
<td>ducibus</td>
<td>rēgibus</td>
<td>-ibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>cūstōdēs</td>
<td>ducēs</td>
<td>rēgēs</td>
<td>-ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>cūstōdibus</td>
<td>ducibus</td>
<td>rēgibus</td>
<td>-ibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### a. In like manner are declined —
- ariēs, -ētis (m.), ram; comēs, -ētis (c.), companion; lāpis, -īdis (m.), stone; iūdex, -īcis (m.), judge; cornīx, -īcis (v.), raven, and many other nouns.

#### 58. Most mute stems are Masculine or Feminine. Those that are neuter have for the Nominative the simple stem. But, —

#### a. Lingual Stems (t, d) ending in two consonants drop the final mute: as, cor (stem cord-), lac (stem lact-). So also stems in āt- from the Greek: as, poēma (stem poēmat-).

#### b. The stem capit- shows ū in the nominative (caput for ūcapot).

#### 59. Nouns of this class are declined as follows: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>cor, n., heart</th>
<th>caput, n., head</th>
<th>poēma, n., poem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stem cor-</td>
<td>Stem capit-</td>
<td>Stem poēmat-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Singular

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>cor</th>
<th>caput</th>
<th>poēma</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>cordis</td>
<td>capitēs</td>
<td>poēmatis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>cordī</td>
<td>capiti</td>
<td>poēmatī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>cor</td>
<td>caput</td>
<td>poēma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>corde</td>
<td>capite</td>
<td>poēmate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Case-Endings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>cor</th>
<th>caput</th>
<th>poēma</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>corda</td>
<td>capitā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>——</td>
<td>capitum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>cordibus</td>
<td>capitibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>corda</td>
<td>capita</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>cordibus</td>
<td>capitibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>corda</td>
<td>——</td>
<td>cordibus</td>
<td>corda</td>
<td>corde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capita</td>
<td>capītum</td>
<td>capitābus</td>
<td>capita</td>
<td>capite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poēmatā</td>
<td>poēmatum</td>
<td>poēmatibus</td>
<td>poēmatā</td>
<td>poēmate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>——</td>
<td>——</td>
<td>——</td>
<td>——</td>
<td>——</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 60. The following irregularities require notice: —

#### a. Greek neuters with nominative singular in -a (as poēma) frequently end in -is in the dative and ablative plural, and rarely in -ūrum in the genitive plural; as, poēmatīs (for poēmatibus), poēmatōrum (for poēmatum).

#### b. A number of monosyllabic nouns with mute stems want the genitive plural (like cor). See § 103, g. 2.
Liquid and Nasal Stems (*l, n, r*)

61. In Masculine and Feminine nouns with liquid and nasal stems the Nominative is the same as the stem.

Exceptions are the following:

1. Stems in ōn- drop n in the nominative: as in legion, stem legion-.
2. Stems in din- and gin- drop n and keep an original ō in the nominative: as in virgo, stem virgin-.
3. Stems in in- (not din- or gin-) retain n and have e instead of i in the nominative: as in cornicen, stem cornicin-.
4. Stems in tr- have -ter in the nominative: as, pater, stem patr-.

62. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cōnsul</td>
<td>cōnsulis</td>
<td>cōnsulī</td>
<td>cōnsulem</td>
<td>cōnsule</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>m.</td>
<td>m.</td>
<td>m.</td>
<td>m.</td>
<td>m.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>leōn</td>
<td>leōnis</td>
<td>leōnī</td>
<td>leōnem</td>
<td>leōne</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stem</td>
<td>cōnsul-</td>
<td>cōnsulis</td>
<td>cōnsulī</td>
<td>cōnsulem</td>
<td>cōnsule</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>leōn-</td>
<td>leōnis</td>
<td>leōnī</td>
<td>leōnem</td>
<td>leōne</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>virgō</td>
<td>virginis</td>
<td>virgini</td>
<td>virginem</td>
<td>virgine</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>cōnsulēs</td>
<td>leōnēs</td>
<td>virginēs</td>
<td>patrēs</td>
<td>-ēs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>cōnsulum</td>
<td>leōnum</td>
<td>virginum</td>
<td>patrum</td>
<td>-um</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>cōnsulibus</td>
<td>leōnibus</td>
<td>virginibus</td>
<td>patribus</td>
<td>-ibus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>cōnsulēs</td>
<td>leōnēs</td>
<td>virginēs</td>
<td>patrēs</td>
<td>-ēs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>cōnsulibus</td>
<td>leōnibus</td>
<td>virginibus</td>
<td>patribus</td>
<td>-ibus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note 1.**—Stems in n-, rr- (n.) lose one of their liquids in the nominative: as, far, farris; mel, mellis.

**Note 2.**—A few masculine and feminine stems have a nominative in -s as well as in -r: as, honōs or honor, arbōs or arbor.

**Note 3.**—Cani, dog, and iuveris, youth, have -is in the nominative.

---

1. These differences depend in part upon special phonetic laws, in accordance with which vowels in weakly accented or unaccented syllables are variously modified, and in part upon the influence of analogy.

2. These, no doubt, had originally ter- in the stem, but this had become weakened to tr- in some of the cases even in the parent speech. In Latin only the nominative and vocative singular show the e. But cf. Māspitrīs and Māspīterīs (Mā[r]ēspiter), quoted by Priscian as old forms.
63. In Neuter nouns with liquid or nasal stems the Nominative is the same as the stem.

*Exceptions:* 1. Stems in *in-* have *e* instead of *i* in the nominative: as in *nomen*, stem *nomin-*.
2. Most stems in *er-* and *or-* have *-us* in the nominative: as, *genus*, stem *gener-*.

64. Nouns of this class are declined as follows: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Stems</th>
<th>Stems</th>
<th>Stems</th>
<th>Stems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>nomen</td>
<td>genus</td>
<td>corpus</td>
<td>aequor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>nominis</td>
<td>generis</td>
<td>corporis</td>
<td>aequorius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>nominis</td>
<td>generis</td>
<td>corporis</td>
<td>aequor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>nomen</td>
<td>genus</td>
<td>corpus</td>
<td>aequor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>nominis</td>
<td>genere</td>
<td>corpore</td>
<td>aequore</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Stems</th>
<th>Stems</th>
<th>Stems</th>
<th>Stems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>nominis</td>
<td>genera</td>
<td>corpora</td>
<td>aequora</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>nominum</td>
<td>generum</td>
<td>corporum</td>
<td>aequorum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>nominibus</td>
<td>generibus</td>
<td>corporibus</td>
<td>aequoribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>nominis</td>
<td>genera</td>
<td>corpora</td>
<td>aequora</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>nominibus</td>
<td>generibus</td>
<td>corporibus</td>
<td>aequoribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

So also are declined *opus*, -eris, *work*; *pignus*, -eris or -oris, *pledge*, etc.

**Note.** — The following real or apparent liquid and nasal stems have the genitive plural in -ium, and are to be classed with the *i*-stems: *imber, linter, üter, venter; güs, mäs, nüs, [frēn];* also *vīrēs* (plural of *vis*: see §79).

**i-Stems**

65. Nouns of this class include —

1. Pure *i*-Stems:
   a. Masculine and Feminine parasyllabic nouns in -is and four in -er.
   b. Neuters in -e, -al, and -ar.

2. Mixed *i*-Stems, declined in the singular like consonant stems, in the plural like *i*-stems.

---

1. These were originally s-stems (cf. §15. 4).
2. I.e. having the same number of syllables in the nominative and genitive singular.
## Pure i-Stems

66. Masculine and Feminine parasyllabic nouns in -is form the Nominative singular by adding s to the stem.

Four stems in bri- and tri- do not add s to form the nominative, but drop i and insert e before r. These are imber, linter, ütter, venter.

67. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sitis, r., thirst</td>
<td>turris, r., tower</td>
<td>ignis, m., fire</td>
<td>imber, m., rain</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Singular**

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>sitis</td>
<td>turris</td>
<td>ignis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>sitis</td>
<td>turris</td>
<td>ignis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>sitī</td>
<td>turri</td>
<td>ëgni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>sitim</td>
<td>turrim (-em)</td>
<td>ëgnem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>sitā</td>
<td>turri (-e)</td>
<td>ëgni (-e)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural**

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>turřēs</td>
<td>ëgnēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>turrium</td>
<td>ëgnium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>turribus</td>
<td>ëgnibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>turris (-ēs)</td>
<td>ëgnīs (-ēs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>turribus</td>
<td>ëgnibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

68. In Neuters the Nominative is the same as the stem, with final i changed to e: as, mare, stem mari-. But most nouns in which the i of the stem is preceded by āl or ār lose the final vowel and shorten the preceding ā: as, animāl, stem animāli-.

α. Neuters in -e, -al, and -ar have -i in the ablative singular, -ium in the genitive plural, and -ia in the nominative and accusative plural: as, animal, animāli, -ia, -ium.

---

1 Such are animal, baccānāl, bidental, capital, cervical, cubital, lupercal, minūtal, puteal, quadrantal, toral, tribunāl, vectigal; calcar, cochlear, exemplar, lucānār, laquear, lācar, lūminār, luşānār, pālear, pulvinār, torcular. Cf. the plurals dentālia, frontālia, genuālia, spōnsālia; altāria, plantāria, speculāria, tālāria; also many names of festivals, as, Sāturnālia.

2 Exceptions are augurāle, collāre, fōcāle, nāvāle, penetrāle, rāmāle, scūtāle, tibīlē; alveāre, capillāre, cochleāre.
69. Nouns of this class are declined as follows: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>sedile, n.</th>
<th>animal, n.</th>
<th>calcar, n., spur</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>sedile</td>
<td>animal</td>
<td>calcar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>sedilis</td>
<td>animālis</td>
<td>calcāris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>sedilī</td>
<td>animāli</td>
<td>calcāri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>sedile</td>
<td>animal</td>
<td>calcar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>sedili</td>
<td>animāli</td>
<td>calcāri</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Singular**

**Plural**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>sedilia</th>
<th>animālia</th>
<th>calcāria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>sedilia</td>
<td>animālia</td>
<td>calcāria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>sedilium</td>
<td>animālium</td>
<td>calcārium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>sedilibus</td>
<td>animālibus</td>
<td>calcāribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>sedilia</td>
<td>animālia</td>
<td>calcāria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>sedilibus</td>
<td>animālibus</td>
<td>calcāribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Mixed i-Stems**

70. Mixed i-stems are either original i-stems that have lost their i-forms in the singular, or consonant stems that have assumed i-forms in the plural.

**Note.** — It is sometimes impossible to distinguish between these two classes.

71. Mixed i-stems have -em in the accusative and -e in the ablative singular, -ium in the genitive and -is or -ēs in the accusative plural. They include the following: —

1. Nouns in -ēs, gen. -is.²
2. Monosyllables in -s or -x preceded by a consonant: as, ars, pōns, arx.
3. Polysyllables in -ns or -rs: as, cliēns, cohors.
5. Penātēs, optimātēs, and nouns denoting birth or abode (patrials) in -ās, -ās, plural -ātēs, -ātēs: as, Arpinās, plural Arpinātēs; Quīris, plural Quīrītēs.
6. The following monosyllables in -s or -x preceded by a vowel: dōs, fraus, glīs, līs, mās, mūs, nīx, nox, strīx, vīs.

---

¹ There is much variety in the practice of the ancients, some of these words having -ium, some -um, and some both.
² These are acinacēs, aedēs, alēs, caedēs, cautēs, clādēs, compāgēs, contāgēs, famēs, fēlēs, fidēs (plural), indolēs, lābēs, luēs, mēlēs, mōlēs, nūbēs, palumbēs, prōlēs, propāgēs, pūbēs, sēdēs, saepēs, sorēs, strāgēs, strūs, subolēs, tābēs, torquēs, tudēs, vātēs, vehēs, veprēs, verrēs, vulpēs; aedēs has also nominative aedis.
§§ 72-76]  THIRD DECLENSION: MIXED I-STEMS  31

72. Nouns of this class are thus declined: —

nūbēs, r., cloud  urbs, r., city  nox, r., night  cliēns, m., client  aetās, r., age

STEM nūb(i)-  STEM urb(i)-  STEM noct(i)-  STEM client(i)-  STEM aetāt(i)-

SINGULAR

Nom.  nūbēs  urbs  nox  cliēns  aetās
Gen.  nūbis  urbis  noctis  clientis  aetātis
Dat.  nūbī  urbi  noctī  clientī  aetātī
Acc.  nūbem  urbem  noctem  clientem  aetātem
Abl.  nūbe  urbe  nocte  cliente  aetāte

Plural

Nom.  nūbēs  urbēs  noctēs  clientēs  aetātēs
Gen.  nūbium  urbium  noctium  clientium\(^1\)  aetātium\(^2\)
Dat.  nūbibus  urbibus  noctibus  clientibus  aetātibus
Acc.  nūbīs(-ēs)  urbīs(-ēs)  noctīs(-ēs)  clientīs(-ēs)  aetātīs(-ēs)
Abl.  nūbībus  urbībus  noctībus  clientībus  aetātībus

Summary of i-Stems

73. The i-declension was confused even to the Romans themselves, nor was it stable at all periods of the language, early Latin having i-forms which afterwards disappeared. There was a tendency in nouns to lose the i-forms, in adjectives to gain them. The nominative plural (i-is)\(^3\) was most thoroughly lost, next the accusative singular (-im), next the ablative (-i): while the genitive and accusative plural (-ium, -is) were retained in almost all.

74. I-stems show the i of the stem in the following forms: —

a. They have the genitive plural in -ium (but some monosyllables lack it entirely). For a few exceptions, see § 78.

b. All neuters have the nominative and accusative plural in -ia.

c. The accusative plural (m. or r.) is regularly -is.

d. The accusative singular (m. or r.) of a few ends in -im (§ 75).

e. The ablative singular of all neuters, and of many masculines and feminines, ends in -i (see § 76).

75. The regular case-ending of the Accusative singular of i-stems (m. or r.) would be -im: as, sitis, sitim (cf. stella, -am; servus, -um); but in most nouns this is changed to -em (following the consonant declension).

\(^1\) Rarely clientum.
\(^2\) Also aetātium. Cf. § 71. 4.
\(^3\) An old, though not the original, ending (see p. 32, footnote 2).
**a.** The accusative in -im is found exclusively —

1. In Greek nouns and in names of rivers.
2. In bûris, cucumis, râvis, sîtis, tüssis, vis.
3. In adverbs in -tim (being accusative of nouns in -tis), as, partim; and in amussim.

**b.** The accusative in -im is found sometimes in febris, puppis, restis, turris, secûris, sêmentis, and rarely in many other words.

76. The regular form of the Ablative singular of i-stems would be -i: as, sitis, siti; but in most nouns this is changed to -e.

**a.** The ablative in -i is found exclusively —

1. In nouns having the accusative in -im (§ 75); also secûris.
2. In the following adjectives used as nouns: aequâlis, annâlis, aquâlis, côn-sulâris, gentilis, molâris, primipilâris, tribûlis.
3. In neuters in -e, -al, -ar: except baccar, iubar, rête, and sometimes mare.

**b.** The ablative in -i is found sometimes —

1. In avis, clâvis, febris, finis, ãgnis,1 imber, lûx, nâvis, ovis, pelvis, puppis, sêmentis, strigûlis, turris, and occasionally in other words.
2. In the following adjectives used as nouns: affinis, bipennis, canâlis, familiâris, nâtalis, rivâlis, sapiens, trîdëns, trîrêmis, vôcâlis.

**Note 1.** — The ablative of famês is always famê (§ 105. c). The defective mânë has sometimes mâni (§ 103. b. n.) as ablative.

**Note 2.** — Most names of towns in -e (as, Praeneste, Tergeste) and Sûracte, a mountain, have the ablative in -e. Caere has Caerête.

**Note 3.** — Canis and iuvenis have cane, iuvene.

77. The regular Nominative plural of i-stems is -ës,2 but -is is occasionally found. The regular Accusative plural -is is common, but not exclusively used in any word. An old form for both cases is -ës (diphthong).

78. The following have -um (not -ium) in the genitive plural:

1. Always, — canis, iuvenis,3 ambâgës, mare (once only, otherwise wanting), volucris; regularly, sêdës, vâtës.
2. Sometimes, — apis, caedës, clâdës, mênâsis, struës, subolës.
3. Very rarely, — patriâlis in -as, -âtis; -îs, -îtis; as, Arpînâs, Arpînâtum; Samnîs, Samnîtum.

1 Always in the formula aquâ et igni interdici (§ 401).
2 The Indo-European ending of the nominative plural, -ês (preserved in Greek in consonant stems, as ñprûk, ñprûk-ës), contracts with a stem-vowel and gives -ës in the Latin i-declension (cf. the Greek plural ðês). This -ës was extended to consonant stems in Latin.
3 Canis and iuvenis are really n-stems.
Irregular Nouns of the Third Declension

79. In many nouns the stem is irregularly modified in the nominative or other cases. Some peculiar forms are thus declined:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bōs, c.</td>
<td>bōvēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senex, N.</td>
<td>Senēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carō, r.</td>
<td>carēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>os, n.</td>
<td>ossa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vis, r.</td>
<td>virēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ex, cow</td>
<td>(būbus)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>old man</td>
<td>carnic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flesh</td>
<td>ossaum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bone</td>
<td>ossibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>force</td>
<td>viribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Singular**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bōs</td>
<td>senex</td>
<td>senis</td>
<td>senem</td>
<td>sene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bōvis</td>
<td>carō</td>
<td>carnis</td>
<td>carmem</td>
<td>carne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bōvī</td>
<td>os</td>
<td>ossis</td>
<td>osse</td>
<td>vis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bovem</td>
<td>vis (rare)</td>
<td>vi (rare)</td>
<td>vim</td>
<td>vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>love</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sūs, c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luppiter, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jupiter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nix, r.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>snow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iter, n.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>murch</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Singular**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sūs</td>
<td>suis</td>
<td>suī</td>
<td>suem</td>
<td>sue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iuppiter 1</td>
<td>lovis</td>
<td>lovī</td>
<td>lovem</td>
<td>love</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jupiter</td>
<td>nivis</td>
<td>nivī</td>
<td>nivem</td>
<td>nive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nix</td>
<td>iter</td>
<td>itineris</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iter</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>suēs</td>
<td>suum</td>
<td>sūbus (suibus)</td>
<td>suēs</td>
<td>sūbus (suibus)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nivēs</td>
<td>nivium</td>
<td>nivibus</td>
<td>nivēs</td>
<td>nivibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>itineris</td>
<td>itinerum</td>
<td>itineribus</td>
<td>itineris</td>
<td>itineribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Also Lūpiter.
DECLENSION OF NOUNS

a. Two vowel-stems in ū-, grū- and sū-, which follow the third declension, add s in the nominative, and are inflected like mute stems: grūs has also a nominative gruis; sūs has both suibus and sūbus in the dative and ablative plural, grūs has only gruibus.

b. In the stem bōv- (bou-) the diphthong ou becomes ō in the nominative (bōs, bōvis).

In nāv- (nau-) an i is added (nāvis, -is), and it is declined like turrīs (§ 67).

In lōv- (= lēvīs) the diphthong (ou) becomes ū in lū-piter (for pātēr), genitive lōvis, etc.; but the form lūppiter is preferred.

c. In iter, iterīnis (N.), iecur, iecinoris (iectoris) (N.), suppelēx, suppelēctilis (R.), the nominative has been formed from a shorter stem; in senex, senis, from a longer; so that these words show a combination of forms from two distinct stems.

d. In nīx, nīvis the nominative retains a g from the original stem, the g uniting with s, the nominative ending, to form x. In the other cases the stem assumes the form nīv- and it adds i in the genitive plural.

e. Vās (N.), vāsis, keeps s throughout; plural vāsa, vāsōrum. A dative plural vāsibus also occurs. There is a rare singular vāsum.

The Locative Case

80. The Locative form for nouns of the third declension ends in the singular in -i or -e, in the plural in -ibus: as, rūrī, in the country; Carthāgīnī or Carthāgīne, at Carthage; Trallībus, at Trales.1

Greek Nouns of the Third Declension

81. Many nouns originally Greek — mostly proper names — retain Greek forms of inflection. So especially —

1. Genitive singular in -os, as, tigridos.
2. Accusative singular in -a, as, aetherā.
3. Vocative singular like the stem, as, Periclē, Orpheu, Atiā.
4. Nominative plural in -ēs, as, hērōēs.
5. Accusative plural in -ās, as, hērōās.

1 The Indo-European locative singular ended in -i, which became -ē in Latin. Thus the Latin ablative in -e is, historically considered, a locative. The Latin ablative in -ī (from -ād) was an analogical formation (cf. -ā from -ād, -ē from -ād), properly belonging to i-stems. With names of towns and a few other words, a locative function was ascribed to forms in -ī (as, Carthāgīnī), partly on the analogy of the real locative of e-stems (as, Corinthī, § 49. a); but forms in -ē also survived in this sense. The plural -bus is properly dative or ablative, but in forms like Trallībus it has a locative function. Cf. Philippīs (§ 49. a), in which the ending -ēs is, historically considered, either locative, or instrumental, or both, and Athēnīs (§ 49. c), in which the ending is formed on the analogy of e-stems.
§§ 82, 83] THIRD DECLENSION: GREEK NOUNS

82. Some of these forms are seen in the following examples:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>hērōs, m., hēro</th>
<th>lampas, v., torch</th>
<th>basis, r., base</th>
<th>tigris, c., tigēr</th>
<th>nāis, r., naiad</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>hērōs</td>
<td>lampas</td>
<td>basis</td>
<td>tigris</td>
<td>nāis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>hērōis</td>
<td>lampados</td>
<td>baseōs</td>
<td>tigris(-idos)</td>
<td>nāidos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>hērōi</td>
<td>lampadī</td>
<td>basī</td>
<td>tigrī</td>
<td>nāidī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>hērōa</td>
<td>lampada</td>
<td>basin</td>
<td>tigrin(-ida)</td>
<td>nāida</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>hērōe</td>
<td>lampade</td>
<td>basī</td>
<td>tigrī(-ide)</td>
<td>nāide</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Singular**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>hērōës, m.</th>
<th>lampadēs, f.</th>
<th>basēs</th>
<th>tigrēs</th>
<th>nāidēs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>hērōës</td>
<td>lampadēs</td>
<td>basēs</td>
<td>tigrēs</td>
<td>nāidēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>hērōum</td>
<td>lampadum</td>
<td>basium(-eōn)</td>
<td>tigrium</td>
<td>nāidum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D., A.</td>
<td>hērōibus</td>
<td>lampadibus</td>
<td>basi(ulus)</td>
<td>tigrēbus</td>
<td>nāidibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>hērōās</td>
<td>lampadās</td>
<td>basi(ās)</td>
<td>tigrēs(-idās)</td>
<td>nāidās</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural.**

**Proper Names**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Didō</th>
<th>Simois</th>
<th>Capys</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>Didō</td>
<td>Simois</td>
<td>Capys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>Didōn</td>
<td>Simoentis</td>
<td>Capys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>Didōn (Didō)</td>
<td>Simoentī</td>
<td>Capyī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>Didōnem (-ē)</td>
<td>Simoenta</td>
<td>Capyn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>Didōne (-ē)</td>
<td>Simoente</td>
<td>Capyē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>Didō</td>
<td>Simois</td>
<td>Cap</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Orpheus</th>
<th>Periclēs</th>
<th>Paris</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>Orpheus</td>
<td>Periclēs</td>
<td>Paris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>Orphei(-ēs)</td>
<td>Periclēs(-ē)</td>
<td>Paridis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>Orphei(-ē)</td>
<td>Periclēi(-ē)</td>
<td>Paridē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>Orpheae (-um)</td>
<td>Periclēm(-ēa, -ēn)</td>
<td>Paridem, Parim(-ē)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>Orpheō</td>
<td>Pericle</td>
<td>Paride, Parī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>Orpheu</td>
<td>Periclēs(-ē)</td>
<td>Parī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. — The regular Latin forms may be used for most of the above.

83. Other peculiarities are the following:—

a. Delphīnus, -ī (m.), has also the form delphīn, -inis; Salamīs, -is (f.), has acc. Salamīna.

b. Most stems in -ēīs (nom. -ēs) often have also the forms of -is-stems: as, tigris, gen. -idīs (-idos) or -is; acc. -idēm (-ida) or -im (-im); abl. -ide or -ī. But many, including most feminine proper names, have acc. -idēm (-ida), abl. -ide, — not -im or -ī. (These stems are irregular also in Greek.)

1 Dative, hērōisin (once only).
c. Stems in on- sometimes retain -n in the nominative: as, Agamem- 
nôn (or Agamemmô), genitive -ōnis, accusative -ōna.

d. Stems in on- form the nominative in -ōn: as, horizôn, Xenophôn;
but a few are occasionally Latinized into ōn- (nom. -ō): as, Dracô, -ōnis;
Antiphô, -ōnis.

e. Like Simois are declined stems in ant-, ent-, and a few in ūnt-
(nomina
tive in -ās, -īs, -ūs): as, Atlās, -antis; Trapezús, ūntis.

f. Some words fluctuate between different declensions: as Orpheus be-
tween the second and the third.

g. Ōn is found in the genitive plural in a few Greek titles of books: as,
Metamorphôseôn, of the Metamorphoses (Ovid's well-known poem); Geôrgicôn,
of the Georgics (a poem of Virgil).

Gender in the Third Declension

84. The Gender of nouns of this declension must be learned
by practice and from the Lexicon. Many are masculine or femi-
nine by nature or in accordance with the general rules for gen-
der (p. 15). The most important rules for the others, with their
principal exceptions, are the following: —

85. Masculine are nouns in -or, -ōs, -er, -ēs (gen. -itis), -ex (gen.
-īcis): as, color, flōs, imber, gurgēs (gurgitis), vērtex (verticis).

Exceptions are the following: —

a. Feminine are arbor; cōs, dōs; linter.

b. Neuter are ador, aequor, cor, marmor; ōs (ōris); also os (ossis);
cadāver, iter, tūber, ūber, vēr; and names of plants and trees in -er: as,
acer, papāver.

86. Feminine are nouns in -ō, -ās, -ēs, -īs, -ūs, -x, and in -s preceded
by a consonant: as, legiō, civitās, nūbēs, avis, virtūs, arx, urbs. The
nouns in -ō are mostly those in -ādō and -gō, and abstract and collect-
ive nouns in -īō.

Exceptions are the following: —

a. Masculine are leō, leōnis; ἔργο, ōnis; sermō, -ōnis; also cardō, harpagō,
margō, ōrdō, turbē; and concrete nouns in -īō: as, pugiō, ūniō, papiliō; 2
acinaēs, ariēs, celēs, lebēs, pariēs, pēs;

1 Some nouns of doubtful or variable gender are omitted.
2 Many nouns in -ō (gen. -ōnis) are masculine by signification: as, gerō, carrier;
restiō, ropemaker; and family names (originally nicknames): as, Cicerō, Nasō. See
§§ 236. c, 255.
Nouns in -nis and -guis: as, ignis, sanguis; also axis, caulis, collis, cucumis, etnis, fascis, follis, frutis, lapis, mensis, orbis, piscis, postis, pulvis, vomis; muis;
calix, fornix, grex, phoenix, and nouns in -ex (gen. -icis) (§ 85);
denis, fons, mons, pons.

Note.—Some nouns in -is and -us which are masculine were originally adjectives or participles agreeing with a masculine noun: as, Aprilis (sc. mensis), x., April; orienis (sc. sol), x., the east; annalis (sc. liber), x., the year-book.

b. Neuter are vās (vāsis); crūs, iūs, pūs, rūs, tūs.

87. Neuter are nouns in -a, -e, -i, -n, -ar, -ur, -ūs: as, poēma, mare, animal, nōmen, calcar, rōbur, corpus; also lac and caput.

Exceptions are the following:—

a. Masculine are sāl, sōl, pecten, vultur, lepus.
b. Feminine is pecus (gen. -udis).

**FOURTH DECLENSION**

88. The Stem of nouns of the Fourth Declension ends in u-. This is usually weakened to i before -bus. Masculine and Feminine nouns form the nominative by adding s; Neuters have for nominative the simple stem, but with ū (long).

89. Nouns of the Fourth Declension are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Case-Endings</th>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>Case-Endings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>manus</td>
<td>lacus</td>
<td>-us</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>manūs</td>
<td>lacūs</td>
<td>-ūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>manūi(-ū)</td>
<td>lacui(-ū)</td>
<td>-ui(-ū)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>manum</td>
<td>lacum</td>
<td>-um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>manū</td>
<td>lacū</td>
<td>-ū</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Case-Endings</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Case-Endings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>manūs</td>
<td>lacūs</td>
<td>-ūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>manuum</td>
<td>lacuum</td>
<td>-uum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>manibus</td>
<td>lacubus</td>
<td>-ibus(-ibus)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>manūs</td>
<td>lacūs</td>
<td>-ūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>manibus</td>
<td>lacubus</td>
<td>-ibus(-ibus)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Gender in the Fourth Declension

90. Most nouns of the Fourth Declension in -us are Masculine.

Exceptions: The following are Feminine: acus, anus, colus, domus, idūs (plural), manus, nurus, porticus, quīnquātrus (plural), socrus, tribus, with a few names of plants and trees. Also, rarely: penus, specus.

91. The only Neuters of the Fourth Declension are cornū, genū, pecū (§ 105. f), verū.¹

Case-Forms in the Fourth Declension

92. The following peculiarities in case-forms of the Fourth Declension require notice: —

a. A genitive singular in -ī (as of the second declension) sometimes occurs in nouns in -tus: as, senātus, genitive senātī (regularly senātūs).

b. In the genitive plural -uum is sometimes pronounced as one syllable, and may then be written -um: as, currum (Aen. vi. 653) for currum.

c. The dative and ablative plural in -ūbus are retained in partus and tribus; so regularly in ortus and lacus, and occasionally in other words; portus and specus have both -ibus and -ibus.

d. Most names of plants and trees, and colus, distaff, have also forms of the second declension: as, ficus, fig, genitive fīcūs or fīcī.

e. An old genitive singular in -uis or -uos and an old genitive plural in -uom occur rarely: as, senātuīs, senātuōs; fluxuōm.

f. The ablative singular ended anciently in -ūd (cf. § 43. n. 1): as, magistrātūd.

93. Domus (F.), house, has two stems ending in u- and o-. Hence it shows forms of both the fourth and second declensions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. domus</td>
<td>domūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. domūs (domī, loc.)</td>
<td>domuum (domōrum)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. domī (domū)</td>
<td>domibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. domum</td>
<td>domōs (domūs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. domō (domū)</td>
<td>domibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 1.—The Locative is domi (rarely domī), at home.
Note 2.—The Genitive domī occurs in Plautus; domōrum is late or poetic.

¹ A few other neuters of this declension are mentioned by the ancient grammarians as occurring in certain cases.
94. Most nouns of the Fourth Declension are formed from verb-stems, or roots, by means of the suffix -tus (-sus) (§ 238. b):

cantus, song, can, canō, sing; cāsus (for cad-tus), chance, cad, cadē, fall;
exsulātus, exile, from exsulō, to be an exile (exsul).

a. Many are formed either from verb-stems not in use, or by analogy:
cōnsulātus (as if from tōnsulō, -āre), senātus, incestus.

b. The accusative and the dative or ablative of nouns in -tus (-sus) form the Supines of verbs (§ 159. b): as, spectātum, petītum; dictū, visū.

c. Of many verbal derivatives only the ablative is used as a noun: as, iussū (meō), by (my) command; so iniussū (populi), without (the people's) order. Of some only the dative is used: as, divīsiū.

FIFTH DECLENSION (ē-STEMS)

95. The Stem of nouns of the Fifth Declension ends in ē, which appears in all the cases. The Nominative is formed from the stem by adding s.

96. Nouns of the Fifth Declension are declined as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STEM</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Case-endings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ēs, v., thing</td>
<td>ēs</td>
<td>-ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ūs</td>
<td>ēs</td>
<td>-ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diēs, m., day</td>
<td>diēs</td>
<td>-ēi (-ē)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ūs</td>
<td>diēi (diē)</td>
<td>-ēi (-ē)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fidēs, v., faith</td>
<td>fidēs</td>
<td>-ēm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ūs</td>
<td>diem</td>
<td>-ēm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ūs</td>
<td>diē</td>
<td>-ē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rem</td>
<td>fidē</td>
<td>-ē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ūs</td>
<td>fidēbus</td>
<td>-ēbus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ūs</td>
<td>rēs</td>
<td>-ē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ūs</td>
<td>rēbus</td>
<td>-ēbus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—The ē of the stem is shortened in the genitive and dative singular of fidēs, spēs, rēs, but in these it is found long in early Latin. In the accusative singular ē is always short.
Gender in the Fifth Declension

97. All nouns of the Fifth Declension are Feminine, except diēs (usually M.), day, and meridieōs (M.), noon.

a. Diēs is sometimes feminine in the singular, especially in phrases indicating a fixed time, and regularly feminine when used of time in general: as, constituē diē, on a set day; longā diēs, a long time.

Case-Forms in the Fifth Declension

98. The following peculiarities require notice: —

a. Of nouns of the fifth declension, only diēs and rēs are declined throughout. Most want the plural, which is, however, found in the nominative or accusative in acīēs, effigieēs, clūvīēs, faciēs, glaciēs, seriēs, specīēs, speīēs.¹

b. The Locative form of this declension ends in -ē. It is found only in certain adverbs and expressions of time: —

hodie, to-day; diē quaērē (old, quaērtī), the fourth day;
perendieō, day after to-morrow; pridieō, the day before.

c. The fifth declension is closely related to the first, and several nouns have forms of both: as, māteria, -ēs; saevisia, -ēs. The genitive and dative in -ēi are rarely found in these words.

d. Some nouns vary between the fifth and the third declension: as, requieō, satieō (also satiās, genitive -ātiōs), plebeēs (also plebeōs, genitive plebeīs), famēs, genitive famiōs, ablative famē.

Note.—In the genitive and dative -ēi (-ē) was sometimes contracted into -ē: as, tribunus plebei, tribune of the people (plebeēs). Genitives in -ē and -ē also occur: as, diū (Aen. i. 636), plebeīiōrum, acīē (B. G. ii. 23). A few examples of the old genitive in -ēs are found (cf. -ās in the first declension, § 43. b). The dative has rarely -ē, and a form in -ē is cited.

DEFECTIVE NOUNS

Nouns wanting in the Plural

99. Some nouns are ordinarily found in the Singular number only (singulāria tantum). These are —

1. Most proper names: as, Caesar, Caesar: Gallia, Gaul.
3. Abstract nouns: as, ambitio, ambition; fortitūdō, courage; calor, heat.

¹ The forms faciērum, speciērum, speciēbus, spērum, spēbus, are cited by grammarians, also spēīs, spēībus, and some of these occur in late authors.
100. Many of these nouns, however, are used in the plural in some other sense.

a. The plural of a proper name may be applied to two or more persons or places, or even things, and so become strictly common: —
   duodecim Caesarés, the twelve Caesars.
   Galliae, the two Gauls (Cis- and Transalpine).
   Castores, Castor and Pollux; Iovés, images of Jupiter.

b. The plural of names of things reckoned in mass may denote particular objects: as, aera, bronze utensils, nívës, snowflakes; or different kinds of a thing: as, áerës, airs (good and bad).

c. The plural of abstract nouns denotes occasions or instances of the quality, or the like: —
   quaedam excellentiae, some cases of superiority; ótia, periods of rest; calórës, frigora, times of heat and cold.

Nouns wanting in the Singular

101. Some nouns are commonly or exclusively found in the Plural (plúrüa tantum). Such are —

2. Names of festivals and games: as, Olympía, the Olympic Games; Bácchánalia, feast of Bacchus; Quínquetrús, festival of Minerva; Íádi Rómáni, the Roman Games.
3. Names of classes: as, optimátês, the upper classes; máijrés, ancestors; libérí, children; penátês, household gods; Quirítês, citizens (of Rome).
4. Words plural by signification: as, arma, weapons; arístús, joints; divítiae, riches; scálae, stairs; valvæ, folding-doors; forés, double-doors; angústiae, a narrow pass (narrow); moenia, city walls.

Note 1.—Some words, plural by signification in Latin, are translated by English nouns in the singular number: as, dénciae, delight, darling; fauces, throat; fúdës, lyre (also singular in poetry); insidiae, ambusc; cervícês, neck; viscerae, flesh.

Note 2.—The poets often use the plural number for the singular, sometimes for metrical reasons, sometimes from a mere fashion: as, óra (for ós), the face; scéptra (for scéptrum), sceptre; silentia (for silentium), silence.

102. Some nouns of the above classes (§ 101. 1–4), have a corresponding singular, as noun or adjective, often in a special sense:

1. As noun, to denote a single object: as, Bácchánál, a spot sacred to Bacchus; optimás, an aristocrat.
2. As adjective: as, Cató Málíor, Cato the Elder.
3. In a sense rare, or found only in early Latin: as, scála, a ladder; valva, a door; arístus, a joint.
Nouns Defective in Certain Cases

103. Many nouns are defective in case-forms:  

a. Indeclinable nouns, used only as nominative and accusative singular: fās, nefās, instar, nihil, opus (need), secus.

Note 1.—The indeclinable adjective necesse is used as a nominative or accusative. Note 2.—The genitive nihilī and the ablative nihilō (from nihilum, nothing) occur.

b. Nouns found in one case only (monoptotes): —
   1. In the nominative singular: glōs (v.).
   2. In the genitive singular: deiūs, naucī (n.).
   3. In the dative singular: divīsus (m.) (cf. § 94. c).
   4. In the accusative singular: amussim (m.); vēnum (dative vēnō in Tacitus).
   5. In the ablative singular: pondō (n.); māne (n.); astū (m.), by craft; iussū, iniussū, nātū, and many other verbal nouns in -us (m.) (§ 94. c).

Note.—Māne is also used as an indeclinable accusative, and an old form māni is used as ablative. Pondō with a numeral is often apparently equivalent to pounds. A nominative singular astus and a plural astūs occur rarely in later writers.

6. In the accusative plural: inātīs.

c. Nouns found in two cases only (diptotes): —
   1. In the nominative and ablative singular: foris, forte (v.).
   2. In the genitive and ablative singular: spontis (rare), sponte (v.).
   3. In the accusative singular and plural: dicam, dicās (v.).
   4. In the accusative and ablative plural: forās, forīs (v.) (cf. forēs), used as adverbs.

da. Nouns found in three cases only (triptotes): —
   1. In the nominative, accusative, and ablative singular: impetus, -um, -ū (m.)
   2. In the nominative, accusative, and dative or ablative plural: grātīs, -ibus (v.).
   3. In the nominative, genitive, and dative or ablative plural: iūgēra, -um, -ibus

   (n.); but iūgerum, etc., in the singular (cf. § 105. b).

e. Nouns found in four cases only (tetraptotes): —
   In the genitive, dative, accusative, ablative singular: dicīonis, -i, -em, -e (v.).

f. Nouns declined regularly in the plural, but defective in the singular: —
   1. Nouns found in the singular, in genitive, dative, accusative, ablative: frūgis, -i, -em, -e (v.); opis, -i (once only), -em, -e (v.; nominative Ops as a divinity).
   2. Nouns found in the dative, accusative, ablative: precī, -em, -e (v.).
   3. Nouns found in the accusative and ablative: cassem, -e (v.); sordem, -e (v.).
   4. Nouns found in the ablative only: ambāge (v.); fauce (v.); obice (c.).

g. Nouns regular in the singular, defective in the plural: —

1 Some early or late forms and other rarities are omitted.
2 The dative singular impetuī and the ablative plural impetibus occur once each.
1. The following neuters have in the plural the nominative and accusative only: fel (fella), far (fara), hordeum (hordea), iūs, broth (iūra), mel (mella), murmum (murmura), pūs (pūra), rūs (rūra), tūs or thūs (tūra).

Note. — The neuter iūs, right, has only iūra in classical writers, but a very rare genitive plural iūrum occurs in old Latin.

2. calx, cor, cōs, crux, fax, faex, lanx, lūx, nex, õs (ōris),¹ os (ossis),² pāx, pīx, rōs, sāl, sōl, vas (vadis), want the genitive plural.

2. Most nouns of the fifth declension want the whole or part of the plural (see § 98. a).

h. Nouns defective in both singular and plural: —

1. Noun found in the genitive, accusative, ablative singular; nominative, accusative, dative, ablative plural: vicis, -em, -e; -ēs, -ibus.

2. Noun found in the genitive, dative, accusative, and ablative singular; genitive plural wanting: dapis, -i, -em, -e; -ēs, -ibus.³

VARIABLE NOUNS

104. Many nouns vary either in Declension or in Gender.

105. Nouns that vary in Declension are called heteroclitēs.⁴

a. Colus (f.), distaff; domus (f.), house (see § 93), and many names of plants in -us, vary between the Second and Fourth Declensions.

b. Some nouns vary between the Second and Third: as, iūgerum, -i, -ō, ablative -ō or -e, plural -a, -um, -ibus; Mulciber, genitive -berī and -beris; sequester, genitive -trī and -tris; vās, vāsis, and (old) vāsum, -i (§ 79. e).

c. Some vary between the Second, Third, and Fourth: as, penus, penum, genitive penī and penoris, ablative penū.

d. Many nouns vary between the First and Fifth (see § 98. c).

e. Some vary between the Third and Fifth. Thus, — requēs has genitive -ētis, dative wanting, accusative -ētem or -em, ablative -ē (once -ēte); famēs, regularly of the third declension, has ablative famē (§ 76. n. 1), and pūbēs (m.) has once dative pūbē (in Plautus).

f. Pecus varies between the Third and Fourth, having pecoris, etc., but also nominative pecū, ablative pecū; plural pecua, genitive pecuum.

g. Many vary between different stems of the same declension: as, femur (n.), genitive -oris, also -inis (as from femen); iecur (n.), genitive iecinoris, iecinoris, iecoris; mūnus (n.), plural mūnera and mūnia.

¹ The ablative plural āribus is rare, the classical idiom being in ōre omnium, in everybody's mouth, etc., not in āribus omnium.
² The genitive plural ossium is late; ossuum (from ossua, plural of a neuter u-stem) is early and late.
³ An old nominative daps is cited.
⁴ That is, "nouns of different inflections" (οτροπος, another, and κλίνω, to incline).
106. Nouns that vary in Gender are said to be heterogeneous.¹

a. The following have a masculine form in -us and a neuter in -um: balteus, cáseus, clipesus, cellum, cingulum, pileus, tergum, vāllum, with many others of rare occurrence.

b. The following have in the Plural a different gender from that of the Singular:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>balneum (n.)</td>
<td>balneae (f.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caelum (n.)</td>
<td>caelōs (m. acc., Lucr.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carbasus (f.)</td>
<td>carbasae (n.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dēlicium (n.)</td>
<td>dēliciae (f.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>epulum (n.)</td>
<td>epulae (f.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frēnum (n.)</td>
<td>frēnē (m.) or frēna (n.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iōcus (m.)</td>
<td>iōca (n.) or iōci (m.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>locus (m.)</td>
<td>loca (n.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rāstrum (n.)</td>
<td>rāstri (m.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—Some of these nouns are heteroclitcs as well as heterogeneous.

107. Many nouns are found in the Plural in a peculiar sense:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aedes, -is (f.)</td>
<td>aedēs, -ium, house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aqua (f.)</td>
<td>aquae, mineral springs, a watering-place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>auxilium (n.)</td>
<td>auxilia, auxiliaries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bonum (n.)</td>
<td>bona, goods, property.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carcer (m.)</td>
<td>carcerēs, barriers (of race-course).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>castrum (n.)</td>
<td>castra, camp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comitium (n.)</td>
<td>comitia, an election (town-meeting).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>copia (f.)</td>
<td>cōpiae, stores, troops.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fidēs (f.)</td>
<td>fidēs, lyre.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>finis (m.)</td>
<td>finēs, bounds, territories.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fortūna (f.)</td>
<td>fortūnae, possessions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gratia (f.)</td>
<td>grātiae, thanks (also, the Graces).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hortus (m.)</td>
<td>hortī, pleasure-grounds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>impedimentum (n.) hindrance.</td>
<td>impedimenta, baggage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>littera (f.)</td>
<td>litterae, epistle, literature.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>locus (m.)</td>
<td>loci² topics, places in books.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lūdes (m.)</td>
<td>lūdi, public games.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mōres (m.)</td>
<td>mōres, character.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nātālis (m.)</td>
<td>nātālēs, descent, origin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opera (f.)</td>
<td>operae, day-laborers (&quot;hands&quot;).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opēs (f.)</td>
<td>opēs, resources, wealth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pars (m.)</td>
<td>partēs, part (on the stage), party.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rōstrum (n.)</td>
<td>rōstra, speaker's platform.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>salēs (m. or n.) salt</td>
<td>salēs, witicisms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tabella (f.)</td>
<td>tabellae, documents, records.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ That is, "of different genders" (ἐτέρως, another, and γένος, gender).
² In early writers the regular plural.
§ 108] NAMES OF PERSONS

108. A Roman had regularly three names:—(1) the praenōmen, or personal name; (2) the nōmen, or name of the gēns or house; (3) the cognōmen, or family name:—

Thus in Marcus Tullius Cicerō we have—

Mārcus, the praenōmen, like our Christian or given name;
Tullius, the nōmen, properly an adjective denoting of the Tullian gēns (or house) whose original head was a real or supposed Tullus;
Cicerō, the cognōmen, or family name, often in origin a nickname,—in this case from cicer, a vetch, or small pea.

Note.—When two persons of the same family are mentioned together, the cognōmen is usually put in the plural: as, Públius et Servius Sullaē.

a. A fourth or fifth name was sometimes given as a mark of honor or distinction, or to show adoption from another gēns.

Thus the complete name of Scipio the Younger was Públius Cornēlius Scipio Africānus Aemiliānus: Africānus, from his exploits in Africa; Aemiliānus, as adopted from the Aemilian gēns.¹

Note.—The Romans of the classical period had no separate name for these additions, but later grammarians invented the word āgnōmen to express them.

b. Women had commonly in classical times no personal names, but were known only by the nōmen of their gēns.

Thus, the wife of Cicerō was Terentia, and his daughter Tullia. A second daughter would have been called Tullia secunda or minor, a third daughter, Tullia tertia, and so on.

c. The commonest pronomens are thus abbreviated:—

A. Auius.
C. (G.) Gāius (Caius) (cf. § 1. a).
Cn. (Gn.) Gnaeus (Cnēius).
D. Decimus.
K. Kaesō (Caeso).
L. Lūcius.
M. Mārcus.
M''. Mānius.
Mām. Māmercus.
N. (Num.) Numerius.
Q. Quintus.
Ser. Servius.
Sex. (S.) Sextus.
Sp. Spurius.
T. Titus.
Ti. (Tib.) Tiberius.

Note 1.—In the abbreviations C. and Cn., the initial character has the value of G (§ 1. a).

¹ In stating officially the full name of a Roman it was customary to include the praenōmina of the father, grandfather, and great-grandfather, together with the name of the tribe to which the individual belonged. Thus in an inscription we find M. TULLIVS M. F. M. N. M. PR. COR. CICERO, i.e. Nārcus Tullius Mārci filius Mārci nepōs Mārci pro-nepōs Cornēliā tribū Cicerō. The names of grandfather and great-grandfather as well as that of the tribe are usually omitted in literature. The name of a wife or daughter is usually accompanied by that of the husband or father in the genitive: as, Postamia Servi Sulpiciī (Suet. Jul. 50), Postamia, wife of Servius Sulpicius; Caecilia Metelli (Div. i. 104), Caecilia, daughter of Metellus.
ADJECTIVES

109. Adjectives and Participles are in general formed and declined like Nouns, differing from them only in their use.

1. In accordance with their use, they distinguish gender by different forms in the same word, and agree with their nouns in gender, number, and case. Thus,—

   bonus puer, the good boy.
   bona puella, the good girl.
   bonum dōrum, the good gift.

2. In their inflection they are either (1) of the First and Second Declensions, or (2) of the Third Declension.

FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS (ā- AND o-STEMS)

110. Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions (ā- and o-stems) are declined in the Masculine like servus, puer, or ager; in the Feminine like stella; and in the Neuter like bello.

The regular type of an adjective of the First and Second Declensions is bonus, -a, -um, which is thus declined:—

   bonus, bona, bonum, good

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MASCULINE</th>
<th>FEMININE</th>
<th>NEUTER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stem bon-</td>
<td>Stem bonā-</td>
<td>Stem bon-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SINGULAR</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. bonus</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td>bonum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. bonī</td>
<td>bonae</td>
<td>bonī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. bonō</td>
<td>bonae</td>
<td>bonō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. bonum</td>
<td>bonam</td>
<td>bonum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. bonō</td>
<td>bonā</td>
<td>bonō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. bone</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td>bonum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLURAL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. bonī</td>
<td>bonae</td>
<td>bonā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. bonōrum</td>
<td>bonārum</td>
<td>bonōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. bonīs</td>
<td>bonīs</td>
<td>bonīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. bonōs</td>
<td>bonās</td>
<td>bonā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. bonīs</td>
<td>bonīs</td>
<td>bonīs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note. — Stems in quo- have nominative -cus (-quos), -qua, -cum (-quom), accusative -cum (-quom), -qua, -cum (-quom), to avoid qua- (see §§ 6, b and 46, n. 2). Thus,—

Nom. propincus (-quos)  propinquus  propincum (-quom)
Gen. propinquī  propinquae  propinquī, etc.

But most modern editions disregard this principle.

a. The Genitive Singular masculine of adjectives in -ius ends in -īī, and the Vocative in -ie; not in -i, as in nouns (cf. § 49, b, c); as, Lacedaemonius, -īī, -ie.

Note. — The possessive meus, my, has the vocative masculine mī (cf. § 145).

111. Stems ending in re- preceded by e form the Nominative Masculine like puer (§ 47) and are declined as follows: —

miser, misera, miserum, wretched

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stem</td>
<td>miserō-</td>
<td>miserā-</td>
<td>miserō-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>miser</td>
<td>misera</td>
<td>miserum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>miserī</td>
<td>miserae</td>
<td>miserī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>miserō</td>
<td>miserae</td>
<td>miserō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>miserum</td>
<td>miseram</td>
<td>miserum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>miserō</td>
<td>miserā</td>
<td>miserō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Singular

Plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>miserī</th>
<th>miserae</th>
<th>miserōrum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>miserī</td>
<td>miserae</td>
<td>miserōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>miserōrum</td>
<td>miserārum</td>
<td>miserīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>miserīs</td>
<td>miserīs</td>
<td>miserīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>miserōs</td>
<td>miserās</td>
<td>miserā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>miserīs</td>
<td>miserīs</td>
<td>miserīs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Like miser are declined asper, gibber, lacer, liber, prosper (also prosperus), satur (-ura, -urum), tener, with compounds of -er and -ger: as, saetiger, -era, -erum, bristle-bearing; also, usually, dexter. In these the e belongs to the stem; but in dextra it is often omitted: as, dextra manus, the right hand.

Note. — Stems in ero- (as prōcērus), with mōrgērus, propērus, have the regular nominative masculine in -us.

b. The following lack a nominative singular masculine in classic use: cētera, infēra, postera, supēra. They are rarely found in the singular except in certain phrases: as, posterō diē, the next day.

Note. — An ablative feminine in -ī is found in a few Greek adjectives: as, lektīcā octēphōrō (Verr. v. 27).
112. Stems in re- preceded by a consonant form the Nominative Masculine like ager (§ 47) and are declined as follows: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>MASCUline</th>
<th></th>
<th>FEMININE</th>
<th></th>
<th>NEUTER</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>STEM nigro-</td>
<td></td>
<td>STEM nigra-</td>
<td></td>
<td>STEM nigro-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Singular**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>niger</td>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>nigrī</td>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>nigrō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>nigrum</td>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>nigrō</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>nigrī</td>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>nigrōrum</td>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>nigrīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>nigrōs</td>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>nigrīs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

α. Like niger are declined aeger, āter, crēber, faber, glaber, integer, lūdicer, macer, piger, pulcher, ruber, sacer, scaber, sinister, taeter, vafer; also the possessives noster, vester (§ 145).

113. The following nine adjectives with their compounds have the Genitive Singular in -ius and the Dative in -i in all genders:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M.</th>
<th>F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M.</th>
<th>F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ānus</td>
<td>āna</td>
<td>ānum</td>
<td>uter</td>
<td>utra</td>
<td>utrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>ānīs</td>
<td>ānius</td>
<td>ānīs</td>
<td>utrius</td>
<td>utrius</td>
<td>utrius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>āni</td>
<td>ānī</td>
<td>āni</td>
<td>utrī</td>
<td>utrī</td>
<td>utrī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>ānum</td>
<td>ānam</td>
<td>ānum</td>
<td>utrum</td>
<td>utram</td>
<td>utrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>ānō</td>
<td>ānā</td>
<td>ānō</td>
<td>utrō</td>
<td>utrā</td>
<td>utrō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of these the singular is thus declined: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M.</th>
<th>F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M.</th>
<th>F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>alius</td>
<td>aliā</td>
<td>aliūd</td>
<td>alter</td>
<td>altera</td>
<td>alterum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>alīus</td>
<td>aliūs</td>
<td>aliūs</td>
<td>alterīus</td>
<td>alterīus</td>
<td>alterīus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>aliī</td>
<td>aliī</td>
<td>aliī</td>
<td>alterī</td>
<td>alterī</td>
<td>alterī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>alīum</td>
<td>aliam</td>
<td>aliūd</td>
<td>alterum</td>
<td>alteram</td>
<td>alterum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>aliō</td>
<td>aliā</td>
<td>aliō</td>
<td>alterō</td>
<td>alterā</td>
<td>alterō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
a. The plural of these words is regular, like that of bonus (§ 110).
b. The genitive in -ius, dative in -i, and neuter in -d are pronominal in origin (cf. illius, illi, illud, and § 146).
c. The i of the genitive ending -ius, though originally long, may be made short in verse; so often in alterius and regularly in utriusque.
d. Instead of alius, alterius is commonly used, or in the possessive sense the adjective aliēnus, belonging to another, another’s.

e. In compounds—as alteruter—sometimes both parts are declined, sometimes only the latter. Thus, alteri utri or alterutri, to one of the two.

Note.—The regular genitive and dative forms (as in bonus) are sometimes found in some of these words: as, genitive and dative feminine, alienae; dative masculine, aliō. Rare forms are alis and alid (for alius, alid).

THIRD DECLENSION (CONSONANT AND Ī-STEMS)

114. Adjectives of the Third Declension are thus classified:—

1. Adjectives of Three Terminations in the nominative singular,—one for each gender: as, ācer, ācris, ācre.

2. Adjectives of Two Terminations,—masculine and feminine the same: as, levis (m., f.), leve (n.).

3. Adjectives of One Termination,—the same for all three genders: as, atrōx.

a. Adjectives of two and three terminations are true ī-stems and hence retain in the ablative singular -i, in the neuter plural -ia, in the genitive plural -ium, and in the accusative plural regularly -īs (see §§ 73 and 74).1

Adjectives of Three and of Two Terminations

115. Adjectives of Three Terminations are thus declined:—

ācer, ācris, ācre, keen, Stem ācri-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M.</td>
<td>F.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ācer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>ācris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>ācri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>ācrem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>ācri</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 But the forms of some are doubtful.
a. Like ācer are declined the following stems in ri-:
   alacer, campester, celeber, equester, paluster, pedester, puter, salüber, silvester,
   terrestre, volucer. So also names of months in -ber: as, Octōber (cf. § 66).

Note 1.—This formation is comparatively late, and hence, in the poets and in early Latin, either the masculine or the feminine form of these adjectives was sometimes used for both genders: as, cōetus alacris (Enn.). In others, as fāenebris, fūnebris, illūtrīs, lāgubris, mediocris, mulèbris, there is no separate masculine form at all, and these are declined like levis (§ 116).

Note 2.—Celer, celeris, celere, swift, has the genitive plural celerum, used only as a noun, denoting a military rank. The proper name Celer has the ablative in -e.

116. Adjectives of Two Terminations are thus declined:
   - levis, leve. Light, Stem levi-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M., F.</td>
<td>N.</td>
<td>M., F.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>levis</td>
<td>leve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>levis</td>
<td>levis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>levī</td>
<td>levī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>levem</td>
<td>leve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>levī</td>
<td>levī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—Adjectives of two and three terminations sometimes have an ablative in -e in poetry, rarely in prose.

Adjectives of One Termination

117. The remaining adjectives of the third declension are Consonant stems; but most of them, except Comparatives, have the following forms of i-stems: —

- i in the ablative singular (but often -e);
- ia in the nominative and accusative plural neuter;
- ium in the genitive plural;
- is (as well as -ēs) in the accusative plural masculine and feminine.

In the other cases they follow the rule for Consonant stems.

a. These adjectives, except stems in l- or r-, form the nominative singular from the stem by adding s: as, atrōx (stem atrōc- + s), egēns (stem egent- + s).²

b. Here belong the present participles in -ns (stem nt-):² as, amāns, monēns. They are declined like egēns (but cf. § 121).

¹ For details see § 121. ² Stems in nt- omit t before the nominative -s.
118. Adjectives of one termination are declined as follows:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>atrōx, fierce, Stem atrōc-</th>
<th>egēns, needy, Stem egent-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M., F.</td>
<td>atrōx</td>
<td>egēns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>atrōx</td>
<td>egēns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>atrōcis</td>
<td>egentīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>atrōcī</td>
<td>egentī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>atrōcem</td>
<td>egentem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>atrōcī (-e)</td>
<td>egentī (-e)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|           | atrōcēs                      | atrōcia                    |
| Nom.      | atrōcēs                      | egentīs                    |
| Gen.      | atrōcium                     | egentium                   |
| Dat.      | atrōcibus                    | egentium                   |
| Acc.      | atrōcīs (-ēs)                | egentibus                  |
| Abl.      | atrōcibus                    | egentibus                  |

119. Other examples are the following:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>concors, harmonious, Stem concord-</th>
<th>praeceps, headlong, Stem praecepit-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M., F.</td>
<td>concors</td>
<td>praeceps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>concors</td>
<td>praeceps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>concordis</td>
<td>praeceptīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>concordī</td>
<td>praeceptītī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>concordem</td>
<td>praeceptītem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>concordī</td>
<td>praeceptītī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|           | concordēs                      | concordia                    |
| Nom.      | concordēs                      | praeceptītēs                 |
| Gen.      | concordium                     | praeceptītia                 |
| Dat.      | concordibus                    | praeceptītibus               |
| Acc.      | concordīs (-ēs)                | praeceptītēs (-ēs)            |
| Abl.      | concordibus                    | praeceptītibus               |

1 Given by grammarians, but not found.
### Declension of Adjectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td><em>iēns</em></td>
<td><em>pār</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>iēns</em></td>
<td><em>pār</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong></td>
<td><em>euntīs</em></td>
<td><em>parīs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>euntīs</em></td>
<td><em>parīs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong></td>
<td><em>euntī</em></td>
<td><em>parī</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>euntī</em></td>
<td><em>parī</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong></td>
<td><em>euntēm</em></td>
<td><em>parēm</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>euntēm</em></td>
<td><em>parēm</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong></td>
<td><em>eunte (-ī)</em></td>
<td><em>parī</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>eunte (-ī)</em></td>
<td><em>parī</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Über, fertile**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td><em>euntēs</em></td>
<td><em>parēs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>euntēs</em></td>
<td><em>parēs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong></td>
<td><em>euntium</em></td>
<td><em>parium</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>euntium</em></td>
<td><em>parium</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong></td>
<td><em>euntibus</em></td>
<td><em>paribus</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>euntibus</em></td>
<td><em>paribus</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong></td>
<td><em>euntēs (-ēs)</em></td>
<td><em>parīs (-ēs)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>euntēs (-ēs)</em></td>
<td><em>parīs (-ēs)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong></td>
<td><em>euntibus</em></td>
<td><em>paribus</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>euntibus</em></td>
<td><em>paribus</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Vetus, old**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td><em>über</em></td>
<td><em>über</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>über</em></td>
<td><em>über</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong></td>
<td><em>überis</em></td>
<td><em>überis</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>überis</em></td>
<td><em>überis</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong></td>
<td><em>überī</em></td>
<td><em>überī</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>überī</em></td>
<td><em>überī</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong></td>
<td><em>überēm</em></td>
<td><em>überī</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>überēm</em></td>
<td><em>überī</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong></td>
<td><em>überī</em>¹</td>
<td><em>überī</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>überī</em>¹</td>
<td><em>überī</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Über, fertile**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td><em>überēs</em></td>
<td><em>übera</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>überēs</em></td>
<td><em>übera</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong></td>
<td><em>überum</em></td>
<td><em>überum</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>überum</em></td>
<td><em>überum</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong></td>
<td><em>überibus</em></td>
<td><em>überibus</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>überibus</em></td>
<td><em>überibus</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong></td>
<td><em>überēs</em></td>
<td><em>übera</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>überēs</em></td>
<td><em>übera</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong></td>
<td><em>überibus</em></td>
<td><em>überibus</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>überibus</em></td>
<td><em>überibus</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Vetus, old**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td><em>überēs</em></td>
<td><em>übera</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>überēs</em></td>
<td><em>übera</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong></td>
<td><em>überum</em></td>
<td><em>überum</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>überum</em></td>
<td><em>überum</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong></td>
<td><em>überibus</em></td>
<td><em>überibus</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>überibus</em></td>
<td><em>überibus</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong></td>
<td><em>überēs</em></td>
<td><em>übera</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>überēs</em></td>
<td><em>übera</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong></td>
<td><em>überibus</em></td>
<td><em>überibus</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>überibus</em></td>
<td><em>überibus</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. — Of these vetus is originally an -e-stem. In most -e-stems the *ī* has intruded itself into the nominative also, as *bi-corpus* (for *bi-corpus*), *dēgener* (for *dē-genes*).

¹ An ablative in -e is very rare.
Declension of Comparatives

120. Comparatives are declined as follows: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>mellior</strong>, better</th>
<th><strong>plius</strong>, more</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stem</strong></td>
<td>mellior- for mellios-</td>
<td>plu- for plu-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Singular**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>mellior</td>
<td>melius</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>plius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>melioris</td>
<td>melioris</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>plu-ri-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>meliori</td>
<td>meliori</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>meliorem</td>
<td>melius</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>plius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>meliore (-i)</td>
<td>meliores (-i)</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>plu-ere</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>meliorés</td>
<td>meliora</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>meliorum</td>
<td>meliorum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>melioribus</td>
<td>melioribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>meliorés (-iS)</td>
<td>meliora</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>melioribus</td>
<td>melioribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a.* All comparatives except plius are declined like mellior.

*b.* The stem of comparatives properly ended in -ös-; but this became or in the nominative masculine and feminine, and ōr- in all other cases except the nominative and accusative singular neuter, where s is retained and ō is changed to ā (cf. honōr, -ōris; corpus, -ōris). Thus comparatives appear to have two terminations.

*c.* The neuter singular plius is used only as a nom. The genitive (rarely the ablative) is used only as an expression of value (cf. § 417). The dative is not found in classic use. The compound complūrēs, several, has sometimes neuter plural complūria.

**Case-Forms of Consonant Stems**

121. In adjectives of Consonant stems —

*a.* The Ablative Singular commonly ends in -i, but sometimes -e.
1. Adjectives used as nouns (as superstes, survivor) have -e.
2. Participles in -ns used as such (especially in the ablative absolute, § 419), or as nouns, regularly have -e; but participles used as adjectives have regularly -i: —

dominō imperante, at the master’s command; ab amante, by a lover; ab amanti muliere, by a loving woman.
3. The following have regularly -i: — āmēns, anceps, concors (and other compounds of cor), cōnsors (but as a substantive, -e), dēgener, hebes, ingēns, inops, memor (and its compounds), pār (in prose), perpes, praeceps, praepes, teres.

4. The following have regularly -e: — caelest, compos, [†dēses], dīves, hospes, particeps, pauper, princeps, sōspes, superstes. So also patrial (see § 71. 5) and stems in āt-, ēt-, ēt-, rt-, when used as nouns, and sometimes when used as adjectives.

b. The Genitive Plural ends commonly in -ium, but has -um in the following: 1 —

1. Always in compos, dīves, inops, particeps, praepeps, princeps, supplex, and compounds of nouns which have -um: as, quadru-pes, bi-color.

2. Sometimes, in poetry, in participles in -ns: as, silentum concilium, a council of the silent shades (Aen. vi. 432).

c. The Accusative Plural regularly ends in -is, but comparatives commonly have -ēs.

d. Vetus (gen. -ēris) and pūbes (gen. -ēris) regularly have -e in the ablative singular, -a in the nominative and accusative plural, and -um in the genitive plural. For über, see § 119.

e. A few adjectives of one termination, used as nouns, have a feminine form in -a: as, clienta, hospita, with the appellative Iūnō Sōspita.

Irregularities and Special Uses of Adjectives

122. The following special points require notice: —

a. Several adjectives vary in declension: as, gracilis (-us), hilaris (-us), inermis (-us), bicolor (-ōrus).

b. A few adjectives are indeclinable: as, damnās, frugi (really a dative of service, see § 382. 1. n.2), nēquam (originally an adverb), necesse. Potius is often used as an indeclinable adjective, but sometimes has potē in the neuter.

c. Several adjectives are defective: as, expēs (only nom.), exlēx (exlēgem) (only nom. and acc. sing.), pernox (pernocte) (only nom. and abl. sing.); and primōris, sēmineci, etc., which lack the nominative singular.

d. Many adjectives, from their signification, can be used only in the masculine and feminine. These may be called adjectives of common gender.

Such are adulēscēns, youthful; [†dēses], -idis, slothful; inops, -ōpis, poor; sōspes, -ētis, safe. Similarly, senex, old man, and iuvenis, young man, are sometimes called masculine adjectives.

For Adjectives used as Nouns, see §§ 288, 289; for Nouns used as Adjectives, see § 321. c; for Adjectives used as Adverbs, see § 214; for Adverbs used as Adjectives, see § 321. d.

1 Forms in -um sometimes occur in a few others.
COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

123. In Latin, as in English, there are three degrees of comparison: the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative.

124. The Comparative is regularly formed by adding -ior (neuter -ius), 1 the Superlative by adding -issimus (-a, -um), to the stem of the Positive, which loses its final vowel: —

cārus, dear (stem cāre-); cārior, dearer; cārissimus, dearest.
levis, light (stem levi-); leviōr, lighter; levissimus, lightest.
felix, happy (stem felic-); felicior, happier; felicissimus, happiest.
hebes, dull (stem hebet-); hebetior, dullest; hebetissimus, dullest.

Note. — A form of diminutive is made upon the stem of some comparatives: as, grandius-culus, a little larger (see § 249).

α. Participles when used as adjectives are regularly compared: —
patiēns, patient; patientior, patientissimus.
apertus, open; apertior, apertissimus.

125. Adjectives in -er form the Superlative by adding -riculum to the nominative. The comparative is regular: —

cēr, keen; cērior, cērīrimum.
miser, wretched; misērior, misērimum.

α. So vetus (gen. veteris) has superlative veterrimum, from the old form veter; and mātīrus, besides its regular superlative (mātīrimum), has a rare form mātīrimum.

For the comparative of vetus, vetustior (from vetustus) is used.

126. Six adjectives in -is form the Superlative by adding -limus to the stem clipped of its final i-. These are facilis, difficilis, similis, dissimilis, gracilis, humilis.

facilis (stem facili-), easy; facilior, facillimus.

127. Compounds in -dictus (saying) and -volus (willing) take in their comparison the forms of the corresponding participles dicēns and volēns, which were anciently used as adjectives: —

maledictus, slanderous; maledictentior, maledictentissimus.
malevolus, spiteful; malevolentior, malevolentissimus.

1 The comparative suffix (earlier -īōs) is akin to the Greek -ων, or the Sanskrit -iyo. That of the superlative (-issimus) is a double form of uncertain origin. It appears to contain the is- of the old suffix -is-to-s (seen in ἄγω-τος and English sweetest) and also the old -mē-s (seen in pri-mus, mini-mus, etc.). The endings -limus and -riculum are formed by assimilation (§ 15. 6) from -simus. The comparative and superlative are really new stems, and are not strictly to be regarded as forms of inflection.
a. So, by analogy, compounds in -icus:—
magnificus, grand; magnificentior, magnificentissimus.

128. Some adjectives are compared by means of the adverbs magis, more, and maximē, most.

So especially adjectives in -us preceded by e or i:—
idōneus, fit; magis idōneus, maximē idōneus.

Note.—But plius has piissimus in the superlative, —a form condemned by Cicero, but common in inscriptions; equally common, however, is the irregular piertissimus.

Irregular Comparison

129. Several adjectives have in their comparison irregular forms:—

bonus, good; melior, better; optimus, best.
malus, bad; pēior, worse; pessimus, worst.
magnus, great; máior, greater; maximus, greatest.
parvus, small; minor, less; minimus, least.
multus, much; plūs (x.) (§ 120), more; plūrimus, most.
multi, many; plūres, more; plūrimī, most.
nēqu'am (indecl., § 122. b), worthless; nēquior;
nēquissimus.
frūgi (indecl., § 122. b), use-
ful, worthy; frūgālior;
frūgāliissimus.
dexter, on the right, handy; dexterior;
dextimus.

Note.—These irregularities arise from the use of different stems (cf. § 127). Thus frūgālior and frūgāliissimus are formed from the stem frūgāli-, but are used as the comparative and superlative of the indeclinable frūgi.

Defective Comparison

130. Some Comparatives and Superlatives appear without a Positive:—

ōcior, swifter; ōcissimus, swiftest.
potior, preferable;¹ potissimus, most important.

a. The following are formed from stems not used as adjectives:²—

¹ The old positive potis occurs in the sense of able, possible.
² The forms in -trā and -terus were originally comparative (cf. alter), so that the comparatives in -terior are double comparatives. Inferior and superius are comparatives of a still more primitive form (cf. the English comparative in -er).

The superlatives in -timus (-tumus) are relics of old forms of comparison; those in -mus like imus, summus, primus, are still more primitive. Forms like extrēmus are superlatives of a comparative. In fact, comparium has always been treated with an accumulation of endings, as children say furtherer and furtherest.
cis, citrā (adv., *on this side*): citerior, hither;
citimus, hithermost.
dē (prep., *down*):
dēterior, worse;
desterrimus, worst.
in, intrā (prep., *in, within*):
interior, inner;
intimus, inward.
prae, prō (prep., *before*):
prior, former;
primus, first.
prope (adv., *near*):
propior, nearer;
proximus, next.
ultrā (adv., *beyond*):
ulterior, further;
utimus, farthest.

**b.** Of the following the positive forms are rare, except when used as nouns (generally in the plural):

- exēr us, outward;
- exterior, outer;
- extrēmus (extimus), utmost;
- infer us, below (see § 111. b);
- inferior, lower;
- infimus (fimus), lowest;
- post er us, following;
- posterior, latter;
- postrēmus (postumus), last;
- super us, above;
- superior, higher;
- suprēmus or supnumus, highest.

But the plural’s, exterī, foreigners; inferī, the gods below; posterī, posterity; superī, the heavenly gods, are common.

**Note.**—The superlative postumus has the special sense of last-born, and was a well-known surname.

**131.** Several adjectives lack the Comparative or the Superlative:

**a.** The Comparative is rare or wanting in the following:

- bellus,
- caesius,
- falsus,
- fidus (with its compounds),
- inclutus (or inclitus),
- invictus,
- invītus,
- meritus,
- novus,
- pius,
- sacer,
- vafer.

**b.** The Superlative is wanting in many adjectives in -ilis or -bilis (as, agilis, probābilis), and in the following:

- actūsus
- agrestis
- alacer
- arcanus
- caecus
- diūnus
- exilis
- ingēns
- iēnus
- longinquis
- obliquus
- opimus
- proclīvis
- propiaquus
- sægnis
- sērus
- supinus
- surdus
- taciturnus
- satur
- tempestivus
- teres
- vicinus

**c.** From iuvenis, youth, senex, old man (cf. § 122. d), are formed the comparatives iūnior, younger; senior, older. For these, however, minor nātū and māior nātū are sometimes used (nātū being often omitted).

The superlative is regularly expressed by minimus and maximus, with or without nātū.

**Note.**—In these phrases nātū is ablative of specification (see § 418).

**d.** Many adjectives (as aureus, golden) are from their meaning incapable of comparison.

**Note.**—But each language has its own usage in this respect. Thus, niger, glossy black, and candidus, shining white, are compared; but not āter or albūs, meaning absolute dead black or white (except that Plautus once has ātrior).
132. The Latin Numerals may be classified as follows: —

I. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES:
1. Cardinal Numbers, answering the question how many? as, unus, one; duo, two, etc.
2. Ordinal Numbers,\(^1\) adjectives derived (in most cases) from the Cardinals, and answering the question which in order? as, primus, first; secundus, second, etc.
3. Distributive Numerals, answering the question how many at a time? as, singuli, one at a time; bini, two by two, etc.

II. NUMERAL ADVERBS, answering the question how often? as, semel, once; bis, twice, etc.

Cardinals and Ordinals

133. These two series are as follows: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CARDINAL</th>
<th>ORDINAL</th>
<th>ROMAN NUMERALS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. unus, āna, ānum, one</td>
<td>primus, -a, -um, first</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. duo, duae, duo, two</td>
<td>secundus (alter), second</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. trēs, tria, three</td>
<td>tertius, third</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. quattuor</td>
<td>quartus</td>
<td>IIII or IV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. quīnque</td>
<td>quintus</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. sex</td>
<td>sextus</td>
<td>VI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. septem</td>
<td>septimus</td>
<td>VII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. octō</td>
<td>octāvus</td>
<td>VIII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. novem</td>
<td>nōmus</td>
<td>VIII or IX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. decem</td>
<td>decimus</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. āndecim</td>
<td>āndecimus</td>
<td>XI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. duodecim</td>
<td>duodecimus</td>
<td>XII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. tredecim (deceim (et) trēs)</td>
<td>tertius decimus (decimus (et) tertius)</td>
<td>XIII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. quattuordecim</td>
<td>quartus decimus</td>
<td>XLI or XLI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. quīndecim</td>
<td>quintus decimus</td>
<td>XV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. sexdecim</td>
<td>sextus decimus</td>
<td>XVI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. septendecim</td>
<td>septimus decimus</td>
<td>XVII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. duodēviginti (octōdecim)</td>
<td>duodeviginti (octāvus decimus)</td>
<td>XVIII</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\) The Ordinals (except secundus, tertius, octāvus, nōmus) are formed by means of suffixes related to those used in the superlative and in part identical with them. Thus, decimus (compare the form ināmus) may be regarded as the last of a series of ten; primus is a superlative of a stem akin to pró; the forms in-\textit{tus} (quartus, quintus, sextus) may be compared with the corresponding Greek forms in \textit{τός}, and with superlatives in \textit{-σ-τό-ς}, while the others have the superlative ending \textit{-timus} (changed to \textit{-simus}). Of the exceptions, seōdus is a participle of sequor; alter is a comparative form (compare \textit{-epos} in Greek), and nōmus is contracted from \textit{†novenōs}. The cardinal multiples of ten are compounds of \textit{-gint-} ‘ten’ (a fragment of a derivative from decem).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CARDINAL</th>
<th>ORDINAL</th>
<th>ROMAN NUMERAUS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19. ündēviginti (novendecim)</td>
<td>ündēvicēnsimus (nōnundecimus)</td>
<td>xviii or xix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. viginti</td>
<td>vicēnsimus (vigēnsimus)</td>
<td>xx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. viginti unus</td>
<td>vicēnsimus primus</td>
<td>xxi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(or unus et viginti, etc.)</td>
<td>( unus et vicēnsimus, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. trigintā</td>
<td>tricēnsimus</td>
<td>xxx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. quadrāgintā</td>
<td>quadrāgenēnsimus</td>
<td>xxxx or xl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50. quinquāgintā</td>
<td>quinquagenēnsimus</td>
<td>↓ or l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60. sexāgintā</td>
<td>sexagenēnsimus</td>
<td>lx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70. septuāgintā</td>
<td>septuagenēnsimus</td>
<td>lxx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80. octogintā</td>
<td>octogēnsimus</td>
<td>lxxx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90. nonāgintā</td>
<td>nonagenēnsimus</td>
<td>lxxx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100. centum</td>
<td>centēnsimus</td>
<td>c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101. centum (et) unus, etc.</td>
<td>centēnsimus primus, etc.</td>
<td>c1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200. ducenti, -æ, -a</td>
<td>ducentēnsimus</td>
<td>cc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300. trecenti</td>
<td>trecentēnsimus</td>
<td>ccc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400. quadringenti</td>
<td>quadringentēnsimus</td>
<td>cccc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500. quingenti</td>
<td>quingentēnsimus</td>
<td>d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600. sescenti</td>
<td>sescentēnsimus</td>
<td>dc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>700. septingenti</td>
<td>septingentēnsimus</td>
<td>dcc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>800. octingenti</td>
<td>octingentēnsimus</td>
<td>dccc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>900. nongenti</td>
<td>nongentēnsimus</td>
<td>dccc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000. mīle</td>
<td>mīllēnsimus</td>
<td>(c10) or m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000. quinque mīlia (mīlia)</td>
<td>quinque mīllēnsimus</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000. decem mīlia (mīlia)</td>
<td>decēns mīllēnsimus</td>
<td>ccc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100,000. centum mīlia (mīlia)</td>
<td>centēns mīllēnsimus</td>
<td>cccc</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note 1.** — The forms in -ënsimus are often written without the n: as, vicēnsimus, etc.

**Note 2.** — The forms octōdecim, novendecim are rare, duodēviginti (two from twenty), ündēviginti (one from twenty), being used instead. So 28, 39; 38, 39; etc. may be expressed either by the substraction of two and one or by the addition of eight and nine respectively.

### Declension of Cardinals and Ordinals

134. Of the Cardinals only unus, duæ, trés, the hundreds above one hundred, and mille when used as a noun, are declinable.

**a.** For the declension of unus, see § 113. It often has the meaning of same or only. The plural is used in this sense; but also, as a simple numeral, to agree with a plural noun of a singular meaning: as, una castra, one camp (cf. § 137. b). The plural occurs also in the phrase unus et alter, one party and the other (the ones and the others).

**b.** Duo,¹ two, and trés, three, are thus declined: —

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¹ The form in -ō is a remnant of the dual number, which was lost in Latin, but is found in cognate languages. So in ambō, both, which preserves -ō (cf. both and § 629. b).
### Numerals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M.</th>
<th>F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. duo</td>
<td>duae</td>
<td>dao</td>
<td>trēs</td>
<td>tria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. duōrum</td>
<td>duārum</td>
<td>duōrum</td>
<td>trium</td>
<td>trium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. duōbus</td>
<td>duābus</td>
<td>duōbus</td>
<td>tribus</td>
<td>tribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. duōs (duo)</td>
<td>duās</td>
<td>duo</td>
<td>trēs (trīs)</td>
<td>tria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. duōbus</td>
<td>duābus</td>
<td>duōbus</td>
<td>tribus</td>
<td>tribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.**—Ambō, *both*, is declined like *duo*.

**c.** The hundreds, up to 1000, are adjectives of the First and Second Declensions, and are regularly declined like the plural of *bonus*.

**d.** *Mille*, *a thousand*, is in the singular an indeclinable adjective:—

- *mille modis*, *in a thousand ways*.
- *cum mille hominibus*, *with a thousand men*.
- *mille trahēns variōs colorēs* (Aen. iv. 701), *drawing out a thousand various colors*.

In the plural it is used as a neuter noun, and is declined like the plural of *sedē* (§ 69): *milia*, *milium*, *milibus*, etc.

**Note.**—The singular *mille* is sometimes found as a noun in the nominative and accusative: as, *mille hominum misit, he sent a thousand (of) men*; in the other cases rarely, except in connection with the same case of *milia*: as, *cum octō milibus peditum, mille equitum, with eight thousand foot and a thousand horse*.

**e.** The ordinals are adjectives of the First and Second Declensions, and are regularly declined like *bonus*.

#### 135. Cardinals and Ordinals have the following uses:—

**a.** In numbers below 100, if units precede tens, *et* is generally inserted: *duo et vigintī*; otherwise *et* is omitted: *vigintī duo*.

**b.** In numbers above 100: the highest denomination generally stands first, the next second, etc., as in English. *Et* is either omitted entirely, or stands between the two highest denominations:—*mille (et) septingenti sexāgintā quattuor, 1704*.

**Note.**—Observe the following combinations of numerals with substantives:—

- *ūnum et vigintī milītēs, or vigintī milītēs (et) ūnum, 27 soldiers*.
- *duo milīa quīngentī milītēs, or duo milīa milītum et quīngentī, 2500 soldiers*.
- *milītēs milī ducentī trīgintā ūnum, 1231 soldiers*.

**c.** After *milīa* the name of the objects enumerated is in the genitive: *duo milīa hominum, two thousand men*.¹

- *cum tribus milibus milītum, with three thousand soldiers*.
- *milīa passuum tria, three thousand paces (three miles)*.

**d.** For *million*, *billion*, *trillion*, etc., the Romans had no special words, but these numbers were expressed by multiplication (cf. § 139. a).

¹ Or, in poetry, *bis milīa hominēs, twice a thousand men*. 
135-137] DISTRIBUTIVES

**e.** Fractions are expressed, as in English, by cardinals in the numerator and ordinals in the denominator. The feminine gender is used to agree with pars expressed or understood: — *two-sevenths, duae septimae (sc. partēs); three-eighths, trēs octāvae (sc. partēs).*

*One-half* is dīmidia pars or dīmidium.

**Note 1.** — When the numerator is *one*, it is omitted and pars is expressed: *one-third, tertia pars; one-fourth, quārta pars.*

**Note 2.** — When the denominator is but *one* greater than the numerator, the numerator only is given: *two-thirds, duae partēs; three-fourths, trēs partēs,* etc.

**Note 3.** — Fractions are also expressed by special words derived from as, *a pound:* as, *triēns, a third; bēs, two-thirds.* See § 637.

### Distributives

136. Distributive Numerals are declined like the plural of bonus.

**Note.** — These answer to the interrogative quotēni, *how many of each? or how many at a time?*

| 1. singulī, *one by one* | 18. octōnī dēnī or duodecēnī | 100. centēnī |
| 2. bīni, *two by two* | 19. novēnī dēnī or undecēnī | 200. ducentīn |
| 3. ternī, *three* | 20. vicēnī | 300. trecentīn |
| 4. quaterūni | 21. vicēnī singulī, etc. | 400. quingēnī |
| 5. quīnī | 30. tricēnī | 500. quingēnī |
| 6. sēnī | 40. quādrāngēnī | 600. sescentīn |
| 7. septēnī | 50. quinquagēnī | 700. septingēnī |
| 8. octōnī | 60. sexagēnī | 800. octingēnī |
| 9. novēnī | 70. septuagēnī | 900. nōngēnī |
| 10. dēnī | 80. octogēnī | 1000. milleīn |
| 11. undēnī | 90. quingēnī | 2000. bīna milia |
| 12. duodēnī | 100. centēnā milia |
| 13. ternī dēnī, etc. |  | 10,000. dēna milia |

137. Distributives are used as follows: —

**a.** In the sense of so many *apiece or on each side:* as, *singula singulis,* *one apiece* (one each to each one); *agri septēnā jugera plēbi dīvisa sunt,* i.e. *seven jugera to each citizen* (seven jugera each), etc.

**b.** Instead of cardinals, to express simple number, when a noun plural in form but usually singular in meaning is used in a plural sense: as, *bīna castra, two camps* (*duo castra* would mean *two forts*). With such nouns *ternī,* not *terni,* is used for *three:* as, *trīna* (not *terna* *castra, three camps*; *terna castra means camps in threes.*

**c.** In multiplication: as, *bis bīna, twice two; ter septēnīs dīeibus,* *in thrice seven days.*

**d.** By the poets instead of cardinal numbers, particularly where *pairs or sets* are spoken of: as, *bīna hastīlia, two shafts* (two in a set).
Numeral Adverbs

138. The Numeral Adverbs answer the question quotiens (quotiens), how many times? how often?

1. semel, once 12. duodeciēns 40. quadrāgiēns
2. bis, twice 13. terdecēns 50. quinquāgiēns
3. ter, thrice 14. quaterdecēns 60. sexāgiēns
4. quater 15. quindeciēns 70. septuāgiēns
5. quīnquēns (-ēns)¹ 16. sēdecēns 80. octōgiēns
6. sexiēns 17. septēdecēns 90. nonēgiēns
7. septiēns 18. duodeciēns 100. centiēns
8. octiēns 19. andēciēns 200. ducentiēns
9. noviēns 20. viciēns 300. trecentiēns
10. deciēns 21. semel viciēns,² etc. 1000. miliēns
11. undeciēns 30. triciēns 10,000. deciēns miliēns

α. Numeral Adverbs are used with mille to express the higher numbers:
   ter et triciēns (centēna milia) sēstertium, 3,300,000 sesterces (three and thirty
times a hundred thousand sesterces).

   viciēs ac septēs miliēs (centēna milia) sēstertium, 2,700,000,000 sesterces
   (twenty-seven thousand times a hundred thousand).

Note.—These large numbers are used almost exclusively in reckoning money,
and centēna milia is regularly omitted (see § 634).

Other Numerals

139. The following adjectives are called Multiplicatives: —

   simplex, single; duplēx, double, twofold; triplēx, triple, threefold; quadruplēx,
   quinquiplēx, septempplēx, decemplex, centuplēx, sesquiplēx (1½), multiplex
   (manifold).

α. Proportionals are: duplus, triplus, quadruplus, octuplus, etc., twice as
great, thrice as great, etc.

β. Temporals: bīmus, trimus, of two or three years’ age; biennis, triennis,
   lasting two or three years; binēstris, trimēstris, of two or three months;
   biduum, a period of two days; biennium, a period of two years.

γ. Partitives: binārius, ternārius, of two or three parts.

δ. Other derivatives are: ūniō, unity; binō, the two (of dice); prīmaēus,
of the first legion; prīmārius, of the first rank; dēnārius, a sum of 10 asses;
bīnum (distributive), double, etc.

¹ Forms in -ns are often written without the n.
² Also written viciēns et semel or viciēns semel, etc.
PRONOUNS

140. Pronouns are used as Nouns or as Adjectives. They are divided into the following seven classes: —

1. Personal Pronouns: as, ego, I.
2. Reflexive Pronouns: as, sē, himself.
3. Possessive Pronouns: as, meas, my.
4. Demonstrative Pronouns: as, hic, this; ille, that.
5. Relative Pronouns: as, qui, who.
6. Interrogative Pronouns: as, quis, who?
7. Indefinite Pronouns: as, aliquis, some one.

141. Pronouns have special forms of declension.

Note.—These special forms are, in general, survivals of a very ancient form of declension differing from that of nouns.

Personal Pronouns

142. The Personal pronouns of the first person are ego, I, nōs, we; of the second person, tū, thou or you, vōs, ye or you. The personal pronouns of the third person — he, she, it, they — are wanting in Latin, a demonstrative being sometimes used instead.

143. Ego and tū are declined as follows: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Person</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td><strong>Plural</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ego, I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>mei, of me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>mīhi (mī), to me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>mē, me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>mē, by me</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Second Person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

α. The plural nōs is often used for the singular ego; the plural vōs is never so used for the singular tū.
Note.—Old forms are genitive mis, tis; accusative and ablative mē, tē (cf. §43 n. 1).

b. The forms nostrum, vestrum, etc., are used partitive:—

ūnusque nostrum, each one of us.
vestrum omnium, of all of you.

Note.—The forms of the genitive of the personal pronouns are really the genitives of the possessives: mei, tuī, suī, nostri, vestri, genitive singular neuter: nostrum, vestrum, genitive plural masculine or neuter. So in early and later Latin we find āna vestrārum, one of you (women).

c. The genitives mei, tuī, suī, nostri, vestri, are chiefly used objectively (§347):—

memor sis nostri, be mindful of us (me).
mē tuī pudet, I am ashamed of you.

d. Emphatic forms of tū are tūte and tūtemet (tūtimet). The other cases of the personal pronouns, excepting the genitive plural, are made emphatic by adding -met: as, egomet, vōsmeät.

Note.—Early emphatic forms are mēpte and tēpte.

c. Reduplicated forms are found in the accusative and ablative singular: as, mēmē, tētē.

f. The preposition cum, with, is joined enclitically with the ablative: as, tēcum loquitur, he talks with you.

Reflexive Pronouns

144. Reflexive Pronouns are used in the Oblique Cases to refer to the subject of the sentence or clause in which they stand (see §299): as, sē amat, he loves himself.

a. In the first and second persons the oblique cases of the Personal pronouns are used as Reflexives: as, mē videō, I see myself; tē laudās, you praise yourself; nōbis persuādēmus, we persuade ourselves.

b. The Reflexive pronoun of the third person has a special form used only in this sense, the same for both singular and plural. It is thus declined:—

Gen. suī, of himself, herself, itself, themselves
Dat. sībi, to himself, herself, itself, themselves
Acc. sē (sēsē), himself, herself, itself, themselves
Abl. sē (sēsē), [by] himself, herself, itself, themselves

Note 1.—Emphatic and reduplicated forms of sē are made as in the personals (see §143, d, e). The preposition cum is added enclitically: as, sēcum, with himself, etc.

Note 2.—An old form sēd occurs in the accusative and ablative.
Possessive Pronouns

145. The Possessive pronouns are: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Person</th>
<th>meus, my</th>
<th>noster, our</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Second Person</td>
<td>tuus, thy, your</td>
<td>vester, your</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Person</td>
<td>suus, his, her, its</td>
<td>suas, their</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These are really adjectives of the First and Second Declensions, and are so declined (see §§ 110–112). But meus has regularly mi (rarely meus) in the vocative singular masculine.

Note. — Suus is used only as a reflexive, referring to the subject. For a possessive pronoun of the third person not referring to the subject, the genitive of a demonstrative must be used. Thus, patrem suum occidit, he killed his (own) father; but patrem eius occidit, he killed his (somebody else’s) father.

a. Emphatic forms in -pte are found in the ablative singular: suöpte.

b. A rare possessive cuius (quōius), -a, -um, whose, is formed from the genitive singular of the relative or interrogative pronoun (quī, quis). It may be either interrogative or relative in force according to its derivation, but is usually the former.

c. The reciprocals one another and each other are expressed by inter sē or alter . . . alterum: —

alter alterius ēva frangit, they break each other’s eggs (one . . . of the other).
inter sē amant, they love one another (they love among themselves).

Demonstrative Pronouns

146. The Demonstrative Pronouns are used to point out or designate a person or thing for special attention, either with nouns as Adjectives or alone as Pronouns. They are: — hic, this; is, ille, iste, that; with the Intensive ipse, self, and idem, same;¹ and are thus declined: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hic, this</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.</td>
<td>F.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>hic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>hūius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>huic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>hunc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>hōc</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ These demonstratives are combinations of o- and i- stems, which are not clearly distinguishable.
NOTE 1.—Hic is a compound of the stem ho- with the demonstrative enclitic -ce. In most of the cases final e is dropped, in some the whole termination. But in these latter it is sometimes retained for emphasis: as, hāius-çe, his-çe. In early Latin -ce alone is retained in some of these (hōrunc). The vowel in híc, hoc, was originally short, and perhaps this quantity was always retained. Ille and iste are sometimes found with the same enclitic: illic, illaece, illae; also illic. See § 67.

NOTE 2.—For the dative and ablative plural of hic the old form hibus is sometimes found; haec occurs (rarely) for hae.

| SINGULAR | | | Plural |
|----------|----------|----------|
| M.       | F.       | N.       | M.       | F.       | N.       |
| Nom.     | is       | ea       | id       | Cae      | ea       |
| Gen.     | éius      | éius     | éius     | eōrum    | eōrum    |
| Dat.     | ei       | ei       | ei       | eis, iis (is) | eis, iis (is) | eis, iis (is) |
| Acc.     | eum      | eam      | id       | eōs      | ea       |
| Abl.     | eō       | eā       | eō       | eis, iis (is) | eis, iis (is) | eis, iis (is) |

NOTE 3.—Obsolete forms are eae (dat. fem.), and eābus or ēbus (dat. plur.). For dative ei are found also ēi and ēi (monosyllabic); ēi, eōs, etc., also occur in the plural.

| SINGULAR | | | Plural |
|----------|----------|----------|
| M.       | F.       | N.       | M.       | F.       | N.       |
| Nom.     | ille     | illa     | illud    | illi     | illae    | illa     |
| Gen.     | illius   | illius   | illius   | illorum  | illārum  | illōrum  |
| Dat.     | illi     | illi     | illi     | illis    | illis    | illis    |
| Acc.     | illum    | illam    | illud    | illōs    | illās    | illa     |
| Abl.     | illō     | illā     | illō     | illis    | illis    | illis    |

Ille, that

Iste, ista, istud, that (yonder), is declined like ille.

NOTE 4.—Ille replaces an earlier ollus (olle), of which several forms occur.

NOTE 5.—Iste is sometimes found in early writers in the form ste etc. The first syllable of ille and ipse is very often used as short in early poetry.

NOTE 6.—The forms illi, isti (gen.), and illae, istae (dat.), are sometimes found; also the nominative plural istacee, illace (for istae, illae). See § 67.

| SINGULAR | | | Plural |
|----------|----------|----------|
| M.       | F.       | N.       | M.       | F.       | N.       |
| Nom.     | ipse     | ipsa     | ipsum    | ipsī     | ipsae    | ipsa     |
| Gen.     | ipsius   | ipsius   | ipsius   | ipsōrum  | ipsārum  | ipsōrum  |
| Dat.     | ipsī     | ipsī     | ipsī     | ipsīs    | ipsīs    | ipsīs    |
| Acc.     | ipsum    | ipsam    | ipsum    | ipsōs    | ipsās    | ipsa     |
| Abl.     | ipsō     | ipsā     | ipsō     | ipsīs    | ipsīs    | ipsīs    |
DEMGNSTRAT\VIT\ PRONOUNS

NOTE 7.—Ipse is compounded of is and -pse (a pronominal particle of uncertain origin: cf. § 145. \(a\)), meaning self. The former part was originally declined, as in re\(p\)se (for re e\(p\)se), in fact. An old form ipsus occurs, with superlative ipsissimus, own self, used for comic effect.

NOTE 8.—The intensive -pse is found in the forms e\(p\)se (nominative), e\(m\)pse, e\(m\)pse, e\(p\)s, e\(p\)s (ablative).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M.</td>
<td>F.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ipse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>e(i)d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>e(i)d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>e(i)m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>e(i)m</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE 9.—I\(p\)se is the demonstrative is with the indeclinable suffix -dem. The masculine ic is for ic\(d\)m; the neuter ic, however, is not for ic\(d\)m, but is a relic of an older formation. A final m of is is changed to n before d: as, e\(m\)d for e\(m\)d, etc. The plural forms ic, ic\(d\)m, are often written ic, ic\(d\)m.

\(a\). Ile and ic\(d\) appear in combination with the demonstrative particle -e, shortened from -ce, in the following forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M. F. N.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. ilic illae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. illuc illae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. illae illae</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N. Acc. illae</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE 1.—The appended -ce is also found with pronouns in numerous combinations: as, h\(i\)us, h\(u\)ne, h\(i\)r\(u\)ne, h\(i\)r\(u\)ne, h\(i\)s, hisce (cf. § 146. N. 1), h\(i\)iusce, isce; also with the interrogative -e, in h\(e\)cine, h\(e\)scine, istucine, illuciae, etc.

NOTE 2.—By composition with ecce or em. behol\(d\)! are formed ecce (for ecce cum), eccum, ecc\(s\), eccae; ecculum (for ecce illum); ecce (for em illum), e\(m\)m, e\(l\)m, e\(l\)m, eccistam. These forms are dramatic and colloquial.

\(b\). The combinations h\(u\)iusmodi (h\(u\)iusceminmodi), e\(i\)usmodi, etc., are used as indeclinable adjectives, equivalent to t\(a\)lis, such: as, res e\(i\)usmodi, such a thing (a thing of that sort: cf. § 345. \(a\)).

For uses of the Demonstrative Pronouns, see §§ 296 ff.
Relative Pronouns

147. The Relative Pronoun qui, who, which, is thus declined:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th></th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M.</td>
<td>F.</td>
<td>N.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>qui</td>
<td>quae</td>
<td>quod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>cuius</td>
<td>cuius</td>
<td>cuius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>cui</td>
<td>cui</td>
<td>cui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>quem</td>
<td>quam</td>
<td>quod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>quō</td>
<td>quā</td>
<td>quō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interrogative and Indefinite Pronouns

148. The Substantive Interrogative Pronoun quis, who? qui?, what? is declined in the Singular as follows:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M., F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>quis</td>
<td>qui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>cuius</td>
<td>cui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>cui</td>
<td>cui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>quem</td>
<td>quid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>quō</td>
<td>quō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Plural is the same as that of the Relative, qui, quae, quae.

a. The singular quis is either masculine or of indeterminate gender, but in old writers it is sometimes distinctly feminine.

b. The Adjective Interrogative Pronoun, qui, quae, quod, what kind of? what? which? is declined throughout like the Relative:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Substantive</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>quis vocat, who calls?</td>
<td>qui homō vocat, what man calls?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>cuius</td>
<td>quod templum vidēs, what temple do you see?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. — But qui is often used without any apparent adjective force; and quis is very common as an adjective, especially with words denoting a person: as, qui nōminat mē? who calls my name? quis dīēs fuit? what day was it? quis homō? what man? but often qui homō? what kind of man? nesciē qui sīs, I know not who you are.

c. Quisnam, pray, who? is an emphatic interrogative. It has both substantive and adjective forms like quis, qui.

149. The Indefinite Pronouns quis, any one, and qui, any, are declined like the corresponding Interrogatives, but quae is commonly used for quae except in the nominative plural feminine:—
§§ 149–151] COMPOUNDS OF QUIS AND QUIÌ 69

Substantive: quis, any one; quid, anything.

Adjective: quī, qua (quae), quod, any.

a. The feminine forms qua and quae are sometimes used substantively.
b. The indefinites quis and quiì are rare except after sī, nisi, nē, and num, and in compounds (see § 310. a, b).

Note. — After these particles quiì is often used as a substantive and quis as an adjective (cf. § 148. b. n.).

Case-Forms of quiì and quis

150. The Relative, Interrogative, and Indefinite Pronouns are originally of the same stem, and most of the forms are the same (compare § 147 with § 148). The stem has two forms in the masculine and neuter, quo-, qui-, and one for the feminine, quā-. The interrogative sense is doubtless the original one.

a. Old forms for the genitive and dative singular are quōius, quií.
b. The form qui is used for the ablative of both numbers and all genders; but especially as an adverb (how, by which way, in any way), and in the combination quicum, with whom, as an interrogative or an indefinite relative.
c. A nominative plural quēs (stem qui-) is found in early Latin. A dative and ablative quis (stem quo-) is not infrequent, even in classic Latin.
d. The preposition cum is joined enclitically to all forms of the ablatīve, as with the personal pronouns (§ 143. f): as, quōcum, quicum, quibuscum.

Note. — But occasionally cum precedes: as, cum quō (Iuv. iv. 9).

Compounds of quis and quiì

151. The pronouns quis and quiì appear in various combinations.

a. The adverb -cumque (-cunque) (cf. quisque) added to the relative makes an indefinite relative, which is declined like the simple word: as, quicumque, quaecumque, quodcumque, whoever, whatever; cuiuscumque, etc.

Note. — This suffix, with the same meaning, may be used with any relative: as, quāliscumque, of whatever sort; quandōcumque (also rarely quandōque), whenever; ubicumque, wherever.

b. In quisquis, whoever, both parts are declined, but the only forms in common use are quisquis, quidquid (quicquid) and quōquō.

Note 1. — Rare forms are quemquem and quibusquisbus; an ablative quiì is sometimes found in early Latin; the ablative feminine quaquiì is both late and rare. Cuicui occurs as a genitive in the phrase cuicui modi, of whatever kind. Other cases are cited, but have no authority. In early Latin quisquis is occasionally feminine.

Note 2. — Quisquis is usually substantive, except in the ablative quōquō, which is more commonly an adjective.
c. The indefinite pronouns quidam, a certain (one); quivis, quilibet, any you please, are used both as substantives and as adjectives. The first part is declined like the relative qui, but the neuter has both quid- (adjective) and quod- (substantive):—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>M.</th>
<th>F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>aliquis (aliqui)</td>
<td>aliqua</td>
<td>aliquid (aliquod)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>aliçuius</td>
<td>aliçuius</td>
<td>aliçuius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>aliquem</td>
<td>aliquam</td>
<td>aliquum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>aliquë</td>
<td>aliquã</td>
<td>aliquõ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plural

| Nom.      | aliqui | aliquae | aliqua |
| Gen.      | aliquorum | aliquarum | aliquorum |
| Dat.      | aliquibus | aliquibus | aliquibus |
| Acc.      | aliquës | aliquãs | aliquã |
| Abl.      | aliquibus | aliquibus | aliquibus |

Note.—Aliqui is sometimes used substantively and aliquis as an adjective.

d. The indefinite pronouns quispiam, some, any, and quisquam, any at all, are used both as substantives and as adjectives. Quispiam has feminine quae- piam (adjective), neuter quidpiam (substantive) and quodpiam (adjective); the plural is very rare. Quisquam is both masculine and feminine; the neuter is quidquam (quicquam), substantive only; there is no plural. Usus, -a, -um, is commonly used as the adjective corresponding to quisquam.

e. The indefinite pronoun aliquis (substantive), some one, aliqui (adjective), some, is declined like quis and qui, but aliqua is used instead of aliquae except in the nominative plural feminine:—

f. The indefinite pronoun ecquis (substantive), whether any one, ecqui (adjective), whether any, is declined like aliquis, but has either ecquae or ecqua in the nominative singular feminine of the adjective form.

Note.—Ecquis (equi) has no genitive singular, and in the plural occurs in the nominative and accusative only.

g. The enclitic particle -que added to the interrogative gives a universal: as, quisque, every one; uterque, each of two, or both. Quisque is declined
like the interrogative quis, qui:— substantive, quisque, quiique; adjective, quiique, quaeque, quodque.

In the compound unusquisque, every single one, both parts are declined (genitive unusquisque), and they are sometimes written separately and even separated by other words:—

né in unusquisque (Lael. 92), not even in a single one.

h. The relative and interrogative have rarely a possessive adjective cūius (-a, -um), older quàius, whose; and a possessive cūiās (cūiāt-), of what country.

i. Quantus, how great, quàlis, of what sort, are derivative adjectives from the interrogative. They are either interrogative or relative, corresponding respectively to the demonstratives tantus, tālis (§ 152). Indefinite compounds are quantuscumque and quàliscumque (see § 151. a).

Correlatives

152. Many Pronouns, Pronominal Adjectives, and Adverbs have corresponding demonstrative, relative, interrogative, and indefinite forms. Such parallel forms are called Correlatives. They are shown in the following table:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>is</td>
<td>qui</td>
<td>quis ?</td>
<td>quīquis</td>
<td>aliquis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that</td>
<td>who</td>
<td>who ?</td>
<td>whoever</td>
<td>some one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tantus</td>
<td>quantus</td>
<td>quantus ?</td>
<td>quantuscumque</td>
<td>aliquantus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so great</td>
<td>how (as) great</td>
<td>how great?</td>
<td>however great</td>
<td>some</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tālis</td>
<td>quàlis</td>
<td>quàlis ?</td>
<td>quàliscumque</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>such</td>
<td>as</td>
<td>of what sort?</td>
<td>of whatever kind</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ubi</td>
<td>ubi</td>
<td>ubi ?</td>
<td>ubiubi</td>
<td>alicubi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>there</td>
<td>where</td>
<td>where ?</td>
<td>wherever</td>
<td>somewhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eō</td>
<td>quō</td>
<td>quō ?</td>
<td>quàō</td>
<td>aliquō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thither</td>
<td>whither</td>
<td>whither ?</td>
<td>whithersover</td>
<td>(to) somewhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eā</td>
<td>quà</td>
<td>quà ?</td>
<td>quàā</td>
<td>aliquid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that way</td>
<td>which way</td>
<td>which way ?</td>
<td>whithersover</td>
<td>(to) anywhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>undec</td>
<td>unde</td>
<td>unde ?</td>
<td>undescumque</td>
<td>anywhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whence</td>
<td>whence</td>
<td>whence ?</td>
<td>whenceseover</td>
<td>from somewhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cum</td>
<td>quandō</td>
<td>quandō ?</td>
<td>quandocumque</td>
<td>aliquando</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>when</td>
<td>when</td>
<td>when ?</td>
<td>whenever</td>
<td>at some time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quot</td>
<td>quot</td>
<td>quot ?</td>
<td>quotquot</td>
<td>aliquot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so many</td>
<td>as</td>
<td>how many ?</td>
<td>however many</td>
<td>some, several</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>totiēns</td>
<td>quotiēns</td>
<td>quotiēns ?</td>
<td>quotiēscumque</td>
<td>aliquotiens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so often</td>
<td>as</td>
<td>how often?</td>
<td>however often</td>
<td>at several times</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
VERBS

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB

153. The inflection of the Verb is called its Conjugation.

Voice, Mood, Tense, Person, Number

154. Through its conjugation the Verb expresses Voice, Mood, Tense, Person, and Number.

a. The Voices are two: Active and Passive.

b. The Moods are four: Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative, and Infinitive.\(^1\)

Note.—The Indicative, Subjunctive, and Imperative are called Finite Moods in distinction from the Infinitive.

c. The Tenses are six, viz.:
1. For continued action, Present, Imperfect, Future.
2. For completed action, Perfect, Pluperfect, Future Perfect.

The Indicative Mood has all six tenses, but the Subjunctive has no future or future perfect, and the Imperative has only the present and the future. The Infinitive has the present, perfect, and future.

d. The Persons are three: First, Second, and Third.

e. The Numbers are two: Singular and Plural.

Noun and Adjective Forms

155. The following Noun and Adjective forms are also included in the inflection of the Latin Verb: —

a. Four Participles,\(^2\) viz.:

Active: the Present and Future Participles.

Passive: the Perfect Participle and the Gerundive.\(^3\)

b. The Gerund: this is in form a neater noun of the second declension, used only in the oblique cases of the singular.

c. The Supine: this is in form a verbal noun of the fourth declension in the accusative (-um) and dative or ablative (-ā)\(^4\) singular.

\(^1\) The Infinitive is strictly the locative case of an abstract noun, expressing the action of the verb (§ 451).

\(^2\) The Participles are adjectives in inflection and meaning, but have the power of verbs in construction and in distinguishing time.

\(^3\) The Gerundive is also used as an adjective of necessity, duty, etc. (§ 156. d). In late use it became a Future Passive Participle.

\(^4\) Originally locative.
Signification of the Forms of the Verb

Voices

156. The Active and Passive Voices in Latin generally correspond to the active and passive in English; but—

a. The passive voice often has a reflexive meaning: —

ferri accingere, I gird myself with my sword.

Turnus vertitur, Turnus turns (himself).

induitur vestem, he puts on his (own) clothes.

Note. — This use corresponds very nearly to the Greek Middle voice, and is doubtless a survival of the original meaning of the passive (p. 76, footnote 2).

b. Many verbs are passive in form, but active or reflexive in meaning. These are called Deponents (§ 190): 1 as, hortor, I exhort; sequor, I follow.

c. Some verbs with active meaning have the passive form in the perfect tenses; these are called Semi-Deponents: as, audeo, auder, ausus sum, dare.

Moods

157. The Moods are used as follows: —

a. The Indicative Mood is used for most direct assertions and interrogations: as,—valēsne? valeō, are you well? I am well.

b. The Subjunctive Mood has many idiomatic uses, as in commands, conditions, and various dependent clauses. It is often translated by the English Indicative; frequently by means of the auxiliaries may, might, would, should; 2 sometimes by the (rare) Subjunctive; sometimes by the Infinitive; and often by the Imperative, especially in prohibitions. A few characteristic examples of its use are the following: —

cāmus, let us go; nē abeat, let him not depart.
adsum ut videam, I am here to see (that I may see).
tū nē quaesiris, do not thou inquire.
beātus sīs, may you be blessed.
quid moreris, why should I delay?
nescio quid scribam, I know not what to write.
sī moneam, audiat, if I should warn, he would hear.

1 That is, verbs which have laid aside (déponent) the passive meaning.

2 The Latin uses the subjunctive in many cases where we use the indicative; and we use a colorless auxiliary in many cases where the Latin employs a separate verb with more definite meaning. Thus, I may write is often not scribam (subjunctive), but licet mihi scribere; I can write is possim scribere; I would write is scribam, scribere, or scribere velim (vellem); I should write, (if, etc.), scriberem (sī) . . ., or (implying duty) oportet mē scribere.
CONJUGATION OF THE VERB

74

\[\text{c. The Imperative is used for \textit{exhortation, entreaty, or command}; but the}\]
Subjunctive is often used instead (§§ 439, 450):

\begin{align*}
& \text{liber estō, he shall be free.} \\
& \text{nē essē legitō, do not gather the bones.}
\end{align*}

\[\text{d. The Infinitive is used chiefly as an indeclinable noun, as the subject}\]
or complement of another verb (§§ 452, 456. n.). In special constructions it
takes the place of the Indicative, and may be translated by that mood in
English (see Indirect Discourse, § 580 ff.).

\text{NOTE. — For the Syntax of the Moods, see § 436 ff.}

Participles

158. The Participles are used as follows:

\[\text{a. The Present Participle (ending in -ns) has commonly the same}\]
meaning and use as the English participle in -ing; as, vocāns, calling;
legentēs, reading. (For its inflection, see egēns, § 118.)

\[\text{b. The Future Participle (ending in -ūrus) is oftenest used to ex-}\]
press what is likely or about to happen: as, rēctūrus, about to rule;
auditūrus, about to hear.

\text{NOTE. — With the tenses of esse, to be, it forms the First Periphrastic Conjugation}
(see § 195): as, urbs est cāsūra, the city is about to fall; mānsūrus eram, I was going
to stay.

\[\text{c. The Perfect Participle (ending in -tus, -sus) has two uses: —}\]

\begin{enumerate}
\item It is sometimes equivalent to the English perfect passive participle:
as, tēctus, sheltered; acceptūs, accepted; ictus, having been struck; and often
has simply an adjective meaning: as, acceptūs, acceptable.
\item It is used with the verb to be (esse) to form certain tenses of the pas-
sive: as, vocātus est, he was (has been) called.
\end{enumerate}

\text{NOTE. — There is no Perfect Active or Present Passive Participle in Latin. For}
substitutes see §§ 492, 493.

\[\text{d. The Gerundive (ending in -ndus), has two uses: —}\]

\begin{enumerate}
\item It is often used as an adjective implying obligation, necessity, or
propriety (ought or must): as, audiendus est, he must be heard.
\item When thus used with the tenses of the verb to be (esse) it forms the Second
Periphrastic Conjugation: ēligendus erat, he ought to have been chosen (§ 196).
\item In the oblique cases the Gerundive commonly has the same meaning
as the Gerund (cf. § 159. a), though its construction is different. (For
examples, see § 503 ff.)
\end{enumerate}
Gerund and Supine

159. The Gerund and Supine are used as follows:—

a. The Gerund is a verbal noun, corresponding in meaning to the English verbal noun in -ing (§ 502): as, loquendi causâ, for the sake of speaking.

Note.—The Gerund is found only in the oblique cases. A corresponding nominative is supplied by the Infinitive: thus, scribere est utile, writing (to write) is useful; but, ars scribendi, the art of writing.

b. The Supine is in form a noun of the fourth declension (§ 94. b), found only in the accusative ending in -tum, -sum, and the dative or ablative ending in -tû, -sû.

The Supine in -tum is used after verbs and the Supine in -ă after adjectives (§§ 509, 510):—

venit spectátum, he came to see; mirâbile díctû, wonderful to tell.

Tenses of the Finite Verb

160. The Tenses of the Indicative have, in general, the same meaning as the corresponding tenses in English:—

a. Of continued action,

1. Present: scribō, I write, I am writing, I do write.
2. Imperfect: scribēbam, I wrote, I was writing, I did write.

b. Of completed action,

4. Perfect: scripsi, I have written, I wrote.
5. Pluperfect: scripssem, I had written.
6. Future Perfect: scripsētā, I shall have written.

161. The Perfect Indicative has two separate uses,—the Perfect Definite and the Perfect Historical (or Indefinite).

1. The Perfect Definite represents the action of the verb as completed in present time, and corresponds to the English perfect with have: as, scripsi, I have written.

2. The Perfect Historical narrates a simple act or state in past time without representing it as in progress or continuing. It corresponds to the English past or preterite and the Greek aorist: as, scripsit, he wrote.

162. The Tenses of the Subjunctive are chiefly used in dependent clauses, following the rule for the Sequence of Tenses; but have also special idiomatic uses (see Syntax).

For the use of Tenses in the Imperative, see §§ 448, 449.
### Personal Endings

163. Verbs have regular terminations for each of the three persons, both singular and plural, active and passive. These are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVE</th>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PASSIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. -m (-o):</td>
<td>am-o, I love.</td>
<td>-r (-or):</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -s:</td>
<td>am-a-s, thou lovest.</td>
<td>-ris (-re):</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -t:</td>
<td>ama-t, he loves.</td>
<td>-tur:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. -mus:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -tis:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -nt:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**a.** The Perfect Indicative active has the special terminations:

| SING. | 1. -i: | am-a-i, I loved. |
| 2. -is-ti: | am-a-v-is-ti, thou lovedst. |
| 3. -i-t: | am-a-v-i-t, he loved. |

| PLUR. | 1. -imus: | am-a-v-imus, we loved. |
| 2. -is-tis: | am-a-v-is-tis, you loved. |
| 3. -erunt (-ere): | am-a-v-erunt (-ere), they loved. |

**b.** The Imperative has the following terminations:

### Present Active

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. - -</td>
<td>am-a, love thou.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Future Active

| 2. -tō: | am-a-tō, thou shalt love. | -tōte: | am-a-tōte, ye shall love. |
| 3. -tō: | am-a-tō, he shall love. | -ntō: | am-a-ntō, they shall love. |

---

1. Most of these seem to be fragments of old pronouns, whose signification is thus added to that of the verb-stem (cf. § 36). But the ending -mini in the second person plural of the passive is perhaps a remnant of the participial form found in the Greek -μονε, and has supplanted the proper form, which does not appear in Latin. The personal ending -nt is probably connected with the participial at- (nominative -at).

2. The Passive is an old Middle Voice, peculiar to the Italic and Celtic languages, and of uncertain origin.

3. Of these terminations -i is not a personal ending, but appears to represent an Indo-European tense-sign -ai of the Perfect Middle. In -is-ti and -is-tis, -tī and -tis are personal endings; for -is-, see § 169. c. n. In -i-t and -imus, -t and -mus are personal endings, and i is of uncertain origin. Both -erunt and -ere are also of doubtful origin, but the former contains the personal ending -nt.
§§ 163, 164] THE THREE STEMS

Singular Present Passive Plural
2. -re: amā-re, be thou loved. -mini: amā-mini, be ye loved.

FUTURE PASSIVE
2. -tor: amā-tor, thou shalt be loved. — —
3. -tor: amā-tor, he shall be loved. -ntor: amā-ntor, they shall be loved.

FORMS OF THE VERB

The Three Stems

164. The forms of the verb may be referred to three stems, called (1) the Present, (2) the Perfect, and (3) the Supine stem.

1. On the Present stem are formed —

The Present, Imperfect, and Future Indicative, Active and Passive.
The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive, Active and Passive.
The Imperative, Active and Passive.
The Present Infinitive, Active and Passive.
The Present Participle, the Gerundive, and the Gerund.

2. On the Perfect stem are formed —

The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative Active.
The Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive Active.
The Perfect Infinitive Active.

3. On the Supine stem are formed

a. The Perfect Passive Participle, which combines with the forms of the verb sum, *be*, to make —

The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative Passive.
The Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive Passive.
The Perfect Infinitive Passive.

b. The Future Active Participle, which combines with *esse* to make the Future Active Infinitive.

c. The Supine in -um and -ū. The Supine in -um combines with īrī to make the Future Passive Infinitive (§ 203. a).

Note. — The Perfect Participle with *fore* also makes a Future Passive Infinitive (as, amātus fore). For fore (futūrum esse) ut with the subjunctive, see § 569. 3. a.

1 The Perfect Passive and Future Active Participles and the Supine, though strictly noun-forms, each with its own suffix, agree in having the first letter of the suffix (t) the same and in suffering the same phonetic change (t to s, see § 15. 5). Hence these forms, along with several sets of derivatives (in -tor, -tūs, etc., see § 238. b. n.), were felt by the Romans as belonging to one system, and are conveniently associated with the Supine Stem. Thus, from pingō, we have pictum, pictus, pictūrus, pictor, pictūra; from rideō, rīsum (for rīd-tum), rīsus (part.), rīsus (noun), rīsūrus, rīsiō, rīsor, rīsibilis.
165. Every form of the finite verb is made up of two parts:
1. The Stem (see § 24). This is either the root or a modification or development of it.
2. The Ending, consisting of—
   1. the Signs of Mood and Tense (see §§ 168, 169).
   2. the Personal Ending (see § 163).
Thus in the verb vocā-bā-s, you were calling, the root is voc, modified into the verb-stem vocā-, which by the addition of the ending -bās becomes the imperfect tense vocābās; and this ending consists of the tense-sign bā- and the personal ending (-s) of the second person singular.

166. The Verb-endings, as they are formed by the signs for mood and tense combined with personal endings, are—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVE</th>
<th>PASSIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INDICATIVE</td>
<td>INDICATIVE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRESENT</td>
<td>PRESENT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sing. 1. -ō</td>
<td>-m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -s</td>
<td>-s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -t</td>
<td>-t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. -mus</td>
<td>-mus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -tis</td>
<td>-tis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -nt</td>
<td>-nt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPERFECT</th>
<th>IMPERFECT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sing. 1. -ba-m</td>
<td>-re-m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -bā-s</td>
<td>-re-s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -ba-t</td>
<td>-re-t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. -bā-mus</td>
<td>-rē-mus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -bā-tis</td>
<td>-rē-tis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -bā-nt</td>
<td>-rē-nt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FUTURE</td>
<td>FUTURE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1, II 1</td>
<td>III, IV 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sing. 1. -b-ō</td>
<td>-a-m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -bi-s</td>
<td>-ē-s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -bi-t</td>
<td>-ē-t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. -bi-mus</td>
<td>-ē-mus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -bi-tis</td>
<td>-ē-tis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -bi-nt</td>
<td>-ē-nt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 These numerals refer to the four conjugations given later (see § 171).
### Active

**Indicative**

**Perfect**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing. 1. -ī</th>
<th>-eri-m</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. -is-tī</td>
<td>-eri-s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -i-t</td>
<td>-eri-t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. -i-mus</td>
<td>-eri-mus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -is-tis</td>
<td>-eri-tis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -ēru-at (ēre)</td>
<td>-eri-nt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Subjunctive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing. 1. -ēra-m</th>
<th>-isse-m</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. -ēra-s</td>
<td>-isse-s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -era-t</td>
<td>-isse-t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. -ēra-mus</td>
<td>-isse-mus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -ēra-tis</td>
<td>-isse-tis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -era-nt</td>
<td>-isse-nt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing. 1. -ēra</th>
<th>-isse</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. -ēra-s</td>
<td>-isse-s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -era-t</td>
<td>-isse-t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. -ēra-mus</td>
<td>-isse-mus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -ēra-tis</td>
<td>-isse-tis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -era-nt</td>
<td>-isse-nt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future Perfect**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing. 1. -ēri-ō</th>
<th>-ēris</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. -ēri-s</td>
<td>-ērit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -ēri-t</td>
<td>-ērunt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. -ēri-mus</td>
<td>-ērimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -ēri-tis</td>
<td>-ēritis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -ēri-nt</td>
<td>-ērant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Plur. 2. -te</th>
<th>Sing. 2. -re</th>
<th>Plur. 2. -mini</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. -tō</td>
<td>2. -tōte</td>
<td>2. -tōr</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -tō</td>
<td>3. -ntō</td>
<td>3. -ntō</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Passive

**Indicative**

**Perfect**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>-tus(-ta, -tum)</th>
<th>sum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-tis(-tae, -ta)</td>
<td>estis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Subjunctive**

| sum | sis |
| est | sit |
| sumus | simus |
| estis | sitis |
| sunt | sint |

**Pluperfect**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>-tus(-ta, -tum)</th>
<th>eram</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-tis(-tae, -ta)</td>
<td>erat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| eram | essam |
| eras | essas |
| erat | esset |
| eramus | essmus |
| eratis | essetis |
| erant | essent |

**Future Perfect**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>-tus(-ta, -tum)</th>
<th>erō</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-tis(-tae, -ta)</td>
<td>eris</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| erō | essem |
| eras | essēs |
| erat | essēt |
| eramus | essēmus |
| eratis | essētis |
| erant | essent |

### Infinitive

- **Pres.** -re (Pres. stem)
- **Perf.** -isse (Perf. stem)
- **Fut.** -tūrus (-a, -um) esse

### Participles

- **Pres.** -ns, -ntis
- **Fut.** -tūrus, -a, -um

### Particles

- **Pres.** -tus, -ta, -tum
- **Ger.** -ndus, -nda, -ndum

### Gerund

- -ndī, -ndō, -ndum, -ndō

### Supine

- -tum, -tū
167. A long vowel is shortened before the personal endings -m (-r), -t, -nt (-ntur): as, ame-t (for older amē-t), habē-t (for habē-t), mone-nt, mone-ntur.

168. The tenses of the Present System are made from the Present Stem as follows:—

a. In the Present Indicative the personal endings are added directly to the present stem. Thus, — present stem arā-: arā-s, arā-mus, arā-tis.

b. In the Imperfect Indicative the suffix -bam, -bās, etc. (originally a complete verb) is added to the present stem: as, arā-bam, arā-bās, arā-bāmus.

Note.—The form *bam was apparently an aorist of the Indo-European root bhū (cf. fui, futūrūs, φέυ, English be, been), and meant I was. This was added to a complete word, originally a case of a verbal noun, as in I was a-seeing; hence vidē-bam. The form probably began in the Second or Third Conjugation and was extended to the others. The a was at first long, but was shortened in certain forms (§ 167).

c. In the Future Indicative of the First and Second Conjugations a similar suffix, -bō, -bis, etc., is added to the present stem: as, arā-bō, arā-bis, monē-bō.

Note.—The form *bē was probably a present tense of the root bhū, with a future meaning, and was affixed to a noun-form as described in b. n.

d. In the Future Indicative of the Third and Fourth Conjugations the terminations -am, -ēs, etc. (as, teg-am, teg-ēs, audi-am, audi-ēs) are really subjunctive endings used in a future sense (see e). The vowel was originally long throughout. For shortening, see § 167.

e. In the Present Subjunctive the personal endings were added to a form of the present stem ending in ē- or ā-, which was shortened in certain forms (§ 167). Thus, amē-m, amē-s, tegā-mus, tega-nt.

Note 1.—The vowel ē (scēn in the First Conjugation: as, amē-s) is an inherited subjunctive mood-sign. It appears to be the thematic vowel c (§ 174. 1) lengthened. The ā of the other conjugations (mone-ā-s, regā-s, audi-ā-s) is of uncertain origin.

Note 2.—In a few irregular verbs a Present Subjunctive in -im, -īs, etc. occurs: as, sim, sīs, simus, velim, velīs, etc. This is an old optative, ī being a form of the Indo-European optative mood-sign yē- (cf. siēm, siēs, siēt, § 170. b. n.). The vowel has been shortened in the first and third persons singular and the third person plural.

f. In the Imperfect Subjunctive the suffix -rem, -rēs, etc. is added to the present stem: as, amē-rem, amē-rēs, monē-rem, tegē-rem, audi-rem.

Note.—The stem element -rē- is of uncertain origin and is not found outside of Italic. The r is doubtless the aorist sign s (cf. ēs-sē-m, ēs-sē-s) changed to r between two vowels (§ 15. 4). The ē is probably the subjunctive mood-sign (see e).

1 The conjugation of a verb consists of separate formations from a root, gradually grouped together, systematized, and supplemented by new formations made on old lines to supply deficiencies. Some of the forms were inherited from the parent speech; others were developed in the course of the history of the Italic dialects or of the Latin language itself.
169. The tenses of the Perfect System in the active voice are made from the Perfect Stem as follows:

\(\text{a.}\) In the Perfect Indicative the endings -i, -istī, etc. are added directly to the perfect stem: as, amāv-istī, tēx-istis.

\(\text{b.}\) In the Pluperfect Indicative the suffix -eram, -erās, etc. is added to the perfect stem: as, amāv-eram, monu-erās, tēx-erat.

\(\text{Note.}\) — This seems to represent an older ṭ-is-ām etc. formed on the analogy of the Future Perfect in -ērō (older ṭ-is-ō: see \(\text{c.}\) below) and influenced by eram (imperfect of sum) in comparison with erō (future of sum).

\(\text{c.}\) In the Future Perfect the suffix -erō, -eris, etc. is added to the perfect stem: as, amāv-erō, monu-eris, tēx-erit.

\(\text{Note.}\) — This formation was originally a subjunctive of the s-aorist, ending probably in ṭ-is-ō. The -is- is doubtless the same as that seen in the second person singular of the perfect indicative (vidīs-tii), in the perfect infinitive (vidīs-se), and in the pluperfect subjunctive (vidīs-sem), s being the aorist sign and i probably an old stem vowel.

\(\text{d.}\) In the Perfect Subjunctive the suffix -erim, -eris, etc. is added to the perfect stem: as, amāv-erim, monu-eris, tēx-erit.

\(\text{Note.}\) — This formation was originally an optative of the s-aorist (er- for older -is-, as in the future perfect, see \(\text{c.}\) above). The i after r is the optative mood-sign i shortened (see § 168. a. n. 2). Forms in -is, -it, -imās, -itis, are sometimes found. The shortening in -is, -imās, -itis, is due to confusion with the future perfect.

\(\text{c.}\) In the Pluperfect Subjunctive the suffix -essem, -essēs, etc. is added to the perfect stem: as, amāv-essem, monu-essēs, tēx-esset.

\(\text{Note.}\) — Apparently this tense was formed on the analogy of the pluperfect indicative in ṭ-is-ām (later -eram, see \(\text{b.}\)), and influenced by essēm (earlier ṭessēm) in its relation to eram (earlier ṭēsām).

The Verb Sum

170. The verb sum, be, is both irregular and defective, having no gerund or supine, and no participle but the future.

Its conjugation is given at the outset, on account of its importance for the inflection of other verbs.

\(\text{1 The signs of mood and tense are often said to be inserted between the root (or verb-stem) and the personal ending: No such insertion is possible in a language developed like the Latin. All true verb-forms are the result, as shown above, of composition; that is, of adding to the root or the stem either personal endings or fully developed auxiliaries (themselves containing the personal terminations), or of imitation of such processes. Thus vidēbāmus is made by adding to vidē-, originally a significant word or a form conceived as such, a full verbal form ṭāmus, not by inserting -bā- between vidē- and -mus (§ 168. b).}\)
PrincipaL Parts: Present Indicative sum, Present Infinitive esse, Perfect Indicative fui, Future Participle futūrus.

| Present Stem es- | Perfect Stem fu- | Supine Stem fut-
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Indicative</strong></td>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td><strong>Subjunctive</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sing. 1. sum, I am</td>
<td>sim</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ēs, thou art (you are)</td>
<td>sīs</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. est, he (she, it) is</td>
<td>sit</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. sumus, we are</td>
<td>sīmus</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. estis, you are</td>
<td>sītis</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. sunt, they are</td>
<td>sint</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imperfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sing. 1. eram, I was</td>
<td>essem</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. erās, you were</td>
<td>essēs</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. erat, he (she, it) was</td>
<td>esset</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. erāmus, we were</td>
<td>essēmus</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. erātis, you were</td>
<td>essētis</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. erant, they were</td>
<td>essent</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sing. 1. erō, I shall be</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. eris, you will be</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. erit, he will be</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. erimus, we shall be</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. eritis, you will be</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. erunt, they will be</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sing. 1. fuī, I was (have been)</td>
<td>fuerim</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. fuistī, you were</td>
<td>fueris</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. fuīt, he was</td>
<td>fuerit</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur. 1. fuimus, we were</td>
<td>fuerimus</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. fuistis, you were</td>
<td>fueritis</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. fuērunt, fuēre, they were</td>
<td>fuerint</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pluperfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sing. 1. fueram, I had been</td>
<td>fuissem</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. fuerās, you had been</td>
<td>fuissēs</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. fuerat, he had been</td>
<td>fuisset</td>
<td>Sing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 All translations of the Subjunctive are misleading, and hence none is given; see § 157. b.
THE VERB SUM

§ 170] 83

Plur. 1. fuerāmus, we had been  fuissēmus
2. fuerātīs, you had been  fuissētīs
3. fuerant, they had been  fuissent

Future Perfect

Sing. 1. fuerō, I shall have been  Plur. 1. fuerimus, we shall have been
2. fueris, you will have been  2. fueritis, you will have been
3. fuerit, he will have been  3. fuerint, they will have been

Imperative

Present  Sing. 2. ēs, be thou  Plur. 2. este, be ye
Future  2. estō, thou shalt be  2. estōte, ye shall be
3. estō, he shall be  3. suntō, they shall be

Infinitive

Present  esse, to be
Perfect  fuisse, to have been
Future  futūrus esse or fore, to be about to be

Participle

Future  futūrus, -a, -um, about to be

a. For essem, essēs, etc., forem, forēs, foret, forent, are often used; so fore for futūrus esse.

b. The Present Participle, which would regularly be †sōns,1 appears in the adjective in-sōns, innocent, and in a modified form in ab-sēns, prae-sēns. The simple form ēns is sometimes found in late or philosophical Latin as a participle or abstract noun, in the forms ēns, being; entia, things which are.

Note.—Old forms are:—Indicative: Future, escit, escunt (strictly an inchoative present, see § 263. 1).

Subjunctive: Present, siem, siēs, siet, sient; fuam, fuās, fuat, fuant; Perfect, ēvis-

The root of the verb sum is ēs, which in the imperfect is changed to er (see § 15. 4), and in many forms is shortened to s. Some of its modifications, as found in several languages more or less closely related to Latin, may be seen in the following table,—the Sanskrit syām corresponding to the Latin sim (siem):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sanskrit</th>
<th>Greek</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Lithuanian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>as-mi</td>
<td>syām (optative)</td>
<td>έμμεν2</td>
<td>sim (siem)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as-i</td>
<td>syās</td>
<td>έμῄ</td>
<td>es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as-ti</td>
<td>syāt</td>
<td>έμη</td>
<td>es-t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s-mas</td>
<td>syāma</td>
<td>έμεν</td>
<td>sumus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s-tha</td>
<td>syāta</td>
<td>έμε</td>
<td>c-stis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s-anti</td>
<td>syus</td>
<td>έμί</td>
<td>c-stit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Perfect and Supine stems, fu-, fut-, are kindred with the Greek ὑφε, and with the English be.

1 Compare Sankrit sant, Greek o disproportionate.
2 Old form.
The Four Conjugations

171. Verbs are classed in Four Regular Conjugations, distinguished by the stem-vowel which appears before -re in the Present Infinitive Active:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conjigation</th>
<th>Infinitive Ending</th>
<th>Stem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>-āre (amāre)</td>
<td>ā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>-ēre (monēre)</td>
<td>ē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>-ēre (regēre)</td>
<td>ē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>-ire (audīre)</td>
<td>ĕ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Principal Parts

172. The Principal Parts of a verb, showing the three stems which determine its conjugation throughout, are:

1. The Present Indicative (as, amō)
2. The Present Infinitive (as, amā-re)
3. The Perfect Indicative (as, amāv-i), showing the Perfect Stem.
4. The neuter of the Perfect Participle (as, amāt-um), or, if that form is not in use, the Future Active Participle (amāt-ūnus), showing the Supine Stem.

173. The regular forms of the Four Conjugations are seen in the following:

First Conjugation:
- Active, amō, amāre, amāvi, amātum. *love.*
- Passive, amor, amārī, amātus.
- Present Stem amā-, Perfect Stem amāv-, Supine Stem amāt-.

Second Conjugation:
- Active, déleō, délēre, délēvi, délētum. *blot out.*
- Passive, déleor, délērī, délētus.
- Present Stem délē-, Perfect Stem délēv-, Supine Stem délēt-.

In the Second conjugation, however, the characteristic ē- rarely appears in the perfect and perfect participle. The common type is, therefore:

- Active, monēō, monēre, monēvi, monētum. *warn.*
- Passive, monēor, monērī, monētus.
- Present Stem monē-, Perfect Stem monē-, Supine Stem monēt-.
Third Conjugation:

Active, tegō, tegère, téxi, tectum, cover.
Passive, tegor, tegi, tectus.
Present Stem teg-, Perfect Stem tēx-, Supine Stem tēct-.

Fourth Conjugation:

Active, audiō, audiēre, audīvi, audītum, hear.
Passive, audior, audīri, audītus.
Present Stem audī-, Perfect Stem audīv-, Supine Stem audit-.

α. In many verbs the principal parts take forms belonging to two or more different conjugations (cf. § 189):

1, 2, domō, domāre, domui, domitum, subducē.
2, 3, maneō, manēre, mānsi, mānsum, remain.
3, 4, petō, petēre, petīvi, petītum, seek.
4, 3, vincō, vincēre, vincī, vincētum, bind.

Such verbs are referred to the conjugation to which the Present stem conforms.

Present Stem

174. The parent (Indo-European) speech from which Latin comes had two main classes of verbs:

1. Thematic Verbs, in which a so-called thematic vowel (%o, in Latin %a) appeared between the root and the personal ending: as, legi-tis (for †leg-e-tes), leg-u-nunt (for †leg-o-nti).1

2. A thematic Verbs, in which the personal endings were added directly to the root: as, es-t, es-tis (root es), dā-mus (dō, root da), fer-t (ferū, root fer).

Of the thematic Verbs few survive in Latin, and these are counted as irregular, except such as have been forced into one of the four “regular” conjugations. Even the irregular verbs have admitted many forms of the thematic type.

Of the thematic Verbs a large number remain. These may be divided into two classes:

1. Verbs which preserve the thematic vowel e or o (in Latin i or u) before the personal endings. These make up the Third Conjugation. The present stem is formed in various ways (§ 176), but always ends in a short vowel %o (Latin %a). Examples are tegō (stem teg%o-), sternīmus (stem stern%o-) for †ster-no-mos, plectunt (stem plect%o-) for †plect-o-nti. So nōscō (stem gnōsc%o-) for gnō-sc-ō. Verbs like nōscō became the type for a large number of verbs in -scō, called inceptives (§ 263, 1).

2. Verbs which form the present stem by means of the suffix y%o-, which already contained the thematic vowel %o. — Verbs of this class in which any vowel (except u) came in contact with the suffix y%o- suffered contraction so as to present a long vowel ā-, ē-, i-, at the end of the stem. In this contraction the thematic %o disappeared. These became the types of the First, Second, and Fourth conjugations respectively. In imitation of these long vowel-stems numerous verbs were formed by the Romans themselves (after the mode of formation had been entirely forgotten) from noun- and

1 Cf. λέγω-τε, λέγω-ο-ντι; Doric λέγω-ντι.
2 Cf. ἐστι, ἐστί (see p. 83, note).
adjective-stems. This came to be the regular way of forming new verbs, just as in English the borrowed suffix -ize can be added to nouns and adjectives to make verbs: as, macadamize, modernize.

Thematic verbs of the second class in which a consonant or vowel came into contact with the suffix \( \gamma \) suffered various phonetic changes. Such verbs fall partly into the Third Conjugation, giving rise to an irregular form of it, and partly into the Fourth, and some have forms of both. Examples are: — (cōn)scipio (-scipēre) for *scipēkyō; venīō (venēre) for *gum-yō; cupidō, cupidēre, but cupivī; orīō, orītur, but orīnī. Note, however, pullō (pluēre) for *pull-yō; and hence, by analogy, acuō (aceūre) for *tacu-yō.

In all these cases many cross-analogies and errors as well as phonetic changes have been at work to produce irregularities. Hence has arisen the traditional system which is practically represented in §§ 175, 176.

175. The Present Stem may be found by dropping -re in the Present Infinitive: —

\[ \text{amā-re, stem amā-; monē-re, stem monē-; tegē-re, stem tegē-; audī-re, stem audī-} \]

176. The Present Stem is formed from the Root in all regular verbs in one of the following ways: —

\( a. \) In the First, Second, and Fourth conjugations, by adding a long vowel (ā-, ē-, ī-) to the root, whose vowel is sometimes changed: as, vocā-re (voc), monē-re (men, cf. meminī), sopī-re (sop).

\[ \text{Note. — Verb-stems of these conjugations are almost all really formed from noun-stems on the pattern of older formations (see § 174).} \]

\( b. \) In the Third Conjugation, by adding a short vowel \( \gamma \) to the root. In Latin this \( \gamma \) usually appears as \( i \), but e is preserved in some forms. Thus, tegi-s (root teg), ali-tis (al), regu-nt (reg); but tegē-ris (tegē-re), alē-ris.

1. The stem-vowel \( \epsilon \) may be preceded by \( n \), \( t \), or \( sc \): as, tem-ni-tis, tem-nu-nt, tem-ne-ris (tem); plec-ti-s (plec); crē-sci-tis (cre).

2. Verbs in -iō of the Third Conjugation (as, capīō, capēre) show in some forms an ō before the final vowel of the stem: as, cap-i-unt (cap), fug-i-unt (fug).

\( c. \) The root may be changed —

1. By the repetition of a part of it (reduplication): as, gi-gn-e-re (gen).
2. By the insertion of a nasal (m or n): as, find-e-re (find), tang-e-re (tag).

1 Most verbs of the First, Second, and Fourth Conjugations form the present stem by adding the suffix \( -\gamma \) to a noun-stem. The ā of the First Conjugation is the stem-ending of the noun (as, plantā-re, from plantā-, stem of planta). The ē of the Second and the i of the Fourth Conjugation are due to contraction of the short vowel of the noun-stem with the ending \( -\gamma \). Thus albēre is from albē-re, stem of albus; finīre is from finī-re, stem of finis. Some verbs of these classes, however, come from roots ending in a vowel.

2 This is the so-called "thematic vowel."

3 In these verbs the stem-ending added to the root is respectively \( -n\gamma, -t\gamma, sc\gamma \).
d. In some verbs the present stem is formed from a noun-stem in -u:- as, statu-ere (statu-s), aestu-āre (aestu-s); cf. acuō, acuere.1

Note 1.—A few isolated forms use the simple root as a present stem: as, fer-re, fer-t; es-se; vel-le, vul-t. These are counted as irregular.

Note 2.—In some verbs the final consonant of the root is doubled before the stem-vowel: as, pel-ī-tis (pelī), mitt-ī-tis (mittī).

e. Some verbs have roots ending in a vowel. In these the present stem is generally identical with the root: as, da-mus (da), fīē-mus (stem fīē-, root form unknown).2 But others, as rui-mus (ru), are formed with an additional vowel according to the analogy of the verbs described in d.

Note.—Some verbs of this class reduplicate the root: as, si-st-e-re (sta, cf. stāre).

Perfect Stem

177. The Perfect Stem is formed as follows:—

a. The suffix v (u) is added to the verb-stem: as, vocā-v-i, audī-v-i; or to the root: as, son-u-i (sonā-re, root son), mon-u-i (monē-re, mon treated as a root).3

Note.—In a few verbs the vowel of the root is transposed and lengthened: as, strā-v-i (sternē, stern), sprē-v-i (spermē, sparn).

b. The suffix s is added to the root: as, carp-s-i (carpē), tēx-i (for tēg-s-i, teg).4

Note.—The modifications of the present stem sometimes appear in the perfect: as, finx-i (fīx, present stem fīgō-, sānx-i (sac, present stem sanci-).

c. The root is reduplicated by prefixing the first consonant—generally with ē, sometimes with the root-vowel: as, ce-cid-i (cadō, cad), to-tōnd-i (tondo, tond).

Note.—In fā-i (for fē-fā-i, findō), scid-i (for sc-i-scid-i, scindō), the reduplication has been lost, leaving merely the root.

d. The root vowel is lengthened, sometimes with vowel change: as, lēg-i (lēgō), ēm-i (ēmō), vīd-i (vidē-ō), fīg-i (figiō), ēg-i (āgō).

e. Sometimes the perfect stem has the same formation that appears in the present tense: as, vert-i (vertō), solv-i (solvō).

f. Sometimes the perfect is formed from a lost or imaginary stem: as, petī-v-i (as if from āpetī-ō, āpetī-re, āpetē).

1 These are either old formations in -yō- in which the y has disappeared after the u (as, statuā for āstatu-yō) or later imitations of such forms.

2 In some of the verbs of this class the present stem was originally identical with the root; in others the ending -yō- was added, but has been absorbed by contraction.

3 The v-perfect is a form of uncertain origin peculiar to the Latin.

4 The s-perfect is in origin an aorist. Thus, dīx-i (for tēdīcs-i) corresponds to the Greek aorist ἔδεικσ-α (for ἔδεικσ-α).
Supine Stem

178. The Supine Stem may be found by dropping -um from the Supine. It is formed by adding t (or, by a phonetic change, s)—

a. To the present stem: as, amā-tum, délē-tum, audit-tum.

b. To the root, with or without i: as, cap-tum (capīō, cap), moni-tum (moneō, mone used as root), cās-um (for cad-tum, cad), lēct-um (leg).

Note 1.—By phonetic change dt and tt become s (défensum, versum for défend-tum, vert-tum); bt becomes pt (scrip-tum for scrib-tum); gt becomes ct (rēc-tum for frect-tum).1

Note 2.—The modifications of the present stem sometimes appear in the supine: as, tīc-tum (tīgō, tīg), tēn-s-um for ētend-tum (ten-dō, ten).

Note 3.—The supine is sometimes from a root or imaginary verb-stem: as, petī-tum (as if from petiō, peti-re, peti).

Note 4.—A few verbs form the supine stem in s after the analogy of verbs in d and t: as, fāl-s-um (fallō), pul-s-um (pellō).

Forms of Conjugation

179. The forms of the several conjugations from which, by adding the verb-endings in § 160, all the moods and tenses can be made are as follows:

a. The First Conjugation includes all verbs which add ā- to the root to form the present stem: 2 as, amā-re; with a few whose root ends in a (†for, fā-rī; flō, flā-re; nō, nā-re; stō, stā-re).

1. The stem-vowel ā- is lost before -ō: as, amō = †amā-(y)ō; and in the present subjunctive it is changed to ē: as, amē-s, amē-mus.

2. The perfect stem regularly adds v, the supine stem t, to the present stem: as, amā-vī, amā-tum. For exceptions, see § 209. a.

b. The Second Conjugation includes all verbs which add ē- to the root to form the present stem: as, monē-re; with a few whose root ends in ē; as, fēlē-ō, fēlē-re; ne-ō, ne-re; re-or, rē-rī (cf. § 176. c).

1. In the present subjunctive ā is added to the verb-stem: as, moneā-s, moneā-mus (cf. § 168. c).

2. A few verbs form the perfect stem by adding v (u), and the supine stem by adding t, to the present stem: as, délē-vī, délē-tum. But most form the perfect stem by adding v (u) to the root, and the supine stem by adding t to a weaker form of the present stem, ending in i: as, mon-ū-i, moni-tum. For lists, see § 210.

---

1 For these modifications of the supine stem, see § 15. 5, 6, 10.
2 The present stem is thus the verb-stem. For exceptions, see § 209. a.
**c.** The Third Conjugation includes all verbs (not irregular, see § 197) which add ē- to the root to form the present stem: as, tegē-re, capē-re; with a few whose root ends in e: as, se-rē-re for †se-se-re (reduplicated from se, cf. sātum).

1. The stem-vowel ē is regularly lost before -ō, and becomes u¹ before -nt and ā before the other endings of the indicative and imperative: as, teg-ō, tegi-ā, tegu-nt; in the imperfect indicative it becomes ē: as, tegā-bam, tegē-bās, etc.; in the future, ē: as, tegē-s (except in the first person singular, tega-m, tega-r); in the present subjunctive, ā: as, tegā-s.

Verbs in -iō lose the i before a consonant and also before ā, ē, and ē (except in the future, the participle, the gerund, and the gerundive). Thus, — capi-at, capi-unt, capi-ēbat, capi-ēs, capi-et, capi-ent; but, cap-it (not †capi-it), cap-eret.

2. All varieties of perfect and supine stems are found in this conjugation. See lists, § 211. The perfect is not formed from the present stem, but from the root.

**d.** The Fourth Conjugation includes all verbs which add i- to the root to form the present stem: as, audi-re.² In these the perfect and supine stems regularly add v, t, to the verb-stem: as, audi-v-i, audi-t-um.³ Endings like those of the third conjugation are added in the third person plural of the present (indicative and imperative), in the imperfect and future indicative, and in the present subjunctive: as, audi-unt, audi-ēbat, audi-ētis, audi-at, the i being regularly short before a vowel.

**e.** The Present Imperative Active (second person singular) is the same as the present stem: as, amā, monē, tegē, audi. But verbs in -iō of the third conjugation omit i: as, capē (not †capē).

**f.** The tenses of completed action in the Active voice are all regularly formed by adding the tense-endings (given in § 166) to the perfect stem: as, amāv-i, amāv-eram, amāv-erō, amāv-erim, amāv-issem, amāv-isse.

**g.** The tenses of completed action in the Passive voice are formed by adding to the perfect participle the corresponding tenses of continued action of the verb esse: as, perfect amātus sum; pluperfect amātus eram, etc.

¹ The gerundive varies between -endus and -undus.
² A few are formed from noun-stems, as fini-re (from fini-s), and a few roots perhaps end in i; but these are not distinguishable in form.
³ For exceptions, see § 212. b.
Synopsis of the Verb

180. The following synopsis shows the forms of the verb arranged according to the three stems (§ 164). Amō, a regular verb of the first conjugation, is taken as a type.

**Principal Parts:** 
- Active: amō, amāre, amāvi, amātum.
- Passive: amor, amāri, amātus sum.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present stem, amā-</th>
<th>Perfect stem, amāv-</th>
<th>Supine stem, amāt-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>ACTIVE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>amō</td>
<td>amo-r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf.</td>
<td>amā-bam</td>
<td>amā-bar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>amā-bō</td>
<td>amā-bor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>ame-m</td>
<td>ame-r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf.</td>
<td>amā-rem</td>
<td>amē-rem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IMPERATIVE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>amā</td>
<td>amā-re</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>amā-tō</td>
<td>amā-tor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>INFINITIVE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>amā-re</td>
<td>amā-rī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PARTICIPLE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>amā-ns</td>
<td>Gerundive amā-ndus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GERUND</strong></td>
<td>amā-ndī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfect stem, amāv-</th>
<th>Supine stem, amāt-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>amāv-ī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperf.</td>
<td>amāv-eram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. Perf.</td>
<td>amāv-erō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>amāv-erim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperf.</td>
<td>amāv-issem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>INFINITIVE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>amāv-isce</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Supine stem, amāt-**

| **INFinitive**      |                     |
| Perf.               | amāt-ūrus esse      | amāt-us esse      |
| Fut.                | amāt-ūrus esse      | amāt-um ēri       |
| **PARTICIPLE**      |                     |
| Perf.               | amāt-us             |                   |

**Supine**
amāt-um

amāt-ū
Peculiarities of Conjugation

181. In tenses formed upon the Perfect Stem, v between two
vowels is often lost and contraction takes place.

a. Perfects in -āvī, -ēvī, -ōvī, often contract the two vowels into ā, ē, ō,
respectively: as, amāsse for amāvisse; amārim for amāverim; amāssem for
amāvissem; cōnsuērat for cōnsuēverat; fēstis for fēstis; nōsse for nōvisse.
So in perfects in -vī, where the v is a part of the present stem: as, commōverat
for commōverat.

Note.—The first person of the perfect indicative (as, amāvī) is never contracted,
the third very rarely.

b. Perfects in -īvī regularly omit v, but rarely contract the vowels ex-
ccept before st and ss, and very rarely in the third person perfect:

audieram for audīveram; audisse for audīvisse; audisti for audīvisti; abiit for
abīvit; abiērunt for abiērunt.

Note 1.—The forms sīris, sīrit, sīritis, sīrint, for sīveris etc. (from sīverō or sīverim),
are archaic.

Note 2.—In many forms from the perfect stem is, īs, īs, are lost in like manner,
when s would be repeated if they were retained: as, dīxit for dīxisti (x = cs); trāxe
for trāxisse; ēvāsti for ēvāstiti; vīxet for vīxisset; ērēpsēmus for ērēpsissēmus; dēcēsse
for dēcessisse. These forms belong to archaic and colloquial usage.

182. Four verbs,—dīcō, dūcō, faciō, ferō,—with their compounds,
drop the vowel-termination of the Imperative, making dīc, dūc, fāc,
fer; but compounds in -ficiō retain it, as, cōnfiče.

Note.—The imperative forms dīce, dūce, face (never fere), occur in early Latin.

a. For the imperative of scīō, the future form scītō is always used in the
singular, and scītōte usually in the plural.

183. The following ancient forms are found chiefly in poetry:

1. In the fourth conjugation, -ībām, -ībō, for -īēbām, -īam (future). These
forms are regular in ēō, go (§ 203).

2. In the present subjunctive, -im: as in duīm, perduīm, retained in
religious formulas and often in comedy. This form is regular in sum and
volō and their compounds (§§ 170, 199).

3. In the perfect subjunctive and future perfect indicative, -sim, -sō: as,
faxim, faxō, iussō, recēpsō (= fēcerim etc.); ausim (= ausus sim).

4. In the passive infinitive, -ier: as, vocārier for vocāri; agier for agī.

5. A form in -āssō, -āssere is found used as a future perfect: as, amāssis,
from amō; iēvāssō, from levō; impetrāssere, from impetrō; iūdicāssit, from
iūdicō (cf. § 263, 2. b. n.).
FIRST CONJUGATION (ā-STEMS)—ACTIVE VOICE

184. The First Conjugation includes all verbs which add ā- to the root to form the present stem, with a few whose root ends in a-. The verb amō, love, is conjugated as follows: —

Principal Parts: Present Indicative amō, Present Infinitive amāre, Perfect Indicative amāvi, Supine amātum.

Present stem amā-  Perfect stem amāv-  Supine stem amāt-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amō,1 I love, am loving, do love</td>
<td>amem 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amās, thou lovest (you love)</td>
<td>amēs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amat, he (she, it) loves</td>
<td>amet</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāmus, we love</td>
<td>amēmus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātis, you love</td>
<td>amētis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amant, they love</td>
<td>ament</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Imperfect

| amābam, I loved, was loving, did love | amārem                      |
| amābās, you loved                      | amārēs                      |
| amābat, he loved                       | amāret                      |
| amābāmus, we loved                     | amārēmus                    |
| amābātis, you loved                    | amārētis                    |
| amābant, they loved                    | amārent                     |

Future

| amābō, I shall love                          |
| amābis, you will love                        |
| amābit, he will love                         |
| amābimus, we shall love                      |
| amābitis, you will love                      |
| amābunt, they will love                      |

1 The stem-vowel ā- is lost before ē-, and in the Present Subjunctive becomes ē-.
2 The translation of the Subjunctive varies widely according to the construction. Hence no translation of this mood is given in the paradigms.
FIRST CONJUGATION

**INDICATIVE**

amāvī, I loved, have loved
amāvīstī, you loved
amāvītī, he loved
amāvīmus, we loved
amāvīstīs, you loved
amāvērunt (-ēre), they loved

**PERFECT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāverim</td>
<td>amāverim</td>
<td>amāverim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāveris</td>
<td>amāveris</td>
<td>amāverit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverit</td>
<td>amāveritas</td>
<td>amāverint</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PLUPERFECT**

amāveram, I had loved
amāveras, you had loved
amāverat, he had loved
amāveramus, we had loved
amāveratis, you had loved
amāverant, they had loved

**FUTURE PERFECT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāverō, I shall have loved</td>
<td>amāverimus, we shall have loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāveris, you will have loved</td>
<td>amāveritis, you will have loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverit, he will have loved</td>
<td>amāverint, they will have loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERATIVE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amā, love thou</td>
<td>amātō, thou shalt love</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāte, love ye</td>
<td>amātōte, ye shall love</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>amantō, they shall love</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INFINITIVE**

Present amāre, to love
Perfect amāvisse or amāsse, to have loved
Future amāturūs esse, to be about to love

**PARTICIPLES**

Present amāns, -antis, loving
Future amātūrus, -a, -um, about to love

**GERUND**

Genitive amandī, of loving
Dative amandō, for loving

**ACCUSATIVE** amandum, loving
**ABLATIVE** amandō, by loving

**SUPINE**

amātum, to love amātū, to love
FIRST CONJUGATION (ā-STEMS)—PASSIVE VOICE

Principal Parts: Present Indicative amor, Present Infinitive amāri, Perfect Indicative amātus sum.¹

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present stem amā-</th>
<th>Supine stem amāt-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amor,² I am loved, being loved</td>
<td>amer³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāris (-re), you are loved</td>
<td>amēris (-re)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātur, he is loved</td>
<td>amētur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāmur, we are loved</td>
<td>amēmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāminī, you are loved</td>
<td>amēminī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amantur, they are loved</td>
<td>amentur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IMPERFECT</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābar, I was loved, being loved</td>
<td>amārer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābāris (-re), you were loved</td>
<td>amārēris (-re)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābātur, he was loved</td>
<td>amārētur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābāmur, we were loved</td>
<td>amārēmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābāmini, you were loved</td>
<td>amārēmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābantur, they were loved</td>
<td>amārentur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FUTURE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābor, I shall be loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāberis (-re), you will be loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābitur, he will be loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābimur, we shall be loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābimini, you will be loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābuntur, they will be loved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ Fui, fuisti, etc., are sometimes used instead of sum, es, etc.; so also fueram instead of eram and fuerō instead of erō. Similarly in the Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive fuerim, fueris, etc. are sometimes used instead of sim, sis, etc., and fuisset instead of esset.

² The stem-vowel ā- is lost before -or, and in the Present Subjunctive becomes ē-.

³ The translation of the Subjunctive varies widely according to the construction. Hence no translation of this mood is given in the paradigms.
### INDICATIVE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amātus sum, I was loved</td>
<td>amātus sim^{1}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus es, you were loved</td>
<td>amātus sis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus est, he was loved</td>
<td>amātus sit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātī sumus, we were loved</td>
<td>amātī simus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātī estis, you were loved</td>
<td>amātī sītis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātī sunt, they were loved</td>
<td>amātī sint</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### PLUPERFECT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amātus eram, I had been loved</td>
<td>amātus essem^{1}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus erās, you had been loved</td>
<td>amātus essēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus erat, he had been loved</td>
<td>amātus esset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātī erāmus, we had been loved</td>
<td>amātī essēmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātī erātis, you had been loved</td>
<td>amātī essētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātī erant, they had been loved</td>
<td>amātī essent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### FUTURE PERFECT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amātus erō, I shall have been loved</td>
<td>amātī erimus, we shall have, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus eris, you will have, etc.</td>
<td>amātī eritis, you will have, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātus erit, he will have, etc.</td>
<td>amātī erunt, they will have, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### IMPERATIVE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāre, be thou loved</td>
<td>amātor, thou shalt be loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>amātor, he shall be loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### INFINITIVE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāri, to be loved</td>
<td>amātus esse, to have been loved</td>
<td>amātum īri, to be about to be loved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### PARTICIPLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Future (Gerundive)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amātus, -a, -um, loved (beloved, or having been loved)</td>
<td>amandus, -a, -um, to-be-loved (lovely)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

^{1} See page 94, footnote 1.
## SECOND CONJUGATION (ē-STEMS)

185. The Second Conjugation includes all verbs which add ē- to the root to form the present stem, with a few whose root ends in ē-.

**Principal Parts:** *Active*, monēō, monēre, monui, monitum;  
*Passive*, moneor, monērī, monitus sum.

**Present Stem** monē-  
**Perfect Stem** monū-  
**Supine Stem** monit-

### Active Voice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēō, I warn</td>
<td>monēam (^1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēs, you warn</td>
<td>monēās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēt, he warns</td>
<td>monēat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēmus</td>
<td>monēāmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monētis</td>
<td>monēātis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēnt</td>
<td>monēant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Imperfect</th>
<th>Impefect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monēbam</td>
<td>monērem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbās</td>
<td>monērēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbat</td>
<td>monēret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbāmus</td>
<td>monērēmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbātis</td>
<td>monērētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbant</td>
<td>monērent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Future</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monēbō</td>
<td>monēbor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbis</td>
<td>monēberis (-re)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbit</td>
<td>monēbitur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbimus</td>
<td>monēbimur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbitis</td>
<td>monēbimini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbunt</td>
<td>monēbuntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

\(^1\) See § 179. b. 1.
### Active Voice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
<th>SUBJUNCTIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monui</td>
<td>monuerim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuistī</td>
<td>monueris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuit</td>
<td>monuerit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuimus</td>
<td>monuerimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuistis</td>
<td>monueritis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuērunt</td>
<td>monuerint</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Pluperfect</strong></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monueram</td>
<td>monuissem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerās</td>
<td>monuissēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerat</td>
<td>monuisset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerāmus</td>
<td>monuissēmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerātis</td>
<td>monuissētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerant</td>
<td>monuisset</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Future Perfect</strong></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monuerō</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monueris</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerimus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monueritis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerint</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Passive Voice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
<th>SUBJUNCTIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus sum</td>
<td>monitus sim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus es</td>
<td>monitus sīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus est</td>
<td>monitus sit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moniti sumus</td>
<td>moniti sīmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moniti estis</td>
<td>moniti sītis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moniti sunt</td>
<td>moniti sint</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Pluperfect</strong></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monitus eram</td>
<td>monitus essem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus erās</td>
<td>monitus essēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus erat</td>
<td>monitus esset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moniti erāmus</td>
<td>moniti essēmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moniti erātis</td>
<td>moniti essētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moniti erant</td>
<td>moniti essent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Imperative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>Sing.</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td>monē</td>
<td>monēte</td>
<td>monēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future</strong></td>
<td>monētō</td>
<td>monētōte</td>
<td>monētor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>monētō</td>
<td>monēntō</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Infinitive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Monēre</th>
<th>Monēri</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>Monuisse</td>
<td>Monitus esse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>Moniturus esse</td>
<td>Monitum īri</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Participles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Monēns, -entis</th>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Monitus, -a, -um</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>Moniturus, -a, -um</td>
<td>Gerundive</td>
<td>Monendus, -a,-um</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Gerund

Monendi, -dō, -dum, -dō

### Supine

Monitum, monītā

---

1 See footnote 1 on page 94.
THIRD CONJUGATION (ē-STEMS)

186. The Third Conjugation includes all verbs (not irregular, see § 197) which add ē to the root to form the present stem, with a few whose root ends in ē.

Principal Parts: Active, tegē, tegēre, tēxī, tēctum; Passive, tegor, tegi, tectus sum.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present stem tege-</th>
<th>Perfect stem tēx-</th>
<th>Supine stem tēct-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>ACTIVE VOICE</strong></td>
<td><strong>PASSIVE VOICE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegō, I cover</td>
<td>tegam²</td>
<td>tegor²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegis, you cover</td>
<td>tegās</td>
<td>tegēris (-re)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegit, he covers</td>
<td>tegat</td>
<td>tegitur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegimus</td>
<td>tegāmus</td>
<td>tegimur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegitis</td>
<td>tegātis</td>
<td>tegiminī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tegunt</td>
<td>tegant</td>
<td>teguntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Imperfect**       | **Imperfect**     |
| tegēbam             | tegēbar           |
| tegēbās             | tegēbaris (-re)   |
| tegēbat             | tegēbātus         |
| tegēbāmus           | tegēbāmur         |
| tegēbātis           | tegēbāminī        |
| tegēbant            | tegēbantur        |

| **Future**          | **Future**        |
| tegam²              | tegar²            |
| tegēs               | tegēris (-re)     |
| teget               | tegētur           |
| tegēmus             | tegēmur           |
| tegētis             | tegēminī          |
| tegent              | tegentur          |

¹ The perfect stem in this conjugation is always formed from the root; tēx- is for teg-s- (see § 18. 9). ² See § 179. c. 1.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Active Voice</th>
<th>Passive Voice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PERFECT</strong></td>
<td><strong>PERFECT</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxī</td>
<td>těcťus sum 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxistī</td>
<td>těcťus sim 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxit</td>
<td>těcťus es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těximus</td>
<td>těcťus sīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxistis</td>
<td>těcťus est</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxerunt (-re)</td>
<td>těcťus sīt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxerim</td>
<td>těcť sumus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxeris</td>
<td>těcťi sīmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxerit</td>
<td>těcťi estis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxerimus</td>
<td>těcťi sītis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxerītis</td>
<td>těcťi sunt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxerrunt (-re)</td>
<td>těcťi sint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PLUPERFECT</strong></td>
<td><strong>PLUPERFECT</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxeram</td>
<td>těcťus eram 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxeras</td>
<td>těcťus esse 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxerat</td>
<td>těcťus essēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxerāmus</td>
<td>těcťus esset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxerātis</td>
<td>těcťi erāmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxerant</td>
<td>těcťi essēmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxissent</td>
<td>těcťi erātis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FUTURE PERFECT</strong></td>
<td><strong>FUTURE PERFECT</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxerō</td>
<td>těcťi erimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxeris</td>
<td>těcťi eritis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxerit</td>
<td>těcťi erunt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxerimus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxerītis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>těxerrunt (-re)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IMPERATIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>IMPERATIVE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR</strong></td>
<td><strong>SINGULAR</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PLURAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>PLURAL</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>tegere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>tegimini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>tegitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>teguntor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>INFINITIVE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>tegēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>tegi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>těcťus esse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>těcťum īrī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>těcťurus esse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PARTICIPLES</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>těgēns, -entis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>těcťurus, -a, -um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GERUND</strong></td>
<td>tęgendī, -dō, -dum, -dō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SUPINE</strong></td>
<td>tęctum, tęctū</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GERUNDIVE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perfect</strong></td>
<td>tęctus, -a, -um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SUPINE</strong></td>
<td>tęcťus (tęcĭodus)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 See footnote 1 on page 94.
FOURTH CONJUGATION (ī-STEMS)

187. The Fourth Conjugation includes all verbs which add ĭ- to the root to form the present stem.

Principal Parts: Active, audiō, audiēre, audiēvī, audiētum; Passive, audiōr, audiēri, audiētus sum.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present stem audi-</th>
<th>Perfect stem audi-</th>
<th>Supine stem audi-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>ACTIVE VOICE</strong></td>
<td><strong>PASSIVE VOICE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiō, I hear</td>
<td>audiōr</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīas, you hear</td>
<td>audirīs (-re)</td>
<td>audīāris (-re)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audit, he hears</td>
<td>audiūtus</td>
<td>audīātur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīmūs</td>
<td>audīmur</td>
<td>audīāmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audītīs</td>
<td>audīmini</td>
<td>audīāmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiūnt</td>
<td>audiūntur</td>
<td>audīantur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Imperfect**      | **Imperfect**      |                  |
|                   |                   |                  |
| audiēbam¹         | audiēbar¹         | audīērer         |
| audiēbās          | audiēbāris (-re)  | audīērīs (-re)   |
| audiēbat          | audiēbātur        | audīērētur       |
| audiēbāmus        | audiēbāmur        | audīērēmur       |
| audiēbātīs        | audiēbāmini       | audīērēmini      |
| audiēbānt         | audiēbāntur       | audīērentur      |

| **Future**         | **Future**         |                  |
|                   |                   |                  |
| audiām¹           | audiār¹            |                  |
| audiēs            | audiēris (-re)     |                  |
| audīet            | audīētur           |                  |
| audiēmus          | audīēmur           |                  |
| audiētīs          | audīēmini         |                  |
| audient           | audīentur          |                  |

¹ See § 179. d.
Active Voice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perfect</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīvi</td>
<td>audīverim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīvisī</td>
<td>audīveris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīvit</td>
<td>audīverit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīvimus</td>
<td>audīverimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīvisīs</td>
<td>audīveritis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīverunt (-re)</td>
<td>audīverint</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pluperfect

| audīveram | audīvissem |
| audīverās | audīvissēs |
| audīverat | audīvisset |
| audīverāmus | audīvissēmus |
| audīverātis | audīvissētis |
| audīverant | audīvissent |

Future Perfect

| audīverō | audīter | audīveris | audīterit |
| audīverimus | audīterimns |
| audīveritis | audītuntot |
| audīverint | audītunntot |

Imperative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audī</td>
<td>audiōtō</td>
<td>audiēte</td>
<td>audiūntō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīre</td>
<td>audītor</td>
<td>audīminiī</td>
<td>audiuntōr</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Infinitive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audīre</td>
<td>audīvisse</td>
<td>audītūrus esse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīrī</td>
<td>audītus esse</td>
<td>audītum ērī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audiēns, -ientis</td>
<td>audiērur, -a, -um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audītūrus, -um</td>
<td>auditum, audītū</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gerund

| audiendi | -dō, -dum, -dō |
| audiindus | audītum |

Supine

1 See footnote 1, p. 94.
VERBS IN -iō OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION

188. Verbs of the Third Conjugation in -iō have certain forms of the present stem like the fourth conjugation. They lose the i of the stem before a consonant and also before i, i, and ē (except in the future, the participle, the gerund, and the gerundive).\(^1\) Verbs of this class are conjugated as follows:—

Principal Parts: Active, capiō, capēre, cēpī, captum; Passive, capiōr, capī, captus sum.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Stem</th>
<th>capie-(cape-)</th>
<th>Perfect Stem</th>
<th>cēp-</th>
<th>Supine Stem</th>
<th>capt-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>ACTIVE VOICE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>PASSIVE VOICE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></td>
<td><strong>PRESENT</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiō, I take</td>
<td>capiam</td>
<td>capiōr</td>
<td>capiar</td>
<td>capieris (-re)</td>
<td>capiāris (-re)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capis, you take</td>
<td>capiās</td>
<td>capitur</td>
<td>capiātum</td>
<td>capimur</td>
<td>capiāmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capit, he takes</td>
<td>capiātus</td>
<td>capimini</td>
<td>capiāminī</td>
<td>capiantur</td>
<td>capiantur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capimus</td>
<td>capiāmus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capitis</td>
<td>capiātis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiunt</td>
<td>capiant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IMPERFECT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>IMPERFECT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiēbam</td>
<td>capere</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>capierem</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>capier</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>capieris (-re)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiēt</td>
<td></td>
<td>capiētus, etc.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FUTURE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>FUTURE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiam</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>capiar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiēs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>capiēris (-re)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiet, etc.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>capiētus, etc.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PERFECT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>PERFECT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cēpī</td>
<td>cēperim</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PLUPERFECT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>PLUPERFECT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cēperam</td>
<td>cēpissem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>captus sum</td>
<td>captus sim</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FUTURE PERFECT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>FUTURE PERFECT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cēperō</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>captus erō</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{1}\) This is a practical working rule. The actual explanation of the forms of such verbs is not fully understood.
DEPONENT VERBS

§§ 188-190] DEPONENT VERBS

Active Voice

Present

\begin{array}{ll}
\text{Singular} & \text{Plural} \\
\text{cape} & \text{capite} \\
\end{array}

Future

\begin{array}{ll}
\text{capitō} & \text{capitōte} \\
\text{capitō} & \text{capiantio} \\
\end{array}

Passive Voice

Imperative

Present

\begin{array}{ll}
\text{Singular} & \text{Plural} \\
\text{capere} & \text{capimini} \\
\end{array}

Future

\begin{array}{ll}
\text{capitor} & \text{capiuntor} \\
\end{array}

INFINITIVE

\begin{array}{ll}
\text{Present} & \text{capere} \\
\text{Perfect} & \text{cēpisse} \\
\text{Future} & \text{captūrus esse} \\
\end{array}

\begin{array}{ll}
\text{capī} & \text{captus esse} \\
\text{captum īnī} & \\
\end{array}

PARTICIPLES

\begin{array}{ll}
\text{Present} & \text{capiēns, -ientis} \\
\text{Future} & \text{captūrus, -a, -um} \\
\end{array}

\begin{array}{ll}
\text{Perfect} & \text{captus, -a, -um} \\
\text{Gerundive} & \text{capiendus, -a, -um} \\
\end{array}

GERUND

capiendī, -dō, -dum, -dō

SUPINE

captum, -tū

Parallel Forms

189. Many verbs have more than one set of forms, of which only one is generally found in classic use: —

lavō, lavāre or lavēre, wash (see § 211. c).
scateō, scatēre or scatēre, gush forth.
lūdīficō, -āre, or lūdīficor, -āri, mock.
fulgō, fulgēre, or fulgeō, fulgēre, shine.

DEPONENT VERBS

190. Deponent Verbs have the forms of the Passive Voice, with an active or reflexive signification: —

\begin{table}[h]
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline
\text{Principal Parts} & \\
\hline
\text{First conjugation: miror, mirāri, mirātus, admire.} & \\
\text{Second conjugation: vereor, verēri, veritus, fear.} & \\
\text{Third conjugation: sequor, sequi, secūtus, follow.} & \\
\text{Fourth conjugation: partier, partīri, partitus, share.} & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{table}
# Conjugation of the Verb

**Indicative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres. miror</th>
<th>vereor</th>
<th>sequor</th>
<th>partior</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mirāris (-re)</td>
<td>verēris (-re)</td>
<td>sequeris (-re)</td>
<td>partīris (-re)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mirātur</td>
<td>verētur</td>
<td>sequitur</td>
<td>partītur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mirāmur</td>
<td>verēmur</td>
<td>sequimur</td>
<td>partīmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mirāmini</td>
<td>verēmini</td>
<td>sequiminī</td>
<td>partīmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mirantur</td>
<td>verentur</td>
<td>sequuntur</td>
<td>partīuntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfective**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fut. mirābar</th>
<th>verēbar</th>
<th>sequēbar</th>
<th>partīēbar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perf. mirātus sum</td>
<td>veritus sum</td>
<td>secūtus sum</td>
<td>partitus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfective mirātus eram</td>
<td>veritus eram</td>
<td>secūtus eram</td>
<td>partitus eram</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Subjunctive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres. mirēr</th>
<th>verear</th>
<th>sequare</th>
<th>partiar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Imperfective mirērēr</td>
<td>verērer</td>
<td>sequerer</td>
<td>partīrer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. mirātus sim</td>
<td>veritus sim</td>
<td>secūtus sim</td>
<td>partitus sim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfective mirātus essem</td>
<td>veritus essem</td>
<td>secūtus essem</td>
<td>partitus essem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres. mirāre</th>
<th>verēre</th>
<th>sequere</th>
<th>partīre</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fut. mirātor</td>
<td>verētor</td>
<td>sequitor</td>
<td>partītor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Infinitive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres. mirārī</th>
<th>verērī</th>
<th>sequī</th>
<th>partīrī</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perf. mirātus esse</td>
<td>veritus esse</td>
<td>secūtus esse</td>
<td>partitus esse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. mirātūr us esse</td>
<td>veritūrus esse</td>
<td>secūtūrus esse</td>
<td>partitūr us esse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Participants**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres. mirāns</th>
<th>verēns</th>
<th>sequēns</th>
<th>partīēns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fut. mirātūr us</td>
<td>veritūrus</td>
<td>secūtūrus</td>
<td>partitūrus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. mirātus</td>
<td>veritus</td>
<td>secūtus</td>
<td>partitus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ger. mirandus</td>
<td>verendus</td>
<td>sequendus</td>
<td>partiendus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Gerund**

mirandī, -ō, etc. verendī, etc. sequendi, etc. partiendī, etc.

**Supine**

mirātum, -ē, -ē, partitum, -ē
a. Deponents have the participles of both voices:

sequēns, following
secūtus, having followed.

secūtūrus, about to follow.
sequendus, to be followed.

b. The perfect participle generally has an active sense, but in verbs otherwise deponent it is often passive: as, mercātus, bought; ađeptus, gained (or having gained).

c. The future infinitive is always in the active form: thus, sequor has secūtūrus (-a, -um) esse (not secūtum irī).

d. The gerundive, being passive in meaning, is found only in transitive verbs, or intransitive verbs used impersonally:

hoc cōnfidendum est, this must be acknowledged.
moriendum est omnibus, all must die.

e. Most deponents are intransitive or reflexive in meaning, corresponding to what in Greek is called the Middle Voice (§ 156. a. n.).

f. Some deponents are occasionally used in a passive sense: as, crīminor. I accuse, or I am accused.

g. About twenty verbs have an active meaning in both active and passive forms: as, mereō or mereor, I deserve.

191. More than half of all deponents are of the First Conjugation, and all of these are regular. The following deponents are irregular:

adserior, -iī, adsēnsus, assent.
apīscor, (-ip-), -iī, aptus (-eptus), get.
dēfēscor, -iī, -fessus, faint.
expērīscor, -iī, -perfēctus, rose.
experiō, -iī, expertus, try.
faētor, -ēriī, fassus, confess.
fruor, -iī, frūctus (fruitus), enjoy.
frungor, -iī, fūntus, fulfill.
gradiō (-grediō), -iī, gressus, step.
irāscor, -iī, irātus, be angry.
lāboi, -iī, lápsus, fall.
lōquor, -iī, locūtus, speak.
mētiō, -iī, mēnsus, measure.
-miniscor, -iī, -mentus, think.
mōriō, -iī, mortuus (morītūrus), die.
nanciscor, -iī, nactus (nāntūs), find.
nāscor, -iī, nātus, be born.
nitōr, -iī, nīsus (nīxus), strive.

obliviscor, -iī, oblītus, forget.
opptrōscor, -iī, oppertūs, await.
ōrdior, -iī, órusus, begin.
orī, -iī, ortus (orītūrus), rise (3d conjugation in most forms).
paciscor, -iī, pactus, bargain.
patior (-petior), -iī, passus (-pessus), suffer.
-
plector, -iī, -plexus, clasp.
profiscor, -iī, profectus, set out.
quor, -iī, questus, complain.
reō, rēriī, ratus, think.
revertor, -iī, reversus, return.
rūngor, -iī, rīctus, snarl.
exsequor, -iī, secūtus, follow.
tueō, -ēriī, tūtus (tūtūs), defend.
ulcisō, -iī, ultus, avenge.
ātor, -iī, úsus, use, employ.

NOTE.—The deponent comperior, -iī, compertus, is rarely found for comperīō, -ire. Revertor, until the time of Augustus, had regularly the active forms in the perfect system, revertī, revertēram, etc.
a. The following deponents have no supine stem:

dévertor, -tē, turn aside (to lodge).
défitor, -ēri, deny.
fätiscor, -i, gape.
líquor, -i, melt (intrans.).
medeōr, -ēri, heal.
remíscor, -i, call to mind.
vescor, -i, feed upon.

Note.—Deponents are really passive (or middle) verbs whose active voice has disappeared. There is hardly one that does not show signs of having been used in the active at some period of the language.

Semi-Deponents

192. A few verbs having no perfect stem are regular in the present, but appear in the tenses of completed action as deponents. These are called Semi-deponents. They are:

audēō, audēre, ausus, dare.
"audēō" for sī audēs, an thou wilt, is frequent in the dramatists and rare elsewhere.

gaudēō, gaudēre, gāvisus, rejoyce.

fidēō, fidēre, fisus, trust.
soleō, solēre, solitus, be wont.

a. From audēō there is an old perfect subjunctive ausim. The form sŏdēs (for sī audēs), an thou wilt, is frequent in the dramatists and rare elsewhere.

b. The active forms vāpulō, vāpulāre, be flugged, and vēnēō, vēnire, be sold (contracted from vēnum īre, go to sale), have a passive meaning, and are sometimes called neutral passives. To these may be added fieri, to be made (§ 204), and exsulāre, to be banished (live in exile); cf. accēdere, to be added.

Note.—The following verbs are sometimes found as semi-deponents: iūrō, iūrāre, iūrātus, suear; nūbō, nūbere, nūpta, marry; placēō, placēre, placitus, please.

THE PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATIONS

193. A Periphrastic form, as the name indicates, is a “roundabout way of speaking.” In the widest sense, all verb-phrases consisting of participles and sum are Periphrastic Forms. The Present Participle is, however, rarely so used, and the Perfect Participle with sum is included in the regular conjugation (amātus sum, eram, etc.). Hence the term Periphrastic Conjugation is usually restricted to verb-phrases consisting of the Future Active Participle or the Gerundive with sum.

Note.—The Future Passive Infinitive, as amātum īri, formed from the infinitive passive of ēō, go, used impersonally with the supine in -um, may also be classed as a periphrastic form (§ 203. a).

194. There are two Periphrastic Conjugations, known respectively as the First (or Active) and the Second (or Passive).

a. The First Periphrastic Conjugation combines the Future Active Participle with the forms of sum, and denotes a future or intended action.

b. The Second Periphrastic Conjugation combines the Gerundive with the forms of sum, and denotes obligation, necessity, or propriety.

c. The periphrastic forms are inflected regularly throughout the Indicative and Subjunctive and in the Present and Perfect Infinitive.
195. The First Periphrastic Conjugation:

**INDICATIVE**

Present: amātūrus sum, *I am about to love*
Imperfect: amātūrus eram, *I was about to love*
Future: amātūrus erō, *I shall be about to love*
Perfect: amātūrus fuī, *I have been, was, about to love*
Plusperfect: amātūrus fueram, *I had been about to love*
Future Perfect: amātūrus fuerō, *I shall have been about to love*

**SUBJUNCTIVE**

Present: amātūrus sim
Imperfect: amātūrus essem
Perfect: amātūrus fuerim
Plusperfect: amātūrus fuissem

**INFINITIVE**

Present: amātūrus esse, *to be about to love*
Perfect: amātūrus fuisse, *to have been about to love*

So in the other conjugations:

Second: monētūrus sum, *I am about to advise.*
Third: tēctūrus sum, *I am about to cover.*
Fourth: audiētūrus sum, *I am about to hear.*
Third (in -iō): captūrus sum, *I am about to take.*

196. The Second Periphrastic Conjugation:

**INDICATIVE**

Present: amandūs sum, *I am to be, must be, loved*
Imperfect: amandūs eram, *I was to be, had to be, loved*
Future: amandūs erō, *I shall have to be loved*
Perfect: amandūs fuī, *I was to be, had to be, loved*
Plusperfect: amandūs fueram, *I had had to be loved*
Future Perfect: amandūs fuerō, *I shall have had to be loved*

**SUBJUNCTIVE**

Present: amandūs sim
Imperfect: amandūs essem
Perfect: amandūs fuerim
Plusperfect: amandūs fuissem

**INFINITIVE**

Present: amandūs esse, *to have to be loved*
Perfect: amandūs fuisse, *to have had to be loved*
So in the other conjugations:—

Second: monendus sum, I am to be, must be, advised.
Third: tendendus sum, I am to be, must be, covered.
Fourth: addiendus sum, I am to be, must be, heard.
Third (in -iō): capiendus sum, I am to be, must be, taken.

IRREGULAR VERBS

197. Several verbs add some of the personal endings of the present system directly to the root,¹ or combine two verbs in their inflection. These are called Irregular Verbs. They are sum, volō, ferō, edō, dō, eō, quēō, fīō, and their compounds.

Sum has already been inflected in § 170.

198. Sum is compounded without any change of inflection with the prepositions ab, ad, dē, in, inter, ob, prae, prō (earlier form prōd), sub, super.

a. In the compound prōsum (help), prō retains its original ē before e:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principal Parts: prōsum, prōd esse, prōfui, prōfutūrus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>INDICATIVE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. Perf.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SUBJUNCTIVE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. Perf.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IMPERATIVE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>INFINITIVE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PARTICIPLE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ These are athematic verbs, see § 174. 2.
b. *Sum* is also compounded with the adjective *potis*, or *pote*, able, making the verb *possum* (be able, can). *Possum* is inflected as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
<th>SUBJUNCTIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>possum</td>
<td>possim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>potes</td>
<td>possis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>potest</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imperfect</strong></td>
<td>poteram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>poteriun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>potuir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>potueramun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut. Perf.</strong></td>
<td>potueror</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Indicative</strong></td>
<td><strong>Participle</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres. posse</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PERF. potuisse</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Note.</strong> — <em>Nolō</em> and <em>malō</em> are compounds of <em>volō</em>. <em>Nolō</em> is for <em>ne-volō</em>, and <em>malō</em> for <em>ma-volō</em> from <em>māze-volō</em>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

199. *Volō, nolō, malō*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Principal Parts</strong>:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imp.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The forms *potis sum, pote sum*, etc. occur in early writers. Other early forms are *potesse; possiam, -ēs, -ēt; poterint, potisit* (for *possit*); *potestur* and *possitur* (used with a passive infinitive, cf. § 205. a).

1 The forms *potis sum, pote sum*, etc. occur in early writers. Other early forms are *potesse; possiam, -ēs, -ēt; poterint, potisit* (for *possit*); *potestur* and *possitur* (used with a passive infinitive, cf. § 205. a).

2 *Potui* is from an obsolete *ōpotēre*.

3 *Vis* is from a different root.
## Subjunctive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>velim, -ēs, -īt, velīmus, -ētis, -int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>velle, -ēs, -ēt, vellēmus, -ētis, -ent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>voluerim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>voluissem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Imperative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Infinitive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>velle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>voluisse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Participles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>volēns, -entis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Note
The forms sī for si vis, sūltis for si vultis, and the forms nēvis (nē-vis), nēvōlt, māvolō, māvolant, māvelim, māvellem, etc., occur in early writers.

## 200.

**Ferō, bear, carry, endure**

**Principal Parts:** ferō, ferre, tuli, lātum

### Principal Parts:

- **Present Stem fer-**
- **Perfect Stem tul-**
- **Supine Stem lāt-**

### Active Indicative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>ferō</td>
<td>ferīmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fers</td>
<td>fertis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fert</td>
<td>fercum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>ferēbam</td>
<td>fertur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>feram</td>
<td>ferar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>tuli</td>
<td>lātus sūm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>tuleram</td>
<td>lātus erām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Perfect</td>
<td>tulerō</td>
<td>lātus erō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Passive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>feror</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ferris (re)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fertur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ferēbar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ferar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lātus sūm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 *Velle* is for *fēl-sēm*, and *velle* for *fēl-se* (cf. *es-se*), the *s* being assimilated to the preceding *ī*.

2 *Ferō* has two independent stems: fer- in the present system, and tul- (for tol-) in the perfect from tōl, root of tōlō. The perfect tētulī occurs in Plautus. In the participle the root is weakened to tī-, lātum standing for tīlātum (cf. *tālētā*).

3 *Ferre, ferrem, are for tēr-se, tēr-sēm* (cf. *es-se, es-sem*), *s* being assimilated to preceding *r*; or ferre, ferrem, may be for tērēse, tērēsēm (see § 15. 4).
### Active

#### S U B J U N C T I V E

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>feram</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>ferrem(^1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>tulerim</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>tulisse</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### I M P E R A T I V E

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>fer</th>
<th>ferre</th>
<th>ferre</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>fertō</td>
<td>fertōte</td>
<td>fertor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fertō</td>
<td></td>
<td>fertor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### I N F I N I T I V E

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>ferre</th>
<th>ferri</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>tulisse</td>
<td>lātus esse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>lātūrus esse</td>
<td></td>
<td>lātum íri</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### P A R T I C I P L E S

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>ferēns, -entis</th>
<th></th>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>lātus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>lātūrus</td>
<td></td>
<td>Gerundive</td>
<td>ferendus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### G E R U N D

ferendi, -dō, -dum, -dō

#### S U P I N E

lātum, lātū

**a.** The compounds of ferō, conjugated like the simple verb, are the following:

- ad-
- au-, ab-
- con-
- dis-, di-
- ex-, ē-
- in-
- ob-
- re-
- sub-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adferō</th>
<th>adferre</th>
<th>attulī</th>
<th>allātum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>auferō</td>
<td>auferre</td>
<td>abstulī</td>
<td>ablātum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conferō</td>
<td>conferre</td>
<td>contulī</td>
<td>collātum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>differō</td>
<td>differre</td>
<td>distulī</td>
<td>dilātum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>efferō</td>
<td>efferre</td>
<td>extulī</td>
<td>ēlātum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inferō</td>
<td>inferre</td>
<td>intulī</td>
<td>illātum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>offerō</td>
<td>offerre</td>
<td>obtulī</td>
<td>oblātum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>referō</td>
<td>referre</td>
<td>retulī</td>
<td>relātum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sufferō</td>
<td>sufferre</td>
<td>sustulī(^2)</td>
<td>sublātum(^2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** — In these compounds the phonetic changes in the preposition are especially to be noted. ab- and au- are two distinct prepositions with the same meaning.

\(^1\) See note 3, page 110.

\(^2\) Sustulī and sublātum also supply the perfect and participle of the verb tollō.
201. Edō, edere, ēdī, ēsūm, eat, is regular of the third conjugation, but has also an archaic present subjunctive and some alternative forms directly from the root (ED), without the thematic vowel. These are in full-faced type.

**ACTIVE**

**INDICATIVE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>edō, edis (ēsī), edīt (ēst)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>edimus, editis (ēstis), edunt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>edēbam, edēbās, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SUBJUNCTIVE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>edam (ēdim), edās (ēdis), edat (edit)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>edāmus (ēdimus), edātis (ēditis), edant (ēdint)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>ederem, ederēs (ēssēs), ederet (ēsset)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ederēmus (ēssēmus), ederētis (ēssētis), ederent (ēssent)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERATIVE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>Singular</strong></th>
<th><strong>Plural</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>ede (ēs)</td>
<td>edete (ēste)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>editō (ēstō)</td>
<td>editōte (ēstōte)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>editō (ēstō)</td>
<td>eduntō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INFINITITIVE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>edere (ēsse)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>ēdisse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>ēsūrus esse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PARTICIPELES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>edēns, -entis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>ēsūrus 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**GERUND**

edendī, -dō, -dum, -dō

**SUPINE**

ēsūm, ēsū 2

a. In the Passive the following irregular forms occur in the third person singular: Present Indicative ēstur, Imperfect Subjunctive ēssētur.

1 In ēs etc. the ē is long. In the corresponding forms of ēsūm, ē is short. The difference in quantity between ēdō and ēs etc. depends upon inherited vowel variation (§ 17. a).
2 Old forms are ēssūrus and supine ēssum.
202. The irregular verb *dō*, *give*, is conjugated as follows:—

**Principal Parts:** *dō*, *dāre*, *dedī*, *datum*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Stem</th>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Passive</th>
<th>Supine Stem</th>
<th>Indicative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>dō</td>
<td>damus</td>
<td>————</td>
<td>damur</td>
<td>————</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dās</td>
<td>datis</td>
<td>daris (-re)</td>
<td>damīnī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dat</td>
<td>dant</td>
<td>datur</td>
<td>dantur</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>dābam</td>
<td>————</td>
<td>————</td>
<td>————</td>
<td>————</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>dābō</td>
<td>————</td>
<td>dabor</td>
<td>————</td>
<td>————</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>dedī</td>
<td>————</td>
<td>datasum</td>
<td>————</td>
<td>————</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>dederam</td>
<td>————</td>
<td>datasum</td>
<td>————</td>
<td>————</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Perfect</td>
<td>dederō</td>
<td>————</td>
<td>datasum</td>
<td>————</td>
<td>————</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Subjunctive**

| Present      | demi, dēs, det, etc. | ————, deris (-re), dētur, etc. |
| Imperfect    | darem               | darer                           |
| Perfect      | dederīn             | datasim                         |
| Pluperfect   | dedissem            | datasusim                       |

**Imperative**

| Present      | dā      | date       | dare   | damīnī |
| Future       | datō    | datōte     | dator  | ————  |
|              | datō    | dantō      | dator  | dantor |

**Infinitive**

| Present      | dare    | ————      | ————   | ————  |
| Perfect      | dedisse | ————      | datasus | ————  |
| Future       | datūrus esse | ———— | datūm  | ————  |

**Participles**

| Present      | dāns, dantis | Perfect | datus | ———— |
| Future       | datūrus      | Gerundive | dandus | ———— |

**Gerund**

dandī, -dō, -dum, -dō

**Supine**

datum, datū

For compounds of *dō*, see § 209. a. n.
203. **Eō, go.** Principal Parts: eō, ēre, ī (īvī), ītum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>SUBJUNCTIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eō, ēs, īt</td>
<td>eam, eās, cat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>īmus, ītis, eunt</td>
<td>eāmus, eātis, eant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>Irem, īrēs, īret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ībāmus, ībātis, ībant</td>
<td>īrēmus, īrētis, īret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>Future Perfect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ībō, ībis, ībit</td>
<td>īerō (īverō)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ībimus, ībitis, ībunt</td>
<td>ierim (īverim)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>Issem (īvīssēm)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>īram (īveram)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERATIVE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ī</td>
<td>ītō, ītōte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>īte</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INFINITIVE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>īre</td>
<td>īsse (īvīssē)</td>
<td>ītūrus esse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PARTICIPLES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
<th>GERUNDIVE</th>
<th>SUPINE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>īchus, gen. ēuntis</td>
<td>ītūrus</td>
<td>eundum ītum, ītō</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**a.** The compounds adeō, approach, ineo, enter, and some others, are transitive. They are inflected as follows in the passive: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>IMPF.</th>
<th>IMPF.</th>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>IMPF.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>adecr</td>
<td>adibar</td>
<td>adecr</td>
<td>adier</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adiris</td>
<td>adibor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aditur</td>
<td>aditus sum</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adimur</td>
<td>aditus eram</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adimini</td>
<td>F. P. aditus crō</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adeuntur</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INFIN.** adīrī aditus esse **PART.** aditus adeundus

Thus inflected, the forms of eō are used impersonally in the third person singular of the passive: as, ītum est (§ 208, d). The infinitive īrī is used with the supine in -um to make the future infinitive passive (§ 193, x.). The verb vēneō, be sold (i.e. vēnum eō, go to sale), has also several forms in the passive.

**b.** In the perfect system of eō the forms with v are very rare in the simple verb and unusual in the compounds.

**c.** ī before s is regularly contracted to ī: as, īsse.

1 The root of eō is m (weak form i). This i becomes i except before a, o, and u, where it becomes e (cf. eō, eam, eunt). The strong form of the root, i, is shortened before a vowel or final -t; the weak form, i, appears in ītum and ītūrus.
The compound ambīō is inflected regularly like a verb of the fourth conjugation. But it has also ambībat in the imperfect indicative.

c. Prō with eō retains its original d: as, prōdcō, prōdis, prōdit.

204. Faciō, facere, fēcī, factum, make, is regular. But it has imperative fac in the active, and, besides the regular forms, the future perfect faxō, perfect subjunctive faxīm. The passive of faciō is — fīō, fīēri, factus sum, be made or become.

The present system of fīō is regular of the fourth conjugation, but the subjunctive imperfect is fierem, and the infinitive fieri.

Note. — The forms in brackets are not used in good prose.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fīō, fīs, fīt</td>
<td>[fīmus], [fītis], fīunt</td>
<td>fīam, fīās, fīat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td>fiēbam, fiēbas, etc.</td>
<td>fīāmus, fīātis, fīant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>fīam, fīēs, etc.</td>
<td>fierem, fierēs, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>factus sum</td>
<td>factus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>factus eram</td>
<td>factus essem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Perfect</td>
<td>factus erō</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative**

[fī, fīte, fītō, ——] ¹

**Infinitive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fieri</td>
<td>factus esse</td>
<td>factum īm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Participles**

Perfect factus Gerundive faciendus

a. Most compounds of faciō with prepositions weaken ā to ē in the present stem and to ē in the supine stem, and are inflected regularly like verbs in -īō: —

cōnfcīō, cōnficēre, cōnfēcī, cōnfectum, finish.

cōnficior, cōnfici, cōnfectus.

b. Other compounds retain a, and have -fīō in the passive: as, benefaciō, -facere, -fēcī, -factum; passive benefīō, -fierī, -factus, benefit. These retain the accent of the simple verb: as, bene-fā'cis (§ 12. a, Exc.).

c. A few isolated forms of fīō occur in other compounds: —

cōnit, it happens, cōnfinēt; cōnfiat; cōnfiēret, cōnfiērent; cōnfiēri.

dēfīt, it lacks, dēfiēt; dēfiat; dēfiet; dēfieri.

effīeri, to be effected.

infīō, begin (to speak), īmat.

interfiat, let him perish; interfīeri, to perish.

superfiat, it remains over; superfiat, superferi.

¹ The imperative is rarely found, and then only in early writers.
# DEFECTIVE VERBS

205. Some verbs have lost the Present System, and use only tenses of the Perfect, in which they are inflected regularly. These are —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>coepī, 1 I began</th>
<th>ōdī, 2 I hate</th>
<th>memīnī, 3 I remember</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**INDICATIVE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>coepī</th>
<th>ōdī</th>
<th>memīnī</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>coeperam</td>
<td>ōderam</td>
<td>memineram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Perfect</td>
<td>coeperō</td>
<td>ōderō</td>
<td>meminerō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SUBJUNCTIVE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>coeperīm</th>
<th>ōderīm</th>
<th>meminerīm</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>coepīssēm</td>
<td>ōdissem</td>
<td>meminissem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERATIVE**

| mementō                  | mementōte                             |

**INFINITIVE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>coepīssē</th>
<th>ōdisse</th>
<th>memīnīssē</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>coepītūrus esse</td>
<td>ōsūrus esse</td>
<td>meminisse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PARTICIPELS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>coepītūrus, begun</th>
<th>ōsūrus, hating or hated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>coepītūrus</td>
<td>ōsūrus, likely to hate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### a.
The passive of coepī is often used with the passive infinitive: as, coepus sum vocāri, *I began to be called*, but coepī vocāre, *I began to call*. For the present system incipiō is used.

**Note.**—Early and rare forms are coepīō, coepiam, coeperet, coepere.

### b.
The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect of ōdī and memīnī have the meanings of a Present, Imperfect, and Future respectively: —

ōdī, *I hate*; ōderam, *I hated (was hating)*; ōderō, *I shall hate.*

**Note 1.**—A present participle meminēns is early and late.

**Note 2.**—Nōvī and consuēvī (usually referred to nōscō and consuēscō) are often used in the sense of *I know* (have learned) and *I am accustomed* (have become accustomed) as preteritive verbs. Many other verbs are occasionally used in the same way (see 476, n.).

1 Root *ap* (as in apīscor) with co(n-).
2 Root *od*, as in òdium.
3 Root *men*, as in méns.
206. Many verbs are found only in the Present System. Such are maereō, -ere, be sorrowful (cf. maestus, sad); feriō, -ire, strike.

In many the simple verb is incomplete, but the missing parts occur in its compounds: as, vādō, vādere, in-vāsi, in-vāsum.

Some verbs occur very commonly, but only in a few forms:—

a. āīō, I say:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indic.</td>
<td>Pres. āīō, āis,1 ait; ——, ——, āiunt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Imper. āiēbam,2 āiēbās, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subj.</td>
<td>Pres. ——, āiās, āiat; ——, ——, āiunt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imper.</td>
<td>aī (rare)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part.</td>
<td>āīēns</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The vowels a and i are pronounced separately (a-is, a-it) except sometimes in old or colloquial Latin. Before a vowel, one i stands for two (see § 6. c):—thus āīō was pronounced āī-yō and was sometimes written aīō.

b. Inquam, I say, except in poetry, is used only in direct quotations (cf. the English quoth).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indic.</td>
<td>Pres. inquam, inquis, inquit; inquimus, inquitis (late), inquiant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Imper. ——, ——, inquiēbat; ——, ——, ——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>——, inquiēs, inquiet; ——, ——, ——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>inquiū, inquisti, ——; ——, ——, ——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imper.</td>
<td>Pres. inque</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>inquitō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The only common forms are inquam, inquis, inquit, inquiant, and the future inquiēs, inquiet.

c. The deponent fārī, to speak, has the following forms:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indic.</td>
<td>Pres. ——, ——, fātur; ——, ——, fantur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>fābor, ——, fābitur; ——, ——, ——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>——, ——, fātus est; ——, ——, fātī sunt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup.</td>
<td>fātus eram, ——, fātus erat; ——, ——, ——</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imper.</td>
<td>Pres. fāre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infin.</td>
<td>Pres. fārī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part.</td>
<td>Pres. fāns, fantis, etc. (in singular)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>fātus (having spoken)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>fandus (to be spoken of)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gerund, gen.</td>
<td>fandi, abl. fandō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supine</td>
<td>fātī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Several forms compounded with the prepositions ex, prae, prō, inter, occur: as, praefātur, praefāmur, affārī, prōfātus, interfātur, etc. The compound infāns is regularly used as a noun (child). Infandus, nefandus, are used as adjectives, unspeakable, abominable.

1 The second singular ais with the interrogative -ne is often written ain.
2 An old imperfect aībam, aībās, etc. (dissyllabic) is sometimes found.
**d. Queō, I can, nequeō, I cannot,** are conjugated like eō. They are rarely used except in the present. Queō is regularly accompanied by a negative. The forms given below occur, those in full-faced type in classic prose. The Imperative, Gerund, and Supine are wanting.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
<th>SUBJUNCTIVE</th>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
<th>SUBJUNCTIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>queō</td>
<td>queam</td>
<td>nequeō (nōn queō)</td>
<td>nequeam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quīs</td>
<td>queās</td>
<td>nequis</td>
<td>nequeās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quit</td>
<td>queat</td>
<td>nequit</td>
<td>nequeat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quīmus</td>
<td>quēāmus</td>
<td>nequīmus</td>
<td>nequeāmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quītis</td>
<td></td>
<td>nequitis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>queunt</td>
<td>queant</td>
<td>nequeunt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPERFECT</th>
<th></th>
<th>IMPERFECT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>quībam</td>
<td></td>
<td>nequirem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quībat</td>
<td>quiret</td>
<td>nequi̊bat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>quirent</td>
<td>nequirant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FUTURE</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>quībō</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quībunt</td>
<td>nequībunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERFECT</th>
<th></th>
<th>PERFECT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>quīvi</td>
<td></td>
<td>nequīvi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>nequīsti</td>
<td>nequiverim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quīvit</td>
<td>quiverit (-icrīt)</td>
<td>nequīvit (nequīt)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quīverunt (-ērē)</td>
<td>quierint</td>
<td>nequīverunt (-quīrē)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLUPERFECT</th>
<th></th>
<th>PLUPERFECT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>quīvissent</td>
<td></td>
<td>nequiverat (-ierat)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>nequiverant (-ierant)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INFINITIVE</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>quīre</td>
<td>nequire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quīsse</td>
<td>nequivisse (-quisse)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PARTICIPLES</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>quiēns</td>
<td>nequiēns, nequeuntēs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** — A few passive forms are used with passive infinitives: as, quiēitur, queuntur, quiētus sum, queātūr, queantur, nequiētur, nequītum; but none of these occurs in classic prose.
e. Quaesō, I ask, beg (original form of quaerō), has —
   INDIC. Pres. quaesō, quaesūmus

Note.—Other forms of quaesō are found occasionally in early Latin. For the perfect system (quaesīvī, etc.), see quaerō (§ 211. d).

f. Övāre, to triumph, has the following: —
   INDIC. Pres. ovās, ovat
   SUBJ. Pres. ovet
   IMPF. ovāret
   PART. ovāns, ovātūrus, ovātus
   GER. ovandi

A few verbs are found chiefly in the Imperative: —
   Pres. singular salvē, plural salvēte, Fut. salvētō, hail! (from salvus, safe and sound). An infinitive salvēre and the indicative forms salvē, salvētis, salvēbis, are rare.
   Pres. singular avē (or havē), plural avēte, Fut. avētō, hail or farewell. An infinitive avēre also occurs.
   Pres. singular cēdo, plural cēdite (ette), gōve, tell.
   Pres. singular apage, begone (properly a Greek word).

**IMPERSONAL VERBS**

207. Many verbs, from their meaning, appear only in the third person singular, the infinitive, and the gerund. These are called Impersonal Verbs, as having no personal subject.¹ The passive of many intransitive verbs is used in the same way.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conj. 1</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III</th>
<th>IV</th>
<th>Pass. Conj. 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>it is plain</td>
<td>it is allowed</td>
<td>it chances</td>
<td>it results</td>
<td>it is fought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constat</td>
<td>licet</td>
<td>accidit</td>
<td>ēvenit</td>
<td>pūgnātur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constabat</td>
<td>licēbat</td>
<td>accidēbat</td>
<td>ēveniēbat</td>
<td>pūgnābātur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constabit</td>
<td>licēbit</td>
<td>accidet</td>
<td>ēveniet</td>
<td>pūgnābitur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constītut</td>
<td>licuit. -itum est</td>
<td>accidit</td>
<td>ēveniit</td>
<td>pūgnātum: est</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constiterat</td>
<td>licuerat</td>
<td>acciderat</td>
<td>ēvenerat</td>
<td>pūgnātum: erat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constiterit</td>
<td>licuerit</td>
<td>acciderit</td>
<td>ēvenerit</td>
<td>pūgnātum: erit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constet</td>
<td>licet</td>
<td>accidat</td>
<td>ēveniat</td>
<td>pūgnātur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constaret</td>
<td>licēret</td>
<td>accideret</td>
<td>ēveniret</td>
<td>pūgnārētur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constiterit</td>
<td>licuerit</td>
<td>acciderit</td>
<td>ēvenirit</td>
<td>pūgnātum: sit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constississet</td>
<td>licississet</td>
<td>accidississet</td>
<td>ēvenississet</td>
<td>pūgnātum: esset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constēre</td>
<td>licēre</td>
<td>accidēre</td>
<td>ēvenirre</td>
<td>pūgnārī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constississe</td>
<td>licississe</td>
<td>accississe</td>
<td>ēvenisse</td>
<td>pūgnātum esse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-stātūrum esse</td>
<td>-tūrum esse</td>
<td>——</td>
<td>-tūrum esse</td>
<td>pūgnātum īri</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ With impersonal verbs the word it is used in English, having usually no representative in Latin, though id, hoc, illud, are often used nearly in the same way.
208. Impersonal Verbs may be classified as follows: —

_a._ Verbs expressing the operations of nature and the time of day: —

vesperāscit (inceptive, § 263. 1), it grows late. —
ningit, it snows.
liciscit hoc, it is getting light. —
fulgurat, it lightens.
grandinat, it hails. —
tonat, it thunders.
pluit, it rains. —
rūrat, the dew falls.

Note. — In these no subject is distinctly thought of. Sometimes, however, the verb is used personally with the name of a divinity as the subject: as, Juppiter tonat, Jupiter thunders. In poetry other subjects are occasionally used: as, fundae saxa plunt, the slings rain stones.

_b._ Verbs of feeling, where the person who is the proper subject becomes the object, as being himself affected by the feeling expressed in the verb (§ 354. b): —

misereit, it grieves. —
paenitet (poenitet), it repents.
piget, it disgusts. —
pudet, it shames.
taedet, it wearies. —
pudet mé, I pity (it distresses me); pudet mé, I am ashamed.

Note. — Such verbs often have also a passive form: as, miseror, I pity (am moved to pity); and occasionally other parts: as, paenitūrus (as from paeniō), paenitendus, pudendus, pertaesum est, pigitum est.

_c._ Verbs which have a phrase or clause as their subject (cf. §§ 454, 569. 2): —

accidit, contingit, ēvenit, obtingit, obvenit, fit, it happens.
libet, it pleases.
licet, it is permitted.
certum est, it is resolved.
cōnstat, it is clear.
placet, it seems good (pleases).
vidētur, it seems, seems good.
decet, it is becoming.
dēlectat, iuvat, it delights.
opertet, it is fitting, ought.
necessē est, it is needful.
praeestat, it is better.
interēst, réfert, it concerns.
vacat, there is leisure.
restat, superest, it remains.

Note. — Many of these verbs may be used personally; as, vacō, I have leisure. Libet and licet have also the passive forms libitum (licitum) est etc. The participles libēns and licēns are used as adjectives.

_d._ The passive of intransitive verbs is very often used impersonally (see synopsis in § 207): —

ventum est, they came (there was coming).
pūgnātur, there is fighting (it is fought).
ītur, some one goes (it is gone).
parcitur mihi, I am spared (it is spared to me, see § 372).

Note. — The impersonal use of the passive proceeds from its original reflexive (or middle) meaning, the action being regarded as accomplishing itself (compare the French cela se fait).
Classified Lists of Verbs

209. There are about 360 simple verbs of the First Conjugation, most of them formed directly on a noun- or adjective-stem:

armō, arm (arma, armis); caecō, to blind (caecus, blind); exsulē, be an exile (exsil, an exile) (§ 259).

Their conjugation is usually regular, like armō; though of many only a few forms are found in use.

a. The following verbs form their Perfect and Supine stems irregularly. Those marked * have also regular forms.

crepō, crepui (crepavi), crepit-, resound.
cubō, *cubi-, cubit-, lie down.
dō, dāre, dēdī, dāt-, give (4a).
domō, domui, domī-, subdue.
fricō, fricui, *frict-, rub.
iuvō (ad-iuvō), iūvī, iūt,-1 help.
micō, micui, —, glitter.
necō, *necui, necāt- (-nect-), kill.2

Notr. — Compounds of these verbs have the following forms: —
crepō: con-crepui, dis-crepui or -crepāvi; in-crepui or -crepāvi.
dō: circum-, inter-, pessum-, satis-, super-, vēnum-dō, -dedī, -dāt-, of the first conjugation. Other compounds belong to the root dōs, put, and are of the third conjugation: as, condō, condère, conduii, condītum.
micō: di-micāvi, -micāt-; e-micui, -micāt-.
plīcō: re-, sub- (sup.), multi-plīcō, -plīcāvi, -plīcāt-; ex-plīcō (unfold), -iū, -it- (explain), -iūvī, -iūt-, implicō, -iūvī (-iū), -iūtum (-iūtum).
stō: cōn-stō, -stītī, (-stātūrus); ad-, re-stō, -stītī, — —; ante- (ante-), inter-, super-
stō, -stītī, — —; circum-stō, -stītī (-stītī), — —; praestō, -stītī, -stīt- (-stāt-); di-stō, ex-stō, no perfect or supine (future participle ex-stātūrus).

Second Conjugation

210. There are nearly 120 simple verbs of the Second Conjugation, most of them denominative verbs of condition, having a corresponding noun and adjective from the same root, and an inceptive in -scō (§ 263. 1): —

caleō, be warm; calor, warmth; calidus, warm; calēscō, grow warm.
timeō, fear; timor, fear; timidus, timid; per-timēscō, to take fright.

1 Future Participle also in -stātūrus (either in the simple verb or in composition).
2 Necō has regularly necāvi, necātum, except in composition.
a. Most verbs of the second conjugation are inflected like moneō, but many lack the supine (as, arceō, ward off; careō, lack; egeō, need; timeō, fear), and a number have neither perfect nor supine (as, maereō, be sad).

b. The following keep ē in all the systems:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dēleō, destroy</td>
<td>dēlēre</td>
<td>dēlēvi</td>
<td>dēlētum</td>
<td>flētum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fleō, weep</td>
<td>flēre</td>
<td>flēvi</td>
<td>nēvī</td>
<td>[nētum]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neō, sew</td>
<td>nēre</td>
<td>viēre</td>
<td>[viēvī]</td>
<td>viētum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vīeō, plait</td>
<td>-piēre</td>
<td>-plēvi</td>
<td>-plētum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

com-pleō, fill up

1 And other compounds of -pleō.

c. The following show special irregularities:

algeō, alsī, be cold.
ārdeō, ārsī, ārsūrūs, burn.
audeō, ausus sum, dare.
augeō, auxi, auct-, increase.
caveō, càvī, caut-, care.
cēnseō, cēnsui, cēns-, value.
cieō, civi, cit-, excite.
doceō, docui, doct-, teach.
faveō, fāvi, faut-, favor.
ferveō, fervi (ferbui), ——, glow.
foveō, fōvi, fōt-, cherish.
fulgeō, fulsi, ——, shine.
gaudēo, gavisus sum, rejoice.
haereō, haesī, haes-, cling.
indulgeō, indulsi, indult-, indulge.
iubeō, iussī, iuss-, order.
liqueō, licui (liqui), ——, melt.
lūceō, lūxi, ——, shine.
lūgeō, lūxi, ——, mornu.
māneō, māsī, māns-, wait.
miscēo, -cui, mixt- (mist-), mix.
nordeo, normidi, mors-, bite.
moveō, mōvi, mōt-, move.
mulceō, mulsi, muls-, soothe.
mulgeō, mulsi, muls-, milk.
(cō) niveō, -nivi (-nixi), ——, wink.
(ab) oleō, -olēvi, -olit-, destroy.
pendeō, pependī, -pēns-, hang.
prandeō, pranči, prāns-, dinc.
rideō, rinsi, -ris-, laugh.
sedeō, sēdī, sess-, sit.
soleō, solitus sum, be wont.
sorbeō, sorbui (sorpsī), ——, suck.
spondeō, sponodi, spēns-, pledge.
strīdeō, strīdi, ——, whiz.
suādeō, suāsi, suās-, urge.
teneō (-tineō), tenui, -tent-, hold.
tergeō, tersi, ters-, wipe.
tondeō, -tontēi (-tondi), tōns-, shear.
torqueō, torsi, tort-, twist.
torreō, torri, tost-, roast.
turgeō, tursi, ——, swell.
urgeō, ursi, ——, urge.
videō, vidi, vis-, see.
voveō, vōvi, vōt-, vow.

Third Conjugation

211. The following lists include most simple verbs of the Third Conjugation, classed according to the formation of the Perfect Stem:

a. Forming the perfect stem in s (x) (§ 177. b and note):

angē, āuxī, ——, choke.
carpo, carpsi, carpt-, pluck.
cēdō, cessi, cess-, yield.
cingō, cinxī, cinct-, bind.
claudō, clausi, claus-, shut.
cōmō, cōmpsī, cōmpōt-, comb, deck.
coquō, coxi, coct-, cook.

- cutiō, -cussī, -cuss-, shake.
dēmō, dēmpsi, dēmpt-, take away.
dīcō, dīxi, dict-, say.
dīvidō, dīvisi, dīvis-, divide.
duō, duīxi, duct-, guide.
ēmungō, -mūnxi, -mūnct-, clean out.
figō, fixi, fix-, fix.
fingō [fito], fīxi, fict-, fiction.
flēctō, flēxi, flex-, bend.
-flīgō, -flīxi, -flīct-, ——, smile.
flūō, flūxi, flux-, flow.
frendō, ——, freōs (frees-), gnash.
frīgō, frīxi, frīct-, fry.
gērō, gessi, gest-, carry.
iungō, iūnxi, iūnt-, join.
laeō, laesi, laes-, hurt.
-liciō, -lexi, -lect-, entice (elicui, -heit-).
lūdō, lūxi, lūs-, play.
mergō, mersi, mers-, plunge.
mittō, misi, miss-, send.
nectō [NEC], nexi (nexui), nex-, wearc.
nūbō, nūpsi, nūpt-, marry.
pectō, pexi, pex-, comb.
pērgō, perrēxi, perrēct-, go on.
pingō [pig], pinxi, pict-, paint.
plāgō [plag], plānxi, plānt-, beat.
plauō, plausi, plaus-, applaud.
plectō, plexi, plex-, braid.
promō, presi, pres-, press.
prōmō, -mpsī, -mpet-, bring out.

quatiō, -cuasi, quass-, shake.
rādō, rāsi, rās-, scrape.
rēgō, rēxi, rēct-, rule.
rēpō, rēpsi, ——, creep.
rōdō, rōsi, rōs-, gnaw.
scalpō, scalpsi, scalpt-, scrape.
scribō, scripsi, script-, write.
sculpō, sculpsi, sculpt-, carve.
serpō, serpsi, ——, crawl.
spargō, sparsi, spars-, scatter.
-spicō, -spexi, -spect-, view.
-stingō, -stinxī, -stinct-, quench.
stringō, strinxī, strict-, bind.
struō, struxi, struct-, build.
sūgō, sūxi, sūct-, suck.
sūmō, sūmpsi, sūmpct-, take.
surgō, surrēxi, surrēct-, rise.
tegō, tēxi, tēct-, shelter.
tenmō, -tenpsi, -tempt-, despise.
tergō, tersi, ters-, wipe.
tingō, tinxi, tinct-, stain.
trahō, traxi, trāct-, drag.
trūdō, trāsi, trūs-, thrust.
ungō (ungō), ūnxi, ūnct-, anoint.
ūrō, ussi, ust-, burn.
vāsō, -vasi, -vas-, go.
vēhō, vēxi, vect-, draw.
vivō, vixi, vict-, live.

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b. Reduplicated in the perfect (§ 177. c):

cadō, cecūi, cās-, fall.
cædō, cecidi, caes-, cue.
canō, cecini, ——, sing.
curō, cucurri, curs-, run.
discō [dic], didici, ——, learn.
-dō [dīa], -dīi, -dīt- (as in au-dō, etc.,
with creō, vēndō), put.
fallō, fefelli, fals-, deceive.
pangō [pacc], pepīgī(-pēgī), pāct-, fasten,
fix, bargain.
parcō, peperci (parsi), (parsūrus), spare.

parīō, peperī, part- (parītūrus), bring
forth.
pelō, pepuli, puls-, drive.
pendō, pentēdī, pēns-, weigh.
poscō, pospōcī, ——, demand.
pungō [puc], pupūgī (-pūnxi), pūnt-, prick.
siste [sta], stīi, stat-, sit.
tangō [tac], tétičī, tāct-, touch.
tendō [ten], tētendi (-tendi), tent-, stretch.
tundō [tu], tutūdī, tūns- (-tūs-), beat.

C. Adding u (v) to the verb-root (§ 177. a):
alō, alii, alt- (alīt-), nourish.
creō, crēvi, -crēt-, decree.
culō, culti, cult-, dwell, till.

compēscō, compēscui, ——, restrain.
consulō, -lui, consul-, consult.
crēscō, crēvi, crēt-, increase.
-cumbō [-cub], -cubui, -cubit-, lie down.

depō, depusui, depst-, knead.

fremō, fremui, —-, roar.

gemō, gemui, —-, groan.

ignō [gen], ignui, ignit-, beget.

metō, messui, —-, reap.

molō, molui, molit-, grind.

occō, occui, occit-, hide.

(ad)olēscō, —evi, —ult, grow up.

pāscō, pāvi, pāst-, feed.

percolō, -culī, -culis, -upset.

pōnō [pos], posui, posit-, put.

quīescō, quiēvi, quiēt-, rest.

rapiō, rapiui, rapt-, seize.

sciscō, scivī, scit-, decreed.

serō, sēvi, sat-, sow.

serō, serui, sert-, entwine.

sinō, sivī, sit-, permit.

spernō, spēvi, spēt-, scorn.

sternō, strāvi, strāt-, strew.

stertō, -stertūi, —-, snore.

strepō, strepui, —-, sound.

suīscō, suēvi, suēt-, be wont.

texō, texui, text-, weave.

tremō, tremui, —-, tremble.

vomō, vomui, —-, vomit.

—-.

**d.** Adding iv to the verb-root (§ 177.1): —

arcessō, —ivi, arcessit-, summon.

capessō, capessivi, —-, undertake.

cupīō, cupīvi, cupit-, desire.

incessō, incessivi, —-, attack.

lacessō, lacessivi, lacessit-, provoke.

petō, petivi, petit-, seek.

quaerō, quaessivi, quaesit-, seek.

rudō, rudivi, —-, bruay.

sapiō, sapivi, —-, be wise.

terō, trivi, trit-, rub.

**e.** Lengthening the vowel of the root (cf. § 177. d): —

agō, āgī, āct-, drive.

capiō, cēpi, capt-, take.

edō, ēdi, ēsum, eat (see § 201).

ēmō, ēmi, ēmpt-, buy.

faciō, feci, fact-, make (see § 201).

fodiō, fōdi, foss-, dig.

frangō [frāgō], frēgi, frāct-, break.

fugiō, fūgi, (fugiturō), flee.

fundō [fund], fūdi, fūs-, pour.

iaciō, iēci, iact-, throw (-icī, -icet-).

lavō, lāvi, lōt- (laut-), wash (also regular of first conjugation).

legō, legī, lēct-, gather.

linō [lin], lēvi (livī), lit-, smear.

linquō [līquō], -liquī, -līct-, leave.

nōscō [noscō], nōvi, nōt- (cō-gnīt-, ā-gnīt-, ad-gnīt-), know.

rumpō [ruptō], rūpi, rupt-, burst.

scabō, scābī, —-, scratch.

vincō [vinc], vicī, vict-, conquer.

—-.

**f.** Retaining the present stem or verb-root (cf. § 177. e): —

acuō, -ui, -ūt-, sharpen.

arguō, -ui, -ūt-, accuse.

bibō, bibi, (pōtus), drink.

-ceādō, -ceādi, -cēns-, kindle.

(con)gruō, -ui, —-, agree.

cūdō, -cūdi, -cūs-, forge.

fascessim, -ā (facesi), facessit-, execute.

-fendō, -fendi, -fēns-, ward off.

findō [vīn], fīdi, fīss-, split.

icō, ici, ict-, hit.

imbuō, -ui, -ūt-, give a taste of.

luō, lūi, lūt-, wash.

mandō, mandi, māns-, chew.

metuō, -ui, -ūt-, fear.

minuō, -ui, -ūt-, lessen.

-nuō, -nui, —-, nod.

pandō, pandi, pāns- (pass-), open.

pinsō, -si, pins- (pinst-, pist-), bruise.

prehendō, -hendi, -hēns-, seize.

ruō, rui, rut- (ruitūris), full.

1 Sometimes accersō, etc.

2 The following compounds of legō have -lēxi: diligō, intellegō, neglegō.

3 In this the perfect stem is the same as the verb-root, having lost the reduplication (§ 177. c. n.).
scandō, -scendī, -scēnsus, climb. suō, sui, sūt-, sew.
scindō [scid], scīdī, sciss-, tear. (ex)uō, -uī, -uēt-, put off.
sīdō, sīdī (-sēdī), -sess-, settle. tribuō, -uī, -uēt-, assign.
solvō, solvī, solūt-, loose, pay. vellō, velli (-vulsi), vuls-, pluck.
spūō, -uī, —, spit. verrō, verrī, vers-, sweep.
statuō, -uī, -uēt-, establish. vertē, vertī, vers-, turn.
stenuo, -uī, —, sneeze. visī [vid], visī, vis-, visit.
strīdō, strīdī, —, whiz. volvō, volvi, volūt-, turn.

Note. — Several have no perfect or supine: as, claudō, limp; fasīscō, gape; hīscō, yaw; tollō (sustulī, sublatum, supplied from sufferī), raise; vergō, incline.

Fourth Conjugation.

212. There are — besides a few deponents and some regular derivatives in -ūrīō, as, ēsuriō, be hungry (cf. § 263. 4) — about 60 verbs of this conjugation, a large proportion of them being descriptive verbs: like —

crōciō, croak; mūgiō, bellow; tinniō, tinkle.

a. Most verbs of the Fourth Conjugation are conjugated regularly, like audiō, though a number lack the supine.
b. The following verbs show special peculiarities: —

amiciō, amīxī (-cui), amict-, clothe. saepīō, saepsi, saept-, hedge in.
aperiō, apernī, apert-, open. salīō (-siliō), salui (salīī), [salt- (-sult-)], leap.
comperiō, -peri, compert-, find. sanciō [sac], sānxi, sanct-, sanction.
farsciō, farcsi, fartum, stuff. sarciō, sarsi, sart-, patch.
fertiō, —, —, strike. sentiō, sēnsī, sēns-, feel.
fulciō, fulsiō, fult-, prop. sepelio, sepelivi, sepult-, bury.
hauriō, hausī, haust- (haustūrus), drain. veniō, vēnī, vent-, come.
operiō, operui, operē-, cover. vincio, vinxī, vincit-, bind.
reperiō, repperī, repert-, find.

For Index of Verbs, see pp. 437 ff.

1 See footnote 3, page 124.
PARTICLES

213. Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections are called Particles.

In their origin Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions are either (1) case-forms, actual or extinct, or (2) compounds and phrases.

Particles cannot always be distinctly classified, for many adverbs are used also as prepositions and many as conjunctions (§§ 219 and 222).

ADVERBS

DERIVATION OF ADVERBS

214. Adverbs are regularly formed from Adjectives as follows:

a. From adjectives of the first and second declensions by changing the characteristic vowel of the stem to -ē: as, cărē, dearly, from cărus, dear (stem căro-); amicē, like a friend, from amicus, friendly (stem amico-).

Note. — The ending -ē is a relic of an old ablative in -ēa (cf. § 43. n. 1).

b. From adjectives of the third declension by adding -ter to the stem. Stems in nt- (nom. -ns) lose the t-. All others are treated as i-stems: —

fortiter, bravely, from fortis (stem fortī-), brave.
ācriter, eagerly, from ācer (stem ācri-), eager.
vigilanter, watchfully, from vigilāns (stem vigilant-).
prūdenter, prudently, from prūāns (stem prūdent-).
aliter, otherwise, from ālius (old stem ali-).

Note. — This suffix is perhaps the same as -ter in the Greek -τερος and in uter, alter. If so, these adverbs are in origin either neuter accusatives (cf. d) or masculine nominatives.

c. Some adjectives of the first and second declensions have adverbs of both forms (-ē and -ter). Thus dūrus, hard, has both dūrē and dūriter; miser, wretched, has both miserē and miseriter.

d. The neuter accusative of adjectives and pronouns is often used as an adverb: as, multum, much; faciliē, easily; quid, why.

This is the origin of the ending -ius in the comparative degree of adverbs (§ 218): as, ācrius, more keenly (positive ācriter); facilius, more easily (positive faciliē).

Note. — These adverbs are strictly cognate accusatives (§ 380).

c. The ablative singular neuter or (less commonly) feminine of adjectives, pronouns, and nouns may be used adverbially: as, falsō, falsely; citō,
quickly (with shortened o); rectā (via), straight (straightway); crebrō, frequently; volgō, commonly; fortē, by chance; spontē, of one's own accord.

Note.—Some adverbs are derived from adjectives not in use: as, abundē, plenti-jally (as if from *abundūs; cf. abundō, abound); saepē, often (as if from *saepis, dense, close-packed; cf. saepēs, hedge, and saepīō, hedge in).

215. Further examples of Adverbs and other Particles which are in origin case-forms of nouns or pronouns are given below. In some the case is not obvious, and in some it is doubtful.

1. Neuter Accusative forms: nān (for nē-ōnom, later ἀnum), not; iterum (comparative of i-, stem of is), a second time; dēnum (superlative of dē, down), at last.

2. Feminine Accusatives: partim, partly. So statim, on the spot; saltim, at least (generally saltēm), from lost nouns in -tis (genitive -tis). Thus -tim became a regular adverbial termination; and by means of it adverbs were made from many noun- and verb-stems immediately, without the intervention of any form which could have an accusative in -tim: as, separātim, separately, from separātus, separate. Some adverbs that appear to be feminine accusative are possibly instrumental: as, palam, openly; perperām, wrongly; tam, so; quam, as.

3. Plural Accusatives: as, aliās, elsewhere; forās, out of doors (as end of motion). So perhaps quia, because.

4. Ablative or Instrumental forms: quā, where; intrā, within; extrā, outside; quī, how; aliquī, somehow; forās, out of doors; quī, whither; adeō, to that degree; ulō, beyond; istō, this side (as end of motion); retrā, back; illōc (for illō-ce), weakened to illūc, thither. Those in -tō are from comparative stems (cf. úls, cis, re-).

5. Locative forms: ibi, there; ubi, where; illī, illī-c, there; peregrī (peregrē), abroad; hic (for ēhī-ce), here. Also the compounds hodiē (probably for ēhodiē), to-day; peridiē, day after to-morrow.

6. Of uncertain formation: (1) those in -tus (usually preceded by i), with an ablative meaning: as, funditus, from the bottom, utterly; divinitus, from above, providently; intus, within; penitus, within; (2) those in -dem, -dam, -dō: as, quidem, indeed; quandam, once; quandō (cf. dēnec), when; (3) dum (probably accusative of time), while; iam, now.

216. A phrase or short sentence has sometimes grown together into an adverb (cf. notwithstanding, nevertheless, besides):—

postmodē, presently (a short time after).

dēnō (for dē novō), anew.

vidēlicet (for víae lícet), to wit (see, you may).

nihiliominus, nevertheless (by nothing the less).

Note.—Other examples are:—anteā, old antēā, before (ante eā, probably ablative or instrumental); illīc (in locō), on the spot, immediately; prōrōsus, absolutely (prō versus, straight ahead); tūrūs (re-versus), again; quotannis, yearly (quot annis, as many years as there are); quām-ob-rem, whereverfore; cominus, hand to hand (con manus); ēminus, at long range (ex manus); nimīrūm, without doubt (nī mirum); ob-vidām (as in ēre obviam, to go to meet); prīdēm (cf. prae and -dēm in i-dēm), for some time; forsān (fors an), perhaps (it's a chance whether); forsitan (fors sit an), perhaps (it would be a chance whether); schīcet (isci, lícet), that is to say (know, you may; cf. i-lícet, you may go); ēctūtum (Actē, on the act, and tum, then).
CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS

217. The classes of Adverbs, with examples, are as follows: —

a. Adverbs of Place

hic, here. huc, hither. hinc, hence. hac, by this way.
ibi, there. eō, thither. inde, thence. ea, by that way.
istic, there. istīc, thither. istinc, thence. istā, by that way.
illic, there. illūc, thither. illinc, thence. illā (illāc), " "
ubi, where. quō, whither. unde, whence. quā, by what way.
alicubi, somewhere. aliquō, somewhither, (to) somewhere.
alicunde, from somewhere.
ibidem, in the same place. eōdem, to the same place.
indīdem, from the same place.
alibī, elsewhere, in aliō, elsewhere, to another place.
aliunde, from another place.
ubivis, anywhere, quōvis, anywhere, where you will.
undique, from every quarter.
sicubi, if anywhere. siquō, if anywhere (anywhither).
sicunde, if from anywhere.
nēcubi, lest anywhere. nēquō, lest anywhere.
nēcunde, lest from nowhere.

Note.—The demonstrative adverbs hic, ibi, istic, illī, illīc, and their correlatives, correspond in signification with the pronouns hic, is, iste, ille (see § 146), and are often equivalent to these pronouns with a preposition: as, inde = ab ēō, etc. So the relative or interrogative ubi corresponds with qui (quis), ali-cubi with aliquis, ubivis with quisquis, sicubi with sīquis (see §§ 147–151, with the table of correlatives in § 152).

usque, all the way to; usquam, anywhere; nusquam, nowhere; cīrō, to this side; intrō, inwardly; ultro, beyond (or freely, i.e. beyond what is required); portō, further on.
quōrsum (for quō versus, whither turned?), to what end? hōrsum, this way; prōrsum, forward (prōrsus, utterly); intrōrsum, inwardly; retrōrsum, backward; sūrsum, upward; deorsum, downward; seorsum, apart; aliōrsum, another way.

b. Adverbs of Time

quandō, when? (interrogative); cum (quom), when (relative); ut, when, as; nunc, now; tunc (tum), then; max, presently; iam, already; dum, while; iam diū, iam dūdum, iam pridem, long ago, long since.

1 All these adverbs were originally case-forms of pronouns. The forms in -bi and -ic are locative, those in -ē and -āc, -ā and -āc, ablative (see § 215); those in -inc are from -im (of uncertain origin) with the particle -ce added (thus illīm, illīn-ce).
primum (prīmō), first; deinde (posteā), next after; postrēmum (postrēmō), finally; posteāquam, postquam, when (after that, as soon as).

umquam (unquam), ever; numquam (nunquam), never; semper, always.

aliqvandō, at some time, at length; quandōque (quandōcumque), whenever; ãēnique, at last.

quotiēns (quotiēs), how often; totiēns, so often; aliquoteōns, a number of times.

cotīdiē, every day; hodiē, to-day; heri, yesterday; crās, to-morrow; pridiē, the day before; postridiē, the day after; in diēs, from day to day.

nōndum, not yet; necē, nor yet; vixēdum, scarce yet; quam prīmum, as soon as possible; saepe, often; crēbrō, frequently; iam nōn, no longer.

c. Adverbs of Manner, Degree, or Cause

quam, how, as; tam, so; quamvis, however much, although; paene, almost; magis, more; valē, greatly; vix, hardly.

cūr, quārē, why; ideō, idcirco, proptereā, on this account, because; ãō, therefore;

ergō, itaque, igitur, therefore.

ita, sīc, so; ut (utī), as, how; utut, utcumque, however.

d. Interrogative Particles

an, -ne, anne, utrum, utrumne, num, whether.

nōnne, annōn, whether not; numquid, ecquid, whether at all.

On the use of the Interrogative Particles, see §§332, 335.

e. Negative Particles

nōn, not (in simple denial); haud, minimē, not (in contradiction); nē, not (in prohibition); nēve, neu, nor; nēdum, much less.

nē, lest; neque, nec, nor; nē . . . quidēm, not even.

nōn modo . . . vērum (sed) etiam, not only . . . but also.

nōn modo . . . sed nē . . . quidēm, not only nor . . . but not even.

sī minus, if not; quō minus (quōminus), so as not.

quin (relative), but that; (interrogative), why not?

nē, nec (in composition), not; so in nesciō, I know not; negō, I say no (āīō, I say yes); negōtium, business (tnectōtium); nēmō (nē- and homē, old form of homē), no one; nē quis, lest any one; neque enim, for . . . not.

For the use of Negative Particles, see §325 ff.

For the Syntax and Peculiar uses of Adverbs, see §320 ff.

Comparison of Adverbs

218. The Comparative of Adverbs is the neuter accusative of the comparative of the corresponding adjective; the Superlative is the Adverb in -ē formed regularly from the superlative of the Adjective:
cārē, dearly (from cārūs, dear); cārius, cārissimē.
miserē (miserĭter), wretchedly (from miser, wretched); miserius, miserrimē.
levīter (from levis, light); levīus, levissimē.
audāctēr (audācĭter) (from audāx, bold); audācius, audācissimē.
benē, well (from bonus, good); melius, optimē.
malē, ill (from malus, bad); pēius, pessimē.

α. The following are irregular or defective: —
dii, long (in time); diūtius, diūtissimē.
pätius, rather; potissimum, first of all, in preference to all.
saepe, often; saeptius, oftener, again; saeptissimē.
satis, enough; satius, preferable.
secus, otherwise; setius, worse.
multum (multō), magis, maximē, much, more, most.
parum, not enough; minus, less; minimē, least.
nūper, newly; nūpermē.
temperē, seasonably; temperius.

Note. — In poetry the comparative mage is sometimes used instead of magis.

PREPOSITIONS

219. Prepositions were not originally distinguished from Adverbs in form or meaning, but have become specialized in use. They developed comparatively late in the history of language. In the early stages of language development the cases alone were sufficient to indicate the sense, but, as the force of the case-endings weakened, adverbs were used for greater precision (cf. § 338). These adverbs, from their habitual association with particular cases, became Prepositions; but many retained also their independent function as adverbs.

Most prepositions are true case-forms: as, the comparative ablatives extrā, infrā, suprā (for extera, infera, supera), and the accusatives circum, coram, cum (cf. § 215). Circiter is an adverbial formation from circum (cf. § 214. b. n.); praetern is the comparative of piae, proprium of propriē.1 Of the remainder, versus is a petrified nominative (participle of vertō); adversus is a compound of versus; trāns is probably an old present participle (cf. in-trā-re); while the origin of the brief forms ab, ad, cē, ex, ob, is obscure and doubtful.

220. Prepositions are regularly used either with the Accusative or with the Ablative.

α. The following prepositions are used with the Accusative: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preposition</th>
<th>Latin Form</th>
<th>English Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ad, to</td>
<td>circiter, about</td>
<td>intrā, inside.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adversus, against</td>
<td>cis, citra, this side</td>
<td>iūxta, near.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adversum, towards</td>
<td>contra, against</td>
<td>ob, on account of.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ante, before</td>
<td>ergā, towards</td>
<td>penes, in the power of.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apud, at, near</td>
<td>extrā, outside</td>
<td>per, through.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>circā, around</td>
<td>infrā, below</td>
<td>pōne, behind.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>circum, around</td>
<td>inter, among</td>
<td>post, after.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 The case-form of these prepositions in -ter is doubtful.
The following prepositions are used with the Ablative:

- *praetor*, beyond.
- *secundum*, next to.
- *ultrá*, on the further side.
- *prope*, near.
- *suprā*, above.
- *versus*, towards.
- *propter*, on account of.
- *trans*, across.
- *á*, *āb*, *abs*, away from, by.
- *absque*, without, but for.
- *cōram*, in presence of.
- *cum*, with.
- *dē*, from.
- *ē*, ex, out of.
- *praec*, in comparison with.
- *prō*, in front of, for.
- *sine*, without.
- *tenus*, up to, as far as.

The following may be used with either the Accusative or the Ablative, but with a difference in meaning:

- *in*, into, in.
- *in*, under.
- *subter*, beneath.
- *super*, above.

In and sub, when followed by the accusative, indicate motion to, when by the ablative, rest in, a place:

- vēnīt in *aedīs*, he came into the house; erat in *aedībus*, he was in the house.
- disciplīna in *Britanīā* reperta atque inde in *Galliam* trānsīt esse exstīntum, the system is thought to have been discovered in Great Britain and thence brought over to Gaul.
- *sūb ilicem* cōnsédērat, he had seated himself under an ilex.
- *sub lēgēs* mittēre orbem, to subject the world to laws (to send the world under laws).

The uses of the Prepositions are as follows:

1. *Ā*, *ab*, away from, from, off from, with the ablative.
   a. Of place: as, — ab urbe prefectus est, he set out from the city.
   b. Of time: (1) *from*: as, — ab hōra tertīa ad vesperram, from the third hour till evening; (2) *just after*: as, — ab eō magistrātū, after [holding] that office.
   c. Idiomatic uses: a reliquis differunt, they differ from the others; a parvulis, from early childhood; prope ab urbe, near (not far from) the city; liberāre ab, to set free from; occīsus ab hoste (perītīt ab hoste), slain by an enemy; ab hāc parte, on this side; ab rē eius, to his advantage; a rē publicā, for the interest of the state.

2. *Ad*, to, towards, at, near, with the accusative (cf. in, into).
   a. Of place: as, — ad urbem vēnīt, he came to the city; ad meridiēm, towards the south; ad exercitium, to the army; ad hostem, toward the enemy; ad urbem, near the city.
   b. Of time: as, — ad nōnam hōram, till the ninth hour.
   c. With persons: as, — ad eum vēnīt, he came to him.

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1 For *palām* etc., see § 432.
2 *Ab* signifies direction from the object, but often towards the speaker; compare *dē*, down from, and *ex*, out of.
d. Idiomatic uses: ad supplicia dēscendunt, they resort to punishment; ad haec respondit, to this he answered; ad tempus, at the [fit] time; adire ad rem publicam, to go into public life; ad petendam pācem, to seek peace; ad latera, on the flank; ad arma, to arms; ad hunc modum, in this way; quem ad modum, how, as; ad centum, nearly a hundred; ad hōc, besides; omnis ad umum, all to a man; ad diem, on the day.

3. Ante, in front of, before, with the accusative (cf. post, after).
   a. Of place: as, —ante portam, in front of the gate; ante exercitum, in advance of the army.
   b. Of time: as, —ante bellum, before the war.
   c. Idiomatic uses: ante urbem captam, before the city was taken; ante diem quintum (a.d.v.) Kal., the fifth day before the Calends; ante quadriennium, four years before or ago; ante tempus, too soon (before the time).

4. Apud, at, by, among, with the accusative.
   a. Of place (rare and archaic): as, —apud forum, at the forum (in the marketplace).
   b. With reference to persons or communities: as, —apud Helvētiōs, among the Helvetians; apud populum, before the people; apud aliquem, at one’s house; apud sē, at home or in his senses; apud Cicerōnem, in [the works of] Cicero.

5. Circā, about, around, with the accusative (cf. circum, circiter).
   a. Of place: templā circā forum, the temples about the forum; circā sē habet, he has with him (of persons).
   b. Of time or number (in poetry and later writers): circā eandem hōram, about the same hour; circā idūs Octōbris, about the fifteenth of October; circā decem milia, about ten thousand.
   c. Figuratively (in later writers), about, in regard to (cf. dē): circā quem pūgna est, with regard to whom, etc.; circā deōs neglegentior, rather neglectful of (i.e. in worshipping) the gods.

6. Circiter, about, with the accusative.
   a. Of time or number: circiter idūs Novembrit, about the thirteenth of November; circiter meridiem, about noon.

7. Circum, about, around, with the accusative.
   a. Of place: circum haec loca, her about; circum Capuam, round Capua; circum ilium, with him; légatiō circum insulās missa, an embassy sent to the islands round about; circum amicos, to his friends round about.

8. Contrā, opposite, against, with the accusative.
   contrā Italiam, over against Italy; contrō haec, in answer to this.
   a. Often as adverb: as, —haec contrā, this in reply; contrā autem, but on the other hand; quod contrā, whereas, on the other hand.

9. Cum, with, together with, with the ablative.
a. Of place: as,—vade mēcum, go with me; cum omnibus impedimentis, with all [their] baggage.

b. Of time: as,—prīmā cum lūce, at early dawn (with first light).

c. Idiomatic uses: māgūō cum dolōre, with great sorrow; communeāre aliquid cum aliquō, share something with some one; cum malō suō, to his own hurt; confīgere cum hoste, to fight with the enemy; esse cum tēlō, to go armed; cum silentiō, in silence.

10. Dē, down from, from, with the ablative (cf. ab, away from; ex, out of).

a. Of place: as,—dē caelō dēmissus, sent down from heaven; dē nāvibus désilire, to jump down from the ships.

b. Figuratively, concerning, about, of:1 as,—cōgnōscit dē Clōdi caede, he learns of the murder of Clodius; cōnsilia dē bellō, plans of war.

c. In a partitive sense (compare ex), out of, of: as,—ūnus dē plēbe, one of the people.

d. Idiomatic uses: multis dē causā, for many reasons; quā dē causā, for which reason; dē imprōviso, of a sudden; dē industriā, on purpose; dē integriō, anew; dē terrā vigiliā, just at midnight (starting at the third watch); dē mēnse Decembris nāvigāre, to sail as early as December.

11. Ex, e, from (the midst, opposed to in), out of, with the ablative (cf. ab and dē).

a. Of place: as,—ex omnibus partibus silvae eolvāvērunt, they flew out from all parts of the forest; ex Hispānīā, [a man] from Spain.

b. Of time: as,—ex eō die quintus, the fifth day from that (four days after); ex hōc die, from this day forth.

c. Idiometrically or less exactly: ex cōnsulātū, right after his consulship; ex ēius sententia, according to his opinion; ex aequō, justly; ex imprōviso, unexpectedly; ex tuā rē, to your advantage; māgnā ex parte, in a great degree; ex equō pāgnāre, to fight on horseback; ex ūsū, expedient, e regione, opposite; quaerere ex aliōquō, to ask of some one; ex senātūs consultō, according to the decree of the senate; ex fugā, in [their] flight (proceeding immediately from it); ūnus ē filiīs, one of the sons.

12. In, with the accusative or the ablative.

1. With the accusative, intus (opposed to ex).

a. Of place: as,—in Ítāliam contendit, he hastens into Italy.

b. Of time, till, until: as,—in lūcem, till daylight.

c. Idiometrically or less exactly: in meridiem, towards the south; amor in (ergā, adversus) patrem, love for his father; in āram cōnūgit, he fled to the altar (on the steps, or merely to); in diēs, from day to day; in longitūdinem, lengthwise; in lātītūdinem patēbat, extended in width; in hacte verba ĵūrāre, to swear to these words; hunc in modum, in this way; ōrātiō in Catilīnam, a speech against

1 Of originally meant from (cf. of).
Catiline; in perpetuum, forever; in pœius, for the worse; in diem vivere, to live from hand to mouth (for the day).

2. With the ablative, in, on, among.

In very various connections: as,—in castris, in the camp (cf. ad castra, to, at, or near the camp); in mari, on the sea; in urbe esse, to be in town; in tempore, in season; in scribendo, while writing; est mihi in animo, I have it in mind, I intend; in ancoris, at anchor; in hoc homine, in the case of this man; in dubio esse, to be in doubt.

13. Infrà, below, with the accusative.

a. Of place: as,—ad mare infrà oppidum, by the sea below the town; infrà caelum, under the sky.

b. Figuratively or less exactly: as,—infrà Homérum, later than Homer; infrà tres pedes, less than three feet; infrà elephantos, smaller than elephants; infrà infimos omnium, the lowest of the low.

14. Inter, between, among, with the accusative.

inter me et Scipionem, between myself and Scipio; inter oós et offam, between the cup and the lip (the mouth and the morsel); inter hostium telam, amid the weapons of the enemy; inter omnium primus, first of all; inter bibendum, while drinking; inter sæ loquuntur, they talk together.

15. Ob, towards, on account of, with the accusative.

a. Literally: (1) of motion (archaic): as,—ob Rōmam, towards Rome (Ennius); ob viam, to the road (preserved as adverb, in the way of). (2) Of place in which, before, in a few phrases: as,—ob oculós, before the eyes.

b. Figuratively, in return for (mostly archaic, probably a word of account, balancing one thing against another): as,—ob mulierem, in pay for the woman; ob rem, for gain. Hence applied to reason, cause, and the like, on account of (a similar mercantilist idea), for: as,—ob eam causam, for that reason; quam ob rem (quomobrem), wherefore, why.

16. Per, through, over, with the accusative.

a. Of motion: as,—per urbem ire, to go through the city; per murós, over the walls.

b. Of time: as,—per hiemem, throughout the winter.

c. Figuratively, of persons as means or instruments: as,—per hominés idōneos, through the instrumentality of suitable persons; licet per me, you (etc.) may for all me. Hence, stat per mé, it is through my instrumentality; so, per sé, in and of itself.

da. Weakened, in many adverbal expressions: as,—per locum, in jest; per speciem, in show, ostentatiously.

17. Prae, in front of, with the ablative.

a. Literally, of place (in a few connections): as,—praec sé portare, to carry in one's arms; praec sé ferre, to carry before one, (hence figuratively) exhibit, proclaim ostentatiously, make known.
b. Figuratively, of hindrance, as by an obstacle in front (compare English for): as, — prae gaudiō conticuit, he was silent for joy.

c. Of comparison: as, — prae māgnitūdine corporum suōrum, in comparison with their own great size.

18. Praeter, along by, by, with the accusative.

a. Literally: as, — praeter castra, by the camp (along by, in front of); praeter oculōs, before the eyes.

b. Figuratively, beyond, besides, more than, in addition to, except: as, — praeter spem, beyond hope; praeter aliōs, more than others; praeter paucōs, with the exception of a few.

19. Prō, in front of, with the ablative.

sedēns prō aede Castoris, sitting in front of the temple of Castor; prō populō, in presence of the people. So prō rōstris, on [the front of] the rostra; prō contiōne, before the assembly (in a speech).

a. In various idiomatic uses: prō lēge, in defence of the law; prō vitulā, instead of a heifer; prō centum millibus, as good as a hundred thousand; prō ratā parte, in due proportion; prō hāc vice, for this once; prō cōnsule, in place of consul; prō viribus, considering his strength; prō virili parte, to the best of one’s ability; prō tua prudentiā, in accordance with your wisdom.

20. Propter, near, by, with the accusative.

propter tē sedet, he sits next you. Hence, on account of (cf. all along of): as, — propter metum, through fear.

21. Secundum, just behind, following, with the accusative.

a. Literally: as, — ite secundum mē (Plaut.), go behind me; secundum litus, near the shore; secundum flūmen, along the stream (cf. secundō flūmine, down stream).

b. Figuratively, according to: as, — secundum nātūram, according to nature.

22. Sub, under, up to, with the accusative or the ablative.

1. Of motion, with the accusative: as, — sub montem succēdere, to come close to the hill.

a. Idiomatically: sub noctem, towards night; sub lūcem, near daylight; sub haec dicta, at (following) these words.

2. Of rest, with the ablative: as, — sub iove, in the open air (under the heaven, personified as Jove); sub monte, at the foot of the hill.

a. Idiomatically: sub ēodem tempore, about the same time (just after it).

23. Subter, under, below, with the accusative (sometimes, in poetry, the ablative).

subter togam (Liv.), under his mantle; but, — subter litore (Catull.), below the shore.

24. Super, with the accusative or the ablative.

1 Old participle of sequor.  
2 Comparative of sub.
1. With the accusative, above, over, on, beyond, upon.

a. Of place: super vallum praecipitari (Ing. 58), to be hurled over the rampart; super lateres coria induccuntur (B.C. ii. 10), hides are drawn over the bricks; super terrae tumulum statui (Legg. ii. 65), to be placed on the mound of earth; super Numidiam (Ing. 19), beyond Numidia.

b. Idiomatically or less exactly: vulnus super vulnus, wound upon wound; super vinum (Q. C. viii. 4), over his wine.

2. With the ablative, concerning, about (the only use with this case in prose).

hac super rē, concerning this thing; super tāli rē, about such an affair; litterās super tantā rē exspectāre, to wait for a letter in a matter of such importance.

a. Poetically, in other senses: ligna super focō largē repōnēns (Hor. Od. i. 9. 5), piling logs generously on the fire; nocte super mediā (Aen. ix. 61), after midnight.

25. Suprā, on top of, above, with the accusative.

suprā terram, on the surface of the earth. So also figuratively: as, — suprā hanc memoriam, before our remembrance; suprā mōrem, more than usual; suprā quod, besides.

26. Tenus (postpositive), as far as, up to, regularly with the ablative, sometimes with the genitive (cf. § 359. b).

1. With the ablative: Taurō tenus, as far as Taurus; capulō tenus, up to the hill.

2. With the genitive: Cumārum tenus (Fam. viii. 1. 2), as far as Cumae.

Note 1.—Tenus is frequently connected with the feminine of an adjective pronoun, making an adverbial phrase: as, hāc tenus, hēkthero; quātenus, so far as; dē hāc rē hāctenus, so much for that (about this matter so far).

Note 2.—Tenus was originally a neuter noun, meaning line or extent. In its use with the genitive (mostly poetical) it may be regarded as an adverbial accusative (§ 397. a).

27. Trans, across, over, through, by, with the accusative.

a. Of motion: as, — trans mare currunt, they run across the sea; trans flūmnem ferre, to carry over a river; trans aethera, through the sky; trans caput iace, throw over your head.

b. Of rest: as, — trans Rhēnum incolunt, they live across the Rhine.

28. Ultra, beyond (on the further side), with the accusative.

cis Padum ultraque, on this side of the Po and beyond; ultra cum numerum, more than that number; ultra fidem, incredible; ultra modum, immoderate.

Note.—Some adverbs appear as prepositions: as, intus, insuper (see § 219).
For Prepositions in Compounds, see § 267.
CONJUNCTIONS

222. Conjunctions, like prepositions (cf. § 219), are closely related to adverbs, and are either petrified cases of nouns, pronouns, and adjectives, or obscured phrases: as, quod, an old accusative; dum, probably an old accusative (cf. tum, cum); vērō, an old neuter ablative of vērus; nisiōminus, none the less; prōinde, lit. forward from there. Most conjunctions are connected with pronominal adverbs, which cannot always be referred to their original case-forms.

223. Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or sentences. They are of two classes, Coördinate and Subordinate: —

a. Coördinate, connecting coördinate or similar constructions (see § 278. 2. a). These are: —

1. Copulative or disjunctive, implying a connection or separation of thought as well as of words: as, et, and; aut, or; neque, nor.
2. Adversative, implying a connection of words, but a contrast in thought: as, sed, but.
3. Causal, introducing a cause or reason: as, nam, for.
4. Illative, denoting an inference: as, igitur, therefore.

b. Subordinate, connecting a subordinate or independent clause with that on which it depends (see § 278. 2. b). These are: —

1. Conditional, denoting a condition or hypothesis: as, si, if; nisi, unless.
2. Comparative, implying comparison as well as condition: as, ac si, as if.
3. Concessive, denoting a concession or admission: as, quamquam, although (lit. however much it may be true that, etc.).
5. Consecutive, expressing result: as, ut, so that.
6. Final, expressing purpose: as, ut, in order that; nē, that not.
7. Causal, expressing cause: as, quia, because.

224. Conjunctions are more numerous and more accurately distinguished in Latin than in English. The following list includes the common conjunctions¹ and conjunctive phrases: —

CoöRDINATE

a. Copulative and Disjunctive

et, -que, atque (ae), and.
et . . . et; et . . . -que (atque); -que . . . et; -que . . . -que (poetical), both . . . and.
etiam, quoque, neque nōn (necnōn), quīn etiam, itidem (item), also.
cum . . . tum; tum . . . tum, both . . . and; not only . . . but also.

¹ Some of these have been included in the classification of adverbs. See also list of Correlatives, § 152
quā ... quā, on the one hand ... on the other hand.
modo ... modo, now ... now.
aut ... aut; vel ... vel (-ve), either ... or.
sive (seu) ... sive, whether ... or.
nec (neque) ... nec (neque); neque ... nec; nec ... neque (rare), neither ... nor.
et ... neque, both ... and not.
nec ... et; nec (neque) ... -que, neither (both not) ... and.

b. Adversative

sed, autem, vērum, vērō, at, atquī, but.
tamen, attamen, sed tamen, vērum tamen, but yet, nevertheless.
nihilominus, none the less.
at vērō, but in truth; enimvērō, for in truth.
cēterum, on the other hand, but.

c. Causal

nam, namque, enim, etenim, for.
quāpropter, quārē, quamobrem, quōcircā, unde, wherefore, whence.

d. Illative

ergō, igitur, itaque, ideō, idcircō, unde, proinde, therefore, accordingly.

SUBORDINATE

a. Conditional

śi, if; sin, but if; nisi (ni), unless, if not; quod sī, but if.
modo, dum, dummodo, sī modo, if only, provided.
dummodo nē (dum nē, modo nē), provided only not.

b. Comparative

ut, uti, sicut, just as; velut, as, so as; preut, praeut, ceu, like as, according as.
tamquam (tanquam), quasi, ut sī, ac sī, veluti, veluti, velut sī, as if.
quam, atque (ac), as, than.

c. Concessive

etsī, etiamśi, tametsī, even if; quamquam (quanquam), although.
quanvis, quantunvis, quamlibet, quantumlibet, however much.
licet (properly a verb), ut, cum (quom), though, suppose, whereas.

d. Temporal

cum (quom), quandō, when; ubi, ut, when, as; cum primum, ut primum, ubi primum,
simul, simul ac, simul atque, as soon as; postquam (posteāquam), after.
prius ... quam, ante ... quam, before; nōn ante ... quam, not ... until.
dum, üque dum, dōnec, quoad, until, as long as, while.
e. Consecutive and Final

ut (uti), quō, so that, in order that.
ne, ut nē, lest (that... not, in order that not); nēve (neu), that not, nor.
quīn (after negatives), quōminus, but that (so as to prevent), that not.

f. Causal

quia, quod, quoniam (†quom-iam), quandō, because.
cum (quom), since.
quandōquidem, sī quidem, quippe, ut pote, since indeed, inasmuch as.
propterēā... quod, for this reason... that.

On the use of Conjunctions, see §§ 323, 324.

INTERJECTIONS

225. Some Interjections are mere natural exclamations of feeling; others are
derived from inflected parts of speech, e.g. the imperatives em, lo (probably for eme,
take); age, come, etc. Names of deities occur in hērīē, pōt (from Pollux), etc. Many
Latin interjections are borrowed from the Greek, as euge, euhoe, etc.

226. The following list comprises most of the Interjections in
common use: —

ō, ēn, ecce, ehem, papae, vāh (of astonishment).
iō, ēvae, ēvoe, euhoe (of joy).
heu, ēheu, vac, alas (of sorrow).
heus, eho, ehadum, ho (of calling); st, hist.
ēia, euge (of praise).
prō (of attestation): as, prō pudor, shame!
FORMATION OF WORDS

227. All formation of words is originally a process of composition. An element significant in itself is added to another significant element, and thus the meaning of the two is combined. No other combination is possible for the formation either of inflections or of stems. Thus, in fact, words (since roots and stems are significant elements, and so words) are first placed side by side, then brought under one accent, and finally felt as one word. The gradual process is seen in sea voyage, sea-nymph, seaside. But as all derivation, properly so called, appears as a combination of uninflected stems, every type of formation in use must antedate inflection. Hence words were not in strictness derived either from nouns or from verbs, but from stems which were neither, because they were in fact both; for the distinction between noun-stems and verb-stems had not yet been made.

After the development of Inflection, however, that one of several kindred words which seemed the simplest was regarded as the primitive form, and from this the other words of the group were thought to be derived. Such supposed processes of formation were then imitated, often erroneously, and in this way new modes of derivation arose. Thus new adjectives were formed from nouns, new nouns from adjectives, new adjectives from verbs, and new verbs from adjectives and nouns.

In course of time the real or apparent relations of many words became confused, so that nouns and adjectives once supposed to come from nouns were often assigned to verbs, and others once supposed to come from verbs were assigned to nouns.

Further, since the language was constantly changing, many words went out of use, and do not occur in the literature as we have it. Thus many Derivatives survive of which the Primitive is lost.

Finally, since all conscious word-formation is imitative, intermediate steps in derivation were sometimes omitted, and occasionally apparent Derivatives occur for which no proper Primitive ever existed.

ROOTS AND STEMS

228. Roots ¹ are of two kinds: —

1. Verbal, expressing ideas of action or condition (sensible phenomena).
2. Pronominal, expressing ideas of position and direction.

From verbal roots come all parts of speech except pronouns and certain particles derived from pronominal roots.

229. Stems are either identical with roots or derived from them. They are of two classes: (1) Noun-stems (including Adjective-stems) and (2) Verb-stems.

Note. — Noun-stems and verb-stems were not originally different (see p. 163), and in the consciousness of the Romans were often confounded; but in general they were treated as distinct.

230. Words are formed by inflection: (1) from roots inflected as stems; (2) from derived stems (see § 232).

¹ For the distinction between Roots and Stems, see §§ 24, 25.
231. A root used as a stem may appear—

a. With a short vowel: as, duc-is (dux), duc; nec-is (nex); i-s, i-d. So in verbs: as, es-t, fer-t (cf. § 174. 2).

b. With a long vowel: as, luc-is (lux), luc; pac-is (pax). So in verbs: duc-o, i-s for teis, from e-o, ire; fatur from far-i.


**DERIVED STEMS AND SUFFIXES**

232. Derived Stems are formed from roots or from other stems by means of suffixes. These are:

1. Primary: added to the root, or (in later times by analogy) to verb-stems.

2. Secondary: added to a noun-stem or an adjective-stem.

Both primary and secondary suffixes are for the most part pronominal roots (§ 228. 2), but a few are of doubtful origin.

**Note 1.**—The distinction between primary and secondary suffixes, not being original (see § 227), is continually lost sight of in the development of a language. Suffixes once primary are used as secondary, and those once secondary are used as primary. Thus in hosticus (hosti + cus) the suffix -cus, originally ko- (see § 234. II. 12) primary, as in paucus, has become secondary, and is thus regularly used to form derivatives; but in pudicus, apricus, it is treated as primary again, because these words were really or apparently connected with verbs. So in English -able was borrowed as a primary suffix (tolerable, eatable), but also makes forms like clubbable, salable; -some is properly a secondary suffix, as in toilsome, lonesome, but makes also such words as meddlesome, venturesome.

**Note 2.**—It is the stem of the word, not the nominative, that is formed by the derivative suffix. For convenience, however, the nominative will usually be given.

**Primary Suffixes**

233. The words in Latin formed immediately from the root by means of Primary Suffixes, are few. For—

1. Inherited words so formed were mostly further developed by the addition of other suffixes, as we might make an adjective lone-ly-some-ish, meaning nothing more than lone, lonely, or lonesome.

2. By such accumulation of suffixes, new compound suffixes were formed which crowded out even the old types of derivation. Thus,—

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1 The difference in vowel-quantity in the same root (as dūc) depends on inherited variations (see § 17. a).
A word like mēns, mentis, by the suffix ōn- (nom. -ō), gave mentiō, and this, being divided into mēn + tiō, gave rise to a new type of abstract nouns in -tiō: as, lēgā-tiō, embassy.

A word like auditor, by the suffix io- (nom. -ius), gave rise to adjectives like auditōrius, of which the neuter (auditōrium) is used to denote the place where the action of the verb is performed. Hence tōriē- (nom. -torium), κ., becomes a regular noun-suffix (§ 250. a).

So in English such a word as suffocation gives a suffix -ation, and with this is made starvation, though there is no such word as starvate.

234. Examples of primary stem-suffixes are:—

1. Vowel suffixes:—

1. o- (m., n.), a- (r.), found in nouns and adjectives of the first two declensions: as, sonus, tōdus, vagus, toga (root teg).

2. i-, as in ovis, avis; in Latin frequently changed, as in rūpes, or lost, as in scōbs (scōbis, root scaēn).

3. u-, disguised in most adjectives by an additional i, as in suā-vis (for *suād-vis, instead of *suā-dus, cf. ḳhōr), ten-ius (root ten in tenō), and remaining alone in nouns of the fourth declension, as acus (root ak, šaarp, in ācer, acīes, ʿōxōs), pecū, genū.

II. Suffixes with a consonant:—

1. to- (m., n.), tā- (r.), in the regular perfect passive participle, as tēctus, tēctum; sometimes with an active sense, as in pūtus, prānus; and found in a few words not recognized as participles, as pūtus (cf. pūrus), altus (alō).

2. ti- in abstracts and rarely in nouns of agency, as messis, vestis, pars, mēns. But in many the i is lost.

3. tu- in abstracts (including supines), sometimes becoming concretes, as āctus, lūctus.

4. no- (m., n.), nā- (r.), forming perfect participles in other languages, and in Latin making adjectives of like participial meaning, which often become nouns, as māgnus, plānus, rēgnūm.

5. ni-, in nouns of agency and adjectives, as ignis, sēgnis.

6. nu-, rare, as in manus, pīnus, cornū.

7. mo- (mā-), with various meanings, as in animus, almus, firmus, forma.

8. ve- (vā-) (commonly uo-, uā-), with an active or passive meaning, as in equus (equus), arvum, ònspīcūns, exiguus, vacīus (vacuus).

9. ro- (rā-), as in ager (stem ag-ro-), integer (cf. intāctus), sacer, plēri-que (cf. plēnus, plētus).

10. la- (lā-), as in caelum (for *caed-lum), chīsel, exemplum, sella (for *sedla).

11. yo- (yā-), forming gerundives in other languages, and in Latin making adjectives and abstracts, including many of the first and fifth declensions, as eximius, audācia, Florentia, pereclēs.

12. ko- (kā-), sometimes primary, as in pauci (cf. παῦσα), locus (for stlocus).

In many cases the vowel of this termination is lost, leaving a consonant stem: as, apex, cortex, loquāx.
13. en- (en-, ōn-, ōn-), in nouns of agency and abstracts: as, aspergō, compāgō (-inis), gerō (-ōnis).

14. men-, expressing means, often passing into the action itself: as, agmen, flūmen, fulmen.

15. ter- (tor-, tēr-, tōr-, tr-), forming nouns of agency: as, pater (i.e. protector), frāter (i.e. supporter), ēnātor.

16. tro-, forming nouns of means: as, claustrum (claud), mūlctrum (mulge).

17. es- (os-), forming names of actions, passing into concretes: as, genus (generis), tempus (see § 15. 4). The infinitive in -ere (as in reg-ere) is a locative of this stem (-er-e for ē-er-e).

18. nt- (ont-, ent-), forming present active participles: as, legēns, with some adjectives from roots unknown: as, frequently, recēns.

The above, with some suffixes given below, belong to the Indo-European parent speech, and most of them were not felt as living formations in the Latin.

**Significant Endings**

235. Both primary and secondary suffixes, especially in the form of compound suffixes, were used in Latin with more or less consciousness of their meaning. They may therefore be called Significant Endings.

They form: (1) Nouns of Agency; (2) Abstract Nouns (including Names of Actions); (3) Adjectives (active or passive).

Note. — There is really no difference in etymology between an adjective and a noun, except that some formations are habitually used as adjectives and others as nouns (§ 20. b. n. 2).

**DERIVATION OF NOUNS**

**Nouns of Agency**

236. Nouns of Agency properly denote the agent or doer of an action. But they include many words in which the idea of agency has entirely faded out, and also many words used as adjectives.

**a.** Nouns denoting the agent or doer of an action are formed from roots or verb-stems by means of the suffixes —

- tor (-tor), m.; - trīx, f.

- can-tor, can-trīx, singer;
- vic-tor, vic-trīx, conqueror (victorius);
- tōn-tor (for tōnd-tor), tōn-trīx (for tōnd-trīx), hair-cutter;
- peti-tor, candidate;

- can-ere (root can), to sing.
- vinc-ere (vic), to conquer.
- tond-ēre (tond as root), to shear.
- pet-ēre (pet; petī- as stem), to seek.
By analogy -tor is sometimes added to noun-stems, but these may be stems of lost verbs: as, viā-tor, traveller, from via, way (but cf. the verb inviō).

Note 1.—The termination -tor (-ror) has the same phonetic change as the supine ending -tum (-sum), and is added to the same form of root or verb-stem as that ending. The stem-ending is tōr- (§ 234. II. 15), which is shortened in the nominative.

Note 2.—The feminine form is always -trix. Masculines in -ror lack the feminine, except expulsor (expultrix) and tōnsor (tōnstrix).

b. t-, m. or r., added to verb-stems makes nouns in -es (-ēs, -ēs; stem it-, et-) descriptive of a character: —

prae-stes, -stēsis, (verb-stem from root sta, stāre, stand), guardian.
teges, -etēsis (verb-stem tege-, cf. tegō, cover), a coverer, a mat.
pedes, -ēsis (pēs, ped-ēs, foot, and 1, root of ire, go), foot-soldier.

C. -ō (genitive -ōnis, stem ēn-), m., added to verb-stems¹ indicates a person employed in some specific art or trade: —

com-bibō (mīb as root in bibō, bibere, drink), a pot-companion.
gerō, -ōnis (ger in gerō, gerēre, carry), a carrier.

Note.—This termination is also used to form many nouns descriptive of personal characteristics (cf. § 255).

Names of Actions and Abstract Nouns

237. Names of Actions are confused, through their terminations, with real abstract nouns (names of qualities), and with concrete nouns denoting means and instrument.

They are also used to express the concrete result of an action (as often in English).

¹ Thus legiō is literally the act of collecting, but comes to mean legion (the body of soldiers collected); cf. levy in English.

238. Abstract Nouns and Names of Actions are formed from roots and verb-stems by means of the endings —

a. Added to roots or forms conceived as roots —

| Nom. | -ōr, m. | -ēs, f. | -us, n. |
| Gen. | -ōris | -ēs | -ēris or -ōris |
| Stem | ōr- (earlier ōs-) | i- | er- (earlier e/ēs-) |

tim-ōr, fear;
am-ōr, love;
sēdēs, seat;
caēdēs, slaughter;
genus, birth, race;
timēre, to fear;
amāre, to love;
sedēre, to sit;
caedere, to kill;
gen, to be born (root of gignō, bear).

¹ So conceived, but perhaps this termination was originally added to noun-stems.
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Note. — Many nouns of this class are formed by analogy from imaginary roots: as facinus from a supposed root FACIN.

b. Apparently added to roots or verb-stems —

| Nom. | -iō, f. | -tiō (-siō), f. | -tūra (-sūra), f. | -tus, m. |
| Gen. | -iōnis | -tiōnis (-siōnis) | -tūrae (-sūrae) | -tūs (-sūs) |
| Stem | iō- | tiōn- (siōn-) | tūrā- (sūrā-) | tu- (su-) |

leg-iō, a collecting (levy), a legion; legere, to collect.
reg-iō, a direction, a region; regere, to direct.
vocā-tiō, a calling; vocāre, to call.
māli-tiō, a tolling; māri, to toil.
scrip-tūra, a writing; scribere, to write.
sēn-sus (for ʃent-tus), feeling; sentire, to feel.

Note 1. — -tiō, -tūra, -tus are added to roots or verb-stems precisely as -tor, with the same phonetic change (cf. § 236. a. n. 1). Hence they are conveniently associated with the supine stem (see § 178). They sometimes form nouns when there is no corresponding verb in use: as, senātus, senāte (cf. senex); mentiō, mention (cf. nēns); fētūra, off-spring (cf. fētus); litterātūra, litterature (cf. litterae); consulātus, consulship (cf. consult).

Note 2. — Of these endings, -tus was originally primary (cf. § 234. II. 3); -iō is a compound formed by adding an to a stem ending in a vowel (originally i): as, dīcī (cf. -dicos and dicis); -tiō is a compound formed by adding an to stems in ti-: as, gradātīō (cf. gradātīm); -tūra is formed by adding -ra, feminine of -rus, to stems in tu-: as, nātūra from nātus; statūra from status (cf. ōgūra, of like meaning, from a simple u-stem, ōgūs; and mātūras, Mātūta).

239. Nouns denoting acts, or means and results of acts, are formed from roots or verb-stems by the use of the suffixes —

-men, n.; -mentum, n.; -mōnia, n.; -mōnium, n.

ag-men, vine of march, band; ag, root of agere, to lead.
regi-men, rule; regi-men, rule;
regi-mentum, rule;
cert-a-men, contest, battle;
So columna, pillar; mō-men, movement; nō-men, name; flū-men, stream.
testi-mōnia, testimony;
queri-mōnia, complaint;

-mōnium and -mōnia are also used as secondary, forming nouns from other nouns and from adjectives: as, sancti-mōnia, sanctity (sāctus, holy); mātr-i-mōnium, marriage (māter, mother).

Note. — Of these endings, -men is primary (cf. § 234. II. 14); -mentum is a compound of men- and to-, and appears for the most part later in the language than -men: as, mēmen, movement (Lacr.); mōmentum (later). So elementum is a development from l-m-n-a, l-m-n’s (letters of the alphabet), changed to elementa along with other nouns in -men. -mōnium and -mōnia were originally compound secondary suffixes formed from mōn- (a by-form of men-), which was early associated with mō-. Thus almus
(stem almo-), fostering; Almōn, a river near Rome; alimōnia, support. But the last was formed directly from alō when -mōnia had become established as a supposed primary suffix.

240. Nouns denoting means or instrument are formed from roots and verb-stems (rarely from noun-stems) by means of the neuter — suffixes —

-bulum, -culum, -brum, -crum, -trum

pā-bulum, fodder;
sta-bulum, stall;
vehī-culum, wagon;
candēlā-brum, candlestick;
sepul-crum, tomb;
claus-trum († claud-trum), bar;
arā-trum, plough;
pāscere, to feed.
stāre, to stand.
vehēre, to carry.
candēla, candle (a secondary formation).
sepelire, to bury.
claudere, to shut.
arāre, to plough.

Note. — -trum (stem tro-) was an old formation from *tor- (§ 234. II. 15), with the stem suffix ēr-, and -clum (stem clo- for tlo-) appears to be related; -culum is the same as -clum; -bulum contains lo- (§ 234. II. 9, 10) and -brum is closely related.

α. A few masculines and feminines of the same formation occur as nouns and adjectives:

ē-bula, tale;
ridī-culus, laughable;
fa-bēr, smith;
late-bra, hiding-place;
tere-bra, anger;
mulc-tra, milk-pail;
fāri, to speak.
ridēre, to laugh.
facere, to make.
latēre, to hide.
terere, to bore.
mulgēre, to milk.

241. Abstract Nouns, mostly from adjective-stems, rarely from noun-stems, are formed by means of the secondary feminine suffixes —

-ia (-iēs), -tia (-tiēs), -tās, -tūs, -tūdō

audāc-ia, boldness;
apauper-iēs, poverty;
tristī-tia, sadness;
sēgnītēs, laziness;
boni-tās, goodness;
senec-tūs, age;
māgni-tūdō, greatness;
audāx, bold.
pauper, poor.
tristis, saē.
sēgnis, lazy.
bonus, good.
senex, old.
māgens, great.

1. In stems ending in o- or ā-the stem-vowel is lost before -ia (as superbia) and appears as i before -tās, -tūs, -tia (as in bonitās, above).

2. Consonant stems often insert i before -tās: as, loquāx (stem loquāc-), loquāci-tās; but hone-stās, māies-tās (as if from old adjectives in -es), über-tās, volup-tās. o after i is changed to e: as, pius (stem pio-), pie-tās; socius, socie-tās.
a. In like manner -dō and -gō (f.) form abstract nouns, but are associated with verbs and apparently added to verb-stems: —

cupī-dō, desire, from cupere, to desire (as if from stem cupī-).
dulcē-dō, sweetness (cf. dulcis, sweet); as if from a stem dulcē-, cf. dulcē-scō.
lumbā-gō, lumbago (cf. lumbus, loin), as if from ĭlumbō, ĭ-äre.

Note. — Of these, -ia is inherited as secondary (cf. § 234. II. 11). -tia is formed by adding -ia to stems with a t-suffix: as, militia, from miles (stem milit-); molestia from molestus; clēmentia from clēmens; whence by analogy, mali-tia, avāri-tia. -tās is inherited, but its component parts, tā- + ti-, are found as suffixes in the same sense: as, senecta from senex; sēmen-tis from sēmen. -tūs is tū- + ti-, cf. servitū-dō. -dō and -gō appear only with long vowels, as from verb-stems, by a false analogy; but -dō is dō- + ĭn-: as, cupīdus, cupīdō; gravīdus, gravēdō (cf. gravē-scō); albidus, albēdō (cf. albēscō); formidus, horītus, formīdētus (cf. formīdōsus), (horī flush?) fear; -gō is possibly co- + ĭn-; cf. vorāx, vorāgō, but cf. Cethēgus. -tūdō is compounded of -dō with tu-stems, which acquire a long vowel from association with verb-stems in -u- (cf. volvōmen, from volvō): as, consueītū-dō, valētū-dō, habītū-dō, sollicitū-dō; whence servitū-dō (cf. servītūs, -tūtis).

b. Neuter Abstracts, which easily pass into concretes denoting offices and groups, are formed from noun-stems and perhaps from verb-stems by means of the suffixes —

-iūm, -itium

hospit-iūm, hospitality, an inn;¹ hospes (gen. hospit-is), a guest.
collēg-iūm, colleagueship, a college; collēga, a colleague.
auspic-iūm, soothsaying, an omen; auspex (gen. auspic-is), a soothsayer.
gaud-iūm, joy; gaudēre, to rejoice.
effug-iūm, escape; effugere, to escape.
benefic-iūm, a kindness; benefacere, to benefit; cf. beneficus.
dēsider-iūm, longing; dēsiderāre, to miss, from 1dē-sidēs, out of place, of missing soldiers.
ad verbum, [added] to a verb.
inter lūnas, between moons. inter lūnas, between moons.
rēgis fuga, flight of a king; servus, a slave.

Vowel stems lose their vowel before -iūm: as, collēg-iūm, from collēga.

Note. — -iūm is the neuter of the adjective suffix -ius. It is an inherited primary suffix, but is used with great freedom as secondary. -tium is formed like -tia, by adding -iūm to stems with t: as, exit-iūm, equit-iūm (cf. exitās, equitēs); so, by analogy, calvitium, servitium (from calvus, servus).

c. Less commonly, abstract nouns (which usually become concrete) are formed from noun-stems (confused with verb-stems) by means of the suffixes —

¹ The abstract meaning is put first.
-nia, f.; -nium, -lium, -cinium, n.

pecū-nia, money (chattels);
contic-i-nium, the hush of night;
auxi-lium, help;
lātrē-cinium, robbery;

pecū, cattle.
conticēscere, to become still.
augēre, to increase.
lātrē, robber (cf. lātrēciner, rob, implying an adjective †lātrēcinus).

For Diminutives and Patronymics, see §§ 243, 244.

**DERIVATION OF ADJECTIVES**

242. Derivative Adjectives, which often become nouns, are either Nominal (from nouns or adjectives) or Verbal (as from roots or verb-stems).

**Nominal Adjectives**

243. Diminutive Adjectives are usually confined to one gender, that of the primitive, and are used as Diminutive Nouns. They are formed by means of the suffixes —

-ulus (-a, -um), -olus (after a vowel), -culus, -ellus, -illus

riv-ulus, a streamlet;
gladi-olus, a small sword;
filii-olus, a little son;
filii-ola, a little daughter;
ātri-olus, a little hall;
homun-culus, a dwarf;
auricula, a little ear;
münus-colum, a little gift;
cōdic-illii, writing-tablets;
mis-ellus, rather wretched;
lib-ellus, a little book;
aure-olus (-a, -um), golden;
pavv-olus (later parv-ulus), very small;
māius-culus, somewhat larger;

rivus, a brook.
gladius, a sword.
filius, a son.
filia, a daughter.
ātrium, a hall.
homō, a man.
auris, an ear.
münus, n., a gift.
cōdex, a block.
miser, wretched.
liber, a book.
aureus (-a, -um), golden.
parvus (-a, -um), little.
mäior (old mãios), greater.

**Note 1.** — These diminutive endings are all formed by adding -ius to various stems. The formation is the same as that of -ulus in § 251. But these words became settled as diminutives, and retained their connection with nouns. So in English the diminutives whitish, reddish, are of the same formation as bookish and swappish.

-ulus comes from -ius added to adjectives in -eus formed from stems in n- and s-: as, iuven-eus, Aurun-eus (cf. Aurunculĕas), prēs-eus, whence the eu becomes a part of the termination, and the whole ending (-eus) is used elsewhere, but mostly with n- and s-stems, in accordance with its origin.

**Note 2.** — Diminutives are often used to express affection, pity, or contempt: as, dēliciōlæ, little pet; mūlicula, a poor (weak) woman; Græculus, a miserable Greek.
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a. -ciō, added to stems in n-, has the same diminutive force, but is used with masculines only: as, homun-ciō, a dwarf (from homō, a man).

244. Patronymics, indicating descent or relationship, are formed by adding to proper names the suffixes —

-ades, -idēs, -idēs, -eus, m.; -ās, -is, -ēs, f.

These words, originally Greek adjectives, have almost all become nouns in Latin: —

Atlās: Atlanti-ades, Mercury; Atlant-īdēs (Gr. plur.), the Pleiads.
Scipīō: Scipī-adēs, son of Scipio.
Tỳndarēus: Tỳndar-īdēs, Castor or Pollux, son of Tỳndarōs; Tỳndar-īs, Helen, daughter of Tỳndarōs.
Anchisēs: Anchisī-adēs, Aēneas, son of Anchisēs.
Thēseus: Thēsī-īdēs, son of Theseus.
Tỳdēus: Tỳd-īdēs, Diomedēs, son of Tỳdēus.
Oileus: Aīāx Oī-eus, son of Oīcūs.
Cisseus: Cissē-is, Hecuba, daughter of Cisseus.
Thaumās: Thaumant-īās, Iris, daughter of Thaumās.
Hesperus: Hesper-īdēs (from Hesper-is, -īdis), plur., the daughters of Hesperus, the Hesperides.

245. Adjectives meaning full of, prone to, are formed from nouns-stems with the suffixes —

-ōsus, -lēns, -lentus

fluctu-ōsus, billowy;
form-ōsus, beautiful;
perīcul-ōsus, dangerous;
pesti-lēns, pestilentus, pestilent;
vīno-lentus, vīnō-ōsus, given to drink;

fluctus, a bellow.
forma, beauty.
perīculum, danger.
pestis, pest.
vinum, wine.

246. Adjectives meaning provided with are formed from nouns by means of the regular participial endings —

-tus, -ātus, -ītus, -ūtus

fūnes-tus, deadly;
honēs-tus, honorable;
fau-s-tus (for fāves-tus), favorable;
barb-ātus, bearded;
turr-ītus, turreted;
corn-ūtus, horned;

fūnus (st. fūner-, older fūn’s-), death.
honor, honor.
favor, favor.
barba, a beard.
turris, a tower.
cornū, a horn.

Note. —-ātus, -ītus, -ūtus, imply reference to an imaginary verb-stem; -tus is added directly to nouns without any such reference.
247. Adjectives of various meanings, but signifying in general made of or belonging to, are formed from nouns by means of the suffixes —

-eus, -ius, -āceus, -īcius, -āneus (-neus), -ticus

aur-eus, golden;  aurum, gold.
patr-ius, paternal;  pater, a father.
uxor-ius, uxorious;  uxor, a wife.
ros-āceus, of roses;  rosa, a rose.
later-īcius, of brick;  later, a brick.
presēnt-āneus, operating instantly;  praesēns, present.
extr-āneus, external;  extrā, without.
subterr-āneus, subterranean;  sub terrā, underground.
salīg-neus, of willow;  salix, willow.
vola-ticus, winged (volātus, a flight);  volare, to fly.
domes-ticus, of the house, domestic;  domus, a house.
silvā-ticus, sylvan;  silva, a wood.

Note. — -ius is originally primitive (§ 234. II. 11); -eus corresponds to Greek -eos, -eos, and has lost a y-sound (cf. ye-, § 234. II. 11); -icius and -āceus are formed by adding -i- and -eus to stems in -c-, -c- (suffix ko-, § 234. II. 12); -neus is no-+ -eus (§ 234, II. 4); -āneus is formed by adding -neus to -ā-stems; -ticus is a formation with -eus (cf. hosti-eus with silvā-ticus), and has been affected by the analogy of participial stems in to- (nominative -us).

248. Adjectives denoting pertaining to are formed from noun-stems with the suffixes —

-ālis, -āris, -ēlis, -īlis, -ūlis

nātur-ālis, natural;  nātūra, nature.
popul-āris, fellow-countryman;  populus, a people.
patrū-ēlis, cousin;  patrūs, uncle.
host-īlis, hostile;  hostis, an enemy.
cur-ūlis, curule;  currus, a chariot.

Note. — The suffixes arise from adding -lis (stem hi-) to various vowel stems. The long vowels are due partly to confusion between stem and suffix (cf. vītā-īis, from vītā-, with rēg-ālis), partly to confusion with verb-stems: cf. Aprilis (aperire), edūlis (edere), with senālis (senex). -ris is an inherited suffix, but in most of these formations -āris arises by differentiation for -ālis in words containing an i (as mīlīt-āris).

249. Adjectives with the sense of belonging to are formed by means of the suffixes —

-ānus, -ēnus, -īnus; -ās, -ēnsis; -eus, -ēcus (-ācus), -icus; -eus, -ēius, -īcius

1. So from common nouns: —

mont-ānus, of the mountains;  mŏns (stem monti-), mountain.
veter-ānus, veteran;  vetus (stem veter-), old.
antelōc-ānus, before daylight;  ante lūcem, before light.
terr-ēnus, earthly;
serr-ēnus, calm (of evening stillness);
coll-īnus, of a hill;
div-īnus, divine;
ilibert-īnus, of the class of freedmen;
cōniās, of what country?
infīm-ās, of the lowest rank;
for-ēnsis, of a market-place, or the Forum;
civī-cus, civic, of a citizen;
fullōn-icus, of a fuller;
mer-ācus, pure;
femīn-eus, of a woman, feminine;
lact-eus, milky;
plēb-ēus, of the commons, plebeian;
patr-īcius, patrician;

terra, earth.
sērus, late.
collis, hill.
divus, god.
ilibertus, one's freedman.
quis, who?
infīmus, lowest.
forum, a market-place.
civis, a citizen.
fullō, a fuller.
merum, pure wine.
femīna, a woman.
lac, milk (stem lacti-).
plēbēs, the commons.
pater, father.

Rōm-ānus, Roman;
Sull-ānī, Sulla's veterans;
Cyzic-ēni, Cyzicenes, people of Cyzicus;
Ligur-īnus, of Liguria;
Arpīn-ās, of Arpinum;
Sicilī-ēnus, Sicilian;
Īli-acus, Trojan (a Greek form);
Platōn-icus, Platonic;
Aquil-ēius, a Roman name;
Aquil-īea, a town in Italy;

Rōma, Rome.
Sulla.
Cyzicus.
Liguria.
Arpīnum.
Sicilia, Sicily.
Īlium, Troy.
Platō.
Aquila.

2. But especially from proper nouns to denote belonging to or coming from:

Silv-ānus, m., a god of the woods;
membr-āna, r., skin;
Aemili-ānus, m., name of Scipio Africanus;
Iani-ēna, r., a butcher's stall;
Avidi-ēnus, m., a Roman name;
INALI-ENUS, M., a Roman name;
ru-īna, r., a fall;
doctr-īna, r., learning;
silva, a wood.
membrum, limb.
Aemilia (gēnus).
ianus, butcher.
Avidius (Avitus).
incola, an inhabitant.
caecus, blind.
rūo, fall (no noun existing).
doctor, teacher.

Note.—Of these terminations, -ānus, -ēnus, -ēnus are compounded from -nus added to a stem-vowel: as, arca, arcanus; collis, collinus. The long vowels come from a confusion with verb-stems (as in plēnus, fini-tus, tribu-tus), and from the noun-stem in ā: as, arcānus. A few nouns occur of similar formation, as if from verb-stems in ē- and ĕ-: as, colōnus (colō, cf. incōla), patrōnus (cf. patrō, ĕ-āre), tribōnus (cf. tribuō, tribus), Portūnus (cf. portus), Vacōnus (cf. vacō, vacūs).

250. Other adjectives meaning in a general way belonging to (especially of places and times) are formed with the suffixes —
-ter (-tria), -ester (-estris), -timus, -nus, -ernus, -urnus, -ternus (-turnus)

palīs-ter, of the marshes;
pedes-ter, of the foot-soldiers;
sēmēs-tris, lasting six months;
silv-ester, silv-estris, woody;
fini-timus, neighboring, on the borders;
mari-timus, of the sea;
vēr-nus, vernal;
hodi-ernus, of to-day;
di-urnus, daily;
hes-ternus, of yesterday;
diū-turnus, lasting;
palīs, a marsh.
pedes, a footman.
sex mēnēs, six months.
silva, a wood.
finis, an end.
mare, sea.
vēr, spring.
hodiē, to-day.
diēs, day.
heri (old hesī), yesterday.
diū, long (in time).

Note. — Of these, -ester is formed by adding tri- (cf. tro-, § 234. II. 10) to stems in t- or d-. Thus pede-tri- becomes pedestri-, and others follow the analogy. -nus is an inherited suffix (§ 234. II. 4). -ernus and -urnus are formed by adding -nus to s-stems: as, diur-nus (for dius-nus), and hence, by analogy, hodiernus (hodiē). By an extension of the same principle were formed the suffixes -ternus and -turnus from words like paternus and nocturnus.

α. Adjectives meaning belonging to are formed from nouns by means of the suffixes —

-ārius, -tōrius (-sōrius)

ōrdin-ārius, regular;
argent-ārius, of silver or money;
extr-ārius, stranger;
meri-tōrius, profitable;
dēvor-sōrius, of an inn (cf. § 254. 5);
ōrdē, rank, order.
argentum, silver.
extrā, outside.
meritus, earned.
dēvorsus, turned aside.

Note 1. — Here -ius (§ 234. II. 11) is added to shorter forms in -āris and -or: as, pecū-liārius (from pecūliāris), bellātōrius (from bellātor).

Note 2. — These adjectives are often fixed as nouns (see § 254).

Verbal Adjectives

251. Adjectives expressing the action of the verb as a quality or tendency are formed from real or apparent verb-stems with the suffixes —

-āx, -idus, -ulus, -vus (-nus, -vus, -tivus)

-āx denotes a faulty or aggressive tendency; -tivus is oftener passive.

pūga-āx, pugnacious;
aud-āx, bold;
cup-idus, eager;
bib-nus, thirsty (as dry earth etc.);
proter-vus, violent, wanton;
pūgnāre, to fight.
andēre, to dare.
cupere, to desire.
bibere, to drink.
prōterere, to trample.
nec-uis (noc-ivus), hurtful, injurious; necēre, to do harm.
recid-ivus, restored; recidere, to fall back.
cap-tivus, captive; m., a prisoner of war; capere, to take.

Note.—Of these, -āx is a reduction of -acus (stem-vowel ā + -cus), become independent and used with verb-stems. Similar forms in -ēx, -ōx, -ūx, and āx are found or employed in derivatives: imbrex, m., a rain-tile (from imber); senex, old (from seni-s); ferōx, fierce (from fērus); atēx, savage (from āter, black); celōx, v., a yacht (cf. cellō); fēlix, happy, originally fertile (cf. fēlō, suck); fidūcia, x., confidence (as from fidēāx); cf. alio victrix (from victor). So mandāicus, chewing (from mandō).
-īdus is no doubt denominative, as in herbāius, grassy (from herba, herb); tumāitus, swollen (cf. tumu-lus, hill; tumul-ius, upright); callīdus, tough, cunning (cf. callūm, tough flesh); macīdus, slimy (cf. mūcus, slime); tābidus, wasting (cf. tābēs, wasting disease). But later it was used to form adjectives directly from verb-stems.
-ulus is the same suffix as in diminutives, but attached to verb-stems. Cf. aemulus, rivalling (cf. imitor and imāgō); sēdulus, sitting by, attentive (cf. domi-sēda, home-staying, and sēdō, set, settle, hence calm); penādus, hugging (cf. pondō, ablative, in weight; perpendiculum, a plummet; appendix, an addition); strāgulus, covering (cf. strāgēs); legulus, a picker (cf. sacrī-legus, a picker up of things sacred).
-vus seems originally primary (cf. § 234. 11. 8), but -īvus and -tīvus have become secondary and are used with nouns: as, aecīvus, of summer (from aēstus, heat); tempestīvus, timely (from tempus); cf. domes-ticus (from domus).

252. Adjectives expressing passive qualities, but occasionally active, are formed by means of the suffixes—

-ilis, -bilis, -ius, -tīlis (-silis)

frag-ilis, frail; fragere (frag), to break.
nō-bilis, well known, famous; nōsere (nō), to know.
exim-ius, choice, rare (cf. é-greg-ius); eximere, to take out, select.
ag-ilis, active; agere, to drive.
hab-ilis, handy; habēre, to hold.
al-tiilis, fattered (see note); alere, to nourish.

Note.—Of these, -ius is primary, but is also used as secondary (cf. § 241. b. n.). -ilis is both primary (as in agilis, fragilis) and secondary (as in similis, like, cf. ëros, ëmulus, English same); -bilis is in some way related to -bulum and -brum (§ 240. n.); -tīlis and -silis, -lis is added to - (so-), stem of the perfect participle: as, fossilis, dug up (from fossus, dug); volātilis, winged (from volātus, flight).

253. Verbal Adjectives that are Participial in meaning are formed with the suffixes—

-ndus, -bundus, -cundus

a. -ndus (the same as the gerundive ending) forms a few active or reflexive adjectives:—
secu-ndus, second (the following), favorable; sequī, to follow.
rotu-ndus, round (whirling) 1; rotāre, to whirl.

1 Cf. volvendus mēnsibus (Aen. i. 269), in the revolving months; cf. oriumi ab Sabiniis (Liv. i. 17), sprung from the Sabines, where oriumi = ortī.
b. -bundus, -cundus, denote a continuance of the act or quality expressed by the verb: —

vitā-bundus, *avoiding*;
treme-bundus, *trembling*;
mori-bundus, *dying, at the point of death*;
fā-cundus, *eloquent*;
fē-cundus, *fruitful*;
irā-cundus, *irascible*;

vitāre, *to shun*.
tremere, *to tremble*.
morī, *to die*.
fāri, *to speak*.
root rē, *nourish*.
cf. irāscī, *to be angry*.

Note. — These must have been originally nominal: as in the series, rubus, *red bush*; rubidus (but no rubicus), ruddy; Rubicōn, *Red River* (cf. Miniō, a river of Etruria; Minius, a river of Lusitania); rubicundus (as in averruncus, homun-culus). So turba, *commotion*; turbō, *a top*; turbidus, roily, etc. Cf. apexbō, longabō, gravēdō, dulcēdō.

c. Here belong also the participial suffixes -minus, -mnus (cf. Greek -μενος), from which are formed a few nouns in which the participial force is still discernible: —

fē-mina, woman (the nourisher);
alu-mnus, *a foster-child, nursling*;

root rē, *nourish*.
acere, *to nourish*.

Nouns with Adjective Suffixes

254. Many fixed forms of the Nominal Adjective suffixes mentioned in the preceding sections, make Nouns more or less regularly used in particular senses: —

1. -ārius, *person employed about anything*;
   argent-ārius, *m., silversmith, broker*, from argentum, *silver*.
   Corinthi-ārius, *m., worker in Corinthian bronze* (sarcastic nickname of Augustus), from (aes) Corinthium, *Corinthian bronze*.
   centōn-ārius, *m., ragman*, from centō, *patchwork*.

2. -āria, thing connected with something:
   argent-āria, *f., bank*, from argentum, *silver*.
   arēn-āriae, *m. plural, sandpits*, from arēna, *sand*.
   Asin-āria, *f., name of a play*, from asinus, *ass*.

3. -ārium, *place of a thing (with a few of more general meaning)*:
   aer-ārium, *n., treasury*, from aes, *copper*.
   tepid-ārium, *n., warm bath*, from tepidus, *warm*.
   sūd-ārium, *n., a towel*, cf. sūdō, *-āre, sweet*.
   sal-ārium, *n., salt money, salary*, from sāl, *salt*.

1 Cf. § 163, footnote 1.
2 Probably an adjective with fābula, *play*, understood.
4. -tòria (-sòria):—

Agitā-tòria, f., a play of Plautus, The Carter, from agitātor.
vor-sòria, f., a tack (nautical), from versus, a turn.

5. -tòrium (-sòrium), place of action (with a few of more general meaning):

dèver-sòrium, n., an inn, as from dévortō, turn aside.
audi-tòrium, n., a lecture-room, as from audiō, hear.
ten-tòrium, n., a tent, as from tendō, stretch.
tēc-tòrium, n., plaster, as from tegō, tēctus, cover.
por-tòrium, n., toll, cf. portō, carry, and portus, harbor.

6. -ile, animal-stall:

bov-ile, n., cattle-stall, from bōs, bōvis, ox, cow.
ov-ile, n., sheepfold, from ovis, stem ovi, sheep.

7. -al for -āle, thing connected with the primitive:

capit-al, n., headdress, capital crime, from caput, head.
penetr-āle (especially in plural), n., inner apartment, cf. penetrā, enter.
Sāturn-ālia, n. plural (the regular form for names of festivals), feast of Saturn, from Sāturnus.

8. -étum, n. (cf. -átus, -ūtus, see § 246. n.), -tum, place of a thing, especially with names of trees and plants to designate where these grow:

querc-étum, n., oak grove, from quercus, oak.
oliv-étum, n., olive grove, from oliva, an olive tree.
salic-tum, n., a willow thicket, from salix, a willow tree.
Argil-étum, n., The Clay Pit, from argilla, clay.

9. -cus (sometimes with inserted i, -icus), -icu, in any one of the genders, with various meanings:

vili-cus, m., a steward, vili-ca, f., a stewardess, from villa, farm-house.
fabr-ica, f., a workshop, from faber, workman.
am-icus, m., am-ica, f., friend, cf. amāre, to love.
būbul-cus, m., ox-tender, from būbul-us, diminutive, cf. bōs, ox.
cant-icum, n., song, from cantus, act of singing.
rubr-ica, f., red paint, from ruber, red.

10. -eus, -ea, -eum, with various meanings:

alv-eus, m., a trough, from alvus, the belly.
caper-ea, f., a wild she-goat, from caper, he-goat.
flamm-eum, n., a bridal veil, from flamma, flame, from its color.

11. -ter (stem tri-), -aster, -ester:

eques-ter, m., knight, for tēquet-ter.
sequ-ester, m., a stake-holder, from derivative of sequor, follow.
ole-aster, m., wild olive, from olea, an olive tree.
IRREGULAR DERIVATIVES

255. The suffix -ō (genitive -ōnis, stem ōn-), usually added to verb-stems (see § 236. e), is sometimes used with noun-stems to form nouns denoting possessed of. These were originally adjectives expressing quality or character, and hence often appear as proper names:—

epulae, a feast; epul-ō, a feaster.
nāsus, a nose; nās-ō, with a large nose (also as a proper name).
volus (in bene-volus), wishing; vol-ōnēs (plural), volunteers.
frōns, forehead; front-ō, big-head (also as a proper name).
cūria, a curia; cūrī-ō, head of a curia (also as a proper name).
restis, a rope; resti-ō, a rope-maker.

a. Rarely suffixes are added to compound stems imagined, but not used in their compound form:—

ad-verb-ium, adverb; ad, te, and verbum, verb, but without the intervening iadverbus.
lāti-fund-ium, large estate; lātus, wide, fundus, estate, but without the intervening iātīfundus.
su-ove-taur-ilia, a sacrifice of a swine, a sheep, and a bull; sūs, swine, ovis, sheep, taurus, bull, where the primitive would be impossible in Latin, though such formations are common in Sanskrit.

DERIVATION OF VERBS

256. Verbs may be classed as Primitive or Derivative.

1. Primitive Verbs are those inherited by the Latin from the parentspeech.
2. Derivative Verbs are those formed in the development of the Latin as a separate language.

257. Derivative Verbs are of two main classes:—

1. Denominative Verbs, formed from nouns or adjectives.
2. Verbs apparently derived from the stems of other verbs.

Denominative Verbs

258. Verbs were formed in Latin from almost every form of noun-stem and adjective-stem.

259. 1. Verbs of the First Conjugation are formed directly from ā-stems, regularly with a transitive meaning: as, fuga, flight; fugāre, put to flight.
2. Many verbs of the First Conjugation are formed from o-stems, changing the o- into ä-. These are more commonly transitive:—

stimulō, -āre, to incite, from stimulus, a goad (stem stimulō-).
aequō, -āre, to make even, from aequus, even (stem aequo-).
hibernō, -āre, to pass the winter, from hibernus, of the winter (stem hiberno-).
albō, -āre, to whiten, from albus, white (stem albō-).
piō, -āre, to expiate, from pius, pure (stem pio-).
novō, -āre, to renew, from novus, new (stem novo-).
armō, -āre, to arm, from arma, arms (stem armo-).
damnō, -āre, to injure, from damnnum, injury (stem damnō-).

3. A few verbs, generally intransitive, are formed by analogy from consonant and i- or u-stems, adding ä to the stem:—

vigilō, -āre, to watch, from vigil, awake.
exsulō, -āre, to be in exile, from exsul, an exile.
auspicō, -āri, to take the auspices, from auspex (stem auspice-), augur.
pulverō, -āre, to turn (anything) to dust, from pulvis (stem pulvis- for pulvis-), dust.
aestuo, -āre, to surge, boil, from aestus (stem aestu-), tide, seething.
levō, -āre, to lighten, from levis (stem levi-), light.

260. A few verbs of the Second Conjugation (generally intransitive) are recognizable as formed from noun-stems; but most are inherited, or the primitive noun-stem is lost:—

albeō, -āre, to be white, from albus (stem albus-), white.
cāneo, -āre, to be hoary, from cānus (stem cānus-), hoary.
clāreō, -āre, to shine, from clārus, bright.
claudeō, -āre, to be lame, from claudus, lame.
algeō, -āre, to be cold, cf. algidus, cold.

261. Some verbs of the Third Conjugation in -ūō, -uere, are formed from noun-stems in u- and have lost a consonant i:—

statūō (for *statu-yō), -ere, to set up, from status, position.
metuō, -ere, to fear, from metus, fear.
acuō, -ere, to sharpen, from acus, needle.
arguō, -ere, to clear up, from inherited stem ōargu-, bright (cf. ἀγρύπος).

Note.—Many verbs in u are inherited, being formed from roots in u: as, fluō, fluere, flow; so-lovō (for *lo-ūō, cf. λῶ), solvere, dissolve. Some roots have a parasitic u: as, loquor, locūtus, speak.

1 The type of all or most of the denominative formations in §§ 259-262 was inherited, but the process went on in the development of Latin as a separate language.
262. Many i-verbs or verbs of the Fourth Conjugation are formed from i-stems:—

mōliō, -īō, to soil, from mōles (-is), mass.
finitō, -ire, to bound, from finis, end.
sitiō, -ire, to thirst, from sitis, thirst.
stabilō, -ire, to establish, from stabilis, stable.

a. Some arise by confusion from other stems treated as i-stems:—
bullō, -ire, to boil, from bulla (stem bullā-), bubble.
condō, -ire, to preserve, from condus (stem condo-), storekeeper.
insāniō, -ire, to rave, from insānus (stem insāno-), mad.
gestō, -ire, to show wild longing, from gestus (stem gestu-), gesture.

Note.—Some of this form are of doubtful origin: as, ordin, begin, cf. ordin and exānium. The formation is closely akin to that of verbs in -īō of the third conjugation (p. 102).

b. Some are formed with -iō from consonant stems:—
cūstōdiō, -ire, to guard, from custōs (stem custōd-), guardian.
fulguriō, -ire, to lighten, from fulgur, lightning.

Note.—Here probably belong the so-called desideratives in -uriō (see § 263. 4. n.).

Verbs from Other Verbs

263. The following four classes of verbs regularly derived from other verbs have special meanings connected with their terminations.

Note.—These classes are all really denominative in their origin, but the formations had become so associated with actual verbs that new derivatives were often formed directly from verbs without the intervention of a noun-stem.

1. Inceptives or Inchoatives add -scō 1 to the present stem of verbs. They denote the beginning of an action and are of the Third Conjugation. Of some there is no simple verb in existence:—

calē-scō, grow warm, from calē, be warm.
labā-scō, begin to totter, from labō, totter.
sclī-scō, determine, from scī, know.
con-cupī-scō, conceive a desire for, from cupīō, desire.
alē-scō, grow, from alō, feed.
So irā-scō, get angry; cf. irā-tus.
iuvenē-scō, grow young; cf. iuvenis, young man.
mitē-scō, grow mild; cf. mittis, mild.
vesperā-scīt, it is getting late; cf. vesper, evening.

1 For -scō in primary formation, see § 176. b. 1.
Note. — Inceptives properly have only the present stem, but many use the perfect and supine systems of simple verbs: as, calēscō, grow warm, calē; ārdēscō, blaze forth, ārē; proficiscor, set out, prefectus.

2. Intensives or Iteratives are formed from the Supine stem and end in -tō or -tō (rarely -sō). They denote a forcible or repeated action, but this special sense often disappears. Those derived from verbs of the First Conjugation end in -itō (not -ātō).

iac-tō, hurl, from iaciō, throw.
ādormi-tō, be sleepy, from ādormiō, sleep.
vol-itō, flit, from volō, fly.
vēndi-tō, try to sell, from vēndō, sell.
quas-sō, shatter, from quatiō, shake.

They are of the first conjugation, and are properly denominative.

a. Compound suffixes -titō, -sitō, are formed with a few verbs. These are probably derived from other Iteratives; thus, cantitō may come from cantō, iterative of canō, sing.

b. Another form of Intensives — sometimes called Meditatives, or verbs of practice — ends in -essō (rarely -issō). These denote a certain energy or eagerness of action rather than its repetition:
cap-essō, lay hold on, from capiō, take.
fac-essō, do (with energy), from faciō, do.
pet-essō, pet-issō, seek (eagerly), from petō, seek.

These are of the third conjugation, usually having the perfect and supine of the fourth:
arcessō, arcessēre, arcessīvi, arcessītum, summon.
lacessō, lacessēre, lacessīvi, lacessītum, provoke.

Note. — The verbs in -essō, -issō, show the same formation as levāssō, impetrāssere, iūdicāssit, etc. (§ 183. 5), but its origin is not fully explained.

3. Diminutives end in -illō, and denote a feeble or petty action:
cav-illor, jest, cf. cavilla, raillery.
cant-illō, chirp or warble, from cantō, sing.

Note. — Diminutives are formed from verb-stems derived from real or supposed diminutive nouns.

4. Desideratives end in -turiō (-suriō), and express longing or wishing. They are of the fourth conjugation, and only two are in common use:

par-turiō, be in to the, from pariō, bring forth.
ē-suriō (for ē-turiō), be hungry, from ēdō, eat.

Others are used by the dramatists.

Note. — Desideratives are probably derived from some noun of agency: as, empturīō, wish to buy, from emptor, buyer. Visō, go to see, is an inherited desiderative of a different formation.
COMPOUND WORDS

264. A Compound Word is one whose stem is made up of two or more simple stems.

a. A final stem-vowel of the first member of the compound usually disappears before a vowel, and usually takes the form of i before a consonant. Only the second member receives inflection.¹

b. Only noun-stems can be thus compounded. A preposition, however, often becomes attached to a verb.

265. New stems are formed by Composition in three ways: —

1. The second part is simply added to the first: —
   su-ove-taurilia (süs, ovis, taurus), the sacrifice of a swine, a sheep, and a bull (cf. § 265. a).
   septen-decim (septem, decem), seventeen.

2. The first part modifies the second as an adjective or adverb (Determinative Compounds): —
   läti-fundium (látus, fundus), a large landed estate.
   omni-potēns (omnis, potēns), omnipotent.

3. The first part has the force of a case, and the second a verbal force (Objective Compounds): —
   agri cola (ager, field, òcola akin to colō, cultivate), a farmer.
   armi-ger (arma, arms, òger akin to gerō, carry), armor-bearer.
   corni-ceu (cornū, horn, òceu akin to canō, sing), horn-blower.
   carni-fex (carō, flesh, òfex akin to faciō, make), executioner.

a. Compounds of the above kinds, in which the last word is a noun, may become adjectives, meaning possessed of the quality denoted: —
   ali-pēs (āla, wing, pēs, foot), wing-footed.
   māga-animus (māgnus, great, animus, soul), great-souled.
   an-cesp (am-, at both ends, caput, head), double.

Note. — Many compounds of the above classes appear only in the form of some further derivative, the proper compound not being found in Latin.

¹ The second part generally has its usual inflection; but, as this kind of composition is in fact older than inflection, the compounded stem sometimes has an inflection of its own (as, cornicen, -cinis; lūcefer, -feri; lūdex, -dicis), from stems not occurring in Latin. Especially do compound adjectives in Latin take the form of i-stems: as, animus, exanimis; nōrma, abnormis (see § 73). In composition, stems regularly have their uninflected form: as, igni-spicium, divining by fire. But in o- and å-stems the final vowel of the stem appears as ï, as in alli-pēs (from āla, stem ālā-); and i- is so common a termination of compounded stems, that it is often added to stems which do not properly have it: as, flōri-comus, flower-crowned (from fōs, fór-is, and coma, hair).
Syntactic Compounds

266. In many apparent compounds, complete words — not stems — have grown together in speech. These are not strictly compounds in the etymological sense. They are called Syntactic Compounds. Examples are:—

a. Compounds of faciō, factō, with an actual or formerly existing noun-stem confounded with a verbal stem in ō. These are causative in force:
   consuē-faciō, habitudine (cf. consuē-scō, become accustomed).
   calē-faciō, calē-factō, to heat (cf. calē-scō, grow warm).

b. An adverb or noun combined with a verb:—
   bene-dicō (bene, well, dicō, speak), to bless.
   satis-faciō (satis, enough, faciō, dō), to do enough (for).

c. Many apparent compounds of stems:—
   fīde-inbeō (fīde, surety, inbeō, command), to give surety.
   mān-suētus (manui, to the hand, suētus, accustomed), tame.
   Mārci-por (Mārci puēr), slave of Marcus.
   Iuppiter (Iūp, old vocative, and pater), father Jove.
   anim-advertē (animum advertē), attend to, punish.

d. A few phrases forced into the ordinary inflections of nouns:—
   prō-cōnsul, proconsul (for prō cōnsul, instead of a consul).
   trium-vir, triumvīrus (singular from trium virōrum).
   septem-trīs, the Bear, a constellation (supposed singular of septem trīnēs,
   the Seven Plough-Oxen).

In all these cases it is to be observed that words, not stems, are united.

267. Many syntactic compounds are formed by prefixing a Particle to some other part of speech.

a. Prepositions are often prefixed to Verbs. In these compounds the prepositions retain their original adverbial sense:—
   ā, ab, away: ā-mittere, to send away.
   ad, to, towards: af-ferre (ad-ferō), to bring.
   ante, before: ante-ferre, to prefer; ante-cellere, to excel.
   circum, around: circum-munire, to fortify completely.
   com-, con- (cum), together or forcibly: cōn-ferre, to bring together; col-
   locāre, to set firm.
   dē, down, utterly: dē-spicere, despise; dē-struere, destroy.
   ē, ex, out: ef-ferre (ex-ferō), to carry forth, uplift.
   in (with verbs), in, on, against: in-ferre, to bear against.
   inter, between, to pieces: inter-rumpere, to interrupt.
   ob, towards, to meet: of-ferre, to offer; ob-venire, to meet.
   sub, under, up from under: sub-struere, to build beneath; sub-dūcere, to lead up.
   super, upon, over and above: super-ducere, to overflow.
**Note 1.**—In such compounds, however, the prepositions sometimes have their ordinary force as prepositions, especially ad, in, circum, trans, and govern the case of a noun: as, transire flumen, to cross a river (see § 388. b).

**Note 2.**—Short a of the root is weakened to i before one consonant, to e before two: as, facio, confession, confectus; faciō, ēiciō, ēictus. But long a is retained: as, peractus.

**b. Verbs** are also compounded with the following *inseparable particles*, which do not appear as prepositions in Latin:—

amb-, (am-, an-), around: ambire, to go about (cf. ambig, about).
dis-, di-, asunder, apart: discedere, to depart (cf. duo, two); dividere, to divide.
por-, forward: portendere, to hold forth, predict (cf. porrō, forth).
red-, re-, back, again: reire, to return; redire, to open (from claudō, shut); reificere, to repair (make again).
sēd-, sē-, apart: sécernō, to separate; cf. sēditiō, a going apart, secession (eō, ire, to go).

**c. Many Verbs** are found compounded with a preposition, like the verbs to which they correspond:—

per-fuga, deserter; cf. per-fugīō.
trādux, vine-branch; cf. trāducō (trānsducō).
ad-vena, stranger; cf. ad-veniō.
con-iux (con-iūnx), spouse; cf. con-iungō.
in-dex, pointer out; cf. in-īcō.
prae-ses, guardian; cf. praec-sideō.
com-bibō, boon companion; cf. com-bibō, -ere.

**d. An Adjective** is sometimes modified by an adverbia]l prefix.

1. Of these, per- (less commonly praee-), very; sub-, somewhat; in-, not, are regular, and are very freely prefixed to adjectives:—

per-magnus, very large.
per-paucī, very few.
sub-rusticus, rather clownish.
sub-fuscus, darkish.
prae-longus, very long.
innocuus, harmless.
in-imicus, unfriendly.
in-sanus, insane.
in-finitus, boundless.
im-purus, impure.

**Note.**—Per and sub, in these senses, are also prefixed to verbs: as, per-terreiō, terrify; subrīdeō, smiile. In ignōscō, pardon, in- appears to be the negative prefix.

2. The negative in- sometimes appears in combination with an adjective that does not occur alone:—

in-ermis, unarmed (cf. arma, arms).
in-bellis, unwarlike (cf. bellum, war).
in-pūnis, without punishment (cf. poena, punishment).
in-teger, untouched, whole (cf. tangō, to touch, root tag).
in-vitus, unwilling (probably from root seen in vi-s, thou wishes).
INTRODUCTORY NOTE

268. The study of formal grammar arose at a late period in the history of language, and dealt with language as a fully developed product. Accordingly the terms of Syntax correspond to the logical habits of thought and forms of expression that had grown up at such a period, and have a logical as well as a merely grammatical meaning. But a developed syntactical structure is not essential to the expression of thought. A form of words—likeō puerrum pulchrum! oh! beautiful boy—expresses a thought and might even be called a sentence; though it does not logically declare anything, and does not, strictly speaking, make what is usually called a sentence at all.

At a very early period of spoken language, word-forms were no doubt significant in themselves, without inflections, and constituted the whole of language,—just as to a child the name of some familiar object will stand for all he can say about it. At a somewhat later stage, such uninflected words put side by side made a rudimentary form of proposition: as a child might say fire bright; horse run. With this began the first form of logical distinction, that of Subject and Predicate; but as yet there was no distinction in form between noun and verb, and no fixed distinction in function. At a later stage forms were differentiated in function and—by various processes of composition which cannot be fully traced—Inflections were developed. These served to express person, tense, case, and other grammatical relations, and we have true Parts of Speech.

Not until language reached this last stage was there any fixed limit to the association of words, or any rule prescribing the manner in which they should be combined. But gradually, by usage, particular forms came to be limited to special functions (as nouns, verbs, adjectives), and fixed customs arose of combining words into what we now call Sentences. These customs are in part the result of general laws or modes of thought (logic), resulting from our habits of mind (General Grammar); and in part are what may be called By-Laws, established by custom in a given language (Particular Grammar), and making what is called the Syntax of that language.

In the fully developed methods of expression to which we are almost exclusively accustomed, the unit of expression is the Sentence: that is, the completed statement, with its distinct Subject and Predicate. Originally sentences were simple. But two simple sentence-forms may be used together, without the grammatical subordination of either, to express a more complex form of thought than could be denoted by one alone. This is *parataxis* (arrangement side by side). Since, however, the two sentences, independent in form, were in fact used to express parts of a complex whole and were therefore mutually dependent, the sense of unity found expression in conjunctions, which denoted the grammatical subordination of the one to the other. This is *hypotaxis* (arrangement under, subordination). In this way, through various stages of development, which correspond to our habitual modes of thought, there were produced various forms of complex sentences. Thus, to express the complex idea *I beseech you to pardon me*, the two simple sentence-forms *quaeso* and *ignoscas* were used side by side, *quaeso ignoscas*; then the feeling of grammatical subordination found expression in a conjunction, *quaeso ut ignoscas*, forming a complex sentence. The results of these processes constitute the subject-matter of Syntax.
THE SENTENCE

Kinds of Sentences

269. A Sentence is a form of words which contains a Statement, a Question, an Exclamation, or a Command.

a. A sentence in the form of a Statement is called a Declarative Sentence: as, — canis currit, the dog runs.

b. A sentence in the form of a Question is called an Interrogative Sentence: as, — canisne currit? does the dog run?

c. A sentence in the form of an Exclamation is called an Exclamatory Sentence: as, — quam celeriter currit canis! how fast the dog runs!

d. A sentence in the form of a Command, an Exhortation, or an Entreaty is called an Imperative Sentence: as, — i, curre per Alpis, go, run across the Alps; currat canis, let the dog run.

Subject and Predicate

270. Every sentence consists of a Subject and a Predicate.
The Subject of a sentence is the person or thing spoken of.
The Predicate is that which is said of the Subject.
Thus in canis currit, the dog runs, canis is the subject, and currit the predicate.

271. The Subject of a sentence is usually a Noun or Pronoun, or some word or group of words used as a Noun: —
equitēs ad Cæsarem vēnērunt, the cavalry came to Cæsar.
hūmānum est errāre, to err is human.
quaeiritur num mors malum sit, the question is whether death is an evil.

a. But in Latin the subject is often implied in the termination of the verb: —
sedē-mus, we sit. curri-tis, you run. inqui-t, says he.

272. The Predicate of a sentence may be a Verb (as in canis currit, the dog runs), or it may consist of some form of sum and a Noun or Adjective which describes or defines the subject (as in Cæsar cōnsul erat, Cæsar was consul).

Such a noun or adjective is called a Predicate Noun or Adjective, and the verb sum is called the Copula (i.e. the connective).

Thus in the example given, Cæsar is the subject, cōnsul the predicate noun, and erat the copula (see § 283).
Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

273. Verbs are either Transitive or Intransitive.

1. A Transitive Verb has or requires a direct object to complete its sense (see § 274): as, — frātrem cecidit, he slew his brother.

2. An Intransitive Verb admits of no direct object to complete its sense:

   cadō, I fall (or am falling).  sōl lūcet, the sun shines (or is shining).

   **Note 1.**—Among transitive verbs Factitive Verbs are sometimes distinguished as a separate class. These state an act which produces the thing expressed by the word which completes their sense. Thus mēnsām fēcit, he made a table (which was not in existence before), is distinguished from mēnsām percussit, he struck a table (which already existed).

   **Note 2.**—A transitive verb may often be used absolutely, i.e. without any object expressed: as,—arāt, he is ploughing, where the verb does not cease to be transitive because the object is left indefinite, as we see by adding,—quid, what? agrum suum, his land.

   **Note 3.**—Transitive and Intransitive Verbs are often called Active and Neuter Verbs respectively.

Object

274. The person or thing immediately affected by the action of a verb is called the Direct Object.

A person or thing indirectly affected by the action of a verb is called the Indirect Object.

Only transitive verbs can have a Direct Object; but an Indirect Object may be used with both transitive and intransitive verbs (§§ 362, 366):

   pater vocat filium (direct object), the father calls his son.
   mihi (ind. obj.) agrum (dir. obj.) ostendit, he showed me a field.
   mihi (ind. obj.) placet, it is pleasing to me.

   **Note.**—The distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs is not a fixed distinction, for most transitive verbs may be used intransitively, and many verbs usually intransitive may take a direct object and so become transitive (§ 388, a).

\( a. \) With certain verbs, the Genitive, Dative, or Ablative is used where the English, from a difference in meaning, requires the direct object (Objective):

   hominem videō, I see the man (Accusative).
   hominis servīo, I serve the man (Dative, see § 367).
   hominis miseror, I pity the man (Genitive, see § 354. a).
   hominem amicō tōtō, I treat the man as a friend (Ablative, see § 410).
b. Many verbs transitive in Latin are rendered into English by an intransitive verb with a preposition:—

petit aprum, he aims at the boar.
laudem affectat, he strives after praise.
curar valētūinem, he takes care of his health.
meum cāsum dohēruit, they grieved at my misfortune.
ridet nostram āmentiam (Quinct. 55), he laughs at our stupidity.

275. When a transitive verb is changed from the Active to the Passive voice, the Direct Object becomes the Subject and is put in the Nominative case:—

Active: pater filiām vocat, the father calls his son.
Passive: filiā a pātre vocātur, the son is called by his father.
Active: lūnām et stellās vidēamus, we see the moon and the stars.
Passive: lūna et stellae videntur, the moon and stars are seen (appear).

Modification

276. A Subject or a Predicate may be modified by a single word, or by a group of words (a phrase or a clause).

The modifying word or group of words may itself be modified in the same way.

a. A single modifying word may be an adjective, an adverb, an appositive (§ 282), or the oblique case of a noun.

Thus in the sentence vir fortis patiēnter fert, a brave man endures patiently, the adjective fortis, brave, modifies the subject vir, man, and the adverb patiēnter, patiently, modifies the predicate fert, endures.

b. The modifying word is in some cases said to limit the word to which it belongs.

Thus in the sentence pingē patrem video, I see the boy’s father, the genitive pingē limits patrem (by excluding any other father).

277. A Phrase is a group of words, without subject or predicate of its own, which may be used as an Adjective or an Adverb.

Thus in the sentence vir fuit summā nōbilitāte, he was a man of the highest nobility, the words summā nōbilitāte, of the highest nobility, are used for the adjective nōbilis, noble (or nōbilissimās, very noble), and are called an Adjective Phrase.

So in the sentence māgnā celeritāte vēnit, he came with great speed, the words māgnā celeritāte, with great speed, are used for the adverb celerīter, quickly (or celerīmē, very quickly), and are called an Adverbial Phrase.
Clauses and Sentences

278. Sentences are either Simple or Compound.
   1. A sentence containing a single statement is called a Simple Sentence.
   2. A sentence containing more than one statement is called a Compound Sentence, and each single statement in it is called a Clause.

   a. If one statement is simply added to another, the clauses are said to be Coördinate. They are usually connected by a Coördinate Conjunction (§ 223. a); but this is sometimes omitted:
      divide et imperā, divide and control. But,—
      vēnī, vidi, vici, I came, I saw, I conquered.

   b. If one statement modifies another in any way, the modifying clause is said to be Subordinate, and the clause modified is called the Main Clause.

      This subordination is indicated by some connecting word, either a Subordinate Conjunction (§ 223. b) or a Relative:
      ōderint dum metuant, let them hate so long as they fear.
      servum misit quem sēcum habēbatur, he sent the slave whom he had with him.

      A sentence containing one or more subordinate clauses is sometimes called Complex.

      Note. — A subordinate clause may itself be modified by other subordinate clauses.

279. Subordinate Clauses are of various kinds.

   a. A clause introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Relative Adverb is called a Relative Clause:
      Mōsa prōfluit ex monte Vosegō, qui est in finibus Lingonum (B. G. iv. 10),
      the Meuse rises in the Vosges mountains, which are on the borders of the Lingones.

      For Relative Pronouns (or Relative Adverbs) serving to connect independent sentences, see § 308. f.

   b. A clause introduced by an Adverb of Time is called a Temporal Clause:
      cum tacent, clamant (Cat. i. 21), while they are silent, they cry aloud.
      hominēs aegrī mörbī gravi, cum iactantur aestū febrisque, si aquam gelidam
      biberint, primō relevāri videntur (id. i. 31), men suffering with a severe
      sickness, when they are tossing with the heat of fever, if they drink cold
      water, seem at first to be relieved.
c. A clause containing a Condition, introduced by si, if (or some equivalent expression), is called a Conditional Clause. A sentence containing a conditional clause is called a Conditional Sentence.

Thus, si aquam gelidam biberint, primō relevāri videntur (in b, above) is a Conditional Sentence, and si... biberint is a Conditional Clause.

d. A clause expressing the Purpose of an action is called a Final Clause:

edō ut vivam, I eat to live (that I may live).
misit légātōs qui dicerent, he sent ambassadors to say (who should say).

c. A clause expressing the Result of an action is called a Consecutive Clause:—

tam longē aberam ut nēum vidērem, I was too far away to see (so far away that I did not see).

AGREEMENT

280. A word is said to agree with another when it is required by usage to be in the same Gender, Number, Case, or Person.

The following are the general forms of agreement, sometimes called the Four Conords:—

1. The agreement of the Noun in Apposition or as Predicate (§§ 281–284).
2. The agreement of the Adjective with its Noun (§ 286).
3. The agreement of the Relative with its Antecedent (§ 305).
4. The agreement of the Finite Verb with its Subject (§ 316).

a. A word sometimes takes the gender or number, not of the word with which it should regularly agree, but of some other word implied in that word.

This use is called Synesis, or consūctiō ad sēnsum (construction according to sense).

AGREEMENT OF NOUNS

281. A noun used to describe another, and denoting the same person or thing, agrees with it in Case.

The descriptive noun may be either an Appositive (§ 282) or a Predicate noun (§ 283).

1 Observe that the classes defined in a–e are not mutually exclusive, but that a single clause may belong to several of them at once. Thus a relative clause is usually subordinate, and may be at the same time temporal or conditional; and subordinate clauses may be coordinate with each other.
Apposition

282. A noun used to describe another, and standing in the same part of the sentence with the noun described, is called an Appositive, and is said to be in apposition:—

externus timor, maximum concordiae vinculum, iungébat animós (Liv. ii. 39),
fear of the foreigner, the chief bond of harmony, united their hearts.
[Here the appositive belongs to the subject.]
quattuor hic primum ōmen equós vidi (Aen. iii. 537), I saw here four horses,
the first omen. [Here both nouns are in the predicate.]
litterās Graecās senex didici (Cat. M. 26), I learned Greek when an old man.
[Here senex, though in apposition with the subject of didici, really states something further: viz., the time, condition, etc., of the act (Predicate Apposition).]

a. Words expressing parts may be in apposition with a word including the parts, or vice versa (Partitive Apposition):—

Nec P. Popilius neque Q. Metellus, clārissimi virī atque amplissimi, vim tribūniciam sustinère poterunt (Cil. 95), neither Publius Popilius nor Quintus Metellus, [both of them] distinguished and honorable men, could withstand the power of the tribunes.

Gnaeus et Püblius Scipiónes, Cneius and Publius Scipio (the Scipios).

b. An Adjective may be used as an appositive:—

ea Sex. Rōsciōm inopem recēpit (Rosc. Am. 27), she received Sexus Roscius in his poverty (needy).

c. An appositive generally agrees with its noun in Gender and Number when it can:—

sequuntur nātūram, optimam ducem (Lael. 19), they follow nature, the best guide.

omnia doctrinārum inveniētūa Ἀθηνᾶς (De Or. i. 13), Athens, discoverer of all learning.

NOTES. — But such agreement is often impossible: as,—ōlim truncus cram ficulnus, inūtile figum (Hor. S. i. 8. 1), I once was a fig-tree trunk, a useless log.

d. A common noun in apposition with a Locative (§ 427) is put in the Ablative, with or without the preposition in:—

Antiochiae, celebrī quondam urbē (Arch. 4), at Antioch, once a famous city.
Albae cōnstitērunt, in urbē mānūtā (Phil. iv. 6), they halted at Alba, a fortified town.

For a Genitive in apposition with a Possessive Pronoun or an Adjective, see § 302. e.
For the so-called Appositional Genitive, see § 343. d.
For the construction with nōmen est, see § 373. a.
Predicate Noun or Adjective

283. With sum and a few other intransitive or passive verbs, a noun or an adjective describing or defining the subject may stand in the predicate. This is called a Predicate Noun or Adjective.

The verb sum is especially common in this construction, and when so used is called the copula (i.e. connective).

Other verbs which take a predicate noun or adjective are the so-called copulative verbs signifying to become, to be made, to be named, to appear, and the like.

284. A Predicate Noun or Adjective after the copula sum or a copulative verb is in the same case as the Subject:—

pácis semper auctor fui (Lig. 28), I have always been an adviser of peace.
quae pertinácia quibusdam,.eadem aliis constántia vidérim potest (Marc. 31),
what may seem obstinacy to some, may seem to others consistency.
élis mortis sedéntis útorés (Mil. 79), you sit as avengers of his death.
habeátmur vir égregius Paulus (Cat. iv. 21), let Paulus be regarded as an
extraordinary man.
ego patrónus exstíti (Resc. Am. 5), I have come forward as an advocate.
dícit nón omnis bona esse beátós, he says that not all good men are happy.

a. A predicate noun referring to two or more singular nouns is in the plural:—
cónsulés creantur Caesar et Servilius (B. C. iii. 1), Caesar and Servilius are elected consuls.

b. Sum in the sense of exist makes a complete predicate without a predicate noun or adjective. It is then called the substantive verb:—
sunt viri fortés, there are (exist) brave men. [Cf. vixére fortés ante Agamemnon (Hor. Od. iv. 9. 25), brave men lived before Agamemnon.]

For Predicate Accusative and Predicate Ablative, see §§ 392, 415. n.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES

Attributive and Predicate Adjectives

285. Adjectives are either Attributive or Predicate.

1. An Attributive Adjective simply qualifies its noun without the intervention of a verb or participle, expressed or implied: as, —bonus imperátor, a good commander; stellae lucidae, bright stars; verbum Graecum, a Greek word.
2. All other adjectives are called Predicate Adjectives: —

stellae lúcidae erant, the stars were bright.
sit Scipio cárus (Cat. iv. 21), let Scipio be illustrious.
hominês mítis reddidit (Inv. i. 2), has rendered men mild.
tria præedia Capitōni propria tráduntur (Rosc. Am. 21), three farms are handed over to Capito as his own.
cónsilium cérērunt plēnum sceleris (id. 28), they formed a plan full of villany.

Note.—A predicate adjective may be used with sum or a copulative verb (§ 283); it may have the construction of a predicate accusative after a verb of naming, calling, or the like (§ 393. n.); or it may be used in apposition like a noun (§ 282. b).

Rules of Agreement

286. Adjectives, Adjective Pronouns, and Participles agree with their nouns in Gender, Number, and Case: —

vir fortis, a brave man.
illa mulier, that woman.
urbium mágnum, of great cities.
cum ducendis militibus, with two hundred soldiers.
imperató rictus est, the general was beaten.
secutae sunt tempestates, storms followed.

Note.—All rules for the agreement of adjectives apply also to adjective pronouns and to participles.

a. With two or more nouns the adjective is regularly plural, but often agrees with the nearest (especially when attributive): —

Nisus et Euryalus prīmī (Aen. v. 294), Nisus and Euryalus first.
Caesāris omni et grātia et opibus fruor (Pam. i. 9. 21), I enjoy all Caesar’s favor and resources.

Note.—An adjective referring to two nouns connected by the preposition cum is occasionally plural (synesin, § 286. a): as,—Iuva cum Labienō capi (B. Afr. 52), Juba and Labienus were taken.

b. A collective noun may take an adjective of a different gender and number agreeing with the gender and number of the individuals implied (synesin, § 280. a): —

pars certāre parāti (Aen. v. 168), a part ready to contend.
colōniae aliquot dūctae, Priscī Latinī appellatei (Liv. i. 3), several colonies were planted (led out) [of men] called Old Latins.
multīōnō convicī sunt (Tac. Ann. xv. 44), a multitude were convicted.
magnā pars raptae (id. i. 9), a large part [of the women] were seized.

Note.—A superlative in the predicate rarely takes the gender of a partitive genitive by which it is limited: as,—vōcissimum animāliūm delphinus est (Plin. N. H. ix. 20), the dolphin is the swiftest [creature] of creatures.
287. One adjective may belong in sense to two or more nouns of different genders. In such cases,—

1. An Attributive Adjective agrees with the nearest noun:—

multae operae ac labóris, of much trouble and toil.
vita mórēisque mei, my life and character.
si rês, si vir, si tempus ūllum dignum fuit (Mil. 19), if any thing, if any man, if any time was fit.

2. A Predicate Adjective may agree with the nearest noun, if the nouns form one connected idea:—

factus est strepitus et admurmurātiō (Verr. i. 45), a noise of assent was made (noise and murmur).

Note. —This is only when the copula agrees with the nearest subject (§ 317. c).

3. But generally, a Predicate Adjective will be masculine, if nouns of different genders mean living beings; neuter, if things without life:—

uxor deinde ac liberī amplexī (Liv. ii. 40), then his wife and children embraced him.
labor (x.) voluptāsque (r.) societāte quādam inter sē nātūralī sunt iūncta (x.) (id. v. 4), labor and delight are bound together by a certain natural alliance.

4. If nouns of different genders include both living beings and things without life, a Predicate Adjective is sometimes masculine (or feminine), sometimes neuter, and sometimes agrees in gender with the nearest if that is plural:—

rēx rēgiaeque classis ūnā p(ro)fectī (Liv. xxi. 50), the king and the royal fleet set out together.
nātūra inimica sunt libera cīvitās et rēx (id. xliiv. 24), by nature a free state and a king are hostile.
lēgātōs sortesque ōrāculi exspectanda (id. v. 15), that the ambassadors and the replies of the oracle should be waited for.

a. Two or more abstract nouns of the same gender may have a Predicate Adjective in the neuter plural (cf. § 289. c);—

stultitīa et tēmeritās et inīstītia . . . sunt fugiēnda (Fin. iii. 39), folly, rashness, and injustice are [things] to be shunned.

Adjectives used Substantively

288. Adjectives are often used as Nouns (substantively), the masculine usually to denote men or people in general of that kind, the feminine women, and the neuter things:—
omnēs, all men (everybody).
miāōrēs, ancestors.
Romānī, Romans.
libertā, a freedwoman.
sapia, a sage (philosopher).
boni, the good (good people).
onnia, all things (everything).
miāōrēs, descendants.
barbarī, barbarians.
Sabinae, the Sabine wives.
amicus, a friend.
bona, goods, property.

Note. — The plural of adjectives, pronouns, and participles is very common in this use. The singular is comparatively rare except in the neuter (§ 289. a, c) and in words that have become practically nouns.

a. Certain adjectives have become practically nouns, and are often modified by other adjectives or by the possessive genitive: —

tuus vicinus proximus, your next-door neighbor.
propinquī cēterī, his other relatives.
meus aequālis, a man of my own age.
ēius familialīris Catilīna (Har. Resp. 5), his intimate friend Catilina.
Leptae nostri familiāriSSimus (Fam. ix. 13. 2), a very close friend of our friend Lepta.

b. When ambiguity would arise from the substantive use of an adjective, a noun must be added: —

boni, the good; onnia, everything (all things); but, —
potentia omnium rērum, power over everything.

c. Many adjectives are used substantively either in the singular or the plural, with the added meaning of some noun which is understood from constant association: —

Afriicus [ventus], the southwest wind; Ianuārius [mēnis], January; vitulina [carō], veal (calf’s flesh); fera [bēstia], a wild beast; patria [terra], the fatherland; Gallia [terra], Gaul (the land of the Galli); hiberna [castra], winter quarters; trīēmis [nāvis], a three-banked galley, trireme; argentārius [faber], a silversmith; rēgia [domus], the palace; Latinae [fēriae], the Latin festival.

Note. — These adjectives are specific in meaning, not generic like those in § 288. They include the names of winds and months (§ 31).
For Nouns used as Adjectives, see § 321. c.
For Adverbs used like Adjectives, see § 321. d.

289. Neuter Adjectives are used substantively in the following special senses: —

a. The neuter singular may denote either a single object or an abstract quality: —
raptō vivere, to live by plunder. in arīdō, on dry ground.
honestum, an honorable act, or virtue (as a quality).
opus est matūrātō, there is need of haste. [Cf. Impersonal passives, § 208. d.]
b. The neuter plural is used to signify objects in general having the quality denoted, and hence may stand for the abstract idea: — honesta, honorable deeds (in general). praeterita, the past (lit., bygones). omnès fœcia laudant, all men praise bravery (brave things).

c. A neuter adjective may be used as an appositive or predicate noun with a noun of different gender (cf. § 287. a): —

triœ lupus stabulis (Ecl. iii. 80), the wolf [is] a grievous thing for the fold. varium et mutabile semper fœmina (Aen. iv. 569), woman is ever a changing and fickle thing. malum mihi videtur esse mors (Tusc. i. 9), death seems to me to be an evil.

d. A neuter adjective may be used as an attributive or a predicate adjective with an infinitive or a substantive clause: —

istuc ipsum nœn esse (Tusc. i. 12), that very "not to be." hœmœnum est errare, to err is human. aliud est errare Caesarem nœlle, aliud nœlle miserœri (Lig. 16), it is one thing to be unwilling that Caesar should err, another to be unwilling that he should pity.

Adjectives with Adverbial Force

290. An adjective, agreeing with the subject or object, is often used to qualify the action of the verb, and so has the force of an adverb: —

primus vœnæ, he was the first to come (came first). nœlus dubitœ, I no way doubt. laœcœ andiœre, they were glad to hear. erat Rœmae frequœns (Rosc. Am. 16), he was often at Rome. seœus in caœlum redeœs (Hor. Od. i. 2. 45), mayst thou return late to heaven.

Comparatives and Superlatives

291. Besides their regular signification (as in English), the forms of comparison are used as follows: —

a. The Comparative denotes a considerable or excessive degree of a quality: as, — brevior, rather short; audœcior, too bold.

b. The Superlative (of eminence) often denotes a very high degree of a quality without implying a distinct comparison: as, — mœns altissimus, a very high mountain.

Note. — The Superlative of Eminence is much used in complimentary references to persons and may often be translated by the simple positive.
c. With *quam*, *vel*, or *unus* the Superlative denotes the highest possible degree: —

*quam plurimi*, *as many as possible.*

*quam maximē potest* (*maximē quam potest*), *as much as can be.*

*vel minimus*, *the very least.*

*vir unus doctissimus*, *the one most learned man.*

Note 1. — A high degree of a quality is also denoted by such adverbs as *admodum*, *validē*, *very*, or by *præ* or *praec* in composition (§ 267. d. 1): as, — *validē malius*, *very bad* — *pessimus*, *very great*; *praecaltus*, *very high* (or deep).

Note 2. — A low degree of a quality is indicated by *sub* in composition: as, — *subrūsticus*, *rather clownish*, or by *minus*, *not very*; *minimē*, *not at all*; *parum*, *not enough*; *nōn satīs*, *not much*.

Note 3. — The comparative *māiorēs* (for *māiorēs nātū*), *greater by birth* has the special signification of *ancestors*; so *minōrēs* often means *descendants*.

For the Superlative with *quisque*, see § 313. b. For the construction of a substantive after a Comparative, see §§ 406, 407; for that of a clause, see § 535. c, 571. a. For the Ablative of Degree of Difference with a Comparative (*multō etc.*), see § 414.

292. When two qualities of an object are compared, both adjectives are in the Comparative: —

*longior quam lātior acieēs erat* (Liv. xxvii. 48), *the line was longer than it was broad* (or, *rather long than broad*).

*vērior quam grātior* (id. xxii. 38), *more true than agreeable.*

Note. — So also with adverbs: as, — *iubentius quam vērius* (Mil. 78), *with more freedom than truth*.

a. Where *magis* is used, both adjectives are in the positive: —

*disertus magis quam sapiēnē* (Att. x. 1. 4), *eloquent rather than wise.*

*clāri magis quam honesti* (Iug. 8), *more renowned than honorable.*

Note. — A comparative and a positive, or even two positives, are sometimes connected by *quam*. This use is rarer and less elegant than those before noticed: —

*clāris māioribus quam vetustīs* (Tac. Ann. iv. 61), *of a family more famous than old.*

*vehementius quam cautē* (Tac. Agr. 4), *with more fury than good heed.*

293. Superlatives (and more rarely Comparatives) denoting order and succession — also *medius*, *[cēterus]*, *reliquus* — usually designate not what *object*, but what *part of it*, is meant: —

*summus mōns*, *the top of the hill.*

*in ultimā plateā*, *at the end of the place.*

*prior āctīō*, *the earlier part of an action.*

*reliqui captivi*, *the rest of the prisoners.*

*in colle mediō* (B. G. i. 24), *half way up the hill* (on the middle of the hill). *inter cēteram plānitieā* (Iug. 92), *in a region elsewhere level.*

Note. — A similar use is found in *sērā* (*multā*), *nocte*, *late at night*, and the like. But *medium viae*, *the middle of the way*; *multum diēl*, *much of the day*, also occur.
PRONOUNS

294. A Pronoun indicates some person or thing without either naming or describing it. Pronouns are derived from a distinct class of roots, which seem to have denoted only ideas of place and direction (§ 228. 2), and from which nouns or verbs can very rarely be formed. They may therefore stand for Nouns when the person or thing, being already present to the senses or imagination, needs only to be pointed out, not named.

Some pronouns indicate the object in itself, without reference to its class, and have no distinction of gender. These are Personal Pronouns. They stand syntactically for Nouns, and have the same construction as nouns.

Other pronouns designate a particular object of a class, and take the gender of the individuals of that class. These are called Adjective Pronouns. They stand for Adjectives, and have the same construction as adjectives.

Others are used in both ways; and, though called adjective pronouns, may also be treated as personal, taking, however, the gender of the object indicated.

In accordance with their meanings and uses, Pronouns are classified as follows:—

- Personal Pronouns (§ 295).
- Interrogative Pronouns (§ 333).
- Demonstrative Pronouns (§ 296).
- Relative Pronouns (§ 303).
- Reflexive Pronouns (§ 299).
- Indefinite Pronouns (§ 309).
- Possessive Pronouns (§ 362).

Personal Pronouns

295. The Personal Pronouns have, in general, the same constructions as nouns.

a. The personal pronouns are not expressed as subjects, except for distinction or emphasis:—

tē vocō, I call you. But,—

quīs mē vocat? ego tē vocō, who is calling me? I (emphatic) am calling you.

b. The personal pronouns have two forms for the genitive plural, that in -um being used partitively (§ 346), and that in -ī oftenest objectively (§ 348):—

māior vestrum, the elder of you.

habētis ducem memorem vestri, oblītum suī (Cat. iv. 19), you have a leader who thinks (is mindful) of you and forgets (is forgetful of) himself.

pars nostrum, a part (i.e. some) of us.

Note 1. — The genitivus nostrum, vestrum, are occasionally used objectively (§ 348): as, — cupidus vestrum (Verr. iii. 224), fond of you; custōs vestrum (Cat. iii. 29), the guardian of you (your guardian).

Note 2. — "One of themselves" is expressed by unus ex suis or ipsīs (rarely ex sē), or unus sūrum.

c. The Latin has no personal pronouns of the third person except the reflexive sē. The want is supplied by a Demonstrative or Relative (§§ 296. 2, 308. ʃ).
Demonstrative Pronouns

296. Demonstrative Pronouns are used either adjectively or substantively.

1. As adjectives, they follow the rules for the agreement of adjectives and are called Adjective Pronouns or Pronominal Adjectives (§§ 286, 287):

- hóc proeliō factō, after this battle was fought (this battle having been fought).
- eōdem proeliō, in the same battle.
- ex eis aedificiis, out of those buildings.

2. As substantives, they are equivalent to personal pronouns. This use is regular in the oblique cases, especially of is:

- Caesar exercitus eūs, Caesar and his army (not suus). [But, Caesar exercitum suum dimisit, Caesar disbanded his [own] army.]
- si obsidēs ab eis dentur (B. G. i. 14), if hostages should be given by them (persons just spoken of).
- hī sunt extrā provinciam trāns Rhodanum prīmi (id. i. 10), they (those just mentioned) are the first [inhabitants] across the Rhone.
- ille minimum propter adulēscētiam poterat (id. i. 20), he (emphatic) had very little power, on account of his youth.

a. An adjective pronoun usually agrees with an appositive or predicate noun, if there be one, rather than with the word to which it refers (cf. § 306):

- hic locus est ūnum quō perfugiant; hic portus, haec arx, haec āra sociōrum (Verr. v. 126), this is the only place to which they can flee for refuge; this is the haven, this the citadel, this the altar of the allies.
- rōrum caput hōc erat, hīc fons (Hor. Ep. i. 17. 46), this was the head of things, this the source.
- eam sapientiam interpretantur quam adhuc mortālis nōmō est consecūtus [for id . . . quad] (Lael. 18), they explain that [thing] to be wisdom which no man ever yet attained.

297. The main uses of hic, ille, iste, and is are the following:

a. Hic is used of what is near the speaker (in time, place, or thought). It is hence called the demonstrative of the first person.

It is sometimes used of the speaker himself; sometimes for “the latter” of two persons or things mentioned in speech or writing; more rarely for “the former,” when that, though more remote on the written page, is nearer the speaker in time, place, or thought. Often it refers to that which has just been mentioned.
b. Ille is used of what is remote (in time, etc.); and is hence called the demonstrative of the third person. It is sometimes used to mean "the former"; also (usually following its noun) of what is famous or well-known; often (especially the neuter illud) to mean "the following."

c. Iste is used of what is between the two others in remoteness: often in allusion to the person addressed,—hence called the demonstrative of the second person.

It especially refers to one’s opponent (in court, etc.), and frequently implies antagonism or contempt.

d. Is is a weaker demonstrative than the others and is especially common as a personal pronoun. It does not denote any special object, but refers to one just mentioned, or to be afterwards explained by a relative. Often it is merely a correlative to the relative qui:—

›venit mihi obviam tans puer, is mihi litteras abs tē reddidit (Att. ii. 1. 1), your boy met me, he delivered to me a letter from you.

eum quem, one whom.

eum cōnsulem qui nōn dubitet (Cat. iv. 24), a consul who will not hesitate.

e. The pronouns hic, ille, and is are used to point in either direction, back to something just mentioned or forward to something about to be mentioned.

The neuter forms often refer to a clause, phrase, or idea:—

est illud quidem vel maximum, aminum videre (Tusc. i. 52), that is in truth a very great thing,—to see the soul.

f. The demonstratives are sometimes used as pronouns of reference, to indicate with emphasis a noun or phrase just mentioned:—

nullam virtūtis aliciam mērcēdem dēsiderat praeter hanc laudis (Arch. 28), virtue wants no other reward except that [just mentioned] of praise.

Note. — But the ordinary English use of that of is hardly known in Latin. Commonly the genitive construction is continued without a pronoun, or some other construction is preferred:—

cum ei Simōnīdēs artem memoriae pollicērētur: obvīōnis, inquit, māllum (Fin. ii. 104), when Simōnīdes promised him the art of memory, "I should prefer," said he. "[that] of forgetfulness."

Caesāris exercitus Pompeānōs ad Pharsālōm vīcit, the army of Caesar defeated that of Pompey (the Pompeians) at Pharsalus.

298. The main uses of idem and ipse are as follows:—

a. When a quality or act is ascribed with emphasis to a person or thing already named, is or idem (often with the concessive quidem) is used to indicate that person or thing:—
per ūnum servum et eum ex gladiatōriō lūdō (Att. i. 16. 5), by means of a single slave, and that too one from the gladiatorial school.

vincula, et ea spectata (Cat. iv. 7), imprisonment, and that perpetual.

Ti. Gracchus régnum occupāre cōnātus est, vel régnavit is quidem paucōs mensis (Lael. 41), Tiberius Gracchus tried to usurp royal power, or rather he actually reigned a few months.

Note. — So rarely with ille: as, — nune dextri ingeniāns ictūs, nunc ille sinistrā (Aen. v. 435), now dealing redoubled blows with his right hand, now (he) with his left.

[In imitation of the Homeric ὃ γέ: cf. Aen. v. 334; ix. 796.]

b. Idem, the same, is often used where the English requires an adverb or adverbial phrase (also, too, yet, at the same time): —

ōrātiōsplendida et grandis et eadem in primīs facēta (Brut. 273), an oration, brilliant, able, and very witty too.

cum [haec] dicat, negat idem esse in Deō grātiam (N. D. i. 121), when he says this, he denies also that there is mercy with God (he, the same man).

Note. — This is really the same use as in a above, but in this case the pronoun cannot be represented by a pronoun in English.

c. The intensive ipse, self, is used with any of the other pronouns, with a noun, or with a temporal adverb for the sake of emphasis: —

turpe mihi ipsī vidēbātur (Phil. i. 9), even to me (to me myself) it seemed disgraceful.

id ipsum, that very thing; quod ipsum, which of itself alone.

in eum ipsum locum, to that very place.

tum ipsum (Off. ii. 60), at that very time.

Note 1. — The emphasis of ipse is often expressed in English by just, very, merc, etc.

Note 2. — In English, the pronouns himself etc. are used both intensively (as, he will come himself) and reflexively (as, he will kill himself); in Latin the former would be translated by ipse, the latter by sē or sēsē.

d. Ipse is often used alone, substantively, as follows: —

1. As an emphatic pronoun of the third person: —

idque rei publicae praecērum, ipsīs gloriōsum (Phil. ii. 27), and this was splendid for the state, glorious for themselves.

omnēs bonī quantum in ipsīs fuit (id. ii. 29), all good men so far as was in their power (in themselves).

di capitū ipsius generique rēservēnt (Aen. viii. 484), may the gods hold in reserve [such a fate] to fall on his own and his son-in-law’s head.

2. To emphasize an omitted subject of the first or second person: —

vōbiscum ipsī recordāmini (Phil. ii. 1), remember in your own minds (yourselves with yourselves).

3. To distinguish the principal personage from subordinate persons: —

ipse dixit (cf. aūtōs ἔφα), he (the Master) said it.

Nōmentānus erat super ipsum (Hor. S. ii. 8. 23), Nomentanus was above [the host] himself [at table].
c. Ipse is often (is rarely) used instead of a reflexive (see § 300. b).

f. Ipse usually agrees with the subject, even when the real emphasis in English is on a reflexive in the predicate: —

mē ipse cōnsōlor (Lael. 10), I console myself. [Not mē ipsum, as the English would lead us to expect.]

Reflexive Pronouns

299. The Reflexive Pronoun (sē), and usually its corresponding possessive (suus), are used in the predicate to refer to the subject of the sentence or clause: —

sē ex nāvi prōīcīt (B. G. iv. 25), he threw himself from the ship.
Dumnorigem ad sē vocat (id. i. 20), he calls Dumnorix to him.
sēsē castris tenēbant (id. iii. 24), they kept themselves in camp.
contemnī sē putant (Cat. M. 65), they think they are despised.
Caesar suās cōpiās subdūcit (B. G. i. 22), Caesar leads up his troops.
Caesar statuit sibi Rhenum esse transeundum (id. iv. 16), Caesar decided that he must cross the Rhine (the Rhine must be crossed by himself).

a. For reflexives of the first and second persons the oblique cases of the personal pronouns (meī, tuī, etc.) and the corresponding possessives (meus, tuus, etc.) are used: —

mortī mē obtulī (Mil. 94), I have exposed myself to death.
hinc tē réginae ad limina perfer (Aen. i. 389), do you go (bear yourself) hence to the queen’s threshold.
quid est quod tantīs nōs in labōribus exercēamus (Arch. 28), what reason is there why we should exert ourselves in so great toils?
singulīs vībis novēnōs ex turris manipalisque vestrī similīs eligite (Liv. xxi. 64), for each of you pick out from the squadrons and maniples nine like yourselves.

300. In a subordinate clause of a complex sentence there is a double use of Reflexives.

1. The reflexive may always be used to refer to the subject of its own clause (Direct Reflexive): —

iūdiērī potest quantum habeat in sē bonī constantia (B. G. i. 40), it can be determined how much good firmness possesses (has in itself).
[Caesar] nōluit eum locum vacäre, sē Germānī e suīs finibus trānsirent (id. i. 28), Caesar did not wish this place to lie vacant, for fear the Germans would cross over from their territories.
si qua significātiō virtūtis clāceat ad quam sē similīs animus adplicet et adiungat (Lael. 48), if any sign of virtue suīne forth to which a similar disposition may attach itself.
2. If the subordinate clause expresses the words or thought of the subject of the main clause, the reflexive is regularly used to refer to that subject (Indirect Reflexive): —

petiērunt ut sibi īcēret (B. G. i. 30), they begged that it might be allowed them (the petitioners).

Iccius nūntium mittit, nisi subsidium sibi submittātur (id. ii. 6), Iccius sends a message that unless relief be furnished him, etc.

deçima legiō ēi grātiās ēgit, quod ē dē sē optimum ēndium fēcisset (id. i. 41), the tenth legio thanked him because [they said] he had expressed a high opinion of them.

sī obsidēs ab ēis (the Helvetians) sībi (Cæsar, who is the speaker) dentur, sē (Cæsar) cum ēis pācem esse factūrum (id. i. 14), [Cæsar said that] if hostages were given him by them, he would make peace with them.

Note.—Sometimes the person or thing to which the reflexive refers is not the grammatical subject of the main clause, though it is in effect the subject of discourse: Thus,—cum ipsī dē nihil minus grātum fūtūrum sit quām nōn omnībus pātēre ad sē plācandum viam (Legg. ii. 25), since to God himself nothing will be less pleasing than that the way to appease him should not be open to all men.

a. If the subordinate clause does not express the words or thought of the main subject, the reflexive is not regularly used, though it is occasionally found: —

sunt ita multī ut ēōs carcer capere nōn possit (Cat. ii. 22), they are so many that the prison cannot hold them. [Here sē could not be used; so also in the example following.]

ibī in proximīs villīs īta bipartītō īcērunt, ut Tīberis inter ēōs et pōns interesset (id. iii. 5), there they stationed themselves in the nearest farm-houses, in two divisions, in such a manner that the Tiber and the bridge were between them (the divisions).

nōn fuit ēō contentus quod ēi praeter spem acciderat (Manil. 25), he was not content with that which had happened to him beyond his hope.

Compare: qui fit, Maccēnās, ut nēmō, quam sībi sortem sēu ratiō dederit sēu fors oblēcerit, īlla contentus vivāt (Hor. S. i. 1. 1), how comes it, Maccenas, that nobody lives contented with that lot which choice has assigned him or chance has thrown in his way? [Here sībi is used to put the thought into the mind of the discontented man.]

b. Ipse is often (is rarely) used instead of an indirect reflexive, either to avoid ambiguity or from carelessness; and in later writers is sometimes found instead of the direct reflexive: —

cūr dē suā virtūte aut dē īpsīs dilūgentīā désperērunt (B. G. i. 40), why (he asked) should they despair of their own courage or his diligence?

omnia aut īpsēs aut hostēs populātōs (Q. C. iii. 5. 6), [they said that] either they themselves or the enemy had laid all waste. [Direct reflexive.]
qui sé ex his minus timidös existimārī volēbant, nōn sé hostem verērī, sed
angustiās itineris et māgnītūdinem silvārum quae intercederant inter
ipsōs (the persons referred to by sé above) atque Ariovisum,... timēre
dicēbant (B. G. i. 39), those of them who wished to be thought less timid
said they did not fear the enemy, but were afraid of the narrows and the
vast extent of the forests which were between themselves and Ariovisus.

andistis nūper dicere lēgātōs Tyndaritānōs Mercurium qui sacrīs anniver-
sāriās apud eōs colērētur esse subītum (Verr. iv. 84), you have just heard
the ambassadors from Tyndaris say that the statue of Mercury which was
worshipped with annual rites among them was taken away. [Here Cicero
waivers between apud eōs colēbātur, a remark of his own, and apud sé
colērētur, the words of the ambassadors. eōs does not strictly refer to
the ambassadors, but to the people — the Tyndaritani.]

301. Special uses of the Reflexive are the following: —

a. The reflexive in a subordinate clause sometimes refers to the
subject of a suppressed main clause: —

Paetus omnīs libriōs quōs frāter suīs reliquisset mihi dōnāvit (Att. ii. 1),
Paetus gave me all the books which (as he said in the act of donation)
his brother had left him.

b. The reflexive may refer to any noun or pronoun in its own clause
which is so emphasized as to become the subject of discourse: —

Sōcratem cīvēs suī interfēcērunt, Socrates was put to death by his own fellow-
citizens.

qui poterat salūs sua cuiquam nān probāri (Mil. 81), how can any one fail
to approve his own safety? [In this and the preceding example the
emphasis is preserved in English by the change of voice.]
hunc sī secuti erunt suī comitēs (Cat. ii. 10), this man, if his companions
follow him.

NOTE. — Occasionally the clause to which the reflexive really belongs is absorbed:
as, — studeō sānāre sībī ipsōs (Cat. ii. 17), I am anxious to cure these men for their own
benefit (i.e. ut sānē sībī sint).

c. Suīs is used for one’s own as emphatically opposed to that of
others, in any part of the sentence and with reference to any word
in it: —

suīs flammas délēte Fidēnās (Liv. iv. 33), destroy Fidenae with its own fires
(the fires kindled by that city, figuratively). [Cf. Cat. i. 32.]

da. The reflexive may depend upon a verbal noun or adjective: —
sui laus, self-praise.
habetis ducem memorem vestri, oblitum suī (Cat. iv. 19), you have a leader
mindful of you, forgetful of himself.
perditī homēnēs cum suī similiōbus servīs (Phil. i. 5), abandoned men with
slaves like themselves.
e. The reflexive may refer to the subject implied in an infinitive or verbal abstract used indefinitely:

contentum sui rebus esse maximae sunt divitiae (Par. 51), the greatest wealth is to be content with one’s own.
cui proposita sit conservatiō sui (Fin. v. 37), one whose aim is self-preservation.

f. Inter se (nōs, vōs), among themselves (ourselves, yourselves), is regularly used to express reciprocal action or relation:

inter se coniungunt (Cat. i. 25), contend with each other.
inter se continentur (Arch. 2), are joined to each other.

Possessive Pronouns

302. The Possessive Pronouns are derivative adjectives, which take the gender, number, and case of the noun to which they belong, not those of the possessor:

haec ornāmenta sunt mea (Val. iv. 4), these are my jewels. [mea is neuter plural, though the speaker is a woman.]
mei sunt ordinēs, mea discriptō (Cat. M. 60), mine are the rows, mine the arrangement. [mea is feminine, though the speaker is Cyrus.]
multa in nostrō collegiō praecāra (id. 64), [there are] many fine things in our college. [nostro is neuter singular, though men are referred to.]
Germani suās cópiās castris edūxerunt (B. G. i. 51), the Germans led their troops out of the camp.

a. To express possession and similar ideas the possessive pronouns are regularly used, not the genitive of the personal or reflexive pronouns (§ 343. a):

   domus mea, my house. [Not domus mei.]
pater noster, our father. [Not pater nostri.]
patrimōnium tuum, your inheritance. [Not tuā.]

Note 1. — Exceptions are rare in classic Latin, common in later writers. For the use of a possessive pronoun instead of an Objective Genitive, see § 348. a.

Note 2.— The Interrogative Possessive cāius, -a, -ām, occurs in poetry and early Latin: as, — cāium pecus (Ecl. iii. 1), whose flock? The genitive cāius is generally used instead.

b. The possessives have often the acquired meaning of peculiar to, favorable or propitious towards, the person or thing spoken of: —

   [petere] ut suā clāmentiā ac mānsuetūdine utātur (B. G. ii. 14), they asked (they said) that he would show his [wonted] demency and humanity.
ignorantī quem portum petat nullus suus ventus est (Sen. Ep. 71. 3), to him who knows not what port he is bound to, no wind is fair (his own).
temore tuō pūgnāstī (Liv. xxxviii. 45. 10), did you fight at a fit time?

Note. — This use is merely a natural development of the meaning of the possessive, and the pronoun may often be rendered literally.
c. The possessives are regularly omitted (like other pronouns) when they are plainly implied in the context: —

socium fraudavit, he cheated his partner. [socium suum would be distinctive, his partner (and not another's); suum socium, emphatic, his own partner.]

d. Possessive pronouns and adjectives implying possession are often used substantively to denote some special class or relation: —

nostri, our countrymen, or men of our party.
suis continebat (B. G. i. 15), he held his men in check.
flamma extrema mēsum (Aen. ii. 431), last flames of my countrymen.
Sullāni, the veterans of Sulla’s army; Pompeīani, the partisans of Pompey.

Note. — There is no reason to suppose an ellipsis here. The adjective becomes a noun like other adjectives (see § 288).

e. A possessive pronoun or an adjective implying possession may take an appositive in the genitive case agreeing in gender, number, and case with an implied noun or pronoun: —

meā sēltus causā (Ter. Haunt. 129), for my sake only.
in nostrō omnium flētū (Mil. 92), amid the tears of us all.
ex Anniānā Milōnis domō (Att. iv. 3. 3), out of Annius Milo’s house. [Equiva-
lent to ex Anni Milōnis domō.]
nostra omnium patria, the country of us all.
suum ipsius rēgnum, his own kingdom.

For the special reflexive use of the possessive suus, see §§ 299, 300.

Relative Pronouns

303. A Relative Pronoun agrees with some word expressed or implied either in its own clause, or (often) in the antecedent (demonstrative) clause. In the fullest construction the antecedent is expressed in both clauses, with more commonly a corresponding demonstrative to which the relative refers: as, — iter in ea loca facere coepit, quibus in locis esse Germanōs audiēbat (B. G. iv. 7), he began to march into those places in which places he heard the Germans were. But one of these nouns is commonly omitted.

The antecedent is in Latin very frequently (rarely in English) found in the relative clause, but more commonly in the antecedent clause.

Thus relatives serve two uses at the same time: —

1. As Nouns (or Adjectives) in their own clause: as, — eī qui Aesiae obsidēbantur (B. G. vii. 77), those who were besieged at Aesasia.

2. As Connectives: as, — T. Balventius, qui superiore annō primum plūm dúxerat (id. v. 35), Titus Balventius, who the year before had been a centurion of the first rank.

When the antecedent is in a different sentence, the relative is often equivalent to a demonstrative with a conjunction: as, — quae cum ita sint (= et cum ea ita sint), [and] since this is so.

The subordinating force did not belong to the relative originally, but was developed from an interrogative or indefinite meaning specialized by use. But the subordinating and the later connective force were acquired by qui at such an early period that the steps of the process cannot now be traced.
304. A Relative Pronoun indicates a relation between its own clause and some substantive. This substantive is called the Antecedent of the relative.

Thus, in the sentence —

\[\text{eum nihil délectábat quod fás esset (Mil. 43), nothing pleased him which was right,}\]

the relative quod connects its antecedent nihil with the predicate fás esset, indicating a relation between the two.

305. A Relative agrees with its Antecedent in Gender and Number; but its Case depends on its construction in the clause in which it stands: —

\[\text{ca diés quam cónstituerat vēnit (B. G. i. 8), that day which he had appointed came.}\]

\[\text{pontem qui erat ad Genāvam iúbet rescindí (id. i. 7), he orders the bridge which was near Geneva to be cut down.}\]

\[\text{Aduatuci, dē quibus suprā diximus, domum revertérunt (id. ii. 20), the Aduatuci, of whom we have spoken above, returned home.}\]

**Note.** — This rule applies to all relative words so far as they are variable in form: as, quālis, quantus, quicumque, etc.

**a.** If a relative has two or more antecedents, it follows the rules for the agreement of predicate adjectives (§§ 286, 287): —

\[\text{filium et filiam, quōs valdé diléxit, unō tempore ámisit, he lost at the same time a son and a daughter whom he dearly loved.}\]

\[\text{grandēs nātū mātrēs et parvulī liberi, quērum utrōrumque actās misericordiam nostram requirit (Verr. v. 129), aged matrons and little children, whose time of life in each case demands our compassion.}\]

\[\text{ōtium atque divitiae, quae prima mortālēs putant (Sall. Cat. 36), idleness and wealth, which men count the first (objects of desire).}\]

\[\text{eae frūgēs et frūctūs quōs terra gignit (N. D. ii. 37), those fruits and crops which the earth produces.}\]

For the Person of the verb agreeing with the Relative, see § 316. a.

306. A Relative generally agrees in gender and number with an appositive or predicate noun in its own clause, rather than with an antecedent of different gender or number (cf. § 296. a): —

\[\text{mare etiam quem Neptūnum esse dicoábās (N. D. iii. 52), the sea, too, which you said was Neptune. [Not quod.]}\]

\[\text{Thēbae ipsae, quod Boeōtiae caput est (Liv. xlii. 44), even Thebes, which is the chief city of Boeotia. [Not quae.]}\]

**Note.** — This rule is occasionally violated: as, — flūmen quod appelláetur Tamesis (B. G. v. 11), a river which is called the Thames.
a. A relative occasionally agrees with its antecedent in case (by attraction):

si aliquid agás eōrum quōrum cōnsuēstī (Fam. v. 14), if you should do some thing of what you are used to do. [For eōrum quae.]

Note.—Occasionally the antecedent is attracted into the case of the relative: — urbem quam statuē vestra est (Aen. i. 573), the city which I am founding is yours. Nauvatem, quem convenire voluī, in nāvi nōn erat (Pl. Am. 1009), Nauvates, whom I wished to meet, was not on board the ship.

b. A relative may agree in gender and number with an implied antecedent: —

quārtum genus . . . qui in vetere aere aliēnō vacillant (Cat. ii. 21), a fourth class, who are staggering under old debts.

ūnus ex eō numerō qui parāti erant (Iug. 35), one of the number [of those] who were ready.

coniūrāvēre pauci, dē quā [i.e. coniūrātiōne] dicam (Sall. Cat. 18); a few have conspired, of which [conspiracy] I will speak.

Note.—So regularly when the antecedent is implied in a possessive pronoun: as, — nostra acta, quōs tyrannōs vocās (Vat. 29), the deeds of us, whom you call tyrants. [Here quōs agrees with the nostrum (genitive plural) implied in nostra.]

Antecedent of the Relative

307. The Antecedent Noun sometimes appears in both clauses; but usually only in the one that precedes. Sometimes it is wholly omitted.

a. The antecedent noun may be repeated in the relative clause: —

loī nātūra erat haec quem locum nostrī délégerant (B. G. ii. 18), the nature of the ground which our men had chosen was this.

b. The antecedent noun may appear only in the relative clause, agreeing with the relative in case: —

quās rēs in cōnsulātū nostrō gessimus attigist hic versibus (Arch. 28), he has touched in verse the things which I did in my consulship.

quae prima innocentis milīti défēnsiō est oblāta suscēpī (Sall. 92), I undertook the first defence of an innocent man that was offered me.

Note.—In this case the relative clause usually comes first (cf. § 308. d) and a demonstrative usually stands in the antecedent clause: —

quae pars civītātis calamītātem populō Rōmānō intulerat, ea princeps poenās per-
solvit (B. G. i. 12), that part of the state which had brought disaster on the Roman people was the first to pay the penalty.

quae grātia currum fuit vīvis, eadem sequitur (Aen. vi. 653), the same pleasure that they took in chariots in their lifetime follows them (after death).

qui fit ut nēmō, quam sibi sortem ratiō dederit, illā contentus vivat (cf. Hor. S. i. 1. 1), how does it happen that no one lives contented with the lot which choice has assigned him?
c. The antecedent may be omitted, especially if it is indefinite: —
qui decimae legiones aquilam ferēbat (B. G. iv. 25), [the man] who bore the
eagle of the tenth legion.
qui cognōscerent misit (id. i. 21), he sent [men] to reconnoître.

d. The phrase id quod or quae rēs may be used (instead of quod
alone) to refer to a group of words or an idea: —
[obstructārum est] Gabiniō dicam anne Pompeiō? an utriquē — id quod est
vērius? (Manil. 57), an affront has been offered — shall I say to Gabinius
or to Pompey? or — which is truer — to both?
multum sunt in venātiōnibus, quae rēs virēs alit (B. G. iv. 1), they spend
much time in hunting, which [practice] increases their strength.

Note. — But quod alone often occurs: as, — Cassius noster, quod mihi māgnae volu-
ptātī fuit, hostem réfecerat (Fam. ii. 10), our friend Cassius — which was a great satis-
faction to me — had driven back the enemy.

e. The antecedent noun, when in apposition with the main clause,
or with some word of it, is put in the relative clause: —
firmi [amicī], cūns generis est māgna pēnūria (Lael. 62), steadfast friends,
a class of which there is great lack (of which class there is, etc.).

f. A predicate adjective (especially a superlative) belonging to the
antecedent may stand in the relative clause: —
vaṣa ea quae pulcherrima apud eum viderat (Verr. iv. 63), those most beauti-
ful vessels which he had seen at his house. [Nearly equivalent to the
vessels of which he had seen some very beautiful ones.]

Special Uses of the Relative

308. In the use of Relatives, the following points are to be
observed: —

a. The relative is never omitted in Latin, as it often is in Eng-
lish: —
liber quem mihi doēisti, the book you gave me.
is sum qui semper fui, I am the same man I always was.
eō in locō est dē quō tibi locūtus sum, he is in the place I told you of.

b. When two relative clauses are connected by a copulative con-
junction, a relative pronoun sometimes stands in the first and a
demonstrative in the last: —
erat pūbblicus obviam legiōnibus Macedonicis quattuor, quās sibi conciliāre
pecūniā cōgitābat ēaque ad urbem addūcēre (Fam. xii. 23. 2), he had
set out to meet four legions from Macedonia, which he thought to win over
to himself by a gift of money and to lead (them) to the city.
c. A relative clause in Latin often takes the place of some other construction in English, — particularly of a participle, an appositive, or a noun of agency: —

légès quae nunc sunt, the existing laws (the laws which now exist).
Caesar qui Galliam vicit, Caesar the conqueror of Gaul.
iūta glória qui est fructus virtūtis (Pison. 57), true glory [which is] the fruit of virtue.
ile qui petit, the plaintiff (he who sues).
qui legit, a reader (one who reads).

d. In formal or emphatic discourse, the relative clause usually comes first, often containing the antecedent noun (cf. § 307. b): —

quaes pars civitatis Helvētiae insignem calamitatem populō Rōmanō intulerat,
ea princeps poenās persolvit (B. G. i. 12), the portion of the Helvetic state which had brought a serious disaster on the Roman people was the first to pay the penalty.

Note. — In colloquial language, the relative clause in such cases often contains a redundant demonstrative pronoun which logically belongs in the antecedent clause: as,—ille qui cōnsultē cavet, diūnā īti bene licet partum bene (Plant. Rud. 1240), he who is on his guard, he may long enjoy what he has well obtained.

e. The relative with an abstract noun may be used in a parenthetical clause to characterize a person, like the English such: —

qua vestra prūdentia est (Cael. 45), such is your wisdom. [Equivalent to prō vestrā prūdentīā.]
audissēs cōmoedōs vel lēctōrem vel lyrīstēn, vel, quae mea liberālitās, omnēs (Plin. Ep. i. 15), you would have listened to comedians, or a reader, or a lyre-player, or — such is my liberality — to all of them.

f. A relative pronoun (or adverb) often stands at the beginning of an independent sentence or clause, serving to connect it with the sentence or clause that precedes: —

Caesar statuit exspectandam classem; quae ubi convēnit (B. G. iii. 14),
Caesar decided that he must wait for the fleet; and when this had come together, etc.
qua qui audiēbant, and those who heard this (which things).
qua cum ita sint, and since this is so.
quanum quod simile factum (Cat. iv. 13), what deed of theirs like this?
quō cum vēnisset, and when he had come there (whither when he had come).

Note. — This arrangement is common even when another relative or an interrogative follows. The relative may usually be translated by an English démonstrative, with or without and.

g. A relative adverb is regularly used in referring to an antecedent in the Locative case; so, often, to express any relation of place instead of the formal relative pronoun: —
mortuus Cūmis quō sē contulerat (Liv. ii. 21), having died at Cūma, whither he had retired. [Here in quam urbe might be used, but not in quās.] locus quō aditus nōn erat, a place to which (whither) there was no access. rēgna unde genus dūcis (Aen. v. 801), the kingdom from which you derive your race. unde petitur, the defendant (he from whom something is demanded).

h. The relatives qui, quālis, quantus, quot, etc. are often rendered simply by as in English:—

idem quod semper, the same as always.
cum esset tālis quālem tē esse videō (Mur. 32), since he was such a man as I see you are.
tanta dimicatiō quanta numquam fuit (Att. vii. 1. 2), such a fight as never was before.
tot mala quot sidera (Ov. Tr. i. 5. 47), as many troubles as stars in the sky.

i. The general construction of relatives is found in clauses introduced by relative adverbs: as, ubi, quō, unde, cum, quārē.

Indefinite Pronouns

309. The Indefinite Pronouns are used to indicate that some person or thing is meant, without designating what one.

310. Quis, quispiam, aliquid, quidam, are particular indefinites, meaning some, a certain, any. Of these, quis, any one, is least definite, and quidam, a certain one, most definite; aliquid and quispiam, some one, stand between the two:—

dixerit quis (quispiam), some one may say.
aliqui philosophi ita putant, some philosophers think so. [quidam would mean certain persons defined to the speaker’s mind, though not named.]
habitant hic quaedam mulierēs pauperculae (Ter. Ad. 647), some poor women live here [i.e. some women he knows of; some women or other would be aliaquae or nesciō quae].

a. The indefinite quis is rare except in the combinations sī quis, if any; nisi quis, if any... not; nē quis, lest any, in order that none; num quis (ecquis), whether any; and in relative clauses.

b. The compounds quispiam and aliquid are often used instead of quis after sī, nisi, nē, and num, and are rather more emphatic:—

quīd sī bōc quispiam voluit deus (Ter. Eun. 875), what if some god had desired this?
nisi aliquid sē quidēm negōtium daret (Nep. Dion. 8. 2), unless he should employ some one of his friends.
cavēbat Pompēius omnia, nē aliquid vōs timēritis (Mil. 66), Pompey took every precaution, so that you might have no fear.
311. In a particular negative aliquis (aliqui), some one (some), is regularly used, where in a universal negative quisquam, any one, or ullus, any, would be required: —

iuustitia numquam nocet cuiquam (Fin. i. 50), justice never does harm to anybody. [ali cui would mean to somebody who possesses it.]
non sine aliquo metu, not without some fear. But,—sine ullo metu, without any fear.

cum aliquid non habeas (Tusc. i. 88), when there is something you have not.

Note. — The same distinction holds between quis and aliquis on the one hand, and quisquam (ullus) on the other, in conditional and other sentences when a negative is expressed or suggested: —

si quisquam, ille sapiens fuit (Lael. 9), if any man was (ever) a sage, he was.
dum praedidit ullus fuerunt (Rosc. Am. 120), while there were any armed forces.
si quid in te pecceavi (Att. iii. 15. 4), if I have done wrong towards you [in any particular case (see § 310)].

312. Quivis or quilibet (any one you will), quisquam, and the corresponding adjective ullus, any at all, are general indefinites.

Quivis and quilibet are used chiefly in affirmative clauses, quisquam and ullus in clauses where a universal negative is expressed or suggested: —

non cuivis hominì contingit adire Corinthum (Hor. Ep. i. 17. 36), it is not every man’s luck to go to Corinth. [non quisquam would mean not any man’s.]
quilibet modo aliquem (Acad. ii. 132), anybody you will, provided it be somebody.
si quisquam est timidus, is ego sum (Fam. vi. 14. 1), if any man is timorious, I am he.
si tempus est ullum iure homini necandi (Mil. 9), if there is any occasion whatever when homicide is justifiable.

Note. — The use of the indefinites is very various, and must be learned from the Lexicon and from practice. The choice among them may depend merely on the point of view of the speaker, so that they are often practically interchangeable. The differences are (with few exceptions) those of logic, not of syntax.

313. The distributives quisque (every), uterque (each of two), and unus quisque (every single one) are used in general assertions: —

bonus liber melior est quisque quod maius (Plin. Ep. i. 29. 4), the larger a good book is, the better (each good book is better in proportion, etc.).
ambò exercitus suás quisque abeunt domòs (Liv. ii. 7. 1), both armies go away, every man to his home.
uterque utrique erat exercitus in conspectu (B. G. vii. 35), each army was in sight of the other (each to each).
ponte ante oculis unum quemque regum (Par. i. 11), set before your eyes each of the kings.
§§ 313, 314 | INDEFINITE PRONOUNS 191

a. Quisque regularly stands in a dependent clause, if there is one: —
quō quisque est sollertior, hoc docet iracundius (Rosc. Com. 31), the keenerwitted a man is, the more impatiently he teaches.

NOTE. — Quisque is generally postpositive: as, suum cuique, to every man his own.

b. Quisque is idiomatically used with superlatives and with ordinal numerals: —
nobilissimus quisque, all the noblest (one after the other in the order of their nobility). 2
primō quisque tempore (Rosc. Am. 36), at the very first opportunity.
antiquissimum quōque tempus (B. G. i. 45), the most ancient times.
decimus quisque (id. v. 52), one in ten.

NOTE 1. — Two superlatives with quisque imply a proportion: as, — sapientissimus quisque aequissimó animó moritur (Cat. M. 83), the wisest men die with the greatest equanimity.

NOTE 2. — Quotus quisque has the signification of how many, pray? often in a disparaging sense (how few): —
quotus enim quisque disertas? quotus quisque iūris peritus est (Planc. 62), for how few are eloquent! how few are learned in the law!
quotus enim istud quisque fēcisset (Lig. 26), how many would have done this? [i.e. scarcely anybody would have done it].

314. Nēmō, no one, is used of persons only —

1. As a substantive: —
nēminem accusat, he accuses no one.

2. As an adjective pronoun instead of nūllus: —
vir nēmō bonus (Legg. ii. 41), no good man.

NOTE. — Even when used as a substantive, nēmō may take a noun in apposition: as, — nēmō scripūtor, nobody [who is] a writer.

a. Nūllus, no, is commonly an adjective; but in the genitive and ablative singular it is regularly used instead of the corresponding cases of nēmō, and in the plural it may be either an adjective or a substantive: —
nūllum mittiur tēlum (B. C. ii. 13), not a missile is thrown.
nūlli hoste prohibente (B. G. iii. 6), without opposition from the enemy.
nūllus insector calamitātem (Phil. ii. 98), I persecute the misfortune of no one.
nūllo ađiuvante (id. x. 4), with the help of no one (no one helping).
nūlli erat praedōnēs (Placc. 28), there were no pirates.
nūlli eximentur (Pison. 94), none shall be taken away.

For nōn nēmō, nōn nūlīus (nōn nūlli), see § 320. a.

1 That is, it does not stand first in its clause.
2 As, in taking things one by one off a pile, each thing is uppermost when you take it.
Alius and Alter

315. Alius means simply other, another (of an indefinite number); alter, the other (of two), often the second in a series; cēteri and reliqui, all the rest, the others; alterutri, one of the two: —

propter eam quod alii iter habère nūllum (B. G. 1. 7), because (as they said) they had no other way.
ūni epistulae respondī, venīō ad alteram (Fam. ii. 17. 6), one letter I have answered, I come to the other.
alterum genus (Cat. ii. 19), the second class.
iēcissem ipse mē poius in profundum ut cēterōs cōnservārem (Sest. 45), I should have rather thrown myself into the deep to save the rest.
Servilius cōnsul, reliquique magistrātus (B. C. iii. 21), Servilius the consul and the rest of the magistrates.
cum sit nesse alterum utrum vincere (Fam. vi. 3), since it must be that one of the two should prevail.

Note.— Alter is often used, especially with negatives, in reference to an indefinite number where one is opposed to all the rest taken singly: —
dum nē sit tē dītor alter (Hor. S. i. 1. 40), so long as another is not richer than you (lit. the other, there being at the moment only two persons considered).
nōn ut magis alter, amicus (id. i. 5. 33), a friend such that no other is more so.

a. The expressions alter . alter, the one . the other, alius .
alius, one . another, may be used in pairs to denote either division of a group or reciprocity of action: —

alterī dimicant, alterī victōrēm timent (Fam. vi. 3), one party fights, the other fears the victor.
alterum alteri præsidīō esse iusserat (B. C. iii. 89), he had ordered each (of the two legions) to support the other.
aliī gladiis adoriantur, aliī fragmentīs saeptōrum (Sest. 79), some make an attack with swords, others with fragments of the railings.
alius ex aliō causam quaerit (B. G. vi. 37), they ask each other the reason.
alius alium percontāmur (Pl. Stich. 370), we keep asking each other.

b. Alius and alter are often used to express one as well as another (the other) of the objects referred to: —
alter cōnsulum, one of the [two] consuls.
aliud est malēdicere, aliud accusāre (Cael. 6), it is one thing to slander, another to accuse.

c. Alius repeated in another case, or with an adverb from the same stem, expresses briefly a double statement: —
alius aliud petit, one man seeks one thing, another another (another seeks another thing).
iussit aliōs aliī fōdere (Liv. xlv. 33), he ordered different persons to dig in different places.
aliī aliō locō resistēbant (B. C. ii. 39), some halted in one place, some in another.
VERBS

Agreement of Verb and Subject

316. A Finite Verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person: —

ego statuō, I resolve.
senāvus décēvit, the senate ordered.
silent lēgēs inter arma (Mil. 11), the laws are dumb in time of war.

Note.—In verb-forms containing a participle, the participle agrees with the subject in gender and number (§ 280): —

ōrātiō est habita, the plea was delivered.
bellum extortum est, a war arose.

α. A verb having a relative as its subject takes the person of the expressed or implied antecedent: —

adsum qui fēci (Aen. ix. 427), here am I who did it.
tū, qui scis, omnem diligentiam adhibebis (Att. v. 2. 3), you, who know, will use all diligence.
vidēte quam despiciāmus omnes qui sumas e municipiis (Phil. iii. 15), see how all of us are scorned who are from the free towns.

β. A verb sometimes agrees in number (and a participle in the verb-form in number and gender) with an appositive or predicate noun: —
amantium iae amōris integrātiō est (Ter. And. 555), the quarrels of lovers are the renewal of love.
non omnis error stultitia dicens est (Div. ii. 90), not every error should be called folly.
Corinthus ianuen Graeciae extinctum est (cf. Manil. 11), Corinth, the light of Greece, is put out.

Double or Collective Subject

317. Two or more Singular Subjects take a verb in the Plural:
pater et avus mortuī sunt, his father and grandfather are dead.

Note.—So rarely (by synesis, § 280. a) when to a singular subject is attached an ablative with cum: as,—dix cum aliquot principibus capturētur (Liv. xxi. 66), the general and several leading men are taken.

α. When subjects are of different persons, the verb is usually in the first person rather than the second, and in the second rather than the third: —

si tū et Tullia valētis ego et Cicerō valēmus (Pam. xiv. 5), if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well. [Notice that the first person is also first in order, not last, as by courtesy in English.]

Note.—In case of different genders a participle in a verb-form follows the rule for predicate adjectives (see § 287. 2-4).
b. If the subjects are connected by disjunctives (§ 223. a), or if they are considered as a single whole, the verb is usually singular:—

quem neque sēdes neque iūs iūrandum neque illum misericordia repressit
(Ter. Ad. 306), not faith, nor oath, ray, nor mercy, checked him.

senātus populusque Rōmanus intellegit (Fam. v. 8), the Roman senate and people understand. [But, neque Caesar neque ego habēt essēmus (id. xi. 20), neither Caesar nor I should have been considered.]

fāma et vita innocentis défenditur (Rosc. Am. 15), the reputation and life of an innocent man are defended.

cēst in eō virtūs et probitās et summum officium summaque observantia (Fam. xiii. 28 a. 2), in him are to be found worth, uprightness, the highest sense of duty, and the greatest devotion.

Note. — So almost always when the subjects are abstract nouns.

c. When a verb belongs to two or more subjects separately, it often agrees with one and is understood with the others:—

intercēdit M. Antōnīus Q. Cassius tribūnī plēbis (B. C. i. 2), Mark Antony
and Quintus Cassius, tribunes of the people, interpose.

hōc mihi et Peripatētiī eī et vetus Acadēmia concēdit (Acad. ii. 113), this both
the Peripatetic philosophers and the Old Academy grant me.

d. A collective noun commonly takes a verb in the singular; but the plural is often found with collective nouns when individuals are thought of (§ 280. a):—

(1) senātus haec intellegit (Cat. i. 2), the senate is aware of this.

ad hiberna exercitus redit (Livy. xxii. 22), the army returns to winter-quarters.

plēbēs a patribus sēcessit (Sall. Cat. 33), the plebs seceded from the patricians.

(2) pars praedās agēbant (Lug. 32), a part brought in booty.

cum tanta multitūdō lapidēs concerērent (B. G. ii. 6), when such a crowd were
throwing stones.

Note 1. — The point of view may change in the course of a sentence: as, — equitātum omnem . . . quem habēbat praemittit, qui videant (B. G. i. 15), he sent ahead all the cavalry he had, to see (who should see).

Note 2. — The singular of a noun regularly denoting an individual is sometimes used collectively to denote a group: as, Pœnās, the Carthaginians; miles, the soldiery; eques, the cavalry.

e. Quisque, each, and ūnus quisque, every single one, have very often a plural verb, but may be considered as in partitive apposition with a plural subject implied (cf. § 282. a):—

sibi quisque habeant quod suum est (Pl. Curc. 180), let every one keep his
own (let them keep every man his own).

Note. — So also uterque, each (of two), and the reciprocal phrases alius . . . alium, alter . . . alterum (§ 315. a).
Omission of Subject or Verb

318. The Subject of the Verb is sometimes omitted: —

a. A Personal pronoun, as subject, is usually omitted unless emphatic: —
   loquor, I speak. But, ego loquor, it is I that speak.

b. An indefinite subject is often omitted: — crēderēs, you would have supposed; putāmus, we (people) think; dicunt, ferunt, perhibent, they say.

c. A passive verb is often used impersonally without a subject expressed or understood (§ 208. d): —
   diū atque ācriter pūgnātum est (B. G. i. 26), they fought long and vigorously.

319. The verb is sometimes omitted: —

a. Dicō, faciō, agō, and other common verbs are often omitted in familiar phrases: —
   quōrum haec [spectant], what does this aim at?
   ex ungue leōnem [cōgnōscēs], you will know a lion by his claw.
   quid multa, what need of many words? (why should I say much?)
   quid? quod, what of this, that . . . ? (what shall I say of this, that . . . ?)
   [A form of transition.]
   Aēolus haec contrā (Aen. i. 76), Aēolus thus [spoke] in reply.
   tum Cotta [inquit], then said Cotta.
   di meliōra [duint]! (Cat. M. 47), Heaven forfend (may the gods grant better things)!
   unde [venis] et quō [tendis]?? (Hor. S. ii. 4. 1), where from and whither bound? [Cf. id. i. 9. 62 for the full form.]

b. The copula sum is very commonly omitted in the present indicative and present infinitive, rarely (except by late authors) in the subjunctive: —
   tū coniūnx (Aen. iv. 113), you [are] his wife.
   quid ergō? andācissimus ego ex omnibus (Rosc. Am. 2), what then? am I the boldest of all?
   omnia praecēla râra (Lael. 79), all the best things are rare.
   potest incidere saepe contentiō et comparatiō dé duōbus honestīs utrum honestius (Off. i. 152), there may often occur a comparison of two honorable actions, as to which is the more honorable. [Here, if any copula were expressed, it would be sit, but the direct question would be complete without any.]
   accipe quae peragenda prius (Aen. vi. 136), hear what is first to be accomplished. [Direct: quae peragenda prius?]
PARTICLES

Adverbs

320. The proper function of Adverbs, as petrified case-forms, is to modify Verbs: as, — celeriter ire, to go with speed. It is from this use that they derive their name (adverbium, from ad, to, and verbum, verb; see § 241. b). They also modify adjectives, showing in what manner or degree the quality described is manifested: as, splendidē mendāx, gloriously false. More rarely they modify other adverbs: as, nimis graviter, too severely. Many adverbs, especially relative adverbs, serve as connectives, and are hardly to be distinguished from conjunctions (see § 20. g. n.).

321. Adverbs are used to modify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs.

a. A Demonstrative or Relative adverb is often equivalent to the corresponding Pronoun with a preposition (see § 308. g): —

ēō [ = in ea] impōnit vāsa (Iug. 75), upon them (thither, thereon, on the beasts) he puts the camp-utensils.
ēō militēs impōnere (B. G. i. 42), to put soldiers upon them (the horses).
apud ēōs quō [ = ad quās] se contulit (Verr. iv. 38), among those to whom (whither) he resorted.
qui eum necāset unde [ = quō] ipse nātus esset (Rosc. Am. 71), one who should have killed his own father (him whence he had his birth).
ō condicionēs miserās administrandārum prōvinciārum ubi [ = in quibus] séveritās periculōsa est (Flacc. 87), O! wretched terms of managing the provinces, where strictness is dangerous.

b. The participles dictum and factum, when used as nouns, are regularly modified by adverbs rather than by adjectives; so occasionally other perfect participles: —

praeclārē facta (Nep. Timoth. 1), glorious deeās (things gloriously done).
multa facētē dicta (Off. i. 104), many witty sayings.

c. A noun is sometimes used as an adjective, and may then be modified by an adverb: —

victor exercitus, the victorious army.
ademūm puer, quite a boy (young).
magis vir, more of a man (more manly).
populum lātē rēgem (Aen. i. 21), a people ruling far and wide.

Note. — Very rarely adverbs are used with nouns which have no adjective force but which contain a verbal idea: —

hinc abitiō (Plaut. Rud. 503), a going away from here.
qūid cōgītēm dē obviām itiōne (Att. xiii. 50), what I think about going to meet (him). [Perhaps felt as a compound.]

¹ For the derivation and classification of adverbs, see §§ 214–217.
A few adverbs appear to be used like adjectives. Such are obviam, palam, sometimes contrā, and occasionally others:—

fit obviam Clōidū (Mil. 29), *he falls in with* (becomes in the way of) Clōidius. [Cf. the adjective obvius: as,—si ille obvius eī futūrus nōn erat (id. 47), if he was not likely to fall in with him.]

haec commemorō quae sunt palam (Pison. 11), *I mention these facts, which are well-known.*

alia probābilia, contrā alia dicimus (Off. ii. 7), *we call some things probable, others the opposite* (not probable). [In this use, contrā contradicts a previous adjective, and so in a manner repeats it.]

erī semper lēnitās (Ter. And. 175), *my master’s constant (always) gentleness.* [An imitation of a Greek construction.]

Note. — In some cases one can hardly say whether the adverb is treated as an adjective modifying the noun, or the noun modified is treated as an adjective (as in c above).

For propius, prīdē, palam, and other adverbs used as prepositions, see § 432.

322. The following adverbs require special notice:—

a. Etiam (et iam), *also, even,* is stronger than quoque, also, and usually precedes the emphatic word, while quoque follows it:—

nōn verbīs sōlum sed etiam vī (Verr. ii. 64), *not only by words, but also by force.*

hōc quoque maleficium (Rosc. Am. 117), *this crime too.*

b. Nunc 1 means definitely now, in the immediate present, and is rarely used of the immediate past.

Iam means now, already, at length, presently, and includes a reference to previous time through which the state of things described has been or will be reached. It may be used of any time. With negatives iam means (no) longer.

Tum, then, is correlative to cum, when, and may be used of any time. Tunc, then, at that time, is a strengthened form of tum (†tum-ce, cf. nunc):—

ut iam anteā dixi, as I have already said before.

si iam satis aetātis atque rōboris habēret (Rosc. Am. 149), if he had attained a suitable age and strength (lit. if he now had, as he will have by and by).

nōn est iam lēnitātī locus, there is no longer room for mercy.

quod iam erat institūtum, which had come to be a practice (had now been established).

nunc quidem delēta est, tum flōrēbat (Lael. 13), now (it is true) she [Greece] is ruined, then she was in her glory.

†tum cum rēgnābat, at the time when he reigned.

1 For †tum-ce; cf. tunc (for †tum-ce).
c. Certō means *certainly, certē* (usually) *at least, at any rate:* — certō scio, I know for a certainty; ego certē, I at least.

d. Primum means *first* (*first in order, or for the first time*), and implies a series of events or acts. Primō means *at first,* as opposed to afterwards, giving prominence merely to the difference of time: — hoc primum sentiō, this I hold in the first place.
eaedis primō ruere rebānum, at first we thought the house was falling.

Note. — In enumerations, primum (or primō) is often followed by deinde, *secondly, in the next place,* or by tum, *then,* or by both in succession. Deinde may be several times repeated (secondly, thirdly, etc.). The series is often closed by dēnique or postremō, lastly, finally. Thus, — primum dē genere belī, deinde dē magnītūdine, tum dē imperātore dēlīgendo (Manil. 6), first of the kind of war, next of its magnitude, then of the choice of a commander.

e. Quidem, *indeed,* gives emphasis, and often has a concessive meaning, especially when followed by sed, autem, etc.: — hoc quidem vidēre licet (Lael. 54), this surely one may see. [Emphatic.]

[secūritās] specīe quidem blanda, sed reāpse multis locis repudianda (id. 47), (tranquility) in appearance, 't is true, attractive, but in reality to be rejected for many reasons. [Concessive.]

f. Nē . . . quidem means *not even or not . . . either.* The emphatic word or words must stand between nē and quidem: —

sed nē Ingurtha quidem quīetus erat (Ing. 51), but Ingurtha was not quiet either.

ego autem nē frāscī possimus quidem īs quōs valdē amāō (Att. ii. 19. 1), but I cannot even get angry with those whom I love very much.

Note. — Quidem has the same senses as quidem, but is in Cicero confined to the first person. Thus, — equidem adprobāō (Fam. ii. 3. 2), I for my part shall approve.

**CONJUNCTIONS**

323. Copulative and Disjunctive Conjunctions connect similar constructions, and are regularly followed by the same case or mood that precedes them: —

scriptum seūlūtū et populū (Cat. iii. 10), *written to the senate and people.*

ut cās [partis] sānārēs et cōnfirmārēs (Mil. 68), *that you might cure and strengthen those parts.*

neque meā prūdentiā neque hūmanis cōnsiliis fērētus (Cat. ii. 29), *relying neither on my own foresight nor on human wisdom.*

1 For the classification of conjunctions, see §§ 223, 224.
**a.** Conjunctions of Comparison (as *ut*, *quam*, *tamquam*, *quasi*) also commonly connect similar constructions:—

his igitur *quam* physicis potius crēdendum existimās (Div. ii. 37), *do you think* these are more to be trusted than the natural philosophers?
hominem callidīōrem vidi nēminem *quam* Phormīōnem (Ter. Ph. 591), *a shrewder man I never saw than Phormio* (cf. § 497).

*ut* nōn omne vinum sic nōn omnis nātūra vetūstāte coacēsēt (Cat. M. 65),
as every wine does not sour with age, so [does] not every nature.
in mē quasi in tyrannum (Phil. xiv. 15), *against me as against a tyrant.*

**b.** Two or more coordinate words, phrases, or sentences are often put together without the use of conjunctions (*Asyndeton*, § 601. c):

omnēs di, hominēs, *all gods and men.*

summi, medii, infimi, *the highest, the middle class, and the lowest.*

iūra, légēs, agrēs, libertātem nōbīs relinquērunt (B. G. vii. 77), *they have left us our rights, our laws, our fields, our liberty.*

**c.** 1. Where there are more than two coordinate words etc., a conjunction, if used, is ordinarily used with all (or all except the first):—

*aut* aere aliēnō *aut* māgnumīnium tribūtōrum *aut* inūriā potentiōrum (B. G. vi. 13), *by debt, excessive taxation, or oppression on the part of the powerful.*

at sunt mōrōsī et auxīi et irācundī et difficīles senēs (Cat. M. 65), *but (you say) old men are capricious, solicitous, choleric, and fussy.*

2. But words are often so divided into groups that the members of the groups omit the conjunction (or express it), while the groups themselves express the conjunction (or omit it):—

propudium illud et portentum, L. Antōnīus insigne odium omnium homi-

num (Phil. xiv. 8), *that wretch and monster, Lucius Antonius, the abomina-

tion of all men.*

utrumque ēgit graviter, auctōritāte et offensiōne animī nōn acerbā (Lacl. 77), *he acted in both cases with dignity, without loss of authority and with no bitterness of feeling.*

3. The enclitic *que* is sometimes used with the last member of a series, even when there is no grouping apparent:—

nōce voltā mōthique (Brut. 110), *by voice, expression, and gesture.*
cūram cōnsilīum vigilīantiamque (Phil. vii. 20), *care, wisdom, and vigilance.*
quōrum auctōritātem dignitātem voluntātemque défenderās (Fam. i. 7. 2),

*whose dignity, honor, and wishes you had defended.*

**d.** Two adjectives belonging to the same noun are regularly connected by a conjunction:—

multae et gravēs causae, *many weighty reasons.*

vir liber ac fortis (Rep. ii. 34), *a free and brave man.*
SYNTAX: PARTICLES

[§§ 323, 324]

\textbf{e.} Often the same conjunction is repeated in two coördinate clauses:

et... et (-que... -que), both... and.
aut... aut, either... or.
vel... vel, either... or. [Examples in § 324. e.]
sive (seu)... sive (seu), whether... or. [Examples in § 324, f.]

\textbf{f.} Many adverbs are similarly used in pairs, as conjunctions, partly or wholly losing their adverbial force:

nunc... nunc, tum... tum, iam... iam, now... now.
modo... modo, now... now.
simul... simul, at the same time... at the same time.
qua... qua, now... now, both... and, alike [this] and [that].
modo ait modo negat (Ter. Enni. 714), now he says yes, now no.
simul grátias agit, simul gratulatur (Q. C. vi. 7. 15), he thanks him and at the same time congratulates him.
ærumpt saepe vitia amicorum tum in ipsos amicos tum in alienos (Lael. 76), the faults of friends sometimes break out, now against their friends, now against strangers.
quæ maris quæ fœminas (Pl. Mil. 1113), both males and females.

\textbf{g.} Certain relative and demonstrative adverbs are used correlatively as conjunctions:

ut (rel.)... ita, sic (dem.), as (while)... so (yet).
tam (dem.)... quam (rel.), so (as)... as.
cum (rel.)... tum (dem.), while... so also; not only... but also.

\textbf{324.} The following Conjunctions require notice:

\textbf{a.} Et, and, simply connects words or clauses; -que combines more closely into one connected whole. -que is always elicitic to the word connected or to the first or second of two or more words connected:

cum coniugibus et liberis, with [their] wives and children.
ferró ignique, with fire and sword. [Not as separate things, but as the combined means of devastation.]
aquæ et igni interdictus, forbidden the use of water and fire. [In a legal formula, where they are considered separately.]

\textbf{b.} Atque (ac), and, adds with some emphasis or with some implied reflection on the word added. Hence it is often equivalent to and so, and yet, and besides, and then. But these distinctions depend very much upon the feeling of the speaker, and are often untranslatable:

omnia honesta atque inhomesta, everything honorable and dishonorable (too, without the slightest distinction).
úsus atque disciplina, practice and theory beside (the more important or less expected).
atque ego crēdo, and yet I believe (for my part).
§ 324] CONJUNCTIONS


c. Atque (ac), in the sense of as, than, is also used after words of comparison and likeness:

simul atque, as soon as.
nūn secus (nūn aliter) ac sī, not otherwise than if.
prō ēō ac dēbui, as was my duty (in accordance as I ought).
aequē ac tā, as much as you.
haud minus ac iussi faciunt, they do just as they are ordered.

For and not, see § 328. a.

√d. Sed and the more emphatic vērum or vērō, but, are used to introduce something in opposition to what precedes, especially after negatives (not this . . . but something else). At (old form ast) introduces with emphasis a new point in an argument, but is also used like the others; sometimes it means at least. At enim is almost always used to introduce a supposed objection which is presently to be overthrown. At is more rarely used alone in this sense.

Autem, however, now, is the weakest of the adversatives, and often marks a mere transition and has hardly any adverative force perceptible. Atqui, however, now, sometimes introduces an objection and sometimes a fresh step in the reasoning. Quod sī, but if, and if, now if, is used to continue an argument.

Note. — Et, -que, and atque (ac) are sometimes used where the English idiom would suggest but, especially when a negative clause is followed by an affirmative clause continuing the same thought: as, — impetum hostēs ferre nōn potuérunt ac terga vertērunt (B. G. iv. 35), the enemy could not stand the onset, but turned their backs.

e. Aut, or, excludes the alternative; vel (an old imperative of volō) and -ve give a choice between two alternatives. But this distinction is not always observed:

sed quis ego sum aut quae est in mē facultās (Lael. 17), but who am I or what special capacity have I? [Here vel could not be used, because in fact a negative is implied and both alternatives are excluded.]

aut bibat aut abeat (Tusc. v. 118), let him drink or (if he won't do that, then let him) quit. [Here vel would mean, let him do either as he chooses.]
vita tālis fuit vel fortūnā vel gloriā (Lael. 12), his life was such either in respect to fortune or fame (whichever way you look at it).

si propinquōs habeat imbécillōrēs vel animō vel fortūnā (id. 70), if they have relatives beneath them either in spirit or in fortune (in either respect, for example, or in both).

aut deōrum aut rēgum filiī (id. 70), sons either of gods or of kings. [Here one case would exclude the other.]

implicātī vel ūsū diēturnō vel etiam officiūs (id. 85), entangled either by close intimacy or even by obligations. [Here the second case might exclude the first.]
f. Sive (seu) is properly used in disjunctive conditions (if either... or if), but also with alternative words and clauses, especially with two names for the same thing:—

sive invidens sive quod ita putaret (De Or. i. 91), either laughingly or because he really thought so.

sive deae seu sint volucres (Aen. iii. 262), whether they (the Harpies) are goddesses or birds.

g. Vel, even, for instance, is often used as an intensive particle with no alternative force: as,—vel minimus, the very least.

h. Nam and namque, for, usually introduce a real reason, formally expressed, for a previous statement; enim (always postpositive), a less important explanatory circumstance put in by the way; etenim (for, you see; for, you know; for, mind you) and its negative neque enim introduce something self-evident or needing no proof.

(ca vita) quae est sola vita nominanda. nam dum sumus inclusi in his compagnibus corporis, monecre quodam necessitatis et gravii operae perfungimus; est enim animus caelestis, etc. (Cat. M. 77), (that life) which alone deserves to be called life; for so long as we are confined by the body’s frame, we perform a sort of necessary function and heavy task. For the soul is from heaven.

härum trium sententiarum nāhī prōrusus adsentior. nec enim illa prima vera est (Lael. 57), for of course that first one isn’t true.

i. Ergō, therefore, is used of things proved formally, but often has a weakened force. Igitur, then, accordingly, is weaker than ergō and is used in passing from one stage of an argument to another. Itaque, therefore, accordingly, and so, is used in proofs or inferences from the nature of things rather than in formal logical proof. All of these are often used merely to resume a train of thought broken by a digression or parenthesis. Idcirco, for this reason, on this account, is regularly followed (or preceded) by a correlative (as, quia, quod, si, ut, nē), and refers to the special point introduced by the correlative.

malum mihi vidētur esse mors. est miserrum igitur, quoniam malum. certē. ergō et ei quibus évēnit iam ut morerentur et ei quibus évēntārum est miserī. mihi ita vidētur. nēmō ergō non miser. (Tusc. i. 8.) Death seems to me to be an evil. ‘It is wretched, then, since it is an evil.’ Certainly. ‘Therefore, all those who have already died and who are to die hereafter are wretched.’ So it appears to me. ‘There is no one, therefore, who is not wretched.’

quia nātūra mūtāri nān potest, idcirco vēræ amicitiae semperternae sunt (Lael. 32), because nature cannot be changed, for this reason true friendships are eternal.
j. Autem, enim, and vērō are postpositive; so generally igitur and often tamen.

k. Two conjunctions of similar meaning are often used together for the sake of emphasis or to bind a sentence more closely to what precedes: as, at vērō, but in truth, but surely, still, however; itaque ergō, accordingly then; namque, for; et-enim, for, you see, for of course (§ 324. k).

For Conjunctions introducing Subordinate Clauses, see Syntax.

Negative Particles

325. In the use of the Negative Particles, the following points are to be observed: —

326. Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative: —

nēmō nōn audiēt, every one will hear (nobody will not hear).

nōn possum nēn cōnfitēri (Fam. ix. 14. 1), I must confess.

ut . . . nē nōn timēre quidem sine aliquō timōre possimus (Mil. 2), so that we cannot even be relieved of fear without some fear.

a. Many compounds or phrases of which nōn is the first part express an indefinite affirmative: —

nōn nūllus, some; nōn nūli (= aliqui), some few.

nōn nihil (= aliquid), something.

nōn nēmō (= aliquot), sundry persons.

nōn numquam (= aliquōtiēns), sometimes.

b. Two negatives of which the second is nōn (belonging to the predicate) express a universal affirmative: —

nēmō nōn, nūllus nōn, nobody [does] not, i.e. everybody [does]. [Cf. nōn nēmō, not nobody, i.e. somebody.]

nihil nōn, everything. [Cf. nōn nihil, something.]

numquam nōn, never not, i.e. always. [Cf. nōn numquam, sometimes.]

c. A statement is often made emphatic by denying its contrary (Litotes, § 641): —

nōn sumel (= saepissime), often enough (not once only).

nōn haec sine nūmine divōm eveniunt (Aen. ii. 777), these things do not occur without the will of the gods.

haec nōn nimis exquirō (Att. vii. 18. 3), not very much, i.e. very little.

Note. — Compare nōn nūllus, nōn nēmō, etc., in a above.

1 That is, they do not stand first in their clause.

2 For a list of Negative Particles, see § 217. e.
327. A general negation is not destroyed—

1. By a following nē . . . quidem, not even, or nōn modo, not only:
   numquam tū nōn modo òtium, sed nē bellum quidem nisi nefàrium concupiscì (Cat. i. 25), not only have you never desired repose, but you have never desired any war except one which was infamous.

2. By succeeding negatives each introducing a separate subordinate member:—
eaque nesciēbant nec ubi nec quālia essent (Tusc. iii. 4), they knew not where or of what kind these things were.

3. By neque introducing a coordinate member:—
   nequeō satis mīrāri neque conicere (Ter. Eun. 547), I cannot wonder enough nor conjecture.

328. The negative is frequently joined with a conjunction or with an indefinite pronoun or adverb. Hence the forms of negation in Latin differ from those in English in many expressions:—
nūllī (neutrī) crēdō (not nōn crēdō ǔllī), I do not believe either (I believe neither).

sine ǔllō periculō (less commonly cum nūllō), with no danger (without any danger).

nihil umquam audīvi iūncundius, I never heard anything more amusing.
Cf. negō haec esse vēra (not dīcō nōn esse), I say this is not true (I deny, etc.).

a. In the second of two connected ideas, and not is regularly expressed by neque (nec), not by et nōn:—

   hostēs terga vertērunt, néque prius fugere dēstitērunt (B. G. i. 53), the enemy turned and fled, and did not stop fleeing until, etc.

Note.—Similarly nec quīquam is regularly used for et nēmō; neque āllus for et nūllus; nec umquam for et umquam; nēve (neu), for et nē.

329. The particle imō, nay, is used to contradict some part of a preceding statement or question, or its form; in the latter case, the same statement is often repeated in a stronger form, so that imō becomes nearly equivalent to yes (nay but, nay rather):—

   causa igitur nōn bona est? imō optima (Att. ix. 7. 4), is the cause then not a good one? on the contrary, the best.

a. Minus, less (especially with sī, if; quō, in order that), and minime, least, often have a negative force:—

   si minus possunt, if they cannot. [For quō minus, see § 558. b.]

   audācissimus ego ex omnibus? minime (Rosc. Am. 2), am I the boldest of them all? by no means (not at all).
QUESTIONS

Forms of Interrogation

330. Questions are either Direct or Indirect.

1. A Direct Question gives the exact words of the speaker: —
   quid est? what is it?            ubi sum? where am I?

2. An Indirect Question gives the substance of the question, adapted
to the form of the sentence in which it is quoted. It depends on a verb
or other expression of asking, doubting, knowing, or the like: —
   rogavit quid esset, he asked what it was. [Direct: quid est, what is it?]
   nescio ubi sim, I know not where I am. [Direct: ubi sum, where am I?]

331. Questions in Latin are introduced by special interrogative
words, and are not distinguished by the order of words, as in
English.¹

Note.—The form of Indirect Questions (in English introduced by whether, or by
an interrogative pronoun or adverb) is in Latin the same as that of Direct; the differ-
ence being only in the verb, which in indirect questions is regularly in the Subjunc-
tive (§ 574).

332. A question of simple fact, requiring the answer yes or no,
is formed by adding the enclitic -ne to the emphatic word: —
   tane id veritus es (Q. Fr. i. 3. 1), did you fear that?
   hicine vir usquam nisi in patria morietur (Mil. 104), shall this man die any-
   where but in his native land?
   is tibi mortemne videtur aut dolorem timere (Tusc. v. 88), does he seem to
   you to fear death or pain?

a. The interrogative particle -ne is sometimes omitted: —
   patere tua consilia non sentis (Cat. i. 1), do you not see that your schemes are
   manifest? (you do not see, eh?)

Note.—In such cases, as no sign of interrogation appears, it is often doubtful
whether the sentence is a question or an ironical statement.

b. When the enclitic -ne is added to a negative word, as in nonne,
an affirmative answer is expected. The particle num suggests a nega-
tive answer: —
   nonne animadvertis (N. D. iii. 89), do you not observe?
   num dubium est (Rosc. Am. 107), there is no doubt, is there?

Note.—In Indirect Questions num commonly loses its peculiar force and means
simply whether.

¹ For a list of Interrogative Particles, see § 217. d.
c. The particle -ne often when added to the verb, less commonly when added to some other word, has the force of nōnne:—

mēministine mē in senātū dicere (Cat. i. 7), don’t you remember my saying in the Senate?

rectēne interpreter sententiam tuam (Tusc. iii. 37), do I not rightly interpret your meaning?

Note 1.—This was evidently the original meaning of -ne; but in most cases the negative force was lost and -ne was used merely to express a question. So the English interrogative no? shades off into eh?

Note 2.—The enclitic -ne is sometimes added to other interrogative words: as, utrumne, whether? anne, or; quantane (Hor. S. ii. 3. 317), how big? quōne malō (id. ii. 3. 295), by what curve?

333. A question concerning some special circumstance is formed by prefixing to the sentence an interrogative pronoun or adverb as in English (§ 152):—

quid exspectās (Cat. ii. 18), what are you looking forward to?

quī igitur haec spectant (Fam. vi. 6. 11), whither then is all this tending?

Icāre, ubi es (Ov. M. viii. 232), Icarus, where are you?

quōd vectigal vōbis tātum fuit? quem socium défendístis? cui præsidīō classibus vestris fúístis? (Manili. 32), what revenue has been safe for you?

what ally have you defended? whom have you guarded with your fleets?

Note.—A question of this form becomes an exclamation by changing the tone of the voice: as,—

quālis vir erat! what a man he was!

quōt calamités passī sumus! how many misfortunes we have suffered!

quōt studiō cōnsentīnt (Cat. iv. 15), with what zeal they unite!

a. The particles -nam (enclitic) and tandem may be added to interrogative pronouns and adverbs for the sake of emphasis:—

quisnam est, pray who is it? [quis tandem est? would be stronger.]

ubinam gentium sumus (Cat. i. 9), where in the world are we?

in quā tandem urbe hōc disputant (Mil. 7), in what city, pray, do they maintain this?

Note.—Tandem is sometimes added to verbs:—

ain tandem (Fam. ix. 21), you don’t say so! (say you so, pray?)

itane tandem uxōrem dūxít Antīphō (Ter. Ph. 231), so then, eh? Antipho’s got married.

Double Questions

334. A Double or Alternative Question is an inquiry as to which of two or more supposed cases is the true one.

335. In Double or Alternative Questions, utrum or -ne, whether, stands in the first member; an, anne, or, annōn, necne, or not, in the second; and usually an in the third, if there be one:—
utrum nescis, an pró nihilō id putās (Fam. x. 26), is it that you don’t know, or do you think nothing of it?

vösne L. Domitium an vös Domitius déseruit (B. C. ii. 32), did you desert Lucius Domitius, or did Domitius desert you?
quœrô servösne an liberōs (Rosc. Am. 74), I ask whether slaves or free.

utrum hostem an vös an fortūnam utriusque populi ignōrātis (Liv. xxi. 10), is it the enemy, or yourselves, or the fortune of the two peoples, that you do not know?

Note. — An for an is rare. Necce is rare in direct questions, but in indirect questions it is commoner than annōn. In poetry —ne . . . —ne sometimes occurs.

a. The interrogative particle is often omitted in the first member; in which case an or —ne (anne, necne) may stand in the second: —

Gabiniō dicam anne Pompēiō an utrique (Manil. 57), shall I say to Gabinius, or to Pompey, or to both?
sunt hæc tua verba necce (Tusc. iii. 41), are these your words or not?
quaesīvi ā Catilīnā in conventū apud M. Læcum fuisse necce (Cat. ii. 13), I asked Catiline whether he had been at the meeting at Marcus Leca’s or not.

b. Sometimes the first member is omitted or implied, and an (anne) alone asks the question, — usually with indignation or surprise: —

an tū miserōs putās illōs (Tusc. i. 13), what! do you think those men wretched?
an iste unquam dē sē bonam spem habuisset, nisi dē vōbis malam opinōnem animō imbibisset (Verr. i. 42), would he ever have had good hopes about himself unless he had conceived an evil opinion of you?

c. Sometimes the second member is omitted or implied, and utrum may ask a question to which there is no alternative: —

utrum est in clārissimis civibus is, quem . . . (Flacc. 45), is he among the noblest citizens, whom, etc.?

da. The following table exhibits the various forms of alternative questions: —

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<tr>
<th>utrum</th>
<th>. .</th>
<th>an</th>
<th>. .</th>
<th>an</th>
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<tr>
<td>utrum</td>
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Note. — From double (alternative) questions must be distinguished those which are in themselves single, but of which some detail is alternative. These have the common disjunctive particles aut or vel (-ve). Thus, — quærō num inĪstō aut improbē fēcerit (Off. iii. 54), I ask whether he acted unjustly or even dishonestly. Here there is no double question. The only inquiry is whether the man did either of the two things supposed, not which of the two he did.
Question and Answer

336. There is no one Latin word in common use meaning simply yes or no. In answering a question affirmatively, the verb or some other emphatic word is generally repeated; in answering negatively, the verb, etc., with non or a similar negative:—

valetne, is he well? valet, yes (he is well).

cratue tecum, was he with you? non erat, no (he was not).

num quidam novi? there is nothing new, is there? nihil sanè, oh! nothing.

a. An intensive or negative particle, a phrase, or a clause is sometimes used to answer a direct question:—

1. For yes:—

vèrò, in truth, true, no doubt, yes. ita vèrò, certainly (so in truth), etc.
etiam, even so, yes, etc.

sane quidem, yes, no doubt, etc.

ita est, it is so, true, etc.

sane, surely, no doubt, doubtless, etc.

certè, certainly, unquestionably, etc.

factum, true, it's a fact, you're right, etc. (lit., it was done).

2. For no:—

non, not so.

nullò modò, by no means.

minimè, not at all (lit., in the smallest degree, cf. § 329. a).

minimè vèrò, no, not by any means; oh! no, etc.

non quidem, why, no; certainly not, etc.

non herele vèrò, why, gracious, no! (certainly not, by Hercules!)

Examples are:—

avt etiam aut non respondēre (Acad. ii. 104), to answer (categorically) yes or no.
estne ut fortur forma? sane (Ter. Eun. 361), is she as handsome as they say she is? (is her beauty as it is said?) oh! yes.
miser ergò Archelāus? certè si inīustus (Tusc. v. 35), was Archelaus wretched then? certainly, if he was unjust.
an hase contemptitis? minimè (De Or. ii. 295), do you despise these things? not at all.

volucrībusne et ferīs? minimè vèrò (Tusc. i. 104), to the birds and beasts? why, of course not.
ex tui animī sententia tūuxorem habēs? non herele, ex mei animī sententiā (De Or. ii. 260), Lord! no, etc.

337. In answering a double question, one member of the alternative, or some part of it, must be repeated:—

vidisti an dē auditō nūntiās? — egomet vidi (Plaut. Merc. 902), did you see it or are you repeating something you have heard? — I saw it myself.
CONSTRUCTION OF CASES

338. The Cases of nouns express their relations to other words in the sentence. The most primitive way of expressing such relations was by mere juxtaposition of uninflected forms. From this arose in time composition, i.e. the growing together of stems, by means of which a complex expression arises with its parts mutually dependent. Thus such a complex as armi-gero- came to mean arm-bearing; fidi-cren-, playing on the lyre. Later, Cases were formed by means of suffixes expressing more definitely such relations, and Syntax began. But the primitive method of composition still continues to hold an important place even in the most highly developed languages.

Originally the Indo-European family of languages, to which Latin belongs, had at least seven case-forms, besides the Vocative. But in Latin the Locative and the Instrumental were lost except in a few words (where they remained without being recognized as cases), and their functions were divided among the other cases.

The Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative express the simplest and perhaps the earliest case-relations. The Nominative is the case of the Subject, and generally ends in -s. The Vocative, usually without a termination, or like the Nominative (§ 38. 2), perhaps never had a suffix of its own.2 The Accusative, most frequently formed by the suffix -m, originally connected the noun loosely with the verb-idea, not necessarily expressed by a verb proper, but as well by a noun or an adjective (see § 389).

The Genitive appears to have expressed a great variety of relations and to have had no single primitive meaning; and the same may be true of the Dative.

The other cases perhaps at first expressed relations of place or direction (to, from, at, with), though this is not clear in all instances. The earlier meanings, however, have become confused with each other, and in many instances the cases are no longer distinguishable in meaning or in form. Thus the Locative was for the most part lost from its confusion with the Dative and Ablative; and its function was often performed by the Ablative, which is freely used to express the place where (§ 421). To indicate the case-relations — especially those of place — more precisely, Propositions (originally adverbs) gradually came into use. The case-endings, thus losing something of their significance, were less distinctly pronounced as time went on (see § 36, phonetic decay), and propositions have finally superseeded them in the modern languages derived from Latin. But in Latin a large and various body of relations was still expressed by case-forms. It is to be noticed that in their literal use cases tended to adopt the proposition, and in their figurative uses to retain the old construction. (See Ablative of Separation, §§ 402-404; Ablative of Place and Time, § 421 ff.)

The word cäsas, case, is a translation of the Greek πτὸσ, a felling away (from the erect position). The term πτὸσ was originally applied to the Oblique Cases (§ 35. 9), to mark them as variations from the Nominative, which was called ὑστῆ, erect (cäsus rectus). The later name Nominative (cäsus nominativus) is from nomen, and means the naming case. The other case-names (except Ablative) are of Greek origin. The name Genitive (cäsus genetivus) is a translation of γενετός [πτὸσ], from γενεῖν (class), and refers to the class to which a thing belongs. Dative (cäsus dativus, from ἀδεῖς) is translated from δαδός, and means the case of giving. Accusative (accusativus, from acceās) is a mistranslation of aitmatikó (the case of causing), from aitía, cause, and meant to the Romans the case of accusing. The name Vocative (vocativus, from vocab) is translated from κλαίσκος (the case of calling). The name Ablative (ablativeus, from ablātus, uferō) means taking from. This case the Greek had lost.

1 Some of the endings, however, which in Latin are assigned to the dative and ablative are doubtless of locative or instrumental origin (see p. 34, footnote).
2 The e-vocative of the second declension is a form of the stem (§ 45. a).
NOMINATIVE CASE

339. The Subject of a finite verb is in the Nominative: —

Caesar Rhēnum trānsire dēcrēverat (L. G. iv. 17), Caesar had determined to cross the Rhine.

For the omission of a pronominal subject, see § 295. a.

a. The nominative may be used in exclamations: —

ēn dextra fidēsque (Aen. iv. 597), lo, the faith and plighted word!
ecce tuae līterae de Varrōne (Att. xiii. 16), lo and behold, your letters about Varro!

Note. — But the accusative is more common (§ 397. d).

VOCATIVE CASE

340. The Vocative is the case of direct address: —

Tiberīne pater, tā, sānce, precor (Liv. ii. 10), O father Tiber, thee, holy one,
I pray.
rēs omnīs mīhi tēcum erit, Hortēnsi (Verr. i. 33). my whole attention will be
devoted to you, Hortensius.

a. A noun in the nominative in apposition with the subject of the imperative mood is sometimes used instead of the vocative: —
audī tā, populus Albānus (Liv. i. 24), hear, thou people of Alba.

b. The vocative of an adjective is sometimes used in poetry instead of the nominative, where the verb is in the second person: —
quō moriturū ruis (Aen. x. 811), whither art thou rushing to thy doom?
cēnsōrem trabeāte salūtās (Pers. iii. 29), robed you salute the censor.

c. The vocative macte is used as a predicate in the phrase macte estō (virtūte), success attend your (valor): —

iubērem tē macte virtūte esse (Liv. ii. 12), I should bid you go on and prosper
in your valor.
macte novā virtūte puer (Aen. ix. 641), success attend your valor, boy!

Note. — As the original quantity of the final e in macte is not determinable, it may be that the word was an adverb, as in best est and the like.

GENITIVE CASE

341. The Genitive is regularly used to express the relation of one noun to another. Hence it is sometimes called the adjective case, to distinguish it from the Dative and the Ablative, which may be called adverbial cases.
The uses of the Genitive may be classified as follows: —

1. Genitive with Nouns:
   1. Of Possession (§ 343).
   2. Of Material (§ 344).
   3. Of Quality (§ 345).
   4. Of the Whole, after words designating a Part (Partitive, § 346).
   5. With Nouns of Action and Feeling (§ 348).

2. Genitive with Adjectives:
   1. After Relative Adjectives (or Verbals) (§ 349).

3. Genitive with Verbs:
   1. Of Memory, Feeling, etc. (§§ 350, 351, 354).
   2. Of Accusing, etc. (Charge or Penalty) (§ 352).

**GENITIVE WITH NOUNS**

342. A noun used to limit or define another, and *not* meaning the same person or thing, is put in the Genitive.

This relation is most frequently expressed in English by the preposition *of,* sometimes by the English genitive (or possessive) case: —

libri Ciceronis, the books of Cicero, or Cicero’s books.

inimici Caesaris, Caesar’s enemies, or the enemies of Caesar.

talentum auri, a talent of gold.

vir sumnumae virtutis, a man of the greatest courage.

But observe the following equivalents: —

vakatiō laboris, a respite from toil.

petitiō consulātūs, candidacy for the consulship.

rēgnum civitātīs, royal power over the state.

**Possessive Genitive**

343. The Possessive Genitive denotes the person or thing to which an object, quality, feeling, or action belongs: —

Alexandri canis, Alexander’s dog.

potentia Pompēi (Sall. Cat. 19), Pompey’s power.

Ariovistī mors (B. G. v. 29), the death of Ariovistus.

perditūrām temeritās (Mil. 22), the recklessness of desperate men.

**Note 1.** — The Possessive Genitive may denote (1) the actual owner (as in Alexander’s dog) or author (as in Cicero’s writings), or (2) the person or thing that possesses some feeling or quality or does some act (as in Cicero’s eloquence, the strength of the bridge, Catiline’s evil deeds). In the latter use it is sometimes called the Subjective Genitive; but this term properly includes the possessive genitive and several other genitive constructions (nearly all, in fact, except the Objective Genitive, § 347).

**Note 2.** — The noun limited is understood in a few expressions: —

ad Castorīs [aedēs] (Quint. 17), at the [temple] of Castor. [Cf. St. Paul’s.]

Flaccus Claudii, Flaccus [slave] of Claudius.

Hectoris Andromachē (Aen. iii. 319), Hector’s [wife] Andromache.
a. For the genitive of possession a possessive or derivative adjective is often used, — regularly for the possessive genitive of the personal pronouns (§ 302. a): —

über meus, my book. [Not liber mei.]
aliēna pericula, other men's dangers. [But also aliōrum.]
Sullāna temporā, the times of Sulla. [Oftener Sullae.]

b. The possessive genitive often stands in the predicate, connected with its noun by a verb (Predicate Genitive): —

haec domus est patris mei, this house is my father's.
iam mé Pompei tōtum esse scis (Fam. ii. 13), you know I am now all for Pompey (all Pompey's).
summa laus et tua et Brūti est (Fam. xii. 4. 2), the highest praise is due both to you and to Brutus (is both yours and Brutus's).
compendi facere, to save (make of saving).
lucrī facere, to get the benefit of (make of profit).

Note. — These genitives bear the same relation to the examples in § 343 that a predicate noun bears to an appositive (§§ 282, 283).

c. An infinitive or a clause, when used as a noun, is often limited by a genitive in the predicate: —

neque sui iūdīci [erat] discerecre (B. C. i. 35), nor was it for his judgment to decide (nor did it belong to his judgment).
cūiusvis hominis est errāre (Phil. xii. 5), it is any man's [liability] to err.
negāvit mōris esse Græcorum, ut in convivīō virōrum accumerent mulieres (Verr. ii. 1. 66), he said it was not the custom of the Greeks for women to appear as guests (recline) at the banquets of men.
śed timīdī est optāre necem (Ov. M. iv. 115), but 'tis the coward's part to wish for death.
stultī erat spērāre, saēdēre impudentis (Phil. ii. 23), it was folly (the part of a fool) to hope, effrontery to urge.
sapiēntis est paucā loqui, it is wise (the part of a wise man) to say little.
[Not sapiēns (neuter) est, etc.]

Note 1. — This construction is regular with adjectives of the third declension instead of the neuter nominative (see the last two examples).

Note 2. — A derivative or possessive adjective may be used for the genitive in this construction, and must be used for the genitive of a personal pronoun: —

mentiri nōn est meum [non mei], it is not for me to lie.
humānum [for hominis] est errāre, it is man's nature to err (to err is human).

da. A limiting genitive is sometimes used instead of a noun in apposition (Appositional Genitive) (§ 282): —
nōmen insānīae (for nōmen insānia), the word madness.
oppidum Antiochiae (for oppidum Antiochia, the regular form), the city of Antioch.
Genitive of Material

344. The Genitive may denote the Substance or Material of which a thing consists (cf. § 403): —

talentum auri, a talent of gold.         fl̄umina lactis, rivers of milk.

Genitive of Quality

345. The Genitive is used to denote Quality, but only when the quality is modified by an adjective: —

vir summae virtutis, a man of the highest courage.  [But not vir virtutis.]
magnae est deliberationis, it is an affair of great deliberation.
magni formae laboris (Hec. S. i. 1. 33), the ant [a creature] of great toil.
ille autem sui iudicii (Nep. Att. 9), but he [a man] of independent (his own) judgment.

Note. — Compare Ablative of Quality (§ 415). In expressions of quality, the genitive or the ablative may often be used indifferently: as, praestant prædantia vir, a man of surpassing wisdom; maximi animi homin est, a man of the greatest courage. In classic prose, however, the genitive of quality is much less common than the ablative: it is practically confined to expressions of measure or number, to a phrase with eius, and to nouns modified by magnum, maximus, summus, or tantus. In general the Genitive is used rather of essential, the Ablative of special or incidental characteristics.

a. The genitive of quality is found in the adjective phrases eius modi, cuius modi (equivalent to talis, such; qualis, of what sort): —
eius modi sunt tempestates consecutae, uti (B. G. iii. 29), such storms followed, that, etc.

b. The genitive of quality, with numerals, is used to define measures of length, depth, etc. (Genitive of Measure): —

fossa trium pedum, a trench of three feet [in depth].
murus sexdecim pedum, a wall of sixteen feet [high].

For the Genitive of Quality used to express indefinite value, see § 417.

Partitive Genitive

346. Words denoting a Part are followed by the Genitive of the Whole to which the part belongs.

a. Partitive words, followed by the genitive, are —

1. Nouns or Pronouns (cf. also 3 below): —
pars militum, part of the soldiers.  quis nostrum, which of us?
nihil erat reliqui, there was nothing left.
nemum erum (B. G. vii. 66), not a man of them.
magnum partem erum interfecerunt (id. ii. 23), they killed a large part of them.
SYNTAX: CONSTRUCTION OF CASES [§ 346

2. Numerals, Comparatives, Superlatives, and Pronominal words like alius, alter, nūllus, etc.:—

únus tribūnorum, one of the tribunes (see c below).
sapiestum octávus (Hor. S. ii. 3. 296), the eighth of the wise men.
millā passuum sescenta (B. G. iv. 3), six hundred miles (thousands of paces).
máior frātrum, the elder of the brothers.
amālium fortiora, the stronger [of] animals.
Susōrum gēns est longē maxima et bellicōsissima Germānōrum omnium (B. G. iv. 1), the tribe of the Suevi is far the largest and most warlike of all the Germans.
alter cōnsulm, one of the [two] consuls.
nūlla eārum (B. G. iv. 28), not one of them (the ships).

3. Neuter Adjectives and Pronouns, used as nouns:—
tantum spati, so much [of] space.
aliquid nummorum, a few pence (something of coins).
id loci (or locōrum), that spot of ground; id temporis, at that time (§ 397. a).
plāna urbis, the level parts of the town.
quid novī, what news? (what of new?)
paulum frūmenti (B. C. i. 78), a little grain.
pūs dolōris (B. G. i. 20), more grief.
sui aliquid timōris (B. C. ii. 29), some fear of his own (something of his own fear).

Note 1. — In classic prose neuter adjectives (not pronominal) seldom take a partitive genitive, except multum, tantum, quantum, and similar words.

Note 2. — The genitive of adjectives of the third declension is rarely used partitively:—nihil novī (genitive), nothing new; but,—nihil memoriae (nominative), nothing worth mention (not nihil memoriābutis).

4. Adverbs, especially those of Quantity and of Place:—

parum òti, not much ease (too little of ease).
satis pecúniae, money enough (enough of money).
plūrimum tōtius Galliārum equitātū valet (B. G. v. 3), is strongest of all Gaul in cavalry.
ubinam gentium sumus (Cat. i. 9), where in the world are we (where of nations)?
ubicumque terrārum et gentium (Verr. v. 143), wherever in the whole world.
rēs erat eō iam loci ut (Sest. 65), the business had now reached such a point that, etc.
eō miserāriōrum (Iug. 14. 3), to that [pitch] of misery.
inde loci, next in order (thence of place). [Poetical.]

b. The poets and later writers often use the partitive genitive after adjectives, instead of a noun in its proper case:—

sequinur tē, sāncte deōrum (Aen. iv. 576), we follow thee, O holy deity. [For sāncte deōs (§ 49. g. n.)]
nigrae iānārum (Plin. H. N. viii. 193), black wools. [For nigrae lānae.]
expeditī militūm (Liv. xxx. 9), light-armed soldiers. [For expeditī militēs.]
hominum cūntōs (Ov. M. iv. 631), all men. [For cūntōs hominēs; cf. e.]}
c. Cardinal numerals (except milia) regularly take the Ablative with ē (ex) or dē instead of the Partitive Genitive. So also quidam, a certain one, commonly, and other words occasionally:—
ūnus ex tribūnīs, one of the tribunes. [But also, ānus tribūnōrum (cf. a. 2).]
minus ex illīs (lug. 11), the youngest of them.
medīus ex tribus (ib.), the middle one of the three.
quidam ex militibus, certain of the soldiers.
ūnus dē multitās (fin. ii. 66), one of the many.
paucae dē nostrīs cadunt (B. G. i. 15), a few of our men fall.
hominem dē comitibus meis, a man of my companions.

d. Uterque, both—(properly each), and quisque, each, with Nouns are regularly used as adjectives in agreement, but with Pronouns take a partitive genitive:—
uterque cōnsul, both the consuls; but, uterque nostrum, both of us.
ūnus quisque vestrum, each one of you.
utraque castre, both camps.

e. Numbers and words of quantity including the whole of any thing take a case in agreement, and not the partitive genitive. So also words denoting a part when only that part is thought of:—
nōs omnēs, all of us (we all). [Not omnēs nostrum.]
quo sunt hostēs, how many of the enemy are there?
cave inimīcis, qui multī sunt, beware of your enemies, who are many.
multī militēs, many of the soldiers.
nēmō Rōmānus, not one Roman.

Objective Genitive

347. The Objective Genitive is used with Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs.

348. Nouns of action, agency, and feeling govern the Genitive
of the Object:—
cāritās tui, affection for you.  dēsiderium ēti, longing for rest.
vacātiō mūneris, relief from duty.  grātia benefici, gratitude for kindness.
fuga mālōrum, refuge from disaster.  precātiō deōrum, prayer to the gods.
contentītūs honōrum, struggle for office.  opinātūs virtūtis, reputation for valor.

Note.—This usage is an extension of the idea of belonging to (Possessive Genitive). Thus in the phrase odiam Cæsarīs, hate of Cæsar, the hate in a passive sense belongs to Cæsar, as odiōm, though in its active sense he is the object of it, as hate (cf. a). The distinction between the Possessive (subjective) and the Objective Genitive is very unstable and is often lost sight of. It is illustrated by the following example: the phrase amor patris, love of a father, may mean love felt by a father, a father’s love (subjective genitive), or love towards a father (objective genitive).
a. The objective genitive is sometimes replaced by a possessive pronoun or other derivative adjective:

mea invidia, my unpopularity (the dislike of which I am the object). [Cf. odium meī (Har. Resp. 5), hatred of me.]
laudātor meus (Att. i. 10. 5), my eulogist (one who praises me). [Cf. nostri laudātor (id. i. 14. 6).]
Clōdiānum crimen (Mil. 72), the murder of Clodius (the Clodian charge). [As we say, the Nathan murder.]
metas hostilis (Lug. 41), fear of the enemy (hostile fear).
ca quac faciebat, tua sē fidēcia façere dicebat (Verr. v. 178), what he was doing, he said he did relying on you (with your reliance).
neque negligentīs tua, neque id odiō fecit tua (Ter. Ph. 1016), he did this neither from neglect nor from hatred of you.

b. Rarely the objective genitive is used with a noun already limited by another genitive:

animi multārum rērum percursiō (Tusc. iv. 31), the mind's traversing of many things.

c. A noun with a preposition is often used instead of the objective genitive:

odium in Antōnium (Pam. x. 5. 3), hate of Antony.
merita ergā mē (id. i. 1. 1), services to me.
meam in tē pietātem (id. i. 9. 1), my devotion to you.
impertus in urbem (Phil. xii. 29), an attack on the city.
excessus ē vitā (Fin. iii. 60), departure from life. [Also, excessus vitae, Tusc. i. 27.]
adopōiō in Domitiōn (Tac. Ann. xii. 25), the adoption of Domitius. [A late and bold extension of this construction.]

Note.—So also in late writers the dative of reference (cf. § 360. b): as,—longō bellō materiam (Tac. ii. i. 89), resources for a long war.

GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES

349. Adjectives requiring an object of reference govern the Objective Genitive.

\( \wedge \)  a. Adjectives denoting desire, knowledge, memory, fulness, power, sharing, guilt, and their opposites govern the genitive:

avidō laudis (Manil. 7), greedy of praise.
fastidiōsus litterārum, disclaiming letters.
iūris peritus, skilled in law. [So also the ablative, iūre, cf. § 418.]
memōrem vestri, oblivium sae (Catt. iv. 19), mindful of you, forgetful of himself.
rationēs et ōratiōnis exportēs (Off. i. 50), devoid of sense and speech.
nostre consūtūdinis imperīti (B.G. iv. 22), unacquainted with our customs.
plēnus fidei, full of good faith.

omnis spei egensum (Tac. Ann. i. 53), destitute of all hope.

tempestātum potentem (Aen. i. 80), having sway over the storms.

impotens irae (Liv. xxix. 9. 9), ungovernable in anger.

coniurātiōnis partícipes (Cat. iii. 14), sharing in the conspiracy.

affinis rei capitālis (Verr. ii. 2. 94), involved in a capital crime.

insōns culpae (Liv. xxi. 49), innocent of guilt.

b. Particles in -ns govern the genitive when they are used as
adjectives, i.e. when they denote a constant disposition and not a
particular act: —

si quem tui amantīōrem sōgnōvisti (Q. Fr. i. 1. 15), if you have become
acquainted with any one more fond of you.

multītūdō insōlenēs belli (B. C. ii. 36), a crowd unused to war.

erat Jugurtha appetēns gēriae militāris (Lug. 7), Jugurtha was eager for militāry glory.

Note 1.—Participle in -ns, when used as participles, take the case regularly gov-
erned by the verb to which they belong: as,—Sp. Maelium rēgum appetētum inter-
ēmit (Cat. M. 56), he put to death Spurius Mælius, who was aspiring to royal power.

Note 2.—Occasionally participial forms in -ns are treated as participles (see note 1)
even when they express a disposition or character: as,— virūs quam aliī ipsiām tem-
perantiam dicunt esse, aliī obtemperantem temperamentiam praecoptis et eam subsequen-
tem (Tusc. iv. 30), observant of the teachings of temperance and obedient to her.

c. Verbals in -āx (§ 251) govern the genitive in poetry and later
Latin: —

iūnctum et tenacem prōpositi virum (Ilor. Od. iii. 3), a man just and steadfast
to his purpose.

circus capāx populi (Ov. A. A. i. 136), a circus big enough to hold the people.

cibi vinique capācissimus (Liv. ix. 16. 13), a very great eater and drinker
(very able to contain food and wine).

d. The poets and later writers use the genitive with almost any
adjective, to denote that with reference to which the quality exists
(Genitive of Specification): —

callidus rei militāris (Tac. H. ii. 32), skilled in soldiership.

pauper aquae (Ilor. Od. iii. 30. 11), scant of water.

nōtus animi paternī (id. ii. 2. 6), famed for a paternal spirit.

fessī rērum (Aen. i. 178), weary of toil.

integer vitae sCELERIsque pūrn (Ilor. Od. i. 22. 1), upright in life, and unstained
by guilt.

Note.—The Genitive of Specification is only an extension of the construction with
adjectives requiring an object of reference (§ 349). Thus callidus denotes knowledge;
pauper, want; pūrn, innocence; and so these words in a manner belong to the classes
under d.

For the Ablative of Specification, the prose construction, see § 418. For Adjectives
of likeness etc. with the Genitive, apparently Objective, see § 385. c. For Adjectives
with animī (locative in origin), see § 358.
GENITIVE WITH VERBS

Verbs of Remembering and Forgetting

350. Verbs of remembering and forgetting take either the Accusative or the Genitive of the object: —

a. Memini takes the Accusative when it has the literal sense of retaining in the mind what one has seen, heard, or learned. Hence the accusative is used of persons whom one remembers as acquaintances, or of things which one has experienced.

So obliviscor in the opposite sense, — to forget literally, to lose all memory of a thing (very rarely, of a person).

Cinnam memini (Phil. v. 17), I remember Cinnam.
utinam avum tuum meminisses (id. i. 34), oh! that you could remember your grandfather! (but he died before you were born).
Postumium, cūnus statuam in Isthmō meminisse vē dicis (Att. xiii. 32), Postumius, whose statue you say you remember (to have seen) on the Isthmus.
omnia meminist Siron Epicūrī dogmata (Acad. ii. 106), Siron remembers all the doctrines of Epicurus.
multa ab aliis audita meminērant (De Or. ii. 355), they remember many things that they have heard from others.
tōtam causam oblivitus est (Brut. 217), he forgot the whole case.
hinc iam obliviscere Grāēs (Aen. ii. 148), from henceforth forget the Greeks (i.e. not merely disregard them, but banish them from your mind, as if you had never known them).

b. Memini takes the Genitive when it means to be mindful or regardful of a person or thing, to think of somebody or something (often with special interest or warmth of feeling).

So obliviscor in the opposite sense, — to disregard, or dismiss from the mind,— and the adjective oblivus, careless or regardless.

ipse sui memorērat (Verr. ii. 130), he was mindful of himself (of his own interests).
faciām ut hēius locī diēaque mēque semper memineris (Ter. Eun. 801), I will make you remember this place and this day and me as long as you live.
nec mē meminnisse pigēbit Elīssae, dum memor ipse met (Aen. iv. 335), nor shall I feel regret at the thought of Elissa, so long as I remember myself.
meminerint verēcuandae (Off. i. 122), let them cherish modesty.
hūminae infirmītās memint (Liv. xxx. 31. 6), I remember human weakness.
oblivisci temporum necōrum, meminisse actōnum (Paus. i. 9. 8), to disregard my own interests, to be mindful of the matters at issue.
 nec tamen Epicūrī licet oblivisci (Fin. v. 3), and yet I must not forget Epicurus.
obliviscere caedis atque incendiōrum (Cat. i. 6), turn your mind from slaughter and conflagrations (dismiss them from your thoughts).
Note 1. — With both meminē and obliviscur the personal and reflexive pronouns are regularly in the Genitive; neuter pronouns and adjectives used substantively are regularly in the Accusative; abstract nouns are often in the Genitive. These uses come in each instance from the natural meaning of the verbs (as defined above).

Note 2. — Meminē in the sense of mention takes the Genitive: as, — eundem Achillam cáius supra meminimus (B. C. iii. 108), that same Achillus whom I mentioned above.

c. Reminiscor is rare. It takes the Accusative in the literal sense of call to mind, recollect; the Genitive in the more figurative sense of be mindful of: —

dulcis moriēns reminiscitur Argōs (Aen. x. 782), as he dies he calls to mind his beloved Argos.

reminiscitur et veteris incommodi populī Rōmānī et prīstinae virtūtis Helvētiōrum (B. G. i. 13), let him remember both the former discomfiture of the Roman people and the ancient valor of the Helvetians. [A warning, — let him bear it in mind (and beware)!]

d. Recorder, recollect, recall, regularly takes the Accusative: —

recordāre consēssum illum theatrī (Phil. i. 30), recall that unanimous agreement of the [audience in the] theatre.

recordāmini omnēs civīlis dissēnsiōnes (Cat. iii. 24), call to mind all the civil wars.

Note. — Recorder takes the genitive once (Pison. 12); it is never used with a personal object, but may be followed by dē with the ablative of the person or thing (cf. § 351, n.): —

dē tē recorder (Scanr. 49), I remember about you.

dē illīs (lacrimis) recorder (Planc. 104), I am reminded of those tears.

Verbs of Reminding

351. Verbs of reminding take with the Accusative of the person a Genitive of the thing; except in the case of a neuter pronoun, which is put in the accusative (cf. § 390. c).

So admonēō, commoneō, commonefeciō, commonefīō. But moneō with the genitive is found in late writers only.

Catilīna admonēbat alium egestātis, alium cupiditātis suae (Sall. Cat. 21),

Catiline reminded one of his poverty, another of his cupidity.

evō hoc moneō (Cat. ii. 20), I give them this warning.

quod vōs lex commonet (Verr. iii. 40), that which the law reminds you of.

Note. — All these verbs often take dē with the ablative, and the accusative of nouns as well as of pronouns is sometimes used with them: —

saepius tē admoveo dē synGraphā Sittīānā (Pam. viii. 4. 5) I remind you again and again of Sittius's bond.

officium vosstrum ut vōs mālo cōgātis commoneāri (Plant. Ps. 150), that you may by misfortune force yourselves to be reminded of your duty.
Syntaxis: Construction of Cases

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Verbs of Accusing, Condemning, and Acquitting

352. Verbs of accusing, condemning, and acquitting, take the Genitive of the Charge or Penalty:—

arguit me furī, he accuses me of theft.
pecūliātus damnātus (pecūniae pūublicae damnātus) (Flacc. 43), condemned for embezzlement.
videō nōn tē absolūtum esse improbitātis, sed illōs damnātōs esse caedis (Verr. ii. 1. 72), I see, not that you were acquitted of outrage, but that they were condemned for homicide.

a. Peculiar genitives, under this construction, are—
capitis, as in damnāre capitis, to sentence to death.
māiestātis [laesae], treason (crime against the dignity of the state).
repetundārum [rērum], extortion (lit. of an action for reclaiming money).
vōti damnātus (or reus), bound [to the payment] of one's vow, i.e. successful in one's effort.
pecūniae (damnāre, iūdicāre, see note).
duplī etc., as in duplī condemnāre, condemn to pay twofold.

Note.—The origin of these genitive constructions is pointed at by pecūniae damnāre (Gell. xx. 1. 39), to condemn to pay money, in a case of injury to the person; quantae pecūniae iūdicātī essent (id. xx. 1. 47), how much money they were adjudged to pay, in a merc suit for debt; confessī aeris ac dēbitī iūdicātī (id. xx. 1. 42), adjudged to owe an admitted sum due. These expressions show that the genitive of the penalty comes from the use of the genitive of value to express a sum of money due either as a debt or as a fine. Since in early civilizations all offences could be compounded by the payment of fines, the genitive came to be used of other punishments, not pecuniary. From this to the genitive of the actual crime is an easy transition, inasmuch as there is always a confusion between crime and penalty (cf. Eng. guilty of death). It is quite unnecessary to assume an ellipsis of crime or iūdicium.

353. Other constructions for the Charge or Penalty are—

1. The Ablative of Price: regularly of a definite amount of fine, and often of indefinite penalties (cf. § 416):—

Frusinātēs tertiā parte agrī damnātī (Liv. x. 1), the people of Frusino condemned [to forfeit] a third part of their land.

2. The Ablative with dē, or the Accusative with inter, in idiomatic expressions:—

dē aleā, for gambling; dē ambitū, for bribery.
dē pecūniā repetundās, of extortion (cf. § 352. a).
inter sicāriōs (Rosc. Am. 90), as an assassin (among the assassins).
dē vi et māiestātis damnātī (Phil. i. 21), convicted of assault and treason.

Note.—The accusative with ad and in occurs in later writers to express the penalty: ad, —ad mortem (Turr. Ann. xvi. 21), to death; ad (in) metalla, to the mines.
Verbs of Feeling

354. Many verbs of feeling take the Genitive of the object which excites the feeling.

_a._ Verbs of pity, as misereor and miserėscō, take the genitive:—
miserēmini familiarē, ūndicēs, miserēmini patris, miserēmini fili (Flacc. 106),
have pity on the family, etc.
miserēre amēni non digna ferentis (Aen. ii. 144), pity a soul that endures
unworthy things.
miserēscite rēgis (id. viii. 573), pity the king. [Poetical.]

Note.—But misereor, commiseror, bewail, take the accusative: as,—commūnem
condicēnem miserān (Mur. 55), bewail the common lot.

_b._ As impersonals, miseret, paenitet, piget, pudet, taedet (or pertaesum
est), take the genitive of the cause of the feeling and the accusative
of the person affected:—
quōs infamiae sua neque pudet neque taedet (Verr. i. 35), who are neither
ashamed nor weary of their dishonor.
mē miseret parietum ipsōrum (Phil. ii. 69), I pity the very walls.
mē civitātis mōrum piget taedetque (Ing. 4), I am sick and tired of the ways
of the state.
decemvirōrum vōs pertaesum est (Liv. iii. 67), you became tired of the decemvirs.

_c._ With miseret, paenitet, etc., the cause of the feeling may be ex-
pressed by an infinitive or a clause:—
neque mē paenitet mortālis imicītās habēre (Rab. Post. 32), nor am I sorry
to have deadly enmities.
nōn dedisse istune pudet; mē quia nōn accēpi piget (Pl. Pseud. 282), he is
ashamed not to have given; I am sorry because I have not received.

Note.—Miseret etc. are sometimes used personally with a neuter pronoun as sub-
ject: as,—nōn tē haec pudet (Ter. Ad. 754), do not these things shame you?

Interest and Rēfert

355. The impersonals interest and rēfert take the Genitive of
the person (rarely of the thing) affected.

The subject of the verb is a neuter pronoun or a substantive
clause:—

Clōdi intererer Milōnem perire (cf. Mil. 56), it was the interest of Clodius that
Milo should die.

aliquid quod illōrum magis quam suā rētulisse vidērēmur (Ing. 111), something
which seemed to be more for their interest than his own.
vedē enim quid mea intersit, quid utriusque nostrum (Fam. vii. 23. 4), for I
see what is for my good and for the good of us both.
a. Instead of the genitive of a personal pronoun the corresponding possessive is used in the ablative singular feminine after interest or ōstert:—

quid tuā id ōstert? māgni (Ter. Ph. 723), how does that concern you? much.

[See also the last two examples above.]

vehementer intererat vestrā qui patrēs estis (Plin. Ep. iv. 13. 4), it would be
very much to your advantage, you who are fathers.

Note.—This is the only construction with ōstert in classic prose, except in one
passage in Sallust (see example above).

b. The accusative with ad is used with interest and ōstert to ex-
press the thing with reference to which one is interested:—

māgni ad honōrem nostrum interest (Fam. xvi. 1), it is of great consequence
to our honor.

ōstert etiam ad fructūs (Varr. R. R. i. 16. 6), it makes a difference as to the crop.

Note 1.—Very rarely the person is expressed by ad and the accusative, or (with
ōstert) by the dative (probably a popular corruption):—

quid id ad mē ant ad meas rem ōstert (Pl. Pers. 513), what difference does that
make to me or to my interests?

quid ōstert intrā nātūrāe finis viveat (Hor. S. i. 1. 49), what difference does it
make to me who live within the limits of natural desire?

nōn ōstert dēdecō (Tac. Ann. xv. 65), that it makes no difference as to the
disgrace.

Note 2.—The degree of interest is expressed by a genitive of value, an adverb,
or an adverbial accusative.

Verbs of Plenty and Want

356. Verbs of Plenty and Want sometimes govern the geni-
tive (cf. § 409. a. n.):—

convivium vicīnōrum compleō (Cat. M. 46, in the mouth of Cato), I fill up the
banquet with my neighbors.

implentur veteris Bacchī pinguiisque ūrīnae (Aen. i. 215), they fill themselves
with old wine and fat venison.

nē quis auxili egeat (B. G. vi. 11), lest any require aid.

quid est quod défēnsōnis indigeat (Rosc. Am. 34), what is there that needs
defence?

quae ad consolandum mātēris ingenii et ad ferendum singularis virtūtis indi-
gent (Fam. vi. 4. 2), [sorrows] which for their comforting need more abili-
ty, and for endurance unusual courage.

Note.—Verbs of plenty and want more commonly take the ablative (see §§ 409. a,
401), except ēgeō, which takes either case, and indigeō. But the genitive is by a Greek
idiom often used in poetry instead of the ablative with all words denoting separation
and want (cf. § 357. b. 3):—

abstinēō irārum (Hor. Od. iii. 27. 69), refrain from wrath.

operum solūtis (id. iii. 17. 16), free from toils.

dēsine mollium querellārum (id. ii. 9. 17), have done with weak complaints.
Genitive with Special Verbs

357. The Genitive is used with certain special verbs.

\(\textit{a.}\) The genitive sometimes follows \textit{potior}, \textit{get possession of}; as always in the phrase \textit{potiri rerum}, \textit{to be master of affairs}:

\begin{quote}
illius regni potiri (Fam. i. 7. 5), \textit{to become master of that kingdom.}
\end{quote}

Cleanthès sōlem dominarī et rerum potiri putat (Acad. ii. 120), Cleanthes thinks the sun holds sway and is lord of the universe.

\textit{Note.}—But \textit{potior} usually takes the ablative (see § 416).

\(\textit{b.}\) Some other verbs rarely take the genitive—

1. By analogy with those mentioned in § 354:

\begin{quote}
neque hūnus sis veritas fēmina primāriae (Ter. Ph. 971), and you had no respect for this high-born lady.
\end{quote}

2. As akin to adjectives which take the genitive:

\begin{quote}
fastīdit meī (Plaut. Aul. 245), he disdains me. [Cf. fastidiōsus.]
\end{quote}

\begin{quote}
studet tūi (quoted N. D. iii. 72), he is zealous for you. [Cf. studiōsus.]
\end{quote}

3. In imitation of the Greek:

\begin{quote}
iūstitiae prius mīrer, bellīne labōrum (Aen. xi. 126), shall I rather admire his justice or his toils in war?
\end{quote}

\begin{quote}
neque ille sēpositor ciceris nec longae invicīt avēnae (Hor. S. ii. 6. 84), nor did he grudge his garnered peas, etc. [But cf. invidus, parcus.]
\end{quote}

\begin{quote}
labōrum dēcipitur (Hor. Od. ii. 13. 38), he is beguiled of his woes.
\end{quote}

\begin{quote}
mē labōrum levās (Pl. Rud. 247), you relieve me of my troubles.
\end{quote}

358. The apparent Genitive animī (really Locative) is used with a few verbs and adjectives of \textit{feeling} and the like:

\begin{quote}
Antiphō mē excruciat animī (Ter. Ph. 187), Antipho tortures my mind (me in my mind).
\end{quote}

\begin{quote}
qui pendet animī (Tusc. iv. 35), \textit{who is in suspense.}
\end{quote}

\begin{quote}
mē animī fallit (Lucr. i. 922), \textit{my mind deceives me.}
\end{quote}

So, by analogy, désipio bānim mentis (Pl. Epid. 138), \textit{I was out of my head.}

\begin{quote}
aeger animī, sick at heart; cōnfūsus animī, disturbed in spirit.
\end{quote}

\begin{quote}
sānus mentis aut animī (Pl. Trin. 454), \textit{sound in mind or heart.}
\end{quote}

PECULIAR GENITIVES

359. Peculiar Genitive constructions are the following:

\(\textit{a.}\) A poetical genitive occurs rarely in exclamations, in imitation of the Greek (Genitive of Exclamation):

\begin{quote}
di immortālēs, mercimōnī lepidī (Pl. Most. 912), good heavens! what a charming bargain!
\end{quote}

\begin{quote}
foederis heu taciti (Prop. iv. 7. 21), alas for the unspoken agreement!
\end{quote}
b. The genitive is often used with the ablatives causā, grātiā, for the sake of; ergō, because of; and the indeclinable instar, like; also with prīdiē, the day before; postridiē, the day after; tenus, as far as:

honōris causā, with due respect (for the sake of honor).

verbī grātiā, for example.

ēius légis ergō, on account of this law.

equus instar montis (Aen. ii. 16), a horse huge as a mountain (the image of a mountain).

laterum tenus (id. x. 210), as far as the sides.

Note 1. — Of these the genitive with causā is a development from the possessive genitive and resembles that in nōmen insānīae (§ 343.d). The others are of various origin.

Note 2. — In prose of the Republican Period prīdiē and postridiē are thus used only in the expressions prīdiē (postridiē) ēius diēī, the day before (after) that (cf. "the eve, the morrow of that day"). Tacitus uses the construction with other words: as, — postridiē insidiārum, the day after the plot. For the accusative, see § 432. a. Tenus takes also the ablative (p. 136).

**DATIVE CASE**

360. The Dative is probably, like the Genitive, a grammatical case, that is, it is a form appropriated to the expression of a variety of relations other than that of the direct object. But it is held by some to be a Locative with the primary meaning of to or towards, and the poetic uses (like it clāmor caelō, Aen. v. 451) are regarded as survivals of the original use.

In Latin the Dative has two classes of meanings:—

1. The Dative denotes an object not as caused by the action, or directly affected by it (like the Accusative), but as reciprocally sharing in the action or receiving it consciously or actively. Thus in dēcit puero libros, he gave the boy a book, or fictē mihi inūgiam, he did me a wrong, there is an idea of the boy’s receiving the book, and of my feeling the wrong. Hence expressions denoting persons, or things with personal attributes, are more likely to be in the dative than those denoting mere things. So in Spanish the dative is used whenever a person is the object of an action; go voto al hombre, I see [to] the man. This difference between the Accusative and the Dative (i.e. between the Direct and the Indirect Object) depends upon the point of view implied in the verb or existing in the mind of the writer. Hence Latin verbs of similar meaning (to an English mind) often differ in the case of their object (see § 367. a).

2. The Dative is used to express the purpose of an action or that for which it serves (see § 382). This construction is especially used with abstract expressions, or those implying an action.

These two classes of Datives approach each other in some cases and are occasionally confounded, as in §§ 383, 384.

The uses of the Dative are the following:—

1. **Indirect Object (general use):**
   - 1. With Transitives (§ 362).
     - 1. Of Possession (with esse) (§ 373).
     - 2. Of Agency (with Gerundive) (§ 374).
   - 4. Of Purpose or End (predicate use) (§ 382).
   - 5. Of Fitness etc. (with Adjectives) (§§ 383, 384).
INDIRECT OBJECT

361. The Dative is used to denote the object indirectly affected by an action.

This is called the Indirect Object (§ 274). It is usually denoted in English by the objective with to: —

cédite tempóri, yield to the occasion.
próvincia Ciceróni obtigit, the province fell by lot to Cicero.
imíciis nón crédimus, we do not trust [to] our enemies.

INDIRECT OBJECT WITH TRANSITIVES

362. The Dative of the Indirect Object with the Accusative of the Direct may be used with any transitive verb whose meaning allows (see § 274): —

dó tibi librum, I give you a book.
illud tibi affiérmo (Pam. i. 7. 5), this I assure you.
commendó tibi ómnia negotia (id. i. 3), I put all his affairs in your hands (commit them to you).
dabis profectó misericórdiæ quod írácundiæ negávísti (Deiot. 40), you will surely grant to mercy what you refused to wrath.
litterás á tē mihi stator tuus reddidit (Pam. ii. 17), your messenger delivered to me a letter from you.

a. Many verbs have both a transitive and an intransitive use, and take either the Accusative with the Dative, or the Dative alone: —

mihi id aurum crédidit (cf. Plaut. Aul. 15), he trusted that gold to me.
equó nē créde (Aen. ii. 48), put not your trust in the horse.
concessit senátus postulatióni tuae (Mur. 47), the senate yielded to your demand.
concédere amícis quidquid vélint (Lael. 38), to grant to friends all they may wish.

363. Certain verbs implying motion vary in their construction between the Dative of the Indirect Object and the Accusative of the End of Motion (§§ 426, 427): —

1. Some verbs implying motion take the Accusative (usually with ad or in) instead of the Indirect Object, when the idea of motion prevails: —

litterás quás ad Pompéium scriptās (Att. iii. 8. 4), the letter which I have written [and sent] to Pompey. [Cf. nón quō habérem quod tibi scriberem (id. iv. 4. 1), not that I had anything to write to you.]
litterae extemplo Römam scriptae (Liv. xli. 10), a letter was immediately written [and sent] to Rome.

hostis in fugam dat (B. G. v. 51), he puts the enemy to flight. [Cf. ut mē dem fugae (Att. vii. 23), to take to flight.]

omnēs rem ad Pompēium dēferri volunt (Fam. i. 1), all wish the matter to be put in the hands of Pompey (referred to Pompey).

2. On the other hand, many verbs of motion usually followed by the Accusative with ad or in, take the Dative when the idea of motion is merged in some other idea: —

mihi litterās mittere (Fam. vii. 12), to send me a letter.

eun librum tibi misi (id. vii. 19), I sent you that book.

nec quicquam quod nōn mihi Caesar dētulerit (id. iv. 13), and nothing which Cæsar did not communicate to me.

cūrēs ut mihi velantur (id. viii. 4. 5), take care that they be conveyed to me.

cum alius alīi subsidium ferrent (B. G. ii. 26), while one lent aid to another.

364. Certain verbs may take either the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing, or (in a different sense) the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing: —

dōnāt corōnās suis, he presents wreaths to his men; or.
dōnāt suīs corōnās, he presents his men with wreaths.

vincula excure sibi (Ov. M. vii. 772), to shake off the leash (from himself).

omnis armis exuit (B. G. v. 51), he stripped them all of their arms.

Note 1. — Interdicē, forbid, takes either (1) the Dative of the person and the Ablative of the thing, or (2) in later writers, the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing: —

aqua et igni alicuii interdicere, to forbid one the use of fire and water. [The regular formula for banishment.]

interdictāt histriōnimus caenam (Suet. Dom. 7), he forbade the actors [to appear on] the stage (he prohibited the stage to the actors).

fēminis (dat.) purpurae ēsā interdicēmus (Liv. xxxiv. 7), shall we forbid women the wearing of purple?

Note 2. — The Dative with the Accusative is used in poetry with many verbs of preventing, protecting, and the like, which usually take the Accusative and Ablative. Interdicēō and prohibēō sometimes take the Dative and Accusative, even in prose: —

hisce omnibus adītūs ad Sullam intercludēre (Rosc. Am. 110), to shut these men off from all access to Sulla (close to them every approach). [Cf. utī committāt Cæsarem intercludēret (B. G. i. 48), to shut Cæsar off from supplies.]

hunc (oestrum) arcūbis pecorī (Georg. iii. 154), you shall keep this away from the flock. [Cf. illum arcum Galliā (Phil. v. 37), he excluded him from Gaul.]

sōstitium pecorī dēfendēte (Ecol. vii. 47), keep the summer heat from the flock. [Cf. utī sē a contumelīs inimicōrum dēfenderet (B. C. i. 22), to defend himself from the slanders of his enemies.]

1 Such are dōnō, impertiō, inuō, exuō, aāspergō, īspergō, circumdō, and in poetry accingō, implicō, and similar verbs.
365. Verbs which in the active voice take the Accusative and
Dative retain the Dative when used in the passive: —

punitabantur haec eadem Čuriōni (B. C. ii. 37), these same things were
announced to Curio. [Active: núntiabant (quidam) haec eadem Čuriōni.]

nec docendi Caesaris propinquus eius spatium datur, nec tribūnis plebis suī
periculi déprecandi facultās tribuitur (id. i. 5), so time is given Caesar’s
relatives to inform him, and no opportunity is granted to the tribunes of
the plebs to avert danger from themselves.

prōvinciāe privātī dēcernuntur (id. i. 6), provinces are voted to private
citizens.

INDIRECT OBJECT WITH INTRANSITIVES

366. The Dative of the Indirect Object may be used with any
Intransitive verb whose meaning allows: —

cédant arma togae (Phil. ii. 20), let arms give place to the gown.

Cæsari respondet, he replies to Cæsar.

Cæsari respondētur, a reply is given to Cæsar (Cæsar is replied to). [Cf. §372.]

respondi maximiōs criminibus (Phil. ii. 36), I have answered the heaviest charges.

ut ita cuique eveniat (id. ii. 119), that it may so turn out to each.

Note 1.—Intransitive verbs have no Direct Object. The Indirect Object, there-
fore, in these cases stands alone as in the second example (but cf. §362. a).

Note 2.—Cédō, yield, sometimes takes the Ablative of the thing along with the
Dative of the person: as, — cēdere alīcui possessionē hortōrum (cf. Mil. 75), to give up to
one the possession of a garden.

a. Many phrases consisting of a noun with the copula sum or a
copulative verb are equivalent to an intransitive verb and take a
kind of indirect object (cf. §367. a. n. 2): —

auctor esse alīcui, to advise or instigate one (cf. persuādeo).

quis huic ōra testis est (Quinct. 37), who testificis (is witness) to this fact?

is finis populātiōnibus fuit (Liv. ii. 30. 9), this put an end to the raids.

b. The dative is sometimes used without a copulative verb in a
sense approaching that of the genitive (cf. §§367. d, 377): —

lēgētus frātri (Mar. 32), a lieutenant to his brother (i.e. a man assigned to his
brother).

ministri sceleribus (Tac. Ann. vi. 36), agents of crime. [Cf. sēditōnis minist-
tri (id. i. 17), agents of sedition.]

miseriōs suis remedium mortem expectāre (Sall. Cat. 40), to look for death
as a cure for their miseries. [Cf. sōlus meārum miserīārumst remedium
(Ter. Ad. 294).]

Note.—The cases in a and b differ from the constructions of §367. a. n. 2 and
§377 in that the dative is more closely connected in idea with some single word to
which it serves as an indirect object.
Indirect Object with Special Verbs

367. Many verbs signifying to favor, help, please, trust, and their contraries; also to believe, persuade, command, obey, serve, resist, envoy, threaten, pardon, and spare, take the Dative:—

cur mihi invides, why do you envy me?
mahi parci atque ignoscit, he spares and pardons me.
ignosce patrio dolore (Liv. iii. 48), excuse a father's grief.
salvare patriae, opitulare conlegae (Fam. x. 10. 2), come to the aid of your country, help your colleague.
mahi non displease (Clu. 144), it does not displease me.
non omnibus serovi (Att. xiii. 40), I am not a servant to every man.
non parcam operae (Fam. xiii. 27), I will spare no pains.
sic mihi persuasi (Cat. M. 78), so I have persuaded myself.
mahi Fabius debeat ignoscere si minus eius famae parcoris videtur quam ante consuli (Tull. 3), Fabius will have to pardon me if I seem to spare his reputation less than I have heretofore regarded it.
hinc legioni Caesar confidebat maximè (B. G. i. 40. 15), in this legion Caesar trusted most.

In these verbs the Latin retains an original intransitive meaning. Thus: invidere, to envy, is literally to look askance at; servire is to be a slave to; suadere is to make a thing pleasant (sweet) to.

a. Some verbs apparently of the same meanings take the Accusative.

Such are invov, advov, help; laedo, injure; iubeo, order; defeio, fail; delecto, please:—

Hic pulvis oculum meum laedit, this dust hurts my eye. [Cf. multa oculis nocent, many things are injurious to the eyes.]

Note 1. — Fudo and confido take also the Ablative (§ 431): as, — multum natūrali loci confidebant (B. G. iii. 9), they had great confidence in the strength of their position.

Note 2. — Some common phrases regularly take the dative precisely like verbs of similar meaning. Such are — praestob esse, be on hand (cf. adesse); orem gerere, honor (cf. morgitari); gratum facere, do a favor (cf. gratificari); dicto aedilis esse, be obedient (cf. obediere); cui fidem habebat (B. G. i. 19), in whom he had confidence (cf. confidebat).

So also many phrases where no corresponding verb exists. Such are — bene (male, pulcher, aeger, etc.) esse, be well (ill, etc.) off; iniuriam facere, do injustice to; ditem dicere, bring to trial (name a day for, etc.); agere gratias, express one's thanks; habere gratiam, feel thankful; referre gratiam, repay a favor; opus esse, be necessary; damnun dare, inflict an injury; acceptum (expensum) ferre (esse), credit (charge); honorum habere, to pay honor to.

1 These include, among others, the following: adversor, cedo, cedo, faveo, fato, ignosco, impero, indulgeo, invideo, irascor, minitor, noceo, paro, pareo, placeo, resisto, servio, studeo, suadeo (persuadeo), suscenseo, tempero (obtempero).
§§ 367, 368] DATIVE WITH SPECIAL VERBS

b. Some verbs are used *transitively* with the Accusative or *intransitively* with the Dative without perceptible difference of meaning.

Such are adūlōr, aemulōr, dēspērō, praestōlōr, medeō: —

adūlātus est Antōnīō (Nep. Att. 8), he flattered Antony.
adūlātus Neroem (Tac. Ann. xvi. 19), to flatter Nero.
pācem nōn dēspērās (Att. viii. 15. 3), you do not despair of peace.
salūtī dēspērēre vetuit (Cin. 68), he forbade him to despair of safety.

c. Some verbs are used *transitively* with the Accusative or *intransitively* with the Dative with a difference of meaning: —

partī civium cōnsulunt (Off. i. 85), they consult for a part of the citizens.
cum tē cōnsulissem (Fam. xi. 29), when I had consulted you.
metuēns pueris (Plant. Am. 1112), anxious for the children.
nec metuunt deōs (Ter. Hec. 772), they fear not even the gods. [So also timeō.]
prospicet patriae (Cat. iv. 3), have regard for the state.
prospicere sēdem senectūtī (Liv. iv. 49. 14), to provide a habitation for old age.
[So also prōvidēō.]

d. A few verbal nouns (as insidiae, ambush; obtemperātiō, obedience) rarely take the dative like the corresponding verbs: —

insidiae cōnsulī (Sall. Cat. 32), the plot against the consul (cf. insidior).
obtemperātiō lēgibus (Lēgg. i. 42), obedience to the laws (cf. obtemperāō).
sibi ipsi rēspōnsoī (De Or. iii. 207), an answer to himself (cf. respondeō).

Note. — In these cases the dative depends immediately upon the verbal force of the noun and not on any complex idea (cf. § 366. a, b).

368. The Dative is used —

1. With the impersonals libet (lubet), it pleases, and licet, it is allowed: —

quod mihi maxīmē lubet (Fam. i. 8. 3), what most pleases me.
quasi tibi nōn licēret (id. vi. 8), as if you were not permitted.

2. With verbs compounded with satis, bene, and male: —

mihi ipse numquam satisfaciō (Fam. i. 1), I never satisfy myself.
optimō virō maledicere (Deiot. 28), to speak ill of a most excellent man.
pulchrēm est benefacere rei pūblicae (Sall. Cat. 3), it is a glorious thing to benefit the state.

Note. — These are not real compounds, but phrases, and were apparently felt as such by the Romans. Thus,—satis officiō meō, satis flōrum voluntātī quī ā me hēc petīvērant factum esse arbitrābor (Verr. v. 130), I shall consider that enough has been done for my duty, enough for the wishes of those who asked this of me.

1 See the Lexicon under caveō, convenīo, cupiō, insistō, manēō, praevertō, recipiō, renāntiō, solvō, succēdē.
3. With gratificor, gratulor, nūbō, permittō, plaudō, probō, studēo, supplicō, excellō:——

Pompēīō sē gratificāri putant (Fam. i. 1), they suppose they are doing Pompey a service.
gratulor tibi, mī Balbe (id. vi. 12), I congratulate you, my dear Balbus.
tibi permittō respondēre (N. D. iii. 4), I give you leave to answer.
mihi plaudō ūps domī (Hor. S. i. 1. 66), I applaud myself at home.
cum īnimi M. Fontēīō vōīs ac populō Rōmānō niuentur, amīcī ac propinquī supplicent vōīs (Font. 35), while the enemies of Marcus Fonteius are threatening you and the Roman people too, while his friends and relatives are beseeching you.

Note. — Miscēō and iungō sometimes take the dative (see § 413. a. n.). Haereē usually takes the ablative, with or without in, rarely the dative: as, — haerentem capītū corō-nam (Hor. S. i. 10. 49), a wreath clinging to the head.

a. The dative is often used by the poets in constructions which would in prose require a noun with a preposition. So especially with verbs of contending (§ 413. b):——

contendis Homērō (Prop. i. 7. 3), you vie with Homer. [In prose: cum Homērō.]
placitōne etiam pūgliōbis amōri (Aen. iv. 38), will you struggle even against a love that pleases you?
tibi certat (Ecl. v. 8), vies with you. [tēcum.]
differt sērmiōnī (Hor. S. i. 4. 48), differs from prose. [ā sērmiōne, § 401.]
laterī abdidit ēnsem (Aen. ii. 553), buried the sword in his side. [in latere, § 430.]

For the Dative instead of ad with the Accusative, see § 428. h.

369. Some verbs ordinarily intransitive may have an Accusative of the direct object along with the Dative of the indirect (cf. § 362. a):——

cui cum rēx crucem minārētur (Tusc. i. 102), and when the king threatened him with the cross.
Crētēnsibus obsidiēs imperāvit (Manil. 35), he exacted hostages of the Cretans.
onnia sībi ignōscere (Vell. ii. 30), to pardon one's self everything.
Ascaniōne pater Rōmānās invidet arcēs (Aen. iv. 234), does the father envy Ascanius his Roman citadels? [With invideō this construction is poetic or late.]

a. With the passive voice this dative may be retained:——

qui iam nunc sanguinem meum sībi indulgēri aequum cēnset (Liv. xi. 15. 10),
who even now thinks it right that my blood should be granted to him as a favor.
singulis cēnōribus dēnāriī trecentī imperāti sunt (Verr. ii. 137), three hun-
dred denarii were exacted of each censor.
Scaevo-lae concessa est fācundiae virtūs (Quint. xii. 3. 9), to Scaevola has been granted excellence in oratory.
Indirect Object with Compounds

370. Many verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, praeb, prō, sub, super, and some with circum, admit the Dative of the indirect object:—

neque enim adsentior eis (Lael. 13), for I do not agree with them.
quyamtum uātius hominis pecudibus antecēdit (Off. i. 105), so far as man’s
nature is superior to brutes.
ssi sibi ipse consentit (id. i. 5), if he is in accord with himself.
virtūtēs semper voluptātibus inhaerent (Fin. i. 68), virtues are always con-
connected with pleasures.
numibus negōtis nōn interfuit sōlum sed praefuit (id. i. 6), he not only had
a hand in all matters, but took the lead in them.
tempestātī obsequi artis est (Fam. i. 9. 21), it is a point of skill to yield to
the weather.
nec umquam succumbet inimicis (Deiot. 33), and he will never yield to his
foes.
cum et Brātus caelibet ducum praefendus vidērētur et Valūnīus mūlī nōn
esset postferendus (Vell. ii. 69), since Brutus seemed worthy of being put
before any of the generals and Valūnīus deserved to be put after all of them.

a. In these cases the dative depends not on the preposition, but
on the compound verb in its acquired meaning. Hence, if the acquired
meaning is not suited to an indirect object, the original construction
of the simple verb remains.

Thus in convocat suōs, he calls his men together, the idea of calling is not so
modified as to make an indirect object appropriate. So hominem interficere, to
make way with a man (kill him). But in praebere imperatōrem bellō, to put a
man as commander-in-chief in charge of a war, the idea resulting from the com-
position is suited to an indirect object (see also b, §§ 371, 388. 6).

Note 1.—Some of these verbs, being originally transitive, take also a direct object:
as,—nē offeramus nōs periculis (Off. i. 83), that we may not expose ourselves to perils.
Note 2.—The construction of § 370 is not different in its nature from that of §§ 362,
366, and 367; but the compound verbs make a convenient group.

b. Some compounds of ad, ante, ob, with a few others, have acquired
a transitive meaning, and take the accusative (cf. § 388. 6):—1

nōs oppugnāt (Fam. i. 1), he opposes us.
quis audeat bene comitātum aggredī (Phil. xii. 25), who would dare encounter
a man well attended?
mānus obire (Lael. 7), to attend to a duty.

1 Such verbs are aggredior, adeō, antecēdo, anteeō, antegredior, convenīō, iacēō, obēō,
offendō, oppugnō, praecēdō, subēō.
c. The adjective *obvius* and the adverb *obviam* with a verb take the dative:—

> si ille obvius ei futurus non erat (Mil. 47), *if he was not intending to get in his way.*

> mihi obviam venisti (Fam. ii. 16. 3), *you came to meet me.*

371. When place or motion is distinctly thought of, the verbs mentioned in § 370 regularly take a noun with a preposition:

> in haeret in visceribus (Tusc. iv. 24), *it remains fixed in the vitals.*

> homine confinctor mecum (Tull. 4), *a man united to me.*

> cum hoc concurrit ipsa Eumenis (Nep. Eum. 4. 1), *with him Eumenes himself engages in combat* (runs together).

> inserite oculos in curiam (Font. 43), *fix your eyes on the senate-house.*

> ignis qui est ob eos effusus (Tim. 14), *the fire which is diffused before the sight.*

> obicitur contra istorum impetus Macedonia (Font. 44), *Macedonia is set to withstand their attacks.* [*Cf. si quis vobis error obiectus (Caec. 5), if any mistake has been caused you.*]

> in segetem flamma incidunt (Aen. ii. 304), *the fire falls upon the standing corn.*

**Note.**—But the usage varies in different authors, in different words, and often in the same word and the same sense. The Lexicon must be consulted for each verb.

372. Intransitive verbs that govern the dative are used * impersonally* in the passive (§ 208. a). The dative is retained (cf. § 365):

> cui parci potuit (Liv. xxi. 14), *who could be spared?*

> non modo non invidetur illi aetati verum etiam favetur (Off. ii. 45), *that age (youth) not only is not envied, but is even favored.*

> temporis servandum est (Fam. ix. 7), *we must serve the exigency of the occasion.*

**Note.**—In poetry the personal construction is sometimes found: as, — cùr invideo (Hor. A. P. 56), *why am I envied?*

**Dative of Possession**

373. The Dative is used with *esse* and similar words to denote Possession:—

> est mihi domi pater (Rel. iii. 33), *I have a father at home* (there is to me).

> homini cum deo similis est (Legg. i. 25), *man has a likeness to God.*

> quibus opes nullae sunt (Sall. Cat. 37), *those who have no wealth.*

**Note.**—The Genitive or a Possessive with *esse* emphasizes the *possessor*; the Dative, the fact of possession: as, — liber est meus, *the book is mine* (and no one's else); est mihi liber, *I have a book* (among other things).

**a.** With *nomen* est, and similar expressions, the *name* is often put in the Dative by a kind of apposition with the *person*; but the Nominative is also common:—
(1) cui Africano fuit cognomen (Liv. xxv. 2), whose (to whom) surname was Africanus.
puerō ab inopiā Egeriō inditum nōmen (id. i. 34), the name Egerius was given
the boy from his poverty.
(2) puerō nōmen est Mārcus, the boy’s name is Marcus (to the boy is, etc.).
cui nōmen Arethūsa (Verr. iv. 118), [a fount] called Arethusa.

Note. — In early Latin the dative is usual; Cicero prefers the nominative, Livy the
dative; Sallust uses the dative only. In later Latin the genitive also occurs (cf. § 343. d):
as,— Q. Metello Macedonicī nōmen inditum est (Vell. i. 11), to Quintus Metellus the
name of Macedonicus was given.

b. Dēsum takes the dative; so occasionally absum (which regu-
larly has the ablative):
—
hōc ūnum Caesarī défuit (B.G. iv. 26), this only was lacking to Caesar.
quid huic abesse poterit (De Or. i. 48), what can be wanting to him?

Dative of the Agent

374. The Dative of the Agent is used with the Gerundive to
denote the person on whom the necessity rests:
—
haec vōbis prōvincia est dēfendenda (Manil. 14), this province is for you to
defend (to be defended by you).
mihi est pāgnandum, I have to fight (i.e. the need of fighting is to me: cf.
mihi est liber, I have a book, § 373. n.).

a. This is the regular way of expressing the agent with the Second
or Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (§ 196).

Note 1. — The Ablative of the Agent with ab (§ 405) is sometimes used with the Sec-
ond Periphrastic Conjugation when the Dative would be ambiguous or when a stronger
expression is desired:
—
quibus est ā vōbis cōnsulendum (Manil. 6), for whom you must consult. [Here two
datives, quibus and vōbis, would have been ambiguous.]
rem ab omnibus vōbis prōvidendam (Rabir. 4), that the matter must be attended to
by all of you. [The dative might mean for all of you.]

Note 2. — The Dative of the Agent is either a special use of the Dative of Posses-
sion or a development of the Dative of Reference (§ 376).

375. The Dative of the Agent is common with perfect parti-
ciples (especially when used in an adjective sense), but rare with
other parts of the verb:
—
mihi dēlīberātum et cōnstitūtum est (Leg. Agr. i. 25), I have deliberated and
resolved (it has been deliberated by me).
mihi rēs prōvisa est (Verr. iv. 91), the matter has been provided for by me.
sic dissiuillimis ďēstīoī communiter cibus quæritur (N. D. ii. 123), so by
very different creatures food is sought in common.
a. The Dative of the Agent is used by the poets and later writers with almost any passive verb:—

ueque cernitur ăli (Aen. i. 440), nor is seen by any.

felix est ściis sorē (Ov. Fast. iii. 1. 597), she was called happy by her sister.

Aelia Paciūna Narcissō fovēbātur (Tac. Ann. xii. 1), Aelia Paciūna was favored by Narcissus.

b. The dative of the person who sees or thinks is regularly used after vider, seem:—

vidētur mihi, it seems (or seems good) to me.

dis alter visum [est] (Aen. ii. 428), it seemed otherwise to the gods.

video mihi perspicere ipsius animum (Fam. iv. 13. 5), I seem (to myself) to see the soul of the man himself.

Note.—The verb probāre, approve (originally a mercantile word), takes a Dative of Reference (§ 370), which has become so firmly attached that it is often retained with the passive, seemingly as Dative of Agent:—

haec sententia et ăli et nōsīs probābātur (Fam. i. 7. 5), this view met both his approval and mine (was made acceptable both to him and to me).

bōc consilium pērisque nōm probābātur (B. C. i. 72), this plan was not approved by the majority. [But also, consilium ā cūntīs probābātur (id. i. 74).]

Dative of Reference

376. The Dative often depends, not on any particular word, but on the general meaning of the sentence (Dative of Reference).

The dative in this construction is often called the Dative of Advantage or Disadvantage, as denoting the person or thing for whose benefit or to whose prejudice the action is performed.

tibi arās (Plaut. Merc. 71), you plough for yourself.

tuās rēs tibi habētō (Plaut. Trin. 206), keep your goods to yourself (formula of divorce).

laudāvit mihi frātre, he praised my brother (out of regard for me; laudāvit frātre, meum would imply no such motive).

meritos mactāvit honōrēs, taurum Neptūnō, taurum tibi, pulcher Apollo

(Aen. iii. 118), he offered the sacrifices due, a bull to Neptune, a bull to thee, beautiful Apollo.

Note.—In this construction the meaning of the sentence is complete without the dative, which is not, as in the preceding constructions, closely connected with any single word. Thus the Dative of Reference is easily distinguishable in most instances even when the sentence consists of only two words, as in the first example.

377. The Dative of Reference is often used to qualify a whole idea, instead of the Possessive Genitive modifying a single word:

1 Dativus commodi aut incommodi.
iter Poenis vel corporibus suis obstruere (Cat. M. 75), *to block the march of the Carthaginians even with their own bodies* (to block, etc., for the disadvantage of, etc.).

se in conspectum nautis dedit (Verr. v. 86), *he put himself in sight of the sailors* (he put himself to the sailors into sight).

versatur mihi ante oculos (id. v. 128), *it comes before my eyes* (it comes to me before the eyes).

378. The Dative is used of the person from whose *point of view* an opinion is stated or a situation or a direction is defined.

This is often called the Dative of the Person Judging,¹ but is merely a weakened variety of the Dative of Reference. It is used —

1. Of the mental point of view (*in my opinion, according to me, etc.*): —

Plató mihi unus instar est centum milium (Brut. 191), *in my opinion (to me) Plato alone is worth a hundred thousand.*

erit ille mihi semper deus (Ecl. i. 7), *he will always be a god to me (in my regard).*

quaee est ista servitūs tam clamō homini (Par. 41), *what is that slavery according to the view of this distinguished man?*

2. Of the local point of view (*as you go in etc.*). In this use the person is commonly denoted indefinitely by a participle in the dative plural: —

oppidum primum Thessaliae versentibus ab Epìrō (B. C. iii. 80), *the first town of Thessaly as you come from Epirus* (to those coming, etc.).

laeva parte sinum intranti (Liv. xxvi. 26), *on the left as you sail up the gulf (to one entering).*

est urbe egressis tumulus (Aen. ii. 713), *there is, as you come out of the city, a mound (to those having come out).*

Note.—The Dative of the Person Judging is (by a Greek idiom) rarely modified by nōlēns, volēns (participles of nōlō, volō), or by some similar word: —

ut quibusque bellum invitis aut cupiēntibus erat (Tac. Ann. i. 59), *as each might receive the war reluctantly or gladly.*

ut militibus labōs volēntibus esset (Iug. 100), *that the soldiers might assume the task willingly.*

379. The Dative of Reference is used idiomatically without any verb in colloquial questions and exclamations: —

quō mihi fortunam (Hor. Ep. i. 5, 12), *of what use to me is fortune?*

unde mihi lapidem (Hor. S. ii. 7. 116), *where can I get a stone?*

quō tibi, Tilli (id. i. 6. 24), *what use for you, Tillius?*

¹ Dativus indicativus.
a. The dative of reference is sometimes used after interjections:

ei (hēi) mihi (Aen. ii. 274), ah me!
vaevictis (Liv. v. 48), woe to the conquered.
em tibi, there, take that (there for you)! [Cf. § 380.]

Note.—To express for—meaning instead of, in defence of, in behalf of—the ablative with prō is used:

prō patriā morī (Hor. Od. iii. 2. 13), to die for one’s country.
egō ibō prō tē (Plaut. Most. 1131), I will go instead of you.

Ethical Dative

380. The Dative of the Personal Pronouns is used to show a certain interest felt by the person indicated.1

This construction is called the Ethical Dative.2 It is really a faded variety of the Dative of Reference.

quid mihi Celsus agit (Hor. Ep. i. 3. 15), pray what is Celsus doing?
suō sibi servit patri (Plaut. Capt. 5), he serves his own father.
at tibi repente venit mihi Caninius (Fam. ix. 2), but, look you, of a sudden comes to me Caninius.

hem tibi talentum argentī (Pl. Truc. 60), hark ye, a talent of silver.

quid tibi vis, what would you have (what do you wish for yourself)?

Dative of Separation

381. Many verbs of taking away and the like take the Dative (especially of a person) instead of the Ablative of Separation (§ 401).

Such are compounds of ab, dé, ex, and a few of ad:—

aurum ei ēstrāxit amicum (N. D. iii. 83), he took from him his cloak of gold.
bunc mihi terrorem ēripe (Cat. i. 18), take from me this terror.
visam adulēscēntibus vis auriēr (Cat. M. 71), violence deprives young men of life.
mihil enim tibi ēstrāxit senātus (Fam. i. 5 n), for the senate has taken nothing from you.
nec mihi hunc errōrem extorquēri volō (Cat. M. 85), nor do I wish this error wrested from me.

Note.—The Dative of Separation is a variety of the Dative of Reference. It represents the action as done to the person or thing, and is thus more vivid than the Ablative.

1 Compare “I’ll rhyme you so eight years together.” — As You Like It, iii. 2.
2 Datīvus ōthicus.
a. The distinct idea of *motion* requires the ablative with a preposition — thus generally with names of *things* (§ 426. 1): —

illum ex periculō eripuit (B. G. iv. 12), *he dragged him out of danger.*

Note. — Sometimes the dative of the person and the ablative of the thing with a preposition are both used with the same verb: as, — mihi praedā dē manibus eripitur (Verr. ii. 1. 142), *the booty is wrested from my hands.*

Dative of the Purpose or End

382. The Dative is used to denote the Purpose or End, often with another Dative of the person or thing affected.

This use of the dative, once apparently general, remains in only a few constructions, as follows: —

1. The dative of an abstract noun is used to show that *for which a thing serves or which it accomplishes,* often with another dative of the person or thing affected: —

rei publicae clādi sunt (Iug. 85. 43), *they are ruin to the state* (they are for a disaster to the state).

māgnō īsui nostrīs fuit (B. G. iv. 25), *it was of great service to our men* (to our men for great use).

tertiam aciem nostrīs subsidiō mūsit (id. i. 52), *he sent the third line as a relief to our men.*

suis salūti fuit (id. vii. 50), *he was the salvation of his men.*

ēvenit facile quod dis cordī esset (Liv. i. 39), *that came to pass easily which was desired by the gods* (was for a pleasure [lit. heart] to the gods).

Note 1. — This construction is often called the Dative of Service, or the Double Dative construction. The verb is usually *sum.* The noun expressing the *end for which* is regularly abstract and singular in number and is never modified by an adjective, except one of degree (māgnus, minor, etc.), or by a genitive.

Note 2. — The word *frugi* used as an adjective is a dative of this kind: —
cōgis mē dicere inimicum Prūgi (Font. 39), *you compel me to call my enemy Honest.*

homīne satis fortēs et plāne frugi (Verr. iii. 67), *men brave enough and thoroughly honest.* Cf. erō frugi bona (Plaut. Pseud. 468), *I will be good for something.* [See § 122. b.]

2. The Dative of Purpose of concrete nouns is used in prose in a few military expressions, and with freedom in poetry: —

locum castris dēlīgit (B. G. vii. 16), *he selects a site for a camp.*

receptui canere, *to sound a retreat* (for a retreat).

receptui signum (Phil. xiii. 15), *the signal for retreat.*

optāvit locum rēgnī (Aen. iii. 109), *he chose a place for a kingdom.*

locum insidīās circumspectāre (Liv. xxi. 53), *to look about for a place for an ambush.* [Cf. locum sēditiōnis quae acre (id. iii. 46).]

For the Dative of the Gerundive denoting Purpose, see § 505. b.
Dative with Adjectives

383. The Dative is used after Adjectives or Adverbs, to denote that to which the given quality is directed, for which it exists, or towards which it tends.

Note. — The dative with certain adjectives is in origin a Dative of Purpose or End.

384. The Dative is used with adjectives (and a few Adverbs) of 
fitness, nearness, likeness, service, inclination, and their opposites: ¹

nihil est tam nătūrae aptum (Lael. 17), nothing is so fitted to nature.
nihil difficile amanti putō (Or. 33), I think nothing hard to a lover.
castrīs idōneum locum dēgīt (B. G. i. 49), he selected a place suitable for a 
camp.
tribūni nōbis sunt amīci (Q. Fr. i. 2. 16), the tribunes are friendly to us.
esse propitius potest nēmini (N. D. i. 124), he can be gracious to nobody.
magis autem viris prosperae semper omnēs rēs (id. ii. 167), but to great men 
everything is always favorable.
śēdēs huic nostrō nōn importūna sermōnī (De Or. iii. 18), a place not unsuit-
able for this conversation of ours.
cui fundō erat affinis M. Tullius (Tull. 14), to which estate Marcus Tullius was 
next neighbor.
convenienter nātūrae vivere (Off. iii. 13), to live in accordance with nature 
(ἐμαθηκομένως τῆς φύσεως).

Note 1. — So, also, in poetic and colloquial use, with idem: as, — invitus qui servat 
īdem facit occiēntū (Hor. A. P. 467), he who saves a man against his will does the same 
as one who kills him.

Note 2. — Adjectives of likeness are often followed by atque (ac), as. So also 
the adverbs aeque, pariter, similiter, etc. The pronoun idem has regularly atque or a 
relative: —
si patrem sapientiam habet ac formam (Plaut. Mil. 1251), if he has sense equal to 
his beauty (like as his beauty).
tē suspicor ēisdem rēbus quibus me ipsum commovērī (Cat. M. 1), I suspect you are 
disturbed by the same things by which I am.

385. Other constructions are sometimes found where the dative 
might be expected: —

α. Adjectives of fitness or use take oftener the Accusative with ad 
to denote the purpose or end; but regularly the Dative of persons: —

aptus ad rem militārem, fit for a soldier’s duty.
locus ad insidiās aptior (Mil. 53), a place fitter for lying in wait.
nōbis útile est ad hanc rem (cf. Ter. And. 287), it is of use to us for this thing.

¹ Adjectives of this kind are accommodātus, aptus; amīcus, inimicus, infestus, invisus, 
molestus; idōneus, opportūnus, proprius; útilis, inútilis; affinis, finitimus, propinquus, 
vicinus; pār, dispār, similis, dissimilis; iūcundus, grātus; nōtus, ignōtus, and others.
b. Adjectives and nouns of inclination and the like may take the Accusative with in or ergā:

coīmis in uxōrem (Hor. Ep. ii. 2. 133), kind to his wife.
divina bonōs ergā homīnes (N. D. ii. 60), the divine goodness towards men.
dē benevolentiā quam quisque habēat ergā nos (Off. i. 47), in regard to each man’s good will which he has towards us.
grātiōrem mē esse in tē (Fam. xi. 10), that I am more grateful to you.

c. Some adjectives of likeness, nearness, belonging, and a few others, ordinarily requiring the Dative, often take the Possessive Genitive: —

quod ut illī proprium ac perpetuum sit ... optāre dēbētis (Manil. 48), which you ought to pray may be secure (his own) and lasting to him. [Dative.]
fuit hoc quondam proprium populi Rōmānī (id. 32), this was once the peculiar characteristic of the Roman people. [Genitive.]
cum utrique sīs maximē necessārius (Att. ix. 7 α), since you are especially bound to both. [Dative.]
prōcūrātor aequē utrisque necessārius (Quintil. 86), an agent alike closely connected with both. [Genitive.]

1. The genitive is especially used with these adjectives when they are used wholly or approximately as nouns: —
amīcus Cicerōnī, friendly to Cicerō. But, Cicerōnis amīcus, a friend of Cicerō; and even, Cicerōnis amīcissimī, a very great friend of Cicerō.
crētīcus et ēius aequālis paean (Or. 215), the cretic and its equivalent the paean.
lī erant affīmites istiūs (Verr. ii. 36), these were this man’s fellows.

2. After similīs, like, the genitive is more common in early writers. Cicerō regularly uses the genitive of persons, and either the genitive or the dative of things. With personal pronouns the genitive is regular (mēi, tui, etc.), and also in vēri similīs, probable: —
domiī similīs es (Ter. Eun. 496), you’re like your master (your master’s like).
ut essēmus similīs deōrum (N. D. i. 91), that we might be like the gods.
est similīs mātōrum suōm (Ter. Ad. 411), he’s like his ancestors.
patri similīs esse (Off. i. 121), to be like his father.
simia quam similīs turpissima bestiā nōbīs (N. D. i. 97, quoted from Emm.), how like us is that wretched beast the ape!
si enim hoc illī similī sit, est illud huic (id. i. 90), for if this is like that, that is like this.

Note.—The genitive in this construction is not objective like those in § 349, but possessive (cf. § 343).
For the Dative or Accusative with propriōr, proximus, propius, proxime, see § 432. a.

1 Such are aequālis, affīnis, allēnus, amīcus, cognōtus, commūnis, cōnsangūneus, contrārius, dispār, familiāris, fintimīs, inimīcīs, necessārius, pār, pecūliāris, propinquus, propius (regularly genitive), aacer, similīs, superstes, vicīnus.
ACCUSSATIVE CASE

386. The Accusative originally served to connect the noun more or less loosely with the verb-idea, whether expressed by a verb proper or by a verbal noun or adjective. Its earliest use was perhaps to repeat the verb-idea as in the Cognate Accusative (run a race, fight a battle, see § 390). From this it would be a short step to the Factitive Accusative (denoting the result of an act, as in make a table, drill a hole, cf. § 273. n.1). From this last could easily come the common accusative (of Affecting, break a table, plug a hole, see § 387. a). Traces of all these uses appear in the language, and the loose connection of noun with verb-idea is seen in the use of stems in composition (cf. § 265. 3). It is impossible, however, to derive the various constructions of the accusative with certainty from any single function of that case.

The uses of the accusative may be classified as follows:

I. Primary Object:
   1. Directly affected by the Action (§ 387. a).
   2. Effect of the Action (Thing produced (§ 387. a).
      Cognate Accusative (§ 390).
      1. Predicate Accusative (Of Naming etc.) (§ 393).
      2. Of Asking or Teaching (§ 396).
      3. Of Concealing (§ 396. c).
         1. Adverbial (§ 397. a).
         2. Of Specification (Greek Accusative) (§ 397. b).
   5. Subject of Infinitive (§ 397. e).

II. Two Accusatives:

III. Idiomatic Uses:

Direct Object

387. The Direct Object of a transitive verb is put in the Accusative (§ 274).

a. The Accusative of the Direct Object denotes (1) that which is directly affected, or (2) that which is caused or produced by the action of the verb:

   (1) Brūtus Caesarem interfecit, Brūtus killed Caesar.

   (2) acēm facere, to make a temple. [Cf. proelium pūgnāre, to fight a battle, § 390.]

Note.—There is no definite line by which transitive verbs can be distinguished from intransitive. Verbs which usually take a direct object (expressed or implied) are called transitive, but many of these are often used intrinsively or absolutely. Thus timēō, I fear, is transitive in the sentence inimicium timēō, I fear my enemy, but intransitive (absolute) in nōlī timēre, don't be afraid. Again, many verbs are transitive in one sense and intransitive in another: as, — Helvētiōs superāverunt Rōmānī, the Romans overcame the Helvētians; but nihil superābat, nothing remained (was left over). So also many verbs commonly intransitive may be used transitively with a slight change of meaning: as, — ridēs, you are laughing; but mē ridēs, you're laughing at me.

1 Compare armiger, armor-bearer, with arma gerere, to bear arms; fidicen, lyre-player, with fidibus canere, to (play on) sing to the lyre. Compare also istane tāctō (Plaut.), the [act of] touching her, with istane tangere, to touch her (§ 388. d. n.2).
b. The object of a transitive verb in the active voice becomes its subject in the passive, and is put in the nominative ($\S$ 275): —

Brutus Caesarem interfecit, Brutus killed Caesar.
Caesar a Brátó interfectus est, Caesar was killed by Brutus.

domum aedificat, he builds a house.

domus aedificatur, the house is building (being built).

388. Certain special verbs require notice.

a. Many verbs apparently intransitive, expressing feeling, take an accusative, and may be used in the passive: —

meum cásum lúctumque doluérunt (Sest. 145), they grieved at my calamity and sorrow.

si nón Acrisium risissent Iuppiter et Venus (Hor. Od. iii. 16. 6), if Jupiter and Venus had not laughed at Acrisius.

ridetur ab omni conventā (Hor. S. i. 7. 22), he is laughed at by the whole assembly.

For the Cognate Accusative with verbs of taste, smell, and the like, see § 390. a.

Note.—Some verbs commonly intransitive may be used transitively (especially in poetry) from a similarity of meaning with other verbs that take the accusative: —
gemēns ignominiam (Georg. iii. 226), groaning at the disgrace. [Cf. dōleō.]

festināre fugam (Aen. iv. 575), to hasten their flight. [Cf. accelerō.]

cōmplōs āris crīnis (Hor. Od. iv. 9. 13), she burned with love for his well-combed locks. [Cf. adamō.]

b. Verbs of motion, compounds of circum, trāns, and praeter, and a few others, frequently become transitive, and take the accusative (cf. § 370. b): —

mortem obière, to die (to meet death).

cōnsulātum ineunt (Liv. ii. 28), they enter upon the consulship.

nēminem convēni (Fam. ix. 14), I met no one.

sī insulam adisset (B. G. iv. 20), if he should go to the island.

trānsire flūmen (id. ii. 28), to cross the river (cf. § 395).

civēs qui circumstānt senātum (Cat. i. 21), the citizens who stand about the senate.

Note.—Among such verbs are some compounds of ad, in, per, and sub.

c. The accusative is used after the impersonals decet, dēdecet, dēlec-
tat, iuvat, oportet, fallit, fugit, praeterit: —

ita ut vōs decet (Plant. Most. 729), so as befits you.

mē pedibus dēlecet claudere verba (Hor. S. ii. 1. 28), my delight is (it pleases me) to arrange words in measure.

nisi mē fallit, unless I am mistaken (unless it deceives me).

iūvit mē tībi tuās litterās prōfuisse (Fam. v. 21. 3), it pleased me that your literary studies had profited you.

tē nōn praeterit (Fam. i. 8. 2), it does not escape your notice.
Note 1.—So after latet in poetry and post-classical prose: as,—latet plērōsque (Plin. N. H. ii. 82), it is unknown to most persons.

Note 2.—These verbs are merely ordinary transitives with an idiomatic signification. Hence most of them are also used personally.

Note 3.—Decet and latet sometimes take the dative:—

ita nóbis decet (Ter. Ad. 928), thus it befits us.
hostique Rōma latet (Sil. It. xii. 614), and Rome lies hidden from the foe.

d. A few verbs in isolated expressions take the accusative from a forcing of their meaning. Such expressions are:—

ferére foedus, to strike a treaty (i.e. to sanction by striking down a victim).
vincere iūdicium (spēnsionem, rem, hōc), to prevail on a trial, etc. [As if the case were a difficulty to overcome; cf. vincere iter, Aen. vi. 688.]
aequor nāvīgāre (Aen. i. 67), to sail the sea. [As if it were trānsīre, § 388. b.]
maria aspera īrō (id. vi. 531), I swear by the rough seas (cf. id. vi. 524).
[The accusative with verbs of swearing is chiefly poetic.]
noctis dormīre, to sleep [whole] nights (to spend in sleep).

Note 1.—These accusatives are of various kinds. The last example approaches the cognate construction (cf. the second example under § 390).

Note 2.—In early and popular usage some nouns and adjectives derived from transitive verbs retain verbal force sufficient to govern the accusative:—

quid tibi istantiactīō est (Plaut. Poen. 1308), what business have you to touch her?
[Cf. tangō.]
mirābundī béstiam (Ap. Met. iv. 16), full of wonder at the creature. [Cf. mirer.]
vītabundus castra (Liv. xxv. 13), trying to avoid the camp. [Cf. vītō.]

389. Many verbs ordinarily transitive may be used absolutely, having their natural object in the ablative with de (§ 278. N. 2):—

priusquam Pompōnius de iūs adventū cognōsceret (B. C. iii. 101), before Pompomius could learn of his coming. [Cf. iūs adventū cognītō, his arrival being discovered.]

For Accusative and Genitive after Impersonals, see § 354. b. For the Accusative after the impersonal Gerundive with esse, see § 500. 3.

Cognate Accusative

390. An intransitive verb often takes the Accusative of a noun of kindred meaning, usually modified by an adjective or in some other manner.

This construction is called the Cognate Accusative or Accusative of Kindred Signification:—

tūtōrem vitam vivere (Verr. ii. 118), to live a safer life.
tertiam iam aetātem hominum vivēbat (Cat. M. 31), he was now living the third generation of men.
servītūtem servīre, to be in slavery.
coire societātem, to [go together and] form an alliance.
a. Verbs of taste, smell, and the like take a cognate accusative of the quality:—

*vinum* redoléns (Phil. ii. 63), *smelling [of] wine.*

*herbam* mellâ sapient (Plin. H. N. xi. 18), *the honey tastes [of] grass.*

*olère* malitiam (Rosc. Com. 20), *to have the odor of malice.*

Cordubae nátius poétis, pingen quíddam sonantibus atque *peregrínus* (Arch. 29), *to poets born at Cordova, whose speech had a somewhat thick and foreign accent.*

b. The cognate accusative is often loosely used by the poets:—

*huic erróri similém [errórem] insánire* (Hor. S. ii. 3. 62), *to suffer a delusion like this.*

*saltáre* Cyclopá (id. i. 5. 63), *to dance the Cyclops (represent in dancing).*

*Bacchánália* vívere (Iuv. ii. 3), *to live in revellings.*

*Amaryllida* resonáre (Ecl. i. 5), *to réchó [the name of] Amaryllis.*

*intömit laevum* (Aen. ii. 693), *it thundered on the left.*

*dulce ridentem, dulce loquentem* (Hor. Od. i. 22. 23), *sweetly smiling, sweetly prattling.*


*torvé* clamât (id. vii. 399), *he cries harshly.*

c. A neuter pronoun or an adjective of indefinite meaning is very common as cognate accusative (cf. §§ 214. d, 397. a):—

Empedocléus mutta alia peccât (N. D. i. 29), *Empedocles commits many other errors.*

*ego illud adsentior* Theophrástů (De Or. iii. 184), *in this I agree with Theophrastus.*

*multum tē ista fefellit opiniō* (Verr. ii. 1. 88), *you were much deceived in this expectation (this expectation deceived you much).*

*púlș valeō, I have more strength.*

*plárum potest, he is strongest.*

*quid mē ista laedunt* (Leg. Agr. ii. 32), *what harm do those things do mē?*

*hóc tē moneó, I give you this warning (cf. d. n. 1).*

*īd laetor, I rejoice at this (cf. d. n. 1).*

*quid moror, why do I delay?*

*quae homínēs arant, návigant, aedificant* (Sall. Cat. ii. 7), *what men do in ploughing, sailing, and building.*

d. So in many common phrases:—

*sí quid ille sē velit* (B. G. i. 34), *if he should want anything of him (if he should want him in anything).*

*numquid, Geta, alium mē vis* (Lerr. Ph. 151), *can I do anything more for you, Geta (there is nothing you want of me, is there)? [A common form of leave-taking.]*

*quid est quod, etc., why is it that, etc.? [Cf. hóc erat quod (Aen. ii. 664), was it for this that, etc.]*
NOTE 1.—In these cases substantives with a definite meaning would be in some other construction:—

in hoc eōdem peccat, he errs in this same point.
bonis rébus lastāri, to rejoice at prosperity. [Also: in, dé, or ex.]
dé testamento monére, to remind one of the will. [Later: genitive, § 351.]
officī admonēre, to remind one of his duty. [Also: dé officiō.]  

NOTE 2.—In some of these cases the connexion of the accusative with the verb has so faded out that the words have become real adverbs: as,—multum, plús, plúrium; plúrumque, for the most part, generally; cēterum, cētera, for the rest, otherwise, but; primum, first; nihil, by no means, not at all; aliquid, somewhat; quid, why; facile, easily. So in the comparative of adverbs (§ 218). But the line cannot be sharply drawn, and some of the examples under b may be classed as adverbia.

TWO ACCUSATIVES

391. Some transitive verbs take a second accusative in addition to their Direct Object.

This second accusative is either (1) a Predicate Accusative or (2) a Secondary Object.

Predicate Accusative

392. An accusative in the Predicate referring to the same person or thing as the Direct Object, but not in apposition with it, is called a Predicate Accusative.

393. Verbs of naming, choosing, appointing, making, esteeming, showing, and the like, may take a Predicate Accusative along with the direct object:—

ō Spartace, quem enim tē potius appellēm (Phil. xiii. 22), O Spartacus, for what else shall I call you (than Spartacus)?
Cicerōnem cōnsulem creāre, to erect Cicero consul.
mē augūrem nōmināverunt (Phil. ii. 4), they nominated me for augur.
cum grātiās ageret quod sē cōnsulem fēcisset (De Or. ii. 268), when he thanked him because he had made him consul (supported his candidacy).
hominēm prae sē nēminēm putāvit (Rosc. Am. 135), he thought nobody a man in comparison with himself.
ducem sē praebuīt (Vat. 33), he offered himself as a leader.

Nott. —The predicate accusative may be an adjective: as,—hominēs mītis redidīt et mānsuētēs (Inv. i. 2), has made men mild and gentle.

a. In changing from the active voice to the passive, the Predicate Accusative becomes Predicate Nominative (§ 284):—

rēx ab suis appellātur (B. G. viii. 4), he is called king by his subjects. [Active: sui eum rēgem appellant.]
Secondary Object

394. The Accusative of the Secondary Object is used (along with the direct object) to denote something more remotely affected by the action of the verb.

395. Transitive verbs compounded with prepositions sometimes take (in addition to the direct object) a Secondary Object, originally governed by the preposition:

Caesar Germānōs flāmen trāiect( B. C. i. 83), Caesar throws the Germans across the river.

idem iūs iūrandum adigit Afrānium (id. i. 76), he exacts the same oath from Afrānius.

quōs Pompeius omnia sua prāesidia circumdāxit (id. iii. 61), whom Pompey conducted through all his garrison.

Note 1.—This construction is common only with trādērō, trāiciō, and trānsportō. The preposition is sometimes repeated with compounds of trāns, and usually with compounds of the other prepositions. The ablative is also used:

donec rēs suis trāns Ḥalyr flāmen trāiciērunt (Liv. xxxviii. 25), till they should get their possessions across the river Ḥalyr.

(exercitus) Pādō trāectus Cremonam (id. xxv. 56), the army was conveyed across the Po to Cremona (by way of the Po, § 429. a).

Note 2.—The secondary object may be retained with a passive verb: as, — Belgae Rhēnum trāduculi sunt (B. G. ii. 4), the Belgians were led over the Rhine.

Note 3.—The double construction indicated in § 395 is possible only when the force of the preposition and the force of the verb are each distinctly felt in the compound, the verb governing the direct, and the preposition the secondary object.

But often the two parts of the compound become closely united to form a transitive verb of simple meaning. In this case the compound verb is transitive solely by virtue of its prepositional part and can have but one accusative, — the same which was formerly the secondary object, but which now becomes the direct. So trāiciō comes to mean either (1) to pierce (anybody) [by hurling] or (2) to cross (a river etc.):—

gladiō hominem trāiectit, he pierced the man with a sword. [Here iācīō has lost all transitive force, and serves simply to give the force of a verb to the meaning of trāns, and to tell the manner of the act.]

Rhōdanum trāiectit, he crossed the Rhone. [Here iācīō has become simply a verb of motion, and trāiciō is hardly distinguishable from trānsērō.]

In these examples hominem and Rhōdanum, which would be secondary objects if trāiectit were used in its primary signification, have become the direct objects. Hence in the passive construction they become the subjects and are put in the nominative:

homō trāiectus est gladiō, the man was pierced with a sword.

Rhōdanus trāiectus est, the Rhone was crossed.

The poetical trāiectus lūra (Aen. ii. 273), pierced with thongs, comes from a mixture of two constructions: (1) eum trāiectit lūra, he rove thongs through him,1 and (2) eum trāiectit lūris, he pierced him with thongs. In putting the sentence into a passive form, the direct object of the former (lūra) is irregularly kept, and the direct object of the latter (lūris) is made the subject.

1 Perhaps not found in the active, but cf. trāiectō fāne (Aen. v. 488).
396. Some verbs of asking and teaching may take two accusatives, one of the Person (direct object), and the other of the Thing (secondary object):

mē sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion.
ōtium dīvōs rogat (Hor. Od. ii. 16. 1), he prays the gods for rest.
haec practērum postulābas (Tul. 39), you demanded this of the praetor.
aedilis populum rogāre (Liv. vi. 42), to ask the people [to elect] aediles.
docēre puérōs elementa, to teach children their A B C's.

Note.—This construction is found in classical authors with òrō, poscō, reposcō, rogō, interrogō, flāgitō, docēō.

a. Some verbs of asking take the ablative of the person with a preposition instead of the accusative. So, always, petō (ab), quaeō (ex, ab, dē); usually poscō (ab), flāgitō (ab), postulō (ab), and occasionally others:

pācem ab Rōmānis petiērunt (B. G. ii. 13), they sought peace from the Romans.
quod quaesivit ex mē P. Apulēius (Phil. vi. 1), what Publius Apuleius asked of me.

b. With the passive of some verbs of asking or teaching, the person or the thing may be used as subject (cf. c. x. 2):

Caesar sententiam rogātus est, Caesar was asked his opinion.
id ab eō flāgitābātur (B. C. i. 71), this was urgently demanded of him.

Note.—The accusative of the thing may be retained with the passive of rogō, and of verbs of teaching, and occasionally with a few other verbs:

fuerant hōc rogātū (Cael. 64), they had been asked this.
poscōrem meum Lālapa (Ov. M. vii. 771), I am asked for my Lālapa.
Cicero cūnta ēdoctus (Sall. Cat. 45), Cicero, being informed of everything.

But with most verbs of asking in prose the accusative of the thing becomes the subject nominative, and the accusative of the person is put in the ablative with a preposition: as,—nē postulantur quidem virōs ā senectūte (Cat. M. 34), strength is not even expected of an old man (asked from old age).

c. The verb cēlō, conceal, may take two accusatives, and the usually intransitive lateō, lie hid, an accusative of the person:

nōn tē cēlāvi sermōnem T. Ampī (Fam. ii. 16. 3), I did not conceal from you the talk of Titus Ampius.
nec lattērēre doli fratrem Ἰουνώνις (Aen. i. 130), nor did the wives of Juno escape the notice of her brother.

Note 1.—The accusative of the person with lateō is late or poetical (§ 388. c. x. 1).

Note 2.—All the double constructions indicated in § 396 arise from the wavering meaning of the verbs. Thus docēō means both to show a thing, and to instruct a person; cēlō, to keep a person in the dark, and to hide a thing; rogō, to question a person, and to ask a question or a thing. Thus either accusative may be regarded as the direct object, and so become the subject of the passive (cf. b above), but for convenience the accusative of the thing is usually called secondary.
397. The Accusative has the following special uses: —

a. The accusative is found in a few adverbial phrases (Adverbial Accusative): —

id temporis, at that time; id (istuc) actatis, at that age.
id (quod) genus, of that (what) sort (perhaps originally nominative).
meam vicem, on my part.
bona partern, in a great measure; maximum partem, for the most part.
virile (mulliebre) secus, of the male (female) sex (probably originally in 
aposition).
quoed sì, but if (as to which, if); quoed nisi, if not.

b. The so-called synecdochical or Greek Accusative, found in poetry and later Latin, is used to denote the part affected: —
caput nectetur (Aen. v. 309), their heads shall be bound (they shall be bound about the head).
ardentis oculos suffecti sanguine et igni (id. ii. 210), their glaring eyes blood-
shot and blazing with fire (suffused as to their eyes with blood and fire).
nuda genü (id. i. 320), with her knee bare (bare as to the knee).
femur trágulæ ictus (Liv. xxii. 7. 10), wounded in the thigh by a dart.

Note. — This construction is also called the Accusative of Specification.

c. In many apparently similar expressions the accusative may be regarded as the direct object of a verb in the middle voice (§ 156. a):
inútile ferrum cingitur (Aen. ii. 510), he girds on the useless steel.
nodö sinús collecta fluentis (id. i. 320), having her flowing folds gathered in 
a knot.
umerös ñunternor pelle leónis (id. ii. 722), I cover my shoulders with a lion’s skin.
prítius induitur faciem cultumque Ðiánæ (Ov. M. ii. 425), forthwith she 
assumes the shape and garb of Diana.

d. The Accusative is used in Exclamations: —
ō fortunatam rem púlicam, O fortunate republic! [Cf. ó fortunátam mors 
(Phil. xiv. 31), oh, happy death! (§ 339. a).]
ō mē infílicem (Mil. 102), oh, unhappy I!
mē miseram, oh, wretched me!
en quattuor árás (Ecl. v. 65), to, four altars!
ellum (=em illum), there he is! [Cf. § 146. a. n. 2.]
eccós (= ecce eós), there they are, look at them!
prō deum fídem, good heavens (O protection of the gods)!
hóeíne saeculum (Ter. Ad. 304), O this generation!
ìuncíne hominem (Verr. v. 62), this man, good heavens!
Note 1.—Such expressions usually depend upon some long-forgotten verb. The substantive is commonly accompanied by an adjective. The use of -ne in some cases suggests an original question, as in quid? what? why? tell me.

Note 2.—The omission of the verb has given rise to some other idiomatic accusatives. Such are:—

salitem (sc. dicit) (in addressing a letter), greeting.
mē diūs fādīus (sc. adiuve), so help me heaven (the god of faith).
unde mihi lapidem (Hor. S. ii. 7. 116), where can I get a stone?
quō mīhi fortūnam (Hor. Ep. i. 5. 12), of what use to me is fortune? [No verb thought of.]

c. The subject of an infinitive is in the accusative:—

intellegō tē sapere (Fam. vii. 32. 3), I perceive that you are wise.
eās rēs iacērī nolēbat (B. G. i. 18), he was unwilling that these matters should be discussed.

Note.—This construction is especially common with verbs of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (§ 580).

f. The accusative in later writers is sometimes used in apposition with a clause:

dēserunt tribunal ... manūs intentantēs, causam discordiae et initium armārum (Tac. Ann. i. 27), they abandon the tribunal shaking their fists,—
a cause of dissension and the beginning of war.

Note.—This construction is an extension (under Greek influence) of a usage more nearly within the ordinary rules, such as,—Eumenem prōsidere Antiochō, pacis mercēdem (Sall. Ep. Mith. 8), they betrayed Eumenes to Antiochus, the price of peace. [Here Eumenes may be regarded as the price, although the real price is the betrayal.]

For the Accusative of the End of Motion, see § 427. 2; for the Accusative of Duration of Time and Extent of Space, see §§ 423, 425; for the Accusative with Prepositions, see § 220.

ABLATIVE CASE

398. Under the name Ablative are included the meanings and, in part, the forms of three cases,—the Ablative proper, expressing the relation from; the Locative, in; and the Instrumental, with or by. These three cases were originally not wholly distinct in meaning, and their collocation was rendered more certain (1) by the development of meanings that approached each other and (2) by phonetic decay, by means of which these cases have become largely identical in form. Compare, for the first, the phrases ā parte dexterā, on the right; quam ob causam, from which cause; ad fāmam, at (in consequence of) the report; and, for the second, the like forms of the dative and ablative plural, the old dative in -ē of the fifth declension (§ 96), and the loss of the original -ē of the ablative (§ 40. e; cf. §§ 43. n. 1, 92. f, 214. a. n.).

The relation of from includes separation, source, cause, agent, and comparison; that of with or by, accompaniment, instrument, means, manner, quality, and price; that of in or at, place, time, circumstance. This classification according to the original cases (to which, however, too great a degree of certainty should not be attached) 1 is set forth in the following table:—

1 Thus the Ablative of Cause may be, at least in part, of Instrumental origin, and the Ablative Absolute appears to combine the Instrumental and the Locative.
I. Ablative Proper (from) (Separative):
   1. Of Separation, Privation, and Want (§ 400).
   2. Of Source (participles of origin etc.) (§ 403).
   3. Of Cause (labōrē, exsiliō, etc.) (§ 404).
   4. Of Agent (with ab after Passives) (§ 405).
   5. Of Comparison (than) (§ 406).
   6. Of Manner, Means, and Instrument (§ 408 fl.).
   7. Of Object of the Deponents üter etc. (§ 410).
   8. Of Accompainment (with cum) (§ 413).
  10. Of Quality (with Adjectives) (§ 415).
  13. Ablative Absolute (§ 419).

II. Instrumental Ablative (with):
   1. Of Place where (commonly with in) (§ 421).
   2. Of Time and Circumstance (§ 423).

III. Locative Ablative (in, on, at):
   1. Of Place where (commonly with in) (§ 421).

399. The Ablative is used to denote the relations expressed in English by the prepositions from; in, at; with, by: —

liberāre metū, to deliver from fear.
exclusus doctrinā, trained in learning.
hōc ipsō tempore, at this very time.
caecus avarītiā, blind with avarice.
occisus gladiō, slain by the sword.

USES OF THE ABLATIVE PROPER

Ablative of Separation

400. Words signifying Separation or Privation are followed by the ablative.

401. Verbs meaning to remove, set free, be absent, deprive, and want, take the Ablative (sometimes with ab or ex): —

oculis sé prīvāvit (Finn. v. 87), he deprived himself of eyes.
omnī Gallīā Rōmānīs interdicīt (B. G. i. 46), he (Ariovistus) bars the Romans from the whole of Gaul.
et aquā et ignī interdicītur (Vell. ii. 45), he is debarred the use of fire and water. [The regular formula of banishment.]
voluptātibus carēre (Cat. M. 7), to lack enjoyments.
nōn egeō medicīnā (Lael. 10), I want no physic.
levāmur superstitione, liberāmur mortis metū (Finn. i. 63), we are relieved from superstition, we are freed from fear of death.
solūtī à cupidītatibus (Leg. Agr. i. 27), freed from desires.
multōs ex his incommodīs pecūniā sē liberāsse (Verr. v. 23), that many have freed themselves by money from these inconveniences.

For the Genitive with verbs of separation and want, see § 356. n.
402. Verbs compounded with ā, ab, dé, ex, (1) take the simple Ablative when used figuratively; but (2) when used literally to denote actual separation or motion, they usually require a preposition (§ 426.1):

(1) cónātū désistere (B. G. i. 8), to desist from the attempt.
désine commūnis locūs (Acad. ii. 80), quit commonplaces.
abire magistrātū, to leave one’s office.
abstinēre iniūriā, to refrain from wrong.
(2) ā prōpositō aberrāre (Fin. v. 83), to wander from the point.
dē prōvinciā dēcēdere (Verr. ii. 48), to withdraw from one’s province.
ab iūrē abire (id. ii. 114), to go outside of the law.
ex civitāte excessēre (B. G. vi. 8), they departed from the state. [But cf.
tīnibus suis excesserant (id. iv. 18), they had left their own territory.]
ā māgnō dēmissum nōmen Iūlō (Aen. i. 288), a name descended (sent down)
from great Iulus.

For the Dative used instead of the Ablative of Separation, see § 381. For the Ablative of the actual place whence in elliptical expressions, see §§ 427.1, 428.1.

a. Adjectives denoting freedom and want are followed by the ablative:

urbs nūda praesidiō (Att. vii. 13), the city naked of defence.
immūnis militiā (Liv. i. 43), free of military service.
plēbs orba tribūnīs (Leg. iii. 9), the people deprived of tribunes.

Note. — A preposition sometimes occurs:

ā culpā vacuus (Sall. Cat. 14), free from blame.
ilīri ā déliciis (Leg. Agr. i. 27), free from luxuries.
Messāna ab his rēbus vacuā atque nūda est (Verr. iv. 3), Messana is empty and
bare of these things.

For the Genitive with adjectives of want, see § 349.a.

Ablative of Source and Material

403. The Ablative (usually with a preposition) is used to denote the Source from which anything is derived, or the Material of which it consists:

1. Source:

Rhēnus oritur ex Lēpontīs (B. G. iv. 10), the Rhine rises in (from) the country of the Lēpontīi.
ab his sermō oritur (Lael. 5), the conversation is begun by (arises from) them.
cūnus ratiōnis vīm atque utīlitātem ex illo caelestī Epicūrī volūmine accēpit
mus (N. D. i. 43), of this reasoning we have learned the power and
advantage from that divine book of Epicurus.
suāvitātem odōrum qui afflārentur ē ërībus (Cat. M. 59), the sweetness of
the odors which breathed from the flowers.
2. Material:—

erat tōtus ex fraude et mendacio factus (Clu. 72), he was entirely made up of fraud and falsehood.

valvās magnificentiōres, ex aurō atque ebore perfectiores (Verr. iv. 124),

more splendid doors, more finely wrought of gold and ivory.

factum dē cautibus atrim (Ov. M. i. 575), a cave formed of rocks.

templum dē marmore pōnam (Georg. iii. 13), I’ll build a temple of marble.

Note 1.—In poetry the preposition is often omitted.

Note 2.—The Ablative of Material is a development of the Ablative of Source. For the Genitive of Material, see § 344.

a. Participles denoting birth or origin are followed by the Ablative of Source, generally without a preposition:—†

Iove nātus et Māia (N. D. iii. 66), son of Jupiter and Maia.

ēdite rēgibus (Hor. Od. i. 1. 1), descendant of kings.

quō sanguine crētus (Aen. ii. 74), born of what blood.

genitae Pandione (Ov. M. vi. 606), daughters of Pandion.

Note 1.—A preposition (ab, dē, ex) is usually expressed with pronouns, with the name of the mother, and often with that of other ancestors:—

ex mē hic nātus nōn est sed ex frātre meō (Ter. Ad. 40), this is not my son, but my brother’s (not born from me, etc.).

cum ex utrāque [uxōre] filius nātus esset (De Or. i. 183), each wife having had a son (when a son had been born of each wife).

Bēlus et omnēs ē Bēlí (Aen. i. 730), Belus and all his descendants.

Note 2.—Rarely, the place of birth is expressed by the ablative of source: as,—

dēsiderāvit C. Fleginātem Placentiā, A. Grānium Puteolīs (B. C. iii. 71), he lost Caius Flegínus of Placentia, Aulus Granius of Puteoli.

Note 3.—The Roman tribe is regularly expressed by the ablative alone: as,—

Q. Verrem Rōmiliā (Verr. i. 23), Quintus Verres of the Rōmilian tribe.

b. Some verbs may take the Ablative of Material without a preposition. Such are cōnstrāre, cōnsistere, and continēri.‡ But with cōn-

strāre, ex is more common:—

domūs amoenitās nōn aedificiō sed silvā cōnstrābat (Nep. Att. 13), the charm of the house consisted not in the buildings but in the woods.

ex animē cōnstrāmus et corpore (Fin. iv. 19), we consist of soul and body.

vīta corpore et spiritū continuētur (Marc. 28), life consists of body and spirit.

c. The Ablative of Material without a preposition is used with facere, fieri, and similar words, in the sense of do with, become of:—

quid hōc homine faciātis (Verr. ii. 1. 42), what are you going to do with this man?

quid Tulliolā meā fiet (Pam. xiv. 4. 3), what will become of my dear Tullia?

quid tē futūrum est (Verr. ii. 155), what will become of you?

1 As nātus, satus, ēditus, genitus, orts, prōgnātus, generātus, crētus, crēatus, oriāntus.

2 The ablative with cōnsistere and continēri is probably locative in origin (cf. § 431).
d. The Ablative of Material with ex, and in poetry without a preposition, sometimes depends directly on a noun:—

nōn paucā pōcula ex aurō (Verr. iv. 62), not a few cups of gold.
scopulis pendentibus antrum (Aen. i. 100), a cave of hanging rocks.

For Ablative of Source instead of Partitive Genitive, see § 346. c.

Ablative of Cause

404. The Ablative (with or without a preposition) is used to express Cause:—

neglegentīā plectimur (Lael. 85), we are chastised for negligence.
gubernātorīs ars utilitāte nōn arte laudātur (Fin. i. 42), the pilot’s skill is praised for its service, not its skill.
certis dē causis, for cogent reasons.
ex vulnere aeger (Rep. ii. 38), disabled by (from) a wound.
mare ā sēlē lucet (Acad. ii. 105), the sea gleams in the sun (from the sun).

a. The Ablative of Cause without a preposition is used with labōrō
(also with ex), exsiliō, exsultō, triumphō, lacrimō, ārdēō:—

dolet ālīs malis labōrāre (Fam. iv. 3), I am sorry that you suffer with other ills. [Cf. ex aere aliēnō labōrāre (B. C. iii. 22), to labor under debt (from another’s money).]
exsultāre laetītiā, triumphāre gaudiō coepit (Clu. 14), she began to exult in gladness, and triumph in joy.
exsilī gaudiō (Fam. xvi. 16), I jumped for joy. [Cf. lacrimō gaudiō (Ter. Ad. 409), I weep for joy.]
ārdēre dolōre et irā (Att. ii. 19. 5), to be on fire with pain and anger.

For gaudēō and glōrior, see § 431.

b. The motive which influences the mind of the person acting is expressed by the ablative of cause; the object exciting the emotion often by ob 2 or propter with the accusative:—

nōn ob praelam aut spoliāndī cupidīne (Tac. H. i. 63), not for booty or through lust of plunder.
amicitia ex sē et propter sē expetenda (Fin. ii. 83), friendship must be sought of and for itself.

Note.—But these constructions are often confused: as,—pārēre lēgis propter metum (Par. 34), to obey the laws on account of fear. [Here metum is almost equivalent to “the terrors of the law,” and hence propter is used, though the ablative would be more natural.]

1 The cause, in the ablative, is originally source, as is shown by the use of ab, dé, ex; but when the accusative with ad, ob, is used, the idea of cause arises from nearness. Occasionally it is difficult to distinguish between cause and means (which is the old Instrumental case) or circumstance (which is either the Locative or the Instrumental).

2 Originally a mercantile use: cf. ob decem minās, for the price of ten minae.
c. The ablatives causā and grātiā, for the sake of, are used with a genitive preceding, or with a pronoun in agreement:—
eā causā, on account of this; quā grātiā (Ter. Enn. 99), for what purpose?
meā causā, for my sake; meā grātiā (Plaut.), for my sake.
ex meā et reī publicae causā, for my own sake and the republic's.
praedictiōnis causā (N. D. iii. 5), by way of prophecy.
exempli grātiā (verbi grātiā), for example.
sui pūrgāndi grātiā, for the sake of clearing themselves.

Note.—But grātiā with possessives in this use is rare.

Ablative of Agent

405. The Voluntary Agent after a passive verb is expressed by the Ablative with ā or ab:—

laudātur ab īis, culpātur ab illīs (Hor. S. i. 2. 11), he is praised by these, blamed by those.

ab animō tuō quidquid agitur id agitur ā tē (Tusc. i. 52), whatever is done by your soul is done by yourself.

ā filiīs in iūdicium vocatus est (Cat. M. 22), he was brought to trial by his sons.
cum ā cōncūtō cōnsessū plausus esset multiplex datus (id. 94), when great applause had been given by the whole audience.

nē virtūs ab audācia vinceretur (Sest. 92), that valor might not be overborne by audacity. [Audācia is in a manner personified.]

Note 1.—This construction is developed from the Ablative of Source. The agent is conceived as the source or author of the action.

Note 2.—The ablative of the agent (which requires ā or ab) must be carefully distinguished from the ablative of instrument, which has no preposition (§409). Thus—occísus gladiō, slain by a sword; but, occísus ab hoste, slain by an enemy.

Note 3.—The ablative of the agent is commonest with nouns denoting persons, but it occurs also with names of things or qualities when these are conceived as performing an action and so are partly or wholly personified, as in the last example under the rule.

a. The ablative of the agent with ab is sometimes used after intransitive verbs that have a passive sense:—

perire ab hoste, to be slain by an enemy.

b. The personal agent, when considered as instrument or means, is often expressed by per with the accusative, or by operā with a genitive or possessive:—

ab explōrātōribus certior factus est (B. G. i. 21), he was informed by scouts (in person). But,—

per explōrātōres Caesar certior factus est (id. i. 12), Caesar was informed by (means of) scouts.

ēlautae operā Nepūnī (Plaut. Rud. 690), washed clean by the services of Neptune.

nōs meā operā ēvēnit (Ter. Hec. 228), it hasn't happened through me (by my exertions). [Cf. ēius operā, B. G. v. 27.]
NOTE 1. — The ablatiue of means or instrument is often used instead of the ablatiue of agent, especially in military phrases: as,—haec excubitoribus tenabantur (B. C. vii. 69), these (redoubts) were held by means of sentinels.

NOTE 2. — An animal is sometimes regarded as the means or instrument, sometimes as the agent. Hence both the simple ablatival and the ablatival with ab occur: —

equō venī, to ride on horseback (be conveyed by means of a horse). [Not ab equō.]

clipeōs ā mūribus esse dōrosōs (Div. i. 99), that the shields were gnawed by mice.

For the Dative of the Agent with the Gerundive, see § 374.

Ablative of Comparison

406. The Comparative degree is often followed by the Ablatiue ¹ signifying than:

Catō est Cicerōnē eloquentior, Catō is more eloquent than Cicero.

quid nōbis duōbus labōriōsius est (Mil. 5), what more burdened with toil than
we two?

vīlius argentum est aurō, virtūtibus aurum (Hor. Ep. i. 1. 52), silver is less
precious than gold, gold than virtue.

a. The idiomatic ablatives opinione, spē, solitō, dictō, acqūō, crēdi-
ibilī, and īustō are used after comparatives instead of a clause: —
celerius opinione (Fam. xiv. 23), faster than one would think.
sērius spē omnium (Liv. xxvi. 26), later than all hoped (than the hope of all).
amnis solitō citātōr (id. xxiii. 19. 11), a stream swifter than its wont.
gravius aequō (Sall. Cat. 51), more seriously than was right.

407. The comparative may be followed by quam, than. When
quam is used, the two things compared are put in the same case:
nōn callidior es quam hic (Rosc. Am. 49), you are not more cunning than he.
cōntiēniōs accommodātiōn est quam iūδicīs (Clu. 2), fitter for popular assem-
błies than for courts.

misericordiā dignior quam contumēliā (Pison. 32), more worthy of pity than of
disgrace.

a. The construction with quam is required when the first of the
things compared is not in the Nominative or Accusative.

Note 1. — There are several limitations on the use of the ablative of comparison, even when the first of the things compared is in the nominative or accusative. Thus
the quam construction is regularly used (1) when the comparative is in agreement
with a genitive, dative, or ablative: as,—senex est eō meliore condicione quam adulē-
sēns (Cat. M. 68), an old man is in this respect in a better position than a young man;
and (2) when the second member of the comparison is modified by a clause: as,—minor
fuit aliquantō est quī primūs fūbulum dedit quam eī qui, etc. (Brut. 73), he who first
presented a play was somewhat younger than those who, etc.

¹ This is a branch of the Ablative of Separation. The object with which anything
is compared is the starting-point from which we reckon. Thus, “Cicero is eloquent”;
but, starting from him, we come to Catō, who is “more so than he.”
NOTE 2.—The poets sometimes use the ablative of comparison where the prose construction requires quam: as,—piae egeò iam melissis potiore placentis (Hor. Ep. i. 10. 11), I now want bread better than honey-cakes.

NOTE 3.—Relative pronouns having a definite antecedent never take quam in this construction, but always the ablative: as,—rex erat Aenèüs nóbis, quò iustior alter nec, etc. (Aen. i. 544), Aenæas was our king, than whom no other [was] more righteous.

b. In sentences expressing or implying a general negative the ablative (rather than quam) is the regular construction when the first member of the comparison is in the nominative or accusative:—

 nihil dētestābilis dēdecore, nihil foedus servitūte (Phil. iii. 36), nothing is more dreadful than disgrace, nothing viler than slavery.

nēminem esse carōrem tē (Att. x. 8A. 1), that no one is dearer than you.

c. After the comparatives plūs, minus, amplius, longius, without quam, a word of measure or number is often used with no change in its case:—

plūs septingenti captī (Liv. xlii. 12), more than seven hundred were taken. [Nominative.]

plūs tertii parte interfectā (B. G. iii. 6), more than a third part being slain. [Ablative Absolute.]

aditus in lātītūdem non amplius ducentōrum pedum reclinquebātur (id. ii. 29), an approach of not more than two hundred feet in width was left. [Genitive of Measure: § 345. b.]

Note.—The noun takes the case required by the context, without reference to the comparative, which is in a sort of apposition: “seven hundred were taken [and] more.”

d. Alius is sometimes followed by the ablative in poetic and colloquial use; in formal prose it is followed by ac (atque), et, more rarely by nisi, quam:—

nee quiquam alīud libertāte commānī (Fam. xi. 2), nothing else than the common liberty.

alīus Līsippō (Hor. Ep. ii. 1. 240), another than Lysippus.

num alīud vidētur esse ac mōrum bonōrum direptō (Dom. 51), does it seem anything different from the plundering of my property?

erat historia nihil alīud nisi annālium confectō (De Or. ii. 52), history was nothing else but a compiling of records.

e. The comparative of an adverb is usually followed by quam, rarely by the ablative except in poetry:—

tempus tē citius quam orātiō dēficiērct (Rosc. Am. 89), time would fail you sooner than words. But,—

cur olivum sanguine vīperīnō cautius vitat (Hor. Od. i. 8. 9), why does he shun oil more carefully than viper’s blood?

Note.—Prepositions meaning before or beyond (as ante, prae, praeter, supra) are sometimes used with a comparative: as,—scelere ante aliōs immānior omnis (Aen. i. 347), more monstrous in crime than all other men.
USES OF THE ABLATIVE AS INSTRUMENTAL

408. Means, Instrument, Manner, and Accompaniment are denoted by the Instrumental Ablative (see § 398), but some of these uses more commonly require a proposition. As they all come from one source (the old Instrumental Case) no sharp line can be drawn between them, and indeed the Romans themselves can hardly have thought of any distinction. Thus, in omnibus precibus ōrābant, they entreated with every [kind of] prayer, the ablative, properly that of means, cannot be distinguished from that of manner.

Ablative of Means or Instrument

409. The Ablative is used to denote the means or instrument of an action:—

certantēs pūgnīs, calcibus, unguibus, morsū dēnique (Tusec. v. 77), fighting with fists, heels, nails, and even teeth.
cum pūgnīs et calcibus concisus esset (Verr. iii. 56), when he had been pum- melled with their fists and heels.
meīs lābōribus interitū rem pūblicam liberāvī (Sull. 33), by my toils I have saved the state from ruin.
multae istorum arborum meā manū sunt satae (Cat. M. 59), many of those trees were set out with my own hands.
vī victa vls, vel potius oppressa virtūte audācia est (Mil. 30), violence was overcome by violence, or rather, boldness was put down by courage.

a. The Ablative of Means is used with verbs and adjectives of filling, abounding, and the like:—

Deus bonīs omnibus explēvit mundum (Tim. 3), God has filled the world with all good things.
aggre e crātibus fossās explent (B. G. vii. 86), they fill up the ditches with earth and fascines.
tōtum montem hominibus complēvit (id. i. 24), he filled the whole mountain with men.
opīmus praedā (Verr. ii. 1. 132), rich with spoils.
vīta plēna et cōnferta volūptātibus (Sest. 23), life filled and crowded with delights.
Forum Appī differtum nautīs (Hor. S. i. 5. 4), Forum Appii crammed with bargemen.

Note.—In poetry the Genitive is often used with these words. Compleō and implēō sometimes take the genitive in prose (cf. § 356); so regularly plēnus and (with personal nouns) complētus and rēfertus (§ 349. a):—

omnia plēna lūctūs et mærōris fuērant (Sest. 128), everything was full of grief and mourning.
ołam dēnāriōrum implēre (Fam. ix. 18), to fill a pot with money. [Here evidently colloquial, otherwise rare in Cicero.]
convivium viēnīōrum complēs (Cat. M. 46, in the mouth of Cato), I fill up the banquet with my neighbors.
cum complētus mercātōrum carcer esset (Verr. v. 147), when the prison was full of traders.
§§ 410, 411] ABLATIVE OF MEANS OR INSTRUMENT 257

410. The deponents útor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, with several of their compounds,₁ govern the Ablative: —

útar vestrā benignitāte (Arch. 18), I will avail myself of your kindness.
ita mihi salvā ō públicā vóbiscum perfrui liceat (Cest. iv. 11), so may I enjoy with you the state secure and prosperous.
fungi ināri mūnerē (Aen. vi. 885), to perform an idle service.
auro hērōs potitur (Óv. M. vii. 156), the hero takes the gold.
lacte et ferīna carne vescēbantur (Iug. 89), they fed on milk and game.

Note. — This is properly an Ablative of Means (instrumental) and the verbs are really in the middle voice (§ 156. a). Thus útor with the ablative signifies I employ myself (or avail myself) by means of, etc. But these earlier meanings disappeared from the language, leaving the construction as we find it.

a. Potior sometimes takes the Genitive, as always in the phrase potiri rērum, to get control or be master of affairs (§ 357. a): —

tōtius Galliae sēsē potiri posse spērant (B. G. i. 3), they hope they can get possession of the whole of Gaul.

Note 1. — In early Latin, these verbs are sometimes transitive and take the accusative: —

fūinctus est officium (Ter. Ph. 281), he performed the part, etc.
ille patria potitur commoda (Ter. Ad. 871), he enjoys his ancestral estate.

Note 2. — The Gerundive of these verbs is used personally in the passive as if the verb were transitive (but cf. § 500. 3): as,—Hēracliō omnēa ùtēnda ac possidēnda trādiderat (Verr. ii. 46), he had given over everything to Hēracliō for his use and possession (to be used and possessed).

411. Opus and ūsus, signifying need, take the Ablative: — ²

magistrātibus opus est (Leg. iii. 5), there is need of magistrates.
nunc viribus ūsus (Aen. viii. 441), now there is need of strength.

Note. — The ablative with ūsus is not common in classic prose.

a. With opus the ablative of a perfect participle is often found, either agreeing with a noun or used as a neuter abstract noun: —

opus est tuā exprōmptā malitiā atque astūtiā (Ter. And. 723), I must have your best cunning and cleverness set to work.

properātō opus erat (cf. Mil. 49), there was need of haste.

Note 1. — So rarely with ūsus in comedy: as,—quid istōs ūsūs conscriptīs (Pl. Bacch. 749), what’s the good of having them in writing?

Note 2. — The omission of the noun gives rise to complex constructions: as,—quid opus factōst (cf. B. G. i. 42), what must be done? [Cf. quid opus est fierī? with quō factō opus est?]

₁ These are abūtor, deūtor (very rare), dēfungor, dēfruor, perfruor, perfungor.

₂ This construction is properly an instrumental one, in which opus and ūsus mean work and service, and the ablative expresses that with which the work is performed or the service rendered. The noun ūsus follows the analogy of the verb útor, and the ablative with opus est appears to be an extension of that with ūsus est.
b. Opus is often found in the predicate, with the thing needed in the nominative as subject: —

dux nóbis et auctor opus est (Fam. ii. 6. 4), we need a chief and responsible adviser (a chief, etc., is necessary for us).

si quid ipsi opus esset (B. G. i. 34), if he himself wanted anything (if anything should be necessary for him).

quae opus sunt (Cato R. R. 14. 3), things which are required.

**Ablative of Manner**

412. The Manner of an action is denoted by the Ablative; usually with cum, unless a limiting adjective is used with the noun:

cum celeritāte vēnit, he came with speed. But, —
summā celeritāte vēnit, he came with the greatest speed.

quid rēfer quā mā ratiōne cōgātis (Lael. 26), what difference does it make in what way you compel me?

a. But cum is often used even when the ablative has a limiting adjective: —

quantō id cum periculo fēcerit (B. G. i. 17), at what risk he did this.

nōn minōre cum taeō recubant (Plin. Ep. ix. 17. 3), they recline with no less weariness.

b. With such words of manner as modō, pactō, ratiōne, rītū, vi, viā, and with stock expressions which have become virtually adverbs (as silentiō, iūre, iniūriā), cum is not used: —

apis Matinae mōre modōque carmina fīngō (Hor. Od. iv. 2. 28), in the style and manner of a Matinian bee I fashion songs.

**Note.** — So in poetry the ablative of manner often omits cum: as,— insequitur cum malō aquae mōns (Aen. i. 105), a mountain of water follows in a mass. [Cf. marmure (id. i. 124); rimis (id. i. 123).]

**Ablative of Accompaniment**

413. Accompaniment is denoted by the Ablative, regularly with cum: —

cum coniugibus ac liberis (Att. viii. 2. 3), with wives and children.

cum funditōribus sagittāriisque flūmen trānsgressō (B. G. ii. 19), having crossed the river with the archers and slingers.

quae supplicātiō sī cum cēteris cōnferātur (Cat. iii. 15), if this thanksgiving be compared with others.

quae [lēx] esse cum tēlō vetat (Mil. 11), the law which forbids [one] to go armed (be with a weapon).

si sēcum suōs ēdūxerit (Cat. i. 30), if he leads out with him his associates. [For sēcum, see § 144. b. n.1.]
== ABLATIVE OF DEGREE OF DIFFERENCE ==

### a. The ablative is used without **cum** in some military phrases, and here and there by early writers: —

subsequēbātur omnibus cōpiis (B. G. ii. 19), he followed close with all his forces. [But also cum omnibus cōpiis, id. i. 26.]

hēc praesidiō praefectus est (Verr. ii. 1. 86), with this force he set out.

**Note.** — Miscē and rūngō, with some of their compounds, and contundō take either (1) the Ablative of Accompaniment with or without **cum**, or (2) sometimes the Dative (mostly poetical or late): —

mixta dolōre voluptūs (B. Al. 50), pleasure mingled with pain.

cūius animūm cum suō miscet (Lael. 81), whose soul he may mingle with his own.

fiētmūque cruōrī miscitūt (Ov. M. iv. 140), and mingled tears with blood.

Caesar ēs cohortās cum exercitū suō coniunctīt (B. C. i. 18), Caesar united those cohorts with his own army.

āēr coniunctus terrīs (Lucr. v. 562), air united with earth.

hūmānō capite cervicem equīnam jungere (Hor. A. P. 1), to join to a human head a horse’s neck.

### b. Words of Contention and the like require **cum**: —

armīs cum hoste certāre (Off. iii. 87), to fight with the enemy in arms.

lībenter hāec cum Q. Catūlō disputārem (Manil. 66), I should gladly discuss these matters with Quintus Catulus.

**Note.** — But words of contention may take the Dative in poetry (see § 383. a).

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### 414. With Comparatives and words implying comparison the ablative is used to denote the Degree of Difference: —

quinque māibus passuum distat, it is five miles distant.

ā māibus passuum circiter duābus (B. G. v. 32), at a distance of about two miles. [For ā as an adverb, see § 433. 3.]

aliquot ante annīs (Tusc. i. 4), several years before.

aliquantō post suspexit (Rep. vi. 9), a while after, he looked up.

multō mē vigilāre ācrius (Cat. i. 8), that I watch much more sharply.

nihilō erat ipse Cyclops quam ariōs prōdeniōr (Tusc. v. 115), the Cyclops himself was not a whit wiser than the ram.

### a. The ablatives quō . . . ēō (hōc), and quantō . . . tantō, are used correlative with comparatives, like the English the . . . the1: —

quō minus cupiditātis, ēō plus auctōritātīs (Liv. xxiv. 28), the less greed, the more weight (by what the less, by that the more).

quantō erat gravior oppūgnātiō, tantō erēbriōrēs litterae mittēbantur (B. G. v. 45), the severer the siege was, the more frequently letters were sent.

1 In this phrase the is not the definite article but a pronominal adverb, being the Anglo-Saxon thy, the instrumental case of the pronoun that, that. This pronoun is used both as relative (by which, by how much) and as demonstrative (by that, by so much). Thus the . . . the corresponds exactly to quō . . . ēō.
Note.—To this construction are doubtless to be referred all cases of quà and cō (hoc) with a comparative, even when they have ceased to be distinctly felt as degree of difference and approach the Ablative of Cause:—

eōque mē minus paenitet (N. D. i. 8), and for that reason I regret less, etc. (by so much the less I regret).

hac eō faciūs faciēbant, quod (B. G. iii. 12), this they did the more easily for this reason, because, etc. [Cf. hoc máiōre spē, quod (id. iii. 9).]

b. The Ablative of Comparison (§ 406) and the Ablative of Degree of Difference are sometimes used together with the same adjective:—
paulō minus ducentis (B. C. iii. 28), a little less than two hundred.
patria, quae mihi vitā meā multō est cārior (Cat. i. 27), my country, which is much dearer to me than life.

But the construction with quam is more common.

Ablative of Quality

415. The quality of a thing is denoted by the Ablative with an adjective or genitive modifier.

This is called the Descriptive Ablative or Ablative of Quality:— ¹
animō meliore sunt gladiatōres (Cat. ii. 26), the gladiators are of a better mind.

quae cum esset civitās acquisīsimō iūre ac foedere (Arch. 6), as this was a city with perfectly equal constitutional rights.

mulieres eximiā pulchritūdine (Verr. ii. i. 64), a woman of rare beauty.

Aristotelēs, vir summō ingenīō, scientiā, cōpiā (Tusc. i. 7), Aristotle, a man of the greatest genius, learning, and gift of expression.

dē Domitiō dixit versum Graecum ēadem sententiā (Deiot. 25), concerning Domitius he recited a Greek line of the same tenor.

Note.—The Ablative of Quality (like the Genitive of Quality, § 345) modifies a substantive by describing it. It is therefore equivalent to an adjective, and may be either attributive or predicate. In this it differs from other ablatives, which are equivalent to adverbs.

α. In expressions of quality the Genitive or the Ablative may often be used indifferently; but physical qualities are oftener denoted by the Ablative (cf. § 345. n.):—
capillus sunt prōmissō (B. G. v. 14), they have long hair.
ut capitē operō sit (Cat. M. 34), to have his head covered (to be with covered head).

quam fuit inbēcillus P. Āfricānī filius, quam tenui aut nūllā potius vālētūdine (id. 35), how weak was the son of Africanus, of what feeble health, or rather none at all!

¹ It was originally instrumental and appears to have developed from accompaniment (§ 413) and manner (§ 412).
Ablative of Price

416. The *price* of a thing is put in the Ablative: —

agrum vēnsidit sestertium sex milibus, he sold the land for 6000 sesterces.
Antōnǐus rēgnā addīxīt pecūniā (Phil. vii. 15), Antony sold thrones for money.
logōs ridiculōs: quis cēnā poscit (Pl. Stich. 221), jokes: who wants them for
(at the price of) a dinner?
māgnō illi ea ēunctātiō stetit (Liv. ii. 36), that hesitation cost him dear.

Note. — To this head is to be referred the Ablative of the Penalty (§ 353. 1).

417. Certain adjectives of quantity are used in the Genitive to denote *indefinite value*. Such are māgni, parvi, tanti, quanti, pluris, minōris: —

meā māgni interest, it is of great consequence to me.
illod parvi rēfert (Manil. 18), this is of small account.
est mihi tantī (Cat. ii. 15), it is worth the price (it is of so much).
Verrēsne tībī tantī fuit (Verr. ii. 1. 77), was Verres of so much account to
you?
tantōne minōris decimae vēniērunt (id. iii. 106), were the tithes sold for so
much less?

ut tē redimās captum quam queās minimō: si nequeās paululō, at quanti queās
(Ter. Eun. 74), to ransom yourself, when captured, at the cheapest rate
you can; if you can’t for a small sum, then at any rate for what you can.

Note. — These are really Genitives of Quality (§ 345. b).

a. The genitive of certain colorless nouns is used to denote indefi-
nite value. Such are nihilī (nili), nothing; assis, a farthing (rare);
floccī (a lock of wool), a straw: —

non floccī faciō (Att. xiii. 50), I care not a straw. [Colloquial.]
utinam ego istuce abs tē factum nihil penderem (Ter. Eun. 94), O that I cared
nothing for this being done by you! [Colloquial.]

b. With verbs of exchanging, either the thing taken or the thing
given in exchange may be in the Ablative of Price. Such are mūtō,
commūtō, permūtō, vertō: —

fidem suam et religiōnem pecūniā commūtāre (Chu. 129), to barter his faith
and conscience for money.
exsilium patriā sēde mūtāvit (Q. C. iii. 7. 11), he exchanged his native land
for exile (he took exile in exchange for his native land).
vēlōx saepe Lucretiōm mūtāt Lycaeō Faunum (Hor. Od. i. 17. 1), nimble
Faunus often changes Lyceus for Lucretius. [He takes Lucretius at
the price of Lyceus, i.e. he goes from Lyceus to Lucretius.]
verte re fānīribas triumphōs (id. i. 35. 4), to change the triumph to the funeral
train (exchange triumphs for funerals). [Poetical.]
Note. — With verbs of exchanging cum is often used, perhaps with a different conception of the action: as, — aries ... cum croecio mutabit veëlara lató (Ecli. iv. 44), the ram shall change his fleece for [one dyed with] the yellow saffron.

c. With verbs of buying and selling the simple Ablative of Price must be used, except in the case of tanti, quanti, plúris, minóris: —

quanti eam émit? vili ... quot minis? quadrágintá minis (Pl. Epid. 51), what did he buy her for? Cheap. For how many mina? Forty.

Ablative of Specification

418. The Ablative of Specification denotes that in respect to which anything is or is done: —

virtúte præceédunt (B. G. i. 1), they excel in courage.
claudús altero pede (Nep. Ages. 8), lame of one foot.
linguá haesitanté, vóce absoni (De Or. i. 115), hesitating in speech, harsh in voice.
sunt enim hóminés nóu ré sed nómine (Off. i. 105), for they are men not in fact, but in name.
máior nátu, older; minor nátu, younger (cf. § 131. c).
paullum aétáte prógressi (Cat. M. 33), somewhat advanced in age.
corpore senex esse poterit, animó numquam erit (id. 38), he may be an old man in body, he never will be [old] at heart.

a. To this head are to be referred many expressions where the ablative expresses that in accordance with which anything is or is done: —

meó iáre, with perfect right; but, meó modó, in my fashion.
meá sententiá, in my opinion; but also more formally, ex meá sententiá.
[Here the sense is the same, but the first ablative is specification, the second source.]
proinquitáte coniúntós atque nátarás (Lael. 50), closely allied by kindred and nature. [Here the ablative is not different in sense from those above, but no doubt is a development of means.]
qui vinctí viribus (id. 55), who surpasses in strength. [Here it is impossible to tell whether viribus is the means of the superiority or that in respect to which one is superior.]

Note. — As the Romans had no such categories as we make, it is impossible to classify all uses of the ablative. The ablative of specification (originally instrumental) is closely akin to that of manner, and shows some resemblance to means and cause.

For the Supine in -ú as an Ablative of Specification, see § 510.

b. The adjectives dignus and indignus take the ablative: —

vir patre, avó, máioribus suis dignissimus (Phil. iii. 25), a man most worthy of his father, grandfather, and ancestors.
té omní honoré indíg尼斯sum iu dicavit (Vat. 39), he judged you entirely unworthy of every honor.
419. A noun or pronoun, with a participle in agreement, may be put in the Ablative to define the time or circumstances of an action. This construction is called the Ablative Absolute:—

Caesar, acceptis litteris, nuntium mittit (B. G. v. 46), having received the letter, Caesar sends a messenger (the letter having been received).

quibus rébus cōgnitus Caesar apud militēs cōntiēnātur (B. C. i. 7), having learned this, Caesar makes a speech to the soldiers.

fugātō omnī equitātū (B. G. vii. 68), all the cavalry being put to flight.

interfectō Índūtionārō (id. vi. 2), upon the death of Indūtionārus.

nōndum hiēmē cōnfectā in finis Nerviōrum contendit (id. vi. 3), though the winter was not yet over, he hastened into the territory of the Nervii.

compressī [sunt] cōnātīs nūllo tumūtū públicē concitātō (Cat. i. 11), the attempts were put down without exciting any general alarm.

nē vobis quidem omnībus rē etiam tum probātā (id. ii. 4), since at that time the facts were not yet proved even to all of you.

Note.—The ablative absolute is an adverbial modifier of the predicate. It is, however, not grammatically dependent on any word in the sentence: hence its name absolute (absolutus, i.e. free or unconnected). A substantive in the ablative absolute very seldom denotes a person or thing elsewhere mentioned in the same clause.

a. An adjective, or a second noun, may take the place of the participle in the Ablative Absolute construction:—

exiguā parte aestātīs reliquā (B. G. iv. 20), when but a small part of the summer was left (a small part of the summer remaining).

L. Domitiō Ap. Claudiō cōnsulībus (id. v. 1), in the consulship of Lucius Domitius and Appius Claudius (Lucius Domitius and Appius Claudius [being] consuls). [The regular way of expressing a date, see § 424. g.]

nil dēspērāndum Tēucrō duce et auspice Tēucrō (Hocr. Od. i. 7. 27), there should be no despair under Tēucrō’s leadership and auspices (Tēucrō being leader, etc.).
b. A phrase or clause, used substantively, sometimes occurs as ablative absolute with a participle or an adjective: —

incertó quid pereant (Liv. xxviii. 36), as it was uncertain what they should aim at (it being uncertain, etc.).

compertó vanum esse formidinem (Tac. Ann. i. 66), when it was found that the alarm was groundless.

cúr praetereátur dēmōnstrátō (Inv. ii. 34), when the reason for omitting it has been explained (why it is passed by being explained).

Note.—This construction is very rare except in later Latin.

c. A participle or an adjective is sometimes used adverbially in the ablative absolute without a substantive: —

cōnsultó (Off. i. 27), on purpose (the matter having been deliberated on).

mihi optátó vēneris (Att. xiii. 28. 3), you will come in accordance with my wish.

sérēnō (Liv. xxxi. 12), under a clear sky (it [being] clear).

nec auspícītō nec lītātō (id. v. 38), with no auspices or favorable sacrifice.

tranquillō, ut áliunt, quilibet gubernátor est (Sen. Ep. 85. 34), in good weather, as they say, any man’s a pilot.

420. The Ablative Absolute often takes the place of a Subordinate Clause.

Thus it may replace —

1. A Temporal Clause (§ 541 ff.): —

patre interfecit, [his] father having been killed. [This corresponds to cum pater interfecit esset, when his father had been killed.]

recentibus sceleris eius vestigiis (Q. C. vii. 1. 1), while the traces of the crime were fresh. [Cf. dum recentia sunt vestigia.]


at eī qui Alesiae o multis praeteritā die quā auxilia suōrum expectāverant, cōnsūmpto omni frūmentō, conciliō coaetō consultābant (B. G. vii. 77), but those who were under siege at Alesia, since the time, etc., had expired, and their grain had been exhausted, calling a council (see 5 below), consulted together. [Cf. cum diēs praeterisset, etc.]

Dāreus, dēspérātā pāce, ad repandās virīs intendent animum (Q. C. iv. 6. 1), Darius, since he despaired of peace, devoted his energies to recruiting his forces. [Cf. cum pācem dēspērāret.]

3. A Concessive Clause (§ 527): —

at eō repūgnante fiebat (cōnsul), inmo vērō eō fiebat magis (Mil. 34), but though he (Ciodius) opposed, he (Milo) was likely to be elected consul; nay, rather, etc.

turribus excitātās, tamen hās altitūdō puppium ex barbaris nāvibus superābat (B. G. iii. 14), although towers had been built up, still the high sterns of the enemy’s ships rose above them.
occurrebat ei, mancam et dealilem prætûram futûram suam, cōnsule Milōne (Mil. 25), it occurred to him that his prætorship would be maimed and feeble, if Milo were consul. [si Milō cōnsul esset.]
qua (regiōne) subiectā licēbit décurrere in illud mare (Q. C. ix. 3. 13), if this region is subdued, we shall be free to run down into that sea.
qua quidem detrāctā (Arch. 28), if this be taken away.

5. A Clause of Accompanying Circumstance: —
ego hacē Chry̱sogono meā sponte, remotō Sex. Rōscio, quaerō (Rosc. Am. 130), of my own accord, without reference to Sextus Roscius (Sextus Roscius being put aside), I ask these questions of Chrysogonus.
nec imperante nec sciente nec praesente domino (Mil. 29), without their master's giving orders, or knowing it, or being present.

Note. — As the English Nominative Absolute is far less common than the Ablative Absolute in Latin, a change of form is generally required in translation. Thus the present participle is oftener to be rendered in English by a relative clause with when or while; and the perfect passive participle by the perfect active participle. These changes may be seen in the following example: —
At illī, intermissō spatii, imprésentibus nostris atque occupātīs in mūnītiōne castrōrum, subitō sē ex silvis éscērunt; impetūque in éos factō quī erant in statione pró castris conlocātī, ácerit pūgnāvērunt; dūabusque missīs subsidii cohortibus à Caesare, cum hae (perevi̩
guō intermissō loci spatii inter sē) consitissent, novō genere pūgnarum perterrītus nostris, per mediōs audacissimē pervicērunt sēque inde incolumīs recērunt. —
Caesar, B. G. v. 15.

For the Ablative with Prepositions, see § 220.

THE ABLATIVE AS LOCATIVE

Ablative of Place

421. The Locative Case was originally used (literally) to denote the place where and (figuratively) to denote the time when (a development from the idea of place). But this case was preserved only in names of towns and a few other words, and the place where is usually denoted by the Ablative. In this construction the Ablative was, no doubt, used at first without a preposition, but afterwards it became associated in most instances with the preposition in.

422. In expressions of Time and Place the Latin shows a variety of idiomatic constructions (Ablative, Accusative, and Locative), which are systematically treated in § 423 ff.
TIME AND PLACE

Time

423. Time when, or within which, is expressed by the Ablative; time how long by the Accusative.

1. Ablative: —
   
   cōnsūtūtā diē, on the appointed day; primā lūce, at daybreak.
   
   quōtā hōrā, at what o’clock? tertīā vigiliā, in the third watch.
   
   trībus proximis annis (Iug. 11), within the last three years.
   
   dīēbus vigintī quīnque aggerem exstrūxerunt (B. G. vii. 24), within twenty-five days they finished building a mound.

2. Accusative: —
   
   dīēs continuōs trīgintā, for thirty days together.
   
   cum triduum iter fēcisset (B. G. ii. 16), when he had marched three days.

Note. — The Ablative of Time is locative in its origin (§ 421); the Accusative is the same as that of the extent of space (§ 425).

424. Special constructions of time are the following: —

a. The Ablative of time within which sometimes takes in, and the Accusative of time how long per, for greater precision: —

   in dīēbus proximīs decem (Iug. 28), within the next ten days.
   
   lūdī per decem dīēs (Cat. iii. 20), games for ten days.

b. Duration of time is occasionally expressed by the Ablative: —

   mīlitēs quīnque hōrēs proximum sustinerant (B. C. i. 47), the men had sustained the fight five hours.

Note. — In this use the period of time is regarded as that within which the act is done, and it is only implied that the act lasted through the period. Cf. inter annōs quattuordecim (B. G. i. 36), for fourteen years.

c. Time during which or within which may be expressed by the Accusative or Ablative of a noun in the singular, with an ordinal numeral: —

   quintō dīē, within [just] four days (lit. on the fifth day). [The Romans counted both ends, see § 631, d.]
   
   rēgnat iam sextum annum, he has reigned going on six years.

d. Many expressions have in Latin the construction of time when, where in English the main idea is rather of place: —

   pūgnā Camēnsi (or, apud Camēs), in the fight at Cannae.
   
   lūdīs Rōmānīs, at the Roman games.
   
   omnibus Gallicis bellis, in all the Gallic wars.
e. In many idiomatic expressions of time, the Accusative with ad, in, or sub is used. Such are the following:—

supplícātiō dēcrēta est in Kalendās Iānuārīās, a thanksgiving was voted for the first of January.
convēnērunt ad diem, they assembled on the [appointed] day.
ad vespérum, till evening; sub vespérum, towards evening.
sub idem tempus, about the same time; sub noctem, at nightfall.

f. Distance of time before or after anything is variously expressed:
post (ante) trēs annōs, post tertium annum, trēs post annōs, tertium post annum, tribus post annōs, tertiiō post annō (§ 414), three years after.
tribus annōs (tertiiō annō) post exsilium (postquam ēictus est), three years after his exile.
his tribus proximis annōs, within the last three years.
pāculis annōs, a few years hence.
ab hinc annōs trēs (tribus annōs), ante hōs trēs annōs, three years ago.
triēniōn est cum (trēs annī sunt cum), it is three years since.
octāvō mēnē quam, the eighth month after (see § 434. n.).

g. In Dates the phrase ante diem (a. d.) with an ordinal, or the ordinal alone, is followed by an accusative, like a preposition; and the phrase itself may also be governed by a preposition.
The year is expressed by the names of the consuls in the ablative absolute, usually without a conjunction (§ 419. a):—

is diēs erat a. d. v. Kal. Apr. (quintum Kalendās Aprilis) L. Pisōne A. Gabinīō consulibus (B. G. i. 6), that day was the 5th before the calends of April (March 28), in the consulship of Piso and Gabinius.
in a. d. v. Kal. Nov. (Cat. i. 7), to the 5th day before the calends of November (Oct. 28).
xv. Kal. Sextilis, the 15th day before the calends of August (July 18). [Full form: quintō decimō diē ante Kalendās.]

For the Roman Calendar, see § 631.

Extent of Space

425. Extent of Space is expressed by the Accusative:—

fossās quīndecim pedēs lātās (B. G. vii. 72), trenches fifteen feet broad.
prōgressus milia passuum circiter duodecim (id. v. 9), having advanced about twelve miles.
in omni vitā suā quemque ā rectā conscientiā trānsversum anguum nōn oportet discēdere (quoted in Att. xiii. 20), in all one’s life, one should not depart a nail’s breadth from straightforward conscience.

Note. — This Accusative denotes the object through or over which the action takes place, and is kindred with the Accusative of the End of Motion (§ 427. 2).
a. Measure is often expressed by the Genitive of Quality (§ 345. b):

vallum duodecim pedum (B. G. vii. 72), a rampart of twelve feet (in height).

b. Distance when considered as extent of space is put in the Accusative; when considered as degree of difference, in the Ablative (§ 414):

milia passuum tria ab eorum castris castra pōnit (B. G. i. 22), he pitches his camp three miles from their camp.
quīnque dīerum iter abest (Liv. xxx. 29), it is distant five days' march.
trīntā mīlibus passuum infrā eum locum (B. G. vi. 35), thirty miles below that place (below by thirty miles).

Relations of Place

426. Relations of Place are expressed as follows:

1. The place from which, by the Ablative with ab, dé, or ex.
2. The place to which (or end of motion), by the Accusative with ad or in.
3. The place where, by the Ablative with in (Locative Ablative).

Examples are:

1. Place from which:

ā septentrione, from the north.
cum ā vōbis dișesserō (Cat. M. 79), when I leave you.
dé prōvinciā décēdere, to come away from one's province.
dé monte, down from the mountain.

negoțiator ex África (Verr. ii. 1. 14), a merchant from Africa.
ex Britannia obsiđes misērunt (B. G. iv. 38), they sent hostages from Britain.
Mōsa prōfluit ex monte Vosēgō (id. iv. 10), the Meuse (flows from) rises in the Vosges mountains.

2. Place to which (end of motion):

noctē ad Nervios pervēnerunt (B. G. ii. 17), they came by night to the Nervii.
adībām ad istum fundum (Caec. 82), I was going to that estate.
in África diavigāvit, he sailed to Africa; in Itāliam prōfectus, gone to Italy.
leġātum in Tresvērōs mīttit (B. G. iii. 11), he sends his lieutenant into the [country of the] Treveri.

1 Originally all these relations were expressed by the cases alone. The accusative, in one of its oldest functions, denoted the end of motion; the ablative, in its proper meaning of separation, denoted the place from which, and, in its locative function, the place where. The prepositions, originally adverbs, were afterwards added to define more exactly the direction of motion (as in to usward, toward us), and by long association became indispensable except as indicated below.
3. Place where:—

in hāc urbe vitam dēgit, he passed his life in this city.
si in Galliā remanērent (B. G. iv. 8), if they remained in Gaul.
dum haec in Venetis geruntur (id. iii. 17), while this was going on among the Veneti.
oppidum in īnsula posītum (id. vii. 58), a town situated on an island.

427. With names of towns and small islands, and with domus and rūs, the Relations of Place are expressed as follows:—

1. The place from which, by the Ablative without a preposition.
2. The place to which, by the Accusative without a preposition.
3. The place where, by the Locative.¹

Examples are:—

1. Place from which:—

Rōmā prefectus, having set out from Rome; Rōmā abesse, to be absent from Rome.

domī abīre, to leave home; rūre reversus, having returned from the country.

2. Place to which:—

cum Rōmam sextō dīe Mutinā vēnisset (Fam. xi. 6. 1), when he had come to Rome from Modena in five days (on the sixth day).

Dēlo Rhōdum nāvīgāre, to sail from Delos to Rhodes.

rūs tūb, I shall go into the country.

domum iāt, he went home.² [So, suās domōs abīre, to go to their homes.]

3. Place where (or at which):—

Rōmæ, at Rome (Rōma).
Rhōdi, at Rhodes (Rhodus).
Sāmī, at Samos.
Tiburī or Tiburē, at Tibur.
Philippīs, at Philippī.

domī (rarely domūl), at home.

Athēnās, at Athens (Athēnāe).
Lānuvi, at Lanuvium.

Cyprī, at Cyprus.
Cūrius, at Cures.

Capreis, at Capri (Capreæ).
rūni, in the country.

a. The Locative Case is also preserved in the following nouns, which are used (like names of towns) without a preposition:—

belli, militiae (in contrast to domi), abroad, in military service.
humī, on the ground.
forīs, out of doors.
heri (-ē), yesterday.

Cf. infelīci arborī (Liv. i. 26), on the ill-omened (barren) tree; terrā mariquae, by land and sea.

¹ The Locative has in the singular of the first and second declensions the same form as the Genitive, in the plural and in the third declension the same form as the Dative or Ablative. (See p. 34, footnote.)

² The English home in this construction is, like domum, an old accusative of the end of motion.
428. Special uses of place from which, to which, and where are the following:  

a. With names of towns and small islands ab is often used to denote from the vicinity of; and ad to denote towards, to the neighborhood of:  
   ut à Mutină discēderet (Phil. xiv. 4), that he should retire from Modena (which he was besieging).  
   erat à Gergoviā déspectus in castra (B. G. vii. 45), there was from about Gergovia a view into the camp.  
   ad Alesiam proficiscuntur (id. vii. 76), they set out for Alesia.  
   ad Alesiam perveniunt (id. vii. 79), they arrive at Alesia (i.e. in the neighborhood of the town).  
   D. Laelius cum classe ad Brundisium vēnit (B. C. iii. 100), Decimus Laelius came to Brundisium with a fleet (arriving in the harbor).  

b. The general words urbs, oppidum, insula require a preposition to express the place from which, to which, or where:  
   ab (ex) urbe, from the city.  
   in urbe, in the city.  
   ad urbes, to the city.  
   Rōmae in urbe, in the city of Rome.  
   in urbe, into the city.  
   Rōmā ex urbe, from the city of Rome.  
   ad urbes Rōmās (Rōmā ad urben), to the city of Rome.  

c. With the name of a country, ad denotes to the borders; in with the accusative, into the country itself. Similarly ab denotes away from the outside; ex, out of the interior.

Thus ad Ælianam pervēnit would mean he came to the frontier, regardless of the destination; in Ælianam, he went to Italy, i.e. to a place within it, to Rome, for instance.

So ab Æliā profectus est would mean he came away from the frontier, regardless of the original starting-point; ex Æliā, he came from Italy, from within, as from Rome, for instance.

d. With all names of places at, meaning near (not in), is expressed by ad or apud with the accusative.

   pūgna ad Cannās, the fight at Cannae.  
   conchas ad Cāietam legunt (De Or. ii. 22), at Caieta (along the shore).  
   ad (apud) inferōs, in the world below (near, or among, those below).  
   ad foris, at the doors.  
   ad iānnum, at the door.

Note 1. — In the neighborhood of may be expressed by circā with the accusative; among, by apud with the accusative:  
   apud Graecos, among the Greeks.  
   apud Solēnīs (Leg. ii. 41), at Soli.  
   circā Capuam, round about Capua.

Note 2. — In citing an author, apud is regularly used; in citing a particular work, in. Thus,—apud Xenophōntem, in Xenophon; but, in Xenophōntis Oeconomicō, in Xenophon’s Oeconomicus.
e. Large islands, and all places when thought of as a territory and not as a locality, are treated like names of countries: —

in Siciliā, in Sīciliy.
in Ithacā leporēs ēllāti moriuntur (Plin. H. N. viii. 226), in Ithaca hares, when carried there, die. [Ulysses lived at Ithaca would require Ithaceae.]

f. The Ablative without a preposition is used to denote the place from which in certain idiomatic expressions: —
cessisset patriā (Mil. 68), he would have left his country.
patriā pellere, to drive out of the country.
manū mittere, to emancipate (let go from the hand).

g. The poets and later writers often omit the preposition with the place from which or to which when it would be required in classical prose: —
mānīs Acheronte remissōs (Aen. v. 99), the spirits returned from Acheron.
Scythiā profectī (Q. C. iv. 12. 11), setting out from Scythia.
Italian Lāviniaque vēnit litora (Aen. i. 2), he came to Italy and the Lavinian shores.
terram Hesperian veniēs (id. ii. 781), you shall come to the Hesperian land.
Aegyptum proficissetūr (Tac. Ann. ii. 59), he sets out for Egypt.

h. In poetry the place to which is often expressed by the Dative, occasionally also in later prose: —
it clāmor cælō (Aen. v. 451), a shout goes up to the sky.
facilis descensus Avernō (id. vi. 126), easy is the descent to Avernus.
diādēma capītī repōnere iussit (Val. Max. v. 1. 9), he ordered him to put back the diadem on his head.

i. The preposition is not used with the supine in -um (§ 509) and in the following old phrases: —
exsequiās īre, to go to the funeral
pessum īre, to go to ruin
vēnum īre, to sell (give to sale). [Hence vēndere.]
vēnum dare, to sell (give to sale). [Hence vēnire.]
forās (used as adverb), out: as, — forās ēgredī, to go out of doors.
suppetiās adventūre, to come to one’s assistance.

j. When two or more names of place are used with a verb of motion, each must be under its own construction: —

quadridūnīquō hæc gesta sunt rēs ad Chrysogonom in castra L. Sullae Volāterrarās défertūr (Rosc. Am. 20), within four days after this was done, the matter was reported to Chrysogonus in Sulla’s camp at Volaterrarā.

Note. — The accusative with or without a preposition is often used in Latin when motion to a place is implied but not expressed in English (see k, n.).
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\[ \text{(c) Domum denoting the place to which, and the locative domi, may be modified by a possessive pronoun or a genitive: —} \]

\[ \text{domum régis (Deiot. 17), to the king's house. [But also in M. Laecae domum (Cat. i. 8), to Marcus Leca's house.]} \]
\[ \text{domi meae, at my house; domi Caesaris, at Caesar's house.} \]
\[ \text{domi suae vel aliæae, at his own or another's house.} \]

\[ \text{Note. — At times when thus modified, and regularly when otherwise modified, in} \]
\[ \text{domum or in domi is used: —} \]
\[ \text{in domum privátam conveniunt (Tac. H. iv. 55), they come together in a private house.} \]
\[ \text{in Mârẹ Crassis castissimâ domi (Caes. 9), in the chaste home of Marcus Crassus.} \]
\[ \text{[Cf. ex Anniâna Milonis domi, § 302. e.]} \]

429. The place where is denoted by the Ablative without a preposition in the following instances: —

1. Often in indefinite words, such as locō, parte, etc. : —
\[ \text{quibus locō positis (De Or. iii. 153), when these are set in position.} \]
\[ \text{quā parte bellī vicerant (Liv. xxi. 22), the branch of warfare in which they} \]
\[ \text{were victorious.} \]
\[ \text{locīs certīs horrea cōnstituīt (B. C. iii. 32), he established granaries in par-} \]
\[ \text{ticular places.} \]

2. Frequently with nouns which are qualified by adjectives (regularly when totus is used): —
\[ \text{mediā urbe (Liv. i. 33), in the middle of the city.} \]
\[ \text{tōtā Siciliā (Verr. iv. 51), throughout Sicily (in the whole of Sicily).} \]
\[ \text{tōtā Tarracina (De Or. ii. 240), in all Tarracina.} \]
\[ \text{cūntā Asiam atque Graeciā (Manil. 12), throughout the whole of Asia and} \]
\[ \text{Greece too.} \]

3. In many idiomatic expressions which have lost the idea of place:
\[ \text{pendēmus animis (Tusc. i. 96), we are in suspense of mind (in our minds).} \]
\[ \text{socieus periculis vōbiscum aderō (Ing. 85. 47), I will be present with you, a} \]
\[ \text{companion in dangers.} \]

4. Freely in poetry: —
\[ \text{litore curvō (Aen. iii. 16), on the winding shore.} \]
\[ \text{antrō sēclusa relinquit (id. iii. 446), she leaves them shut up in the cave.} \]
\[ \text{Épirō, Hesperiā (id. iii. 503), in Épirus, in Hesperia.} \]
\[ \text{premit altum corde dolorem (id. i. 200), he keeps down the pain deep in his heart.} \]

\[ \text{a. The way by which is put in the Ablative without a preposition:} \]
\[ \text{via breviōre equitēs praemīsi (Fam. x. 9), I sent forward the cavalry by a} \]
\[ \text{shorter road.} \]
\[ \text{Aegaeō mari trāiĕcit (Liv. xxxvii. 14), he crossed by way of the Ægean Sea.} \]
\[ \text{prōvehimur pelagō (Aen. ii. 506), we sail forth over the sea.} \]

\[ \text{Note. — In this use the way by which is conceived as the means of passage.} \]
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b. Position is frequently expressed by the Ablative with ab (rarely ex), properly meaning from: —

ā tergo, in the rear; ā sinistrā, on the left hand. [Cf. hinc, on this side.]
ā parte Pompēiānā, on the side of Pompey.
ex alterā parte, on the other side.
magnā ex parte, in a great degree (from, i.e. in, a great part).

430. Verbs of placing, though implying motion, take the construction of the place where:

Such are pōnō, locō, colocō, statuō, cōstituō, etc.: —

qui in sēde ac domō colocāvit (Par. 25), who put [one] into his place and home.
statuitur eques Rōmānus in Aprōni conviviō (Verr. iii. 62), a Roman knight is brought into a banquet of Apronius.
insula Dēlos in Aegēo mari posita (Manil. 55), the island of Delos, situated in the Aegaean Sea.
si in ńō Pompeīō omnīa pōnerētis (id. 59), if you made everything depend on Pompey alone.

Note.—Compounds of pōnō take various constructions (see the Lexicon under each word).

431. Several verbs are followed by the Ablative.

These are acquiescō, dēlector, laetor, gaudeō, glōrior, nītor, stō, maenō, fidō, cōnfidō, cōnsistō, contineor.
nōminibus veterum gloriantur (Or. 169), they glory in the names of the ancients.
[Also, de divitiās (in virtūte, circā rem, alicuōd, haec) glorīāri.]
spē nūiū (Att. iii. 9), to rely on hope.
prūtentiā fidēns (Off. 1. 81), trusting in prudence.

Note.—The ablative with these verbs sometimes takes the preposition in (but fidō in is late), and the ablative with them is probably locative. Thus,—in quibus causa nīmitur (Cael. 28), on whom the case depends.

With several of these verbs the neuter Accusative of pronouns is often found. For fidō and cōnfidō with the Dative, see § 337.

a. The verbals frētus, contentus, and laetus take the Locative Ablative:

frētus grātiā Brūtī (Att. v. 21. 12), relying on the favor of Brutus.
laetus praedā, rejoicing in the booty.
contentus sorte, content with his lot. [Possibly Ablative of Cause.]
nōn fuit contentus glōriā (Dom. 101), he was not content with the glory.

Note.—So intenetus, rarely: as,—aliquō regulated intenetus (Sall. Cat. 2), intent on some occupation.

1 Apparently the direction whence the sensuous impression comes.
SPECIAL USES OF PREPOSITIONS

Adverbs and Prepositions

432. Certain Adverbs and Adjectives are sometimes used as Prepositions:

_a._ The adverbs prōdīē, postrīdīē, propius, proxīmē, less frequently the adjectives propior and proximus, may be followed by the Accusative:
- prōdīē Nōnās Māiās (Att. ii. 11), the day before the Nones of May (see § 631).
- postrīdīē īūdās (Att. xvi. 4), the day after the games.
- propius periculum (Liv. xxi. 1), nearer to danger.
- propior montem (Targ. 49), nearer the hill.
- proximus mare oceanum (B. G. iii. 7), nearest the ocean.

_Note._—Prōdīē and postrīdīē take also the Genitive (§ 359. 6). Propior, propius, proximus, and proxīmē, take also the Dative, or the Ablative with ab:
- propius Tiberī quam Thermopylēs (Nep. Hann. 8), nearer to the Tiber than to Thermopyles.
- Sugambri qui sunt proximi Rhēnō (B. G. vi. 35), the Sugambri, who are nearest to the Rhine.
- proximus adj. postrēmō (Or. 217), next to the last.

_b._ Úsque sometimes takes the Accusative, but úsque ad is much more common:
- terminōs úsque Libyae (Inst. i. 1. 5), to the bounds of Libya.
- úsque ad castra hostium (B. G. i. 51), to the enemy's camp.

_c._ The adverbs palam, procul, simul, may be used as prepositions and take the Ablative:
- rem créditōri palam populō soldit (Liv. vi. 14), he paid the debt to his creditor in the presence of the people.
- hand procul castris in modum municipi extræcta (Tac. H. iv. 22), not far from the camp, built up like a town.
- simul nōbis habitat barbarus (Ov. Tr. v. 10. 29), close among us dwells the barbarian.

_Note._—But simul regularly takes cum; procul is usually followed by ab in classic writers; and the use of palam as a preposition is comparatively late.

_d._ The adverb clam is found in early Latin with the Accusative, also once with the Genitive and once in classical Latin with the Ablative:
- clam mátre sem (Pl. Mil. 112), unknown to his mother.
- clam patris (id. Merc. 43), without his father's knowledge.
- clam vôbis (B. C. ii. 32. 8), without your knowledge.

1 For a list of Prepositions with their ordinary uses, see § 221.
433. Prepositions often retain their original meaning as Adverbs:

1. **Ante** and **post** in relations of time: —
   quōs paulō ante diximus (Brut. 32), whom I mentioned a little while ago.
   post tribus dīēbus, three days after (cf. § 424. f).

2. **Adversus**, **circiter**, **prope** : —
   nēmō adversus ibat (Liv. xxxvii. 13. 8), no one went out in opposition.
   circiter pars quàrtà (Sall. Cat. 56), about the fourth part.
   prope examīnātus, nearly lifeless.

3. **Ā** or **ab**, **off**, in expressions of distance, with the Ablative of Degree of Difference (§ 414): —
   a millibus passuum circiter duōbus Rōmānōrum adventum expectābant
   (B. G. v. 32), at a distance of about two miles (about two miles off) they
   awaited the approach of the Romans.

4. In general, prepositions ending in -ā: —
   Aeolus haec contrā (Aen. i. 76), thus Æolus in reply.
   forte fuit iūxtā tumulus (id. iii. 22), there happened to be a mound close by.

434. Some Prepositions and Adverbs which imply comparison are followed, like comparatives, by quam, which may be separated by several words, or even clauses.

   Such words are **ante**, **prius**, **post**, **postea**, **pridiē**, **postridiē**; also **magis** and **prae** in compounds: —

   neque ante dimisit eum quam fidem dedit (Liv. xxxix. 10), nor did he let him
   go until he gave a pledge.
   post diem tertium quam dixerat (Mil. 44), the third day after he said it.
   Catō ipse iam servīre quam pūgnāre māvuit (Att. vii. 15), Cato himself by this
   time had rather be a slave than fight.
   Gallōrum quam Rōmānōrum imperia praeferre (B. G. i. 17), [they] prefer the
   rule of Gauls to that of Romans.

   Note. — The ablative of time is sometimes followed by quam in the same way
   (§ 424. f): as, — octāvō mēnse quam (Liv. xxi. 15), within eight months after, etc.

435. The Following Prepositions sometimes come after their nouns: **ad**, **citrā**, **circum**, **contra**, **dē**, **ē** (ex), **inter**, **iūxtā**, **penes**, **propter**, **ultrā**; so regularly **tenus** and **versus**, and occasionally others: —

   [úsus] quem penes arbitrium est et ēs et norma loquendi (Hor. A. P. 72),
   custom, under whose control is the choice, right, and rule of speech.
   cūlius ā mē corpus est cremātum, quod contra decuit ab illō meum (Cat. M.
   84), whose body I burned [on the funeral pile], while on the contrary
   (contrary to which) mine should have been burned by him.
SYNTAX OF THE VERB

MOODS AND TENSES

436. The Syntax of the Verb relates chiefly to the use of the Moods (which express the manner in which the action is conceived) and the Tenses (which express the time of the action). There is no difference in origin between mood and tense; and hence the uses of mood and tense frequently cross each other. Thus the tenses sometimes have modal significations (compare indicative in apodosis, § 517. c; future for imperative, § 449. b); and the moods sometimes express time (compare subjunctive in future conditions, § 516. b, and notice the want of a future subjunctive).

The parent language had, besides the Imperative mood, two or more forms with modal signification. Of these, the Subjunctive appears with two sets of terminations, -ā-m, -ā-s, in the present tense (meum, dicam), and -ē-m, -ē-s, in the present (amem) or other tenses (essem, dixissem). The Optative was formed by iē-, iēs, with the present stem (sim, duim) or the perfect (dixerim). (See details in §§ 168, 169.)

Each mood has two general classes or ranges of meaning. The uses of the Subjunctive may all be classed under the general ideas of will or desire and of action vividly conceived; and the uses of the Optative under the general ideas of wish and of action vaguely conceived.

It must not be supposed, however, that in any given construction either the subjunctive or the optative was deliberately used because it denoted conception or possibility. On the contrary, each construction has had its own line of development from more tangible and literal forms of thought to more vague and ideal; and by this process the mood used came to have in each case a special meaning, which was afterwards habitually associated with it in that construction. Similar developments have taken place in English. Thus, the expression I would do this has become equivalent to a mild command, while by analysis it is seen to be the apodosis of a present condition contrary to fact (§ 517): if I were you, etc. By further analysis, I would do is seen to have meant, originally, I should have wished (or I did wish) to do.

In Latin, the original Subjunctive and the Optative became confounded in meaning and in form, and were merged in the Subjunctive, at first in the present tense. Then new tense-forms of the subjunctive were formed, and to these the original as well as the derived meanings of both moods became attached (see § 438). All the independent uses of the Latin subjunctive are thus to be accounted for.

The dependent uses of the subjunctive have arisen from the employment of some independent subjunctive construction in connection with a main statement. Most frequently the main statement is prefixed to a sentence containing a subjunctive, as a more complete expression of a complex idea (§ 268). Thus a question implying a general negative (quin rogem? why should n't I ask?) might have the general negative expressed in a prefixed statement (nulla causa est, there is no reason); or abeat, let him go away, may be expanded into sine abeat. When such a combination comes into habitual use, the original meaning of the subjunctive partially or wholly disappears and a new meaning arises by implication. Thus, in misit legatos qui dicerent, he sent ambassadors to say (i.e. who should say), the original hortatory sense of the subjunctive is partially lost, and the mood becomes in part an expression of purpose. Similar processes may be seen in the growth of Apodosis. Thus, tolle hanc opinionem, tuctum sustuleris, remove this notion, you will have done away with grief (i.e. if you remove, etc.).

1 For the signification of the tense-endings, see §§ 168, 169.
The Indicative is originally a verbal noun (§ 451), modifying a verb like other nouns: volō vidēre, lit. "I wish for seeing": compare English "what went ye out for to see?" But in Latin it has been surprisingly developed, so as to have forms for tense, and some proper modal characteristics, and to be used as a substitute for finite moods.

The other noun and adjective forms of the verb have been developed in various ways, which are treated under their respective heads below.

The proper Verbal Constructions may be thus classified:

I. Indicative: Direct Assertion or Question (§ 437).
   a. Independent Uses:
      1. Exhortation or Command (§ 439).
      2. Concession (§ 440).
      3. Wish (§ 441).
      4. Question of Doubt etc. (§ 444).
      5. Possibility or Contingency (§ 446).
   b. Dependent Uses:
      1. Conditions Contra Fact (§ 517).
      2. Purpose (with ut, nē) (§ 531).
      3. Characteristic (Relative Clause) (§ 535).
      4. Result (with ut, ut nōn) (§ 537).
      5. Time (with cum) (§ 546).
      7. Indirect Questions or Commands (§§ 574, 588).

II. Subjunctive:
   1. Conditions Future (less vivid) (§ 516, b, c).
   2. Contra Fact (§ 517).
   3. Purpose (with ut, nē) (§ 531).
   5. Result (with ut, ut nōn) (§ 537).
   6. Time (with cum) (§ 546).

III. Imperative:
   1. Direct Commands (often Subjunctive) (§ 448).
   3. Prohibitions (early or poetic use) (§ 450, a).
    a. Subject of esse and Impersonal Verbs (§§ 452, 454).
    b. Objective
      2. Indirect Discourse (with Subject Accusative) (§ 580).
   c. Idiomatic Uses:
      1. Purpose (poetic or Greek use) (§ 460).
      2. Exclamation (with Subject Accusative) (§ 462).
      3. Historical Infinitive (§ 463).

MOODS

INDICATIVE MOOD

437. The Indicative is the mood of direct assertions or questions when there is no modification of the verbal idea except that of time.

a. The Indicative is sometimes used where the English idiom would suggest the Subjunctive:
   longum est, it would be tedious [if, etc.]; satius erat, it would have been better [if, etc.]; perseveri possum, I might follow up [in detail].

Note. — Substitutes for the Indicative are (1) the Historical Infinitive (§ 463), and (2) the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse (§ 580).

For the Indicative in Conditions, see §§ 515, 516; for the Indicative in implied Commands, see § 449, b.
SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

438. The Subjunctive in general expresses the verbal idea with some modification¹ such as is expressed in English by auxiliaries, by the infinitive, or by the rare subjunctive (§ 157. b).

a. The Subjunctive is used independently to express —
1. An Exhortation or Command (Hortatory Subjunctive: §§ 439).
3. A Wish (Optative Subjunctive: § 441).
4. A Question of Doubt etc. (Deliberative Subjunctive: § 444).
5. A Possibility or Contingency (Potential Subjunctive: § 446).

For the special idiomatic uses of the Subjunctive in Apodosis, see § 514.

b. The Subjunctive is used in dependent clauses to express —
1. Condition: future or contrary to fact (§§ 516. b, c, 517).
2. Purpose (Final, § 531).
4. Result (Consecutive, § 537).
5. Time (Temporal, § 546).
6. Indirect Question (§ 574).

c. The Subjunctive is also used with Conditional Particles of Comparison (§ 524), and in subordinate clauses in the Indirect Discourse (§ 580).

SUBJUNCTIVE IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES

Hortatory Subjunctive

439. The Hortatory Subjunctive is used in the present tense to express an exhortation or a command. The negative is ne.

hōs latrōnēs interficiamus (B. G. viii. 38), let us kill these robbers,
caveat intemperantiam, meminerint verēcundiae (Off. ii. 122), let them shun excess and cherish modesty.

Note 1. — The hortatory subjunctive occurs rarely in the perfect (except in prohibitions: § 450): as, — Epicurus hōs viārist (Acad. ii. 19), let Epicurus look to this.

Note 2. — The term hortatory subjunctive is sometimes restricted to the first person plural, the second and third persons being designated as the jussive subjunctive; but the constructions are substantially identical.

¹ These modifications are of various kinds, each of which has had its own special development (cf. § 436). The subjunctive in Latin has also many idiomatic uses (as in clauses of Result and Time) where the English does not modify the verbal idea at all, but expresses it directly. In such cases the Latin merely takes a different view of the action and has developed the construction differently from the English.
Note 3.—Once in Cicero and occasionally in the poets and later writers the negative with the hortatory subjunctive is non: as, — à légibus non recédámus (Chu. 155), let us not abandon the laws.

a. The Second Person of the hortatory subjunctive is used only of an indefinite subject, except in prohibitions, in early Latin, and in poetry:—

injuriás fortúnae, quás ferre nequeás, défugiéndō reliquās (Tusc. v. 118), the wrongs of fortune, which you cannot bear, leave behind by flight.
exorāre aliquis uto (Aen. iv. 625), rise, some avenger.
ūnō bonō utāre dum adsit, cum absit nē requirās (Cat. M. 33), rise, while it is present; when it is wanting do not regret it.
dočeās iter et sacra Óstia pandās (Aen. vi. 109), show us the way and lay open the sacred portals.

For Negative Commands (prohibitions), see § 450.

b. The Imperfect and Pluperfect of the hortatory subjunctive denote an unfulfilled obligation in past time:—
moreréntur, inquiēs (Rab. Post. 29), he should have died, you will say.
potius docérét (Off. iii. 88), he should rather have taught.
nē poposcissēs (Att. ii. 1. 3), you should not have asked.
saltem aliquid de pondere déstrāxisset (Fin. iv. 57), at least he should have taken something from the weight.

Note 1.—In this construction the Pluperfect usually differs from the Imperfect only in more clearly representing the time for action as momentary or as past.

Note 2.—This use of the subjunctive is carefully to be distinguished from the potential use (§ 446). The difference is indicated by the translation, should or ought (not would or might).

440. The Hortatory Subjunctive is used to express a concession.¹ The Present is used for present time, the Perfect for past. The negative is nē.

sit fār, sit sacrilegus: at est bonus imperātor (Verr. v. 4), grant he is a thief, a godless wretch: yet he is a good general.
fuerit allīs: tibi quando esse coepit (Verr. ii. 1. 37), suppose he was [80] to others; when did he begin to be to you?
nēmō is quumquem fuit: nē fuerit (Or. 161), there never was such a one [you will say]: granted (let there not have been).
nē sit summum malum dolor, malum certē est (Tusc. ii. 14), granted that pain is not the greatest evil, at least it is an evil.

Note.—The concessive subjunctive with quamvis and licet is originally hortatory (§ 527. a, b).

For other methods of expressing Concession, see § 527.
For the Hortatory Subjunctive denoting a Proviso, see § 528. a.

¹ Many scholars regard the concessive subjunctive as a development of the Optative Subjunctive in a wish.
Optative Subjunctive

441. The Optative Subjunctive is used to express a Wish. The present tense denotes the wish as possible, the imperfect as unaccomplished in present time, the pluperfect as unaccomplished in past time. The negative is _nē_:—

_ita vivam_ (Att. v. 15), _as true as I live, so may I live._
_ne vivam sī sciō_ (id. iv. 16. 8), _I wish I may not live if I know._
_di tē perduint_ (Deiot. 21), _the gods confound thee!_
_valerant, valeant civēs meī; sīnt incolamēs_ (Mil. 93), _farewell, farewell to my fellow-citizens; may they be secure from harm._
_di fæcerent sine pātre forem_ (Ov. M. viii. 72), _would that the gods allowed me to be without a father (but they do not)!

_a._ The perfect subjunctive in a wish is archaic:—

_di faxint_ (Fam. xiv. 3. 3), _may the gods grant._
_quod di ōmen avertent_ (Phil. xii. 14, in a religious formula), _and may the gods avert this omen._

442. The Optative Subjunctive is often preceded by the particle _utinam_; so regularly in the imperfect and pluperfect:—

_falsus utinam vātēs sim_ (Liv. xxi. 10. 10), _I wish I may be a false prophet._
_utinam Clōdius viveret_ (Mil. 103), _would that Clodius were now alive._
_utinam nē mortuum vidissēs_ (Q. Fr. i. 3. 1), _would you had seen me dead._
_utinam nē velē scriberem_ (Fam. v. 17. 3), _would that I were not writing the truth._

_Note._—_Utinam nōn_ is occasionally used instead of _utinam nē_: _as, — utinam suscepimus nōn essēm_ (Att. ix. 9. 3), _would that I had not been born._

_a._ In poetry and old Latin _utī_ or _ut_ often introduces the optative subjunctive; and in poetry _sī_ or _ō sī_ with the subjunctive sometimes expresses a wish:—

_ut pereat posītum rōbilīne tēhum_ (Hor. S. ii. 1. 43), _may the weapon unused perish with rust._
_ō sī angulus ille accedēt_ (id. ii. 6. 8), _O if that corner might only be added!_
_sī nunc sē nōbis ille aureus rāminus ostendēt_ (Aen. vi. 187), _if now that golden branch would only show itself to us!_

_Note 1._—The subjunctive with _uti_ (ut) or _utinam_ was originally deliberative, meaning _how may I_, etc. (_§ 444_). The subjunctive with _sī_ or _ō sī_ is a protasis (_§ 512. a_), the apodosis not being expressed.

_Note 2._—The subjunctive of wish without a particle is seldom found in the imperfect or pluperfect except by sequence of tenses in Indirect Discourse (_§ 583_): _as,— ac venerātā Cērōs, ita culmō surgeret altō_ (Hor. S. ii. 2. 124), _and Ceres worshipped [with libations] that so she might rise with tall stalk._ [In addressing the goddess directly the prayer would be: _ita surgās._]
443. The Subjunctive was used in sentences of interrogative form, at first when the speaker wished information in regard to the will or desire of the person addressed. The mood was therefore hortatory in origin. But such questions when addressed by the speaker to himself, as if asking his own advice, become deliberative or, not infrequently, merely exclamatory. In such cases the mood often approaches the meaning of the Potential (see § 445). In these uses the subjunctive is often called Deliberative or Dubitative.

444. The Subjunctive is used in questions implying (1) doubt, indignation, or (2) an impossibility of the thing’s being done. The negative is nōn.

quid agam, iūdicēs? quō mē vertam (Verr. v. 2), what am I to do, judges? whither shall I turn?
etiamne eam salūtem (1′. Rud. 1275), shall I greet her?
quid hōc homine faciās? quod supplicium dignum libidini ēius inveniās (Verr. ii. 40), what are you to do with this man? what fit penalty can you devise for his wantonness?
an ego nōn venīrem (Phil. ii. 3), what, should I not have come?
quid dicerem (Att. vi. 3. 9), what was I to say?
quis enim cēlāverit ignem (Ov. II. xv. 7), who could conceal the flame?

Note.—The hortatory origin of some of these questions is obvious. Thus,—quid faciāmus? = faciāmus [aīgud], quid? let us do—what? (Compare the expanded form quid vis faciāmus? what do you wish us to do?) Once established, it was readily transferred to the past: quid faciāmus? what am I to do? quid facerem? what was I to do? Questions implying impossibility, however, cannot be distinguished from Apodosis (cf. § 517).

4. In many cases the question has become a mere exclamation, rejecting a suggested possibility:

mihi unquam honōrum praesidium dēfutūrum putārem (Mil. 94), could I think that the defence of good men would ever fail me!

Note.—The indicative is sometimes used in deliberative questions: as,—quid ągō, what am I to do?
Potential Subjunctive

445. Of the two principal uses of the Subjunctive in independent sentences (cf. §436), the second, or Potential Subjunctive,¹ is found in a variety of sentence-forms having as their common element the fact that the mood represents the action as merely conceived or possible, not as desired (hortatory, optative) or real (indicative). Some of these uses are very old and may go back to the Indo-European parent speech, but no satisfactory connection between the Potential and the Hortatory and Optative Subjunctive has been traced. There is no single English equivalent for the Potential Subjunctive; the mood must be rendered, according to circumstances, by the auxiliaries would, should, may, might, can, could.

446. The Potential Subjunctive is used to suggest an action as possible or conceivable. The negative is nōn.

In this use the Present and the Perfect refer without distinction to the immediate future; the Imperfect (occasionally the Perfect) to past time; the Pluperfect (which is rare) to what might have happened.

447. The Potential Subjunctive has the following uses:—

1. In cautious or modest assertions in the first person singular of expressions of saying, thinking, or wishing (present or perfect):—

pāce tuā dixerim (Mil. 103), I would say by your leave.
haud sciam an (Lael. 51), I should incline to think.
tū velim sic existimēs (Fam. xii. 6), I should like you to think so.
certum affirmāre nōn ausim (Liv. iii. 23), I should not dare to assert as sure.

Note.—velēm, nōlēm, or mālēm expressing an unfulfilled wish in present time may be classed as independent potential subjunctive or as the apodosis of an unexpressed condition (§521): as — velēm adesset M. Antōnius (Phil. i. 16), I could wish Antony were here.

2. In the indefinite second person singular of verbs of saying, thinking, and the like (present or imperfect):—

crēdās nōn dē puerō scriptum sed ā puerō (Plin. Ep. iv. 7. 7), you would think that it was written not about a boy but by a boy.
crēderēs victōs (Liv. ii. 43. 9), you would have thought them conquered.
reōs dicerēs (id. ii. 35. 5), you would have said they were culprits.
vidērēs susurrōs (Hor. S. ii. 8. 77), you might have seen them whispering (lit. whispers).
fretō assimilāre possīs (Ov. M. v. 6), you might compare it to a sea.

3. With other verbs, in all persons, when some word or phrase in the context implies that the action is expressed as merely possible or conceivable:—

¹ The name Potential Subjunctive is not precisely descriptive, but is fixed in grammatical usage.
null ego contulerim iucundō sánus amíco (Hor. S. i. 5. 44), when in my senses
I should compare nothing with an interesting friend.
fortúnam citius reperiás quam retineás (Pub. Syr. 168), you may sooner find
fortune than keep it.
hic quaeārat quispiam (N. D. ii. 133), here some one may ask.

Note.—In this use the subjunctive may be regarded as the apodosis of an unde-
developed protasis. When the conditional idea becomes clearer, it finds expression in
a formal protasis, and a conditional sentence is developed.

a. Forsitan, perhaps, regularly takes the Potential Subjunctive except in later Latin and in poetry, where the Indicative is also
common:—

forsitan quaeāris quí íste terror sit (Rosc. Am. 5), you may perhaps inquire
what this alarm is.

forsitan temere fécerim (id. 31), perhaps I have acted rashly.

Note.—The subjunctive clause with forsitan (=for sit an) was originally an Indi-
rect Question: it would be a chance whether, etc.

b. Fortasse, perhaps, is regularly followed by the Indicative; some-
times, however, by the Subjunctive, but chiefly in later Latin:—

quaeās fortasse (Fam. xiv. 4. 13), perhaps you will ask.

Note.—Other expressions for perhaps are (1) forsan (chiefly poetical; con-
strued with the indicative or the subjunctive, more commonly the indicative), fors (rare and
poetical; construed with either the indicative or the subjunctive). Forsit (or for sit) occurs once (Hor. S. i. 6. 49) and takes the subjunctive. Fortasse is sometimes followed
by the infinitive with subject accusative in Plautus and Terence. Fortassist (rare; con-
strued like fortasse) and fortasse an (very rare; construed with the subjunctive) are also found.

IMPERATIVE MOOD

√ 448. The Imperative is used in Commands and Entreaties:—
consulite vōbis, prōspicite patriae, cōnservāte vōs (Cat. iv. 3), have a care for
yourselves, guard the country, preserve yourselves.
dic, Márci Tulli, sententiam, Marcus Tullius, state your opinion.
té ipsum concute (Hor. S. i. 3. 35), examine yourself.
vive, valēque (id. ii. 5. 110), fareweell, bless you (live and be well)!
miserēre animī nōn digna ferentis (Aen. ii. 144), pity a soul bearing undeserved
misfortune.

a. The third person of the imperative is antiquated or poetic:—
ollis salūs populi suprāmā lēx estō (Legg. iii. 8), the safety of the people shall
be their first law.
īusta imperia suntō, elisque cívēs modestē pārentō (id. iii. 6), let there be law-
ful authorities, and let the citizens strictly obey them.

Note.—In prose the Hortatory Subjunctive is commonly used instead (§ 439).
449. The Future Imperative is used in commands, etc., where there is a distinct reference to future time:—

1. In connection with some adverb or other expression that indicates at what time in the future the action of the imperative shall take place. So especially with a future, a future perfect indicative, or (in poetry and early Latin) with a present imperative:

- crás petitō, dabitur (Pl. Merc. 799), ask to-morrow [and] it shall be given.
- cum valētūdīnī cōnsuleris, tum cōnsulītō nāvīgātīōnī (Fam. xvi. 4. 3), when you have attended to your health, then look to your sailing.
- Phyllīda mitte mihi, meus est nātālis, Iollā; cum faciam vitulā prō frūgibus, ipse vēnitō (Ecl. iii. 76), send Phyllis to me, it is my birthday, Iollas; when I [shall] sacrifice a heifer for the harvest, come yourself.
- dic quībus in terris, etc., et Phyllīda sōlus hābētō (id. iii. 107), tell in what lands, etc., and have Phyllis for yourself.

2. In general directions serving for all time, as Precepts, Statutes, and Wills:—

- is īūris cīvis cūstōs estō (Legg. iii. 8), let him (the prōctor) be the guardian of civil right.
- Boreā flante, nē arātō, sēmen nē iacitō (Plin. II. N. xviii. 324), when the north wind blows, plough not nor sow your seed.

a. The verbs sciō, memini, and habēō (in the sense of consider) regularly use the Future Imperative instead of the Present:—

- filiolō nē auctum sciēō (Att. i. 2), learn that I am blessed with a little boy.
- sic hābētō, mī Tirō (Fam. xvi. 4. 4), so understand it, my good Tiro.
- dē pallā mēmentō, amābō (Pl. Asin. 933), remember, dear, about the gown.

b. The Future Indicative is sometimes used for the imperative; and quin (why not?) with the Present Indicative may have the force of a command:—

- sī quid acciderit novi, faciēs ut sciam (Fam. xiv. 8), you will let me know if anything new happens.
- quin accipis (Ter. Haut. 832), here, take it (why not take it?).

c. Instead of the simple Imperative, cūrā ut, fac (fac ut), or velim, followed by the subjunctive (§ 565), is often used, especially in colloquial language:—

- cūrā ut Rōmae sīs (Att. i. 2), take care to be at Rome.
- fac ut valētūdīnem cūrēs (Fam. xiv. 17), see that you take care of your health.
- domī adsitīs facite (Ter. Enn. 506), be at home, do.
- cum mihi velim mittās (Att. viii. 11), I wish you would send it to me.

For commands in Indirect Discourse, see § 588.
For the Imperative with the force of a Conditional Clause, see § 521. b.
Prohibition (Negative Command)

450. Prohibition is regularly expressed in classic prose (1) by noli with the Infinitive, (2) by cavē with the Present Subjunctive, or (3) by nē with the Perfect Subjunctive: —

(1) noli putāre (Lig. 33), do not suppose (be unwilling to suppose).
  noli impudēns esse (Fam. xii. 30. 1), don’t be shameless.
  nōlite cōgere sociōs (Verr. ii. 1. 82), do not compel the allies.
(2) cavē putēs (Att. vii. 20), don’t suppose (take care lest you suppose).
  cavē ignōscēs (Lig. 14), do not pardon.
  cavē festinēs (Fam. xvi. 12. 6), do not be in haste.
(3) nē necesse habueris (Att. xvi. 2. 5), do not regard it as necessary.
  nē sis admirātus (Fam. vii. 18. 3), do not be surprised.
  hoc facitō; hoc nē fēceris (Div. ii. 127), thou shalt do this, thou shall not do that.
  nē Apellae quidem dixeris (Fam. vii. 25. 2), do not tell Apelles even.
  nē vös quidem mortem timueritis (Tusc. i. 98), nor must you fear death.

All three of these constructions are well established in classic prose. The first, which is the most ceremonious, occurs oftener; the third, though not discourteous, is usually less formal and more peremptory than the others.

Note 1.—Instead of noli the poets sometimes use other imperatives of similar meaning (cf. § 437. a): —
  parce piās.selērāre manūs (Aen. iii. 42), forbear to defile your pious hands.
  cētera mitte loquī (Hor. Epod. 13. 7), forbear to say the rest.
  fugē quaerere (Hor. Od. i. 9. 13), do not inquire.

Note 2.—Cavē nē is sometimes used in prohibitions; also vidē nē and (colloquially) fac nē: as, — fac nē quid aliud cūrs (Fam. xvi. 11), see that you attend to nothing else.

Note 3.—The present subjunctive with nē and the perfect with cavē are found in old writers; nē with the present is common in poetry at all periods: —
  nē expectētis (Pl. Ps. 1234), do not wait.
  nē metuās (Mart. Ep. i. 70. 13), do not fear.
  cavē quicquām responderis (Pl. Am. 606), do not make any reply.

Note 4.—Other negatives sometimes take the place of nē: —
  nihīl ignōveris (Mur. 65), grant no pardon (pardon nothing).
  nec nihīl illud dixeris (Pl. i. 23), and do not say this to me.

Note 5.—The regular connective, and do not, is nēve.

a. The Present Imperative with nē is used in prohibitions by early writers and the poets: —

  nē timē (Pl. Curc. 520), don’t be afraid.
  nihilum nē creāe colori (Ecl. ii. 17), trust not too much to complexion.
  equō nē crēdite (Aen. ii. 48), trust not the horse.

b. The Future Imperative with nē is used in prohibitions in laws and formal precepts (see § 449. 2).

1 In prohibitions the subjunctive with nē is hortatory; that with cavē is an object clause (cf. §§ 450. n. 2, 565. n. 1).
INFINITIVE MOOD

451. The Infinitive is properly a noun denoting the action of the verb abstractly. It differs, however, from other abstract nouns in the following points: (1) it often admits the distinction of tense; (2) it is modified by adverbs, not by adjectives; (3) it governs the same case as its verb; (4) it is limited to special constructions.

The Latin Infinitive is the dative or locative case of such a noun and was originally used to denote Purpose; but it has in many constructions developed into a substitute for a finite verb. Hence the variety of its use.

In its use as a verb, the Infinitive may take a Subject Accusative (§ 397. c), originally the object of another verb on which the Infinitive depended. Thus inebō tē valēre is literally I command you for being well (cf. substantive clauses, § 562. n.).

Infinitive as Noun

452. The Infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, may be used with est and similar verbs (1) as the Subject, (2) in Apposition with the subject, or (3) as a Predicate Nominative. 2

1. As Subject: —

dolēre malum est (Fin. v. 84), to suffer pain is an evil.
bellum est sua vitia nōsse (Att. ii. 17), it’s a fine thing to know one’s own faults.
praesēst compōnere fluctūs (Aen. i. 135), it is better to calm the waves.

2. In Apposition with the Subject: —

proinde quasi inīriām facere id dēnīm esset imperiō ātī (Sall. Cat. 12), just as if this and this alone, to commit injustice, were to use power.
[Here facere is in apposition with id.]

3. As Predicate Nominative: —

id est convenienter nātūrāe vivere (Fin. iv. 41), that is to live in conformity with nature. [Cf. ātī in the last example.]

NOTE 1. — An infinitive may be used as Direct Object in connection with a Predicate Accusative (§ 393), or as Appositive with such Direct Object: —

istac ipsum nōn esse cum fuēris miserrimūm putō (Tusc. i. 12), for I think this very thing most wretched, not to be when one has been. [Here istac ipsum belongs to the noun nōn esse.]
miserāri, invidēre, gestīre, laetāri, haec omnīa morbōs Graecī appellant (id. iii. 7), to feel pity, envy, desire, joy, — all these things the Greeks call diseases. [Here the infinitives are in apposition with haec.] 3

1 The ending -ē (amāre, monēre, regere, audīre) was apparently locative, the ending -ī (amārī, monērī, regī, audīrī) apparently dative: but this difference of case had no significance for Latin syntax. The general Latin restriction of the -ī-infinitives to the passive was not a primitive distinction, but grew up in the course of time.

2 In these constructions the abstract idea expressed by the infinitive is represented as having some quality or belonging to some thing.

3
Note 2. — An Appositive or Predicate noun or adjective used with an infinitive in any of these constructions is put in the Accusative, whether the infinitive has a subject expressed or not. Thus,—nōn esse cupidum pecūnia est (Par. 51), to be free from desires (not to be desirous) is money in hand. [No Subject Accusative.]

α. The infinitive as subject is not common except with est and similar verbs. But sometimes, especially in poetry, it is used as the subject of verbs which are apparently more active in meaning:

quōs omnis eadem cupere, eadem ōdisse, eadem metuere, in ūnum coēgit (lug. 31), all of whom the fact of desiring, hating, and fearing the same things has united into one.

ingenuaā ādidisse fidēlītēr artis ēmollit mōrēs (Ov. P. ii. 9. 48), faithfully to have learned liberal arts softens the manners.

posse loqui ēripitūr (Ov. M. ii. 483), the power of speech is taken away.

453. Rarely the Infinitive is used exactly like the Accusative of a noun:—

beātē vivere allī in aliō, vōs in voluptāte pōnītis (Fin. ii. 86), a happy life different [philosophers] base on different things, you on pleasure.

quam multa . . . faciunt causā amicōrum, precāri ab indignō, supplicīō, etc. (Lael. 57), how many things we do for our friends' sake, ask favors from an unworthy person, resort to entreaty, etc.

nihil explorātum habēās, nē amāre quidem aut amāri (id. 97), you have nothing assured, not even loving and being loved.

Note. — Many complementary and other constructions approach a proper accusative use of the infinitive, but their development has been different from that of the examples above. Thus, — avāritia . . . superbiām, crudelitātem, dēsōs neglegere, omnīa vēnārea habēre cōdocit (Sall. Cat. 10), avarice taught pride, cruelty, to neglect the gods, and to hold everything at a price.

Infinitive as Apparent Subject of Impersonals

454. The Infinitive is used as the apparent Subject with many impersonal verbs and expressions:

Such are libet, licet, oportet, decet, placet, visum est, pudet, piget, necesse est, opus est, etc.:—

libet mihi cōnsiderāre (Quint. 48), it suits me to consider.

necesse est mōrī (Tusc. ii. 2), it is necessary to die.

quid attīnēt gloriōse loquērī nisi cōstantēr loquāre (Fin. ii. 89), what good does it do to talk boastfully unless you speak consistently?

necque mē vīxisse paenitet (id. 84), I do not feel sorry to have lived.

guberāre mē tādēbat (Att. ii. 7. 4), I was tired of being pilot.

Note. — This use is a development of the Complementary Infinitive (§ 450); but the infinitives approach the subject construction and may be conveniently regarded as the subjects of the impersonals.
455. With impersonal verbs and expressions that take the Infinitive as an apparent subject, the personal subject of the action may be expressed —

1. By a Dative, depending on the verb or verbal phrase: —
   rogant ut id sibi facere liceat (B. G. i. 7), they ask that it be allowed them to do this.
   non lubet enim mihi deplorare vitam (Cat. M. 84), for it does not please me to lament my life.
   visum est mihi de senectute aliquid conscribere (id. 1), it seemed good to me to write something about old age.
   quid est tam secundum naturam quam senibus emori (id. 71), what is so much in accordance with nature as for old men to die?
   exstinguui hominis suo tempore optabile est (id. 85), for a man to die at the appointed time is desirable.

2. By an Accusative expressed as the subject of the infinitive or the object of the impersonal: —
   si licet vive reum quem Sex. Naevius non volt (Quinct. 94), if it is allowed a man to live against the will of Sextus Naevius.
   nomin oreptuit praeconsisse me ante (Ter. And. 239), ought I not to have known beforehand?
   oratorem irasci minimè decet (Tusc. iv. 54), it is particularly unbecoming for an orator to lose his temper.
   pudet me dicere (N. D. i. 109), I should be ashamed to say.
   consilia ineunt quorum eos in vestigio paenitere necessis est (B. G. iv. 5), they form plans for which they must at once be sorry.

Note. — Libet, placet, and visum est take the dative only; oparet, pudet, piget, and generally decet, the accusative only; licet and necesse est take either case.

α. A predicate noun or adjective is commonly in the Accusative; but with licet regularly, and with other verbs occasionally, the Dative is used: —
   expedit bonas esse vobis (Ter. Haut. 388), it is for your advantage to be good.
   licuit esse ostius Themistoclis (Tusc. 1. 33), Themistocles might have been inactive (it was allowed to Themistocles to be inactive).
   mihi neglegentiss esse non licet (Att. 1. 17. 6), I must not be negligent. [But also neglegentem.]
   cur his esse liberis non licet (Flacc. 71), why is it not allowed these men to be free?
   non est omnibus stantibus necesse dicere (Marc. 33), it is not necessary for all to speak standing.

Note. — When the subject is not expressed, as being indefinite (one, anybody), a predicate noun or adjective is regularly in the accusative (cf. § 452. 3. n. 2): as, — vel pace vel bellum clarum fieri licet (Sall. Cat. 3), one can become illustrious either in peace or in war.
Complementary Infinitive

456. Verbs which imply another action of the same subject to complete their meaning take the Infinitive without a subject accusative.

Such are verbs denoting to be able, dare, undertake, remember, forget, be accustomed, begin, continue, cease, hesitate, learn, know how, fear, and the like:

hoc queō dicere (Cat. M. 32), this I can say.
mittō quaerere (Rosc. Anc. 53), I omit to ask.
vereor landare praesentem (N. D. i. 58), I fear to praise a man to his face.
ōrō ut mātrēs venire (Att. iv. 1), I beg you will make haste to come.
oblivisci nōn possum quae volō (Fin. ii. 104), I cannot forget that which I wish.
dēsine id mé docere (Tusc. ii. 29), cease to teach me that.
dicere solēbat, he used to say.
audeō dicere, I venture to say.
loqui posse coepi, I began to be able to speak.

Note.—The peculiarity of the Complementary Infinitive construction is that no Subject Accusative is in general admissible or conceivable. But some infinitives usually regarded as objects can hardly be distinguished from this construction when they have no subject expressed. Thus volō dicere and volō mé dicere mean the same thing, I wish to speak, but the latter is object-infinitive, while the former is not apparently different in origin and construction from queō dicere (complementary infinitive), and again volō eum dicere, I wish him to speak, is essentially different from either (cf. § 565. b).

457. Many verbs take either a Subjunctive Clause or a Complementary Infinitive, without difference of meaning.

Such are verbs signifying willingness, necessity, propriety, resolve, command, prohibition, effort, and the like (cf. § 563):—
decernere optābat (Q. C. iii. 11. 1), he was eager to decide.
opavit ut tolleretur (Off. iii. 94), he was eager to be taken up.
opponēre contendit (B. G. v. 21), he strove to take by storm.
contendit ut caperet (id. v. 8), he strove to take.
bellum gerere constituit (id. iv. 6), he decided to carry on war.
cōnstitueram ut manērem (Att. xvi. 10. 1), I had decided to remain.

Note 1.—For the infinitive with subject accusative used with some of these verbs instead of a complementary infinitive, see § 563.

Note 2.—Some verbs of these classes never take the subjunctive, but are identical in meaning with others which do:—
eōs quōs tūtāri débent déserunt (Off. i. 28), they forsake those whom they ought to protect.
avo pügnāre (Att. ii. 18. 3), I’m anxious to fight.
α. In poetry and later writers many verbs may have the infinitive, after the analogy of verbs of more literal meaning that take it in prose:—

furit ut reperire (Hor. Od. i. 15. 27), he rages to find thee. [A forcible way of saying cupit (§§ 457, 563. b.).]
saevit exstinguere nōmen (Ov. M. i. 200), he rages to blot out the name.
fuge quaerere (Hor. Od. i. 9. 13), forbear to ask (cf. § 450. n. 1).
parsce piās scelerāre manūs (Aen. iii. 42), forbear to defile your pious hands.

458. A Predicate Noun or Adjective after a complementary infinitive takes the case of the subject of the main verb:—
fierique studēbam ēris prōidentiā doctor (Lael. 1), I was eager to become more wise through his wisdom.
seiō quanquam soleās esse occupātūs (Fam. xvi. 21. 7), I know how busy you usually are (are wont to be).
brevi essē labōrō, obscurus fīō (Hor. A. P. 25), I struggle to be brief, I become obscure.

Infinitive with Subject Accusative

459. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is used with verbs and other expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (Indirect Discourse, § 579):—
dicit montem ab hostibus tenērī (B. G. i. 22), he says that the hill is held by the enemy. [Direct: mōns ab hostibus tenētur.]

Infinitive of Purpose

460. In a few cases the Infinitive retains its original meaning of Purpose.

α. The infinitive is used in isolated passages instead of a subjunctive clause after habeō, dō, ministrō:—
tantum habeō pollicēri (Fam. i. 5 A. 3), so much I have to promise. [Here the more formal construction would be quod pollicerat.]
ulī bibere ministrāret (Tusc. i. 65), to serve Jove with wine (to drink).
meridīō bibere datō (Cato R. R. 89), give (to) drink at noonday.

β. Parātus, suētus, and their compounds, and a few other participles (used as adjectives), take the infinitive like the verbs from which they come:—
id quod parātī sunt facere (Quint. 8), that which they are ready to do.
adsuefectī superārī (B. G. vi. 24), used to being conquered.
currū succēderē suētī (Aen. iii. 541), used to being harnessed to the chariot.
cōpiās bellāre consuētās (B. Afr. 73), forces accustomed to fighting.
NOTE.—In prose these words more commonly take the Gerund or Gerundive construction (§ 503 ff.) either in the genitive, the dative, or the accusative with ad:—
insuēctus nāvīgandi (B. G. v. 6), unused to making voyages.
ælendīs libēris suētī (Tac. Ann. xiv. 27), accustomed to supporting children.
corpora insuēctā ad onera portānda (B. G. i. 78), bodies unused to carry burdens.

c. The poets and early writers often use the infinitive to express purpose when there is no analogy with any prose construction:—

filius intrō iūt vidīēre quid agat (Ter. Hec. 345), your son has gone in to see what he is doing. [In prose: the supine visum.]
nōn ferrō Libycōs populāre Penētis vēnīmus (Aen. i. 527), we have not come to lay waste with the sword the Libyan homes.
lōricam dōnāt habēre virō (id. v. 262), he gives the hero a breastplate to wear. [In prose: habendam.]

NOTE.—So rarely in prose writers of the classic period.
For the Infinitive used instead of a Substantive Clause of Purpose, see § 457.
For tempus est abīre, see § 504. n. 2.

Peculiar Infinitives

461. Many Adjectives take the Infinitive in poetry, following a Greek idiom:—

dūrus compōnēre versūs (Hor. S. i. 4. 8), harsh in composing verse.
cantāri dignus (Ecl. v. 54), worthy to be sung. [In prose: qui cantētur.]
fortis trāctāre serpents (Hor. Od. i. 37. 26), brave to handle serpents.
cantāre perītī (Ecl. x. 32), skilled in song.
faciles aurem praeōbīre (Prop. iii. 14. 15), ready to lend an ear.
nescia vincī pectora (Aen. xii. 527), hearts not knowing how to yield.
tē vidīēre aegrōti (Plaut. Trin. 75), sick of seeing you.

a. Rarely in poetry the infinitive is used to express result:—
fingit equum docilem magister ire viam quà mōnstret eques (Hor. Ep. i. 2. 64),
the trainer makes the horse gentle so as to go in the road the rider points out.
hīc levāre . . . pauperem labōribus vocātus audit (Hor. Od. ii. 18. 38), he, when called, hears, so as to relieve the poor man of his troubles.

NOTE.—These poetic constructions were originally regular and belong to the Infinitive as a noun in the Dative or Locative case (§ 451). They had been supplanted, however, by other more formal constructions, and were afterwards restored in part through Greek influence.

b. The infinitive occasionally occurs as a pure noun limited by a demonstrative, a possessive, or some other adjective:—
hōc nōn dolēre (Fin. ii. 18), this freedom from pain. [Cf. tōtum hōc bētē vivere (Tusc. v. 33), this whole matter of the happy life.]
nostrum vivere (Pers. i. 9), our life (to live).
sēre tuum (id. i. 27), your knowledge (to know).
462. The Infinitive, with Subject Accusative,\footnote{This construction is elliptical; that is, the thought is quoted in Indirect Discourse, though no verb of saying etc. is expressed or even, perhaps, implied (compare the French dire que). Passages like hancine ego ad rem nātam miseram mē memorābō? (Plaut. Rud. 188) point to the origin of the construction.} may be used in Exclamations (cf. § 397. d): —

tē in tantās aerumnas propter mē incidisse (Fam. xiv. 1), alas, that you should have fallen into such grief for me!
mēns inceptō desistere victam (Aen. i. 37), what! I beaten desist from my purpose?

Note 1. — The interrogative particle -ne is often attached to the emphatic word (as in the second example).

Note 2. — The Present and the Perfect Infinitive are used in this construction with their ordinary distinction of time (§ 466).

A. A subjunctive clause, with or without ut, is often used elliptically in exclamatory questions. The question may be introduced by the interrogative -ne: —

quamquam quid loquor? tē ut ālla rēs frangat (Cat. i. 22), yet why do I speak? [the idea] that anything should bend you!
egone ut tē interpellem (Tusc. ii. 42), what, I interrupt you?
egō tibi irāscēris (Q. Fr. i. 3), I angry with you?

Note. — The Infinitive in exclamations usually refers to something actually occurring; the Subjunctive, to something contemplated.

463. The Infinitive is often used for the Imperfect Indicative in narration, and takes a subject in the Nominative: —

tum Catilina pañicērī novās tabulās (Sall. Cat. 21), then Catiline promised abolition of debts (clean ledgers).
egō instāre ut mihi respondēret (Verr. ii. 188), I kept urging him to answer me.
pars cādere, aliī insequī; neque signa neque āūnās observāre; ubi quenque periculum cēperat, ibi resistēre ac prōpulsāre; arma, tēla, equī, virī, hostēs atque civēs permiuxtī; nihil consiliō neque imperiō agi; fors omnīa regere (Ing. 51), a part give way, others press on; they hold neither to standards nor ranks; where danger overtook them, there each would stand and fight; arms, weapons, horses, men, foe and friend, mingled in confusion; nothing went by counsel or command; chance ruled all.

Note. — This construction is not strictly historical, but rather descriptive, and is never used to state a mere historical fact. It is rarely found in subordinate clauses. Though occurring in most of the writers of all periods, it is most frequent in the historians Sallust, Livy, Tacitus. It does not occur in Suetonius.
TENSES

464. The number of possible Tenses is very great. For in each of the three times, Present, Past, and Future, an action may be represented as going on, completed, or beginning; as habitual or isolated; as defined in time or indefinite (aoristic); as determined with reference to the time of the speaker, or as not itself so determined but as relative to some time which is determined; and the past and future times may be near or remote. Thus a scheme of thirty or more tenses might be devised.

But, in the development of forms, which always takes place gradually, no language finds occasion for more than a small part of these. The most obvious distinctions, according to our habits of thought, appear in the following scheme:

1. **Definite** (fixing the time of the action)
   - **Incomplete**
     - Present: a. *I am writing.*
     - Past: b. *I was writing.*
     - Future: c. *I shall be writing.*
   - **Complete**
     - Present: d. *I have written.*
     - Past: e. *I had written.*
     - Future: f. *I shall have written.*

2. **Indefinite**
   - **Narrative**
     - g. *I write.*
     - h. *I wrote.*
     - i. *I shall write.*

Most languages disregard some of these distinctions, and some make other distinctions not here given. The Indo-European parent speech had a Present tense to express a and g, a Perfect to express d, an Aorist to express h, a Future to express c and i, and an Imperfect to express b. The Latin, however, confounded the Perfect and Aorist in a single form (the Perfect scripsī), thus losing all distinction of form between d and h, and probably in a great degree the distinction of meaning. The nature of this confusion may be seen by comparing dixī, dicāvī, and dicīcī (all Perfects derived from the same root, dīc), with ṭēṣā, Skr. adikṣam, ṭēḍāṣa, Skr. ḍideṣa. Latin also developed two new forms, those for e (scripsēram) and f (scripsērō), and thus possessed six tenses, as seen in § 154. c.

The lines between these six tenses in Latin are not hard and fast, nor are they precisely the same that we draw in English. Thus in many verbs the form corresponding to *I have written* (d) is used for those corresponding to *I am writing* (a) and *I write* (g) in a slightly different sense, and the form corresponding to *I had written* (e) is used in like manner for that corresponding to *I was writing* (b). Again, the Latin often uses the form for *I shall have written* (f) instead of that for *I shall write* (i). Thus, nōvī, *I have learned*, is used for *I know*; constiterat, *he had taken his position*, for *he stood*; cōgnōverō, *I shall have learned*, for *I shall be aware*. In general a writer may take his own point of view.

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE

INCOMPLETE ACTION

PRESENT TENSE

465. The Present Tense denotes an action or state (1) as now taking place or existing, and so (2) as incomplete in present time, or (3) as indefinite, referring to no particular time, but denoting a general truth:
senātus haec intellegit, cōnsul videt, hic tamen vivit (Cat. i. 2), the senate knows this, the consul sees it, yet this man lives.
tibi concesšō meās sēdis (Div. i. 104), I give you my seat (an offer which may or may not be accepted).
expectō quid vēlīs (Ter. And. 34), I await your pleasure (what you wish).
tū aequōrum instituīs, ille aequōm instruct, (Mur. 22), you arrange a case, he arranges an army. [The present is here used of regular employment.]
mineā dī neleguāt (N. D. iii. 86), the gods disregard trifles. [General truth.]
obsequiūm amīcōs, vēritās odium ĕrit (Ter. And. 68), flattery gains friends, truth hatred. [General truth.]

Note.—The present of a general truth is sometimes called the Gnomic Present.

a. The present is regularly used in quoting writers whose works are extant:—
Epicurus vērō ea dicit (Tusc. ii. 17), but Epicurus says such things.
apud illum Ulixēs lāmentātur in vulnere (id. ii. 49), in him (Sophocles) Ulysses laments over his wound.
Polyphemum Homērus cum arīte colloquētēm fācit (id. v. 115), Homer brings in (makes) Polyphemus talking with his ram.

Present with iam diū etc.

466. The Present with expressions of duration of time (especially iam diū, iam dūdum) denotes an action continuing in the present, but begun in the past (cf. § 471. b).

In this use the present is commonly to be rendered by the perfect in English:—
iam diū ignātō quid agās (Fam. vii. 9), for a long time I have not known what you were doing.
tē iam dūdum hortor (Cat. i. 12), I have long been urging you.
patimur multōs iam annōs (Verr. v. 126), we suffer now these many years.
[The Latin perfect would imply that we no longer suffer.]
anni sunt octō cum ista causa versātur (cf. Clu. 82), it is now eight years that this case has been in hand.
amnum iam audīs Cratippum (Off. i. 1), for a year you have been a hearer of Cratippus.
adhuc Plancius mē retinet (Fam. xiv. 1. 3), so far Plancius has kept me here.

Note 1.—The difference in the two idioms is that the English states the beginning and leaves the continuance to be inferred, while the Latin states the continuance and leaves the beginning to be inferred. Compare he has long suffered (and still suffers) with he still suffers (and has suffered long).

Note 2.—Similarly the Present Imperative with iam dācum indicates that the action commanded ought to have been done or was wished for long ago (cf. the Perfect Imperative in Greek): as,—iam dūdum sūmite poenās (Aen. ii. 103), exact the penalty long delayed.
Conative Present

467. The Present sometimes denotes an action attempted or begun in present time, but never completed at all (Conative Present, cf. § 471. c) :-

iam iamque manū teact (Aen. ii. 530), and now, even now, he attempts to grasp him.

dēnsōs furtur in hostis (id. ii. 511), he starts to rush into the thickest of the foe.
dēcernō quinquāgintā diērum supplicationēs (Phil. xiv. 29), I move for fifty days’ thanksgiving. [Cf. senātus dēcrēvit, the senate ordained.]

Present for Future

468. The Present, especially in colloquial language and poetry, is often used for the Future:—

imūsne sessum (De Or. iii. 17), shall we take a seat? (are we going to sit?)
hodiē uxōrem dūcis (Ter. And. 321), are you to be married today?
quod si fit, pereō funditus (id. 244), if this happens, I am utterly undone.
equid mē a dúvās (Clu. 71), won’t you give me a little help?
in iūs vocō tē. nōn eō. nōn is (Pl. Asin. 480), I summon you to the court. I won’t go. You won’t?

Note.—Eō and its compounds are especially frequent in this use (cf. where are you going to-morrow? and the Greek ἐμ in a future sense). Verbs of necessity, possibility, wish, and the like (as possum, volō, etc.) also have reference to the future.
For other uses of the Present in a future sense, see under Conditions (§ 516. a. n.), antequam and priusquam (§ 551. c), ēnam (§ 553. n. 2), and § 444. a. n.

Historical Present

469. The Present in lively narrative is often used for the Historical Perfect:—

affertur nānitus Syrācusās; curritur ad prætorium; Cleomenēs in pūblicō esse nōn audet; inādit sē domī (Verr. v. 92), the news is brought to Syracuse; they run to headquarters; Cleomenes does not venture to be abroad; he shuts himself up at home.

Note.—This usage, common in all languages, comes from imagining past events as going on before our eyes (repraesentātiā, § 585. b. n.).
For the Present Indicative with ēnam, while, see § 503.

a. The present may be used for the perfect in a summary enumeration of past events (Annalistic Present):—

Rōma interim crēscit Albae rūnīs: duplicātur civium numerus; Caelius addītur urbī mōns (Liv. i. 50), Rome meanwhile grows as a result of the fall of Alba: the number of citizens is doubled; the Caelian hill is added to the town.
470. The Imperfect denotes an action or a state as continued or repeated in past time:

hunc audıebant antea (Maul. 13), they used to hear of him before.
[Socratēs] ita cēnsēbat itaque disservit (Tusq. i. 72), Socrates thought so (habitually), and so he spoke (then).
prudēns esse putabatur (Lael. 6), he was (generally) thought wise. [The perfect would refer to some particular case, and not to a state of things.]
iamque rubeābat Aurōra (Aen. iii. 521), and now the dawn was blushing.
āra vetus stābat (Ov. M. vi. 326), an old altar stood there.

Note. — The Imperfect is a descriptive tense and denotes an action conceived as in progress or a state of things as actually observed. Hence in many verbs it does not differ in meaning from the Perfect. Thus rēx erat and rēx fuit may often be used indifferently; but the former describes the condition while the latter only states it. The English is less exact in distinguishing these two modes of statement. Hence the Latin Imperfect is often translated by the English Preterite:—

Hæcuit graviter tēēbant, neque legātōs ad Caesarem mittēra audīebant (B. G. v. 6), the Hæcit were displeased, and did not dare to send envoys to Cæsar.
[Here the Imperfects describe the state of things.] But,—
id tūtī factum graviter Indiūmīanus (id. v. 4), Indiūmīanus was displeased at this action. [Here the Perfect merely states the fact.]
sedīciā vicēsque habēbant (id. iv. 4), they had buildings and villages.

471. The Imperfect represents a present tense transferred to past time. Hence all the meanings which the Present has derived from the continuance of the action belong also to the Imperfect in reference to past time.

a. The Imperfect is used in descriptions:—
erant omnia itinera duo . . . mōns altissimus impenēbat (B. G. i. 6), there were in all two ways . . . a very high mountain overhung.

b. With iam dīū, iam dūdum, and other expressions of duration of time, the Imperfect denotes an action continuing in the past but begun at some previous time (cf. § 466).
In this construction the Imperfect is rendered by the English Pluperfect:—
iam dūdum nēbam (Ov. M. iii. 666), I had been weeping for a long time.
cōpiās quās dīū comparābant (Fam. xi. 13. 5), the forces which they had long been getting ready.

c. The Imperfect sometimes denotes an action as begun (Inceptive Imperfect), or as attempted or only intended (Conative Imperfect; cf. § 467):—
in exsilium ściēbam quem iam ingressum esse in bellum vidēbam (Cat. ii. 14), was I trying to send into exile one who I saw had already gone into war?

hunc igitur diem sibi prōpōnēns Milō, cruentūs manibus ad illa Augusta centūriārum auspiciā venībāt (Mil. 43), was Milo coming (i.e. was it likely that he would come); etc.?

si licētum esset venībāt (Verr. v. 129), they were coming if it had been allowed (they were on the point of coming, and would have done so if, etc.).

Note. — To this head may be referred the imperfect with iam, denoting the beginning of an action or state: as, —iamque arva trābēbant ultīma (Aen. vi. 477), and now they were just getting to the farthest fields.

da. The Imperfect is sometimes used to express a surprise at the present discovery of a fact already existing: —

ō tū quoque aderās (Ter. Ph. 858), oh, you are here too!

ehem, tūn lūc erās, mī Phaedrīa (Ter. Eun. 89), where? you here, Phaedria?

ā miser! quantā labōrābās Charybdī (Hor. Od. i. 27. 19), unhappy boy, what a whirlpool you are struggling in [and I never knew it]!

c. The Imperfect is often used in dialogue by the comic poets where later writers would employ the Perfect: —

ad amicum Calliclem quōi rem aibat mandāssē hūi suam (Pl. Trin. 956), to his friend Callicles, to whom, he said, he has intrusted his property.

praesāgībat mī animās trūstrā mē ire quem exītām domō (Pl. Aul. 178), my mind mistrusted when I went from home that I went in vain.

Note. — So, in conversation the imperfect of verbs of saying (cf. as I was a-saying) is common in classic prose: —

at medici quoque, ita eum diebās, saepe falluntur (N. D. iii. 15), but physicians also, —for that is what you were saying just now, —are often mistaken.

haec mihi fēcī in mentem venībānt (id. ii. 67, 168), this is about what occurred to me, etc. [In a straightforward narration this would be vēnērunt.]

d. The Imperfect with negative words often has the force of the English auxiliary could or would: —

itaque (Dāmoclēs) nec pulchūrūs illōs ministrātōrēs aspiciēbat (Tusc. v. 62), therefore he could not look upon those beautiful slaves. [In this case did not would not express the idea of continued prevention of enjoyment by the overhanging sword.]

nece enim dum eram volōscum animum meum vidēbātis (Cat. M. 79), for, you know, while I was with you, you could not see my soul. [Here the Perfect would refer only to one moment.]

Lentulus satēs erat fortēs orātor, sed cōgitandī nōn ferēbat labōrem (Brut. 268), Lentulus was bold enough as an orator, but could not endure the exertion of thinking hard.

For the Epistolary Imperfect, see § 479; for the Imperfect Indicative in apodosis contrary to fact, see § 517. b, c.
SYNTAX: THE VERB

[F §§ 472, 473]

FUTURE TENSE

472. The Future denotes an action or state that will occur hereafter.

a. The Future may have the force of an Imperative (§ 449. b).

b. The Future is often required in a subordinate clause in Latin where in English futurity is sufficiently expressed by the main clause: cum aderit vidēbit, when he is there he will see (cf. § 547).

sānābimur si volēmus (Tusc. iii. 13), we shall be healed if we wish (cf. § 516. a).

Note.—But the Present is common in future apodoses (§ 516. a. n.).

COMPLETED ACTION

PERFECT TENSE

Perfect Definite and Historical Perfect

473. The Perfect denotes an action either as now completed (Perfect Definite), or as having taken place at some undefined point of past time (Historical or Aoristic Perfect).

The Perfect Definite corresponds in general to the English Perfect with have; the Historical Perfect to the English Preterite (or Past):

(1) ut ego feci, qui Graecás litterás senex dixi (Cat. M. 23), as I have done,
who have learned Greek in my old age.

diūturni silentī fincūm hodiernus diēs attulit (Marc. 1), this day has put an
end to my long-continued silence.

(2) tantum bellum extrēma hieme apparavit, inuentum vēre suscepit, mediā
aestāte confecit (Manil. 35), so great a war he made ready for at the end
of winter, undertook in early spring, and finished by midsummer.

Note.—The distinction between these two uses is represented by two forms in most other Indo-European languages, but was almost if not wholly lost to the minds of the Romans. It must be noticed, however, on account of the marked distinction in English and also because of certain differences in the sequence of tenses.

a. The Indefinite Present, denoting a customary action or a general
truth (§ 465), often has the Perfect in a subordinate clause referring
to antecedent to that of the main clause:—

qui in compedibus corporis semper fuērunt, etiam cum solūti sunt tardius
ingrediatur (Tusc. i. 75), they who have always been in the fetters of the
body, even when released move more slowly.

simul ac mihi collibatum est, præstō est imāgō (N. D. i. 108), as soon as I
have taken a fancy, the image is before my eyes.
haec morte effugiuntur, etiam si non evēnērunt, tamen quia possunt évēnire (Tusc. i. 86), these things are escaped by death even if they have not [yet] happened, because they still may happen.

Note.—This use of the perfect is especially common in the protasis of General Conditions in present time (§ 518. b).

474. The Perfect is sometimes used emphatically to denote that a thing or condition of things that once existed no longer exists:

fuit ista quondam in hāc rē publicā virtūs (Cat. i. 3), there was once such virtue in this commonwealth.

habuit, nōn habet (Tusc. i. 87), he had, he has no longer.

filium habēō . . . inmō habui; nunc habeam necne incertumst (Ter. Haun. 93), I have a son, no, I had one; whether I have now or not is uncertain.

fuimus Trōes, fuit Ilium (Aen. ii. 325), we have ceased to be Trojans, Troy is no more.

Special Uses of the Perfect

475. The Perfect is sometimes used of a general truth, especially with negatives (Gnomic Perfect): —

qui studet contingere métam multa tuīt fecītque (Hor. A. P. 412), he who aims to reach the goal, first bears and doe, many things.

nōn aceris acerūs eō auri dēdīxīt corpore febris (id. Ep. i. 2. 47), the pile of brass and gold removes not fever from the frame.

Note.—The gnomic perfect strictly refers to past time; but its use implies that something which never did happen in any known case never does happen, and never will (cf. the English “Faint heart never won fair lady”); or, without a negative, that what has once happened will always happen under similar circumstances.

α. The Perfect is often used in expressions containing or implying a negation, where in affirmation the Imperfect would be preferred: —

dicēbat melius quam scrīpsit Hortēnsius (Or. 132), Hortensius spoke better than he wrote. [Here the negative is implied in the comparison: compare the use of quīsquam, ullus, etc. (§§ 311, 312), and the French ne after comparatives and superlatives.]

476. The completed tenses of some verbs are equivalent to the incomplete tenses of verbs of kindred meaning.

Such are the preteritive verbs òō, I hate; memini, I remember; nōvī, I know; cōnsuēvī, I am accustomed,1 with others used preteritively, as vēnerat (= aderat, he was at hand, etc.), cōnstitērunt, they stand firm (have taken their stand), and many inceptives (see § 263. 1): —

1 Cf. dētestor, reminiscor, scō, soleō.
qui diēs aestūs maximōs efficere cōnsuēvit (B. G. iv. 29), which day generally makes the highest tides (is accustomed to make).

cūnius splendor obsoletūr (Quinct. 59), whose splendor is now all faded.

Note.—Many other verbs are occasionally so used: as, — dum oculōs certāmen āverterat (Liv. xxxii. 24), while the contest had turned their eyes (kept them turned). [Here āverterat = tenēbat.]

**PLUPERFECT TENSE**

477. The Pluperfect is used (1) to denote an action or state completed in past time; or (2) sometimes to denote an action in indefinite time, but prior to some past time referred to: —

(1) loeī nātūra erat hae, quem locum nostri castrīs délegerant (B. G. ii. 18), this was the nature of the ground which our men had chosen for a camp.

Viridovix summan imperi tenēbat ērum omnium civitātum quae défēcerant (id. iii. 17), Viridovix held the chief command of all those tribes which had revolted.

(2) neque vērō cum aliquid mandāverat cōnfectum putābat (Cat. iii. 16), but when he had given a thing in charge he did not look on it as done.

quae ei quandō adepta est id quod ei fuerat concupitūm, tum fert alacritātem (Tusc. iv. 16), if it (desire) ever has gained what it had [previously] desired, then it produces joy.

For the Epistolary Pluperfect, see § 479.

**FUTURE PERFECT TENSE**

478. The Future Perfect denotes an action as completed in the future: —

ut sēmentem fēceris, ἵνα μετῆς (De Or. ii. 261), as you sow (shall have sown), so shall you reap.

carmina tum melius, cum vēnerit ipse, canēmus (Ecl. ix. 67), then shall we sing our songs better, when he himself has come (shall have come).

si illius insidiae clāriōres hāc lūce fuerint, tum dēnique obsocrābō (Mil. 6), when the plots of that man have been shown to be as clear as daylight, then, and not till then, shall I conjure you.

ego certē meum officium praeṣtiterō (B. G. iv. 25), I at least shall have done my duty (i.e. when the time comes to reckon up the matter, I shall be found to have done it, whatever the event).

Note.—Latin is far more exact than English in distinguishing between mere future action and action completed in the future. Hence the Future Perfect is much commoner in Latin than in English. It may even be used instead of the Future, from the fondness of the Romans for representing an action as completed: —

quid inventum sit paulō post viderō (Acæd. ii. 76), what has been found out I shall see presently.

quī Antōniūm oppresserit bellum taeterrimum confecerit (Pam. x. 19), whoever crushes (shall have crushed) Antony will finish (will have finished) a most loathsome war.
EPISTOLARY TENSES

479. In Letters, the Perfect Historical or the Imperfect may be used for the present, and the Pluperfect for any past tense, as if the letter were dated at the time it is supposed to be received:

neque tamen, haec cum scribēbam, eram nescius quantis oneribus premerēre (Fam. v. 12. 2), nor while I write this am I ignorant under what burdens you are weighed down.

ad tuās omnis [epistulās] rescripseram pridē (Att. ix. 10. 1), I answered all your letters yesterday.

cum quod scriberem ad tē nihil habērem, tamen hās ēdī litterās (Att. ix. 16), though I have nothing to write to you, still I write this letter.

Note. — In this use these tenses are called the Epistolary Perfect, Imperfect, and Pluperfect. The epistolary tenses are not employed with any uniformity, but only when attention is particularly directed to the time of writing (so especially scribēbam, dābam, etc.).

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

480. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Independent Clauses denote time in relation to the time of the speaker.

The Present always refers to future (or indefinite) time, the Imperfect to either past or present, the Perfect to either future or past, the Pluperfect always to past.

481. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Dependent Clauses were habitually used in certain fixed connections with the tenses of the main verb.

These connections were determined by the time of the main verb and the time of the dependent verb together. They are known, collectively, as the Sequence of Tenses.

Note. — The so-called Sequence of Tenses is not a mechanical law. Each tense of the subjunctive in dependent clauses (as in independent) originally denoted its own time in relation to the time of the speaker, though less definitely than the corresponding tenses of the indicative. Gradually, however, as the complex sentence was more strongly felt as a unit, certain types in which the tenses of the dependent clause seemed to accord with those of the main clause were almost unconsciously regarded as regular, and others, in which there was no such agreement, as exceptional. Thus a pretty definite system of correspondences grew up, which is codified in the rules for the Sequence of Tenses. These, however, are by no means rigid. They do not apply with equal stringency to all dependent constructions, and they were frequently disregarded, not only when their strict observance would have obscured the sense, but for the sake of emphasis and variety, or merely from carelessness.
Sequence of Tenses

482. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Dependent Clauses follow special rules for the Sequence of Tenses.

With reference to these rules all tenses when used in independent clauses are divided into two classes,—Primary and Secondary.

1. Primary. — The Primary Tenses include all forms that express present or future time. These are the Present, Future, and Future Perfect Indicative, the Present and Perfect Subjunctive, and the Present and Future Imperative.

2. Secondary. — The Secondary Tenses include all forms that refer to past time. These are the Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect Indicative, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive, and the Historical Infinitive.

Note. — To these may be added certain forms less commonly used in independent clauses:—(1) Primary: Present Infinitive in Exclamations; (2) Secondary: Perfect Infinitive in Exclamations (see §§ 462, 485. a, n.).

The Perfect Definite is sometimes treated as primary (see § 485. a).
For the Historical Present, see § 485. e; for the Imperfect Subjunctive in Apodosis, see § 485. a.

483. The following is the general rule for the Sequence of Tenses:—

In complex sentences a Primary tense in the main clause is followed by the Present or Perfect in the dependent clause, and a Secondary tense by the Imperfect or Pluperfect:—

Primary Tenses

rogō, I ask, am asking quid faciās, what you are doing.
rogābō, I shall ask quid fēceris, what you did, were doing,
rogāvi (sometimes), I have asked have done, have been doing.
rogāverō, I shall have asked quid factūrus sis, what you will do.
scribit, he writes
scribet, he will write
scribe (scribitā), write
scribit, he writes
ut nōs moneat, to warn us.

1 The term is sometimes extended to certain relations between the tenses of subordinate verbs in the indicative and those of the main verb. These relations do not differ in principle from those which we are considering; but for convenience the term Sequence of Tenses is in this book restricted to subjunctives, in accordance with the usual practice.
Secondary Tenses

rogābam, \( I \) asked, was asking \( quid \) facerēs, what you were doing.
rogāvi, \( I \) asked, have asked \( quid \) fecisses, what you had done, had been doing.
rogāveram, \( I \) had asked \( quid \) factūrus essēs, what you would do.
scripsit, \( he \) wrote \( ut \) nōs monēret, to warn us.
scripsit, \( he \) wrote \( quasi \) oblitus esset, as if he had forgotten.

484. In applying the rule for the Sequence of Tenses, observe—

(1) Whether the main verb is \( a \) primary or \( b \) secondary.
(2) Whether the dependent verb is to denote completed action (i.e. past with reference to the main verb) or incomplete action (i.e. present or future with reference to the main verb). Then—

\( a \). If the leading verb is primary, the dependent verb must be in the Present if it denotes incomplete action, in the Perfect if it denotes completed action.

\( b \). If the leading verb is secondary, the dependent verb must be in the Imperfect if it denotes incomplete action, in the Pluperfect if it denotes completed action:

(1) \( He \) writes [primary] to warn [incomplete action] us, scribit ut nōs monēat.  
I ask [primary] what you were doing [past], rogō quid fēcēris.

(2) \( He \) wrote [secondary] to warn [incomplete] us, scripsit ut nōs monēret.  
I asked [secondary] what you were doing [incomplete], rogāvi quid facerēs.

\( c \). Notice that the Future Perfect denotes action completed (at the time referred to), and hence is represented in the Subjunctive by the Perfect or Pluperfect:

He shows that if they come (shall have come), many will perish, dēmōnstrat, si vēnerint, multōs interītūrōs.
He showed that if they should come (should have come), many would perish, dēmōnstrāvit, si vēnissent, multōs interītūrōs.

485. In the Sequence of Tenses the following special points are to be noted:

\( a \). The Perfect Indicative is ordinarily a secondary tense, but allows the primary sequence when the present time is clearly in the writer’s mind:

ut satis esset præsidī prōvisum est (Cat. ii. 26), provision has been made that there should be ample guard. [Secondary sequence.]
addūxi hominem in quō satisfacerē exterīs nātīōnibus possētis (Verr. i. 2), I have brought a man in whose person you can make satisfaction to foreign nations. [Secondary sequence.]
est enim rēs iam in eum locum adducta, ut quamquam multum intersit inter eōrum causās quī dimicant, tamen inter victōriās nōn multum interfutūrum putem (Pam. v. 21. 3), for affairs have been brought to such a pass that, though there is a great difference between the causes of those who are fighting, still I do not think there will be much difference between their victories. [Primary sequence.]

ea adhibita doctrīna est quae vel vitiosissimam nātūram excolere possit (Q. Fr. i. 1. 7), such instruction has been given as can train even the faultiest nature. [Primary sequence.]

**NOTE.**—The Perfect Infinitive in exclamations follows the same rule:—

quemquamne fuisse tam sēclērātum quī hōc fingeret (Phil. xiv. 14), was any one so abandoned as to imagine this? [Secondary.]

adeōn rem redisse patrem ut extimescam (Ter. Ph. 153), to think that things have come to such a pass that I should dread my father! [Primary.]

6. After a primary tense the Perfect Subjunctive is regularly used to denote any past action. Thus the Perfect Subjunctive may represent—

1. A Perfect Definite:—

nōn dubitō quin omnēs tui scripsērunt (Pam. v. 8), I do not doubt that all your friends have written. [Direct statement: scripsērunt.]

quā rē nōn ignōrō quid accidat in ultimās terrās, cum audierim in Itāliā que-rellās civium (Q. Fr. i. 1. 33), therefore I know well what happens at the ends of the earth, when I have heard in Italy the complaints of citizens. [Direct statement: audīvi.]

2. A Perfect Historical:—

mē autem hic laudat quod rettulerim, nōn quod patefēcerim (Att. xii. 21), me he praises because I brought the matter [before the senate], not because I brought it to light. [Direct statement: rettulit.]

3. An Imperfect:—

si forte cecidērunt, tum intellegitur quam fuerint inopēs amicōrum (Lael. 53), if perchance they fall (have fallen), then one can see how poor they were in friends. [Direct question: quam inopēs erant?]

qui status rērum fuerit cum hās litterās dēdi, scire poteris ex C. Titō Stra- bōne (Fam. xii. 6), what the condition of affairs was when I wrote this letter, you can learn from Strabo. [Direct question: qui status erat?]

quām civitātō cārus fuerit maerōre funerās indicātum est (Lael. 11), how dear he was to the state has been shown by the grief at his funeral. [Direct question: quam cārus erat?]

ex epistulis intellegi licet quam frequēns fuerit Platōnis auditor (Or. 15), it may be understood from his letters how constant a hearer he was of Plato. [Direct question: quam frequēns erat?]

**NOTE.**—Thus the Perfect Subjunctive may represent, not only a Perfect Definite or a Perfect Historical of a direct statement or question, but an Imperfect as well. This comes from the want of any special tense of the subjunctive to express continued action after a primary tense. Thus, mīrō quīd fēcerit may mean (1) I wonder what he has done, (2) I wonder what he did (hist. perf.), or (3) I wonder what he was doing.
c. In clauses of Result, the Perfect Subjunctive is regularly (the Present rarely) used after secondary tenses:—

Hortensius ārdēbat dicendi cupiditāte sic ut in nūīo unquam flagrantius studiīn viderim (Brut. 302), Hortensius was so hot with desire of speaking that I have never seen a more burning ardor in any man.

[Siciliam Verrēs] per triennium īta vexāvit ac perdidit ut ea restītui in antiquum statum nūīo modō possit (Verr. i. 12), for three years Verres so raked and ruined Sicily that she can in no way be restored to her former state. [Here the Present describes a state of things actually existing.]

videor esse consecūtus ut nōn possit Dolābella in Ītaliām pervenīre (Fam. xii. 14. 2), I seem to have brought it about that Dolabella cannot come into Italy.

Note 1. — This construction emphasizes the result; the regular sequence of tenses would subordinate it.

Note 2. — There is a special fondness for the Perfect Subjunctive to represent a Perfect Indicative:—

Thorius erat īta nōn superstitiōsus ut illa plūrima in suā patriā et sacrācia et fāna contemneret; īta nōn timidus ad mortem ītīn ob rem pūblicam interfactus (Pīn. ii. 65), Thorius was so little superstitious that he despised [contemnērāvit] the many sacrifices and shrines in his country; so little timorous about death that he was killed [interfectus est] in battle, in defence of the state.

d. A general truth after a past tense follows the sequence of tenses:

ex īlis āque tribuisset, sībi quam mutābilis esset reputābat (Q. C. iii. 8. 20), from what she (Fortune) had bestowed on him, he reflected how inconstant she is. [Direct: mutābilis est.]

ibī quantam vin ad stimulandōs animōs īra habērent appāruit (Liv. xxxiii. 37), here it appeared what power anger has to good the mind. [Direct: habērant.]

Note. — In English the original tense is more commonly kept.

e. The Historical Present (§ 469) is sometimes felt as a primary, sometimes as a secondary tense, and accordingly it takes either the primary or the secondary sequence:—

rogāt ut cūret quod dīxisset (Quīnc. 18), he asks him to attend to the thing he had spoken of. [Both primary and secondary sequence.]

Note. — After the historical present, the subjunctive with cum temporal must follow the secondary sequence:—

quō cum vēnisset cōgnōsit (B. C. i. 34), when he had come there he learns.

cum esset pūgātum hōris quīisque, nostrique gravius prēmerentur, impetus in cohortīs faciunt (id. i. 41), when they had fought for five hours, and our men were pretty hard pressed, they make an attack on the cohorts.

f. The Historical Infinitive regularly takes the secondary sequence:—

interim cōtīdēī Caesar Hādūnōs frūmentum, quod essent pōliciti, fāgitāre (B. G. i. 16), meanwhile Cæsar demanded of the Hādūnī every day the grain which they had promised.
g. The Imperfect and Pluperfect in conditions contrary to fact (§ 517) and in the Deliberative Subjunctive (§ 444) are not affected by the sequence of tenses:—

quia tāle sit, ut vel si ignōrārent id hominēs vel si obmutuissent (Fin. ii. 49), because it is such that even if men were ignorant of it, or had been silent about it.

quaerō ā tē cūr C. Cornelium non dēfenderem (Vat. 5), I ask you why I was not to defend Caius Cornelius? [Direct: cūr nōn dēfenderem?]

h. The Imperfect Subjunctive in present conditions contrary to fact (§ 517) is regularly followed by the secondary sequence:—

si allī cōnsulēs essent, ad tē potissimum, Paule, mitterem, ut eōs mihi quam amicissimōs redderēs (Fam. xv. 13. 3), if there were other consuls, I should send to you, Paulus, in preference to all, that you might make them as friendly to me as possible.

si sōlōs eōs dicerēs miserōs quibus moriendum esset, nēminem excipērēs (Tusc. i. 9), if you were to call only those wretched who must die, you would except no one.

i. The Present is sometimes followed by a secondary sequence, seemingly because the writer is thinking of past time:—

sed si rēs cōget, est quiddam tertium, quod neque Seliciō nec mihi displicēbat: ut neque iacēre rem paterēmur, etc. (Fam. i. 5 x. 3), but if the case shall demand, there is a third [course] which neither Selicius nor myself disapproved, that we should not allow, etc. [Here Cicero is led by the time of displicēbat.]

sed tamen ut scirēs, haec tibi scribē (Fam. xiii. 47), but yet that you may know, I write thus. [As if he had used the epistolary imperfect scribēbam (§ 479).]

ctius praeceptī tanta vis est ut ea nōn homini cuiquam sed Delphīō deō tribuerētur (Legg. i. 58), such is the force of this precept, that it was ascribed not to any man, but to the Delphic god. [The precept was an old one.]

j. When a clause depends upon one already dependent, its sequence may be secondary if the verb of that clause expresses past time, even if the main verb is in a primary tense:—

sed tamen quā rē acciderit ut ex meis superiōribus litterīs id suspicārēre nesciō (Fam. ii. 16), but yet how it happened that you suspected this from my previous letter, I don’t know.

tantum prōfēciisse vidēmur ut ā Graecīs nē verbōrum quidem cōpiā vincēmur (N. D. i. 8), we seem to have advanced so far that even in abundance of words we are not surpassed by the Greeks.

Note. — So regularly after a Perfect Infinitive which depends on a primary tense (§ 585. a).
TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE

486. Except in Indirect Discourse, only the Present and Perfect Infinitives are used.

The Present represents the action of the verb as in progress without distinct reference to time, the Perfect as completed.

For the Tenses of the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse see § 584.

a. With past tenses of verbs of necessity, propriety, and possibility (as debui, oportuit, potui), the Present Infinitive is often used in Latin where the English idiom prefers the Perfect Infinitive:—

numine, si Coriolanus habuit amicos, ferre contra patriam arma illi cum Coriolano debuerunt (Lael. 36), if Coriolanus had friends, ought they to have borne arms with him against their fatherland?

pecunia, quam hie oportuit civitatis pro frumento dari (Verr. iii. 174), money which ought to have been paid to these states for grain.

consulesse qui potui, nisi eum vitae cursorim tenuisset a pueritia (Rep. i. 10), how could I have become consul had I not from boyhood followed that course of life?

b. With verbs of necessity, propriety, and possibility, the Perfect Infinitive may be used to emphasize the idea of completed action:—

tametsi statim vicisse debeo (Rosc. Am. 73), although I ought to win my case at once (to be regarded as having won it).

bellum quod possimus ante hiemem perfecisse (Liv. xxxvii. 19. 5), a war which we can have completed before winter.

nil ego, si peccem, possum nescisse (Ov. H. xvi. 47), if I should go wrong, I cannot have done it in ignorance (am not able not to have known).

Note. — With the past tenses of these verbs the perfect infinitive is apparently due to attraction:—

quod iam pridem factum esse oportuit (Cat. i. 5), (a thing) which ought to have been done long ago.

haec facta ab illo optentabat (Ter. Haut. 536), this ought to have been done by him.

tum decuit metuisse (Aen. x. 94), then was the time to fear (then you should have feared).

c. In archaic Latin and in legal formulas the Perfect Active Infinitive is often used with nolō or volō in prohibitions:—

Chaldaeum nequeum consulisse velit (Cato R. R. v. 4), let him not venture to have consulted a soothsayer.

nolito devellisse (Pl. Poen. 872), do not have them plucked.

nèquis humasse velit Ajácem (Hor. S. ii. 3. 187), let no one venture to have buried Ajax.

NEIQVIS EORVM BACANAL HABVISE VELLET (S. C. de Bac. 1), let no one of them venture to have had a place for Bacchanalian worship.
a. With verbs of *wishing*\(^1\) the Perfect Passive Infinitive (commonly without *esse*) is often used emphatically instead of the Present:

domesticā cūrā tē levātum volō (Q. Fr. iii. 9. 3), *I wish you relieved of private care.*
ilōs monítōs volō (Cat. ii. 27), *I wish them thoroughly warned.*
qui illum [patriam] exstinctam cupit (Fin. iv. 66), *who is eager for her utter destruction.*
illud tē esse admonitorium volō (Cael. 8), *I wish you to be well advised of this.*
qui sē ab omnibus désertōs potius quam abs tē défēnsōs esse mālunt (Caeceil. 21), *who prefer to be deserted by all rather than to be defended by you.*

Note.—The participle in this case is rather in predicate agreement (with or without *esse*) than used to form a strict perfect infinitive, though the full form can hardly be distinguished from that construction.

e. In late Latin, and in poetry (often for metrical convenience), rarely in good prose, the Perfect Active Infinitive is used emphatically instead of the Present, and even after other verbs than those of *wishing*:

nēmō eōrum est qui nōn perisse tē cupiat (Verr. ii. 149), *there is no one of them who is not eager for your death.*
hand equidem premendō alium mē extulisse velim (Liv. xxii. 59. 10), *I would not by crushing another exalt myself.*
sunt quī nōlīnt tētigisse (Hor. S. i. 2. 28), *there are those who would not touch.*
commisīsse cavet (Hor. A. P. 168), *he is cautious of doing.*
nunc quem tētigisse timērent, anguis erās (Ov. M. viii. 733), *again you became a serpent which they dreaded to touch.*
frātrēsque tendentēs opāō Pēlion imposuisse Olympō (Hor. Od. iii. 4. 51), *and the brothers striving to set Pelion on dark Olympus.*

f. After verbs of *feeling* the Perfect Infinitive is used, especially by the poets, to denote a completed action.

So also with *satis est*, *satis habēō*, *melius est*, *contentus sum*, and in a few other cases where the distinction of time is important:—
nōn paenitēbat intercapēdīnum scribendī fēcisse (Fam. xvi. 21), *I was not sorry to have made a respite of writing.*
pudet mē nōn praestītisse (id. xiv. 3), *I am ashamed not to have shown.*
sunt quōs puārēm Olympīcum collegisse iuvat (Hor. Od. i. 1. 3), *some delight to have stirred up the dust at Olympia.*
quiēsse erit melius (Liv. iii. 48), *it will be better to have kept quiet.*
ac si quis amet scripsiisse (Hor. S. i. 10. 60), *than if one should choose to have written.*
id sólum dixisse satis habēō (Vell. ii. 124), *I am content to have said only this.*

\(^1\) *Volō*, and less frequently *nōō*, *mālō*, and *cuptō*. 
NOUN AND ADJECTIVE FORMS OF THE VERB

487. The several Noun and Adjective forms associated with the verb are employed as follows:—

I. Participles:
   a. Present and Perfect:
      1. Attributive (§ 494).
      2. Simple Predicate (§ 495).
      3. Periphrastic Perfect (passive) (§ 495, a.).
      4. Predicate of Circumstance (§ 496).
      5. Descriptive (Indirect Discourse) (§ 497 a.).
   b. Future
      1. Periphrastic with esse (§ 498, a.).
      2. Periphrastic with fui (= Ipuperfect Subjunctive) (§ 498, b.).
   c. Gerundive
      1. As Descriptive Adjective (§ 500, 1).
      2. Periphrastic with esse (§ 500, 2).
      3. Of Purpose with certain verbs (§ 506, 4).

II. Gerund or Gerundive:
   1. Genitive as Subjective or Objective Genitive (§ 504).
   2. Dative, with Adjectives (of Fitness), Nouns, Verbs (§ 505).
   3. Accusative, with certain Prepositions (§ 506).
   4. Ablative, of Means, Comparison, or with Prepositions (§ 507).

III. Supine:
   1. Accusative Supine (in -um), with Verbs of Motion (§ 509).
   2. Ablative Supine (in -o), chiefly with Adjectives (§ 510).

PARTICIPLES

488. The Participle expresses the action of the verb in the form of an Adjective, but has a partial distinction of tense and may govern a case.

*Note.*—Thus the participle combines all the functions of an adjective with some of the functions of a verb. As an Adjective, it limits substantives and agrees with them in gender, number, and case (§ 286). As a Verb, it has distinctions of time (§ 489) and often takes an object.

Distinctions of Tense in Participles

489. Participles denote time as present, past, or future with respect to the time of the verb in their clause.

Thus the Present Participle represents the action as in progress at the time indicated by the tense of the verb, the Perfect as completed, and the Future as still to take place.

490. The Present Participle has several of the special uses of the Present Indicative. Thus it may denote—

1. An action continued in the present but begun in the past (§ 466):
   quaerentī mihi iam diū certa rēs nūla veniebat in mentem (Fam. iv. 13),
   though I had long sought, no certain thing came to my mind.

1 For the Syntax of the Infinitive, see §§ 451 ff., 486.
2. Attempted action (§ 467): —
C. Flaminio restitit agrum Pietem dividit (Cat. M. 11), he resisted Flamininus when attempting to divide the Picene territory.

3. Rarely (in poetry and later Latin) futurity or purpose, with a verb of motion: —
Eurypylum scitantem oracula mittimus (Aen. ii. 114), we send Eurypylus to consult the oracle. [Cf. § 468.]

**491. The Perfect Participle of a few deponent verbs is used nearly in the sense of a Present.**

Such are, regularly, ratus, solitus, veritus; commonly, arbitratus, fisus, ausus, secutus, and occasionally others, especially in later writers: —
rem incredibilem ratī (Sall. Cat. 48), thinking the thing incredible.
Insidiās veritus (B. G. ii. 11), fearing an ambuscale.
cohortātus militēs docuit (B. C. iii. 80), encouraging the men, he showed.
irātus dixisti (Mur. 62), you spoke in a passion.
ad pāgnam congressī (Liv. iv. 10), meeting in fight.

**492. The Latin has no Present Participle in the passive.**

The place of such a form is supplied usually by a clause with dum or cum: —
obiere dum calciuntur mātātinō duo Caesarēs (Plin. N. H. vii. 181), two Caesars died while having their shoes put on in the morning.
mēque ista dēlectant cum Latīnū dīcuntur (Acad. i. 18), those things please me when they are spoken in Latin.

**Note.** — These constructions are often used when a participle might be employed: —
dic, hospes, Spartae nōs tē hic vidisse iacentis, dum sācetis patriae lēgibus obsequīmur (Tusc. i. 191), tell it, stranger, at Sparta, that you saw us lying here obedient to our country’s sacred laws. [Here dum obsequīmur is a translation of the Greek present participle πανθρώνον.]
dum [Ulixēs] sibi, dum sociis reditūn parat (Hor. Ep. i. 2. 21), Ulysses, while securing the return of himself and his companions. [In Greek: ἀνάφθωνον.]

**493. The Latin has no Perfect Participle in the active voice.**
The deficiency is supplied —

1. In deponents by the perfect passive form with its regular active meaning: —
nam singulās [nāvis] nostrī consectāti expugnāvērunt (B. G. iii. 15), for our men, having overtaken them one by one, captured them by boarding.

**Note.** — The perfect participle of several deponent verbs may be either active or passive in meaning (§ 190. b).
2. In other verbs, either by the perfect passive participle in the ablative absolute (§ 420. n.) or by a temporal clause (especially with cum or postquam): —

itaque convocātis centurionibus miliēs certīōrēs facit (B. G. iii. 5), and so,

having called the centurions together, he informs the soldiers (the centurions having been called together).

cum vēnisset animadvertit collem (id. vii. 44), having come (when he had come), he noticed a hill.

postquam id animum advertit cōpiās suās Caesār in proximum collem subdēcit
(B. G. i. 24), having observed this (after he had observed this) Caesār led his troops to the nearest hill.

Uses of Participles

494. The Present and Perfect Participles are sometimes used as attributives, nearly like adjectives: —

aeger et flagrāns animus (Tac. Ann. iii. 54), his sick and passionate mind.

cum antiquissimum sententiam tum comprobātam (Div. i. 11), a view at once most ancient and well approved.

signa numquam ferē mentientia (id. i. 15), signs hardly ever deceitful.

auspicīlis ūtuntur caōctis (id. i. 27), they use forced auspices.

a. Participles often become complete adjectives, and may be compared, or used as nouns: —

quō mulierē esset rēs cautior (Cacc. 11), that the matter might be more secure for the woman.

in illis artibus praestantissimis (De Or. i. 217), preëminent in those arts.

sibi indigentēs et corpōrē deservientēs (Legg. i. 39), the self-indulgent, and slaves to the body (indulging themselves and serving the body).

rēcte factā paria esse débent (Par. 29), right deeds (things rightly done) ought to be like in value (see § 321. b).

male partā male dilābuntr (Phil. ii. 65), ill got, ill spent (things ill acquired are ill spent).

cōnsuetūdō valentis (De Or. ii. 186), the habit of a man in health.

495. Participles are often used as Predicate Adjectives. As such they may be joined to the subject by esse or a copulative verb (see § 283): —

Galāia est divīsa (B. G. i. 1), Gaul is divided.

locus qui nunc saeptus est (Liv. i. 8), the place which is now enclosed.

vidētis ut senectūs sit operōsa et semper agēns a liquid et mulēns (Cat. M. 20),
you see how busy old age is, always aiming and trying at something.

nēmō adhuc convenire mē voluit cui fuerim occupātus (id. 32), nobody hitlerto has [ever] wished to converse with me, to whom I have been "engaged.”
NOTE.—From this predicate use arise the compound tenses of the passive,—the participle of completed action with the incomplete tenses of esse developing the idea of past time: as, interfecit est, he was (or has been) killed, lit. he is having-been-killed (i.e. already slain).

The perfect participle used with fut. etc. was perhaps originally an intensified expression in the popular language for the perfect, pluperfect, etc.

At times these forms indicate a state of affairs no longer existing:—
cōtētu quoque edēm locō sitām fuisset memoratur (Livy i. 36. 5), they say that a wheinstone was (once) deposited in this same place. [At the time of writing it was no longer there.]

arma quae fīxa in partibus fuerant, humi inventa sunt (Div. i. 71), the arms which had been fastened on the walls were found upon the ground.

But more frequently they are not to be distinguished from the forms with sum etc.

The construction is found occasionally at all periods, but is most common in Livy and later writers.

496. The Present and Perfect Participles are often used as a predicate, where in English a phrase or a subordinate clause would be more natural.

In this use the participles express time, cause, occasion, condition, concession, characteristic (or description), manner, means, attendant circumstances:—

volventes hostilia cadāvera amicīcum reperiēbant (Sall. Cat. 81), while rolling over the corpses of the enemy they found a friend. [Time.]
paullum commorātus, signa canere iubet (id. 56), after delaying a little while, he orders them to give the signal. [Time.]
longius prēsequī veritus, ad Cicerōnem pervēnit (B. G. v. 52), because he feared to follow further, he came to Cicero. [Cause.]
qui secrēt laxās dare iussus habēnās (Aen. i. 63), who might know how to give them loose reiō when bidden. [Occasion.]
damnātum poenā diē sequi opōrēbat (B. G. i. 4), if condemned, punishment must overtake him. [Condition.]
salūtem inspērantibus reddīstū (Marc. 21), you have restored a safety for which we did not hope (to us) but hoping. [Concession.]
Dardanianus caput ecce puer dētēctus (Aen. x. 133), the Trojan boy with his head uncovered. [Description.]
nec trepidēs in ūsum poscentiēs aevī pauca (Hor. Od. ii. 11. 5), be not anxious for the needs of age that demands little. [Characteristic.]
incitāti fugā montis alitissimīs petēbant (B. C. iii. 98), in headlong flight they made for the highest mountains. [Manner.]
mūliōs sublevātī aliī ab alīis māgnum partem īnīeris cōnīcercent (id. i. 68), the soldiers, helped up by each other, accomplished a considerable part of the route. [Means.]
hōc laudāns, Pompōnīus idem īnūrāvit (id. iii. 87), approving this, Pompey took the same oath. [Attendant Circumstance.]
aut sedēns ant ambulāns disputābārum (Tusc. i. 7), I conducted the discussion either sitting or walking. [Attendant Circumstance.]
Note 1.—These uses are especially frequent in the Ablative Absolute (§ 420).

Note 2.—A coordinate clause is sometimes compressed into a perfect participle: —

instructēs ordīnēs in locum aequum dēdīcit (Sall. Cat. 59), he draws up the lines,

and leads them to level ground.

ut hōs trāductōs necaret (B. G. v. 6), that he might carry them over and put them
to death.

Note 3.—A participle with a negative often expresses the same idea which in

English is given by without and a verbal noun: as, —miserum est nihil prōcientem

angi (N. D. iii. 14), it is wretched to vex oneself without effecting anything.

Note 4.—Acceptum and expēnsam as predicates with ferre and referre are book-

keeping terms: as, —quās pecūniās ferēbat eis expēnsās (Verr. ii. 170), what sums he

charged to them.

497. A noun and a passive participle are often so united that

the participle and not the noun contains the main idea: — 1

ante conditam condendamque urbe (Liv. Pref.), before the city was built or

building.

illī libertātem immīnūtam civium Rōmānōrum nōn tulerunt; vōs ēreptam

vitam neglegētis (Manil. 11), they did not endure the infringement of the

citizens’ liberty; will you disregard the destruction of their lives?

post nātōs hominēs (Brut. 224), since the creation of man.

iam ā condītā urbe (Phil. iii. 8), even from the founding of the city.

a. The perfect participle with a noun in agreement, or in the

neuter as an abstract noun, is used in the ablative with opus, need

(cf. § 411. a): —

opus factō est viāticō (Pl. Trin. 887), there is need of laying in provision.

mātūrātō opus est (Liv. viii. 13. 17), there is need of haste.

b. The perfect participle with habēō (rarely with other verbs) has

almost the same meaning as a perfect active, but denotes the continued effect of the action of the verb: — 2

fidēm quam habent spectātām iam et diū cōgnitām (Caecil. 11), my fidelity,

which they have proved and long known.

cohorūs in aciē lxxvīrō cōstitūtās habēbat (B. C. iii. 89), he had eighty cohorts

stationed in line of battle.

defāriōs ducēs captōs iam et cōmprehēnsōs tenētis (Cat. iii. 16), you have now

captured the infamous leaders and hold them in custody.

c. A verb of effecting or the like may be used in combination with

the perfect participle of a transitive verb to express the action of that

verb more forcibly: —

1 Compare the participle in indirect discourse in Greek (Goodwin’s Greek Grammar,

§ 1588); and the English “T was at the royal feast for Persia won” (Dryden), i.e. for

the conquest of Persia.

2 The perfect with have, in modern languages of Latin stock, has grown out of this

use of habēō.
praefectōs suōs multō missōs fecérunt (Verr. iii. 134), many discharged their officers (made dismissed).

hic trānsactum reddet omne (Pl. Capt. 345), he will get it all done (restore it finished).

ademptum tibi iam faxō omnem metum (Ter. Haut. 341), I will relieve you of all fear (make it taken away).

īllam tibi incēnsam dabō (Ter. Ph. 974), I will make her angry with you.

Note. — Similarly vōō (with its compounds) and cupīō, with a perfect participle without esse (cf. § 486, a).

(a) After verbs denoting an action of the senses the present participle in agreement with the object is nearly equivalent to the infinitive of indirect discourse (§ 580), but expresses the action more vividly:

ut cum nēmō unquam in equō sedentem viderit (Verr. v. 27), so that no one ever saw him sitting on a horse. [Cf. Tusc. iii. 31.]

Note. — The same construction is used after faciō, ināscō, and the like, with the name of an author as subject: as, — Xenophōn facit Sōcratem disputātem (N. D. i. 31), Xenophōn represents Socrates disputing.

Future Participle (Active)

498. The Future Participle (except futūrus and ventūrus) is rarely used in simple agreement with a noun, except by poets and later writers.

(a) The future participle is chiefly used with the forms of esse (often omitted in the infinitive) in the Active Periphrastic Conjugation (see § 195): —

morere, Diagorā; nōn enim in caelum ascēnsūrus es (Tusc. i. 111), die, Diagoras, for you are not likely to rise to heaven.

spērat adulēscens diū sē victūrum (Cat. M. 68), the young man hopes to live long (that he shall live long).

eque petitūrus umquam cōnsulatūm viseretūr (Off. iii. 79), and did not seem likely ever to be a candidate for the consulship.

(b) With the past tenses of esse in the indicative, the future participle is often equivalent to the pluperfect subjunctive (§ 517, d). For futūrum fuisset, see § 589, b.

499. By later writers and the poets the Future Participle is often used in simple agreement with a substantive to express —

1. Likelihood or certainty: —

rem ausus pōs fāmāe habītūrum (Liv. ii. 10), having dared a thing which would have more repute.
GERUNDIVE

2. Purpose, intention, or readiness:
ēgreditur castris Rōmānus vāllum in vāsātūs (Liv. iii. 60. 8), the Roman comes out of the camp with the intention of attacking the rampart.
dispersōs per agrōs militēs equitābus in vāsātūs (id. xxxi. 36), while the horse were ready to attack the soldiers scattered through the fields.
sī peritātūs abīs (Aen. ii. 675), if you are going away to perish.

3. Apodosis:
dedit mihi quantum maximum potuit, datūtūs amplius sī potuisset (Plin. Ep. iii. 21. 6), he gave me as much as he could, ready to give me more if he had been able. [Here datūtūs is equivalent to dedisset.]

Gerundive (Future Passive Participle)

Note. — The participle in -dūs, commonly called the Gerundive, has two distinct uses: —
(1) Its predicate and attribute use as Participle or Adjective (§ 500).
(2) Its use with the meaning of the Gerund (§ 503). This may be called its gerundive use.

500. The Gerundive when used as a Participle or an Adjective is always passive, denoting necessity, obligation, or propriety.
In this use of the Gerundive the following points are to be observed: —

1. The gerundive is sometimes used, like the present and perfect participles, in simple agreement with a noun:

fortem et cōnservandum virum (Mil. 104), a brave man, and worthy to be preserved.
gravis iniūria facta est et nōn ferenda (Flacc. 84), a grave and intolerable wrong has been done.

2. The most frequent use of the gerundive is with the forms of esse in the Second (or passive) Periphrastic Conjugation (see § 196): —
nōn agitanda rēs erit (Verr. v. 179), will not the thing have to be agitated?

3. The neuter gerundive of both transitive and intransitive verbs may be used impersonally in the second periphrastic conjugation.
With verbs that take the dative or ablative, an object may be expressed in the appropriate case; with transitive verbs, an object in the accusative is sometimes found: —
tempori servīendum est (Fam. ix. 7. 2), one must obey the time.
legibus pāreandum est, the laws must be obeyed.
ūtendum exercitātiōnibus modicis (Cat. M. 36), we must use moderate exercise.
agitandum est vigiliās (Pl. Trin. 809), I have got to stand guard.
via quam nōbis ingrediendum sit (Cat. M. 6), the way we have to enter.
4. After verbs signifying to give, deliver, agree for, have, receive, undertake, demand, a gerundive in agreement with the object is used to express purpose:—

redemptor qui columnam illam condixerat faciendam (Div. ii. 47), the contractor who had undertaken to make that column. [The regular construction with this class of verbs.]

aedem Castoris habuit tuendam (Verr. ii. 1. 150), he had the temple of Castor to take care of.

návis atque onera adservanda cúrábat (id. v. 146), he took care that the ships and cargoes should be kept.

GERUND

501. The Gerund is the neuter of the Gerundive, used substantively in the Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative.

502. The Gerund expresses an action of the verb in the form of a verbal noun.

As a noun the gerund is itself governed by other words; as a verb it may take an object in the proper case:—

ars bene disserendi et vera ac falsa diúdicandi (De Or. ii. 157), the art of discoursing well, and distinguishing the true and the false.

Note.—The Nominative of the gerund is supplied by the Infinitive. Thus in the example above, the verbal nouns discoursing and distinguishing, if used in the nominative, would be expressed by the infinitives disserere and diúdicare.

The Gerund is the neuter of the gerundive used impersonally, but retaining the verbal idea sufficiently to govern an object. It may therefore be regarded as a noun (cf. mátrátō opus est, § 497. a) with a verbal force (cf. istanc táctā, p. 240, footnote).

GERUND AND GERUNDIVE

503. When the Gerund would have an object in the Accusative, the Gerundive is generally used instead. The gerundive agrees with its noun, which takes the case that the gerund would have had:—

parātiōrēs ad omnia periculā subeundā (B. G. i. 5), readier to undergo all dangers. [Here subeundā agrees with periculā, which is itself governed by ad. The (inadmissible) construction with the gerund would be ad subeundum periculā; ad governing the gerund, and the gerund governing the accusative periculā.] For details, see §§ 504-507.

1 Such verbs are accipiō, adnōtō, attribuō, condücō, cūrō, dēnōtō, dēposcō, dō, dividō, dōnō, edicō, edocē, erō, habeō, locō, mandō, obiciō, permittō, petō, pōnō, praebēō, prōpinō, relinquō, rogō, suscipiō, trādō, vovēō.

2 The gerundive construction is probably the original one.
Note 1. — In this use the gerund and the gerundive are translated in the same way, but have really a different construction. The gerundive is a passive participle, and agrees with its noun, though in translation we change the voice, just as we may translate vigiliae agitandae sunt (guard must be kept) by I must stand guard.

Note 2. — In the gerundive construction the verbs ētōr, fruor, etc., are treated like transitive verbs governing the accusative, as they do in early Latin (§ 410. a. n. 1): as, — ad perfundendas voluptātēs (Off. i. 25), for enjoying pleasures.

α. The following examples illustrate the parallel constructions of Gerund and Gerundive:

Gen. cōnsilium { urbem capiendī urbis capiendae } a design of taking the city.

Dat. dat operam { agrōs colendō agris colendiō } he attends to tilling the fields.

Acc. veniunt ad { mīhi pārendum pācem petendum } they come { to obey me. to seek peace.

Abl. terit tempus { scribendiō epistulās scribendiō epistulīs } he spends time in writing letters.

Note 1. — The gerund with a direct object is practically limited to the Genitive and the Ablative (without a preposition); even in these cases the gerundive is commoner.

Note 2. — The gerund or gerundive is often found coördinated with nominal constructions, and sometimes even in apposition with a noun: —

1) in forō, in ēcuriā, in amīcorum pērculis pūpulandīs (Phil. vii. 7), in the forum, in the senate-house, in defending my friends in jeopardy.
2) ad rēs diversissimās, pārendum atque imperānūm (Liv. xxii. 4), for the most widely different things, obeying and commanding.

Genitive of the Gerund and Gerundive

504. The Genitive of the Gerund and Gerundive is used after nouns or adjectives, either as subjective or objective genitive: —
vivendi finis est optimus (Cat. M. 72), it is the best end of living. [Subjective.]
neque cōnsili habendī neque arma capiendī spatiiō datō (B. G. iv. 14), time being given neither for forming plans nor for taking arms. [Objective.]
nōn tam commūtandārum quam evertendārum rērum cupidōs (Off. ii. 3), desirous not so much of changing as of destroying the state. [Objective.]

Note 1. — In these uses the gerund and the gerundive are about equally common.
Note 2. — In a few phrases the Infinitive is used with nouns which ordinarily have the genitive of the gerund or gerundive: as, — tempus est abire, it is time to go.

α. The genitive of the gerund sometimes takes a direct object, especially a neuter pronoun or a neuter adjective used substantively: —
nūlla causa īusta cuiquam esse potest contrā patriam arma capiendī (Phil. ii. 53), no one can have a just cause for taking up arms against his country.
artem vēra ac falsa diūdicandī (De Or. ii. 157), the art of distinguishing true from false.
Note 1. — The genitive of the gerund or gerundive is used (especially in later Latin) as a predicate genitive. When so used it often expresses purpose: — quae postquam gloriósa modo neque bellí patrándi cognóvit (Lug. 88), when he perceived that these were only brilliant deeds and not likely to end the war. Aegyptum profíciscitur cognoscendae antiquitátis (Tac. Ann. ii. 59), he sets out for Egypt to study old times.

b. The genitive of the gerund or gerundive with causā or grátia expresses purpose (§ 533. b): —

pābulandi aut frumentandi causā prógressi (B. C. i. 48), having advanced for the purpose of collecting fodder or supplies.

vitandae suspicionis causā (Cat. i. 19), in order to avoid suspicion.

simulandi grátiā (Lug. 37), in order to deceive.

exercendae memóriae grátiā (Cat. M. 36), for the sake of training the memory.

c. The genitive of the gerund is occasionally limited by a noun or pronoun (especially a personal pronoun in the plural) in the objective genitive instead of taking a direct object: — réiciendi trium iúdicum potestás (Verr. ii. 77), the power of challenging three jurors (of the rejecting of three jurors).

sui colligendi facultás (B. G. iii. 6), the opportunity to recover themselves.

Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive

505. The Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used in a few expressions after verbs: —

diem præstítit operi faciendō (Verr. ii. 1. 148), he appointed a day for doing the work.

praeesse agrō colendō (Rosc. Am. 50), to take charge of cultivating the land.

esse solvendō, to be able to pay (to be for paying).

Note. — The dative of the gerund with a direct object is never found in classic Latin, but occurs twice in Plautus.

a. The dative of the gerund and gerundive is used after adjectives, especially those which denote fitness or adaptability: —

genus armórūm aptum tegendis corporibus (Liv. xxxii. 10), a sort of armor suited to the defence of the body.

✓ reliqua tempora dēmetendis fructibus et percipiendīs accommodátās sunt (Cat. M. 70), the other seasons are fitted to reap and gather in the harvest.

perferendīs militum mandātīs idōneus (Tac. Ann. i. 23), suitable for carrying out the instructions of the soldiers.

Note. — This construction is very common in Livy and later writers, infrequent in classical prose.

1 Such are praeesse, operam dare, diem dicere, locum capere.

2 Such are accommodátus, aptus, ineptus, bonus, habilis, idōneus, pär, útilis, inútilis. But the accusative with ad is common with most of these (cf. § 385. a).
b. The dative of the gerund and gerundive is used in certain legal phrases after nouns meaning officers, offices, elections, etc., to indicate the function or scope of the office etc.:—
comitia cōnsulibus rogandis (Div. i. 33), elections for nominating consuls.
triumvir colōnis dēdīcandis (Iug. 42), a triumvir for planting colonies.
triumviri rei pūblicae cōnstituendae (title of the Triumvirate), triumviris (a commission of three) for settling the government.

Accusative of the Gerund and Gerundive

506. The Accusative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used after the preposition ad, to denote Purpose (cf. § 533):—
mē vocās ad scribendum (Or. 34), you summon me to write.
vivis nōn ad dēpōndam sed ad cōnfirmandam audāciām (Cat. i. 4), you live not to put off but to confirm your daring.
nactus ađītās ad ea cōnandā (B. C. i. 31), having found means to undertake these things.

Note 1.—Other prepositions appear in this construction: inter and ob a few times, circa, in, ante, and a few others very rarely: as, inter agentūm (Ecl. ix. 24), while driving.

Note 2.—The Accusative of the gerund with a preposition never takes a direct object in classic Latin.

Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive

507. The Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used (1) to express manner,¹ means, cause, etc.; (2) after Comparatives; and (3) after the propositions ab, dē, ex, in, and (rarely) prō:—
(1) multa policendō persuādet (Iug. 46), he persuades by large promises.
Latinē loquendō cuvis pār (Brut. 128), equal to any man in speaking Latin.
his ipsīs legendīs (Cat. M. 21), by reading these very things.
obscuram atque humilēm conciendō ad sē multitudinem (Liv. i. 8), calling to them a mean and obscure multitude.
(2) nūllum officium referendā grātiā magis necessāriōm est (Off. i. 47), no duty is more important than repaying favors.
(3) in rē gerendā versāri (Cat. M. 17), to be employed in conducting affairs.

Note 1.—The Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive is also very rarely used with verbs and adjectives: as,,—nec continuandō abstitit magistrātū (Liv. ix. 34), he did not desist from continuing his magistracy.

Note 2.—The ablative of the gerund rarely takes a direct object in classic prose.

¹ In this use the ablative of the gerund is, in later writers nearly, and in medieval writers entirely, equivalent to a present participle: as,—cum ūnā diērum plēndō sēdīsset, quidam miles generōsus iāxtā eam equitandō vēnit (Gesta Romanorum, 66 [58]), as one day she sat weeping, a certain knight came riding by (compare § 507, fourth example). Hence come the Italian and Spanish forms of the present participle (as mandando, esperando), the true participial form becoming an adjective in those languages.
SUPINE

508. The Supine is a verbal abstract of the fourth declension (§ 94. b), having no distinction of tense or person, and limited to two uses. (1) The form in -um is the Accusative of the end of motion (§ 428. 3). (2) The form in -ā is usually Dative of purpose (§ 382), but the Ablative was early confused with it.

509. The Supine in -um is used after verbs of motion to express purpose. It may take an object in the proper case: —

quid est, imusne sessum? ēstī ademītum vēnīmus tē, non fāgītātum (De Or. iii. 17), how now, shall we be seated? though we have come to remind, not to entreat you.

nāptum dare (collocāre), to give in marriage.
vēnērunt questum iniūriās (Liv. iii. 25), they came to complain of wrongs.

Note 1.—The supine in -um is especially common with ēō, and with the passive infinitive ēī forms the future infinitive passive: —

fuēre civēs qui rem pūblicam perditum ērent (Sall. Cat. 36), there were citizens who went about to ruin the republic.

si séret se trucidātum ēri (Div. ii. 22), if he (Pompey) had known that he was going to be murdered. [Rare except in Cicero. For the more usual way of expressing the future passive infinitive, see § 569. 3. a.]

Note 2.—The supine in -um is occasionally used when motion is merely implied.

510. The Supine in -ā1 is used with a few adjectives and with the nouns fās, nefās, and opus, to denote an action in reference to which the quality is asserted: —

rem nōn modo visī foedam, sed etiam auditā (Phil. ii. 63), a thing not only shocking to see, but even to hear of.

quae rant quid optimum factū sit (Verr. ii. 1. 68), they ask what is best to do.

si hoc ēās est dictū (Tusc. v. 38), if this is lawful to say.

vidētis nefās esse' dictū miseram fuisse tālem senectūtem (Cat. M. 13), you see it is a sin to say that such an old age was wretched.

Note 1.—The supine in -ā is thus in appearance an Ablative of Specification (§ 418).

Note 2.—The supine in -ā is found especially with such adjectives as indicate an effect on the senses or the feelings, and those which denote ease, difficulty, and the like. But with faciūs, difficilīs, and ūcundūs, ad with the gerund is more common: —

nec visū facilis nec dictū adfābilīs ēālī (Aen. iii. 621), he is not pleasant for any man to look at or address.

difficilīs ad distinguendum similītūdō (De Or. ii. 212), a likeness difficult to distinguish.

Note 3.—With all these adjectives the poets often use the Infinitive in the same sense: as, — faciūs aurem praebere (Prop. ii. 21. 13), indulgent to lend an ear.

Note 4.—The supine in -ā with a verb is extremely rare: as,— pudēt dictū (Tac. Agr. 32), it is a shame to tell. [On the analogy of pudendum dictū.]

1 The only common supines in -ā are auditū, dictū, factū, inventū, memorātū, nātū, visū. In classic use this supine is found in comparatively few verbs. It is never followed by an object-case.
§ 511. CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

The Conditional Sentence differs from other complex sentences in this, that the form of the main clause (apodosis) is determined in some degree by the nature of the subordinate clause (protasis) upon the truth of which the whole statement depends. Like all complex sentences, however, the Conditional Sentence has arisen from the use of two independent sentence-forms to express the parts of a thought which was too complicated to be fully expressed by a simple sentence. But because the thoughts thus expressed are in reality closely related, as parts of a single whole, the sentences which represent them are also felt to be mutually dependent, even though the relation is not expressed by any connecting word. Thus, *Speak the word: my servant shall be healed* is a simpler and an earlier form of expression than *If thou speak the word, etc.*

The Conditional Particles were originally pronouns without conditional meaning: thus, *si, if*, is a weak demonstrative of the same origin as *sic*, so (śi-ce like hi-ce, see § 215. 5), and had originally the meaning of *in that way*, or *in some way*. Its relative sense (*if*) seems to come from its use with *sī* to make a pair of correlatives: *thus . . . thus* (see § 512. b).

In its origin the Conditional Sentence assumed one of two forms. The condition was from the first felt to be a condition, not a fact or a command; but, as no special sentence-form for a condition was in use, it employed for its expression either a statement of fact (with the Indicative) or a form of mild command (the Subjunctive). From the former have come all the uses of the Indicative in protasis; from the latter all the uses of the Subjunctive in protasis. The Apodosis has either (1) the Indicative, expressing the conclusion as a fact, and the Present and Perfect Subjunctive, expressing it originally as *future*—and hence more or less *doubtful*—or (2) the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive expressing it as *futūrum in praeteritó*,1 and so unfurfilled in the present or past. Thus,—*rīdēs, māiēre cachinnō concutitur, you laugh, he shakes with more boisterous laughter, is the original form for the Indicative in protasis and apodosis; si rīdēs originally means merely you laugh in some way or other, and so, later, if you laugh. So rogēs Aristōnem, negēt, ask Aristo, he would say no, is the original form of the subjunctive in protasis and apodosis; si rogēs would mean ask in some way or other. In si rogāres, negāret, the Imperfect rogāres transfers the command of rogēs to past time,2 with the meaning *suppose you had asked*, and si would have the same meaning as before; while negāret transfers the future idea of negēt to past time, and means he was going to deny. Now the stating of this supposition at all gives rise to the implication that it is *untrue in point of fact,—because, if it were true, there would ordinarily be no need to state it as a supposition: for it would then be a simple fact, and as such would be put in the indicative.*3 Such a condition or conclusion

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1 The *futūrum in praeteritó* is a tense *future relatively to a time absolutely past*. It denotes a future act transferred to the point of view of past time, and hence is naturally expressed by a past tense of the Subjunctive: thus *dīxisset, he would have said—dictūrum futūrē, he was about to say [but did not].* As that which looks towards the future from some point in the past has a natural limit in present time, such a tense (the imperfect subjunctive) came naturally to be used to express a *present condition purely ideal, that is to say, contrary to fact.*

2 Compare *petiēt, dīcēret, he should rather have said* (§ 439. b).

3 There are, however, some cases in which this implication does not arise: as,—*decēns centēna sæsēsēs, nil erat in loculis (Hor. S. i. 3. 15), if you'd given him a million, there was nothing in his coffers.*
(originally past, meaning *suppose you had asked* [yesterday], *he was going to deny*) came to express an unfulfilled condition in the present: *suppose (or if) you were now asking, he would [now] deny* — just as in English *ought*, which originally meant *owed*, has come to express a present obligation.

For the classification of Conditional Sentences, see § 513.

**PROTASIS AND APODOSIS**

512. A complete Conditional Sentence consists of two clauses, the Protasis and the Apodosis.

The clause containing the *condition* is called the **Protasis**; the clause containing the *conclusion* is called the **Apodosis**:—

- *si qui exire volunt [protasis], cōnivēre possum [apodosis]* (Cat. ii. 27), *if any wish to depart, I can keep my eyes shut.*
- *si est in exsilii [protasis], quid amplius postulātis [apodosis]* (Lig. 13), *if he is in exile, what more do you ask?*

It should be carefully noted that the Apodosis is the *main* clause and the Protasis the *dependent* clause.

**a.** The Protasis is regularly introduced by the conditional particle *si, if*, or one of its compounds.

**Note.** — These compounds are *sin, nisi, etiam si, et si, tamen si, tamenetsi* (see Conditional and Concessive Particles, p. 138). An Indefinite Relative, or any relative or concessive word, may also serve to introduce a conditional clause: see Conditional Relative Clauses (§§ 519, 542); Concessive Clauses (§ 527).

**b.** The Apodosis is often introduced by some correlative word or phrase: as, *ita, tum* (rarely *sic*), or *ea condicio* etc.:—

- *ita enim senectūs honesta est, si se ipsa definēt* (Cat. M. 38), *on this condition is old age honorable, if it defends itself.*
- *si quidem me amāret, tum istuc prōdesset* (Ter. Eun. 446), *if he loved me, then this would be profitable.*
- *sic scribēs aliquid, si vacābis* (Att. xii. 38. 2), *if you are (shall be) at leisure, then you will write something.*

**c.** The Apodosis is the principal clause of the conditional sentence, but may at the same time be subordinate to some other clause, and so appear in the form of a Participle, an Infinitive, or a Phrase:—

- *sepultūrā quoque prohibērī, ni rex humāri iussisset* (Q. C. viii. 2. 12), *intending also to deprive him of burial, unless the king had ordered him to be interred.*

1 "There was a certain lender which ought him five hundred pieces." — Tyndale's *New Testament.*
quod si praeterea nemo sequatur, tamen se cum sola decima legione iturus
esse (B. G. i. 40. 14), but if no one else should follow, he would go with
the tenth legion alone.

si quos adversum proelium commoveret, hos reperire posse (id. 40. 8), if the
loss of a battle alarmed any, they might find, etc.

NOTE.—When the Apodosis itself is in Indirect Discourse, or in any other depend-
ent construction, the verb of the Protasis is regularly in the Subjunctive (as in the above
examples, see § 589).

CLASSIFICATION OF CONDITIONS

513. Conditions are either (1) Particular or (2) General.

1. A Particular Condition refers to a definite act or series of acts
occurring at some definite time.

2. A General Condition refers to any one of a class of acts which
may occur (or may have occurred) at any time.

514. The principal or typical forms of Conditional Sentences
may be exhibited as follows:

PARTICULAR CONDITIONS

A. SIMPLE CONDITIONS (nothing implied as to fulfilment).

1. Present Time

Present Indicative in both clauses:—

si adest, bene est, if he is [now] here, it is well.

2. Past Time

Imperfect or Perfect Indicative in both clauses:—

si aderat, bene erat, if he was [then] here, it was well.

si adfuit, bene fuit, if he has been [was] here, it has been [was] well.

B. FUTURE CONDITIONS (as yet unfulfilled)

1. More Vivid

a. Future Indicative in both clauses:—

si aderit, bene erit, if he is (shall be) here, it will be well.

b. Future Perfect Indicative in protasis, Future Indicative in

apodosis:—

si adfuerit, bene erit, if he is (shall have been) here, it will [then] be well.
2. Less Vivid

\(a\). Present Subjunctive in both clauses:

\[\text{si adsit, bene sit, if he should be (or were to be) here, it would be well.}\]

\(b\). Perfect Subjunctive in protasis, Present Subjunctive in apodosis:

\[\text{si advenerit, bene sit, if he should be (should have been) here, it would [then] be well.}\]

C. Conditions Contrary to Fact

1. Present Time

Imperfect Subjunctive in both clauses:

\[\text{si addesset, bene esset, if he were [now] here, it would be well (but he is not here).}\]

2. Past Time

Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses:

\[\text{si addississet, bene fuisse, if he had [then] been here, it would have been well (but he was not here).}\]

Note.—The use of tenses in Protasis is very loose in English. Thus \(\text{if he is alive now}\) is a present condition, to be expressed in Latin by the Present Indicative; \(\text{if he is alive next year}\) is a future condition, expressed in Latin by the Future Indicative. Again, \(\text{if he were here now}\) is a present condition contrary to fact, and would be expressed by the Imperfect Subjunctive; \(\text{if he were to see me thus}\) is a future condition less vivid, to be expressed by the Present Subjunctive; and so too, \(\text{if you advised him, he would attend may be future less vivid}\).

D. General Conditions

General Conditions do not usually differ in form from Particular Conditions (\(A, B,\) and \(C\)), but are sometimes distinguished in the cases following:

1. Present General Condition (Indefinite Time)

\(a\). Present Subjunctive second person singular (Indefinite Subject) in protasis, Present Indicative in apodosis:

\[\text{si hoc dicás, créditur, if any one [ever] says this, it is [always] believed.}\]

\(b\). Perfect Indicative in protasis, Present Indicative in apodosis:

\[\text{si quid dixit, créditur, if he [ever] says anything, it is [always] believed.}\]

1 In most English verbs the Preterite (or Past) Subjunctive is identical in form with the Preterite Indicative. Thus in such a sentence as \(\text{if he loved his father, he would not say this}\), the verb \text{loved} is really a Preterite Subjunctive, though this does not appear from the inflection. In the verb \text{to be}, however, the Subjunctive \text{were} has been preserved and differs in form from the indicative \text{was}.}
2. Past General Condition (Repeated Action in Past Time)

a. Pluperfect Indicative in protasis, Imperfect Indicative in apodosis:

si quid dixerat, crédebátur, if he [ever] said anything, it was [always] believed.

b. Imperfect Subjunctive in protasis, Imperfect Indicative in apodosis:

si quid dicercet, crédebátur, if he [ever] said anything, it was [always] believed (= whatever he said was always believed).¹

PARTICULAR CONDITIONS

Simple Present and Past Conditions — Nothing Implied

515. In the statement of Present and Past conditions whose falsity is not implied, the Present and Past tenses of the Indicative are used in both Protasis and Apodosis:

si tū exercitusque valētis, bene est (Fam. v. 2), if you and the army are well, it is well. [Present Condition.]

haec igitur, si Rōmae es; sin abes, aut etiam si aedes, haec negotia sic sē habent (Att. v. 18), this, then, if you are at Rome; but if you are away—or even if you are there—these matters are as follows. [Present Condition.]

si Caesarem probātis, in mē offensītis (B. C. ii. 82. 10), if you favor Caesar, you find fault with me. [Present Condition.]

si qui māgnis ingenīs in eō genere exstītērunt, nōn satis Graccōrum glōriae respondērunt (Tusc. i. 3), if any have shown themselves of great genius in that department, they have failed to compete with the glory of the Greeks. [Past General Condition, not distinguished in form from Particular.]

accepī Rōmā sine epistulā tua fasciculum litterārum in quo, si modo valuisti et Rōmae fuisti, Philótimi dūcē esse culpam nōn tuam (Att. v. 17), I have received from Rome a bundle of letters without any from you, which, provided you have been well and at Rome, I take to be the fault of Philotimus, not yours. [Mixed: Past condition and Present conclusion.]

quās litterās, si Rōmae es, vidēbis putēsne reddendās (id. v. 18), as to this letter, if you are at Rome, you will see whether in your opinion it ought to be delivered. [Mixed: Present and Future.]

si nēmō impetrāvit, adrogaṃtē rogā (Lig. 30), if no one has succeeded in obtaining it, my request is presumptuous. [Past and Present.]

¹ Cf. the Greek forms corresponding to the various types of conditions:—

A. 1. el ἐπερασα τοῦτο, καλῶς ἔχει. 2. el ἐπερασα τοῦτο, καλῶς ἔχειν.
B. 1. εἶν πράσομ εἶν, καλῶς ἔχει. 2. εἶν πράσομ εἶν, καλῶς ἀν ἔχει.
C. 1. el ἐπερασα τοῦτο, καλῶς ἄν ἔχειν. 2. el ἐπερασα τοῦτο, καλῶς ἄν ἔχειν.
D. 1. εἶν τίς κλέντῃ, κολάζεται. 2. εἶν τίς κλέπτῃ, ἑκολάζετο.
a. In these conditions the apodosis need not always be in the Indicative, but may assume any form, according to the sense:—

si placet . . . videāmus (Cat. M. 15), if you please, let us see. [Hortatory Subjunctive, § 439.]

si nōndum satīs cernītis, recordāmini (Mil. 61), if you do not yet see clearly, recollect. [Imperative.]

si quid habēs certius, velim scire (Att. iv. 10), if you have any trustworthy information, I should like to know it. [Subjunctive of Modesty, § 447. 1.]

Note.—Although the form of these conditions does not imply anything as to the truth of the supposition, the sense or the context may of course have some such implication:—

nōlite, si in nostrō omnīnō fētā nūllam lacrimam aspēritis Milōnis, hōc minus eī parecre (Mil. 90), do not, if amid the weeping of us all you have seen no tear [in the eyes] of Milo, spare him the less for that.

petimus ā vōbis, iūdices, si qua divina in tantō ingenīs commendātīō dēbet esse, ut cum in vestram accipiatīō fidem (Arch. 31), we ask you, judges, if there ought to be anything in such genius to recommend it to us as by a recommendation of the gods, that you receive him under your protection.

In these two passages, the protasis really expresses cause: but the cause is put by the speaker in the form of a non-committal condition. His hearers are to draw the inference for themselves. In this way the desired impression is made on their minds more effectively than if an outspoken causal clause had been used.

Future Conditions

516. Future Conditions may be more vivid or less vivid.

1. In a more vivid future condition the protasis makes a distinct supposition of a future case, the apodosis expressing what will be the logical result.

2. In a less vivid future condition, the supposition is less distinct, the apodosis expressing what would be the result in the case supposed.

a. In the more vivid future condition the Future Indicative is used in both protasis and apodosis:—

sānābimus, si volēmus (Tusc. iii. 18), we shall be healed if we wish.

quod si legere aut audire volētis, . . . reperītis (Cat. M. 20), if you will [shall wish to] read or hear, you will find.

Note.—In English the protasis is usually expressed by the Present Indicative, rarely by the Future with SHALL. Often in Latin the Present Indicative is found in the protasis of a condition of this kind (cf. § 468):—

si vincimus, omnia nōbis tīta erunt; si nondē cesserimus, eadem illa adversa fient (Sall. Cat. 58), if we conquer, all things will be safe for us; but if we yield through fear, those same things will become hostile.

si pereō, hominum manibus perisse invēbit (Aen. iii. 606), if I perish, it will be pleasant to have perished at the hands of men.
b. In the *less vivid* future condition the Present Subjunctive is used in both protasis and apodosis:

haec si tēcum patria loquātur, nōmine impetrāre dēbeat (Cat. i. 19), if your country should speak with you, ought she not to prevail?

quod si quis deus nōn largiātur, ... vaclī recūsem (Cat. M. 83), but if some god were to grant me this, I should stoutly refuse.

Note. — The Present Subjunctive sometimes stands in protasis with the Future (or the Present) Indicative in apodosis from a change in the point of view: —

si diligentem attendāmus, intellegēmus (Inv. ii. 44), if we attend (should attend) carefully, we shall understand.

nisi nōc dicat, “iūre fēci,” nōn habēt dēfēsionem (Id. i. 18), unless he should say this, “I acted justifiably,” he has no defence.

c. If the conditional act is regarded as *completed* before that of the apodosis begins, the Future Perfect is substituted for the Future Indicative in protasis, and the Perfect Subjunctive for the Present Subjunctive:

sin cum potuerō nōn vēnerō, tum erit inimicus (Att. ix. 2 x. 2), but if I do not come when I can, he will be unfriendly.

si a corōna relictus sim, nōn quacum dicere (Brut. 192), if I should be deserted by the circle of listeners, I should not be able to speak.

Note. — The Future Perfect is often used in the apodosis of a future condition: as, — vehementer nīhi grātum fēcēris, si hunc adolescēntem hūmānitāte tua comprehenderis (Pom. xiii. 15), you will do (will have done) me a great favor, if you receive this young man with your usual courtesy.

d. Any form denoting or implying future time may stand in the apodosis of a future condition. So the Imperative, the participles in *-dus* and *-rus*, and verbs of *necessity*, *possibility*, and the like:

alias finis constituenēs est, si prius quid maxime reprehenderē Scipio solitus sit dīcerō (Lael. 59), another limit must be set, if I first state what Scipio was wont most to find fault with.

si mē praeceperit fātum, vīs mandāsse mēmentō (Q. C. ix. 6. 26), if fate cuts me off too soon, do you remember that I ordered this.

nisi oculis viderēs insidias Milōnī à Clōdiō factēs, nec dēprecātūr sumus nec postulātūr (Mil. 6), unless you see with your own eyes the plots laid against Milo by Clodius, I shall neither beg nor demand, etc.

nōn possēm istum acēsusare, si cupiam (Verr. iv. 87), I cannot accuse him, if I should (so) desire.

1 It often depends entirely upon the view of the writer at the moment, and not upon the nature of the condition, whether it shall be stated vividly or not; as in the proverbial “If the sky falls, we shall catch larks” the impossible condition is ironically put in the vivid form, to illustrate the absurdity of some other supposed condition stated by some one else.
e. Rarely the Perfect Indicative is used in apodosis with a Present or even a Future (or Future Perfect) in protasis, to represent the conclusion rhetorically as already accomplished: —

si hoc bene fixum in animo est, vicistis (Liv. xxi. 44), if this is well fixed in your minds, you have conquered. [For you will have conquered.]
si eundem [animum] habueritis, vicinus (id. xxi. 43), if you shall have kept the same spirit, we have conquered.

f. A future condition is frequently thrown back into past time, without implying that it is contrary to fact (§ 517). In such cases the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive may be used: —

nōn poterat, nisi dēcērāre vellet (B. C. iii. 44), he was not able, unless he wished to fight.
tumulus appāruit...si lūce palam irētur hostis praeventūrus erat (Liv. xxii. 24), a hill appeared...if they should go openly by daylight, the enemy would prevent. [The first two appear like Indirect Discourse, but are not. An observer describing the situation in the first example as present would say nōn potest nisi velit (see d), and no indirect discourse would be thought of.]
Caesar si pēteret, ...nōn quicquam prōficeret (Hor. S. i. 3. 4), if even Cæsar were to ask, he would gain nothing. [Here the construction is not contrary to fact, but is simply si petat, nōn prōficiat, thrown into past time.]

Conditions Contrary to Fact

517. In the statement of a supposition impliedly false, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used in both protasis and apodosis. The Imperfect refers to present time, the Pluperfect to past: —

si vivēret, verba eius audīrēritis (Rosc. Com. 42), if he were living, you would hear his words. [Present.]
nisi tū amīsisēs, numquam recēpissem (Cat. M. 11), unless you had lost it, I should not have recovered it. [Past.]

si meu cōnsilium valūisset, tū hodie egērēs, rēs pūblica nōn tot ducēs amīsisēt (Phil. ii. 37), if my judgment had prevailed [as it did not], you would this day be a beggar, and the republic would not have lost so many leaders. [Mixed Present and Past.]

The implication of falsity, in this construction, is not inherent in the subjunctive; but comes from the transfer of a future condition to past time. Thus the time for the happening of the condition has, at the moment of writing, already passed; so that, if the condition remains a condition, it must be contrary to fact. So past forms of the indicative implying a future frequently take the place of the subjunctive in apodosis in this construction (see e, d, below, and § 511).
§ 517] CONDITIONS CONTRARY TO FACT 329

a. In conditions contrary to fact the Imperfect often refers to past time, both in protasis and apodosis, especially when a repeated or continued action is denoted, or when the condition if true would still exist:

śi nihil litteris adiuvārentur, nunquam sē ad eārum studium contulissent (Arch. 16), if they had not been helped at all by literature, they never would have given their attention to the study of it. [Without the condition, adiuvābantur.]

hic sī mentis esset suae, auspīs esset ęducere exercitum (Pison. 50), if he were of same mind, would he have dared to lead out the army? [Here esset denotes a continued state, past as well as present.]

nūn concidissent, nisi illud receptāculum classibus nostrīs pātreīt (Verr. ii. 3), [the power of Carthage] would not have fallen, unless that station had been [constantly] open to our fleets. [Without the condition, pātreīt.]

b. In the apodosis of a condition contrary to fact the past tenses of the Indicative may be used to express what was intended, or likely, or already begun. In this use, the Imperfect Indicative corresponds in time to the Imperfect Subjunctive, and the Perfect or Pluperfect Indicative to the Pluperfect Subjunctive:

śi lieitum esset, mātrēs venībant (Verr. v. 129), the mothers were coming if it had been allowed.

in amplexās filiāe ruēbat, nisi liētūs obstītissent (Tac. Ann. xvi. 32), he was about rushing into his daughter's arms, unless the licitors had opposed.

iam tūta tenēbam, ni gēns crūdēlis fērō invāsisset (Aen. vi. 395), I was just reaching a place of safety, had not the fierce people attacked me.

Note 1. — Here the apodosis may be regarded as elliptical. Thus,—mātrēs venī- bent (et vēnīsissent), the matrons were coming (and would have kept on) if, etc.

Note 2. — With paene (and sometimes prope), almost, the Perfect Indicative is used in the apodosis of a past condition contrary to fact: as,—pōns iter paene hostībus ēdebat, ni ēnus vir fussisset (Liv. ii. 10), the bridge had almost given a passage to the foe, if it had not been for one hero.

c. Verbs and other expressions denoting necessity, propriety, possibility, duty, when used in the apodosis of a condition contrary to fact, may be put in the Imperfect or Perfect Indicative.

Such are oportet, decet, dēbēō, possum, necesse est, opus est, and the Second Periphrastic Conjugation: —

nōn potuit fieri sapīēns, nisi nātus esset (Fin. ii. 109), he could not have become a sage, if he had not been born.

śi privātus esset hoc tempore, tamen is erat dēligendus (Manil. 50), if he were at this time a private citizen, yet he ought to be appointed.

1 Observe that all these expressions contain the idea of futurity (cf. p. 328, footnote). Thus, decet mē [hodīe] ire crās, means it is proper for me [to-day] to go to-morrow; and, decēbat mē [heri] ire hodīe, it was proper for me [yesterday] to go to-day, usually with the implication that I have not gone as I was bound to do.
quod esse caput dēbēbat, sī probārī possēt (Fin. iv. 23), what ought to be the
main point, if it could be proved.
sī ita putāsset, certē optābilius Milōnī fuit (Mil. 31), if he had thought so, surely
it would have been preferable for Milo.

Note 1.—In Present conditions the Imperfect Subjunctive (opportet, possēm, etc.)
is the rule, the Indicative being rare; in Past conditions both the Subjunctive (usually
Pluperfect) and the Indicative (usually Perfect) are common.

For pār erat, melius fuit, and the like, followed by the infinitive, see § 521. n.

Note 2.—The indicative construction is carried still farther in poetry: as,—sī
non alium incāret odorēm, laurus erat (Georg. ii. 133), it were a laurel, but for giving
out a different odor.

d. The participle in -ūrus with eram or fui may take the place of
an Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in the apodosis of a condition
contrary to fact:—

quid enim futūrum fuit [= fuisset], sī . . . (Liv. ii. 1), what would have hap-
pened if, etc.

relictūrī agrōs erant, nisi ad cōs Metellus litterās mīssisset (Verr. iii. 121), they
would have abandoned their fields, if Metellus had not sent them a letter.

neque ambīgitur quin . . . id factūrus fuerit, sī . . . (Liv. ii. 1), nor is there
any question that he would have done it, if, etc. [Direct: fecisset.]

aede parātā sēdītiō fuit ut Othōnem rappūri fuerint, sī incerta noctis timui-
ssent (Tac. ii. i. 26), so far advanced was the conspiracy that they would
have seized upon Otho, had they not feared the hazards of the night. [In
a main clause: rapuissent, sī timuissent.]

e. The Present Subjunctive is sometimes used in poetry in the
protasis and apodosis of conditions contrary to fact:—

nī comes ac ādmonēat, intrat (Aen. vi. 293), had not his companion warned him,
he would have rushed on. [Cf. tū sī hic sis, aliter sentiās (Ter. And. 310),
if you were in my place, you would think differently.]

Note 1.—This is probably a remnant of an old construction (see next note).

Note 2.—In Old Latin the Present Subjunctive (as well as the Imperfect) is used
in present conditions contrary to fact and the Imperfect (more rarely the Pluperfect)
in past conditions of the same kind. Thus it appears that the Imperfect Subjunctive,
like the Imperfect Indicative, once denoted past time, even in conditional sentences.
Gradually, however, in conditional sentences, the Present Subjunctive was restricted
to the less vivid future and the Imperfect (in the main) to the present contrary to fact,
while the Pluperfect was used in past conditions of this nature. The old construction,
however, seems to have been retained as an archaism in poetry.

f. In Plautus and Terence absque mé (té, etc.) is sometimes used to
introduce conditions contrary to fact:—

absque tē esset, hodie nusquam vīverem (Pl. Men. 1022), if it were not for
you, I should not be alive to-day.

absque eō esset, rectē ego mīhi vīdissem (Ter. Ph. 188), if it had not been for
him, I should have looked out for myself.
GERALD CONDITIONS

518. General Conditions (§ 513. 2) have usually the same forms as Particular Conditions. But they are sometimes distinguished in the following cases: —

a. The Subjunctive is often used in the second person singular, to denote the act of an indefinite subject (you = any one). Here the Present Indicative of a general truth may stand in the apodosis: —

vita hūmāna prope uti ferrum est: sī exercēs, conteritur; sī nōn exercēs, tamen rōbigō interficit (Cato de M.), human life is very like iron: if you use it, it wears away; if you don’t use it, rust still destroys it.

virtūtem necessāriō gloria, etiam si tī id nōn agēs, conseguitur (Tusc. i. 91), glory necessarily follows virtue, even if that is not one’s aim.

sī prohibīta īmpūne trānescendi, neque metus utrāque neque pudor est (Tac. Ann. iii. 54), if you once overstep the bounds with impunity, there is no fear or shame any more.

b. In a general condition in present time, the protasis often takes the Perfect Indicative, and the apodosis the Present Indicative. For past time, the Pluperfect is used in the protasis, and the Imperfect in the apodosis: —

sī quōs aliquā parte membrūrum nūtīlis nātūran, necāri iūbent (Q. C. ix. 1. 25), if they [ever] mark any infirm in any part of their limbs, they [always] order them to be put to death. [Present.]

sī a persequendō hostis dēterrēre nequīverant, ab tērgō circumveniēbant (Ing. 50), if [ever] they were unable to prevent the enemy from pursuing, they [always] surrounded them in the rear. [Past.]

c. In later writers (rarely in Cicero and Caesar), the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used in protasis, with the Imperfect Indicative in apodosis, to state a repeated or customary action in past time (Iterative Subjunctive): —

sī quis ā dominō prehenderētūr, concursū militūt ēripiēbatūr (B. C. iii. 116), if any (runaway) was arrested by his master, he was (always) rescued by a mob of soldiers.

accusātōres, sī facultās incidēret, poeniās adāffiēbantūr (Tac. Ann. vi. 30), the accusers, whenever opportunity offered, were visited with punishment.

sī quis collegām appellāset, ab eō īa discēdēbat ut paenitēret nōn prioris deēret stetisse (Liv. iii. 36. 8), if any one appealed to a colleague, he [always] came off in such case that he repented not having submitted to the decree of the former decemvir. [Cf. Sōcratēs, quam sē cumque in partem dedisset, omnium fuit facieī princeps (De Or. iii. 69), in whatever direction Socrates turned himself, he was (always) easily the foremost (if in any, etc.).]
Conditional Relative Clauses

519. A clause introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Relative Adverb may express a condition and take any of the constructions of Protasis\(^1\) (§ 514):

qui enim vitiiis modum adsolutit, is partem suscipit vitiorum (Tusc. iv. 42), **he who [only] sets a limit to faults, takes up the side of the faults.**\(^\text{[}\text{= si quis adsolutit. Present, nothing implied.}\text{]}\)

qui mentiri solet, peregrare consuetit (Rosc. Com. 46), **whoever is in the habit of lying, is accustomed to swear falsely.**\(^\text{[}\text{= si quis solet. Present, nothing implied.}\text{]}\)

quicquid potuit, potuit ipsa per se (Leg. Agr. i. 20), **whatever power she had, she had by herself.**\(^\text{[}\text{= si quid potuit. Past, nothing implied.}\text{]}\)

quod qui faciet, non aegritudine solum vacabit, sed, etc. (Tusc. iv. 38), **and he who does (shall do) this, will be free not only, etc.**\(^\text{[}\text{= si quis faciet. Future, more vivid.}\text{]}\)

quisquis hic veniret, vapsulabit (Pl. Am. 309), **whoever comes here shall get a thrashing.**\(^\text{[}\text{= si quis veniret. Future, more vivid.}\text{]}\)

quō velēs, sequar (Clu. 71), **whithersoever you wish (shall wish), I will follow.**\(^\text{[}\text{= si quō velēs. Future, more vivid.}\text{]}\)

philosophia, cui qui paret, orne tempus actatissime molestiā possit degere (Cat. M. 2), **philosophy, which if any one should obey, he would be able to spend his whole life without vexation.**\(^\text{[}\text{= si quis paret. Future, less vivid.}\text{]}\)

quaecumque vōs causa hunc attulisset, laetaver (De Or. ii. 15), **I should be glad, whatever cause had brought you here (i.e. if any other, as well as the one which did).**\(^\text{[}\text{= si . . . attulisset. Contrary to fact.}\text{]}\)

The relative in this construction is always indefinite in meaning, and very often in form.

520. The special constructions of General Conditions are sometimes found in Conditional Relative Clauses:

1. The Second Person Singular of the Subjunctive in the protasis with the Indicative of a general truth in the apodosis (§ 518. a):

**bonus tantum modo ségmiōnum fit ubi neglegás, at malus improbiōr (Iug. 31. 28), a good man merely becomes less diligent when you don't watch him, but a bad man becomes more shameless.**\(^\text{[}\text{Present General Condition.}\text{]}\)

2. The Perfect or Pluperfect Indicative in the protasis and the Present or Imperfect Indicative in the apodosis (§ 518. b):

**cum húc vēni, hóc ipsum nihil agere mé dēetectat (De Or. ii. 24), whenever I come here, this very doing nothing delights me (whenever I have come, etc.).**\(^\text{[}\text{Present General Condition.}\text{]}\)

\(^1\) As in the Greek ὅσος ἄρε, ὅταν, etc.; and in statutes in English, where the phrases if any person shall and whoever shall are used indifferently.
cum rosam viderat, tum incipere ver arbitrabatur (Verr. v. 27), whenever he saw (had seen) a rose, then he thought spring was beginning. [Past General Condition.]

3. In later writers (rarely in Cicero and Caesar) the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in the protasis and the Imperfect Indicative in the apodosis (§ 518. c): —

ubi imbécilitias materiae postulare videretur, pilae interpōnuntur (B. C. ii. 16), wherever the weakness of the timber seemed to require, piles were put between. [Past General Condition: interpōnuntur = interpōnēbantur.]
quōcumque sē intulisset, victoriām sēcum trahēbat (Liv. vi. 8), wherever he advanced, he carried victory with him. [Past General Condition.]

Condition Disguised

521. In many sentences properly conditional, the Protasis is not expressed by a conditional clause, but is stated in some other form of words or implied in the nature of the thought.

α. The condition may be implied in a Clause, or in a Participle, Noun, Adverb, or some other word or phrase: —

facile me paterer—illō ipsī iūdice quaerente—prō Sex. Rōsciō dicere (Rosc. Am. 85), I should readily allow myself to speak for Roscius if that very judge were conducting the trial. [Present contrary to fact: si quaereret, paterer.]
nōn mihi, nisi admonītō, vēnisset in mentem (De Or. ii. 180), it would not have come into my mind unless [I had been] reminded. [Past contrary to fact: nisi admonitus esset.]
nūlla alia gēns tantā mole clādis nōn obrūta esset (Liv. xxii. 54), there is no other people that would not have been crushed by such a weight of disaster. [Past contrary to fact: si alia fuisset.]
nēmō unquam sine māgnā spē immortālitātis sē prō patriā offerret ad mortem (Tusc. i. 32), no one, without great hope of immortality, would ever expose himself to death for his country. [Present contrary to fact: nisi māgnam spem habēret.]
quip hunc paucōrum annōrum accessiō iuvāre potuisset (Lael. 11), what good could the addition of a few years have done him (if they had been added)? [Past contrary to fact: si accessissent.]
quip igitur mihi ferōrum lanītātus obert nihil sentiēnti (Tusc. i. 104), what harm will the mangling by wild beasts do me if I don’t feel anything (feeling nothing)? [Future more vivid: si nihil sentiam.]
incitāta semel prōclīvī lābuntur sustinerique nūlō modō possunt (id. iv. 42), if once given a push, they slide down rapidly and can in no way be checked. [Present General: si incitāta sunt.]
NOTE.—In several phrases denoting necessity, propriety, or the like, the Imperfect, Perfect, or Pluperfect Indicative of esse is used in the apodosis of a condition contrary to fact, the protasis being implied in a subject infinitive (cf. 517. c):

quantō melius fuerat prōmissum nōn esse servātum (Off. iii. 94), how much better would it have been if the promise had not been kept! [prōmissum . . . servātum = si prōmissum nōn esse servātum.]
morti praecārum fuit (Att. viii. 2. 2), it would have been honorable to die.

sed erat acquis Triārium alicquid dē dissēnsione nostrā iūdicāre (Fīn. ii. 119), but it would be more equitable if Triarius passed judgment on our dispute. [Triārium iūdicāre = si Triarius iūdicāret.]
satis fuit āmītere mīlitēs (Inv. ii. 73), it would have been better to lose the soldiers. [āmītere = si āmīisset.]

b. The condition may be contained in a wish (Optative Subjunctive), or expressed as an exhortation or command (Hortatory Subjunctive or Imperative):

útīnam quidem fuissem! molestus nōbīs nōn essest (Fam. xii. 3), I wish I had been [chief]: he would not now be troubling us (i.e. if I had been).

[Optative Subjunctive.]
natūram expellās furcā, tamen ūsque recurrēt (Hor. Ep. i. 10. 24), drive out nature with a pitchfork, still she will ever return. [Hortatory.]
regēs enim Aristōnem, neget (Fīn. iv. 69), for ask Aristotle, he would deny.
manent ingenia senibus, modo permaneant studium et industria (Cat. M. 22),
old men keep their mental powers, only let them keep their zeal and diligence (§ 528. x.). [Hortatory.]
tolle hanc opiniōnem, lūctum sustuleris (Tusc. i. 30), remove this notion, and you will have done away with grief. [Imperative.]

NOTE.—The so-called Concessive Subjunctive with ut and nē often has the force of protasis (§ 527. a. n.): as,—ut enim rabīnem Plātō nīllam adferret, ipsa auctōritātē nē frangēret (Tusc. i. 49), even if Plato gave no reasons, [still] he would overpower me by his mere authority.

c. Rarely the condition takes the form of an independent clause:
ridēs: māiore cachinō conecitur (Inv. iii. 100), you laugh; he shakes with louder laughter (= if you laugh, he shakes).
commovē: sentiēs (Tusc. iv. 54), stir him up, [and] you’ll find, etc.
dē paupertātē agitur: multī patientēs pauperēs commemorātur (id. iii. 57), we speak of poverty; many patient poor are mentioned.

For Conditional RelativeClauses, see §§ 519, 520.

Condition Omitted

522. The Protasis is often wholly omitted, but may be inferred from the course of the argument:

poterat Sextilius impūnē negāre: quis enim redargueret (Fīn. ii. 55), Sextilius might have denied with impunity; for who would prove him wrong (if he had denied)?
§§ 522, 523] COMPLEX CONDITIONS

α. In expressions signifying necessity, propriety, and the like, the Indicative may be used in the apodosis of implied conditions, either future or contrary to fact: —

quod contrā decuit ab illō meum [corpus cremāri] (Cat. M. 84), whereas on the other hand mine ought to have been burnt by him.

nam nōs decēbat domum lugère ubi esset aliquis in lūcem ēditus (Tusc. i. 115), for it were fitting for us to mourn the house where a man has been born (but we do not).

quantō melius fuerat (Qff. iii. 94), how much better it would have been.

illud erat aptius, aequum cuique concēdere (Fin. iv. 2), it would be more fitting to yield each one his rights.

ipse enim exspectāre māgnum fuit (Phil. ii. 103), would it have been a great matter to wait for the man himself?

longum est ea dicere, sed . . . (Sest. 12), it would be tedious to tell, etc. [Future.]

Note 1.—In this construction, the Imperfect Indicative refers to present time; the Pluperfect to simple past time, like the Perfect. Thus oportēbat means it ought to be [now], but is not; oportetque means it ought to have been, but was not.

Note 2.—In many cases it is impossible to say whether a protasis was present to the mind of the speaker or not (see third example above).

Complex Conditions

523. Either the Protasis or the Apodosis may be a complex idea in which the main statement is made with expressed or implied qualifications. In such cases the true logical relation of the parts is sometimes disguised: —

si quis hōrum dixisset . . . si verbum dē rē pūblīcā fēcisset . . . multa plūra
dixisse quam dixisset putārētur (Rosc. Am. 2), if any of these had spoken, in case he had said a word about politics he would be thought to have said much more than he did say. [Here the apodosis of dixisset is the whole of the following statement (si . . . putārētur), which is itself conditioned by a protasis of its own: si verbum, etc.].

quod si in hōc mundō fieri sine deō nōn potest, nē in sphaerā quidem ēōsdem mōtās sine divīnō ingeniō potuisset imitāri (Tusc. i. 63), now if that cannot be done in this universe without divine agency, no more could [Archimedes] in his oratory have imitated the same revolutions without divine genius. [Here si potest (a protasis with nothing implied) has for its apodosis the whole clause which follows, but potuisset has a contrary-to-fact protasis of its own implied in sine . . . ingeniō.]

peream male si nōn optimum erat (Hor. S. ii. 1. 6), confound me (may I perish wretchedly) if it would n't be better. [Here peream is apodosis to the rest of the sentence, while the true protasis to optimum erat, contrary to fact, is omitted.]
Clauses of Comparison (Conclusion Omitted)

524. Conditional Clauses of Comparison take the Subjunctive, usually in the Present or Perfect unless the sequence of tenses requires the Imperfect or Pluperfect.

Such clauses are introduced by the comparative particles tamquam, tamquam si, quasi, ac si, ut si, velut si (later velut), poetic ceu (all meaning as if), and by quam si (than if):—

tamquam ciusa sit Asia (Fam. xii. 9), as if Asia were closed.
tamquam si claudus sim (Pl. Asin. 427), just as if I were lame.
ita hōs [honōrēs] petunt, quasi honestē vixerint (Iug. 85), they seek them (offices) just as if they had lived honorably.

quasi vero non specērī visum idicentūr (Acad. ii. 58), as if forsooth visible things were not judged by their appearance.
similiter facis ac si mē rogēs (N. D. iii. 8), you do exactly as if you asked me.
crūdēlitātem horrērent velut si cōrām adesset (B. G. i. 32), they dreaded his cruelty (they said), as if he were present in person.
hic ingentem pūgnum cernĕmus ceu ētēra nusquam bella forent (Aen. ii. 438), here we saw a great battle, as if there were no fighting elsewhere. [But sometimes with the indicative in poetry, as id. v. 88.]
magis a mē abesse vidēbāre quam si domi essēs (Att. vi. 5), you seemed to be absent from me more than if you were at home.

Note 1.—These subjunctive clauses are really future conditions with apodosis implied in the particle itself. Thus in tamquam si claudus sim the protasis is introduced by si, and the apodosis implied in tamquam.

Note 2.—The English idiom would lead us to expect the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive (contrary to fact) with these particles; but the point of view is different in the two languages. Thus the second example above is translated just as if I were lame,—as if it were a present condition contrary to fact; but it really means just as [it would be] if I should [at some future time] be lame, and so is a less vivid future condition requiring the Present Subjunctive. Similarly quasi honestē vixerint, as if they had lived honorably, is really as [they would do in the future] if they should have lived honorably, and so requires the Perfect Subjunctive (§ 516. c).

α. Even after a primary tense, the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive (contrary to fact) is often used in conditional clauses of comparison:—
aeqē dē petō ac si mea negōtiā essent (Fam. xiii. 43): I entreat you as much as if it were my own business.
ēius negōtiūm sic velim suscipiās ut sī esset rēs mea (id. vii. 20. 1), I would have you undertake his business as though it were my affair.

Note.—The practice differs with the different particles. Thus in Cicero a clause with tamquam or quasi almost always observes the sequence of tenses, but with quam si the Imperfect or Pluperfect is the rule.
Use of *si* and its Compounds

525. The uses of some of the more common Conditional Particles may be stated as follows:

a. *Si* is used for **affirmative**, nisi (nī) and si nōn for **negative conditions**.

1. With nisi (generally unless) the apodosis is stated as **universally true except** in the single case supposed, in which case it is (impliedly) **not true**: —
   nisi Conōn adest, maerēb, unless Conon is here, I mourn (i.e. I am always in a state of grief except in the single case of Conon's presence, in which case I am not).

2. With si nōn (if not) the apodosis is only stated as true in the (negative) case supposed, but as to other cases no statement is made: —
   si Conōn nōn adest, maerēb, if Conon is not here, I mourn (i.e. I mourn in the single case of Conon's absence, nothing being said as to other cases in which I may or may not mourn).

   **Note.** — It often makes no difference in which of these forms the condition is stated.

3. Sometimes nisi sī, except *if*, unless, occurs: —
   nōlī putāre mē ad quemquam longiōrēs epistolās scribere, nisi sī quis ad mē plūra scriptīt (Pam. xiv. 2), ... except in case one writes more to me.

   **Note.** — *Nī* is an old form surviving in a few conventional phrases and reappearing in poets and later writers.

b. Nisi vērō and nisi forte regularly introduce an objection or exception **ironically**, and take the Indicative: —
   nisi vērō L. Caesar crudelior visus est (Cat. iv. 13), unless indeed Luctius Caesar seemed too cruel.
   nisi forte volumus Epicūrēorum opiniōnem sequī (Fat. 37), unless, to be sure, we choose to follow the notion of the Epicureans.

   **Note.** — This is the regular way of introducing a *reductio ad absurdum* in Latin. Nisi alone is sometimes used in this sense: as,— nisi ūnum locum faciam ut in puteō cēnum coquant (Pl. Aul. 335), unless I do this one thing, [make them] cook dinner in the well.

c. Sīve (seu) ... sīve (seu), whether ... or, introduce a condition in the form of an alternative. They may be used with any form of condition, or with different forms in the two members. Often also they are used without a verb: —
   nam illō locō libentissimē soleō ūti, sīve quid mēcum ipse cōgitō, sīve quid scribō aut legō (Legg. ii. 1), for I enjoy myself most in that place, whether I am thinking by myself, or am either writing or reading.

   **Note.** — Sīve ... seu and seu ... sīve are late or poetic.
a. Sin, but if; often introduces a supposition contrary to one that precedes:—

\[
\text{accusātor illum dēfendet si poterit; sin minus poterit, negābit (Inv. ii. 88), the accuser will defend him if he can; but if he cannot, he will deny.}
\]

c. Nisi is often used loosely by the comic poets in the sense of only when a negative (usually nesció) is expressed, or easily understood, in the main clause:—

\[
nesció: nisi mē dixisse nēmīnī certō sciō (Ter. Ph. 952), I don’t know: only I am sure that I haven’t told anybody.
\]

CONCESSIVE CLAUSES

526. The concessive idea is rather vague and general, and takes a variety of forms, each of which has its distinct history. Sometimes concession is expressed by the Hortatory Subjunctive in a sentence grammatically independent (§ 440), but it is more frequently and more precisely expressed by a dependent clause introduced by a concessive particle. The concessive force lies chiefly in the Conjunctions (which are indefinite or conditional in origin), and is often made clearer by an adversative particle (tamen, certē) in the main clause. As the Subjunctive may be used in independent clauses to express a concession, it is also employed in concessive clauses, and somewhat more frequently than the indicative.

527. The Particles of Concession (meaning although, granting that) are quamvis, ut, licet, etsī, tametsī, etiam sī, quamquam, and cum.

Some of these take the Subjunctive, others the Indicative, according to the nature of the clause which each introduces.

a. Quamvis and ut take the Subjunctive:—

\[
\text{quamvis ipsī infantēs sint, tamen . . . (Or. 76), however incapable of speaking they themselves may be, yet, etc.}
\]

\[
\text{quamvis seculātū iliī fuissent (De Or. i. 230), however guilty they might have been.}
\]

\[
\text{quamvis cómis in ambīcis tuendās fuerit (Fin. ii. 80), amiable as he may have been in keeping his friends.}
\]

\[
\text{ut nēminem alium rogāset (Mil. 46), even if he had asked no other.}
\]

\[
\text{ut enim nōn efficiās quod vīs, tamen mors ut malum nōn sit efficiēs (Tusc. i. 16), for even if you do not accomplish what you wish, still you will prove that death is not an evil.}
\]

\[
\text{ut rationēm Plāto nūllam adferret (id. i. 49), though Plato adduced no reasons.}
\]

Note. — Quamvis means literally as much as you will. Thus in the first example above, let them be as incapable as you will, still, etc. The subjunctive with quamvis is hortatory, like that with nē (§ 440); that with ut (ut nōn) is of uncertain origin.

b. Licet, although, takes the Present or Perfect Subjunctive:—

\[
\text{licet omnes mihi terrōres periculāque impendēant (Rosc. Am. 31), though all terrors and perils should menace me.}
\]
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Note. — Licet is properly a verb in the present tense, meaning it is granted. Hence the subjunctive is by the sequence of tenses limited to the Present and Perfect. The concessive clause with licet is hortatory in origin, but may be regarded as a substantive clause serving as the subject of the impersonal verb (§ 565, n. 1).

c. Etsi, etiam si, tametsi, even if, take the same constructions as si (see § 514): —

etsi abest mätūritās, tamen nōn est inātile (Fam. vi. 18. 4), though ripeness of age is wanting, yet it is not useless, etc.

tametsi numquam dubium fuit, tamen perspicīō (id. v. 19), although it has never been doubtful, yet I perceive, etc.

etas statueram (id. v. 5), though I had determined.

tametsi nihil aliud abstulāssētis, tamen contentōs vōs esse oportēbat (Sull. 90), even if you had taken away nothing else, you ought to have been satisfied.

etiam si quod scribās nōn habēbis, scribitō tamen (Fam. xvi. 26), even if you [shall] have nothing to write, still write.

sed etametsi vōs parvi penēbātis (Sull. Cat. 52. 9), but although you regarded those things as of small account.

Note 1. — Tametsi with the subjunctive is very rare.

Note 2. — A protasis with si often has a concessive force: as, — ego, si essent iniuriciāe mihi cum C. Caesare, tamen hoc tempore rei publicae consulere... déberēm (Prov. Cons. 47), as for me, even if I had private quarrels with Caeser, it would still be my duty to serve the best interests of the state at this crisis.

d. Quamquam, although, introduces an admitted fact and takes the Indicative: —

omnibus — quamquam ruit ipse suis clādibus — pestem dēnuntiavit (Phil. xiv. 8), though he is breaking down under his disasters, still he threatens all with destruction.

Note. — Quamquam more commonly means and yet, introducing a new proposition in the indicative: as, — quamquam hae quidem iam tolerābilīa videbantur, etsi, etc. (Mil. 76), and yet these, in truth, seemed now bearable, though, etc.

E. The poets and later writers frequently use quamvis and quamquam like etsi, connecting them with the Indicative or the Subjunctive, according to the nature of the condition: —

quamquam movēruit (Liv. xxxvi. 34), although he was moved.

Pollīō amat nostrām, quamvis est rūstica, nūsām (Ecl. iii. 84), Pollīo loves my muse, though she is rustic.

quamvis pervēnerās (Liv. ii. 40), though you had come.

f. Ut, as, with the Indicative, may be equivalent to a concession: vērum ut errāre potuisti, sic dēcīpi tē nōn potuisse quis nōn vidēt (Fam. x. 20. 2), suppose you could have been mistaken, who does not see that you cannot have been deceived in this way?

For cum concessive, see § 549; for qui concessive, see § 535. e. For concession expressed by the Hortatory Subjunctive (negative nē), see § 440.
CLAUSES OF PROVISO

528. Dum, modo, dummodo, and tantum ut, introducing a Proviso, take the Subjunctive. The negative with these particles is nē:

ōderint dum metuant (Off. i. 97), let them hate, if only they fear.
valētūdō modo bona sit (Brut. 64), provided the health be good.
dummodo inter nē atque tē mūnus intersit (Cat. i. 10), provided only the wall (of the city) is between us.
tantum ut sciant (Att. xvi. 11. 1), provided only they know.
modo nē sit ex pseudum genere (Off. i. 105), provided [in pleasure] he be not of the herd of cattle.
id faciat saepe, dum nē lassus fiat (Cato R. R. v. 4), let him do this often, provided he does not get tired.
dummodo ea (severitās) nē variētur (Q. Fr. i. 1. 20), provided only it (strictness) be not allowed to swerve.
tantum nē noceat (Ov. M. ix. 21), only let it do no harm.

Note.—The Subjunctive with modo is hortatory or optative; that with dum and dummodo, a development from the use of the Subjunctive with dum in temporal clauses, § 553 (compare the colloquial so long as my health is good, I don’t care).

a. The Hortatory Subjunctive without a particle sometimes expresses a proviso:

sint Maecēnātēs, nōn deernunt Marōnēs (Mart. viii. 56. 5), so there be Maecenas, Virgil’s will not be lacking.

b. The Subjunctive with ut (negative nē) is sometimes used to denote a proviso, usually with ita in the main clause:

probāta condiciō est, sed ita ut ille praesidia dēdicaret (Att. vii. 14. 1), the terms were approved, but only on condition that he should withdraw the garrisons.

Note.—This is a development of the construction of Characteristic or Result. For a clause of Characteristic expressing Proviso, see § 535. d.

CLAUSES OF PURPOSE (FINAL CLAUSES)

529. The Subjunctive in the clause of Purpose is hortatory in origin, coming through a kind of indirect discourse construction (for which see § 592). Thus, misit légātōs qui dicerent means he sent ambassadors who should say, i.e. who were directed to say; in the direct orders the verb would be dicēre, which would become dicēnt in the Indirect Discourse of narrative (§ 588) or dicērent in the past (cf. hortatory subjunctive in past tenses, § 439. b). The Subjunctive with ut and nē is, in general, similar in origin.

530. A clause expressing purpose is called a Final Clause.

531. Final Clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut (utī), negative nē (ut nē), or by a Relative Pronoun or Adverb: —
1. Pure Clauses of Purpose, with ut (uti) or nē (ut nē), express the purpose of the main verb in the form of a modifying clause:—

ab arātrō abdūxerunt Cincinnātum, ut dictātor esset (Fin. ii. 12), they brought Cincinnatus from the plough that he might be dictator.

ut sint auxiliō suī, subsistunt (B. C. i. 80), they halt in order to support (be an aid to) their own men.

nē militēs oppidum inrumpent, portās obstruct (id. i. 27), he barricaded the gates, in order that the soldiers might not break into the town.

scālās parāri iubet, nē quam facultātem dimittat (id. i. 28), he orders scaling-ladders to be got ready, in order not to let slip any opportunity.

ut nē sit impūne (Mil. 31), that it be not with impunity.

Note 1. — Sometimes the conjunction has a correlative (idēō, idēcirō, eō cōnsiō, etc.) in the main clause (cf. § 501. a):—

lēgum idēcirō servī sumus, ut liberī sumus (Chu. 146), for this reason we are subject to the laws, that we may be free.

cōpiās rūnāvit eō cōnsiō, ut castellum expugnāret (cf. B. G. ii. 9), he led the troops across with this design — to storm the fort.

Note 2. — Ut nōn sometimes occurs in clauses of purpose when nōn belongs to some particular word: as,— ut plār a nōn dicam (Manil. 44), to avoid unnecessary talk.

2. Relative Clauses of Purpose are introduced by the relative pronoun qui or a relative adverb (ubi, unde, quō, etc.). The antecedent is expressed or implied in the main clause:—

mittitur L. Decidius Saxa qui locī nātūram perspiciat (B. C. i. 66), Lucius Decidius Saxa is sent to examine the ground (who should examine, etc.).

serībēbat orātiōnēs quās aliī disserēnt (Brut. 206), he wrote speeches for other men to deliver.

eō extingvē fore unde disserēm nēminem (Cat. M. 12), that when he was dead there would be nobody from whom (whence I could learn).

huic nē ubi cōnsiērter quidem contra tē locum reliquisti (Quinct. 73), you have left him no ground even to make a stand against you.

habēbām quō confugerem (Fam. iv. 6. 2), I had [a retreat] whither I might flee.

Note. — In this construction qui = ut is (etc.), ubi = ut ibi, and so on (§ 537. 2).

a. The ablative quō (= ut eō) is used as a conjunction in final clauses which contain a comparative:—

comprimere eōrum andāciam, quō faciātus cēterōrum animī frangērentur (Fam. xv. 4. 10), to repress their audacity, that the spirit of the others might be broken more easily (by which the more easily).

libertāte āsas est, quō mānībus dicāx esset (Quinct. 11), he took advantage of liberty, that he might buster with more impunity.

Note. — Occasionally quō introduces a final clause that does not contain a comparative: as,— L. Sulla exercitum, quō sibi fidum faceret, lāxūrosc habuerat (Sall. Cat. 11), Lucius Sulla had treated the army luxuriously, in order to make it devoted to him.

For quōminus (= ut eō minus) after verbs of hindering, see § 558. b.
532. The principal clause, on which a final clause depends, is often to be supplied from the context:—

ac né longum sit... iussimus (Cat. iii. 10), and, not to be tedious, we ordered,
etc. [Strictly, in order not to be tedious. I say we ordered.]
sed ut ad Dionysium redeamus (Tusc. v. 63), but to return to Dionysius.
sed ut cōdem revertar, causa haec fuit timoris (Fam. vi. 7. 3), but, to return
to the same point, this was the cause of fear.
satis inconsideráti fuit, né dicam audáciis (Phil. xiii. 12), it was the act of one
rash enough, not to say daring.

Note 1.—By a similar ellipsis the Subjunctive is used with nēdum (sometimes nē),
still less, not to mention that:—
nēdum salvi esse possimus (Cul. 95), much less could we be safe.
nēdum isti non statim conquísitūrī sint aliquid sceleris et flagitī (Leg. Agr. ii. 97),
far more will they hunt up at once some sort of crime and scandal.
nēdum in mari et viā sit facile (Fam. xvi. 8), still less is it easy at sea and on a
journey.
quippe secundae rēs sapientium animōs fatigant; nē illi corruptīs moribus vic-
toriāe temperārent (Sall. Cat. 11), for prosperity overmasters the soul even
of the wise; much less did they with their corrupt morals put any check on
victory.

Note 2.—With nēdum the verb itself is often omitted: as, —aptius lūmāntāti
tuae quam tōta Peloponnesus, nēdum Patræ (Fam. vii. 28. 1), fitter for your refine-
ment than all Peloponnesus, to say nothing of Patrae.
For Substantive Clauses involving purpose, see §§ 563-566.

533. The Purpose of an action is expressed in Latin in various
ways; but never (except in idiomatic expressions and rarely in
poetry) by the simple Infinitive as in English (§ 460).

The sentence, they came to seek peace, may be rendered—

(1) vēnērunt ut pācem peterent. [Final clause with ut (§ 531. 1).]
(2) vēnērunt qui pācem peterent. [Final clause with Relative (§ 531. 2).]
(3) [vēnērunt ad petendum pācem.] Not found with transitive verbs (§ 506,
 n. 2), but cf. ad pārendum senātūm. [Gerund with ad (§ 506).]
(4) vēnērunt ad petendum pācem. [Gerundive with ad (§ 506).]
(5) vēnērunt pācem petendī causā (grātiā). [Gen. of Gerund with causā
(§ 504. b).]
(6) vēnērunt pācis petendae causā (grātiā). [Gen. of Gerundive with causā
(§ 504. b).]
(7) vēnērunt pācem petītūrī. [Future participle (§ 499. 2); in later writers.]
(8) vēnērunt pācem petitum. [Supine in -um (§ 509).]

These forms are not used indifferently, but—

a. The usual way of expressing purpose is by ut (negative nē),
unless the purpose is closely connected with some one word, in which
case a relative is more common:—
légātōs ad Dunnorīgem mittunt, ut eō déprecātōre ā Sēquanīs impetrārent (B. G. i. 9), they send envoys to Dunnorix, in order through his intercession to obtain (this favor) from the Sequani.

mīlitēs misit ut eōs qui fōgerant persequerentur (id. v. 10), he sent the soldiers to follow up those who had fled.

Cūriō praemunitī equitās qui primum impetum sustineant (B. C. ii. 26), Curio sends forward cavalry to withstand the first attack.

b. The Gerund and Gerundive constructions of purpose are usually limited to short expressions, where the literal translation, though not the English idiom, is nevertheless not harsh or strange.

c. The Supine is used to express purpose only with verbs of motion, and in a few idiomatic expressions (§ 509).

d. The Future Participle used to express purpose is a late construction of inferior authority (§ 499. 2).

For the poetical Infinitive of Purpose, see § 460. c. For the Present Participle in a sense approaching that of purpose, see § 490. 3.

CLAUSES OF CHARACTERISTIC

534. The relative clause of Characteristic with the Subjunctive is a development peculiar to Latin. A relative clause in the Indicative merely states something as a fact which is true of the antecedent; a characteristic clause (in the Subjunctive) defines the antecedent as a person or thing of such a character that the statement made is true of him or it and of all others belonging to the same class. Thus,—nōn potest exercitum in continēre imperātōr qui sē ipse nōn contineat (indicative) means simply, that commander who does not (as a fact) restrain himself cannot restrain his army; whereas nōn potest exercitum in continēre imperātōr qui sē ipse nōn contineat (subjunctive) would mean, that commander who is not such a man as to restrain himself, etc., that is, who is not characterized by self-restraint.

This construction has its origin in the potential use of the subjunctive (§ 445). Thus, in the example just given, qui sē ipse nōn contineat would mean literally, who would not restrain himself (in any supposable case), and this potential idea passes over easily into that of general quality or characteristic. The characterizing force is most easily felt when the antecedent is indefinite or general. But this usage is extended in Latin to cases which differ but slightly from statements of fact, as in some of the examples below.

The use of the Subjunctive to express Result comes from its use in Clauses of Characteristic. Thus, nōn sum ita hebes ut haec dicam means literally, I am not dull in the manner (degree) in which I should say this, hence, I am not so dull as to say this. Since, then, the characteristic often appears in the form of a supposed result, the construction readily passes over into Pure Result, with no idea of characteristic; as,—tāntus in cūriā clamor factus est ut populus concurreret (Verr. ii. 47), such an outcry was made in the senate-house that the people hurried together.

535. A Relative Clause with the Subjunctive is often used to indicate a characteristic of the antecedent, especially where the antecedent is otherwise undefined:
neque enim tâ es quî nesciâs (Fam. v. 12. 6), for you are not such a one as not to know. [Here is is equivalent to such, and is defined only by the relative clause that follows.]

multa dicunt quae vix intellegam (Fin. iv. 2), they say many things which (such as) I hardly understand.

paî quae nihil habitûra sit insidiârum semper est consulendum (Off. i. 35), we must always aim at a peace which shall have no plots.

a. A Relative Clause of Characteristic is used after general expressions of existence or non-existence, including questions which imply a negative.

So especially with sunt qui, there are [some] who; quis est qui, who is there who? —

sunt qui discessum animi à corpore putent esse mortem (Tusc. i. 18), there are some who think that the departure of soul from body constitutes death.

erant qui censèrent (B. C. ii. 30), there were some who were of the opinion, etc.

erant qui Helvidium miserârentur (Tac. Ann. xvi. 29), there were some who pitied Helvidius. [Cf. est cum (n. 3, below).]

quis est qui id nón maximis orerat laudibus (Lacl. 24), who is there that does not exalt it with the highest praise?

nihil videô quod timeam (Fam. ix. 16. 3), I see nothing to fear.

nihil est quod adventum nostrum extimescâs (Fam. ix. 20. 4), there is no reason why you should dread my coming.

ude agger comportâri possit nihil erat reliquum (B. C. ii. 15), there was nothing left from which an embankment could be got together.

Note 1. — After general negatives like némô est qui, the Subjunctive is regular; after general affirmatives like sunt qui, it is the prevailing construction, but the Indicative sometimes occurs; after mutûi (nón nălii, quidam) sunt qui, and similar expressions in which the antecedent is partially defined, the choice of mood depends on the shade of meaning which the writer wishes to express: —

sunt béstiae quâdam in quibus inest aliquid simile virtûtis (Fin. v. 38), there are certain animals in which there is something like virtue.

But, — inventi mutûi sunt qui vitam profundere pró patriâ parâti essent (Off. i. 84), many were found of such a character as to be ready to give their lives for their country.

Note 2. — Characteristic clauses with sunt qui etc. are sometimes called Relative Clauses with an Indefinite Antecedent, but are to be carefully distinguished from the Indefinite Relative in protasis (§ 520).

Note 3. — The phrases est cum, fuit cum, etc. are used like est qui, sunt qui: as, — ac fuit cum nihil quoque initium requiscendui fore instant arbitrâr (De Or. i. 1), and there was a time when I thought a beginning of rest would be justifiable on my part.

b. A Relative Clause of Characteristic may follow ânus and sâlius:

nil admirâri prope rôs est ûna sôlque quae possit facere et servâre béstum (Hor. Ep. i. 6. 1), to wonder at nothing is almost the sole and only thing that can make and keep one happy.

sâlius es cûius in victôriâ occiderit nêmô nisi armâtus (Deiot. 34), you are the only man in whose victory no one has fallen unless armed.
c. A clause of Result or Characteristic with quam ut, quam qui (rarely with quam alone), may be used after comparatives:—

Canachi signa rigidiora sunt quam ut imitentur veritatem (Brut. 70), the statues of Canacles are too stiff to represent nature (stiffer than that they should). mæorès arborès caedèbant quam quæs ferre miles posset (Liv. xxxiii. 5), they cut trees too large for a soldier to carry (larger than what a soldier could carry).

Note. — This construction corresponds in sense to the English too ... to.

a. A relative clause of characteristic may express restriction or proviso (cf. § 528. b):—

quod sciam, so far as I know (lit. as to what I know). Catonis orationes, quæs quidem invenerim (Brut. 65), the speeches of Cato, at least such as I have discovered.

servus est nemo, qui modo tolerabili condicio sine servitute (Cat. iv. 16), there is not a slave, at least in any tolerable condition of slavery.

c. A Relative Clause of Characteristic may express cause or concession:—

peccasse mihi video qui à te discesserim (Fam. xvi. 1), I seem to myself to have done wrong because I have left you. [Causal.]

virum simpliciæ quo nos nihil celat (Or. 230), O guileless man, who hides nothing from us? [Causal.]

egomet qui sērō Graecās litterās attigiissim, tamen complurès Athēnēs diēs sum commorātus (De Or. i. 82), I myself, though I began Greek literature late, yet, etc. (lit. [a man] who, etc.). [Concessive.]

Note 1. — In this use the relative is equivalent to cum is etc. It is often preceded by ut, utpopote, or quippe:—

nec consul, ut qui id ipsum quaesisset, moram certāmini fecit (Liv. xlii. 7), nor did the consul delay the fight, since he had sought that very thing (as [being one] who had sought, etc.).

Lūcīus, frōter cūs, utpopote qui peregrē déepīgnārit, familiar dūcēt (Phil. v. 30), Lucius, his brother, leads his household, inasmuch as he is a man who has fought it out abroad.

convivia cum pātre nōn inābat, quippe qui nē in oppidum quidem nisi perrōrō veniēret (Rosc. Am. 52), he did not go to dinner parties with his father, since he did not even come to town except very rarely.

Note 2. — The Relative of Cause or Concession is merely a variety of the Characteristic construction. The quality expressed by the Subjunctive is connected with the action of the main verb either as cause on account of which (since) or as hindrance in spite of which (although).

f. Dignus, indignus, aptus, idōneus take a subjunctive clause with a relative (rarely ut). The negative is nōn:—

digna in quibus elaborarent (Tusc. i. 1), (things) worth spending their toil on (worthy on which they should, etc.).
digna rēs est ubi tū nervōs intendās tuōs (Ter. Eun. 312), the affair is worthy of your stretching your sinews (worthy wherein you should, etc.).
idoneus qui impetret (Manil. 57), fit to obtain.
indigni ut rediverentur (Liv. xxii. 59. 17), unworthy to be ransomed.

Note 1.—This construction is sometimes explained as a relative clause of purpose, but it is more closely related to characteristic.

Note 2.—With dignus etc., the poets often use the Infinitive:—
fons rivò dare nomen idoneus (Hor. Ep. i. 16. 12), a source fit to give a name to a stream.

aetás mollis et apta regi (Ov. A. A. i. 10), a time of life soft and easy to be guided.
vivere dignus eras (Ov. M. x. 633), you were worthy to live.

CLAUSES OF RESULT (CONSECUTIVE CLAUSES)

536. The Subjunctive in Consecutive Clauses is a development of the use of that mood in Clauses of Characteristic (as explained in § 534).

537. Clauses of Result take the Subjunctive introduced by ut, so that (negative, ut nôn), or by a relative pronoun or relative adverb.

1. Pure Clauses of Result, with ut or ut nôn, express the result of the main verb in the form of a modifying clause:—
tanta vis probitatis est ut eum in hoste diligamus (Lael. 29), so great is the power of goodness that we love it even in an enemy.
púgnátur acriter ad novissimum agmen, adeò ut paene terga convertant (B. C. i. 80), there is sharp fighting in the rear, so (to such a degree) that they almost take flight.
multa rumor addíngébat, ut paene bellum confectum vidéretur (id. i. 53), rumor added many false reports, so that the war seemed almost ended.

2. Relative Clauses of Result are introduced by the relative pronoun qui or a relative adverb (ubi, unde, quò, etc.). The antecedent is expressed or implied in the main clause.

The Relative in this construction is equivalent to ut with the corresponding demonstrative:—qui = ut is (etc.), ubi = ut ibi, and so on:

nam est innocentia affectio tális animi quae noceat némimini (Tusc. iii. 16), for innocence is such a quality of mind as to do harm to no one.
sunt aliae causae quae pláne éfficient (Top. 50), there are other causes such as to bring to pass.
núlla est celeritas quae possit cum animi celeritate contendere (Tusc. i. 43), there is no swiftness which can compare with the swiftness of the mind.
quae navesavigit qui nón sè mortis perículò committeret (Manil. 31), who went to sea who did not incur the peril of death?

Note 1.—Since the relative clause of Result is a development from the relative clause of Characteristic (§ 534), no sharp line can be drawn between the two constructions. In doubtful cases, it is better to attempt no distinction or to describe the clause as one of Characteristic.

Note 2.—Clauses of Result are often introduced by such correlative words as tam, tális, tanús, ita, sic, adeò, ûsque eō, which belong to the main clause.
a. A Negative Result is introduced by ut nōn, ut nēmō, qui nōn, etc., not by nē:

mulūs gravibusque vulneribus confectus ut iam sē sustinēre nōn posset (B. G. ii. 25), used up with many severe wounds so that he could no longer stand.

tantā vi in Pompeīi equitēs impetum fecērunt ut eōrum nēmō cōnsisteret (B. C. iii. 93), they attacked Pompey’s cavalry with such vigor that not one of them stood his ground.

nēmō est tam senex quī sē annum nōn putet posset vivere (Cat. M. 24), nobody is so old as not to think that he can live a year.

Note. — When the result implies an effect intended (not a simple purpose), ut nē or nē is sometimes used as being less positive than ut nōn: — [librum] ita corrigās nē mihi nocēt (Cæcina, Fam. vi. 7, 6), correct the book so that it may not hurt me.

b. Frequently a clause of result or characteristic is used in a restrictive sense, and so amounts to a Proviso (cf. § 535. d):

hóc ita est ut nē plānē iniūsūm ab accūsātoribus (Rosc. Am. 55), this is so far useful that we are not utterly mocked by the accusers (i.e. useful only on this condition, that, etc.).

nihil autem est molestum quod nōn désiderēs (Cat. M. 47), but nothing is troublesome which (= provided that) you do not miss.

c. The clause of result is sometimes expressed in English by the Infinitive with to or so as to or an equivalent:

tam longē aberam ut nōn vidērem, I was too far away to see (so far that I did not see; cf. § 535. c).

Note. — Result is never expressed by the Infinitive in Latin except by the poets in a few passages (§ 461. a).

538. The constructions of Purpose and Result are precisely alike in the affirmative (except sometimes in tense sequence, § 485. c); but, in the negative, Purpose takes nē, Result ut nōn etc.: —

cūstōditus est nē effugeret, he was guarded in order that he might not escape.
cūstōditus est ut nōn effugeret, he was guarded so that he did not escape.

So in negative Purpose clauses nē quis, nē quid, nē ullus. nē quū, nē quandō, nēcubi, etc. are almost always used; in negative Result clauses, ut nēmō, ut nihil, ut nūllus, etc.: —

(1) cernere nē quis eōs, neu quis contingere posset (Aen. i. 413), that no one might see them, no one touch them. [Purpose.]  
nē quandō liberis prōscriptōrum bona pātria reddantur (Rosc. Am. 145), lest at some time the patrimony of the proscribed should be restored to their children.

ipse nē quō inciderem, revertī Formiās (Att. viii. 3. 7), that I might not come upon him anywhere, I returned to Formiā.
dispositis explôrâtoribus nécubi Rômâni cópiás tràducent (B. G. vii. 35),
having stationed scouts here and there in order that the Romans might
not lead their troops across anywhere.

(2) multi ita sunt imbècilli senès ut nûllum officî munus exsequi possint (Cat. M. 35),
many old men are so feeble that they cannot perform any duty to society. [Result.]

qui summan bonum sic instituit ut nihil habeat cum virtûte conjunctum
(Off. i. 5), who has so settled the highest good that it has nothing in com-
mon with virtue.

For clauses of Result or Characteristic with quin, see § 569. For Substantive Clauses
of Result, see §§ 567-571.

CAUSAL CLAUSES

539. Causal Clauses take either the Indicative or the Subjunctive, according to
their construction; the idea of cause being contained, not in the mood itself, but in
the form of the argument (by implication), in an antecedent of causal meaning (like
propterâ), or in the connecting particles.

Quod is in origin the relative pronoun (stem que-) used adverbially in the accusative
neuter (cf. § 214. d) and gradually sinking to the position of a colorless relative con-
junction (cf. English that and see § 222). Its use as a causal particle is an early
special development. Quia is perhaps an accusative plural neuter of the relative stem
qui-, and seems to have developed its causal sense more distinctly than quod, and at
an earlier period. It is used (very rarely) as an interrogative, why? (so in classical
Latin with nam only), and may, like quandò, have developed from an interrogative to
a relative particle.

Quoniam (for quom iam) is also of relative origin (quom being a case-form of the
pronominal stem que-). It occurs in old Latin in the sense of when (cf. quom, cum),
from which the causal meaning is derived (cf. cum causal). The Subjunctive with quod
and quia depends on the principle of Informal Indirect Discourse (§ 592).

Quandò is probably the interrogative quam (how?) compounded with a form of the
pronominal stem do- (cf. dum, dò-nec). It originally denoted time (first interrogatively,
then as a relative), and thus came to signify cause. Unlike quod and quia, it is not
used to state a reason in informal indirect discourse and therefore is never followed
by the Subjunctive.

540. The Causal Particles quod and quia take the Indicative,
when the reason is given on the authority of the writer or
speaker; the Subjunctive, when the reason is given on the
authority of another: —

1. Indicative: —

cum tibi agam gràtiâs quod mē vivere coègistī (Att. iii. 3), when I may thank
you that you have forced me to live.

cūr igitur pácem nòlo? quia turpis est (Phil. vii. 9), why then do I not wish
for peace? Because it is disgraceful.

ita fit ut adsint proptereā quod officium sequuntur, taceant autem quia perí-
culmum vitant (Rose. Am. 1), so it happens that they attend because they
follow duty, but are silent because they seek to avoid danger.
2. Subjunctive:——

mihi gratulābīre quod ausāssès mē mean prīstīnam dignitātem obtīṅere (Fam. iv. 14. 1), you congratulated me because [as you said] you had heard that I had regained my former dignity.

noctā ambulābāt Themistocles quod somnum capere nōn possēt (Tusc. iv. 44), Themistocles used to walk about at night because [as he said] he could not sleep.

mea mater irāta est quia nōn redierīm (Pl. Cist. 101), my mother is angry because I did not return.

Note 1. —Quod introduces either a fact or a statement, and accordingly takes either the Indicative or the Subjunctive. Quia regularly introduces a fact; hence it rarely takes the Subjunctive. Quoniam, inasmuch as, since, when now, none that, has reference to motives, excuses, justifications, and the like and takes the Indicative.

Note 2. —Under this head what the speaker himself thought under other circumstances may have the Subjunctive (§ 592. 3. n.): as, —ego laeta visa sum quia soror vēnisset (Pl. Mil. 387), I seemed (in my dream) glad because my sister had come.

So with quod even a verb of saying may be in the Subjunctive: as, —rediit quod sē obtīnum nesciō quid dīcēret (Off. i. 40), he returned because he said he had forgotten something.

Note 3. —Nōn quod, nōn quā, nōn quū, introducing a reason expressly to deny it, take the Subjunctive; but the Indicative sometimes occurs when the statement is in itself true, though not the true reason. In the negative, nōn quā (with the Subjunctive) may be used in nearly the same sense as nōn quō nō. After a comparative, quam quō or quam quōd is used:——

pugēs ingentēs, nōn quōd aequānt, sed quia profundōri vōce omne corpus intennitūr (Tusc. ii. 56), boxes grown, not because they are in pain, but because by giving vent to the voice the whole body is put in a state of tension.

nōn quā rectōr ad Alpēs via esset, sed crēdēns (Liv. xxi. 31. 2), not because the route to the Alps was more direct, but believing, etc.

nōn quās parērāte et volūntāte alliī fuerint, sed tantām causam nōn habērunt (Phil. vii. 6), not that there were not others of equal courage and good-will, but they had not so strong a reason.

haec amōre magis impulsus scribēndā ad tē putāvī, quam quō tē arbitrārēs monētis et praecessīs ēgēre (Fam. x. 3. 4), this I thought I ought to write to you, rather from the impulse of (prompted by) affection than because I thought that you needed advice and suggestion.

a. Quoniam and quandō, since, introduce a reason given on the authority of the writer or speaker, and take the Indicative:——

locus est a mē, quoniam ita Murēna voluit, retrāctandus (Mur. 54), I must revise the point, since Murēna has so wished.

quandō ita vis, di bene vortant (Pl. Tīn. 573), since you so wish, may the gods bless the undertaking.

quandō ad mātrīā nāri summus (Plin. v. 21), since we are born for greater things.

Note. —The Subjunctive with quoniam is unclassical. Quandō, since, in the causal sense, is mostly archaic or late. Quandō, when, is used as interrogative, relative, and indefinite: as, —quandō? hodie, when? to-day; si quandō, if ever.
b. Causal clauses introduced by quod, quia, quoniam, and quando take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse, like any other dependent clause (see § 580).

c. A Relative, when used to express cause, regularly takes the Subjunctive (see § 535. e).

da. Cum causal takes the Subjunctive (see § 549).

For Substantive Clauses with quod, see § 572.

TEMPORAL CLAUSES

541. Temporal Clauses are introduced by particles which are almost all of relative origin. They are construed like other relative clauses, except where they have developed into special idiomatic constructions. For list of Temporal Particles, see p. 138.

Temporal Clauses may be classified as follows: —

I. Conditional Relative Clauses: ubi, ut, cum, quando, in Protasis (§ 542).
II. Clauses with postquam, ubi, etc. (Indicative), (§ 543).
III. Clauses with cum (1. Cum temporal (§§ 545-548).

IV. Clauses with antequam and priusquam (Indicative or Subjunctive) (§ 551).
V. Clauses with dum, dēnec, and quod (Indicative or Subjunctive) (§§ 552-556).

Conditional Relative Clauses

542. The particles ubi, ut, cum, quando, either alone or compounded with -cumque, may be used as Indefinite Relatives (in the sense of whenever), and have the constructions of Protasis (cf. § 514): —

cum id malum negās esse, capior (Tusc. ii. 29), whenever you (the individual disputant) deny it to be an evil, I am misled. [Present general condition.]

quod proiectō cum mē nūlla vis cōgeret, facere nōn audērem (Phil. v. 51), which I would surely not venture to do, as long as no force compelled me. [Present, contrary to fact: cf. § 517.]

cum videās ēōs dōlōre nōn frangī, dēbēas existimāre, etc. (Tusc. ii. 66), when you see that those are not broken by pain, you ought to infer, etc. [Present general condition: cf. § 518. a.]

cum rosam viderat, tum incipere vēr arbitrābatūr (Verr. v. 27), whenever he saw a rose he thought spring had begun. [Past general condition: cf. § 518. b.]

id ubi dixisset, hastam in finis eōrum ēmittēbat (Liv. i. 32. 13), when he had said this, he would cast the spear into their territories. [Past General Condition, repeated action: see § 518. c.]

1 With all temporal particles the Subjunctive is often found depending on some other principle of construction. (See Intermediate Clauses, § 591.)
Temporal Clauses with *postquam, ubi, etc.*

543. The particles *postquam* (*posteaquam*), *ubi*, *ut* (*ut primum, ut semel*), *simul atque* (*simul ac, or simul alone*), take the Indicative (usually in the *perfect* or the *historical present*):

militēs *postquam* victoriam *adępti* sunt, nihil reliqui victis fēcēre (Sall. Cat. 11),
when the soldiers had won the victory, they left nothing to the vanquished.

*posteaquam* forum attigistī, nihil fēcistī nisi, etc. (Pam. xvi. 10. 3), *since you came to the forum, you have done nothing except*, etc.

ubi omnis idem sentire intellēxit, posternum diem pūgae cōnstituit (B. G. iii. 23), *when he understood that all agreed (thought the same thing)*, he appointed the *next day* for the battle.

Catilīna, ubi eōs convěniisse videt, ācēdit (Sall. Cat. 20), *when Catiline sees that they have come together*, he retires.

Pompeiōs ut equitātum suum pulsum viāvit, acē exsēvit (B. C. iii. 94), *when Pompey saw his cavalry beaten, he left the field*.

ut semel ē Piraeō eloquentia ēvecta est (Brut. 51), *as soon as eloquence had set sail from the Piraeus*.

nostri simul in āridō cōnstitērunt, in hostis inemptum fēcērunt (B. G. iv. 26),
our men, *as soon as they had taken a position on dry ground, made an attack on the enemy*.

simul atque introductus est, rem cōnfēcit (Clu. 40), *as soon as he was brought in, he did the job*.

The particles less commonly take the Imperfect or Pluperfect Indicative. The Imperfect denotes a past state of things; the Pluperfect, an action completed in past time:

*postquam* strēcti utrīque stābant, dūcēs in medium prōcēdunt (Liv. i. 23), *when they stood in array or both sides, the generals advance into the midst*.

P. Africanus *posteaquam* bis cōnsul et cōnsor fuerat (Caecil. 69), *when Africanus had been (i.e. had the dignity of having been) twice consul and censor*.

*posteaquam* id difficilius visum est, neque facultās perficiendi dabātur, ad Pompeiōm trānsīerunt (B. C. iii. 60), *when this seemed too hard, and no means of effecting it were given, they passed over to Pompey*.

*post* diem quintum quam iterum barbarī male pāgnāverant (= vieti sunt), lēgātūs ā Bocchō veniunt (Lug. 102), *the fifth day after the barbarians were beaten the second time, envoys come from Bocchus*.

haec iuventus, ubi familiarēs opēs dēfēcerant, ad facinora incēndēbant (Sall. Cat. 13), *when their inherited resources had given out, etc.*

ubi pericula virtātē prōpulerant (id. 6), *when they had dispelled the dangers by their valor*.

For the use of *ubi, ut*, either alone or compounded with -cumque, as Indefinite Relatives, see § 542.
USES OF CUM

544. The conjunction cum (quam) is a case-form of the relative pronoun qui. It inherits from qui its subordinating force, and in general shares its constructions. But it was early specialized to a temporal meaning (cf. tum, dum), and its range of usage was therefore less wide than that of qui; it could not, for example, introduce clauses of purpose or of result.

With the Indicative, besides the simple expression of definite time (corresponding to simple relative clauses with the Indicative), it has a few special uses, — conditional, explicative, cum inversum — all easily derived from the temporal use.

With the Subjunctive, cum had a development parallel to that of the qui-clause of Characteristic, — a development not less extensive and equally peculiar to Latin. From defining the time the cum-clause passed over to the description of the time by means of its attendant circumstances of cause or concession (cf. since, while).

In particular, cum with the Subjunctive was used in narrative (hence the past tenses, Imperfect and Pluperfect) as a descriptive clause of time. As, however, the present participle in Latin is restricted in its use and the perfect active participle is almost wholly lacking, the historical or narrative cum-clause came into extensive use to supply the deficiency. In classical writers the narrative cum-clause (with the Subjunctive) has pushed back the defining clause (with the Imperfect or Pluperfect Indicative) into comparative infrequency, and is itself freely used where the descriptive or characterizing force is scarcely perceptible (cf. the qui-clause of Characteristic, § 534).

Cum Temporal

545. A temporal clause with cum, when, and some past tense of the Indicative dates or defines the time at which the action of the main verb occurred: —

eō [litō] regionēs dirēxit tum cum urbem condidit (Div. i. 30), he traced with it the quarters [of the sky] at the time he founded the city.

cum occiditū Sex. Rōscius, ibidem fūerunt servi (Rosc. Ann. 120), when Rōscius was slain, the slaves were on the spot. [occiditur is historical present.]

quem quidem cum ex urbe pellemārum, hoc prōvidēbam animō (Cat. iii. 16), when I was trying to force him (conative imperfect) from the city, I looked forward to this.

fulgentis gladiōrum vidēbantī Decī cum in aicem eōrum intrēbant (Tusc. ii. 59), the Decī saw the flashing swords of the enemy when they rushed upon their line.

tum cum in Asiā rēs māgnās permultī āmiserant (Manil. 19), at that time, when many had lost great fortunes in Asia.

NOTE 1. — This is the regular use with all tenses in early Latin, and at all times with the Perfect and the Historical Present (as with postquam etc.). With the Imperfect and Pluperfect the Indicative use is (in classical Latin) much less common than the Subjunctive use defined below (§ 546).

NOTE 2. — This construction must not be confused with that of cum, whenever, in General Conditions (§ 542).
§ 545, 546] CUM TEMPORAL

α. When the time of the main clause and that of the temporal clause are absolutely identical, cum takes the Indicative in the same tense as that of the main verb:

\[\text{maximā sum lactītūd adfectus cum audīvi cōnsulēm tē factum esse (Fam. xv. 7), I was very much pleased when I heard that you had been elected consul.}\]

546. A temporal clause with cum and the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive describes the circumstances that accompanied or preceded the action of the main verb:

\[\text{cum essēm òtiosus in Tusculānō, accēpi tuās litterās (Fam. ix. 18. 1), when I was taking my ease in my house at Tusculum, I received your letter.}\]

\[\text{cum servīlē bellō prēmerētur (Manil. 30), when she (Italy) was under the load of the Servile War.}\]

\[\text{cum id nānītātum esset, māturāt (B. G. i. 7), when this had been reported, he made (makes) haste.}\]

\[\text{cum ad Cybistra quīnque diēs essēm morātus, rēgem Ariośarbānem insidīis liberāvi (Fam. xv. 4. 0), after remaining at Cybistra for five days, I freed King Ariošarbānēs from plots.}\]

\[\text{is cum ad mē Lāōdīcēam vēnisset mēcumque ego cum vellēm, repente persecussus est atrōcissimus litteris (id. ix. 25. 3), when he had come to me at Lāōdīcea and I wished him to remain with me, he was suddenly, etc.}\]

Note 1.—This construction is very common in narrative, and cum in this use is often called narrative cum.

Note 2.—Cum with the Imperfect or Pluperfect Indicative does not (like cum with the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive) describe the time by its circumstances; it defines the time of the main verb by denoting a coëxistent state of things (Imperfect Indicative) or a result attained when the action of the main verb took place (Pluperfect). Thus the construction is precisely that of postquam etc. (§ 543. α).

Note 3.—The distinction between the uses defined in §§ 545, 546, may be illustrated by the following examples: (1) He had a fever when he was in Spain (Shakespeare). Here the when-clause defines the time when Cæsar had the fever,—namely, in the year of his Spanish campaign (a.e. 49). In Latin we should use cum with the Imperfect Indicative. (2) Columbus discovered America when he was seeking a new route to India; here the when-clause does not define or date the time of the discovery; it merely describes the circumstances under which America was discovered,—namely, in the course of a voyage undertaken for another purpose. In Latin we should use the Imperfect Subjunctive.

Note 4.—The distinction explained in Note 3 is unknown to early Latin. In Plautus quém always has the Indicative unless the Subjunctive is required for some other reason.

α. When the principal action is expressed in the form of a temporal clause with cum, and the definition of the time becomes the main clause, cum takes the Indicative.

Here the logical relations of the two clauses are inverted; hence cum is in this use called cum inversum:
dies nondum decem intercesserant, cum ille alter filius infans necatus (Clu. 28), ten days had not yet passed, when the other infant son was killed. [Instead of when ten days had not yet passed, etc.]

iamque lax apparebat cum procedit ad milités (Q. C. vii. 8. 3), and day was already dawning when he appears before the soldiery.

hoc facere noctu apparebat, cum matres familiae repente in publicum pro-
currerunt (B. G. vii. 26), they were preparing to do this by night, when the women suddenly ran out into the streets.

547. Present time with cum temporal is denoted by the Present Indicative; future time, by the Future or Future Perfect Indicative:

incidunt tempora, cum ea, quae maximé videntur digna esse iustó homine, fiant contrária (Off. i. 31), times occur when those things which seem especially worthy of the upright man, become the opposite.

non dubitabó dare operam ut tē videam, cum id satis commodē facere poterō (Fam. xii. 1), I shall not hesitate to take pains to see you, when I can do it conveniently.

longum illud tempus cum non erō (Att. xii. 18), that long time when I shall be no more.

cum vēneris, cōgnōscēs (Fam. v. 7. 3), when you come (shall have come), you will find out.

548. Cum, whenever, takes the construction of a relative clause in a general condition (see § 542).

For present time, either the Present or the Perfect Indicative is used; for past time, regularly the Pluperfect Indicative.

For est cum etc., see § 535. a. n. a.

Cum Causal or Concessive

549. Cum causal or concessive takes the Subjunctive:

id difficile non est, cum tantum equitātū valeamus (B. C. iii. 86), this is not difficult since we are so strong in cavalry. [Causal.]

cum solitūdō insidiārum et metús plēna sit, ratio ipsa monet amicitias com-
parare (Fin. i. 66), since solitude is full of treachery and fear, reason itself prompts us to contract friendships. [Causal.]

cum primi ordines concidissent, tamen acerium reliqui resistēbant (B. G. vii. 62), though the first ranks had fallen, still the others resisted vigorously. [Concessive.]

brevi spatio legionēs numerō hominum explēverat, cum iniūsi nōn amplius duōbus milibus habuisset (Sall. Cat. 56), in a short time he had filled out the legions with their complement of men, though at the start he had not had more than two thousand. [Concessive.]
Cum causal may usually be translated by since; cum concessive by although or while; either, occasionally, by when.

Note 1. — Cum in these uses is often emphasized by ut, utpote, quippe, praestetim: as, — nec reprehendo: quippe cum ipse istam reprehensio nem non figerim (Att. x. 3 A), I find no fault; since I myself did not escape that blame.

Note 2. — These causal and concessive uses of cum are of relative origin and are parallel to qui causal and concessive (§ 555 a). The attendant circumstances are regarded as the cause of the action, or as tending to hinder it.

Note 3. — In early Latin cum (quem) causal and concessive usually takes the Indicative: as, — quem tua res distrahitur, ut minus videam (Pl. Trin. 617), since your property is being torn in pieces, O that I may see, etc.

a. Cum with the Indicative frequently introduces an explanatory statement, and is sometimes equivalent to quod, on the ground that: —

cum tacent, clamant (Cat. i. 21), when they are silent, they cry out (i.e. their silence is an emphatic expression of their sentiments).

gratulor tibi cum tantum valet apud Dolabella (Fam. ix. 14. 3), I congratulate you that you are so strong with Dolabella.

Note. — This is merely a special use of cum temporal expressing coincident time (§ 545 a).

b. Cum ... tum, signifying both ... and, usually takes the Indicative; but when cum approaches the sense of while or though, the Subjunctive is used (§ 549 a):

cum multa non proba, tum illud in primum (Fin. i. 18), while there are many things I do not approve, there is this in chief. [Indicative.]

cum difficile est, tum ne acquiram quidem (Lael. 26), not only is it difficult but even unjust.

cum res tota facta sit pueriliter, tum ne efficit quidem quod vult (Fin. i. 19), while the whole thing is childishly got up, he does not even make his point (accomplish what he wishes). [Subjunctive; approaching cum causal.]

Antequam and Priusquam

550. Antequam and priusquam, before, introduce Clauses of Time which resemble those with cum temporal in their constructions. Priusquam consists of two parts (often written separately and sometimes separated by other words), the comparative adverb prius, sooner (before), which really modifies the main verb, and the relative particle quam, than, which introduces the subordinate clause. The latter is therefore a relative clause, and takes the Indicative or the Subjunctive (like other relative clauses) according to the sense intended. The Subjunctive with priusquam is related to that of purpose (§ 529) and is sometimes called the Anticipatory or Prospective Subjunctive. Antequam, like priusquam, consists of two words, the first of which is the adverb ante, before, modifying the main verb. Its constructions are the same as those of priusquam, but the latter is commoner in classic prose.

551. Antequam and priusquam take sometimes the Indicative, sometimes the Subjunctive.
a. With antequam and priusquam, before, the Perfect Indicative states a fact which preceded the action of the main verb: —

antequam tuás légí litterás, hominem ire cupiēbam (Att. ii. 7. 2), before I read your letter, I wished the man to go.

neque ante dimitit cum quam fidem dedit adulēscēns (Liv. xxxix. 10), and she did not let the young man go till he pledged his faith.

neque prius fugere dēstītērunt quam ad flūmen pervēnērunt (B. G. i. 53), nor did they stop running until they reached the river.

Note. — The Perfect Indicative in this construction is regular when the main clause is negative and the main verb is in an historical tense. The Imperfect Indicative is rare; the Pluperfect Indicative, very rare. The Perfect Subjunctive is rare and ante-classical, except in Indirect Discourse.

b. With antequam or priusquam the Imperfect Subjunctive is common when the subordinate verb implies purpose or expectancy in past time, or when the action that it denotes did not take place: —

ante pūgnāri coeptum est quam satis įnstrueretur aciēs (Liv. xxii. 4. 7), the fight was begun before the line could be properly formed.

priusquam tū suum sībi vēnderēs, ipse possēdit (Phil. ii. 96), before you could sell him his own property, he took possession of it himself.

priusquam tēlum abici posset aut nostri propius accedērunt, omnis Vāri aciēs terga vertit (B. C. ii. 34), before a weapon could be thrown or our men approached nearer, the whole line about Varus took flight.

Note 1. — The Pluperfect Subjunctive is rare, except in Indirect Discourse by sequence of tenses for the Future Perfect Indicative (§ 484. c): as, — antequam hominēs nefāriī dē meō adventū audīre potuissent, in Macedōniān perrēxī (Plauc. 98), before those evil men could learn of my coming, I arrived in Macedonia.

Note 2. — After an historical present the Present Subjunctive is used instead of the Imperfect: as, — neque ab eō prius Domitiānī militēs discēduant quam in conscenptum Cæsāris dēducatūr (B. C.'i. 22), and the soldiers of Domitius did (do) not leave him until he was (is) conducted into Cæsar's presence. So, rarely, the Perfect Subjunctive (as B. G. iii. 18).

c. Antequam and priusquam, when referring to future time, take the Present or Future Perfect Indicative; rarely the Present Subjunctive:

priusquam dē cēteris rēbus respondēō, dē amicitā puca dicam (Phil. ii. 3),

before I reply to the rest, I will say a little about friendship.

nōn dēfatigābōr antequam illōrum ancipitēs viās percēperō (De Or. iii. 145),

I shall not weary till I have traced out their doubtful ways.

antequam veniat litterās mittet (Leg. Agr. ii. 53), before he comes, he will send a letter.

Note 1. — The Future Indicative is very rare.

Note 2. — In a few cases the Subjunctive of present general condition is found with antequam and priusquam (cf. § 518. a): as, — in omnīs negōtīs priusquam aggrediēre, adhibēnda est praēparatio diligēns (Off. i. 73), in all undertakings, before you proceed to action, careful preparation must be used.
§§ 552–554]  DUM, DÔNEC, AND QUOAD  357

Dum, Dônec, and Quoad

552. As an adverb meaning for a time, awhile, dum is found in old Latin, chiefly as an exclam (cf. vixdum, nôndum). Its use as a conjunction comes either through correlation (cf. cum . . . tûm, ai . . . sic) or through substitution for a conjunction, as in the English the moment I saw it, I understood. Quoad is a compound of the relative qua, up to which point, with ad. The origin and early history of dônec are unknown.

553. Dûm and quoad, until, take the Present or Imperfect Subjunctive in temporal clauses implying intention or expectancy:—

exspectât forssasse dum dìcat (Tusc. ii. 17), you are waiting perhaps for him to say (until he say). [Dum is especially common after exspectô.]
dum reliquæ nàvès convenirent, ad hòram nònâm exspectavít (B. G. iv. 23), he waited till the ninth hour for the rest of the ships to join him.
comìtia dìlátâ [sum:] dum lex fìrëtvr (Att. iv. 17. 3), the election was postponed until a law should be passed.
an id exspectâtûmus, quoad nè vestigium quidem Asiae cìvitãtûm atque urbiûm reînvàtûr (Phîl. xi. 25), shall we wait for this until not a trace is left of the states and cities of Asia?
Epâmînôndas exercîtûbat plûrimum lactandûd ad eum finem quoad stãns complexi possèt atque contendere (Nep. Epam. 2), Epâmînôndas trained himself in wrestling so far as to be able (until he should be able) to grapple standing and fight (in that way).

Note 1.—Dônece is similarly used in poetry and later Latin: as, —et dûxit longâ

dônece curvâta coërint inter sè capita (Aen. xi. 860), and drew it (the bow) until the

curved tips touched each other.

Note 2.—Dum, until, may be used with the Present or Future Perfect Indicative to state a future fact when there is no idea of intention or expectancy; but this construction is rare in classic prose. The Future is also found in early Latin. Dônece, until, is similarly used, in poetry and early Latin, with the Present and Future Perfect Indicative, rarely with the Future:—

ego in Arcâb opperîor dum istâ cògnõscô (Att. x. 3), I am waiting in the villa at

Arcâb until I find this out. [This is really dum, while.]

mihi ûsque cûræ ævit quid agãs, dum quid ægeris sciô (Fam. xii. 19. 3), I shall

always feel anxious as to what you are doing, until I actually know (shall

have known) what you have done.

dèheta máîrômm luès donnéc tempûla réféceris (Hor. Od. iii. 6. 1), you shall suffer for

the sins of your ancestors until you rebuild the temples.
tercentum régnâbatur annûs, donnéc gênninam parã dabit Ilia próiem (Aen. i. 272),

sway shall be held for thrice a hundred years, until Ilia shall give birth to twin offspring.

554. Dônëc and quoad, until, with the Perfect Indicative denote an actual fact in past time:—

dônëc reûit silentium fût (Liv. xxiii. 31. 9), there was silence until he returned.

ûsque ôt tinui donnéc ad réciendôs ãëdicês vènumus (Verr. ii. 1. 17), I was

anxious until the moment when we came to challenge the jurors.

Rômås fuérunt quoad L. Metellus in prôvinciân prefectûs est (id. ii. 62),

they remained at Rome until Lucius Metellus set out for the province.
555. **Dum, dōnec, and quoad, as long as**, take the Indicative:—

*dum anima est, spēs esse dicitur (Att. ix. 10. 3), as long as there is life, there is said to be hope.*

*dum præsidia ulla fuérant, in Sullae præsidii fuit (Rosc. Am. 126), so long as there were any garrisons, he was in the garrisons of Sulla.*

*dum longius à mūnítione aberrant Galli, plus multātūdine telōrum prōficiēbant (B. G. vii. 82), so long as the Gauls were at a distance from the fortifications, they had the advantage because of their missiles.*

*dōnec grātus eram tibi, Persārum vigil rēge beātior (Hor. Od. iii. 9. 1), as long as I enjoyed thy favor, I flourished happier than the king of the Persians.*

*quoad potuit fortissimē restitit (B. G. iv. 12), he resisted bravely as long as he could.*

**Note 1.** —*Dōnec in this use is confined to poetry and later writers.*

**Note 2.** —Quam diū, as long as, takes the Indicative only: as, — sē oppidē tam diū tennit quam diū in provincia Partī fūrunt (Fam. xii. 19. 2), he kept himself within the town as long as the Parthians were in the province.*

556. **Dum, while,** regularly takes the Present Indicative to denote continued action in past time.

In translating, the English Imperfect must generally be used:—

*dum haec geruntur, Caesari nūntiatum est (B. G. i. 46), while this was going on, a message was brought to Caesar.*

*haec dum aguntur, interea Cleomenēs iam ad Elōrī situs pervēnerat (Verr. v. 91), while this was going on, Cleomenes meanwhile had come down to the coast at Elorum.*

*hoc dum narrat, forte audīvī (Ter. Haut. 272), I happened to hear this while she was telling it.*

**Note.** —This construction is a special use of the Historical Present (§ 469).  

*a. A past tense with dum (usually so long as) makes the time emphatic by contrast; but a few irregular cases of dum with a past tense occur where no contrast is intended:*

*nec enim dum eram vōbiscum, animum meum videbātis (Cat. M. 79), for while I was with you, you could not see my soul. [Here the time when he was alive is contrasted with that after his death.]*

*coūrta est pūgna, par dum consēstabat ārdōnes (Liv. xxii. 47), a conflict began, well matched as long as the ranks stood firm.*

*But, —dum oculōs hostium certāmin āverterat (id. xxxii. 24), while the struggle kept the eyes of the enemy turned away.*

*dum ānum adscendere gradum cōnātus est, vēnit in periculum (Mur. 55), while he attempted to climb one step [in rank] he fell into danger.*
CLauses with quīn and quōminus

557. The original meaning of quīn is how not? why not? (quīn-ē), and when used with the Indicative or (rarely) with the Subjunctive it regularly implies a general negative. Thus, quīn ego hoc rogēm? why shouldn’t I ask this? implies that there is no reason for not asking. The implied negative was then expressed in a main clause, like nāla causa est or fieri nōn potest. Hence come the various dependent constructions introduced by quīn.

Quōminus is really a phrase (quō minus), and the dependent constructions which it introduces have their origin in the relative clause of purpose with quō and a comparative (see § 531 a).

558. A subjunctive clause with quīn is used after verbs and other expressions of hindering, resisting, refusing, doubting, delaying, and the like, when these are negated, either expressly or by implication:

nōn hūmānā nūlla neque divīna obstant quīn sociōs amicōs trahant excindant (Sal. Ep. Mith. 17), no human or divine laws prevent them from taking captive and exterminating their friendly allies.

ut nē suessionēs quidem dētērērēe potuerint quīn cum hīs consentirent (B. G. ii. 3), that they were unable to hinder even the suessiones from making common cause with them.

nōn posse militēs continērē quīn in urbem inrumpērent (B. C. ii. 12), that the soldiers could not be restrained from bursting into the city.

nōn recūsāt quīn iūdīces (Deiot. 43), he does not object to your judging.

neque recūsāre quīn armīs contendant (B. G. iv. 7), and that they did not refuse to fight.

prae terē nōn potui quīn scriberem ad tē (Caesar ap. Cic. Att. ix. 6 A), I could not neglect to write to you.
Trèveri tōtus hiemis nōllum tempus intermissērunt quīn lēgātōs mitterent (B. G. v. 55), the Treveri let no part of the winter pass without sending ambassadors. [Cf. B. G. v. 53; B. C. i. 78.]
nōn eūnetandum existimāvit quīn pūgnā décertāret (B. G. iii. 23), he thought he ought not to delay risking a decisive battle.
paulum āruit quīn Vārum interficeret (B. C. ii. 35), he just missed killing Vārus (it lacked little but that he should kill).
neque multum āruit quīn castrīsp explerentur (id. ii. 36), they came near being driven out of the camp.
facere nōn possēm quīn cotidiē ad tē mittam (Att. xii. 27. 2), I cannot help sending to you every day.
fiēri nūllō modō poterat quīn Cleomenē parcerētur (Verr. v. 104), it was out of the question that Cleomenes should not be spared.
ut efficē nōn possit quīn ēos ōderim (Phil. xi. 36), so that nothing can prevent my hating them.

α. Quīn is especially common with nōn dubitō, I do not doubt, nōn est dubium, there is no doubt, and similar expressions: —
nōn dubitābat quīn ei crēderēmus (Att. vi. 2. 3), he did not doubt that we believed him.
illavide dubītēs quīn ego omnīa faciam (Fam. v. 20. 6), do not doubt that I will do all.
quis ignōrat quīn triā Graecōrum genera sint (Flacc. 64), who is ignorant that there are three races of Greeks?
nōn crēt dubium quīn Helvētī plurīnum possent (cf. B. G. i. 3), there was no doubt that the Helvetians were most powerful.
neque Caesarem fefellīt quīn ab īis cohortibus initium victūrīae orīrētur (B. C. iii. 94), and it did not escape Caesar's notice that the beginning of the victory came from those cohorts.

Note 1.—Dubitō without a negative is regularly followed by an Indirect Question; so sometimes nōn dubitō and the like: —
nōn nūli dubiant ān per Sardiniam veniāt (Fam. ix. 7), some doubt whether he is coming through Sardinia.
dubitāte, si potestis, à quō sit Sex. Rōscius occisus (Rose. Am. 78), doubt, if you can, by whom Sextus Roscius was murdered.
dubitābām tū hās ipsas litterās essēne acceptārus (Att. xv. 9), I doubt whether you will receive this very letter. [Epistolary Imperfect (§ 479).]
quālis sit futūrus, nē vōs quidem dubitatīs (B. C. ii. 32), and what it (the outcome) will be, you yourselves do not doubt.
nōn dubitō quīd sentiat (Fam. xv. 9), I do not doubt what they think.
dubium illī nōn erat quīn futūrum esset (id. viii. 8. 1), it was not doubtful to him what was going to happen.

Note 2.—Nōn dubitō in the sense of I do not hesitate commonly takes the Infinitive, but sometimes quīn with the Subjunctive: —
nec dubitabat ān appellāre sapientem (Lael. 1), and not to hesitate to call him a sage.
dubitandum nōn existimāvit quīn proficiscerētur (B. G. ii. 2), he did not think he ought to hesitate to set out.
quīn dubitās āti temporīs opportunitātēs (B. C. ii. 34), why do you hesitate to take advantage of the favorable moment? [A question implying a negative.]
b. Verbs of *hindering* and *refusing* often take the subjunctive with *né* or *quōminus* (= *ut eō minus*), especially when the verb is not negated:

plūra né dicam tuae mé lacrimae impediant (Planc. 104), *your tears prevent me from speaking further.*

nec aetas impedit quōminus agrī colendi studia teneāmus (Cat. M. 60), *nor does age prevent us from retaining an interest in tilling the soil.*

nihil impedit quōminus id facere possimus (Fin. i. 33), *nothing hinders us from being able to do that.*

obstiti né trānsire cōpiāe possent (Verr. v. 5), *you opposed the passage of the troops (opposed lest the troops should cross).*

Note. — Some verbs of *hindering* may take the Infinitive:

nihil obstet dicere (Fam. ix. 13. 4), *there is nothing to prevent my saying it.*

prohibet accēdere (Caec. 40), *prevents him from approaching.*

559. A clause of Result or Characteristic may be introduced by *quīn* after a general negative, where *quīn* is equivalent to *quī* (quae, quod) *nōn*:

1. Clauses of Result:

nēmō est tam fortis quīn [* = quī nōn*] rei novitāte perturbētur (B. G. vi. 39), *no one is so brave as not to be disturbed by the unexpected occurrence.*

nēmō erat adeō tardus quīn putāret (B. C. i. 69), *no one was so slothful as not to think, etc.*

quis est tam dēmēns quīn sentiat (Balb. 43), *who is so senseless as not to think, etc.?*

nīl tam difficīlest quīn quacrendō investigāri possīet (Tor. Haut. 675), *nothing’s so hard but search will find it out* (Herrick).

2. Clauses of Characteristic:

nēmō nostrum est quīn [* = quī nōn*] sciat (Rosc. Am. 55), *there is no one of us who does not know.*

nēmō fuit milītum quīn vulnerārētur (B. C. iii. 53), *there was not one of the soldiers who was not wounded.*

ecquīs fuit quīn lacrimāret (Verr. v. 121), *was there any one who did not shed tears?*

quis est quīn intellegat (Plin. v. 64), *who is there who does not understand?*

hōrum nihil est quīn [* = quod nōn*] intereat (N. D. iii. 30), *there is none of these (elements) which does not perish.*

nihil est illōrum quīn [* = quod nōn*] ego ills dixerim (Pl. Bæc. 1012), *there is nothing of this that I have not told him.*

Note. — *Quīn* sometimes introduces a pure clause of result with the sense of *ut nōn*: as, — nūmmquam tam maie est Siūris quīn alicquid facētē et commōlē dicāt (Verr. iv. 95), *things are never so bad with the Sicilians but that they have something pleasant or witty to say.*

For *quīn* in independent constructions, see § 449. b.
SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES

560. A clause which is used as a noun may be called a Substantive Clause, as certain relative clauses are sometimes called adjective clauses. But in practice the term is restricted to clauses which represent a nominative or an accusative case, the clauses which stand for an ablative being sometimes called adverbial clauses.

Even with this limitation the term is not quite precise (see p. 367, footnote 1). The fact is rather that the clause and the leading verb are mutually complementary; each reinforces the other. The simplest and probably the earliest form of such sentences is to be found in the paratactic use (see § 208) of two verbs like voò abèas, dicàmus cêseè, adeò optimum est. From such verbs the usage spread by analogy to other verbs (see lists on pp. 363, 367, footnotes), and the complementary relation of the clause to the verb came to resemble the complementary force of the accusative, especially the accusative of cognate meaning (§ 300).

561. A clause used as a noun is called a Substantive Clause.

a. A Substantive Clause may be used as the Subject or Object of a verb, as an Appositive, or as a Predicate Nominative or Accusative.

Note 1.— Many ideas which in English take the form of an abstract noun may be rendered by a substantive clause in Latin. Thus, he demanded an investigation may be postulñbat ut quaestìo habèntur. The common English expression for with the infinitive also corresponds to a Latin substantive clause: as, — it remains for me to speak of the piratic war, reliquum est ut dè belò dicam piraticò.

Note 2.— When a Substantive Clause is used as subject, the verb to which it is subject is called impersonal, and the sign of the construction in English is commonly the so-called expletive it.

562. Substantive Clauses are classified as follows: —

1. Subjunctive Clauses
   a. Of purpose (command, wish, fear) (§§ 563, 564).
      (ut, èò, ut nòn, etc.).
   b. Of result (happen, effect, etc.) (§ 568).


4. Infinitive Clauses
   a. With verbs of ordering, wishing, etc. (§ 563).
   b. Indirect Discourse (§ 579 ff.).

Note. — The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is not strictly a clause, but in Latin it has undergone so extensive a development that it may be so classed. The uses of the Infinitive Clause are of two kinds: (1) in constructions in which it replaces a subjunctive clause with ut etc.; (2) in the Indirect Discourse. The first class will be discussed in connection with the appropriate subjunctive constructions (§ 563); for Indirect Discourse, see § 579 ff.

Substantive Clauses of Purpose

563. Substantive Clauses of Purpose with ut (negative nè) are used as the object of verbs denoting an action directed toward the future.
Such are, verbs meaning to admonish, ask, bargain, command, decree, determine, permit, persuade, resolve, urge, and wish: —

monet ut omniés suspicionés vitet (B. G. i. 20), he warns him to avoid all suspicion.
hortâtur eos né animó déficient (B. C. i. 19), he urges them not to lose heart. 
ŭe rogó atque ōrō ut eum invēs (Fam. xiii. 66), I beg and pray you to aid him. 
his uti conquerent imperávit (B. G. i. 28), he ordered them to search. 
persuádet Casticō ut régnum occupáret (id. i. 3), he persuades Casticus to usurp royal power. 
suis imperávit né quod omnínō téllum récercat (id. i. 40), he ordered his men 
not to throw back any weapon at all.

Nota. — With any verb of these classes the poets may use the Infinitive instead of 
an object clause: —
hortámur fāri (Aen. ii. 74), we urge [him] to speak. 
né quaere docēri (id. vi. 614), seek not to be told. 
temptat prævertere (id. i. 721), she attempts to turn, etc.
For the Subjunctive without ut with verbs of commanding, see § 565. a.

a. Iubeō, order, and vetō, forbid, take the Infinitive with Subject 
Accusative: —

Labiénun íugum montis ascendere iubet (B. G. i. 21), he orders Labienus to 
ascend the ridge of the hill.
liberós ad sē addúcī iussit (id. ii. 5), he ordered the children to be brought to him. 
ab opere légátōs discedère vēterat (id. ii. 20), he had forbidden the lieutenants 
to leave the work.
vetuēre [bona] reddī (Liv. ii. 5), they forbade the return of the goods (that the 
goods be returned).

Nota. — Some other verbs of commanding etc. occasionally take the Infinitive: —
pontem imperant fieri (B. C. i. 61), they order a bridge to be built. 
rvés monet cavēre (Sall. Cat. 52. 3), the occasion warns us to be on our guard.

b. Verbs of wishing take either the Infinitive or the Subjunctive.
With volō (nolō, málo) and cupiō the Infinitive is commoner, and 
the subject of the infinitive is rarely expressed when it would be the 
same as that of the main verb.

With other verbs of wishing the Subjunctive is commoner when
the subject changes, the Infinitive when it remains the same.

1. Subject of dependent verb same as that of the verb of wishing: —
angur fieri voluī (Fam. xv. 4. 13), I wished to be made augur.
cupiō vigiliam meam tibi trādere (id. xi. 24), I am eager to hand over my watch 
to you.

1 Such verbs or verbal phrases are id agō, ad id veniō, caveō (nē), censeō, cógō, concédō, constítuō, cúrō, dēcernō, édicō, flágitō, hortor, imperō, instō, mandō, metuō (nē), moneō, negātīnum dō, operam dō, ōrō, persuádecī, petō, postulō, præcipiō, precor, prōnūntiō, quáerō, rogō, sciscō, timeō (nē), véreō (nē), videō, volō.
ius dicem me esse, non doctorem volo (Or. 117), I wish to be a judge, not a teacher.

me Caesaris militem dici volui (B. C. ii. 32. 13), I wished to be called a soldier of Caesar.

cupiō me esse clémentem (Cat. i. 4), I desire to be merciful. [But regularly, cupiō esse clémens (see § 457).]

omnis hominēs, qui sēsē student praestāre cēterīs animalibus (Sall. Cat. 1), all men who wish to excel other living creatures.

2. Subject of dependent verb different from that of the verb of wishing:

volō tē scire (Fam. ix. 24. 1), I wish you to know.

vim volumus extingui (Sest. 92), we wish violence to be put down.

tē tuā frui virtūte cupimus (Brut. 331), we wish you to reap the fruits of your virtue.

cupiō ut impietret (Pl. Capt. 102), I wish he may get it.

numquam optābō ut audiātis (Cat. ii. 15), I will never desire that you shall hear.

For volō and its compounds with the Subjunctive without ut, see § 565.

c. Verbs of permitting take either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive. Patior takes regularly the Infinitive with Subject Accusative; so often sinō:—

permisit ut faceret (De Or. ii. 366), permitted him to make.

c oncēdō tibi ut ea praeterēs (Rose. Am. 54), I allow you to pass by these matters.

tabernācula statui passus nōn est (B. C. i. 81), he did not allow tents to be pitched.

vinum importāri nōn sinunt (B. G. iv. 2), they do not allow wine to be imported.

da. Verbs of determining, decreeing, resolving, bargaining, take either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive:—

constiterant ut L. Bēstia querētur (Sall. Cat. 43), they had determined that Lucius Bēstia should complain.

proelīō supersedēre statuīt (B. G. ii. 8), he determined to refuse battle.

dē bonis rēgis quae reddī censuerant (Liv. ii. 5), about the king’s goods, which they had decreed should be restored.

decernit uti cōnsules dīlectum habeant (Sall. Cat. 34), decrees that the consuls shall hold a levy.

ēdictō nē quis iniuessa pūgnāret (Liv. v. 19), having commanded that none should fight without orders.

Note 1.—Different verbs of these classes with the same meaning vary in their construction (see the Lexicon). For verbs of bargaining etc. with the Gerundive, see § 500. 4.

Note 2.—Verbs of decreeing and voting often take the Infinitive of the Second Periphrastic conjugation:—Regulus captivōs reddendōs [esse] nōn censuit (Off. i. 39), Regulus voted that the captives should not be returned. [He said, in giving his formal opinion: captivi nōn reddendī sunt.]
e. Verbs of caution and effort take the Subjunctive with ut. But conor, trid, commonly takes the Complementary Infinitive:—
cur ut quam primum intellegam (Fam. xiii. 10. 4), let me know as soon as possible (take care that I may understand).
dant operam ut habeant (Sall. Cat. 41), they take pains to have (give their attention that, etc.).
impellere uti Caesar nominaretur (id. 49), to induce them to name Caesar (that Caesar should be named).
cenatus est Caesar reficere pontis (B. C. i. 50), Caesar tried to rebuild the bridges.

Note 1.— Conor si also occurs (as B. G. i. 8); cf. minor si etc., § 572. b. x.
Note 2.— Ut nec occurs occasionally with verbs of caution and effort (cf. § 531):—curae ut provide ut aquae ei desit (Att. xi. 3. 3), take care and see that he lacks nothing.
For the Subjunctive with quin and quominus with verbs of hindering etc., see § 558.

§ 564. Verbs of fearing take the Subjunctive, with nec affirmative and nec non or ut negative.

In this use nec is commonly to be translated by that, ut and nec non by that not:—
timeo nec Verris fecerit (Verr. v. 3), I fear that Verres has done, etc.
nec animum offenderet verebatur (B. G. i. 19), he feared that he should hurt the feelings, etc.
nec exheredaretur veritus est (Rosc. Am. 58), he feared that he should be disinherited.

Note.—The subjunctive in nec-clauses after a verb of fearing is optative in origin. To an independent nec-sentence, as nec accidat, may it not happen, a verb may be prefixed (cf. § 560), making a complex sentence. Thus, videt nec accidat; or non nec accidat; when the prefixed verb is one of fearing, timeo nec accidat becomes let it not happen, but I fear that it may. The origin of the ut-clause is similar.

§ 565. Volo and its compounds, the impersonals licet and oportet, and the imperatives dic and fac often take the Subjunctive without ut:—
volo ames (Att. ii. 10), I wish you to love.
quam vellem nec invitasses (Fam. x. 28. 1), how I wish you had invited me!
malem Cerberum metueres (Tusc. i. 12), I had rather you feared Cerberus.
sint enim oportet (id. 1. 12), for they must exist.
queramus licet (Caec. 41), we are allowed to complain.
fac diligas (Att. iii. 13. 2), do love! [A periphrasis for the imperative diligere, love (cf. § 449. c.).]
dic exeat, tell him to go out.
Note 1. — In such cases there is no ellipsis of ut. The expressions are idiomatic remnants of an older construction in which the subjunctives were hortatory or optative and thus really independent of the verb of wishing etc. In the classical period, however, they were doubtless felt as subordinate. Compare the use of cædē and the subjunctive (without nē) in Prohibitions (§ 459), which appears to follow the analogy of fac.

Note 2. — Licet may take (1) the Subjunctive, usually without ut; (2) the simple Infinitive; (3) the Infinitive with Subject Accusative; (4) the Dative and the Infinitive (see § 455. 1). Thus, I may go is licet eam, licet īre, licet me īre, or licet mihi īre.

For licet in concessive clauses, see § 527. b.

Note 3. — Oportet may take (1) the Subjunctive without ut; (2) the simple Infinitive; (3) the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. Thus I must go is oportet eam, oportet īre, or oportet me īre.

α. Verbs of commanding and the like often take the subjunctive without ut:—

In his mandat Rēmōs adeat (B. G. iii. 11), he orders him to visit the Remi.

Rogat finem faciat (id. i. 20), he asks him to cease.

Mnēstheus vocat, classam apteat socii (Aen. iv. 289), he calls Mnēstheus and orders that his comrades shall make ready the fleet.

Note. — The subjunctive in this construction is the hortatory subjunctive used to express a command in Indirect Discourse (§ 588).

Substantive Clauses of Purpose with Passive Verbs

566. A Substantive Clause used as the object of a verb becomes the subject when the verb is put in the passive (Impersonal Construction):—

Caesar ut cōgnōsceret postulātum est (B. C. i. 87), Caesar was requested to make an investigation (it was requested that Caesar should make an investigation).

si erat Heraclīō ab senātū mandatūm ut emeret (Verr. iii. 88), if Heraclius had been instructed by the senate to buy.

si persuāsūm erat Cluvīō ut mentīrētur (Rosc. Com. 51), if Cluvius had been persuaded to lie.

putō concēāblī nōbīs oportēre ut Gresēō verbō ētāmūr (Fin. iii. 15), I think we must be allowed to use a Greek word.

nē quid eis nocēātur ā Caesare cavētur (B. C. i. 86), Caesar takes care that no harm shall be done them (care is taken by Caesar lest, etc.).

α. With verbs of admonishing, the personal object becomes the subject and the object clause is retained:—

admonītī sumus ut cāvērēmus (Att. viii. 11 n. 3), we were warned to be careful.

cum monērētur ut cautior esset (Div. i. 51), when he was advised to be more cautious.

monērī visus est nē id faceret (id. 56), he seemed to be warned not to do it.
b. Some verbs that take an infinitive instead of a subjunctive are used impersonally in the passive, and the infinitive becomes the subject of the sentence:

loqui non conāēditur (B. G. vi. 20), it is not allowed to speak.

c. With iubeō, vetō, and cōgō, the subject accusative of the infinitive becomes the subject nominative of the main verb, and the infinitive is retained as complementary (Personal Construction):

adesse inuentur postrīdē (Verr. ii. 41), they are ordered to be present on the following day.

īre in exsilium iussus est (Cat. ii. 12), he was ordered to go into exile.
Simōnidēs vetitus est nāvīgāre (Div. ii. 134), Simonides was forbidden to sail.
Mandubii exīre cōguntur (B. G. vii. 78), the Mandubii are compelled to go out.

Substantive Clauses of Result (Consecutive Clauses)

567. Clauses of Result may be used substantively, (1) as the object of faciō etc. (§ 568); (2) as the subject of these same verbs in the passive, as well as of other verbs and verbal phrases (§ 569); (3) in apposition with another substantive, or as predicate nominative etc. (see §§ 570, 571).1

568. Substantive Clauses of Result with ut (negative ut non) are used as the object of verbs denoting the accomplishment of an effort.2

Such are especially faciō and its compounds (efficiō, conēficīō, etc.):

efficiam ut intellegātis (Clu. 7), I will make you understand (lit. effect that you, etc.). [So, faciam ut intellegātis (id. 9).]
commētātis ut portāri pessent efficiēbat (B. G. ii. 5), made it possible that supplies could be brought.
perfēct at ē rēgnō ille discēderet (Fam. xv. 4. 6), I brought about his departure from the kingdom.
quaē libertās ut laetior esset rēgis superbia fēcerat (Liv. ii. 1), the arrogance of the king had made this liberty more welcome.
ēvincent instāndō ut litterae darentur (id. ii. 4), by insisting they gain their point,—that letters should be sent. [Here ēvincent = efficiēnt.]

1 In all these cases the clause is not strictly subject or object. The main verb originally conveyed a meaning sufficient in itself, and the result clause was merely complementary. This is seen by the frequent use of ita and the like with the main verb (ita accidit ut, etc.). In like manner purpose clauses are only apparently subject or object of the verb with which they are connected.

2 Verbs and phrases taking an ut-clause of result as subject or object are accidit, additur, alters est rēs, committō, consequor, contingit, eﬀiciō, ēvenit, faciō, fit, fieri potest, forō, impetō, integrum est, mōs est, mūanus est, nescie est, prope est, rēctum est, reliquitur, reliquum est, restat, tantī est, tantum abest, and a few others.
569. Substantive Clauses of Result are used as the subject of the following:

1. Of passive verbs denoting the accomplishment of an effort:—
impetrātum est ut in senātū recitārentur (litterae) (B. C. i. 1), they succeeded in having the letter read in the senate (it was brought about that, etc.).

ita efficitur ut omne corpus mortāle sit (N. D. iii. 30), it therefore is made out that every body is mortal.

2. Of Impersonals meaning it happens, it remains, it follows, it is necessary, it is added, and the like (§ 568, footnote):—

accidit ut esse lūna plēna (B. G. iv. 29), it happened to be full moon (it happened that it was, etc.). [Here ut esse is subject of accidit.]

reliquum est ut officiis certēmus inter nōs (Fam. vii. 31), it remains for us to vie with each other in courtesies.

restat ut hōc dubītēmus (Rosc. Am. 88), it is left for us to doubt this.

sequitur ut dōceam (N. D. ii. 81), the next thing is to show (it follows, etc.).

Note 1.—The infinitive sometimes occurs: as,—nec enim acciderat mihi opus esse (Fam. vi. 11. 1), for it had not happened to be necessary to me.

Note 2.—Necessē est often takes the subjunctive without ut: as,—concēdās necessē est (Rosc. Am. 87), you must grant.

3. Of est in the sense of it is the fact that, etc. (mostly poetic):—
est ut virō vir lātius ōrdinet arbusta (Hor. Od. iii. 1. 9), it is the fact that one man plants his vineyards in wider rows than another.

a. Fīrō (or futūrūm esse) ut with a clause of result as subject is often used instead of the Future Infinitive active or passive; so necessarily in verbs which have no supine stem:—

spērō fīrō ut contingat id nōbīs (Tusc. i. 82), I hope that will be our happy lot.
cum vidērem fīrō ut nōn possem (Cat. ii. 4), when I saw that I should not be able.

570. A substantive clause of result may be in apposition with another substantive (especially a neuter pronoun):—

illud etiam resitterat, ut te in ītus ēdūcerent (Quinct. 33), this too remained — for them to drag you into court.

571. A substantive clause of result may serve as predicate nominative after mōs est and similar expressions:—
est mōs hominum, ut nōliant eundem plūribus rēbus excellēre (Brut. 84), it is the way of men to be unwilling for one man to excel in several things.
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a. A result clause, with or without ut, frequently follows quam after a comparative (but see § 583. c):
   Canachi signa rigidiora sunt quam ut imitatatur veritatem (Brut. 70), the statues of Canoichus are too stiff to represent nature (stiffer than that they should).
   perpessus est omnia potius quam indicaret (Tusc. ii. 52), he endured all rather than betray, etc. [Regularly without ut except in Livy.]

b. The phrase tantum abest, it is so far [from being the case], regularly takes two clauses of result with ut: one is substantive, the subject of abest; the other is adverbial, correlative with tantum:
   tantum abest ut nostrae mirémur, ut üsque eō difficultēs ac morosī simus. ut nōbis non satis faciat ipse Dēmosthenēs (Or. 104), so far from admiring my own works, I am difficult and cautious to that degree that not Demosthenes himself satisfies me. [Here the first ut-clause is the subject of abest (§ 569. 2); the second, a result clause after tantum (§ 537); and the third, after üsque eō.]

c. Rarely, a thought or an idea is considered as a result, and is expressed by the subjunctive with ut instead of the accusative and infinitive (§ 580). In this case a demonstrative usually precedes:
   praecārūm illud est, ut eōs... amēmus (Tusc. iii. 73), this is a noble thing, that we should love, etc.
   veri simile non est ut ille antepôneret (Verr. iv. 11), it is not likely that he preferred.

For Relative Clauses with quin after verbs of hindering etc., see § 558.

Indicative with Quod

572. A peculiar form of Substantive Clause consists of quod (in the sense of that, the fact that) with the Indicative.

The clause in the Indicative with quod is used when the statement is regarded as a fact:

alterum est vitium, quod quidam nimis māgnum studium cōnferant (Off. i. 19), it is another fault that some bestow too much zeal, etc. [Here ut cōnferant could be used, meaning that some should bestow; or the accusative and infinitive, meaning to bestow (abstractly); quod makes it a fact that men do bestow, etc.]

inter inanimum et animal hōc maximē interest, quod animal agit aliquid (Acad. ii. 37), this is the chief difference between an inanimate object and an animal, that an animal aims at something.

quod redit nōbis mīrābile vidētur (Off. iii. 111), that he (Regulus) returned seems wonderful to us.

accidit pericommōdē quod eum mūsquam vidēstī (Att. i. 17. 2), it happened very unluckily that you nowhere saw him.
opportūnissima rēs accidit quōd Germanī vēnērunt (B. G. iv. 13), a very fortunate thing happened, (namely) that the Germans came.
praetereō quōd eam sibi domum sēdēnque dēlēgit (Clu. 188), I pass over the fact that she chose that house and home for herself.
mittō quōd possēssā per vim (Flacc. 79), I disregard the fact that they were seized by violence.

Note.—Like other substantive clauses, the clause with quōd may be used as subject, as object, as appositive, etc., but it is commonly either the subject or in apposition with the subject.

a. A substantive clause with quōd sometimes appears as an accusative of specification, corresponding to the English whereas or as to the fact that: —

quōd mihi dé nostōrō statū grātulāris, minūmē mirāmur té tuis praecēlāris operibus laetāri (Fam. i. 7. 7), as to your congratulating me on our condition, we are not at all surprised that you are pleased with your own noble works.
quōd dē domō scribēs, ego, etc. (Fam. xiv. 2. 3), as to what you write of the house, I, etc.

b. Verbs of feeling and the expression of feeling take either quōd (quia) or the accusative and infinitive (Indirect Discourse): —

quōd scribēs . . . gandeō (Q. Fr. iii. 1. 9), I am glad that you write.
faciō libenter quōd eam nōn possēm praeterire (Legg. i. 63), I am glad that I cannot pass it by.
quae perfecta esse vehementer laetor (Rosc. Am. 136), I greatly rejoice that this is finished.
qui quia nōn habuit ā mē turma sēquētum forte sē suscitāt (Att. vi. 3. 5), who perhaps feels angry that he did not receive squadrons of cavalry from me.
molestē tuli tē senātūrī grātiās nōn ēgisse (Fam. x. 27. 1), I was displeased that you did not return thanks to the senate.

Note.—Mīrōr and similar expressions are sometimes followed by a clause with si.¹ This is apparently substantive, but really protasis (cf. § 563, e. n. ¹). Thus,—mīrōr si quemquam aniciūm habēre potuit (Lael. 54), I wonder if he could ever have a friend.
[Originally, If this is so, I wonder at it.]

Indirect Questions

573. An Indirect Question is any sentence or clause which is introduced by an interrogative word (pronoun/adverb, etc.), and which is itself the subject or object of a verb, or depends on any expression implying uncertainty or doubt.

In grammatical form, exclamatory sentences are not distinguished from interrogative (see the third example below).

¹ Cf. the Greek δυσμάτω σι.
574. An Indirect Question takes its verb in the Subjunctive:
quid ipse sentiam expōnam (Div. i. 10), I will explain what I think. [Direct: quid sentiō?]
id possetne fieri consuluit (id. i. 32), he consulted whether it could be done. [Direct: potestne ?]
quam sis audāx omnēs intellegere potuērunt (Rosc. Am. 87), all could understand how bold you are. [Direct: quam es audāx!]
doleam necne doleam nihil interest (Tusc. ii. 29), it is of no account whether I suffer or not. [Double question.]
quaeae inv. Catilīnā in conventū apud M. Laecam fuisse necne (Cat. ii. 13), I asked Catiline whether he had been at the meeting at Marcus Lacae’s or not. [Double question.]
rogat mē quid sentiam, he asks me what I think. [Ci. rogat mē sententiam, he asks me my opinion.]
hōc dubium est, uter nostrum sit inverēundior (Acad. ii. 126), this is doubtful, which of us two is the less modest.
incerti quātēnus Volō exercērēt victoriam (Liv. ii. 55), uncertain how far Volō would push victory. [As if dubitantēs quātēnus, etc.]

Note. — An Indirect Question may be the subject of a verb (as in the fourth example), the direct object (as in the first), the secondary object (as in the sixth), an appositive (as in the seventh).

575. The Sequence of Tenses in Indirect Question is illustrated by the following examples: —
dicō quid faciam, I tell you what I am doing.
dicō quid factūrus sim, I tell you what I will (shall) do.
dicō quid fēcerim, I tell you what I did (have done, was doing).
dixi quid facerem, I told you what I was doing.
dixi quid fēcisset, I told you what I had done (had been doing).
dixi quid factūrus esset, I told you what I would (should) do (was going to do).
dixi quid factūrus fuisse, I told you what I would (should) have done.

a. Indirect Questions referring to future time take the subjunctive of the First Periphrastic Conjugation: —
prōspiciō qui concursūs futūri sint (Caecil. 42), I foresee what throngs there will be. [Direct: qui erunt?]
quid sit futūrum crūs, fugae quaerere (Hor. Od. i. 9, 13), forbear to ask what will be on the morrow. [Direct: quid erit or futūrum est?]
posthāc nōn scribam ad tē quid factūrus sim, sed quid fēcerim (Att. x. 18), hereafter I shall not write to you what I am going to do, but what I have done. [Direct: quid faciēs (or factūrus eris)? quid fēcisset?] 

Note. — This Periphrastic Future avoids the ambiguity which would be caused by using the Present Subjunctive to refer to future time in such clauses.

b. The Deliberative Subjunctive (§ 444) remains unchanged in an Indirect Question, except sometimes in tense: —
quō mē vertam nesciō (Clu. 4), *I do not know which way to turn.* [Direct: quō mē vertam?]
neque satis cōnstabat quid agerent (B. G. iii. 14), *and it was not very clear what they were to do.* [Direct: quid agāmus?]
nec quīsquam satis certum habet, quid aut spēret aut timeat (Liv. xxii. 7. 10), *nor is any one well assured what he shall hope or fear.* [Here the future participle with sit could not be used.]
incertō quīd peterent aut vītārent (id. xxviii. 36. 12), *since it was doubtful (ablative absolute) what they should seek or shun.*

c. Indirect Questions often take the Indicative in early Latin and in poetry:—
vīnem quō in agrō cōnsēri oportet sīc observātō (Cato R. R. 6. 4), *in what soil a vineyard should be set you must observe thus.*

d. Nesciō quīs, when used in an indefinite sense (somebody or other), is not followed by the Subjunctive.
So also nesciō quō (unde, etc.), and the following idiomatic phrases which are practically adverbs:—
mīrum (nimīrum) quam, *marvellously* (marvellous how).
mīrum quantum, *tremendously* (marvellous how much).
immāne quantum, *monstrously* (monstrous how much).
sānē quam, *immensely.*
valdē quam, *enormously.*

Examples are:—
quī istam nesciō quam indolentiam māgnopere laudant (Tusc. iii. 12), *who greatly extol that freedom from pain, whatever it is.*
mīrum quantum prōfuit (Liv. ii. 1), *it helped prodigiously.*
ita fātō nesciō quō contingisse arbitror (Fam. xv. 13), *I think it happened so by some fatality or other.*
nam suos valdē quam paucōs habet (id. xi. 13 A. 3), *for he has uncommonly few of his own.*
sānē quam sum gāvisus (id. xi. 13 A. 4), *I was immensely glad.*
immāne quantum discrepat (Hor. Od. i. 27. 5), *is monstrously at variance.*

576. In colloquial usage and in poetry the subject of an Indirect Question is often attracted into the main clause as object (Accusative of Anticipation):—
nōstī Mārcellum quam tardus sit (Fam. viii. 10. 3), *you know how slow Mārcellus is.* [For nōstī quam tardus sit Mārcellus. Cf. "I know thee who thou art."]

Cf. potestne igitur eārum rērum, quā rē futūrae sint, ulla esse praesēnsiō (Div. ii. 15), *can there be, then, any forknowledge as to these things, why they will occur?* [A similar use of the Objective Genitive.]
NOTE. — In some cases the Object of Anticipation becomes the Subject by a change of voice, and an apparent mixture of relative and interrogative constructions is the result: —

quidam saepi in parva pecunia perspicuuntur quam sint levēs (Lael. 68), it is often seen, in a trifling matter of money, how unprincipled some people are (some people are often seen through, how unprincipled they are).

quem ad modum Pompeium oppugnaverant a me indicavi sunt (Lec. Agr. i. 5), it has been shown by me in what way they attacked Pompey (they have been shown by me, how they attacked).

\[ \alpha \]. An indirect question is occasionally introduced by si in the sense of whether (like if in English, cf. § 572. b. n.):

circumfunduntur hostēs si quem aditum reperire possent (B. G. vi. 37), the enemy pour round [to see] if they can find entrance.

visum si domī est (Ter. Hæt. 170), I will go see if he is at home.

Note. — This is strictly a Protasis, but usually no Apodosis is thought of, and the clause is virtually an Indirect Question.

For the Potential Subjunctive with forsitan (originally an Indirect Question), see § 447. \[ \alpha \].

INDIRECT DISCOURSE

577. The use of the Accusative and Infinitive in Indirect Discourse (ōrātiō obliqua) is a comparatively late form of speech, developed in the Latin and Greek only, and perhaps separately in each of them. It is wholly wanting in Sanskrit, but some forms like it have grown up in English and German.

The essential character of Indirect Discourse is, that the language of some other person than the writer or speaker is compressed into a kind of Substantive Clause, the verb of the main clause becoming Infinitive, while modifying clauses, as well as all hortatory forms of speech, take the Subjunctive. The person of the verb necessarily conforms to the new relation of persons.

The construction of Indirect Discourse, however, is not limited to reports of the language of some person other than the speaker; it may be used to express what any one — whether the speaker or some one else — says, thinks, or perceives, whenever that which is said, thought, or perceived is capable of being expressed in the form of a complete sentence. For anything that can be said etc. can also be reported indirectly as well as directly.

The use of the Infinitive in the main clause undoubtedly comes from its use as a case-form to complete or modify the action expressed by the verb of saying and its object together. This object in time came to be regarded as, and in fact to all intents became, the subject of the infinitive. A transition state is found in Sanskrit, which, though it has no indirect discourse proper, yet allows an indirect predication after verbs of saying and the like by means of a predicative opposition, in such expressions as “The maid told the king [that] his daughter [was] bereft of her senses.”

The simple form of indirect statement with the accusative and infinitive was afterwards amplified by introducing dependent or modifying clauses; and in Latin it became a common construction, and could be used to report whole speeches etc., which in other languages would have the direct form. (Compare the style of reporting speeches in English, where only the person and tense are changed.)

The Subjunctive in the subordinate clauses of Indirect Discourse has no significance except to make more distinct the fact that these clauses are subordinate; consequently no direct connection has been traced between them and the uses of the mood in simple
sentences. It is probable that the subjunctive in indirect questions (§ 574), in informal indirect discourse (§ 592), and in clauses of the integral part (§ 593) represents the earliest steps of a movement by which the subjunctive became in some degree a mood of subordination.

The Subjunctive standing for hortatory forms of speech in Indirect Discourse is simply the usual hortatory subjunctive, with only a change of person and tense (if necessary), as in the reporter’s style.

578. A Direct Quotation gives the exact words of the original speaker or writer (Orātiō Rēcta).

An Indirect Quotation adapts the words of the speaker or writer to the construction of the sentence in which they are quoted (Orātiō Obliqua).

Note. — The term Indirect Discourse (Orātiō obliqua) is used in two senses. In the wider sense it includes all clauses — of whatever kind — which express the words or thought of any person indirectly, that is, in a form different from that in which the person said the words or conceived the thought. In the narrower sense the term Indirect Discourse is restricted to those cases in which some complete proposition is cited in the form of an Indirect Quotation, which may be extended to a narrative or an address of any length, as in the speeches reported by Cæsar and Livy. In this book the term is used in the restricted sense.

**FORMAL INDIRECT DISCOURSE**

579. Verbs and other expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving,¹ govern the Indirect Discourse.

Note. — Inquam, said I (etc.) takes the Direct Discourse except in poetry.

**Declaratory Sentences in Indirect Discourse**

580. In Indirect Discourse the main clause of a Declaratory Sentence is put in the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. All subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive: —

sciō me pæne incredibilem rem pollicēri (B. C. iii. 86), I know that I am promising an almost incredible thing. [Direct: pollicer]

nōn arbitror tē ita sentire (Pam. x. 26. 2), I do not suppose that you feel thus. [Direct: sentire]

spērō mē liberātum [esse] dē metū (Tusc. ii. 67), I trust I have been freed from fear. [Direct: liberātus sum]

¹ Such are: (1) knowing, sciō, cognōscō, compertum habeō, etc.; (2) thinking, putō, existimō, arbitror, etc.; (3) telling, dicō, nūntiō, referē, pollicer, prōmittō, certōrem faciō, etc.; (4) perceiving, sentiō, copertiō, videō, audiō, etc. So in general any word that denotes thought or mental and visual perception or their expression may govern the Indirect Discourse.
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[dict] esse nōn nūlīs quōrum auctōritās plūrimum valeat (B. G. i. 17), he says there are some, whose influence most prevails. [Direct: sunt nōn nūlī ... valet.]

nisi iūrāsset, scelus sē factūrum [esse] arbitrābatur (Verr. ii. 1. 123), he thought he should incur guilt, unless he should take the oath. [Direct: nisi iūrāverō, faciam.]

a. The verb of saying etc. is often not expressed, but implied in some word or in the general drift of the sentence: —

cōnsulis alterīs nōmen invisum cīvitātī fuit: nimium Tarquiniōs rēgnō
adsuēsse; initium a Prīscō factum; rēgnāsse deīn Ser. Tullium, etc.
(Liv. ii. 2), the name of the other consul was hateful to the state; the Tar-
quins (they thought) had become too much accustomed to royal power, etc.
[Here invisum implies a thought, and this thought is added in the form of Indirect Discourse.]

ōrantēs ut urbis barī saltem — iam enim agrōs déplōratōs esse — opem senātus
ferret (id. xii. 6), praying that the senate would at least bring aid to the
cities — for the fields [they said] were already given up as lost.

b. The verb nēgō, deny, is commonly used in preference to dīcō with a negative: —

[Stōici] negant quidquam [esse] bonum nisi quod honestum sit (Fin. ii. 68),
the Stoics assert that nothing is good but what is right.

c. Verbs of promising, hoping, expecting, threatening, swearing, and the like, regularly take the construction of Indirect Discourse, contrary to the English idiom: —

minātur sēsē abīre (Pl. Asin. 604), he threatens to go away. [Direct: abēō,
I am going away.]

spērant sē maxīnum frāctum esse capiturōs (Lacl. 79), they hope to gain the
utmost advantage. [Direct: capiēmus.]

spērat sē absolvētūm īrī (Sull. 21), he hopes that he shall be acquitted. [Direct: absolvār.

quem inimicīsīnum futūrum esse prōmittō ac spondeō (Mur. 90), who I
promise and warrant will be the bitterest of enemies. [Direct: erit.]
dolor fortūtūdinem sē débilitāturum minātur (Tusc. v. 76), pain threatens to
wear down fortitude. [Direct: débilitābō.]

confido me quod velim facile à tē imperāturōrum (Fam. xi. 10. 1), I trust I
shall easily obtain from you what I wish. [Direct: quod volō, impe-
trābō.]

Note.—These verbs, however, often take a simple Complementary Infinitive (§ 456).
So regularly in early Latin (except spērō): —
pollēcentur obsidēs dare (B. G. iv. 21), they promise to give hostages.
prōmissī dōlīum vinī dare (Pl. Cist. 542), I promised to give a jar of wine.

1 Compare the Greek aorist infinitive after similar verbs.
Some verbs and expressions may be used either as verbs of saying, or as verbs of commanding, effecting, and the like. These take as their object either an Infinitive with subject accusative or a Substantive clause of Purpose or Result, according to the sense.

1. Infinitive with Subject Accusative (Indirect Discourse): —
laudem sapientiae statuō esse maximam (Fam. v. 13), I hold that the glory of wisdom is the greatest. [Indirect Discourse.]
rēs ipsa monēbat tempus esse (Att. x. 8. 1), the thing itself warned that it was time. [Cf. monēre ut, warn to do something.]
faci mihi esse persuāsum (N. D. i. 75), suppose that I am persuaded of that. [Cf. facere ut, bring it about that.]
hoc volunt persuādere, nōn interire animās (B. G. vi. 14), they wish to convince that souls do not perish.

2. Subjunctive (Substantive Clause of Purpose or Result): —
statuunt ut decem milia hominum mittantur (B. G. vii. 21), they resolve that 10,000 men shall be sent. [Purpose clause (cf. § 563.).]
Hunc persuādet ut ad hostis trānseat (id. iii. 18), he persuades him to pass over to the enemy.
Pompeius suis praedixerat ut Caesaris impetum exciperent (B. C. iii. 92), Pompey had instructed his men beforehand to await Caesar’s attack. 
dēnūniāvit ut essent animōs parātī (id. iii. 86), he bade them be alert and steadfast (ready in spirit).

Note. — The infinitive with subject accusative in this construction is Indirect Discourse, and is to be distinguished from the simple infinitive sometimes found with these verbs instead of a subjunctive clause (§ 563. d).

581. The Subject Accusative of the Infinitive is regularly expressed in Indirect Discourse, even if it is wanting in the direct:
ōrātor sum, I am an orator; dicit sē esse ērātorem, he says he is an orator.

Note 1. — But the subject is often omitted if easily understood: —
ignōscere imprudentiae dixit (B. G. iv. 27), he said he pardoned their rashness.
eadem ab aliis querit: repert est esse vēra (id. i. 18), he inquires about these same things from others; he finds that they are true.

Note 2. — After a relative, or quam (than), if the verb would be the same as that of the main clause, it is usually omitted, and its subject is attracted into the accusative: —
tē suspicor ēisdem rēbus quibus mē ipsum commoveri (Cat. M. 1), I suspect that you are disturbed by the same things as I.
confidō tamen haec quoque tibi nōn minus grāta quam ipsōs librōs futūra (Plin. Ep. iii. 5. 20), I trust that these facts too will be no less pleasing to you than the books themselves.

Note 3. — In poetry, by a Greek idiom, a Predicate Noun or Adjective in the indirect discourse sometimes agrees with the subject of the main verb: —
vir bonus et sapientis ait esse parātus (Hor. Ep. 1. 7. 22), a good and wise man says he is prepared, etc. [In prose: ait sē esse parātum.]
sēnsit mediōs dēlāpsus in hostiās (Aen. ii. 377), he found himself fallen among the foe. [In prose: sē esse dēlāpsum.]
§§ 582, 583] INDIRECT DISCOURSE 377

582. When the verb of saying etc. is passive, the construction may be either Personal or Impersonal. But the Personal construction is more common and is regularly used in the tenses of incomplete action:—

beaté vixisse videor (Lael. 15), I seem to have lived happily.

Epanimondás fidibus praecláre cecinisse dicitur (Tusc. i. 4), Epaminondas is said to have played excellently on the lyre.

multi idem factúræ esse dicuntur (Fam. xvi. 12. 4), many are said to be about to do the same thing. [Active: dicunt multós factúrós (esse).]

primi tráduntur arte quàdam verba vínxisse (Or. 40), they first are related to have joined words with a certain skill.

Bibulus audièbatur esse in Syria (Att. v. 18), it was heard that Bibulus was in Syria (Bibulus was heard, etc.). [Direct: Bibulus est.]

ceterae Illyrici legiones secutúræ spérabantur (Tac. H. ii. 74), the rest of the legions of Illyricum were expected to follow.

vidémus enim quiétúri fuisses, nisi essémus lacesítii (De Or. ii. 230), it seems that we should have kept quiet, if we had not been molested (we seem, etc.). [Direct: quíssémus . . . nisi essémus lacesítii.]

Note. — The poets and later writers extend the personal use of the passive to verbs which are not properly verba sentiendi etc.: as, — colliger dominæ placuisse (Ov. Am. ii. 6. 61), it is gathered [from this memorial] that I pleased my mistress.

a. In the compound tenses of verbs of saying etc., the impersonal construction is more common, and with the gerundive is regular:—

traditum est eiiam Homèrum caecum fuisses (Tusc. v. 114), it is a tradition, too, that Homer was blind.

ubi tyrannus est, ibi non vitiósan, sed dicendum est planè nultam esse rem publicam (Rep. iii. 43), where there is a tyrant, it must be said, not that the commonwealth is evil, but that it does not exist at all.

Note. — An indirect narrative begun in the personal construction may be continued with the Infinitive and Accusative (as De Or. ii. 239; Liv. v. 41. 9).

Subordinate Clauses in Indirect Discourse

583. A Subordinate Clause merely explanatory, or containing statements which are regarded as true independently of the quotation, takes the Indicative:—

quis nèget hæc omnìa quæ vidémus deòrum potestátæ administrári (Cat. iii. 21), who can deny that all these things we see are ruled by the power of the gods?

cuìus ingenìo putábatur quae gesserat posse celebrári (Arch. 20), by whose genius he thought that those deeds which he had done could be celebrated.

[Here the fact expressed by quae gesserat, though not explanatory, is felt to be true without regard to the quotation: quae gessisset would mean, what Marius cláudebat to have done.]
Note.—Such a clause in the indicative is not regarded as a part of the Indirect Discourse; but it often depends merely upon the feeling of the writer whether he shall use the Indicative or the Subjunctive (cf. §§ 591–593).

a. A subordinate clause in Indirect Discourse occasionally takes the Indicative when the fact is emphasized:—

factum éius hostis periculum . . . cum, Cimbris et Teutonis . . . pulsís, non minòrem laudem exercitus quam ipse imperátor meritus vidébatur (B. G. i. 40), that a trial of this enemy had been made when, on the defeat of the Cimbrí and Teutoni, the army seemed to have deserved no less credit than the commander himself.

b. Clauses introduced by a relative which is equivalent to a demonstrative with a conjunction are not properly subordinate, and hence take the Accusative and Infinitive in Indirect Discourse (see § 308. f):—

Marcellus requisissse dicitur Archimédem illum, quem cum audisset interfectum permolesté tulisse (Verr. iv. 131), Marcellus is said to have sought for Archimedes, and when he heard that he was slain, to have been greatly distressed. [quem = et eum.]

censunt ünum quemque nostrum mundi esse partem, ex quó [= et ex eō] illud nátūrā consegüi (Fin. iii. 64), they say that each one of us is a part of the universe, from which this naturally follows.

Note.—Really subordinate clauses occasionally take the accusative and infinitive: as,—quem aē modum sī nōn dēdātur obses pró ruptō foedūs sē habitérum, sic dēdātum inviolātām ad mōs remissārūm (Lív. ii. 13), [he says] as in case the hostage is not given up he shall consider the treaty as broken, so if given up he will return her unharmed to her friends.

c. The infinitive construction is regularly continued after a comparative with quam :—

addit sē prius occasium intrab eō quam mē violātum intr (Att. ii. 20. 2), he adds that he himself will be killed by him, before I shall be injured.

nōmine adfirmāvi quidvis mē potius perpessārum quam ex Itālia exitūrūm (Pam. ii. 16. 3), dūi I not assert that I would endure anything rather than leave Italy?

Note.—The subjunctive with or without ut also occurs with quam (see § 535. c).

Tenses of the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse

584. The Present, the Perfect, or the Future Infinitive is used in Indirect Discourse, according as the time indicated is present, past, or future with reference to the verb of saying etc. by which the Indirect Discourse is introduced:—

1 For various ways of expressing the Future Infinitive, see § 164 3. c.
cadō, I am falling.
dicit sē cadere, he says he is falling.
dixit sē cadere, he said he was falling.
cadēbam, I was falling; cecidi, I fell, have fallen;
cecideram, I had fallen.
dicit sē cecidisse, he says he was falling, fell, has fallen, had fallen.
dixit sē cecidisse, he said he fell, had fallen.
cadam, I shall fall.
dicit sē cāsūrum [esse], he says he shall fall.
dixit sē cāsūrum [esse], he said he should fall.
ceciderō, I shall have fallen.
dicit fore ut ceciderit [rare], he says he shall have fallen.
dixit fore ut cecidisset [rare], he said he should have fallen.

a. All varieties of past time are usually expressed in Indirect Discourse by the Perfect Infinitive, which may stand for the Imperfect, the Perfect, or the Pluperfect Indicative of the Direct.

NOTE. — Continued or repeated action in past time is sometimes expressed by the Present Indicative, which in such cases stands for the Imperfect Indicative of the Direct Discourse and is often called the Imperfect Infinitive.

This is the regular construction after meminisse when referring to a matter of actual experience or observation: as,—tē meminisse habeāre dicere, I remember your saying this (that you said this). [Direct: dixisti or dixēbas.]

b. The present infinitive posse often has a future sense: —
tōlōs Galliae sēsē potīrī posse spērant (B. G. i. 3), they hope that they shall be able to get possession of all Gaul.

Tenses of the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse

585. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse follow the rule for the Sequence of Tenses (§ 482). They depend for their sequence on the verb of saying etc. by which the Indirect Discourse is introduced.

Thus in the sentence, dixit sē Rōmam itūrum ut consulem vidēret, he said he should go to Rome in order that he might see the consul, vidēret follows the sequence of dixit without regard to the Future Infinitive, itūrum [esse], on which it directly depends.

NOTE. — This rule applies to the subjunctive in subordinate clauses, to that which stands for the imperative etc. (see examples, § 588), and to that in questions (§ 586).

a. A subjunctive depending on a Perfect Infinitive is often in the Imperfect or Pluperfect, even if the verb of saying etc. is in a primary tense (cf. § 485, f); so regularly when these tenses would have been used in Direct Discourse: —
Tarquinium dixisse ferunt tum exsulantem se intellexisse quos fidem amisit habuisset (Lact. 53), they tell us that Tarquin said that then in his exile he had found out what faithful friends he had had. [Here the main verb of saying, ferunt, is primary, but the time is carried back by dixisse and intellexisse, and the sequence then becomes secondary.]

tantum profecisse videmur ut a Graecis ne verborum quidem copia vinceremur (N. D. i. 8), we seem to have advanced so far that even in abundance of words we are not surpassed by the Greeks.

Note 1.—The proper sequence may be seen, in each case, by turning the Perfect Infinitive into that tense of the Indicative which it represents. Thus, if it stands for an imperfect or an historical perfect, the sequence will be secondary; if it stands for a perfect definite, the sequence may be either primary or secondary (§ 485. a).

Note 2.—The so-called imperfect infinitive after memini (§ 584. a. n.) takes the secondary sequence: as,—ad me addi quodam memini, qui dicerent (Fam. iii. 10. 6), I remember that some persons visited me, to tell me, etc.

b. The Present and Perfect Subjunctive are often used in dependent clauses of the Indirect Discourse even when the verb of saying etc. is in a secondary tense:—

dicebant... totidem Nervior (pollice); qui longissime absint (B. G. ii. 4), they said that the Nervii, who live furthest off, promised as many.

Note. — This construction comes from the tendency of language to refer all time in narration to the time of the speaker (repraesentatio). In the course of a long passage in the Indirect Discourse the tenses of the subjunctive often vary, sometimes following the sequence, and sometimes affected by repraesentatio. Examples may be seen in B. G. i. 13, vii. 20, etc.

Certain constructions are never affected by repraesentatio. Such are the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive with cum temporal, antequam, and priusquam.

Questions in Indirect Discourse

586. A Question in Indirect Discourse may be either in the Subjunctive or in the Infinitive with Subject Accusative.

A real question, asking for an answer, is generally put in the Subjunctive; a rhetorical question, asked for effect and implying its own answer, is put in the Infinitive:—

quid sibi vellet? cùr in suás possessionés veníret (B. G. i. 44), what did he want? why did he come into his territories? [Real question. Direct: quid vis? cùr venís?]

num recentium inímiíarum memoriam [sé] dēpōnere posse (id. i. 14), could he lay aside the memory of recent wrongs? [Rhetorical Question. Direct: num possum?]

quem signum datúrum fugientibus? quem ausúrum Alexandrō succéedere (Q. C. iii. 5. 7), who will give the signal to the retreat? who will dare succeed Alexander? [Rhetorical. Direct: quis dabit... audébit.]
§§ 586-589 | COMMANDS IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE

1. **Note 1.** — No sharp line can be drawn between the Subjunctive and the Infinitive in questions in the Indirect Discourse. Whether the question is to be regarded as **rhetorical** or **real** often depends merely on the writer’s point of view:—

- utrum partem rēgīi petītūrum esse, an totum ēreptūrum (Liv. xlv. 19. 15), will you ask part of the regal power (he said), or seize the whole?
- quid tandem praecūri faciendum fuisse (id. xxxi. 48), what, pray, ought a praetor to have done?
- quid repente factum [esse] cūr, etc. (id. xxxiv. 54), what had suddenly happened, that, etc.?

**Note 2.** — Questions coming immediately after a verb of **asking** are treated as **Indirect Questions** and take the **Subjunctive** (see § 574). This is true even when the verb of asking serves also to introduce a passage in the Indirect Discourse. The question may be either real or rhetorical. See quaesivit, etc. (Liv. xxxvii. 15).

For the use of tenses, see § 585.

587. **A Deliberative Subjunctive** (§ 444) in the Direct Discourse is always retained in the Indirect:—

- cūr aliquōs ex suis āmitteret (B. C. i. 72), why (thought he) should he lose some of his men? [Direct: cūr āmittam?]

**Commands in Indirect Discourse**

588. All Imperative forms of speech take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse:—

- reminiscētur veteris incommodi (B. G. i. 13), remember (said he) the ancient disaster. [Direct: reminiscere.]
- finera faciat (id. i. 20), let him make an end. [Direct: fac.]
- ferrent opem, adivērent (Liv. ii. 6), let them bring aid, let them help.

**a.** This rule applies not only to the Imperative of the direct discourse, but to the Hortatory and the Optative Subjunctive as well.

**Note 1.** — Though these subjunctives stand for independent clauses of the direct discourse, they follow the rule for the sequence of tenses, being in fact dependent on the verb of **saying** etc. (cf. §§ 483, 585).

**Note 2.** — A Prohibition in the Indirect Discourse is regularly expressed by nē with the present or imperfect subjunctive, even when nōli with the infinitive would be used in the Direct:—

nē perturbārentur (B. G. vii. 29), do not (he said) be troubled. [Direct: nōlite perturbāri. But sometimes nōllet is found in Indirect Discourse.]

**Conditions in Indirect Discourse**

589. Conditional sentences in Indirect Discourse are expressed as follows:—

1. The Protasis, being a **subordinate clause**, is always in the Subjunctive.
2. The Apodosis, if independent and not hortatory or optative, is always in some form of the Infinitive.
a. The Present Subjunctive in the apodosis of less vivid future conditions (§ 516. b) becomes the Future Infinitive like the Future Indicative in the apodosis of more vivid future conditions.

Thus there is no distinction between more and less vivid future conditions in the Indirect Discourse.

Examples of Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse are —

1. Simple Present Condition (§ 515):

(dixit) si ipse populo Rōmānō nōn praescriberet quem ad modum suō iure ūtērātur, nōn oportēre sēsē ā populo Rōmānō in suō iure impediri (B. G. i. 30), he said that if he did not dictate to the Roman people how they should use their rights, he ought not to be interfered with by the Roman people in the exercise of his rights. [Direct: si nōn praescribē... nōn oportet.]

praedicavit... si pāce ūtī velint, inquōm esse, etc. (id. i. 44), he asserted that if they wished to enjoy peace, it was unfair, etc. [Direct: si volunt... est. Present tense kept by repraesentātiō (§ 585. b. n.).]

2. Simple Past Condition (§ 515):

nōn dicam nē illud quidem, si maximē in culpā fuerit Apollōnius, tamen in hominem honestissimae civitātis honestissimum tam graviter animadverti, causā indicāt, nōn oportuisset (Verr. v. 20), I will not say this either, that, even if Apollōnius was very greatly in fault, still an honorable man from an honorable state ought not to have been punished so severely without having his case heard. [Direct: si fuit... nōn oportuit.]

3. Future Conditions (§ 516):

(dixit) quod si praeterea nēmō sequātur, tamen sē cum sōlā decimā legiōne itūrum (B. G. i. 40), but if nobody else should follow, still he would go with the tenth legion alone. [Direct: si sequētur... ibē. Present tense by repraesentātiō (§ 585. b. n.).]

Haedui sē ob sides reddītūrum nōn esse, neque eīs... bellum illātūrum, si in eō manērent, quod convenisset, stipendiumque quotannis penderent: si id nōn fēcissent, longē eīs frāternā nōmen populi Rōmānī āfutūrum (id. i. 36), he said that he would not give up the hostages to the Haedui, but would not make war upon them if they observed the agreement which had been made, and paid tribute yearly; but that, if they should not do this, the name of brothers to the Roman people would be far from aiding them. [Direct: reddam... inferam... si manēbunt... pendent: si nōn fēcērint... aberit.]

id Dāmatēs ut audīvit, sēnsit, sì in turbam exīsset ab homine tam necessāriō sē velicītum. futūrum [esse] ut cēteri consilium sequantur (Nep. Dat. 6), when Dāmatēs heard this, he saw that, if it should get abroad that he had been abandoned by a man so closely connected with him, everybody else would follow his example. [Direct: si exerīt... sequantur.]
In changing a Condition contrary to fact (§ 517) into the Indirect Discourse, the following points require notice:—

1. The Protasis always remains unchanged in tense.
2. The Apodosis, if active, takes a peculiar infinitive form, made by combining the Participle in -ārus with fuisse.
3. If the verb of the Apodosis is passive or has no supine stem, the periphrasis futūrum fuisse ut (with the Imperfect Subjunctive) must be used.
4. An Indicative in the Apodosis becomes a Perfect Infinitive.

Examples are:—

nec sē superstitem filiæ futūrum fuisse, nisi spem ulciscendae mortis ānis in auxiliō commilitōnōm habuissent (Liv. iii. 50. 7), and that he should not now be a survivor, etc., unless he had had hope, etc. [Direct: nōn superstes esset, nisi habuissent.]

illud Asia cōgitet, nūllum sē neque bellī externē neque discordiārum domestiārum calamitetāem āfutūrum fuisse, si hōc imperiō nōn tenēretur (Q. Fr. i. 1. 34), let Asia (personified) think of this, that no disaster, etc., would not be hers, if she were not held by this government. [Direct: abesset, sī nōn tenēret.]

quid inimicidārum crēditis [nē] exceptūrum fuisse, si insōntis lacessisset (Q. C. vi. 19. 18), what enormities do you think I should have incurred, if I had wantonly assailed the innocent? [exceptisset... si lacessisset.]

invītum sē dīcerē, nec dictūrum fuisse, ut ċaritās reī publicae vinceret (Liv. ii. 2), that he spoke unwillingly and should not have spoken, did not love for the state prevail. [Direct: nec dixisset... nē vinceret.]

nisi sē tempore quidam nūntii dē Caesaris victoriā... essent allāti, existimābant plēriquē futūrum fuisse uti [oppidum] āmitteretur (B. C. iii. 101), most people thought that unless at that time reports of Caesar’s victory had been brought, the town would have been lost. [Direct: nē essent allāti... āmissum esset.]

quōrum si actās potuisset esse longinquor, futūrum fuisse ut omnibus perfectis artibus hominum vita ērnārētur (Tusc. iii. 69), if life had been longer, human existence would have been embellished by every art in its perfection. [Direct: si potuisset... ērnāta esset.]

at plēriquē existimānt, si acrīus insēqui voluisset, bellum ēō dē potuisse finire (B. C. iii. 51), but most people think that, if he had chosen to follow up the pursuit more vigorously, he could have ended the war on that day. [Direct: si voluisset... potuisset.]
NOTE 1.—In Indirect Discourse Present Conditions contrary to fact are not distinguished in the *apodosis* from Past Conditions contrary to fact, but the *protasis* may keep them distinct.

NOTE 2.—The periphrasis *futūrum fuisset* ut is sometimes used from choice when there is no necessity for resorting to it, but not in Caesar or Cicero.

NOTE 3.—Very rarely the Future Infinitive is used in the Indirect Discourse to express the Apodosis of a Present Condition contrary to fact. Only four or five examples of this use occur in classic authors: as, —Titurius clāmābat si Caesar adesse tē neque Carnūtēs, etc., neque Eburōnēs tantā cum contemtione nostra ad castra ventūros esset (B. G. v. 29), Titurius cried out that if Caesar were present, neither would the Carnutes, etc., nor would the Eburones be coming to our camp with such contempt. [Direct: si adesset... venirent.]

590. The following example illustrates some of the foregoing principles in a connected address:—

**INDIRECT DISCOURSE**

Si pācem populus Rōmānus cum Helvētiis faceret, in eam partem itūros atque ibi futūros Helvētiōs, ubi eōs Caesar cōnstituisset atque esse voluisset: sīn bellō persequi perseverāret, reminiscētur et veteris incommodi populi Rōmāni, et prīstīnae virtūtis Helvētiōrum. Quod imprōvisō unum pāgum adōrtus esset, cum eī qui flūmen trānsissent suis auxiliōm ferre nōn possent, nē ob eam rem aut suae mâgnō operē virtūtē tribuēret, aut ipsōs dēspiceret: sē ita à patribus māloribusque suis diācisisse, ut magis virtūtē quam dolō contenterent, aut inādīs niterentur. Quā rē nē committere, ut is locus ubi cōnstitissent ex calamitāte populi Rōmāni et internecione exercitūs nōmen caperet, aut memoriam prōderet. —B. G. i. 13.

**DIRECT DISCOURSE**

Si pācem populus Rōmānus cum Helvētiis faceret, in eam partem ibunt atque ibi erunt Helvētīi, ubi eōs tū cōnstituēris atque esse volueris: sīn bellō persequi perseverābis, reminiscere [inquit] et veteris incommodi populi Rōmāni, et prīstīnae virtūtis Helvētiōrum. Quod imprōvisō unum pāgum adōrtus esset, cum eī qui flūmen trānsieōnt suis auxiliōm ferre nōn possent, nē ob eam rem aut suae mâgnō operē virtūtē tribuēris, aut nōs dēspērēris: nōs ita à patribus māloribusque nostri dīcimūs, ut magis virtūtē quam dolō contendarum, aut inādīs nītāmus. Quā rē nōli committere, ut hic locus ubi cōnstitimur ex calamitāte populi Rōmāni et internecione exercitūs nōmen capiat, aut memoriam prōdat.

**INTERMEDIATE CLAUSES**

591. A Subordinate clause takes the Subjunctive—

1. When it expresses the thought of some other person than the speaker or writer (*Informal Indirect Discourse*), or

2. When it is an integral part of a Subjunctive clause or equivalent Infinitive (*Attraction*).  

1 See note on Indirect Discourse (§ 577).
Informal Indirect Discourse

§ 592. A Subordinate Clause takes the Subjunctive when it expresses the thought of some other person than the writer or speaker:—

1. When the clause depends upon another containing a wish, a command, or a question, expressed indirectly, though not strictly in the form of Indirect Discourse:

animal sentit quid sit quod deceat (Off. i. 14), an animal feels what it is that is fit.
huic imperat quās possit adeat civitātēs (B. G. iv. 21), he orders him to visit what states he can.
hunc sibi ex animō scrūpulum, quī sē diēs noctisque stimulat ac punigit, ut ēvellātis postulant (Rosc. Am. 6), he begs you to pluck from his heart this doubt that goods and stings him day and night. [Here the relative clause is not a part of the Purpose expressed in ēvellātis, but is an assertion made by the subject of postulant.]

2. When the main clause of a quotation is merged in the verb of saying, or some modifier of it:

sī quid dē his rēbus dicere vellet, fēcī poestātem (Cat. iii. 11), if he wished to say anything about these matters, I gave him a chance.
tulit dē caede quae in Appiā viā facta esset (Mil. 15), he passed a law concerning the murder which (in the language of the bill) took place in the Appian Way.
nisi restituissent statuās, vehementer minātur (Verr. ii. 162), he threatens them violently unless they should restore the statues. [Here the main clause, "that he will inflict punishment," is contained in minātur.]
iūs auxilium suum pollicitus sī at Suēbis premerentur (B. G. iv. 19), he promised them his aid if they should be molested by the Suevi. [= pollicitus sē auxilium lātūrum, etc.]
prohibitiō tollendi, nisi pactus esset, vim adhibebat pactōni (Verr. iii. 37), the forbidding to take away unless he came to terms gave force to the bargain.

3. When a reason or an explanatory fact is introduced by a relative or by quod (rarely quīa) (see § 540):—

Pactus omnis librōs quōs frāter suus reliquisset mihi dōnavit (Att. ii. 1. 12), Pactus presented to me all the books which (he said) his brother had left.

Note. — Under this head even what the speaker himself thought under other circumstances may have the Subjunctive. So also with quod even the verb of saying may be in the Subjunctive (§ 540. n. 2). Here belong also nōn quīa, nōn quod, introducing a reason expressly to deny it. (See § 540. n. 3.)
Subjunctive of Integral Part (Attraction)

593. A clause depending upon a Subjunctive clause or an equivalent Infinitive will itself take the Subjunctive if regarded as an integral part of that clause: —

imperat, dum rês fácietur, hominem adservent; cum indicāta sit, ad se ut adducant (Verr. iii. 55), he orders them, till the affair should be decided, to keep the man; when it is judged, to bring him to him.

etenim quis tam dissolutō animō est, qui haec cum videat, tacēre ac neglegere possit (Rosc. Am. 32), for who is so reckless of spirit that, when he sees these things, he can keep silent and pass them by?

mōs est Athenēs laudāri in cōntūne eōs qui sint in proelīs interfactī (Or. 151), it is the custom at Athens for those to be publicly eulogized who have been slain in battle. [Here laudāri is equivalent to ut laudentur.]

a. But a dependent clause may be closely connected grammatically with a Subjunctive or Infinitive clause, and still take the Indicative, if it is not regarded as a necessary logical part of that clause: —

quōdam modō postulat ut, quem ad modum est, sic etiam appellētur, tyrannus (Att. x. 4. 2), in a manner he demands that as he is, so he may be called, a tyrant.

nātūra fert ut eis faveāmus qui eadem percūsa quibus nōs perfūctī sumus ingrediuntur (Mur. 4), nature prompts us to feel friendly towards those who are entering on the same dangers which we have passed through.

nē hostēs, quod tantum multitūdīne poterant, saēs circumvenire possent (B. G. ii. 8), lest the enemy, because they were so strong in numbers, should be able to surround his men.

si mea in tē essent officia sōlum tanta quanta magis ā tē ipsō praedicārī quam ā mē ponderāri solet, verēcundius ā tē ... peterem (Fam. ii. 6), if my good services to you were only so great as they were wont rather to be called by you than to be estimated by me, I should, etc.

Note 1. — The use of the Indicative in such clauses sometimes serves to emphasize the fact, as true independently of the statement contained in the subjunctive or infinitive clause. But in many cases no such distinction is perceptible.

Note 2. — It is often difficult to distinguish between Informal Indirect Discourse and the Integral Part. Thus in imperāvit ut ea fierant quae opus esset, essent may stand for sunt, and then will be Indirect Discourse, being a part of the thought, but not a part of the order; or it may stand for erant, and then will be Integral Part, being a part of the order itself. The difficulty of making the distinction in such cases is evidence of the close relationship between these two constructions.

1 The subjunctive in this use is of the same nature as the subjunctive in the main clause. A dependent clause in a clause of purpose is really a part of the purpose, as is seen from the use of should and other auxiliaries in English. In a result clause this is less clear, but the result construction is a branch of the characteristic (§ 534), to which category the dependent clause in this case evidently belongs when it takes the subjunctive.
594. IMPORTANT RULES OF SYNTAX

1. A noun used to describe another, and denoting the same person or thing, agrees with it in Case (§ 282).

2. Adjectives, Adjective Pronouns, and Participles agree with their nouns in Gender, Number, and Case (§ 286).

3. Superlatives (more rarely Comparatives) denoting order and succession — also medius, (cēterus), reliquus — usually designate not what object, but what part of it, is meant (§ 293).

4. The Personal Pronouns have two forms for the genitive plural, that in -um being used partitive, and that in -i oftenest objectively (§ 295. b).

5. The Reflexive Pronoun (sē), and usually the corresponding possessive (suus), are used in the predicate to refer to the subject of the sentence or clause (§ 299).

6. To express Possession and similar ideas the Possessive Pronouns must be used, not the genitive of the personal or reflexive pronouns (§ 302. a).

7. A Possessive Pronoun or an Adjective implying possession may take an appositive in the genitive case agreeing in gender, number, and case with an implied noun or pronoun (§ 302. e).

8. A Relative Pronoun agrees with its Antecedent in Gender and Number, but its Case depends on its construction in the clause in which it stands (§ 305).

9. A Finite Verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person (§ 316).

10. Adverbs are used to modify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs (§ 321).

11. A Question of simple fact, requiring the answer yes or no, is formed by adding the enclitic -ne to the emphatic word (§ 332).

12. When the enclitic -ne is added to a negative word, — as in nōnne, — an affirmative answer is expected. The particle num suggests a negative answer (§ 332. b).

13. The Subject of a finite verb is in the Nominative (§ 339).

14. The Vocative is the case of direct address (§ 340).

15. A noun used to limit or define another, and not meaning the same person or thing, is put in the Genitive (§ 342).

16. The Possessive Genitive denotes the person or thing to which an object, quality, feeling, or action belongs (§ 343).
17. The genitive may denote the Substance or Material of which a thing consists (§ 344).

18. The genitive is used to denote Quality, but only when the quality is modified by an adjective (§ 345).

19. Words denoting a part are followed by the Genitive of the whole to which the part belongs (Partitive Genitive, § 346).

20. Nouns of action, agency, and feeling govern the Genitive of the object (Objective Genitive, § 348).

21. Adjectives denoting desire, knowledge, memory, fulness, power, sharing, guilt, and their opposites; participles in -ns when used as adjectives; and verbs in -ax, govern the Genitive (§ 349. a, b, c).

22. Verbs of remembering and forgetting take either the Accusative or the Genitive of the object (§ 350).

23. Verbs of reminding take with the Accusative of the person a Genitive of the thing (§ 351).

24. Verbs of accusing, condemning, and acquitting take the Genitive of the charge or penalty (§ 352).

25. The Dative is used of the object indirectly affected by an action (Indirect Object, § 361).

26. Many verbs signifying to favor, help, please, trust, and their contraries; also, to believe, persuade, command, obey, serve, resist, envy, threaten, pardon, and spare, take the Dative (§ 367).

27. Many verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, pro, sub, super, and some with circum, admit the Dative of the indirect object (§ 370).

28. The Dative is used with esse and similar words to denote Possession (§ 373).

29. The Dative of the Agent is used with the Gerundive, to denote the person on whom the necessity rests (§ 374).

30. The Dative often depends, not on any particular word, but on the general meaning of the sentence (Dative of Reference, § 376).

31. Many verbs of taking away and the like take the Dative (especially of a person) instead of the Ablative of Separation (§ 381).

32. The Dative is used to denote the Purpose or End, often with another Dative of the person or thing affected (§ 382).

33. The Dative is used with adjectives (and a few adverbs) of fitness, nearness, likeness, service, inclination, and their opposites (§ 384).
34. The Direct Object of a transitive verb is put in the Accusative (§ 387).

35. An intransitive verb often takes the Accusative of a noun of kindred meaning, usually modified by an adjective or in some other manner (Cognate Accusative, § 390).

36. Verbs of naming, choosing, appointing, making, esteeming, showing, and the like, may take a Predicate Accusative along with the direct object (§ 393).

37. Transitive verbs compounded with prepositions sometimes take (in addition to the direct object) a Secondary Object, originally governed by the preposition (§ 394).

38. Some verbs of asking and teaching may take two Accusatives, one of the Person, and the other of the Thing (§ 395).

39. The subject of an Infinitive is in the Accusative (§ 397. c).

40. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are expressed by the Accusative (§§ 424. c, 425).

41. Words signifying separation or privation are followed by the Ablative (Ablative of Separation, § 400).

42. The Ablative, usually with a preposition, is used to denote the source from which anything is derived or the material of which it consists (§ 403).

43. The Ablative, with or without a preposition, is used to express cause (§ 404).

44. The Voluntary Agent after a passive verb is expressed by the Ablative with ā or ab (§ 405).

45. The Comparative degree is often followed by the Ablative signifying than (§ 406).

46. The Comparative may be followed by quam, than. When quam is used, the two things compared are put in the same case (§ 407):

47. The Ablative is used to denote the means or instrument of an action (§ 409).

48. The deponents, ātor, fruor, fungor, potior, and vēscor, with several of their compounds, govern the Ablative (§ 410).

49. Opus and ūsus, signifying need, are followed by the Ablative (§ 411).

50. The manner of an action is denoted by the Ablative, usually with cum unless a limiting adjective is used with the noun (§ 412).
51. *Accompaniment* is denoted by the Ablative, regularly with *cum* (§ 413).

52. With Comparatives and words implying comparison the Ablative is used to denote the *degree of difference* (§ 414).

53. The *quality* of a thing is denoted by the Ablative with an adjective or genitive Modifier (§ 415).

54. The *price* of a thing is put in the Ablative (§ 416).

55. The Ablative of Specification denotes that *in respect to which anything is or is done* (§ 418).

56. The adjectives *dignus* and *indignus* take the Ablative (§ 418. b).

57. A noun or pronoun, with a participle in agreement, may be put in the Ablative to define the *time or circumstances* of an action (*Ablative Absolute*, § 419).

An adjective, or a second noun, may take the place of the participle in the ablative absolute construction (§ 419. a).

58. Time *when*, or *within which*, is denoted by the Ablative; time *how long* by the Accusative (§ 423).

59. Relations of Place are expressed as follows:—

1. The *place from which*, by the Ablative with *ab, dé, ex*.
2. The *place to which* (or *end of motion*), by the Accusative with *ad or in*.
3. The *place where*, by the Ablative with *in* (*Locative Ablative*). (§ 426.)

60. With names of *towns* and *small islands*, and with *domus* and *rūs*, the relations of place are expressed as follows:—

1. The *place from which*, by the Ablative without a preposition.
2. The *place to which*, by the Accusative without a preposition.
3. The *place where*, by the Locative. (§ 427.)

61. The Hortatory Subjunctive is used in the present tense to express an *exhortation, a command, or a concession* (§§ 439, 440).

62. The Optative Subjunctive is used to express a *wish*. The present tense denotes the wish as *possible*, the imperfect as *unaccomplished* in present time, the pluperfect as *unaccomplished* in past time (§ 441).

63. The Subjunctive is used in questions implying (1) *doubt, indignation*, or (2) an *impossibility* of the thing’s being done (*Deliberative Subjunctive*, § 444).
64. The Potential Subjunctive is used to suggest an action as possible or conceivable (§ 446).

65. The Imperative is used in commands and entreaties (§ 448).

66. Prohibition is regularly expressed in classic prose (1) by nōlī with the Infinitive, (2) by cāvē with the Present Subjunctive, (3) by nē with the Perfect Subjunctive (§ 450).

67. The Infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, may be used with est and similar verbs (1) as the Subject, (2) in Apposition with the subject, or (3) as a Predicate Nominative (§ 452).

68. Verbs which imply another action of the same subject to complete their meaning take the Infinitive without a subject accusative (Complementary Infinitive, § 456).

69. The Infinitive, with subject accusative, is used with verbs and other expressions of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (Indirect Discourse, see § 459).

70. The Infinitive is often used for the Imperfect Indicative in narration, and takes a subject in the Nominative (Historical Infinitive, § 463).

71. Sequence of Tenses. In complex sentences, a primary tense in the main clause is followed by the Present or Perfect Subjunctive in the dependent clause; a secondary tense by the Imperfect or Pluperfect (§ 483).

72. Participles denote time as present, past, or future with respect to the time of the verb in their clause (§ 489).

73. The Gerund and the Gerundive are used, in the oblique cases, in many of the constructions of nouns (§§ 501-507).

74. The Supine in -um is used after verbs of motion to express Purpose (§ 509).

75. The Supine in -ā is used with a few adjectives and with the nouns fās, nefās, and opus, to denote Specification (§ 510).

76. Dum, modo, dummodo, and tantum ut, introducing a Proviso, take the Subjunctive (§ 528).

77. Final clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by ut (uti), negative nē (ut nē), or by a Relative Pronoun or Relative Adverb (§ 531).

78. A Relative Clause with the Subjunctive is often used to indicate a characteristic of the antecedent, especially where the antecedent is otherwise undefined (§ 535).

79. Dīgnus, indignus, aptus, and idōneus, take a Subjunctive clause with a relative (rarely with ut) (§ 535, f).
80. Clauses of Result take the Subjunctive introduced by ut, so that (negative, ut nōn), or by a Relative Pronoun or Relative Adverb (§ 537).

81. The Causal Particles quod, quia, and quoniam take the Indicative when the reason is given on the authority of the writer or speaker; the Subjunctive when the reason is given on the authority of another (§ 540).

82. The particles postquam (posteāquam), ubi, ut (ut primum, ut semel), simul atque (simul ac, or simul alone) take the Indicative (usually in the perfect or the historical present) (§ 543).

83. A Temporal clause with cum, when, and some past tense of the Indicative dates or defines the time at which the action of the main verb occurred (§ 545).

84. A Temporal clause with cum and the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive describes the circumstances that accompanied or preceded the action of the main verb (§ 546).

85. Cum Causal or Concessive takes the Subjunctive (§ 549).

For other concessive particles, see § 527.

86. In Indirect Discourse the main clause of a Declaratory Sentence is put in the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. All subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive (§ 580).

87. The Present, the Perfect, or the Future Infinitive is used in Indirect Discourse, according as the time indicated is present, past, or future with reference to the verb of saying etc. by which the Indirect Discourse is introduced (§ 584).

88. In Indirect Discourse a real question is generally put in the Subjunctive; a rhetorical question in the Infinitive (§ 580).

89. All Imperative forms of speech take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse (§ 588).

90. A Subordinate clause takes the Subjunctive when it expresses the thought of some other person than the writer or speaker (Informal Indirect Discourse, § 592).

91. A clause depending on a Subjunctive clause or an equivalent Infinitive will itself take the Subjunctive if regarded as an integral part of that clause (Attraction, § 593).

For Prepositions and their cases, see §§ 220, 221.
For Conditional Sentences, see § 512 ff. (Scheme in § 514.)
For ways of expressing Purpose, see § 533.
ORDER OF WORDS

595. Latin differs from English in having more freedom in the arrangement of words for the purpose of showing the relative importance of the ideas in a sentence.

596. As in other languages, the Subject tends to stand first, the Predicate last. Thus,—

Pausanías Lacedaemonius mágnum homó sed varius in omni genere vitae fuit
(Nep. Pan. 1), Pausaniás the Lacedaemonian was a great man, but inconsistent in the whole course of his life.

Note.—This happens because, from the speaker’s ordinary point of view, the subject of his discourse is the most important thing in it, as singled out from all other things to be spoken of.

α. There is in Latin, however, a special tendency to place the verb itself last of all, after all its modifiers. But many writers purposely avoid the monotony of this arrangement by putting the verb last but one, followed by some single word of the predicate.

597. In connected discourse the word most prominent in the speaker’s mind comes first, and so on in order of prominence.

This relative prominence corresponds to that indicated in English by a graduated stress of voice (usually called emphasis).

α. The difference in emphasis expressed by difference in order of words is illustrated in the following passages:—

apud Xenophóntem autem moriēns Cy-rus máior haece dicit (Cat. M. 79), in
Xenophón too, on his death-bed Cyrus the elder utters these words.

Cyrus quidem hæc moriēns; nōs, si placet, nostra videámus (id. 82), Cyrus,
to be sure, utters these words on his death-bed; let us, if you please, consider our own case.

Cyrus quidem apud Xenophóntem eō sermōnc, quem moriēns habuit (id. 30), Cyrus, to be sure, in Xenophon, in that speech which he uttered on his death-bed.

Note.—This stress or emphasis, however, in English does not necessarily show any violent contrast to the rest of the words in the sentence, but is infinitely varied, constantly increasing and diminishing, and often so subtle as to be unnoticed except in careful study. So, as a general rule, the precedence of words in a Latin sentence is not mechanical, but corresponds to the prominence which a good speaker would mark by skilfully managed stress of voice. A Latin written sentence, therefore, has all the clearness and expression which could be given to a spoken discourse by the best actor in English. Some exceptions to the rule will be treated later.

The first chapter of Cæsar’s Gallie War, if rendered so as to bring out as far as possible the shades of emphasis, would run thus:—
GAUL, in the widest sense, is divided into three parts, which are inhabited (as follows): one by the Belgians, another by the Aquitani, the third by a people called in their own language Celts, in ours Gauls. These in their language, institutions, and laws are all of them different. The GAULS (proper) are separated from the Aquitani by the river Garonue, from the Belgians by the Marne and Seine. Of these tribes the bravest of all are the Belgians, for the reason that they live farthest away.

1 GAUL: emphatic as the subject of discourse, as with a title or the like.
2 Divided: opposed to the false conception (implied in the use of omnis) that the country called Gallia by the Romans is one. This appears more clearly from the fact that Caesar later speaks of the Galli in a narrower sense as distinct from the other two tribes, who with them inhabit Gallia in the wider sense.
3 Parts: continuing the emphasis begun in divisa. Not three parts as opposed to any other number, but into parts at all.
4 Inhabited: emphatic as the next subject, “The inhabitants of these parts are, etc.”
5 One: given more prominence than it otherwise would have on account of its close connection with quàrum.
6 Another, etc.: opposed to one.
7 Their own, ours: strongly opposed to each other.
8 These (tribes): the main subject of discourse again, collecting under one head the names previously mentioned.
9 Language, etc.: these are the most prominent ideas, as giving the striking points which distinguish the tribes. The emphasis becomes natural in English if we say “these have a different language, different institutions, different laws.”
10 All of them: the emphasis on all marks the distributive character of the adjective, as if it were “every one has its own, etc.”
11 GAULS: emphatic as referring to the Gauls proper in distinction from the other tribes.
12 Separated: though this word contains an indispensable idea in the connection, yet it has a subordinate position. It is not emphatic in Latin, as is seen from the fact that it cannot be made emphatic in English. The sense is: The Gauls lie between the Aquitani on the one side, and the Belgians on the other.
13 Of these: the subject of discourse.
14 All: emphasizing the superlative idea in “bravest”; they, as Gauls, are assumed to be warlike, but the most so of all of them are the Belgians.
15 Farthest away: one might expect absent (are away) to have a more emphatic place, but it is dwarfed in importance by the predominance of the main idea, the effeminating influences from which the Belgians are said to be free. It is not that they live farthest off that is insisted on, but that the civilization of the Province etc., which would soften them, comes less in their way. It is to be noticed also that absent has already been anticipated by the construction of cultú and still more by longissimé, so that when it comes it amounts only to a formal part of the sentence. Thus,— “because the civilization etc. of the Province (which would soften them) is farthest from them.”
from the civilization and refinement of the Province, and because they are least of all of them subject to the visits of traders, and to the consequent importation of such things as tend to soften their warlike spirit; and are also nearest to the Germans, who live across the Rhine, and with whom they are incessantly at war. For the same reason the Helvetians, as well as superior to all the other Gauls in valor, because they are engaged in almost daily battles with the Germans, either defending their own boundaries from them, or themselves making war on those of the Germans. Of all this country, one part—the one which, as has been said, the Gauls (proper) occupy—begins at the river Rhine. Its boundaries are the river Garonne, the ocean, and the confines of the Belgians. It even reaches on the side of the Sequani and Helvetians the river Rhine. Its general direction is towards the north. The Belgians begin at the extreme limits of Gaul; they reach (on this side) as far as the lower part of the Rhine. They spread to the northward and eastward.

Aquitania extends from the Garonne to the Pyrenees, and that part of the ocean that lies towards Spain. It runs off westward and northward.

b. The more important word is never placed last for emphasis. The apparent cases of this usage (when the emphasis is not misconceived) are cases where a word is added as an afterthought, either real or affected, and so has its position not in the sentence to which it is appended, but, as it were, in a new one.

1 Least: made emphatic here by a common Latin order, the chiasmus (§ 598. f).
2 Traders: the fourth member of the chiasmus, opposed to culte and humanitate.
3 Such things as: the importance of the nature of the importations overshadows the fact that they are imported, which fact is anticipated in traders.
4 Soften: cf. what is said in note 15, p. 394. They are brave because they have less to soften them, their native barbarity being taken for granted.
5 Nearest: the same idiomatic prominence as in note 1 above, but varied by a special usage combining chiasmus and anaphora (§ 598. f).
6 Across the Rhine: i.e. and so are perfect savages.
7 Incessantly: the continuance of the warfare becomes the all-important idea, as if it were “and not a day passes in which they are not at war with them.”
598. The main rules for the Order of Words are as follows: —

a. In any phrase the determining and most significant word comes first: —

1. Adjective and Noun: —

omnis hominēs decet, every man ought (opposed to some who do not).
Lūciius Catīllīna nōbiī genere nātus fuit, māgnā vi et animi et corporis,
sed ingenīō malō prāvōque (Sall. Cat. 5), Lūciius Catīllīna was born of a
noble family, with great force of mind and body, but with a nature
that was evil and depraved. [Here the adjectives in the first part are
the emphatic and important words, no antithesis between the nouns
being as yet thought of; but in the second branch the noun is meant
to be opposed to those before mentioned, and immediately takes the
prominent place, as is seen by the natural English emphasis, thus mak-
ing a chiasmus.]

2. Word with modifying case: —

quid magis Epaminondam, Thēbānōrum imperātōrem, quam victōriæ Thē-
bānōrum consulere decuit (Inv. i. 69), what should Epaminondas, com-
mander of the Thebans, have aimed at more than the victory of the
Thebans?
lacrimā nihil citius ārēscit (id. i. 109), nothing dries quicker than a tear.
nēmó ferē laudis cupidus (De Or. i. 14), hardly any one desirous of glory
(cf. Manil. 7, avidi laudis, eager for glory).

b. Numerical adjectives, adjectives of quantity, demonstrative, relative,
and interrogative pronouns and adverbs, tend to precede the word or words
to which they belong: —

cum alīqua perturbātione (Off. i. 137), with some disturbance.
hoc ānō praestāmnus (De Or. i. 32), in this one thing we excel.
cēterae ferē artēs, the other arts.

Note. — This happens because such words are usually emphatic; but often the
words connected with them are more so, and in such cases the pronouns etc. yield the
emphatic place: —

causa alīqua (De Or. i. 250), some case.
stilus ille tuns (id. i. 257), that well-known style of yours (in an antithesis; see
passage). [Ille is idiomatic in this sense and position.]
Rōman quae apportātā sunt (Verr. iv. 121), what were carried to Rome (in contrast
to what remained at Syracuse).

c. When sum is used as the Substantive verb (§ 284. b), it regularly
stands first, or at any rate before its subject: —

est virī māgni pūnire sonās (Off. i. 82), it is the duty of a great man to pun-
ish the guilty.

1 So called from the Greek letter X (chi), on account of the criss-cross arrangement
of the words. Thus, $x_b^a$ (see f below).
d. The verb may come first, or have a prominent position, either (1) because the idea in it is emphatic; or (2) because the predication of the whole statement is emphatic; or (3) the tense only may be emphatic:—

(1) dixēbat idem Cotta (Off. ii. 59), Cotta used to say the same thing (opposed to others' boasting).

idem fecit adulēscēns M. Antōniius (id. ii. 49), the same thing was done by Mārki Antōnii in his youth. [Opposed to dixi just before.]

facis amīcē (Lael. 9), you act kindly. [Cf. amīcē facis, you are very kind (you act kindly).]

(2) prōpēnsior benignītās esse dēbēbit in calamitūs nisī forte erunt dignī calamitātē (Off. ii. 62), liberality ought to be readier toward the unfortunate unless perchance they really deserve their misfortune.

praesertim cum scribat (Pametius) (id. iii. 8), especially when he does say (in his books). [Opposed to something omitted by him.]

(3) fuimus Trōsēs, fuit Ilium (Aen. ii. 325), we have ceased to be Trojans, Troy is now no more.

loquor autem dē commūnibus amīcitūs (Off. iii. 45), but I am speaking now of common friendships.

c. Often the connection of two emphatic phrases is brought about by giving the precedence to the most prominent part of each and leaving the less prominent parts to follow in inconspicuous places:—

plurēs solent esse causēs (Off. i. 28), there are usually several reasons.

quōs amīsinum cīvis, ēos Mārtīs vis perculit (Marc. 17), what fellow-citizens we have lost, have been stricken down by the violence of war.

maximēs tibi omnēs grātīs agimus (id. 32), we all render you the warmest thanks.

haec rēs ānīus est propria Caesarīs (id. 11), this exploit belongs to Caesar alone.

obūrgātiōnēs etiam nōn nunquam incidunt necessāriē (Off. i. 136), occasions for rebuke also sometimes occur which are unavoidable.

f. Antithesis between two pairs of ideas is indicated by placing the pairs either (1) in the same order (anaphora) or (2) in exactly the opposite order (chiasmus):—

(1) rēsum cópiam verbōrum cópiam gignit (De Or. iii. 125), abundance of matter produces copiousness of expression.

(2) lēgēs suppliciō impropōs afficitūnt, defendunt ac tenuunt honōs (Legg. ii. 13), the laws visit punishments upon the wicked, but the good they defend and protect.

Notē. — Chiasmus is very common in Latin, and often seems in fact the more unnatural construction. In an artless narrative one might hear, "The women were all drowned, they saved the men."

nōn igitur utilitātem amīcitūa sed utilūtēs amīcitiam conseguēt (Lael. 51), it is not then that friendship has followed upon advantage, but advantage upon friendship. [Here the chiasmus is only grammatical, the ideas being in the parallel order. (See also p. 395: longissimē, minimē, proximē.)
g. A modifier of a phrase or some part of it is often embodied within the phrase (cf. α): —

dē commune hominum memoria (Tusc. i. 59), in regard to the universal memory of man.

h. A favorite order with the poets is the interlocked, by which the attribute of one pair comes between the parts of the other (synchysis): —
et superciēs pavidae natārunt aequore damnae (Hor. Od. i. 2. 11).

Note.—This is often joined with chiasmus: as, —arma nōndum expiātēs ūnēta ornōribus (id. ii. 1. 5).

i. Frequently unimportant words follow in the train of more emphatic ones with which they are grammatically connected, and so acquire a prominence out of proportion to their importance: —
dictitābat sē hortulōs aliquōs emere velle (Off. iii. 58), he gave out that he wanted to buy some gardens. [Here aliquōs is less emphatic than emere, but precedes it on account of the emphasis on hortulōs.]

j. The copula is generally felt to be of so little importance that it may come in anywhere where it sounds well; but usually under cover of more emphatic words: —
cōnsul ego quæsivi, cum vōs mihi essēis in cōnsiliō (Rep. iii. 28), as consul I held an investigation in which you attended me in council.
falsum est id tōtum (id. ii. 28), that is all false.

k. Many expressions have acquired an invariable order: —
rēs pūblica; populus Rōmānus; honōris causa; pāce tanti viri.

Note.—These had, no doubt, originally an emphasis which required such an arrangement, but in the course of time have changed their shade of meaning. Thus, senātus populusque Rōmānus originally stated with emphasis the official bodies, but became fixed so as to be the only permissible form of expression.

l. The Romans had a fondness for emphasizing persons, so that a name or a pronoun often stands in an emphatic place: —
d[i]xī[v] vēnālis quidem sé hortōs nōn habēre (Off. iii. 58), [said] that he did n't have any gardens for sale, to be sure.

m. Kindred words often come together (figūra etymologica): —
itā sensim sine sensū aetās senescit (Cat. M. 38), thus gradually, without being perceived, man's life grows old.

Special Rules

599. The following are special rules of arrangement: —

a. The negative precedes the word it especially affects; but if it belongs to no one word in particular, it generally precedes the verb; if it is especially emphatic, it begins the sentence. (See example, 598. f. ν.)
b. Itaque regularly comes first in its sentence or clause; enim, autem, vērō, quoque, never first, but usually second, sometimes third if the second word is emphatic; quidem never first, but after the emphatic word; igitur usually second; nē . . . quidem include the emphatic word or words.

c. Inquam, inquit, are always used parenthetically, following one or more words. So often crēdō, opinor, and in poetry sometimes precor.

d. (1) Prepositions (except tenus and versus) regularly precede their nouns; (2) but a monosyllabic preposition is often placed between a noun and its adjective or limiting genitive:—

quem ad modum; quam ob rem; magnō cum metā; omnibus cum cōpiās; nūllā in rē (cf. § 598. i).

e. In the arrangement of clauses, the Relative clause more often comes first in Latin, and usually contains the antecedent noun:—

quōs āmisimus civis, cōs Mārtis vis percūlit (Marc. 17), those citizens whom we have lost, etc.

f. Personal or demonstrative pronouns tend to stand together in the sentence:—

cum vōs mihi essētis in cōnsiliō (Rep. iii. 28), when you attended me in counsel.

Structure of the Period

600. Latin, unlike modern languages, expresses the relation of words to each other by inflection rather than by position. Hence its structure not only admits of great variety in the arrangement of words, but is especially favorable to that form of sentence which is called a Period. In a period, the sense is expressed by the sentence as a whole, and is held in suspense till the delivery of the last word.

An English sentence does not often exhibit this form of structure. It was imitated, sometimes with great skill and beauty, by many of the earlier writers of English prose; but its effect is better seen in poetry, as in the following passage:—

High on a throne of royal state, which far
Outshine the wealth of Orrus and of Ind,
Or where the gorgeous East with richest hand
Showers on her kings barharic pearl and gold,
Sataa exalted sat.—Paradise Lost, ii. 1-5.

But in argument or narrative, the best English writers more commonly give short clear sentences, each distinct from the rest, and saying one thing by itself. In Latin, on the contrary, the story or argument is viewed as a whole; and the logical relation among all its parts is carefully indicated.

601. In the structure of the Period, the following rules are to be observed:—

a. In general the main subject or object is put in the main clause, not in a subordinate one:—

Hannibal cum recēnsuisset auxilia Gādēs profectus est (Liv. xxi. 21), when Hannibal had reviewed the auxiliaries, he set out for Cadiz.
Volsci exiguam spem in armis, alió unde abscesserat, cum tentasset, præter cetera adversa, loco quoque iniquo ad pugnam congressi, iniquiore ad fugam, cum ab omni parte caederentur, ad precès a certamine versit, dédit o imperatorem traditusque armis, sub iugum missi, cum singulis vestimentis, ignominiae cládisque plenus dimitissent (Liv. iv. 10). [Here the main fact is the return of the Volsci. But the striking circumstances of the surrender etc., which in English would be detailed in a number of brief independent sentences, are put into the several subordinate clauses within the main clause so that the passage gives a complete picture in one sentence.]

b. Clauses are usually arranged in the order of prominence in the mind of the speaker; so, usually, cause before result; purpose, manner, and the like, before the act.

c. In coordinate clauses, the copulative conjunctions are frequently omitted (asyneton). In such cases the connection is made clear by some antithesis indicated by the position of words.

d. A change of subject, when required, is marked by the introduction of a pronoun, if the new subject has already been mentioned. But such change is often purposely avoided by a change in structure,—the less important being merged in the more important by the aid of participles or of subordinate phrases:

quem ut barbari incendium effugisse vidérunt, tellis eminus missis interfécérunt (Nep. Alc. 10), when the barbarians saw that he had escaped, they threw darts at him at long range and killed him.

celeriter confectó negotiis, in hiberna legiones redéxit (B. G. vi. 3), the matter was soon finished, and he led the legions, etc.

e. So the repetition of a noun, or the substitution of a pronoun for it, is avoided unless a different case is required:

dolorem sī nón potuerō frangere occultābo (Phil. xii. 21), if I cannot conquer the pain, I will hide it. [Cf. if I cannot conquer I will hide the pain.]

f. The Romans were careful to close a period with an agreeable succession of long and short syllables. Thus,—

quod sels nihil prōdest, quod nec sels multum obst (Or. 166), what you know is of no use, what you do not know does great harm.

Note. — In rhetorical writing, particularly in oratory, the Romans, influenced by their study of the Greek orators, gave more attention to this matter than in other forms of composition. Quintilian (ix. 4. 72) lays down the general rule that a clause should not open with the beginning of a verse or close with the end of one.
PROSODY

QUANTITY

602. The poetry of the Indo-European people seems originally to have been somewhat like our own, depending on accent for its metre and disregarding the natural quantity of syllables. The Greeks, however, developed a form of poetry which, like music, pays close attention to the natural quantity of syllables; and the Romans borrowed their metrical forms in classical times from the Greeks. Hence Latin poetry does not depend, like ours, upon accent and rhyme; but is measured, like musical strains, by the length of syllables. Especially does it differ from ours in not regarding the prose accent of the words, but substituting for that an entirely different system of metrical accent or iectus (see § 611. 4). This depends upon the character of the measure used, falling at regular intervals of time on a long syllable or its equivalent. Each syllable is counted as either long or short in Quantity; and a long syllable is generally reckoned equal in length to two short ones (for exceptions, see § 608. 3-e).

The quantity of radical (or stem) syllables — as of short a in pāter or of long a in māter — can be learned only by observation and practice, unless determined by the general rules of quantity. Most of these rules are only arbitrary formulas devised to assist the memory; the syllables being long or short because the ancients pronounced them so. The actual practice of the Romans in regard to the quantity of syllables is ascertained chiefly from the usage of the poets; but the ancient grammarians give some assistance, and in some inscriptions long vowels are distinguished in various ways, — by the apex, for instance, or by doubling (§ 10. e. n.).

Since Roman poets borrow very largely from the poetry and mythology of the Greeks, numerous Greek words, especially proper names, make an important part of Latin poetry. These words are generally employed in accordance with the Greek, and not the Latin, laws of quantity. Where these laws vary in any important point, the variations will be noticed in the rules below.

GENERAL RULES

603. The following are General Rules of Quantity (cf. §§ 9-11):

Quantity of Vowels

α. Vowels. A vowel before another vowel or h is short: as, via, trābō.

Exceptions. — 1. In the genitive form -ius, ĭ is long: as, utrius, nūlliōs. It is, however, sometimes short in verse (§ 113. c).

2. In the genitive and dative singular of the fifth declension, ĭ is long between two vowels: as, diē; otherwise usually short, as in fīdī, réi, spēīa.

Note. — It was once long in these also: as, fēnumās (Ennius, at the end of a hexameter). A is also long before ĭ in the old genitive of the first declension: as, aulāi.

3. In the conjugation of fīō, i is long except when followed by er. Thus, fīō, fīēbam, fīam, but fīeri, fīrem; so also fit (§ 603. a. 3).

4. In many Greek words the vowel in Latin represents a long vowel or diphthong, and retains its original long quantity: as, Trōes (Trōēs), Thalia (Thalēia), hērōas (hērōas), āer (āer).
NOTE.—But many Greek words are more or less Latinized in this respect: as, Acadēmia, chorēa, Malēa, platēa.

5. In δius, in ēheu usually, and sometimes in Dīana and ōne, the first vowel is long.

b. Diphthongs. A Diphthong is long: as, foēdus, cūi,1 āula.

Exception.—The preposition praē in compounds is generally shortened before a vowel: as, praē-ustis (Aen. vii. 524), praē-eunte (id. v. 186).

Note.—u following q, s, or g, does not make a diphthong with a following vowel (see § 5. n. 2). For ā-iō, mā-iōr, pē-iōr, etc., see § 11. d and n.

c. Contraction. A vowel formed by contraction (crasis) is long: as, nil, from nihil; cōgō for ῥ’co-agō; mālō for mā-volō.

Note.—Two vowels of different syllables may be run together without full contraction (synizesis, § 642): as, dēnā (for dēnāde), mēs (for mēsōs); and often two syllables are united by Synaresis (§ 642) without contraction: as when pāriētibus is pronounced pāryētibus.

d. A vowel before ns, nf, gn, is long: as, īnstō, īnfāns, signum.

**Quantity of Syllables**

e. A syllable is long if it contains a long vowel or a diphthong: as, cā-rus, sē-men, foē-dus.

f. Position. A syllable is long by position if its vowel, though short, is followed by two consonants or a double consonant: as, adventus, cortex.

But if the two consonants are a mute followed by l or r the syllable may be either long or short (commen): as, alācris or alācriās; patris or pātris.

Vowels should be pronounced long or short in accordance with their natural quantity without regard to the length of the syllable by position.

Note 1.—The rules of Position do not, in general, apply to final vowels before a word beginning with two consonants.

Note 2.—A syllable is long if its vowel is followed by consonant i (except in binu, quadrinu): see § 11. d.

Note 3.—Compounds of iaciō, though written with one i, commonly retain the long vowel of the prepositions with which they are compounded, as if before a consonant, and, if the vowel of the preposition is short, the first syllable is long by position on the principle of § 11. e.

obiciā hostī (at the end of a hexameter, Aen. iv. 549).

licit et saltū (at the beginning of a hexameter, Aen. ix. 552).

prōice tēla manū (at the beginning of a hexameter, Aen. vi. 836).

Later poets sometimes shorten the preposition in trisyllabic forms, and prepositions ending in a vowel are sometimes contracted as if the verb began with a vowel:

(1) car anpōs obiciēs (Claud. Cons. Hon. iv. 264).

(2) reiēs cāpellās (Ecl. iii. 96, at end).

Note 4.—The y or w sound resulting from synaresis (§ 642) has the effect of a consonant in making position: as, abietis (abyetis), stuvōrum (stuyōrum). Conversely, when the semivowel becomes a vowel, position is lost: as, silvāe, for silvae.

1 Rarely disyllabic cū (as Mart. i. 104. 22).
$\S\, 604\]  

FINAL SYLLABLES

604. The Quantity of Final Syllables is as follows:—

\(a\). Monosyllables ending in a vowel are long: as, mē, tū, hi, nē.

1. The attached particles -nē, -quē, -vē, -cē, -ptē, and re- (redd-) are short; sē- (sēd-) and di- are long. Thus, sēcēdit, sēdētiō, exercitumquē rēdūcit, dēmittē. But re- is often long in rēligō (religiō), rētuī (rettuli), rēpuli (reppuli).

\(b\). Nouns and adjectives of one syllable are long: as, sōl, ōs (ōris), bōs, pār, vās (vāsis), vēr, vis.

Exceptions. — cēr, fēl, lāc, mēl, ōs (ossa), vās (vādis), vir, tēt, quēt.

\(c\). Most monosyllabic Particles are short: as, ān, in, ċis, nēc. But crās, cūr, ēn, nōn, quīn, ūn — with adverbs in c: as, bīc, hūc, sēc — are long.

\(d\). Final a in words declined by cases is short, except in the ablative singular of the first declension; in all other words final a is long. Thus, ēa stellā (nominative), cum ēa stellā (ablative); frūstrā, vocā (imperative), postē, trīginīā.

Exceptions. — ēiā, itā, quiā, putā (suppose): and, in late use, trīginīā etc.

\(e\). Final e is short: as in nūbē, dúcitē, saepē.

Exceptions. — Final e is long — 1. In adverbs formed from adjectives of the first and second declension, with others of like form: as, altē, longē, miserē, apertē, saepissimē. So ferē, fermē.

But it is short in benē, malē; inferē, supernē.

2. In nouns of the fifth declension: as, fidē (also famē), facīē, hediē, quārē (qua rē).

3. In Greek neuters plural of the second declension: as, cētē; and in some other Greek words: Phoebē, Circē, Andromachē, etc.

4. In the imperative singular of the second conjugation: as, vidē.

But sometimes cavē, habē, tacē, vaēc, vidē (cf. § 629, b, 1).

\(f\). Final i is long: as in turī, filī, audi.

Exceptions. — Final i is common in mēi, tībi, sībi, ībi, ubi; and short in nisi, quasi, sicūti, caī (when making two syllables), and in Greek vocatives: as, Alexī.

\(g\). Final o is common: but long in datives and ablatives; also in nouns of the third declension. It is almost invariably long in verbs before the time of Ovid.

Exceptions. — citō, modō (dummodō), immō, prefectō, egō, duō, cedō (the imperative); so sometimes octō, ilīcō, etc., particularly in later writers.

\(h\). Final u is long. Final y is short.

\(i\). Final as, es, os, are long; final is, us, ys, are short: as, nēfās, rūpēs, servōs (accusative); honōs; hostīs, amīcās, Tēthys.
Exceptions. — 1. as is short in Greek plural accusatives: as, lampadēs; and in anās.

2. es is short in the nominative of nouns of the third declension (lingual) having a short vowel in the stem 1: as, mīlēs (-itēs), obsēs (-tēs), — except aīs, ariēs, pēs; in the present of esse (ēs, aēs); in the preposition penēs, and in the plural of Greek nouns: as, hērōēs, lampadēs.

3. os is short in compōs, impōs; in the Greek nominative ending: as, barbitōs; in the old nominative of the second declension: as, servōs (later servus).

4. is in plural cases is long: as in bonīs, nōbris, vēbris, omnis (accusative plural).

5. is is long in the verb forms fis, sis, vis (with quīvis etc.), velis, mālis, nōlis, edis; in the second person singular of the present indicative active in the fourth conjugation: as, aēdis; and sometimes in the forms in -eris (future perfect indicative or perfect subjunctive).

6. us is long in the genitive singular and nominative, accusative, and vocative plural of the fourth declension; and in nouns of the third declension having ū (long) in the stem: as, virtūs (-ūtis), incūs (-ūdis). But pecūs, -ūdis.

j. Of other final syllables, those ending in a single consonant are short. Thus, amāt, amātūr; dōnēc, fāc, procūl, iubār.

Exceptions. — hic (also hīc); aliēc; the ablatives illēc, etc.; certain adverbs in -c: as, illic, istūc; iēn, and some Greek nouns: as, āer, aethēr, crātēr.

Perfects and Perfect Participles

605. Perfects and Perfect Participles of two syllables have the first syllable long: as, iūvi, iūtum (iūvō), vidi, visum (vīdeo); fūgi (fūgiō); vēnī (vēniō).

Exceptions. — bibī, dēdī, fidī, scidī, stētī, stūtī, tūlī; citum, dātum, ītum, lītum, quītum, rātum, rūtum, sātum, situm, stātum. In some compounds of stō, stātum is found (long), as praeātōrum.

a. In reduplicated perfects the vowel of the reduplication is short; the vowel of the following syllable is, also, usually short: as, cēcidī (cādō); dīdīcī (discō), pūpūgī (pungō), cūcūrī (carrō), tētēndī (tendo), mōmōrdī (mor deō). But cēcidī from caedo, pepēdī from pēdō.

Derivatives

606. Rules for the Quantity of Derivatives are: —

a. Forms from the same stem have the same quantity: as, āmō, āmā-visti; gēnus, gēneris.

Exceptions. — 1. bōs, lār, mās, pār, pēs, sāl, — also arbōs, — have a long vowel in the nominative, though the stem-vowel is short (cf. genitive bōvis etc.).

1 The quantity of the stem-vowel may be seen in the genitive singular.
2. Nouns in -or, genitive -onis, have the vowel shortened before the final r: as, honör. (But this shortening is comparatively late, so that in early Latin these nominatives are often found long.)

3. Verb-forms with vowel originally long regularly shorten it before final m, r, or t: as, amēm, amēr, dicērēr, amēt (compare amēmus), dicētēt, audīt, fit.

Note.—The final syllable in t of the perfect was long in old Latin, but is short in the classic period.

4. A few long stem-syllables are shortened: as, ācer, ācerbus. So dé-īrō and pē-īrō, weakened from īrō.

b. Forms from the same root often show inherited variations of vowel quantity (see § 17): as, dīcō (cf. maledicus); dūcō (dūx, dūcis); fidō (perfidus); vōx, vōcis (vōco); lēx, lēgis (lēgo).

c. Compounds retain the quantity of the words which compose them: as, oc-cīdō (cādō), oc-cīdō (caedō), in-iāquus (āequus).

Note.—Greek words compounded with πρό have o short: as, προφήτα, πρῶτος. Some Latin compounds of prō have o short: as, prōnciscō, prōnātēr. Compounds with ae vary: as, nētās, nēgō, nēqueō, nēquam.

RHYTHM

607. The essence of Rhythm in poetry is the regular recurrence of syllables pronounced with more stress than those intervening. To produce this effect in its perfection, precisely equal times should occur between the recurrences of the stress. But in the application of rhythm to words, the exactness of these intervals is sacrificed somewhat to the necessary length of the words; and, on the other hand, the words are forced somewhat in their pronunciation, to produce more nearly the proper intervals of time. In different languages these adaptations take place in different degrees; one language disregarding more the intervals of time, another the pronunciation of the words.

The Greek language early developed a very strict rhythmical form of poetry, in which the intervals of time were all-important. The earliest Latin, on the other hand,—as in the Saturnian and Sesquemine verse,—was not so restricted. But the purely metrical forms were afterwards adopted from the Greek, and supplanted the native forms of verse. Thus the Latin poetry with which we have to do follows for the most part Greek rules, which require the formal division of words (like music) into measures of equal times, technically called Feet. The strict rhythm was doubtless more closely followed in poetry that was sung than in that which was declaimed or intoned. In neither language, however, is the time perfectly preserved, even in single measures; and there are some cases in which the regularity of the time between the iambus is disturbed.

The Greeks and Romans distinguished syllables of two kinds in regard to the time required for their pronunciation, a long syllable having twice the metrical value of a short one. But it must not be supposed that all long syllables were of equal length, or even that in a given passage each long had just twice the length of the contiguous shorts. The ratio was only approximate at best, though necessarily more exact in singing than in recitation. Nor are longs and shorts the only forms of syllables that are found. In some cases a long syllable was protracted, so as to have the time of three or even of four shorts, and often one long or two shorts were pronounced in less than their proper time, though they were perhaps distinguishable in time from one
short (see § 608. c, d). Sometimes a syllable naturally short seems to have been slightly prolonged, so as to represent a long, though in most (not all) cases the apparent irregularity can be otherwise explained. In a few cases, also, a pause takes the place of one or more syllables to fill out the required length of the measure. This could, of course, take place only at the end of a word; hence the importance of Caesura and Diæresis in prosody (§ 611. b, c).

Measures

608. Rhythm consists of the division of musical sound into equal intervals of time called Measures or Feet.

The most natural division of musical time is into measures consisting of either two or three equal parts. But the ancients also distinguished measures of five equal parts.

Note.—The divisions of musical time are marked by a stress of voice on one or the other part of the measure. This stress is called the Ictus (beat), or metrical accent (see § 611. a).

a. The unit of length in Prosody is one short syllable. This is called a Mora. It is represented by the sign Ơ, or in musical notation by the eighth note or quaver ( ).

b. A long syllable is regularly equal to two moræ, and is represented by the sign =, or by the quarter note or crotchet ( ).

c. A long syllable may be protracted, so as to occupy the time of three or four moræ. Such a syllable, if equal to three moræ, is represented by the sign (or dotted quarter ); if equal to four, by (or the half note or minim, ).

d. A long syllable may be contracted, so as to take practically the time of a short one. Such a syllable is sometimes represented by the sign >.

e. A short syllable may be contracted so as to occupy less than one mora.

f. A pause sometimes occurs at the end of a verse or a series of verses, to fill up the time. A pause of one mora in a measure is indicated by the sign ; one of two moræ by the sign .

g. One or more syllables are sometimes placed before the proper beginning of the measure. Such syllables are called an Anacrusis or prelude.¹

The anacrusis is regularly equal to the unaaccented part of the measure.

¹ The same thing occurs in modern poetry, and in modern music any unaaccented syllables at the beginning are treated as an anacrusis, i.e. they make an incomplete measure before the first bar. This was not the case in ancient music. The ancients seem to have treated any unaaccented syllable at the beginning as belonging to the following accented ones, so as to make with them a foot or measure. Thus it would seem that there was an original form of Indo-European poetry which was iambic in its structure, or which, at least, accented the second syllable rather than the first.
609. The feet most frequently employed in Latin verse, together with their musical notation, are the following: —

a. **Triple or Unequal Measures (§)**

1. Trochee \( \underleftarrow{\circ} \quad = \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \): as, rēgis.

2. Iambus \( \circ \underleftarrow{\circ} = \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \): as, dūcēs.

3. Tribrach\(^2\) \( \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} = \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \): as, hōminis.

b. **Double or Equal Measures (§)**

1. Dactyl \( \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} = \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \): as, cōnsūlis.

2. Anapaest \( \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} = \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \): as, mōnitōs.

3. Spondee \( \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} = \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \): as, rēgēs.

c. **Six-timed Measures (§)**

1. Ionic \( \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} = \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \): as, cōnfēcērat.

2. Ionic \( \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} = \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \): as, rētālissent.

3. Choriambus \( \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} = \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \): as, contūlērant.

d. **Quinary or Hemiolic\(^3\) Measures (§)**

1. Cretic \( \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} = \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \): as, cōnsūlēs.

2. Pæon primus \( \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} = \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \): as, cōnsūlibūs.

3. Pæon quārtus \( \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} = \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \): as, tūnērī.

4. Bacchius \( \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} \underleftarrow{\circ} = \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \overleftarrow{\circ} \): as, ūmēcōs.

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\(^1\) Called *diplastic*, the two parts (Thesis and Arsis) being in the ratio of 2 to 1.

\(^2\) Not found as a fundamental foot, but only as the resolution of a Trochee or Iambus.

\(^3\) Called *hemiolic*, the two parts being in the ratio of 1 to 1\(\frac{1}{2}\), or of 2 to 3.
Note. — Several compound feet are mentioned by the grammarians, viz. Pyrrhic \(\bigcirc \bigcirc\); Amphibrach \(\bigcirc \bigcirc\); Antibuschius \(\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc\); Proceleusmatic \(\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc\); the Molossus \(\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc\); the 2d and 3d Pzon, having a long syllable in the 2d or 3d place, with three short ones; 1st, 2d, 3d, and 4th Epirus, having a short syllable in the 1st, 2d, 3d, or 4th place, with three long ones.

Irrational Feet

e. Feet with these apparent quantities do not always occupy equal time, but may be contracted or prolonged to suit the series in which they occur. They are then called irrational, because the thesis and arsis do not have their normal ratio. Such are: —

Irrational Spondeon:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{(in place of a Trochee)} \ & \ \bigcirc \ & \ \bigcirc \\
\text{(in place of an Iambus)} \ & \ \bigcirc \ & \ \bigcirc
\end{align*}
\]

Cyclic Daetyl (in place of a Trochee):

\[
\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc = \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc
\]

Cyclic Anapast (in place of an Iambus):

\[
\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc = \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc
\]

The apparent dactyl \(\bigcirc \bigcirc\), as a substitute for an iambus, and the apparent anapast \(\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc\), as a substitute for a trochee, occur frequently in the dramatic writers.

Note. — Narrative poetry was written for rhythmical recitation, or chant, with instrumental accompaniment; and Lyrical poetry for rhythmical melody, or singing. It must be borne in mind that in ancient music—which in this differs widely from modern—the rhythm of the melody was identical with the rhythm of the text. The lyric poetry was to be sung; the poet was musician and composer, as well as author. To this day a poet is said conventionally to “sing.”

Thus a correct understanding of the rhythmical structure of the verse gives us the time, though not the tune, to which it was actually sung. The exact time, however, as indicated by the succession of long and short syllables, was varied according to certain laws of so-called “Rhythmics,” as will be explained below. In reading ancient verse it is necessary to bear in mind not only the variations in the relative lengths of syllables, but the occasional pause necessary to fill out the measure; and to remember that the rhythmical accent is the only one of importance, though the words should be distinguished carefully, and the sense preserved. Poetry should not be scanned, but read metrically.

\[1\] It seems probable that both thesis and arsis of an irrational foot were affected by the necessity of preserving the rhythmical time of the foot.
Substitution

610. In many cases measures of the same time may be substituted for each other, a long syllable taking the place of two short ones, or two short syllables the place of a long one.

In the former case the measure is said to be *contracted*; in the latter, to be resolved: —

* a. A Spondee (__) may take the place of a Dactyl (__(○○○) or an Anapaest (○○__) or a Tribach (○○○) may take the place of a Trochee (____) or an Iambus (○__). The optional substitution of one long syllable for two short ones is represented by the sign \( \sim \).

* b. When a long syllable having the Ictus (§ 611, a) is resolved, the ictus properly belongs to both the resulting short syllables; but for convenience the mark of accent is placed on the first: —

\[
\text{núnc } \text{ex} \text{péríar} | \text{sítuē } \text{á} \text{cétō} | \text{tíbī cor} | \text{ácrē } \text{in} | \text{pēctō|ré}. \quad \text{—— Pl. Bac. 406.}
\]

\[
\text{≤ >> | ○ ○ >> | ≤ ○ | ≤ >> | ○ ○ ○ | ≤ >> | ≤ ○ | ≤ A}
\]

The Musical Accent

611. That part of the measure which receives the *stress of voice* (the musical accent) is called the Thesis; the unaccented part is called the Arsis.\(^1\)

* a. The stress of voice laid upon the Thesis is called the Ictus (*beat*). It is marked thus: \( \leq \circ \circ \).

* b. The ending of a word within a measure is called Caesura. When this coincides with a rhetorical pause, it is called the Caesura of the verse, and is of main importance as affecting the melody or rhythm.

* c. The coincidence of the end of a word with that of a measure is called Diæresis.

---

\(^1\) The Thesis signifies properly the *putting down* (θέσις, from τιθημι, *put, place*) of the foot in beating time, in the march or dance ("downward beat"), and the Arsis the *raising* (ἀψις, from ἀείω, *raise*) of the foot ("upward beat"). By the Latin grammarians these terms were made to mean, respectively, the ending and the beginning of a measure. By a misunderstanding which has prevailed till recently, since the time of Bentley, their true signification has been reversed. They will here be used in accordance with their ancient meaning, as has now become more common. This metrical accent, recurring at regular intervals of time, is what constitutes the essence of the rhythm of poetry as distinguished from prose, and should be constantly kept in mind. The error mentioned arose from applying to trochaic and dactylic verse a definition which was true only of iambic or anapaestic.
VERSIFICATION

THE VERSE

612. A single line of poetry — that is, a series of feet set in a recognized order — is called a Verse.¹

Note. — Most of the common verses originally consisted of two series (hemistichs), but the joint between them is often obscured. It is marked in Iambic and Trochaic Tetrameter by the Diacritic, in Dactylic Hexameter by the Cæsura.

a. A verse lacking a syllable at the end is called Catalectic, that is, having a pause to fill the measure; when the end syllable is not lacking, the verse is called Acatalectic, and has no such pause.

b. A final syllable, regularly short, is sometimes lengthened before a pause:² it is then said to be long by Diastole: —

noströr̩m obrið̱tur̩ — oriturque miserrima caesès. — Aen. ii. 411.

c. The last syllable of any verse may be indifferently long or short (syl·la·ba a·nceps).

Scansion and Elision

d. To divide the verse into its appropriate measures, according to the rules of quantity and versification, is called scanning or scansion (scañsiō, a climbing or advance by steps, from scandō).

Note. — In reading verse rhythmically, care should be taken to preserve the measure or time of the syllables, but at the same time not to destroy or confuse the words themselves, as is often done in scanning.

e. In scanning, a vowel or diphthong at the end of a word (unless an interjection) is partially suppressed when the next word begins with a vowel or with h. This is called Elision (bruising).³

In reading it is usual entirely to suppress elided syllables. Strictly, however, they should be sounded lightly.

¹ The word Verse (versus) signifies a turning back, i.e. to begin again in like manner, as opposed to Prose (próressus or próversus), which means straight ahead.

² This usage is comparatively rare, most cases where it appears to be found being caused by the retention of an originally long quantity.

³ The practice of Elision is followed in Italian and French poetry, and is sometimes adopted in English, particularly in the older poets: —

T' inveigle and invite th' unwary sense. — Comus 538.

In early Latin poetry a final syllable ending in s often loses this letter even before a consonant (cf. § 15. 7): —

seniō confectu1 quiescit. — Enn. (Cat. M. 14).
Note.—Elision is sometimes called by the Greek name Synaepheid (smearing). Rarely a syllable is elided at the end of a verse when the next verse begins with a vowel: this is called Synapheia (binding).

f. A final μ, with the preceding vowel, is suppressed in like manner when the next word begins with a vowel or ι: this is called Echthlipsis (squeezing out):

monstrum horrendum, informe, ingens, cui lumen ademptum.

—Aen. iii. 658.

Note 1.—Final μ has a feeble nasal sound, so that its partial suppression before the initial vowel of the following word was easy.

Note 2.—The monosyllables δο, δεμ, ςπε, ςπεμ, σιμ, στο, στεμ, ςι (plural), and monosyllabic interjections are never elided; nor is an iambic word elided in dactylic verse. Elision is often evaded by skillful collocation of words.

g. Elision is sometimes omitted when a word ending in a vowel has a special emphasis, or is succeeded by a pause. This omission is called Hiatus (gaping).

Note.—The final vowel is sometimes shortened in such cases.

FORMS OF VERSE

613. A verse receives its name from its dominant or fundamental foot; as, Dactylic, Iambic, Trochaic, Anapaestic; and from the number of measures (single or double) which it contains: as, Hexameter, Tetrameter, Trimeter, Dimeter.

Note.—Trochaic, Iambic, and Anapaestic verses are measured not by single feet, but by pairs (dipodia), so that six Iambi make a Trimeter.

614. A Stanza, or Strophe, consists of a definite number of verses ranged in a fixed order.

Many stanzas are named after some eminent poet: as, Sapphic (from Sappho), Alcaic (from Alcaeus), Archilochian (from Archilochus), Horatian (from Horace), and so on.

DACTYLIC VERSE

Dactylic Hexameter

615. The Dactylic Hexameter, or Heroic Verse, consists theoretically of six dactyls. It may be represented thus:

\[ \text{\textbackslash HHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHH} \]

\[ \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
\text{HHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHH} \\
\hline
\text{HHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHH} \\
\hline
\text{HHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHH} \\
\hline
\text{HHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHH} \\
\hline
\text{HHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHH} \\
\hline
\text{HHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHHH} \\
\hline
\end{array} \]
NOTE.—The last foot is usually said to be a spondee, but is in reality a trochee standing for a dactyl, since the final syllable is not measured.

a. For any foot, except the fifth, a spondee may be substituted.

b. Rarely a spondee is found in the fifth foot; the verse is then called spondaic and usually ends with a word of four syllables.

Thus in Ecl. iv. 49 the verse ends with *incémentum*.

c. The hexameter has regularly *one principal caesura* — sometimes two — almost always accompanied by a pause in the sense.

1. The principal caesura is usually *after the thesis* (less commonly *in the arsis*) of the third foot, dividing the verse into two parts in sense and rhythm. See examples in d.

2. It may also be *after the thesis* (less commonly *in the arsis*) of the fourth foot. In this case there is often another caesura in the second foot, so that the verse is divided into three parts:

   partē fērōx || ārōdensquē mēculīs || et | sībilā | cóllā. — Aen. v. 277.

NOTE.—Often the only indication of the *principal* among a number of caesuras is the break in the sense.

A caesura occurring after the first syllable of a foot is called *masculine*. A caesura occurring after the second syllable of a foot is called *feminine* (as in the fifth foot of the third and fourth verses in d). A caesura may also be found in any foot of the verse, but a proper *causal pause* could hardly occur in the first or sixth.

When the fourth foot ends a word, the break (properly a *diacesis*) is sometimes improperly called *bucolic caesura*, from its frequency in pastoral poetry.

d. The first seven verses of the *Aeneid*, divided according to the foregoing rules, will appear as follows. The principal caesura in each verse is marked by double lines:

   Armā vífrumquō cānō || Trōjiae qui | primūs āb | āris
   Ītālīam fātō prōfū|gos || La|vīnāquē | vēnit
   lūrā, | multum illī̄̄e et terrīs || iacētās et | altō
   vi sūpěr|rum || sae|vae mēnō|rem Tā|nōnīs āb | irām;
   multā quā|quē et bel|lō pas|sus || dum | condōrēt | urbēn,
   infer|rectēquē dē|ōs Lātī|̄̄o, || gēnūs | undē Lā|tinum,
   Alba|nīquē pā|ṭrēs, || at|quē altāe | mōenī| | Rōmae.

1. The *feminine caesura* is seen in the following:

   Dis gēnī|̄̄i pōtu|erē || tē|nent mēdī|̄̄a omnī| | silvae. — Aen. vi. 131.

NOTE.—The Hexameter is thus illustrated in English verse:

   Over the sea, past Crete, on the Syrian shore to the southward,
   Dwell in the well-tilled lowland a dark-haired Æthiop people,
   Skilful with needle and loom, and the arts of the dyer and carver,
   Skilful, but feeble of heart; for they know not the lords of Olympus,
   Lovers of men; neither broad-browed Zeus, nor Pallas Athené,
   Teacher of wisdom to heroes, bestower of might in the battle;
   Share not the cunning of Hermes, nor list to the songs of Apollo,
   Fearing the stars of the sky, and the roll of the blue salt water.

   —Kingsley's *Andromeda*. 
Elegiac Stanza

616. The Elegiac Stanza consists of two verses, — a Hexameter followed by a Pentameter.¹

The Pentameter verse is the same as the Hexameter, except that it omits the last half of the third foot and of the sixth foot: —

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Hexameter:} & \quad \text{Pentameter:} \\
\text{ποιησας} & \quad \text{ποιησως} \\
\text{μη} & \quad \text{μη} \\
\text{τιμησας} & \quad \text{τιμησως} \\
\text{κηρυσσας} & \quad \text{κηρυσσως} \\
\text{πληρωσας} & \quad \text{πληρωσως} \\
\text{εξελθας} & \quad \text{εξελθως} \\
\text{καταλαμβανας} & \quad \text{καταλαμβανως} \\
\text{δεικνυς} & \quad \text{δεικνως} \\
\text{γραφεις} & \quad \text{γραφως} \\
\text{συνανθρωποις} & \quad \text{συνανθρωπως} \\
\text{ορθομολογοις} & \quad \text{ορθομολογως} \\
\text{ομοθυματος} & \quad \text{ομοθυματως} \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[\text{\textit{a.}}\] The Pentameter verse is therefore to be scanned as \textit{two half-verses}, the second of which always consists of two dactyls followed by a single syllable.

\[\text{\textit{b.}}\] The Pentameter has no regular Cæsura; but the first half-verse must always end with a word (\textit{diacesis}, § 611. c), which is followed by a pause to complete the measure.²

\[\text{\textit{c.}}\] The following verses will illustrate the forms of the Elegiac Stanza:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{cum subit} & \quad \text{illius} \\
\text{qui mihi} & \quad \text{supremum} \ \bar{\kappa} \quad \text{tempus in} \\
\text{cum repetuit} & \quad \text{nec tem} \quad \text{quai tot mihi} \\
\text{labitur} & \quad \text{ex cessit} \ \bar{\kappa} \\
\text{iam praepe} & \quad \text{lux ade} \quad \text{qui} \\
\text{finibus} & \quad \text{extremae} \ \bar{\kappa} \\
\text{Ov. Trist. i. 3.}
\end{align*}
\]

\[\text{Note.} — \text{The Elegiac Stanza differs widely in character from hexameter verse (of which it is a mere modification) by its division into Distichs, each of which must have its own sense complete. It is employed in a great variety of compositions, — epistolary, amatory, and mournful, — and was especially a favorite of the poet Ovid. It has been illustrated in English verse, imitated from the German: —}

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{In the Hexameter:} & \quad \text{In the Pentameter:} \\
\text{rises} & \quad \text{eye} \\
\text{the fountain's} & \quad \text{falling in} \\
\text{silvery} & \quad \text{melody} \\
\text{column;} & \quad \text{back.}
\end{align*}
\]

Other Dactylic Verses

617. Other dactylic verses or half-verses are occasionally used by the lyric poets.

¹ Called \textit{pentameter} by the old grammarians, who divided it, formally, into five feet (two dactyls or spondees, a spondee, and two anapests), as follows: —

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Pentameter:} \\
\text{ποιησας} & \quad \text{ποιησως} \\
\text{μη} & \quad \text{μη} \\
\text{τιμησας} & \quad \text{τιμησως} \\
\text{κηρυσσας} & \quad \text{κηρυσσως} \\
\text{πληρωσας} & \quad \text{πληρωσως} \\
\text{εξελθας} & \quad \text{εξελθως} \\
\text{καταλαμβανας} & \quad \text{καταλαμβανως} \\
\text{δεικνυς} & \quad \text{δεικνως} \\
\text{γραφεις} & \quad \text{γραφως} \\
\text{συνανθρωποις} & \quad \text{συνανθρωπως} \\
\text{ορθομολογοις} & \quad \text{ορθομολογως} \\
\text{ομοθυματος} & \quad \text{ομοθυματως} \\
\end{align*}
\]

² The time of this pause, however, may be filled by the \textit{protraction} of the preceding syllable: —

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Pentameter:} \\
\text{ποιησας} & \quad \text{ποιησως} \\
\text{μη} & \quad \text{μη} \\
\text{τιμησας} & \quad \text{τιμησως} \\
\text{κηρυσσας} & \quad \text{κηρυσσως} \\
\text{πληρωσας} & \quad \text{πληρωσως} \\
\text{εξελθας} & \quad \text{εξελθως} \\
\text{καταλαμβανας} & \quad \text{καταλαμβανως} \\
\text{δεικνυς} & \quad \text{δεικνως} \\
\text{γραφεις} & \quad \text{γραφως} \\
\text{συνανθρωποις} & \quad \text{συνανθρωπως} \\
\text{ορθομολογοις} & \quad \text{ορθομολογως} \\
\text{ομοθυματος} & \quad \text{ομοθυματως} \\
\end{align*}
\]
a. The Dactylic Tetrameter alternates with the hexameter, forming the Alcmanian Strophe, as follows:—

ō forētēs pējōrārē | passi
mēcum | saēpē vīni, || nunc | vinō | pellītē | cūrās;
crās ἵνα δεῖραμμόν | aequōr.

—Hor. Od. i. 7 (so 28; Ep. 12).

b. The Dactylic Pentemeter (five half-feet) consists of half a pentameter verse. It is used in combination with the Hexameter to form the First Archilochian Strophe:—

dēfūsāvēs, || rēdē|stant iam | grāmmīnā | camplis,
arbōribusque cōmae;
mūtat | terrā vīces || et | dēcrēscentīā | ripās
flāminā | praeērē|stant. —Hor. Od. iv. 7.

For the Fourth Archilochian Strophe (Archilochian heptameter, alternating with iambic trimeter catalectic), see §626.11.

**Iambic Verse**

**Iambic Trimeter**

618. The Iambic Trimeter is the ordinary verse of dramatic dialogue. It consists of three measures, each containing a double iambus (iambic dipody). The caesura is usually in the third foot.

\[ \overset{\_\_\_}{\overset{\_\_\_}{\_\_\_}} \]

**Note.** — The sign \[\overset{\_\_\_}{\_}\_\] denotes possible substitution of an irrational spondee (\[\overset{\_\_\_}{\overset{\_\_\_}{\_\_\_}}\]) for an iambus (\[\overset{\_\_\_}{\_\_\_}\]).

a. The Iambic Trimeter is often used in lyric poetry (1) as an independent system, or (2) alternating with the Dimeter to form the Iambic Strophe, as follows:—

(1) iam iam efficā | oī || dé mānūs | scēntiaē
supplēx et ó|rō || rēgnā | pēr | Prōsērpīae,
pēr et Diāñae || nōn nōvēn|dā nūmīnā,
pēr átque librōs || cāmmūnum | vālēntīüm
defixā caelō || devocārē sēdērā,
Cāñīdiā, pārçē || vōciībus | tandēm sācrīs,
citāmquē rētrō || rētrō sōl|vē turbīnēm. —Hor. Epod. 17.

The last two lines may be thus translated, to show the movement in English:—

Oh! stay, Canidia, stay thy rites of sorcery,
Thy charm unbinding backward let thy swift wheel fly!
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(2) bēātūs ἵππε | qui prōcūl | nēgōtūs,
  ut prīscā gēns | mortālūm,
pātērē nārā | būbūs ēxercēt suīs,
sōlātūs ὦμ|mi fēnōrē;
neque ēcēclātur || clāssicō | milēs trūcē,
nēque hōrrēt ἱρātūm mārē. — Hor. Epod. 2.

b. In the stricter form of Iambic Trimeter an irrational spondee (> ὴ) or its equivalent (a cyclic anapaést < ὴ or an apparent dactyl > ὴ ὴ, § 609. ε) may be regularly substituted for the first iambus of any dipody. A tribrach (< ὴ ὴ) may stand for an iambus anywhere except in the last place. In the comic poets any of these forms or the procelesmatic (< ὴ ὴ ὴ) may be substituted in any foot except the last: —  

ō lēcēs ἀλ|mi réctōr || ét | caeli dēcūs!
quē altērūn cūr|pu spētā || hūm|nificē ἀμβλένα,
illāstrē laē|tis || ēsērīs | terrīs cāpūt.

quid quaerēs? an|nōs || séxāgīn|tā nātūs ēs.
  — Ter. Haut. 62.

hōmō sām : hūmānī || nūl ā mē σμμένūm pūtō.
vel mé mōnē|rē lōc || vél percēn|tārī pūtā.
  — id. 77, 78.

c. The Choliambic (lame Iambic) substitutes a trochee for the last iambus: —

|| ᾱ ὴ ὴ ὴ | ᾱ || ᾱ ὴ ὴ | ᾱ ὴ ὴ ὴ ||
aeqūē ēst bēātūs || āc pōē|mā cūm scribēt:
tam gaudēt ἕν || sē, || tāmquē sē śp|sē mīrātūr.
  — Catull. xxiii. 15, 16.

Note. — The verse may also be regarded as trochaic with anacrusis: as, —

ᾱ ὴ ὴ ὴ ὴ | ᾱ ὴ ὴ ὴ | ᾱ ὴ ὴ ὴ | ᾱ ὴ ὴ ὴ ||

d. The Iambic Trimeter Catalectic is represented as follows: —

|| ᾱ ὴ ὴ ὴ | ᾱ || ᾱ ὴ ὴ | ᾱ ὴ ὴ ὴ ||

It is used in combination with other measures (see § 626. 11), and is shown in the following: —

Vulcānūs ār|dēns || ūrit óf|ficūrās. — Hor. Od. i. 4.

or in English: —

On purple peaks a deeper shade descending. — Scott.

1 The greater freedom of substitution in the comedy is due to the fact that the verse is regarded as made up of separate feet rather than of dipodies.
Other Iambic Measures

619. Other forms of Iambic verse are the following:—

\(a\). The Iambic Tetrameter Catalectic (\textit{Septenarius}). This consists of seven and a half iambic feet, with diaeresis after the fourth and with the same substitutions as in Iambic Trimeter:—

\[ \text{n}^{\text{am}} \text{id} \text{cir}^{\text{ö}} \text{arc}^{\text{es}} | \text{tor}, \text{n}^{\text{úpt} \text{ás}} | \text{quod} \text{m}^{\text{í}} \text{ádp} \text{ár}^{\text{á} | \text{ri} \text{s}^{\text{én} \text{is}^{\text{ít}}.}} \]

\[ \text{quibus} \text{quíd} \text{èm} \text{quam} \text{fác}^{\text{í} | \text{l}^{\text{e}} \text{p}^{\text{ot} \text{ú} \text{cr}^{\text{át}} \text{íquè} \text{èse}^{\text{í}} \text{s}^{\text{íh} | \text{èc} | \text{què} \text{èse}^{\text{ét}}! \}
\]

—\text{Ter. And. 690, 691.}

The metrical scheme of these two verses may be represented as follows:—

\[ | > \text{ŋ} \text{> ñ} | > \text{ñ} \text{ñ} | > \text{ñ ñ} | > \text{ñ ñ} | > \text{ñ ñ ñ} | \]

\[ \text{ñ} \text{ñ} \text{ñ} \text{ñ} \text{ñ} \text{ñ} | \text{ñ} \text{ñ} \text{ñ} \text{ñ} | \text{ñ} \text{ñ} \text{ñ} \text{ñ} | \text{ñ} \text{ñ} \text{ñ} \text{ñ} | \]

Its movement is like the following:—

In good king Chárles’s golden days, when loyalty no harm meant.

—\text{Vicar of Bray.}

\(b\). The Iambic Tetrameter Acatalectic (\textit{Octonarius}). This consists of eight full iambic feet with the same substitutions as in Iambic Trimeter. Like the Septenarius it is used in lively dialogue:—

\[ \text{dic}^{\text{át}} \text{èm} \text{d}^{\text{ár} | \text{èr, ù}^{\text{n} \text{s} \text{Ph}^{\text{órim} \text{ó} | \text{m}^{\text{í}} \text{n}^{\text{úpt} \text{um} \text{n}^{\text{é} | \text{s}^{\text{usc}^{\text{é} | \text{s}^{\text{é} | \text{ít}; \}
\text{et} \text{m}^{\text{á} | \text{g}^{\text{í} \text{s}^{\text{ëw} | \text{f}^{\text{l}^{\text{m} | \text{id}^{\text{ó} | \text{é} | \text{on} \text{èm}, \}
\text{n}^{\text{í} \text{í} \text{sit} \text{f}^{\text{á} | \text{m}^{\text{i} | \text{l}^{\text{á} | \text{ír} \text{ó}. \}
\]

—\text{Ter. Ph. 720, 721.}

The metrical scheme of these two verses may be represented as follows:—

\[ | > \text{ñ} \text{ñ} | > \text{ñ} \text{ñ} | > \text{ñ ñ} | > \text{ñ ñ} | > \text{ñ ñ ñ} | \]

\[ | > \text{ñ} \text{ñ} | > \text{ñ} \text{ñ} | > \text{ñ ñ} | > \text{ñ ñ ñ} | > \text{ñ ñ ñ} | \]

\(c\). The Iambic Dimeter. This may be either acatalectic or catalectic.

1. The Iambic Dimeter Acatalectic consists of four iambic feet. It is used in combination with some longer verse (see \text{§} 618. \text{a}).

2. The Iambic Dimeter Catalectic consists of three and a half iambic feet. It is used only in choruses:—

\[ \text{quô}^{\text{n}^{\text{m} | \text{cr}^{\text{é} | \text{n}^{\text{í} | \text{l}^{\text{á} | \text{M}^{\text{á} | \text{è} | \text{n}^{\text{s}.}} \}
\text{pra}^{\text{æ} | \text{é} | \text{ps}^{\text{èm}^{\text{ám}^{\text{ó} | \text{j}^{\text{rr}^{\text{é} | \text{sa}^{\text{é} | \text{v}^{\text{o}.}} \}
\text{r}^{\text{áp}^{\text{ít} | \text{ú}^{\text{r}^{\text{d}^{\text{í} | \text{n}^{\text{ú} | \text{p}^{\text{ó} | \text{t}^{\text{é} | \text{nt}^{\text{í}}.}} \]
\text{f}^{\text{á} | \text{c} | \text{m}^{\text{ús}^{\text{p} \text{ú} | \text{r}^{\text{át} | \text{íf}^{\text{ú} | \text{r}^{\text{é} | \text{é}. \}
\]

—\text{Sen. Med. 850-853.}

\textbf{Note.} — Owing to the fact that in modern music each measure begins with a downward beat, some scholars regard all these forms of Iambic verse as Trochaic verse with anacrusis (\text{§} 618. \text{c. N.}).

Mixed Measures

621. Different measures may be combined in the same verse in two different ways. Either (1) a series of one kind is simply joined to a series of another kind (compare the changes of rhythm not uncommon in modern music); or (2) single feet of other measures are combined with the prevailing measures, in which case these odd feet are adapted by changing their quantity so that they become irrational (see § 609. e).

When enough measures of one kind occur to form a series, we may suppose a change of rhythm; when they are isolated, we must suppose adaptation. Of the indefinite number of possible combinations but few are found in Latin poetry.

622. The following verses, combining different rhythmical series, are found in Latin lyrical poetry:

1. Greater Archilochian (Dactylic Tetrameter; Trochaic Tripody):—

\[ \text{solvitur} | \text{acris} \; \text{hinc} \; \text{gratia} \; \text{vicem} | \text{veris} \; \text{et} \; \text{Falyoni.} \]

Hor. Od. i. 4.

Note.—It is possible that the dactyls were cyclic; but the change of measure seems more probable.

2. Verse consisting of Dactylic Trimeter catalectic (Dactylic Penthemin); Iambic Dimeter:—

\[ \text{scribere} | \text{versicullos} | \text{anore} \; \text{percussum} \; \text{gravem}. \]

Hor. Epod. 11. 2.

Logaœdic Verse

623. Trochaic verses, containing in regular prescribed positions irrational measures or irrational feet (cf. § 609. e), are called Logaœdic. The principal logaœdic forms are—

1. Logaœdic Tetrapody (four feet): GLYCONIC.

2. Logaœdic Tripody (three feet): PHEROCRATIC (often treated as a syncopated Tetrapody Catalectic).

3. Logaœdic Dipody (two feet): this may be regarded as a short Pherocratic.

Note.—This mixture of irrational measures gives an effect approaching that of prose; hence the name Logaœdic (λόγως, ἀόρ). These measures originated in the Greek lyric poetry, and were adopted by the Romans. All the Roman lyric metres not belonging to the regular iambic, trochaic, dactylic, or Ionic systems, were constructed on the basis of the three forms given above: viz., Logaœdic systems consisting respectively of four, three, and two feet. The so-called Logaœdic Pentapody consists of five feet, but is to be regarded as composed of two of the others.
624. Each logaëdic form contains a single dactyl,¹ which may be either in the first, second, or third place. The verse may be catalectic or acatalectic:

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{Glyconic} & \text{Pherecratic} \\
i. & \| \now \ u | \wedge \ u | \wedge \ u | \wedge (\wedge) \| & \| \now \ u | \wedge \ u | \wedge (\wedge) \| \\
ii. & \| \wedge \ u | \now \ u | \wedge \ u | \wedge (\wedge) \| & \| \wedge \ u | \now \ u | \wedge (\wedge) \| \text{ or} \\
iii. & \| \wedge \ u | \wedge \ u | \wedge \ u | \wedge (\wedge) \| & \| \wedge \ u | \wedge \ u | \wedge \ w |
\end{array}
\]

**Note.** — The shorter Pherecratic (dipody) (\(\wedge \ u | \wedge \ u\)), if catalectic, appears to be a simple Choriambus (\(\wedge \ u | \wedge \ w\)); and, in general, the effect of the logaëdic forms is Choriambic. In fact, they were so regarded by the later Greek and Latin metricians, and these metres have obtained the general name of Choriambic. But they are not true choriambic, though they may very likely have been felt to be such by the composer, who imitated the forms without much thought of their origin. They may be read (scanned), therefore, on that principle. But it is better to read them as logaëdic measures; and that coarse is followed here.

625. The verses constructed upon the several Logaëdic forms or models are the following:

1. Glyconic (Second Glyconic, catalectic):

\[
\| \wedge \ u | \wedge \ u | \wedge \ u | \wedge (\wedge) \| \text{ or } \| \wedge \ u | \wedge \ u | \wedge (\wedge) \| \\
\text{Rómae | principis | úrbiām.}
\]

In English:

Fórmes more réal than living mán. — Shelley.

**Note.** — In this and most of the succeeding forms the foot preceding the dactyl is always irrational in Horace, consisting of an irrational spondee (\(\wedge \rangle\)).

2. Aristophanic (First Pherecratic):

\[
\| \wedge \ u | \wedge \ u | \wedge \ u | \wedge \ w \| \text{ tempērāt | órā | frēnis. — Hor. Od. i. 8.}
\]

**Note.** — It is very likely that this was made equal in time to the preceding by protracting the last two syllables:

\[
\| \wedge \ u | \wedge \ u | \wedge \ u | \wedge \ w | \text{ or } \| \wedge \ u | \wedge \ u | \wedge \ w | \text{ or } \| \wedge \ u | \wedge \ u | \wedge \ w |
\]

¹ Different Greek poets adopted fixed types in regard to the place of the dactyls, and so a large number of verses arose, each following a strict law, which were imitated by the Romans as distinct metres.
3. Adonic (First Pherecratic, shortened):—

\[ \text{Térruit | úrbēm. — Hor.} \]

Or perhaps:—

\[ \text{crás dōnābēris haédō. — Hor.} \]

Often scanned as follows:—

\[ \text{⟩⟩ | ⟨⟩ ∨ | ⟨⟩} \]

5. Lesser Asclepiad (Second Pherecratic with syncope and First Pherecratic catalectic):—

\[ \text{Maēcēnās ātāvis ēditē régībūs. — Hor.} \]

6. Greater Asclepiad (the same as 5, with a syncopated Logaedic Dipody interposed):—

\[ \text{tu né quaēslēris — scūrē nēfās — quēm mihi, quēm tībī. — Hor.} \]

7. Lesser Sapphic (Logaedic Pentapody, with dactyl in the third place):—

\[ \text{intēgér vitāe scēlērisquē pūrās. — Hor.} \]

Or in English:—

Brilliant hōpes, all wōven in gōrgeous tīsśes. — Longfellow.

8. Greater Sapphic (Third Glyconic; First Pherecratic):—

\[ \text{té dēōs ērō Sŷbārīn | eūr prōpērās āmándō. — Hor.} \]

9. Lesser Alcaic (Logaedic Tetrapody, two irrational dactyls, two trochees):—

\[ \text{vīrgiībūs pūērisquē cāntō. — Hor.} \]
10. Greater Alcaic (Logoeic Pentapody, catalectic, with anacrusis, and dactyl in the third place, — compare Lesser Sapphic): —
|| ∵ ∴ | ≤ u | ≤ > || ≤ ≤ u | ≤ u | ≤ u | ≤ ≤ ∴ ||
iūstuim ét tēnācem || prōpositū virūm. — Hor.

Note. — Only the above logoeic forms are employed by Horace.

11. Phaëcean (Logoeic Pentapody, with dactyl in the second place): —
|| ∴ > | ≤ ≤ u | ≤ ≤ u | ≤ ≤ u | ≤ ≤ u ||
quaeānam té mālā méns, mīsēllī Rāvīdi,
āgit praecipītum in mēōs iāmbōs? — Catull. xi.

In English: —
Görgeous flowerets in the sunlight shining. — Longfellow.

|| ∴ ≤ | ≤ ≤ u | ≤ ≤ u | ≤ | ≤ ≤ ∴ | ≤ ≤ u | ≤ | ≤ | ≤ ≤ ∴ ||
ō Cōlōnīā quaē cúpis || pōnte lūdērē lōngō. — Catull. xvii.

METRES OF HORACE

626. The Odes of Horace include nineteen varieties of stanza. These are: —

1. Alcaic, consisting of two Greater Alcaics (10), one Trochaic Dimeter with anacrusis, and one Lesser Alcaic (9)\(^1\): —

iūstuium ét tēnācem || prōpositū virūm
nōn cīviūm ārdor || prāva iūbentīum,
nōn vūltus īnstantīs tyrānnī
mēne quātūt solīdā, nequeē Aūstēr. — Od. iii. 3.

(Found in Od. i. 9, 16, 17, 26, 27, 29, 31, 34, 35, 37; ii. 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20; iii. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 17, 21, 23, 26, 29; iv. 4, 9, 14, 15.)

Note. — The Alcaic Strophe is named after the Greek poet Alceus of Lesbos, and was a special favorite with Horace, of whose Odes thirty-seven are in this form. It is sometimes called the Horatian Stanza.

2. Sapphic (minor), consisting of three Lesser Sapphics (7) and one Adonic (3): —

īām satis terrīs || nīvis atque dīrae
grāndīns misīt || pater ēt rubēnte
dēxterā sacrās || faciulātus ārcīs
terrīt urbēm. — Od. i. 2.

(Found in Od. i. 2, 10, 12, 20, 22, 25, 30, 32, 38; ii. 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 16; iii. 8, 11, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27; iv. 2, 6, 11; Carm. Saec.)

\(^1\) The figures refer to the foregoing list (§ 625).
Note.—The Sapphic Stanza is named after the poetess Sappho of Lesbos, and was a great favorite with the ancients. It is used by Horace in twenty-five Odes—more frequently than any other except the Alcaic.

3. Sapphic (major), consisting of one Aristophanic (2) and one Greater Sapphic (8):
   Lúdia dú, per ómna, 
   té deós óró, Sybarín || cùr properás amánde. —Od. i. 8.

4. Asclepiadean I (minor), consisting of Lesser Asclepiadics (5):
   exégí monumentum || aère perénníus 
   régálisque sitú || pyramiúm altiúr. —Od. iii. 30.
   (Found in Od. i. 1; iii. 30; iv. 8.)

5. Asclepiadean II, consisting of one Glyconic (1) and one Lesser Asclepiadic (5):
   návis quaé tibi créditum 
   débés Végiliúm, || finibus Átticís 
   réddas incolumém, precór, 
   ét servés animae || dímidium meae. —Od. i. 5.
   (Found in Od. i. 3, 13, 19, 36; iii. 9, 15, 19, 24, 25, 28; iv. 1, 3.)

6. Asclepiadean III, consisting of three Lesser Asclepiadics (5) and one Glyconic (1):
   quis désáderió || sit pudor aút modús 
   tám carí capitís? || præcipe lágubris 
   cántús, Mélpomené, || cuf liquidám patér 
   vócem cúm cithará dedís. —Od. i. 24.
   (Found in Od. i. 6, 15, 24, 33; ii. 12; iii. 10, 16; iv. 5, 12.)

7. Asclepiadean IV, consisting of two Lesser Asclepiadics (5), one Pherecratic (4), and one Glyconic (1):
   ó fóns Bándusiaé || spléndidiór vítró, 
   dulcí digne meró, || nón sine flóribus, 
   crás dónāberis haédó 
   cui fróns turgentia córribus. —Od. iii. 13.
   (Found in Od. i. 5, 14, 21, 23; ii. 7; iii. 7, 13; iv. 13.)

8. Asclepiadean V (major), consisting of Greater Asclepiadics (6):
   tú nē quaésieris, || sére nefás || quem mihi, quem túf 
   finem dí derérfnt, || Leúconoé, || néc Babylóniós 
   téntrís numerós. —Od. i. 11.
   (Found in Od. i. 11, 18; iv. 10.)

9. Alcmanian, consisting of Dactylic Hexameter (§ 615) alternating with Tetrameter (§ 617. o). (Od. i. 7, 28; Epod. 12.)
10. Archilochian I, consisting of a Dactylic Hexameter alternating with a Dactylic Penthemim (see § 617. b). (Od. iv. 7.)
11. Archilochian IV, consisting of a Greater Archilochian (heptameter, § 622. 1), followed by Iambic Trimeter Catalectic (§ 618. d). The stanza consists of two pairs of verses:

\[ \text{solvitur ácris hiéns grátá vice || Vériis ét Favóni,} \\
\text{trahántique siccás || máchinaé carínás;} \\
\text{ác neque lám stabulis gaudét pecus, || aút arátor ígni,} \\
\text{nce práta cánís || álbicánt pruinís.} \text{— Od. i. 4.} \]

12. Iambic Trimeter alone (see § 618). (Epod. 17.)
13. Iambic Strophe (see § 618. a). (Epod. 1-10.)
14. Dactylic Hexameter alternating with Iambic Dimeter:

\[ \text{nóx erat, ét caeló || fulgébat lána serénó} \\
\text{intér minóra síderá,} \\
\text{cúm tū, máguorum || númer laesúra dórurn,} \\
\text{in vérba iúrábás meá.} \text{— Epod. 15. (So in Epod. 14.)} \]

15. Dactylic Hexameter with Iambic Trimeter (§ 618):

\[ \text{áltera iám teritúr || bellís cívilibus actás,} \\
\text{suís et ípsa Róma || víribus ruí.} \text{— Epod. 16.} \]

16. Verse of Four Lesser Ionics (§ 609. c. 2):

\[ \text{miseráem est || neque amórit || dare lúdum || neque dulci} \\
\text{mala víno || laver set exanimári || metuentís.} \text{— Od. iii. 12.} \]

17. Iambic Trimeter (§ 618); Dactylic Penthemim (§ 617. b); Iambic Dimeter:

\[ \text{Pettí, nihíl mo || sicut ánteá iuvat} \\
\text{scribere versiculós || amóre percúlsum graví.} \text{— Epod. 11.} \]

18. Dactylic Hexameter; Iambic Dimeter; Dactylic Penthemim (§ 617. b):

\[ \text{hórrida témpestás || caelúm contráxit, et Íubres} \\
\text{nivésque dédúcánt lovén; || núnc mare, núnc silúae} \ldots \\
\text{— Epod. 13.} \]

19. Trochaic Dimeter, Iambic Trimeter, each catalectic (see § 620. c).

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627. Other lyric poets use other combinations of the above-mentioned verses:

a. Glyconics with one Pherecratic (both imperfect):—

Diā|nae sūnūs | in igit
pūēl|ae et pūērž inte|grī:
Diā|nām, pūērž inte|grī pūēl|aequē cānā|mūs. —Catull. xxxiv.

b. Sapphics, in a series of single lines, closing with an Adonic:—

An mā|gis dǐ|ri trēmü|ére | Mànes
Hērcū|īnum? et vīsūm cānis | infē|rōrum
fūgit | ābrnpl|līs trēpl|dūs cātēnīs?
fāll|nūr: lae|tē vēnit | eccē | vūltū,
quēm tūlīt Pōe|ās; ēmē|risquē | tēla
gestāt | et nō|tās pōpā|lis phä|rētras


628. Other measures occur in various styles of poetry.

a. Anapaestic (§ 609. l. 2) verses of various lengths are found in dramatic poetry. The spondee, dactyl, or procelesmatic may be substituted for the anapaest:—

hēc lōmōst | omn|eum hōm|ium praē|cipūōs
vōlēptā|tibus ga|dīsquē ān|tēpōtēns.
la cōmnōdā quaē | cupī|ō ēvēnēunt,
quōd āgō | sūbīt, ād|secūē | secūtūr:
la ga|dīam sūp|pēdīat. —Pl. Trin. 1115-1119.

b. Bacchicae (§ 609. d. 4) verses (five-timed) occur in the dramatic poets, —very rarely in Terence, more commonly in Plautus, —either in verses of two feet (Dimeter) or of four (Tetrameter). They are treated very freely, as are
all measures in early Latin. The long syllables may be resolved, or the
molossus (three longs) substituted:

\[
\text{multás rēs | sīmūā in | mēō cor|dē vōrsō,}
\text{multum in | cógōtándō | dōlōrem in|dipiscōr.}
\text{ēgōmēt mē | cōgō ét māiōcr̃̄ ét dēfātigō;}
\text{māgister | mīni ēxer|cētor ānīmūs núnc est.}
\]

— Pl. Trin. 223-226.

c. Cretic measures (§ 609. d. 1) occur in the same manner as the Bac-
chiae, with the same substitutions. The last foot is usually incomplete:

\[
\text{āmōr āmōcēs mēhi | nē fūs | ūmquām.}
\text{hīs ēgō | dē ārtibus | grātiam | fācīō.}
\text{mī ēgō | is|tōs mōrōr | iāēcēōs | mōrēs.—id. 267, 293, 297.}
\]

d. Saturnian Verse. In early Latin is found a rude form of verse, not
borrowed from the Greek like the others, but as to the precise nature of
which scholars are not agreed.\(^1\)

1. According to one view the verse is based on quantity, is composed of
six feet, and is divided into two parts by a cæsura before the fourth thesis.
Each thesis may consist of a long syllable or of two short ones, each arsis
of a short syllable, a long syllable, or two short syllables; but the arsis,
except at the beginning of the verse and before the cæsura, is often entirely
suppressed, though rarely more than once in the same verse:

\[
\text{dābūnt mālum Mētēllī | Naēvīō pōētæ.}
\]

2. According to another theory the Saturnian is made up, without regard
to quantity, of alternating accented and unaccented syllables; but for any
unaccented syllable two may be substituted, and regularly are so substituted
in the second foot of the verse:

\[
\text{dābūnt mālum Metēllī | Naēvīō pōētæ.}
\]

**EARLY PROSODY**

629. The prosody of the earlier poets differs in several re-
spects from that of the later.\(^2\)

a. At the end of words s, being only feebly sounded, does not make
position with a following consonant; it sometimes disappeared altogether.
This usage continued in all poets till Cicero’s time (§ 15. 7).

\(^1\) The two principal theories only are given. There are numerous variations, par-
\[\text{ticularly of the second theory here stated.}\]

\(^2\) Before the Latin language was used in literature, it had become much changed
by the loss of final consonants and the shortening of final syllables under the influence
of accent. In many cases this change was still in progress in the time of the early
poets. This tendency was arrested by the study of grammar and by literature, but
shows itself again in the Romance languages.
b. A long syllable immediately preceded or followed by the ictus may be shortened (*iambic shortening*): —

1. In a word of two syllables of which the first is short (this effect remained in a few words like putá, cáve, vále, víde, egó, modó, duó): —
   ábí (Ter. Ph. 59); bónī (id. 516); hōmō suávis (id. 411).

2. If it is either a monosyllable or the first syllable of a word which is preceded by a short monosyllable: —
   sēd hās tabellās (Pl. Pers. 195); quīd hāc nunc (id. Epid. 157); pēr EMPLIVUM (Ter. Ph. 707); ēgo óstēnderem (id. 793).

3. When preceded by a short initial syllable in a word of more than three syllables: —
   vēnūstātis (Ter. Hec. 848); sēnēctātem (id. Ph. 434); Sŷrācūsās (Pl. Merc. 37); ānīcūtia (id. Ps. 1263).

c. In a few isolated words position is often disregarded. Such are ìlle, ìmmo, ìnde, ìste, ìmnis, ìmpe, quippe, ìnde.

d. The original long quantity of some final syllables is retained.

1. The ending -or is retained long in nouns with long stem-vowel (original r-stems or original s-stems): —
   módo quōm díct in mē fingerēbās ódium nōn uxor erám (Pl. Asin. 927).
   śta mā in pector ētque córde fácit amōr incéndium (id. Merc. 500).
   ētque quántō nóx fuátī longūr hic próxumā (id. Am. 548).

2. The termination -es (-itis) is sometimes retained long, as in múēs, superstēs.

3. All verb-communications in -r, -s, and -t may be retained long where the vowel is elsewhere long in inflection: —
   régrediōr andisē mé (Pl. Capt. 1023); átquē ut qui fucīris et qui nunc (id. 248); mé nōmināt haec (id. Epid. iv. 1. 8); faciāt ut sēmper (id. Poen. ii. 42); infuscābāt, anābō (creticas, id. Cist. i. 21); qui ānēt (id. Merc. 1021); ut fit in bēllō cápitur álter fīlius (id. Capt. 25); tibi sīt ad mé revisās (id. Truc. ii. 4. 79).

e. *Hiatus* (§ 612. g) is allowed somewhat freely, especially at a pause in the sense, or when there is a change of speaker.3

---

1 Cf. ambō (also a dual, p. 59, footnote), in which the 3 is retained because of the length of the first syllable.

2 Scholars are not yet agreed upon the principle or the extent of this irregularity.

3 The extent of this license is still a question among scholars; but in the present state of texts it must sometimes be allowed.
MISCELLANEOUS

Reckoning of Time

630. The Roman Year was designated, in earlier times, by the names of the Consuls; but was afterwards reckoned from the building of the City (ab urbe condita, anno urbis conditae), the date of which was assigned by Varro to a period corresponding with B.C. 753. In order, therefore, to reduce Roman dates to those of the Christian era, the year of the city is to be subtracted from 753: e.g. A.D.C. 691 (the year of Cicero's consulship) corresponds to B.C. 63.

Before Caesar's reform of the Calendar (B.C. 46), the Roman year consisted of 355 days: March, May, Quintilis (July), and October having each 31 days, February having 28, and each of the remainder 29. As this calendar year was too short for the solar year, the Romans, in alternate years, at the discretion of the pontifices, inserted a month of varying length (mēnsis intercalāris) after February 23, and omitted the rest of February. The "Julian year," by Caesar's reformed Calendar, had 365 days, divided into months as at present. Every fourth year the 24th of February (vr. Kal. Mart.) was counted twice, giving 29 days to that month: hence the year was called bisextilis. The month Quintilis received the name Iūlius (July), in honor of Julius Caesar; and Sextilis was called Augustus (August), in honor of his successor. The Julian year (see below) remained unchanged till the adoption of the Gregorian Calendar (A.D. 1582), which omits leap-year three times in every four hundred years.

631. Dates, according to the Roman Calendar, are reckoned as follows:—

a. The first day of the month was called Kalendae (Calends).

Note.—Kalendae is derived from calāre, to call,—the Calends being the day on which the pontiffs publicly announced the New Moon in the Comitia Calāta. This they did, originally, from actual observation.

b. On the fifteenth day of March, May, July, and October, but the thirteenth of the other months, were the Īdūs (Ides), the day of Full Moon.

c. On the seventh day of March, May, July, and October, but the fifth of the other months, were the Nōnæ (Nones or ninths).

d. From the three points thus determined, the days of the month were reckoned backwards as so many days before the Nones, the Ides, or the Calends. The point of departure was, by Roman custom, counted in the reckoning, the second day being three days before, etc. This gives the following rule for determining the date:—

If the given date be Calends, add two to the number of days in the month preceding,—if Nones or Ides, add one to that of the day on which they fall,—and from the number thus ascertained subtract the given date. Thus,—

Note.—The name of the month appears as an adjective in agreement with Kalendae, Nōnæ, Idīs.
For peculiar constructions in dates, see § 424. g.

c. The days of the Roman month by the Julian Calendar, as thus ascertained, are given in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>January</th>
<th>February</th>
<th>March</th>
<th>April</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. iii.</td>
<td>iii.</td>
<td>v.</td>
<td>iii.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. prid.</td>
<td>prid.</td>
<td>iv.</td>
<td>prid.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. vi.</td>
<td>vi.</td>
<td>vi.</td>
<td>vi.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. v.</td>
<td>v.</td>
<td>v.</td>
<td>v.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. iv.</td>
<td>iv.</td>
<td>iv.</td>
<td>iv.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. iii.</td>
<td>iii.</td>
<td>iii.</td>
<td>iii.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. prid.</td>
<td>prid.</td>
<td>iv.</td>
<td>prid.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. xviii.</td>
<td>xv.</td>
<td>Idūs Mārtiae</td>
<td>xvii.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. xvi.</td>
<td>xii.</td>
<td>xvi.</td>
<td>xiv.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. xv.</td>
<td>xi.</td>
<td>xvi.</td>
<td>xiv.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. xiv.</td>
<td>x.</td>
<td>xvi.</td>
<td>xiii.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. xii.</td>
<td>ix.</td>
<td>x.</td>
<td>xii.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. xii.</td>
<td>ix.</td>
<td>x.</td>
<td>x.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. xi.</td>
<td>viii.</td>
<td>ix.</td>
<td>x.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. x.</td>
<td>vii.</td>
<td>viii.</td>
<td>x.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. ix.</td>
<td>vi.</td>
<td>viii.</td>
<td>ix.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. viii.</td>
<td>v.</td>
<td>viii.</td>
<td>viii.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. vi.</td>
<td>iii.</td>
<td>vi.</td>
<td>vii.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. v.</td>
<td>prid.</td>
<td>v.</td>
<td>vi.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. iv.</td>
<td>[prid. Kal. Mārt. in leap-year, the vi.</td>
<td>iv.</td>
<td>iv.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. iii.</td>
<td>kal. (24th) being counted twice.</td>
<td>iii.</td>
<td>iii.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. prid.</td>
<td>(So Aug., Dec.)</td>
<td>prid.</td>
<td>(So May, July, Oct.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—Observe that a date before the Julian Reform (B.C. 46) is to be found not by the above table, but by taking the earlier reckoning of the number of days in the month.

Measures of Value, etc.

632. The money of the Romans was in early times wholly of copper. The unit was the as, which was nominally a pound in weight, but actually somewhat less. It was divided into twelve unciae (ounces).
In the third century B.C. the as was gradually reduced to one-half of its original value. In the same century silver coins were introduced,—the dénarius and the sestertius. The denarius = 10 asses; the sestertius = $2 \frac{1}{2}$ asses.

633. The Sestertius was probably introduced at a time when the as had been so far reduced that the value of the new coin ($2 \frac{1}{2}$ asses) was equivalent to the original value of the as. Hence, the Sestertius (usually abreviated to HS or HS) came to be used as the unit of value, and nummus, coin, often means simply sestertius. As the reduction of the standard went on, the sestertius became equivalent to 4 asses. Gold was introduced later, the aureus being equal to 100 sesterces. The approximate value of these coins is seen in the following table:—

\[
\begin{align*}
2 \frac{1}{2} \text{ asses} & = 1 \text{ sestertius or nummus, value nearly } 5 \text{ cents (}2 \frac{1}{2}\text{d.}) .
10 \text{ asses or } 4 \text{ sestertii} & = 1 \text{ denarius .} & 20 \text{ "} & = (10 \text{d.}) .
1000 \text{ sestertii} & = 1 \text{ sestertium .} & \text{ "} & = \$50.00 \text{ (£10).}
\end{align*}
\]

**Note.**—The word sestertius is a shortened form of sémis-tertius, the third one, a half. The abbreviation HS or HS = duo et sémis, two and a half.

634. The sestertium (probably originally the genitive plural of sestertius depending on mille) was a sum of money, not a coin; the word is inflected regularly as a neuter noun: thus, tria sestertia = $150.00.

When sestertium is combined with a numeral adverb, centēna milia, hundreds of thousands, is to be understood: thus deciēns sestertium (deciēns HS) = deciēns centēna milia sestertium = $50,000. Sestertium in this combination may also be inflected: deciēns sestertii, sestertio, etc.

In the statement of large sums sestertium is often omitted as well as centēna milia: thus sexāgiēns (Rosc. Am. 2) signifies, sexāgiēns [centēna milia sestertium] = 6,000,000 sesterces = $300,000 (nearly).

635. In the statement of sums of money in Roman numerals, a line above the number indicates thousands; lines above and at the sides also, hundred-thousands. Thus HS Dc = 600 sestertii; HS Dc = 600,000 sestertii, or 600 sestertia; HS |DC| = 60,000,000 sestertii, or 60,000 sestertia.

636. The Roman Measures of Length are the following:—

- 12 inches (unciae) = 1 Roman Foot (pēs: 11.65 English inches).
- 1½ Feet = 1 Cubit (cubitum). — 2½ Feet = 1 Step (gradus).
- 5 Feet = 1 Pace (passus). — 1000 Paces (mille passuum) = 1 Mile.
§§ 635-638] MEASURES OF WEIGHT AND CAPACITY

The Roman mile was equal to 4850 English feet.

The iūgerum, or unit of measure of land, was an area of 240 (Roman) feet long and 120 broad; a little less than ⅔ of an English acre.

637. The Measures of Weight are —

12 unciae (ounces) = one pound (libra, about 2.4 lb. avoirdupois).

Fractional parts (weight or coin) are —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>⅛</th>
<th>uncia.</th>
<th>⅕</th>
<th>quincunx.</th>
<th>⅔</th>
<th>dōdrāns.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>⅝</td>
<td>sextāns.</td>
<td>⅗</td>
<td>šemis.</td>
<td>⅖</td>
<td>dextāns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>¾</td>
<td>quadrāns.</td>
<td>⅘</td>
<td>septuncx.</td>
<td>⅕</td>
<td>deuncx.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>⅚</td>
<td>triēns.</td>
<td>⅘</td>
<td>bēs or bēsis.</td>
<td>⅛</td>
<td>as.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Talent (talentum) was a Greek weight (ταλαντον) = 60 librae.

638. The Measures of Capacity are —

12 cyathī = 1 sextarius (nearly a pint).
16 sexturī = 1 modius (peck).
6 sexturī = 1 congius (3 quarts, liquid measure).
8 congiī = 1 amphora (6 gallons).
GLOSSARY

OF TERMS USED IN GRAMMAR, RHETORIC, AND PROSODY

639. Many of these terms are pedantic names given by early grammarians to forms of speech used naturally by writers who were not conscious that they were using figures at all— as, indeed, they were not. Thus when one says, "It gave me no little pleasure," he is unconsciously using *litotes*; when he says, "John went up the street, James down," *antithesis*; when he says, "High as the sky," *hyperbole*. Many were given under a mistaken notion of the nature of the usage referred to. Thus *mēδ* and *tēδ* (§ 143. a. n.) were supposed to owe their *ἀργογγέ*, *σῶμπσ* its *π* to *epenthesis*. Such a sentence as "See my coat, how well it fits!" was supposed to be an irregularity to be accounted for by *prolepsis*.

Many of these, however, are convenient designations for phenomena which often occur; and most of them have an historic interest, of one kind or another.

640. Grammatical Terms

*Aνακολοθυν*: a change of construction in the same sentence, leaving the first part broken or unfinished.

*Aναστροφή*: inversion of the usual order of words.

*Aπόδοσις*: the conclusion of a conditional sentence (see *Prota*sis).

*Ἀρχαίασμα*: an adoption of old or obsolete forms.

*Aσυνδετόν*: omission of conjunctions (§ 323. b).

*Βαρβαρισμός*: adoption of foreign or unauthorized forms.

*Βραχυλόγυ*: brevity of expression.

*Crasis*: contraction of two vowels into one (§ 15. 3).

*Ελλιπσις*: omission of a word or words necessary to complete the sense.

*Ενάλλαγμα*: substitution of one word or form for another.

*Επένθεσις*: insertion of a letter or syllable.

*Hellenism*: use of Greek forms or constructions.

*Hενδιάλυτος* (*ἐν διά δόνων*): the use of two nouns, with a conjunction, instead of a single modified noun.

*Hυπαλλάγμα*: interchange of constructions.

*Hυστέρων πρότερον*: a reversing of the natural order of ideas.

This term was applied to cases where the natural sequence of events is violated in language because the later event is of more importance than the earlier and so comes first to the mind. This was supposed to be an artificial embellishment in Greek, and so was imitated in Latin. It is still found in artless narrative; cf. "Fred and Born in a Brier Bush" (Uncle Remus).

*Metathesis*: transposition of letters in a word.

*Paragoge*: addition of a letter or letters to the end of a word.

*Parenthesis*: insertion of a phrase interrupting the construction.
Periphrasis: a roundabout way of expression (circumlocution).

Pleonasm: the use of needless words.

Polysyndeton: the use of an unnecessary number of copulative conjunctions.

Prelepsis: the use of a word in the clause preceding the one where it would naturally appear (anticipation).

Protasis: a clause introduced by a conditional expression (if, when, whoever), leading to a conclusion called the Apodosis (§ 512).

Syncope: omission of a letter or syllable from the middle of a word.

Synesis (construunt ad sensum): agreement of words according to the sense, and not the grammatical form (§ 280. a).

Tmesis: the separation of the two parts of a compound word by other words (cutting).

This term came from the earlier separation of prepositions (originally adverbs) from the verbs with which they were afterwards joined; so in per eaestor seitus par, a very fine boy, egad! As this was supposed to be intentional, it was ignorantly imitated in Latin; as in cere-commintur-brum (Ennius).

Zeugma: the use of a verb with two different words, to only one of which it strictly applies (yoking).

641. Rhetorical Figures

Allegory: a narrative in which abstract ideas figure as circumstances, events, or persons, in order to enforce some moral truth.

Alliteration: the use of several words that begin with the same sound.

Analogy: argument from resemblances.

Anaphora: the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clauses (§ 598. f).

Antithesis: opposition, or contrast of parts (for emphasis: § 598. f).

Antonomasia: use of a proper for a common noun, or the reverse:

\[ \text{sint Maecenatès, nón deænut, Flaccæ, Marônès, so there be patrons (like Mæ-} \]
\[ \text{cenas), poets (like Virgil) will not be lacking, Flaccus (Mart. viii. 56. 5).} \]
\[ \text{illa furia et pestis, that fury and plague (i.e. Clodius); Homœomastix, scourge of} \]
\[ \text{Homer (i.e. Zollus).} \]

Aposiopesis: an abrupt pause for rhetorical effect.

Catachresis: a harsh metaphor (abāstō, misuse of words).

Chiasmus: a reversing of the order of words in corresponding pairs of phrases (§ 598. f).

Climax: a gradual increase of emphasis, or enlargement of meaning.

Euphemism: the mild expression of a painful or repulsive idea:

\[ \text{si quid ei acciderit, if anything happens to him (i.e. if he dies).} \]

Euphony: the choice of words for their agreeable sound.

Hyperbaton: violation of the usual order of words.
**Hyperbole**: exaggeration for rhetorical effect.

**Irony**: the use of words which naturally convey a sense contrary to what is meant.

**Litotes**: the affirming of a thing by denying its contrary (§ 326. c).

**Metaphor**: the figurative use of words, indicating an object by some resemblance.

**Metonymy**: the use of the name of one thing to indicate some kindred thing.

**Onomatopoeia**: a fitting of sound to sense in the use of words.

**Oxymoron**: the use of contradictory words in the same phrase:

*insaniens sapientia*, foolish wisdom.

**Paronomasia**: the use of words of like sound.

**Prosopopoeia**: personification.

**Simile**: a figurative comparison (usually introduced by like, or as).

**Synchysis**: the interlocked order (§ 598. b).

**Synecdoche**: the use of the name of a part for the whole, or the reverse.

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**642. Terms of Prosody**

**Acatalectic**: complete, as a verse or a series of feet (§ 612. a).

**Anaclasis**: breaking up of rhythm by substituting different measures.

**Anacrusis**: the unaccented syllable or syllables preceding a verse (§ 608. g).

**Antistrophe**: a series of verses corresponding to one which has gone before (cf. strophe).

**Arsis**: the unaccented part of a foot (§ 611).

**Basis**: a single foot preceding the regular movement of a verse.

**Caesura**: the ending of a word within a metrical foot (§ 611. b).

**Catalectic**: see Catalexis.

**Catalexis**: loss of a final syllable (or syllables) making the series catalectic (incomplete, § 612. a).

**Contraction**: the use of one long syllable for two short (§ 610).

**Correption**: shortening of a long syllable, for metrical reasons.

**Diacesis**: the coincidence of the end of a foot with the end of a word within the verse (§ 611. c).

**Dialysis**: the use of *i* (consonant) and *v* as vowels (*siüa = silva*, § 603. f. n. 4).

**Diastole**: the lengthening of a short syllable by emphasis (§ 612. b).

**Dimeter**: consisting of two like measures.

**Dipody**: consisting of two like feet.

**Distich**: a system or series of two verses.

**Ecthripsis**: the suppression of a final syllable in -m before a word beginning with a vowel (§ 612. f).

**Elision**: the cutting off of a final before a following initial vowel (§ 612. e).

**Heptameter**: consisting of seven feet.
Hexameter: consisting of six measures.
Hexapody: consisting of six feet.
Hiaust: the meeting of two vowels without contraction or elision (§ 612. g).
Ictus: the metrical accent (§ 611. a).
Irrational: not conforming strictly to the unit of time (§ 609. e).
Logaeologic: varying in rhythm, making the effect resemble prose (§ 623).
Monometer: consisting of a single measure.
Mora: the unit of time, equal to one short syllable (§ 608. a).
Pentameter: consisting of five measures.
Pentapody: consisting of five feet.
Pentemimeris: consisting of five half feet.
Protraction: extension of a syllable beyond its normal length (608. c).
Resolution: the use of two short syllables for one long (§ 610).
Strrophe: a series of verses making a recognized metrical whole (stanza),
which may be indefinitely repeated.
Synaesesis: i (vowel) and u becoming consonants before a vowel (§ 603.
c. n., f. n. 4).
Synallæpha: the same as elision (§ 612. e. n.).
Synapheia: elision between two verses (§ 612. e. n.).
Syncope: loss of a short vowel.
Synizesis: the running together of two vowels without full contraction (§603.
c. n.).
Systole: shortening of a syllable regularly long.
Tetrameter: consisting of four measures.
Tetrapody: consisting of four feet.
Tetrastich: a system of four verses.
Thesis: the accented part of a foot (§ 611).
Trimeter: consisting of three measures.
Tripody: consisting of three feet.
Tristich: a system of three verses.
INDEX OF VERBS

Regular verbs of the First, Second, and Fourth Conjugations are given only in special cases. Compounds are usually omitted when they are conjugated like the simple verbs. The figures after the verbs indicate the conjugation. References are to sections. For classified lists of important verbs see §209 (First Conjugation), §210 (Second Conjugation), §211 (Third Conjugation), §212 (Fourth Conjugation), §§190, 191 (Deponents), §192 (Semi-Deponents).

ab-ðō, 3, -dīē, -ditum, 209. a, n.
ab-ēō, see eo.
ab-icīō, 3, -īētum [iacō].
ab-īgō, 3, -ēītum [agō].
ab-ūmō, 3, -īūm, —
ab-ūlō, 2, -īē, -itum.
ab-ūlēō, 3, -ēī, — [aboleō].
ab-ripīō, 3, -ripī, -reptum [rapīō].
ab-condō, 3, -dītum [condō].
ab-sītō, 3, -sīūm, —
ab-sum, abesse, ātūm, (āstatus).
ac-cendō, 3, -cendī, -censum.
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ac-cīō, 3, -cīdī, — [cadō].
ac-cīō, 3, -cīdī, -cīsum [cadō].
ac-cīō, 4, reg. [cīō].
ac-cipīō, 3, -cepī, -ceptum [capō].
ac-cōbō, 3, -mī, —
ac-creō, see creō.
ac-cumbō, 3, -cumbī, -itum.
ac-currō, 3, -currī (-caecurrī), -cursum.
ac-cersō, 3, -acēūm, — [ca-].
ac-quirō, 3, -quisīvī, -quisīsum [quāerō].
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ad-ībō, 2, -āmī, -atum [habeō].
ad-īgō, 3, -ēgī, -ectum [agō].
ad-imō, 3, -ēmī, -emītem [emo].
ad-īpīscor, 3, -eptum.
ad-imō, 3, -mī, —
ad-ōleō, 2, -āmī, —
ad-ōlēō, 3, -ēvī, -altum.
ad-ōsēō, 3, -ōsī, -sensus.
ad-īdō, 2, -ādī, -sectum [sedeō].
ad-īdō, 3, -sedī, —
ad-īspīrgō, 3, -spersī, -spersum [spargō].
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af-fīcō, 3, -fīēī, -fectum [facēō].
af-fīgō, 3, -xī, -sectum.
ag-gredīō, 3, -gressus [gradior].
agnōsēō, 3, -ōvī, aghitūm [noscō].
agō, 3, ēgī, -ectum. [For regular comp., see ab-īgō; for others, see ēgō, circum-, per-]
ātō, defect., 206. a.
al-ēō, 3, -mī, -alītum.
al-gēō, 2, -ālī, —
al-gēō, 3, -ālī, -alītum.
al-legō, 3, -ēgī, -ectum.
al-icīō, 3, -lexī, —
al-ō, 3, ālī, alītum (alīnum).
alb-īgō, 3, — [agō].
albīō, -ere, -ēī (-īvī), -itum (ambībat).
amīō, 4, amīxī (-ēmī), amīctum.
amīō, 180, 184; amārīm, amāssē, amāssem, 181. a; amāssīs, 183. 5.
amō, 3, inxī, —
ante-cellō, 3, —, —
ante-stō, 1, -stēī, —
ante-stāō, 1, -stāī, —
aperio, 4, aprērū, aprērtum.
apīscor, 3, aptus [ad-īpīscor].
ap Pellō, 3, -pali, -pulsam.
ap-pētō, 3, -petīvī (-ī), -itum.
ap-prēmō, 3, -pressī, -pressum [premō].
arcēō, 2, -āmī, — [co-areō].
arcēō (arecso), 3, -īvī, arcēssītum.
ardeo, 2, ārsī, (ārsīsus).
ardeō, 3, ārī, —
ārēō, 2, —, —
arēō, 3, -ārī, —
arō, 3, -āmī, -ātum.
ar-rīgō, 3, -rēvī, -rectum [rogō].
ar-rīpīscor, 3, -mī, -reptum [rapīō].
a-redō, 3, -di, -scēsum [scendō].
a-sperīgo, see ad-sperīgō.
a-spicīō, 3, -exī, -sectum [spicīō].
at-tendo, 3, -dī, -sum.
at-theō, 2, -timī, -tentum [teneō].
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bullūtiō, 4, —.
bātūō, 3, -ūi, —.
bīūō, 3, bīūi, (pōtūm).
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calsēō, 3, -ūi, —.
calleō, 2, -ūi, —.
calveō, 2, —, —.
carēō, 2, -ūi, —.
candēsēō, 3, -candui, —.
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-cendo, 3, -cendi, -cessum (only in comp, as in-cendo).
cēnēsō, 2, -ūi, cēnāsum.
cerno, 3, crēvi, -crētūm.
cieō (-cēō), cicēre (-cēre), civī, cĭtum (-citum) [ac-cieō, con-, ex-cieō].
cingō, 3, cīnixī, cinctum.
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LATIN AUTHORS AND THEIR WORKS
CITED IN THIS BOOK

Note.—In the citations the names Caesar, Cicero, Sallust (with Inugurtha), and Virgil are not generally given. Taus, "B. G." refers to Caesar's Bellum Gallicum; "Fam." to Cicero's letters ad Familiares; "Iug." to Sallust's Inugurtha; "Aen." to Virgil's Aenid, etc.

Ap., Apuleius (a.d. 125-?):
Met., Metamorphoses.
—, B. Afr., Bellum Africam.

Caesar (b.c. 100-44):
B. C., Bellum Civile.
B. G., Bellum Gallicum.

Cato (b.c. 234-149):
de M., de Moribus.
R. K., de Re Rustica.

Catull., Catullus (b.c. 85-54).

Cic., Cicero (b.c. 106-43):
Ad Her., [ad Herennium].
Arch., pro Archia.
Att., ad Atticen.
Balb., pro Balbo.
Brut., Brutus de claris Oratoribus.
Caec., pro Cæcina.
Cæcili., Divinatio in Cæcilium.
Cælius, pro M. Cælio.
Cat., in Catilinam.
Cat. M., Cato Maior (de Senectute).

Cic. Lael., Laelius de Amicitia.
Leg. Agr., de Lege Agraria.
Legs., de Legibus.
Lig., pro Ligario.
Manil., pro Lege Manilia.
Mare., pro Marcello.
Mil., pro Milone.
Mar., pro Murena.
N. D., de Natura Deorum.
Off., de Officiis.
Or., Orator.
Par., Paradoxus.
Part. Or., de Partitions Oratoria.
Phil., Philippicae.
Planc., pro Plancio.
Pison., in Pisonem.
Prov. Cons., de Provinciis Consularibus.
Q. Fr., ad Q. Fratrem.
Quint., pro Quinctio.
Rabir., pro Rabirio.
Rab. Post., pro Rabirio Postumo.
Rep., de Re Publica.
Rose. Am., pro Roscio Amerino.
Rose. Com., pro Roscio Comedo.
Scene., pro Scauro.
Sext., pro Sestio.
Sull., pro Sulla.
Tin., Tineaeus (de Universo).
Top., Topica.
Tull., pro Tatilio.
Tusce., Tusculanae Disputationes.
Vat., in Vatium.


Clau., Claudianus (abt. a.d. 400):
iv C. H., de Quarto Consulatu Honorii.

Em., Ennius (b.c. 239-160).

Gell., A. Gellius (d. a.d. 175).

Hirtius (d. b.c. 43):
? B. Al., Bellum Alexandrinum.

Hor., Horace (b.c. 65-8):
A. P., de Arte Poetica.
C. S., Carmen Suceulare.

Ep., Epistles.
Epop. Épodes.
Od. Ódes.
S. Satires.

Iust., Justinus (abt. a.d. 150).

Iux., Juvenal (abt. a.d. 60-140).

Liv., Livy (b.c. 59-a.d. 17).

Luer., Lucretius (b.c. 96-55).

Mart., Martial (a.d. 43-104):
Ep., Epigrams.

Nep., Nepos (b.c. 99-24):
Ages., Agislaus.
Alc., Alcibiades.
Att., Atticen.
Dat., Datames.
Dion., Dion.

Epam., Epaminondas.
Emm., Eumenes.
Hana., Harmibal.
Milt., Mitilides.
Paus., Pausanias.
Them., Themiotes.

Timotheus.
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Ov., Ovid (b.c.43-A.D.17):  
A. A., Ars Amatoria.  
F., Fasti.  
H., Heroides.  
M., Metamorphoses.  
Pont., Epistulae ex Ponto.  
Trist., Tristia.  
Pers., Persius (a.d. 34-62):  
Sat., Satires.  
Phaed., Phaedrus (a.b. 40).  
Pl., Plautus (b.c. 254-184):  
Am., Amphitruo.  
Asin., Asinaria.  
Aul., Aulularia.  
Bac., Baccalaeus.  
Capt., Captivi.  
Cist., Cistellaria.  
Cure., Cureti.  
Epid., Epichyes.  
Men., Menaceion.  
Merc., Mercator.  
Mil., Miles Gloriosus.  
Most., Mostellaria.  
Pers., Persa.  
Poet., Poenulus.  
Ps., Pseudolus.  
Rad., Rudens.  
Stich., Stichus.  
Trin., Trinurnan.  
Truc., Truculentus.  
Plin., Pliny, senior (a.d. 23-79):  
H. N., Historia Naturalis.  
Plin., Pliny, junior (a.d. 62-113):  
Ep., Epistles.  
Prop., Propertius (b.c. 49-15).  
Q. C., Q. Curtius (a.b. 50).  
Quiu., Quintilian (a.b. 35-95).  
Sall., Sallust (b.c. 86-34):  
Cat., Catilina.  
Iug., Iugurtha.  
——, S. C. de Bac., Senatus Consultum de Bœceanumibus (b.c. 186).  
Sen., Seneca (b.c. 4-a.d. 65):  
Dial., Dialogues.  
Ep., Epistles.  
Herc. Fur., Hercules Furens.  
Herc. Oet., Hercules Oetaeus.  
Med., Medea.  
Sen., Q. N., Quaestiones Naturales.  
Sil., Silius Italicus (a.b. 101).  
Suet., Suetonius (a.b. 75-160):  
Aug., Augustus.  
Dom., Domitianus.  
Galb., Galba.  
Tae., Tacitus (a.b. 55-120):  
Agr., Agricola.  
Ann., Annales.  
H., Historiae.  
Ter., Terence (d. b.c. 159):  
Ad., Adelphi.  
And., Andria.  
Enn., Ennius.  
Haut., Hautontimorem.  
Hec., Hecyra.  
Ph., Phormio.  
Val., Valerius Maximus (a.b. 25).  
Varr., Varro (b.c. 116-27):  
R. R., de Re Rustica.  
Vell., Velleius Paterculus (a.b. 19-a.d. 31).  
Verg., Virgil (b.c. 70-19).  
Aen., Aeneid.  
Ecl., Eclogues.  
Georg., Georgics.
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